**Working together: cross-priming in two *Legionella pneumophila* type I-F CRISPR-Cas**

**systems.**

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Running title: Cross-priming in *L. pneumophila* CRISPR-Cas

**Abstract**

In bacteria and archaea, several distinct types of CRISPR-Cas systems provide adaptive

immunity through broadly similar mechanisms: short nucleic acid sequences derived from

foreign DNA, known as spacers, engage in complementary base pairing against invasive genetic

elements setting the stage for nucleases to degrade the target DNA. A hallmark of type I

CRISPR-Cas systems is their ability to acquire spacers in response to both new and previously

encountered invaders (naïve and primed acquisition, respectively). In this work, we leverage the

power of *Legionella pneumophila*, a genetically tractable, gram-negative bacterium and the

causative agent of Legionnaires disease, to examine CRISPR array dynamics and the interplay

between two extremely similar type I-F systems present in a single isolate. Using an established

transformation efficiency assay, we show that the type I-F system in *L. pneumophila* is a highly

protective system, with prominent spacer loss occurring in some transformed populations for

both plasmid and chromosomal systems. Turning to next-generation sequencing, we demonstrate

that, during a primed acquisition response, both systems acquire spacers in a strand-biased and

directional manner, consistent with the patterns observed for previously studied type I-F systems

in other bacterial species. We also show that the two systems can undergo cross-priming,

whereby a target for one system can stimulate a primed acquisition response in the second.

Finally, we combine these experimental data with bioinformatic analyses to propose a model in

which cross-priming may replenish a depleted CRISPR array following a mass spacer deletion

event.

**IMPORTANCE:** *Legionella pneumophila* is an aquatic bacterium that causes Legionnaires'

disease, an often-fatal pneumonia. Many *L. pneumophila* strains possess one or more bacterial

immune systems (CRISPR-Cas) that protect them from potentially harmful genetic elements.

The genetic tractability of *L. pneumophila*, together with the diversity of CRISPR-Cas systems

found within the species, make these bacteria attractive model systems within which to study

bacterial defenses. In particular, key strengths are the ability to compare the functionality of

different systems in otherwise identical genetic backgrounds and the cross-talk between multiple

systems present within a single isolate. In this work, we characterized two nearly identical

systems in a single *L. pneumophila* isolate and propose a model whereby cross-talk may restore

functionality to otherwise defenseless systems.

**Introduction**

Microorganisms have evolved over millions of years to survive in harsh environments,

and their prosperity can be attributed in part to immune strategies that protect against

antagonistic genetic elements, such as viral phages and foreign DNA elements (1). Clustered

regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats (CRISPR) when coupled with associated *cas*

genes form a potent adaptive immune response in numerous prokaryotic species (2-4). These

systems have been classified into six major types, which are further divided into various sub-

types, based on their mechanism of action and Cas protein content (5-7).

A CRISPR response to invading DNA occurs in three distinct phases: adaptation,

expression and interference (2-4). In the adaptation phase, the CRISPR-Cas system acquires a

DNA sequence (spacer) from the invader and integrates it into an array of spacers interspersed

with repetitive sequences (2, 8-11). The spacers are generally derived from foreign elements

whose infection was unsuccessful, such as defunct phage (12), and form the basis of

immunological memory for the bacterium. During the expression phase, the array is transcribed

and processed to form CRISPR RNA (crRNA) molecules that recruit Cas proteins to form a

surveillance complex (3, 13). Infection by a previously encountered invader initiates the

interference step, wherein the surveillance complex recognizes and binds the foreign DNA via

base-pairing with the complementary crRNA, and cleaves it using a double stranded break,

effectively neutralizing the threat to the host (3, 14-16).

Although there are many differences between CRISPR-Cas systems, Cas1 and Cas2 are

present in all known systems (5-7), and are the only Cas proteins necessary for adaptation in

*Escherichia coli* type I-E systems (17, 18). When an invading element has not been previously

encountered by the bacterium, "naïve" acquisition occurs (17, 19), in which Cas1 and Cas2 form

a complex (20-22) that binds a dsDNA "pre-spacer" substrate (23), which is processed and

integrated into the CRISPR array on the leader-proximal end (23, 24).

Despite the sophistication of CRISPR-Cas systems, phages and foreign DNA elements

can still escape CRISPR-Cas targeting. A common mechanism of escape is the accumulation of

random mutations, which can prevent complementary base pairing with crRNAs during

interference (18, 25, 26). Although effective, the CRISPR-Cas system can overcome this

challenge by simply acquiring a new spacer; in fact, imperfect CRISPR targeting often leads to a

highly efficient "primed" acquisition response, providing an intrinsic mechanism to protect

against mutational escape (18, 27-30). Primed acquisition has been studied in type I-B (31-33), I-

C (34), I-E (18, 27-29, 35) and I-F (30, 36, 37) CRISPR-Cas systems, and a model has been

proposed in which the interference complex is recruited to the targeted sequence and

subsequently "slides" away from the site in a 3'- 5' direction (30, 31, 37). When it recognizes an

appropriate protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) sequence, the complex recruits Cas1 and Cas2 to

extract the spacer and integrate it into the array (30, 31, 37). Interference-driven acquisition, or

targeted acquisition, has also been observed in type I-C (34) and I-F systems (37), wherein a

primed acquisition response occurs against a target with a perfect match to a spacer already

within the array.

