Divergent evolution of insecticidal protein families across bacteria and ferns

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Abstract

Insecticidal Cry proteins produced by the bacterial insect pathogen *Bacillus thuringiensis* possess

conserved three domains (3D). Two other families of insecticidal proteins—Prb proteins from

bacterial symbionts of entomopathogenic nematodes and a marine bacterial pathogen, and IPD113

proteins from ferns—are two-domain (2D) proteins structurally resembling domains I and II of Cry

proteins. Despite the structural resemblance, the amino acid sequence identity among these families

is only ~10%, supporting the prevailing view that they evolved independently through convergent

evolution. However, the possibility of remote homology and ancient horizontal gene transfer (HGT)

has remained largely unexplored. Here, we present evidence supporting divergent evolution of these

protein families. We found that proteins containing Cry-like two domains are distributed far more

broadly across bacteria, eukaryotes, and archaea than previously recognized. Phylogenetic analyses

separated the structurally similar proteins into five clades including Cry, IPD113, Prb, and 2D/3D-

mixed clades. Domain-level trees revealed intermixing within domain II, with nematocidal Cry

proteins frequently clustering with IPD113 and 2D/3D-mixed clades, suggesting domain swapping

events across these clades. Conserved amino acid motifs and domain core structures across clades

further support a shared evolutionary origin. Phylogenetic and structural analyses suggest a bacterial

origin of the fern IPD113 gene and its horizontal transfer via fungal symbionts, as well as multiple

HGT events into diverse terrestrial and marine eukaryotes and archaea. This work redefines the

evolutionary landscape of the insecticidal protein families, revealing their unexpectedly wide

taxonomic distribution, possibly shaped through bacterial ecological networks and close biological

interactions such as symbiosis.

Introduction

The bacterial pathogen *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt) produces insecticidal and nematocidal Cry proteins, which have been widely used in agriculture for pest control for a century. The Cry protein family is highly diverse, consisting of 53 subfamilies that share less than 45% amino acid identity with each other (Crickmore et al. 2021). These proteins kill their specific targets including lepidopteran caterpillars, mosquitoes, beetles, and nematodes (van Frankenhuyzen 2009). Cry proteins are α-pore-forming toxins that share three conserved domains in their active form (Fig. 1A) (Grochulski et al. 1995). Domain I is a pore-forming domain composed of seven α-helices. Domain II adopts a β-prism structure that recognizes target membrane proteins or glycolipids in the host gut and plays a major role in determining host specificity. Domain III is a β-sandwich structure thought to contribute to structural stability and host recognition, although its precise role remains unclear.

Interestingly, two other insecticidal protein families, Prb and IPD113, exhibit striking structural similarity to domains I and II of Cry proteins (Fig. 1A) (Wei et al. 2023; Prashar et al. 2023; Lee et al. 2015). Prb proteins (*Photorhabdus* insect-related toxin B component) are produced by bacterial symbionts of entomopathogenic nematodes, such as *Photorhabdus* and *Xenorhabdus*, as well as by the marine pathogen *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* (Waterfield et al. 2005; Duchaud et al. 2003; Lee et al. 2015). Prb proteins couple with another component Pra to exhibit toxicity toward lepidopteran caterpillars (*Photorhabdus* and *Xenorhabdus*) and shrimp (*Vibrio*). In contrast, IPD113 proteins are found in polypodiopsida ferns and are toxic to lepidopteran caterpillars as single-component toxins, without the need for additional protein partners (Wei et al. 2023). Despite their structural resemblance, Cry, Prb, and IPD113 proteins share only ~10% amino acid identity. Such low amino acid identity is often referred to as the "midnight zone", where most protein pairs are unrelated in both structure and function (Rost 1997). In this zone, it is generally difficult to determine whether proteins have originated from a common ancestor through divergent evolution, or independently acquired similar structures through convergent evolution, or whether the similarity is merely coincidental. Given the low sequence identity and the presence of introns in IPD113 genes, the original report on IPD113 favored the hypothesis that these proteins represent a case of convergent evolution (Wei et al. 2023). However, the possibility of remote homology and ancient horizontal gene transfer (HGT) has remained largely unexplored.

In this study, we aimed to examine whether the three insecticidal protein families (Cry, Prb, and IPD113) are evolutionarily linked. By aligning AlphaFold 3 (AF3)-predicted structures, we were able to accurately extract amino acid residues corresponding to the two domains even among proteins with very low amino acid identity. Although the extracted sequences remain highly divergent, pairwise alignment-based phylogenetic analysis developed for protein superfamilies enabled reliable tree

64 construction. The results indicate that Cry, Prb, and IPD113 proteins share a common evolutionary
65 origin, and that their genes have been unexpectedly disseminated across diverse bacterial, archaeal,
66 and eukaryotic lineages via HGTs, some of which may have been mediated by close ecological
67 interactions such as symbiosis.
68
Results
Proteins containing Cry-like two domains are broadly distributed across taxa
To explore the possibility of remote homology, we performed BLASTp searches using IPD113 and
Prb sequences as queries. Putative IPD113 homologues (E-value < 1e-5) were identified in ferns,
mosses, bacteria, and animals, including frogs and newts (Fig. 1B and Table S1). These bacterial and
animal proteins share approximately 30% amino acid identity with the query sequence (GenBank:
UDN67319.1 from *Leptochilus wrightii*) (Fig. 1B), and their AF3-predicted structures resemble those
of fern IPD113 proteins (Fig. 1C). A subsequent BLASTp search using a bacterial IPD113-like protein
(GenBank: WP_119147942.1 from *Cohnella faecalis*) as the query revealed additional IPD113-like
proteins in fungi, archaea, and protists, as well as in plants, bacteria, and animals (Fig. S1A and Table
S1). Similarly, BLASTp searches with Prb sequences from *Photorhabdus akhurstii* and *Vibrio*
parahaemolyticus (GenBank: AEQ33638.1 and 3X0U_A) identified putative homologues in both
bacteria and insects, such as beetles and aphids (Fig. S1B and Table S1). Eukaryotic genes encoding
these proteins often possess introns (Table S2), suggesting that they are not the result of bacterial
contamination in sequencing but are integrated and functional components of the eukaryotic genome,
similar to fern IPD113 proteins. Together, these findings suggest an unexpectedly broad taxonomic
distribution of proteins containing Cry-like two domains.
86
Phylogenetic analysis identifies the 2D/3D-mixed clade
To reconstruct the phylogenetic relationships among proteins containing two Cry-like domains in the
midnight zone, we predicted their structures using AlphaFold3 (Abramson et al. 2024), aligned them
with FoldMason (Gilchrist, Mirdita, and Steinegger 2024), and extracted the amino acid residues
corresponding to domains I and II (see Methods). We selected 557 non-redundant sequences with
≥95% identity that fully contain the two domains. These include 268 Cry proteins with quaternary rank
1, i.e., the canonical isoform denoted by the terminal "1" in Cry names (e.g., Cry1Aa1, Cry3Bb1),
listed in the Bacterial Pesticidal Protein Resource Center (www.bpprc.org), as well as six sequences
identified by BLASTp using Cry1Aa1 (GenBank: AAA22353) as a query.
96
Since the extracted sequences are highly divergent, conventional multiple sequence alignment (MSA)-
based phylogenetic methods, such as maximum likelihood, were not applicable. Instead, we employed

