1	The opportunistic pathogen Stenotrophomonas maltophilia utilizes a type IV secretion system
2	for interbacterial killing
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4	Short title: Stenotrophomonas uses a T4SS for interbacterial competition
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18	

19 Abstract

Bacterial type IV secretion systems (T4SS) are a highly diversified but evolutionarily 20 21 related family of macromolecule transporters that can secrete proteins and DNA into the extracellular medium or into target cells. They have been long known to play a fundamental role 22 in bacterial conjugation and virulence of several species. It was recently shown that a subtype of 23 T4SS harboured by the plant pathogenic bacterium Xanthomonas citri transfers toxins into other 24 bacteria cells resulting in cell death. In this study, we show that a similar T4SS from the multi-25 drug-resistant global opportunistic pathogen Stenotrophomonas maltophilia is proficient in killing 26 competitor bacterial species. T4SS-dependent duelling between S. maltophilia and X. citri was 27 observed by time-lapse fluorescence microscopy. A bioinformatic search of the S. maltophilia 28 K279a genome for proteins containing a C-terminal domain (XVIPCD) conserved in X. citri T4SS 29 effectors identified eleven putative effectors secreted by the S. maltophilia T4SS. Six of these 30 effectors have no recognizable domain except for the XVIPCD. We selected one of these new 31 32 effectors (Smlt3024) and its cognate inhibitor (Smlt3025) for further characterization and confirmed that Smlt3024 is indeed secreted in a T4SS-dependent manner by S. maltophilia when 33 in contact with a target bacterial species. Expression of Smlt3024 in the periplasm of E. coli 34 resulted in greatly reduced growth rate and cell size, which could be counteracted by co-expression 35 with its cognate periplasmic inhibitor, Smlt3025. This work expands our current knowledge about 36 the diverse function of T4SSs subtypes and increases the panel of effectors known to be involved 37 in T4SS-mediated interbacterial competition. Further elucidation of the mechanism of these 38 antibacterial proteins could lead to the discovery of new antibacterial targets. The study also adds 39 40 information about the molecular mechanisms possibly contributing to the establishment of S. *maltophilia* in different biotic and abiotic surfaces in both clinical and environmental settings. 41

43 **Author Summary**

Competition between microorganisms for nutrients and space determines which species 44 will emerge and dominate or be eradicated from a specific habitat. Bacteria use a series of 45 mechanisms to kill or prevent multiplication of competitor species. Recently, it was reported that 46 a subtype of type IV secretion system (T4SS) works as a weapon to kill competitor bacterial 47 species. In this study, we show that an important human opportunistic pathogen, 48 Stenotrophomonas maltophilia, harbours a T4SS that promotes killing of competitor species. We 49 also identified a series of new toxic proteins secreted by S. maltophilia via its T4SS to poison 50 competitor species. We showed that two different bacterial species that harbour a bacteria-killing 51 T4SS can kill each other; most likely due to differences in effector-immunity protein pairs. This 52 53 work expands our current knowledge about the bacterial arsenal used in competitions with other species and expands the repertoire of antibacterial ammunition fired by T4SSs. In addition, the 54 work contributes with knowledge on the possible mechanisms used by S. maltophilia to establish 55 communities in different biotic and abiotic surfaces in both clinical and environmental settings. 56

58 Introduction

The ecological interactions between bacterial species range from cooperative to 59 60 competitive and can be mediated by diffusible soluble factors secreted into the extracellular medium or by factors transferred directly into target cells in a contact-dependent manner [1]. 61 Several types of contact-dependent antagonistic interactions between bacteria have been described. 62 Contact-dependent growth inhibition (CDI) is mediated by the CdiA/CdiB family of two-partner 63 secretion proteins composed of the CdiB outer membrane protein that is required for secretion of 64 CdiA, which contains a C-terminal toxin domain [2, 3]. The type VI secretion system (T6SS) is a 65 dynamic contractile organelle evolutionarily related to bacteriophage tails that is attached to the 66 cell envelope, enabling the injection of proteinaceous effectors into target prokaryotic or 67 68 eukaryotic cells [4, 5]. More recently, contact-dependent antagonism was reported to be mediated via a specialized type IV secretion system (T4SS) that transports toxic effectors into target 69 prokaryotic cell [6]. 70

T4SSs are a highly diverse superfamily of secretion systems found in many species of 71 Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria. These systems mediate a wide range of events from 72 transfer of DNA during bacterial conjugation to transfer of effector proteins into infected 73 eukaryotic host cells [7] and into competitor bacteria [6]. T4SSs have been classified based on 74 their physiological functions as (i) conjugation systems, (ii) effector translocators, or (iii) contact-75 independent DNA/protein exchange systems [8]. Another common classification scheme divides 76 T4SSs into two phylogenetic families called types A and B [9, 10]; while more finely 77 discriminating phylogenetic analyses based on two highly conserved T4SS ATPases (VirB4 and 78 79 VirD4) identified eight distinct clades [11, 12].

The model type A VirB/D4 T4SS from Agrobacterium tumefaciens, which is used to 80 transfer tumour-inducing effectors into some plants species [13], is composed of a core set of 12 81 proteins designated VirB1-VirB11 and VirD4. Electron microscopy studies on homologous 82 systems from the conjugative plasmids R388 and pKM101 have revealed an architecture that can 83 be divided into two large subcomplexes: i) a periplasmatic core complex made up of 14 repeats of 84 85 VirB7, VirB9 and VirB10 subunits that forms a pore in the outer membrane and which is also linked, via VirB10, to the inner membrane and ii) an inner membrane complex composed of VirB3, 86 VirB6 and VirB8 and three ATPases (VirB4, VirB11 and VirD4) that energize the system during 87 88 pilus formation and substrate transfer. Finally, VirB2 and VirB5 form the extracellular pilus and VirB1 is a periplasmic transglycosidase [14-16]. The X. citri T4SS involved in bacterial killing 89 shares many features with the type A T4SSs from A. tumefaciens and the conjugative T4SSs 90 pKM101 and R388, with one distinctive feature being an uncharacteristically large VirB7 91 lipoprotein subunit [17] whose C-terminal N0 domain decorates the periphery of the outer 92 membrane layer of the core complex [18]. 93

VirD4 and its orthologs play a key role by recognizing substrates on the cytoplasmic face 94 of the inner membrane and directing them for secretion through the T4SS channel [9, 19-21]. A 95 96 yeast two-hybrid screen using X. citri VirD4 as bait identified several prey proteins (initially 97 termed XVIPs for Xanthomonas VirD4 interacting proteins) containing a conserved C-terminal domain named XVIPCD (XVIP conserved domain) [22]. These proteins were later shown to be 98 99 toxic antibacterial effectors secreted via the X. citri T4SS into target cells, often carrying Nterminal domains with enzymatic activities predicted to target structures in the cell envelope, 100 including peptidoglycan-targeting glycohydrolases and proteases, phospholipases, as well as 101 102 nucleases [6]. Furthermore, each T4SS effector is co-expressed with a cognate immunity protein,

which functions to prevent self-intoxication [6], a feature also observed for toxin-antitoxin pairs associated with T6SSs [23]. Bioinformatic analysis identified potential XVIPCD-containing proteins in many other bacterial species of the Xanthomonadaceae family, including *Stenotrophomonas* spp., *Lysobacter* spp., *Luteimonas* spp., and species of the closely related Rodanobacteraceae family, including *Luteibacter* spp. and *Dyella* spp. Therefore, these effectors and their cognate immunity proteins were generally designated X-Tfes and X-Tfis (Xanthomonadaceae T4SS effectors and immunity proteins, respectively) [6].

