# Identification of $\Delta TOM1$ suppressors in S. Cerevisiae

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#### Introduction

The budding yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae (S.cerevisiae) is a single-celled lower eukaryote belonging to the kingdom of fungi. Ever since its discovery, S.cerevisae has nourished human advancements in the field of fermented food products, alcoholic beverages, and nowadays, the production of biofuel. Beyond its contributions to industrial fermentation, S.cerevisiae has become one of the most popular model organism in eukaryotic biology, due to its simple cellular architecture, cheap maintenance cost, fast growth, and homologies to human cells [1]. Since the genome of S.cerevisiae is fully sequenced, relatively small, virtually free of intronic DNA, this microorganism is ideally suited for genetic analyses.

In this project, we focused on identifying novel mutations that may suppress the phenotypic alteration caused by the deletion of the gene Trigger of mitosis, abbreviated TOM1. TOM1 is a gene located on chromosome 4 and codes for a Hect-domain E3 ubiquitin ligase [2]. Utsugi and colleagues found that mutations in the Hect-domain of TOM1, which is necessary for thioesterbond formation with ubiquitin, or the entire deletion of the gene rendered S.cerevisiae unable to grow at high temperatures [2]. The authors found that S.cerevisiae with mutated TOM1 exhibited an abnormally large nucleus containing duplicated DNA, fragmented nucleoli, accumulation of poly(A)+RNA in the nucleus, and cell cycle arrest at G2/M, suggesting that the disruption of TOM1 had a severe impact on nuclear transport and cell division. Later it was shown that TOM1 was targeting DIA2 and CDC6 for proteasomal degradation during G1 and G2/M phases [3], confirming that TOM1 is involved in the regulation of the cell cycle.

Furthermore, TOM1 has been found to play an integral role in the regulation of proteostasis by ubiquitinating highly basic histone proteins [4] and various unassembled ribosomal proteins of the large and small subunit (RPL and RPS, respectively) [5]. This demonstrates that the deletion of TOM1 (termed  $\Delta TOM1$ ) has a highly pleiotropic effect on the phenotype of S.cerevisiae under heat stress. To date, several extragenic suppressors of  $\Delta TOM1$  have been identified that restore the ability of S.cerevisiae to grow at high temperatures, such as deletion of DIA2 [3], overexpression of STM1 [6], as well as genes that are linked to down-regulation of the cAMP/PKA pathway [7]. The aim of this study was to identify potential new extragenic suppressors of  $\Delta TOM1$  in six strains of S.cerevisiae that were derived from YDK1364. While YDK1364 is unable to grow under heat stress due to the deletion of TOM1, the tested strains partially regained the ability to grow at high temperatures due to the accumulation of random mutations. The six strains were sequenced and potential mutations associated with the revertant phenotype were identified using a bioinformatic pipeline. We found one known suppressor of  $\Delta TOM1$ , as well as some new candidates that were mostly associated with the RPL and RPS gene family.

## Methods

Sequencing and quality control of raw data Yeast samples were sequenced by Illumina Sequencing Technology (Illumina, SanDiego, CA, USA). As next-throughput sequencing is not infallible and sequencing errors cannot be avoided, we used FastQC to perform various quality checks of raw sequence data to ensure good quality and avoid biased data. Quality checks of FastQC, include sequence quality, GC content, failed base call content (N content), and Kmer content.

Quality control of reads After the quality control check, *trimmomatic* [8] was used with the given parameters of MINLEN: 130 to trim down the bad quality ends of the reads, keeping at least 130bp of the trimmed read, and the parameter SLIDINGWINDOW:4:15, thus removing the reads that have an average base pair quality score lower than 15. The next step was to check whether the quality of the data has improved after the trimming process, by using again FastQC, on the filtered fasta file output.

Sequence alignment against reference The fasta files containing the filtered reads were mapped to the reference genome Assembly R64-1-1.92. In a first step, the reference genome was indexed by the bwa (Burrows-Wheeler Aligner) index tool [9]. Subsequently, the bwa mem tool was used to map the sequenced reads to the reference genome. The output files of the bwa tool were converted into the SAM file [10].

