Adaptation of *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* to the tick vector is controlled by the
transcriptional regulator Tr1

Author list

EricaRose Warwick[1], Rachel Burt[3], Jeffrey T. Badigian[1], Daniel Howell[2], Kyle T. Swallow[2], Chloe
Leach[1], Azeza M. Falghoush[345], Dana K. Shaw[1], Ian T. Cadby[3], Jason M. Park[1]

[1]Department of Veterinary Microbiology and Pathology, Washington State University, Pullman,

Washington, USA

[2]Bristol Veterinary School, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK

[3]Washington Animal Disease Diagnostic Laboratory, Pullman, Washington, USA

[4]College of Sciences, Sirte University, Libya

[5]College of Medical Technology, Aljufra University, Libya

Corresponding Author: Jason M. Park jpark12@wsu.edu

Running Title:

Master regulator of *Anaplasma* adaptation to the tick

ABSTRACT

Rickettsial pathogens are strictly dependent on the cellular biology of their hosts for

survival and replication. Predominantly transmitted by blood-feeding arthropods, these vector-

borne pathogens are forced to adapt between the disparate environments of their mammalian

host and arthropod vector. To achieve this, the Rickettsial bacteria *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*

undergoes extensive transcriptional reprogramming with over 41% of its genes differentially

transcribed between mammals and *Ixodes scapularis* ticks. How the bacterium orchestrates this

dramatic transcriptional reprogramming is not understood. The gene *tr1* encodes a Helix-Turn-

Helix DNA-binding protein that is exclusively expressed during tick infection. Herein, we show

that *tr1* is essential for *A. phagocytophilum* survival in ticks and regulates the transcription of

other genes necessary to adapt to the arthropod vector. We demonstrate that Tr1 is a DNA-

binding protein and recognizes promotors of tick-specific genes in *A. phagocytophilum,*

including secreted effector *ateA*, alternate components of type IV secretion system (T4SS), and

membrane proteins. Our findings demonstrate that Tr1 is a master regulator of genes that are

critical for *A. phagocytophilum* adaptation to the tick.

Keywords:

Anaplasma

Anaplasma phagocytophilum

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Transcription factor

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INTRODUCTION

Rickettsial pathogens are strictly dependent on the cellular biology of their hosts for survival and replication, which is reflected by their small genomes and reduced metabolic capacities. Instead these bacteria have evolved factors to mediate host-pathogen interactions and manipulate the intracellular environment[1–4]. These include specialized surface proteins mediating contact and uptake into cells[2,3,5–9] and effector molecules injected through secretion systems to redirect host cell pathways[10–23]. The large majority of Rickettsial host-pathogen interactions are described in the context of mammalian infection[17,20–22,24,25]. However, since Rickettsial bacteria are predominantly transmitted by blood-feeding arthropods, these findings only explore half of the pathogen lifecycle[26]. Mammals and arthropods are separated by over 680 million years of evolution and, as such, present distinct environments that Rickettsial pathogens must adapt to survive intracellularly [27].

The most common Rickettsial pathogen in the United States, *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, is transmitted to humans, domestic animals, and wildlife by the tick *Ixodes scapularis*[28]. While in the mammalian host, *A. phagocytophilum* infects and replicates within circulating neutrophils. In the tick, the bacteria initially infect the digestive tract and then migrate to the salivary glands, where they will survive through the molt[29,30]. In response to the disparate biology between the mammalian host and tick vector[31], *A. phagocytophilum* undergoes extensive transcriptional reprogramming. Transcriptomic studies found that over 41% of *A. phagocytophilum* genes are differentially transcribed when comparing infected human monocytes and tick cells[32,33]. Indeed, Himar1 transposon disruption of host or vector specific *A. phagocytophilum*

genes reduces bacterial survival in the respective human or tick cell cultures[10,34–37].

Together, this suggests transcriptional reprogramming of *A. phagocytophilum* is

necessary for adaptation between the host and vector environments.

While both transcriptomics and proteomics have shown *A. phagocytophilum* and

other Rickettsial pathogens undergo extensive retooling during tick infections[5,32,33,38–42],

the regulatory mechanisms that control these dramatic shifts are not known. One gene,

tr1, encodes a putative Helix-Turn-Helix DNA-binding protein (Tr1). *tr1* was first noticed

due to its proximity to outer membrane protein (OMP) genes *omp_1X*, *omp_1N* and the

msp2 expression site[43,44], but its impact on this neighboring operon is not defined.

Strikingly, of all *A. phagocytophilum* genes *tr1* has the highest transcriptional specificity

for tick cell infection[32,33]. Herein, we demonstrate that *tr1* is essential for *A.*

phagocytophilum survival in tick cells, colonization of ticks *in vivo*, and expression of

many genes necessary for adaptation to the tick. Further, we demonstrate that Tr1 is a

DNA-binding protein and recognizes promotors of tick-specific genes in *A.*

phagocytophilum, including secreted effector *ateA*, alternate components of type IV

secretion system (T4SS), and membrane proteins. From this work we have identified

Tr1 as a master regulator of genes that are critical for *A. phagocytophilum* adaptation to

the tick.

RESULTS

Transcription of tr1 is specific to tick cell infection.

A. phagocytophilum HGE1 *tr1* transcription was quantified and compared

between bacteria cultured in the human monocyte-like HL60 cell line and embryonic tick

ISE6 cells. Consistent with previous tiling array reports, *tr1* transcription was >26 fold

higher during growth in tick ISE6 cells over the human HL60 cell line (**Fig 1a**), validating

that *tr1* expression is highly specific to growth in tick cells[32,33].

tr1 is necessary for A. phagocytophilum survival in tick cells.

The specificity of *tr1* transcription to ISE6 cell culture prompted us to test if *tr1* is

necessary for *A. phagocytophilum* adaptation to ticks. To examine this possibility, we

obtained a transposon mutant strain *tr1*::Himar1 from the previously published mutant

collection[34]. An established control strain with the Himar1 transposon inserted in an

intergenic non-coding region was used for comparison. This control strain is

phenotypically comparable to wild-type in both mammalian and tick infection

models[10,34,36,37]. *tr1::Himar1* and the control *A. phagocytophilum* strain were purified

from HL60 cell culture and used to infect either ISE6s or HL60s. Bacterial burdens were

compared over time. During HL60 infection, the control and *tr1*::Himar1 strains grew

equivalently (**Fig 1b**). However, during tick cell infection, *tr1*::Himar1 steadily declined

(**Fig 1c**), indicating that it is required for *A. phagocytophilum* adaptation to tick cells.

A. phagocytophilum requires tr1 to colonize ticks in vivo.

The *in vitro tr1*::Himar1 phenotype led us to ask if *tr1* is similarly required *in vivo*

for *A. phagocytophilum* adaptation to the tick. Mice were infected with either the

intergenic control or the *tr1*::Himar1 mutant *A. phagocytophilum*. Seven days post

infection bacterial burden in the mice was quantified and found to be equivalent

between the strains, indicating *tr1* is not required during murine infection (**Fig 2a**).

