Streptococcus pneumoniae possesses an unexpectedly large bacteriocin

repertoire

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Abstract

Streptococcus pneumoniae (the 'pneumococcus') is a frequent coloniser of the human nasopharynx

and a leading cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide. Understanding the composition and

dynamics of the pneumococcal population is crucial, as these factors influence the observed

distribution of disease in the human population. Competition among bacterial members of the

nasopharynx is believed to be mediated by bacteriocins: antimicrobial toxins produced by bacteria

to inhibit growth of other bacteria. The role of bacteriocins as weapons of defence also makes

bacteriocins attractive candidates for the development of new antibiotics. Here, by screening >6,200

pneumococcal genomes, we identified 14 newly-discovered bacteriocin clusters, tripling the number

of known bacteriocins among pneumococci. We provide evidence that many of the bacteriocin

genes are transcriptionally active when the cell is induced by external stress. Using a large global and

historical dataset of pneumococci isolated from 1916-2009, we determined the prevalence,

molecular epidemiology and co-occurrence patterns of the identified bacteriocin clusters. Our study

demonstrated extraordinary bacteriocin diversity among the pneumococcal genomes and revealed

several genome hotspots for the integration of bacteriocin clusters. These findings fundamentally

change our view of bacteriocins and nasopharyngeal competition among pneumococci.

The pneumococcus is most commonly an asymptomatic coloniser of the nasopharynx in healthy young

children; however, colonisation is also the initial stage of the disease process. Pneumococci are among

the most common causes of otitis media, sinusitis and conjunctivitis, and a leading cause of severe

infections such as pneumonia, bacteraemia and meningitis. All age groups are susceptible to

pneumococcal infection, but young children, the elderly, and immunocompromised persons are most at

risk[1].

Despite the use of antimicrobials and pneumococcal conjugate vaccines, the pneumococcus remains a major global health problem, causing approximately 14.5 million cases of serious disease and 826,000 deaths annually in children <5 years of age[2]. Antimicrobial-resistant pneumococci have been a serious and increasing concern for several decades[3,4,5], and the pneumococcus is now considered to be a 'priority pathogen' (antimicrobial-resistant bacteria that pose the greatest threat to global health) by the World Health Organisation[6].

The polysaccharide capsule is the main virulence factor of the pneumococcus: nearly 100 distinct capsular antigenic types (serotypes) have been described and certain serotypes are predominantly associated with disease whilst others are largely associated with nasopharyngeal colonisation[7]. Pneumococci frequently co-colonise with other pneumococci and non-pneumococcal bacterial species, and intra- and inter-specific competition can influence colonisation dynamics, strain prevalence, serotype distributions and consequently, the potential for disease progression[8].

Competition among bacterial members of the nasopharyngeal microbiome is believed be mediated by bacteriocins: ribosomally-synthesised antimicrobial toxins produced by bacterial species to inhibit the growth of other closely-related bacteria. The producer strain also encodes an immunity protein to protect itself from its own bacteriocin. Bacteriocin production has been associated with more efficient colonisation of a host by the producer strain, owing to the ability of these toxins to remove competitors[8,9]. Their ability to kill bacteria makes bacteriocins attractive potential candidates for the development of new antimicrobials. Several bacteriocins (e.g. nisin and pediocin PA-1) have already been commercialised and are widely used as food preservatives[10].

From a genetic perspective, bacteriocins are found in gene clusters, whereby the genes involved in toxin production, immunity and transport (exporting and processing the toxin peptide) are situated adjacent to each other in the bacterial genome[9,10,11,12]. The *blp* (bacteriocin-like peptides) cluster is the best-characterised bacteriocin in pneumococcus[9,10,11,12]. Previous work by our group showed that the *blp* cluster is ubiquitous among pneumococci recovered from the early 1900s onward and is highly diverse. We also identified a novel bacteriocin cluster that we named pneumocyclicin[11]. Five additional bacteriocins have been reported among pneumococci[13,14,15,16,17]; however, their prevalence, genetic composition and molecular epidemiology in the context of the pneumococcal population are unknown.

The explosion of whole genome sequence data expedites the detection and genetic analysis of

bacteriocin clusters. Here, we report the discovery of 14 newly-discovered pneumococcal

bacteriocin clusters. We describe the molecular epidemiology of all the currently known bacteriocins

within a collection of pneumococci isolated over the past 90 years and reveal astonishing diversity.

