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Research Article

CHARACTERIZATION AND PAN-GENOME ANALYSIS OF STREPTOCOCCUS SALIVARIUS

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Abstract:

Background: Streptococcus salivarius plays a pivotal role in maintaining oral and upper respiratory health. It serves as a natural barrier against pathogens and contributes to the equilibrium of the oral microbiome. Their pro-biotic attributes are garnering increasing recognition for their potential to support both oral and respiratory health. Aim: To perform comprehensive analysis of Streptococcus Salivarius genome data, investigating its secondary metabolites, antibiotic resistance genes, and virulence gene variants. Materials and Methods: The genomic sequences of 20 S. Salivarius strains were obtained from the NCBI database. Genome analysis tools, secondary metabolite detection software, and databases for antibiotic resistance and virulence genes were used to examine genomic information. Result: This analysis elucidated the distinctive genomic attributes of FDAARGOS_1045, encompassing its varied secondary metabolism gene clusters, singular phylogenetic placement, and substantial number of unique genes. The distinctive characteristics exhibited by this strain suggest the potential presence of novel bio synthetic pathways and potentially valuable metabolites. These findings merit further investigation to explore potential biotechnological applications and to enhance our understanding of bacterial diversity within this species. Conclusion: It demonstrates the relationship between pan-genome, core genome, and gene count. This research enhances our understanding of S. Salivarius and provides a theoretical foundation for its medical applications. Further investigation of FDAARGOS_1045 is necessary to gain a more comprehensive understanding of S. Salivarius.

Keywords: Streptococcus salivarius, pan-genome, antimicrobial resistance genes, virulence genes, genome annotation, pro-biotic.

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INRTODUCTION:

Streptococcus salivarius is a bacterium prevalent in the oral cavity of healthy individuals shortly after birth. It is a gram-positive bacterium and S. salivarius is spherical, non-motile, non-sporing, and catalyzenegative. S. salivarius is also present in the stomach and jejunum, and plays a significant role in oral and digestive tract ecology [5]. Research has demonstrated that S. salivarius can secrete antimicrobial peptides that can be utilized as probiotic to enhance oral health [1]. S. salivarius K12 is the first strain employed commercially to develop an oral pro-biotic that aids in improving oral health and reducing halitosis [2].

Concurrently, S. salivarius is an opportunistic pathogen capable of infecting individuals with a compromised immune system. S. salivarius infections are infrequent under normal circumstances, but are more prevalent in institutionalized individuals, including those receiving care in hospitals or longterm care facilities, patients with compromised immune systems, and those with periodontal disease or poor dental hygiene. Biofilm formation by S. salivarius may contribute to dental plaque formation and oral biofilm development, resulting in dental caries and periodontal diseases. Infections caused by salivarius include bacteremia, meningitis, endocarditis, pneumonia, urinary tract infections, and cholecystitis [3,4]. S. salivarius is a rare cause of sepsis in newborns [5].

S. salivarius has been observed to exhibits drug resistance, particularly macrolides and tetracyclines [6]. This gene resistance indicated that S. salivarius can function as a reservoir of antibiotic resistance genes in the oral microbiota. Consequently, multiple drug resistance (MDR) has been detected in oral streptococcal isolates, with a combination of erythromycin, tetracycline, and ofloxacin resistance being prevalent [6,7]. These findings underscore the importance of monitoring the susceptibility of S. salivarius to antimicrobial agents as it can potentially mediate the transfer of resistance determinants to more pathogenic microorganisms [8]. The objective of this study was to examine the genomic characteristics of S. salivarius and explore its secondary metabolites, antibiotic resistance genes, and virulence factor types. To enhance the clinical application of S. salivarius and antibiotics by providing valuable insights.

MATERIAL AND METHODS:

Material

20 strains of *S. salivarius* with complete genome sequences were selected from the NCBI database, in which 12 strains had clear isolation sources, and their

complete genome sequences were downloaded in both fasta and GenBank (full) formats.

