Enterococcus faecalis CRISPR-Cas is a robust barrier to conjugative antibiotic 1 2 resistance dissemination in the murine intestine 3 Valerie J. Price^a, Sara W. McBride^b, Karthik Hullahalli^a, Anushila Chatterjee^b, Breck A. 4 Duerkop^{b#}, and Kelli L. Palmer^{a#} 5 6 7 Department of Biological Sciences, The University of Texas at Dallas, Richardson, Texas, USA^a 8 Department of Immunology & Microbiology, The University of Colorado School of 9 Medicine, Aurora, Colorado, USAb 10 11 12 Running head: CRISPR-Cas anti-plasmid activity in vitro and in vivo 13 14 #Address correspondence to breck.duerkop@ucdenver.edu (BAD) or 15 kelli.palmer@utdallas.edu (KLP)

Abstract

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

CRISPR-Cas systems are barriers to horizontal gene transfer (HGT) in bacteria. Little is known about CRISPR-Cas interactions with conjugative plasmids, and studies investigating CRISPR-Cas/plasmid interactions in in vivo models relevant to infectious disease are lacking. These are significant gaps in knowledge because conjugative plasmids disseminate antibiotic resistance genes among pathogens in vivo, and it is essential to identify strategies to reduce the spread of these elements. We use enterococci as models to understand the interactions of CRISPR-Cas with conjugative plasmids. Enterococcus faecalis is a native colonizer of the mammalian intestine and harbors pheromone-responsive plasmids (PRPs). PRPs mediate inter- and intraspecies transfer of antibiotic resistance genes. We assessed E. faecalis CRISPR-Cas anti-PRP activity in the mouse intestine and under varying in vitro conditions. We observed striking differences in CRISPR-Cas efficiency in vitro versus in vivo. With few exceptions, CRISPR-Cas blocked intestinal PRP dissemination, while in vitro, the PRP frequently escaped CRISPR-Cas defense. Our results further the understanding of CRISPR-Cas biology by demonstrating that standard in vitro experiments do not adequately model the in vivo anti-plasmid activity of CRISPR-Cas. Additionally, our work identifies several variables that impact the apparent in vitro anti-plasmid activity of CRISPR-Cas, including planktonic versus biofilm settings, different donor/recipient ratios, production of a plasmid-encoded bacteriocin, and the time point at which matings are sampled. Our results are clinically significant because they demonstrate that barriers to HGT encoded by normal human microbiota can have significant impacts on in vivo antibiotic resistance dissemination.

Importance

CRISPR-Cas is a type of immune system encoded by bacteria that is hypothesized to be a natural impediment to the spread of antibiotic resistance genes. In this study, we directly assessed the impact of CRISPR-Cas on antibiotic resistance dissemination in the mammalian intestine and under varying *in vitro* conditions. We observed a robust effect of CRISPR-Cas on *in vivo* but not *in vitro* dissemination of antibiotic resistance plasmids in the native mammalian intestinal colonizer *Enterococcus faecalis*. We conclude that standard laboratory experiments currently do not appropriately model the *in vivo* conditions where antibiotic resistance dissemination occurs between *E. faecalis* strains. Moreover, our results demonstrate that CRISPR-Cas encoded by native members of the mammalian intestinal microbiota can block the spread of antibiotic resistance plasmids.

Introduction

CRISPR-Cas systems confer adaptive immunity against mobile genetic elements (MGEs) in bacteria (1-3). CRISPR-Cas systems utilize nucleases programmed with small RNAs to direct sequence-specific cleavage of nucleic acids including phage and plasmids (4). Most experimental studies of native CRISPR-Cas systems have examined either anti-phage defense or defense against electrotransformed plasmids in low complexity *in vitro* systems. Comparatively little information is available on the roles of CRISPR-Cas in regulating plasmid conjugation, and there have been few experimental studies assessing the function of CRISPR-Cas systems within the native ecology of microbial communities. These are major weaknesses in the field from a public health perspective. Conjugative plasmids disseminate antibiotic resistance genes, and CRISPR-Cas systems are naturally occurring barriers that could impede the dissemination of these genes in mammalian microbiota.

We use *Enterococcus faecalis* as a model organism to study the interactions of CRISPR-Cas systems with conjugative plasmids. *E. faecalis* is a gram-positive bacterium, a native inhabitant of the mammalian intestine (5), and an opportunistic pathogen that is among the leading causes of hospital-acquired infections (HAIs) in the United States (6, 7). *E. faecalis* strains causing HAIs possess unique characteristics relative to strains that normally colonize the human intestine. HAI strains typically have larger genomes resulting from rampant plasmid, phage, and other MGE acquisition (8, 9). Multidrug-resistant (MDR) *E. faecalis* generally lack CRISPR-Cas systems, and there is a correlation between the absence of CRISPR-Cas and the presence of

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

horizontally acquired antibiotic resistance in E. faecalis clinical isolates (10). From genomic analyses, it appears that CRISPR-Cas is a potent barrier to the horizontal acquisition of antibiotic resistance in E. faecalis. Our subsequent efforts have attempted to experimentally address this hypothesis. The model plasmids we use for our studies are the pheromone-responsive plasmids (PRPs). The PRPs appear to be highly co-evolved with E. faecalis (11, 12). PRPs are large (can be >60 kb) and encode accessory traits such as antibiotic resistance, bacteriocin production, reduced UV light susceptibility, and enhanced biofilm formation (11). PRPs encoding antibiotic resistance genes are often present in E. faecalis infection isolates (11, 13-15). The model PRP, pAD1, encodes genes for production and self-immunity to a bacteriocin called cytolysin (16). Cytolysin is a lantibiotic-like antimicrobial peptide and hemolysin with activity against a number of gram-positive bacteria (17, 18). In this study, we utilize E. faecalis T11RF, a non-MDR strain that encodes a Type II CRISPR-Cas system referred to as CRISPR3-Cas (10, 19). Type II CRISPR-Cas systems employ a Cas9-crRNA-tracrRNA ribonucleoprotein complex to generate double-stranded DNA breaks in invading MGEs (3, 20, 21). Sequence specificity in the cleavage event is conferred by the crRNA (22). A crRNA is encoded by a short sequence referred to as a spacer, which is derived from and is complementary to a previously encountered MGE (1, 23, 24). The E. faecalis T11RF CRISPR3-Cas system encodes a spacer with perfect sequence complementarity to the repB gene of the PRP

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

pAD1 (10, 19). In previous studies, we demonstrated that the E. faecalis CRISPR3-Cas system interferes with the conjugative acquisition of pAM714 (19), a pAD1 variant with an insertion of Tn917 encoding ermB (25, 26). More specifically, pAM714 acquisition is decreased by ~80-fold in E. faecalis T11RF relative to T11RF∆cas9 after 18 hours biofilm mating on an agar surface, and CRISPR3-Cas defense against pAM714 requires the targeting spacer (19). These results support our overarching hypothesis that CRISPR-Cas is a significant barrier to the horizontal acquisition of antibiotic resistance in E. faecalis. However, the magnitude of CRISPR3-Cas impact on pAM714 acquisition, while significant, was low compared with the overall high transfer rate of pAM714 under the conditions tested. Many pAM714 molecules escaped CRISPR3-Cas defense despite T11RF possessing functional CRISPR-Cas. We have made similar observations in other E. faecalis strains using both native and engineered CRISPR-Cas systems and with both naturally occurring and engineered plasmids (19, 27, 28). We previously defined the ability of cells to acquire CRISPR-targeted plasmids at high frequencies as CRISPR tolerance (27).

To investigate potential explanations for the seeming discrepancy between the presence of CRISPR-Cas in wild E. faecalis isolates and our in vitro observations of statistically significant but middling population-level impact of CRISPR-Cas on conjugative plasmid transfer, we first assessed whether different in vitro mating conditions alter conclusions reached about CRISPR-Cas defense efficiency. We compared pAM714 acquisition by wild type and $\Delta cas9$ T11RF recipients in planktonic and agar plate biofilm matings using time course experiments and two different initial

donor/recipient ratios. We performed the same experiments with the PRP pAM771, which is a pAD1 derivative possessing a Tn917 insertion in the cytolysin locus (25, 29, 30). We reasoned that killing of plasmid-free recipient cells by the cytolysin could 'punish' cells that utilize CRISPR-Cas against the plasmid, potentially altering the apparent efficacy of CRISPR-Cas. We also assessed the transfer of pAM714 and pAM771 to wild-type and $\Delta cas9$ T11RF recipients in a murine intestinal colonization model. To our knowledge, this is the first study to assess the impact of CRISPR-Cas on conjugative antibiotic resistance dissemination in a mammalian intestinal model. We discovered that CRISPR-Cas is a strikingly robust barrier to pAM714 and pAM771 acquisition in the murine intestine.

