

Agrobacterium tumefaciens fitness genes involved in the colonization of plant tumors and roots

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Marta Torres, Audren Jiquel, Etienne Jeanne, Delphine Naquin, Yves Dessaux, et al.. Agrobacterium tumefaciens fitness genes involved in the colonization of plant tumors and roots. New Phytologist, In press, 10.1111/nph.17810. hal-03411269

HAL Id: hal-03411269 https://hal.science/hal-03411269v1

Submitted on 30 Nov 2021

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27 Summary

Agrobacterium tumefaciens colonizes the galls (plant tumors) it causes, and the roots
 of host and non-host plants.

Transposon-sequencing (Tn-Seq) was used to discover *A. tumefaciens* genes
 involved in reproductive success (fitness genes) on *Solanum lycopersicum* and *Populus trichocarpa* tumors and *S. lycopersicum* and *Zea mays* roots.

The identified fitness genes represent 3 to 8% of A. tumefaciens genes and contribute 33 34 to carbon and nitrogen metabolism, synthesis and repair of DNA, RNA and proteins and envelope-associated functions. Competition assays between twelve knockout mutants and 35 36 wild-type confirmed the involvement of ten genes (trpB, hisH, metH, cobN, ntrB, trxA, nrdJ, 37 kamA, exoQ, wbbL) in A. tumefaciens fitness under both tumor and root conditions. The remaining two genes (fecA, noxA) were important in tumors only. None of these mutants was 38 39 non-pathogenic, but four (hisH, trpB, exoQ, ntrB) exhibited impaired virulence. Finally, we 40 used this knowledge to search for chemical and biocontrol treatments that target some of the identified fitness pathways and report reduced tumorigenesis and impaired establishment of 41 A. tumefaciens on tomato roots using tannic acid or Pseudomonas protegens, which affect 42 iron assimilation. 43

• This work revealed *A. tumefaciens* pathways that contribute to its competitive survival in plants and highlights a strategy to identify plant protection approaches against this pathogen.

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49 Keywords: Agrobacterium, biocontrol, maize, poplar, root, Tn-Seq, tomato, gall

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52 Introduction

The pathogen Agrobacterium tumefaciens provokes irreversible damage on plants via 53 54 genetic modification of the host leading to formation of galls, also called plant tumors (Pitzschke & Hirt, 2010; Gordon & Christie, 2014). A. tumefaciens pathogenesis requires two 55 successive steps: host transformation and gall development, also called tumorigenesis 56 (Escobar & Dandekar, 2003). Under favorable conditions (plant wounding), the pathogen 57 transfers part of its tumor inducing (Ti) plasmid, the T-DNA, into the genome of infected plant 58 59 cells (Pitzschke & Hirt, 2010; Gordon & Christie, 2014; Gelvin, 2017). This DNA transfer involves a type IV secretion system encoded by the vir (virulence) genes of the Ti plasmid 60 (Gordon & Christie, 2014). Several chromosomal virulence (chv) genes of A. tumefaciens 61 contribute to severity of the symptoms (Garfinkel & Nester, 1980). In the plant host, genetic 62 screens revealed loci that modulate tumor formation (Nam et al., 1999; Gelvin, 2017). The 63 precise mechanisms by which T-DNA is integrated into host DNA are still under investigation 64 (Gelvin, 2021). 65

66 Once T-DNA is integrated and expressed, the host cells are functionally reprogrammed to proliferate (hence causing a gall) and to produce specific metabolites, 67 68 called opines, resulting from the enzymatic condensation of sugars and organic and amino acids. Omics analyses of plant tumors provoked by A. tumefaciens on Arabidopsis thaliana 69 70 revealed extensive reshaping of the gene expression profile in host and pathogen cells 71 (Deeken et al., 2006; Efetova et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2009; Gohlke et al., 2013; González-Mula et al., 2018). In galls, opines (e.g. octopine, nopaline) contribute to the maintenance 72 and dissemination of the Ti plasmid in Agrobacterium populations in two complementary 73 74 ways (reviewed by Barton et al., 2018; Dessaux & Faure, 2018): (i) opines are carbon and 75 nitrogen sources used by agrobacteria carrying the Ti plasmid, hence they confer a selective 76 advantage to pathogenic agrobacteria; and (ii) some opines (called conjugative opines) act as signals to activate horizontal transfer of the Ti plasmid by bacterial conjugation, hence 77 disseminating the virulence genes. In addition to opines, plant tumors accumulate a wide 78 79 spectrum of primary metabolites, including sugars (e.g. sucrose, fructose, glucose) and organic and amino acids (e.g. pyruvate, glutamine, proline) that may also be used as
nutrients by *A. tumefaciens* (Deeken *et al.*, 2006; Gonzalez-Mula *et al.*, 2019). Some plasmid
and chromosomal genes involved in the assimilation of opines and other tumor metabolites
contribute to reproductive success (fitness) of *A. tumefaciens* in plant tumors (Lang *et al.*,
2014, 2017; Gonzalez-Mula *et al.*, 2019; Meyer *et al.*, 2019).

Agrobacterium populations are common although not abundant within the root 85 microbiota of hosts and non-hosts (Bednářová et al., 1979; Bouzar et al., 1993; Gomes et al., 86 87 2001; Krimi et al., 2002; Vogel et al., 2003; Sanguin et al., 2006). Some of the cell surface components and regulatory pathways that promote attachment and biofilm formation of A. 88 tumefaciens on roots and inanimate surfaces have been characterized extensively (Heindl et 89 al., 2014; Matthysse, 2018; Thompson et al., 2018; Onyeziri et al., 2021). Research on 90 91 Agrobacterium biofilm formation and surface attachment are relevant to develop methods preventing root colonization (Heindl et al., 2014). 92

Almost 400 plant species are listed as hosts for agrobacteria, which rank amongst the 93 94 most promiscuous plant pathogenic clades (Bradbury, 1986). Millions of dollars of economic 95 losses are associated with crown gall disease every year (Puławska, 2010). Some disease control procedures exist (Escobar & Dandekar, 2003) for limiting sensitivity of the plant host, 96 eliminating pathogenic A. tumefaciens using biocontrol agents such as Agrobacterium K84 97 98 and preventing environmental conditions conducive to infection (mostly preventing plant 99 wounding). Still, pathogenic A. tumefaciens strains that are resistant to the K84 biocontrol agent are not uncommon (Moore & Warren, 1979; Burr et al., 1993). In the future, crown-gall 100 disease management is expected to progress thanks to an increased knowledge of plant 101 102 defense mechanisms (a recent example by Fürst et al., 2020) and pathogen traits involved in 103 plant colonization.

