1	Metagenomic screening of global microbiomes identifies
2	pathogen-enriched environments
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10 Abstract

Background Human pathogens are widespread in the environment, and examination of pathogen-enriched environments in a rapid and high-throughput fashion is important for development of pathogen-risk precautionary measures.

14 Methods In this study, a Local BLASTP procedure for metagenomic screening of pathogens in the environment

15 was developed using a toxin-centered database. A total of 27 microbiomes derived from ocean water, freshwater,

soil, feces, and wastewater were screened using the Local BLASTP procedure. Bioinformatic analysis and

17 Canonical Correspondence Analysis were conducted to examine whether the toxins included in the database

18 were taxonomically associated.

19 Results The specificity of the Local BLASTP method was tested with known and unknown toxin sequences.

20 Bioinformatic analysis indicated that most toxins were phylum-specific but not genus-specific. Canonical

21 Correspondence Analysis implied that almost all of the toxins were associated with the phyla of *Proteobacteria*,

22 Nitrospirae and Firmicutes. Local BLASTP screening of the global microbiomes showed that pore-forming

23 RTX toxin and adenylate cyclase Cya were most prevalent globally in terms of relative abundance, while

24 polluted water and feces samples were the most pathogen-enriched.

Conclusions A Local BLASTP procedure was established for rapid detection of toxins in environmental
 samples. Screening of global microbiomes in this study provided a quantitative estimate of the most prevalent
 toxins and most pathogen-enriched environment.

28 Keywords

29 Metagenomics, Microbiome, Local BLASTP, Toxins, Pathogens

30

31 Introduction

Rapid identification of pathogens in a particular environment is important for pathogen-risk management. Human pathogens are ubiquitous in the environment, and infections from particular environments have been reported worldwide. For example, soil-related infectious diseases are common [1, 2]. *Legionella longbeachae* infection has been reported in many cases, mainly due to potting mixes and composts [3]. Survival of enteric viruses and bacteria has also been detected in various water environments, including aquifers and lakes [4-7].

Examination of pathogens from infected individuals with a particular clinical syndrome has been a major achievement of modern medical microbiology [8]. Nevertheless, we still know little about the magnitude of the abundance and diversity of known common pathogens in various environments, which is very important to the development of appropriate precautions for individuals who work or play with certain environmental substrates. This can be realized through metagenomic detection of pathogenic factors in a time-efficient and highthroughput manner using next-generation sequencing methods.

43 Metagenomic detection of pathogens can be accomplished through different schemes. Li et al. examined 44 the level and diversity of bacterial pathogens in sewage treatment plants using a 16S rRNA amplicon-based 45 metagenomic procedure [9]. Quantitative PCR has also been applied for monitoring specific pathogens in 46 wastewater [10]. More studies have applied the whole-genome-assembly scheme to detect one or multiple 47 dominant pathogens, most of which were for viral detection in clinical samples [11-14]. Although metagenomic-48 based whole-genome-assembly for bacterial pathogen detection can be conducted at the single species level [15], 49 its computational requirements are high if in a high-throughput fashion. In 2014, Baldwin et al. [16] designed 50 the PathoChip for screening pathogens in human tissues by targeting unique sequences of viral and prokaryotic 51 genomes with multiple probes in a microarray. This approach can screen virtually all pathogen-enriched samples 52 in a high-throughput manner.

53 Despite the aforementioned progress in metagenomic tools for pathogen detection, metagenomic screening 54 for bacterial pathogens in environments such as soil, where microbial diversity is tremendous, is still 55 challenging. This is mostly due to difficulty in assembling short reads generated by next-generation sequencing 56 [8]. The whole-genome-assembly approach is efficient at identifying viromes, but not at dealing with bacterial 57 communities. Amplicon-based approaches are able to detect bacterial pathogens in a high-throughput manner; 58 however, it is well known that phenotypic diversity exists widely across and within microbial species of a genus 59 because of divergent evolution [17, 18]. This also holds true for pathogenic factors [19]. Moreover, toxin factors, 60 such as the Shiga toxin (stx) of Shigella, are primarily transferable through lateral gene transfer, which leads to 61 the continuous evolution of pathogen species [20]. Therefore, it is necessary to examine the pathogen diversity 62 in environmental metagenomes using essential virulence genes as biomarkers.