Variant calling and annotation First, samtools view was used to convert the SAM files into BAM files, which is a compressed binary format. In the next step, the BAM files were sorted using samtools sort. This has been done using samtools mpileup, that took our reference file, and the aligned BAM files as an input Then the output file, a binary format of the Variant Calling Format files, .bcf, was directly piped into bcftools to convert them into compressed vcf.gz files. This method was preferred considering the fact that our genome is a haploid yeast genome, and it does not need a complicated algorithm as used by the GATK pipeline. The tabix [11] tool was used on the vcf files, in order to index them properly. Annotations of the variants was done by SnpEff tool on the merged vcf files. The results were then visualized by either reading the vcf files in a spreadsheet or in IGV (Integrative Genomics Viewer).

### Results

We screened the S.cerevisae samples T5, T6, T7 and T8 for interesting mutations that could potentially be responsible for reverting the heat-sensitive phenotype of  $\Delta TOM1$  S.cerevisae strains. The sample T5 contains only one haploid strain named YDK1364 and was used as a reference (Figure 1). All strains found in T6 to T8 arose from the strain YDK1364 found in T5, but as mutations emerged in strains S1364-1 to S1364-8, these strains became more resistant to high-temperature stress (i.e.  $37^{\circ}$ C). Therefore, we excluded all mutations that co-occurred in T5 and any of the samples of interest T6 to T8. Since each of the samples is composed of two pooled haploid S.cerevisae strains (Figure 1), we excluded all homozygous mutations from further analysis, since it is highly unlikely that two strains have the same mutation suppressing the  $\Delta$ TOM1 heat sensitivity phenotype.

In this first screening approach, we included only mutations with a Phred-scaled quality score of over 200. Furthermore, we focussed on mutations that interact genetically or physically with TOM1 or genes that encode for ribosomal proteins of the large (RPL) or small (RPS) subunit, because they have observed to accumulate and form detergent-insoluble. Using our pipeline described in the Variant calling and annotation of the Methods section, we identified nine mutations that may explain why samples T6, T7, and T8 are less susceptible to high temperatures compared to our reference T5.

### Discussion

In sample T6, we found two potential high-quality mutation candidates, namely an inframe insertion in YGR160W and frameshift mutation in PMT1. On closer inspection, we found that YGR160W was flagged as a dubious gene, which is unlikely to encode a functional protein, thus in spite of the quality we discarded it from further research. In contrast, PMT1 codes for an O-mannosyltransferase that is involved in ER quality control among other things [12, 13]. As a result of the enormous global genetic interaction network that has been created by M. Constanzo

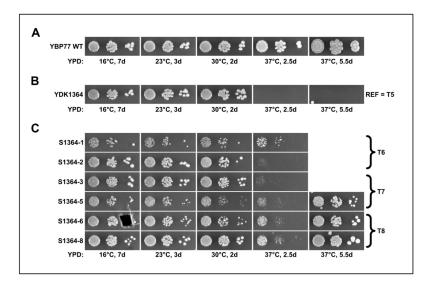


Figure 1: Growth characteristics of S.cerevisae strains cultured in Yeast Extract–Peptone–Dextrose medium (YPD) at different temperatures. Strain names are indicated on the left of the growth assay photographs. S.cerevisae cells were plated onto agar plates and were cultured for up to 7 days at increasing temperature starting from 16°C to 37°C. (A) Wildtype yeast grows well at all tested temperatures. (B) Depicted is the growth behaviour of the  $\Delta$ TOM1 strain YDK1364, which is highly sensitive to heat. (C) Growth of mutated  $\Delta$ TOM1 yeast strains derived from YDK1364 that exhibit lower heat susceptibility due to accumulation of mutations that counteract the  $\Delta$ TOM1 phenotype. Depicted are representative growth assays of the different yeast strains. Adapted from course BC.7107, UNIFR, Benjamin Pillet.

and colleagues, PMT1 has been shown to genetically interact with HAS1, which codes for an ATP-dependent RNA helicase that is involved in the biogenesis of the 40S and 60S ribosome subunits [14, 15].

