The protozoan Trichomonas vaginalis targets bacteria with laterally-acquired NIpC/P60 peptidoglycan hydrolases Jully Pinheiro¹, Jacob Biboy², Waldemar Vollmer², Robert P. Hirt³, Jeremy R. Keown¹, Anastasiia Artuyants¹, David C. Goldstone^{1,4}, Augusto Simoes-Barbosa^{1*} ¹ School of Biological Sciences, University of Auckland, New Zealand ² Centre for Bacterial Cell Biology, Institute for Cell and Molecular Biosciences, Newcastle University, Newcastle upon Tyne, NE2 4AX, UK. ³ Institute for Cell and Molecular Biosciences, Newcastle University, Newcastle upon Tyne, NE2 4HH, UK. ⁴ Maurice Wilkins Centre for Molecular Biodiscovery, New Zealand. * Corresponding authors: David Goldstone E-mail: d.goldstone@auckland.ac.nz Augusto Simoes-Barbosa E-mail: a.barbosa@auckland.ac.nz

Abstract

Trichomonas vaginalis is a human eukaryotic pathogen and the causative agent of trichomoniasis, the most prevalent non-viral sexually transmitted infection worldwide. This extracellular protozoan parasite is intimately associated with the human vaginal mucosa and microbiota but key aspects of the complex interactions between the parasite and the vaginal bacteria remain elusive. We report that *T. vaginalis* has acquired, by lateral gene transfer from bacteria, genes encoding peptidoglycan hydrolases of the NlpC/P60 family. Two of the *T. vaginalis* enzymes were active against bacterial peptidoglycan, retaining the active site fold and specificity as DL-endopeptidases. The endogenous NlpC/P60 genes are transcriptionally up regulated in *T. vaginalis* when in the presence of bacteria. The over-expression of an exogenous copy produces a remarkable phenotype where the parasite is capable of competing out bacteria from mixed cultures, consistent with the biochemical activity of the enzyme *in vitro*. Our study highlights the relevance of the interactions of this eukaryotic pathogen with bacteria, a poorly understood aspect on the biology of this important human parasite.

Author summary

Trichomonas vaginalis is a protozoan parasite that causes a very common sexually transmitted disease known as trichomoniasis. This extracellular parasite resides in the vagina where it is in close association with the mucosa and the local microbiota. Very little is known about the nature of the parasite-bacteria interactions. Here, we report that this parasite had acquired genes from bacteria which retained their original function producing active enzymes capable of degrading peptidoglycan, a polymer that is chemically unique to the cell envelope of bacteria. Our results indicate that these enzymes help the parasite compete out bacteria in mixed cultures. These observations suggest that these enzymes may be critical for the parasite to establish infection in the

vagina, a body site that is densely colonised with bacteria. Our study further highlights the importance of understanding the interactions between pathogens and microbiota, as the outcomes of these interactions are increasingly understood to have important implications on health and disease.

Introduction

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

Trichomonas vaginalis is a flagellated protozoan parasite that causes human trichomoniasis, the most common non-viral sexually transmitted infection worldwide [1]. Women experience symptoms more often than men and these are mostly associated to vaginitis and gyneco-obstetric complications [2-7]. In addition, trichomoniasis facilitates the transmission of the Human Immunodeficiency Virus [8]. T. vaginalis is an extracellular mucosal parasite that displays an intimate association with the host tissue and vaginal microbiota. The molecular and cellular basis of the interactions between T. vaginalis and this microbiota are poorly understood but likely to have a significant impact on the pathobiology of this infection [9-11]. In addition, trichomoniasis is apparently associated with microbial dysbiosis of the vagina [12]. T. vaginalis is thought to have evolved from an enteric to a genitourinary mucosal environment [13] and has been continuously in contact with the mucosaassociated microbiota. Adaptations to colonize the vaginal mucosa may have impacted on (or facilitated by) a recent and dramatic genome expansion achieved through a complex combination of gene and transposable elements duplications and lateral gene transfers (LGTs). These have contributed to the unexpectedly large genome size (~170 Mbp) and the extraordinary coding capacity of ~60,000 predicted protein coding genes [14,15], of which about 30,000 where shown to be transcribed in various tested growth conditions [16,17]. The co-evolution of Trichomonas and bacterial members of the microbiota may have significantly shaped the genome of this parasite by providing new functionalities and selective advantages for the parasite to infect human mucosal surfaces of the urogenital tract [15,18,19]. Genome-wide analyses indicate that a considerable number of genes have been acquired by eukaryotes from prokaryotes by LGT [15,20-22]. Among these are an increasing number of genes encoding for enzymes that degrade or remodel the essential bacterial cell wall component, the peptidoglycan (PG) [19,22-26]. Two

reports, in particular, have directly demonstrated beneficial implications of these LGT-acquired genes to the recipient eukaryotic organisms [25,26]. The acquisition of bacterial PG-degrading enzymes in these two cases has provided a new function to the eukaryotic host which is controlling bacterial presence or abundance [22,25,26].

In the ecological context of *Trichomonas* and commensal bacteria, lateral acquisition of PG-degrading enzymes could be advantageous to the parasite and it may explain why *T. vaginalis* infections are preferentially accompanied by certain species of vaginal bacteria [12]. Indeed, NlpC/P60-like genes are among strong candidates of LGT among the annotated protein coding genes in the *T. vaginalis* genome [14,18]. NlpC/P60 proteins were originally described as bacterial cell wall endopeptidases cleaving the D- γ -glutamyl-*meso*-diaminopimelate linkage in PG [27,28]. NlpC/P60 proteins display the conserved catalytic triad of papain-like thiol peptidases and may carry additional domains that specify substrate binding, signal peptides or transmembrane regions for proper subcellular localisation [28].

This study aimed to (i) understand the structural diversity and evolutionary origins of NIpC/P60-like genes identified in the *T. vaginalis* genome, (ii) characterize the structure-function relationship for a selection of these enzymes by determining their crystal structures and activities against PG and (iii) examine the potential role of NIpC/P60 enzymes in parasite-bacteria interactions. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to report the preservation of fully functional LGT-derived PG-degrading enzymes in a eukaryotic pathogen of the mucosa.

Results

Primary structural diversity and phylogeny of NIpC genes from

Trichomonas vaginalis

A screen for candidate LGT of prokaryotic origins among annotated protein coding genes in the *T. vaginalis* G3 genome identified the entry TVAG_119910

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

(XP 001276902.1) as a strong candidate LGT from bacterial origin [14,18]. This gene encodes a protein annotated as an endopeptidase member of the Clan CA, family C40, NlpC/P60 (Pfam entry PF00877 - NlpC/P60 family). A total of nine annotated NlpC/P60 proteins [14] with the domain PF00866 were identified in TrichDB [29] (S1 Table and Fig 1A and S1 Fig), referred to as TvNlpC/P60. InterProScan analyses of these proteins also identified a bacterial SH3 domain (domain PF08239, SH3b) in two of the TvNlpC/P60 proteins (Fig 1A, S1 Table and S1 Fig). In addition, signal peptides were identified in five TvNlpC/P60 proteins (S1 Table and S1 Fig). These nine proteins are split in two distinct orthologous groups in TrichDB of four and five seguences, which we named A (NIpC A1-4) and B (NIpC B1-5) for simplicity, respectively (S1 Table and Fig 1). The N-termini of NIpC A1-4 and NIpC B1-5 are more similar to their respective orthologous group members and the level of similarity within each group also suggests that all nine TvNlpC/P60 proteins have functional signal peptides although some are not recognised as such by current bioinformatics tools (Fig 1B). In contrast all sampled animal and fungal NIpC/P60 sequences were inferred to possess a signal peptide, likely explained by the use of restricted, and taxonomically biased, reference sequences of experimentally confirmed signal peptides to train the signal peptide identifying software [30](S1 Fig.). Consistent with two orthologous groups, distinct taxonomic reports for the top 100 BlastP hits against the non-redundant protein database at the NCBI were obtained with respective members of the two groups used as guery (S2 and S3 Tables), with these hits mainly derived from bacterial members of the Firmicutes and Actinobacteria. The high alien index (AI) values calculated from Blast hit lists (AI > 13, see Material and Methods, S1 Table, [31]) for all nine proteins (Al value range: 13.8-29.6) was consistent with the hypothesis that TvNlpC/P60 genes were acquired from bacteria by LGT [14,18]. A few proteins from phages infecting Clostridium species were also observed in the BlastP hit list (S2 Table, S3 Table). More sensitive Delta-Blast searches restricted to non-redundant proteins derived from eukaryotes led to a small cohort of hits from protists, Fungi and animals (S4 Tables).

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

No hits were observed for the trichomonad *Tritrichomonas foetus* [32], suggesting that the LGT(s) in T. vaginalis were experienced by an ancestor of T. vaginalis following the speciation event that separated the *Tritrichomonas* and *Trichomonas* lineages [13]. To investigate the phylogenetic relationship between TvNlpC/P60 proteins and their homologues, all nine sequences were aligned with a selection of sequences identified from the various BlastP searches, including searches against annotated proteins derived from metagenome datasets. Metagenome-derived proteins were of particular interest as LGT in *T. vaginalis* have been characterized by a bias towards donor bacterial lineages overrepresented in mammalian gut microbiota [18]. However, none of the most similar entries to the TvNlpC/P60 proteins annotated in metagenome datasets, including from the human gut, contributed at resolving the phylogenetic position of the parasite entries (data not shown), hence these were not included in the final phylogeny. One gene derived from a ground water metagenome [33], member of the major bacterial TM6 lineage (accession KKP35888.1), was included as it clustered within a well-supported clan that included the sequence from the free-living protist Acantamoeba castellanii, a published candidate LGT for this species [34] (Fig 1). Additional published NIpC/P60 candidate LGTs in eukaryotes were also considered including genes from Fungi and mites [35], providing a far more appropriate phylogenetic framework to investigate the tempo and mode of LGT for all nine TvNlpC/P60 sequences compared to published analyses, which only considered one TvNlpC/P60 sequence and bacterial sequences [14,18]. A total of 50 NlpC/P60 sequences were aligned and a conservative alignment restricted to the well-conserved NIpC/P60 domain [28] was subjected to a combination of complementary phylogenetic analyses (Fig 1C and S5 Table). In contrast to a relatively recent case of LGT reported in T. vaginalis, which does not apparently encode any functional gene and that was possibly derived from a bacterium of the urogenital tract of the genus *Peptoniphilus* [15,36], none of the members of the vaginal microbiota included in the phylogenetic analysis (e.g. Lactobacillus iners and Corynebacterium genitalium) preferentially clustered with any of the TvNlpC/P60 sequences.

All unconstrained maximum likelihood phylogenetic analyses, including amino acid composition homogenous and composition mixture models (see Material and Methods section) recovered the members of the two TvNlpC/P60 groups in different clans (S5 Table), consistent with two distinct LGT events and with these proteins being members of different orthologous groups (S1 Table). The dissimilar indels (insert/deletion) profile among the nine aligned NlpC/P60 sequences are also consistent with two distinct groups of sequences originating from two distinct LGT events for these genes, which was followed by gene duplication events forming two distinct protein families of four (clan A) and five (clan B) TvNlpC/P60 proteins (Fig 1C and S1 Fig). However, weak bootstrap support (values <50%) for a number of stem branches in the unconstrained phylogenetic analyses did not conclusively support two independent LGT events (Fig 1C).