Stenotrophomonas maltophilia is an emerging multi-drug-resistant global opportunistic 110 pathogen. S. maltophilia strains are frequently isolated from water, soil and in association with 111 plants [24], but in the last decades an increased number of hospital-acquired infections, particularly 112 of immunocompromised patients, has called attention to this opportunistic pathogen [25, 26]. 113 114 Infections associated with virulent strains of S. maltophilia are very diverse, ranging from respiratory and urinary tract infections to bacteremia and infections associated with intravenous 115 cannulas and prosthetic devices [25]. The ability of Stenotrophomonas spp. to form biofilms on 116 different biotic and abiotic surfaces [27, 28] and its capacity to secrete several hydrolytic enzymes 117 (proteases, lipases, esterases) that promote cytotoxicity contribute to pathogenesis [29, 30]. In 118 119 addition, S. maltophilia is naturally competent to acquire foreign DNA, which probably contributes to the multi-drug-resistant phenotype of several strains [24, 31]. 120

S. maltophilia strain K279a contains a cluster of genes on its chromosome encoding for a
T4SS homologous to the T4SS of the plant pathogen *Xanthomonas citri* involved in interbacterial
antagonism [6], and their cytoplasmic ATPases VirD4 share 79% amino acid identity (Figure 1A).
In this study, we show that *S. maltophilia* K279a is proficient in inducing *Escherichia coli* death
in a T4SS-dependent manner. Interestingly, *S. maltophilia* and *X. citri* can duel using their T4SSs

and kill each other. We identified eleven putative new effectors (X-Tfes) encoded by the S. 126 maltophilia T4SS genome. Further characterization of one of the effectors (Smlt3024) 127 demonstrated that it is secreted by Stenotrophomonas K279a in a T4SS-dependent manner upon 128 contact with E. coli. Additionally, the heterologous expression of Smlt3024 in the periplasm of E. 129 coli had a deleterious effect on its growth and altered cell size, which could be neutralized by co-130 131 expression of the respective cognate immunity protein, Smlt3025. This work expands our current knowledge about the subtypes of T4SSs that are involved in interbacterial competition and about 132 the molecular mechanisms contributing to S. maltophilia establishment in hospital and 133 134 environmental settings that may contribute to its behavior as an opportunistic pathogen.

135

136 **Results**

137 *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* VirB/T4SS induces target bacteria cell death

The genome of S. maltophilia K279a [32] harbours two clusters of genes encoding distinct 138 139 T4SSs: smlt1283-smlt1293 (annotated as trb) and smlt2997-smlt3008 (annotated as virB) [33]. Comparative sequence analysis showed that the S. maltophilia virB1-11 and virD4 genes are most 140 closely related with their counterparts in X. citri involved in bacterial killing (37% - 82% identity 141 at the amino acid level), with the three ATPases that energize the system presenting the greatest 142 levels of identity: VirB4 (81%), VirB11 (82%) and VirD4 (79%) (Fig. 1A). Phylogenetic analysis 143 based on the amino acid sequences of S. maltophilia VirD4/Smlt3008 grouped the S. maltophilia 144 VirB/T4SS together with the X. citri VirB/T4SS involved in bacterial killing, while 145 Stenotrophomonas Trb/T4SS belongs to another group of T4SSs (S1 Fig). The second T4SS from 146 147 X. citri (encoded by plasmid pXAC64), which was proposed to be involved in conjugation due to

neighbouring relaxosome genes and *oriT* site, is located in another branch in the phylogenetic tree,
distinctly from the above two systems (S1 Fig) [22].

To investigate the involvement of the S. maltophilia VirB/T4SS in bacterial antagonism, 150 we created a mutant strain lacking the ATPase coupling protein VirD4 ($\Delta virD4$) and analysed its 151 ability to restrict growth of other species such as E. coli. Different dilutions of an E. coli culture 152 153 were mixed with a fixed number of S. maltophilia cells and the co-cultures were spotted onto LBagar plates containing the chromogenic substrate X-gal and incubated for 24 h at 30°C (Fig 1B). 154 As only E. coli cells naturally express β-galactosidase, they turn blue while S. maltophilia cells are 155 yellow. Growth of *E. coli* was inhibited by *S. maltophilia* wild-type, but not by the $\Delta virD4$ strain 156 (Fig 1B). The phenotype of S. maltophilia $\Delta virD4$ could be restored by complementing the strain 157 with a plasmid encoding VirD4 (*smlt3008*) under the control of the P_{BAD} promoter ($\Delta virD4$ 158 *virD4^C_{smlt}*) (Fig 1B). This plasmid promotes low expression levels under non-inducing conditions 159 (no L-arabinose) in Stenotrophomonas and is usually sufficient for complementation. 160 161 Interestingly, transformation of S. maltophilia $\Delta virD4$ strain with a plasmid encoding VirD4 from X. citri (xac2623) ($\Delta virD4 virD4^{C}_{xac}$) also restored the phenotype, indicating that these proteins 162 163 are functionally redundant (Fig 1B).

To analyse bacterial antagonism at shorter time-points, we measured *E. coli* cell lysis after mixing with different *S. maltophilia* strains (wild-type, $\Delta virD4$, $\Delta virD4$ $virD4^{C}_{smlt}$ and $\Delta virD4$ $virD4^{C}_{sac}$). The cultures were mixed and immediately spotted onto 96 well plates containing LBagar with CPRG, which is a cell-impermeable chromogenic substrate hydrolysed by β galactosidase released from lysed *E. coli*, thus producing chlorophenol red with an absorbance maximum at 572 nm. Fig 1C shows that *S. maltophilia* wild-type and complemented strains ($\Delta virD4$ $virD4^{C}_{smlt}$ and $\Delta virD4$ $virD4^{C}_{sac}$) induce lysis of *E. coli* shortly after co-incubation

(around 10 min). Based on the slope of the curves, the data suggests that all three *S. maltophilia*strains induce *E. coli* cell lysis with very similar efficiencies (Fig 1C).

Live-cell imaging of S. maltophilia wild-type co-incubated with E. coli-RFP expressing 173 red fluorescent protein (RFP) shows that Stenotrophomonas induces E. coli cell lysis in a contact-174 dependent manner (Fig 1D and Movie S1). No cell lysis was detected when E. coli was co-175 176 incubated with S. maltophilia $\Delta virD4$ (Fig 1D and Movie S2). Quantification of E. coli cell lysis over a time-frame of 100 min shows that around 50% of E. coli cells in contact with 177 Stenotrophomonas wild-type were observed to lyse during this period, while no cell lysis was 178 179 detected when E. coli was mixed with S. maltophilia $\Delta virD4$ (Fig 1E). It is important to note that this quantification does not measure (most likely sub-estimates) the efficiency of killing as some 180 E. coli cells may be intoxicated without cellular lysis and the time of target-cell lysis may vary 181 182 after the initial physical contact.

As X. citri is the only other bacterial species described to date experimentally shown to use 183 a T4SS for interbacterial killing, we decided to analyse whether S. maltophilia and X. citri could 184 use their T4SS to compete with and kill each other. First, we co-incubated S. maltophilia (either 185 wild-type or $\Delta virD4$) with a X. citri T4SS mutant strain lacking all the chromosomal virB genes 186 187 and expressing green fluorescent protein (GFP) under the control of *virB7* endogenous promoter $(\Delta virB-GFP)$ (Cenens et al., manuscript in preparation) and confirmed that S. maltophilia can 188 induce lysis of X. citri $\Delta virB$ -GFP in a T4SS-dependent manner (Figs 2A and 2C; Movie S3 and 189 190 S4). Next, we co-incubated X. citri-GFP (functional T4SS) with S. maltophilia wild-type or $\Delta virD4$ strains. Besides showing that X. citri can induce lysis of S. maltophilia $\Delta virD4$ (Movie 191 192 S5), we observed that when both wild-type species are mixed, they duel and kill each other in a 193 T4SS-dependent manner (Figs 2B and 2D; Movie S6). S. maltophilia seems to be slightly more

effective in killing *X. citri* via its T4SS, which could be due to the efficiency of the T4SS and/or
the shorter doubling-time of *S. maltophilia* compared to *X. citri*.