Burden matched mice from these groups were used to feed *I. scapularis* larval ticks to

repletion. We found ticks that fed on mice infected with *tr1*::Himar1 acquired significantly

less *A. phagocytophilum* than those that fed on mice infected with the control strain (Fig

2b). These findings indicate that *tr1* is dispensable for murine infection but required for

colonization of the arthropod vector.

Tr1 is a multimeric Helix-Turn-Helix DNA-binding protein.

121   Having established that Tr1 is important for adaptation to the tick host by *A.*

phagocytophilum, we next used bioinformatics approaches to predict the functions of

the Tr1 protein. First, a structural model of monomeric Tr1 protein (amino acids 1-183)

was generated using ColabFold[45]. The resulting predicted Tr1 monomer model is

comprised of two ordered and predominantly α-helical domains that are separated by a

central disordered peptide linker and flanked by disordered peptide at both the N and C

termini (**Fig 3a**). In total, the model contains approximately 58 residues of predicted

disorder. Whilst the global confidence score for the predicted model was low

(pTM=0.468), the local confidence scores for the two ordered domains were relatively

high (pLDDT greater than 80 for residues ~25-90 and ~130-155, Supplementary figure

1).

132   Next, we used the Dali server[46] to search the Protein Data Bank (PDB) for

structures similar to Tr1, but which have been the subject of structure-function analyses.

Amongst the results of the Dali search, nine of the ten structures most similar to Tr1

were DNA-binding proteins with similarity to the N-terminal domain of Tr1 and which

function as dimers. Comparing the N-terminal domain of Tr1 with these structures reveal

that Tr1 is likely to be a five-helix bundle which contains a DNA-binding helix-turn-helix

motif (H-T-H), similar to cI/Cro-like transcription factors (**Fig 3a).**

Prompted by this observation, we next used ColabFold Multimer to generate a

model of dimeric Tr1 protein. In the resulting model, the N-terminal domains of Tr1 are

closely associated with one another, forming a symmetrical dimer (**Fig 3b).** The C-

terminal domains of the two Tr1 monomers, which each resemble two antiparallel

helices separated by a turn, interdigitate with one another forming an additional point for

dimerization between the two protein chains (**Fig 3b**). Whilst the global confidence

score for the dimeric model of Tr1 was higher than that of the monomeric model (dimer

pTM 0.557), the confidence score for the interface of the dimeric Tr1 model was low

(ipTM=0.545). We considered that the large proportion of disordered protein in Tr1 could

skew the interface confidence scores in our predictions, so we tried to predict dimeric

models for Tr1 residues corresponding to the N- and C-terminal domains only. Interface

confidence scores for dimeric Tr1 N- or C-terminal domains in isolation were high

enough to suggest plausible interactions (piTM=0.763 and 0.69, respectively).

Structures of dimeric H-T-H proteins identified by our Dali search were

superimposed onto the Tr1 dimer model to further assess this predicted structure. The

N-terminal domain of Tr1 dimerizes in manner typical of other dimeric H-T-H proteins,

including those bound to DNA (**Fig 3c**). Frequently, H-T-H proteins that bind DNA as

symmetrical homodimers bind to palindromic DNA sequences with each protein binding

to a half-site of the palindrome. From these structural comparisons, we predict this is

likely to also be the case for Tr1. Fewer structural homologues of the C-terminal domain

of Tr1 were identified but we noted similarity between the Tr1 dimer model and the

EspR transcription factor of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (**Fig 3d**). EspR dimerizes via a

domain similar to the Tr1 C-terminal domain and this is required for EspR to bind DNA

with high-affinity[47].

Next, we used gel filtration chromatography to assess whether purified

recombinant Tr1 protein could form dimers or other multimers in solution. Recombinant

Tr1 protein was purified and affinity tags removed prior to running on a gel filtration

column. We reasoned that removing any additional protein sequences from Tr1 would

yield protein most similar to that found in its native environment. Since the expected

molecular weight of monomeric recombinant Tr1 is 21.3 kDa, we also ran purified MBP

and GFP, predominantly monomeric proteins with respective molecular weights of 43.8

kDa and 28.5 kDa, as controls. Both MBP and GFP eluted from the gel filtration column

as monodisperse peaks whereas Tr1 eluted as two overlapping peaks, indicating that

Tr1 exists in multiple forms in solution (**Fig 4a**). SDS-PAGE analysis of fractions

collected from these experiments confirmed that the peaks contained the expected

proteins (**Fig 4b**). Apparent molecular weights for the peaks were calculated with a

standard curve based on their elution volumes. The calculated apparent molecular

weights for GFP and MBP were 31.6 and 45.7 kDa, respectively, roughly consistent with

their expected weights as monomers. The second peak of Tr1 eluted at an apparent

molecular weight of 79.4 kDa, suggesting that Tr1 can form tetramers in solution. The

first peak of Tr1 eluted at a volume outside of our standard curve and potentially

contained aggregated proteins. We generated a predicted tetrameric model of full-

length Tr1, but global confidence scores were noticeably lower than those for other Tr1

models (pTM 0.414), so do not present this data here. Further biochemical data are

required to guide additional predictive modelling of Tr1 multimers.

Taken together, we predict that Tr1 is comprised of H-T-H and dimerization

/multimerization domains joined and flanked by regions of disorder. Comparisons

indicate that Tr1 might have similarity to cl/Cro transcription factors and EspR from *M.*

tuberculosis. Gel filtration experiments demonstrate that Tr1 forms multimers in solution,

supporting these predictions, however, a high confidence predicted model of a Tr1

tetramer could not be generated

Tr1 binds the promotors of neighboring genes omp1X and omp1N.

The *tr1* gene was first noticed in studies examining expression of downstream

genes *omp1X*, *omp1N*, and the *msp2/p44* expression site[43,44] (**Fig 5a**). We tested Tr1

binding upstream of *tr1*, *omp1X*, *omp1N*, and the *msp2/p44* expression locus by

electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSA) using DNA probes for sequences

preceding each gene (Fig 5a). EMSA shifts indicated Tr1 complexed with promotors p-

tr1 (**Fig 5b**), p-*omp1X* (**Fig 5c**) and p-*omp1N* (**Fig 5d**). At higher Tr1 concentrations p-

tr1 and p-*omp1N* also displayed secondary complexes suggesting multiple Tr1 binding

sites or higher order Tr1 oligomer complexes (**Fig 5b,d**). DNA sequence upstream of

the *msp2* expression locus did not shift at any concentration of the Tr1 protein,

indicating Tr1 does not individually regulate *msp2* (**Fig 5e**).