To further test the robustness of the distinct candidate LGT events into eukaryotes supported by all unconstrained maximum likelihood phylogenies, including the potentially two independent LGTs into *T. vaginalis*, a selection of constrained phylogenetic analyses were performed in combination with tree topology tests (S5 Table). A potential single LGT event into *T. vaginalis*, followed by gene duplications, for all nine TvNlpC/P60 genes could not be rejected with the protein single rate matrix based model (LG+G4+I) and the composition mixture model LG4X but was rejected by the more complex composition mixture model (C20 based model) (S5 Table). In contrast, all the tested hypotheses in which *T. vaginalis* might have shared the NlpC/P60 LGT event with one other eukaryotic lineage included in our analyses (different combinations of *T. vaginalis* sequences constrained to be monophyletic with a selection of the different distinct eukaryotic sequences) were rejected by all considered models, in line with the moderate to high (~70-90%) bootstrap values supporting the scattered distribution of eukaryotic sequences among bacterial

homologues in the phylogeny (S5 Table). These analyses are consistent with multiple independent NIpC/P60 bacteria gene acquisition events among the sampled eukaryotes.

The three-dimensional structure of *Trichomonas vaginalis*NIpC A1 and NIpC A2

To investigate the structure and function of the *T. vaginalis* NIpC proteins, we expressed and purified the proteins and undertook crystallisation experiments towards determining the structure by X-ray crystallography. Crystals were obtained for NIpC_A1 (TVAG_119910) and NIpC_A2 (TVAG_457240) using the sitting drop vapour diffusion technique. Crystals of NIpC_A1 diffracted to 1.2 Å resolution and belonged to the spacegroup P2₁22₁. Crystals of NIpC_A2 diffracted to 2.3 Å and belonged to the spacegroup P1 (S6 Table).

The structure of NlpC_A1 (PDBid 6BIM/6BIO) was determined by single isomorphous replacement using SeMet substituted protein. A single molecule is present in the asymmetric unit and all residues, including three residues that remain after cleavage of the purification tag, are visible in the electron density map. The structure of NlpC_A2 (PDBid: 6BIQ) was subsequently determined by molecular replacement using the structure of NlpC_A1 as a search model. Four copies of NlpC_A2 are present in the asymmetric unit with residues 11-275 visible in the electron density maps.

NlpC_A1 and NlpC_A2 consist of three domains (Fig 2A). The NlpC/P60 domain is located at the C-terminus of the protein and is preceded by two bacterial SH3 domains. As expected, due to the high sequence identity (90.2% identical, 27 differences, 96.4% similar), both structures are essentially identical (Fig 2B) with an RMSD on all atoms of 0.491Å (1379 equivalent atoms). For brevity, we will describe the structure for NlpC A1 and highlight differences with NlpC A2. The SH3b domains

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

consist of 6 β-strands arranged in a beta barrel formation. They are joined by a shared β-strand (β7) and pack against the NIpC domain in a triangular arrangement. A short linker of approximately 10 residues joins the second SH3b domain to the NIpC domain. The NlpC/P60 domain adopts the classical papain-like fold [37] with a central β-sheet of 5 strands displaying an anti-parallel arrangement. Three helices (α 2, α 3, and α 4) are packed against one side of the sheet and form the interface to the SH3 domains. The similarity to other NIpC proteins allows us to assign the active site residues of Cys179-His234-His246, also present in all 9 T. vaginalis NIpC sequences (S1 Fig). The active-site cysteine is located at the N-terminus of helix α 3 while the two histidines are present in strands β 15 and β 16. The active site residues sit in a 'T'-shaped groove that is bounded by strands β 14 and β 15 in the NIpC domain, with the cross of the T formed by the strand β 3 in the first SH3b domain (Fig 2C). The groove is open and lacking obvious regulatory elements that are often present in bacterial endogenous peptidases [38]. This is suggestive of both NlpC A1 and NlpC_A2 being unregulated enzymes capable of degrading the cell-wall of bacteria. A surface electrostatic calculation [39] demonstrates the active site groove to carry a slight positive charge with two pronounced areas of strong positive charge. The first of these is adjacent to the active site cysteine. The second is at the base of a small pocket at the interface between the NIpC domain and the first SH3b domain bounded by the residues His195, Tyr43, Trp44, Tyr46, Phe193, Gln184 (Fig 2C). A single residue difference in NIpC A2 is located in the vicinity of the active site where Leu169 in NIpC A1 is Trp169 in NIpC A2. The tryptophan residue narrows the groove around the active site cysteine in NIpC_A2. The remaining sequence differences are spread across the surface of the protein with no obvious cluster of residues that might influence function.

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

The presence of multiple SH3b domains, while not unusual for NIpC proteins [28], is intriguing. NIpC domains are often accompanied by accessory domains that alter substrate specificity. Previous studies of multi-domain NIpC/P60 proteins have shown that the accessory domains can exist in a flexible conformation for recognition of PG [40]. Consequently, small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) was used to confirm the arrangement of domains within the crystal. Both NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 eluted as a single peak on size-exclusion chromatography and multi-angle light scattering analysis demonstrating both proteins to be monomeric in solution (S3 Fig). Comparison of the theoretical scattering from the structural models with SAXS curves is consistent with the arrangement of domains present in the crystal. This demonstrates that the NIpC domain and SH3b domains pack in a concerted arrangement in solution (S2 Fig and S7 Table). To further investigate the role of the SH3b domains in NlpC A1 and NlpC A2, we undertook a series of structural similarity searches using the SSM algorithm [41]. These searches failed to identify other structures with a similar global domain arrangement. Searches using the NIpC domain only identified several other members of the NIpC superfamily that contain SH3b domains. The NIpC/P60 protein from Bacillus cereus (YkfC; PDBid 3H41) shares the same domain composition with two SH3b domains at the N-terminus of the protein followed by the C-terminal NIpC domain. However, alignment of the structures based upon the NIpC domains (258 atoms, RMSD 0.548 Å) reveals an alternative arrangement of the SH3b domains relative to the NIpC. Additionally, the first SH3b domain of YfkC has a large insertion consisting of three α -helices (~40 residues). This results in the active site of YkfC being more closed (typical of a recycling enzyme [42]) than those of NlpC_A1 and NlpC_A2.

NIpC_A1 and NIpC_A2 degrade peptidoglycan

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

The structural comparison of NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 suggests that these proteins may indeed be involved in the degradation of bacterial PG and, possibly, have redundant function. To investigate this, we examined the activity of the recombinant enzymes against PG from E. coli as a model substrate. We used an equal mix of PG from strains MC1061 (laboratory strain, rich in tetrapeptides) and CS703-1 (carboxypeptidase mutant, rich in pentapeptides) [43,44] resulting in a substrate that contains a mixture of peptide lengths. The PG mix was incubated with NIpC A1, NIpC A2 or the corresponding predicted inactive versions in which the catalytic Cys residue was replaced by either Ala or Ser, followed by digestion with the muramidase cellosyl and HPLC analysis of the resulting muropeptides (Fig 3 and S3 Fig). The control sample shows the retention times for the peaks corresponding to the major monomeric (Tetra and Penta) and dimeric (TetraTetra and TetraPenta) muropeptides (Figs 3A and 3B). In the presence of increasing concentration of NIpC A1 or NIpC A2, the Tetra peak decreased and new peaks corresponding to cleavage products appeared indicating activity against PG (Fig 3A). These new peaks resulted from the cleavage of the bond between D-isoGlu and m-DAP residues (Fig. 3C) and classify both NlpC_A1 and NlpC_A2 as DL-endopeptidases. At the highest concentration of the enzymes the dimeric TetraTetra was digested while the muropeptides with pentapeptides (Penta and TetraPenta) were largely inert. Hence, we concluded that NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 are DL-endopeptidases with specificity for the tetrapeptides in peptidoglycan and with greater activity towards monomeric muropeptides. Finally, as expected, mutation of the catalytic Cys179 to either Ser or Ala in NIpC_A1 and NIpC_A2 completely abolished their activity towards PG (S3 Fig). The expression of endogenous NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 genes in

Trichomonas vaginalis

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

The structure and the activity assays of NIpC proteins from T. vaginalis demonstrated that these LGT-acquired enzymes are capable of degrading bacterial PG. As in recent examples of bacterial-derived PG-degrading enzymes in eukaryotes [25,26], this function has been preserved in *T. vaginalis* after LGT and apparent gene duplications. To examine the potential role of NIpC enzymes in this parasite, we firstly investigated the effect of co-incubating parasite and bacteria and examined changes in the expression levels of the endogenous *nlpC* genes by RT-qPCR. Simultaneously, the mixed cultures were also plated on agar to examine the effect on bacterial cell numbers. Bacteria and parasites were co-incubated at a 1:10 ratio in a minimal defined media at 37°C. Samples were taken at 2, 4 and 8 h time points for counting of colony forming units (cfu) when total RNA was also purified for the RT-qPCR analysis. Samples of bacteria alone (no parasite) and parasite alone (no bacteria) served as controls for cfu counts and RT-qPCR readouts, respectively. The cfu counts were used to calculate the bacterial survival as the ratio of cfu values from mixed versus bacteriaalone cultures. We observed that T. vaginalis upregulates the expression of both NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 in the presence of bacteria. At the latest time point (8 h), transcription of both genes was upregulated by 8-9 fold (Fig 4). Interestingly, the increased expression of NIpC genes was accompanied by a ~20-30% reduction in the number of bacteria as compared to the control without parasites. This result shows that bacteria trigger upregulation on the expression of these NIpC genes in T. vaginalis and that their activity towards PG degradation, demonstrated by the previous in vitro experiments, may have an impact on bacterial survival.

Subcellular localization of NIpC A1 in Trichomonas vaginalis

Based on the apparent redundancy at sequence/structure (Figs 1 and 2, S1 Table), activity (Fig 3) and transcriptional regulation (Fig 4), we focused the following

experiments on NIpC_A1 only. In bacteria, NIpC/P60 members often contain either a signal peptide or a transmembrane region [28]. At this stage, it was unclear if signals for subcellular compartmentalization would have been ameliorated for accurate protein targeting and sorting of the TvNlpC/P60 proteins in the parasite (S1 Table). For NIpC_A1, bioinformatics analyses identified potential signal peptides but no transmembrane regions. Hence, to ascertain the subcellular localization of NIpC_A1 in *T. vaginalis* cells, we undertook an experimental approach.

To examine this, the NIpC_A1 coding domain was expressed with a C-terminal HA-tag from a plasmid under a strong constitutive promoter. This plasmid was introduced into *T. vaginalis* by electroporation and transfected cells were drugselected. Transfected cells expressing the HA-tagged NIpC_A1 were used in immunoassays with the anti-HA antibody. Immunofluorescence assays showed strong and consistent surface staining of transfected *T. vaginalis* cells, suggesting that HA-tagged NIpC_A1 is located on the plasma membrane (Fig 5). The immune-staining of the cell surface was patchy, reaching areas of the flagellar membrane. This was consistent with the results of a crude cell-fractionation protocol that showed the presence of the HA-tagged NIpC_A1 in the high-speed membrane pellet fraction of the Western blot (S4 Fig). Together, these findings provide experimental evidence that NIpC_A1 is likely to be located on the cell surface of *T. vaginalis*.