Most isolates of *Legionella pneumophila*, a genetically tractable gram-negative bacterium

and the causative agent of Legionnaires' disease, possess any of three different CRISPR-Cas

systems: types I-C, I-F and/or II-B (38, 39). We recently showed that the type I-C system

actively acquire spacers to protect against invasion (39) and characterized its targeted acquisition

response (34). One strength of *L. pneumophila* as a model is the frequent presence of multiple

CRISPR-Cas loci in one isolate, allowing for the study of interplay between different systems.

For instance, in *L. pneumophila* str. Lens, two type I-F CRISPR-Cas systems are present: one on

its chromosome and one on an endogenous 60 Kb plasmid (38, 39). The two systems have a

97.6% Cas protein identity and the repeat units between the spacers in the CRISPR array differ

by only a single nucleotide (39). The CRISPR arrays themselves are of different lengths (64

spacers for chromosomal Lens and 53 spacers for plasmid Lens) and each array contains a set of

non-overlapping, unique spacer sequences (38, 39). The presence of two remarkably similar I-F

systems in *L. pneumophila* str. Lens provided us with an opportunity to examine targeted spacer

acquisition in both of these largely uncharacterized CRISPR-Cas systems and the interplay

between them.

**Results**

**The two type I-F CRISPR-Cas systems in *L. pneumophila* str. Lens can undergo targeted**

**spacer acquisition and spacer loss**

In previous studies, we established that *L. pneumophila* type I-C CRISPR-Cas systems

are active (39), and that it is a relatively permissive system that allows for targeted spacer

acquisition when challenged with the most recently acquired spacer in the CRISPR array (34).

To similarly lay the groundwork for type I-F study in *L. pneumophila*, we sought to determine

the appropriateness of perfectly matched protospacer containing plasmids for driving spacer

acquisition in these systems. As a first step, we performed an established transformation

efficiency assay (4) to assess CRISPR-Cas activity in both Lens systems using two different

targeted protospacer sequences: one matching the most recently acquired spacer and one

matching a spacer from the middle of the array. (Unless otherwise stated, all targeted protospacer

sequences used to investigate spacer acquisition were located on the DNA minus (-) strand.)

When normalized to a scrambled plasmid control transformation, the protospacer matching the

most recently acquired spacer (spacer 1) exhibited a ~100-fold reduction in transformation

efficiency compared to the protospacer matching a mid-array spacer (chromosomal spacer 23

and plasmid spacer 50) (Fig. 1).

To determine whether spacer acquisition occurs within the context of a perfectly matched

protospacer target, we pooled the transformed populations, passaged them on an automated

liquid handler for 20 generations without selection, extracted their genomic DNA and screened

the leader end of the CRISPR array by PCR and agarose gel electrophoresis. Notably, while the

populations transformed with plasmids encoding either protospacer 23 (chromosome) or

protospacer 50 (plasmid) exhibited spacer acquisition in both Lens systems (Fig. 2), the

populations transformed with protospacer 1 plasmids exhibited spacer loss, with spacer

acquisition undetectable on a gel. While spacer loss has been noted previously in the literature

(34, 40-44), its prominence in our populations stand in stark contrast to our observations on the

*L. pneumophila* type I-C system, which is relatively permissive and highly adaptive - even in the

context of a perfectly matched protospacer (34). Given this observation, we proceeded to use the

mid-array targeted protospacer sequences for the remainder of our experiments on *L.*

*pneumophila* type I-F adaptation.

**Targeted spacer acquisition in the plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas system**

To characterize the patterns of targeted spacer acquisition in the plasmid Lens CRISPR-

Cas system, we amplified the leader-proximal region of the plasmid Lens CRISPR array from

the populations transformed with the protospacer 50 plasmid. We Illumina sequenced these PCR

products and used an established bioinformatics pipeline (34) to identify newly acquired spacer

sequences within each read (Table 1). We mapped the protospacer locations on the priming

plasmid for the newly acquired spacers and visualized these patterns with Circos (45) using an

average of three replicates (Fig. 3A), although the individual distributions for all three replicates

were consistent (Fig. S1). Similar to the patterns of primed and targeted spacer acquisition

observed in the *Pectobacterium atrosepticum* type I-F CRISPR-Cas system (30, 37), the plasmid

Lens CRISPR-Cas system exhibited a biased distribution of acquired spacers. The majority of

the acquired protospacers clustered around the priming sequence on the plasmid (Fig. 3A).