METHODS:

Average nucleotide identity (ANI) analysis and genome annotation

ANI analysis assesses genetic relationships at the whole-genome level. ANI/AAI-Matrix software (http://enve-omics.ce.gatech.edu/g-matrix/) was used to investigate the genomic evolutionary distances among different strains [9,10]. An ANI value exceeding 95% indicated conspecificities. Genome sequences were annotated using Prokka v1.13, obtained from Conda (v. 4.14.0) [11].

Genome phylogenetic analysis

The 20 genome sequences in FASTA format were submitted to REALPHY (https://realphy.unibas.ch/realphy/) for wholegenome comparison, using the ICDC1 strain as the reference and the other 19 strains for comparison [12]. The resultant tree file was imported into FigTree (v1.4.4, http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree) to construct and refine the evolutionary tree.

Pan-genome and core genome analysis

The GenBank genome sequences of 20 bacterial strains were submitted to PGAweb (http://pgaweb.vlcc.cn/) [13] for PGAP analysis using the GeneFamily Method (GF). Results in the Orthologs_Clusters.txt file were fitted using PanGP (https://pangp.zhaopage.com/).

Analysis of secondary metabolites, drug resistance genes, and virulence genes

Genome sequences in FASTA format were submitted **SMASH** anti (https://antismash.secondarymetabolites.org/) [14,15] to analyze the secondary metabolites of all 20 S. salivarius strains using the relaxed prediction method. Resistance Gene Identifier(: RGIhttps://card.mcmaster.ca/) was employed to analyze resistomes from protein, genome, or genome assembly data in FASTA format. Comprehensive documentation and a command-line version of RGI are available at https://github.com/arpcard/rgi for selecting the Comprehensive Antibiotic Research Database (CARD) [16]. The Virulence Factors Database (VFDB) [17] was utilized BLASTN/BLASTP searches http://www.mgc.ac.cn/VFs/ to identify the sequence homologs.

RESULTS:

Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI)

Average nucleotide identity (ANI) analysis was used to determine the connection between species in S. salivarius, with a 95% ANI value indicating the same species. This suggests an ANI identification criterion of 65%–90% for species and 90%–96% for subspecies [18]. Among all 20 strains of S. salivarius, this study discovered that the ANI values in 12 strains of S. Salivarius were 94% (Fig. 1), which is comparable to previously reported strain information. These 12 strains were ATCC25975, ATCC29745, DB-B5, FDAARGOS 259,

FDAARGOS_771, FDAARGOS_1045, NCTC_7366, ICDC_3, LAB_813, ICDC_2, SALI_10, and 57. I. ATCC25975 and ATCC29745, which were obtained from saliva, whereas SALI_10 and DB-B5 were collected from the oral cavity. FDAARGOS_259 was derived from the blood. FDAARGOS_771 was obtained from normal skin on the right arm. The ICDC_1 and ICDC_2 were collected from children aged 4-6 years. The ANI value between ICDC_1and ICDC_3 was 100%, and the ANI values across LMG 11489, JF, NCTC_8618, and NCTC861 were all 100%. All strains that shared an ANI value of 100% originated from the mouth cavity.

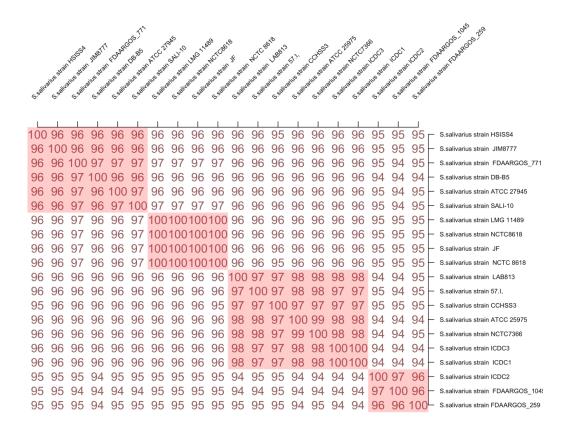


Fig. 1. Average Nucleotide Identity (ANI)

Annotation of the genome sequence

The number of rRNA of 20 strains was in the range of 15–23, and the number of tRNA was in the range of 67–68. Except for strains, FDAARGOS_1045 had a range of 58, the least among all other strains, LAB813 had a range of 74, which is above the range of other strains, and JF had the highest range of 91 among all strains. All the strains contained one transfer-messenger RNA in their genomes. The RNA, referred to as transport-messenger, or 10SaRNA, was first identified in *E. coli* and has the ability to break down aberrant messengers more quickly and recycle ribosomes that have stalled [19]. The genome size of all strains ranged from 2.0 to 2.4 MB, with the largest being the ICDC_2 strain from a 4-6-year-old child with healthy oral and the smallest being the FDAARGOS_771 strain from the normal skin of the right arm (Table 1). The whole-genome GC% content of all strains ranged from 39.5% to 40.5%.

