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Engineered toxin-intein antimicrobials can selectively target and kill antibiotic-resistant bacteria in mixed populations Rocío López-Igual^{1a}, Joaquín Bernal-Bayard², Alfonso Rodríguez-Patón³, Jean-Marc Ghigo² and Didier Mazel^{1*}. ¹Unité de Plasticité du Génome Bactérie, Département Génomes et Génétique, Institut Pasteur, UMR3525, CNRS, Paris, France. ²Unité de Génétique des Biofilms, Département Microbiologie, Institut Pasteur, Paris, France. ³Universidad Politécnica de Madrid, Departamento de Inteligencia Artificial, ETSIINF, 28040 Madrid, Spain. ^aCurrent Adress: Instituto de Bioquímica Vegetal y Fotosíntesis, CSIC and Universidad de Sevilla, Seville, Spain. *Correspondence should be addressed to D.M. (mazel@pasteur.fr)

Targeted killing of pathogenic bacteria without harming beneficial members of host microbiota holds promise as a strategy to cure disease, and limit both antimicrobialrelated dysbiosis and development of antimicrobial resistance. We engineer toxins that are split by inteins and deliver them by conjugation into a mixed population of bacteria. Our toxin-intein antimicrobial is only activated in bacteria that harbor specific transcription factors. We apply our antimicrobial to specifically target and kill antibiotic resistant Vibrio cholerae in complex populations gathering various bacterial species. We found that 100% of antibiotic resistant V. cholerae receiving the plasmid were killed. Escape mutants were extremely rare (10-6-10-8). We demonstrate that conjugation and specific killing of targeted bacteria is functional in the microbiota of zebrafish and crustacean larvae, which are natural hosts for Vibrio spp. Toxins split with inteins could form the basis of a range of precision antimicrobials which would kill both Gram - and Gram + pathogens.

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With the advent of the antibiotic era, infectious diseases were thought to be under control, but worldwide emergence of antibiotic-resistant bacteria has occurred, owing to the widespread unchecked use of antibiotics. Further, it is now estimated that antibiotic resistant

bacteria could be the main cause of death by 2050¹ unless new classes of antimicrobials are developed.

Broad spectrum antimicrobials indiscriminately kill bacteria which can result in microbiota dysbiosis and concomitant health sequelae. Moreover, antibiotic that have non-specific targets can select for antibiotic resistance, which is mainly acquired by horizontal gene transfer among bacteria in communities². Alternatives to broad spectrum antibiotics include bacteriocins, which kill a subset of bacterial species or strains, and will not provoke a superinfection³. Other targeted antimicrobials have also been reported, including CRISPR-Cas antimicrobials⁴⁻⁶, phage therapy⁷ and local release of toxins⁸.

We set out to design antimicrobials to specifically kill antibiotic-resistant *Vibrio cholerae*. To mediate bacterial killing we chose the toxin component of type II bacterial toxinantitoxin (TA) systems, which are involved in stabilization of plasmids, prophages and superintegrons⁹. Type II toxin and antitoxins are proteins⁹. The toxin targets conserved bacterial cellular functions which reduces the potential for development of resistance. Each antitoxin is highly specific for the cognate toxin, and nonspecific toxin-antitoxin interactions are counterselected¹⁰. Our antimicrobial design relies on the regulation of type II TA transcription by highly specific transcription factors (TF). This means that activation of the toxin, and concomitant killing, of individual members of mixed bacterial populations is feasible if a targeted bacterial species expresses the Type II toxin-regulating transcription

factor. We validated our approach by showing that we could selectively kill antibiotic-resistant *V. cholerae* present in mixed populations.

V. cholerae causes between 21 000 and 143 000 deaths from cholera per year¹¹. The most recent cholera pandemics involved the O1 and O139 serogroups. Virulence in V. cholerae is coordinated by the master transcriptional activator ToxR, which regulates the ToxR regulon¹², which includes the cholera toxin genes. Cholera epidemics are associated with antibiotic resistance owing to resistance genes present on an integrative and conjugative element (ICE) named SXT (from sulfamethoxazole and trimethoprim resistance). SXT can carry genes that confer resistance to sulfamethoxazole (sul2), trimethoprim (dfrA1 and dfr18), streptomycin (strB), chloramphenicol (floR) and tetracycline (tetA) and was first described in V. cholerae serogroup O139¹³. SXT also encodes functions promoting its excision, dissemination by conjugation, and integration, as well as the transcription factors that control expression of these functions¹³.

Our previous experience with type II toxins^{14,15} taught us that basal expression of a full-length toxin gene from P_{BAD} is sufficient to kill the *E. coli* host. To avoid this, we designed a genetic module containing a toxin split by an intein, and in our module the split toxin-intein can only be activated by ToxR. Inteins are protein sequences embedded into a host protein (extein) from which they are autocatalytically excised in a process called protein splicing. During protein splicing the intein ligates the extein extremities and allows the

reconstitution of the mature protein. In nature, a few examples of split inteins also exist allowing the assembly of a single protein from two genes¹⁶. We split the type II toxin gene *ccdB* (Plasmid pToxInt, Supplementary Fig. 1) into two parts, each of which is associated with half of a split intein. Split inteins have been used in several biotechnological tools¹⁷ and enable control of toxic protein functions *in vivo*¹⁸. We used the split intein DnaE, which is present in the *dnaE* gene of *Nostoc punctiforme*. DnaE is well characterized and has a high rate of trans-splicing¹⁹. Using inteins enables strict control of toxin production, and avoids toxicity due to basal expression^{14,15} (Supplementary Fig. 1).

