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For better or worse: genomic consequences of intracellular mutualism and parasitism

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Bacteria that replicate within eukaryotic host cells include a variety of pathogenic and mutualistic species. Early genome data for these intracellular associates suggested they experience continual gene loss, little if any gene acquisition, and minimal recombination in small, isolated populations. This view of reductive evolution is itself evolving as new genome sequences clarify mechanisms and outcomes of diverse intracellular associations. Recently sequenced genomes have confirmed a trajectory of gene loss and exceptional genome stability in long-term, nutritional mutualists and certain pathogens. However, new genome data for the Rickettsiales and Chlamydiales indicate more repeated DNA, a greater abundance of mobile DNA elements, and more labile genome dynamics than previously suspected for ancient intracellular lineages. Surprising discoveries of conjugation machinery in the parasite *Rickettsia felis* and the amoebae symbiont *Parachlamydia* sp. suggest that DNA transfer might play key roles in some intracellular taxa.

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Introduction

In bacterial evolution, the transition from a free-living existence to a close relationship with eukaryotic cells represents a frequent theme. Certain bacterial symbionts have taken such associations to the extreme by completely abandoning any semblance of a free-living phase and replicating solely within the domain of a host cell. Throughout the history of life, these obligately intracellular bacteria have acted as major evolutionary catalysts, being involved in the origin of organelles and the diversification of eukaryotes. Present-day intracellular associations include a range of parasites, mutualists and commensal symbionts that play important roles in the

ecology and physiology of their hosts (see Glossary for many of the terms mentioned in the Introduction) [1].

Owing to their medical and ecological importance, intracellular bacteria have been targets of numerous genome sequencing projects that have provided insights into the consequences of this specialized lifestyle (Table 1; Box 1). We have learned that, typically, these species have drastically reduced genomes that encode a streamlined metabolism, show rapid DNA sequence evolution and strong nucleotide compositional biases, and exhibit lower levels of genome flux (i.e. gene acquisition from foreign sources, and intragenomic changes such as inversions and translocations). The integration of population genetic processes with knowledge of bacterial physiology and ecology has helped to clarify mechanisms that might explain these common features.

In particular, current views of 'reductive evolution' emphasize that fundamental evolutionary processes — natural selection, mutation and genetic drift — might affect intracellular species differently than they do free-living ones [2,3]. For instance, genome streamlining might reflect relaxed purifying selection on metabolic functions that are dispensable in a resource-rich intracellular niche. In addition, strong effects of nucleotide mutations in intracellular bacteria might elevate rates of gene disruption, followed by erosion owing to a deletion bias in bacteria [4]. Many intracellular endosymbionts show few if any signs of gene acquisition. This is thought to reflect their generally low levels of repeats and mobile DNA, reduced recombination functions, and limited opportunities for DNA exchange among sequestered species [5]. Moreover, reduction of effective population sizes (N_e) owing to bottlenecks upon transmission [6] is expected to increase the rates of fixation of slightly deleterious mutations [7]. Lack of gene exchange would exacerbate this effect by preventing the recovery of beneficial alleles or entire gene regions that are lost [3,8].

This reductive evolution model offers a valuable framework to explain commonalities among intracellular bacteria, to identify informative exceptions, and to generate predictions that can be tested with new sequence data. The abundance of excellent reviews on this topic illustrates the utility of this conceptual framework in assimilating a wealth of new genome information and in guiding development of the field [9–15]. In this review, I discuss insights from recent — between 2004 and July 2005 — genome analyses of obligately intracellular bacteria that replicate solely within a host cell. These data

Glossary

Commensal symbiont: A symbiont that benefits from an association without conferring a serious disadvantage or advantage to the host.

Genetic drift: This describes the changes in the frequencies of alleles or genotypes as a result of chance alone. This stochastic effect plays an especially important role in small populations, in which drift can accelerate the fixation of slightly deleterious mutations [7].

Genome flux: A broad term describing changes in gene content or order owing to gene acquisition by horizontal transfer from foreign donors or recombination among related strains or species. This also includes intragenomic changes within a given genome, such as inversions, duplications, translocations and deletions.

Mobile DNA: Elements such as phage DNA, transposons, conjugative plasmids, insertion sequences and other DNA segments that move among or within genomes, typically without the need of extensive DNA sequence matches for homologous recombination. Often considered as selfish DNA that propagates at the expense of hosts and depends on occasional horizontal transmission for its maintenance.

Mutualist: A symbiont that provides a benefit to the host and, in turn, benefits from the association.

Obligately intracellular: An organism that replicates exclusively within a host cell.

Parasite: A symbiont that propagates by causing some degree of harm to the host.

Reductive evolution: A conceptual framework that considers the evolutionary and molecular mechanisms that drive genome streamlining in most intracellular bacteria. Current views suggest that gene loss reflects relaxed selection on dispensable traits, elevated mutation pressure, and even the loss of beneficial functions mutations as a result of genetic drift in small bacterial populations. Furthermore, reduced recombination documented in some intracellular associates might prevent the recovery of lost alleles or gene regions.

Symbiont: Any species that lives in close association with another. Broadly speaking, symbiosis includes obligate and facultative relationships that are parasitic, mutualistic or commensal. Among symbionts, endosymbionts are those that live within the tissues or cells of their hosts for part or all of their life cycles. Endosymbionts that can replicate within host cells are termed intracellular. Of these intracellular associates, certain highly specialized ones have lost the ability to replicate outside of host cells and are obligately intracellular — the focus of this review.

Type III secretion: An assemblage of ~20 proteins that spans the cell membrane, transports proteins out of the cell and mediates the delivery of specific proteins that suppress defenses or otherwise facilitate cell invasion.