63 In this study, a toxin-centered virulence factors database was established, and the well-developed Local 64 BLASTP method was applied to detect virulent factors in various environments globally. This procedure is 65 metagenome-based and can be conducted in a high-throughput fashion, which greatly simplifies development of 66 precautions for pathogen-enriched environments.

67 Methods and Materials

68 Environments and their metagenomes

Twenty-seven metagenomes were selected and downloaded from the MG-RAST server (Table 1). These metagenomes were derived from ocean water, freshwater, wastewater, natural soil, deserts and feces, representing the major environmental media found worldwide. Sequencing methods of the metagenomes include the Illumina, Ion Torrent and 454 platforms, and predicted proteins in the metagenomes ranged from 33,743 (fresh water, ID mgm4720261) to 1,966,121 (weedy garden soil, ID mgm4679254). The gene calling results were used for toxin factor screening in this study. The taxonomic composition at the genus level was also retrieved from the MG-RAST server for each metagenome.

76 Toxin factor database

77 A toxin-centered database was established for bacterial pathogen detection in metagenomes in this study. 78 Candidate toxin factors for pathogenic screening of environmental metagenomes were gathered based on well-79 studied pathogens summarized in Wikipedia[®] under the entry of "pathogenic bacteria", the Virulence Factor 80 Database [21], a soil borne pathogen report by Jeffery and van der Putten [2], and a manure pathogen report by 81 the United States Water Environment Federation [22]. Sequences of the toxin factors were then retrieved by 82 searching the UniProt database using the toxin plus pathogen names as an entry [23], while typical homologs at 83 a cutoff E value of 10⁻⁶ were gathered from GenBank based on BLAST results. Considering that virulence 84 process involves several essential factors including toxins, various pathogen-derived secretion proteins were 85 also included in the database, and it was tested that whether secretion proteins were as specific as toxin proteins 86 for pathogen detection. The disease relevance of all virulence factors was screened using the WikiGenes system 87 [24] and relevant publications (Table 2).

88 Local BLASTP

89 The Local BLASTP was applied following the procedure used in our previous study [58]. Basically, the gene 90 calling results of each metagenome were searched against the toxin factor database using BLASTP embedded in BioEdit. The cutoff expectation E value was set as 10^{-6} . The results of the Local BLASTP in BioEdit were then 91 92 copied to an Excel worksheet, after which they were subjected to duplicate removal, quality control and 93 subtotaled according to database ID. Duplicate removal was based on the hypothesis that each sequence 94 contains one copy of a specific toxin factor, since the gene-calling results were used. For quality control of the 95 BLSAT results, a cutoff value of 40% for amino acids identity and 20 aa (1/3 of the length of the shortest toxin 96 factors (e.g., the Heat-Stable Enterotoxin C)) for query alignment length were used to filter the records. The 97 toxins abundance matrix was formed for subsequent analyses.

98 Specificity tests of the Local BLASTP method

99 Sequences from the toxin database established in this study, as "known sequences" to the database, were100 selected randomly and searched against the database using the BLASTP procedure. The genome of *Clostridium*

perfringens ATCC 13124 (NC_008261), as "unknown" sequences to the database, was subject the Local
 BLASTX procedure as well. Homologous proteins were searched exhaustively in the GenBank database using
 BLASTP, with the representative toxin factors in the toxins database as a query. Sequences were retrieved and

aligned using ClustalW, and Maximum-likelihood phylogeny was conducted with MEGA 7 [59].