Table 1. Genomic annotation information of 20 strains of *S. salivarius*

Strain	rRNA	CDS	tRNA	tmRNA	Genome size (MB)	GC content (%)	Isolation source	NCBI accession number
57.I	18	1947	68	1	2.1	40	Not available	NC_017594.1
ATCC_25975	18	1981	68	1	2.3	40	Saliva	NZ_CP015283.1
ATCC_29745	18	1885	68	1	2.1	40	Saliva	NZ_CP015282.1
CCHSS3	18	2004	68	1	2.2	40	Not available	NC_015760.1
DB-B5	18	1904	68	1	2.3	40	Oral	NZ_CP054153.
FDAARGOS_259	18	2051	68	1	2.3	40	Oral	NZ_CP054153.1
FDAARGOS_771	18	1853	68	1	2	40	Normal skin of the right arm	NZ_CP053998.1
FDAARGOS_1045	15	2123	58	1	2.3	39.5	Not available	NZ_CP066093.1
HSISS4	18	1876	68	1	2.1	40	Ileostomy effluent eveningsample obtained from a 79-year-old male ileostomy plated on Mitis-salivarius agar	NZ_CP013216.1
ICDC_1	18	1974	68	1	2.2	40	4-6-year-old child with healthy oral	NZ_CP018186.1
ICDC_2	18	2028	68	1	2.4	40	4-6-year-old child with	NZ_CP018187.1
ICDC_3	18	1976	68	1	2.2	40	healthy oral 4-6-year-old child with healthy oral	NZ_CP018189.1
JF	22	1987	91	1	2.2	40	Oral	NZ_CP014144.1
JIM8777	18	1971	68	1	2.2	40	Not available	NC_017595.1
LAB_813	23	2027	74	1	2.4	40	Not available	NZ_CP040804.1
LMG11489	15	1993	67	1	2.2	40	Not available	NZ_CP133476.1
NCTC_8618	18	1992	68	1	2.2	40	Oral cavity	NZ_CP009913.1
NCTC_7366	18	1986	68	1	2.2	40	Not available: to be reported later	NZ_LS483366.1
NCTC8618	18	2001	68	1	2.1	40	Not available	NZ_LR134274.1
SALI-10	18	1849	68	1	2.3	40.5	Human oral cavity	NZ_CP090007.1

Analysis of genome-based on phylogenetic tree

The whole-genome phylogenetic tree (**Fig. 2**) showed that the 20 *S. Salivarius* strains were divided into three main branches. The first branch is the *S. Salivarius* strain ICDC_2 source, which is a 4–6-year-old child with a healthy oral cavity. The second branch indicates *S. Salivarius* strain FDAARGOS_1045, the source of which is unknown, whereas the third branch contains the remaining strains.