the Graph Splitting (GS) method, a graph-based approach suitable for reconstructing superfamily-scale

phylogenetic trees (Matsui and Iwasaki 2020). The resulting GS tree grouped the proteins containing

the Cry-like two domains into five clades (Fig. 2A). Based on known protein families, we designated

three of these clades as Cry, IPD113, and Prb, and the remaining two as the 2D/3D-mixed and

Photobacterium clades (Fig. 2A). The Cry clade comprises only 3D Cry proteins and includes the

majority of known Cry proteins (Fig. 2B). In contrast, the 2D/3D-mixed clade contains both the

remaining 3D Cry proteins (Cry2, Cry11, Cry18, Cry63, and some members of Cry5 and Cry21) and

proteins from diverse non-Bt bacteria including Pseudomonadota, as well as from fungi and archaea

(Fig. 2A and Fig. S2A). While most non-Bt members of this clade are Cry-like two domain proteins,

some harbor one or two additional domains (Fig. 2B). The IPD113 clade includes members from non-

Bt bacteria, fungi, plants, animals including frogs and newts, archaea, and protists (Fig. 2B and Fig.

S2B). Some members of this clade possess additional domains beyond the canonical two. The Prb

clade includes 2D proteins from *Photorhabdus* and *Xenorhabdus* as well as from Pseudomonadota

(e.g., *Serratia*, *Yersinia*), along with 3D proteins from beetles and aphids (Fig. S2C). These insect-

derived 3D proteins have a Pra-like N-terminal domain followed by two Prb-like domains (Fig. S1C).

The Photobacterium clade contains only four 2D proteins, all from *Photobacterium* species, while

another *Photobacterium*-derived sequence belongs to the 2D/3D-mixed clade (Fig. 2B). These results

suggest an evolutionary link between 3D Cry proteins and the 2D proteins in the 2D/3D-mixed clade.

The phylogeny also indicates that the Prb and IPD113 families are closely related.

Domain II swapping across clades except for Prb

We next generated domain-level phylogenetic trees. While the domain I tree largely recapitulated the

topology of the two-domain tree (Fig. 3A), the domain II tree revealed extensive intermixing among

Cry, IPD113, 2D/3D-mixed, and Photobacterium clades (Fig. 3B), suggesting that domain II swapping

events occurred across these four clades. Specifically, several nematocidal Cry proteins (Cry5A,

Cry5D, Cry5E, and Cry12), as well as Cry31 and Cry70, clustered far from other Cry proteins and

instead grouped with members of other clades, such as IPD113. Since domain swapping typically

requires homologous recombination, it is likely that the genes encoding these proteins contained

complementary sequences flanking the domain II coding region. These findings support the possibility

that proteins with Cry-like domains are remote homologues.

Proteins containing Cry-like two domains share amino acid motifs across clades

To examine remote homology at a resolution beyond the domain level, we performed a search for

conserved amino acid motifs. Among the 60 motifs identified by MEME (Bailey et al. 2015) (Fig.

S3A), 26 motifs were shared across at least two clades (Fig. 4A). They locate within domain I α-helices,

the linker region between domains I and II, and domain II β-strands, with their relative positions being largely conserved (Fig. S4A). t-SNE visualization of motif patterns revealed partial intermixing between clades in all cases, whether motifs were derived from domain I alone, domain II alone, or the domain I–II region (Fig. 4B–D).

On average, the proteins in each clade possess more than four shared domain I motifs, each approximately 20 amino acids in length (Fig. S4B), suggesting that domain I is unlikely to have been acquired through convergent evolution. In line with this, the α5 motif, located at the center of the domain I α-helical bundle, shows a gradual transition across clades (Fig. 4A and E). In Cry proteins, the α5 motif corresponds to block 1, one of the five conserved sequence blocks (Höfte and Whiteley 1989). 79% of the 2D/3D-mixed clade members including non-Cry proteins retain the Cry-type α5 motif. Furthermore, 50% and 37% of these members also share the α7 and the domain I–II linker–β1 motifs, respectively, both of which correspond to Cry block 2 (Fig. 4A and E). Most members of the IPD113 clade possess an α5 motif that is similar, though not identical, to the Cry-type α5 motif, while some Cry proteins in both the Cry and 2D/3D-mixed clades carry the IPD113-type α5 motif. Members of the Prb clade, on the other hand, have a longer α5 motif that is distinct from both the Cry- and IPD113-types. Notably, Cry5Ca1 and Cry21Da1 classified in the Cry clade as well as some members of the IPD113 clade, contain the Prb-type α5 motif. Since the motifs flanking the IPD113-type α5 motif in Cry5Ea1 and Cry21Ga1 and the Prb-type α5 motif in Cry5Ca1 and Cry21Da1 are similar to those of closely related Cry5 and Cry21 proteins (Fig. S4C), it is plausible that either a subdomain-level swapping event occurred, or the surrounding motifs emerged after acquiring the IPD113-type and Prb-type α5 motif. This observation further suggests an evolutionary relationship of domain I across Cry, IPD113 and Prb proteins.