105 Data analysis

106 The toxin frequency in each metagenome was normalized to a total gene frequency of 1M to eliminate the 107 effects of gene pool size. Toxin abundance in the 27 metagenomes was visualized using Circos [60]. The genus 108 abundance of all metagenomes was calculated and sorted by genus name, followed by manual construction of a 109 genus abundance matrix for subsequent biodiversity-toxin abundance Canonical Correspondence Analysis using 110 R [61].

111 Results and Discussion

112 In this study, a toxin-centered database was established for bacterial pathogen screening in various microbiomes 113 globally through a Local BLASTP procedure. The specificity of the procedure was tested, the relative 114 abundance of toxins in the microbiomes was examined, and the toxin-taxonomic abundance correspondence 115 analysis was performed.

116 Like the previously established Local BLASTN method for antibiotic and metal resistance genes screening 117 [58, 62, 63], the Local BLASTP method using the toxin-centered pathogen database in this study was successful 118 at accurately identifying toxin proteins from the database. For screening of the Clostridium perfringens ATCC 119 13124 genome, the methods successfully detected the pore-forming genes and multiple copies of the 120 glucosyltransferase (toxB-like) and ADP-ribosyltransferase (spvB-like) genes, based on the raw data. These 121 results are consistent with the virulence genetic features of *Clostridium* sp. [21], which have not been well 122 detailed in the GenBank annotation record. Such a cross-validation positively indicated that the Local BLASTP 123 procedure established here is useful in predicting toxin genes in unknown genomes. Yet for a semi-quantitative 124 method to estimate toxin factors in metagenomes, a false positive analysis is required to examine to what level 125 mismatch is included in the Local BLASTP results. Actually, the cutoff values of identity greatly impact the 126 homolog virulence factor abundance returned. At cutoff values of 40% for identify and 20 aa for alignment 127 length, only four records for *Clostridium perfringens* ATCC 13124 genome query were returned after 128 duplication removal, one for 1-phosphatidylinositol phosphodiesterase, one for pore-forming alveolysin, one for 129 Ornithine carbamoyltransferase and one for RNA interferase NdoA. At a cutoff identity value of 35%, one more 130 record (Toxin secretion ATP binding protein) was returned. This means that the Local BLASTP procedure was 131 able to detect the virulence factors in unknown genomic dataset at least semi-quantitatively, with proper cutoff 132 values for data quality control. The accuracy of the BLASTP procedure in virulence factor detection was further 133 tested using the genomes of Bacillus thuringiensis serovar konkukian str. 97-27 (AE017355.1) and Helicobacter 134 pylori 26695 (AE000511.1) (results not shown).

As mentioned above, functional genes including toxin factors may partly evolve through lateral gene transfer, which makes their taxonomic affiliation difficult. It is thus interesting to explore how specific toxin 137 factors are associated with the taxonomic units of pathogens. Here, I explored this issue by investigating the 138 taxonomic distribution of homologs of toxinsretrieved from the GenBank database. Generally, at a lower 139 expectation value, most toxins were associated with a specific group of pathogens. For example, at a cutoff E 140 value of 10⁻⁶ (the default unless specified), 241 out of 242 returned records of Mycobacterium tuberculosis 141 RelEhomologs fell within the phylum Actinobacteria. Moreover, 89% of these homologs were from the genus 142 Mycobacterium, while 99.7% of Yersinia pestis CdiAhomologs and 92.7% of Bordetella pertussis cya homologs 143 belonged to Proteobacteria, and homologs of Aeromonas dhakensis repeats-in toxin (RtxA) were mostly 144 associated with the class Gammaproteobacteria (206 out of 242). However, no obvious genus-toxin association 145 was identified. It is worth noting that these results largely depended on the availability of toxin sequences in 146 each taxonomic unit. The lack of a genus-toxin association basically denied the possibility of detecting a 147 specific pathogen using a specific toxin as a single signature [16].