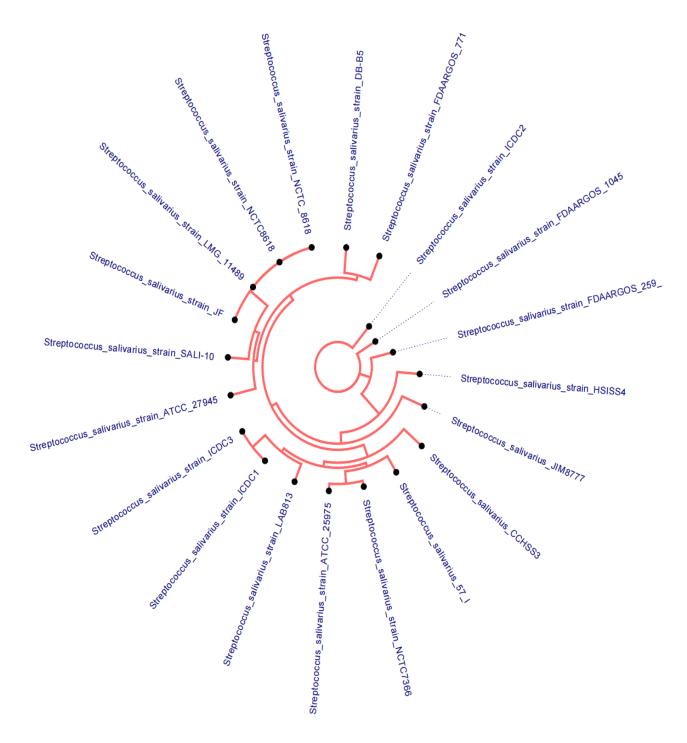


Fig. 2 Whole genome phylogenetic tree of 20 S. Salivarius strain.

Pan-genome and core genome analysis

20 representative *S. salivarius* isolates from different sources were subjected to pan-genome and core-genome analyses (**Fig. 3**). A total of 38,370 genes were identified, of which 27,690 genes (72.16%) were shared by all genomes of the *S. Salivarius* strains, 950 genes were specific genes (2.47%), and 9,730 genes were non-essential genes (25.35%). Of the strains analyzed, strain FDAARGOS_1045 had the highest number of unique genes (179), and strain LAB813 had the most core genes (1396).

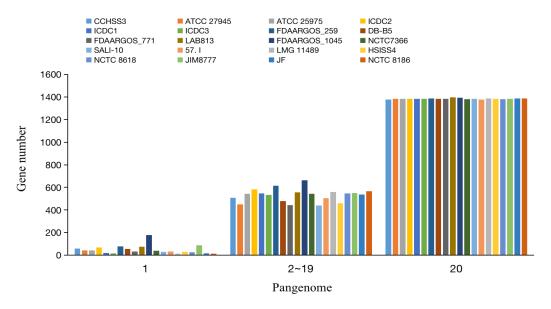


Fig. 3. Core and nonessential genes in the genome.

To infer the relationship between pan-genome, core genome, and bacterial count, PanGP was used to fit the data and obtain box plots of pan-genome and core genome, with blue indicating pan-genome size and green indicating coregenome size. As shown in (**Fig .4**), the size of the pan-genome increases with the number of genomes, and the fitting equation between the pan-genome (y) and genome size (x) is $y=668.48x^{0.39}+1186.9$; the size of the core genome decreases with the increase in the number of genomes. The fitting equation of the relationship between the core genome (M) and genome size (N) is $M=577.16e^{-0.31x}+1376$, which indicates that *S. Salivarius* has an open pangenome.

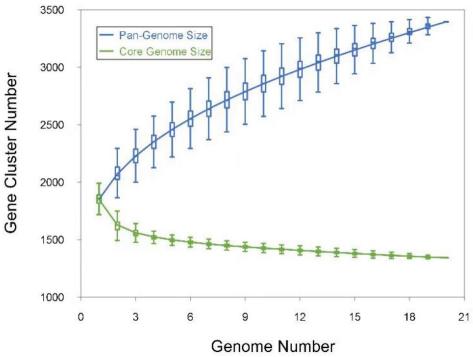


Fig. 4. Pangenome and core genome characteristic curves

The relationship between the number of new genes (T) and the number of genomes (P) was calculated using PanGP, and the fitting equation was $T=316.085P^{-0.65}$

As shown in (Fig. 5), it can be seen from the figure that as the number of genomes increased, the number of new genes gradually decreased until it leveled off and ceased to increase ($P \ge 7$).