Profound phenotypic changes upon overexpression of exogenous NIpC A1 gene

With the observation that *T. vaginalis* were able to reduce the population of bacteria in mixed cultures (Fig 4), we tested if overexpressing NlpC_A1 would enhance this phenotype. With the initially used cell ratio of 1:10 (bacteria:protozoan), NlpC_A1 *T. vaginalis* transfectant virtually eliminated bacteria in the co-cultures after just 1 h of co-incubation (S5 Fig). Therefore, we inverted the cell ratio to 10:1

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

(bacteria:protozoan) and included an empty-plasmid transfectant (expressing only the neomycin selection marker) as a negative control. In addition, we also tested if bacterial clearance depends on the specific activity of NIpC A1 with the expectation that mutation of a critical catalytic residue (C179S) should diminish this phenotype. For each time point, bacterial cfu numbers were determined by spotting and spreading cocultures on agar plates. The obtained data were reported as the relative cfu obtained from mixed cultures containing T. vaginalis transfected with either WT NlpC A1 or the mutant NlpC A1 versus the empty-plasmid *T. vaginalis* transfectant (Fig 6). We observed a significant drop in bacterial cfu counts when T. vaginalis overexpresses the wild-type NIpC A1 exogenously (Fig 6). This effect could be readily observed on the spot plates during the course of incubation (Fig 6, inset) where a dramatic and time-dependent reduction on bacterial numbers was noticeable on the spots coming from mixed cultures containing T. vaginalis transfected with the WT NIpC A1. By contrast, bacteria maintained similar viability over the course of the experiment in mixed cultures containing T. vaginalis transfected with either the inactive C179S mutant NlpC A1 or the empty plasmid (Fig 6, inset). Quantification of cfu confirmed the drastic loss in bacterial viability when T. vaginalis overexpressed the wild-type, active form of NIpC A1 (Fig 6, line graph). After one hour of co-incubation, the bacterial population was reduced by 70% and bacteria were virtually eliminated after 4-6 hours. T. vaginalis transfected with the catalytic-inactive NIpC A1 (C179S mutant) or empty plasmid behaved similarly, resulting in a constant bacterial cfu ratio of ~1 (dotted line) throughout the course of the experiment. To further support the observation that the activity of NIpC_A1 is responsible for this phenotype, T. vaginalis transfectants were incubated with the E. coli strain CS703-1 which contains a PG highly enriched for pentapeptides [44]. We observed previously that the recombinant NIpC A1 was incapable of digesting pentapeptides in PG (Fig 3). Therefore, the ability of bacterial clearance by *T. vaginalis* overexpressing

the wild-type NIpC A1 might be compromised when co-incubated with bacteria

carrying a pentapeptide-rich PG (CS703-1) as compared to bacteria carrying a tetrapeptide-rich PG (DH5 α) (Fig 7). Visual inspection of the undiluted mixed cultures on spread plates after 1 h of co-incubation showed a significant reduction on the numbers of bacterial colonies regardless of the strain, CS703-1 or DH5 α , when T. vaginalis overexpresses the wild-type form of the NlpC_A1 (Fig 7, left). However, quantification of cfu indicated that T. vaginalis overexpressing the wild-type NlpC_A1 was partially impaired from clearing CS703-1 as compared to DH5 α by a factor of ~10 (Fig 7, right). This result is consistent with the biochemical evidence that this enzyme is unable to digest pentapeptides in PG.

Discussion

To our knowledge, this is the first study to reveal that a laterally-acquired group of genes enables a eukaryotic mucosal pathogen to control bacterial population. Our combined unconstrained and constrained phylogenetic analyses support the hypothesis that these genes were acquired from different bacteria, or possibly one bacteria and a phage, and expanded through subsequent gene duplications during evolution of the *Trichomonas* lineage. However, we could not establish with precision the likely bacterial donor lineage from our phylogenetic analyses, either because genomes of bacteria closely related to the donor(s) have not yet been sequenced and/or because the gene transfers took place in the distant past making it more difficult to infer evolutionary relationships due to important sequence divergence eroding phylogenetic signal. While some phages encode candidate or functional NIpC/P60 cell wall peptidases [28], a possible phage origin for TvNlpC/P60 members of clan A was only weakly supported in all of our unconstrained phylogenetic analyses (Fig. 1C), The combination of BlastP searches, unconstrained and constrained phylogenetic analyses indicates that the two TvNlpC/P60 distinct gene families were likely acquired

by two independent LGTs and further supports several independent LGT events in other eukaryotic lineages, as recently reviewed by Husnik and McCutcheon [22].

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

Consistent with relatively ancient LGT event(s) into the *Trichomonas* lineage. analyses of GC% profile variation of the nine scaffolds encoding the nine TvNlpC/P60 genes, we observed that seven genes were located in segments with average GC% composition characteristic of the T. vaginalis genome (~31-32 GC%) and were not located close to segmentation points (S1 Table and S6 Fig). This is in contrast to the relatively recent candidate LGT likely derived from a bacterial donor from the urogenital tract identified on a ~53 kbp *T. vaginalis* genome sequence scaffold [35]. A segment of ~34 kbp encodes 27 proteins highly similar (range: 79–98% identity) and with long stretches of gene synteny with the bacteria Peptoniphilus harei. This case is characterised by a strong GC% segmentation point between the ~34 kbp segment encoding the 27 bacterial-like genes and the rest of the scaffold [15,36]. One TvNlpC/P60 gene (TVAG 393610, DS113268, S1 Table) was located beside a segmentation point on a region with >30 GC% content which was correlated with the presence of repetitive elements, well known to litter the highly repetitive genome of T. vaginalis [14] rather than a Bacterial-like segment of DNA. By investigating the GC% profile of the open reading frames (ORFs) from all nine TvNlpC/P60 genes, a correlation between codon GC% profile and clan membership was observed. The ORFs from the respective members of clan A were more similar to each other (GC% from 38.5 to 40.6) than to the ORFs from the other clan B (GC% from 44.1 to 50.0) (S1 Table). This is also consistent with two genes families derived from distinct LGT events and followed by gene duplications.

Transcriptional upregulation of NlpC_A1 and NlpC_A2, as induced by glucose starvation [16,] and by bacteria (as shown here), supports the functional integration of these genes of bacterial origin in *T. vaginalis*. These independent observations indicate that these genes have acquired optimal codons and promoters that confer proper gene expression and regulation upon specific environmental conditions. In

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

other words, these genes have been fully integrated into the biology of the parasite through amelioration [45]. As anticipated for NIpC/P60 enzymes, the tri-dimensional structure and catalytic function have been preserved in the two members of this group of enzymes (NpIC A1 and NIpC A2) that we have characterized here. These LGTderived genes in T. vaginalis encode functional DL-endopeptidases that have specific activity towards PG, a unique polymer that constitutes an essential component of the bacterial cell envelope. NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 are apparently redundant in structure and function. Their high-resolution structures revealed a classical papain-like NIpC/P60 domain in addition to two bacterial SH3 domains under a specific arrangement. The open 'T'shaped groove includes the catalytic triad Cys-His-His which was shown here, as predicted, to be necessary for its activity. Both enzymes are active against PG cleaving the chemical bond between D-isoGlu and m-DAP residues on tetrapeptides in monomeric and dimeric peptidoglycan subunits. However, curiously, neither of them can cleave the same bond if the PG substrate is a pentapeptide or tetrapentapeptide. During bacterial cell wall synthesis, the fifth (terminal) D-alanine residue of pentapeptide donor peptides is removed during transpeptidation reactions, but newly made (nascent) peptidoglycan still contains a high percentage of pentapeptides in monomers and dimers [46]. In many species, for example E. coli, the majority of these pentapeptides are trimmed to tetrapeptides by DD-carboxypeptidases during peptidoglycan maturation, resulting in a mature, tetrapeptide-rich peptidoglycan [47]. Therefore, T. vaginalis NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 are apparently optimized to digest mature bacterial cell walls consistent with functional enzymes targeting mature bacterial substrates in the native habitat of the parasite. We found that, when bacteria and parasites were co-incubated in a minimal media, the expression of NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 was upregulated and this was accompanied by a reduction on the numbers of viable bacteria. Interestingly, glucose restriction also leads to transcriptional upregulation of these two T. vaginalis NIpC/P60

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

these enzymes.

genes [16]. In the vaginal microenvironment, where glucose can be restricted and bacteria are abundant, it is possible that *T. vaginalis* overexpresses these enzymes to target bacteria as a source of nutrition. PG turnover during bacteria replication or bacterial lysis will release PG fragments among other metabolites which T. vaginalis could scavenge for, by using its own repertoire of NIpC/P60 and perhaps additional enzymes. In bacteria, NIpC/P60 enzymes are often secreted into the periplasm or growth medium. To date, T. vaginalis NIpC/P60 enzymes have not been detected in proteomics surveys of surface or secreted proteins [48-50], perhaps because their expression depends substantially on environmental factors such as glucose restriction [16] and presence of bacteria (as found in this study). In *T. vaginalis*, we have shown that NIpC A1 localizes on the surface of the parasite. However, the process by which these enzymes reach the peptidoglycan of the target bacteria remains to be determined. In the case of Dae2 (a NlpC/60 protein), which was laterally inherited by the tick Ixodes scapularis from bacteria, bacteriolytic activity is only detected if this enzyme is delivered to the periplasm of E. coli or if the outer membrane is permeabilized [26]. Although the overexpression of NIpC A1 in *T. vaginalis* significantly enhances the ability of the pathogen to control bacterial population in co-cultures, the purified recombinant enzyme is not itself bacteriolytic. This was demonstrated by incubating E. coli with the purified enzyme and comparing to the well-known bacteriolytic activity of lysozyme (S7 Fig). Therefore, other factors or additional enzymes such as cationic antimicrobial peptides and lysozyme [51] (of either microbial or human origins) might possibly enable T. vaginalis NIpCs to reach the peptidoglycan of vaginal bacteria. Vaginal secretions are known to have the highest level of lysozyme among other

human mucosa-derived fluids [52]. Finally, direct contact between parasite and

bacteria and parasite-mediated phagocytosis could possibly facilitate the action of

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

The profound reduction in viable bacteria, when a functional exogenous copy of NIpC A1 gene was constitutively expressed under a strong promoter in T. vaginalis, provided T. vaginalis a striking ability of controlling bacterial population in co-cultures even in the presence of a 10-fold excess of bacteria. This phenotype was dependent on the activity of this enzyme since T. vaginalis transfected with the catalytic-inactive NIpC A1 (C179S) did not display such activity beyond the background. Additionally, this phenotype replicates the inability of digesting the pentapetide-rich PG as observed with the recombinant enzyme. We have not characterized all members of this family in T. vaginalis neither examined their broad bacterial activity yet. However, our study suggests that T. vaginalis NIpC enzymes may act as cell-wall degrading toxins. This is supported by their structural data, cytolocalization and the impact on bacterial survival from mixed cultures when the parasite overexpresses NIpC A1. In contrast to the housekeeping NIpC/P60 PG hydrolases of bacteria, the structures of T. vaginalis NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 revealed an open and highly accessible active site which is characteristic of a cell-wall degrading toxin [53]. The functional redundancy of T. vaginalis NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 may be complemented by the other NIpC/P60 members in the parasite. Such apparent redundancy in peptidoglycan enzymes is well known in the PG biogenesis of bacteria and mostly evident in PG hydrolysis. E. coli, for instance, has 6 PG endopeptidases, 4 amidases and 8 lytic transglycosylases with distinct biochemical properties [54]. Together, the combined activities in each set of seemingly redundant enzymes allow robust growth even at different conditions. This is important because the properties of the periplasm (e.g. osmolarity and pH), where these enzymes function, depends on the environmental conditions [54]. Similarly, T. vaginalis could maintain a seemingly redundant set of NIpC/P60 enzymes to target PG of different vaginal bacteria (e.g. Gram-negative and/or -positive), at different conditions and locations. Indeed, these different enzymes may act inside phagosomes or extracellularly including at the cell surface or in secretions. Consistent with these possibilities, one gene from clan B

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

(TVAG 209010) was characterised by a distinct higher level of transcription in two RNASeq surveys compared to all other TvNlpC/P60 genes [16,17] with in particular a dramatic upregulation across 36 hours of incubation in the absence of glucose [16] (S1 Table). At this stage, the contribution of these enzymes to pathogenesis is still unknown. However, several possibilities can be envisaged. Firstly, T. vaginalis might benefit from the released PG fragments and other bacteria derived metabolites by using them as nutrients. Secondly, controlling bacterial populations will not only reduce microbial competition but also prevent the protective function of the host microbiota favouring *T. vaginalis* propagation. Thirdly, molecules from PG degradation are known ligands of pattern recognition receptors in the host [55,56]. Therefore, T. vaginalis NIpC activity may have a role on modulating immune responses altering the outcomes of the infection. Lastly and more speculative, these enzymes may explain the association of T. vaginalis with a particular community of vaginal bacteria [12] and/or with mycoplasmas [57]. Mycoplasmas are very frequently found as intracellular symbionts of T. vaginalis. We speculate that the lack of PG and a rigid cell wall may have allowed them to become successful symbionts of this parasite. The interaction of *T. vaginalis* with the microbiota has historically escaped much consideration from parasitologists, microbiologists and clinicians alike. Our study reports a novel aspect on the biology of T. vaginalis. It indicates that this parasite utilizes hydrolases active against peptidoglycan, a major and very specific component of bacterial cell walls. Interestingly, our combined data support a model in which these PG DL-endopeptidase genes from T. vaginalis (i) were acquired by LGT from bacteria, (ii) were expanded and ameliorated through evolution and (iii) are being used by the parasite to control bacterial populations. In future, it will be important to understand the specificity, redundancy and/or complementarity of this expanded family of LGTacquired genes with regards to their potential impact on the composition of the human

vaginal microbiota and how these might contribute to pathogenesis.