To ask how loss of *tr1* affected these genes' transcription, RNA was collected

from control and *tr1*::Himar1 *A. phagocytophilum* infected ISE6 cells. Surprisingly, qPCR

measuring *omp1X* and *omp1N* transcription from *tr1*::Himar1 and control *A.*

phagocytophilum strains (**Fig 5f,g**) found that only *omp1N* displayed a small but

significant expression difference during tick cell infection (**Fig 5g**), suggesting Tr1

binding alone does fully account for the behavior of these genes.

tr1 is required for A. phagocytophilum transcriptional shift during tick cell infection

208   Tr1's predicted role as a transcriptional regulator[43,48] and the inability of the

tr1::Himar1 to survive in tick cells led us to ask how the loss of *tr1* affects the

transcriptome during tick cell infection using RNA sequencing (RNAseq). ISE6 tick cells

were infected with *A. phagocytophilum tr1::Himar1* or the control strain. Our previous

qPCR for *A. phagocytophilum* gDNA from infected ISE6 cells found that the *tr1*::Himar1

strain persists up to day 3 before declining relative to the control strain (**Fig 1c**). Since

measuring genomic DNA (gDNA) may also reflect dead bacteria, we measured *A.*

phagocytophilum 16s RNA relative to *I. scapularis actin* transcripts as an indicator of

bacterial survival at 12, 24, and 48 hours post infection (hpi). At 24 hours *tr1*::Himar1

survival was 63% of the control strain but fell to only 10% by 48 hpi (**Fig S2**). To capture

transcriptional differences when *tr1*::Himar1 bacteria remained viable we performed

RNAseq 24 hpi.

220   Genes downstream of *tr1*, *omp1X*, *omp1N*, and *msp2*[43] (**Fig 5a**) were all

measured in the RNAseq data. Similar to the qRT-PCR measurements (**Fig 5g**), *omp1X*

did not significantly differ between *tr1*::Himar1 and the control strain. *omp1N* had a

small but significant increase in expression relative to the control (**Table S1**). Measuring

msp2 transcription is complicated by the presence of multiple *msp2* pseudogenes,

which *A. phagocytophilum* uses to evade the mammalian antibody response by

antigenic variation. For individual *msp2* variants to be transcribed, the pseudogenes

recombine into the expression site adjacent to *omp1N*[43,44,49–52] (Fig 5a). In our RNAseq

data, 97 *msp2* variants were detected, with 15 having significant transcription

differences between *tr1*::Himar1 and the control strain (**Table S2**). To quantify total

msp2 transcription from the expression site, we summed all *msp2* transcripts from the

RNAseq data. This found no difference in overall *msp2* transcription between the

tr1::Himar1 and control strain (**Fig 5h**). Expression differences among individual *msp2*

variants likely reflects *msp2* diversity bottle neck during Himar1 library construction

and/or *msp2* recombination since the *tr1*::Himar1 and control strains were purified from

the larger collection. These finding again suggest the importance of *tr1* extends beyond

its immediate genetic neighborhood.

Beyond *tr1*'s immediate neighbors, RNAseq identified 177 genes as differentially

expressed between *tr1*::Himar1 and the control *A. phagocytophilum* strain (p-adj<0.05)

during tick cell infection (**Table S1**). Aside from *msp2* variants, 22 genes were >2 fold

upregulated in the *tr1*::Himar1, although none have known host or vector-specific

expression[32,33] and are largely ribosomal or other core bacterial genes[34]. Conversely, 14

genes had >2 fold reduced transcription from the *tr1*::Himar1 mutant (**Table 1**). Seven of

the of the these, (HGE1_03907/APH_0916, *ateA*, *tr1*, HGE1_01872/APH_0406, *msp4*,

HGE1_04767/APH_1111, HGE1_03162/APH_0720) have known tick-specific

expression patterns[10,32,33], which indicates that *tr1* is needed to upregulate *A.*

phagocytophilum genes specific for the arthropod vector.

Tr1 binds promotors of genes of tick-specific A. phagocytophilum genes.

We next asked if Tr1 binds promotors of any tick-specific genes impacted by the

tr1::Himar1 mutation. EMSA were performed with increasing Tr1 protein against

promotor sequences preceding; *ateA*, HGE1_06057/APH_1380,

HGE1_03162/APH_0720, HGE1_03907/APH_0916, HGE1_01872/APH_0406, and

msp4 (**Fig 6**). Tr1 shifted probes for *ateA* (**Fig 6a**), HGE1_06057 (**Fig 6b**), and *msp4*

(**Fig 6c**) at all concentrations, with the majority of the probe band shifted at the highest.

HGE1_03162 (**Fig 6d**), HGE1_03907/APH_0916 (**Fig 6e**), and

HGE1_01872/APH_0406 (**Fig 6f**) probes also shifted at Tr1 concentrations ≥ 0.125 μM.

Similar to EMSAs with probes for *tr1*, *omp1X* and *omp1N,* the higher Tr1 concentrations

produced secondary shift bands, suggesting higher order complexes. These findings

demonstrate direct Tr1 interaction with promoters for tick-specific *A. phagocytophilum*

genes. These EMSA results and differential expression of these genes by the

tr1::Himar1 mutant strain indicates direct regulation by Tr1.

Tr1 regulated genes are important for A. phagocytophilum survival in tick cells

262   Inability of the *tr1*::Himar1 to survive in tick cells and the reduced expression of

known tick-specific *A. phagocytophilum* genes led us to ask if these genes are important

for tick cell infection. We previously showed *ateA*::Himar1 was similarly defective for

survival in tick cells and acquisition by ticks[10]. From the *A. phagocytophilum* Himar1

mutant library, we identified and isolated three additional mutants disrupted in genes

putatively regulated by Tr1: *HGE1_01872*, *HGE1_03162*, and *HGE1_06057*. Growth of

all mutant strains in human HL60 cell culture was comparable to the control strain (Fig

7a). Accordingly, we infected ISE6 tick cells with *A. phagocytophilum* strains *tr1*::Himar1,

ateA::Himar1, *HGE1_01872*::Himar1, *HGE1_03162*::Himar1, *HGE1_06057*::Himar1,

and intergenic control::Himar1. At 8 days post infection all test strains had significantly

reduced *Anaplasma* burden in the tick cells relative to the intergenic Himar1 control,

with *tr1::Himar1* being the more severe (**Fig 7b**). From this, we demonstrated three

additional tick-specific genes HGE1_01872, HGE1_03162, and HGE1_06057 as critical

for infecting ticks. Our results suggest that the tick-specific defect of *tr1*::Himar1 mutant

strain stems from its failure to express genes controlled by Tr1 and critical for adaptation

to the tick cell environment.

tr1 is necessary for tick-specific alterations in the T4SS apparatus

The promotor sequences of *ateA* and HGE1_06057 had high affinity for Tr1 by

EMSA (**Fig 6 a,b**). Previously we identified AteA as the first *A. phagocytophilum* T4SS

secreted effector specific to tick infection[10]. HGE1_06057 is also predicted as a T4SS

substrate by multiple effector prediction algorithms[12,53]. Tr1 binding to promotors of

effectors prompted us to ask if Tr1 influences expression of T4SS machinery itself.

An oddity of the *Anaplasma* T4SS is that some components of the apparatus are

encoded by multiple paralogs[16,23]. In particular, the needle like pilus of the *A.*

phagocytophilum T4SS is encoded for by eight paralogs of the pilin gene *virB2* (**Fig 8a**).