In contrast, shared motifs are less prevalent in domain II, with 20–40% of sequences in the IPD113, 2D/3D-mixed, and Photobacterium clades lacking any such motifs. Although only Prb proteins showed no signatures of domain swapping in domain II (Fig. 3B), they nevertheless possess two long conserved motifs, each corresponding to a pair of β-strands—one shared with non-Cry 2D/3D-mixed proteins and the other shared with both non-Cry 2D/3D-mixed and IPD113 proteins (Fig. 4A). These findings suggest a common ancestry of domain II across these clades.

Domain core structures are highly conserved beyond clades

To further investigate signatures of divergent evolution, we performed structural analyses, as protein structures are more conserved than amino acid sequences (Illergård, Ardell, and Elofsson 2009). For structural analyses, we selected 498 predicted models with high confidence, defined as an average

pLDDT $\geq$ 80 and PAE $\leq$ 10 Å in both domains I and II. We compared the domains I and II of *P.*

akhurstii Prb and *L. wrightii* IPD113 with those of other predicted structures. Although sequences from

other clades exhibited low sequence scores, some of them still fell within the root-mean-square

deviation (RMSD) range observed for comparisons within the Prb or IPD113 clade (Fig. 5A-D). When

aligned pairwise, we found that even among structures from other clades, approximately 25–50% of

the Cα atoms in each domain could be superimposed within 1.5 Å (Fig. 5E–H). In domain I, the central

helix α5 together with several adjacent helices showed strong structural conservation (Fig. 5I and J).

In domain II, one or more of the antiparallel β-sheets forming the β-prism overlapped almost

completely (Fig. 5K and L). The domain-level GS tree based on the 3D interaction (3Di) alphabet, a

type of structural alphabet that describes tertiary interactions in FoldMason (van Kempen et al. 2023),

revealed partial intermixing among clades (Fig. S5). These cross-clade conservations of domain core

structures support the notion that these domains have undergone divergent evolution while maintaining

their functional architecture, rather than having arisen through convergent evolution.

Cry domain III and Pra are not evolutionarily related

To test the homology among Cry domain III, Pra, and the Pra-like domains of insect Prb-containing

proteins, we performed the same analyses on these domains. The GS tree based on amino acid

sequences separated Cry domain III from Pra and the insect Pra-like domains, while Pra and the insect

Pra-like domains formed a single clade (Fig. S6A). Motif analysis revealed that Cry domain III did not

share motifs with Pra or the insect Pra-like domains (Figs. S6C and D). Meanwhile, Pra and the insect

Pra-like domains shared two motifs (Fig. S6C and D). The GS tree based on structure (3Di) also

showed intermixing between Pra and the insect Pra-like domains, but not with Cry (Fig. S6B). In

pairwise structural alignments with *P. akhurstii* Pra, some Cry domain III showed pruning of

approximately 30% of the domain length; however, no conservation of the core structures observed in

domain I or II was detected (Fig. S6E-G). These results suggest that Cry domain III and Pra are not

remote homologues, whereas Pra and the insect Pra-like domains share a common evolutionary origin.

Pra and *Prb* genes are located adjacent to each other in the *Photorhabdus* genome (Waterfield et al.

2005), suggesting that the two proteins have fused into a single protein at some point.

Many horizontal gene transfers shaped broad taxonomic distribution

As our results suggested a common evolutionary origin of Cry, IPD113, and Prb, we hypothesized that

ferns, as well as other eukaryotes and archaea, may have acquired these genes through ancient HGT.

In the GS tree shown in Fig. 1C, the 2D/3D-mixed and IPD113 clades include a mixture of bacterial

and non-bacterial clades, and the Prb clade contains a single bacterial member nested within an animal

clade (Fig. S7). Since the GS method does not estimate evolutionary distances, we additionally

constructed maximum-likelihood (ML) trees for each clade to obtain amino acid distances under ML
substitution models. In this analysis, we used only the sequences that were subjected to structural
comparisons. As expected, approximately 30–40% of all branches in ML trees lacked strong support
(Fig. 6A and S9). To narrow down the possible scenarios of ancient HGT, we compared amino acid
(AA) distances with structural distances (Fig. S8). We found that a number of pairs between bacteria
and non-bacterial taxa exhibit a lower 3Di/AA distance ratio than the regression curves derived from
bacteria–bacteria pairs within the same clade. This indicates that, for the same amino acid distance,
structures of those pairs are closer than expected for typical bacterial pairs. Such structural closeness
supports the placement of non-bacterial members within bacterial clades and thus suggests ancient
HGT events. In particular, pairs that also show shorter AA distances (below the bacterial mean) can be
regarded as stronger candidates, because lower sequence divergence combined with high structural
similarity between bacteria and non-bacterial taxa is more parsimoniously explained by relatively
recent HGT than by independent evolution.

In the IPD113 clade, we found bacteria–fern pairs that met the criteria (Fig. 6), suggesting a bacterial
origin for IPD113. Specifically, seven bacterial sequences from *Brevibacillus*, *Aneurinibacillus*,
Clostridia, *Cohnella*, *Salinicola*, and *Bermanella*, showed a low 3Di/AA distance ratio and a short AA
distance (both below the bacterial mean minus one standard deviation) (Fig. 5B, large solid yellow-
green circles), making them a strong candidate HGT donor. Interestingly, most of the bacteria that
emerged as potential HGT donors to ferns also exhibited a lower 3Di/AA distance ratio with arbuscular
mycorrhizal (AM) fungi, known as plant endosymbionts, implying a scenario of bacteria–AM fungi–
fern HGT. Likewise, bacteria–symbiont–sea anemone HGTs were suggested, as well as HGTs to frogs,
newts, sturgeons, and *Fusarium* (Fig. 6). In the 2D/3D-mixed clade, additional HGT events were
suggested toward *Fusarium* and other fungal plant pathogens and parasites, nematode-trapping fungi,
and marine archaea (Figs. S9A–B). In the Prb clade, HGTs from bacteria, including the insect
endosymbiont *Rickettsia*, to aphids and beetles were also suggested (Figs. S9C–D). However,
compared with the distribution among bacteria–bacteria pairs, the bacteria–animal pairs tended to
show larger AA and 3Di distances in this clade (Fig. S8C and F), suggesting that the actual HGT donors
may include yet-unidentified bacterial lineages harboring Pra+Prb three-domain proteins. These results
suggest that, in addition to HGT among diverse bacteria, close ecological interactions such as
symbiosis have contributed to shaping the current broad taxonomic distribution of these genes.