Materials and Methods

General sequence analyses and phylogeny

The structural organization of the *T. vaginalis* NlpC/P60 proteins was investigated with InterProScan [58]. The potential presence of N-terminal signal peptides for RER targeting was inferred with Phobius [59], SignalPv4.1 [60] and SPOCTOUS [61]. In order to compile an alignment of homologues, BlastP searches at the NCBI were performed against nr, RefSeq or Env_nr (Metagenomic proteins) and with one protein member of each of the two *T. vaginalis* NlpC/P60 clusters identified at EupathDB/TrichDB [29] (S1 Table, illustrated in Panel A). In addition, a more sensitive DELTA-Blast search against RefSeq was performed to identify potential homologues in eukaryotes other than *T. vaginalis*.

To investigate the phylogenetic position of the nine *T. vaginalis* NIpC/P60 proteins, selections of top hits of the different BlastP searches were combined to generate an alignment maximising taxonomic representation. The alignment was trimmed with trimAl (option: gappyout) [62] to 104 residues to ensure that a conservative selection of well-aligned residues was used for the phylogenetic inference. The alignment was analysed with SMS [63] in order to establish the best fitting model based on single amino acid replacement matrices available within PhyML for the NlpC/P60 protein alignment, which was LG +G4 +I for both the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and Bayesian information criterion (BIC). Additional protein mixture evolutionary models were also considered (LG4X [64] and C20 model [65]) as they were shown to be more reliable in the context of alignments were sequences evolve at different rate and some aligned sites are saturated in relation to phylogenetic signal/noise. Unconstrained phylogenetic analyses were performed with either PhyML [66] within SEAVIEW v4.5.3 [67] or IQ-TREE [68,69] with either unique exchange rate matrix based models (LG+G4+I or LG+G4+I+F) or empirical protein mixture models

(i) all nine TvNlpC/P60 entries being monophyletic or TvNlpC/P60 being monophyletic with either (ii) two fungal (*Aspergillus* and *Metarhizium*), (iii) the amoeba (*Acanthamoeba*) or (iv) the parasitic worm (*Trichuris trichura*) sequences were performed with IQ-TREE, as were Approximate Unbiased (AU) tree topology tests that is currently the most appropriate test for comparing multiple trees [70]. The maximum likelihood tree (model LG+G4+I) was edited using iTOL [71] to generate Figure 1B.

The alien index (AI) for the TvNlpC/P60 genes were calculated as described by Rancurel et al. [31] using BlastP outputs from the NCBI Blast server (BLAST+ 2.8.0-alpha released at: https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) and recording the E-values of the top Prokaryotic hit (in all cases a Bacterium) and the top non-self eukaryotic hit (all values are listed in S1 Table).

The GC% variation profiles of the nine scaffolds that encode the TvNlpC/P60 genes were analysed with GC-profile server [72]. Details of the analyses for each scaffold are provided in the S6 Fig with the GC% variation profiles. The GC% of the TvNlpC/P60 ORFs were analysed with the CAlcal server [73]. All values are listed for each gene/scaffolds in S1 Table.

Microbial cultures and co-incubation assay

Escherichia coli strains BL21(DE3) and DH5 α (Invitrogen), MC1061 and CS703-1 [44] were grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) media with agitation at 37 °C. Trichomonas vaginalis reference strain G3 was cultured in TYM medium [74] supplemented with 10% horse serum, 10 U/mL penicillin and 10 ug/mL streptomycin (Invitrogen) with no agitation at 37 °C.

To measure the effects of *T. vaginalis* on the survival of *E. coli*, the following co-incubation assay protocol was developed. Prior to the assays, the number and viability of *E. coli* and *T. vaginalis* were assessed and only cultures with at least 95%

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

viability were used. For *E. coli*, these were assessed by flow cytometry using BD™ cell viability kit and the AccuriTM C6 flow cytometer (BD Biosciences) as previously described [75]. T. vaginalis was grown in the absence of antibiotics to a maximum concentration of ~1 X 10⁶ cells/mL, as counted by a haemocytometer, when virtually all cells were alive and motile. Microbial cultures were spun down, washed and resuspended in antibiotic- and serum-free Keratinocyte-SFM media (Gibco). T. vaginalis (5 x 10⁵ cells/mL) was mixed with bacteria at specified cell ratios in a 12- or 24-well tissue culture plate and in a volume of 0.5-1.0 mL respectively and at 37 °C. Cell ratio and time of incubation were indicated for each experiment. As controls, T. vaginalis and bacteria were incubated alone in parallel and under the same conditions. When countable numbers of bacterial colony forming units (cfu) were needed, serial dilutions of the co-cultures were done in sterile water. Undiluted or diluted co-cultures were spotted or spread-plated on LB-agar plates and incubated overnight at 37 °C. This procedure is selective for E. coli, preventing growth of T. vaginalis. Three independent experiments were carried out. Plates were photographed using a Canon 40D camera with cannon 50 mm macro f2.5 or 100 mm macro f2.8 lenses and analysed.

Reverse transcription and quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR)

To compare the changes on expression of T. vaginalis NIpC_A1 and NIpC_A2 genes upon exposure to bacteria, total RNA was obtained with TRIzol (Invitrogen) from the co-incubation assay cultures containing either T. vaginalis with E. coli or T. vaginalis alone. This RNA was treated with DNase I (Ambion), ethanol precipitated and cleaned further with the mini RNeasy MinElute clean-up kit (Qiagen). Reverse transcription was achieved from 5 μ g of this purified total RNA using Superscript RT III supermix and oligo dT primers, as recommended (Invitrogen). To ensure that RNA

samples were DNA-free, reactions omitting the reverse transcriptase (-RT) were done in parallel.

629

630

631

632

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653

654

655

656

Primers targeting T. vaginalis NIpC A1 or TVAG 119910 (forward-TCACAATTCCAACCCAATCTG; reverse-CTCCGTCATTTGCACCATCT) and NlpC A2 or TVAG 457240 (forward-TAAGACCAAGCTTGGCTGC; TTCCGACATACATTCCGAC) were used for quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR). Т. HSP70 Primers targeting vaginalis TVAG 237140 (forward-ACACAGGCGAGAGACTCGTT; reverse-TCTTTGACCCAAGCATCTCC) were used for normalization, qPCR assays were carried out to validate specificity and efficiency of each pair of primers and, as recommended, the threshold cycle (Ct) and the base line were set up (7900 HT- Realtime instructions, Applied Biosystems). With this validation, the Ct method was then applied for the relative quantification of NIpC gene expression using the Ct method (equation 2-AACT). qPCR reactions were carried out using 10 ng of cDNA, 200 nM of each primer and PowerUP SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermofisher) following recommendations (Applied Biosystems). For each one of the three independent co-incubation assays, PCR reactions were carried out in triplicates. In addition to the -RT samples, parallel reactions without any template (water instead) were added as negative controls. qPCR data for NIpC expression were normalised against HSP70 and analysed using the SDS 2.3 and RQ Manager 1.2 applications (Applied Biosystems). Subsequent statistical analyses were then carried out using the Relative Expression Software Tool (REST©) [76].

Plasmids, PCR and DNA cloning

The MasterNeo plasmid was used for cloning and expression of NlpC_A1 in *T. vaginalis* [77]. The insertion of a coding sequence into this plasmid, using *Ndel* and *Asp*718 restriction sites, provides a strong constitutive promoter for transcription and a double-hemagglutinin (HA) tag on the C-terminus of the protein. In addition, MasterNeo can replicate in *E. coli* and *T. vaginalis* allowing selection of transformants

by ampicillin and G418 respectively [77]. The full coding sequence of NIpC_A1 was PCR-amplified from *T. vaginalis* genomic DNA with specific primers carrying those restriction sites and cloned into MasterNeo. A MasterNeo plasmid containing no exogenous gene (empty-plasmid), except for the neomycin selectable marker, was kindly donated by Patricia Johnson (UCLA). Transfection of *T. vaginalis* was achieved using the GenePulser Xcell electroporator (Bio-Rad), as previously described [77].

The pET47b plasmid (Novagen) was used for cloning and expression of NIpC_A1 and NIpC_A2 in *E. coli*. Coding sequences were PCR-amplified from *T. vaginalis* genomic DNA with specific primers aiming a ligation-independent cloning strategy [78]. Transformation of *E. coli* was achieved by standard heat-shock or electroporation protocols. Site-direct mutagenesis of NIpC_A1 and NIpC_A2, a single substitution of cysteine-179 to either serine or alanine, was achieved by inverse PCR using either the MasterNeo or pET47b plasmids as DNA template. All PCR reactions were performed with high-fidelity Phusion polymerase (ThermoFisher Scientific) or KOD polymerase (Novagen) using the Mastercycler pro thermocycler (Eppendorf). All PCR-derived inserts were fully sequenced from their individual plasmids (http://www.sbs.auckland.ac.nz/en/for/researchers-2/cpgm.html).

Expression and purification of recombinant NIpC_A1 and NIpC_A2

NlpC_A1 and NlpC_A2 were expressed in *E. coli* BL21(DE3), a strain optimized for protein expression (Invitrogen). Cultures containing 25 μ g/mL kanamycin were prepared at 37 °C prior to induction of protein expression. A single colony from a fresh transformation was seeded into a 5 mL culture. Following incubation overnight, this culture was scaled up to 750 mL. Once culture reached an OD (600 nm) of 0.4-0.6, they were transferred to 18 °C for 30 min. Protein expression was then induced by the addition of 0.5 mM IPTG and further incubation at 18 °C overnight. Cells were

harvested by centrifugation, resuspended in 20 mM Tris/HCl pH 7.8 and frozen until required.

To purify the proteins, cell pellets were thawed and resuspended in lysis buffer (20 mM Tris/HCl pH 7.8, 300 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM TCEP, 20 mM imidazole, 10% glycerol). To preserve the activity of the proteins interest (which are candidate /peptidases), protease inhibitors were omitted from the purification procedure. Cells were lysed using a constant systems cell disruptor and the resulting lysate cleared by centrifugation (14000 xg, 30 min, 4 °C). NlpC proteins were then purified by immobilised metal affinity chromatography and eluted using a step gradient in 20 mM Tris/HCl pH 7.8, 300 mM NaCl, 0.5 mM TCEP, 300mM imidazole. Fractions containing NlpC proteins were pooled and dialysed overnight against 10 mM Tris/HCl, 25 mM NaCl, 0.1 mM TCEP with the addition of 3C-protease to remove the N-terminal Histag.

NIpC proteins were further purified by anion exchange chromatography using a 6 mL Resource Q column and eluted on a gradient of 0-0.5 M NaCl. This was followed by a final size-exclusion chromatography step using a Superdex 75 16/60 column equilibrated in 10 mM Tris/HCl pH 7.8, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1 mM TCEP and eluted isocratically. Proteins were concentrated using a 10KDa cut-off Vivaspin centrifugal concentrators. Protein concentration was determined by UV/Vis-spectroscopy using the following theoretical masses and extinction coefficients: NlpC_A1 31415 Da, ε 280nm 63510 M-1cm-1; NlpC_A2, 31394 Da, ε 280nm 66155 M-1cm-1. For the Seleno-Methionine (SeMet) substituted NlpC_A1, expression in BL21(DE3) cells was achieved in PASM-505 media using the inhibition method [79] and the recombinant protein was then purified as described above.