Type IV secretion: Derived repeatedly from conjugation systems [83[•]], this is a secretion pathway that exports distinct DNA or protein substrates that cause various physiological changes in host cells during infection.

enable us to explore expectations of reductive evolution models — namely, that intracellular bacterial genomes are (i) severely reduced, (ii) specialized to their particular host association, and (iii) show patterns of genome dynamics that differ from those of free-living species.

Genome size reduction

The influx of genome data supports the general trend that strictly intracellular bacteria have very reduced genomes, typically in the range of 1 Mb or less (Figure 1). At 416 kb, the tiny genome of *Buchnera* BCc, associated with the cedar aphid *Cinara cedri*, is the smallest known for bacteria (A Latorre, unpublished). As expected from their small genomes, metabolisms of intracellular bacteria are

Box 1 Diverse lifestyles and host effects of intracellular bacteria.

Bacteria 'make their living' within host cells through a variety of strategies. At one end of the spectrum, intracellular parasites represent unwelcome invaders that spread at their hosts' expense and offer models to understand how bacteria exploit cellular functions. Fully sequenced representatives (Table 1) include *Mycobacterium leprae* and *Coxiella burnetii*, which have adopted an obligately intracellular lifestyle quite recently, and older intracellular lineages such as *Phytoplasma*, a plant parasite and close relative of the epicellular *Mycoplasmas*, in addition to parasites within the families Rickettsiaceae and Anaplasmataceae. In addition to vertebrate pathogens, Anaplasmataceae includes the invertebrate endosymbiont *Wolbachia*, typically a parasite in insects that hijacks host reproduction to increase the production of infected females. Given that other members of *Wolbachia* are mutualists involved in development and oogenesis in nearly all filarial nematodes, this genus shows a natural lifestyle variation that facilitates comparisons between mutualists and parasites.

The exclusive intracellularity across known Rickettsiaceae and Anaplasmataceae implies that they adopted this lifestyle at least 400 mya, a conservative estimate of divergence between the two families [27]. The even more ancient Chlamydiales acquired an intracellular lifestyle ~700 mya [28[•]], and today include parasitic members of the Chlamydiaceae that cause respiratory, ocular and genital infections, in addition to the recently sequenced *Parachlamydia* sp., a mutualistic symbiont of free-living amoebae and occasional opportunistic pathogen of humans. Although they share an obligately intracellular lifestyle, the wide diversity in tissue tropism, host ranges, life-history nuances, and phenotypic effects of intracellular parasites remain poorly understood.

Infections don't always turn out poorly for the host. At the other end of the symbiotic spectrum, mutualists provide benefits that increase the fitness of their hosts. In addition to the nematode and amoebae hosts mentioned above, insects as a group frequently associate with beneficial intracellular bacteria. These symbionts occur within specialized host cells, undergo maternal transmission to offspring and have co-evolved with hosts in stable associations that date back tens to hundreds of millions of years [69]. For example, estimated divergence times of host insects imply that the *Blochmannia*-ant and *Wigglesworthia*-tsetse associations originated at least 30 mya, and the even older *Buchnera*-aphid symbiosis was established ~150–200 mya. Such endosymbionts provide essential nutrients to about 10–15% of insects, most of which feed on nutritionally unbalanced diets (e.g. plant sap or blood). By enabling their hosts to exploit otherwise inadequate food sources and habitats, the acquisition of these mutualists can be viewed as a key innovation in the evolution of their hosts [70,71]. These 'primary' endosymbionts often co-exist with *Wolbachia* and facultative ('secondary') endosymbionts [72,73[•]]. Mutualistic symbionts and reproductive parasites might offer new tools for the modification, suppression, containment or eradication of arthropod populations of medical and/or agricultural importance (e.g. [74–76,86[•]]).

simpler than those of free-living or facultatively intracellular species with larger genomes. This reduction often involves massive deletions early in the transition to intracellularity (see Update). For example, reconstructions of early *Buchnera* evolution indicate deletions of large DNA segments, some of which encoded 20 open reading frames (ORFs) or more, in addition to exceptionally high levels of gene rearrangements compared with other γ -Proteobacteria [16,17[•]]. Sequence data from facultatively or recently intracellular species provide a window into these