In sample T7, we found an already described  $\Delta TOM1$  suppressor gene named KRE6 as well as some putative candidates that might be worth investigating in more depth. In T7, we identified a nonsense mutation in the known extragenic suppressor KRE6 of  $\Delta TOM1$ . The premature stop codon is inserted at nucleotide position 1431 of 2161, which strongly suggests that translation of the KRE6 transcript results in the formation of a truncated protein. KRE6 codes for a type II membrane protein involved in the synthesis of  $\beta$ -(1,6)-glucan, which is an essential constituent of the fungal cell wall [16,17]. In spite of the fact that the function of the KRE6 protein is not directly involved stress responses, Sasaki and colleagues found that mutation in the KRE6 gene acts as a weak suppressor of heat sensitivity mediated by TOM1 deletion [7].

Although the authors were not able to decipher the underlying mechanism responsible for restoring heat tolerance in  $\Delta TOM1$  S.cerevisae with mutated KRE6, but they concluded that the mutation may activate unknown suppressor genes of  $\Delta TOM1$ . According to the Biological General Repository for Interaction Datasets BioGRID, KRE6 has been shown to exhibit genetic interaction with TOM1 itself as well as multiple genes coding for mitochondrial and cytoplasmic ribosomal proteins of the large subunit (Table 1). Moreover, we found a missense mutation in gene KRE9, which is also involved to be involved in the synthesis of  $\beta$ -(1,6)-glucan like KRE6 protein. The deletion of KRE9 has long been known to have a deleterious effect on the growth of S.cerevisae by altering the composition of its cell wall and thus causes defects to its integrity [18]. Similar to KRE6, KRE9 also interacts with several gene coding for the small and large subunit of ribosomes (Table 1). It is also conceivable that KRE9 mutation alone or in combination with the mutation in KRE6 has an impact on the transcription of ribosomal genes and thus may passively counteract the stress response associated with the accumulation of protein related to  $\Delta TOM1$ . Another gene

Sample	Gene Name	Mutation Type	Chromosome	Interactors
Т6	YGR160W	Inframe insertion	VII	Unknown
T6	PMT1	Frameshift	IV	HAS1
Т7	KRE6	Stop gained	XVI	TOM1, RPL1B, RPL34B
Т7	KRE9	Missense	X	MRPL17, MRPL25, MRPL38, RPL10, RPL11B, RPL15A, RPL1B, RPL24A, RPL2A, RPL3
T7	ISC1	Missense	V	RPL40B
Т7	FLO9	Inframe insertion	I	IMG2, YAR1
T7	VTC4	Missense	X	TOM1 (Physical)
Т8	KRE6	Missense	XVI	TOM1, RPL1B, RPL34B
T8	ROT1	Missense	XIII	RPL4B, RPS25A

Table 1: Table depicting all heterozygous mutations found in the sample T6 to T8, which might be potential suppressors of the  $\Delta$ TOM1 phenotype. Annotation of the mutation type was done by SnpEff. With the exception of VTC4, only genetic interactions are shown. All intergenic and synonymous mutations were excluded from further analysis.

related to ribosome biogenesis was also found to be mutated in sample T7, namely ISC1, which has been reported to interact genetically with RPL40B [19]. While the protein ISC1 is not directly linked to the regulation of ribosome biosynthesis, RPL40B is involved in the maturation of the 60S ribosomal subunit [20]. Interestingly, the null mutation of ISC1 has been associated with heat sensitivity, which implies that the mutation observed in sample T7 does not yield a non-functional protein. Therefore, we concluded that the mutation in ISC1 is most likely not responsible for counteracting the heat-sensitive phenotype resulting form the deletion of TOM1. Last but not least, we also identified a mutation in a direct physical interactor of the TOM1 protein in sample T7 named VTC4, which is a component of the vacuolar transporter chaperone (VTC) complex [21]. Unfortunately, the nature of the interaction between VTC4 and TOM1 is not described and thus it is not possible to evaluate whether a mutation in this gene has an impact on the  $\Delta TOM1$  phenotype.

In T8, we observed a missense mutation in KRE6. In addition, we discovered another missense mutation in a gene named ROT1, which codes for a chaperone involved in protein folding [22]. Similar to the other gene candidates, ROT1 also interacts genetically with ribosomal genes, namely RPL4B and RPS25A.