First, we cloned full –length gyrase inhibiting toxin CcdB from *Vibrio fischeri*¹⁵ into a plasmid (pTOX Supplementary Table 1) and transformed the toxin construct into a *E. coli* XL2 blue (Supplementary Table 1) that constitutively expresses a genomic copy of the cognate antitoxin (data not shown). We showed that *ccdB* was bactericidal (Supplementary Fig. 2) and that the intein-mediated splitting strategy led to more stable retention of the toxin-harboring plasmid under repression conditions compared with a construct harboring a whole *ccdB* toxin gene (Supplementary Fig. 1). We also evaluated whether three other type II toxins belonging to different toxin families (ParE2, HigB2 and RelE4¹⁴) could tolerate a splitting and stay functional, We selected intein insertion points by inspection of 3D structure predictions for toxins made in Phyre2²⁰, a tool for modeling protein structure (Supplementary Fig. 3a). Each toxin was divided into N- and C-terminal portions (Supplementary Fig. 3b)

which were fused in-frame to the N- or C-parts of the split intein *dnaE* gene (102 and 36 amino acids long), respectively. N- and C-terminal toxin-intein fusions were cloned in separate, compatible plasmids (N or C plasmids, respectively Supplementary Table 1) and were under the control of different promoters (Fig. 1a). We validated reconstitution of the active toxin by intein protein splicing in *E. coli* (Supplementary Fig. 4). For all five tested split toxins, we found that under inducing conditions bacteria containing N and C plasmids died, whereas bacteria with either the N or the C plasmid survived. N and C toxin-intein complex toxicity was tested using mutations known to prevent splicing. When splicing didn't occur, reconstitution of the toxin did not take place, and bacteria survived (Supplementary Fig. 4).

Next we chose the gyrase poison CcdB, which is likely the most extensively characterized type II toxin, to design a toxin-intein antimicrobial specific for pathogenic *V. cholerae*. In *V. cholerae* one of the ToxRS-regulated genes encodes a membrane porin, OmpU²¹. We cloned the N fusion of CcdB-intein downstream of the *ompU* promoter (regulated by ToxRS), and the C fusion under P_{BAD} in the same plasmid (pU-BAD, Supplementary Fig. 5a). The functionality of pU-BAD was tested in an *E. coli* DH5α strain expressing the *V. cholerae toxRS* operon from a second plasmid (pRS, Supplementary Fig. 5a). Upon arabinose-mediated induction of *toxRS* expression, only bacteria containing both pU-BAD and pRS plasmids died (Supplementary Fig. 5b). We replicated cell killing in MG1655 (data not shown). We then tested pU-BAD activity in pathogenic *V. cholerae* strains

O1 and O139 (Supplementary Fig. 6a). We observed constitutive expression of the N-fusion due to the presence of chromosomal toxRS. However, toxicity due to basal expression from P_{BAD} (Supplementary Fig. 6a) led to pU-BAD plasmid instability in V. cholerae. A V. cholerae mutant lacking toxRS ($\Delta toxRS$) displayed normal growth and pU-BAD stability in the presence of arabinose (Supplementary Fig. 6a). This suggested that P_{ompU} could be used to regulate CcdB-intein fusion expression for targeted killing of V. cholerae.

In order to develop a conjugative CcdB-intein-based antimicrobial to specifically kill pathogenic V. cholerae in microbial communities, we cloned a split-toxin-intein operon under the control of ompU promoter in a plasmid, and added an origin of transfer (oriT) to render it conjugative (plasmid pPW, Supplementary Fig. 6b, Supplementary Table 1). Conjugation is carried out from donor strain E. coli β 3914, an MG1655 $\Delta dapA$ which contains the RP4 conjugative machinery integrated into its chromosome. pPW was introduced by conjugation into V. cholerae strains O1, O139 and an O1- $\Delta toxRS$ mutant (Supplementary Fig. 6b), but only the $\Delta toxRS$ strain was able to grow after transfer of the pPW plasmid, demonstrating that it kills only Vibrio expressing ToxR.

We next tested whether pPW could kill specific strains in a mixed bacterial population (Fig. 1b). Different recipient bacteria in this population could be distinguished in the presence of X-gal: *V. cholerae* O139 (blue) and *E. coli* DH5 α (white) (Fig. 1c). We conjugated pPW and two control plasmids (non-toxic N fusion containing pN_{ctrl} plasmid, and

the pTox_{ctrl} plasmid, which carries the P_{BAD}-regulated toxin-intein operon) into this mixture. After conjugation of pPW from *E. coli* β3914 and selection for transconjugants, pPW killed *V. cholerae* O139 (blue bacteria) and we were only able to detect *E. coli* DH5αtransconjugants (white) on media containing XGal. Similarly, after plasmid conjugation into *V. cholerae* O1 and *E. coli* strains (MG1655), we only obtained *E. coli* transconjugants (Supplementary Fig. 7a).

Specific killing by pPW relies on expression of the regulator *toxR*, which is present in all *Vibrio* genera²². However, the ToxR regulon has evolutionarily diverged among the different *Vibrio* species, so we analyzed pPW action in two other *toxRS*-containing *Vibrio* species (Fig. 1d). We found that pPW can kill *Vibrio mimicus* but not *Vibrio vulnificus*, which is more phylogenetically distant from *V. cholerae*, and despite harboring a ToxR ortholog, does not activate *ompU* expression²³. Additionally, we showed that our system is highly specific to ToxR, since conjugation into other γ-proteobacteria, such as *Salmonella typhimurium* and *Citrobacter rodentium*, did not result in killing (Supplementary Fig. 7b).