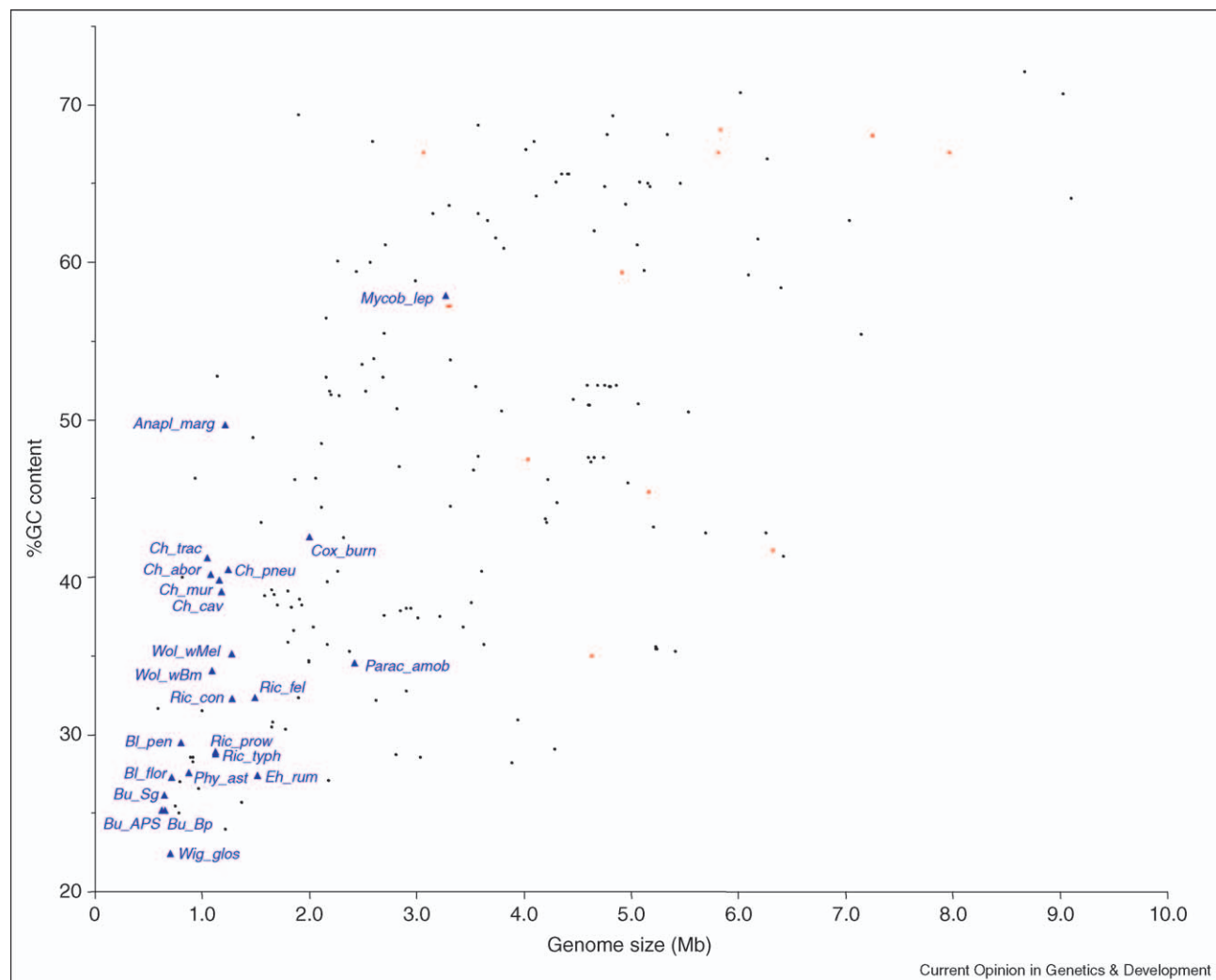
Table 1

Obligately intracellular bacteria with full genome sequence data (as of July 2005) or for which genome projects are in progress.

	Genome size (Mb)	Genome released	Host	Host effects
γ-Proteobacteria				
Enterobacteriales				
* <i>Buchnera aphidicola</i> APS	0.66	2000	Aphid, <i>Acyrtosiphon pisum</i>	Nutritional mutualist
* <i>Buchnera aphidicola</i> Sg	0.64	2002	Aphid, <i>Schizaphis graminum</i>	Nutritional mutualist
* <i>Buchnera aphidicola</i> Bp	0.62	2003	Aphid, <i>Baizongia pistaciae</i>	Nutritional mutualist
* <i>Buchnera aphidicola</i> BCc	0.42 ^a	In progress, University of Valencia	Aphid, <i>Cinara cedri</i>	Nutritional mutualist
* <i>Wigglesworthia glossinidia</i>	0.7	2002	Tsetse fly, <i>Glossina brevipalpis</i>	Nutritional mutualist
* <i>Blochmannia floridanus</i>	0.71	2003	Ant, <i>Camponotus floridanus</i>	Nutritional mutualist
* <i>Blochmannia pennsylvanicus</i>	0.79	2005	Ant, <i>Camponotus pennsylvanicus</i>	Nutritional mutualist
* <i>Baumannia cicadellincola</i>	0.69 ^b	In progress, University of Arizona and TIGR	Sharp shooter, <i>Homalodisca coagulata</i>	Likely nutritional mutualist
Legionellales				
<i>Coxiella burnetii</i>	2.03	2003	Reptiles, birds, and mammals	Q fever
α-Proteobacteria				
Rickettsiales				
Rickettsiaceae				
<i>Rickettsia conorii</i>	1.27	2000	Mammals, through insect vectors	Rocky Mountain spotted fever
<i>Rickettsia prowazekii</i>	1.11	1998	Mammals, through insect vectors	Typhus
<i>Rickettsia typhi</i>	1.11	2003	Mammals, through insect vectors	Murine typhus
<i>Rickettsia felis</i>	1.46	2005	Mammals, through insect vectors	Spotted fever
Anaplasmataceae				
<i>Anaplasma marginale</i>	1.2	2004	Mammals, through insect vectors	Bovine anaplasmosis, human granulocytic ehrlichiosis
<i>Ehrlichia ruminantium</i> (2 strains)	1.5–1.52	2005	Wild ruminants, through tick host	Heartworm disease
<i>Wolbachia</i> wMel	1.27	2004	Fruit fly, <i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	Cytoplasmic incompatibility
* <i>Wolbachia</i> wBm	1.08	2005	Filarial nematode, <i>Brugia malayi</i>	Worm development and fertility
<i>Wolbachia</i> wAna		2005 (95% of genome recovered from Trace Archive, [62])	Fruit fly, <i>Drosophila ananassae</i>	Cytoplasmic incompatibility
<i>Wolbachia</i> wRi		2005 (75–80% of genome recovered from Trace Archive [62])	Fruit fly, <i>Drosophila simulans</i>	Cytoplasmic incompatibility
<i>Wolbachia</i> wUni		In progress, EUWOL (European <i>Wolbachia</i> Consortium)	Parasitoid wasp, <i>Muscidifurax uniraptor</i>	Induction of parthenogenesis
<i>Wolbachia</i> wVul	1.6–1.7	In progress, EUWOL	Isopod, <i>Armadillidium vulgare</i>	Induction of feminization
<i>Wolbachia</i> wRi	1.5–1.6	In progress, EUWOL	Fruit fly, <i>Drosophila simulans</i>	Cytoplasmic incompatibility
<i>Wolbachia</i> – <i>Culex</i>	~1.5	In progress (http://www.sanger.ac.uk/Projects/W_pipientis/)	Mosquito, <i>Culex quinquefasciatus</i>	Cytoplasmic incompatibility
* <i>Wolbachia</i> – <i>Onchocerca</i>	~1.1	In progress (http://www.sanger.ac.uk/Projects/Wolbachia/)	Nematode, <i>Onchocerca volvulus</i>	Worm development and fertility
Mollicutes				
Acholeplasmatales				
<i>Phytoplasma asteris</i>	0.86	2003	Plants, through insect vector	Stunted plant growth and other symptoms
Actinobacteria				
Actinomycetales				
<i>Mycobacterium leprae</i>	3.27	2001	Humans and other vertebrates	Leprosy
Chlamydiae group				
Chlamydiales				
* <i>Parachlamydia</i> sp.	2.41	2004	Free-living amoebae	
Chlamydiaceae				
<i>Chlamydia muridarum</i>	1.08	2000	Rodents	Mouse lung or genital tract infections
<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>	1.04	1998	Human and other mammals	Chronic genital and ocular infections
<i>Chlamydophila abortus</i>	1.14	2005	Ruminants and swine	Ruminant abortion
<i>Chlamydophila caviae</i>	1.18	2003	Guinea pig	Guinea pig inclusion conjunctivitis (GPIC)
<i>Chlamydophila pneumoniae</i> (4 strains)	1.23	1999–2003	Human and other mammals	Pneumonia, bronchitis and pharyngitis

