- 1 In Silico Identification of Three Types of Integrative and Conjugative Elements (ICEs) in
- 2 Elizabethkingia anophelis Strains Isolated from Around the World
- 3 Jiannong Xu^{a#} Dong Pei^{a*}, Ainsley Nicholson^b, Yuhao Lan^a, Qing Xia^a
- 4 ^aBiology Department, New Mexico State University, Las Cruces, NM, USA
- ⁵ ^bSpecial Bacteriology Reference Laboratory, Bacterial Special Pathogens Branch, Division of
- 6 High-Consequence Pathogens and Pathology, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention,
- 7 Atlanta, Georgia, USA
- 8 Running Head: Three types of ICE in various strains of *E. anophelis*
- 9 #Address correspondence to Jiannong Xu, jxu@nmsu.edu.
- 10 *Present address: Dong Pei, Department of Biostatistics, University of Kansas Medical
- 11 Center, Kansas City, KS, USA
- 12

 13

 14

 15

 16

 17

 18

 19

 20

 21

 22

 23

 24

 25

 26

27 ABSTRACT

28 *Elizabethkingia anophelis* is an emerging global multidrug-resistant opportunistic pathogen. 29 We assessed the diversity among 13 complete genomes and 23 draft genomes of *E. anophelis* derived from various environmental settings and human infections from different geographic 30 31 regions around the world over past decades from 1950s. Thirty-one of these 36 strains harbor integrative and conjugative elements (ICEs). A total of 52 ICEs were identified, and 32 categorized into three ICE types based on the architecture of signature genes in the 33 conjugation module. The type II and III ICEs were found to integrate into regions adjacent to 34 tRNA genes, while type I ICEs used a variety of integration sites, inserting into intergenic 35 36 regions or even directly into a gene, sometimes disrupting gene function. Integrases such as tyrosine recombinases, serine recombinases and DDE transposases were found in most ICEs. 37 38 The ICEs carry various cargo genes including transcription regulators and those involved in 39 antibiotic resistance. The CRISPR-Cas system was found in nine strains, including four strains in which CRISPR-Cas machinery and ICEs co-exist. ICE distribution in the strains 40 showed no geographic or temporal patterns. The ICEs in *E. anophelis* differ in gene structure 41 and sequence from CTnDOT, a well-studied ICE prevalent in Bacteroides spp. This is the 42 first set of ICEs identified in the family Flavobacteriaceae. As a prevalent type of mobile 43 44 genetic elements in various strains of E. anophelis around the world, the categorization of ICEs will facilitate further investigations such as virulence, genome epidemiology and 45 46 adaptation genomics of E. anophelis.

47 Importance

Elizabethkingia anophelis is an opportunistic human pathogen, and the genetic diversity
between strains from around the world becomes apparent as more genomes are sequenced.
The Integrative Conjugative Element (ICE), found in many bacterial species, contains genes

for transfer via conjugation and integration into the chromosome, along with various cargo genes. ICEs are identified in 31 of 36 strains and categorized into three types based on architecture of modular genes, integrases, and integration sites. ICE distribution in different strains displays no spatial and temporal patterns. Several ICE-containing strains also possessed CRISPR-Cas units, considered to be the bacterial adaptive immune system providing protection against phage and predatory mobile genetic elements. This co-existence suggests that ICEs are beneficial or at least not harmful to the bacterial cells they inhabit. ICEs as a component of the mobile genetic repertoire enable recipients to resist antibiotics, survive disinfecting agents, and adapt to various ecological niches.

- -

76 Introduction

77 The genus *Elizabethkingia* belongs to family *Flavobacteriaceae*, and was recognized as distinct from the genus Chryseobacterium in 2005 (1). The two species initially recognized 78 were E. meningoseptica, named based on its initial isolation as the causative agent for 79 80 neonatal meningitis (2), and E. miricola, an isolate obtained from condensation water of Space Station Mir (3). A third species, E. anophelis, was proposed in 2011(4) based on the 81 description of the type strain R26^T that was originally isolated from the midgut of Anopheles 82 gambiae mosquitoes maintained in Stockholm University in Sweden (5). In 2015, a new 83 species, *E. endophytica* was proposed (6) but whole genome sequence (WGS) based genome 84 comparison revealed it to be a homotypic synonym of E. anophelis (7, 8). Additional species 85 have since been added to the genus (8). 86

87 In 2011, the first human infection attributed to E. anophelis was documented, a neonatal meningitis that occurred in Central Africa Republic (9). Later, an E. anophelis 88 89 outbreak in an intensive-care unit in Singapore was reported (10), followed by the worrying account of E. anophelis transmission from a mother to her infant (11). In 2016, a large E. 90 91 anophelis outbreak occurring in Wisconsin, USA, was unusual in that a substantial proportion of patients were not already hospitalized, and were instead admitted directly from their homes. 92 93 No indication of human-to-human transmission was found (12-14). Human cases of E. 94 anophelis have been reported with increasing frequency around the world (13, 15-17), aided in part by improved identification methods, and several strains previously described as E. 95 meningoseptica were determined to actually belong to the E. anophelis species (18). In 96 97 addition to human-derived strains, multiple strains of the species have been isolated from its namesake, the mosquito, and their genomes have been sequenced. Both the type strain $R26^{T}$ 98 and strain Ag1 were derived from An. gambiae mosquitoes (19, 20). Strain EaAs1 was 99 isolated from An. stephensi mosquitoes (21), and strains AR4-6 and AR6-8 were obtained 100

from wild caught specimens of the mosquito *An. sinensis* in China (20). There has been no
epidemiological link between human cases and mosquitoes, and the circumstances of certain
outbreaks preclude any possibility of mosquitos being a vector for *E. anophelis*.

Genome comparison of pathogenic bacteria has greatly increased our understanding 104 of the evolution, pathogenesis and epidemiology in many pathogen outbreak investigations 105 (22-26). Horizontal transfer of mobile genetic elements between bacterial strains occurs 106 continually, and is a major source of genetic variation in bacteria (27). One group of modular 107 mobile genetic elements, known as integrative and conjugative elements (ICEs), are capable 108 109 of transferring between bacteria horizontally via conjugation (28-30). ICEs integrate into a host chromosome and replicate along with the genome (28, 31). The cargo genes that are 110 brought in by the ICEs may endow the recipient bacteria with new phenotypes (32). For 111 example, in *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. actinidiae, resistance to copper, arsenic and cadmium 112 was attributed to the resistant genes that were carried in ICEs (33). In Helicobacter pylori, 113 ICE tfs4 has been identified in certain strains mediating gastric disease. The presence of tfs4 114 ICE has been associated with virulence, although mechanisms behind the virulence 115 phenotype remain unknown (34). 116

Genome analysis of various E. anophelis strains has revealed substantial genetic 117 diversity (11, 16, 35-39). The ICE named ICEEa1 has been identified in the strains associated 118 with the outbreak in Wisconsin, and unrelated strains from the outbreak in Singapore (40). In 119 this study, we searched for ICEs in 13 complete and 23 draft genomes of *E. anophelis* strains 120 around the world by locating clusters of transfer (tra) genes. Based on the architecture of 121 conjugation modules and associated signature genes, three types of ICEs were recognized. As 122 *E. anophelis* is recognized as an environmental bacterium, the high prevalence and diversity 123 of ICEs as well as the mosaic integration pattern in different strains suggest that ICEs play a 124

significant role in shaping its genome to adapt to different environmental niches. In recent years, whole-genome sequencing has been utilized in epidemiological studies to type outbreak strains, acquire genomic determinants of virulence and antibiotic resistance in outbreaks, and estimate pan-genome diversity (41-44). The identification and classification of ICEs is expected to facilitate the genomic epidemiological studies of the pathogenic strains of *E. anophelis* in the future.

131 **Results**

132 Origin and geographic distribution of the strains

In this study, 13 complete genomes and 23 draft genomes of E. anophelis were 133 compared. Mosquito-derived strains included $R26^{T}$ and Ag1 from An. gambiae (19, 20), 134 135 EaAs1 from An. stephensi (21) and AR4-6 and AR6-8 from wild caught An. sinensis (20). Strains that were associated with human infections and recent outbreaks were from the 136 Central Africa Republic (9, 39), Singapore (35), Hong Kong (11), China (45), Wisconsin, 137 USA (13, 14), and Taiwan (16). Geographic distribution of included isolates was spread 138 across Asia, Europe, Africa and North America (Figure 1). The available metadata for the 139 140 strains is noted in Table 1, along with the WGS accession numbers.