Next we evaluated whether a split-intein toxin could kill antibiotic resistant bacteria present in a community. The SXT ICE family in *V. cholerae* includes various antibiotic resistance genes¹³. The SXT chassis encodes several TFs that regulate SXT transmission including the SetR repressor¹³. We designed a module to detect SXT carriage and kill SXT-harboring bacteria by implementing an additional component into our antimicrobial: the *ccdA*

gene, which encodes the antitoxin partner of CcdB. ccdA was cloned downstream of the SXT PL promoter, which is controlled by the SetR repressor, in a plasmid also containing the ccdB-intein operon regulated by the P_{BAD} promoter (pPLA plasmid, Supplementary Fig. 8a, Supplementary Table 1). We tested whether pPLA could kill antibiotic resistant E. coli SXT (Supplementary Fig. 8b) and V. cholerae O139 (Fig. 2a). Both bacteria contain an SXT element integrated at prfC. Only SXT carrying bacteria from both species were killed. All bacteria lacking SXT, including V. cholerae O1 and E. coli DH5 α , survived (Fig. 3a and Supplementary Fig. 8b). In order to develop a conjugative antimicrobial to kill antibiotic resistant bacteria we added an oriT to pPLA to produce pABRW (Supplementary Table 1, Fig. 2). pABRW was tested by conjugation into a mixed population of E. coli MG1655 (blue) and E. coli SXT (white). Selection for pABRW yielded only E. coli MG1655 transconjugants, demonstrating that pABRW specifically kills bacteria containing SXT (Fig. 2b). The same result was obtained after conjugation of pABRW into V. cholerae O139 mixed with V. cholerae O1-∆lacZ (Fig. 2c), confirming that pABRW plasmid specifically kills ABR bacteria in a heterogeneous population.

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We next combined the pPW and pABRW modules in a single plasmid. We replaced the operator sequence O4 of PL with O1 (see online Methods) to increase SetR repression to yield pFW (Supplementary Table 1, Fig. 3), which efficiently kills *V. cholerae* O139 (Fig. 3c). In order to test whether non-replicative-conjugative plasmids (which would not spread

toxin-intein fusions and/or antibiotic resistant genes) could harbor our killing module, we changed the pSC101 replication origin to a *pir*-dependent R6K origin (Supplementary Fig. 9). R6K origin can be activated in a host expressing an ectopic *pir* gene in the chromosome. After conjugation of pPW-R6K and pFW-R6K into bacteria that lack the *pir* gene, CFU/ml were reduced by 60% compared with controls (Supplementary Fig. 9b). This suggests that even if the plasmid cannot actively replicate once transferred in the targeted bacteria, expression of the toxin is sufficient to kill these bacteria, while the use of such R6K derivatives is limiting the risk of unnecessary propagation of the killing plasmid.

We moved onto evaluate whether our split-intein toxin could target specific bacteria in natural microbiomes. We tested killing of *V. cholerae* O139 in three niches, each of which is a natural habitat for this pathogen²⁴: water, tropical zebrafish and a crustacean. We first tested the versatility of *E. coli* β3914 which is auxotrophic for the diaminopimelic acid (DAP) for delivering conjugative plasmid pNctrl, in absence of DAP and found no difference in conjugation rates (Supplementary Table 2). Although conjugation efficiency decreases 300 fold in water, *V. cholerae* transconjugants were obtained with the control plasmid pN_{ctrl} (Supplementary Table 2), while using pFW, no transconjugants were detected (data not shown). These results indicate that in these conditions too when receiving the pFW, *V. cholerae* was killed. These preliminary data suggest that our method using pFW might hold potential in bioremediation of *Vibrio*-contaminated water.

We also tested pNcrtl and pFW using a zebrafish infection model²⁵ (Supplementary Fig. 10a). Analysis of the microbiota composition using 16S rRNA analysis on 4 days post fertilization zebrafish larvae detected less than 30 different bacterial species, mostly aerobic including several Aeromonads, Pseudomonads and Stenotrophimonads (JBB and JMG, unpublished). First we tested localization of both E. coli and V. cholerae, in the gut of zebrafish larvae. We infected four-day-post-fertilization zebrafish larvae with fluorescently tagged V. cholerae O1-GFP and E. coli-RFP. Fluorescence microscopy revealed colocalization of both V. cholerae O1-GFP and E. coli-RFP in the digestive tract (Supplementary Fig. 10a). We then tested specific killing in larvae infected with V. cholerae O139 (Fig. 4a, Supplementary Fig. 11b,c). The only V. cholerae O139 transconjugants obtained were from conjugation with pN_{ctrl} plasmid. No V. cholerae O139 transconjugants were obtained using pFW. Therefore, pFW kills V. cholerae O139 in zebrafish larvae (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Fig. 11b). We assessed dysbiosis using observation after plating on different media and didn't find any macroscopic change (Supplementary Fig. 11a). We also used a mixture of 1:1 V. cholerae O1 and O139 for larval infection and then infected with E. coli β3914 (pNctrl) or β3914 (pFW). We detected pNctrl transconjugants in both O1 and O139 serogroups, but O1 transconjugants only were obtained after conjugation with pFW (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Fig. 11c). Therefore pFW specifically killed the O139 serogroup.

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We also tested pFW in the crustacean *Artemia salina* model which is used for fish feeding and commonly found to carry various *Vibrio* species²⁶ (Fig. 4b and Supplementary Figs. 10b, 12). We detected co-localization of *V. cholerae* O1-GFP and *E. coli*-RFP in the gut of *A. salina* (Supplementary Fig. 10b) and conjugation with pFW plasmid did not provoke visible change in the *A. salina* microbiota, after sampling of the aerobic species on plates (data not shown). Transconjugants of *V. cholerae* O139 were only detected after conjugation with pN_{ctrl}, but not with pFW, showing that pFW kills *V. cholerae* O139 in *A. salina* larvae (Fig. 4b and Supplementary Fig. 12a). We also infected *A. salina* with a 1:1 mix of *V. cholerae* O1 and O139 and detected pN_{ctrl} transconjugants in O1 and O139 serogroups, but only detected O1 pFW transconjugants (Fig. 4b and Supplementary Fig. 12b).