Interestingly, most of the mutations we found in samples T6, T7, and T8 were indirectly linked to ribosomal genes. These findings are of particular interest since deletion of TOM1 S.cerevisae has been associated with an accumulation of ribosomal proteins. Under normal conditions, the E3 ubiquitin ligase TOM1 rapidly removes excess of ribosomal proteins via proteasomal degradation [5]. In conclusion, we found one known as well as seven potential new suppressors of  $\Delta TOM1$ . The known suppressor KRE6, has been found to be mutated in T7 and T8. Due to the heterozygosity of the mutation, we conclude that KRE6 may explain the partially restored capability of S.cerevisae to grow at 37°C in one of the two strains found in each sample. However, it is important to note that while the mutation in T7 introduces a additional stop codon, the spontaneous mutation in T8 only affected one amino acid and consequently affects the function of the protein to a lesser extent (Table 1) [7]. Since most of the mutated genes found in our samples were associated with biogenesis or regulation of ribosomes, it would be interesting to investigate whether these mutations suppress the accumulation of ribosomal proteins in the absence of TOM1. Taken together, our data provide the basis for further investigations aimed at clarifying whether accumulation of ribosomal proteins may be causative of the heat sensitivity of yeast lacking TOM1.

# Identification of gai phenotype revertant mutations in $Arabidopsis\ thaliana$

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## Introduction

Gibberellin, or Gibberellic Acid (GA) is a growth factor and influence essentially the stem elongation and other plant developmental processes [23]. The study of the plants deficient in the biosynthesis of this hormone has been essential to agriculture, and selective breeding of these mutant plants was one of the key factors leading to the green revolution since 1960, thus increasing the yield of the crops. Hence, the study of plant's response to GA is still essential for many agricultural applications [24]. Gibberellic-Acid Insensitive (GAI) is a gene in  $Arabidopsis\ thaliana$  in chromosome 1 which is involved in the regulation of plant growth. Precisely, it mediated the input signals and module the growth by decreasing the responsiveness to GA [25]. GAI encodes for a DELLA binding domain, responsible for the sensitivity of the protein to GA, and for a functional repressor GRAS-domain. When GA binds to the receptor GID1, they form a complex with DELLA and recruit an  $SCF^{SLY1}$ . It is then ubiquinated and degraded in the proteasome (Figure 2) [26]. The CS63 strain contains a 51bp deletion in the DELLA-domain of GAI. The deletion acts as a gain-of-function mutation in DELLA, thus resulting in a dwarf phenotype due to reduced response for GA-signalling [25, 27].

SPINDLY (SPY) is a gene coding for a O-fucosyltransferase that is thought to activate DELLA by O-fucosylation, and thus regulates negatively GA signaling [28]. Three independent recessive mutations at the SPY locus of Arabidopsis confer resistance to the GA biosynthesis inhibitor paclobutrazol. Relative to wild type, spy mutants exhibit longer hypocotyls, leaves that are a lighter green colour, increased stem elongation, early flowering, parthenocarpy, and partial male sterility. All of these phenotypes are also observed when wild-type Arabidopsis thaliana plants are repeatedly treated with GA. The spy-1 allele<sup>1</sup> is partially epistatic to the ga1-2 mutation, which causes GA deficiency. In addition, the spy-1 mutation can simultaneously suppress the effects of the ga1-2 mutation and paclobutrazol treatment, which inhibit different steps in the GA biosynthesis pathway [27].

The aim of this project was to screen two mutant strains of Arabidopsis thaliana that were generated by random  $\gamma$ -ray mutagenesis of CS63 for mutations in gene GAI and SPY. As opposed to C63, Gar12 and Gar13 exhibit normal growth and we hypothesized that random mutation in GAI and/or SPY may be causative for their phenotypic reversion.

## Methods

Trimming, Read Group Informations, Aligning and MarkDuplicates After the quality control check with fastqc [29], Trimmomatic [8] was used to filter out bad quality reads. Only the ones with a minimal length of 140 and an average quality of 15 were kept. The bwa (Burrows-Wheeler Aligner) tool was then used to index the reference genome and to align all the reads against this reference while adding the Read Group Information at the same time. The resulting sam files were then sorted and converted into bam files through SortSam (Picard) and the duplicate reads were marked using MarkDuplicates (Picard). This step, takes a sorted bam file and add information about reads that might come from the same DNA fragment, in order to avoid counting the information given by one fragment more than one time.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Mutant alleles in lower-case.