Protein structure determination of NIpC A1 and NIpC A2

710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

722

723

724

725

726

727

728

729

730

731

732

733

734

735

Crystallisation of NIpC A1 (16 mg/mL) and NIpC A2 (14.5 mg/mL) were undertaken by sitting drop vapour diffusion using 96-well intelli-plate crystallisation trays using the morpheus screen [80] and our in-house robot screens [81]. Drops consisted of 0.5 µL of protein mixed with 0.5 µL of reservoir solution. Crystals of NIpC A1 grew in condition A1 of the Morpheus screen (10% PEG20K, 20% PEG550mme, 0.06 M Divalents, 0.1 M imidazole-MES pH 6.5). Crystals of NIpC A2 grew in 0.2 M Ammonium Fluoride, 20% PEG3350. For data collection, individual crystals of NlpC_A1 were harvested and directly frozen by plunging into liquid nitrogen. Crystals of NIpC A2 were harvested and briefly transferred into a cryoprotectant solution consisting of reservoir solution supplemented with 20% glycerol before freezing in liquid nitrogen. X-ray diffraction data were collected using our in-house X-ray generator consisting of a Rigaku Micromax-007HF rotating anode equipped with a copper anode, osmic focussing optics and MAR345 detector. Crystals of NIpC A1 were also stored and sent to the Australian Synchrotron for high-resolution data collection. The structure of NIpC A1 was determined by single isomorphous replacement using Native and SeMet data collected from our in-house X-ray suite. Selenium sites were identified using the SHELXC/D/E pipeline [82] within the CCP4 program suite [83]. Phases were then used to build an initial model in PHENIX [84] followed by iterative rounds of model building and refinement in Coot [85] and PHENIX [84]. The structure of NIpC A2 was determined by molecular replacement using PHASER [86] with NIpC A1 as a search model. The model was built and refined in Coot and PHENIX. Enzymatic activity of recombinant NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 Equal quantities of purified PG (0.5 mg/mL) from E. coli strains MC1061 [43] and CS703-1 [44] were mixed and used for the activity assays. NIpC A1 or NIpC A2

were incubated at varied concentrations (0.1, 1.0 and 10 μ M) with the *E. coli* PG mixture in 20 mM Tris/HCl pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl for 4 h at 37 °C on a Thermomixer at 750 rpm. A control sample received no enzyme. The inactive mutants NlpC_A1(C179A), NlpC_A1(C179S), NlpC_A2(C179A) and NlpC_A2(C179S) were used at the highest concentration (10 μ M). The reaction was stopped by the addition of 1/4 volume of 80 mM sodium phosphate pH 4.8 and incubation at 100 °C for 5 min. The samples were incubated overnight with 10 μ g of cellosyl (Hoechst, Frankfurt am Main, Germany) at 37 °C on a Thermomixer at 750 rpm. Following the second incubation, the samples were incubated at 100 °C for 10 min and centrifuged at room temperature for 15 min at 16,000×g. The muropeptides present in the supernatant were reduced with sodium borohydride and separated by HPLC as described [87,88].

Subcellular localization of NIpC_A1

Prediction of subcellular localization of NlpC_A1 was attempted using SignalP4.1 Server (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/SignalP/), PHOBIUS (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/SignalP/), TargetP (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TargetP/) and TMHMM (http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TMHMM/). Nevertheless, taking advantage of the C-terminally HA-tagged NlpC_A1 in the transfected *T. vaginalis*, subcellular localization was verified experimentally by immunofluorescence microscopy, cell fractionation and Western blot.

A standard immunofluorescence protocol was used for localization of the HA-tagged NIpC_A1 in *T. vaginalis* cells. NIpC_A1-transfected *T. vaginalis* (~10⁷ cells, in total) were pelleted, washed with phosphate-saline buffer (PBS) and fixed with cold methanol for 10 min. Methanol-fixed cells were washed three times with PBS and incubated with 3% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in PBS for 30 min. Cells were pelleted and resuspended with the same 3% BSA in PBS but containing the primary anti-HA (Covance) at 1:1,000 dilution. After 1 hour of incubation, cells were washed three times

764

765

766

767

768

769

770

771

772

773

774

775

776

777

778

779

780

781

782

783

784

785

786

787

788

789

790

with 3% BSA in PBS and resuspended in this solution containing Alexa Fluorconjugated secondary antibody (Invitrogen) at 1:5,000 dilution. After 1 hour of incubation and additional three washes, $\sim 10 \,\mu L$ of cells were spotted on a microscope slide along with ~20 ul of ProLong Gold antifade reagent containing 4'-6-diamidino-2phenylindole or DAPI (Invitrogen) and covered with a coverslip. Images were taken using a Nikon Ni-U microscope equipped with a Spot Pursuit Slider camera (greyscale, cooled, 1.4 megapixel, with colour by filter) and analyzed by its built-in Spot software. Non-transfected T. vaginalis cells, used as negative control, did not produce any detectable signal above the background with the anti-HA antibody. Alternatively, a cell fractionation protocol [89] was applied to NIpC A1transfected T. vaginalis. A total of ~108 cells were pelleted and washed firstly with PBS followed by buffer A (10 mM HEPES, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM KCL, 0.5 mM DTT), 1 mL each. The cell pellet was then resuspended in 1 mL of buffer A per gram of cells and incubated for 10 min. Cells were burst by 5-10 passages through a 25G-needle syringe. The cell lysate was taken through steps of differential-speed centrifugation [89]. Protein fractions corresponding to organelles (including nuclei), cytosol and cell membrane were obtained. All procedures were carried out on ice-temperature with all solutions containing protease inhibitor cocktail (complete mini, Roche). In addition to these crude cell fraction protein extracts, a whole-cell protein extract was prepared in parallel. Importantly, each fraction was brought up to equivalent volumes as to the whole cell extract to allow comparisons after SDS-PAGE and Western blot analyses. Replicas of SDS-PAGE gels were stained with Coomassie blue and blotted to PVDF membranes. Western blots were probed with either a mouse monoclonal anti-HA (Covance) or a rabbit polyclonal anti-ferredoxin (kindly donated by Patricia Johnson, UCLA), an organellar marker for T. vaginalis which recognizes a typical hydrogenosomal protein. Mouse- and rabbit-specific secondary antibodies conjugated to horseradish peroxidase were used for chemiluminescent detection, as

recommended (ThermoFisher Scientific), with the imager Fuji LAS-4000.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful for the financial support received from the different funders: the Health Research Council of New Zealand, the Maurice & Phyllis Paykel Trust, the Faculty of Science Research Development Fund (University of New Zealand), the Royal Society of New Zealand and the Wellcome Trust. AS-B thanks Patricia Johnson (UCLA) for kindly donating the empty MasterNeo plasmid and the anti-ferredoxin antibody. AS-B thanks Patricia Johnson and her research group members for invaluable constructive criticisms and inputs on the detailed aspects of this research. The authors want to acknowledge the helpful assistance from technical team of the DNA sequencing core facility at the University of Auckland. Finally, the authors also want to acknowledge the NZ synchrotron group for access to SAXS and MX beamlines at the Australian Synchrotron.

Figure legends

804

805

806

807

808

809

810

811

812

813

814

815

816

817

818

819

820

821

822

823

824

825

826

827

828

829

830

Fig 1. Bioinformatic analyses of the T. vaginalis NIpC/P60 proteins. (A) Structural organisation for one representative (locus tags are indicated) of each of the two clusters (A and B) of *T. vaginalis* NIpC/P60 proteins (see S1 Table and main text). Two TvNlpC/P60 proteins (cluster A), named NlpC A1 (TVAG 119910) and NlpC A2 (TVAG 457240, illustrated), possess a bacterial SH3 domain (orange pentagon) identified in addition to the NlpC/P60 domain (green rectangle). (B) N-terminus protein alignment for all nine T. vaginalis NIpC/P60 proteins. Locus tags are indicated and the arrowheads indicate the five entries with inferred Signal Peptide (S1 Table). Members of cluster A are more similar to each other then they are to members of cluster B and vice versa. **(C)** Phylogenetic relationship inferred by maximum likelihood from a protein alignment of 104 residues with the model LG+G4+I. Bootstrap support values above 50% are indicated and the scale bar show the inferred number of substitutions per site. The two TvNlpC/P60 proteins clusters were recovered as distinct clans (red boxes A and B). Eukaryotic sequences from non-Trichomonas species are indicated by red squares and branches. Blue and black circles are from three Gram-negative bacteria and from a phage respectively. The sequences RefSeq accession numbers are indicated. Among eukaryotes the letter "A" and "F" following the species names refers to Animal (Metazoan) and Fungi respectively. Fig 2. Structure of NIpC A1 and NIpC A2. (A) Orthogonal views of a cartoon representation of the structure of NIpC A1. Secondary structure elements are labelled. N- and C- termini are indicated. The NlpC domain is colored in blue with the two SH3b domains shaded in orange. (B) Superposition of the NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 structures. The two structures superimpose with an RMSD of 0.491Å across all equivalent atoms. (C) Electrostatic surface representation of the NIpC A1 active site groove including

832

833

834

835

836

837

838

839

840

841

842

843

844

845

846

847

848

849

850

851

852

853

854

855

856

857

858

the description of the catalytic triad Cys179-His234-His246. Location of the "T" shaped groove is marked with a dashed line. Fig 3. NIPC A1 and NIPC A2 are DL-endopeptidases. (A) HPLC chromatograms of E. coli peptidoglycan cleavage assays with control (no enzyme) and increasing concentrations of NIpC A1 or NIpC A2. Peaks of the major muropeptides were assigned by comparison with published literature and are labelled as Tetra, Penta, TetraTetra and TetraPenta. NlpC A1 and NlpC_A2 produce the muropeptides Di and Hexa. (B) Structure of the muropeptides labelled on the chromatograms. MurNAc(r), reduced N-acetylmuramic acid; GlcNAc, N-acetylglucosamine; L-Ala, L-alanine; DiGlu, iso-D-glutamic acid; m-Dap, meso-diaminopimelic acid; D-Ala, D-alanine. (C) Schematic diagram of the undigested E. coli peptidoglycan with the indication of the cleavage sites of NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 (blue arrows). Fig 4. A reduction in E. coli numbers is accompanied by transcription upregulation of NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 genes in T. vaginalis. E. coli was incubated in the absence or in the presence of T. vaginalis at a ratio of one bacterium to ten protozoan cells and up to 8 hours. The cfu counts were used to calculate bacterial survival (line graph following the y-axis to the right). Bacterial survival was expressed as a ratio of cfu in the presence versus absence of T. vaginalis. Simultaneously, T. vaginalis in the absence of bacteria served as the base line for the RT-qPCR (bar graph following the y-axis to the left). Relative quantification of NIpC A1 and NIpC A2 mRNA abundance (white and grey bars, respectively) was achieved by comparing T. vaginalis in the presence versus absence of bacteria for each time point. The housekeeping gene HSP 70 was used as a reference and the Ct method was applied for relative quantification of gene expression (see Methods). The values are mean ± SD of three independent experiments.