Transcriptomics studies noticed different combinations of *virB2* paralogs are

upregulated when *A. phagocytophilum* infects mammalian or tick cells[32,33]. Because

tiling arrays used in these studies can conflate signal among paralogs with close

sequence identity[33], we first validated *virB2* expression. We designed primers specific to

each *virB2* paralog. We grew *A. phagocytophilum* in human HL60s or tick ISE6 cells

and measured transcription of each *virB2* paralog by qRT-PCR. As in the transcriptomic

studies, mammalian cultured *A. phagocytophilum* only expressed *virB2* paralogs

virB2_1 and *virB2_2* (**Fig 8b**). Conversely, transcription of *virB2_1* and *virB2_2* was

reduced during growth in tick cells, while *virB2_3* → virB2_8 were upregulated (Fig 8b).

To examine if the tick-specific expression pattern among the *virB2* paralogs is

dependent on *tr1* we reviewed our RNAseq findings for the *tr1*::Himar mutant. Both

virB2_1 and *virB2_2* expression were significantly elevated (1.47 and 1.38 fold) in the

tr1::Himar1. While not significant due to low number of total reads *virB2_6* and *virB2_7*

had reduced expression (0.55 and 0.218 fold) in the *tr1*::Himar1 relative to the control

strain (**Table S1**). Together this indicated that the *tr1*::Himar1 strain fails to adjust

expression among the *virB2* paralogs during tick cell infection and retains a *virB2*

expression pattern similar to mammalian infection.

Tr1 binds promotors of T4SS virB2 paralogs differentially expressed in tick infection

We asked if Tr1 can directly bind promotor regions among the differentially

expressed *virB2* paralogs. DNA probes designed upstream of *virB2_1*, *virB2_6,* and

virB2_8 (Fig 8a) were tested with increasing concentrations of Tr1 protein by EMSA. Tr1

shifted the promotors of both *virB2_1/2* (**Fig 8c**) and *virB2_6/7* (**Fig 8d**), with *virB2_1/2*

shifting completely at the highest concentration. As with other targets, possible

secondary complexes were also visible, suggesting possible higher order interactions.

Minimal shifting was seen with probes designed upstream of *virB2_8* (**Fig 8e**)

suggesting either independent regulation, or co-regulation with the upstream genes

virB_6/7. Our findings indicate that Tr1 directly participates in regulation of tick-specific

expression patterns of T4SS components.

Tick-specific virB2 paralogs are necessary for A. phagocytophilum survival in tick cells

As with the other Tr1 regulated targets, we asked if the tick-specific *virB2*

paralogs are necessary for *A. phagocytophilum* survival in tick cells. From the

transposon mutant library, we obtained a mutant strain disrupted in *virB2_5*

(*virB2_5*::Himar1) (**Fig 8a**). In the published *A. phagocytophilum* HGE1 genome the

virB2_5 is not annotated and therefore was not initially measured by RNAseq. However,

we do detect transcription from the *virB2_5* locus during tick cell infection (**Fig 8b**). The

virB2_5::Himar1 mutant grew as well as the control strain in human HL60 cells (**Fig 8f**).

A. phagocytophilum virB2_5::Himar1 and the intergenic control::Himar1 strain were

collected from HL60 cell culture and used to infect ISE6 tick cells. Eight days post

infection *Anaplasma* burden of *virB2_5*::Himar1 was greatly reduced relative to the

control::Himar1 strain in the tick cells (**Fig 8e**). This finding indicates that tick-specific

virB2 paralogs are important for *A. phagocytophilum* adaptation to the tick.

Tr1 homologs are found throughout the Rickettsiales

Having established a role for Tr1 in the survival of *A. phagocytophilum* within the

tick host, we queried whether Tr1 homologs are present in other Rickettsiales, since

many of these bacteria also have life cycles that involve cycling between vertebrate and

arthropod hosts. Using sequence-based searches within the Rickettsiales, we identified

candidate homologs of Tr1 in diverse Anaplasmataceae genomes. The *tr1* genes of

Anaplasma, *Ehrlichia*, and *Neoehrlichia* share a high degree of genomic synteny and

are invariably co-localized with *ndk* (encoding nucleoside-diphosphate kinase) and one

or more OMP-encoding genes. In *Wolbachia* and *Mesenet* the *tr1* locus is more variable

with *ndk* being lost and OMP-encoding genes being co-localized at the *tr1* locus in

some, but not all, species.

We used Foldseek to extend our search for more distant Tr1 homologs, filtering

our results for Rickettsiales bacteria. Using this approach, we identified Tr1 proteins in

Rickettsia and *Tisiphia* species. Whilst the *tr1* locus in *Rickettsia* species is not

syntenous with those from the Anaplasmatacea, the *Rickettsia tr1* gene is most often

co-localized with *sca4*. Intriguingly, *sca4* has been identified as having a role in fitness

of *Rickettsia parkeri* within the tick host[54]. Yet more distant Tr1 homologs were also

identified in *Midichloria* and *Orientia*, although in the latter the C-terminal domain is

truncated or lost. Candidate *tr1* homologues are co-localized with genes that encode

proteins with unknown functions in many Rickettsiales.

These results indicate that Tr1 represents a family of transcription factors found

broadly across the Rickettsiales, suggesting that some of our findings could be

extrapolated to other bacteria of this Order.

DISCUSSION

As a vector-borne pathogen, survival in both the tick and the mammal is essential

to complete the transmission cycle of *A. phagocytophilum* and be maintained in the

environment. We know the bacteria undergoes extensive transcriptional changes

between the two environments[32,33] and have identified individual adaptations that are

critical for either mammalian or tick infection[34–37]. Understanding how Rickettsial

pathogens switch their host tropism to the arthropod, could inform interventions to

disrupt the transmission cycle. In this work we identified Tr1 as a critical switch

regulating *A. phagocytophilum* adaptation to the tick and identified Tr1-controlled genes

necessary for survival in the arthropod. Collectively our findings uncover a central node

in a network of changes necessary for Rickettsial bacteria to complete their vector-

borne lifecycle.

Due to the obligate intracellular lifecycle and lack of compatible

extrachromosomal plasmids, genetic manipulation of *A. phagocytophilum* remains

challenging. The Himar1 transposon library has proven to be an invaluable resource,

allowing the first phenotypic testing of gene disruptions in *Anaplasma*. The library was

generated in HL60 cell culture, which prohibits mutation in genes essential for survival

in mammalian cells. However, *A. phagocytophilum* genes specific to tick infection were

readily mutated[34,35]. Such mutants have been leveraged to uncover tick-specific roles of

the T4SS effector AteA[10], duplicate T4SS component VirB6-4[36], and surface protein

modifying O-methyltransferase[37]. In our study we extensively relied on mutants from this

library to uncover tick-specific contributions of *tr1* and five of the genes it impacts. Until

more targeted genetic tools are available in this system, the *A. phagocytophilum* Himar1

transposon library remains a critical resource.