Results

Mating conditions impact CRISPR-Cas activity against pAM714. We analyzed planktonic and agar plate mating reactions between *E. faecalis* OG1SSp(pAM714) donors and T11RF or T11RF Δ*cas9* recipients over an 18-hour period (Fig. 1; see Table 1 for strain details). We inoculated mating reactions at donor to recipient ratios of 1:9 and 1:1 (Fig. 1). Donors were quantified by plating matings on media with spectinomycin, streptomycin, and erythromycin (Fig. S1); transconjugants with rifampicin, fusidic acid, and erythromycin (Fig. 1), and total recipients (which includes transconjugants) with rifampicin and fusidic acid (Fig. 2-3). In our experiments, we used erythromycin resistance to track pAM714 conjugation. *ermB* is encoded on Tn*917*, which theoretically could transpose from pAM714 into the *E. faecalis* chromosome, thereby unlinking erythromycin resistance from pAM714 presence. However, Tn*917*

transposition frequencies are very low (10⁻⁶) in the absence of the inducer erythromycin (31). No mating reactions in our study contained erythromycin.

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

For 1:9 donor:recipient ratio experiments, we observed ~10³-10⁴ transconjugants for both T11RF and $\triangle cas9$ recipients after 30 minutes of mating (Fig. 1A-B). T11Δ*cas9*(pAM714) transconjugant numbers remained stable for the remainder of the planktonic mating experiment, while T11RF(pAM714) transconjugant numbers decreased (Fig. 1A). In contrast, pAM714 transconjugant yields in biofilm matings rose over time for both T11RF and $\triangle cas9$ recipients, up to the 2 hour time point. After that, T11RF(pAM714) transconjugant numbers did not increase further. T11 Δ cas9(pAM714) transconjugants increased by 2 log (Fig. 1B). For both planktonic and biofilm matings, we observed significant differences in transconjugant yields between T11RF and \(\Delta cas 9 \) recipients at the experiment end point (18 hours) and for some earlier time points. We note that, despite CRISPR-Cas activity, ~10⁵ pAM714 transconjugants were still observed for T11RF recipients in biofilms (Fig. 1B).

We next assessed conjugation using an equal (1:1) donor:recipient ratio. Increasing donor densities relative to recipients reduces pheromone detection by pheromone-responsive plasmids (32). Transconjugant numbers were overall lower than those observed for 1:9 ratio experiments (Fig. 1C-D). For planktonic matings, transconjugant numbers were at or below our limit of detection, therefore the impact of *cas9* on transconjugant yield could not be assessed (Fig. 1C). Transconjugants were detected for biofilm matings (Fig. 1D), but the yields were lower than those observed for 1:9 ratio

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

experiments (Fig. 1B). Nevertheless, cas9 protected recipients from pAM714 acquisition at the 5 and 18 h time points (Fig. 1D). Cytolysin activity depletes recipient cells irrespective of functional CRISPR-Cas. We hypothesized that the cytolysin encoded by pAM714 could kill recipient cells that utilize CRISPR-Cas against the plasmid. pAM771 is isogenic with pAM714, except that the Tn917 insertion disrupts cylL of the cytolysin biosynthesis gene cluster (25, 29, 30). pAM714 and pAM771 have been utilized in previous studies assessing the impact of cytolysin on virulence, hamster intestinal colonization, and plasmid transfer (29, 30, 33). We performed planktonic and biofilm mating reactions with OG1SSp(pAM771) donors and compared the results with the OG1SSp(pAM714) mating experiments. Recipient (Fig. 2-3) but not donor (Fig. S1-S2) densities were substantially impacted in all pAM714 mating reactions, irrespective of cas9 presence or absence. The effect was stronger in planktonic matings (Fig. 2A-B and Fig. 3A-B) than in biofilm matings (Fig. 2C-D and Fig. 3C-D), and strongest in planktonic matings at a 1:1 donor:recipient ratio, where recipient numbers fell to below the limit of detection after 1.5 h of mating (Fig. 3A-B). These results are consistent with pAM714 transconjugant yields under these conditions (Fig. 1C). In biofilm matings, striking effects on recipient cell densities were not observed until later time points (5 h and 18 h; Fig. 2C-D and Fig. 3C-D). Unlike observations from pAM714 matings, recipient numbers were stably high in pAM771 matings. Moreover, pAM771 transconjugant yields were not substantially

impacted by donor:recipient ratio (Fig. 4). Similar transconjugant yields were detected for planktonic matings at 1:9 (Fig. 4A) and 1:1 (Fig. 4C) ratios, and for biofilm matings at the two ratios (Fig. 4B and Fig. 4D, respectively). The effect of *cas9* was minor in magnitude but statistically significant at the end of planktonic mating. Deletion of *cas9* increased plasmid acquisition significantly, by ~2 log, after 18 h of biofilm mating.

Our results overall with *in vitro* experiments demonstrate that planktonic versus biofilm

settings, different donor/recipient ratios, production of a plasmid-encoded bacteriocin, and the time points at which matings are sampled all impact transconjugant yields and conclusions reached about the apparent activity of CRISPR-Cas. Moreover, CRISPR tolerance is consistently observed *in vitro*, with the exception of settings where little plasmid transfer occurs into any recipient (pAM714 planktonic matings at a 1:1 donor:recipient ratio; Fig. 1C).

cas9 expression in T11RF biofilms and planktonic cultures. Little is known about the transcriptional or post-transcriptional regulation of cas9 in E. faecalis. During our investigation of a different Type II CRISPR-Cas system in E. faecalis, CRISPR1-Cas, we observed that 27-fold overexpression of cas9 enhanced in vitro defense against PRP-mobilizable plasmids by ~2-3 logs (27). Because low cas9 expression in wild-type T11RF under in vitro conditions could impact CRISPR-Cas defense, we attempted to assess T11RF cas9 expression levels under these conditions.

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

We first assessed T11RF cas9 expression in monoculture under the same planktonic and biofilm conditions used for mating (Fig. 5). We normalized to recA because this was the normalization used for our previous assessment of engineered cas9 expression in a different E. faecalis strain (27). We observed very low expression of cas9 relative to recA in the early biofilm time points, and a dramatic increase in this ratio at the 5 and 18 hour time points (Fig. 5B). While this is consistent with the impact of cas9 on transconjugant yields in biofilm mating experiments (Fig. 1 and Fig. 4), an important caveat is that we noted substantially lower recA expression at 5 h and 18 h in biofilm T11RF cultures relative to earlier time points (Dataset S1), and thus cas9 levels may be under represented at these later time points. For planktonic cultures, relative cas9 expression levels varied in the mid-range between the high and low extremes observed during biofilm growth (Fig. 5A). This, too, is consistent with transconjugant yields observed in planktonic settings, where a robust effect of cas9 was not observed for pAM771 matings (Fig. 4), and in pAM714 matings the killing of recipient cells was a major confounder (Fig. 2-3). We did not observe the same variation over time in recA expression in planktonic cultures as we did for biofilm cultures (Dataset S1). Overall, the relative expression of cas9 to recA is consistent with cas9 impact on transconjugant yields, but the mechanism for this is unclear.