Discussion
Since Cry proteins have so far been identified only in *B. thuringiensis* and several other Bacillota
bacteria including *Paenibacillus* and *Lysinibacillus*, they have generally been considered to represent

a lineage uniquely acquired and diversified within these bacteria. Here, however, we show that the first
two domains are broadly distributed across diverse organisms, with the Cry protein family representing
one terminal outcome of this broader diversification. Although our results cannot determine whether
the three-domain Cry proteins evolved by gaining an additional domain from two-domain ancestors or
two-domain proteins emerged by domain loss from three-domain ancestors, the phylogenetic and motif
analyses (Figs. 2–4) suggest that the 2D/3D-mixed clade has played an intermediate, bridging role
linking the Cry, IPD113, and Prb lineages. In the 2D/3D-mixed clade, both 2D proteins and canonical
3D Cry proteins were found in *Paenibacillus* species (Table S2), suggesting that this clade represents
a site of domain-3 gain or loss. In addition, certain *Lysinibacillus* species produce 2D proteins that
belong to the IPD113 clade (Table S2).

Domain swapping has been proposed to underlie the diversification of Cry proteins (de Maagd, Bravo,
and Crickmore 2001). Our results extend this concept beyond the Cry family, encompassing proteins
in the 2D/3D-mixed, IPD113, and Photobacterium clades as well. Many Cry proteins that form
intermixed clades are nematocidal (Fig. 3B), suggesting that ecological interactions may have occurred
across bacteria including Bt strains that use nematodes as hosts. In contrast, domain II swapping
appears not to have occurred with the Prb clade. This may be explained by the fact that *Prb* genes are
chromosomally encoded in *Photorhabdus*, *Xenorhabdus*, *Sodalis*, and *Yersinia* (Wang et al. 2023)
whereas Cry proteins are typically plasmid-borne. Furthermore, *Photorhabdus* and *Xenorhabdus* are
endosymbionts of nematodes, which may limit their opportunities for horizontal gene exchange with
other bacteria after the establishment of symbiosis.

Our results indicate the bacterial origin of fern IPD113. Surprisingly, AM fungi also possess IPD113
genes. Symbiotic relationships with AM fungi are common in ferns. Among the ferns analyzed in this
study, *Adiantum aethiopicum*, *Blechnum occidentale*, *Lygodium flexuosum*, and *Christella dentata*
have been reported to exhibit AM colonization (Kumari et al. 2024). The hyphosphere of AM fungi
harbors a microbiome distinct from that of bulk soil and the rhizosphere. This microbiome includes
Brevibacillus, *Cohnella*, *Tahibacter*, *Undibacterium*, *Hymenobacter*, and *Novosphingobium* (Zhang et
al. 2022)—all of which have Cry-like two domain proteins and were identified as potential bacterial
donors for HGT to AM fungi and ferns (Fig. 6). This is therefore consistent with a scenario of bacteria–
AM fungi–fern HGT. Despite the widespread symbiosis of AM fungi with vascular plants, only ferns
and bryophytes seem to possess this gene. Understanding the evolutionary significance and underlying
mechanisms of this unique distribution in plants will require further investigation.

Ferns appear to have retained IPD113 for its original insecticidal function. However, the physiological

roles of proteins containing Cry-like two domains in many bacteria, eukaryotes, and archaea remain unclear. Previous studies have noted that Pra and Prb proteins resemble a beetle protein, which we refer to in this study as the insect Pra+Prb protein (Duchaud et al. 2003; Waterfield et al. 2005). The insect Pra+Prb protein was originally isolated from the hemolymph of the Colorado potato beetle *Leptinotarsa decemlineata* and predicted to function as a juvenile hormone esterase (Vermunt et al. 1997, 1998), although its true function remains unknown. The western corn rootworm *Diabrotica virgifera virgifera* possesses four copies of the gene encoding the three-domain protein, one of which lacks introns (Table S2), suggesting that HGT events have occurred repeatedly, including a relatively recent one. The frequent occurrence of HGT may be attributed not only to close biological interactions but also to the potential contribution of transposable elements. Future studies are needed to elucidate both the functions of proteins containing Cry-like two domains and the genetic mechanisms underlying their broad taxonomic distribution.

Material and methods

BLAST searches

Non-redundant protein sequences (nr) were searched using BLASTp (Camacho et al. 2009). The raw

output data is shown in Table S1. Taxonomic information was obtained from the NCBI Taxonomy

database (Federhen 2012). For downstream analyses, sequences showing ≥95% amino acid identity

were removed using CD-HIT (Li and Godzik 2006).

Structure prediction and alignment

Tertiary structures of full-length BLAST-hit proteins and Cry proteins were predicted using AlphaFold

3 (Abramson et al. 2024) under template-free conditions. Unless otherwise specified, all other

parameters followed the default settings of AlphaFold3. For Cry proteins, we selected Cry proteins

with quaternary rank 1 from the Bacterial Pesticidal Protein Resource Center (www.bpprc.org).

Cry1If1, Cry1Jc1, Cry8La1, and Cry53Aa1 were excluded from the analysis because their amino acid

sequences contained unknown residues (X). The top-ranked model among five predictions was used

for further analyses. Predicted structures that did not contain complete Cry-like two domains were

excluded.

Structural alignments were performed using FoldMason (Gilchrist, Mirdita, and Steinegger 2024). To

ensure precise domain trimming, four separate alignments were generated: (1) Cry, (2) BLAST hits

obtained using *L. wrightii* IPD113 and *C. faecalis* IPD113-like proteins as queries, (3) BLAST hits

obtained using *P. akhurstii* and *V. parahaemolyticus* Prb as queries, and (4) BLAST hits obtained using

P. akhurstii and *V. parahaemolyticus* Pra as queries. Domain trimming was guided by the reference

structures (Cry1Aa1, *L. wrightii* IPD113, *P. akhurstii* Prb, and Pra). For domain I, residues from the

N-terminal amino acid forming the first α-helix (α1) to the C-terminal amino acid forming the seventh

α-helix (α7) were retained. For domain II, residues from the N-terminal amino acid forming the first

β-strand (excluding those included in domain I) to the C-terminal amino acid forming the last β-strand

were extracted. The same criteria were applied to Cry domain III and Pra domain. For full-length

sequences of the domain I–II region, the linker region between domains I and II was included. After

trimming, we evaluated qualities of the trimmed predicted structures using AF3 confidence metrics,

pLDDT and predicted aligned error (PAE). For phylogenetic and motif analysis, we used 557 AF3

models with mean pLDDT ≥60 (a per-atom confidence index) to extract amino acid sequences

corresponding to domain I, domain II, and the domain I–II region. For structural analysis, we used 498

predicted models with high confidence, defined as an average pLDDT ≥ 80 and PAE ≤ 10 Å in both

domains I and II.