Initial interest in the *tr1* gene stemmed from its location upstream of outer

membrane proteins genes *omp1X*, *omp1N*, and *msp2/p44* expression site[43,44]. Studies

asking what controlled the promotor of *tr1* identified ApxR as the first *Anaplasma* DNA-

binding transcriptional regulator. ApxR was later shown to bind its own promotor and

upstream of the *p44/msp2* expression site. Similarly, ApxR homolog EcxR in the related

Rickettsial pathogen *Ehrlichia chaffeensis*, binds promotors of *tr1* and downstream outer

membrane protein genes[55,56]. *E. chaffeensis* Tr1 also binds upstream membrane protein

genes *p28* and *omp-1B*[55]. We found *A. phagocytophilum* Tr1 binds DNA sequences

upstream of *omp1X* and *omp1N*. However, only expression of *omp1N* differed between

the *tr1*::Himar1 mutant and control strain, indicating *tr1* is not the only factor controlling

these genes. Though the number, identity, and arrangement of adjacent membrane

protein genes downstream of *tr1* in *Anaplasma* and *Ehrlichia* differ greatly[44,55], common

models may emerge showing how Tr1 and ApxR/EcxR participate in regulation of the *tr1*

adjacent surface protein genes.

Looking past its immediate chromosomal neighbors multiple tick-specific

membrane protein genes had reduced expression in the Himar1::*tr1* and were directly

bound by Tr1. These include; *HGE1_03162* (*Aph_0720*), *HGE1_01872* (*Aph_0406*),

msp4, and *HGE1_03907* (*Aph_0916*). Transcription of all four is highly specific to *A.*

phagocytophilum infection in tick cells[32,33]. Reflecting the expression pattern, we found

HGE1_03162 and *HGE1_01872* are necessary for tick cell infection. Adjacent to

HGE1_01872, A. phagocytophilum encodes two *HGE1_01872* paralogs *asp62*

(*HGE1_01862, Aph_0404*) and *asp55* (*HGE1_01867, Aph_0505*). Antibodies against

Asp62 and Asp55 were found to limit *A. phagocytophilum* infection of human HL60

cells[57]. While Asp62 and Asp55 are expressed during both mammalian and tick cell

infection, HGE1_01872 is specific to the arthropod vector[32,33]. Both HGE1_01872 and

Msp4 are substrates of an O-methyltransferase required for tick infection and promote

binding to *Ixodes* cells[37,58,59]. Similar to HGE1_01872, HGE1_03907 (Aph_0916) is

adjacent to the invasion protein gene *aipA*, which is necessary for infection of

mammalian cells[60], suggesting HGE1_03907 represents a arthropod-specific AipA

alternative. These findings implicate Tr1 as the switch regulator governing this

remodeling of the *A. phagocytophilum*'s surface proteome necessary for tick infection.

Beyond surface protein genes, Tr1 is playing a broader role controlling genes

expressed during infection of the tick. Our findings identify Tr1 as a critical regulator of

tick-specific effector AteA and specialization of the T4SS VirB2 pilus necessary for

adaptation to the tick. The full repertoire of effectors secreted by *A. phagocytophilum* is

unknown, but effector predicting algorithms propose as many as 49[12,53]. So far, few

have been experimentally examined[17,21,22,24,61–63], with only AteA investigated in context

of the arthropod vector[10]. The *E. chaffeensis* ApxR homolog, EcxR, was also shown to

regulate components of the T4SS apparatus during mammalian cell infection[64].

However, EcxR has yet to be examined during tick infection, and binding to effector to

virB2 pilin genes is untested. Uncovering the full regulome of Tr1 and how it works with

other regulators to manage adaptation between the mammalian and tick environments

will likely require larger unbiased binding and regulation studies.

How does Tr1 recognize its DNA targets and regulate gene expression? Our

bioinformatic analysis indicates that the Tr1 protein has similarity to H-T-H transcription

factors and, inferred from this and our protein modelling, is likely to dimerize and bind

palindromic DNA motifs to exert influence on transcription on downstream genes.

Consistent with this, we also identified a putative dimerization domain in the C-terminus

of Tr1 and we observed that recombinant Tr1 protein forms multimers in solution,

probably tetramers and possibly other higher order structures. Other H-T-H proteins

such as the λ repressor, share this ability to form multimers of dimers, enabling them to

bind to multiple DNA sites co-operatively. Indeed, multiple shifts of Tr1-DNA complexes

in our EMSAs, supporting that binding of Tr1 might be co-operative at some of its target

sites. Understanding if or how the multimerization of Tr1 is regulated during infection,

the interplay between Tr1 and other transcription factors at promoter regions, and the

identification of a consensus DNA target site and regulon will be crucial for determining

how Tr1 mediates *A. phagocytophilum* adaptation to the arthropod host.

We identified candidate Tr1 homologs throughout the Rickettsiales. In both

Anaplasma and some *Rickettsia,* the Tr1 gene is co-localized with genes that are either

differentially expressed between the tick and vertebrate host or have been implicated in

survival in tick cells. This functional conservation of the *tr1* loci between these two

species makes it interesting to consider that Tr1 might have a role in transcriptional

remodeling that underpins the cycling between vertebrate and arthropod hosts in

diverse Rickettsiales. However, this leaves the question of what the role of Tr1 in

Rickettsiales that survive exclusively within arthropods, such as *Wolbachia,* is.

Furthermore, in many Rickettsiales, the *tr1* gene is co-localized with genes of no known

function. Whilst genomic synteny suggests that Tr1 fulfills similar roles in *Anaplasma,*

Ehrlichia and *Neoehrlichia,* further study is required to determine how Tr1 functions

across diverse Rickettsiales.

Altogether, our work identifies Tr1 as an essential master regulator that remodels

the *A. phagocytophilum* transcriptome to infect the tick vector. Further, we identified

multiple Tr1 regulated genes that contribute to tick cell infection. With most studies

focusing on how *A. phagocytophilum* infects mammals, this work provides insights into

an understudied aspect of pathogen biology, uncovering wide-reaching transcriptional

events that underpin adaption to the arthropod vector. Unable to be transmitted

vertically to host progeny, *A. phagocytophilum* must cycle between the host and tick

vector to be maintained in the environment. Tr1 and the genes under its control are an

essential part of this system. Uncovering how *A. phagocytophilum* and other Rickettsial

bacteria achieve this is key to developing interventions to interrupt the transmission

cycle.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial and eukaryotic cell culture

Escherichia coli used for plasmid construction, plasmid amplification, and protein

expression was cultured with solid and liquid lysogeny broth (LB) medium with the

addition of kanamycin or zeocin 25 µg ml^{-1} antibiotics as needed to select for plasmid

encoded resistance genes. For production of recombinant Tr1 proteins, *E. coli* strain

DE3 (New England Biolabs) was used with LB or Terrific Broth (TB) supplemented with

100 µg ml^{-1} kanamycin.