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197 Identification of eleven putative effectors secreted via the S. maltophilia VirB/T4SS

After confirming that the S. maltophilia VirB/T4SS is functional and induces target cell 198 199 death, we decided to search for effector proteins translocated by this system. As the VirD4 coupling protein of X. citri complements the $\Delta virD4$ strain of S. maltophilia (Figs 1B and 1C), we 200 hypothesized that potential substrates secreted via the T4SS of S. maltophilia could be identified 201 202 by applying a bioinformatic approach using the C-terminal domains of X. citri X-Tfes (XVIPCDs) to search the genome of S. maltophilia K279a. Using this approach, we identified eleven S. 203 *maltophilia* proteins as potential T4SS substrates (Fig 3A, S1 Table). All these putative X-Tfes 204 205 were identified using searches with the XVIPCDs from at least seven different X. citri X-Tfes (S1 Table). Amino acid sequence alignment of C-terminal XVIPCDs from Stenotrophomonas X-Tfes 206 revealed a series of conserved amino acid motifs that are also present in X. citri X-Tfes [22] (Fig. 207 3B). 208

All identified S. maltophilia effectors are organized in small operons together with an 209 upstream gene encoding a conserved hypothetical protein, reminiscent of the organization of 210 effectors with their immunity proteins [6, 34]. Five of the identified S. maltophilia T4SS substrates 211 harbour domains already described in other bacterial toxins such as lipases, nucleases, lysozyme-212 213 like hydrolases and proteins with peptidoglycan binding domains (Fig 3A). Three of these effectors (smlt2990, smlt2992 and smlt3024) are encoded by genes very close to the S. maltophilia virB 214 locus (genes *smlt2997* to *smlt3008*), further illustrating the link of these effectors with the T4SS. 215 216 It is interesting to note that six of the identified putative *Stenotrophomonas* T4SS effectors do not

display any known protein domain that could indicate the mechanism mediating the antibacterial
toxicity (*smlt0113*, *smlt0332*, *smlt0500*, *smlt0502*, *smlt0505*, *smlt3024*) (Fig 3). To validate our
findings and obtain further insight regarding the function of the effectors with domains of unknown
function, we selected the products of the *smlt3024* gene and its upstream, putatively co-transcribed,
partner (*smlt3025*) for further characterization.

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223 Smlt3024 is a periplasmic-acting toxin that impairs cell growth and is inhibited by 224 periplasmic Smlt3025

225 BLASTp searches for Smlt3024 homologues (excluding the C-terminal XVIPCD) retrieved sequences from Stenotrophomonas spp., Xanthomonas spp., and Lysobacter spp. 226 annotated either as hemolysin/hemolysin-related or as hypothetical proteins (S1B Table). 227 228 However, none of these proteins contain a domain similar to any annotated domain in the Pfam database [35]. In its genomic context, *smlt3024* seems to be organized in an operon downstream 229 to two genes encoding for its putative cognate immunity protein (*smlt3025*) and another small 230 protein containing a helix-turn-helix (HTH) domain annotated as a putative transcriptional 231 regulator (smlt3026) (Fig 4A). 232

To determine whether Smlt3024 is indeed an effector secreted via the *S. maltophilia* T4SS, we cloned an N-terminal FLAG-tagged version of *smlt3024* (FLAG-Smlt3024) into the pBRA plasmid under the control of the P_{BAD} promoter and used it to transform both *S. maltophilia* wildtype and $\Delta virD4$ strains. These strains were co-incubated with *E. coli* and spotted onto nitrocellulose membranes placed over LB-agar plates containing 0.1% L-arabinose and incubated for 6 h at 30°C. The membranes were later processed for immunodetection with an anti-FLAG antibody. Results show an increase in signal intensity for FLAG-Smlt3024 when *S. maltophilia*

was co-incubated with *E. coli* (Figs 4B and 4C), while no increase was detected when *S. maltophilia* $\Delta virD4$ was co-incubated with *E. coli* (Figs 4B and 4C). In addition, no increase in signal intensity could be detected when *S. maltophilia* FLAG-Smlt3024 was incubated without target *E. coli* cells (Fig 4B). SDS-PAGE of total protein extracts followed by western blot with anti-FLAG antibody showed that both *S. maltophilia* wild-type and $\Delta virD4$ strains were expressing similar levels of FLAG-Smlt3024 (S2 Fig). These results show that secretion of Smlt3024 is dependent on contact with a target cell and on a functional T4SS.

To assess whether Smlt3025 is the cognate immunity protein of Smlt3024, we analysed 247 whether these proteins could interact by expressing and purifying full-length Smlt3024 and a 248 soluble version of Smlt3025 (amino acid residues 86-333), lacking its N-terminal signal peptide. 249 Complex formation was analysed using size exclusion chromatography coupled to multiple-angle 250 251 light scattering (SEC-MALS) (Fig 4E). The MALS analysis calculated average masses for Smlt3024 and Smlt3025₈₆₋₃₃₃ of 52.3 kDa and 27.5 kDa, respectively, which are very close to the 252 253 theoretical values of their monomer molecular masses of 49 kDa and 28 kDa, respectively (Fig. 4E). When a mixture of these proteins was analysed by SEC-MALS followed by SDS-PAGE, a 254 new peak appeared containing both Smlt3024 and Smlt3025₈₆₋₃₃₃ with an average molecular mass 255 256 calculated by MALS of 74.2 kDa, suggesting that a stable 1:1 complex (theoretical mass of 77 kDa) was formed between Smlt3024 and Smlt3025₈₆₋₃₃₃ (Fig 4E). 257

If Smlt3024 is indeed a toxic effector secreted by the *S. maltophilia* T4SS, then we would expect that its expression in the appropriate compartment within *E. coli* would create an impairment of bacterial growth. To evaluate the toxicity of Smlt3024 upon expression in *E. coli* and to establish in which cellular compartment Smlt3024 exerts its effect, we cloned the full-length protein into pBRA placing it under control of the P_{BAD} promoter (inducible by L-arabinose and

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repressed by D-glucose) both with and without an N-terminal *pelB* periplasmic localization signal 263 sequence. We also cloned the sequence of the Smlt3025 immunity protein into the pEXT22 vector 264 placing it under the control of P_{TAC} promoter, which can be induced by IPTG. We noted that the 265 annotated sequence for Smlt3025 has a non-canonical GTG start codon with 4 possible in frame 266 ATG start codons at positions 13, 45, 47 and 50 and that initiation at positions 45, 47 or 50 would 267 268 produce proteins with an N-terminal signal sequence for periplasmic localization (Fig. 4D) [36]. Therefore, three versions of Smlt3025, beginning at positions 1, 13 and 45 were cloned into 269 pEXT22, leading to the production of Smlt3025₁₋₃₃₃, Smlt3025₁₃₋₃₃₃ and Smlt3025₄₅₋₃₃₃. E. coli 270 271 strains carrying the different combinations of pBRA-Smlt3024 and each one of the pEXT22-Smlt3025 plasmids were serial diluted and incubated on LB-agar plates containing either D-272 glucose, L-arabinose or L-arabinose plus IPTG (D-glucose inhibits and L-arabinose induces 273 274 expression of Smlt3024; IPTG induces expression of Smlt3025). Results showed that Smlt3024 is toxic only when directed to the periplasm of E. coli cells (pBRA-pelB-smlt3024) but not in the 275 cytoplasm (pBRA-smlt3024), and that only Smlt3025₄₅₋₃₃₃ which is directed to the periplasm, 276 could neutralize Smlt3024 toxicity (Fig. 4F). 277

To gather further insight on the mechanism by which Smlt3024 could induce toxicity, we 278 279 decided to perform time-lapse microscopy to evaluate growth and morphology of individual E. coli cells carrying the empty pBRA or pBRA-pelB-smlt3024 plasmids. E. coli carrying the empty 280 plasmid incubated on LB-agar with 0.2% L-arabinose (Fig 4G and Movie S7) as well as the 281 282 repressed pBRA-pelB-smlt3024 (0.2% D-glucose) grew normally (Fig 4G and Movie S8). Upon induction with L-arabinose, cells carrying pBRA-pelB-smlt3024 quickly experienced a strong 283 reduction in growth rate and single cells were smaller (average length of $2.1 \pm 0.7 \,\mu\text{m}$ after 300 284 285 min) compared to the controls incubated in glucose (average length of $3.6 \pm 1.2 \,\mu\text{m}$ after 300 min) (Fig 4G and Movie S9). Despite the severe delay in doubling time, *E. coli* cells expressing PelBSmlt3024 seem to remain viable and continue growing and dividing for up to 8 h (Movie S9).