We demonstrate the presence of several apparent hotspots for the integration of bacteriocin

clusters within the pneumococcal genome and provide transcriptomic evidence that multiple

bacteriocin clusters were induced in response to external stress.

Results

Genome mining triples the number of known bacteriocins among pneumococci

Our bioinformatic investigation of a large and diverse dataset of 571 historical and modern

pneumococcal genomes resulted in the identification of 14 newly-discovered bacteriocin clusters,

boosting the number of known bacteriocins in this species to 21 (Table 1). We identified several

clusters belonging to the lactococcin 972, sactipeptide and lassopeptide classes of bacteriocins,

which were hitherto not known to be harboured by the pneumococcus (Table 1; Supplementary

Table 1). We subsequently expanded our search for bacteriocins to a much larger dataset of 5,673

published pneumococcal genomes, but no additional bacteriocins were found; thus, the description

of the bacteriocins here is restricted to those identified in the dataset of 571 genomes.

BLAST searches of the NCBI database of non-redundant nucleotide sequences revealed that the

majority of these clusters were not exclusive to pneumococcus, but that identical or similar versions

were present in other streptococci (Supplementary Table 2). Therefore, we used the prefix "strepto"

and named each cluster according to its class of bacteriocin (see Methods). Among the putative

bacteriocins, five were similar to lactococcin 972[18] and we called these streptococcins (Fig. 1).

Despite gene synteny among the streptococcins (Fig. 1a), they shared little nucleotide sequence

identity with each other (Fig. 1b). Different streptococcins were found in different, but consistent,

locations within the bacterial chromosome (Fig. 1a and 1c). Eleven different streptolancidins, one

streptosactin, one streptolassin and one streptocyclicin (what we previously called pneumocyclicin)

were also identified among pneumococcal genomes[19] (Fig. 2). The bacteriocin clusters were

commonly flanked by genes predicted to encode CAAX proteins (possibly involved in self-immunity

from bacteriocin toxins[20]), Rgg and PlcR transcriptional regulators (implicated in bacterial quorum

sensing[21]), transporters, lipoproteins and mobilisation proteins.

Extraordinary bacteriocin diversity within the global pneumococcal population

We further assessed these bacteriocins in the context of the pneumococcal population structure. The study dataset consisted of a diverse collection of 571 pneumococci isolated between 1916 and 2009 from patients and healthy individuals of all ages residing in 39 different countries across six continents. 88 pneumococcal serotypes and 99 different clonal complexes were represented (Table 1; Supplementary Table 3). All bacteriocins detected more than once in the dataset were identified among pneumococci isolated over several decades and from a variety of different countries (Table 1). Some bacteriocins were present in all pneumococci, whilst others were limited to specific clonal complexes (genetic lineages). Bacteriocin clusters missing one or more genes were deemed as partial. The percentages of partial and complete clusters varied between different bacteriocins, e.g. streptococcin E was present in all but one pneumococcal genome, but was missing one or more genes in the majority (86.9%) of genomes, while streptococcin C was found as a complete cluster in all genomes (Table 1 and Fig. 3a). We constructed a core genome phylogenetic tree of all isolates and labelled each genome according to the presence or absence of each bacteriocin cluster (Supplementary Figure 1). Overall, we found that the number of bacteriocins within each genome varied from 6 to 11 per genome and that certain combinations of bacteriocins were well represented in the dataset (Fig. 3b, 3c and Supplementary Figure 1).

Due to their relative simplicity (containing only three genes), we chose streptococcins as models for further investigating the pattern of missing genes in partial clusters (Fig. 3a). Scrutinising these clusters revealed that the majority of the partial clusters lack the toxin gene, while still retaining the immunity and/or the transporter genes. This could support the general idea of a 'cheater' phenotype, whereby the immunity and transporter genes are conserved to protect the pneumococcus from neighbouring bacteria that express the bacteriocin toxin protein, but the cheater strain does not bear the cost of producing the bacteriocin toxin[22,23].