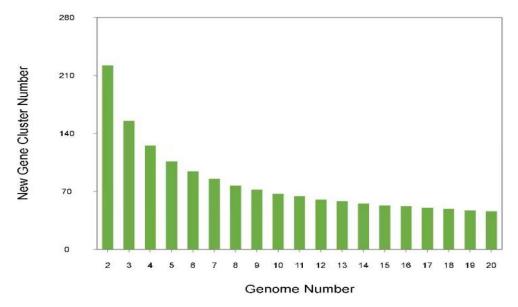


Fig. 5. Number of new genes produced by S. Salivarius

Secondary metabolite analysis

Using the antiSMASH online software, a total of eight8 categories, 81 gene clusters related to secondary metabolism, and 82 secondary metabolites were predicted. The (Table 4.2) included 47 *RiPP-like*, 20 *T3PKS*, 5 *Ras_Ripp*,4 *Lanthipeptide class-ii*, three *Lanthipeptide class-ii*, two *RRE-containing*, one *Lassopeptide*, one *LAP*, *thiopeptide*. FDAARGOS_1045 strain had more abundant secondary metabolism gene cluster types than the other strains.

Table 2. Secondary metabolite gene cluster and types of 20 strains of *S. salivarius*

Strain	Cluster	Type	From	To
57. I	Cluster 1	RiPP-like	311,902	330,735
	Cluster 2	T3PKS	1,533,945	1,5575,111
	Cluster 3	RiPP-like	1,863,631	1,875,727
CCHSS3	Cluster 4	RiPP-like	264,373	276,469
	Cluster 5	lanthipeptide-class- ii,RaS-Ripp	742,810	776,926
	Cluster 6	T3PKS	1,579,285	1,620,451
	Cluster 7	RiPP-like	1,782,054	1,792,350
	Cluster 8	RiPP-like	1,875,773	1,894,610
JIM8777	Cluster 9	RiPP-like	254,276	266,372
	Cluster 10	lasso peptide	519,883	542,318
	Cluster 11	T3PKS	574,836	616,005
	Cluster 12	RiPP-like	1,878,141	1,900,930
ATCC 25975	Cluster 13	RiPP-like	202,310	221,670
	Cluster 14	RiPP-like	800,229	812,325

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		2.22.44	00.4.4.0	0.40.04.4
	Cluster 15	RiPP-like	836,160	848,316
	Cluster 16	RaS-RiPP	1,264,148	1,286,572
	Cluster 17	T3PKS	2,108,816	2,149,982
ATCC 27945	Cluster 18	T3PKS	950,866	992,032
	Cluster 19	RiPP-like	1,258,856	1,270,952
	Cluster 20	RiPP-like	1,832,650	1,842,883
DB-B5	Cluster 21	RiPP-like	242,921	255,017
	Cluster 22	T3PKS	512,915	554,081
	Cluster 23	RaS-RiPP	1,331,210	1,353,501
	Cluster 24	RiPP-like	1,781,088	1,799,925
FDAARGOS_259	Cluster 25	T3PKS	352,775	393,941
	Cluster 26	RiPP-like	682,836	694,932
	Cluster 27	RiPP-like	1,330,010	1,348,795
FDAARGOS_771	Cluster 28	RiPP-like	804,636	823,458
	Cluster 29	RiPP-like	1,376,253	1,388,349
	Cluster 30	RiPP-like	1,415,590	1,427,746
	Cluster 31	T3PKS	1,669,477	1,710,643
FDAARGOS_1045	Cluster 32	RiPP-like	204,141	222,964
	Cluster 33	T3PKS	1,437,501	1,478,667
	Cluster 34	lanthipeptideclass-ii	1,534,986	1,557,820
	Cluster 35	lanthipeptide-class-ii	1,600,707	1,623,487
	Cluster 36	RRE-containing	1,624,114	1,646,975
	Cluster 37	RRE-containing	1,650,517	1,670,777
	Cluster 38	RiPP-like	1,958,733	1,970,829
HSISS4	Cluster 39	RiPP-like	244,219	256,315
	Cluster 40	T3PKS	533,072	574,238
	Cluster 41	RiPP-like	1,775,315	1,794,142
	Cluster 42	RiPP-like	1,858,797	1,868,997
ICDC1	Cluster 43	RiPP-like	260,291	272,387
	Cluster 44	T3PKS	1,559,574	1,600,740
	Cluster 45	RiPP-like	1,766,982	1,777,254
	Cluster 46	RiPP-like	1,861,023	1,888,089
ICDC2	Cluster 47	RiPP-like	274,734	286,830
	Cluster 48	T3PKS	577,443	618,609
	Cluster 49	RiPP-like	1,910,107	1,928,941
ICDC3	Cluster 50	RiPP-like	260,291	272,387
10203	Cluster 51	T3PKS	1,559,549	1,600,715
	Cluster 52	RiPP-like	1,766,977	1,777,249
	Cluster 53	RiPP-like	1,861,018	1,888,084
JF	Cluster 54	lanthipeptide-class-i	81,639	107,618
V-1	Cluster 55	RiPP-like	256,222	268,318
	Cluster 56	T3PKS	524,033	565,199
	Cluster 57	RiPP-like	1,710,927	1,733,713
LAB813	Cluster 58	RiPP-like	507,752	526,586
LIMOIS	Cluster 50	INI I -IINC	501,152	320,300