Phylogenetic analysis

Phylogenetic trees were reconstructed using the Graph Splitting method (Figs. 1, 2, S4 and S6) (Matsui and Iwasaki 2020) and the maximum likelihood method (Figs. 5 and S8). For GS trees, we used Graph Splitting v2.4. The Edge Perturbation (EP) values were computed with 100 replicates. For ML trees, the amino acid sequences were aligned using MAFFT v7.526 (Katoh and Standley 2013) and the trees were generated with IQ-TREE2 v2.3.6 (Minh et al. 2020) using the ModelFinder option with 1,000 ultrafast bootstrap and SH-aLRT replicates. The WAG+F+I+R4, pfam+F+R5, and yeast+R5 models were selected for the 2D/3D-mixed, IPD113, and Prb clades, respectively. All trees were visualized using the ggtree R package (Yu et al. 2017).

Motif analysis

Amino acid motifs were identified using MEME v5.5.7 (Bailey et al. 2015). Preliminary searches suggested that 60 and 20 motifs were sufficient to cover the entire sequences of the two-domain and domain III/Pra/insect Pra-like protein datasets, respectively, with the identified motifs evenly distributed across the alignments. To evaluate whether the identified motifs contained sufficient information and evolutionary relevance, we applied two criteria: (1) average information content ≥ 1.0, and (2) at least two positions with information content ≥ 1.5. Only one motif (motif 40) identified in the domain I–II sequences failed to meet these criteria and was excluded from subsequent analyses. A binary matrix representing the presence or absence of each motif across sequences was constructed and subjected to dimensionality reduction using t-SNE implemented in the Rtsne R package. The perplexity parameter was set to one-third of the number of sequences.

Structural analysis

Protein structures were visualized using UCSF ChimeraX v1.8 (Pettersen et al. 2004). Pairwise structural alignments were performed in UCSF ChimeraX v1.8 using the MatchMaker command (sequence alignment algorithm, Needleman–Wunsch; Matrix, BLOSUM-62), which provided alignment parameters including sequence score, RMSD (all and pruned pairs), and number of aligned residues.

Exponential fitting of AA–3Di distance

AA distances were derived from the distance matrices of the ML trees generated using IQ-TREE2. Pairwise distances between MAFFT-aligned 3Di sequences were calculated as p-distance, defined as the proportion of differing positions between two sequences after excluding gap positions. Specifically, for each sequence pair i, j, p-distance was calculated as:

$$p_{ij} = 1 - \frac{N_{\text{match}}}{N_{\text{compared}}}$$

where N_{match} is the number of aligned positions with identical symbols (excluding gaps), and N_{compared} is the total number of positions compared (i.e., sites without gaps in either sequence).

The relationship between sequence and structural similarity is strongly nonlinear, and structural divergence becomes particularly pronounced at low sequence identity; therefore, exponential models have been used to approximate this divergence (Chothia and Lesk 1986). To obtain the bacteria–bacteria regression, we fit an asymptotic exponential model of the form

$$y = A - B\exp\{-C(x - D)\}$$

where x is the AA distance, y is the 3Di distance, and A, B, C, D are free parameters. Nonlinear least-squares fitting was performed using the minpack.lm R package. Outliers beyond ±3 standard deviations of the residuals were removed, and the model was refit using the remaining bacteria–bacteria pairs.

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Author Contributions
H.E. designed research, performed analysis and wrote the manuscript. H.K. contributed to data interpretation and critically reviewed the manuscript.

Conflict of interest
The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Data availability
All data generated and used for the analyses are deposited in the CBS Data Sharing Platform (URL and password are provided for reviewers and it will be made public upon acceptance)

Code availability

Custom code used in the analysis is deposited in the CBS Data Sharing Platform (URL and password

are provided for reviewers and it will be made public upon acceptance). Protein structure modeling

and structural alignment were performed using AlphaFold 3 (https://github.com/google-

deepmind/alphafold3) and FoldMason (https://github.com/steineggerlab/foldmason). Phylogenetic

analysis was conducted using the Graph Splitting method (https://github.com/MotomuMatsui/gs) and

IQ-TREE2 (https://github.com/iqtree/iqtree2). Amino acid motif analysis was performed using

MEME (https://github.com/cinquin/MEME). Sequence alignment and processing were performed

using MAFFT (https://github.com/GSLBiotech/mafft) and CD-HIT

(https://github.com/weizhongli/cdhit). For plotting and data processing, we used Python v.3.10.18

(https://www.python.org/), R v.4.4.1 (https://www.r-project.org/), and R studio v2024.12.1+563.

Figure legends

Fig. 1 | Putative IPD113 homologues identified by BLASTp.

(A) Domain architecture of Cry, Prb, and IPD113 proteins. Cry (PDB: 1CIY), Prb (PDB: 7FDP), Pra

(PDB: 7FCN), and IPD113 (PDB: 8D2J).

(B) Scatter plots of amino acid identity versus E-value from BLASTp searches. *Leptochilus wrightii*

IPD113 protein. Dots indicate putative homologues (E-value < 1e−5). Raw BLASTp results are

provided in Table S1.

(C) AF3-predicted structures of putative IPD113 homologues.

Fig. 2 | The GS tree of domain I–II region of **proteins containing Cry-like two domains.**

(A) Graph Splitting tree of the domain I proteins containing Cry-like two domains. Black and gray

branches indicate high and low reliability, supported by edge perturbation (EP) values ≥ 0.9 and <

0.9, respectively. Red, light blue, and green node circles indicate known Cry proteins, Prb proteins

from *Photorhabdus*, *Xenorhabdus*, and *Vibrio*, and fern IPD113 proteins.