The list of genomes for which sequencing is in progress is intended to illustrate the rapid growth of this data and is not exhaustive. * Mutualistic association. ^a Updated from Gil *et al.* [84]. ^b Updated from Moran *et al.* [85]. Initials after endosymbiont strains often refer to the invertebrate host species from which the bacteria were isolated.

Figure 1



Genome size and %GC content of bacterial chromosome sequences, illustrating the small genome size and AT-richness of obligate intracellular associates. Intended as an update to similar published figures (e.g. [77]), this graph includes genomes that were publicly available as of July 2005. Genomes of multiple, closely related strains are presented with a single point. Blue triangles represent obligately intracellular species. Red points represent those species that possess two or more chromosomes (the mark reflects values for single chromosomes).

early stages of genome turbulence, when the proliferation of insertion sequences (ISs) and other mobile DNA elements might catalyze instability [9]. In addition, the larger genomes, numerous pseudogenes, and/or dispersed repeats in recent associates (e.g. *Coxiella burnetii*, *Mycobacterium leprae* and the *Sitophilus oryzae* [weevil] primary endosymbiont [SOPE]) also support an initial instability [18,19,20••].

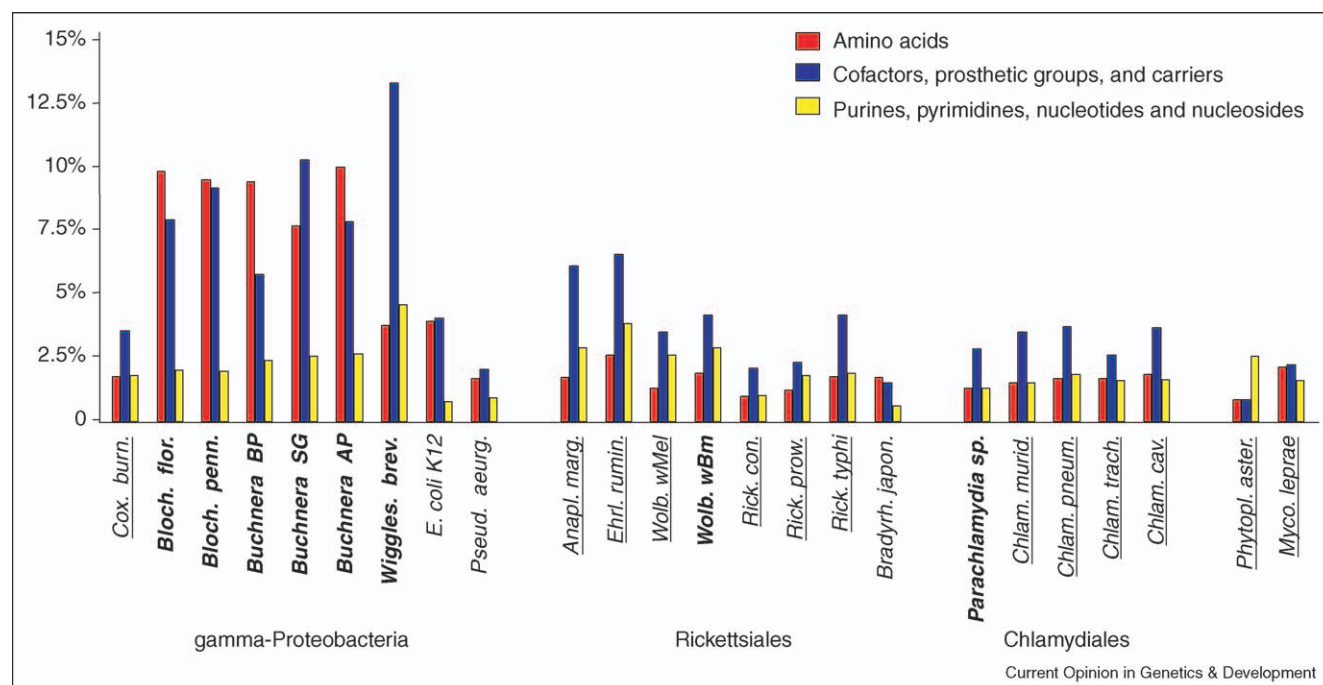
Genome size variation within endosymbiont groups indicates that streamlining has continued in the context of intracellular associations but in a much more gradual fashion. For example, in contrast to large early deletions, subsequent gene loss in *Buchnera* has tended to occur through gene disruption and gradual erosion, with inacti-