Decades of research on *A. tumefaciens* have produced a solid corpus of knowledge on T-DNA transfer, tumorigenesis and root colonization. Yet, a global, comparative picture of the *A. tumefaciens* fitness genes involved in the competitive colonization of tumors and roots of host and non-host plants is still missing. To address this question, we used transposon-

sequencing (Tn-Seq). Tn-Seq allows genome-wide screening of the microbial Tn-mutants
which are impaired in their relative fitness. Tn-Seq can pinpoint fitness genes and pathways
that allow the pathogen to competitively survive and proliferate in a given environment (Van
Opijnen & Camilli, 2013; Kwon *et al.*, 2016; Cain *et al.*, 2020). This approach was already
used in *A. tumefaciens* to determine essential and fitness genes in different culture media
(Curtis & Brun, 2014; Gonzalez-Mula *et al.*, 2019), but not yet in plant tumors and roots.

We report here inoculation of a Tn-mutant population of A. tumefaciens strain C58 114 115 into the roots and wounded stem of the host plant Solanum lycopersicum to identify and compare fitness genes involved in the colonization of roots and tumors. In order to identify a 116 common set of fitness genes allowing A. tumefaciens to cope with diverse plant conditions, 117 we extended our Tn-Seq approach to tumors of a ligneous host, Populus trichocarpa, and 118 119 roots of a non-host plant, Zea mays. We then constructed knockout (KO) mutants for twelve identified fitness genes to measure the effects on fitness under four plant conditions: tomato 120 121 roots, tomato tumors, poplar tumors and maize roots. Finally, we focused on the tomato plant 122 host to discuss genes and pathways involved in competitive colonization of roots and tumors 123 to evaluate the potential link between the identified fitness genes and virulence and to test whether fitness genes and pathways can provide targets for developing plant protection 124 strategies. 125

126

127 Materials and methods

128 Bacterial strains and culture conditions

A. tumefaciens strain C58 (also named A. fabrum C58), whose genome sequence is available (Goodner *et al.*, 2001; Wood *et al.*, 2001), was cultivated at 28°C in tryptone yeast (TY) medium (Beringer, 1974). *Escherichia coli* strains were cultivated at 37°C in lysogenic broth (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989) modified medium (LBm; 5 g l⁻¹ sodium chloride instead of 10 g l⁻¹). The biocontrol *Pseudomonas protegens* (formerly *P. fluorescens*) CHA0 and its derivative CHA400, which is defective for the synthesis of the siderophore pyoverdine (Stutz *et al.*, 1986; Keel *et al.*, 1989), were grown at 28°C in LBm. Media were supplemented when

appropriate with gentamicin (Gm; 25 µg ml⁻¹), kanamycin (Km; 50 µg ml⁻¹), ampicillin (Amp; 136 50 μ g ml⁻¹), rifampicin (Rif; 100 μ g ml⁻¹) and cycloheximide (200 μ g ml⁻¹). We used a *Himar1*-137 based transposon mutant library that was constructed in a Rif^R derivative of *A. tumefaciens* 138 C58 grown in TY medium by Gonzalez-Mula et al. (Gonzalez-Mula et al., 2019). Aliquots of 139 the library (stored at -80°C) were thawed in 5 ml of liquid TY medium for 4 h at 28°C. 140 Bacteria were centrifuged (3,000 \times g for 10 minutes) and washed twice with the same 141 142 volume of a 0.8% NaCl solution, and then optical density (OD_{600}) was adjusted to 1 (*ca.* 10^9 143 cells per ml) before plant infection.

144

145 Plant materials and infection with the transposon library

Solanum lycopersicum (seeds provided by Vilmorin, France), Zea mays (seeds provided by 146 Arvallis, France) and Populus trichocarpa (all cuttings were prepared from a single tree 147 growing in the CNRS campus garden, Gif-sur-Yvette, France) were cultivated in 2-liter pots 148 filled with non-sterile Floradur B horticultural substrate (Floragard, Oldenburg, Germany). 149 Before planting, the horticultural substrate contained $2.4 \times 10^7 \pm 0.8 \times 10^7$ CFU g⁻¹ of total 150 bacteria, according to bacterial counting on TY medium supplemented with cycloheximide. 151 The pots were placed in a non-sterile greenhouse (biosafety level 2) under long day (16 h) 152 conditions and controlled temperature (24-26°C). Fifty 4-week-old tomato plants and fifty 3-153 week-old maize plants were infected in the soil by ca. 10⁹ A. tumefaciens cells. Roots were 154 inoculated by watering the soil with 1 ml of the bacterial suspension at OD₆₀₀=1 diluted in 30 155 ml of sterile water. Two hundred 4-week-old tomato plants and two hundred and thirty 12-156 week-old poplar cuttings were incised with a scalpel between the first and second nodes (1 157 158 cm-long incision). The wounded stems were inoculated with a cell suspension (~10 µl) obtained after centrifugation of 1 ml of the initial bacterial suspension at OD₆₀₀=1, hence by 159 *ca.* 10⁹ *A. tumefaciens* cells. 160

161

162 Recovery and enumeration of Tn-populations from plants

Five weeks after infection, tumors and roots were collected and weighed. Roots and tumors 163 were crushed in 20 ml of a 0.8% NaCl solution during 1 min using a laboratory blender 164 165 (Waring, Stamford, USA). The homogenate was filtered through miracloth (Millipore, Bedford, USA) and then plated on TY agar plates supplemented with Rif, Gm and the fungicide 166 cycloheximide for enumerating Tn-mutants and on TY agar with cycloheximide for 167 enumerating total bacteria (Table **S1**). The *A. tumefaciens* Tn-mutants reached $3.8 \times 10^6 \pm$ 168 0.5×10^6 and $7.9 \times 10^5 \pm 4.1 \times 10^5$ CFU g⁻¹ of tumor fresh weight (FW) in tomato and poplar 169 tumors, respectively. In the roots, the *A. tumefaciens* Tn-mutants reached $8.5 \times 10^3 \pm 3.6 \times 10^3$ 170 and $4.6 \times 10^4 \pm 0.3 \times 10^4$ CFU g⁻¹ of root FW of maize and tomato plants, respectively. The A. 171 tumefaciens Tn-mutants represented a minority fraction (~0.5%) of the total culturable 172 bacteria collected from maize and tomato roots and counted on TY agar plates 173 supplemented with cycloheximide only. In contrast, A. tumefaciens Tn-mutants represented 174 almost all the cultured bacteria in tomato and poplar tumors. 175