141 Core genome based phylogeny of the strains

The pan-genome of a bacterial species is comprised of a core and an accessory genome. The core genome is a set of genes that are conserved and shared by all strains while the accessory gene set is shared by only some strains (46, 47). Because the core genome contains essential genes and their inheritance is necessitated, they carry more reliable evolutionary information for inferring phylogeny than do accessory genes. Hence, single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) typing based on core genome comparison has become a

recognized method for accurate evolutionary reconstructions (48, 49). We used the core 148 genome alignment to generate a SNP tree to infer phylogeny of the strains, which was 149 implemented by Parsnp in the Harvest suit (49). Parsnp recognized 37781 anchors and 985 150 151 maximal unique matches (MUMs) in the 36 genomes, a total of 37764 anchors and MUMs were used to anchor the genome alignment and make a SNP tree (49). The tree topology 152 appeared similar when each of the complete genomes R26^T, 0422, CSID3015183678 and 153 NUHP1 was used as reference for core genome alignment (data not shown). The strains were 154 sorted into three clusters (Figure 1, Table 1). Cluster I contained 14 strains with the genome 155 156 of 12012-2_PRCM at the basal position. Cluster II consisted of two clades, each included six strains. The strains in this cluster were globally distributed and collected over decades 157 between the 1950s and the present. Cluster III had two clades as well. One was comprised of 158 all five mosquito-derived strains, the other contained strain 37-75 obtained from a human 159 infection in France in 1979 and strain CSID3015183678, which was a representative of the 160 strains associated with the Wisconsin outbreak in 2016 (40). There was no indication of 161 geography-based clustering. In each cluster, there were strains that were very closely related, 162 which were marked as B, C, D and E in the tree (Figure 1). The clustering of these strains 163 was corroborated by the higher percent identity in the protein sequences between the 164 genomes. The overall identity was greater than 99.9% in the clades B, C, D and E (Figure 1). 165 In the clade A, the strain isolated from a carp in France was closely related to the two isolates 166 167 that were derived from human patients in Central Africa in 2006 and 2011, respectively (9, 39). In the clade C, 3375 was isolated from South Carolina, US, in 1957, and F3543 was 168 isolated from Florida, US, in 1982, while FDAARGOS 198 was obtained in Sweden. In the 169 170 clade D, 0422 was collected in Florida, US, in 1950, and PW2806 and PW2809 were isolated in Hong Kong in 2012. The clade E grouped the strains from three different mosquito species, 171 An. gambiae, An. stephensi and An. sinensis, and these strains were collected in different 172

geographic locations in separate times. The clade A presented a group of strains with certain
distance, in which the identity of protein sequences was between 95-100% in a pairwise
comparison. Overall, it appears that closely related strains can be widely separated both
temporally and spatially.

Identification of ICEs in the strains

Structurally, ICEs consist of the modules for genome integration and excision, conjugative transfer, and maintenance (31). We define a genome neighborhood as an ICE if it harbors genes encoding a relaxase, a coupling protein VirD4 ATPase (T4CP) and several *Tra* proteins. Among the 36 strains, 31 contained at least one ICE, and a total of 52 ICEs were detected (Table 2). According to the architecture of the modular genes, these ICEs were classified into three types (Figure 2).

Type I ICEs are featured by 13 tra genes (traABBDEGIJKMNOQ) in addition to 184 genes coding for T4CP, relaxsase and integrase. In most cases, genes *t4cp* and *relaxase* were 185 located tandemly at upstream of the tra gene cassette, and integrase was located at 186 downstream of the tra cassette (Figure 2). A total of 12 ICEEaI elements were found in 11 187 strains, with strain FDAARGOS-198 harboring two ICEEaIs (Table 2). The integration site 188 varied. Each of the 12 elements had a distinct insertion site (Figure 3). The type I ICE in 189 CSID3015183678 has been characterized previously, named as ICEEa1 (40). This element 190 inserted into and disrupted the gene encoding MutY, which is an adenine DNA glycosylase 191 that is required for fixing G-A mis-pairs, making the strain more prone to mutation (40). The 192 193 type I ICE in strain 37-75 inserted into the gene encoding an alkyl hydroperoxide reductase (Ahp) between codons K207 and I208. This protein is a primary scavenger of H_2O_2 in *E.coli* 194 (50). Its disruption by the ICE may result in a loss of function and make the strain vulnerable 195 to oxidative stress. The integration sites of the remaining nine type I ICEs were in the 196

intergenic regions. The locations of these elements were listed in Table 2 and marked in
Figure 3. Interestingly, The ICE*Ea*I(1) was shared by four strains, CSID3015183678
(Wisconsin, US, 2015), NUPH1 (Singapore, 2012), 3375 (South Carolina, US, 1957) and
FDAARGOS-198 (Sweden, collection time unknown). The sequences of the element were
nearly identical, but inwertion sites were different, indicating that the integrations occurred
independently.

Type II ICEs were identified in 13 strains. Unlike in type I, genes *t4cp* and *relaxase* were separated by one or more CDS, followed by 13 *tra* genes, *traABDEFGIJKMNOQ*. A gene is located between *traD* and *traE*, encoding a RadC-domain-containing protein (Figure 2). All 13 ICE*Ea*IIs integrated next to a tRNA gene, 12 elements reside at the 3' end of the tRNA-Leu-CAA. Only the ICE*Ea*II in NUHP1 was inserted after the tRNA-Ser-GGA (Table 2, Figure 3). Integrases were found in 4 of the 13 elements (see below).

Type III ICEs were recognized in 16 strains. The structure was quite different from 209 210 that in type I and II ICEs, with only seven tra genes present, traAEGJKMN. The relaxase and 211 t4cp flank the tra genes. In 11 out of 16 elements, a gene is present after the traN, encoding a large protein (791-1177 aa) with a RadC domain (Figure 2). Like ICEEaII, the type III ICEs 212 after a tRNA gene. The tRNA-Arg-ACG, tRNA-Gln-TTG, tRNA-Asp-TGA, tRNA-Ser-213 TGA, and tRNA-Glu-TTC were targeted by ICEEaIIIs (Figure 3). In NUHP1, two type III 214 elements, ICEEaIII(7) and ICEEaII(8), are co-located between two tRNA-Asp-GTC, and the 215 two elements are separated by a tRNA-Asp-GTC. In NUH11, ICEEaI(8) and ICEEaIII(12) 216 combined as one segment, co-localized between the tRNA-Asp-GTC and the gene encoding a 217 beta-lactamase. In most type III elements, at least one integrase gene is present. 218

In sum, a total of 52 ICEs were identified in 31 genomes, and 15 elements in 11 draft genomes were partially assembled. The size of ICEs is up to 116.3 kb in complete genomes.

Annotated ICEs were listed in Table S1, which included predicted CDS and gene functions.

Some strains had more than one ICE. No ICEs were found in five strains: PW2810, B2D,

223 8707, CIP11067 and GTC_10754 (Table 2).

224 Phylogenetic relationship of the ICEs

To track the evolutionary history of these ICEs, the nucleotide sequences of the genes encoding relaxase, T4CP, TraG and TraJ from each ICE were compared. As shown in Figure 4, in all four gene trees, the ICEs were separated based on their types. The type I and II elements are more closely related, forming a clade distinct from the type III clade. This pattern was consistent with the type classification based on the structure of the conjugation module (Figure 2). The distribution of the ICE types did not imply geographic or temporal patterns.

232 Integrases

Integrases, required for ICE integration and excision, could be tyrosine or serine recombinases, or DDE transposases containing an acidic amino acid triad (DDE)(32). Tyrosine recombinases were found in all type I and III ICEs, and DDE transposases were identified in four type III ICEs. In the 12 type II ICEs, only four elements carried integrases. Two serine recombinases were detected in NCTC10588 and one was identified in JM-87. A DDE transposase was found in FMS-007, and a tyrosine recombinase was detected in NUHP1. The remaining 9 type II ICEs lack co-localized integrases (Table S1).

240 Cargo genes

Restriction and modification (R-M) systems provide an innate defense against invading DNA to protect the genome stability. Mobile genetic elements (including ICEs) usually carry an R-M system, which enables an evolutionary interplay between the mobile

genetic elements (MGEs) and their hosts (51). The DNA modification methylase, type I R-M 244 system, and type II restriction enzymes were prevalent in the ICEs of all three types. In 245 addition, the anti-restriction protein ArdA was detected in three type II ICEs and one type III 246 ICE. Some ICEs also carried DNA topoisomerase, DNA helicase, DNA primase, DNA 247 polymerase. These enzymes may be involved in the integration process, and perhaps in DNA 248 replication while the ICE is in its plasmid state. Genes encoding proteins in the resistance-249 nodulation-division (RND) family (52), a multidrug efflux pump system found in Gram-250 negative bacteria, are prevalent in the ICEs. The genes coding for three key component 251 252 proteins of the tripartite RND complex (the outer membrane protein, membrane fusion protein and inner membrane protein), are carried in the type I ICEs in six strains, one of the 253 three type III ICEs in NUHP1 and the type II ICE in F3543 (Table S1). ABC transporters for 254 various substrates, such as manganese, potassium and oligopeptides were found in all ICEs. 255 TonB-dependent receptors for siderophore import or carbohydrates uptake (SusC) are present 256 in some ICEs. There are various transcriptional regulators in the ICEs, such as AraC 257 family, ArsR family, MarR family, HxlR family, and TetR family. The AraC family 258 transcriptional regulators (AFTRs) are most prevalent, a total of 36 these were found in 19 259 strains. In addition, two-component regulatory system are present in the type I ICEs in 260 three strains. 261

262 CRISPR-Cas loci

The CRISPR-Cas system is a prokaryotic adaptive defense machinery against invading nucleic acids (53, 54). The type II-C CRISPR-Cas system was detected in nine strains (Table 1), which is featured by a CRISPR array and the genes encoding Cas9, Cas1 and Cas2 proteins. In these nine strains, the CRISPR-Cas system is located downstream of the gene encoding a cobalt-zinc-cadmium resistance protein CzcD. In a CRISPR array, the direct repeat is 47 nt, and the spacer is 30 nt in length. The number of spacers varies between 269 6 in strain CIP111046 to 47 in strain CIP111067. No CRISPR locus was detected in the draft 270 assembly of strain 8707, but one complete direct repeat was identified in the assembly. Likely the CRISPR locus was not assembled well in the draft genome. The CRISPR loci of strains 271 272 Po0527107 and V0378064 have been described previously (39). Po0527107 has 21 spacers and V0378064 has the same 21 plus two more spacers. Both strains were isolated in Bangui, 273 the Central Africa Republic, but five years apart (9, 55). Strain LDVH-AR107 has two 274 275 CRISPR loci, each with 21 spacers. LDVH-AR107 shares 12 spacers with both Po0527107 and V0378064 despite being isolated on a different continent, from the internal organ of a 276 277 common carp Cyprinus carpio collected in 2004 in Montpellier, France (Table 1).