Our split toxin-intein method can be applied to specifically kill selected bacteria subtypes. We anticipate that our system could be fine-tuned to trigger toxin activation in response to various environmental cues²⁷ including temperature, salt or pH by adding a conditional protein splicing intein²⁸. Inteins are functional in eukaryotic cells²⁹, so toxin-intein combinations might also be developed for targeted killing of tumor cells. The specificity of our system requires identification of a species-specific transcriptional regulator, and such TFs are widespread in pathogenic and antibiotic-resistant bacterial pathogens³⁰-³¹. The Achilles' heel of precision antimicrobials is delivery into complex communities. Antimicrobials

delivered by conjugation e.g. RNA-guided nucleases⁵ have reduced targeted bacterial populations by 2- to 3-log even with a ratio of donor:recipient bacteria of 340:1 5. In our experiments, using 1:1 ratios were detected a decrease in targeted bacteria (V. cholerae) of 10%, which is equivalent to the conjugation rate. We were able to kill ≈ 90-95% of the ABR E. coli after the conjugation of pABRW by increasing ratios of donor to recipient to 10:1 (Supplementary Fig. 13). Phage delivery might be useful ⁵, but phage have other disadvantages³², including narrow host range and rapid emergence of phage resistance. One advantage of our system compared with others^{4,5,33} is that escape mutants are less frequent (below 10⁻⁶ - 10⁻⁸; Supplementary Table 3). Analysis of escape clones (Supplementary Table 4), when targeting ABR bacteria revealed that between 63 and 90% of these clones had lost the SXT element, and were not ABR (Supplementary Table 5). One of the reasons for the lower chance of escape might be that toxin resistance has not been observed. A different synthetic kill switch based on TA systems was also stable due to minimal escape rates in vivo³⁴. The dual regulatory system in the Final Weapon (Fig. 3a) functions as an AND-logic gate, increasing effectiveness in the control of toxin production, which only happens when both inputs (pathogenicity and ABR) are present. If delivery of mobilizable antimicrobials can be optimized, appearance of resistant bacteria would be rare.

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353	AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
354	D.M. and R.LI designed the experiments. J.BB and R.LI designed and performed the in
355	vivo experiments. J.BB. performed the microscopy experiments and statistic analysis.
356	D.M., R.LI and A.RP participated in the conception of the project. R.LI and D.M.
357	prepared the manuscript and wrote the article with large participation of J.BB, JM.G. and
358	A.RP.
359	
360	COMPETING FINANCIAL INTERESTS
361	The authors declare no competing financial interests.
362	
363	DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT
364	The data, plasmids and strains generated for this study, that support our findings are
365	available upon request to the corresponding author.
366	

Figure Legends:

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Figure 1. Specific killing of pathogenic *V. cholerae* in mixed population of bacteria mediated by toxin-intein strategy. (a) Schematic representation of the active toxin production from plasmids encoding split toxin (red) combined with split intein (blue) inside a bacterium. The first half of the toxin is fused with N-terminal split intein gene (N plasmid) under the control of PBAD promoter and the second half of the toxin is fused with the C-terminal intein gene (C plasmid) and it is controlled by PLAC. Expression of these fusions is activated by the addition of arabinose and IPTG, respectively. Recognition of the protein fusions takes place by the intein module, which carry out the splicing process, which lead to toxin reconstitution, provoking cell death. (b) Mode of action of the genetic weapon spreading through conjugation in mixed population of bacteria and killing of targeted harmful bacteria. (c) Mixed population of V. cholerae O139 (blue) and E. coli DH5α (white) as recipients for conjugation using β3914 as donor strain containing pN_{ctrl}, pTox_{ctrl} or pPW plasmids. The ompU promoter activated specifically by ToxRS from V. cholerae is represented by a circled (+) pink-symbol. Transconjugants were selected in MH + Spectinomycin (Sp), X-gal for color development and arabinose for induction of P_{BAD}. (d) Conjugation of pN_{ctrl}, pTox_{ctrl} and pPW plasmid using β3914 as donor strain in *Vibrio* mimicus and Vibrio vulnificus. Transconjugants were selected in MH media + Sp and arabinose for induction of PBAD. Pictures are representative of three independent experiments.

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Figure 2. Specific killing of antibiotic resistant bacteria (containing SXT). (a) pPLA plasmid that contains CcdB-intein fusion operon under P_{BAD} control expression

and *ccdA* antitoxin under PL promoter (symbolized by an orange circled -) which is repressed by SetR. Growth test of *V. cholerae* O1 or O139 containing pPLA plasmid in MH media + Sp and supplemented with glucose (GLU) or arabinose (ARA). (b) Mixed population of *E. coli* MG1655 (blue) and *E. coli* SXT (white) as recipients for conjugation using β3914 as donor strain containing pN_{ctrl}, pTox_{ctrl} or pABRW plasmids. Transconjugants were selected on MH + Sp, X-gal for species identification and arabinose for induction of P_{BAD}. (c) Mixed population of *V. cholerae* O139-SXT (blue) and *V. cholerae* O1 (white) as recipients for conjugation using β3914 as donor strain containing pN_{ctrl}, pTox_{ctrl} or pABRW plasmids as described in b). Pictures are representative of three independent experiments.