288

289 **Discussion**

Competition between microorganisms for nutrients and space often determines which 290 species will thrive and dominate or be eradicated from a specific habitat. The recently identified 291 T4SS involved in bacterial killing has revealed another weapon in the bacterial warfare arsenal 292 [6]. In this manuscript, we show that the T4SS of S. maltophilia is involved in interbacterial 293 competition, allowing it to induce lysis of E. coli and X. citri and possibly many other Gram-294 negative species. The S. maltophilia VirB/T4SS is the second example described to date of a T4SS 295 296 subtype involved in bacterial killing and it is the first example of a human opportunistic pathogen shown to mediate bacterial killing via a T4SS. 297

S. maltophilia is often found as a member of microbial communities in water, soil and in 298 299 association with plants. Some Stenotrophomonas species like S. maltophilia and S. rhizophila can participate in beneficial interactions with plants, but no species were reported to be 300 phytopathogenic, which distinguishes *Stenotrophomonas* from the phylogenetically related genera 301 Xanthomonas and Xylella [24]. More importantly, an increasing number of hospital-acquired S. 302 maltophilia infections over the last decades has led to the classification of this bacterium as an 303 emerging opportunistic pathogen [25, 26]. Key to the opportunistic behaviour of S. maltophilia 304 strains are their ability to form biofilms and their resistance to multiple antibiotics. In this context, 305 the antibacterial property of its T4SS probably provides a competitive advantage to S. maltophilia 306 307 in polymicrobial communities, contributing to increased fitness.

The most worrying aspect of pathogenic *S. maltophilia* strains is their multi-drug resistance phenotype [37]. As *S. maltophilia* is naturally competent to acquire foreign DNA (Berg et al., 1999, Ryan et al., 2009), it would be interesting to analyse the contribution of the T4SS described here in promoting *Stenotrophomonas* transformation and the acquisition of antibiotic resistance genes. Such a mechanism has already been reported in *Vibrio cholerae*, which uses a T6SS as a predatory killing device to induce target cell lysis concomitantly with target-cell DNA uptake to promote bacterial transformation [38].

The T6SS has been shown to play important roles during colonization and infection by enteric pathogenic bacteria such as *Salmonella* and *Shigella* [39, 40]. The contribution of *S. maltophilia* T4SS to colonization and maintenance within mammalian hosts is still unknown. As *S. maltophilia* is frequently associated with cystic fibrosis patients [41, 42], it would be interesting to analyse the ability of mutant strains lacking a functional T4SS to compete with oral and nasal microbiota during infection of susceptible model organisms [43, 44].

The new effector/immunity protein (X-Tfe/X-Tfi) pairs identified in this study expand our 321 knowledge on the different effector proteins promoting target-cell toxicity mediated by T4SSs. 322 Most of the characterized T4SS and T6SS antibacterial toxins are enzymes that degrade structural 323 cellular components such as peptidoglycan and phospholipids, thus promoting target cell lysis 324 [45]. Recent studies have identified effectors that change cell metabolism promoting altered cell 325 growth rather than lysis [46, 47]. Promoting target cell stasis is in most cases sufficient to provide 326 327 the attacker with a competitive advantage, allowing it to outnumber the target species and establish itself in the environment. In natural settings, many species are likely to have acquired resistance 328 mechanisms by means of immunity proteins against specific secreted effectors and may be 329 330 sensitive to only one or a few effectors within the secreted cocktail. Additionally, bacterial

effectors work synergistically and display conditional efficiency depending on the environment [48]. An example of the diversity of effector-immunity pairs carried by different organisms is clearly illustrated here by the duelling observed between *S. maltophilia* and *X. citri*, which can kill one another in a T4SS-dependent manner, indicating that each species lacks at least one immunity protein against the rival's set of T4SS effectors.

Among the eleven new S. maltophilia T4SS effectors identified by bioinformatic searches, 336 six of them have N-terminal domains that are not significantly similar in sequence to any other 337 annotated protein domain family. These X-Tfes are particularly interesting since they could 338 339 possibly promote toxic effects by different mechanisms from those described for the majority of antibacterial type 6- and type 4 effectors that target the cell wall, membranes or nucleic acids [6, 340 46, 49-51]. Smlt3024 induced a severe reduction in growth speed and a decrease in cell size in rich 341 media. However, despite the delay, cells continue to grow for over 8 h (Movie S9), indicating that 342 Smlt3024 expression does not lead to cell death in laboratory conditions. As slower growth speed 343 and decreased cell-sizes are reminiscent of cells growing in nutrient deprived media [52], we 344 speculate that Smlt3024 could somehow induce a starvation response either by mimicking a 345 systemic response, blocking an important metabolic pathway or blocking a key nutrient importer. 346 347 This work contributes with knowledge on the virulence mechanisms used by S. maltophilia allowing it to survive in polymicrobial communities and maintain environmental reservoirs. The 348 349 work also expands our current knowledge about the subtypes of T4SSs involved in interbacterial 350 killing for which the diversity and mechanism of toxicity from secreted substrates, and distribution

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353 Materials and Methods

among bacterial species we are only beginning to understand.

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

S. maltophilia K279a [32] and X. citri pv. citri 306 [53] were grown in 2x YT media (16 355 g/L tryptone, 10 g/L yeast extract, 5 g/L NaCl). E. coli strain K-12 subsp. MG1655 [54] was used 356 in competition assays because of its endogenous expression of β -galactosidase. E. coli DH5 α and 357 E. coli HST08 were used for cloning purposes and E. coli S17 was used for conjugation with S. 358 359 maltophilia. The X. citri T4SS mutant strain lacks all chromosomal virB genes and has the msfGFP gene under the control of *virB7* endogenous promoter ($\Delta virB$ -GFP) while the X. citri-GFP strain 360 has a functional T4SS and expresses GFP as transcriptional fusion under the control of virB7 361 promoter (Cenens et al., in preparation). For time-lapse imaging of S. maltophilia and X. citri 362 strains, AB defined media was used (0.2% (NH₄)₂SO₄, 0.6% Na₂HPO₄, 0.3% KH₂PO₄, 0.3% NaCl, 363 0.1 mM CaCl₂, 1 mM MgCl₂, 3 µM FeCl₃) supplemented with 0.2% sucrose, 0.2% casamino acids, 364 365 10 µg/mL thiamine and 25 µg/mL uracil. Cultures of E. coli and S. maltophilia were grown at 37°C with agitation (200 rpm) and X. citri cultures were grown at 28°C with agitation (200 rpm). 366 367 Antibiotics were used at the following concentrations to select S. maltophilia strains: tetracycline 40 µg/mL and streptomycin 150 µg/mL. For selection of E. coli strains, kanamycin 50 µg/ml and 368 spectinomycin 100 μ g/ml were used when appropriate. For induction from P_{BAD} promoter, 0.2% 369 370 L-arabinose was added. For P_{TAC} induction, 200 µM IPTG was used. Expression from both 371 promoters was repressed using 0.2% D-glucose.