278 Discussion

279 Many genomes have been sequenced for *E. anophelis* strains derived from different 280 sources including mosquitoes, human infections, hospital environments, fish and corn stems. 281 This genome availability enabled a comparative genomics approach to investigate the genetic 282 architecture and repertoire of the *E. anophelis* population.

283 Core genome based phylogeny

By definition, the core genome is shared by all strains and consists of essential genes 284 that are vertically transmitted while genes in the accessory genome are present only in a 285 subset of strains. The sum of the core and accessory genomes in all strains constitutes a pan-286 genome for the species (47, 56, 57). Due to its inheritability, the core genome is intrinsically 287 suitable for inferring phylogeny (49). The core genome phylogenetic analysis separated the 288 289 strains into three clusters, however, genetically similar strains do not show a spatial or temporal aggregation pattern. As an example, clade C (Figure 1) contains closely related 290 strains F3543, 3375 and FDAARGOS-198, the locations where they were isolated were 291 292 Florida in 1982, South Carolina in 1957 and Sweden (collection time unknown), respectively

(Table1, Figure 1). On the other hand, the mosquito-associated strains were very closely 293 related, and distinct from the strains derived from human infections (Figure 1), despite having 294 been isolated from three different mosquito species, and from both lab reared (19, 21) and 295 296 wild caught mosquitoes (20). The possibility that they might be lab contaminants was carefully evaluated, and rejected based on the timeline of sample collection, processing and 297 Furthermore, the presence of E. anophelis in the gut microbiota of wild 298 sequencing. 299 populations of An. gambiae in Kenya and An. sinensis mosquitos in Shandong, China, has been confirmed from the shotgun metagenomic sequencing data (Xu, unpublished data). 300 301 Association of E. anophelis has been documented in several different mosquito species, including An. gambiae (58), Culex quinquefasicatus (59) and Aedes aegypti (60), and a role 302 for the bacteria in larval development has been hypothesized. Taken together, these results 303 304 indicate that there is selection in the mosquito gut environment for these specific strains.

305 *ICEs in the strains*

Genome diversification promotes bacterial adaptation and evolution. ICE, as a type of mobile genetic elements, contributes significantly to the pan-genome reservoir with potentially adaptive genes (28, 31). Several ICEs have been found in the taxa of *Bacteroides* (29, 61-64), which belong to the family Bacteroidaceae in phylum Bacteroidetes. Of these elements, CTnDOT in *B. thetaiotaomicron* has been studied extensively (65-68). The ICEs identified in *E. anophelis* are structurally distinct from CTnDOT.

The conjugation machinery is a necessary component of ICEs. Relaxase, coupling protein and *tra* proteins are required for element excision from the genome and transfer to a recipient (69). Conserved features indicative of conjugative elements have been used for identifying ICEs in a wide variety of genomes (29). Using this approach, we categorized the ICEs in *E. anophelis* strains into three types based on the architecture of the genes in the

conjugation module and the phylogeny of sequences from four genes in the module (Figure 2, 317 4). Type II and III ICEs tended to integrate adjacent to a tRNA gene, while the type I ICEs 318 used a non-tRNA gene region for integration. In some strains, the type I ICE insertion into a 319 320 gene resulted in the loss of function. For example, in CSID3015183678 the integration of ICE disrupted the gene *mutY*, which is required for excision of G-A mismatch (70, 71). The 321 disruption of *mutY* by ICEEaI resulted in a higher rate of nonsynonymous to synonymous 322 323 substitution in the strain and subsequent sublineages, which may fuel the adaptive capacity of an outbreak strain (40). In strain 37-75, the insertion of a type I ICE inactivates the gene 324 325 encoding alkyl hydroperoxide reductase (Ahp). As the Ahp protein is a scavenger of hydrogen peroxide in E. coli (50), the disruption of the ahp gene by ICE may affect host 326 defense against elevated oxidative stress. Twelve type II ICEs used tRNA-Leu-CAA as the 327 328 integration locus, however, these elements lacked an integrase. This warrants further 329 investigation to elucidate whether or not the type II ICEs are mobile without an integrase in the element. The presence of diverse integration loci, including tRNA gene and non-tRNA 330 331 loci (Figure 3), suggests a high degree of genome plasticity of the *E. anophelis* in favor of a dynamic genetic repertoire of the pan-genome accommodating mobile elements like ICEs (28, 332 63). 333

Among the cargo genes carried by the ICEs for which a function could be identified, 334 most are involved with host defense, nutrient acquisition, or transcription regulation. Innate 335 immune mechanisms like R-M systems provide host defense by protecting against invading 336 DNA (51, 72), and the RND type multidrug efflux pumps enable the chemical defense by 337 recognizing and expelling various structurally diverse compounds and toxins (73), 338 including antibiotics, as shown previously in $R26^{T}$ (37), and the strains associated with the 339 outbreak in Singapore (35, 36). Regarding nutrient acquisition, a variety of ABC transporters 340 and TonB dependent receptors are present in the ICEs, which greatly enhances the host 341

capability to satisfy the nutrient needs in the environment they thrive. The ICEs also equip the host with a variety of transcriptional regulators, with those in the AraC family being particularly prevalent (Table S1). These transcription regulators can sense various chemical signals involved in carbon metabolism, quorum-sensing signaling, virulence and stress response, which leads to the expression of a global gene repertoire (74-77). Such genetic capability brought in by ICEs enables the host strains a broader adaptive flexibility to econiche changes, which may contribute to establishment of an infection in humans as well.

349 CRISPR loci

CRISPR-Cas system is an adaptive immune mechanism against invading nucleic 350 acids. Spacer sequences are acquired and integrated into the CRISPR locus. Upon 351 352 encountering the same non-self invaders, the spacers will be transcribed into guide RNAs to direct Cas nuclease to cleave specific target sequences (53, 78). In this study, the class II 353 CRISPR-Cas system was identified in nine strains of E. anophelis. A total of 209 spacers 354 355 were recognized in eight strains. These spacers reflected previous events of the horizontal 356 transfer of mobile elements or phage infections these strains have experienced in the past. Indeed, it has been shown by Breurec et al. (39) that strain V0378064 (isolate E18064 in (39)) 357 obtained in 2011 contained two newly acquired spacers, S22 and S23, which are a perfect 358 match to two protospacers from the strain Po0527107 (isolate E27107) isolated in 2006. In 359 fact, the two protospacers reside in a phage-derived mobile genetic element integrated at the 360 3' end of tRNA-Arg-ACG in Po0527107. The phage element is absent from V0378064, 361 likely due to the action of the CRISPR-Cas mediated defense. 362

Of nine strains that carry a CRISPR-Cas system, five have ICEs as well. The coexistence of mobile elements and CRISPR defense system suggests an evolutionary balance between the genome stability and plasticity. In the family *Flavobacteriaceae*, the CRISPR-

Cas systems in *Flavobacterium columnare* were shown to play a role in host-phage interactions, which drives long-term genome coevolution through arms-race-like mechanisms between the host and phages (79), serving as an example of genome stability. On the other hand, the CRISPR-Cas machinery appeared not to play a role as a resistance mechanism against phages in fish pathogenic *Flavobacterium psychrophilum* (80). Availability of the *E. anophelis* strains that possess CRISPR-Cas with and without ICEs enables further studies on co-evolution of mobile elements and host defense systems in the bacteria.

373 Conclusion

In this study, we identified ICEs in the genomes of 36 *E. anophelis* strains isolated from a wide array of hosts, collected at diverse geographic locations over several decades. The ICEs can be categorized into three types based on the distinctive architecture of conjugation module and integration sites. The identification of the ICEs enables further studies on the genetic diversity of the pan-genome and its impact on the virulence of this global opportunistic pathogen.

380 Materials and Methods

381 Bacterial strains

In this study, complete genomes of 13 strains and draft genomes of 23 strains were analyzed (Table 1). Mosquito-derived strains were isolated from *An. gambiae* (R26^T, Ag1), *An. stephensi* (As1) and *An. sinensis* (AR4-6, AR6-8). Strain CSID3015183678 was one of the strains associated with the Wisconsin outbreak 2015-2016, which has been characterized in (40), and strain NUHP1 was a representative of the strains isolated in the Singapore outbreak, the genomes of these strains have been described (35). Strain LDVH-AR107 was derived from a common carp *Cyprinus carpio*. Strain JM-87 was isolated from maize *Zea mays*, 389 which was originally described as *E. endophytica*. The genome comparison put it as a 390 synonym of *E. anophelis* (7). The other strains were all derived from human patients or 391 hospital environments, collected from 1950 to 2016.

The draft genomes of strains LDVH-AR107, 8707, NCTC10588, AmMS250 and 37-75 were reassembled using Illumina reads downloaded from SRA database. The reads were *de novo* assembled by CLC genomics workbench v 10.1.1. The genomes were annotated using the SEED and Rapid Annotations using Subsystems Technology (RAST) at the RAST server (81).