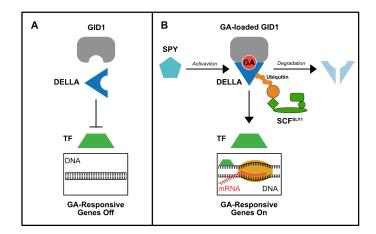


Figure 2: (A) In the abscence of GA, DELLA is not able to interact with GID1, the receptor of GA. Free DELLA proteins sequester transcription factors (TF) that activate GA-responsive genes. (B) In the presence of GA, GID1 and GA form a ligand-receptor complex that favors binding of DELLA. Once bound to GA-loaded GID1, DELLA is ubiquitinated and eventually degraded by the ubiquitin ligase  $SCF^{SLY1}$ . Recent findings suggest that SPY can counteract the activation of GA-responsive genes by activating DELLA by fucosylation. Adapted from [26].

Haplotype Caller and Base Quality Score Recalibration Since the genome of the Arabidopsis thaliana is diploid, in order to analyse its sequences we had to use the Haplotype Caller (GATK4), in order to have a first variant call. The vcf file was then split in two, one containing only the INDELs information, and one containing the SNPs, with SelectVariants (GATK4) because the filtration methods differ. Then the new vcf files were filtered to get rid of all the false variants, through VariantFiltration (GATK4), using different parameters for INDELs and for SNPs. Then the BQSR, a data pre-processing step that detects systematic errors made by the sequencer when it estimates the quality score of each base call, was performed in two iteration to recalibrate the original bam files. A final variant call was made to generate a single vcf file containing both SNPs and INDELs.

Annotation For the annotation step, SnpEff was used in order to annotate the vcf file, to get rid of all the synonymous and intergenic variants, since they bring no new information to our analysis, and also to keep only the variants that are found in less than 2 strains. Eventually, we got a nice annotated and filtered vcf file. The analysis was further done by using GeneSearch (PhenoSystems), and since the whole bam files were a bit too big to handle, we have used the shortened versions of the bam files, provided by the professors, containing only the information about the GAI gene on the first chromosome, and the SPY gene on the third chromosome.

## Results

We found that Gar13 had the original mutation in the DELLA-domain of the GAI gene, whereas Gar12 had a deletion at the same location, but affected 52 nucleotides instead of 51 like in the original deletion found in C63 (Table 2). Furthermore, we found one additional frameshift deletion in the functional GRAS-domain of strain Gar13. The only mutation in SPY was a mutation affecting only one single amino acid that was present in both strains.

**Discussion** Due to the additional nucleotide affected by the large deletion in Gar12, the deletion leads to a frameshift that affects all codons upstream of the DELLA-domain and thus substantially affects the structural integrity of DELLA. This means that although the GAI gene exhibits a gain-of-function mutation, which renders the protein resistant to proteasomal degradation, the

Strains	Gene	Chromosome	Position	Mutation type
Gar12	GAI	Ι	5'149'424	3bp inframe deletion (ATC)
Gar12	GAI	I	5'149'496	52bp frameshift Deletion
Gar12	SPY	III	3'637'438	Missense mutation: T>C
Gar13	GAI	I	5'149'424	3bp inframe Deletion (ATC)
Gar13	GAI	I	5'149'495	51bp inframe Deletion (DELLA)
Gar13	GAI	I	5'149'624	1bp frameshift deletion (G)
Gar13	SPY	III	3'637'438	Missense mutation: T>C

Table 2: Table showing all non-synonymous mutations found in *Arabidopsis thaliana* strains Gar12 and Gar13.

deletion changes a substantial number of amino acids in the functional GRAS-domain. Therefore the repressive effect of DELLA is subverted and the plant is able to thrive (Figure 3).