CRISPR-Cas is a robust barrier to PRP acquisition in the murine intestine. We assessed CRISPR3-Cas activity against pAM714 and pAM771 in a mouse model of *E. faecalis* intestinal dysbiosis. To establish antibiotic-induced dysbiosis, mice were administered a cocktail of antibiotics in their drinking water for seven days, followed by

placement on regular water for 24 h. The mice were colonized sequentially with recipient and donor *E. faecalis* strains at a 1:1 donor:recipient ratio. Fecal pellets were collected at 24, 48, and 96 hours post co-colonization, homogenized, and the number of transconjugants, donors, and recipients were quantified (Fig. 6). Experimental groups consisting of different combinations of donor and recipient strains were used: OG1SSp with T11RF as a plasmid-free control group, OG1SSp(pAM714) donors with T11RF recipients, and OG1SSp(pAM714) donors with T11RFΔ*cas9* recipients. In separate experiments, OG1SSp(pAM771) donors were used.

We detected pAM714 transconjugants in only one of fourteen mice colonized with T11RF recipients at 24 h post co-colonization, and for none of the mice at 48 and 96 h time points (Fig 6A). Strikingly, pAM714 transconjugants at densities up to \sim 5 x 10^6 CFU/g of feces were observed for twelve of fourteen mice colonized with T11RF Δ cas9 recipients over the course of the experiment (Fig. 6A). We screened 36 presumptive T11RF Δ cas9(pAM714) transconjugants by PCR amplification of the pAM714 *repB* gene; all possessed this gene (Fig. S3). We observed that some control (no plasmid) mice at 48 and 96 h time points had colony growth on media with selection for transconjugants (i.e. media supplemented with rifampicin, fusidic acid, and erythromycin) (Fig. 6A). We screened 20 of these colonies by PCR amplification of the pAM714 *repB* gene; none possessed this gene (Fig. S3). We infer that recipients received erythromycin resistance determinants from the native mouse microbiota via a non-pAM714-dependent mechanism.

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

We performed identical *in vivo* conjugation experiments with OG1SSp(pAM771) donors. Fewer mice were observed with sporadic erythromycin resistance in the control group for pAM771 experiments (Fig. 6B). T11RF(pAM771) transconjugants were detected for only one of ten mice at each of the 24 and 48 h time points, whereas T11RF\(\triangle cas9\)(pAM771) transconjugants were detected in all eleven mice and at all time points (Fig. 6B). Overall, these data demonstrate that there is a profound impact of CRISPR-Cas on plasmid transfer between E. faecalis strains in the dysbiotic mouse intestine. These observations are in contrast to any in vitro condition evaluated, where either plasmid transfer was not observed (for 1:1 ratio planktonic matings) or transconjugants arose despite recipients having CRISPR-Cas defense. Moreover, cytolysin did not impact in vivo plasmid transfer, as was observed for in vitro transfer. This is consistent with a previous study that analyzed transfer of pAM714 and pAM771 between E. faecalis in the hamster intestinal tract (29). Potential cytolysin-independent in vivo colonization benefit to strains possessing a PRP. We next assessed whether cytolysin impacted the colonization of *E. faecalis* donors in the mouse intestine. We compared donor densities in control mice colonized with OG1SSp to those colonized with OG1SSp(pAM714) (Fig. 6C) OG1SSp(pAM771) (Fig. 6D). We observed no benefit to donors possessing pAM714 versus pAM771. However, donor densities in the control group were significantly reduced compared to plasmid-bearing donors at all time points. These data suggest that there is a cytolysin-independent colonization benefit for OG1SSp harboring pAM714 or pAM771. This is consistent with recent observations for *E. faecalis* harboring the PRP pCF10 during intestinal colonization of germ-free mice (34).

At 24 hours post-co-colonization, recipient strain densities from control, pAM714, and pAM771 test groups were similar (Fig. 6E-F). On average, T11RF recipient densities increased in control mice at subsequent time points, but decreased in both pAM714 and pAM771 test groups (Fig. 6E-F). No differences were observed for recipient densities in pAM714 versus pAM771 groups. This demonstrates that the reduction in recipient cell densities observed *in vitro* for pAM714 but not pAM771 matings (Fig. 2-3) does not occur in the *in vivo* model tested here. Rather, our data suggest that there is a cytolysin-independent fitness advantage for pAM714/pAM771 donors *in vivo*. We also note that no differences were observed in T11RF and T11RFΔcas9 colonization, indicating that the presence or absence of *cas9* does not impact intestinal colonization success in this model (Fig. 6E-F).

Discussion

We have found that native CRISPR-Cas encoded by a member of the mammalian intestinal microbiota can block the *in vivo* dissemination of an antibiotic resistance plasmid in a murine intestinal colonization model. This is in contrast to *in vitro* observations, where the same plasmid is frequently acquired by recipient cells despite CRISPR-Cas. For the *E. faecalis* CRISPR1-Cas system we previously investigated (27.

28), these tolerant cells harboring both CRISPR-Cas and a plasmid it targets have an *in vitro* growth defect that is resolved by either plasmid loss or by mutation of CRISPR-Cas when antibiotic selection for the plasmid is applied. We did not detect CRISPR tolerance *in vivo*. One possible explanation for this is that CRISPR-Cas is far more effective *in vivo* than *in vitro*, and transconjugants never arise in cells possessing functional CRISPR-Cas *in vivo*. Another is that they do arise, but their growth defect combined with turnover of intestinal contents results in their rapid elimination *in vivo*. One method to test this would be to add erythromycin selection *in vivo*; we would expect to observe high densities of T11RF plasmid transconjugants that are CRISPR-Cas mutants. We were not able to test this in our current model system because of the erythromycin inducibility of Tn917, which would complicate plasmid detection.

What mechanisms underlie our observations about the impact of CRISPR-Cas on conjugative plasmid transfer *in vitro* and *in vivo*? Several factors may factor in this process, including plasmid host range, donor to recipient ratios and their relative colonization densities, community spatial structure (i.e. biofilms), flow and dilution rate, nutrient availability, community diversity and the relative densities of plasmid-susceptible versus non-susceptible hosts, and selection for the plasmid. With the PRPs, there is the additional consideration of pheromone concentration; the pheromone is a short peptide elaborated by recipient *E. faecalis* cells (and some other bacteria) that induces transcription of conjugation genes in the donor strain (11, 12). Finally, there are CRISPR-Cas-specific factors about which little is known, such as the *in vitro* versus *in vivo* transcriptional and post-transcriptional regulation of *cas9*.

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

We confirmed that several of these factors influence PRP transconjugant yield in vitro. In vitro cas9 expression appears to be insufficient to confer protection to many E. faecalis recipients. Other factors having strong effects were cytolysin biosynthesis encoded by the plasmid, which negatively impacted recipient densities, and the donor:recipient ratio, which affects induction of conjugation by pheromone signaling (32).We determined that the pAM714/pAM771 conjugation frequency to T11RF∆cas9 recipients is $\sim 10^{0}$ - 10^{-2} transconjugants per donor (TC/D) for *in vitro* broth and agar plate biofilm experiments, while in vivo it ranges from 10⁻³ to 10⁻⁷ (Fig. S4). Conjugation frequency of PRPs can be modulated by deleting aggregation substance in the plasmid, which should reduce conjugation frequency in broth cultures but not biofilms (11), or by interfering with pheromone production by plasmid-free recipient cells. This will be addressed in future work. Also to be addressed is the effect of varying the total cell count of the donors and recipients at the time of culture inoculation; initiating cultures with fewer cells may more accurately reflect the nature of intestinal colonization by E. faecalis. In the in vivo model used here, we induced intestinal dysbiosis with antibiotics, allowed mice to recover for one day, and then colonized them with *E. faecalis*. This models what can occur in patients after receiving antibiotic therapy. Another mouse model used in the field establishes long-term colonization of E. faecalis without major disruption of normal intestinal microbiota (35). Further, a recent study utilized a germ-free mouse model to examine *in vivo* transfer of the PRP pCF10 among intestinal *E. faecalis* (34). In the germ-free model, enterococci achieve very high densities and diversity is very low. In the native colonization model, diversity is high, and production of the Bac-21 bacteriocin from the PRP pPD1 significantly enhances *E. faecalis* colonization (35). These two models can be used to assess how community diversity and the densities of plasmid-susceptible and non-susceptible hosts impact CRISPR-Cas efficacy *in vivo*.

How far can we extrapolate from studies with *E. faecalis* to other members of the mammalian microbiota, and from PRPs to other plasmids with different properties and host ranges? Put another way, does CRISPR-Cas encoded by other members of the native microbiota confer the same robust defense against antibiotic resistance plasmids as observed for *E. faecalis* and PRPs? Will *E. faecalis* CRISPR-Cas defense against non-PRP plasmids be equally robust? Much future work remains to elucidate these questions.