Furthermore, the non-primed strand of DNA, in this case the plus (+) strand, contained ~3/4 of

the newly targeted protospacers. A similar distribution skew was observed moving in the 3' and

5' directions from the priming protospacer, as the 3' direction contained ~2/3 of the new

protospacers, consistent with the aforementioned sliding model (30, 31, 37).  One prediction of

the sliding model is that swapping the strand on which the protospacer resides should result in a

"mirror-reflection" pattern of acquisition (30, 37). To test this prediction, we repeated the above

experiment with a protospacer 50 plasmid that targeted the (+) strand instead of the (-) strand. As

expected, we observed the distribution of new protospacers mirrored the distribution observed

when the (-) strand contained the targeted protospacer (Fig. 3B)

We next sought to determine the length distribution of the acquired spacers and the PAM

sequences associated with the new protospacers. When the (-) strand contained the targeted

protospacer, the predominant length for the acquired spacers was 32 nt (~95%), which is the only

spacer length found in the wild-type plasmid Lens CRISPR array (Fig. 3C). The most prevalent

PAM for the new protospacers was the canonical GG PAM found in type I-F systems (30, 36,

37, 46, 47), which accounted for ~95% of new protospacer PAMs (Fig. 3D and 3E). In the

mirrored (+) strand targeted samples, the spacer length and PAM distributions are comparable

with those of the (-) strand targeted samples (Fig. S2). Taken together, these data suggest

distribution bias of new protospacers is influenced by the strand containing the targeted

protospacer, while the spacer length and PAM distributions are not in the plasmid Lens CRISPR-

Cas system, the, consistent with the results reported by Staals and colleagues for targeted

acquisition in a *P. atrosepticum* type I-F CRISPR-Cas system (37).

**Targeted spacer acquisition in the chromosomal Lens CRISPR-Cas system**

After surveying the plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas system for targeted spacer acquisition, we

turned our attention to exploring this phenomenon in the chromosomal Lens CRISPR-Cas

system. We amplified the leader-proximal region of chromosomal Lens CRISPR array from the

populations transformed with the protospacer 23 plasmid, and subsequently analyzed targeted

spacer acquisition as described for the plasmid Lens system.

Unsurprisingly, given how similar the chromosomal Lens and plasmid Lens systems are

on a Cas protein sequence level, the distribution of new protospacers for the chromosomal Lens

system resembled that of the plasmid Lens system (Table 1, Fig. 4A). The predominant spacer

length was 32 nt, accounting for ~90% of acquired spacers (Fig. 4B), and the canonical GG

PAM (30, 36, 37, 46, 47) also accounted for ~90% of new protospacer PAMs (Fig. 4C and 4D).

Taken together, these results suggest that the chromosomal and plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas

systems operate in a highly comparable manner during targeted spacer acquisition.

**The chromosomal Lens and plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas systems can undergo cross-**

**priming**

Since the plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas system and the chromosomal Lens CRISPR-Cas

system function in a very similar manner during targeted acquisition, we speculated that cross-

priming between the two systems could occur; that is, a targeted protospacer sequence for one

CRISPR-Cas system could initiate a primed acquisition response in the second CRISPR-Cas

system. In order to test this hypothesis, we analyzed spacer acquisition in the chromosomal

CRISPR array in populations transformed with the protospacer 50 plasmid (complementary to

the plasmid mid-array spacer) and analyzed spacer acquisition in the plasmid CRISPR array in

populations transformed with protospacer 23 plasmid (complementary to the chromosomal mid-

array spacer). We observed strikingly similar patterns of distribution for the new protospacers in

the two populations (Fig. 5), which were comparable with those seen in the previous targeted

acquisition experiments, indicating that the two CRISPR-Cas systems undergo a high degree of

cross-priming. There were some slight, but noticeable, differences in protospacer distribution on

the (+) strand on the 5' end of the priming protospacer for the chromosomal Lens primed,

plasmid Lens amplified sample. However, the peaks were not large enough for us to postulate

that they are "hotspot" regions of spacer acquisition, and we did not investigate them further.

**Bioinformatic analysis of *L. pneumophila* I-F CRISPR-Cas systems suggests cross-priming**

**can re-populate depleted CRISPR arrays**

197           We next aimed to further explore the implications of our observation that perfectly

targeted protospacer 1 plasmids result in populations enriched for spacer loss. While selecting for

maintenance of an efficiently targeted plasmid in the context of a wild-type CRISPR-Cas system

is a laboratory construct, such observations may have real-world implications as CRISPR-Cas

systems are known to acquire self-targeting spacers at a low, but detectable rate (17, 18, 28, 34,

36, 37). In such instances where a system accidentally acquires the ability to cleave its resident

genome, our data suggest that loss of one or more spacers (sometimes the entire array) might be

a mechanism by which to escape the dire consequences of such an event. Given our observations

that a protospacer 1 priming plasmid promoted spacer loss instead of spacer acquisition (Fig. 2),

and that cross-priming was occurring between the two Lens CRISPR-Cas systems (Fig. 5), we

bioinformatically tested the hypothesis that cross-priming between two related CRISPR-Cas

systems could be a way to re-populate a depleted CRISPR array.