Figure 3. Design, tuning and assay of the final weapon pFW, obtained by putting together the pathogenicity and antibiotic resistance (ABR) modules in a single conjugative vector. (a) Schematic representation of the specific killing of *V. cholerae* O139 after pFW conjugation (left). Schematic display of the corresponding AND-logic gate (right). (b) Conjugation from β3914 of either pN_{ctrl} or pFW, of *V. cholerae* serogroup O139 (blue) and O1 (white) as recipient mixed population. Transconjugants were selected on MH + Sp (plasmid marker). pFW plasmid was obtained after change in RBS sequence of *ompU* promoter to increase translation of toxin-intein fusion and substitution of the O4 operator sequence by O1 operator sequence (see online methods) to increase SetR binding affinity to the PL promoter, and consequently increase repression. Only *V. cholerae* serogroup O1 that is devoid of SXT in its genome was detected after pFW conjugation, demonstrating the specific killing of serogroup O139, which contain both chromosomally encoded ToxR and SetR the chosen indicators of pathogenicity and

antibiotic resistance, respectively. Pictures are representative from three independent experiments.

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Figure 4. Specific killing of pathogenic and ABR V. cholerae O139 in the zebrafish larvae and Artemia salina nauplii models. (a) Four-day-postfertilization zebrafish larvae were exposed to water containing 10⁴ CFU/ml *V. cholerae* O139 or a mixed population containing 10⁵ CFU/ml V. cholerae O139 + V. cholerae O1, and then infected (see methods) with 10⁷ (O139) or 10⁶ (mix Vibrio) CFU/ml of β3914 as donor strain of either pN_{ctrl} or pFW plasmids. Five larvae were fished and mashed to analyze its microbiota. Transconjugants were selected in MH media with Sp and Xgal. Transconjugants were only detected after conjugation with pN_{ctrl} plasmid for O139 and not after pFW conjugation as expected from the specific killing. Confirming pFW specifity, pFW transconjugants were detected for V. cholerae O1, which should not be killed by this plasmid. Data for O139 represent transconjugants obtained from 15 larvae fished in three independent experiments (n=3, mean ± s.d), and data from the mix of Vibrio represent transconjugants obtained from 10 larvae in two independent experiments (n=2, mean ± s.d). (b) Artemia salina stage nauplii were infected with 10⁷ CFU/ml V. cholerae O139 or a mix of 10⁷ CFU/ml V. cholerae O139 + *V. cholerae* O1 (see methods). Then exposed to 10⁷ CFU/ml β3914 as donor strain of either pN_{ctrl} or pFW plasmids. Transconjugants were selected in MH media with Sp and X-gal. As in zebrafish, transconjugants were only detected after conjugation with pN_{ctrl} plasmid for O139 and not after pFW conjugation. As expected, V. cholerae O1 pFW transconjugants were also detected in this in vivo model. Data numbers were calculated from four independent experiments (n=4, mean \pm s.d).

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ONLINE METHODS

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Strains and culture conditions.

4 Unless otherwise noted, bacterial cultures were grown at 37°C with Luria-Bertani (LB) 5 medium (Lennox) or Mueller-Hinton (MH) solid media supplemented when appropriate, 6 with the following antibiotics: 50 μg/ml kanamycin (Kan), 50 μg/ml chloramphenicol 7 (Cm), 100 µg/ml carbenicillin (Carb), 50 or 100 µg/ml spectinomycin (Sp) for E. coli and 8 100 µg/ml Sp for Vibrio cholerae. Selection of transconjugants was carried using 100 9 μg/ml Sp in all cases, except for V. mimicus and V. vulnificus where we used 50 μg/ml 10 Sp. Bacterial strains used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 1. Other 11 molecules were added to the media with the following concentrations: 40 µg/ml 5-12 bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-beta-D-galactopyranoside (Xgal), 0.3 mM Diaminopimelic acid

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Plasmid construction.

- 16 Plasmids are listed in Supplementary Table 1 and primers in Supplementary Table 6.
- 17 All plasmid sequences were verified through sequencing.

(DAP), 1% glucose and 0,2% arabinose.

- 18 To generate the N and C plasmids for each toxin-intein fusion, the N- and C-terminal
- 19 toxin regions were amplified with primers F-toxin-EcoRI/R-toxin-intein and F-toxin-
- 20 intein/R-toxin-Xbal, respectively. N-and C-terminal intein regions were amplified with
- 21 primers F-intein-toxin/R-intein-Xbal and F-intein-EcoRI/R-intein-toxin, respectively. As
- 22 DNA templates for toxins we used chromosomal DNA from V. cholerae in all cases and
- 23 V. fischeri for ccdB. Intein amplification was done with chromosomal DNA from the
- 24 cyanobacteria Nostoc punctiforme. PCR products of N- and C-terminal regions were
- 25 fused by Gibson assembly³⁵. Each toxin-intein fusion was then digested with
- 26 EcoRI/Xbal (Thermo Fisher) and then cloned in EcoRI/Xbal digested pBAD43³⁶ and
- 27 pSU38³⁷ (or pSU18) plasmids, respectively (Supplementary Table 1). To generate the