397 Phylogenetic relationship of the strains based on core genome comparison

The phylogenomic relationships of the strains were estimated by the Harvest suite (49). The core genome that is shared by all strains was identified by multiple genome alignment, and SNPs in the core genome were typed to infer phylogenies between the strains implemented by Parsnp module in the Harvest suite (49). Four complete genomes R26^T, 0422, CSID3015183678 and NUHP1, each was used iteratively as the reference for tree construction, and tree topology of all four core genome trees was unaffected by choice of reference genome. The tree with 0422 as the reference was depicted in Figure 1.

405 Identification of ICEs

Pairwise genome comparison based on protein identity was used to identify variable regions.
To identify an ICE, the genome was searched for a cluster of genes coding for a relaxase, a
coupling ATPase (T4CP) and transfer (Tra) proteins including a VirB4 ATPase (TraG) in the
conjugation module. These proteins are the key components of an ICE (28, 69). The
boundary of an element was delimited as between the two open reading frames (ORFs) that
flank the ICE. The genome of the type strain R26^T was used as a reference to mark the

412	integration sites. Each ICE was categorized into one of the three Types based on its gene
413	structure (Figure 2). The ICEs were named based mainly on the nomenclature proposed by
414	Burrus et al. (82): the acronym ICE was followed by the initials of the name of the bacterium
415	(Ea), a Roman numeral as type, a strain name and a ordinal number in brackets to identify the
416	same sequence if it is encountered in a different strain. For example, the type I ICE found in
417	both NUHP1 and CSID3015183678 would be named ICEEaI(1)_CSID3015183678 and
418	ICEEaI(1)_NUHP1, respectively. Each type has its set of numbers; for example, the four
419	type III ICEs in NUHP1 are designated as ICE <i>Ea</i> III(1)_NUHP1 thru ICE <i>Ea</i> III(4)_NUHP1.
420	
420	
421	GenBank accession numbers
422	Accession numbers of the genomes used in this study were listed in Table 1. GenBank
423	accession numbers for ICE sequences were listed in Table 2.
424	
425	Supplemental Material
426	Table S1. Annotated ICEs in the strains. (excel file)
427	
428	Author contributions
429	JX conceived and designed study. JX, DP, YL,QX collected genome data and performed data
430	analysis. JX and AN wrote the manuscript.
431	
432	Acknowledgements
433	This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health [SC1AI112786 to J.X.] and
434	the National Science Foundation [No. 1633330 to J.X.] and CDC program funds designated
435	for the study of emerging infectious agents. The content is solely the responsibility of the

authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/402107; this version posted August 28, 2018. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.

- 437 Health and the National Science Foundation, and the Centers for Disease Control and
- 438 Prevention. Mention of company names or products does not constitute endorsement.
- 439 Funding for open access charge: National Institutes of Health [SC1AI112786].

440

441 CONFLICT OF INTEREST

- 442 None declared.
- 443

444 **REFERENCES**

- 1. Kim KK, Kim MK, Lim JH, Park HY, Lee ST. 2005. Transfer of Chryseobacterium
- 446 meningosepticum and Chryseobacterium miricola to Elizabethkingia gen. nov. as
- 447 Elizabethkingia meningoseptica comb. nov. and Elizabethkingia miricola comb. nov.
- 448 Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 55:1287-93.
- King EO. 1959. Studies on a group of previously unclassified bacteria associated with
 meningitis in infants. Am J Clin Pathol 31:241-7.
- 451 3. Li Y, Kawamura Y, Fujiwara N, Naka T, Liu H, Huang X, Kobayashi K, Ezaki T.
- 452 2003. Chryseobacterium miricola sp. nov., a novel species isolated from condensation
 453 water of space station Mir. Syst Appl Microbiol 26:523-8.
- 454 4. Kampfer P, Matthews H, Glaeser SP, Martin K, Lodders N, Faye I. 2011.
- 455 Elizabethkingia anophelis sp. nov., isolated from the midgut of the mosquito
- 456 Anopheles gambiae. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 61:2670-5.
- 457 5. Lindh JM, Borg-Karlson AK, Faye I. 2008. Transstadial and horizontal transfer of
- 458 bacteria within a colony of Anopheles gambiae (Diptera: Culicidae) and oviposition
- response to bacteria-containing water. Acta Trop 107:242-50.

460	6.	Kampfer P, Busse HJ, McInroy JA, Glaeser SP. 2015. Elizabethkingia endophytica sp.
461		nov., isolated from Zea mays and emended description of Elizabethkingia
462		anophelisKampfer et al. 2011. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 65:2187-93.
463	7.	Doijad S, Ghosh H, Glaeser S, Kampfer P, Chakraborty T. 2016. Taxonomic
464		reassessment of the genus Elizabethkingia using whole-genome sequencing:
465		Elizabethkingia endophytica Kampfer et al. 2015 is a later subjective synonym of
466		Elizabethkingia anophelis Kampfer et al. 2011. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol 66:4555-
467		4559.
468	8.	Nicholson AC, Gulvik CA, Whitney AM, Humrighouse BW, Graziano J, Emery B,
469		Bell M, Loparev V, Juieng P, Gartin J, Bizet C, Clermont D, Criscuolo A, Brisse S,
470		McQuiston JR. 2017. Revisiting the taxonomy of the genus Elizabethkingia using
471		whole-genome sequencing, optical mapping, and MALDI-TOF, along with proposal
472		of three novel Elizabethkingia species: Elizabethkingia bruuniana sp. nov.,
473		Elizabethkingia ursingii sp. nov., and Elizabethkingia occulta sp. nov. Antonie Van
474		Leeuwenhoek doi:10.1007/s10482-017-0926-3.
475	9.	Frank T, Gody JC, Nguyen LB, Berthet N, Le Fleche-Mateos A, Bata P, Rafai C,
476		Kazanji M, Breurec S. 2013. First case of Elizabethkingia anophelis meningitis in the
477		Central African Republic. Lancet 381:1876.
478	10.	Teo J, Tan SY, Tay M, Ding Y, Kjelleberg S, Givskov M, Lin RT, Yang L. 2013.
479		First case of E anophelis outbreak in an intensive-care unit. Lancet 382:855-6.
480	11.	Lau SK, Wu AK, Teng JL, Tse H, Curreem SO, Tsui SK, Huang Y, Chen JH, Lee RA,
481		Yuen KY, Woo PC. 2015. Evidence for Elizabethkingia anophelis transmission from
482		mother to infant, Hong Kong. Emerg Infect Dis 21:232-41.
483	12.	Figueroa Castro CE, Johnson C, Williams M, VanDerSlik A, Graham MB, Letzer D,
484		Ledeboer N, Buchan BW, Block T, Borlaug G, Munoz-Price LS. 2017.

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/402107; this version posted August 28, 2018. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.

485		Elizabethkingia anophelis: Clinical Experience of an Academic Health System in
486		Southeastern Wisconsin. Open Forum Infect Dis 4:ofx251.
487	13.	Navon L, Clegg WJ, Morgan J, Austin C, McQuiston JR, Blaney DD, Walters MS,
488		Moulton-Meissner H, Nicholson A. 2016. Notes from the Field: Investigation of
489		Elizabethkingia anophelis Cluster - Illinois, 2014-2016. MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly
490		Rep 65:1380-1381.
491	14.	Nicholson AC, Whitney AM, Emery BD, Bell ME, Gartin JT, Humrighouse BW,
492		Loparev VN, Batra D, Sheth M, Rowe LA, Juieng P, Knipe K, Gulvik C, McQuiston
493		JR. 2016. Complete Genome Sequences of Four Strains from the 2015-2016
494		Elizabethkingia anophelis Outbreak. Genome Announc 4.
495	15.	Hu S, Jiang T, Zhang X, Zhou Y, Yi Z, Wang Y, Zhao S, Wang M, Ming D, Chen S.
496		2017. Elizabethkingia anophelis Isolated from Patients with Multiple Organ
497		Dysfunction Syndrome and Lower Respiratory Tract Infection: Report of Two Cases
498		and Literature Review. Front Microbiol 8:382.
499	16.	Lin JN, Lai CH, Yang CH, Huang YH, Lin HH. 2017. Genomic features,
500		phylogenetic relationships, and comparative genomics of Elizabethkingia anophelis
501		strain EM361-97 isolated in Taiwan. Sci Rep 7:14317.
502	17.	Lau SK, Chow WN, Foo CH, Curreem SO, Lo GC, Teng JL, Chen JH, Ng RH, Wu
503		AK, Cheung IY, Chau SK, Lung DC, Lee RA, Tse CW, Fung KS, Que TL, Woo PC.
504		2016. Elizabethkingia anophelis bacteremia is associated with clinically significant
505		infections and high mortality. Sci Rep 6:26045.
506	18.	Janda JM, Lopez DL. 2017. Mini review: New pathogen profiles: Elizabethkingia
507		anophelis. Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis 88:201-205.