(B) Sankey plots showing the taxonomy and the number of domains, based on AF3-predicted

structures, in each clade.

Fig. 3 | The domain-level GS tree of proteins containing Cry-like two domains.

GS trees of domain I (A) and domain II (B) sequences. Black and gray branches indicate high and

low reliability, supported by edge perturbation (EP) values ≥ 0.9 and < 0.9, respectively. Node circle

colors correspond to the clades defined in the two-domain GS tree shown in Fig. 1C. Cry proteins

shown in bold indicate nematocidal Cry proteins.

Fig. 4 | Amino acid motif patterns.

(A) Raster plot of amino acid motif patterns. Twenty-six motifs shared across at least two clades were mapped onto the two-domain GS tree shown in Fig. 2A.

(B–D) t-SNE visualization of motif patterns. The motif presence/absence matrix from (A) was dimensionally reduced to visualize motifs located in domain I (B), domain II (C), and the domain I–II region (D).

(E) α5 motifs of each clade. Cry proteins carrying IPD113-type or Prb-type α5 motifs are listed.

Fig. 5 | Domain-level structural comparisons.

The domain I and II structures of *Photorhabdus akhurstii* Prb and *Leptochilus wrightii* IPD113 were compared with those of other proteins containing Cry-like two domains.

(A–D) Sequence similarity scores and whole-domain RMSD values obtained from pairwise alignments and structural superpositions. Dot colors correspond to the same clade color scheme shown in Fig. 1C.

(E–H) Pruned residue pairs and their pruned RMSD values derived from structural superpositions. Dot colors correspond to the same clade color scheme shown in Fig. 1C.

(I–L) Representative structural superpositions with proteins from different clades. Pruned regions are highlighted, and non-pruned regions are shown with increased transparency.

Fig. 6 | Potential HGT pairs in the IPD113 clade.

(A) Maximum likelihood tree of the IPD113 clade. Black branches indicate high reliability (Ultrafast Bootstrap ≥ 95% and SH-aLRT ≥ 80%); other branches are shown in gray. Node circle colors indicate taxonomy. The scale bar represents the number of substitutions per site.

(B) Pairs with a low 3Di/AA distance ratio, falling below the bacteria–bacteria regression. The vertical position of each circle corresponds to the sequence labels in the phylogenetic tree shown in (A). Each column corresponds to a red-highlighted bacterial sequence (potential HGT donor), with which sequences of non-bacterial sequences (rows) are compared. Proteins plotted in the same column have a 3Di/AA distance ratio that falls below the bacteria–bacteria regression in Fig. S8, indicating potential HGT recipients. The fill opacity of each circle reflects its amino acid (AA) distance relative to the mean of bacteria–bacteria pairs: circles with AA distances above the mean are outlined with high transparency, those between the mean and −1 SD are semi-transparent, and those below −1 SD are shown as fully opaque. Large circles indicate proteins below −1 SD from the regression, while small circles indicate those between 0 and −1 SD. In particular, large opaque circles are more likely to represent candidate HGT pairs involving bacterial sequences.

Fig. S1 | Putative IPD113 and Prb homologues identified by BLASTp.

(A, B) Scatter plots of amino acid identity versus E-value from BLASTp searches. *Cohnella faecalis*

IPD113-like protein (A) and *Photorhabdus akhurstii* Prb protein (B) were used as queries. Dots

indicate putative homologues (E-value < 1e−5). Raw BLASTp results are provided in Table S1. (C)

AF3-predicted structures of a putative Prb homologue.

Fig. S2 | Sankey plots showing the taxonomy of proteins in the 2D/3D-mixed (A), IPD113 (B),

and Prb (C) clades. Full taxonomic assignments derived from NCBI are listed in Table S2.

Fig. S3 | Amino acid motifs identified by MEME.

Amino acid motifs of (A) Cry-like 2D proteins and (B) domain III, Pra, insect Pra-like domain

proteins.

Fig. S4 | Positions and counts of amino acid motifs.

(A) Distribution of motif positions mapped onto the structural alignment generated by FoldMason.

Each row corresponds to one detected motif. Labels show the number of occurrences (n) and the

mean starting position of the motif ± standard deviation. Motif 40 was excluded from the analysis

because it did not meet two information-content criteria (see Methods). Light blue boxplots show the

median (vertical black line), first and third quartiles (box), and whiskers extending to 1.5× the

interquartile range. Gray dots represent individual occurrences of each motif. For most motifs, the

interquartile range is extremely small, making the light blue boxes barely visible.

(B) Counts of motifs in domain I, domain II, and the domain I–II region among members of each

clade. Boxplots show the median (horizontal line), first and third quartiles (box), and whiskers

extending to 1.5× the interquartile range (outliers hidden); diamonds indicate the mean.

(C) Motif locations in Cry5 and Cry21 proteins. Each rectangle represents a single motif, with colors

indicating the combination of clades in which the motif is shared.

Fig. S5 | Domain-level GS trees based on 3Di sequences.

(A) Domain I tree. (B) Domain II tree. Black and gray branches indicate high and low reliability,

supported by edge perturbation (EP) values ≥ 0.9 and < 0.9, respectively. Node circle colors

correspond to the clades defined in the two-domain GS tree shown in Fig. 1C.

Fig. S6 | Analyses of Cry domain III, Pra, and insect Pra-like domains.

(A, B) GS trees of Cry domain III, Pra, and insect Pra-like domains based on amino acid (A) and 3Di

(B) sequences. Black and gray branches indicate high and low reliability, supported by edge

perturbation (EP) values ≥ 0.9 and < 0.9, respectively. Node circle colors correspond to the clades.

(C) Raster plot of amino acid motif patterns. Twenty motifs were mapped onto the GS tree shown in
(A).

(D) t-SNE visualization of motif patterns. The motif presence/absence matrix from (A) was
dimensionally reduced. Sequences without motifs (Cry11Ba1, Cry18Aa, Cry18Ba1, Cry18Ca1) were
excluded from this analysis. Dot colors correspond to the same clade color scheme as in (A) and (B).

(E–G) Structural comparisons of *P. akhurstii* Pra with other members shown in (A). Colors
correspond to the same clade color scheme as in (A).

(E) Sequence similarity scores and whole-domain RMSD values obtained from pairwise alignments
and structural superpositions.