148 It is still not clear whether virulence secretion proteins are specific for pathogen detection as signatures, 149 through they are essential for virulence process [20]. For example, the contact-dependent toxin delivery protein 150 CdiA was found to be widespread in bacteria [37]. The relative abundance of secretion proteins in the 27 151 microbiomes was determined as well as that of the toxins which are essential to virulence processes. The results 152 of the present study showed that the abundance of secretion proteins selected in the database was strongly 153 correlated with the toxin abundance ($R^2 = 0.80$, Figure 1). The most abundant secretion proteins included L. 154 waltersii toxin secretion protein (LWT1SS), L. pneumophila toxin secretion protein ApxIB, and Aeromonas 155 hydrophila RTX transporter (RtxB) (data not shown). Further exploration indicated that although A. hydrophila 156 RtxB homologs from GenBank were found in all Proteobacteria classes, most of the RtxB-harboring species 157 have been reported to be pathogens, including Vibrio spp. [64], Pseudomonas spp., Neisseria meningitides [65], 158 Ralstonia spp. [66], and Yersinia spp. [21]. This may imply the pathogen-specific nature of secretion proteins 159 included in the database, and that toxin secretion proteins can be used as signatures for pathogen detection as 160 well.

161 Toxin-phyla CCA results showed that all phyla can be clearly separated into two groups, and that almost all 162 toxins were associated with *Proteobacteria*, *Nitrospirae* and *Firmicutes* (Figure 2). Considering the phylum-163 specificity of the toxins stated above, these results can be biased because of the taxonomic affiliation of toxins 164 included in the Local BLASTP database. The taxonomic distribution proportion of currently available genomes 165 of identified pathogens was reflected in the toxin database, with Proteobacteria and Firmicutes accounting for 166 the majority of the genomes. However, the CCA results may also indicate, at least in part, a proportional lack of 167 pathogens in some phyla, such as Crenarchaeota, Euryarchaeota, Verrucomicrobia and Bacteroidetes [67]. 168 Archaea cannot easily absorb phage particles because of their extracellular structures, which differ from bacteria 169 [68]. A recent study by Li et al. also found that the five most abundant bacterial pathogens were from either 170 Proteobacteria or Firmicutes in wastewater microbiomes [9]. Taken together, these findings could indicate that 171 Proteobacteria or Firmicutes were evolutionarily enriched with pathogens when they dominated most 172 environmental microbiomes on the planet [69, 70].

173 Interestingly, there was a strong association between the phylum *Nitrospirae* and toxins of RNase 174 inteferases (MvpA and MapC) and *Listeria monocytogenes*1-phosphatidylinositol phosphodiesterase PLC. 175 Further searches against the UniProt database [71] revealed no homologous records of MvpA and PLC from

- 176 *Nitrospirae*, and only 109 out of 15,574 bacterial records for VapC were from *Nitrospirae*. These findings imply
- 177 that there are many more *Nitrospirae* pathogens harboring MvpA and PLC that have yet to be discovered.

178 The screening of toxins in the 27 global microbiomes revealed the most prevalent toxins and pathogen-179 enriched environment. Specifically, the results showed that the RTX toxin RtxA and adenylate cyclase Cya were 180 most prevalent globally in terms of relative abundance. RTX toxins comprise a large family of pore-forming 181 exotoxins. Known homologs in the GenBank database of Aeromonas dhakensis RtxA were mainly in the genera 182 of Aeromonas, Pseudomonas (e.g., CP015992), Vibrio (e.g., CP002556) and Legionella (e.g., CP015953). These 183 genera are well known to be associated with gastroenteritis, eye and wound infections, cholera and legionellosis, 184 and RTX toxins are a key part of the virulence systems of each of these conditions [72-75]. Cya is an essential 185 unit of Bacillus anthracisvirulence that causes anthrax and may lead to mammalian death [76]. Known 186 homologs in the GenBank database of Bacillus anthracis Cya were mainly from Bacillus spp., Bordetella spp., 187 Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Yersiniapseudotuberculosis, and Vibrio spp. Their presence in the environment 188 should be carefully examined and precautions should be taken to prevent infection by these organisms since 189 many of them are associated with very common diseases such as whooping cough.