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	Cluster 59	RiPP-like	597,368	607,640
	Cluster 60	T3PKS	769,534	810,700
	Cluster 61	RiPP-like	2,076,684	2,088,780
LMG 11489	Cluster 62	lanthipeptideclass-i	324,444	350,423
	Cluster 63	RiPP-like	499,045	511,141
	Cluster 64	T3PKS	*	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
			779,635	820,801
	Cluster 65	RiPP-like	2,057,995	2,080,781
NCTC 8618	Cluster 66	lanthipeptide-class-i	135,668	161,647
	Cluster 67	RiPP-like	316,085	328,181
	Cluster 68	T3PKS	596,691	637,857
	Cluster 69	RiPP-like	1,863,368	1,886,155
NCTC7366	Cluster 70	RiPP-like	264,416	276,512
	Cluster 71	RaS-RiPP	732,792	755,216
	Cluster 72	LAP,thiopeptide	866,465	891,138
	Cluster 73	T3PKS	1,553,690	1,594,856
	Cluster 74	RiPP-like	1,843,989 -	1,863,349
NCTC 8618	Cluster 75	lanthipeptide-class-i	135,931	161,910
	Cluster 76	RiPP-like	315,757	327,853
	Cluster 77	T3PKS	596,347	637,513
	Cluster 78	RiPP-like	1,874,707	1,897,493
SALI-10	Cluster 79	RiPP-like	93,809	812,648
	Cluster 80	RiPP-like	1,370,670	1,382,766
	Cluster 81	T3PKS	1,658,885	1,700,051

Drug resistance genes and virulence genes

Analysis of resistance genes

Eight resistance genes are available from the CARD resistance gene database, namely VanT in the VanG cluster, VanY in the VanG cluster, VanY in VanB cluster, VanY in VanM cluster, qacJ, tet(M), ErmB, and catQ (Table. 3). In strain 57.1, VanT in the VanG cluster and VanY in the VanG cluster shared genes, whereas CHSS3 contained a separate gene VanY in the VanB cluster. VanY is located in the VanM cluster-specific gene of the strain JIM8777. VanY was found in the VanB cluster-specific gene of the strain ATCC 25975. FDAARGOS 259 contains aacJ. tet(M), and ErmB-specific genes. FDAARGOS_771 contains a tet (M)-specific ErmB gene. The ICDC-1 strain contained an ErmB-specific gene. The ICDC-2 strain contained a catQ-specific gene. The ICDC-3 strain contained an ErmB-specific gene. The VanB cluster-specific genes in the LAB813 strain included qacJ, tet(M), and VanY. Finally, the NCTC7366 strain contains VanY in the VanB cluster-specific gene. All genes share glycopeptide antibiotic as a

drug class and antibiotic target alteration as a resistance mechanism, except for tet(M) which involves tetracycline antibiotic and antibiotic target protection. qacJ is associated with disinfecting agents and antiseptics as the drug class, and antibiotic efflux as the resistance mechanism. ErmB is a macrolide antibiotic, lincosamide antibiotic, streptogramin antibiotic, streptogramin A antibiotic, streptogramin B antibiotic as drug classes, with antibiotic target alteration as the resistance mechanism. catQ is linked to phenical antibiotics as a drug class and antibiotic inactivation as a resistance mechanism. The CARD resistance gene database was used as the protein homolog model. The RGI criteria were Perfect, Strict, or complete.