To enlarge the size of the collected Tn-populations, tomato tumors were grouped into 176 177 9 replicates, poplar tumors into 10 replicates, tomato roots into 8 replicates and maize roots into 9 replicates. Each replicate consisted of 20-25 tumors (hence 10-20 g) or 15-20 g of root 178 systems which were crushed together. Cell suspension was spread onto ten TY agar plates 179 (plates 12 × 12 cm) supplemented with Gm and Rif and cycloheximide. After growth at 28°C 180 181 for 48 h, all the bacterial cells were recovered from the surface of the TY plates, centrifuged $(3,000 \times q \text{ for } 3 \text{ minutes})$ and stored at -20°C for further DNA manipulation. Each of these 182 replicates represented $3.8 \times 10^7 \pm 0.8 \times 10^7$ CFU of Tn-mutants for tomato tumors, $7.3 \times 10^6 \pm$ 183 3.3×10^6 CFU for poplar tumors. $4.5 \times 10^5 \pm 0.6 \times 10^5$ CFU for tomato roots and $1.1 \times 10^5 \pm$ 184 0.5×10⁵ CFU for maize roots (Table **S1**). All these values were at least equal to the threshold 185 value of 1.1×10⁵, which is given by the total number of Tn-insertion sites along the A. 186 tumefaciens C58 genome, therefore limiting a potential bottleneck effect. 187

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189 DNA isolation, transposon library sequencing and analysis

Experimental procedures, primers and sequence analysis were described previously
(Gonzalez-Mula *et al.*, 2019; see Notes **S1**).

192

193 Competition and virulence assays with the constructed KO mutants

A Gm-resistance cassette (Dennis & Zylstra, 1998) was used for construction of knockout (KO) mutants in *A. tumefaciens* C58 (Notes **S2**). Competition between *A. tumefaciens* C107-Km^R Rif^R and each of the constructed KO mutants (Gm^R Rif^R) was performed in TY liquid medium and *in planta*. Competitive index (CI) values were calculated using at least 16 replicates per condition following the formula described by Macho et al. (Macho *et al.*, 2010) and normalized by the colonization ratio of the control strains *A. tumefaciens* C107-Gm^R Rif^R and C107-Km^R Rif^R.

Virulence assays were carried out on tomato plants and quantified by weighing the tumors (g). Bacterial abundance (CFU per g of tumor FW) was also measured. At least eight plants were infected by each bacterial genotype as described previously (Gonzalez-Mula *et al.*, 2019).

205

206 Treatments to prevent host colonization and tumorigenesis

207 Chemical, biological and combined antagonistic assays against *A. tumefaciens* were 208 conducted *in vitro* and *in planta*. Potential antagonistic compounds (levulinic acid, 3-209 indoleacrylic acid, tannic acid and aminoethylcysteine) and biocontrol strain *P. protegens* 210 CHA0 targeting some of the plant colonization pathways found in this work were identified by 211 literature review as indicated in the Notes **S3** (Fildes, 1941; Meller & Gassman, 1981; Stutz 212 *et al.*, 1986; Keel *et al.*, 1989; Miller *et al.*, 2001; Henry *et al.*, 2016). To challenge these 213 compounds, root colonization and tumorigenesis assays were performed (Notes **S3**).

214

215 **Results and discussion**

216 Genome-wide scan of fitness genes in A. tumefaciens living on plants

We used a genome-wide scan by Tn-Seq to discover genes involved in the fitness of A. 217 tumefaciens C58 when it colonizes plants cultivated under non-gnotobiotic conditions. In the 218 219 tomato host, we identified 216 fitness genes important for root colonization and 428 for gall 220 colonization, 159 being common between the two conditions (lists of the fitness genes in Table S2). Because A. tumefaciens colonizes a wide spectrum of host and non-host plants, 221 we searched for common fitness genes involved in the exploitation of a wider spectrum of 222 223 plants. Tn-Seq revealed 155 fitness gene involved in maize root colonization and 214 in 224 poplar tumor colonization, giving a sum of 560 genes whatever the condition (tomato root and tumor, poplar tumor and maize root). Among them, 62 genes were important for A. 225 tumefaciens fitness under the four investigated conditions, highlighting key-pathways for 226 exploiting roots or galls of diverse plants (Table S2). 227

In A. tumefaciens C58, most of the identified fitness genes were located on the 228 circular and linear chromosomes and a few (18 out of 560) on At and Ti plasmids (Fig. 1 and 229 Table **S2**). To identify the pathways involved in plant colonization, we used the NCBI, UniProt 230 231 and KEGG annotations of the A. tumefaciens C58 genome (Goodner et al., 2001; Wood et 232 al., 2001). Out of the 560 identified fitness genes, 466 (83%) were annotated in databases, while the 94 remaining genes (17%) coded for hypothetical proteins. Considering each of the 233 four studied conditions (tomato tumors, tomato roots, poplar tumors and maize roots), fitness 234 235 genes represented 3 to 8% of genes in the A. tumefaciens C58 genome. These percentages 236 were in the same range (1 to 7%) as those found in the literature for other plant-colonizing 237 bacteria: competitive nodulation by Rhizobium leguminosarum (Wheatley et al., 2020), colonization of leaf surface and apoplast by Pseudomonas syringae (Helmann et al., 2019, 238 2020), root by beneficial Pseudomonas (Cole et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2018; Sivakumar et al., 239 240 2019), soil and root by plant growth-promoting Azoarcus olearius and Herbaspirillum seropedicae (do Amaral et al., 2020), xylem by Pantoea stewartii (Duong et al., 2018) and 241 macerated chicory leaves by Dickeya dadantii (Royet et al., 2019). 242

As with any global approach, the Tn-Seq method encounters some limitations. It cannot consider genes coding for redundant functions and those coding for the synthesis of

secreted components or activities that could be shared as public goods by the Tn-population. 245 In A. tumefaciens, potential public goods could encompass biosynthesis of soluble 246 247 compounds (e.g. siderophore) and polymers for building extracellular matrix (e.g. cellulose), as well as any processes that engineer the surrounding environment of the Tn-population 248 such as detoxification (e.g. ferulic acid and H₂O₂) and tumorigenesis (Matthysse & McMahan, 249 1998; Xu & Pan, 2000; Escobar & Dandekar, 2003; Rondon et al., 2004; Campillo et al., 250 251 2014). The Tn-Seq approach excludes essential genes (non-viable Tn-mutants), which were 252 estimated by Tn5-mutagenesis to be 360 in A. tumefaciens C58 growing in LB rich medium (Curtis & Brun, 2014). In addition, identification of a given fitness gene in a tested growth 253 condition may be biased if fitness of its Tn-mutants is already impaired in the initial culture 254 condition (here, TY medium). In A. tumefaciens C58, Tn-mutants of ≈500 genes are impaired 255 in their viability or fitness in TY rich medium (Gonzalez-Mula et al., 2019). Hence, Tn-Seq 256 underestimates the total number of fitness genes in a microorganism. Additional biases may 257 be caused by polar effects of transposon insertions within an operon, although it has been 258 259 shown that such biases are negligible in a number of microorganisms (Van Opijnen et al., 260 2009; Rubin et al., 2015; Hutchison et al., 2019).