190 The main purpose of the Local BLASTP method established here was to screen pathogen-enriched 191 environments to enable development of precautionary measures. Our results clearly indicated that contaminated 192 lake water, feces and wastewater microbiomes were rich in pathogens (Figure 3). Although there was no 193 detailed background information regarding these environments in this study, the results presented herein may 194 provide important implications for pathogen-related risk control. Surprisingly, two lake water microbiomes from 195 Nanjing, China contained the highest toxin factors among the 27 samples. Further investigation of the location 196 and contamination status supported the sewage-nature of the lake water. In China, most polluted lakes receive 197 sewage that includes feces materials [77]. According to an official survey conducted in 2015, Nanjing has 28 198 lakes with a total area of 14 km², among which 96.7% are classified as polluted (Class V of the national 199 standard). Studies have documented that pathogens tend to be enriched in polluted waters [14]. It is not 200 surprising to find that feces samples had very high abundance of toxins. Epidemical statistics have indicated that 201 feces are the most important pathway for diarrheal diseases, which is a leading cause of childhood death 202 globally [78]. Thus, the present study provides a method for obtaining quantitative estimates of pathogen 203 enrichment of various environments, and polluted freshwater systems are found to be highly pathogen-enriched 204 relative to safer environments such as ocean water and natural soils.

205 Conclusions

A Local BLASTP procedure was established for rapid detection of toxins in environmental samples.
 Screening of global microbiomes in this study provided a quantitative estimate of the most prevalent toxins and
 most pathogen-enriched environments.

209 Declarations

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218 Competing interests

219 The author declares no conflict of interest.

220 Availability of data and materials

- 221 The toxin database is available in the Supplementary Materials. All toxin abundance data in this study can be
- 222 provided by the author upon request.

223 Authors' contributions

- 224 XL initiated the study, analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript.
- 225 Ethics approval
- 226 Not applicable.
- 227 Consent for publication
- 228 Not applicable.

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393 Figure captions

- 394 Figure 1 Correlation between relative abundance of toxins and secretion proteins in the global microbiomes.
- 395 Figure 2 Canonical correspondence analysis of the associations between phyla and toxins.
- 396 Figure 3 Circular visualization of the toxin abundance in the microbiomes selected from locations worldwide.
- 397 The designated environment was prefixed with the first letters of the environment names and suffixed with the

398 last three numbers of their MG-RAST ID in Table 1.