Materials and Methods

Bacteria and reagents used. Strains used in this study are shown in Table 1. *E. faecalis* strains were cultured in brain heart infusion (BHI) broth or on BHI agar at 37°C. Antibiotic concentrations used were as follows: rifampicin, 50 μg/mL; fusidic acid, 25 μg/mL; spectinomycin, 500 μg/mL; streptomycin, 500 μg/mL; erythromycin, 50 μg/mL.

Antibiotics were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich or Research Products International (RPI).

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

Conjugation experiments. Donor and recipient strains were cultured overnight in BHI broth in the absence of antibiotic selection. The following day, cultures were diluted 1:10 into fresh BHI and incubated at 37°C for 1.5 hours. For planktonic conjugations at a 1:9 donor:recipient ratio, 2 mL of donor and 18 mL of recipient were mixed in a flask and incubated without agitation at 37°C for 30 min to 18 h. For planktonic conjugations at a 1:1 donor:recipient ratio, 10 mL of donor and 10 mL of recipient were mixed in a flask and incubated without agitation at 37°C for 30 min to 18 h. At each time point, 1 mL of the mating reaction was removed and used for serial dilutions and plating on selective media. For biofilm mating reactions at a 1:9 donor:recipient ratio, 100 µL of donor was mixed with 900 µL of recipient, and for reactions at a 1:1 donor:recipient ratio, 500 µL of donor was mixed with 500 µL of recipient. The mixture was centrifuged for 1 min at 16,000 x g. After centrifugation, 100 µL supernatant was used to resuspend the pellet, which was then spread-plated on non-selective BHI agar. To allow for sampling of multiple time points of biofilms, multiple identical conjugation reactions were generated using the same donor and recipient inocula. The conjugation reactions were incubated at 37°C for 30 min to 18 h. At each time point, cells were collected by washing and scraping an agar plate using 2 mL 1X phosphate buffered saline (PBS) supplemented with 2 mM EDTA, and serial dilutions were plated on selective media. For all matings, BHI agar supplemented with antibiotics was used to quantify the donor (spectinomycin, streptomycin, and erythromycin), recipient (rifampicin and fusidic acid),

transconjugant (rifampicin, fusidic acid, and erythromycin) populations. Plates were incubated for 36-48 h at 37°C. Plates with 30 to 300 colonies were used to calculate CFU/mL.

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

Mouse model of *E. faecalis* colonization. Seven days prior to bacterial colonization, 6-8 week old C57BL/6 mice were gavaged with 100 µL of an antibiotic cocktail (streptomycin 1 mg/mL, gentamicin 1 mg/mL, erythromycin 200 µg/mL), and given a water bottle ad libitum with the same antibiotic cocktail for 6 days following gavage. 24 h prior to bacterial inoculation, antibiotic water was removed and replaced with standard sterile antibiotic-free water. Bacteria were grown overnight in BHI, and mice were gavaged with 109 CFU in PBS of each bacterial strain as experimental groups indicated (1:1 donor:recipient ratio). Samples used for gavage were plated on BHI to confirm that inocula were equal across strains. Fecal samples from mice were collected at 0 h, 24 h, 48 h and 96 h. Fecal samples were resuspended in 1 mL of sterile PBS and dilutions were plated on BHI agar supplemented with antibiotics to quantify the donor (spectinomycin, streptomycin, and erythromycin), recipient (rifampicin and fusidic acid), and transconjugant (rifampicin, fusidic acid, and erythromycin) populations. Plates were incubated for 36-48 h at 37°C. Plates with 30 to 300 colonies were used to calculate CFU/q of feces. Experiments were performed in duplicate or triplicate as follows: For OG1SSp pAM714/T11RF(+/- cas9) co-colonization, three independent experiments were performed consisting of 4, 4, and 6 mice per group per experiment. For OG1SSp pAM771/T11RF(+/- cas9) co-colonization, two independent experiments were performed consisting of 5 mice per group, except in the second experiment where 5

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

mice were used for the control and wild-type T11RF groups and 6 mice were used for the T11RF Δcas9 group. Data from individual experimental replicates were combined and graphed together. All animal protocols were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the University of Colorado Anschutz Medical Campus (protocol number 00253). Colony PCR to verify in vivo transconjugants. Fecal pellets were collected at 0 hr. 24 hr, 48 hr and 96 hr, weighed, and resuspended in 1 mL PBS, 20 µL were plated at multiple dilutions on BHI containing rifampicin, fusidic acid, and erythromycin. Individual colonies were picked, resuspended in 20 µL nuclease-free water, and 1 µL used in PCR with Taq DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs). Primers amplified the repB region of plasmids pAM714 and pAM771 (pAD1 repB-For: 5'-CGT TCC ATG TGT CTA ACA ATT GTA TTA AAC-3' and pAD1 repB-Rev: 5'-CGA TGA TGG TAG CAA TTC AAG AAG G-3'). *In vitro* T11RF *cas9* expression analysis. Identical growth conditions and procedures were used as described above for planktonic and biofilm conjugation experiments with the exception that the OG1SSp plasmid donor strain was not present. At the desired time point, a 5 mL culture aliquot was collected from planktonic cultures conditions, or biofilms were collected from agar plates using 2 mL of PBS supplemented with 2 mM EDTA. Total RNA was isolated using RNA-Bee and chloroform precipitation as previously described (36). 200 ng RNA was used as template for cDNA synthesis using qScript cDNA Supermix (Quanta Biosiences). Subsequent qPCR reactions were

performed using the AzuraQuant Green Fast qPCR Mix LoRox (Azura Genomics). Primer sequences to query cas9 were cas9-For: 5'-GCA ACT GGG ATG ACT ATC A-3' and cas9-Rev: 5'-GCA TAA CGC GTA TCA TTC A-3'. Primer sequences to query recA were recA-For: 5'-TGG TGA GAT GGG AGC GAG CC-3' and recA-Rev: 5'-TCA GGA TTT CCG AAC ATC ACG CC-3'. Expression of cas9 relative to recA was calculated as 2Δ Cq, where Δ Cq = (CqT11RF @ time x cas9 – CqT11RF @ time x recA). Data shown represents the average cas9 expression from three independent experiments for both growth conditions assessed.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Ian Jorgeson with assistance with figure formatting and Dr. Michael Gilmore for providing pAM714 and pAM771. This work was supported by grants R01AI116610 to KLP, R01AI141479 to BAD, and K01DK102436 to BAD from the National Institutes of Health. The authors declare that the funders of this work had no role in the design of experiments, interpretation of data, or the decision to publish this work.