Multiple hotspots for the integration of bacteriocin clusters in the pneumococcal genome

By conducting a population genomics-based assessment of the bacteriocin cluster insertion sites, we identified three genomic regions that are putative hotspots for the integration of bacteriocin clusters in the pneumococcal chromosome. These **b**acteriocin **c**luster **h**otspots (BCHs) are specific locations in the genome where different bacteriocin clusters were found in different pneumococci but the

flanking genes were the same (Fig. 4). This suggested a switching mechanism, whereby different
clusters can replace one another via genetic recombination. Up to three different bacteriocin
clusters were found to be associated with a single BCH (Fig. 4c). The acquisition of streptolancidin G
appears to have rendered the streptococcin E partial by replacing the toxin and part of its immunity
gene (Fig. 4a), which is in accord with the fact that streptolancidin G could not be found in genomes
that harboured a complete streptococcin E cluster (Supplementary Figure 1). Nonetheless, the
remnant genes of the streptococcin E partial clusters were conserved in samples collected over
many decades (Fig. 3a).

Transcriptomic analyses demonstrate temporal dynamic changes in the expression of
bacteriocin genes in response to heat

To explore whether the bacteriocin clusters were transcriptionally active, we analysed a whole-
genome RNA sequencing dataset from a broth culture of pneumococcal strain 2/2, which was
incubated at a higher than normal temperature (40 vs 37°C) (NCBI GEO accession number
GSE103778[24]). Multiple genes in the bacteriocin clusters were differentially expressed as compared
to the control over several time points, indicating that many of these bacteriocin genes were
transcribed in response to external stress (Fig. 5). Notably, there were two bacteriocin clusters
(streptolancidin J and streptococcin E) that were missing genes and yet the remaining genes were
clearly being upregulated. Moreover, the timing of gene expression varied across bacteriocin
clusters, e.g. genes within a cluster were induced in a specific pattern, whilst at any particular time
point during the sampling period several genes in different clusters were upregulated
simultaneously. The regulatory governance over which bacteriocin genes are expressed at any given
point during bacterial growth remains to be determined.

Discussion

The prevalence of different pneumococcal serotypes and genotypes in the nasopharynx fluctuates
over time, indicating the importance of intra-species competition to pneumococcal ecology[25,26,27].
We revealed here that not only do pneumococci possess a wide variety of bacteriocins, the
bacteriocins, often in a particular combination, are associated with specific genetic lineages. This is
fundamental, as it provides the framework on which to investigate the mechanisms underpinning
specific bacteriocin-pneumococcus combinations and the activity of specific bacteriocin and
immunity genes. A clear understanding of the role bacteriocins play in pneumococcal biology is

central to understanding microbial interactions within the ecological niche. For example,

understanding competition dynamics is important in the context of understanding how vaccines

affect the pneumococcal population structure. Pneumococcal conjugate vaccines are disruptive to

the pneumococcal population structure and alter the composition of microbes competing for space

and nutrients in the nasopharynx. The effects of this disruption are not yet fully understood, but can

lead to increased disease in human populations[28,29,30].

Here, we revealed that the pneumococcus possesses a substantially greater and more varied array of

bacteriocins than previously recognised. Using a large global and historical pneumococcal genome

dataset, we determined the prevalence, co-occurrence patterns and molecular epidemiology of all

the identified bacteriocin clusters within a collection of pneumococci recovered over the past 90

years. RNA sequencing of the bacteriocin clusters present in one pneumococcal isolate clearly

demonstrated that these bacteriocin genes were transcriptionally active when the pneumococcus

was under stress. The *in vivo* production of bacteriocin gene products and their functional activities

requires further investigation.

Interestingly, we identified several specific locations in the pneumococcal genome that harboured

different bacteriocin clusters, which suggested that recombination events had occurred at these

locations and resulted in a switching of bacteriocin clusters. Similar recombination events are well

documented in other locations within the pneumococcal genome, most commonly at the capsular

polysaccharide locus (conferring a change of serotype) and at penicillin binding protein genes

(conferring penicillin resistance if altered)[31,32,33,34,35]. Similarly, the DpnI, DpnII and DpnIII clusters,

each containing a distinct restriction modification system, can replace one another at the *dpn* locus.

This is believed to be of protective value in mixed pneumococcal populations against

bacteriophages, which are constant invaders of pneumococcal genomes[36,37,38]. We found several

examples of presumed bacteriocin cluster switching events that had occurred adjacent to distinct

quorum-sensing transcriptional regulators TprA and Rgg. Intriguingly, while the genes that are

known to be under the control of TprA and Rgg were replaced, the quorum-sensing transcriptional

regulators remained conserved. It is known that TprA controls the expression of its downstream

bacteriocin genes: it induces them when pneumococcal cells are at high density in the presence of

galactose, and represses them when under high glucose growth condition[14]. Galactose is abundant

in the nasopharynx, whereas glucose is absent, suggesting that the TprA may mediate the expression

of its adjacent bacteriocin genes to aid pneumococci to compete for resources during the

nasopharynx colonisation[14]. Likewise, the Rgg quorum-sensing transcriptional regulator has been

shown to mediate the expression of its adjacent genes, and this is thought to be directed by sensing amino acid levels in the cellular community[39]. An explanatory hypothesis might be that bacteriocin cluster switching provides a mechanism by which the existing intricate quorum-sensing signalling network required for coordinating population-level behaviours is accessible by the newly-acquired bacteriocin cluster. This remains to be experimentally verified.