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Cloning and mutagenesis

All primers and plasmids used for cloning are listed in S2 Table. To produce in-frame deletions of *virD4* (*smlt3008*), we used a two-step integration/excision exchange process and the pEX18Tc vector [55]. Fragments of ~1000-bp homologous to the upstream and downstream regions of *smlt3008* were amplified by PCR and cloned into pEX18Tc using standard restriction

digestion and ligation. The pEX18Tc- $\Delta virD4$ was transformed in E. coli S17 donor cells by 377 electroporation and transferred to S. maltophilia recipients via conjugation following the protocol 378 described by Welker et al. [56]. Tetracycline-resistant colonies were first selected. Colonies were 379 then grown in 2x YT without antibiotic and plated on 2x YT agar containing 10% sucrose without 380 antibiotic. Mutant clones were confirmed by PCR. To complement the $\Delta virD4$ strain, the gene 381 382 encoding full-length *smlt3008* was PCR amplified from genomic DNA and cloned into the pBRA vector, which is a pBAD24-derived vector that promotes low constitutive expression in 383 Stenotrophomonas/Xanthomonas under non-inducing conditions (M. Marroquin, unpublished). 384 385 The pBRA construct encoding full-length X. citri virD4/XAC2623 was reported previously [6]. For secretion assays, the full-length sequence of *smlt3024* was cloned into pBRA vector, including 386 a FLAG tag on its N-terminus and transformed into S. maltophilia wild-type and $\Delta virD4$. Plasmids 387 were transformed into S. maltophilia by electroporation (2.5 kV, 200 Ω , 25 μ F, 0.2 cm cuvettes), 388 followed by streptomycin selection. For cloning *smlt3024* and *smlt3025* into pSUMO - a modified 389 version of pET28a (Novagen), adding a SUMO tag between the hexahistidine and the cloning site 390 - we used the soluble portion of Smlt3025 (residues between 86-333) that lacks the N-terminal 391 signal peptide and the full-length Smlt3024. To produce *smlt3024* with the *pelB* periplasmic 392 393 localization sequence, PCR products were first cloned in pET22b (Novagen; containing the Nterminal *pelB* sequence) after the *pelB-smlt3024* construct was transferred to pBRA using Gibson 394 assembly. For the immunity protein smtl3025, three different constructs were cloned in pEXT22 395 396 [57]: one starting at the annotated start-codon and two starting at two downstream putative startcodons (positions 17 and 45). The sequences of all constructs containing effectors in pBRA and 397 398 immunity proteins in pEXT22 were confirmed by DNA sequencing to assure absence of point 399 mutations in the cloned genes and upstream promoter sites using the Macrogen standard 400 sequencing service (https://dna.macrogen.com/).

401 **Bacterial competition assays**

Bacterial competition was assessed either by analysing target cell growth or target cell 402 lysis. To analyse E. coli growth during co-incubation with S. maltophilia we used a protocol 403 404 adapted from Hachani et al. [58]. Briefly, strains were subcultured 1:100 and grown to exponential phase for 2 h at 37°C (200 rpm). Cells were washed with 2x YT and the optical density measured 405 at 600 nm (OD_{600nm}) adjusted to 1. Serial dilutions (1:4) of *E. coli* culture was performed in 96 406 407 well plates. Equal volumes of E. coli and S. maltophilia cultures at OD_{600nm} 1.0 were mixed into each well. After mixing, 5 µl were spotted onto LB-agar plates containing 100 µM IPTG (isopropyl 408 β -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside) and 40 µg/mL X-gal (5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-β-D-409 galactopyranoside) using multichannel pipettes. Plates were incubated for 24 h at 30°C. Analysis 410 of target cell death was performed using CPRG (chlorophenol red-β-D-galactopyranoside) as 411 described previously with minor modifications [18, 59]. Briefly, S. maltophilia and E. coli 412 overnight cultures were subcultured 1:100 – the latter containing 200 µM IPTG – and grown at 413 37°C (200 rpm) to reach OD_{600nm} of approximately 1. Cells were washed with LB media, OD_{600nm} 414 415 adjusted to 1.0 for S. maltophilia strains and OD_{600nm} adjusted to 8.0 for E. coli. The adjusted cultures were mixed 1:1 and 10 µL spotted in triplicate onto 96 well plates containing 100 µL of 416 417 solid 1.5% 2x YT agar and 40 µg/mL CPRG. Plates were let dry completely, covered with adhesive 418 seals and analysed on a SpectraMax Microplate Reader (Molecular Devices) at 572 nm every 10 min for 3.5 h. E. coli cultures were also spotted onto the same plate as a control for spontaneous 419 420 cell death. The obtained A₅₇₂ data was processed using RStudio (www.rstudio.com) and plotted 421 using the ggplot2 package [60]. Background intensities obtained from the mean A₅₇₂ values

422 containing only *E. coli* cells were subtracted from all data series. The initial A_{572} value at time-423 point 0 min was subtracted from all subsequent time-points to correct for small differences in 424 initial measurements. Finally, the curves of *S. maltophilia* $\Delta virD4$ and complementation strains 425 were normalized to those obtained for the *S. maltophilia* wild-type strain.

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Time-lapse microscopy

For time-lapse imaging of bacterial killing at the single-cell level, agar slabs containing 427 either 2x YT or supplemented AB media were created by cutting a rectangular frame out of a 428 double-sided adhesive tape (3MTM VHBTM transparent, 24 mm wide, 1 mm thick), which was 429 430 taped onto a first microscopy slide. Into the resulting tray, agar was poured and covered by a second microscopy glass slide to create a smooth surface. After solidification, the second 431 microscopy slide was removed, exposing the agar's surface onto which 2 µl of cell suspensions 432 were spotted. After cell suspensions were left to dry completely, a #1.5 cover glass (Corning) was 433 laid on top of the agar slab and closed at the sides by the second adhesive layer of the tape, leaving 434 the cell mixtures closely and stably pressed between cover glass and the agar slab. Soon after, 435 phase contrast images together with GFP or RFP excitation images were obtained with a Leica 436 DMI-8+ epi-fluorescent microscope equipped with the Leica DFC365 FX camera, a HC PL APO 437 100x/1.4 Oil ph3 objective (Leica), a GFP excitation-emission band-pass filter cube (Ex: 470/40, 438 DC: 495, EM: 525/50; Leica) and a Cy3/Rhodamine excitation-emission band-pass filter cube (Ex: 439 541/51, DC: 560, EM: 565/605; Leica). An incubation cage around the microscope kept 440 441 temperatures constant at 37°C for E. coli and S. maltophilia experiments and at 28°C for experiments with X. citri. Several separate positions of each cell mixture were imaged every 10-442 15 min after auto-focusing using the LASX software package (Leica). Images were further 443 444 processed with the FIJI software using the Bio-Formats plugin [61]. Time-lapse images were

visually scored for cell lysis events. Small groups of cells (approximately 2 to 8 cells per colony)
containing a mixture of bacterial species in close contact with each other were tagged at time-point
zero and followed during 100 min (*E. coli* and *S. maltophilia* competitions) or 300 min (*X. citri*and *S. maltophilia* competitions) and cell lysis events were manually registered. Approximately
100 cells were scored for each assay.

450 **BLASTp searches**

To identify putative effectors secreted by the S. maltophilia T4SS, we used the XVIPCDs 451 of known and putative X. citri T4SS substrates (residues in parenthesis): XAC4264(140-279), 452 453 XAC3634(189-306), XAC3266(735-861), XAC2885(271-395), XAC2609(315-431), XAC1918(477-606), XAC1165(1-112), XAC0574(317-440), XAC0466(488-584), XAC0323(16-454 136), XAC0151(120-254), XAC0096(506-646) [6, 22] to BLAST search the genome of S. 455 maltophilia K279a (https://www.genome.jp/tools/blast/). A list of S. maltophilia proteins 456 identified by each X. citri XVIPCD with their respective E-values is shown in S1 Table. 457

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Recombinant protein expression, purification and SEC-MALS analysis