- 28 mutated version of N-terminal plasmid (n*) whole plasmids were amplified using
- 29 primers F-Int-tox-mut/R-int-tox-mut.
- 30 To assemble the pU-BAD plasmid (Supplementary Fig. 5) we first cloned the C-
- 31 terminal CcdB-Npu fusion into a pBAD18 plasmid (EcoRI-Xbal). An ompU promoter
- 32 was inserted upstream the N-terminal ccdB/Npu fusion in N plasmid by PCR. The
- 33 ompU promoter region was amplified using F-PompU-1/R-PompU-dB (size=352 bp).
- 34 This promoter was chosen based on previous work²¹ that showed its high induction in
- 35 the presence of ToxR. A region containing the pSC101 origin was amplified using R-
- 36 BAD43-BAD18/F-4126 primers and the N-terminal CcdB-Npu plasmid as template. A
- 37 second region containing the N-terminal fusion was amplified using 4217/R-BAD43-
- 38 BAD18 primers and N-terminal plasmids also as templates. Other regions containing
- 39 the C-terminal fusion and Kan resistance gene were amplified using R-BAD18-
- 40 BAD43/F-BAD18-BAD43 primers and the C-terminal CcdB-Npu pBAD18 plasmid as
- 41 template. PCR products were then fused by Gibson assembly³⁵ producing the pU-BAD
- 42 plasmid.
- 43 To generate the pRS plasmid, (Supplementary Fig. 5) the toxRS operon from V.
- 44 cholerae O1 was amplified using F-toxR-Sacl/R-toxS-Xbal primers, digested with Sacl
- 45 and Xbal and ligated with Sacl-Xbal digested plasmid pBAD30. The native RBS
- 46 sequence of toxR was kept.
- 47 To assemble the toxin-intein N and C-terminal fusions as an operon (pToxInt plasmid),
- 48 N- and C-fusions were amplified using F-CcdB-EcoRI/R-Int-N-Int-C and F-Int-C-Int-
- 49 N/R-Int-Xbal primers and then ligated by Gibson assembly³⁵, digested with EcoRI/Xbal
- 50 and cloned into a pBAD43-EcoRI/Xbal digested plasmid. The fusion contains the
- 51 following sequence: 5' TGATAAGGAGGTAACATATG 3' between the N and C genes.
- 52 This sequence contains the RBS sequence necessary for translation of the C-terminal
- 53 fusion. The pTox plasmid was created by amplification of the ccdB toxin gene from V.
- 54 fischeri DNA with F-CcdB-EcoRI/R-CcdB-Xbal primers, EcoRI/Xbal digestion and
- 55 ligation into a pBAD43-EcoRI/Xbal digested plasmid. E. coli XL2blue strain that

- 56 contains F' plasmid integrated in the chromosome (containing the ccdB/ccdA TA
- 57 system and conferring resistance to CcdB), was used to transform with this ligation in
- order to obtain positive clones.
- 59 To assemble the pPW genetic weapon, the ompU promoter was amplified as
- 60 previously described and ligated by Gibson assembly³⁵ with the product of pToxInt
- 61 plasmid PCR using F-dB-PompU/R-BAD-PU1 primers.
- The pPLA plasmid was constructed first by amplifying by PCR the PL promoter³⁸ using
- 63 DNA from V. cholerae O139 and F-PL-plasmid/R-PL-ccdA as primers. Then, the ccdA
- 64 antitoxin gene was amplified using the F-ccdA-PL/R-ccdA-plasmid primers and V.
- 65 fischeri DNA. Finally, the pTox-Int plasmid was also amplified using F-plasmid-dA/R-
- 66 plasmid-PL primers. Ligation by Gibson assembly³⁵ of the three PCR products resulted
- in the pPLA plasmid.
- 68 Mobilizable genetic weapons were created by amplifying the origin of transfer oriT RP4
- 69 using F-pSW23-BAD/R-oriT-BAD43 primers and the plasmid pSW23T³⁹ as template.
- 70 Then, the *oriT* PCR product was ligated through Gibson assembly³⁵ with the amplified
- 71 plasmid using F-BAD-pSW/R-BAD43-oriT primers and the weapon or control plasmids
- as template.
- 73 To assemble the Final Weapon we the plasmid pFW (Figure 3) as follow. The ompU
- 74 promoter-1 was ligated into the pABRW plasmid as previously described for the pU-
- 75 BAD construction. In order to fine-tune the RBS of ompU in this plasmid as well as the
- 76 PL promoters,, PCRs were performed using F-ccdB-SD-OK/R-PU-SD-OK and F-PL-
- 77 SD-T/R-PL-SD-T primer pairs, respectively. Finally, to generate the pFW plasmid, an
- 78 operator O1 sequence (see ³⁸) was added into the PL promoter by PCR amplification of
- 79 the pFW2 plasmid using F-PL-O1/R-PL-O1 primers.
- 80 To generate the pPW-R6K, pFW-R6K and pNctrl-R6K plasmids we first amplified the
- 81 R6K replication origin using F-R6K-weapon/R-R6K-weapon primers and the pMP7⁴⁰
- 82 plasmid as template. Then, the pPW, pFW and pNctrl plasmids were amplified using F-

weapon-R6K/R-weapon-R6K primers. Finally, PCR fragments were ligated by Gibson assembly³⁵.

∆toxRS strain construction

DNA regions 500 bp upstream and downstream of the *toxRS* operon were amplified using F-toxRup-p7/R-toxRups and F-toxSdow/R-toxSdow-p7, respectively. The amplified fragments were ligated by Gibson assembly³⁵ and then cloned into an R6K γ- *ori*-based suicide vector, pSW7848⁴⁰ that encodes the *ccdB* toxin gene under the control of an arabinose-inducible promoter, P_{BAD}. For conjugal transfer of plasmids into *V. cholerae* strains, *E. coli* β3914 was used as the donor. Clones where integration of the entire plasmid in the chromosome by single crossover occurred were selected. Elimination of the plasmid backbone resulting from a second recombination step was selected as described ref 39.