vated genes requiring ~40–60 million years to erode completely [21•]. This continued genome shrinkage leads to further metabolic loss. For instance, reduction in *Buchnera* BCc is caused by the loss of protein-coding genes, in comparison with the numbers in other *Buchnera* species, and not by the shortening of ORFs or intergenic regions [22••].

Specialization to the intracellular niche

What are the metabolic implications of severe genome reduction? Consistent with the prediction that many deleted genes were dispensable in a host cell, small intracellular genomes tend to lose genes for metabolic diversity but retain those encoding transcription, translation and other basic processes that are important regard-

Figure 2



Percentage of genes encoding particular biosynthetic functions. Y axis indicates proportion of ORFs involved in biosynthesis of (i) amino acids (red), (ii) cofactors, prosthetic groups, and carriers (blue), and (iii) purines, pyrimidines, nucleotides and nucleosides (yellow). Species in bold are obligately intracellular mutualists; those underlined are obligately intracellular pathogens. *Escherichia coli*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Bradyrhizobium japonicum* retain a free-living phase and are included for comparison. Full names of other bacteria are listed in Table 1. Values for *E. coli* and the γ -proteobacterial nutritional mutualists were based on re-analysis of genome sequences [37]. Data for other species was downloaded from the Comprehensive Microbial Resource at The Institute for Genomic Research (TIGR, <http://www.tigr.org/>) [78], for a more consistent comparison across genomes, but might differ from original genome papers. Readers interested in particular taxa are encouraged to refer to the original genome-publications. In the rare cases that TIGR counted largely overlapping, putative ORFs as two separate genes, these were counted as a single ORF for the purposes of this figure.

less of ecological niche [2]. The preferential retention of informational genes also holds within endosymbiont groups. Analysis of partial genome regions indicates that, compared with its *Buchnera* relatives, *Buchnera BCc* has undergone a more extensive loss of metabolic than informational functions [22^{••}].

The nutrient trade balance

Although all parasites and mutualists rely on their host for certain nutrients, they differ in the degree of their dependency. As expected from their roles in supplementing the diet of the host, primary, γ -proteobacterial mutualists of insects retain a wide spectrum of biosynthetic genes to fulfill symbiont functions, devoting a higher fraction of their genomes to biosynthesis than do free-living bacteria or pathogens (Figure 2) [11,15]. By contrast, intracellular parasites apparently rely on their eukaryotic host cell for many amino acids, cofactors, nucleotides and other compounds.

Though more subtle, the same contrast holds among species of the Rickettsiales and Chlamydiales orders, in which mutualists encode a wider array of biosynthetic

functions than do parasites. The relatively large (2.41 Mb) genome of *Parachlamydia* complicates direct comparison of genome proportions with its ~1–1.2 Mb parasitic relatives, but its retention of twice as many amino acid and cofactor biosynthetic genes suggests it imposes fewer metabolic demands on its host cell. Within Rickettsiales, the mutualistic *Wolbachia* wBm, unlike *Rickettsia*, retains the ability to synthesize riboflavin and other coenzymes [23^{••}]. Biosynthesis of riboflavin and heme might be key functions of the symbiont, because, to date, neither pathway has been detected in the *Brugia malayi* genome [24]. *Wolbachia* wBm also retains complete pathways for biosynthesis of purines and pyrimidines, and might supplement the nematode's nucleotide pools during oogenesis and embryogenesis [23^{••}]. Although the parasitic *Wolbachia* wMel shares many of these same functions, the nematode mutualist devotes a larger fraction of its smaller genome to these potentially host-beneficial traits.

Shared infection strategies of mutualists and pathogens

One of the surprises from molecular studies of host-associated bacteria has been the discovery of 'virulence'

genes in mutualists [25,26]. As expected, obligately intracellular parasites typically encode numerous mechanisms to infect various tissue and cell types and to evade an ever-adapting host immune system. These mechanisms include Type III secretion (in Chlamydiales), Type IV secretion (*Coxiella* and Rickettsiales) [see Glossary], and paralogous families of polymorphic surface proteins (e.g. in *R. felis*, *Anaplasma* and *Ehrlichia*) [27].

Certain obligately intracellular mutualists also possess such so-called pathogenicity genes. The discovery of Type III secretion in *Parachlamydia* highlights parallels with related parasites and implies that the ancestor of this group could infect cells [28^{••}]. In a similar manner to certain insect endosymbionts [29], this amoebae associate might deliver specific proteins into host cells to facilitate invasion. This exciting discovery pushes the origin of infectious chlamydia back to ~700 million years ago (mya), arguably the oldest intracellular group that today spans diverse host associations and effects [30,31[•]]. In a similar fashion to its pathogenic relatives, *Parachlamydia* imports ATP from the host cytosol using an ATP/ADP translocase, an ‘energy-parasite’ transport system unique to Rickettsiales, Chlamydiales, and plant plastids [32[•]]. *Parachlamydia* apparently acquired Type IV secretion through horizontal gene transfer, making it the only chlamydia to possess this pathway [28^{••}].