To validate candidate fitness genes identified by Tn-Seq, we constructed KO mutants for twelve of them: *trpB, hisH, ntrB, metH, cobN, noxA, trxA, nrdJ, kamA, exoQ, fecA* and *wbbL*. Then, we experimentally evaluated the relative fitness of these KO mutants and calculated a competitive index (CI) in TY culture medium and after plant inoculations (Fig. **2** and Notes **S4**). From these data, we conclude that our Tn-Seq experimental data represent quite a solid overview of the main fitness genes that contribute to survival of *A. tumefaciens* in plants.

In the following paragraphs, we focus on tomato plant to compare root and tumor conditions in a same plant host. In order to avoid an over interpretation of our Tn-Seq data, we highlight pathways that were revealed by a coherent set of fitness genes. For each of the main processes, which are (i) carbon and nitrogen metabolism, (ii) synthesis and repair of

272 DNA, RNA and proteins, and (iii) bacterial envelope functions, the common (tomato root and 273 tumor conditions) and then tumor- and root-specific genes and pathways are discussed.

274

275 Fitness genes involved in nutrient exploitation in tomato host plant

The common fitness genes associated with carbon and nitrogen metabolism (Table 1, Fig. 3, Fig. S1) reflect the capacity of the biotroph *A. tumefaciens* to exploit the tomato plant as a resource (nutrient and energy), especially via the catabolism of some sugars, organic acids and amino acids, as well as uptake of essential metals.

280 The identified common fitness genes are implicated in import (ptsH=atu0030 and atu0031) and conversion (scrK=atu0401 and pgi=atu0404) of sugars that are directed to the 281 pentose phosphate and Entner-Doudoroff pathways (pgl=atu0599, zwf=atu0600 and 282 tal=atu4464). The Entner-Doudoroff pathway represents the main route for the assimilation of 283 sugars in *A. tumefaciens* (Fuhrer *et al.*, 2005). Glucose (13 nmol mg⁻¹ FW), fructose (9 nmol 284 mg⁻¹ FW) and sucrose (3 nmol mg⁻¹ FW) are the most abundant sugars in tomato plant 285 286 (Gonzalez-Mula et al., 2019). The identification of gapA=atu3737 and atu3740 as common fitness genes could reflect the capacity of A. tumefaciens to redirect part of its metabolism to 287 gluconeogenesis by exploiting a diversified range of plant-derived carbon skeletons such as 288 organic acids and amino acids. 289

290 Metabolic pathways of amino acids, which were important for A. tumefaciens fitness 291 in roots and tumors, were involved in either their synthesis (histidine, isoleucine, leucine, 292 methionine, serine, threonine, tryptophan and valine) or degradation (aspartate, asparagine, glutamate and glutamine as precursors of nucleotides, hemes and other amino acids). This 293 294 synthesis/degradation trade-off could be better understood in the light of the availability of 295 amino acids. The abundant amino acids may be used as preferred nutrients, while less abundant ones need to be synthesized by the pathogen. Our previous metabolomic analyses 296 revealed glutamine (1.93 nmol mg⁻¹ FW), glutamate (0.95 nmol mg⁻¹ FW), asparagine (0.52 297 nmol mg⁻¹ FW) and aspartate (0.44 nmol mg⁻¹ FW) as the most abundant amino acids in 298 tomato tumors. In contrast, serine, threonine, valine, isoleucine, leucine, tryptophan, histidine 299

and methionine ranged from 0.27 to 1.6 10⁻² nmol mg⁻¹ FW, the least abundant being 300 methionine (Gonzalez-Mula et al., 2019). Methionine is also a precursor of an important 301 302 metabolite, S-adenosylmethionin (SAM). Biosynthesis of methionine by MetH and that of dNTP by NrdJ requires the co-factor cobalamin, containing cobalt. Tn-Seq analysis showed 303 that the genes involved in the biosynthesis of cobalamin were also important for the fitness of 304 A. tumefaciens in tumor and root conditions, highlighting a coherent requirement for 305 306 cobalamin and the two cobalamin-dependent traits. Other rhizobiaceae, such as 307 Sinorhozobium meliloti, also require the synthesis of cobalamin and cobalamin-dependent enzymes MetH and NdrJ for survival in plant nodules (Taga & Walker, 2010). 308

In plant tumors, Tn-Seq pinpointed the importance of the glyoxylate shunt 309 (glcB=atu0047). This is in agreement with transcriptomics data that we previously collected 310 from A. tumefaciens living in A. thaliana tumors (González-Mula et al., 2018). The 311 importance of three other metabolites should be underlined as their exploitation required 312 tumor-specific fitness genes: proline, nopaline and spermidine (see Notes S5). Overall, the 313 314 convergence of data on fitness traits obtained by Tn-Seq with the metabolomics data on tomato tumors was fruitful to understand plant exploitation by A. tumefaciens. Moreover, 315 galls in A. thaliana and S. lycopersicum plants exhibit a similar profile of metabolites, 316 317 including glucose and glutamine as the prominent sources of carbon and nitrogen (Deeken et 318 al., 2006; Gonzalez-Mula et al., 2019), supporting the hypothesis that A. tumefaciens could 319 use a common set of fitness genes for exploiting tumors in different host plants.

With regard to tomato roots, some root-specific fitness genes are involved in the assimilation of organic acids such as pyruvate (pycA=atu3762) and malate (maeB=atu1652), gluconeogenesis (eno=atu1426) and synthesis of glycogen (glgA1=atu4075) that may be used in the storage of carbon. The greater importance of organic acids in the root colonization process could reflect their higher abundance (around 10-fold excess) as compared to sugars in tomato roots and root exudates (Kamilova *et al.*, 2006).