Virulence Genes Resistance

To determine the virulence gene resistance, we used VFDB and performed BLASTN (nucleotide sequences from the VFDB core dataset {setA}). This procedure was performed using 20 bacterial strains. We obtained seven different nucleotide genes from the database with a score equal to or greater than 80. All strains shared five genes, including *hasC* (UDP-

glucose pyrophosphorylase), responsible for a hyaluronic capsule, and four others belonging to the protein family: *psaA* (manganese-binding adhesion lipoprotein), *lap* (Listeria adhesion protein Lap), *fbp54* (Fibronectin-binding proteins also known as fbpA), and *fbp54* (fbp from the family Streptococcus pyogenes M1 GAS). However, only a few strains have the specific genes *clpC* (endopeptidase Clp

ATP-binding chain C) and *pavB/pfbB. clpC* was detected in strains 57, I, CCHSS3, ATCC 25975, ATCC 27945, FDAARGOS_259, ICDC1, ICDC3, JF, LAB 813, LMG 11489, NCTC 8618, NCTC7366, NCTC8618, and SALI-10. In contrast, *pavB/pfbB*, a Plasminogen- and Fibronectin-binding protein B, was only present in three strains: JIM8777, FDAARGOS_771, and SALI-10.

Table 3 Drug resistance genes and virulence genes

Strain	Secondary metabolites	Resistant genes		Virulence genes		
		Shared genes	Specific genes	Shared genes	Specific genes	
57.I	RiPP-like T3PKS RiPP-like	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG	VanY in VanB	hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	clpC	
CHSS3	RiPP-like lanthipeptide-class- ii,RaS-Ripp T3PKS RiPP-like RiPP-like	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG	VanY in VanB	hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	clpC	
JIM8777	RiPP-like lasso peptide T3PKS RiPP-like	VanT in VanGVanY in VanG	VanY in VanM	hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	pavB;pfbB	
ATCC 25975	RiPP-like RiPP-like RiPP-like RaS-RiPP T3PKS	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG	VanY in VanB	hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	clpC	
ATCC 27945	T3PKS RiPP-like RiPP-like	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG		hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	clpC	
DB-B5	RiPP-like T3PKS RaS-RiPP RiPP-like	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG		hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap		
FDAARGO S_259	T3PKS RiPP-like RiPP-like	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG	qacJ;tet(M); ErmB	hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	clpC	
FDAARGO S_771	RiPP-like RiPP-like RiPP-like T3PKS	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG	ErmB	hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	pavB;pfbB	
FDAARGO S_1045	RiPP-like T3PKS	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG		hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap		

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	lanthipeptide-class-ii lanthipeptide-class-ii RRE-containing RRE-containing RiPP-like				
HSISS4	RiPP-like T3PKS RiPP-like RiPP-like	VanT in VanGVanY in VanG		hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	
ICDC1	RiPP-like T3PKS RiPP-like RiPP-like	VanT in VanGVanY in VanG	ErmB	hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	clpC
ICDC2	RiPP-like T3PKS RiPP-like	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG	catQ	hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	
ICDC3	RiPP-like T3PKS RiPP-like RiPP-like	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG	ErmB	hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	clpC
JF	lanthipeptide-class-i RiPP-like T3PKS RiPP-like	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG		hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	clpC
LAB813	RiPP-like RiPP-like T3PKS RiPP-like	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG	VanY in VanB qacJ;tet(M)	hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	clpC
LMG 11489	lanthipeptide-class-i RiPP-like T3PKS RiPP-like	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG		hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	clpC
NCTC 8618	lanthipeptide-class-i RiPP-like T3PKS RiPP-like	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG		hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	clpC
NCTC7366	RiPP-like RaS-RiPP LAP,thiopeptide T3PKS RiPP-like	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG	VanY in VanB	hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	clpC
NCTC8618	lanthipeptide-class-i RiPP-like T3PKS RiPP-like	VanT in VanG VanY in VanG		hasC;psaA; fbp54;lap	clpC

SALI-10 RiPP-like VanT in VanG hasC;psaA; pavB;bfbB; RiPP-like VanY in VanG fbp54;lap clpC