In the Gar13 strain, the gain-of-function deletion of 51bp of the DELLA region is present, meaning that the phenotypic reversion is not given by the presence of the DELLA domain, but rather by another mutation in the functional domain. We assume that the only mutation that could be able to abrogate the gain-of-function mutation DELLA is a single nucleotide, which induces a frameshift in the reading frame and thus probably affects the functional GRAS-domain (Table 2 and Figure 3). Similar to Gar12, this strain is able to grow normally, due to inactivation of the DELLA protein (Figure 3).

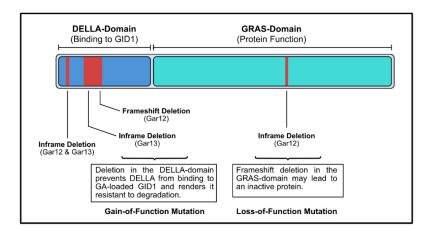


Figure 3: Illustrative summary of the project. The DELLA protein is shown with its main domains. Regions highlighted in red represent deletions that were found in Gar12 and/or Gar13.

The other 3bp deletion, which was discovered downstream of the primary deletion, is probably redundant as the 51bp deletion prevents DELLA from binding to GA-loaded GID1 regardless of other mutations. Furthermore, this variant is found in both Gar12 and Gar13, which suggests that the mutation did not arise from random mutagenesis, but was probably already present in C63. Since loss-of-function mutations in SPY are known to suppress gain-of-function mutations in GAI, we also searched for potential non-synonymous mutations in SPY. However, in both strains, we only found one missense variant in the SPY gene, changing a valine to alanine in the amino acid chain. This mutation is unlikely to have an impact on the function of SPY since the amino acid substitution (V to A) is a conservative replacement with a low impact on biochemical properties. Moreover, similar to the 3bp inframe deletion in GAI, this mutation was also found in both Gar12 and Gar13 and was therefore presumably present in the original plant C63. Taken together, Gar12 and Gar13 do not exhibit the dwarf phenotype due to mutations in the functional GRAS-domain of GAI rather than loss-of-function mutations in SPY (Figure 3).

## Lactobacillus Heleveticus Genome De Novo Assembly

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#### Introduction

The diverse bacteria involved in cheese production are essential for the texture and taste development but also, during the ripening process, the microbial changes helps to kill pathogens and reduce spoilage microorganisms. Lactobacillus helveticus is a thermophilic lactic acid bacterium (LAB) used in the dairy industry as a starter as well as an adjunct culture for cheese manufacture. During cheese ripening LAB undergo autolysis, which is a lytic event of the bacterial cell caused by its own intracellular enzymes, named autolysins or peptidoglycan hydrolases (PGHs) [30]. Autolysis of the bacteria leads to the release of these enzymes, which have the ability to digest the cell wall peptidoglycan of surrounding Gram+ bacteria and thus reduce microbial spoilage of the cheese [31]. The genomic plasticity of Lactobacillus helveticus leads to a high variation in PGHs activity from one strain to another. In a previous study [31], nine genes coding PGHs were annotated and the activity of a PGH with an estimated size of 30kDa was tested by zymography in nine strains of Lactobacillus helveticus of which six were sequenced (see figure 4). Two phenotypes were shown: phenotype A exhibits PGH activity (strains FAM8102c1c1, FAM23285 and FAM19191) and phenotype B does not (strains FAM22016, FAM1450 and FAM1213).

The aim of this work was to perform a de novo assembly and annotation of the genomes of the above mentioned Lactobacillus Helveticus strains, in order to detect potential genomic differences between the phenotype A and phenotype B.

#### Methods

Sequencing and genome assembly The six Lactobacillus helveticus strains FAM8102c1c1, FAM23285, FAM19191, FAM22076, FAM1450, FAM1213 were sequenced by Illumina sequencing (Illumina, SanDiego, CA, USA). The following tasks were performed using the cluster provided by the University of Bern. FastQC [29] was used to check the quality of the reads and Trimmomatic [8] to filter out bad quality reads. Only the ones with a minimal length of 100 and an average quality of 8 were kept. SOAPdenovo<sup>2</sup> as well as SPAdes [32] were used to perform the genome assembly with the reads of each strains. For SOAPdenovo the k-mer sizes were set to 95, 85, 75 and 65. For SPAdes k-mere sizes were set to 21, 33, 55, 77 and 99 (default values). The four assemblies of SOAPdenovo and the assembly of SPAdes were compared using Abyss with a maximum number of contigs set to 1000. The best genome assemblies with the bigger N50 and an approximate genome size of 20Mbp (Genome size of Lactobacillus helveticus) were chosen<sup>3</sup>.