Smlt3025₈₆₋₃₃₃ (residues between 86-333) and full-length Smlt3024 cloned into pSUMO 459 were transformed into E. coli BL21(DE3) and SHuffle T7 competent E. coli cells (New England 460 461 BioLabs), respectively, and subcultured into 2x YT medium supplemented with 50 µg/mL kanamycin at 37°C until OD_{600nm} of 0.6 and then shifted to 18°C. After 30 min, protein production 462 was induced with 0.1 mM IPTG. After overnight expression, cells were harvested by 463 464 centrifugation and resuspended in 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 200 mM NaCl, 5 mM imidazole and lysed by 10 passages in a French Press system. The lysate soluble fraction was loaded onto a 5 ml 465 466 HiTrap chelating HP column (GE Healthcare) immobilized with 100 mM cobalt chloride and 467 equilibrated with the lysis buffer. After the removal of unbound proteins, the protein was eluted

with lysis buffer supplemented with 100 mM imidazole. Ulp1 was added to the eluted protein, 468 followed by dialysis at 4°C for 12 h for removal of imidazol. The cleaved target proteins were 469 purified after a second passage through the HiTrap chelating HP column immobilized with cobalt, 470 being eluted in the unbound fraction. Molecular masses of the isolated proteins and the effector-471 immunity complex were determined by SEC-MALS (size-exclusion chromatography coupled to 472 473 multi-angle light scattering), using a Superdex 200 10/300 GL (GE Healthcare) coupled to a Wyatt MALS detector. Graphs and the average molecular masses were generated using the ASTRA 474 software (Wyatt), assuming a refractive index increment dn/dc = 0.185 mL/g. 475

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Secretion assay and immunoblot

Secretion assays were performed essentially as previously described [6]. Briefly, S. 477 *maltophilia* wild-type and $\Delta virD4$ strains carrying pBRA-FLAG-*smlt3024* were grown overnight 478 479 with antibiotics (150 μ g/mL streptomycin), subcultured on the next day (1:25 dilution) and grown for an additional 2 h at 37°C (200 rpm). E. coli cells were subcultured (1:100 dilution) in a similar 480 manner. S. maltophilia and E. coli cells were washed with 2x YT, OD_{600nm} adjusted to 1.0, mixed 481 1:1 volume and 5-10 µL were spotted onto dry nitrocellulose membranes, which were quickly 482 placed onto LB-agar plates containing 0.1% L-arabinose to induce the expression of FLAG-483 Smlt3024. Plates were incubated at 30°C for 6 h, sufficient to allow detection of secreted proteins 484 and before spontaneous cell death, which would produce background in the dot blot. After 6 h, 485 membranes were washed with 5% low-fat milk diluted in PBS containing 0.02% sodium azide and 486 487 processed for quantitative dot blot analysis with anti-FLAG rabbit polyclonal antibody, followed by IRDye 800CW anti-rabbit IgG (LI-COR Biosciences) and scanned using an Odyssey CLx 488 489 infrared imaging system (LI-COR Biosciences). To obtain good signal to noise ratios, the

490	membranes were washed in PBS/Tween (0.05%) at least four times for 1 h each. Quantification of
491	signal intensity was performed using FIJI software [61].

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507 **Author contributions:**

E.B.-S. and C.S.F. conceived the study. E.B.-S., W.C., B.Y.M. and C.S.F., designed experiments. E.B.-S., W.C., B.Y.M., G.D.S. and I.V.M. performed the experiments and all of the authors analysed the data. E.B.-S. and C.S.F. wrote the manuscript.

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513 **Figure captions**

Fig 1. S. maltophilia uses the VirB/T4SS to induce E. coli cell death. (A) Schematic 514 515 representation of the organization of the chromosomal *virB1-11* and *virD4* genes encoding the VirB/T4SSs of S. maltophilia K279a and X. citri 306. The amino acid sequence identities (%) 516 between homologs are shown. (B) Bacterial competition assay using S. maltophilia strains (wild-517 type, $\Delta virD4$ and complemented strains $\Delta virD4$ vir $D4^{C}_{smlt}$ and $\Delta virD4$ vir $D4^{C}_{xac}$ and E. coli 518 (naturally expressing β -galactosidase). A serial dilution of *E. coli* (1:4) was mixed with constant 519 520 amounts of S. maltophilia, spotted onto LB-agar containing IPTG and X-gal and incubated for 24 h at 30°C. Representative image of three independent experiments. (C) Quantification of E. coli 521 target cell lysis using the cell-impermeable compound CPRG. The same bacterial strains described 522 in (B) were used. Graph represents the means and standard deviation (SD) of three independent 523 experiments performed in triplicate. (D) Representative images of time-lapse microscopy showing 524 wild-type S. maltophilia interacting with E. coli-RFP (upper panel) at the single cell level. Images 525 were acquired every 10 min. Dead/lysed E. coli cells are indicated by white arrows. Interaction 526 between S. maltophilia $\Delta virD4$ and E. coli-RFP strains (lower panel) did not induce target cell 527 528 lysis. Timestamps in hours: minutes. Scale bar 5 µm. (E) Percentage of E. coli cells that died/lysed after cell-to-cell contact with Stenotrophomonas strains over a 100 min time-frame. 529

Fig 2. *S. maltophilia* and *X. citri* use their T4SSs for reciprocal interbacterial competition. (A) Representative images of time-lapse microscopy showing *S. maltophilia* wildtype and $\Delta virD4$ strains interacting with the T4SS-deficient *X. citri* $\Delta virB$ -*GFP* strain at the single cell level. Dead/lysed *X. citri* $\Delta virB$ -*GFP* cells are indicated by white arrows. (B) *S. maltophilia* wild-type and $\Delta virD4$ strains interacting with the functional T4SS *X. citri-GFP* strain at the single cell level. Dead/lysed *X. citri* cells are indicated by white arrows and dead/lysed *S. maltophilia*

cells are indicated by yellow arrows. Scale bar 5 μm. Images were acquired every 15 min. (C)
Percentage (%) of T4SS-deficient *X. citri* cells that lysed after cell-to-cell contact with *S. maltophilia* cells. (D) Percentage (%) of *X. citri* cells that lysed after cell-to-cell contact with *S. maltophilia* cells (left side) and % of *S. maltophilia* cells that lysed after cell-to-cell contact with *X. citri* cells (right side). Cells were counted per interaction over a 300 min time-frame.

541 Fig 3. New putative type 4 effectors (Tfes) and type 4 immunity proteins (Tfis) of S. maltophilia T4SS. (A) Schematic representation of size and domain architectures of new S. 542 maltophilia T4SS substrates identified via BLASTp search using XVIPCD (Xanthomonas VirD4-543 544 interacting protein conserved domain) of X. citri T4SS effectors. Gene entries are shown for both effectors and immunity proteins. AHH: putative nuclease domain; PGB: peptidoglycan-binding 545 domain. (B) Alignment of the XVIPCDs of the identified S. maltophilia effectors using Clustal 546 Omega [62] and consensus sequence logo generated by WebLogo [63] showing several highly 547 conserved amino acids that match conserved residues of the X. citri XVIPCDs [22]. 548

Fig 4. Smlt3024 and smlt3025 encode a Tfe-Tfi pair of S. maltophilia VirB/T4SS. (A) 549 Schematic representation of *smlt3024* and *smlt3025* genomic organization. (B) Secretion assay 550 showing T4SS-dependent and *E. coli* contact-dependent secretion of FLAG-Smlt3024. 551 Representative image of three independent experiments. (C) Densitometry of quantitative dot blot 552 analysis signals shown in (B). Signal intensity detected for S. maltophilia mixed with E. coli were 553 normalized by the background signal detected for S. maltophilia alone. (D) Amino acid sequence 554 555 of X-Tfe/X-Tfi pair Smlt3024 and Smlt3025 as annotated in S. maltophilia str. K279a genome (GenBank AM743169). Top panel: The amino acid sequence of Smlt3024. Coloured in blue is the 556 557 XVIPCD with the most conserved amino acids in bold. Methionine (M) residues at positions 1, 558 13, 45, 47 and 50 are shown in red. Note that experimental evidence presented in this study

suggests that the correct start codon is located at Met45, Met47 or Met50. The predicted 559 periplasmic localization peptide of Smlt3025 beginning at Met45 is shaded in grey with cleavage 560 predicted at the underlined cysteine. (E) Left panel: SEC-MALS analysis showing the formation 561 of a stable complex between Smlt3024 and Smlt3025₈₆₋₃₃₃. The continuous line corresponds to the 562 normalized differential refractive index, and the spotted lines indicate the calculated molecular 563 564 mass. *Right panel*: SDS-PAGE showing the apparent molecular mass of proteins eluted from different SEC peaks. (F) Serial dilution (10-fold) of E. coli strains containing pBRA and pEXT22 565 constructs as indicated, spotted on LB-agar plates containing either 0.2% D-glucose, 0.2% L-566 567 arabinose, 200 µM IPTG or both, showing growth inhibition of periplasmic Smlt3024 and the three versions of Smlt3025 starting in three different start codons (Smlt3025, Smlt3025₁₃₋₃₃₃ and 568 Smlt3025₄₅₋₃₃₃). (G) Time-lapse imaging of single cells expressing pBRA-*pelB-smlt3024* show 569 reduced growth rates and smaller cell-sizes (L-arabinose) compared to the non-induced (D-570 glucose) and empty plasmid controls. Images were acquired every 10 min. Timestamps in 571 572 hours:minutes. Scale bar 5 µm.