F00	10	Vuluetle D	Lindhana DC		DaviN	V., W/	Ctanit- M E	larva T	V., I	2012 T	Jun ft
508	19.	Kukuua P.	Lindberg BC	r, Pei D	, Kayi M.	ruw.	Steritz M. F	ave I	, AUJ.	2015.1	Jran

- 509 Genome Sequences of Elizabethkingia anophelis Strains R26T and Ag1 from the
- 510 Midgut of the Malaria Mosquito Anopheles gambiae. Genome Announc 1.
- 511 20. Pei D, Nicholson AC, Jiang J, Chen H, Whitney AM, Villarma A, Bell M,
- 512 Humrighouse B, Rowe LA, Sheth M, Batra D, Juieng P, Loparev VN, McQuiston JR,
- 513 Lan Y, Ma Y, Xu J. 2017. Complete Circularized Genome Sequences of Four Strains
- of Elizabethkingia anophelis, Including Two Novel Strains Isolated from Wild-
- 515 Caught Anopheles sinensis. Genome Announc 5.
- 516 21. Raygoza Garay JA, Hughes GL, Koundal V, Rasgon JL, Mwangi MM. 2016. Genome
- 517 Sequence of Elizabethkingia anophelis Strain EaAs1, Isolated from the Asian Malaria
 518 Mosquito Anopheles stephensi. Genome Announc 4.
- 519 22. Georgiades K. 2012. Genomics of epidemic pathogens. Clin Microbiol Infect 18:213520 7.
- 521 23. Raskin DM, Seshadri R, Pukatzki SU, Mekalanos JJ. 2006. Bacterial genomics and
 522 pathogen evolution. Cell 124:703-14.
- 523 24. Worby CJ, Lipsitch M, Hanage WP. 2017. Shared Genomic Variants: Identification
 524 of Transmission Routes Using Pathogen Deep-Sequence Data. Am J Epidemiol
 525 186:1209-1216.
- 526 25. Hu R, Yuan J, Meng Y, Wang Z, Gu Z. 2017. Pathogenic Elizabethkingia miricola
 527 Infection in Cultured Black-Spotted Frogs, China, 2016. Emerg Infect Dis 23:2055528 2059.
- Peter S, Oberhettinger P, Schuele L, Dinkelacker A, Vogel W, Dorfel D, Bezdan D,
 Ossowski S, Marschal M, Liese J, Willmann M. 2017. Genomic characterisation of
 clinical and environmental Pseudomonas putida group strains and determination of

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/402107; this version posted August 28, 2018. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.

532		their role in the transfer of antimicrobial resistance genes to Pseudomonas aeruginosa.
533		BMC Genomics 18:859.
534	27.	Bellanger X, Payot S, Leblond-Bourget N, Guedon G. 2014. Conjugative and
535		mobilizable genomic islands in bacteria: evolution and diversity. FEMS Microbiol
536		Rev 38:720-60.
537	28.	Cury J, Touchon M, Rocha EPC. 2017. Integrative and conjugative elements and their
538		hosts: composition, distribution and organization. Nucleic Acids Res 45:8943-8956.
539	29.	Guglielmini J, Quintais L, Garcillan-Barcia MP, de la Cruz F, Rocha EP. 2011. The
540		repertoire of ICE in prokaryotes underscores the unity, diversity, and ubiquity of
541		conjugation. PLoS Genet 7:e1002222.
542	30.	Wozniak RA, Fouts DE, Spagnoletti M, Colombo MM, Ceccarelli D, Garriss G, Dery
543		C, Burrus V, Waldor MK. 2009. Comparative ICE genomics: insights into the
544		evolution of the SXT/R391 family of ICEs. PLoS Genet 5:e1000786.
545	31.	Wozniak RA, Waldor MK. 2010. Integrative and conjugative elements: mosaic
546		mobile genetic elements enabling dynamic lateral gene flow. Nat Rev Microbiol
547		8:552-63.
548	32.	Johnson CM, Grossman AD. 2015. Integrative and Conjugative Elements (ICEs):
549		What They Do and How They Work. Annu Rev Genet 49:577-601.
550	33.	Colombi E, Straub C, Kunzel S, Templeton MD, McCann HC, Rainey PB. 2017.
551		Evolution of copper resistance in the kiwifruit pathogen Pseudomonas syringae pv.
552		actinidiae through acquisition of integrative conjugative elements and plasmids.
553		Environ Microbiol 19:819-832.
554	34.	Sugimoto M, Watada M, Jung SW, Graham DY, Yamaoka Y. 2012. Role of
555		Helicobacter pylori plasticity region genes in development of gastroduodenal diseases.
556		J Clin Microbiol 50:441-8.

557	35.	Teo J. Tan SY	. Liu Y. Ta	v M. Ding Y	Y, Li Y, Kjelleberg S	. Givskov M	. Lin RT. Yang
		1000, 1010	, DIG I , I G	,,	$1, \pm 1, \pm 1, \pm 1$, 01,010, 1,1	,,

- L. 2014. Comparative genomic analysis of malaria mosquito vector-associated novel
 pathogen Elizabethkingia anophelis. Genome Biol Evol 6:1158-65.
- 560 36. Li Y, Liu Y, Chew SC, Tay M, Salido MM, Teo J, Lauro FM, Givskov M, Yang L.
- 561 2015. Complete Genome Sequence and Transcriptomic Analysis of the Novel
- 562 Pathogen Elizabethkingia anophelis in Response to Oxidative Stress. Genome Biol
 563 Evol 7:1676-85.
- 564 37. Kukutla P, Lindberg BG, Pei D, Rayl M, Yu W, Steritz M, Faye I, Xu J. 2014.
- Insights from the genome annotation of Elizabethkingia anophelis from the malariavector Anopheles gambiae. PLoS One 9:e97715.
- 567 38. Chew KL, Cheng B, Lin RTP, Teo JWP. 2018. Elizabethkingia anophelis Is the
 568 Dominant Elizabethkingia Species Found in Blood Cultures in Singapore. J Clin
 569 Microbiol 56.
- 39. Breurec S, Criscuolo A, Diancourt L, Rendueles O, Vandenbogaert M, Passet V, Caro
 V, Rocha EP, Touchon M, Brisse S. 2016. Genomic epidemiology and global
- diversity of the emerging bacterial pathogen Elizabethkingia anophelis. Sci Rep6:30379.
- 40. Perrin A, Larsonneur E, Nicholson AC, Edwards DJ, Gundlach KM, Whitney AM,
- 575 Gulvik CA, Bell ME, Rendueles O, Cury J, Hugon P, Clermont D, Enouf V, Loparev
- 576 V, Juieng P, Monson T, Warshauer D, Elbadawi LI, Walters MS, Crist MB, Noble-
- 577 Wang J, Borlaug G, Rocha EPC, Criscuolo A, Touchon M, Davis JP, Holt KE,
- 578 McQuiston JR, Brisse S. 2017. Evolutionary dynamics and genomic features of the
- 579 Elizabethkingia anophelis 2015 to 2016 Wisconsin outbreak strain. Nat Commun
- **580** 8:15483.

- 581 41. Deurenberg RH, Bathoorn E, Chlebowicz MA, Couto N, Ferdous M, Garcia-Cobos S,
- 582 Kooistra-Smid AM, Raangs EC, Rosema S, Veloo AC, Zhou K, Friedrich AW,
- Rossen JW. 2017. Application of next generation sequencing in clinical microbiologyand infection prevention. J Biotechnol 243:16-24.
- Tagini F, Greub G. 2017. Bacterial genome sequencing in clinical microbiology: a
 pathogen-oriented review. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis 36:2007-2020.
- Vernikos G, Medini D, Riley DR, Tettelin H. 2015. Ten years of pan-genome
 analyses. Curr Opin Microbiol 23:148-54.
- 44. Robinson ER, Walker TM, Pallen MJ. 2013. Genomics and outbreak investigation:
 from sequence to consequence. Genome Med 5:36.
- 591 45. Sun G, Wang L, Bao C, Li T, Ma L, Chen L. 2015. Complete Genome Sequence of
 592 Elizabethkingia meningoseptica, Isolated from a T-Cell Non-Hodgkin's Lymphoma
 593 Patient. Genome Announc 3.
- 46. Medini D, Donati C, Tettelin H, Masignani V, Rappuoli R. 2005. The microbial pangenome. Curr Opin Genet Dev 15:589-94.
- 596 47. Tettelin H, Masignani V, Cieslewicz MJ, Donati C, Medini D, Ward NL, Angiuoli SV,
- 597 Crabtree J, Jones AL, Durkin AS, Deboy RT, Davidsen TM, Mora M, Scarselli M,
- 598 Margarit y Ros I, Peterson JD, Hauser CR, Sundaram JP, Nelson WC, Madupu R,
- 599 Brinkac LM, Dodson RJ, Rosovitz MJ, Sullivan SA, Daugherty SC, Haft DH,
- 600 Selengut J, Gwinn ML, Zhou L, Zafar N, Khouri H, Radune D, Dimitrov G, Watkins
- 601 K, O'Connor KJ, Smith S, Utterback TR, White O, Rubens CE, Grandi G, Madoff LC,
- Kasper DL, Telford JL, Wessels MR, Rappuoli R, Fraser CM. 2005. Genome analysis
- of multiple pathogenic isolates of Streptococcus agalactiae: implications for the
- microbial "pan-genome". Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 102:13950-5.

605	48.	Leekitcharoen	phon P.	Kaas RS.	Thomsen MC	Friis C	Rasmussen S.	Aarestru	p FM.