860

861

862

863

864

865

866

867

868

869

870

871

872

873

874

875

876

877

878

879

880

881

882

883

884

885

Fig 5. Subcellular localization of HA-tagged NIpC A1 in T. vaginalis. The parasite was stably transfected with plasmids expressing HA-tagged NIpC A1 protein. Immunofluorescence microscopy, using primary HA-specific and secondary FITCconjugated antibodies, indicates that the NIpC A1 is present on the membrane of the protozoan cells. The nucleus was stained with DAPI for reference. Three independent images (total magnification of 1000X) are shown. Fig 6. T. vaginalis promotes clearance of E. coli DH5α from mixed cultures when over-expressing NIpC A1 constitutively. T. vaginalis was stably transfected with plasmids expressing no NlpC A1 protein (Empty), the HA-tagged NlpC A1 mutated at the catalytic residue C179S (Mutant) or the HA-tagged NIpC A1 wild-type (WT). E. coli was incubated in the presence of each of the transfected T. vaginalis at a ratio of ten bacteria to one protozoan cell and up to 6 hours. E. coli cfu counts were used to determine bacterial survival in the presence of T. vaginalis expressing mutant (triangles) or WT (circles) NIpC A1. The inset figure illustrates the growth of E. coli when co-incubated with each of the *T. vaginalis* transfectants and at each time point, as indicated. Undiluted mixed cultures were individually spotted on a LB-agar plate. The values are mean \pm SD of three independent experiments. Fig 7. T. vaginalis over-expressing NIpC_A1 is partially impaired on clearing up a pentapeptide-rich peptidoglycan bacteria from mixed cultures. T. vaginalis was stably transfected with plasmids expressing no NIpC_A1 protein (Empty) and HAtagged NIpC A1 wild-type (NIpC A1). E. coli, strains DH5 α and CS703-1, were incubated alone or in the presence of each of the transfected T. vaginalis at a ratio of four bacteria to one protozoan cell for one hour. Left. To illustrate the bacterial growth inhibitory effect of T. vaginalis Empty versus WT against these strains of E. coli, undiluted mixed cultures were plated on LB-agar. Right. To measure the levels of

887

888

889

890

891

892

893

894

895

896

897

898

899

900

901

902

903

904

905

906

907

908

909

910

911

912

bacterial survival, dilutions of the mixed cultures were plated on LB-agar and cfu counts were obtained. For each *E. coli* strain (DH5 α and CS703-1), cfu counts were used to calculate bacterial survival in the presence of the Empty T. vaginalis (white bar) or *T. vaginalis* expressing NIpC_A1 wild-type (grey bar). S1 Fig. Sequence comparison of T. vaginalis NIpC/P60 proteins. (A) Multiple sequence alignment of T. vaginalis NpIC/P60 proteins with selected homologues. The alignment is focused on the conserved NIpC/P60 domain. The positions of residues for the protein encoded by TVAG 119910 are indicated at the beginning of each block of the alignment. The residues of the catalytic Cys-His-His triad are boxed showing complete conservation among aligned sequences. The position of indels (dashes) for the four T. vaginalis sequences from clan A are distinct from the five sequences from clan B and are also differentially shared with the sequences from the phage infecting Clostridium difficile (accession YP 009217650.1) and three bacteria (Drancourtella sp. accession WP 087169682.1; Streptosporangium canum, accession SFL23765.1 and Clostridium bifermentans, accession EQK42778.1) that are also clustering in the phylogenetic tree with respectively T. vaginalis sequences from clan A and clan B (see Fig 1). This further supports two distinct LGT events into the *Trichomonas* lineage for these NIpC/P60 encoding genes, which were followed by gene duplications events leading to a total of nine TvNlpC/P60 genes. (B) Comparison of the structural organisation of the nine T. vaginalis NIpC/P60 and the other six eukarvotic NIpC/P60 proteins included in the phylogenetic analyses (Fig 1C, S1 table). S2 Fig. Small angle X-ray scattering analysis of NIpC A1 and NIpC A2. Scattering data for (A) NIpC A1 and (B) NIpC A2. A dilution series was collected for each protein and shows no concentration dependence in the scattering profile. Guinier analysis for each concentration is shown inset. The pair-distribution function p(r) for (C) NIpC A1

914

915

916

917

918

919

920

921

922

923

924

925

926

927

928

929

930

931

932

933

934

935

936

937

938

and (D) NIpC A2. Comparison of the observed scattering profile with the theoritical scattering from the structure of (E) NIpC A1 and (F) NIpC A2. S3 Fig. Mutant NIpC proteins are inactive against E. coli PG. HPLC chromatograms from peptidoglycan cleavage assays with NIpC mutant proteins (10 μM) and control (no enzyme) are indicated. Peaks were assigned by comparison with published literature. No detectable activity was observed for any of the mutant proteins. S4 Fig. Cell fractionation indicates that the HA-tagged NIpC A1 is on the membrane of T. vaginalis. Cells transfected with a plasmid expressing the HA-tagged NIpC A1 were incubated in a hypo-osmostic buffer and broken up by mechanic lysis and cellular fractions were obtained by differential centrifugation (see Methods). Cell fractions were obtained as T (total, i.e. whole cell with no fractionation), O (organelles, including nuclei), C (cytosol) and M (membrane). Samples were loaded on SDS-PAGE gels at equivalent volumes, along with a molecular weight marker (MW), for coomassie staining (first panel) and Western blots. Western blots were probed with the primary antibodies anti-HA (second panel) and anti-ferredoxin (third panel), as indicated. The primary anti-ferredoxin (anti-Fd) detects the hydrogenosomal ferredoxin (a clear indicator of an organellar fraction for T. vaginalis cell fractionation) and it was kindly provided by Patricia Johnson (UCLA). Secondary antibodies conjugated with horseradish peroxidase were used for chemiluminescent detection. HA-tagged NIpC A1 is found in fraction M, indicating membrane localization. This fraction is clean from unbroken cells since no signal with anti-ferredoxin antibody can be detected. However, fraction O still carries signal for HA-tagged NIpC A1 which may come from intact cells carried over to this fraction due to partial cell lysis.

939

940

941

942

943

944

945

946

947

948

949

950

951

952

953

954

955

956

957

958

959

960

961

962

963

964

S5 Fig. T. vaginalis virtually eliminates E. coli from mixed cultures when overexpressing NIpC A1. E. coli DH5 α was incubated with NIpC A1-transfected T. vaginalis or with non-transfected T. vaginalis G3, as indicated, at a cell ratio of 1:10 (bacteria:protozoan) for 1, 2, 4 and 6 hours. While E. coli thrived with non-transfected G3 throughout the course of the experiment, these bacteria were virtually eliminated with transfected T. vaginalis over-expressing NIpC A1 in the first hour or coincubation. S6 Fig. GC% plot for the nine scaffolds encoding the TvNlpC/P60 proteins. For each scaffold the graph of (i) the negative z'-score and the (ii) GC% composition of each segments are shown. Blue dots correspond to the start and stop codons for the ORF encoding the TvNlpC/P60 protein. The green square(s) indicate the position of the inferred segmentation points between major GC% transitions when present. All GC% values for identified segments are shown on each graph and these are also listed in S1 Table. The individual scaffolds were analysed with the following settings following the instructions provided at the GC-profile server: Settings 1: GC plots TVAG 042760 DS113937 2 --- 43,359 bp; GC plots TVAG 411960 DS113699 2 --- 63,570 bp with Halting parameter = 10.00 and Minimum length = 100 bp. Settings 2: GC plots TVAG 252970 DS113529 2 --- 84,867 bp; GC_plots_TVAG_324990_DS113569_2 --- 79,056 bp_with_Halting parameter = 50.00 and Minimum length = 100 bp. Settings 3: GC plots TVAG 051010 DS113369 2 --- 122,255 bp; GC plots TVAG 119910 DS113177 2 --- 584,929 bp; GC plots TVAG 209010 DS113253 2 --- 190,068 bp; GC plots TVAG 393610 DS113268 2 --- 177,036 bp;

965

966

967

968

969

970

971

972

973

974

975

976

977

978

979

980

981

982

983

984

985

986

987

988

989

990

991

GC plots TVAG 457240 DS113186 2 --- 405,446 bp; with Halting parameter = 50.00 and Minimum length = 1000 bp. S7 Fig. The bacteriolytic effect of the purified recombinant NIpC A1 enzyme and lysozyme on *E. coli* DH5α. Bacteria (5 x 10⁵ cell/ml) were incubated with increasing concentrations of the purified recombinant NIpC A1 wild-type (blue line) and C179S mutant (orange line) in [10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl and 1 mM EDTA] at 37 °C for 1 hour. As a positive control, bacteria were incubated with lysozyme (black line) at the same concentrations: 12.5, 25, 50 and 100 μ M. As a negative control, bacteria were incubated with buffer only (no enzyme). Following incubation, bacteria were plated on LB-agar with appropriate dilution for cfu counting. Reduction on cfu was calculated as a percentage in comparison to the mock treatment (negative control). While lysozyme promotes cfu reduction due to its known bactericidal activity, purified NIpC A1 even at the highest concentration does not have any effect. Therefore, T. vaginalis NIpC A1 is not bacteriolytic. S8 Fig. Treefile used for the Approximate Unbiased (AU) topological test. The text file lists the eight trees (in NEWICK format) used for the AU topological test. The results of the AU test and tree descriptions are listed in S5 Table. S1 Table. Overview of T. vaginalis NIpC/P60 genes, gene expression data and protein features. TvNlpC/P60 genes/proteins were sorted by clusters A (in blue) and B (in green). S2 Table. Taxonomic BlastP report for query NlpC_A1/TVAG_119910/ XP 001276902 against the NCBI nr protein database.

992 S3 Table. Taxonomic BlastP report for query NlpC B1/TVAG 393610/ 993 XP_001326856 against the NCBI nr protein database. 994 995 S4 Table. Taxonomic DELTA-Blast report for query NIpC A1/TVAG 119910/ 996 XP 001276902 against the NCBI nr protein database restricted to eukaryotes. 997 998 S5 Table. Approximate Unbiased (AU) tree topological test for hypotheses of 999 TvNlpC/P60 phylogenetic relationships. Tree topologies derived 1000 unconstrained analyses using different amino acid evolutionary models were tested 1001 against each other and against tree topologies derived from four constrained analyses 1002 testing specific relationships for the TvNlpC/P60 entries, as described in the main text. 1003 1004 S6 Table. Data collection and refinement statistics. Values in parenthesis 1005 represent the highest resolution shell. 1006 1007 S7 Table. Small-angle X-ray scattering data analysis. 1008 References 1009 1010 WHO. Global health sector strategy on sexually transmitted infections 2016-1011 [Internet]. Who. World Health Organization; 2016. Available: 1012 http://www.who.int/reproductivehealth/publications/rtis/ghss-stis/en/ 1013 2. Swygard H, Seña AC, Hobbs MM, Cohen MS. Trichomoniasis: clinical 1014 manifestations, diagnosis and management. Sex Transm Infect. 2004;80: 91-1015 95. doi:10.1136/sti.2003.005124 1016 3. Cotch MF, Pastorek JG, Nugent RP, Hillier SL, Gibbs RS, Martin DH, et al. 1017 Trichomonas vaginalis associated with low birth weight and preterm delivery. 1018 Sex Transm Dis. 1997;24: 353-360. doi:10.1097/00007435-199707000-00008 1019 4. Hardy P, Nell EE, Spence M, Hardy J, Graham D, Rosenbaum R. Prevalence