HL60 human promyelocytic cells (ATCC; CCL-240) were maintained in Roswell

Park Memorial Institute (RPMI) 1640 medium with 10% FBS and 1× Glutamax. HL60

cultures were kept at 37°C with 5% CO_2 in a humidified incubator. HL60 cell cultures

were limited to < 20 passages to prevent phenotypic drift and kept between 5×10^4 and

1×10^6 cell/ml to prevent differentiation.

Wild-type *A. phagocytophilum* strain HGE1 and HGE1 derived Himar1

transposon mutants were grown in HL60 cells as previously described[34]. All Himar1

mutant strains were obtained from the previously established *A. phagocytophilum*

mutant collection [34]. Status of *A. phagocytophilum* infections in HL60 cells was

monitored by Diff-Quick Romanowsky–Giemsa staining. To generate host-cell-free *A.*

phagocytophilum, peak infected HL60 cultures (>95% infected cells) were gently

sonicated to disrupt HL60 cell membranes and liberated bacteria were separated from

host cell debris by differential centrifugation. *Anaplasma* numbers were estimated as

previously described [65,66].

I. scapularis (Say) embryonic tick cells (ISE6) were maintained in L15C-300

medium with 10% FBS (Sigma; F0926), 10% tryptone phosphate broth (TPB; BD;

B260300) and 0.1% lipoprotein cholesterol concentrate (MP Biomedicals;

219147680)[67], in sealed tissue culture treated flasks, and incubated at 34°C [68]. Infected

ISE6 cell cultures were additionally supplemented with 0.25% $NaHCO_3$ and 25 mM

HEPES buffer (Sigma), cultured in vented flasks, and kept at 34°C in a humidified

chamber with 4% CO_2.

A. phagocytophilum mutant growth curves

A. phagocytophilum burden in HL60 and ISE6 cells was evaluated as previously

described[36,37]. Briefly, HL60 cells were seeded to 24 well plates at $5x10^4$ cells/well and

infected at an MOI of 1. Three to four replicate wells were harvested at the time of

inoculation and tested time post inoculation. ISE6 cells were seeded to 24 well plates at

$3x10^5$ cells/well. After ISE6 cells adhered to the plate for at least 6 hours, they were

inoculated at an MOI of 50 with host-cell-free *A. phagocytophilum* purified from HL60

cultures. Bacteria were allowed to infect the tick cells for 4 hours, after which the media

was exchanged three times to remove excess extracellular bacteria. Four replicate wells

were collected post media exchanged and subsequent time points. Pelleted samples

were frozen and later processed for RNA or gDNA using Zymogen Quick-RNA Micro-

prep or QIAGEN DNeasy blood and tissue kits. Ratios of bacterial and host cell gDNA

copies was measured by qPCR as previously described[10,36,37] Levels of live *A.*

phagocytophilum Himar1 mutant bacteria in each infected ISE6 or HL60 cell sample

was measured by qRT-PCR targeting *A. phagocytophilum* 16S rRNA and *I. scapularis*

or human *β-actin* transcripts (**Table S3**) and compared relative to the intergenic Himar1

control strain by ΔΔCt[10,65,69].

Measuring A. phagocytophilum gene transcription

HL60 and ISE6 cells in 24 well plates were infected with wild-type *A.*

phagocytophilum HGE1 as described above. At 24 hours post infections four wells were

collected and processed for RNA Zymo Quick-RNA micro-prep kit® (ZymoResearch)

according to product protocols for tissue culture samples. cDNA was generated with

Verso cDNA Synthesis Kit (ThermoFisher). Transcripts of *A. phagocytophilum* genes of

interest were measured by qPCR using gene specific primers (**Table S3**) and SYBR

green iTaq universal Supermix (Bio-Rad; 1725125) according to Bio-Rad specified cycle

conditions. Genes of interest were measured relative to housekeeping gene *rpoB* and

compared between human and tick cell infections by ΔΔCt.

Animal infection

All mice were purchased as six weeks of age from The Jackson Laboratory.

Gender balanced groups of ten C57BL/6 mice were infected as previously described[10]

with either the *tr1*::Himar1 or the intergenic Himar1 mutant *A. phagocytophilum*. The

intergenic Himar1 mutant was previously shown to be phenotypically equivalent to wild-

type[10,36,37]. Blood was collected seven days post inoculation and *A. phagocytophilum*

burden in the blood was measured by qPCR as in prior studies (16S rRNA / mouse *β-*

actin[10,65,69]) (Table S3). Larval *I. scapularis* ticks purchased from Oklahoma State

University (Stillwater, OK, USA) were kept at 23°C with >95% humidity and a 16/8-h

light/dark photoperiods. Mice were selected from the intergenic Himar1 and *tr1*::Himar1

strain infected mice with equivalent *Anaplasma* burden. Each mouse was infested with

200 naïve larval *I. scapularis* and allowed to feed to repletion. Detached replete ticks

were individually processed and assayed for *A. phagocytophilum* burden by qRT-PCR

measuring 16S rRNA versus *I. scapularis β-actin* transcripts (Table S3), compared by

absolute quantification [10,65,69]. All animal use protocols were approved by the

Washington State University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (ASAF

#6630) and animal housing facilities at Washington State University in Pullman, WA

maintains AAALAC-accreditation.

RNA sequencing

ISE6 cells were seeded to 12 well plates at 5×10^5 cells/well and allowed to

adhere for 6 hours. The intergenic transposon control and Himar1::*tr1* mutant *A.*

phagocytophilum strains were prepared as host-cell-free bacteria from >95% infected

HL60 cultures immediately before ISE6 infection. Adhered ISE6 cells were infected at

an MOI of 100. Twenty-four hours post infection media was exchanged three times to

remove excess extracellular bacteria, and four replicate wells were collected and RNA

isolated with Zymogen Quick-RNA Mini-prep kits. RNA was submitted to the WSU

Genomics Core for total RNA-seq analysis. Sequencing libraries were prepared using

Tru-seq Stranded Total RNA kit, with Ribo-Zero Plus and libraries, sequenced using a

HiSeq 2500, and results exported as FASTQ files as previously discribed[70]. RNA-seq

data were aligned with the *A. phagocytophilum* HGE1 genome (GCF_000478425.1)[71].

Transcript quantification and differential gene expression were analyzed by HTSeq and

DESeq2[72].

Overexpression and purification of recombinant Tr1 protein

The *tr1* open reading frame, codon optimized for expression in *E. coli,* was

synthesized and cloned by Twist Bioscience into a modified pET28a expression vector.

The resultant plasmid encoded the Tr1 protein fused at its N-terminus to a hexa-histidine

tagged maltose binding protein (MBP) with a tobacco etch virus (TEV) protease

recognition site between Tr1 and MBP. The plasmid was transformed into *E. coli* DE3 for

overexpression of the recombinant Tr1 protein. Briefly, overnight cultures, grown at 37 °C

in selective LB media, were used to inoculate flasks of TB. Over-expression of MBP-Tr1

was induced by the addition of 0.5 mM IPTG once cultures had reached an OD_{600} of 0.5-

0.6 and then grown for an additional 18 hours at 25 °C. Cells were harvested by

centrifugation and kept at -20 °C for short-term storage.