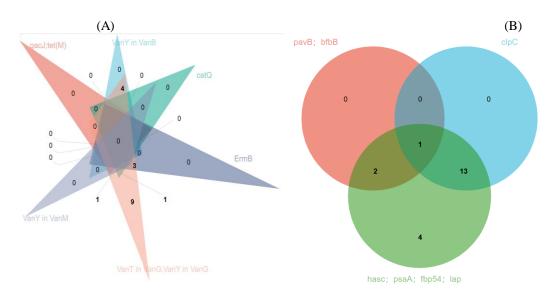


Fig. 6. Venn diagram of shared genes for resistance genes (A) and virulence genes (B)

DISCUSSION:

Twelve S. Salivarius strains had an average nucleotide identity (ANI) of 94%, including ATCC25975, ATCC29745, DB-B5, FDAARGOS 259, FDAARGOS 771, NCTC_7366, FDAARGOS 1045, ICDC 3, LAB_813, ICDC_2, SALI_10, and 57. I. This supports the existing knowledge. All the strains were isolated from the oral cavity. FDAARGOS 1045 had the lowest range (58), whereas LAB813 had the highest (74). All the strains contained 10SaRNA, which degrades aberrant messengers. Genome sizes ranged from 2.0 to 2.4 MB, with ICDC 2 being the largest and FDAARGOS_771 the smallest. The phylogenetic tree showed three main branches: ICDC_2, FDAARGOS_1045, and the remaining strains, each from different sources. Analysis of the 20 isolates identified 38,370 genes, of which 72.16% were shared. A total of 950 were specific genes and 9,730 were non-essential. FDAARGOS 1045 had the most unique genes (179), whereas LAB813 had the most core genes (1396). The PanGP data indicated an open pan-genome in S. Salivarius. The pan-genome size increased, and the core genome size decreased with more genomes. The relationship between the core genome and genome size was M=577.16e-0.31x+1376. Box plots indicate the relationship between the pan-genome, core genome, and bacterial count. The new gene count and genome relationship

used PanGP with T=316.085P-0.65. AntiSMASH predicted 81 gene clusters for secondary metabolism secondary metabolites, FDAARGOS_1045 having the most abundant gene cluster types. The CARD resistance gene database identified eight resistance genes, including VanT, VanY, qacJ, tet(M), ErmB, and catQ, sharing glycopeptide antibiotics as a drug class, with the exception tet(M) (tetracycline antibiotics) and qacJ(disinfecting agents and antiseptics). ErmB is associated with multiple antibiotics, with target alterations as a resistance mechanism. CatO involves phenicol antibiotics and their inactivation. The detection criteria used the protein homolog model, with the RGI criteria being perfect, strict, and complete genes only. VFDB and BLASTN identified virulence genes in 20 strains, with seven different nucleotide genes scoring 80 or higher. All strains shared five genes, including hasC for a hyaluronic capsule, and a few strains possessed clpC and *pavB/pfbB*.

CONCLUSION:

In this study, we conducted a comprehensive analysis of *Streptococcus salivarius*, focusing on its genetic composition and potential clinical implications. This study examined the presence and distribution of drug resistance and virulence genes in *S. salivarius* strains, providing valuable insights into the pathogenic

potential of the organism and its ability to withstand antimicrobial treatments. Additionally, this study delves into the genomic architecture of S. salivarius, exploring its core genome (genes shared by all strains) and pan-genome (the total gene pool of the species). This genomic analysis not only sheds light on the genetic diversity within the species but also helps in understanding the evolutionary adaptations of S. salivarius. Furthermore, this study predicted secondary metabolites produced by S. salivarius, which could have implications for its interactions with the host and other microorganisms in its environment. Elucidation of the relationships between gene numbers, core genome, and pangenome provides a deeper understanding of the species' genetic flexibility and adaptability. These findings collectively contribute to the theoretical foundation for potential medical treatments targeting S. salivarius and enhance our understanding of this important oral commensal. However, the study acknowledges that further research, particularly focusing on strain FDAARGOS_1045, is necessary to gain a more comprehensive understanding of S. salivarius and its potential clinical significance.

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