Wolbachia spp. might also use common infection strategies across diverse interaction types. As with *Wolbachia* wMel and other parasitic α -Proteobacteria, *Wolbachia* wBm possesses Type IV secretion in its stable mutualistic association with nematodes [23^{••}]. The shared presence of ankyrin repeats in both *Wolbachia* genomes — although there are fewer in *Wolbachia* wBm — might mediate attachment of endosymbionts to the cytoskeleton, modulation of host gene expression, or other activities essential to their intracellular lifestyle. The roles of these and other *Wolbachia* genes in shaping its varied host interactions are promising new areas of research [33,34] (see Update).

Even the long-term insect mutualists possess genes once considered to be in the purview of parasitism. The urease gene cluster, which encodes significant virulence factors in some bacterial and fungal pathogens [35], is retained in *Blochmannia*, apparently enabling this ant symbiont to hydrolyze insect host waste (urea) to ammonia used in amino acid biosynthesis [36,37]. The overexpression of GroEL in certain insect mutualists [38] also occurs in some pathogens, in which this and other heat-shock proteins are major antigens and candidates for vaccine development [39–41]. The functions of GroEL in mutualists remain uncertain, but it might help the folding of endosymbiont proteins that have experienced deleterious amino acid changes [42], mediate viral transmission through certain insect hosts [43], or counter irreversible

oxidative modifications during stationary phase [44], in which endosymbionts probably spend much of their life cycle. Other parallels with pathogens include the retention of outer membrane proteins and flagellar genes, the latter of which might be involved in secretion [45]. These parallels suggest that ‘pathogenicity’ functions might have evolved in the context of beneficial interactions and today play generally important roles for host-associated bacteria.

Deleterious deletions

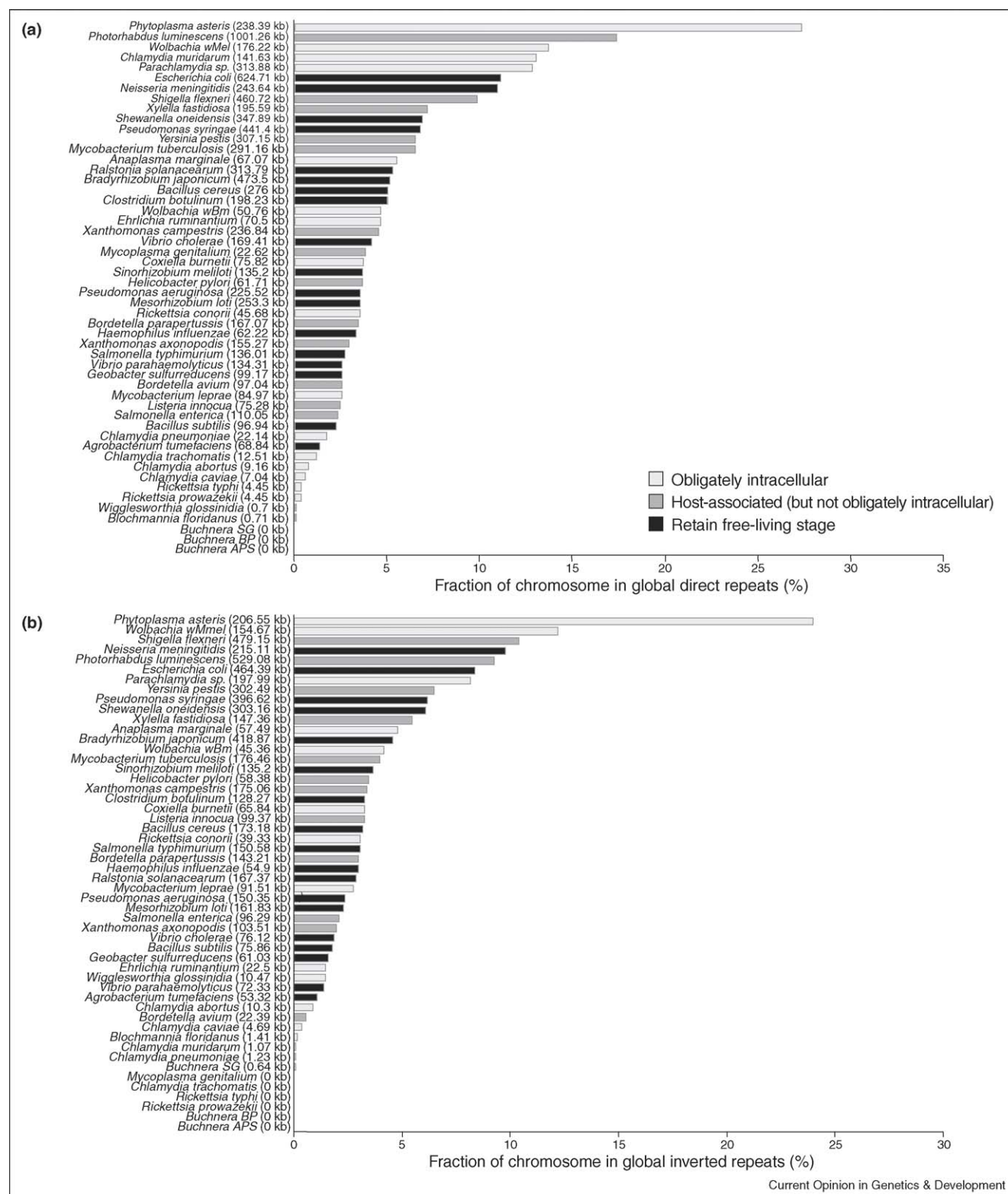
In contrast to the above examples of adaptation to an intracellular lifestyle, it is more difficult to infer cases of deleterious deletions that are fixed by genetic drift, another component of the reductive evolution model. Candidates for harmful deletions include the loss of several DNA repair functions, a convergent pattern across intracellular pathogens and mutualists. Notably, in *Buchnera* many DNA repair loci were lost in large, early deletions that included numerous genes of varied functions, a pattern that is difficult to reconcile with adaptive fine-tuning of gene content [17[•]]. The loss of repair functions might contribute to the drop in %GC content associated with genome reduction (Figure 1). Namely, AT bias might reflect greater exposure of an underlying GC→AT mutational pressure in small genomes that lack many DNA repair functions (but see the study by Rocha and Danchin [46] for a metabolic hypothesis for AT bias).