In total, we analyzed five chromosome-based systems and three plasmid-based type I-F

CRISPR-Cas systems present in different *L. pneumophila* isolates, using data collected from our

previous study (39) and from Genbank (accessed September 2017). We evaluated three different

criteria in each CRISPR array: the repeat sequence, any mutations present in the last repeat, and

the number of spacers in the array (Table 2). Our analyses showed that 7/8 of the strains share

the same repeat sequence and the same mutated last repeat sequence, with the exception of a C to

T single nucleotide polymorphism present at position 12 in all repeats of the three plasmid-based

systems. Notably, the remaining chromosome-based system, in *L. pneumophila* str. Alcoy, has

no mutations in its last repeat. However, its repeat sequence is identical to the mutated last repeat

sequence present in the other chromosome-based systems. One intriguing interpretation of these

data is that Alcoy underwent a whole CRISPR array deletion through homologous recombination

between the first and last repeat sequences, leaving it with only the mutated last repeat. This

would have been followed by array replenishment, since the array contains 56 spacers, but no

mutations have emerged in the repetitive sequences, suggesting this was a relatively recent event.

The spacer sequences in the Alcoy array are unique and many of the spacer targets are

unknown. However, one spacer corresponds to a foreign plasmid element known as *Legionella*

mobile element-1 (LME-1), that was discovered as a common target for CRISPR-Cas in many *L.*

*pneumophila* strains (39). Together, our observations suggest that in strains with a depleted

CRISPR array, if a plasmid harboring a related CRISPR-Cas system was horizontally transferred

to the array-less strain, it could re-populate the CRISPR array through cross-priming when it

comes into contact with a widespread foe, such as LME-1. Subsequent loss of this plasmid

would leave little trace of such an event, other than a potential modification of the consensus

repeat sequence.

**Discussion**

We previously showed that type I-C CRISPR-Cas in *Legionella pneumophila* is highly

permissive, protects against a mobile genetic element, and is adaptive (34, 39). The patterns and

fidelity of primed spacer acquisition that we observed for *L. pneumophila* type I-C were

consistent with the previous observations of type I-F spacer acquisition in other bacterial species,

including *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (36), *Escherichia coli* (36) and *Pectobacterium atrosepticum*

(30, 37). One strength of *L. pneumophila* as a model for studying CRISPR-Cas is the diversity of

system types present in this species and the frequent coexistence of multiple CRISPR-Cas

systems within the same isolate. We have bioinformatically identified eight distinct type I-F

systems in Legionella, and experimentally shown activity for 3 of them: *L. pneumophila* str.

Lens (plasmid and chromosome) and str. Mississauga-2006 (plasmid) (39).  Each system

contains nearly identical *cas* genes but different spacer arrays. As we previously hypothesized

the diversification of type I-F arrays in *L. pneumophila* could emerge from extensive spacer

acquisition (39), we sought to directly test the adaptability of two of these arrays, both present in

*L. pneumophila* str. Lens.

The patterns of targeted acquisition observed in both the plasmid Lens and the

chromosomal Lens type I-F systems are remarkably similar to both primed and targeted

acquisition in other type I-F systems (30, 36, 37) (Figs. 3 and 4). Consistent with the similarity of

the *cas* genes, these two Lens systems undergo cross-priming, where the targeted sequence for

one system stimulates a primed acquisition response in the second system (Fig. 5). Regardless of

the source of priming, our data support the sliding model of primed acquisition, in which the

interference complex translocates away from the targeted sequence in a 3' to 5' manner, and

recruits Cas1 and Cas2 to capture a new spacer for array integration after recognizing an

appropriate PAM (30, 31, 37).

Our bioinformatic analyses of CRISPR arrays from type I-F systems in eight strains of *L.*

*pneumophila* showed that with the exception of a C to T polymorphism present at position 12 in

the three examined plasmid systems, the repetitive sequences are the same across all eight arrays

(Table 2). Additionally, 7/8 of the strains possessed a mutation in the last repeat of the array.

Based on these data, we hypothesize that the I-F system in *L. pneumophila* was horizontally

acquired from a plasmid and that this common ancestor has subsequently diverged based on the

spacer content and repeat sequences found in the varying arrays. Since the majority of the

examined arrays harbor mutations in the last repeat, it is plausible that genetic drift has occurred

since the acquisition of the I-F system to form the consensus repeat found in the remainder of the

array. This could be used to compare the timing of acquisition events within the array, as one

might expect other mutations to arise over time in the repeat sequences due to genetic drift.