Whilst *in vivo* assessment of the functional activity of the bacteriocin genes is pending, our current work is significant for the broader community in that among the 21 different pneumococcal bacteriocin clusters now identified, many homologues are found in other unrelated bacterial species. Bacteriocins are possible candidates for further investigation as novel antimicrobials and there may be opportunities to develop bacteriocins with cross-species activity. We also provide here a unified nomenclature for the pneumococcal bacteriocin clusters and their genes. Finally, the fact that any single pneumococcal genome possesses multiple bacteriocin clusters should be carefully considered when designing laboratory experiments aimed at assessing the activity of an individual bacteriocin cluster.

Overall, these population genomic and transcriptomic analyses reveal an extraordinary complexity of bacteriocins among pneumococci, and underscore the need to determine precisely how these bacteriocins drive changes within the pneumococcal population and the wider microbial community. Such findings are interesting not only for their population biology and ecology perspectives, but also because bacteriocins potentially have a huge impact on public health. By directly influencing changes in microbial populations, bacteriocins might indirectly be affecting the effectiveness of vaccines in the longer term: after vaccine use in human populations, the target pneumococcal population is significantly changed and those pneumococci must now compete within the altered microbiome. If bacteriocins are essential to the pneumococcal competitive strategy then the composition of bacteriocins possessed by the post-vaccination pneumococcal community is important to understand. Moreover, there is obvious potential for the development of bacteriocins as novel antimicrobials and our study presents many new opportunities for drug development. At a time when the challenges of antimicrobial-resistant microbes have never been more acute, these data provide many new areas of investigation.

Methods

Genome mining for bacteriocin clusters

In total, 6,244 assembled pneumococcal genomes from studies previously published by us and others[20,31,38,40,41,42,43,44,45,46] (Supplementary Table 4) were screened for the presence of bacteriocin clusters using a variety of bioinformatic tools and databases, including antiSMASH[47], bactibase[48], Bagel[49] and InterProScan[50] (data collected in March 2016). An in-house pipeline was developed to automate part of this process. Predicted gene clusters from each of the database outputs were examined manually and further scrutinised using extensive BLAST searches.

Analyses of the putative bacteriocin genes

Putative bacteriocin genes were annotated using homology to other known bacteriocin genes (not shown) in all available databases mentioned above, as well as structure-based searches. Protein domains were examined using the Conserved Domain search feature at NCBI[51]. Genes of interest were screened against the STRING database[52] to search for any previously reported relationship to other genes. Multiple sequence alignments of the genes in streptococcin clusters were performed in Geneious version 9.1 (Biomatters Ltd) using the ClustalW algorithm[53] with default parameters (Gap open cost=15, Gap extend cost=6.66). The multiple sequence alignment output was used within the Geneious environment to calculate percentage identity matrices. The figures of the coding regions of the bacteriocin clusters and their flanking genes were generated in Geneious and edited using Inkscape (http://inkscape.org).

Classification and nomenclature of bacteriocin clusters

Putative bacteriocin clusters were classified based on their predicted biosynthetic machinery and structural features according to Arnison *et al.*[19] and their corresponding genes were designated per the standards of nomenclature for bacteriocins (Supplementary Table 1). BLAST searches in the NCBI database revealed that the majority of these clusters are also present in other closely related streptococci (Supplementary Table 2); therefore, the clusters were named using the prefix "strepto-" followed by an abbreviation of their bacteriocin class: "streptococcins" for those belonging to the lactococcin 972-like class, "streptolancidins" for lanthipeptides, "streptocyclicins" for the head-to-tail cyclized peptides, "streptosactins" for the sactipeptides and "streptolassins" for the lassopeptide

group of bacteriocins. When more than one bacteriocin cluster from the same class was present,

they were lettered alphabetically by the order of their discovery in our analyses.