Genome dynamics within a host cell

As noted above, initial genome turbulence of intracellularity is thought to be followed by genetic stability associated with the consumption of recombination genes and repeated DNA in large deletions, reduced opportunities for gene exchange in a sequestered environment, and extinction of mobile DNA species that require horizontal transmission for their maintenance.

Is recent genome data consistent with genetic stability of long-term intracellular associates? In many cases, the answer is a resounding yes. Although horizontal gene transfer can be important in the evolution of new host associations [47], strictly intracellular associates often show little evidence of laterally acquired genes. In *Buchnera*, this stability extends to intragenomic dynamics, with no gene acquisition, inversions or translocations throughout 50–70 million years of evolution within aphids [48], and near-perfect conservation of gene order since the establishment of this association 150–200 mya [49] (bio-synthetic plasmids have mediated the few exceptions to genome stability in this group [50,51[•]]). Within the ant mutualist *Blochmannia*, lineages that diverged ~20 mya exhibit a similar pattern of chromosome stasis [37]. Such stability also characterizes certain long-term intracellular pathogens, for which rare cases of horizontal transfer (e.g. a potentially acquired 12 kb sequence in *Rickettsia typhi* [52]) appear to be the exceptions, synteny between

Figure 3



Fraction of bacterial chromosomes devoted to **(a)** global direct repeats and **(b)** global inverted repeats. Although certain obligately intracellular bacteria have few if any repeats, others have repeat densities that match or exceed those of facultatively intracellular or free-living species. Values represent only long repeats (≥ 100 nucleotides long, with at least an 80% match among copies), a category that mediates large-scale inversions, duplications and deletions. Values were obtained from the CBS (Centre for Biological Sequence Analysis) Genome Atlas Database

species implies few intragenomic rearrangements [48,53], and repeated DNA is often scarce (Figure 3) [5].

However, recent data indicate that DNA transfer might play a key role in shaping other intracellular associates. The *R. felis* genome revealed the first conjugative plasmid discovered in intracellular bacteria, and experimental analysis demonstrated conjugative pili and mating [54**]. *R. felis* also stands out among *Rickettsia* in having abundant transposases, a >six-fold higher density of repeats, paralogous gene families encoding surface proteins, and evidence for frequent inversions and translocations that disrupt synteny. Of the ORFs lacking in other *Rickettsia* spp., 91 have closest matches outside of the α -Proteobacteria, implying that a sizable fraction of this genome might be horizontally acquired. Notably, in the transmission of *R. felis* through flea vectors, co-infection with *Bartonella henselae*, *Bartonella quintana* or *Wolbachia* might enable opportunities for gene transfer [54**].

Genetic machinery for DNA transfer also occurs in *Parachlamydia* spp., each of which possesses a genomic island encoding all *tra* genes essential for F-like conjugative DNA transfer, the first evidence for a putative conjugative system in the Chlamydiales [28**,55*]. Conjugation might occur within the amoebae host containing numerous bacteria tightly packed in vacuoles [56]. Although base composition analysis revealed few signs of recent lateral gene acquisition, the apparent acquisitions of F-like conjugative DNA transfer and, as noted above, of Type IV secretion might be important in shaping host interactions [28**].

In addition to conjugation machinery, certain intracellular bacteria possess more mobile DNA, such as bacteriophage and transposable elements, than previously suspected [57] (see Update). Although missing from nutritional mutualists, such elements persist in long-term intracellular species such as *Parachlamydia* spp., *R. felis*, *Phytoplasma asteris*, *Wolbachia* wMel and, to a lesser extent, *Wolbachia* wBm [23**,54**,58**,59,60]. These and other intracellular bacteria also have surprisingly abundant repeated DNA sequences, devoting a relatively large fraction of their chromosomes to global direct and inverted repeats that can mediate large-scale intragenomic rearrangements (Figure 3). The growing list of examples of disrupted synteny implies frequent inversions and translocations [23**,28**,58**,61*].

Other examples of genome flux come from re-analysis of available genomes, often within a phylogenetic context.

Detailed phylogenetic analysis showed fifteen cases of gene transfer into the Chlamydiaceae from plant, fungal, archaeobacterial and bacterial donors [62]. Recombination among closer relatives was demonstrated by Gomes and colleagues [63*], who showed that transfer had occurred between the rodent-associated *Chlamydia muridarum* and *Chlamydia caviae*, and demonstrated frequent recombination among *Chlamydia trachomatis* strains at genes encoding polymorphic membrane proteins (pmps), a Chlamydiaceae-specific family of proteins, members of which are expressed on the cell surface. The same study discovered the first IS element in this group. Because subtle variations in gene content can lead to important differences in host ranges and phenotypic effects, just a handful of genes might influence pathogenic signatures [64]. Thus, even occasional gene transfer might be biologically significant.