Genome annotation and pan-genome analysis We used the *PROKKA* pipeline [33] to annotate the genome of the six best assemblies and the reference genome of *Lactobacillus helveticus* NC\_010080. *PROKKA* is an automated pipeline that annotates prokaryotic genomes. It locates open reading frames ans RNA regions on contigs and translates it to protein sequences, searching for protein homologues in public databases. The resulting standards .gff files containing the annotated genome for each strain are then used by *Roary* [34] to generate a pan-genome of the six strains. The result was then visualized with *Phandango* [35] allowing visualisation of phylogenetic tree, associated metadata, and genomic information.

 $<sup>^2</sup>$ Cited as requested but content is not accessible.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Due to the temporary unavailability of the cluster, this operation has been performed by L. Falquet and the results were provided to the students afterwards.

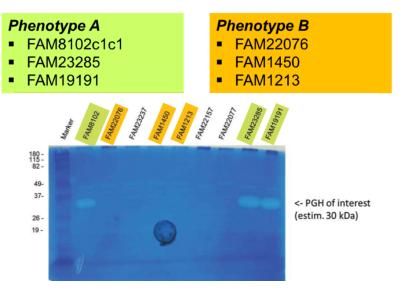


Figure 4: Shown is the result of a zymogram of the different *Lactobacillus helveticus* strains of interest. The zymogram reveals that strains with phenotype A (green) express an active PGH with a size of about 30 kDa In contrast, strains with phenotype B (yellow) appear to have lost the activity of the enzyme or possibly do not express it at all.

**Extraction of the genes for each phenotypes** Grep was applied to the files generated by *Roary* to extract the nine PHG's [31] labelled "Lhv\_" with *PROKKA* (Appendix 1). The set of genes found in strains expressing phenotype A was then compared to the set of gene showing phenotype B. In Table 3 we have the two PGHs present only in the three strains expressing the PGHs activity.

## Results

Gene	Annotation	Avg group	$FAM19191_{-}$	FAM23285_	FAM8102_
		size [nt]	1K	1K	1K
group_2348	Lhv_2053	1121 bp	FAM19191_	FAM23285_	FAM8102_
	Lysin	41 kDa	1K_00069	1K_00060	1K_00069
	(L.crispatus)				
	pseudo-				
	gene in				
	L.helveticus				
group_2372	Lhv_2053	893 bp	FAM19191_	FAM23285_	FAM8102_
	Lysin	33 kDa	1K_00397	1K_00499	1K_00565
	(L.crispatus)				
	pseudo-				
	gene in				
	L.helveticus				

Table 3: Genes present only in the three strains with a PGH activity. To convert nt to kDa the Bioline DNA to Protein converter was used.

According to the zymography shown in figure 4, the PGH involved is approximately 30kDa thus matches with group 2372. Looking at the alignment of the amino acid sequences in the output files, we saw that the sequences are identical, suggesting that it is conserved among the three

strains.

**Discussion** We can see that PGHs are present in all strains (Appendix 1), therefore the phenotype observed in the figure 4 is not due to an absence of PGH. With *Roary* we identified a *PGH* pseudogene that was present in the three strains exhibiting phenotype A with a matching molecular weight. The fact that it is labelled as *pseudogene* can mean that it might have lost part of its functionality and further investigation would be needed to assess the activity of the protein.

Using BLASTp [36] with default parameters, the protein was searched to be a particular lysin (WP\_101853908.1) encoded by the pneumococcal bacteriophage Cp-1 [37]. To look further into this sequence, we used PHASTER [38], the PHAge Search Tool - Enhanced Release, which helps identifying and annotating prophage sequences within bacterial genomes and plasmids. The research was made only for **FAM19191**, as the sequence is identical in the three strains. The result indicating a highly conserved muramidase sequence (Figure 5(A)) confirms that the PGH oroginates from a phage. The locus is shown in figure 5(B).