Molecular epidemiology of the bacteriocin clusters

We compiled a global and historical dataset (n=571) by selecting a diverse set of pneumococcal

genomes isolated between 1916 and 2009 from people of all ages residing in 39 different countries.

Samples from both carriage and disease, 88 pneumococcal serotypes and 99 different clonal

complexes were represented in this dataset (Supplementary Table 3). Genomes and their associated

metadata (multilocus sequence type, serotype, isolation date, country of isolation, etc.) were stored

in a BIGSdb database[54]. The BIGSdb database platform was used to generate a presence/absence

matrix of all the known bacteriocin genes in all 571 genomes. Using this matrix (79,940 genes) as an

input, an in-house python script was developed to calculate the prevalence, molecular epidemiology

and co-occurrence patterns of all the bacteriocin clusters in the study dataset.

Construction of the core genome phylogenetic tree

All genomes in the study dataset were annotated using the Prokka prokaryotic annotation pipeline[55].

The annotation files were input into Roary[56] and clustered using a sequence identity threshold of

90%. Genes present in every genome were selected using a core genome threshold of 100% and

were aligned using Roary. FastTreeMP[57] was used to construct the phylogenetic tree.

ClonalFrameML[58] was then applied to reconstruct the phylogenetic tree adjusted for recombination.

The tree was annotated using iTOL[59] and Inkscape.

Investigation of bacteriocin cluster insertion sites

Bacteriocin cluster sequences were used as queries to BLAST against genomes in the study dataset

using the custom BLAST implemented in Geneious. The matching region plus additional flanking

regions were visualised using the query-centric alignment feature within the Geneious environment.

Regions of DNA with different bacteriocin clusters but identical flanking genes among different

isolates were identified and further investigated using the Artemis Comparison Tool (ACT)[60]. Linear

comparison figures were generated using Geneious, ACT and Inkscape.

RNA sequencing analyses

An RNA sequencing dataset was generated in our lab from a pneumococcal strain 2/2 isolate

growing at a higher incubation temperature than normal (40 vs 37°C) to mimic heat stress[24] (NCBI

GEO accession number GSE103778). Pneumococci were grown in brain-heart infusion broth for 6

hours and RNA extractions were performed on samples from five time points (2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 hours

of incubation) using the Promega Maxwell® 16 Instrument and LEV simplyRNA Cells purification kit,

following the manufacturer's protocol. Extracted RNA samples were sent to the Oxford Genomics

Centre for sequencing. The sequenced forward and reverse reads were paired and mapped onto the

annotated pneumococcal strain 2/2 genome using Bowtie2[61] with the highest sensitivity option.

Differential gene expressions were assessed in Geneious using the DESeq[62] method. Genes with an

adjusted P value less than 0.05 were deemed to be differentially expressed.

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Data availability

Representative examples of the newly-discovered bacteriocin clusters have been deposited at

GenBank under the accession numbers of MF990778-MF990796. Accession numbers for all genomes

used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 4. Raw transcriptomic sequence data used in this

study is available under GEO accession no. GSE103778. Additional data that support the findings of

this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

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Author contributions

467   R.R.J. designed the genome mining pipelines. R.R.J. A.J.vT., J.P.K. and A.B.B. analysed the data. R.R.J.
468   and A.B.B. wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

Competing financial interests

471   The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Table 1. Bacteriocin clusters identified among a dataset of 571 pneumococci recovered since 1916 from patients of all ages residing in 39 different countries.