Transformation assays

DH5α chimiocompetent cells (Invitrogen) were transformed with 150 ng of pTox, pToxInt or pN plasmids (Supplementary Fig. 1a). Transformants were then tested in Sp containing media with glucose or arabinose to analyze toxin integrity. 10 to 12% of pTox-transformed clones from were able to grow in the presence of arabinose. Four independent clones were analyzed by sequencing and they all carried an insertion sequence in the *ccdB* toxin gene. These clones were responsible for pTox transformation rate decrease in comparison with the pToxInt and pN plasmids.

DH5α cells (Invitrogen) were co-transformed with two plasmids simultaneously. Both plasmids were then simultaneously selected (Supplementary Fig.4).

Transformation of the donor strain β3914 was performed in the presence of DAP.

Growth tests

Eighteen independent clones from DH5α transformation were inoculated in p96 microplates containing LB media with Sp and glucose. The TECAN Infinite 200 microplate reader (TECAN, Männedorf, Germany) was used to determine growth curves, with absorbance (620nm) taken at 6-minute intervals for a period of 12 h. The obtained OD values were plotted as seen on Supplementary Fig. 1b.

In Supplementary Fig. 2 for analysis of bactericide effect of CcdB toxin: *V. cholerae* O139 was co-transformed with antitoxin-*ccdA* (pBAD24-*ccdA*) and pPW plasmids in the presence of arabinose allowing the antitoxin to be expressed. pPW plasmid contains the toxin-intein under the control of *ompU* promoter, which is always active in *V. cholerae*. Bacteria culture supplemented with antibiotics for maintaining both

three times with MH media with antibiotics and glucose, in order to switch off antitoxin

plasmids and arabinose, were diluted at OD=0.5 (time 0h). Then bacteria were washed

expression, and incubated for 4h at 37°C. Total bacteria were calculated by the CFU/ml

at time 0h and 4h present in MH media with antibiotics and with glucose (1%) or

arabinose (0,2%). Data numbers were calculated from four independent experiments

125 (n=4).

Conjugation assays.

Overnight cultures of donor and recipient strains were diluted 1:100 in culture media with antibiotic and grown at 37° C for 2-3 hours. Then, cultures were diluted to an OD_{600} = 0.5. The different conjugation experiments were performed by a filter mating procedure described previously⁴¹ with a donor/recipient ratio of 1::1. When the recipients were composed of a mixed population the donor/mixed-recipient ratio was 1::0.5-0.5. Before mixing the different bacteria, cultures were washed three times with fresh media to remove antibiotics. In Supplementary Table 2 bacteria were mixed in different proportions (2:1 and 3:1) to test whether this would impact conjugation efficiency. Conjugation was performed during 4h at 37° C on filter in MH plates

supplemented with DAP (and containing NaCl until 332mM final concentration in the case of *V. vulnificus*).

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In vivo conjugation in zebrafish larvae and Artemia salina

All animal experiments described in the present study were conducted at the Institut Pasteur according to European Union guidelines for handling of laboratory animals (http://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/lab animals/home en.htm) and were approved by the Institut Pasteur Animal Care and Use Committee and the Direction Sanitaire et Veterinaire de Paris under permit #A-75-1061. Conjugative killing was assessed as follow. Four-day-postfertilization zebrafish larvae were exposed to water containing 10⁴ CFU/ml of V. cholerae O139 for 2 hours at 27°C (Figure 4a) or a 1::1 mixed population containing 10⁵ CFU/ml V. cholerae O139 + V. cholerae O1 (Figure 5a, mix Vibrio) for 2 hours at 27°C. Then, larvae were washed in sterile water three times and then placed into a well containing 10⁷ or 10⁶ CFU/ml (Figure 4a, V. cholerae O139 and mix Vibrio, respectively) of the E. coli β3914-Δdap donor strain containing either the pN_{ctrl} or pFW plasmid for 24 hours at 27°C. In Supplementary Fig. 11b and 11c, infection dose for Vibrio was the same than for Fig. 4a. Larvae were transferred to bacteria-free wells, washed in sterile water three times and then placed into a well containing Tricaine (Sigma-Aldrich #E10521) at 200 mg/ml to euthanize them. Finally, they were transferred to a tube containing calibrated glass beads (acid washed, 425) um to 600 um, Sigma-Aldrich #G8722) and 500 µl of water. Five larvae were mashed using FastPrep® Cell Disrupter (BIO101/FP120 QBioGene) for 45 seconds at maximum speed (6,5 m/sec) to analyze their microbiota (Supplementary Fig. 11) in MH Media + X-gal or TCBS media for selection of V. cholerae. Blue bacteria corresponding to V. cholerae O139 were detected in MH media. Transconjugants selection was done into MH Media + X-gal and Sp and then, replication of these MH plates were done on TCBS media to specific identify V. cholerae. Strain identity was confirmed through

yellow color development in TCBS *Vibrio* specific media. The amoeba *Tetrahymena* thermophila (*T. thermophila*) was added to feed larvae during the experiment.

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Groups of 225±15 larvaes of Artemia salina stage nauplii suspended in 1ml volume of seawater were washed using sterile cell strainer Nylon filters 100 µm pore size (Falcon) and three times with the same volume (3x1ml) of sterile PBS (D8537, Sigma). Nauplii were suspended in 1ml PBS and then infected with 107 V. cholerae O1 or a mix of 107 V. cholerae O1 and O139 for 2 hours in agitation at 27°C. Then nauplii were washed as previously described and exposed to 10^7 of $\beta 3914$ - Δdap bacteria with pN_{ctrl} or pFW plasmid for 4 hours at 27°C. These experiments were repeated four times independently. The microbiota from 1ml containing 225±15 nauplii were analyzed as previously described for zebrafish. In the case of Artemia, we have used M63B1 minimal media where Artemia feel asleep and then put them on ice, previous the use of fast-prep (FastPrep® Cell Disrupter (BIO101/FP120 QBioGene) for 45 seconds at maximum speed (6,5 m/sec)). Transconjugants were selected from 225±15 nauplii after pN_{ctrl} or pFW conjugation treatment into MH media with Sp and X-gal (Supplementary Fig. 12a,b). For the identification of V. cholerae in the mix of both serogroups (Fig. 4b and Supplementary Fig. 12b), replication of these MH plates were done into TCBS media to specifically identify V. cholerae. Strain identity was confirmed through yellow color development in TCBS Vibrio specific media.