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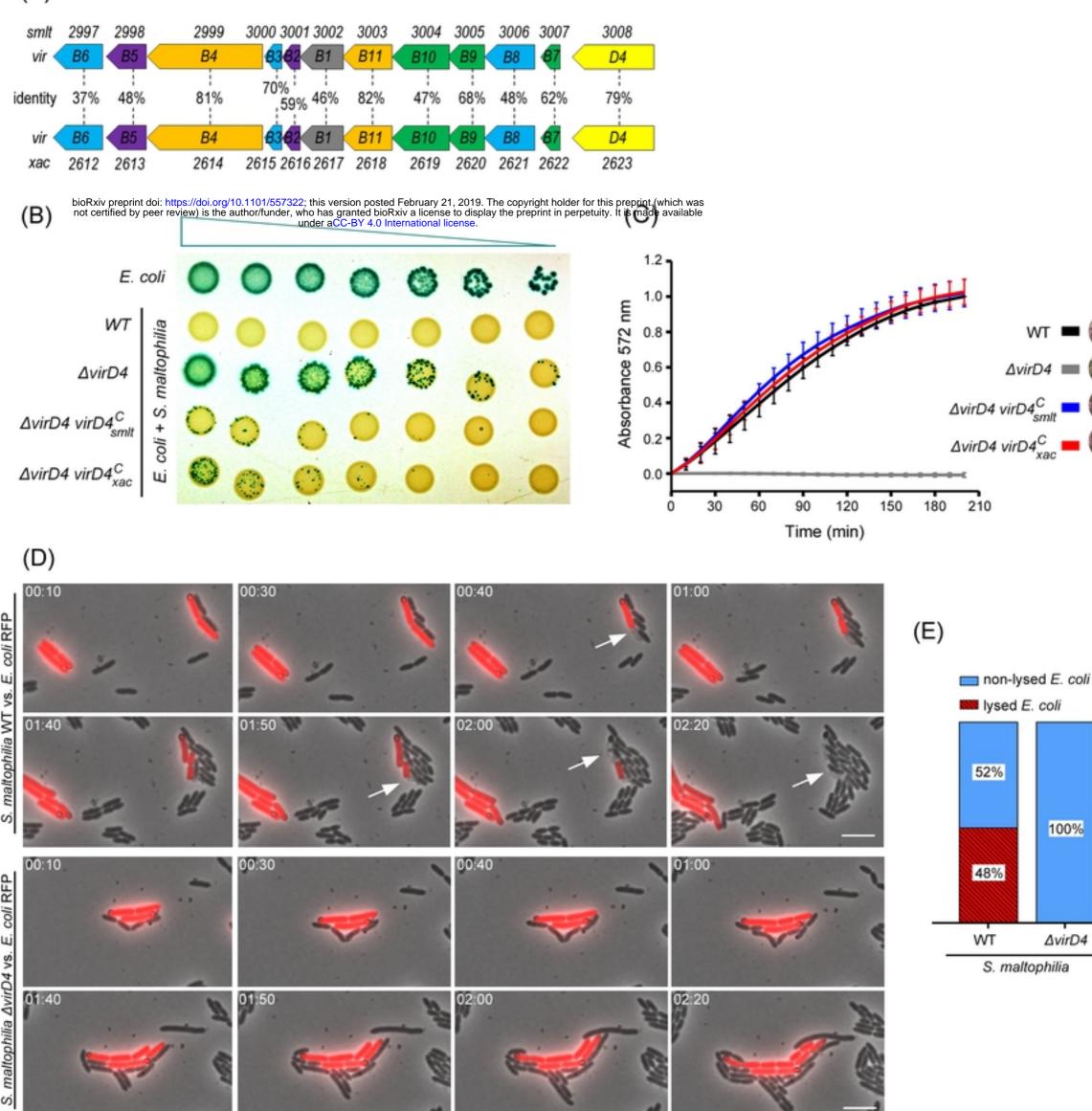
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737			
738		Supporting information	
739		S1 Fig. Phylogenetic distribution of S. maltophilia K279a T4SSs. Maximum-likelihood	
740	tree with 1000 bootstrap replicates built with amino acid sequence of VirD4 (Smlt3008) homologs		
741	using l	MEGA 7.0 [64]. VirB/T4SSs from S. maltophilia and X. citri [6] involved in interbacterial	
742	compe	tition are highlighted in orange. Trb/T4SS from S. maltophilia is in green and the	
743	VirB/7	C4SS involved in conjugation [65] encoded by the pXAC64 plasmid from X. citri strain 306	
744	is in bl	ue [22].	
745		S2 Fig. Loading control for secretion assay. SDS-PAGE of total protein extracts	
746	follow	ed by western blot of S. maltophilia strains carrying pBRA-FLAG-smlt3024 or empty	
747	pBRA	RnhA (Ribonuclease HI) was used as loading control.	
748		S1 Movie. Time-lapse microscopy showing S. maltophilia wild-type interacting with	
749	E. coli	-RFP. Dead/lysed E. coli cells are indicated by white arrows. Images were acquired every	
750	10 mir	. Timestamps in hours:minutes. Scale bar 5 μm	

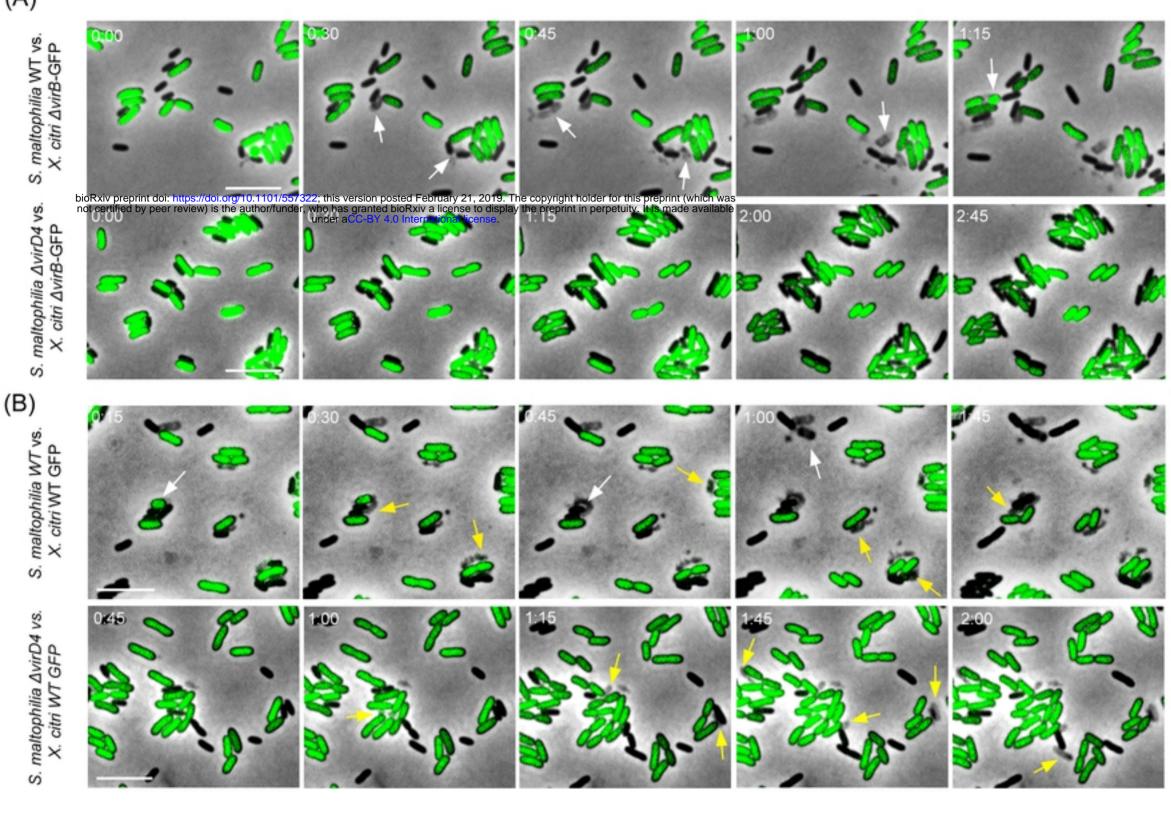
S2 Movie. Time-lapse microscopy showing S. maltophilia ΔvirD4 interacting with E.
 coli-RFP. Images were acquired every 10 min. Timestamps in hours:minutes. Scale bar 5 μm