References Cited 459 460 461 1. Barrangou R, Fremaux C, Deveau H, Richards M, Boyaval P, Moineau S, Romero DA, Horvath P. 2007. CRISPR provides acquired resistance against 462 463 viruses in prokaryotes. Science **315**:1709-1712. 464 2. Marraffini LA, Sontheimer EJ. 2008. CRISPR interference limits horizontal 465 gene transfer in staphylococci by targeting DNA. Science 322:1843-1845. 466 3. Garneau JE, Dupuis ME, Villion M, Romero DA, Barrangou R, Boyaval P, 467 Fremaux C, Horvath P, Magadan AH, Moineau S. 2010. The CRISPR/Cas 468 bacterial immune system cleaves bacteriophage and plasmid DNA. Nature 469 **468:**67-71. 470 Barrangou R, Horvath P. 2017. A decade of discovery: CRISPR functions and 4. 471 applications. Nat Microbiol 2:17092. 472 5. Lebreton F, Willems RJL, Gilmore MS. 2014. Enterococcus Diversity, Origins 473 in Nature, and Gut Colonization. In Gilmore MS, Clewell DB, Ike Y, Shankar N 474 (ed.), Enterococci: From Commensals to Leading Causes of Drug Resistant 475 Infection, Boston. 476 6. Lake JG, Weiner LM, Milstone AM, Saiman L, Magill SS, See I. 2018. 477 Pathogen Distribution and Antimicrobial Resistance Among Pediatric Healthcare-478 Associated Infections Reported to the National Healthcare Safety Network, 2011-479 2014. Infection Control and Hospital Epidemiology **39:**1-11. 480 Weiner LM, Webb AK, Limbago B, Dudeck MA, Patel J, Kallen AJ, Edwards 7. 481 JR, Sievert DM. 2016. Antimicrobial-Resistant Pathogens Associated With 482 Healthcare-Associated Infections: Summary of Data Reported to the National 483 Healthcare Safety Network at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. 484 2011-2014. Infection Control and Hospital Epidemiology 37:1288-1301. Palmer KL, Godfrey P, Griggs A, Kos VN, Zucker J, Desjardins C, Cerqueira 485 8. 486 G, Gevers D, Walker S, Wortman J, Feldgarden M, Haas B, Birren B, 487 Gilmore MS. 2012. Comparative genomics of enterococci: variation in 488 Enterococcus faecalis, clade structure in E. faecium, and defining characteristics 489 of E. gallinarum and E. casseliflavus. MBio 3:e00318-00311. 490 9. Van Tyne D, Manson AL, Huycke MM, Karanicolas J, Earl AM, Gilmore MS. 491 2019. Impact of antibiotic treatment and host innate immune pressure on 492 enterococcal adaptation in the human bloodstream. Sci Transl Med 11. 493 10. Palmer KL, Gilmore MS. 2010. Multidrug-resistant enterococci lack CRISPR-494 cas. MBio 1: e00227-10. 495 Clewell DB, Weaver KE, Dunny GM, Coque TM, Francia MV, Hayes F. 2014. 11. 496 Extrachromosomal and Mobile Elements in Enterococci: Transmission, 497 Maintenance, and Epidemiology. In Gilmore MS, Clewell DB, Ike Y, Shankar N 498 (ed.), Enterococci: From Commensals to Leading Causes of Drug Resistant 499 Infection, Boston. 500 12. Dunny GM. 2013. Enterococcal sex pheromones: signaling, social behavior, and 501 evolution. Annual Review of Genetics 47:457-482. 502 Wardal E, Gawryszewska I, Hryniewicz W, Sadowy E. 2013. Abundance and 13. 503 diversity of plasmid-associated genes among clinical isolates of Enterococcus 504 faecalis. Plasmid 70:329-342.

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

Mikalsen T, Pedersen T, Willems R, Coque TM, Werner G, Sadowy E, van 14. Schaik W, Jensen LB, Sundsfjord A, Hegstad K. 2015. Investigating the mobilome in clinically important lineages of Enterococcus faecium and Enterococcus faecalis. BMC Genomics 16:282. Freitas AR, Novais C, Tedim AP, Francia MV, Baguero F, Peixe L, Coque 15. TM. 2013. Microevolutionary events involving narrow host plasmids influences local fixation of vancomycin-resistance in Enterococcus populations. PloS ONE 8:e60589. Clewell DB. 2007. Properties of Enterococcus faecalis plasmid pAD1, a member 16. of a widely disseminated family of pheromone-responding, conjugative, virulence elements encoding cytolysin. Plasmid 58:205-227. 17. Booth MC, Bogie CP, Sahl HG, Siezen RJ, Hatter KL, Gilmore MS. 1996. Structural analysis and proteolytic activation of *Enterococcus faecalis* cytolysin, a novel lantibiotic. Mol Microbiol 21:1175-1184. 18. Cox CR, Coburn PS, Gilmore MS. 2005. Enterococcal cytolysin: a novel two component peptide system that serves as a bacterial defense against eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells. Curr Protein Pept Sci 6:77-84. 19. Price VJ, Huo W, Sharifi A, Palmer KL. 2016. CRISPR-Cas and Restriction-Modification Act Additively against Conjugative Antibiotic Resistance Plasmid Transfer in *Enterococcus faecalis*. mSphere **1**:e00064-00016. 20. Gasiunas G, Barrangou R, Horvath P, Siksnys V. 2012. Cas9-crRNA ribonucleoprotein complex mediates specific DNA cleavage for adaptive

527 immunity in bacteria. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 528 109:E2579-2586. 529 Jinek M, Chylinski K, Fonfara I, Hauer M, Doudna JA, Charpentier E. 2012. A 21. 530 programmable dual-RNA-guided DNA endonuclease in adaptive bacterial 531 immunity. Science 337:816-821. 532 22. Brouns SJ, Jore MM, Lundgren M, Westra ER, Slijkhuis RJ, Snijders AP, 533 Dickman MJ, Makarova KS, Koonin EV, van der Oost J. 2008. Small CRISPR 534 RNAs guide antiviral defense in prokaryotes. Science **321**:960-964. 535 Jansen R, van Embden JD, Gaastra W, Schouls LM. 2002. Identification of a 23. 536 novel family of sequence repeats among prokaryotes. Omics **6:**23-33. 537 24. Bolotin A, Quinquis B, Sorokin A, Ehrlich SD. 2005. Clustered regularly 538 interspaced short palindrome repeats (CRISPRs) have of spacers 539 extrachromosomal origin. Microbiology 151:2551-2561. 540 Ike Y, Clewell DB, Segarra RA, Gilmore MS. 1990. Genetic analysis of the 25. 541 pAD1 hemolysin/bacteriocin determinant in Enterococcus faecalis: Tn917 542 insertional mutagenesis and cloning. Journal of Bacteriology 172:155-163. 543 26. Clewell DB, Tomich PK, Gawron-Burke MC, Franke AE, Yagi Y, An FY. 1982. 544 Mapping of Streptococcus faecalis plasmids pAD1 and pAD2 and studies relating 545 to transposition of Tn917. Journal of Bacteriology **152**:1220-1230. Hullahalli K, Rodrigues M, Nguyen UT, Palmer K. 2018. An Attenuated 546 27. 547 CRISPR-Cas System in Enterococcus faecalis Permits DNA Acquisition. MBio 9: 548 e00414-18.

549 28. Hullahalli K, Rodrigues M, Palmer KL. 2017. Exploiting CRISPR-Cas to 550 manipulate Enterococcus faecalis populations. Elife 6: e26664. 551 29. Huycke MM, Gilmore MS, Jett BD, Booth JL. 1992. Transfer of pheromone-552 inducible plasmids between Enterococcus faecalis in the Syrian hamster 553 gastrointestinal tract. Journal of Infectious Diseases 166:1188-1191. 554 Jett BD, Jensen HG, Nordquist RE, Gilmore MS. 1992. Contribution of the 30. 555 pAD1-encoded cytolysin to the severity of experimental Enterococcus faecalis 556 endophthalmitis. Infect Immun 60:2445-2452. 557 Tomich PK, An FY, Clewell DB. 1980. Properties of erythromycin-inducible 31. 558 transposon Tn917 in Streptococcus faecalis. Journal of Bacteriology 141:1366-559 1374. 560 32. Bandyopadhyay A, O'Brien S, Frank KL, Dunny GM, Hu WS. 2016. 561 Antagonistic Donor Density Effect Conserved in Multiple Enterococcal 562 Conjugative Plasmids. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 82:4537-4545. 563 33. Cox CR, Gilmore MS. 2007. Native microbial colonization of Drosophila 564 melanogaster and its use as a model of Enterococcus faecalis pathogenesis. 565 Infect Immun 75:1565-1576. 566 Hirt H, Greenwood-Quaintance KE, Karau MJ, Till LM, Kashyap PC, Patel R, 34. 567 Dunny GM. 2018. Enterococcus faecalis Sex Pheromone cCF10 Enhances 568 Conjugative Plasmid Transfer *In Vivo*. mBio **9**:e00037-00018. 569 35. Kommineni S, Bretl DJ, Lam V, Chakraborty R, Hayward M, Simpson P, Cao

Y, Bousounis P, Kristich CJ, Salzman NH. 2015. Bacteriocin production

570

augments niche competition by enterococci in the mammalian gastrointestinal tract. Nature 526:719-722.
36. Huo W, Adams HM, Zhang MQ, Palmer KL. 2015. Genome Modification in Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF Assessed by Bisulfite Sequencing and Single-Molecule Real-Time Sequencing. Journal of Bacteriology 197:1939-1951.
37. McBride SM, Fischetti VA, Leblanc DJ, Moellering RC, Jr., Gilmore MS. 2007. Genetic diversity among Enterococcus faecalis. PloS ONE 2:e582.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Impact of CRISPR-Cas on pAM714 transconjugant yields under different *in vitro* conditions. The CFU/mL of transconjugants obtained in mating reactions sampled over an 18-hour period is shown for T11RF (squares) and T11RFΔ*cas9* (triangles) recipient strains. Conjugation was performed under planktonic conditions in broth (A and C) and biofilm conditions on an agar plate (B and D) utilizing OG1SSp as a donor strain. Conjugation reactions were initiated with a 1:9 (A and B) or 1:1 (C and D) donor to recipient ratio. The limit of detection is indicated by the dashed line. Data shown are the average and standard deviation from a minimum of three independent trials for each time point. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed Student's t-Test; *P*-values, *<0.05, **<0.01 and ***<0.001.