1020 of Six Sexually Transmitted Disease Agents Among Pregnant Inner-City 1021 Adolescents and Pregnancy Outcome. Lancet. 1984;324: 1022 doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(84)92698-9 1023 Minkoff H, Grunebaum AN, Schwarz RH, Feldman J, Cummings M, 5. 1024 Crombleholme W, et al. Risk factors for prematurity and premature rupture of 1025 membranes: A prospective study of the vaginal flora in pregnancy. Am J Obstet 1026 Gynecol. Mosby; 1984;150: 965–972. doi:10.1016/0002-9378(84)90392-2 1027 6. Gram IT, Macaluso M, Churchill J, Stalsberg H. Trichomonas vaginalis (TV) and 1028 human papillomavirus (HPV) infection and the incidence of cervical 1029 intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN) grade III. Cancer Causes Control. 1992;3: 231-1030 6. doi:10.1007/BF00124256. 1031 7. Stark JR. Judson G. Alderete JF. Mundodi V. Kucknoor AS. Giovannucci EL. et 1032 al. Prospective study of trichomonas vaginalis infection and prostate cancer 1033 incidence and mortality: Physicians' health study. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2009;101: 1034 1406-1411. doi:10.1093/jnci/djp306 1035 8. Laga M, Manoka A, Kivuvu M, Malele B, Tuliza M, Nzila N, et al. Non-ulcerative 1036 sexually transmitted diseases as risk factors for HIV-1 transmission in women: 1037 results from a cohort study. AIDS. 1993;7: 95-102. 1038 9. Fichorova RN, Buck OR, Yamamoto HS, Fashemi T, Dawood HY, Fashemi B, 1039 et al. The villain team-up or how Trichomonas vaginalis and bacterial vaginosis 1040 alter innate immunity in concert. Sex Transm Infect. 2013;89: 460-466. 1041 doi:10.1136/sextrans-2013-051052 1042 10. Phukan N, Parsamand T, Brooks AES, Nguyen TNM, Simoes-Barbosa A. The 1043 adherence of Trichomonas vaginalis to host ectocervical cells is influenced by 1044 lactobacilli. Sex Transm Infect. 2013;89: 455-459. doi:10.1136/sextrans-2013-1045 051039 1046 Bär A-K, Phukan N, Pinheiro J, Simoes-Barbosa A. The Interplay of Host 11. 1047 Microbiota and Parasitic Protozoans at Mucosal Interfaces: Implications for the

1048 Outcomes of Infections and Diseases. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. 2015;9: e0004176. 1049 doi:10.1371/journal.pntd.0004176 1050 12. Brotman RM, Bradford LL, Conrad M, Gajer P, Aul K, Peralta L, et al. 1051 Association between Trichomonas vaginalis and vaginal bacterial community 1052 composition among reproductive-age women. Sex Transm Dis. 2012;39: 807-1053 812. doi:10.1097/OLQ.0b013e3182631c79 1054 13. Maritz JM, Land KM, Carlton JM, Hirt RP. What is the importance of zoonotic 1055 trichomonads for human health? Trends Parasitol. 2014;30: 333-341. 1056 doi:10.1016/j.pt.2014.05.005 1057 14. Carlton JM, Hirt RP, Silva JC, Delcher AL, Schatz M, Zhao Q, et al. Draft 1058 Genome Sequence of the Sexually Transmitted Pathogen Trichomonas 1059 vaginalis. Science (80-), 2007:315: 207-212, doi:10.1126/science.1132894 1060 15. Hirt RP, Alsmark C, Embley TM. Lateral gene transfers and the origins of the 1061 eukaryote proteome: a view from microbial parasites. Curr Opin Microbiol. 1062 2015;23: 155–162. doi:10.1016/j.mib.2014.11.018 1063 16. Huang K, Chen Y-YM, Fang Y, Cheng W-H, Cheng C, Chen Y-C, et al. Adaptive 1064 responses to glucose restriction enhance cell survival, antioxidant capability, 1065 and autophagy of the protozoan parasite Trichomonas vaginalis. Biochim 1066 Biophys Acta - Gen Subj. 2014;1840: 53-64. doi:10.1016/j.bbaqen.2013.08.008 1067 Gould SB, Woehle C, Kusdian G, Landan G, Tachezy J, Zimorski V, et al. Deep 17. 1068 sequencing of Trichomonas vaginalis during the early infection of vaginal 1069 epithelial cells and amoeboid transition. Int J Parasitol. Australian Society for 1070 Parasitology Inc.; 2013;43: 707–719. doi:10.1016/j.ijpara.2013.04.002 1071 Alsmark C, Foster PG, Sicheritz-Ponten T, Nakjang S, Martin Embley T, Hirt 18. 1072 RP. Patterns of prokaryotic lateral gene transfers affecting parasitic microbial 1073 eukaryotes. Genome Biol. 2013;14: R19. doi:10.1186/gb-2013-14-2-r19 1074 19. Nikoh N, McCutcheon JP, Kudo T, Miyagishima SY, Moran NA, Nakabachi A. 1075 Bacterial genes in the aphid genome: Absence of functional gene transfer from

- Buchnera to its host. PLoS Genet. 2010;6: e1000827.
- 1077 doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1000827
- 1078 20. Schönknecht G, Weber APM, Lercher MJ. Horizontal gene acquisitions by
- eukaryotes as drivers of adaptive evolution. BioEssays. 2014;36: 9–20.
- 1080 doi:10.1002/bies.201300095
- 1081 21. Soucy SM, Huang J, Gogarten JP. Horizontal gene transfer: building the web of
- 1082 life. Nat Rev Genet. 2015;16: 472–482. doi:10.1038/nrg3962
- 1083 22. Husnik F, McCutcheon JP. Functional horizontal gene transfer from bacteria to
- eukaryotes. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2017;16: 67–79. doi:10.1038/nrmicro.2017.137
- 1085 23. Gladyshev EA, Meselson M, Arkhipova IR. Massive Horizontal Gene Transfer
- 1086 in Bdelloid Rotifers. Science (80-). 2008;320: 1210–1213.
- 1087 doi:10.1126/science.1156407
- 1088 24. Nikoh N, Nakabachi A. Aphids acquired symbiotic genes via lateral gene
- 1089 transfer. BMC Biol. 2009;7: 12. doi:10.1186/1741-7007-7-12
- 1090 25. Metcalf JA, Funkhouser-Jones LJ, Brileya K, Reysenbach A, Bordenstein SR.
- Antibacterial gene transfer across the tree of life. Elife. 2014;3: 1–18.
- 1092 doi:10.7554/eLife.04266
- 1093 26. Chou S, Daugherty MD, Peterson SB, Biboy J, Yang Y, Jutras BL, et al.
- 1094 Transferred interbacterial antagonism genes augment eukaryotic innate
- 1095 immune function. Nature. 2015;518: 98–101. doi:10.1038/nature13965
- 1096 27. Ohnishi R, Ishikawa S, Sekiguchi J. Peptidoglycan hydrolase LytF plays a role
- in cell separation with CwlF during vegetative growth of Bacillus subtilis. J
- 1098 Bacteriol. 1999;181: 3178–3184. Available:
- http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10322020
- 1100 28. Anantharaman V, Aravind L. Evolutionary history, structural features and
- biochemical diversity of the NlpC/P60 superfamily of enzymes. Genome Biol.
- 1102 2003;4: R11. doi:10.1186/gb-2003-4-2-r11
- 1103 29. Aurrecoechea C, Brestelli J, Brunk BP, Carlton JM, Dommer J, Fischer S, et al.

1104 GiardiaDB and TrichDB: integrated genomic resources for the eukaryotic protist 1105 pathogens Giardia lamblia and Trichomonas vaginalis. Nucleic Acids Res. 1106 2009;37: D526-D530. doi:10.1093/nar/gkn631 1107 Dyrløv Bendtsen J, Nielsen H, von Heijne G, Brunak S. Improved Prediction of 30. 1108 Peptides: SignalP 3.0. J Mol Biol. 2004;340: 783-795. 1109 doi:10.1016/J.JMB.2004.05.028 1110 31. Rancurel C, Legrand L, Danchin EGJ. Alienness: Rapid detection of candidate 1111 horizontal gene transfers across the tree of life. Genes (Basel). 2017;8. 1112 doi:10.3390/genes8100248 1113 32. Benchimol M, de Almeida LGP, Vasconcelos AT, de Andrade Rosa I, Reis Bogo 1114 M, Kist LW, et al. Draft Genome Sequence of Tritrichomonas foetus Strain K. 1115 Genome Announc. 2017;5: e00195-17. doi:10.1128/genomeA.00195-17 1116 33. Brown CT, Hug LA, Thomas BC, Sharon I, Castelle CJ, Singh A, et al. Unusual 1117 biology across a group comprising more than 15% of domain Bacteria. Nature. 1118 2015;523: 208-211. doi:10.1038/nature14486 1119 34. Clarke M, Lohan AJ, Liu B, Lagkouvardos I, Roy S, Zafar N, et al. Genome of 1120 Acanthamoeba castellanii highlights extensive lateral gene transfer and early 1121 evolution of tyrosine kinase signaling. Genome Biol. 2013;14: R11. 1122 doi:10.1186/gb-2013-14-2-r11 1123 Tang VH, Stewart GA, Chang BJ. Dermatophagoides pteronyssinus lytFM 35. 1124 encoding an NIpC/P60 endopeptidase is also present in mite-associated 1125 bacteria that express LytFM variants. FEBS Open Bio. 2017;7: 1267-1280. 1126 doi:10.1002/2211-5463.12263 1127 Strese Å, Backlund A, Alsmark C. A recently transferred cluster of bacterial 36. 1128 genes in Trichomonas vaginalis - lateral gene transfer and the fate of acquired 1129 genes. BMC Evol Biol. 2014;14: 119. doi:10.1186/1471-2148-14-119 1130 37. Drenth J, Jansonius JN, Koekoek R, Swen HM, Wolthers BG. Structure of 1131 Papain. Nature. 1968;218: 929-932. doi:10.1038/218929a0