326

327 Fitness genes involved in nucleotide, DNA and RNA processes during tomato plant

328 colonization

329 Common fitness genes which are associated with both tomato root and gall colonization are involved in nucleotide synthesis (Table 1): for instance, initiation of the pyrimidine and purine 330 pathways (pyrE=atu0400, purF=atu1075) and the last step (purH=atu2823) of inosine 331 monophosphate synthesis, a common precursor of GTP and ATP (Table 1, Fig. 3, Fig. S1). 332 333 Some other common fitness genes are involved in DNA, RNA and protein synthesis and 334 repair (Table 1, Fig. 4, Fig. S1). Among them, the genes miaA, chvD, kamA and poxA code for factors that improve the quality and efficiency of translation: they are potential targets for 335 control of pathogen proliferation. The miaA gene codes for a tRNA: isopentenyltranferase 336 targeting an adenine near the tRNA anticodon loop (Gray et al., 1992, 1996). Remarkably, 337 isopentenylated tRNA may be degraded to generate the cytokinin isopentenyladenine, 338 providing a small but significant part of the total amount of cytokinins secreted by A. 339 tumefaciens and contributing to virulence (Gray et al., 1992, 1996). The translational factor 340 341 ChvD (also named EttA) binds the ribosomal E site and modulates ribosome-tRNA 342 interaction (Chen et al., 2014). The kamA gene is involved in transforming L-lysine to βlysine, and poxA is required for β-lysine modification of the translational factor ChvH 343 (elongation factor P). The chvD and chvH genes were previously shown to be involved in the 344 345 virulence of A. tumefaciens (Peng et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2001) and their orthologs in the 346 virulence of Salmonella enterica (Navarre et al., 2010), Shigella flexneri (Marman et al., 347 2014) and Erwinia amylovora (Klee et al., 2018).

348 Several tumor-specific genes were associated with synthesis of purines 349 (*purCEDKLMNQS=atu0647, atu1140, atu1141, atu1843-atu1845, atu1850, atu3754,* 350 *atu3755*). This may be explained by a rarefaction of purines and their precursors that are 351 imported from plant tissues into *A. tumefaciens,* and/or by a higher consumption of the 352 purines by *A. tumefaciens* in the tumor environment. For instance, the synthesis of cytokinins 353 by the adenosine phosphate-isopentenyltransferase pathway could represent a purine sink in 354 plant tissues and in *A. tumefaciens* cells (Aloni & Ullrich, 2008). Transcriptomes of A. tumefaciens-A. thaliana tumors revealed that cytokinin pathways were expressed in both plant and bacterial cells (Deeken *et al.*, 2006; Gonzalez-Mula *et al.*, 2019). Notably, cytokinins contribute to tumorigenesis, as well as improving plant transformation (Sardesai *et al.*, 2013). Purines are also used to synthetize co-factors, which could be more important for surviving in tomato tumors than roots. In agreement with this hypothesis, Tn-Seq highlighted two tomato tumor-specific genes involved in the synthesis of thiamine-phosphate (*thiE=atu3750*) and cyclic-GMP/AMP (*cyaA=atu2580*).

Other DNA, RNA and protein modification and repair processes were identified as tumor-specific fitness genes (*clpAS1=atu1363-atu1364, lonD=atu3697, deaD=atu4171, rhlE=atu1833, pcrA=atu2057, uvrABC=atu1513, atu2001, atu1129, mutT=atu3719*). These genes could be involved in the multi-stress (UV, acidic pH and oxidative stress) response of *A. tumefaciens* when it colonizes plant tumors. A mutant of the *A. tumefaciens* protease LonD was previously reported as impaired in cell morphology and virulence (Su *et al.,* 2006).

368 Some root-specific genes are *rbfA* (=*atu0086*) coding the ribosome factor A, *greA* 369 (=*atu2182*) coding for a transcriptional elongation factor and *ksgA* (=*atu1103*) coding for 370 methylation of the 16S RNAr.

371

372 Fitness genes coding for cell envelope-related functions important for tomato plant 373 colonization

374 Bacterial cell envelope protects from environmental stresses (e.g. osmotic stress), it 375 ensures particular functions (e.g. respiration) and its surface components interact with the host cells. Some of the common fitness genes shared by the tomato tumor and root 376 377 conditions are exemplified in Table 1 (a complete list can be found in Table S1). Among 378 them, chvB=atu2730 is involved in the synthesis of cyclic- β -(1,2)-glucan. A major role of cyclic- β -(1,2)-glucans is to allow normal growth in low ionic strength conditions (Matthysse, 379 2018). It has been shown that an A. tumefaciens chvB mutant was impaired in attachment to 380 roots and virulence (Bash & Matthysse, 2002). The putative osmolarity sensor EnvZ, 381 encoded by the common fitness gene atu2207, could also contribute to the osmotic 382

response. In relation to exopolysaccharide synthesis, we showed that an exoQ (=atu3325) 383 mutant was affected in fitness and virulence (Fig. 2, Fig. 5). In several Rhizobiaceae 384 385 symbionts, exo and ndvB (ortholog of chvB) mutants were impaired in plant colonization and 386 symbiosis (Müller et al., 1993; Gay-Fraret et al., 2012; Mendis et al., 2016), highlighting the importance of these pathways for plant colonization by pathogenic and symbiotic bacteria of 387 the Rhizobiaceae family. The wbbL (=atu4614) gene codes for the addition of rhamnose to 388 389 O-antigen (Ma et al., 2002). This gene was proved to be involved in A. tumefaciens fitness 390 for plant colonization (Fig. 2). The wbbL orthologs are also important for adhesion, virulence and host colonization in the plant pathogen Xylella fastidiosa (Clifford et al., 2013) and in the 391 bee symbiont Snodgrasella alvi (Powell et al., 2016). 392

Remarkable tumor-specific fitness genes are those involved in siderophore 393 (tonB=atu0163, exbBD=atu0161-atu1602, fecABCDEIR=atu3687-atu3693) and sulfonate 394 (ssuABC=atu1884, atu4155-atu4156) import, highlighting the importance of these mineral 395 396 and nutritive resources in the tumor context. In the case of iron import, competitions in planta 397 confirmed the Fec system as a crucial pathway for iron exploitation in the tumors (Fig. 2). 398 The structure of this siderophore remains unknown (Rondon et al., 2004). The fec genes 399 were shown to be expressed under iron limiting conditions in culture medium as well as in the presence of ferulic acid and in plant tumors (Baude et al., 2016; González-Mula et al., 400 401 2018). On roots, A. tumefaciens could exploit the resource present in the horticultural 402 substrate that is enriched in oligo-elements including iron.

403 Some other tumor-specific fitness genes are associated with cell division (ftsEX=atu3603-3607), peptidoglycan synthesis (mtgA=atu2720) and membrane ornithine 404 405 lipid synthesis (plsC=atu0355). Membrane ornithine lipids are bacteria-specific lipids that 406 increase as surrogates of phospholipids, allowing the bacteria to adjust membrane properties under environmental stress conditions (Vences-Guzmán et al., 2012). In Pseudomonas 407 aeruginosa they play an important role in biofilm formation, bacterial persistence and 408 interaction with the host models Tenebrio molitor and Caenorhabditis elegans (Kim et al., 409 2018). In Sinorhizobium meliloti and Rhizobium tropici, ornithine lipid deficient mutants 410

showed a delay in nodule formation and symbiotic deficiency, respectively (Weissenmayer *et al.*, 2002; Rojas-Jiménez *et al.*, 2005). Additionally, they seem to be required for optimal steady-state amounts of c-type cytochromes in the α -protebacterium *Rhodobacter capsulatus* (Aygun-Sunar *et al.*, 2006). Interestingly, we showed that the genes involved in the synthesis of this type of cytochrome are involved in plant colonization by *A. tumefaciens* (*ctaG=atu0770, coxABC=atu0767-atu0768* and *atu0771*) (Fig. **3,** Fig. **S1**).