Figure 2. Recipient cell densities for *in vitro* conjugations at a 1:9 donor to recipient ratio. T11RF (squares) and T11RFΔ*cas9* (triangles) recipient cell densities in CFU/mL was determined for both planktonic (A and B) and biofilm (C and D) mating reactions with pAM714 (open, red symbols) and pAM771 (closed green symbols) donors. The limit of detection was 10² CFU/mL. Data shown are the average and standard deviation from a minimum of three independent trials for each time point for both mating conditions. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed Student's t-Test; *P*-values, *<0.05, **<0.01 and ***<0.001.

Figure 3. Recipient cell densities for *in vitro* conjugations at a 1:1 donor to recipient ratio. T11RF (squares) and T11RFΔ*cas9* (triangles) recipient cell densities in CFU/mL was determined for both planktonic (A and B) and biofilm (C and D) mating reactions with pAM714 (open, red symbols) and pAM771 (closed green symbols) donors. The limit of detection is indicated by the dashed line. Data shown are the average and standard deviation from a minimum of three independent trials for each time point for both mating conditions. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed Student's t-Test; *P*-values, *<0.05, **<0.01 and ***<0.001.

Figure 4. Impact of CRISPR-Cas on pAM771 transconjugant yields under different *in vitro* conditions. The CFU/mL of transconjugants obtained in mating reactions sampled over an 18-hour period is shown for T11RF (squares) and T11RFΔ*cas9* (triangles) recipient strains. Conjugation was performed under planktonic conditions in broth (A and C) and biofilm conditions on an agar plate (B and D) utilizing OG1SSp as a donor strain. Conjugation reactions were initiated with a 1:9 (A and B) or 1:1 (C and D) donor to recipient ratio. The limit of detection is indicated by the dashed line. Data shown are the average and standard deviation from a minimum of three independent trials for each time point. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed Student's t-Test; *P*-values, *<0.05, **<0.01 and ***<0.001.

Figure 5. T11RF cas9 expression in planktonic culture and agar plate biofilms.

Expression of cas9 was assessed by RT-qPCR under identical growth conditions used

for planktonic (A) and biofilm (B) conjugation experiments, with the exception that the

OG1SSp plasmid donor strain was not present. Expression of *cas9* is expressed relative to *recA*. Data shown represent the average *cas9* expression from three independent experiments.

Figure 6. Impact of CRISPR-Cas on plasmid transfer in the mouse intestine. The number of transconjugant (A, B), donor (C, D), and recipient (E, F) CFU/g of feces for individual mice were determined by plating feces on selective agars. Each symbol represents one mouse. Experimental groups are described in the materials and methods. Black horizontal bars represent the geometric mean of data in each group. Shown are data for *in vivo* pAM714 (A, C, and E; open red symbols) pAM771 (B, D, and F; closed green symbols) transfer. Control mice co-colonized by OG1SSp and T11RF are represented by open circles. Mice colonized with T11RF recipients are represented by squares. Mice colonized with T11RFΔ*cas9* recipients are represented by triangles. The limit of detection is indicated by the dashed line. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed Student's t-Test; *P*-value, **<0.01 and ***<0.001.

Supplemental figure legends

Figure S1. Donor cell densities for *in vitro* **conjugations at a 1:9 donor to recipient ratio.** T11RF (squares) and T11RFΔ*cas9* (triangles) donor cell densities in CFU/mL was determined for both planktonic (A and B) and biofilm (C and D) mating reactions with pAM714 (open, red symbols) and pAM771 (closed green symbols) donors. The limit of detection was 10² CFU/mL. Data shown are the average and standard deviation from a

648

649

650

651

652

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

667

668

minimum of three independent trials for each time point for both mating conditions. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed Student's t-Test; P-values, *<0.05, **<0.01 and ***<0.001. Figure S2. Donor cell densities for *in vitro* conjugations at a 1:1 donor to recipient ratio. T11RF (squares) and T11RF∆cas9 (triangles) donor cell densities in CFU/mL was determined for both planktonic (A and B) and biofilm (C and D) mating reactions with pAM714 (open, red symbols) and pAM771 (closed green symbols) donors. The limit of detection was 10² CFU/mL. Data shown are the average and standard deviation from a minimum of three independent trials for each time point for both mating conditions. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed Student's t-Test; P-values, *<0.05, **<0.01 and ***<0.001. Figure S3. PCR confirms that experimental transconjugants carry pAM714 and spontaneous resistant isolates from control animals do not. Agarose gels show PCR amplification products for the repB gene of pAM714 at 24 (A), 48 (B) and 96 (C) hours post-colonization, and the lack of a repB amplification signal in isolates originating from control mice and growing on transconjugant selection agar (B and D). PCR reactions for the presence and absence of the repB gene using strains OG1SSp(pAM714), OG1SSp, T11RF and T11RF \(\triangle cas9 \) are included on each gel. Rif -Rifampicin, Fus – Fusidic acid, Erm – Erythromycin.

Figure S4. Frequency of conjugation *in vitro* and in the mouse intestine. Conjugation frequencies for pAM714 under mouse intestine (A), planktonic (C), and biofilm (E) settings are shown as transconjugants per donor. Conjugation frequencies for pAM771 under mouse intestine (B), planktonic (D), and biofilm (F) settings are also shown. Experiments with T11RF recipients are represented with squares; with T11RF Δcas9 recipients as triangles. For calculating *in vivo* conjugation frequencies, the conjugation frequency for each mouse was determined by dividing the transconjugant CFU/g by the donor CFU/g; one symbol represents one mouse on the graph. Black horizontal bars represent the geometric mean of data in each group. No symbol means that a frequency could not be calculated because one or both of the values (donor CFU/g or transconjugant CFU/g) were zero. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed Student's t-Test; *P*-values, *<0.05, **<0.01 and ***<0.001.

Table 1. E. faecalis strains used in this study.

Strain Name	Description	Reference
T11RF	Rifampicin-fusidic acid resistant derivative of strain T11	(19, 37)
T11RF∆ <i>cas</i> 9	T11RF with an in-frame deletion of cas9	(19)
OG1SSp(pAM714)	Spectinomycin-streptomycin resistant derivative of strain OG1 harboring pAM714, conferring erythromycin resistance via Tn917 insertion upstream of the <i>par</i> locus; <i>cyl</i> ⁺	(25, 26)
OG1SSp(pAM771)	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	(25, 29, 30)