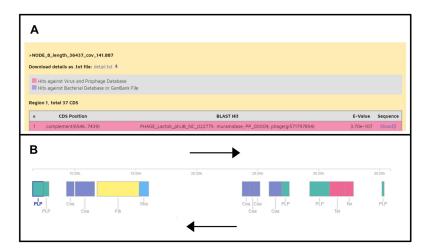


Figure 5: (A)Partial result with the assembly of **FAM19191** run in PHASTER. (B)Node 8 of **FAM19191** assembly showing annotated locus. The highlited first one represents our muramidase.

Many gene sequences of other PGHs, pseudogenes and hypothetical proteins were found in some or all of the six different strains (Appendix 1). It would be interesting to pursue further analysis of the transcription and expression of these sequences, to further unravel the differences between the strains. The increased production of PGHs can be of great importance, especially in cheese ripening. The PGHs present in all strains and the ones present only in a small subset are most certainly located on the core-genome and the pan-genome, respectively. However, some of them might be absent only in one or two of all the strains and might be labelled as part of the "soft-core" or the "shell" genome [39,40] as we can see in the summary statistics produced by Roary.

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# **Appendix**

Gene	Annotation	FAM1213 1K	FAM1450 1K	FAM19191 1K	FAM22076 1K	FAM23285 1K	FAM8102 1K
group_1103	m Lhv0549 N-acetylmuramidase	FAM1213_ 1K_01187	FAM1450_ 1K_00785	FAM19191_ 1K_01147	FAM22076_ 1K_00934	FAM23285_ 1K_01072	FAM8102_ 1K_01185
group_1218	Lhv_1433 Lysin	FAM1213_ 1K_01833	FAM1450_ 1K_00044	FAM19191_ 1K_01884	FAM22076_ 1K_01582	FAM23285_ 1K_01903	FAM8102_ 1K_01986
group_3457	$Lhv_0649 Lysozyme$	FAM1213_ 1K_00895	FAM1450_ 1K_00838	FAM19191_ 1K_01232	FAM22076_ 1K_00917	FAM23285_ 1K_01191	FAM8102_ 1K_01268
group-852	Lhv_1295 Enterolysin M23 family peptidase	FAM1213_ 1K_00043	FAM1450_ 1K_01113	FAM19191_ 1K_00150	FAM22076_ 1K_00164	FAM23285_ 1K_00217	FAM8102_ 1K_00225
group-862	Lhv.1059 LysM peptidoglycan binding domain-containing protein	FAM1213_ 1K_00147	FAM1450_ 1K_00238	FAM19191_ 1K_00248	FAM22076_ 1K_00274	FAM23285_ 1K_00308	FAM8102_ 1K_00381
group-993	Lhv_1433 Lysin	FAM1213_ 1K_00691	FAM1450_ 1K_01203	FAM19191- 1K-01800	FAM22076_ 1K_00088	FAM23285_ 1K_01748	FAM8102_ 1K_01891
group-995	Lhv_0191 Amidase	FAM1213_ 1K_00700	FAM1450_ 1K_00303	FAM19191_ 1K_00506	FAM22076_ 1K_00064	FAM23285_ 1K_00566	FAM8102_ 1K_00638
group_1862	Lhv.2053 Lysin (L.crispatus) pseudogene in L.helveticus		FAM1450_ 1K_00045	FAM19191_ 1K_01885	FAM22076_ 1K_01583	FAM23285. 1K_01904	FAM8102_ 1K_01987
group-1899	Lhv.2053 Lysin (L.crispatus) pseudogene in L.helveticus		FAM1450_ 1K_00267	FAM19191_ 1K_00615	FAM22076_ 1K_00716	FAM23285_ 1K_00607	FAM8102_ 1K_00746
group_1344	Lhv_1307 Enterolysin M23 family peptidase			FAM19191_ 1K_00162	FAM22076_ 1K_00152	FAM23285_ 1K_00229	FAM8102_ 1K_00237
group_1345	Lhv_0190 N-acetylmuramidase			FAM19191_ 1K_00507	FAM22076_ 1K_00063	FAM23285_ 1K_00565	FAM8102_ 1K_00639

Table 1: PGHs in common between all strains. Extracted from the files generated by Roary and labeled "Lhv-" by PROKKA.