To purify MBP-Tr1 protein, cell pellets were resuspended in Buffer A (20 mM

imidazole, pH 8.0; 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0; 400 mM NaCl; 2 mM beta-mercaptoethanol)

and then lysed by sonication. Lysates were clarified by centrifugation and then loaded

onto a HisTrap HP purification column (Cytiva). The column was washed extensively with

Buffer A prior to elution of the His-tagged MBP-Tr1 with stepwise (10, 20, 100%) washes

with Buffer B (as Buffer A but with 400 mM imidazole). Fractions containing MBP-Tr1 were

pooled, concentrated by centrifugal-filtration, then further purified by gel-filtration on a

Superdex 200 column (Cytiva) equilibrated in SEC Buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0; 250

mM NaCl; 2 mM beta-mercaptoethanol). Fractions containing MBP-Tr1, which eluted as

a single peak from the gel-filtration column, were supplemented with his-tagged TEV

protease and incubated at 4 °C for 16 hours to cleave the His-tagged MBP protein from

Tr1. The resulting protein preparation was passed over a HisTrap HP column which was

then washed step (5, 10, 100%) with Buffer B. Tr1 protein typically passed through the

HisTrap HP column or eluted in 5% Buffer B washes and were thus separated from the

His-tagged TEV and MBP proteins, which eluted in 100% Buffer B. This purification

strategy yielded highly pure Tr1 protein lacking any tags.

Gel filtration

Purified tagless Tr1 protein, green fluorescent protein (GFP) and maltose binding

protein proteins were analyzed by gel filtration using a HiPrep Sephadex 75 16/600

column (Cytiva), using Buffer B. GFP and MBP were expressed using pET vectors

(modified pET41c and pET28a, respectively) in *E. coli* DE3 and purified by nickel affinity

chromatography or amylose affinity chromatography using standard methods.

Electrophoretic-Mobility-Shift-Assays

Promoter proximal DNA sequences for use in Electrophoretic-Mobility-Shift-

Assays (EMSAs) were amplified by PCR. Primers for this purpose were designed to

yield DNA fragments comprising the ATG start codon of a selected gene plus 250 bp of

upstream DNA sequence. In each case, the forwards primer was appended with an M13

sequence upstream of the primer sequence (5´- GAG CGG ATA ACA ATT TCA CAC AGG).

The resulting DNA fragments were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis and

fragments of the anticipated size were excised and purified (QIAquick Gel Extraction

Kit). These purified fragments were then used as the templates for a secondary PCR

using an M13 sequence primer labelled with FAM at the 5´ end in conjunction with the

fragment-specific reverse primer used in the primary PCR. The resulting FAM-labelled

PCR products were resolved by agarose gel electrophoresis and purified as above.

Sequences of primers used are included in **table S3**.

EMSA assays were performed using a modified protocol described elsewhere[73].

Briefly, for each DNA fragment an EMSA mixture comprising (100 ng FAM-labelled DNA

fragment;200 ng of herring sperm DNA; 5% glycerol; 10 mM Trs-HCl, pH 8.0; 25 mM

KCl) was prepared and 8 µl of this dispensed into a series of tubes. These were then

supplemented with 2 µl of purified Tr1 protein at varying concentrations, or with buffer

alone, and then mixed by gentle pipetting. Tr1 protein was used at final concentrations

of 0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, and 4 µM for all EMSAs presented here. Resulting mixtures were

incubated at 25 °C for 30 minutes before being loaded onto 7.5 % polyacrylamide gels

buffered with 0.25x TBE and 5% glycerol. Gels were run for 60 minutes at 100 V and

then fluorescent images (green channel) were collected on a ChemiDoc MP Imaging

System (Bio-Rad).

Bioinformatics

Protein structures were analyzed and visualized in Coot[74] and ChimeraX[75]. Modelling

and the generation of predicted structures were done using ColabFold and AlphaFold

Server with searches for homologues in the PDB being achieved with the Dali

Server[45,46].

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. *tr1* transcription is specific to tick cell infection and necessary for *A. phagocytophilum*

survival in tick cells. (**a**) *tr1* transcription normalized to housekeeping gene *rpoB* during *A.*

phagocytophilum culture in ISE6 tick cells and human HL60 cells. Bar indicate mean of four

replicate infections each measured in two technical replicates show as points. (**b and c**) Growth

of *A. phagocytophilum tr1*::Himar1 or control strain in cell culture infections of (**b**) human HL60

cells and (**c**) tick ISE6 cells. *A. phagocytophilum* burden measured by bacterial gDNA relative to

eukaryotic host gDNA via qPCR. Data displayed as mean with ±SD of three biological replicates

with two technical replicates each. Data are representative of three experimental replicates.

*$P < 0.05$ (Mann-Whitney *t*-test).

Figure 2. *tr1* is despicable during murine infection but essential for acquisition by ticks.

(**a**) Mouse blood *Anaplasma* burden 7 days post intraperitoneal inoculation with 1×10^8 *A.*

phagocytophilum tr1::Himar1 or control::Himar1 strains. Blood processed for gDNA and

bacterial burden was measured by qPCR of *A. phagocytophilum* 16S rDNA versus mouse actin

by ΔΔCt. Each strain was tested in twenty mice (½ male, ½ female). Each sample was tested in

technical duplicate reaction. (**b**) Two burden-matched infected mouse pairs were used for

Ixodes scapularis larvae infestation. Ticks were allowed to feed to repletion and detach. Whole

replete *I. scapularis* larvae were processed for RNA. *A. phagocytophilum* bacterial loads were

measured via qRT-PCR of *A. phagocytophilum* 16S rRNA levels versus mouse actin transcripts.

Data includes ticks from two burden matched mouse pairs. From each mouse, 10–20 individual

ticks were collected as biological replicates, and each qRT-PCR was performed in duplicate.

*$P < 0.005$ (Welch's *t*-test).