- 606
 2012. snpTree--a web-server to identify and construct SNP trees from whole genome
- sequence data. BMC Genomics 13 Suppl 7:S6.
- 49. Treangen TJ, Ondov BD, Koren S, Phillippy AM. 2014. The Harvest suite for rapid
 core-genome alignment and visualization of thousands of intraspecific microbial
- 610 genomes. Genome Biol 15:524.
- 50. Seaver LC, Imlay JA. 2001. Alkyl hydroperoxide reductase is the primary scavenger
 of endogenous hydrogen peroxide in Escherichia coli. J Bacteriol 183:7173-81.
- 613 51. Oliveira PH, Touchon M, Rocha EP. 2014. The interplay of restriction-modification
- 614 systems with mobile genetic elements and their prokaryotic hosts. Nucleic Acids Res615 42:10618-31.
- 52. Venter H, Mowla R, Ohene-Agyei T, Ma S. 2015. RND-type drug e ffl ux pumps
 from Gram-negative bacteria: molecular mechanism and inhibition. Front Microbiol
- **618 6:377**.
- 619 53. Mohanraju P, Makarova KS, Zetsche B, Zhang F, Koonin EV, van der Oost J. 2016.
- Diverse evolutionary roots and mechanistic variations of the CRISPR-Cas systems.Science 353:aad5147.
- 622 54. Koonin EV, Makarova KS, Zhang F. 2017. Diversity, classification and evolution of
 623 CRISPR-Cas systems. Curr Opin Microbiol 37:67-78.
- 55. Bobossi-Serengbe G, Gody JC, Beyam NE, Bercion R. 2006. [First documented case
 of Chryseobacterium meningosepticum meningitis in Central African Republic]. Med
 Trop (Mars) 66:182-4.
- 56. Bentley SD, Parkhill J. 2015. Genomic perspectives on the evolution and spread of
 bacterial pathogens. Proc Biol Sci 282:20150488.

629	57.	Mira A, Martin-Cuadrado AB, D'Auria G, Rodriguez-Valera F. 2010. The bacterial
630		pan-genome: a new paradigm in microbiology. Int Microbiol 13:45-57.
631	58.	Wang Y, Gilbreath TM, 3rd, Kukutla P, Yan G, Xu J. 2011. Dynamic gut microbiome
632		across life history of the malaria mosquito Anopheles gambiae in Kenya. PLoS One
633		6:e24767.
634	59.	Telang A, Skinner J, Nemitz RZ, McClure AM. 2018. Metagenome and Culture-
635		Based Methods Reveal Candidate Bacterial Mutualists in the Southern House
636		Mosquito (Diptera: Culicidae). J Med Entomol doi:10.1093/jme/tjy056.
637	60.	Terenius O, Lindh JM, Eriksson-Gonzales K, Bussiere L, Laugen AT, Bergquist H,
638		Titanji K, Faye I. 2012. Midgut bacterial dynamics in Aedes aegypti. FEMS
639		Microbiol Ecol 80:556-65.
640	61.	Burrus V, Waldor MK. 2004. Shaping bacterial genomes with integrative and
641		conjugative elements. Res Microbiol 155:376-86.
642	62.	Malanowska K, Salyers AA, Gardner JF. 2006. Characterization of a conjugative
643		transposon integrase, IntDOT. Mol Microbiol 60:1228-40.
644	63.	Nguyen M, Vedantam G. 2011. Mobile genetic elements in the genus Bacteroides,
645		and their mechanism(s) of dissemination. Mob Genet Elements 1:187-196.
646	64.	Wang Y, Wang GR, Shelby A, Shoemaker NB, Salyers AA. 2003. A newly
647		discovered Bacteroides conjugative transposon, CTnGERM1, contains genes also
648		found in gram-positive bacteria. Appl Environ Microbiol 69:4595-603.
649	65.	Laprise J, Yoneji S, Gardner JF. 2013. IntDOT interactions with core sites during
650		integrative recombination. J Bacteriol 195:1883-91.
651	66.	Whittle G, Shoemaker NB, Salyers AA. 2002. Characterization of genes involved in
652		modulation of conjugal transfer of the Bacteroides conjugative transposon CTnDOT.
653		J Bacteriol 184:3839-47.

654	67.	Waters JL, Salyers AA. 2013. Regulation of CTnDOT conjugative transfer is a
655		complex and highly coordinated series of events. MBio 4:e00569-13.
656	68.	Wood MM, Gardner JF. 2015. The Integration and Excision of CTnDOT. Microbiol
657		Spectr 3:MDNA3-0020-2014.
658	69.	Guglielmini J, Neron B, Abby SS, Garcillan-Barcia MP, de la Cruz F, Rocha EP.
659		2014. Key components of the eight classes of type IV secretion systems involved in
660		bacterial conjugation or protein secretion. Nucleic Acids Res 42:5715-27.
661	70.	Au KG, Clark S, Miller JH, Modrich P. 1989. Escherichia coli mutY gene encodes an
662		adenine glycosylase active on G-A mispairs. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 86:8877-81.
663	71.	Michaels ML, Pham L, Nghiem Y, Cruz C, Miller JH. 1990. MutY, an adenine
664		glycosylase active on G-A mispairs, has homology to endonuclease III. Nucleic Acids
665		Res 18:3841-5.
666	72.	Murray NE. 2000. Type I restriction systems: sophisticated molecular machines (a
667		legacy of Bertani and Weigle). Microbiol Mol Biol Rev 64:412-34.
668	73.	Nikaido H, Pages JM. 2012. Broad-specificity efflux pumps and their role in
669		multidrug resistance of Gram-negative bacteria. FEMS Microbiol Rev 36:340-63.
670	74.	Gallegos MT, Schleif R, Bairoch A, Hofmann K, Ramos JL. 1997. Arac/XylS family
671		of transcriptional regulators. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev 61:393-410.
672	75.	Yang J, Tauschek M, Robins-Browne RM. 2011. Control of bacterial virulence by
673		AraC-like regulators that respond to chemical signals. Trends Microbiol 19:128-35.
674	76.	Tan A, Petty NK, Hocking D, Bennett-Wood V, Wakefield M, Praszkier J, Tauschek
675		M, Yang J, Robins-Browne R. 2015. Evolutionary adaptation of an AraC-like
676		regulatory protein in Citrobacter rodentium and Escherichia species. Infect Immun
677		83:1384-95.

678	77.	Tobes R, Ramos JL. 2002. AraC-XylS database: a family of positive transcriptional
679		regulators in bacteria. Nucleic Acids Res 30:318-21.
680	78.	Koonin EV, Makarova KS. 2017. Mobile Genetic Elements and Evolution of
681		CRISPR-Cas Systems: All the Way There and Back. Genome Biol Evol 9:2812-2825.
682	79.	Laanto E, Hoikkala V, Ravantti J, Sundberg LR. 2017. Long-term genomic
683		coevolution of host-parasite interaction in the natural environment. Nat Commun
684		8:111.
685	80.	Castillo D, Christiansen RH, Dalsgaard I, Madsen L, Middelboe M. 2015.
686		Bacteriophage resistance mechanisms in the fish pathogen Flavobacterium
687		psychrophilum: linking genomic mutations to changes in bacterial virulence factors.
688		Appl Environ Microbiol 81:1157-67.
689	81.	Overbeek R, Olson R, Pusch GD, Olsen GJ, Davis JJ, Disz T, Edwards RA, Gerdes S,
690		Parrello B, Shukla M, Vonstein V, Wattam AR, Xia F, Stevens R. 2014. The SEED
691		and the Rapid Annotation of microbial genomes using Subsystems Technology
692		(RAST). Nucleic Acids Res 42:D206-14.
693	82.	Burrus V, Pavlovic G, Decaris B, Guedon G. 2002. Conjugative transposons: the tip
694		of the iceberg. Mol Microbiol 46:601-10.
695		
696		
697		
698		
699		
700		
701		

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/402107; this version posted August 28, 2018. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.

702	
703	
704	
705	
706	
707	
708	
709	
710	
711	
712	
713	
714	
715	TABLE AND FIGURES LEGENDS
716	
717	Table 1. Elizabethkingia anophelis strains in the study
718	
719	Table 2. Types of ICEs identified in the strains
720	
721	
722	Figure 1. Evolutionary relationship and geographic locations of the strains. (A) The
723	phylogenetic was tree derived from the core genome SNP comparison. Circles A-E
724	demonstrate the protein identity between the genomes in the corresponding clades. The

colour represents the percent identity when a genome was compared to the reference genome.

(B) Geographic distribution of the strains. The letters correspond to the clades in part A of

this figure.

Figure 2. Schematic view of the architecture of conjugation modular genes in the three
types of ICEs.