Some root-specific genes involved in cell envelope-related functions were also identified (Table **S1**), but they remain poorly characterized in *A. tumefaciens*. These include *atu0188, atu0189* and *atu0190* coding for components of an ABC transporter and *atu0424* (=*phoU*) coding for a putative regulatory protein of the phosphate transport system.

421

422 Most of the fitness genes differed from virulence genes

423 The Tn-Seq list (Table S2) revealed some fitness genes, such as chvB (=atu2730), chvD (=atu2125) and tryptophan auxotrophs (atu0017-atu0019, atu1687-atu1688), which have 424 425 been reported as involved in the virulence of A. tumefaciens (Liu et al., 2001; Bash & 426 Matthysse, 2002; Sastry et al., 1986). This prompted us to test whether the 12 constructed mutants used in fitness assays were also affected in virulence: gall weight was used to 427 evaluate degree of the pathogenesis. In addition, we measured pathogen abundance in the 428 429 galls. The *sbmA* mutant was also included in these assays. None of the mutants were non-430 pathogenic (Fig. 5). Out of the 13 constructed mutants (including *sbmA*), only the *hisH, trpB* 431 and exoQ mutants induced symptoms exhibiting impaired tumor weight, and the hisH, ntrB and *trpB* mutants colonized tumors at a lower pathogen abundance compared to wild-type. In 432 the case of the hisH and trpB auxotrophs, an impaired capacity to survive in plant tumors 433 434 correlated a decrease of virulence.

Noticeably, the *trxA* mutant showed increased bacterial abundance in plant tumors when compared to the wild-type strain in mono-infection assays (Fig.**5**), but was less competitive than the wild-type in co-infection assays (Fig. **2**). An earlier report described the pleiotropic phenotype of a *trxA* mutant in *A. tumefaciens*. It exhibits an increased resistance

to H_2O_2 and an increased sensitivity to menadione when compared to wild-type *A*. *tumefaciens* (Vattanaviboon *et al.*, 2007). Because of the variable plant-associated phenotypes associated with the KO mutant, TrxA would not be an appropriate target for controlling *A. tumefaciens* infection.

443

444 Fitness traits as targets of chemical and biocontrol treatments

445 We hypothesized that chemical or biocontrol treatments aimed at the pathways 446 identified as important for fitness could limit plant colonization by A. tumefaciens. As a proof 447 of concept, the target pathways and potential antagonistic compounds were iron uptake, using the iron chelator tannic acid (Henry et al., 2016), cobalamin synthesis using levulinic 448 acid (Meller & Gassman, 1981), conversion of L-lysine to β -lysine using the specific inhibitor 449 aminoethylcysteine (Miller et al., 2001) and synthesis of tryptophan using 3-indoleacrylic acid 450 (Fildes, 1941). Tannic acid chelates iron outside the bacterial cells, hence its action is not 451 specific to one of the iron importation systems of A. tumefaciens. The concentration of 452 453 inhibitors was chosen according to inhibition assays achieved in culture in AB (Chilton et al., 1974) minimal medium and correspond to a growth inhibition of A. tumefaciens of 50-90% 454 (Fig. S2). Indoleacrylic acid and levulinic acid strongly impaired plant development (Fig. S3) 455 and were therefore eliminated from the study. All the other treatments had a moderate 456 457 impact on tomato plant growth, in comparison with the control (Fig. S3). A combination of 458 tannic acid and aminoethylcysteine resulted in a significant reduction (97%) of 459 A. tumefaciens root colonization (Fig. 6a, Fig. 6c).

To impair iron uptake, we also used the biocontrol agent *P. protegens* CHA0 (Stutz *et al.*, 1986), which synthesizes two major siderophores: pyoverdine and enantio-pyochelin. Pyoverdine is the most efficient for iron-scavenging in the soil environment (Drehe *et al.*, 2018). Growth inhibition assays using *P. protegens* CHA0 and its pyoverdine-deficient mutant CHA400 confirmed iron scavenging by pyoverdine as a major mechanism of growth inhibition of *A. tumefaciens* by *P. protegens* (Fig. **S4**). *P. protegens* CHA0 and CHA400 were able to colonize tomato roots (Fig. **6b**), but only the siderophore-producer *P. protegens*

467 CHA0 reduced significantly (90%) tomato root colonization by *A. tumefaciens* (Fig. **6a**) and 468 its relative abundance in root microbiota (Fig. **6c**). The addition of tannic acid did not 469 enhance the biocontrol effect of *P. protegens* CHA0.

470 Finally, we tested whether treatment with *P. protegens*, tannic acid, aminoethylcysteine or a combination of the two chemicals could affect tumorigenesis on 471 wounded roots of tomato plantlets. Tannic acid significantly reduced the percentage of 472 473 plantlets exhibiting tumors (Fig. 7). Under the tested condition (wounded young plantlets), 474 treatment with aminoethylcysteine was toxic for plant growth, and P. protegens CHA0 and 475 CHA400 did not reduce tumorigenesis (Fig. 7). Overall, reducing availability of iron seemed a promising approach for controlling A. tumefaciens, either for limiting root colonization using a 476 477 siderophore-producing biocontrol agent such as P. protegens CHA0, or for limiting tumorigenesis using an iron-chelating agent, such as tannic acid. Iron-chelation strategies 478 were previously proposed for control of a wide spectrum of pathogens (reviewed by Ahmed 479 480 and Holmström, 2014).