At a more local genomic level, recombination among tandem repeats or among paralogous gene copies enables certain parasites to respond to the adaptive immune response of vertebrate hosts. Many intracellular parasites commit a high percentage of their tiny genomes to paralogous families of polymorphic surface molecules, suggesting that host immunity is among the 'highest priority' of the challenges they face [27] (see Update). By recombining various pseudogenes into a single expression site, *Anaplasma* spp. have generated sequential diversity of membrane proteins, thereby achieving a persistent infection [65*]. As crucial players in the generation of surface-coat antigenic variation, such pseudogenes are quite distinct from those reflecting genome erosion in Rickettsiales, *M. leprae*, *C. burnetii* and other parasites. In *Ehrlichia*, continual duplications among numerous tandemly repeated genes counter genome reduction by creating new loci that are important in immune evasion [66*]. In short, despite the exceptional stability of some intracellular associates, it is increasingly clear that intracellular lifestyle does not necessarily constrain genome flux.

Conclusions

The rapidly growing database of bacterial genomes has enhanced our understanding of processes that shape the outcomes of intimate bacterial–eukaryotic relationships. Models of reductive evolution offer a valuable framework to understand forces shaping the metabolic capabilities of obligately intracellular bacteria and their potential for genetic change. Recent genome data have upheld many expectations from these models, including severe genome-size reduction and metabolic specialization of intra-

(Figure 3 Legend Continued) [79,80] and were based on calculation methods described elsewhere [81,82]. Because searches were performed across entire chromosomes, values represent global, rather than just local, repeats. The location of the repeats along the chromosome can be visualized in the Genome Atlas or Repeat Atlas databases (<http://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/GenomeAtlas/>). The Y-axis lists the bacterial species name and, in parentheses, the length of DNA involved in repeats. The *Rickettsia felis* genome, not yet released when this figure was developed, has an exceptionally high fraction of repeated DNA [54**].

cellular lineages. As predicted, many intracellular genomes are exceptionally stable, showing little evidence of gene acquisition by lateral transfer and few if any intragenomic changes that disrupt synteny among related strains.

Recent data have also revealed some exciting surprises that illustrate diverse modes of genome evolution within host cells. Discoveries of Type III and Type IV secretion in mutualists highlight parallels among infection strategies and add to the growing evidence that 'virulence' genes can play crucial roles in beneficial interactions. In addition, genomes are teaching us that intracellular associates can experience various forms of genome flux, ranging from gene acquisition from phylogenetically distant donors, to intragenomic lability with frequent inversions and rearrangements, to specific recombination-mechanisms that generate antigenic diversity. This rather surprising component of reductive evolution has prompted new research into the impact of gene transfer and recombination in these species, including the roles of mobile elements that manage to persist in certain anciently intracellular groups.

Completion of additional genomes will provide a richer context to assess mechanisms of evolution and to make predictions about functions that mediate host associations. Testing these predictions will depend on the development of new experimental approaches to clarify processes involved in various stages of bacterial infection, persistence, and transmission to new hosts. Promising experimental methods often build upon genome data, such as the use of microarrays to assess gene expression [67**] and applications of an ever-growing knowledge of natural mobile DNA sequences to develop tools for the genetic manipulation of uncultivable bacteria [68].

Update

Since the July submission of this review, several important papers in endosymbiont genomics have been published (owing to space limitations, only a few have been added below). These include an exploration by Nilsson *et al.* [87**] of deletion rates and patterns in experimental cultures of *Salmonella enterica*. The authors detected very large deletions, similar in magnitude to those considered important in the early evolution of endosymbiont genomes.

Full sequences of extrachromosomal DNA (ecDNA) of *Sodalis glossinidius*, including three plasmids and a bacteriophage of two *S. glossinidius* isolates, revealed transposases, conjugation functions and evidence for recent gene acquisition [88**]. These findings illustrate the importance of gene exchange in the evolution of some intracellular associates.

In addition, several recent studies have explored the evolution of α -proteobacterial endosymbionts [89**–

91**]. These articles include an overview of genome plasticity in mutualistic and pathogenic α -Proteobacteria [89**], an investigation of the roles of ankyrin domain genes in shaping distinct reproductive alterations caused by *Wolbachia* [90**], and a population genetic study showing a recent global replacement of *Wolbachia* throughout *Drosophila melanogaster* lab stocks and field populations [91**].

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- This review highlights evidence for genome plasticity, including computational estimates of gene losses, acquisitions and duplications, among medically, agriculturally and environmentally significant α -Proteobacteria. The authors emphasize the importance of recombination in generating antigenic variability within pathogen populations, and note common patterns of genome reduction in intracellular species. This review also notes examples of genome reduction in 'real-time' during the course of a pathogen's infection of a single host individual and during lab cultivation of a plant symbiont.
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- The authors address the molecular mechanisms shaping the diversity of reproductive alterations that *Wolbachia* causes in hosts, with a focus on the potential roles of ankyrin (ANK) domain genes. These domains, known to mediate protein-protein interactions, are abundant in the *Wolbachia* genome. Comparisons of ANK domain genes with different effects across *Wolbachia* species revealed significant variation that might affect the functions of encoded proteins.
91. Riegler M, Sidhu M, Miller WJ, O'Neill SL: **Evidence for a global *Wolbachia* replacement in *Drosophila melanogaster***. *Curr Biol* 2005, **15**:1428-1433.
- Using polymorphic molecular markers to distinguish closely related *Wolbachia* strains, the authors sampled *Drosophila melanogaster* hosts from stock collections and field populations. They discovered that one *Wolbachia* strain has replaced all others in this fruit fly species during the past century. It is difficult to explain this global replacement by cytoplasmic incompatibility, but it might be linked to the recent invasion by P elements in this host and an establishment of a maternally transmitted repressive P cytotype.