730

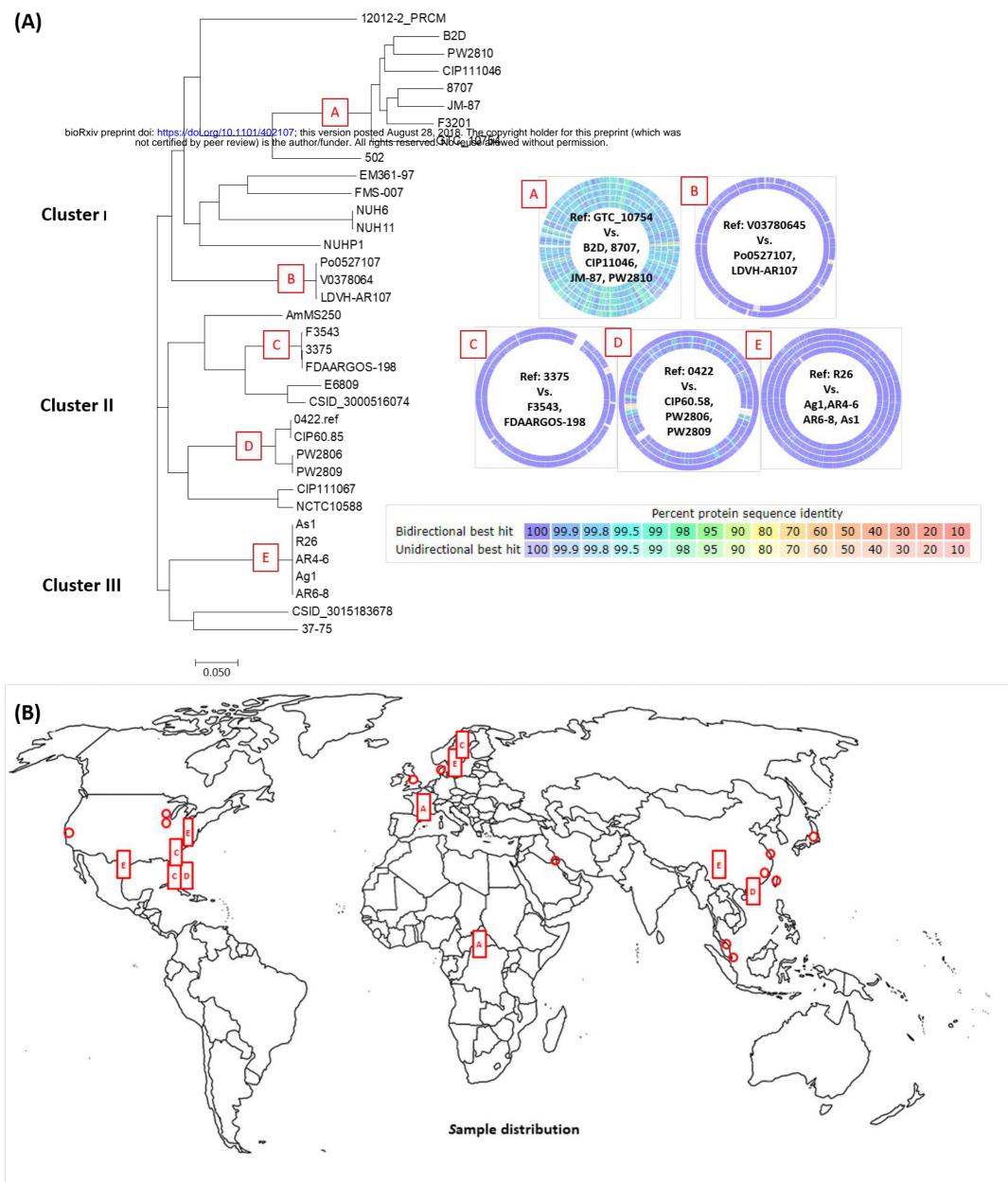
Figure 3. Integration sites of ICEs in different strains. (A) Location of the ICE*Ea*I
integration sites. (B) Location of the tRNA genes where ICE*Ea*II and ICE*Ea*III integrated.
The ICE types were color-coded. Refer to Table 2 for strain information.

Figure 4. Phylogenetic relationship of the genes *T4CP, relaxase, TraG* and *TraJ*. The nucleotide sequences from different ICEs were aligned and the evolutionary history was inferred using the Neighbor-Joining method. The evolutionary distances were computed using different models to reconstruct the phylogenetic trees with the bootstrap test using 1000 replicates, which generated similar tree topology. The consensus trees generated using Kimura 2-parameter model were presented. The bootstrap values were shown on the node.