(F) Pruned residue pairs and their pruned RMSD values derived from structural superpositions.

(G) Representative structural superpositions with proteins from different clades. Pruned regions are
highlighted, and non-pruned regions are shown with increased transparency.

Fig. S7 | The two-domain GS tree colored by taxonomy.
The two-domain GS tree shown in Fig. 1C is colored by taxonomy for the IPD113 (A), 2D/3D-
mixed (B), and Prb (C) clades. Black and gray branches indicate high and low reliability, supported
by edge perturbation (EP) values ≥ 0.9 and < 0.9, respectively.

Fig. S8 | Distributions of AA and 3Di distances.
(A–C) Distributions of amino acid (AA) and 3Di distances among bacteria–bacteria pairs in the
IPD113 (A), 2D/3D-mixed (B), and Prb (C) clades. AA distances were derived from the distance
matrices of the ML trees shown in Figs. 5 and S9A and C. 3Di distances were calculated as pairwise
distances (p-distances) based on 3Di alignments. Black solid lines indicate the exponential fit; dotted
lines indicate fit –1 SD. Red dots represent outliers.

(D–F) Distributions of AA and 3Di distances among all pairs in the IPD113 (D), 2D/3D-mixed (E),
and Prb (F) clades. Black solid lines indicate the exponential fit; dotted lines indicate fit –1 SD. Dots
representing pairs between bacteria and non-bacterial taxa are color-coded.

Fig. S9 | Potential HGT pairs in the 2D/3D-mixed and Prb clades.
(A, C) Maximum likelihood tree of the 2D/3D-mixed and Prb clades. Black branches indicate high
reliability (Ultrafast Bootstrap ≥ 95% and SH-aLRT ≥ 80%); other branches are shown in gray. Node
circle colors indicate taxonomy. The scale bar represents the number of substitutions per site.

(B, D) Pairs with a low 3Di/AA distance ratio, falling below the bacteria–bacteria regression. The
vertical position of each circle corresponds to the sequence labels in the phylogenetic tree shown in

(A). Each column corresponds to a red-highlighted bacterial sequence (potential HGT donor). Proteins plotted in the same column have a 3Di/AA distance ratio that falls below the bacteria– bacteria regression in Fig. S8, indicating potential HGT recipients. The fill opacity of each circle reflects its amino acid (AA) distance relative to the mean of bacteria–bacteria pairs: circles with AA distances above the mean are outlined with high transparency, those between the mean and −1 SD are semi-transparent, and those below −1 SD are shown as fully opaque. Large circles indicate proteins below −1 SD from the regression, while small circles indicate those between 0 and −1 SD. In particular, large opaque circles are more likely to represent candidate HGT pairs involving bacterial sequences.

Table S1 | Raw BLASTp results

Table S2 | List of proteins containing Cry-like two domains used in this study.

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Fig. 1

A

Domain III

Domain I

Domain II

Cry   Prb   IPD113

Pra

B

BLASTp (query: IPD113)

Amino acid identity (%)

ferns

animals

moss

bacteria

Log10(E Value)

C

Brevibacillus reuszeri
WP_213025891.1

Ceratodon purpureus (moss)
KAG0578439.1

Flavobacterium sp.
WP_317500100.1

Pleurodeles waltl (newt)
KAJ1162336.1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

A

Domain I tree

B

Domain II tree

Cry2Aa1- Ak1, Ba1
Cry11Aa1, Ba1, Bb1
Cry18Aa1-Ca1
Cry63Aa1

Cry5Aa1-Ad1
Cry5Ea1
Cry5Da1

Cry31Aa1-Ad1
Cry12Aa1

Cry21Ga1
Cry5Ba1, Ca1
Cry13Aa1
Cry14Aa1, Ab1

Cry70Aa1, Ba1, Bb1

Cry21Aa1-Fa1
Cry21Ha1
Cry58Aa1

Cry **2D/3D-mixed** **IPD113** **Prb** **Photobacterium**

Fig. 4

A

Cry   2D/3D-mixed   IPD113   Prb
Photobacterium

B   Domain I motif

C   Domain II motif

D   Domain I–II motif

E   α5 motif

Cry & 2D/3D-mixed (block 1)

IPD113   Cry5Ea Cry11Ba Cry18Ba
Cry18Ca Cry63Aa
Cry21Ga Cry66Aa

Prb   Cry5Ca1
Cry21Da1

Fig. 5

A Domain I
P. akhurstii Prb vs. others

E Domain I
P. akhurstii Prb vs. others

I *P. akhurstii* Prb (AEQ33638)

Kosakonia cowanii IPD113
(WP_312435016)
Pairs = 104, RMSD = 1.023Å

Cry2Aa1
Pairs = 96, RMSD = 1.164Å

Cry32Va1
Pairs = 93, RMSD = 1.235Å

B Domain I
L. wrightii IPD113 vs. others

F Domain I
L. wrightii IPD113 vs. others

J *L. wrightii* IPD113 (UDN67319)

Spirosoma sp. 2D/3D-mixed
(WP_405520094)
Pairs = 82, RMSD = 1.04Å

Cry1Ha1
Pairs = 84, RMSD = 0.938Å

Rhopalosiphum maidis Prb
(XP_026817817)
Pairs = 66, RMSD = 1.206Å

C Domain II
P. akhurstii Prb vs. others

G Domain II
P. akhurstii Prb vs. others

K *P. akhurstii* Prb (AEQ33638)

Proteus columbae IPD113
(WP_311753401)
Pairs = 89, RMSD = 0.824Å

Fusarium redolens 2D/3D-mixed
(XP_046047771)
Pairs = 78, RMSD = 0.856Å

Cry41Ab1
Pairs = 71, RMSD = 1.096Å

D Domain II
L. wrightii IPD113 vs. others

H Domain II
L. wrightii IPD113 vs. others

L *L. wrightii* IPD113 (UDN67319)

Paenibacillus septentrionalis
2D/3D-mixed (WP_379236550)
Pairs = 70, RMSD = 0.774Å

Phyllotreta striolata Prb
(CAG9859131)
Pairs = 71, RMSD = 0.998Å

Cry70Aa1
Pairs = 71, RMSD = 1.007Å

Fig. 6

A IPD113 clade
Maximum likelihood tree

Bacteria
Animals
Plants
Fungi
Protists
Archaea

B Pairs with low 3Di/AA distance ratio
below the bacteria-bacteria regression

Frogs
Newts
Sturgeons

AM fungi
(plant endosymbionts)