Combining our bioinformatic analyses with our experimental data, we propose that *L.*

*pneumophila* str. Alcoy (which has a consensus repeat that matches the mutated last repeat of

other type I-F systems) underwent a mass spacer loss event followed by subsequent array

replenishment. We hypothesize that cross-priming between two CRISPR-Cas systems could be

yet another mechanism to not only protect against spacer loss, as spacers can be acquired at a

more frequent rate, but also to aid the system in quickly and efficiently replenishing an array that

has undergone a mass loss event.

Many of the I-F systems in *L. pneumophila* have different array lengths, ranging from 24

spacers to 74 spacers, with an average length of 54 spacers (Table 2). Toms and Barrangou

recently performed a global analysis of class I CRISPR arrays and found that the average array

length for type I-F systems was 33 spacers, with statistically significant differences between the

array lengths of different type I subtypes (48). Accordingly, if spacer acquisition is a driving

force in array divergence, it is likely coupled to spacer loss. Close examination of the

mechanisms driving spacer loss in these systems, combined with comparative genomics of

otherwise related strains, will be crucial to further testing the model of array diversification in *L.*

*pneumophila*.

**Methods and Materials**

**Bacterial strains, plasmids and oligos used**

The bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in supplementary table 1,

and the oligos used in this study are listed in supplementary table 2.

The priming plasmids were created by annealing oligos (see supplementary table 2) to

create the protospacer insert with the canonical GG PAM (30, 36, 37, 46, 47) and subsequently

ligating the insert into an ApaI/PstI-cut pMMB207 vector (49). The scrambled control plasmid

was created in the same manner, except it contained a 32-nt scrambled sequence in place of a

targeted protospacer sequence.

**Transformation efficiency assay and population pool generation**

The transformation efficiency assay was performed as we have previously described (39)

with some modifications. Briefly, overnight cultures of *L. pneumophila* str. Lens were grown in

ACES-buffered yeast extract (AYE) medium to an $OD_{600}$ of ~4.0 using two-day patches that

were grown on charcoal buffered ACES yeast extract (CYE) plates. Pellets from 4.0 $OD_{600}$ of

culture underwent three washing steps: twice with 1 mL of ice-cold ultrapure water and once

with 1 mL of ice-cold 10% glycerol. The pellet was then re-suspended in 200 uL of ice-cold 10%

glycerol and for every 50 uL of cell suspension, 100 ng of plasmid was added to the sample. The

solution was transferred to an ice-cold electroporation cuvette with a 2 mm gap and

electroporated with the following settings: 2500 kV, 600 Ω and 25 mF. After electroporation,

800 uL of AYE medium was added to each sample and the samples recovered for 3 hours at

37°C at 600 RPM in a shaking incubator. The samples were plated in a dilution series on CYE

plates supplemented with 5 mg mL$^{-1}$ of chloramphenicol and incubated at 37°C for 3 days. The

relative transformation efficiency for each targeted plasmid was calculated as a percentage of the

transformation efficiency obtained from the scrambled control plasmid. Three biological

replicates were performed for each transformation efficiency assay.

Population pools were generated by mixing together ≥ 50 colonies per population from

the CYE plates supplemented with 5 μg mL$^{-1}$ of chloramphenicol using AYE medium

supplemented with 5 μg mL$^{-1}$ of chloramphenicol. Population pools were made in triplicate for

each transformed plasmid.

**Serial passaging on an automated liquid handler**

The serial passaging of transformed *L. pneumophila* str. Lens populations was performed

as described previously (39). Briefly, overnight cultures of the populations pools in AYE

medium supplemented with 5 μg mL$^{-1}$ of chloramphenicol for plasmid maintenance were grown

to an $OD_{600}$ of ~2.0. The culture was then back diluted to an $OD_{600}$ of ~0.0625 and grown in a

flat-bottom 48-well plate (Greiner) in a shaking incubator at 37°C. A Freedom Evo 100 liquid

handler (Tecan) connected to an Infinite M200 Pro plate reader (Tecan) measured the optical

density of the plate every 20 minutes, until an $OD_{600}$ of ~2.0 was reached. The cultures were then

automatically back diluted to an $OD_{600}$ of ~0.0625 in the adjacent well to continue growth, and

the remaining culture was transferred to a 48-well plate that was kept at 4°C. In this manner,

each saved culture represented ~5 generations of growth. The passaging was done without

selection in AYE medium to allow for plasmid loss during passaging.