Figure 3. Structural modelling of the Tr1 protein. **(a)** Schematic of the predicted Tr1 protein

domain architecture. Ordered domains are displayed as boxes and predicted disordered regions

as solid black lines. **(b)** Cartoon representation of a predictive Tr1 dimer protein model. For one

Tr1 chain the N-terminal DNA binding domain is colored plum, the C-terminal dimerization

domain is colored light green, and disordered flanking and linker regions are colored pale

yellow. The second Tr1 chain is colored grey. **(c)** Dimeric H-T-H domain of Tr1 (colored

magenta) superimposed onto the crystal structure of HipB bound to its DNA operator from

Shewanella oneidensis[76] (colored light blue; PDB: 4PU4). **(d)** Dimeric C-terminal domain of Tr1

(colored green) superimposed onto the crystal structure of EspR from *M. tuberculosis*[77] (colored

brown; PDB: 4NDW)

Figure 4. Tr1 forms multimers in solution. **(a)** Chromatograms of Tr1, MBP, and GFP separated

by gel filtration. The Tr1 protein lacks tryptophan residues and absorbs weakly at 280 nm so the

peaks are shown as normalized absorbance. **(b)** SDS-PAGE gel of fractions collected from

equivalent volumes in gel filtration experiments. The left-hand lane of each gel contains

molecular weight markers with the known weights labelled**.**

Figure 5. Tr1 binds promotors of neighboring *omp1X* and *omp1N.* (**a**) Diagram of *tr1* gene with

downstream neighboring outer membrane protein genes *omp1X*, *omp1N*, and the *msp2/p44*

expression site. (**b through e**) EMSA shifts with increasing rTr1 (0, 0.0625, 0.125, 0.25, 0.5, and

1µM) with DNA probes of (**b**) *tr1*, (**c**) *omp1X*, (**d**) *omp1N*, and (**e**) *msp2/p44* promotor

sequences. (**f and g**) Transcription of *omp1X* and *omp1R* from control or *tr1*::Himar1 *A.*

phagocytophilum mutant strains at 24 hours post infection in (**f**) human HL60 or (**g**) tick ISE6

cells. Transcripts measured by qRT-PCR and normalized to *rpoB* via ΔΔCt. Data displayed as

mean with ±SD of four replicate infections measured with two technical replicates each. *$P <$

0.05 (Mann-Whitney *t*-test). (**h**) *msp2/p44* transcripts totals across all gene variants sequenced

by RNAseq from *tr1*::Himar1 or control *A. phagocytophilum* infected ISE6 tick cells. Bars are

mean ±SD of four independent infections, each shown as points. n.s. > 0.05 (Mann-Whitney *t*-

test).

Table 1. Genes with ≥ 2 fold reduced expression in *tr1*::Himar1 mutant during tick cell infection.

Figure 6. Tr1 binds the promotors of tick-specific *A. phagocytophilum* genes. EMSA shifts with

increasing rTr1 (0, 0.0625, 0.125, 0.25, 0.5, and 1μM) tested against promotor sequences of (**a**)

ateA, (**b**) *HGE1_06057*, (**c**) *HGE1_01872*, (**d**) *HGE1_03162*, (**e**) *HGE1_03907*, and (**f**) *mps4*.

Figure 7. Tr1 impacted genes are necessary for survival during tick cell infection. Survival of

indicated Himar1 transposon mutant *A. phagocytophilum* strain relative to intergenic

control::Himar1 strain in (**a**) human HL60 (48 hpi) and tick ISE6 cells (8 dpi). Bacterial burden

measured by qRT-PCR of *A. phagocytophilum 16s* vs Ixodes actin transcripts. Data displayed

as mean ±SD of four replicate infections measured in two technical replicates each. Graph

representative of three replicate experiments. * < 0.005 (Mann-Whitney *t*-test).

Figure 8. Tr1 is required for tick-specific remodeling of the T4SS pilus. (**a**) Diagram of the *virB2*

paralog genes, the location of the *virB2_5*::Himar1 insertion mutation (red), and potential

promotor regions subject to EMSA (green). (**b**) Transcription of the *virB2* genes during wild-type

A. phagocytophilum infection of mammalian HL60 and tick ISE6 cells. Data shown as mean

±SD of four biological replicates. (**c,d,e**) EMSA shifts with increasing rTr1 (0, 0.0625, 0.125,

0.25, 0.5, and 1μM) with putative promotor sequences upstream of (**c**) *virB2_1*, (**d**) *virB2_6*,

and (**e**) *virB2_8*. (**f and g**) Growth of *A. phagocytophilum virB2_5*::Himar1 or control strain in cell

culture infections of (**f**) human HL60 cells and (**g**) tick ISE6 cells. *A. phagocytophilum* burden

measured by bacterial gDNA relative to eukaryotic host gDNA via qPCR. Data displayed as

mean with ±SD of three biological replicates with two technical replicates each. Data are

representative of three experimental replicates. *$P < 0.05$ (Mann-Whitney *t*-test).

Figure S1. Predicted Local Distance Difference Test (pLDDT) and Multiple Sequence Alignment

(MSA) plots from ColabFold of Tr1. (a) pLDDT plot shows that local confidence in the Tr1 model

is high in the N- and C-terminal domains, supporting the proposal that Tr1 is comprised of two

ordered domains. (b) MSA plot showing that the Tr1 N- and C-terminal domains are

evolutionarily conserved.

Figure S2. Early survival of *tr1*::Himar1 strain during tick cell infection. *A. phagocytophilum*

tr1::Himar1 or control strain in cell culture infections of tick ISE6 cells. *A. phagocytophilum*

burden measured by bacterial 16s relative to tick *actin* transcripts via qRT-PCR. Data displayed

as mean with ±SD of three biological replicates. Data are representative of three experimental

replicates. *P < 0.05 (Mann-Whitney t-test).

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

EricaRose Warwick: Methodology, Investigation, Visualization, Reviewing & Editing, R**achel**

Burt: Methodology, Investigation, Visualization, **Jeffrey T. Badigian:** Methodology,

Investigation, **Daniel Howell:** Methodology, Investigation, **Kyle T. Swallow:** Methodology,

Investigation, **Chloe Leach:** Methodology, **Azeza M. Falghoush:** Methodology, **Dana K.**

Shaw: Methodology, Investigation, Review & Editing. **Ian T. Cadby:** Conceptualization,

Supervision, Methodology, Investigation, Writing, Visualization, Funding acquisition. **Jason M.**

Park: Conceptualization, Supervision, Methodology, Investigation, Writing, Visualization,

Funding acquisition.

Fig 1

Fig 2

a.

N-terminal domain   C-terminal domain

DNA binding   Dimerization   183 aa

b.

C

Dimerization domain

Linker

DNA binding domain

N

c.

Tr1

HipB

DNA

d.

Tr1

EspR

Fig 3

Fig 4

Fig 5

gene or locus_tag	Note	Base Mean	(-) Fold Change	p-adj	Tn mutant
HGE1_03907	Putative T4SS effector	11	8.2	0.00	
HGE1_02492	T4SS Effector AteA	25	7.9	0.00	Y
tr1	HTH DNA binding	121	5.7	0.00	Y
HGE1_04267	Unknown	93	4.7	0.00	
HGE1_01872	Membrane porin	15	3.9	0.00	Y
msp4	major surface protein	31	3.9	0.00	
HGE1_00340	rRNA methyltransferase	9	3.5	0.01	
HGE1_00460	Unknown	15	2.7	0.01	
HGE1_04767	mrp / NBP35 family	12	2.6	0.02	
HGE1_03162	Unknown	49	2.6	0.00	Y
HGE1_04257	dnaA / hda regulator	16	2.3	0.03	
HGE1_01837	ABC transporter	19	2.1	0.01	
nrdR	Transcription regulator	14	2.1	0.04	
HGE1_06057	Unknown	431	2.0	0.00	Y

Table 1

Fig 6

Fig 7

Fig 8

Fig S1.

Fig. S2