	MG-RAST ID	bp Count	Sequence Count	Material	Location		Country	Coordinates	Sequencing Method	Protein Predicted
-	mgm4713202	89,726,117	442,552	Water	Moorea		Pacific Ocean	17.538, -149.829	Illumina	254,139
	mgm4713205	106,474,596	476,363	Water	Moorea		Pacific Ocean	17.538, -149.829	Illumina	235,777
	mgm4713197	60,417,678	272,918	water	Moorea		Pacific Ocean	17.538, -149.829	Illumina	140,195
	mgm4719940	360,335,259	1,425,556	Water	Irish Sea		Atlantic Ocean	53.225, -4.159	Illumina	1,023,445
	mgm4533707	134,833,790	668,257	Brackish Water	Columbia Riv margin, OR & W		USA	46.265, -123.999	Illumina	508,217
	mgm4720261	35,487,527	6,896	Fresh Water	Galway		Ireland	53.276, -9.060	Illumina	33,743
	mgm4695622	114,430,648	111,889	Fresh Water	Nanjing, Jiangsu		China	32.600, 118.160	Illumina	148,833
	mgm4695626	86,732,360	78,621	Fresh Water	Nanjing, Jiangsu		China	32.400, 118.140	Illumina	111,489
	mgm4589537	337,068,782	2,099,471	Surface Water	West Virginia		USA	38.094, -81.959	Illumina	1,842,975
	mgm4679248	603,919,746	3,365,512	Soil	Seoul		South Korea	37.460, 126.948	Illumina	1,361,948
	mgm4679254	689,019,062	3,688,750	Soil	Seoul		South Korea	37.459, 126.948	Illumina	1,966,121
	mgm4514299	322,114,449	242,0832	Saline Desert Soil	Gujarat of India		India	23.7925, 71.008	Ion Torrent	1,323,378
	mgm4543019	282,578,916	2,016,127	Saline Desert Soil	Gujarat of India		India	23.908, 70.538	Ion Torrent	842,475
	mgm4697397	143,214,978	397,067	Organic Soil	Beijing		China	32.054, 118.763	Illumina	299,940
	N/A	507,124,889	1,552,234	Shrub Land Soil	Mt Isa		Australia	20.440, 139.300	Illumina	1,413,889
	N/A	532,850,584	1,632,914	Red Soil	Mt Isa		Australia	20.440, 139.300	Illumina	1,408,943
	N/A	433,386,397	1,338,665	Red Soil Polluted	Mt Isa		Australia	20.440, 139.300	Illumina	1,081,822
	mgm4507016	163,648,718	227,551	Feces	Bologna		Italy	44.495, 11.343	Illumina	250347
	mgm4718752	329,518,322	1,312,822	Feces	Upstate NY		USA	42.668, -76.528	Illumina	950489
	mgm4568577	10,065,266	50,137	Mine Water	Guangdong		China	24.503, 113.710	454	34,287
	mgm4568580	12,911,442	62,018	Mine Water	Guangdong		China	22.940, 112.050	454	36,461
	mgm4620491	52,759,415	244,855	Biosolides	Guelph ON Cana	ada	Canada	43.545, -80.248	Illumina	238630
	mgm4546371	84,424,005	907,785	Wastewater	Universiti Malaysia	Teknologi	Malaysia	2.558, 104.642	Illumina	803,682
	mgm4620487	147,523,219	696,132	Wastewater	Guelph ON Cana	ada	Canada	43.5448, -80.248	Illumina	640,283
	mgm4620488	115,131,556	578,337	Wastewater	Guelph ON Cana	ada	Canada	43.545, -80.248	Illumina	537,267
	mgm4560423	22734940	73479	Feces	Lake Eyasi, Tanz	zania	Tanzania	-3.635, 35.083	Illumina	76,569

Table 1 General information regarding the metagenomes retrieved from the MG-RAST server

mgm4440281	35439683	334386	Mine drainage	Soudan Mine	United States of America	47.819, -92.243	454	227,038

Toxin factor	ID in the databse	Typical pathogens and disease	Role of the toxin	Referenc e
Mono(ADP-ribosyl)transferase	spvB	Salmonella dublin (gastroenteritis)	ADP- ribosylating, destabilizing cytoskeleton	[25]
Adenylate cyclase	cyaA	Sa. choleraesuis (typhoid fever) Bordetella pertussis (whooping cough) Bacillus anthracis (anthrax)	Pore-forming with cAMP- elevating activity	[26]
1-phosphatidylinositol phosphodiesterase	PLC	Listeria monocytogenes (listeriosis)	Lysis of the phagolysosom al membrane	[27]
Chlamydia protein associating with death domains	CADD	<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i> (trachoma, urethritis, etc.)	Inducing cell apoptosis	[28]
Listeriolysin O	hly	Li. monocytogenes (listeriosis)	Pore forming, hemolysin	[29, 30]
Alveolysin	alo	Ba. anthracis	Pore-forming	[31]
Perfringolysin O	pfo	Clostridium perfringens (food poisoning)	Pore-forming	[32]
Glucosyltransferase toxin B	toxB	<i>Cl. sordellii</i> <i>Cl. difficile</i> (diarrhea)	Cytopathic effects	[33]
Shiga toxin 1	stx1	Escherichia coli (diarrhea) Shigella dysenteriae (Shigellosis)	Haemolytic uraemic syndrome	[20]
Shiga-like toxin 2	stx2	Enterobacteria phage 933W E. coli	Haemolytic uraemic syndrome	[34]
Leucotoxin	luk	Staphylococcus aureus (sinusitis, skin abscess)	Lysis of leukocytes	[35]
Exfoliative toxin	ET	St. aureus	Proteolytic activity	[36]
Toxin CdiA	cdiA	E. coli Yersinia pestis (plaque)	Decreasing aerobic respiration	[37]