**Genomic DNA extraction, PCR and agarose gel screen**

Genomic DNA was extracted from the passaged cultures using the Machery-Nagel

Nucleospin Tissue kit as per the kit protocol. The extracted samples were used as a template in a

30-cycle PCR reaction with Econotaq Polymerase (Lucigen) to amplify the leader end of the

CRISPR array using primers listed in Table S2. The PCR products were then separated on a 3%

agarose gel to determine if spacer acquisition or spacer loss had occurred based on the presence

of an upper or lower band, respectively, relative to the control sample.

**Nextera library prep and Illumina sequencing**

The extracted genomic DNA was prepared for leader-end array sequencing by

performing a 20-cycle PCR using Kapa HiFi Polymerase (Kapa Biosystems) and the primers

listed in Table S2. The PCR products were purified using a Machery-Nagel Nucleospin Gel and

PCR Clean-up kit as per the manufacturer's instructions and normalized to 1 ng using Picogreen.

The DNA was then tagmented using the Nextera XT tagmentation kit as per the manufacturer's

instructions. The tagmented products were sequenced with a paired-end (2 x 150 bp) sequencing

run on an Illumina NextSeq platform at the Centre for the Analysis of Genome Evolution and

Function (CAGEF) at the University of Toronto.

**Bioinformatic analyses**

The bioinformatic analysis of the Illumina sequence data were performed as described

previously (34). Briefly, the raw paired-end reads were merged using FLASH (50), and any

unpaired reads were subsequently quality trimmed using Trimmomatic (51). These processed

reads were then combined and analyzed using a Perl script (available upon request) that

annotated existing spacers (S), newly acquired spacers (X), repetitive sequences (R) and the

downstream sequence (D). The newly acquired spacers were aligned to the priming plasmid, the

*L. pneumophila* str. Lens chromosome or the *L. pneumophila* str. Lens plasmid using BLASTN.

The results from the BLASTN alignment for the priming plasmid were then processed to obtain

the coverage per nucleotide, and plotted on the reference sequence using Circos (45). For the

PAM analyses, the flanking sequence of each new spacer was extracted and plotted using Web

Logo (52).

For the bioinformatics analyses of the *L. pneumophila* type I-F CRISPR arrays, the

repetitive sequence in *L. pneumophila* str. Lens was subjected to a BLAST search against other

*L. pneumophila* strains in Genbank (accessed September 2017). The hits were processed using

CRISPRFinder (53) to determine if there was a CRISPR system present in the strain and its type;

only eight strains with a type I-F system were examined, noting the repeat sequences, the number

of spacers present in each array and whether the system was on a chromosome or on a plasmid.

Mutations in the last sequence of each array were noted, as were any mutations between the

consensus repeat sequences of the different strains.

**Data Accessibility**

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**Figures**

**Figure 1 | The chromosomal and plasmid type I-F CRISPR-Cas systems in *L. pneumophila***

***str.* Lens are active against plasmids containing protospacers**. *L. pneumophila* str. Lens was

transformed with plasmids containing targeted protospacer sequences matched to the first spacer

(sp1) or a mid-array spacer (sp23 or sp50, respectively) of the chromosomal Lens CRISPR-Cas

system **(A)** or the plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas system **(B)**. After plating on selective media and

incubating for three days, transformation efficiencies were calculated as a percentage of the

transformation efficiency of a control plasmid with a scrambled targeted sequence. The average

for three biological replicates is shown where the error bars represent the standard error of the

mean.

**Figure 2 | Targeted spacer acquisition and spacer loss in the chromosomal Lens and**

**plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas systems**. Spacer acquisition and loss were analyzed using a PCR

based screen where the leader-end of the CRISPR array for both the control samples and the

transformed samples was amplified with system-specific primers to differentiate between the

chromosomal Lens and the plasmid Lens arrays and visualized on an agarose gel. Products from

the transformed samples were compared to the control, which contained untransformed genomic

DNA. Bands representing spacer acquisition and loss are indicated.

**Figure 3 | Characterization of targeted acquisition in the plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas**

**system.** Bacterial transformants with targeted plasmids were passaged for 20 generations without

antibiotic selection to enrich for spacer acquisition; the leader-end of the CRISPR array was

amplified and the amplicons were Illumina sequenced. Acquired protospacers were obtained

from the raw reads using an in-house bioinformatics pipeline and visualized with Circos. Unless

otherwise noted, all data is the average of three biological replicates. **A)** The distribution of

acquired protospacers mapped to the priming plasmid on the Circos plot reveals a strand bias in

targeted acquisition within the plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas system. The height of the bars

indicates the number of spacers mapped to the position on the plasmid, up to 5% of total

acquired spacers. The priming protospacer sequence used on the targeted plasmid is denoted in

red and its PAM sequence is denoted in purple above the Circos plot. Quantification of the