Sea anemone

Marine archaea

Dinoflagellates
(sea anemone symbionts)

Ferns

Fusarium

potential bacterial HGT donor sequences

potential bacterial HGT donors   low 3Di/AA ratio
potential HGT recipients

short AA distance

Fig. S1

A

BLASTp (query: bacterial IPD113 homologue)

B

BLASTp (query: *Photorhabdus akhurstii* Prb)

C

Diabrotica virgifera virgifera
XP_050497850

Fig. S2

A 2D/3D-mixed clade

B IPD113 clade

C Prb clade

Fig. S3

A Cry-like 2D proteins

	Logo	E-value	Sites	Width
1.		8.5e-1687	303	25
2.		7.6e-1419	306	19
3.		9.8e-1303	479	21
4.		4.2e-871	248	21
5.		4.4e-1044	273	29
6.		1.3e-746	415	15
7.		6.2e-861	272	21
8.		2.2e-605	342	21
9.		7.4e-539	205	26
10.		4.9e-475	200	21
11.		8.0e-333	168	21
12.		9.7e-326	32	50
13.		3.2e-289	103	21
14.		3.9e-301	122	21
15.		7.3e-487	75	50
16.		8.6e-338	31	28
17.		1.5e-272	322	15
18.		8.8e-255	38	41
19.		3.1e-244	103	21
20.		3.2e-262	51	29
21.		1.6e-239	250	15
22.		4.9e-225	67	21
23.		3.8e-177	18	29
24.		5.1e-145	48	24
25.		3.6e-174	12	50
26.		1.6e-165	15	50
27.		9.0e-145	13	41
28.		8.1e-180	60	29
29.		4.1e-159	11	50
30.		1.6e-155	11	50
31.		1.1e-131	18	41
32.		1.7e-127	117	15
33.		2.5e-123	42	15
34.		5.8e-122	62	21
35.		7.8e-147	59	28
36.		1.3e-111	29	21
37.		1.3e-102	59	21
38.		2.4e-101	37	21
39.		1.2e-100	8	50
40.		1.5e-094	160	32
41.		7.4e-122	28	39
42.		1.3e-098	15	41
43.		6.2e-105	11	41
44.		1.7e-100	13	50
45.		5.1e-093	30	29
46.		2.9e-087	58	27
47.		3.7e-085	58	15
48.		3.4e-084	18	21
49.		1.0e-078	29	15
50.		1.4e-078	48	29
51.		1.8e-071	28	37
52.		2.1e-069	100	11
53.		2.7e-069	30	19
54.		1.6e-062	12	50
55.		3.5e-057	4	50
56.		1.1e-057	8	50
57.		5.4e-049	45	15
58.		1.5e-048	27	21
59.		2.1e-047	57	15
60.		3.7e-042	8	50

B DomainIII/Pra/insect Pra-like domain motif

	Logo	E-value	Sites	Width
1.		1.5e-2141	139	27
2.		7.0e-1391	249	15
3.		3.0e-1181	229	11
4.		1.4e-615	178	15
5.		2.1e-593	38	29
6.		9.4e-567	68	21
7.		1.6e-508	71	21
8.		7.5e-455	13	50
9.		2.2e-352	67	15
10.		7.8e-349	12	50
11.		5.3e-322	50	21
12.		1.3e-261	58	15
13.		2.8e-250	72	11
14.		8.1e-245	31	11
15.		1.2e-206	33	21
16.		4.1e-186	21	15
17.		2.4e-170	23	15
18.		5.2e-135	31	15
19.		3.5e-101	22	21
20.		3.6e-077	10	21

Fig. S4

A

B

C

Fig. S5

A Domain I tree
(structure , 3Di)

B Domain II tree
(structure , 3Di)

Cry **2D/3D-mixed** **IPD113** **Prb** **Photobacterium**

Fig. S6

A Domain III /Pra tree (amino acid)

B Domain III/ Pra tree (structure , 3Di)

Cry Domain III   **2D/3D-mixed Cry Domain III**   **Pra**   **insect Pra+Prb protein D0**

C

D

Cry Domain III
2D/3D-mixed Cry

insect Pra+Prb protein (CAG9864433)
Cry11Aa1, Cry11Ab1

t-SNE 2
t-SNE 1

E *P. akhurstii* Pra vs. others

Sequence Score
All RMSD (Å)

F *P. akhurstii* Pra vs. others

Pruned Pairs
Pruned RMSD (Å)

G *Photorhabdus akhurstii* Pra (AEQ33637)

Cry61Aa1
Pairs = 32, RMSD = 1.185Å

Cry5Aa1
Pairs = 28, RMSD = 1.015Å

Fig. S7

Fig. S8

IPD113 clade

A Exponential fit (R²=0.898), removed(outliers)=6 / 861

Bacteria–Bacteria
Outlier (±3SD)

2D/3D-mixed clade

B Exponential fit (R²=0.913), removed(outliers)=19 / 2926

Bacteria–Bacteria
Outlier (±3SD)

Prb clade

C Exponential fit (R²=0.922), removed(outliers)=4 / 946

Bacteria–Bacteria
Outlier (±3SD)

D

Bacteria-Animals
Bacteria-Archaea
Bacteria-Fungi
Bacteria-Plants
Bacteria-Protists

E

Bacteria-Archaea
Bacteria-Fungi

F

Bacteria-Animals

Fig. S9

A 2D/3D-mixed clade Maximum likelihood tree

B Pairs with low 3Di/AA distance ratio below the bacteria-bacteria regression

Marine archaea

Nematode-trapping fungi

Fusarium

Fungus plant pathogens/parasites

potential bacterial HGT donor sequences

- Bacteria
- Fungi
- Archaea

- potential bacterial HGT donors
- potential HGT recipients
- low 3Di/AA ratio
- short AA distance

C Prb clade Maximum likelihood tree

D Pairs with low 3Di/AA distance ratio below the bacteria-bacteria regression

Rickettsia (insect endosymbionts)
Aphid

Beetles

potential bacterial HGT donor sequences

- Bacteria
- Animals