Table 2 Typical virulence factors investigated in this study and their disease-relevance

			and ATP levels	
RNA interferase	mazF/pemK/ndoA/relE/relK/relG/yoeB/higB/ mvpA	Proteus vulgaris (wound infections) Mycobacterium tuberculosis (tuberculosis) E. coli	Cleavage of cellular mRNAs, inhibiting growth	[38-43]
Endonuclease VapC	vapC	Shigella flexneri (diarrhea) Sa. Dublin My. Tuberculosis Coxiella burnetii (Q fever)	tRNase activities	[40]
Ornithine carbamoyltransferase	argK	Pseudomonas savastanoi	Promoting survival and pathogenicity	[44]
Exotoxin A	ETA	<i>Ps. aeruginosa</i> (eye and wound infections)	ADP- ribosylating eukaryotic elongation factor 2	[45]
Hemolytic phospholipase C	plcH	Ps. Aeruginosa Clostridium perfringens (food poisoning)	Membrane- damaging	[46]
ADP-ribosyltransferase toxin	exoS	P. aeruginosa	Inhibition of phagocytosis	[47]
Exoenzyme U	exoU	P. aeruginosa	Membrane- lytic and cytotoxic	[48]
Dermonecrotic toxin	dnt	Bo. pertussis	Stimulating the assembly of actin stress fibers and focal adhesions	[49, 50
Pertussis toxin subunit 1	ptxA	Bo. pertussis	Causing disruption of host cellular regulation	[49]

Repeats-in toxin	rtxA	Legionella pneumophila (Legionnaries' disease)	Adherence [51, 52] and pore
		Aeromonas dhakensis (gastroenteritis, septicemia)	forming
Aerolysin	aerA	Aeromonas spp.	Cytolytic [53] pore-forming
Cholera toxin secretion protein EpsF	epsF	Le. pneumophila	Toxin [54] secretion
Zeta toxin family protein	ZETA	Coxiella sp. DG_40	Inhibiting cell [55] wall biosynthesis
Toxin secretion ATP binding protein	LwT1SS	Le. waltersii	Toxin [56] secretion
Outer membrane channel protein CpnT	cpnT	My. tuberculosis	Nutrient [57] uptake
Type IV secretion system protein Ptl	ptlCH	Bo. pertussis	Secretion of [49] pertussis toxin

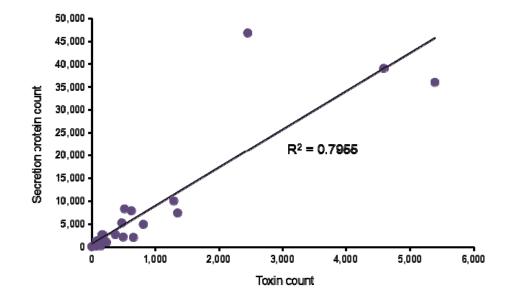


Fig 1

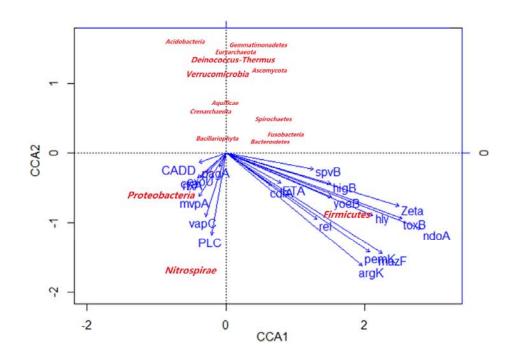


Fig 2