1132 38. Typas A, Banzhaf M, Gross CA, Vollmer W. From the regulation of 1133 peptidoglycan synthesis to bacterial growth and morphology. Nat Rev Microbiol. 1134 2011;10: 123–136. doi:10.1038/nrmicro2677 1135 Baker NA, Sept D, Joseph S, Holst MJ, McCammon JA. Electrostatics of 39. 1136 nanosystems: Application to microtubules and the ribosome. Proc Natl Acad 1137 Sci. 2001;98: 10037–10041. doi:10.1073/pnas.181342398 1138 40. Wong JEMM, Midtgaard SR, Gysel K, Thygesen MB, Sørensen KK, Jensen KJ, 1139 et al. An intermolecular binding mechanism involving multiple LysM domains 1140 mediates carbohydrate recognition by an endopeptidase. Acta Crystallogr Sect 1141 D Biol Crystallogr. 2015;71: 592–605. doi:10.1107/S139900471402793X 41. 1142 Krissinel E, Henrick K. Secondary-structure matching (SSM), a new tool for fast 1143 protein structure alignment in three dimensions. Acta Crystallogr Sect D Biol 1144 Crystallogr. 2004;60: 2256–2268. doi:10.1107/S0907444904026460 1145 42. Xu Q, Abdubek P, Astakhova T, Axelrod HL, Bakolitsa C, Cai X, et al. Structure 1146 of the y- D -qlutamyl- L -diamino acid endopeptidase YkfC from Bacillus cereus 1147 in complex with L -Al. Acta Crystallogr Sect F Struct Biol Cryst Commun. 1148 2010;66: 1354–1364. doi:10.1107/S1744309110021214 1149 43. Casadaban MJ, Cohen SN. Analysis of gene control signals by DNA fusion and 1150 cloning in Escherichia coli. J Mol Biol. 1980;138: 179-207. doi:10.1016/0022-1151 2836(80)90283-1 1152 Meberg BM, Sailer FC, Nelson DE, Young KD. Reconstruction of Escherichia 44. 1153 coli mrcA (PBP 1a) Mutants Lacking Multiple Combinations of Penicillin Binding 1154 Proteins. J Bacteriol. 2001;183: 6148-6149. doi:10.1128/JB.183.20.6148-1155 6149.2001 1156 Lawrence JG, Ochman H. Amelioration of Bacterial Genomes: Rates of Change 45. 1157 and Exchange. J Mol Evol. 1997;44: 383–397. doi:10.1007/PL00006158 1158 46. Bertsche U, Breukink E, Kast T, Vollmer W. In Vitro Murein (Peptidoglycan) 1159 Synthesis by Dimers of the Bifunctional Transglycosylase-Transpeptidase 1160 PBP1B from Escherichia coli. J Biol Chem. 2005;280: 38096-38101. 1161 doi:10.1074/jbc.M508646200 1162 47. Vollmer W, Joris B, Charlier P, Foster S. Bacterial peptidoglycan (murein) 1163 hydrolases. FEMS Microbiol Rev. 2008;32: 259-286. doi:10.1111/j.1574-1164 6976.2007.00099.x 1165 de Miguel N, Lustig G, Twu O, Chattopadhyay A, Wohlschlegel JA, Johnson PJ. 48. 1166 Proteome Analysis of the Surface of Trichomonas vaginalis Reveals Novel 1167 Proteins and Strain-dependent Differential Expression. Mol Cell Proteomics. 1168 2010;9: 1554-1566. doi:10.1074/mcp.M000022-MCP201 1169 Huang K-Y, Huang P-J, Ku F-M, Lin R, Alderete JF, Tang P. Comparative 49. 1170 Transcriptomic and Proteomic Analyses of Trichomonas vaginalis following 1171 Adherence to Fibronectin. Infect Immun. 2012:80: 3900-3911. 1172 doi:10.1128/IAI.00611-12 1173 50. Twu O, de Miguel N, Lustig G, Stevens GC, Vashisht AA, Wohlschlegel JA, et 1174 al. Trichomonas vaginalis Exosomes Deliver Cargo to Host Cells and Mediate Host: Parasite Interactions. Petri WA, editor. PLoS Pathog. 2013;9: e1003482. 1175 1176 doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1003482 1177 51. Ragland SA, Criss AK. From bacterial killing to immune modulation: Recent 1178 insights into the functions of lysozyme. Bliska JB, editor. PLOS Pathog. 1179 2017;13: e1006512. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1006512 1180 Bard E, Laibe S, Bettinger D, Riethmuller D, Biichlé S, Seilles E, et al. New 52. 1181 Sensitive Method for the Measurement of Lysozyme and Lactoferrin for the 1182 Assessment of Innate Mucosal Immunity. Part I: Time-Resolved 1183 Immunofluorometric Assay in Serum and Mucosal Secretions. Clin Chem Lab 1184 Med. 2003;41: 127-133. doi:10.1515/CCLM.2003.021 1185 53. Chou S, Bui NK, Russell AB, Lexa KW, Gardiner TE, LeRoux M, et al. Structure 1186 of a Peptidoglycan Amidase Effector Targeted to Gram-Negative Bacteria by 1187 the Type VI Secretion System. Cell Rep. 2012;1: 656-664. 1188 doi:10.1016/j.celrep.2012.05.016 1189 Pazos M, Peters K, Vollmer W. Robust peptidoglycan growth by dynamic and 54. 1190 variable multi-protein complexes. Curr Opin Microbiol. 2017;36: 55-61. 1191 doi:10.1016/j.mib.2017.01.006 1192 Wolf AJ, Underhill DM. Peptidoglycan recognition by the innate immune system. 55. 1193 Nat Rev Immunol. 2018;18: 243–254. doi:10.1038/nri.2017.136 1194 56. Chu H, Mazmanian SK. Innate immune recognition of the microbiota promotes 1195 host-microbial symbiosis. Nat Immunol. 2013;14: 668-75. doi:10.1038/ni.2635 1196 57. Fichorova R, Fraga J, Rappelli P, Fiori PL. Trichomonas vaginalis infection in 1197 symbiosis with Trichomonasvirus and Mycoplasma. Res Microbiol. 2017;168: 1198 882-891. doi:10.1016/J.RESMIC.2017.03.005 1199 58. Finn RD, Attwood TK, Babbitt PC, Bateman A, Bork P, Bridge AJ, et al. InterPro 1200 in 2017-beyond protein family and domain annotations. Nucleic Acids Res. 1201 2017;45: D190–D199. doi:10.1093/nar/gkw1107 1202 59. Käll L, Krogh A, Sonnhammer ELL. Advantages of combined transmembrane 1203 topology and signal peptide prediction-the Phobius web server. Nucleic Acids 1204 Res. 2007;35: W429-W432. doi:10.1093/nar/gkm256 1205 60. Nielsen H. Predicting Secretory Proteins with SignalP. Protein Function 1206 Prediction Methods in Molecular Biology. 2017. pp. 59-73. doi:10.1007/978-1-1207 4939-7015-5_6 1208 Viklund H, Bernsel A, Skwark M, Elofsson A. SPOCTOPUS: A combined 61. 1209 predictor of signal peptides and membrane protein topology. Bioinformatics. 1210 2008;24: 2928–2929. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btn550 1211 Capella-Gutierrez S, Silla-Martinez JM, Gabaldon T. trimAl: a tool for automated 62. 1212 alignment trimming in large-scale phylogenetic analyses. Bioinformatics. 1213 2009;25: 1972–1973. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btp348

Lefort V, Longueville J, Gascuel O. SMS: Smart Model Selection in PhyML. Mol

1214

63.

1215 Biol Evol. 2017;34: 2422-2424. doi:10.1093/molbev/msx149 1216 Le SQ, Dang CC, Gascuel O. Modeling protein evolution with several amino 64. 1217 acid replacement matrices depending on site rates. Mol Biol Evol. 2012;29: 1218 2921-2936. doi:10.1093/molbev/mss112 1219 65. Quang LS, Gascuel O, Lartillot N. Empirical profile mixture models for 1220 phylogenetic reconstruction. Bioinformatics. 2008;24: 2317-2323. 1221 doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btn445 1222 Guindon S, Dufayard J-F, Lefort V, Anisimova M, Hordijk W, Gascuel O. New 66. 1223 Algorithms and Methods to Estimate Maximum-Likelihood Phylogenies: Assessing the Performance of PhyML 3.0. Syst Biol. 2010;59: 307-321. 1224 1225 doi:10.1093/sysbio/syg010 1226 67. Gouy M, Guindon S, Gascuel O. SeaView Version 4: A Multiplatform Graphical 1227 User Interface for Sequence Alignment and Phylogenetic Tree Building. Mol Biol 1228 Evol. 2010;27: 221–224. doi:10.1093/molbev/msp259 1229 68. Nguyen LT, Schmidt HA, Von Haeseler A, Minh BQ. IQ-TREE: A fast and 1230 effective stochastic algorithm for estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies. 1231 Mol Biol Evol. 2015;32: 268–274. doi:10.1093/molbev/msu300 1232 69. Trifinopoulos J, Nguyen LT, von Haeseler A, Minh BQ. W-IQ-TREE: a fast online 1233 phylogenetic tool for maximum likelihood analysis. Nucleic Acids Res. 2016;44: 1234 W232-W235. doi:10.1093/nar/gkw256 1235 70. Shimodaira H. An approximately unbiased test of phylogenetic tree selection. 1236 Syst Biol. 2002;51: 492–508. doi:10.1080/10635150290069913 1237 71. Letunic I, Bork P. Interactive tree of life (iTOL) v3: an online tool for the display 1238 and annotation of phylogenetic and other trees. Nucleic Acids Res. 2016;44: 1239 W242-W245. doi:10.1093/nar/gkw290 1240 Gao F, Zhang CT. GC-Profile: A web-based tool for visualizing and analyzing 72. 1241 the variation of GC content in genomic sequences. Nucleic Acids Res. 2006;34: 1242 686–691. doi:10.1093/nar/gkl040

1243 73. Puigbò P, Bravo IG, Garcia-Vallve S. CAlcal: A combined set of tools to assess 1244 codon usage adaptation. Biol Direct. 2008;3: 1-8. doi:10.1186/1745-6150-3-38 1245 74. Clark CG, Diamond LS. Methods for Cultivation of Luminal Parasitic Protists of 1246 Importance. Clin Microbiol Rev. 2002;15: 329-341. 1247 doi:10.1128/CMR.15.3.329-341.2002 Brooks AES, Parsamand T, Kelly RW, Simoes-Barbosa A. An improved 1248 75. 1249 quantitative method to assess adhesive properties of Trichomonas vaginalis to 1250 host vaginal ectocervical cells using flow cytometry. J Microbiol Methods. 1251 2013;92: 73-78. doi:10.1016/j.mimet.2012.10.011 1252 76. Pfaffl MW. Relative expression software tool (REST(C)) for group-wise 1253 comparison and statistical analysis of relative expression results in real-time 1254 PCR. Nucleic Acids Res. 2002:30: 36e-36. doi:10.1093/nar/30.9.e36 Delgadillo MG, Liston DR, Niazi K, Johnson PJ. Transient and selectable 1255 77. 1256 transformation of the parasitic protist Trichomonas vaginalis. Proc Natl Acad 1257 Sci. 1997;94: 4716–4720. doi:10.1073/pnas.94.9.4716 1258 78. Aslanidis C, de Jong PJ. Ligation-independent cloning of PCR products (LIC-1259 PCR). Nucleic Acids Res. 1990;18: 6069–6074. doi:10.1093/nar/18.20.6069 1260 79. Studier FW. Protein production by auto-induction in high-density shaking 1261 cultures. Protein Expr Purif. 2005;41: 207-234. doi:10.1016/j.pep.2005.01.016 1262 80. Gorrec F. The MORPHEUS protein crystallization screen. J Appl Crystallogr. 1263 International Union of Crystallography; 2009;42: 1035-1042. 1264 doi:10.1107/S0021889809042022 1265 81. Moreland N, Ashton R, Baker HM, Ivanovic I, Patterson S, Arcus VL, et al. A 1266 flexible and economical medium-throughput strategy for protein production and 1267 crystallization. Acta Crystallogr Sect D Biol Crystallogr. 2005;61: 1378-1385. 1268 doi:10.1107/S0907444905023590 1269 82. Sheldrick GM. Experimental phasing with SHELXC / D / E: combining chain 1270 tracing with density modification. Acta Crystallogr Sect D Biol Crystallogr.

1271 International Union of Crystallography; 2010;66: 479-485. 1272 doi:10.1107/S0907444909038360 1273 Potterton E, Briggs P, Turkenburg M, Dodson E. A graphical user interface to 83. 1274 the CCP4 program suite. Acta Crystallogr Sect D Biol Crystallogr. 2003;59: 1275 1131-1137. doi:10.1107/S0907444903008126 1276 Adams PD, Baker D, Brunger AT, Das R, DiMaio F, Read RJ, et al. Advances, 84. 1277 Interactions, and Future Developments in the CNS, Phenix, and Rosetta 1278 Structural Biology Software Systems. Annu Rev Biophys. 2013;42: 265-287. 1279 doi:10.1146/annurev-biophys-083012-130253 1280 Emsley P, Lohkamp B, Scott WG, Cowtan K. Features and development of 85. 1281 Coot. Acta Crystallogr Sect D Biol Crystallogr. 2010;66: 486–501. 1282 doi:10.1107/S0907444910007493 1283 86. McCoy AJ. Solving structures of protein complexes by molecular replacement 1284 with Phaser. Acta Crystallographica Section D: Biological Crystallography. 1285 2006. pp. 32-41. doi:10.1107/S0907444906045975 1286 87. Bui NK, Gray J, Schwarz H, Schumann P, Blanot D, Vollmer W. The 1287 peptidoglycan sacculus of Myxococcus xanthus has unusual structural features 1288 and is degraded during glycerol-induced myxospore development. J Bacteriol. 1289 2009;191: 494-505. doi:10.1128/JB.00608-08 1290 Russell AB, Singh P, Brittnacher M, Bui NK, Hood RD, Carl MA, et al. A 88. 1291 Widespread Bacterial Type VI Secretion Effector Superfamily Identified Using a 1292 Heuristic Approach. Cell Microbe. Host 2012;11: 538-549. 1293 doi:10.1016/j.chom.2012.04.007 1294 Yu Z, Huang Z, Lung M. Subcellular Fractionation of Cultured Human Cell Lines. 89. 1295 Bio-Protocol. 2013;3. doi:10.21769/BioProtoc.754

1296