Bacteriocin	Genome(s)			Year(s) of Isolation	Countries (n)	CCs[a] (n)	Serotypes (n)
	Complete	Partial	Total				
streptococcin A	374 (65.5%)	31 (5.4%)	405 (70.9%)	1916 - 2009	36	80	76
streptococcin B	415 (72.7%)	156 (27.3%)	571 (100%)	1916 - 2009	39	99	88
streptococcin C	571 (100%)	0 (0.0%)	571 (100%)	1916 - 2009	39	99	88
streptococcin D	6 (1.1%)	0 (0.0%)	6 (1.1%)	1968 - 2005	5	3	4
streptococcin E	74 (13.0%)	496 (86.9%)	570 (99.8%)	1916 - 2009	39	98	88
streptolancidin A[b]	1 (0.2%)	1 (0.2%)	2 (0.4%)	1972 - 2006	2	2	2
streptolancidin B[c]	45 (7.9%)	48 (8.4%)	93 (16.3%)	1939 - 2006	16	11	10
streptolancidin C	73 (12.8%)	213 (37.3%)	286 (50.1%)	1937 - 2009	27	52	52
streptolancidin D	49 (8.6%)	0 (0.0%)	49 (8.6%)	1938 - 2006	13	13	11
streptolancidin E[d]	3 (0.5%)	161 (28.2%)	164 (28.7%)	1937 - 2009	25	21	38
streptolancidin F	23 (4.0%)	0 (0.0%)	23 (4.0%)	1937 - 2006	7	4	11
streptolancidin G[e]	186 (32.6%)	13 (2.3%)	199 (34.9%)	1916 - 2009	25	38	46
streptolancidin H	1 (0.2%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.2%)	2006-2008	1	0	1
streptolancidin I	1 (0.2%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.2%)	2009	1	1	1
streptolancidin J	140 (24.5%)	237 (41.5%)	377 (66.0%)	1916 - 2009	33	64	74
streptolancidin K	1 (0.2%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.2%)	2009	1	0	1
streptocyclicin[f]	205 (35.9%)	4 (0.7%)	209 (36.6%)	1937 - 2009	20	46	59
streptolassin	20 (3.5%)	0 (0.0%)	20 (3.5%)	1939 - 1996	8	7	10
streptosactin	1 (0.2%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.2)	2009	1	1	1
cib[g]	551 (96.5%)	14 (2.5%)	557 (97.5%)	1916 - 2009	39	97	88
blp[h]	N/A	N/A	571 (100%)	1916 - 2009	39	99	88

a. CC, clonal complex. Singletons (single genotypes with no closely related variant) were excluded from the count. Synonym(s) for the previously identified bacteriocins are as follow [reference]: **b**. pneumolancidin [15] and salivaricin E [63]; **c**. lcpAMT [16] and ICESp23FST81 lantibiotic [64]; **d**. SP23-BS72 lantibiotic [17]; **e**. phr lantibiotic [14]; **f**. pneumocyclicin [11]; **g**. cibAB [13]; **h**. spi [11] and pnc [11].

Figure 1 | Discovery of streptococcin bacteriocins in the pneumococcus. a, A schematic representation of streptococcin clusters and their flanking regions. The coding regions were derived from the genome of pneumococcal strain IS6, which harbours five different complete streptococcin clusters. **b**, A distance matrix depicting the nucleotide sequence identity shared between genes of different streptococcin clusters found in pneumococcal strain IS6. **c**, Schematics of the finished genome of pneumococcal strain G54 with the locations of the five streptococcin clusters highlighted in red.

Figure 2 | Genetic composition of streptolancidin, streptocyclicin, streptosactin, and streptolassin bacteriocins in the pneumococcal genomes. A schematic representation of 11 different streptolancidins, one streptocyclicin, one

streptosactin and one streptolassin identified among pneumococcal genomes. The names of isolate containing each bacteriocin cluster are given in brackets. The family of each bacteriocin cluster is given underneath the names of isolates.

Figure 3 | The prevalence, molecular epidemiology and co-occurrence patterns of bacteriocins within the global pneumococcal population. **a,** The gene patterns (A, toxin; B, immunity; C, transporter) of different streptococcins within the study dataset. **b,** The number of bacteriocins (of any type) per genome among the 571 genomes. **c,** Epidemiological characteristics of the pneumococci that possessed bacteriocin combinations found in >1 percent of the genomes in the dataset.

Figure 4 | Whole-genome-based population analysis reveals a bacteriocin switching mechanism. Bacteriocin cluster hotspots (BCHs) were defined as regions of DNA where different bacteriocin clusters with identical flanking genes were found among pneumococcal genomes. Linear comparisons of BCH-1 (**a**), BCH-2 (**b**) and BCH-3 (**c**) are shown. The isolate names are given in brackets. The family of each bacteriocin cluster is given underneath the isolate name.

Figure 5 | Dynamic changes in the expression of bacteriocin genes in response to heat stress. The differential expression levels of bacteriocin gene clusters found in pneumococcal strain 2/2 are displayed in individual boxes. A

schematic representation of each bacteriocin cluster is provided above each box. Genes are represented by rows and differential expression levels at different time points are indicated in columns. An asterisk to the left of a cell indicates a statistically significant differential expression level ($p < 0.05$). A streptolancidin C cluster was also present in the reference genome, but was excluded from this analysis due to sequence/assembly issues.