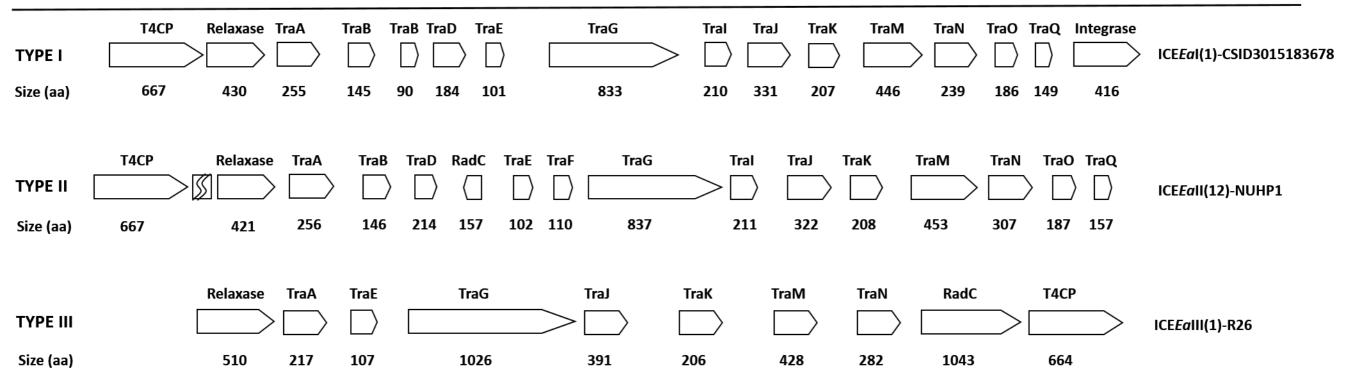
740

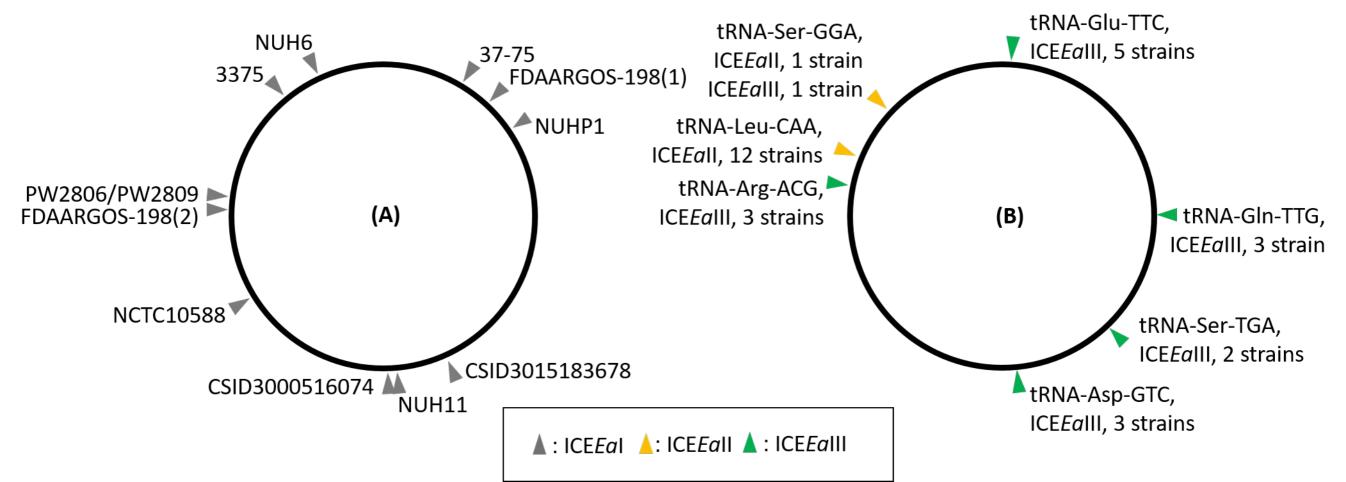
741

742



Туре





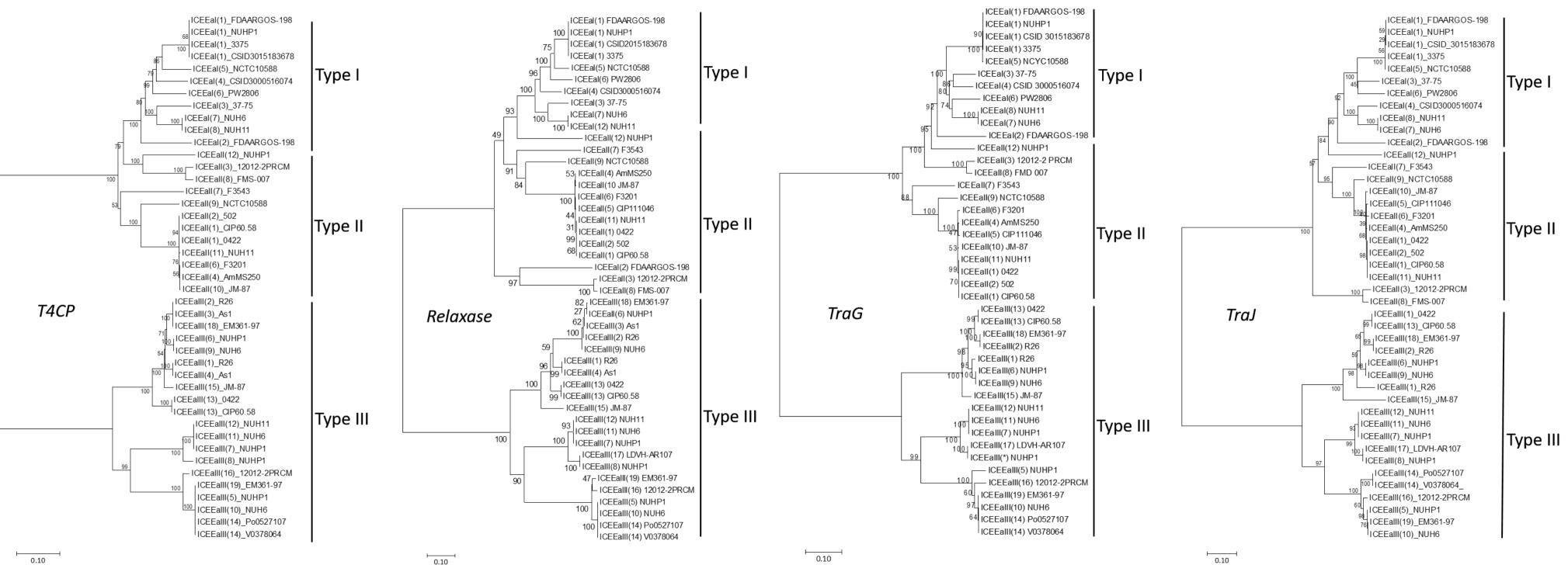


Table 2. Types of ICEs identified in the strains

Element	Strain	Integration site	Size (nt)	ICE TPA GenBank accession
ICEEaI(1)	3375	Siroheme synthase and HP	63,549	BK010586
ICEEaI(1)	CSID3015183678	Inside mutY	62,894	BK010587
ICEEaI(1)	FDAARGOS-198	EngB and ElaA	62,860	BK010588
ICEEaI(1)	NUHP1	SlyD and HP	62,960	BK010589
ICEEaI(2)	FDAARGOS-198	TonB receptor and HP	69,029	BK010590
ICEEaI(3)	37-75	Inside Ahp	65,419	Not available**
ICEEaI(4)	CSID3000516074	HP and LuxR TF	97,160	BK010591
ICEEaI(5)	NCTC10588	Macrolide-efflux protein and LytR/AlgR TR	81,809	Not available**
ICEEaI(6)	PW2806, PW2809	Efflux protein and peptidase	79,842	BK010592
ICEEaI(7)	NUH6	TomB receptor and HP	59,635	BK010593
ICEEaI(8)	NUH11	tRNA-Asp-GTC*	95,803	BK010594
ICEEaII(1)	0422	tRNA-Leu-CAA	63,840	BK010595
ICEEaII(1)	CIP60.58	tRNA-Leu-CAA	63,840	BK010596
ICEEaII(2)	502	tRNA-Leu-CAA	>34270	BK010597
ICEEaII(3)	12012-2 PRCM	tRNA-Leu-CAA	>56734	BK010598
ICEEaII(4)	AmMS250	tRNA-Leu-CAA	>64773	Not available**
ICEEaII(5)	CIP111046	tRNA-Leu-CAA	>22876	BK010599
ICEEaII(6)	F3201	tRNA-Leu-CAA	91,608	BK010600
ICEEaII(7)	F3543	tRNA-Leu-CAA	104,603	BK010601
ICEEaII(8)	FMS-007	tRNA-Leu-CAA	73,167	BK010602
ICEEaII(9)	NCTC10588	tRNA-Leu-CAA	67,087	Not available**
ICEEaII(10)	JM-87	tRNA-Leu-CAA	36,967	BK010603
ICEEaII(11)	NUH11	tRNA-Leu-CAA	>36957	BK010604
ICEEaII(12)	NUHP1	tRNA-Ser-GGA	71,591	BK010605
ICEEaIII(1)	R26, Ag1, Ar4-6, AR6-8	tRNA-Ser-TGA	101,692	BK010606
ICEEaIII(2)	R26, Ag1, Ar4-6, AR6-8	tRNA-Arg-ACG	77,358	BK010607
ICEEaIII(3)	As1	tRNA-Arg-ACG	>44,888	BK010608
ICEEaIII(4)	As1	tRNA-Ser-TGA	>31,354	BK010609
ICEEaIII(5)	NUHP1	tRNA-Glu-TTC	60,900	BK010610
ICEEaIII(6)	NUHP1	tRNA-Glu-TTC	74,499	BK010611
ICEEaIII(7)	NUHP1	tRNA-Asp-GTC	116,331	BK010625
ICEEaIII(8)	NUHP1	tRNA-Asp-GTC	109,040	BK010626
ICEEaIII(9)	NUH6	tRNA-Gln-TTG	>30166	BK010612
ICEEaIII(10)	NUH6	tRNA-Glu-TTC	>33929	BK010623
ICEEaIII(11)	NUH6	tRNA-Asp-GTC	>98049	BK010613
ICEEaIII(12)	NUH11	Beta-lactamase*	84,534	BK010614
ICEEaIII(13)	0422	tRNA-Gln-TTG	67,662	BK010615
ICEEaIII(13)	CIP60.58	tRNA-Gln-TTG	66,636	BK010616
ICEEaIII(14)	Po0527107	tRNA-Glu-TTC	>31721	BK010617
ICEEaIII(14)	V0378064	tRNA-Glu-TTC	>37189	BK010618
ICEEaIII(15)	JM-87	tRNA-Ser-TGA	73,828	BK010624
ICEEaIII(16)	12012-2 PRCM	tRNA-Glu-TTC	>31732	BK010619
ICEEaIII(17)	LDVH-AR107	not determined	>24456	BK010620
ICEEaIII(18)	EM361-97	tRNA-Arg-ACG	69,393	BK010621

*Two elements in NUH11 combine together and integrate between tRNA-Asp-GTC and beta-lactamase. ** There are no assemblies in the NCBI database for these four strains. So we did not submit third party annotation (TPA) for these genomes to the GenBank. >: elements were partially assembled.

 Table 1. Elizabethkingia anophelis strains in the study

WGS Accession No.	Level	Lineage	Strain	Source	Region	Collection Time	ICE type (n) ^a	$\begin{array}{c} \text{CRISPR} \\ (n)^{\text{b}} \end{array}$
ERS1197909 ^c	Draft	Π	AmMS250/CIP104057	Human patient	US	1994	II (1)	No
CP023010.1	Complete	Π	FDAARGOS-198	Human patient	Sweden	Unknown	I (2)	No
MAHA01	Draft	II	CSID 3000516074	Human patient	Illinois, US	2016	I (1)	No
CP016373.1	Complete	Π	3375	Human patient	South Carolina, US	1957	I (1)	No
MAHS01	Draft	II	E6809	Human patient	California, US	1979	II (1)	No
CP014340.1	Complete	II	F3543	Human patient	Florida, US	1982	II (1)	No
CP016370.1	Complete	II	0422	Human patient	Florida, US	1950	II (1), III (1)	No
FTQY01	Draft	Π	CIP60.58	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	II (1), III (1)	No
CBYD01	Draft	Π	PW2806	Human patient	Hong Kong	2012	I (1)	No
CBYE01	Draft	Π	PW2809	Human patient	Hong Kong	2012	I (1)	No
ERS605480 ^c	Draft	Π	NCTC10588	Human patient	US	1959	I (1), II (1)	No
FTQZ01	Draft	Π	CIP111067	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	No ICE	Yes (37)
CP014805.2	Complete	III	CSID 3015183678	Human patient	Wisconsin, US	2016	I (1)	No
ERS1197911 ^c	Draft	III	37-75/CIP79.29	Human patient	St Nazaire, France	1979	I (1)	No
CP023401.1	Complete	III	R26	Mosquito An. gambiae	Stockholm, Sweden	2005	III (2)	No
CP023402.1	Complete	III	Ag1	Mosquito An. gambiae	New Mexico, US	2012	III (2)	No
CP023404.1	Complete	III	AR4-6	Mosquito An. sinensis	Sichuan, China	2015	III (2)	No
CP023403.1	Complete	III	AR6-8	Mosquito An. sinensis	Sichuan, China	2015	III (2)	No
LFKT01	Draft	III	As1	Mosquito An. stephensi	Pennsylvania, US	2015	III (2) I (1), II (1), III	No
CP007547.1	Complete	Ι	NUHP1	Human patient	Singapore	2012	(4)	No
ASYJ01	Draft	Ι	NUH6	Human patient	Singapore	2012	I (1), III (3) I (1), II (1), III	No
ASYK01	Draft	Ι	NUH11	Human patient	Singapore	2012	(1)	No
CCAC01	Draft	Ι	Po0527107	Human patient	Central African Republic	2006	III (1)	Yes (21)
CCAB01	Draft	Ι	V0378064	Human patient	Central African Republic	2011	III (1)	Yes (23)
FTPG01	Draft	Ι	LDVH-AR107	Common carp Cyprinus carpio	Montpellier, France	2004	III (1)	Yes (42)
CP006576.1	Complete	Ι	FMS-007	Human patient	China	2015	II (1)	Yes (15)
LWDS01	Draft	Ι	EM361-97	Human patient	Taiwan	2000s	III (1)	No
AVCQ01	Draft	Ι	502	Human patient	Birmingham, UK	2012	II (1)	No
CP016374.1	Complete	Ι	F3201	Human patient	Kuwait	1982	II (1)	No
CP016372.1	Complete	Ι	JM-87	Corn Zea mays	Alabama, US	2011	II (1), III (1)	No
ERS1197907 ^c	Draft	Ι	8707/CIP78.9	Human patient	NY, US	1962	No ICE	Yes
JNCG01	Draft	Ι	B2D	Human patient	Malaysia	2013	No ICE	No

FTRB01	Draft	Ι	CIP111046	Human patient	Unknown	Unknown	II (1)	Yes (6)
CBYF01	Draft	Ι	PW2010	Human patient	Hong Kong	2012	No ICE	Yes (27)
DRS013860	Draft	Ι	GTC_10754	Unknown	Japan	2014	No ICE	Yes (32)
LPXG01	Draft	Ι	12012-2 PRCM	Human patient	Fujian, China	2009	II (1), III (1)	No

^an: number of the ICEs in the type. ^bn: number of the spacers in the CRISPR locus. ^c There are no assemblies in the NCBI database for these four strains. We assembled the genomes from Illumina reads directly.