753	S3 Movie. Time-lapse microscopy showing S. maltophilia wild-type interacting with
754	X. citri AvirB-GFP. Dead/lysed X. citri cells are indicated by white arrows. Images were acquired
755	every 15 min. Timestamps in hours: minutes. Scale bar 5 μ m
756	S4 Movie . Time-lapse microscopy showing <i>S. maltophilia</i> $\Delta virD4$ interacting with <i>X. citri</i>
757	$\Delta virB$ -GFP. Images were acquired every 15 min. Timestamps in hours: minutes. Scale bar 5 μ m
758	S5 Movie. Time-lapse microscopy showing S. maltophilia wild-type interacting with
759	X. citri-GFP. Dead/lysed X. citri cells are indicated by white arrows and dead/lysed S. maltophilia
760	cells are indicated by yellow arrows. Images were acquired every 15 min. Timestamps in
761	hours:minutes. Scale bar 5 µm
762	S6 Movie. Time-lapse microscopy showing S. maltophilia $\Delta virD4$ interacting with X.
763	citri-GFP. Dead/lysed S. maltophilia cells are indicated by yellow arrows. Images were acquired
764	every 15 min. Timestamps in hours:minutes. Scale bar 5 μ m
765	S7 Movie. Time-lapse microscopy showing <i>E. coli</i> cells containing the empty pBRA
766	plasmid grown with 0.2% L-arabinose. Images were acquired every 10 min. Scale bar 5 μ m.
767	S8 Movie. Time-lapse microscopy showing E. coli cells containing pBRA-pelB-
768	<i>smlt3024</i> grown with 0.2% D-glucose. Images were acquired every 10 min. Scale bar 5 μ m.
769	89 Movie. Time-lapse microscopy showing E. coli cells containing pBRA-pelB-
770	<i>smlt3024</i> grown with 0.2% L-arabinose. Images were acquired every 10 min. Scale bar 5 µm.
771	S1 Table. List of putative S. maltophilia T4SS X-Tfe/X-Tfi pairs identified by
772	BLASTp search using X. citri XVIPCDs.
773	S2 Table. List of strains, primers and plasmids used in this study.

(A)



(A)

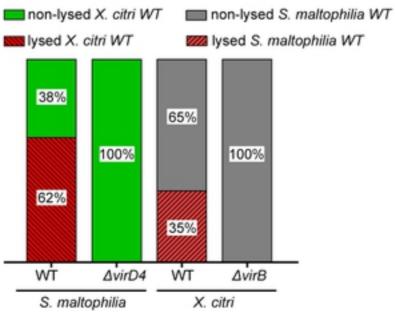


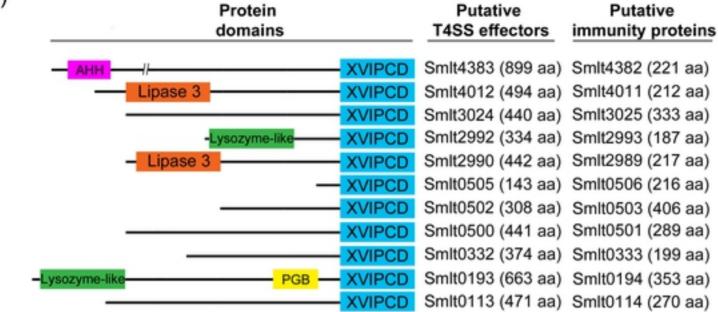
(C)

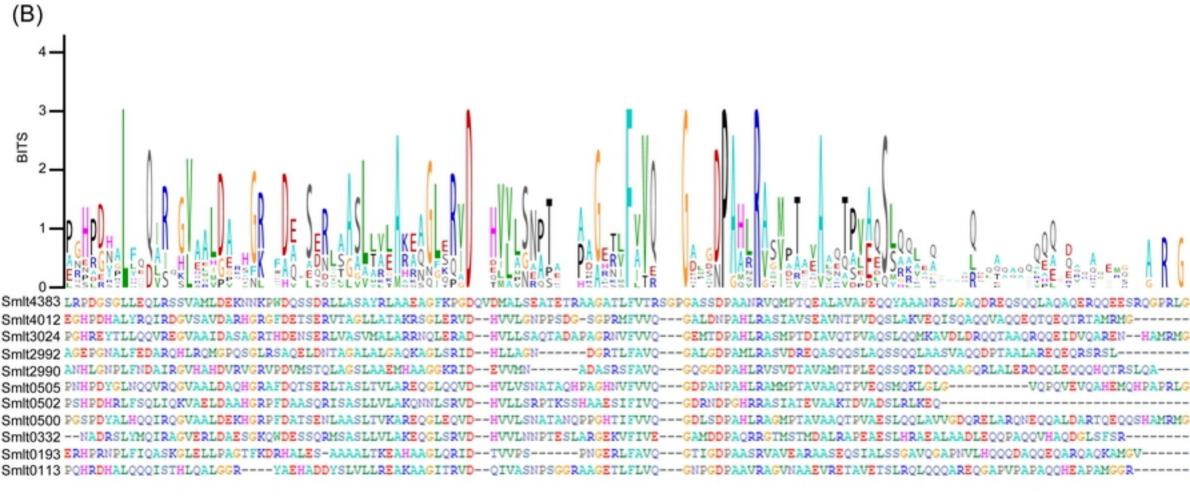
non-lysed X. citri ΔvirB lysed X. citri ∆virB 15% 100% 85% ∆virD4 WT S. maltophilia

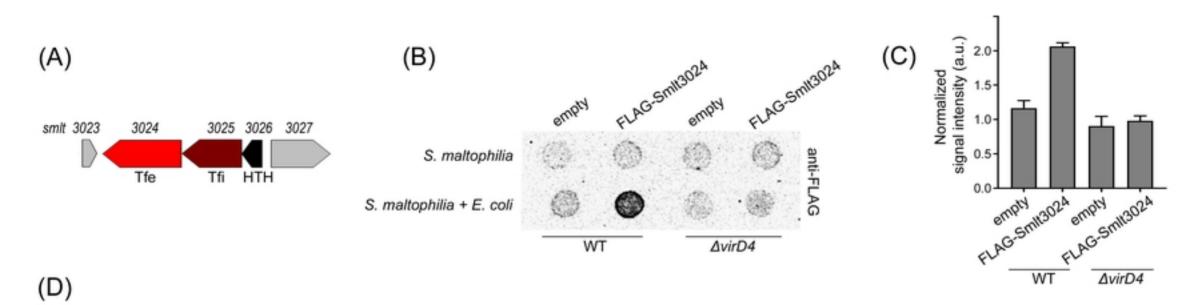
www.iysed X. citri WT 38%

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