Circos plot is shown in a quad plot, where (+) is the plus strand, (-) is the minus strand, (L) is the

left side of the plasmid (5' half) and (R) is the right side of the plasmid (3' half), relative to the

priming site. The red bar indicates the priming protospacer and the grey box indicates its PAM

location and targeted strand. **B)** Reversing the direction of the targeted sequence on the priming

plasmid creates a mirrored distribution bias in acquired protospacers. Labelling as in (A). **C)** The

distribution of spacer lengths acquired from the targeted plasmid (grey) compared to the wild-

type CRISPR-Cas array (black, n = 53). **D)** Quantification of the PAMs for the new protospacers

are shown in a stacked bar plot; the (+) strand PAMs are denoted by the hatched bars and the (-)

strand PAMs are denoted by the grey bars. **E)** Sequence logo analysis of PAMs from new

protospacers demonstrate a preference for the canonical GG PAM, with the protospacer denoted

in the grey box. The sequence logo represents the PAMs of all acquired protospacers for the

three biological replicates.

**Figure 4 | Characterization of targeted acquisition activity in the chromosomal Lens**

**CRISPR-Cas system.** Labelling and experimental set-up are as described for figure 3. **A)** The

distribution of acquired protospacers mapped to the priming plasmid on the Circos plot reveals a

strand bias in targeted acquisition within the chromosomal Lens CRISPR-Cas system. The

priming protospacer sequence and its PAM are shown above Circos plot, while the quantification

of the acquired protospacers is shown in the lower panel as a quad plot. **B)** The distribution of

spacer length acquired from the targeted plasmid compared to the wild-type CRISPR-Cas array

(n = 64). **C)** Quantification of the PAMs for the new protospacers in a stacked bar plot. **D)**

Sequence logo analysis of PAMs from new protospacers.

**Figure 5 | Cross-priming occurs between the chromosomal Lens and plasmid Lens**

**CRISPR-Cas systems.** Labelling and experimental set-up are as described for figure 3. The

distribution of acquired protospacers mapped to the priming plasmid reveals cross-priming

between the chromosomal Lens and plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas systems. **(A)** shows

chromosomal Lens primed, plasmid Lens amplified while **(B)** shows plasmid Lens primed,

chromosomal Lens amplified.

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**TABLE 1**

The number of acquired spacers for the plasmid Lens and chromosomal Lens CRISPR-Cas

systems and their respective targets.

| System | Number of acquired spacers[a] | % map to priming plasmid[a] | % map to chromosomal Lens genome[a] | % map to plasmid Lens genome[a] | % unknown[a] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Plasmid Lens | 78,753 | 98.38 | 0.05 | 0.01 | 1.57 |
| Chromosomal Lens | 86,789 | 98.66 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 1.33 |

[a] Data is the average of 3 biological replicates.

**TABLE 2**

The repeat sequences of *L. pneumophila* type I-F CRISPR-Cas systems.

| Strain | System location | # of spacers in the array | Consensus Repeat (5'-3')[a] | Mutated last repeat (5'-3')[a] | Reference[b] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Lens | Chromosome | 64 | GTTCACTGCCGCACAGGCAGCTTAGAAA | GTTCACTGCCGCACAGGCAGCTTAGAA**G** | Rao et al. 2016 |
| FFI104 | Chromosome | 55 | GTTCACTGCCGCACAGGCAGCTTAGAAA | GTTCACTGCCGCACAGGCAGCTTAGAA**G** | GenBank (accession CP016872.1) |
| FFI105 | Chromosome | 55 | GTTCACTGCCGCACAGGCAGCTTAGAAA | GTTCACTGCCGCACAGGCAGCTTAGAA**G** | GenBank (accession CP016873.1) |
| FFI337 | Chromosome | 55 | GTTCACTGCCGCACAGGCAGCTTAGAAA | GTTCACTGCCGCACAGGCAGCTTAGAA**G** | GenBank (accession CP016876.1) |
| Alcoy | Chromosome | 56 | GTTCACTGCCGCACAGGCAGCTTAGAA**G** | -- | Rao et al. 2016 |
| Lens | Plasmid | 53 | GTTCACTGCCG**T**ACAGGCAGCTTAGAAA | GTTCACTGCCG**T**ACAGGCAGCTTAGAA**G** | Rao et al. 2016 |
| Missisauga-2006 | Plasmid | 74 | GTTCACTGCCG**T**ACAGGCAGCTTAGAAA | GTTCACTGCCG**T**ACAGGCAGCTTAGAA**G** | Rao et al. 2016 |
| C8_S | Plasmid | 24 | GTTCACTGCCG**T**ACAGGCAGCTTAGAAA | GTTCACTGCCG**T**ACAGGCAGCTTAGAA**G** | GenBank (accession CP015940.1) |

[a] Mutations in the last repeat relative to the consensus repeat, and in the consensus repeat between the chromosome based systems and the plasmid systems, are denoted in red

[b] The GenBank files were accessed September 2017.