481

482 Conclusions

Although some genes are a priori excluded from Tn-seg analysis because of different 483 technical limitations, this approach highlighted a wide set of A. tumefaciens C58 fitness 484 485 genes involved in tomato gall and root colonization processes. Tn-Seq is complementary to 486 other omics approaches. Combination of Tn-Seq with metabolomics was fruitful to associate 487 abundant (e.g. sucrose, proline, glutamate) and scarce (e.g. spermidine, tryptophane, histidine) resources with metabolic pathways involved in the A. tumefaciens biotrophic 488 lifestyle. Tn-Seq confirmed opine (nopaline) degradation as the most important Ti plasmid-489 490 encoded pathway that contributes to the fitness of A. tumefaciens C58 in galls. Tn-Seq also pinpointed envelope-associated functions contributing to metabolite exchange, respiration 491 and cell surface properties. A large set of fitness genes are involved in cell maintenance 492 (DNA, RNA and protein synthesis and repair), revealing the stress exerted by the plant 493 environment on pathogen survival and proliferation. Out of a set of twelve constructed KO 494

mutants of fitness genes, none of them were non-pathogenic and a minority were impaired in 495 their virulence (weight of the galls) and pathogen abundance in galls. The Tn-Seq approach 496 497 provides new insight on A. tumefaciens pathways involved in its interaction with plants. By 498 comparing tomato tumors and roots with poplar tumors and maize roots, this study revealed a common set of fitness genes associated with colonization of different plants and tissue. 499 500 Other fitness genes appeared more specific to one condition; understanding this specificity 501 will be a future challenge. Finally, the identification of metabolic targets important for 502 pathogen proliferation in planta constitutes a potential applied development of the Tn-Seq 503 approach. As proof of concept, our study showed iron chelation to be an efficient approach for impairing tomato root colonization in the presence of the biocontrol agent P. protegens 504 CHA0, and tumorigenesis in the presence of tannic acid. Further investigations should 505 evaluate the impact of these treatments on plant microbiota. From our work, additional 506 targets and chemicals may be investigated to control A. tumefaciens pathogens. 507

508

509 Acknowledgements

510 The authors wish to thank Antoine Cabon (University of Utah, United States) for his advice and guidance on statistical analyses, Christoph Keel (Université de Lausanne, Switzerland) 511 for providing Pseudomonas protegens strains CHA0 and CHA400 and Peter Mergaert (I2BC, 512 513 Gif-sur-Yvette, France) for helpful discussion and advice. This work has benefited from the 514 facilities and expertise of the high throughput sequencing platform team and plant culture 515 facilities (Guillaume Lucas and Véronique Couvreux) at I2BC (Gif-sur-Yvette, France) and was supported by the CNRS under Grant I2BC-SE2019, LabEx Saclay Plant Sciences-SPS 516 517 (ANR-10-LABX-0040-SPS) and Fundación Ramón Areces under Grant BEVP-29A4757.

518

519 Competing interests

520 The authors declare no competing financial or non-financial interests.

521

522 Author contributions

- 523 MT, YD and DF designed research; MT, AJ, DN and DF performed research; MT, AJ, EJ, YD
- and DF analyzed data; MT, YD and DF wrote the paper.
- 525

526 Data availability

- 527 All the data about transposon sequencing results are available in Table **S2**. Other supporting
- 528 information for the article is also available online (Table S1, Fig. S1 to S4 and Notes S1 to
- 529 **S5**).
- 530

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824 Supporting information

- Fig. S1 *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* pathways involved in colonization of tomato tumors and roots.
- Fig. S2 *In vitro* inhibition growth of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* C58 using antagonists targeting fitness genes.
- Fig. S3 Effect of antagonists on tomato plant growth and development.

Fig. S4 *In vitro* inhibition assay of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* C58 by *Pseudomonas* protegens.

Notes S1. DNA isolation, transposon library sequencing and analysis.

833 Notes S2. Mutant construction by reverse genetics.

Notes S3. Root colonization and tumorigenesis assays.

835 Notes S4. Validation of the fitness genes by reverse genetics

Notes S5. Proline, nopaline and spermidine pathways.

Table S1. Average bacterial population and percentage of TA-containing CDS with transposon insertions in Tn-mutant populations recovered from plant assays.

Table S2. *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* C58 fitness genes involved in plant colonization (Excelfile).

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843 Figure legends

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Fig. 1 Genomic location and examples of *A. tumefaciens* fitness genes involved in plant colonization.

From outside to inside, the tracks represent: *A. tumefaciens* C58 circular map (in blue) of the four replicons (circular chromosome, linear chromosome, At plasmid and Ti plasmid), forward and reverse coding sequences (in dark blue) and fitness genes identified by Tn-Seq as involved in tomato tumor colonization (in red), poplar tumor colonization (in green), tomato root colonization (in orange) and maize root colonization (in purple). Some examples of common fitness in all four conditions were indicated. A complete list of fitness genes identified in each condition can be found in Table **S2**.

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Fig. 2 Competitive fitness of the constructed A. tumefaciens KO mutants.

Thirteen KO mutants ($Gm^R Rif^R$) were constructed in *A. tumefaciens* C58: *atu0018* (=*trpB*), *atu0022* (=*trxA*), *atu0041* (=*hisH*), *atu1445* (=*ntrB*), *atu1733* (=*nrdJ*), *atu2155* (=*metH*),

atu2304 (=sbmA) atu2555 (=kamA), atu2804 (=cobN), atu3325 (=exoQ), atu3687 (=fecA), 858 *atu4614* (=*wbbL*) and *atu6019* (=*noxA*). Competitions between each KO mutants (Gm^R Rif^R) 859 and the A. tumefaciens C58 derivative C107-Km^R Rif^R carrying the wild-type allele 860 counterpart were performed in 5 conditions : TY medium (in blue color), tomato tumors (in 861 red color), poplar tumors (in green color), tomato roots (in orange color) and maize roots (in 862 violet color). Control condition consisted in competition between A. tumefaciens C58 863 derivatives C107-Gm^R Rif^R and C107-Km^R Rif^R. More details on these experiments are given 864 865 in Notes **S4**. For each condition, competitive index value (CI) was calculated. For boxplots, each dot indicates an outlier beyond the first/third quartiles plus 1.5 times the interquartile 866 range. The central horizontal line indicates the median, the bottom and top edges of the box 867 represent the 25th and 75th percentiles, respectively, and the whiskers extend to the most 868 extreme non-outlier data point. Significant differences with the control were calculated using 869 870 a one-way ANOVA test coupled with a post-hoc Dunnett test and are shown with asterisks: *, *P*<0.05; **, *P*<0.01; ***, *P*<0.001. 871

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Fig. 3 *A. tumefaciens* pathways involved in nutrient exploitation in tomato host plant.

Fitness genes related to carbon and nitrogen metabolism are represented in blue and yellow boxes, respectively. Genes required for tomato tumor colonization are indicated in red, for root colonization in dark orange and for both tomato tumors and roots, in blue. Not all the fitness genes are represented, especially those coding for unknown functions are omitted (see Table **S2** for a complete list). Dashed arrows indicate that several enzymatic steps exist between the two connected metabolites.

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Fig. 4 *A. tumefaciens* pathways involved in nucleotide, DNA and RNA processes during tomato host plant colonization.