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Co-localization of *E. coli* and *V. cholerae* in the zebrafish larvae and *A. salina* by Microscopy.

Co-localization of *E. coli* and *V. cholerae* in the zebrafish larvae was assessed as follow. Four-day-postfertilization zebrafish larvae were exposed to water containing 10⁶ CFU/ml *V. cholerae O1*-GFP for 2 hours at 27°C. Then washed in sterile water three times and then placed into a well containing 10⁷ CFU/ml of *E. coli*-RFP for 24 hours at 27°C. Larvae were removed from the well and then placed into a well containing

- 192 Tricaine for euthanize them. Infected and non-infected larvae were visualized by
- 193 fluorescence microscopy (EVOS FL microscope-Life technologies) using appropriate
- 194 wavelength conditions enabling or not the visualization of GFP and RFP. Fluorescence
- 195 was only detected in infected larvae and more precisely into the gut where both
- 196 bacteria are co-localized.
- 197 In the case of A. salina stage nauplii the microscopy experiment was done using 10⁷ V.
- 198 cholerae-GFP for 2 hours in agitation at 27°C. Then nauplii were washed as previously
- described and exposed to 10⁷ of *E. coli*-RFP strain for 2 hours. Microscopy conditions
- were performed as for zebrafish experiment.

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- 202 Statistics
- 203 In Supplementary Fig. 9, one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's Multiple Comparison Test
- was performed. PNcontrol-R6K vs pPW-R6K, Mean Diff. = 2.383e+008, q = 4.183,
- 205 **P<0.05, 95% CI of diff = (8.937e+007 to 3.871e+008). PNcontrol-R6K vs pFW-R6K,
- 206 Mean Diff. = 2.308e+008, q = 4.227, **P<0.05, 95% CI of diff = (9.187e+007) to
- 207 3.896e+008).
- 208 In Supplementary Fig. 13, one-sided t-test Mann Withney was performed. E. coli SXT
- 209 vs *E. coli* MG1655. P value = 0.0143. *P < 0.05.

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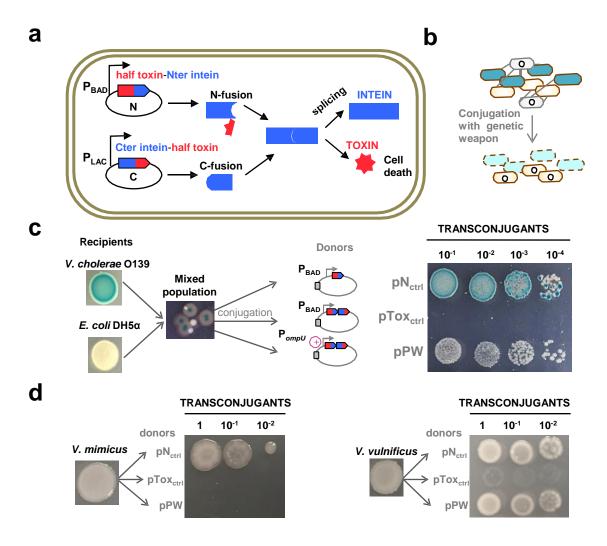


Figure 1

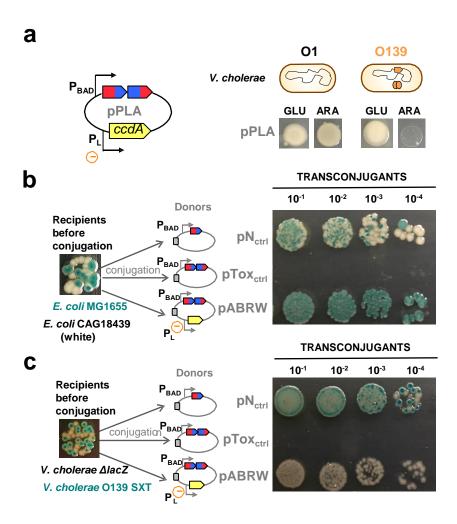
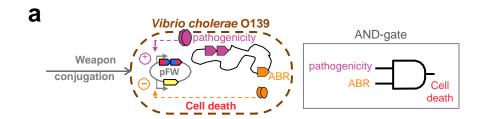


Figure 2



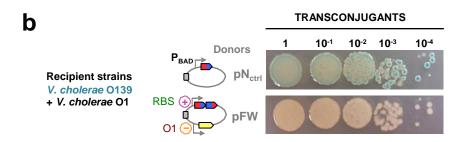


Figure 3

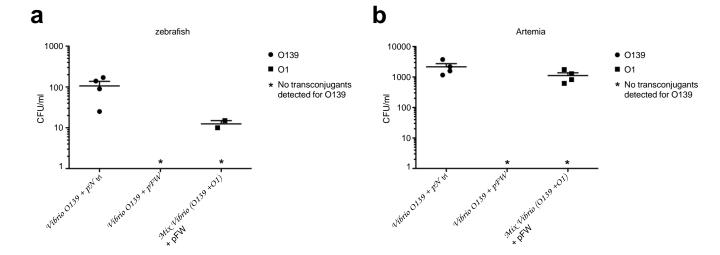


Figure 4