**Figure 1 | The chromosomal and plasmid type I-F CRISPR-Cas systems in *L. pneumophila* str. Lens are active against plasmids containing protospacers.** *L. pneumophila* str. Lens was transformed with plasmids containing targeted protospacer sequences matched to the first spacer (sp1) or a mid-array spacer (sp23 or sp50, respectively) of the chromosomal Lens CRISPR-Cas system **(A)** or the plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas system **(B)**. After plating on selective media and incubating for three days, transformation efficiencies were calculated as a percentage of the transformation efficiency of a control plasmid with a scrambled targeted sequence. The average for three biological replicates is shown where the error bars represent the standard error of the mean..

**Figure 2 | Targeted spacer acquisition and spacer loss in the chromosomal Lens and plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas systems.** Spacer acquisition and loss were analyzed using a PCR based screen where the leader-end of the CRISPR array for both the control samples and the transformed samples was amplified with system-specific primers to differentiate between the chromosomal Lens and the plasmid Lens arrays and visualized on an agarose gel. Products from the transformed samples were compared to the control, which contained untransformed genomic DNA. Bands representing spacer acquisition and loss are indicated.

**Figure 3 | Characterization of targeted acquisition in the plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas system.**
(Legend on following page).

**Figure 3 | Characterization of targeted acquisition in the plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas system.** Bacterial transformants with targeted plasmids were passaged for 20 generations without antibiotic selection to enrich for spacer acquisition; the leader-end of the CRISPR array was amplified and the amplicons were Illumina sequenced. Acquired protospacers were obtained from the raw reads using an in-house bioinformatics pipeline and visualized with Circos. Unless otherwise noted, all data is the average of three biological replicates. **A)** The distribution of acquired protospacers mapped to the priming plasmid on the Circos plot reveals a strand bias in targeted acquisition within the plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas system. The height of the bars indicates the number of spacers mapped to the position on the plasmid, up to 5% of total acquired spacers. The priming protospacer sequence used on the targeted plasmid is denoted in red and its PAM sequence is denoted in purple above the Circos plot. Quantification of the Circos plot is shown in a quad plot, where (+) is the plus strand, (-) is the minus strand, (L) is the left side of the plasmid (5' half) and (R) is the right side of the plasmid (3' half), relative to the priming site. The red bar indicates the priming protospacer and the grey box indicates its PAM location and targeted strand. **B)** Reversing the direction of the targeted sequence on the priming plasmid creates a mirrored distribution bias in acquired protospacers. Labelling as in (A). **C)** The distribution of spacer lengths acquired from the targeted plasmid (grey) compared to the wild-type CRISPR-Cas array (black, n = 53). **D)** Quantification of the PAMs for the new protospacers are shown in a stacked bar plot; the (+) strand PAMs are denoted by the hatched bars and the (-) strand PAMs are denoted by the grey bars. **E)** Sequence logo analysis of PAMs from new protospacers demonstrate a preference for the canonical GG PAM, with the protospacer denoted in the grey box. The sequence logo represents the PAMs of all acquired protospacers for the three biological replicates.

**Figure 4 | Characterization of targeted acquisition activity in the chromosomal Lens CRISPR-Cas system.** (Legend on following page).

**Figure 4 | Characterization of targeted acquisition activity in the chromosomal Lens CRISPR-Cas system.** Labelling and experimental set-up are as described for figure 3. **A)** The distribution of acquired protospacers mapped to the priming plasmid on the Circos plot reveals a strand bias in targeted acquisition within the chromosomal Lens CRISPR-Cas system. The priming protospacer sequence and its PAM are shown above Circos plot, while the quantification of the acquired protospacers is shown in the lower panel as a quad plot. **B)** The distribution of spacer length acquired from the targeted plasmid compared to the wild-type CRISPR-Cas array (n = 64). **C)** Quantification of the PAMs for the new protospacers in a stacked bar plot. **D)** Sequence logo analysis of PAMs from new protospacers.

**A**

5'-CCTGATTGGTTTCTTTTTCTTGACTGTTCTTTGA-3' (+) sp23
3'-GGACTAACCAAAGAAAAAGAACTGACAAGAAACT-5' (−) priming

**B**

5' – CCAATACGTGGTTATGACCTCATCTAAAGACGTA – 3' (+) sp50
3' – GGTTATGCACCAATACTGGAGTAGATTTCTGCAT – 5' (−) priming

**Figure 5 | Cross-priming occurs between the chromosomal Lens and plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas systems.** Labelling and experimental set-up are as described for figure 3. The distribution of acquired protospacers mapped to the priming plasmid reveals cross-priming between the chromosomal Lens and plasmid Lens CRISPR-Cas systems. **(A)** shows chromosomal Lens primed, plasmid Lens amplified while **(B)** shows plasmid Lens primed, chromosomal Lens amplified.