Figure 1

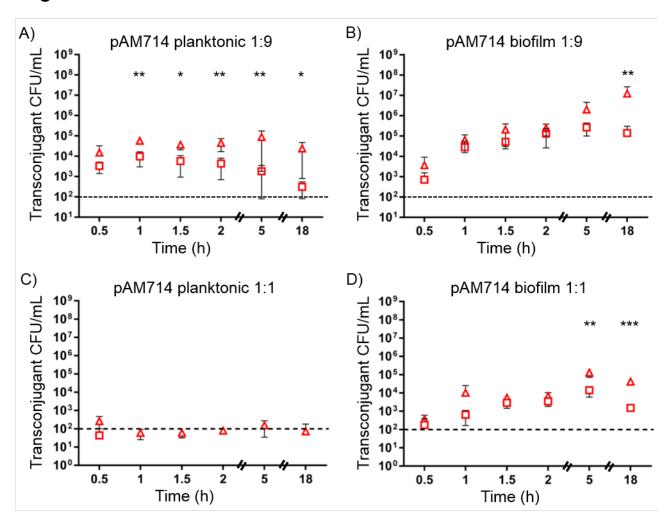


Figure 2

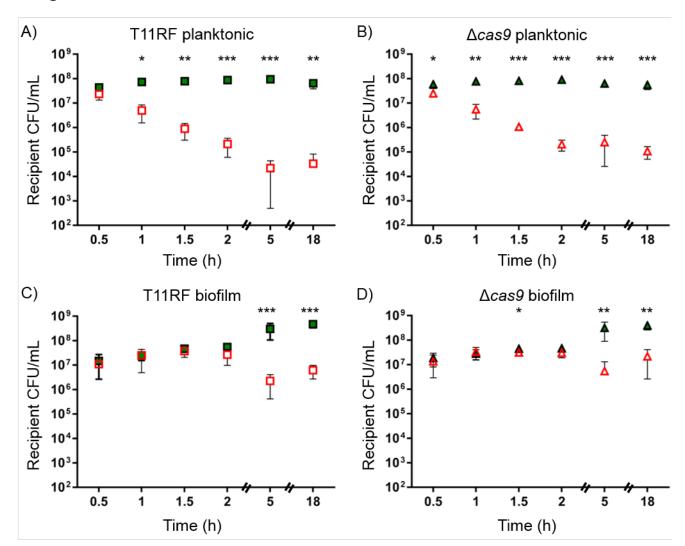


Figure 3

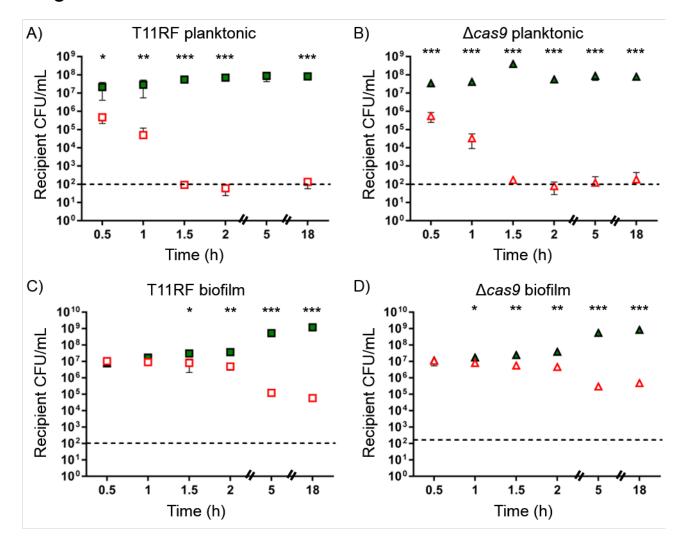


Figure 4

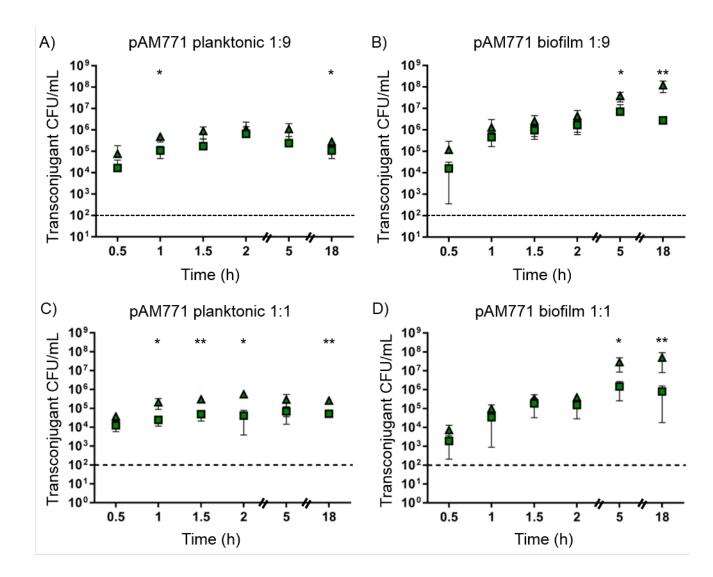


Figure 5

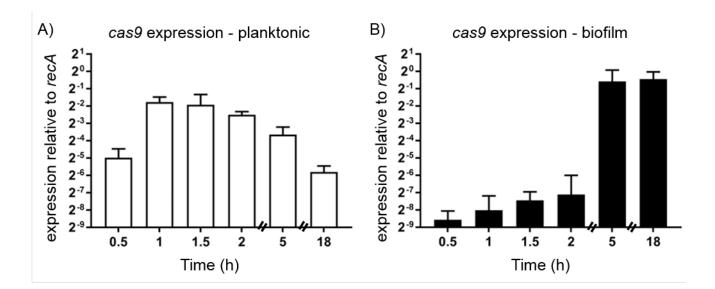
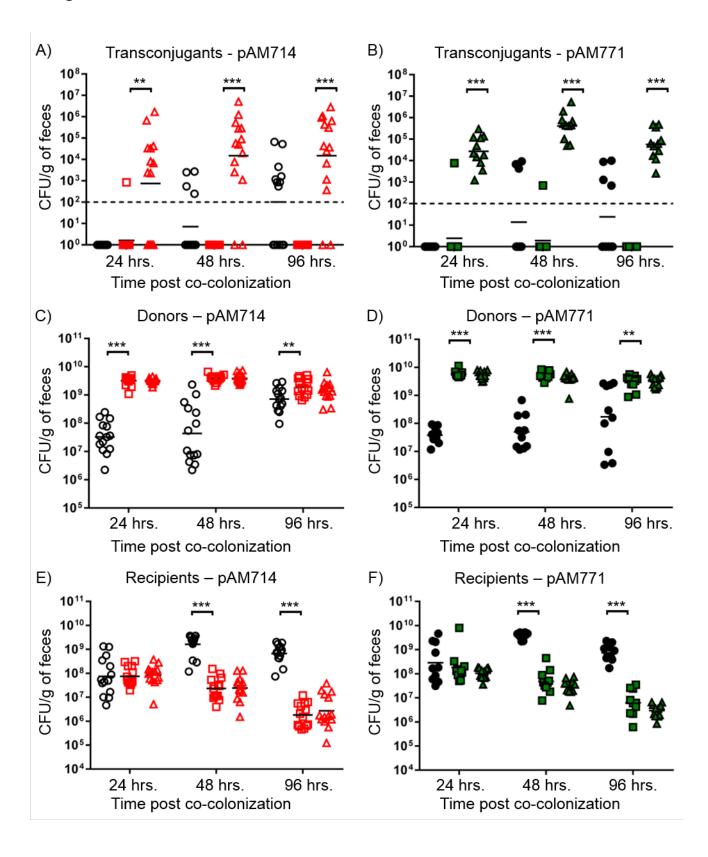


Figure 6



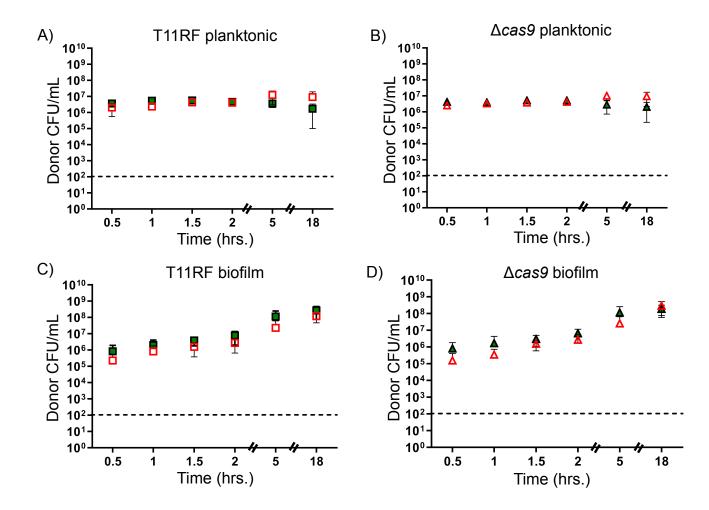


Figure S1. Donor cell densities for *in vitro* conjugations at a 1:9 donor to recipient ratio. T11RF (squares) and T11RF \triangle cas9 (triangles) donor cell densities in CFU/mL was determined for both planktonic (A and B) and biofilm (C and D) mating reactions with pAM714 (open, red symbols) and pAM771 (closed green symbols) donors. The limit of detection was 10² CFU/mL. Data shown are the average and standard deviation from a minimum of three independent trials for each time point for both mating conditions. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed Student's t-Test; *P*-values, *<0.05, **<0.01 and ***<0.001.