Fitness genes related to synthesis and repair of DNA, RNA and proteins are represented in green boxes. Genes required for tomato tumor colonization are indicated in red, for root colonization in dark orange and for both tomato tumors and roots, in blue. Not all the fitness genes are represented, those coding for unknown functions are omitted (see Table **S2** for a complete list). Dashed arrows indicate that several enzymatic steps exist between the two connected metabolites.

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Fig. 5 Virulence and abundance in tumors of the constructed *A. tumefaciens* KO
 mutants.

Mono-infections of *A. tumefaciens* C58 derivative C107-Gm Rif^R (used as a control) and constructed KO mutants were performed on incised tomato stems and then (**a**) tumor weight (g of fresh tissues) and (**b**) colonization (CFU g⁻¹ of fresh tumor tissues) were measured 5 weeks post infection. Significant differences with the control were calculated using a one-way ANOVA test coupled with a post-hoc Dunnett test and are shown with asterisks: *, *P*<0.05; ***, *P*<0.001.

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Fig. 6 Limitation of tomato root colonization by targeting *A. tumefaciens* fitness traits.

Tomato roots were infected by A. tumefaciens C58 derivative C107-Km^R Rif^R and treated 900 901 weekly by chemicals, either tannic acid (TA) or aminoethylcysteine (AE) or a mix of them, or biocontrol agents, either P. protegens CHA0 or P. protegens CHA400 (a CHA0 derivative 902 that is defective for pyoverdine synthesis). A combination of biological and chemical (TA) 903 904 treatments was also tested. After 4 weeks, A. tumefaciens (a) and P. protegens (b) 905 populations were counted, as well as total culturable microbiota, to evaluate relative 906 abundance (%) of A. tumefaciens on roots (c). For boxplots (a, b), each dot indicates an outlier beyond the first/third quartiles plus 1.5 times the interquartile range. The central 907 horizontal line indicates the median, the bottom and top edges of the box represent the 25th 908 and 75th percentiles, respectively, and the whiskers extend to the most extreme non-outlier 909 910 data point. In c, error bars show standard deviations. Significant differences with the untreated control were calculated using a one-way ANOVA test coupled with a post-hoc 911 Dunnett test and are shown with asterisks: *, P<0.05; **, P<0.01; ***, P<0.001. 912

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914 Fig. 7 Limitation of tumorigenesis on wounded tomato roots.

Wounded tomato roots (thirty per condition) were infected by *A. tumefaciens* C58 derivative C107-Km^R Rif^R and then placed on half-strength MS medium supplemented with either tannic acid (TA) or biocontrol agents, either *P. protegens* CHA0 or *P. protegens* CHA400. Percentage of roots exhibiting tumors was measured after 4 weeks. Significant differences with the untreated control were calculated using a Fisher's exact test and are shown with asterisks: **, *P*<0.01.

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Table 1. Examples of common genes and pathways revealed by Tn-Seq as involved in

933 fitness of Agrobacterium tumefaciens in tomato tumors and roots.

1. Carbon and nitrogen metabolism	
Carbon metabolism	
 Sugar metabolism (scrK=atu0401, pgi=atu0404, pgl=atu0599, zwf=atu0600, tal=atu4464) 	
Gluconeogenesis (gapA=atu3737, atu3740)	

1.2. Nitrogen metabolism

- Synthesis of histidine (hisF=atu0039, hisA= atu0040, hisH=atu0041, hisB= atu0043, hisD=atu0537, hisZ=atu0678, hisG=atu0679)
- Synthesis of isoleucine/valine (*ilvC=atu2019, ilvD=atu3219, ilvl=atu2036*) and leucine (*leuA=atu2264, leuC=atu2709, leuD=atu2790, leuB=atu2791*)
- Synthesis of methionine (hom=atu1588, metA=atu2719, metZ=atu0432, metH=atu2155, ahcY=atu0029)
- Synthesis of serine (serA=atu3706, serC=atu3707, serB=atu2040)
- Synthesis of threonine (thrB=atu0775)
- Synthesis of tryptophan (*trpABF=atu0017, trpB=atu0018, trpF=atu0019, trpC=atu1687, trpD=atu1688, trpE=atu2289*)
- Synthesis of cobalamin (*cobA=atu2794, cobM=atu2796, cobL=atu2798, cobK=atu2799, cobJ=atu2800, cobl=atu2801, cobH=atu2802, cobG=atu2803, cobN=atu2804, cobW=atu2805, cobO=atu2807, cobQ=atu2808*)

2. Synthesis and repair of DNA, RNA and proteins

2.1. Nucleotide pathways

- Pyrimidine and purine pathways (pyrE=atu0400, purF=atu1075, purH=atu2823)
- Polyphosphate balance (ppk=atu1144, ppx=atu1145)
- Formation of deoxyribonucleotides (dNTP) from ribonucleotides by the cobalamin-dependant ribonucleotide reductase NrdJ (gene *atu1733*)
- Conversion of dCTP to dUTP (*dcd=atu0434*)
- Synthesis of co-factor molybdopterin (moaC=atu1689, moeA=atu1690) using GTP

2.2. DNA, RNA and protein synthesis and repair

- DNA synthesis (polA=atu0110) and repair (ruvA=atu3722, ruvB=atu3723, ruvC=atu3724, uvrD=atu0023)
- Modification and protection of coding and non-coding RNAs (*rluC=atu1471, miaA=atu2039, dusB=atu1444, rnhA=atu0776*)
- Synthesis and quality control of proteins (*kamA=atu2555, poxA=atu2554, chvD=atu2125, rimJ=atu0785, ppiD=atu1686, dop=atu0977, trxA=atu0022*)

3. Bacterial envelope functions

3.1. In/out exchange of components

- Import of mineral resources (*mnhA=atu0909, mnhB=atu0910, mnhC=atu0911, mnhD=atu0912, mnhE=atu09013, mnhF=atu0914*)
- Efflux of potential toxic compounds (*crcB=atu1470, atu2550, atu2551*)

3.2. Envelope-associated activities

• Synthesis of respiratory hemes (*ctaB=atu0769*, *ccmA=atu2686*, *ccmB=atu2687*, *ccmC=atu2688*, *ccmG=atu2690*, *ccmI=atu0973*, *ccmE=atu0974*, *ccmF=atu0975*, *ccmH=atu0976*

3.3. Envelope and surface properties

- Transport of phospholipids to the outer membrane (mlaD=atu1645, mlaE=1646, mlaF=atu1647)
- Exopolysaccharide (exoN=atu4049, exoP=atu4050, exoQ=atu3325, exoF=atu3326, exoY=atu3327)
- O-antigen (rfbA=atu4615, rfbB=atu4615, rfbD=atu4617, wbbL=atu4614)
- Cyclic-β-(1,2)-glucan (*chvB=atu2730*)