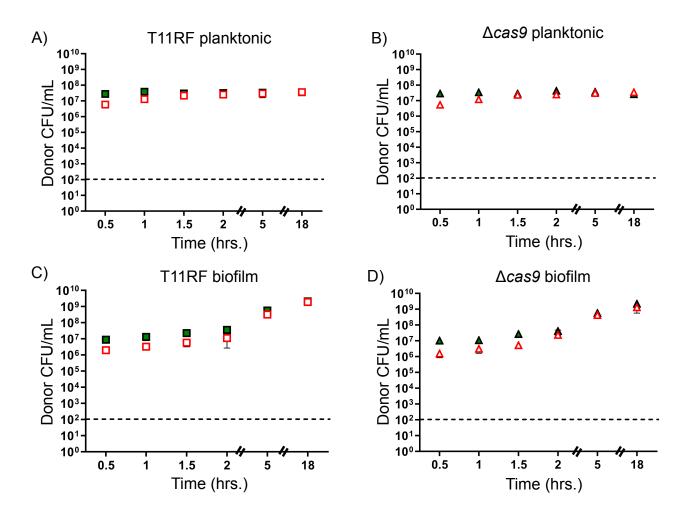


Figure S2. Donor cell densities for *in vitro* conjugations at a 1:1 donor to recipient ratio. T11RF (squares) and T11RF Δ cas9 (triangles) donor cell densities in CFU/mL was determined for both planktonic (A and B) and biofilm (C and D) mating reactions with pAM714 (open, red symbols) and pAM771 (closed green symbols) donors. The limit of detection was 10² CFU/mL. Data shown are the average and standard deviation from a minimum of three independent trials for each time point for both mating conditions. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed Student's t-Test; *P*-values, *<0.05, **<0.01 and ***<0.001.

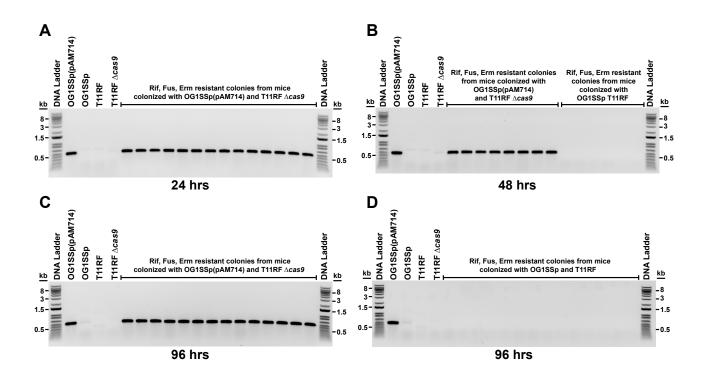


Figure S3. PCR confirms that experimental transconjugants carry pAM714 and spontaneous resistant isolates from control animals do not. Agarose gels show PCR amplification products for the repB gene of pAM714 at 24 (A), 48 (B) and 96 (C) hours post-colonization, and the lack of a repB amplification signal in isolates originating from control mice and growing on transconjugant selection agar (B and D). PCR reactions for the presence and absence of the repB gene using strains OG1SSp(pAM714), OG1SSp, T11RF and T11RF $\Delta cas9$ are included on each gel. Rif – Rifampicin, Fus – Fusidic acid, Erm – Erythromycin.

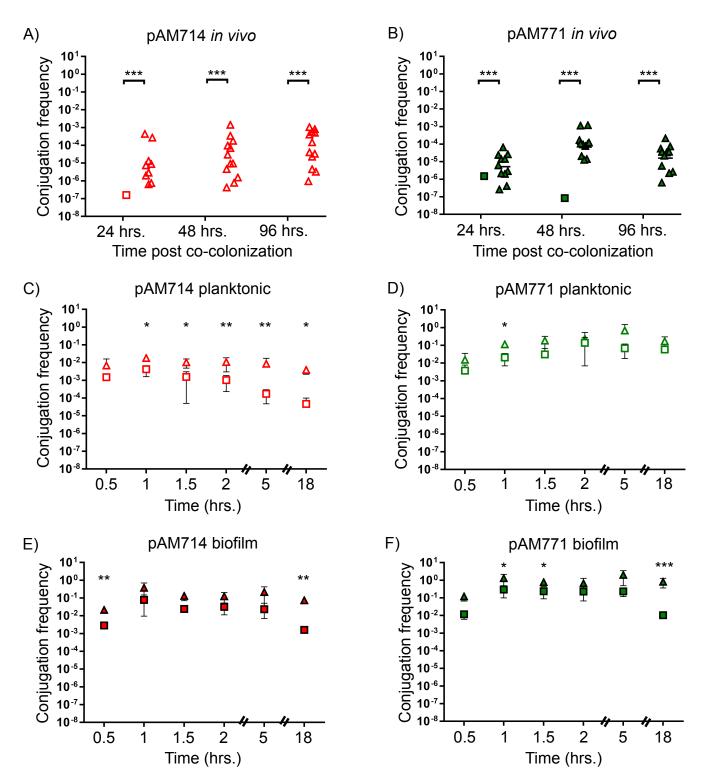


Figure S4. Frequency of conjugation *in vitro* **and in the mouse intestine.** Conjugation frequencies for pAM714 under mouse intestine (A), planktonic (C), and biofilm (E) settings are shown as transconjugants per donor. Conjugation frequencies for pAM771 under mouse intestine (B), planktonic (D), and biofilm (F) settings are also shown. Experiments with T11RF recipients are represented with squares; with T11RF Δ*cas9* recipients as triangles. For calculating *in vivo* conjugation frequencies, the conjugation frequency for each mouse was determined by dividing the transconjugant CFU/g by the donor CFU/g; one symbol represents one mouse on the graph. Black horizontal bars represent the geometric mean of data in each group. No symbol means that a frequency could not be calculated because one or both of the values (donor CFU/g or transconjugant CFU/g) were zero. Statistical significance was assessed using a two-tailed Student's t-Test; *P*-values, *<0.05, **<0.01 and ***<0.001.

			Biofilm						
T11RF monoculture biofilm time course, n=1									
	t=30	t=1	t=1.5	t=2	t=5	t=18			
cas9	27.21	26.60	27.52	26.73	24.94	28.83			
recA	18.25	18.07	19.81	18.62	23.63	28.87			
T11RF monoculture biofilm time course, n=2									
	t=30	t=1	t=1.5	t=2	t=5	t=18			
cas9	27.18	27.34	27.53	27.12	24.62	28.57			
recA	18.46	18.87	19.77	19.84	24.57	27.98			
T11RF monoculture biofilm time course, n=3									
	t=30	t=1	t=1.5	t=2	t=5	t=18			
cas9	26.70	25.86	26.98	27.77	25.26	29.43			
recA	18.70	18.82	20.11	21.85	24.88	28.69			

Dataset S1. Ct values for RT-qPCR.

		I	Planktonic						
T11RF monoculture planktonic time course, n=1									
	t=30	t=1	t=1.5	t=2	t=5	t=18			
cas9	27.52	24.65	26.39	26.15	26.30	25.79			
recA	22.20	22.68	23.98	23.45	23.14	20.40			
T11RF monoculture planktonic time course, n=2									
	t=30	t=1	t=1.5	t=2	t=5	t=18			
cas9	26.77	25.93	26.61	26.18	28.46	27.53			
recA	21.56	24.50	25.35	23.81	24.43	21.53			
T11RF monoculture planktonic time course, n=3									
	t=30	t=1	t=1.5	t=2	t=5	t=18			
cas9	28.24	24.90	24.93	25.08	26.41	26.72			
recA	23.85	23.02	22.84	22.67	22.68	20.72			