

The Azospirillum brasilense Type VI secretion system promotes cell aggregation, biocontrol protection against phytopathogens and attachment to the microalgae Chlorella sorokiniana

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Fabricio Cassan, Anahí Coniglio, Edgar Amavizca, Guillermo Maroniche, E. Cascales, et al.. The Azospirillum brasilense Type VI secretion system promotes cell aggregation, biocontrol protection against phytopathogens and attachment to the microalgae Chlorella sorokiniana. Environmental Microbiology, 2021, 10.1111/1462-2920.15749. hal-03336446

HAL Id: hal-03336446 https://amu.hal.science/hal-03336446v1

Submitted on 5 Oct 2021

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1	Submitted to Environmental Microbiology
2	SI: Multifaceted Plant-Microbe Interactions
3	The Azospirillum brasilense Type VI secretion system promotes cell aggregation, biocontrol
4	protection against phytopathogens and attachment to the microalgae Chlorella sorokiniana
5	
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27	Number of Figures: 7
28	Number of Tables: 1
29	Supplementary material: 2 Figure, 1 Table

¹
[†] Dedication: This study is dedicated to the memory of Dr. Yoav Bashan, leading figure in the
field of Plant Growth-Promoting Bacteria (PGPB) for environmental purposes, and founder of the
Bashan Institute of Science, USA. Prof. Bashan passed away during the edition of the manuscript.

1 Summary

The plant-growth promoting bacterium Azospirillum brasilense is able to associate with the 2 microalgae Chlorella sorokiniana. Attachment of A. brasilense increases the metabolic 3 performances of the microalgae. Recent genome analyses have revealed that the A. brasilense 4 Az39 genome contains two complete sets of genes encoding Type VI secretion systems (T6SS), 5 including the T6SS1 that is induced by the indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) phytohormone. The T6SS 6 is a multiprotein machine, widespread in gram-negative bacteria, that delivers protein effectors in 7 8 both prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells. Here we show that the A. brasilense T6SS is required for 9 Chlorella-Azospirillum synthetic mutualism. Our data demonstrate that the T6SS is an important 10 determinant to promote production of carbohydrates and photosynthetic pigments by the 11 microalgae. We further show that this is likely due to the role of the T6SS during the attachment stage and for the production of IAA phytohormones. Finally, we demonstrate that the A. brasilense 12 T6SS provides antagonistic activities against a number of plant pathogens such as Agrobacterium, 13 14 Pectobacterium, Dickeya and Ralstonia species in vitro, suggesting that, in addition to promoting 15 growth, A. brasilense might confer T6SS-dependent bio-control protection to microalgae and plants against bacterial pathogens. 16

17

18 Significance

19 Azospirillum brasilense, a plant growth promoting bacterium, increases the metabolic 20 performances of plants and microalgae. Here we show that the *A. brasilense* type VI secretion 21 system (T6SS) is an important determinant of *Azospirillum* attachment to the microalgae *Chlorella* 22 sorokiniana, and hence that a mutant defective in T6SS decreases metabolite production in the 23 microalga. In addition, we show that the T6SS confers antibacterial activity against competitor bacterial cells, including phytopathogens *in vitro*, suggesting that the T6SS is also an important
determinant for bioprotection. This study therefore demonstrates that a secretion system, involved
in the secretion of bacterial effectors and toxins, participates in processes that are beneficial to
plant and microalgae cells.
Keywords: Attachment; aggregation; Plant Growth Promoting Bacteria (PGPB); *Azospirillum*;

6 bacteria-microalgae interaction; *Chlorella*; Type VI secretion system (T6SS)

1 Introduction

Azospirillum spp. is one of the best-characterized genera of plant growth-promoting bacteria 2 (PGPB) and can colonize more than 130 plant species in 37 families (Pereg et al., 2016). The 3 association of *Azospirillum* spp. with these plants significantly improves growth, development, 4 5 and in many cases, yield under field conditions (Cassan et al., 2020). There is no single mechanism involved in promoting plant growth with Azospirillum, but rather a combination of mechanisms in 6 7 different cases of inoculation. These mechanisms work together or in tandem, and the phenomenon 8 is commonly known as "multiple mechanism theory" (Bashan and de-Bashan, 2010). The 9 production of indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) by Azospirillum spp. is one of the main mechanisms 10 proposed for the effect of this bacterial species on plant growth (Bashan and de-Bashan, 2010). 11 The A. brasilense Az39 used in this study was isolated in 1982 from surface-sterilized wheat seedlings in Marcos Juarez, Argentina. This strain was selected for inoculant formulation, based 12 on its ability to increase crop yields of maize and wheat under agronomic conditions (Díaz-Zorita 13 14 and Fernández-Canigia, 2009). Currently, A. brasilense Az39 is one of the most used strains for 15 crops such as maize and sorghum in Argentina and South America (Cassan et al., 2020).

For decades, Azospirillum spp. has been known to associate to roots of higher plants 16 (Bashan and de-Bashan, 2010), such as cereals, tomato, pepper, cotton, and soybean, and with the 17 microalgae Chlorella sorokiniana (Levanony et al., 1989; Bashan et al., 1991; Assmus et al., 18 1995). The first step of the association corresponds to attachment to the root, a critical step because 19 all azospirilla are highly motile bacteria in vitro (Bashan and Holguin, 1994; Alexandre et al., 20 2000), in soil (Bashan and Levanony, 1987), and in water (Puente et al., 1999). In addition to 21 22 motility, root colonization also requires the production of surface polysaccharides (Jofre et al., 2004). After attachment, azospirilla colonize the roots. Host colonization usually requires the 23

delivery of effector proteins by dedicated secretion systems. Up to eleven secretion systems (Types 1 I–XI) have been described so far in gram-negative bacteria (Costa *et al.*, 2015). Genome analyses 2 show that A. brasilense strains are lacking Type III and Type IV secretion systems. 3 Transcriptomics and bioinformatics analyses show that A. brasilense strains Sp245 and Az39 4 contain gene clusters encoding putative Type VI secretion systems (T6SSs) (Van Puyvelde et al., 5 2011; Rivera et al., 2014; Fig. 1; Table S1). The T6SS is a widespread, multi-protein apparatus, 6 found in gram-negative bacteria (Bingle et al., 2008; Cascales, 2008). The T6SS is not only 7 8 distributed in human, animal, and plant pathogenic bacteria where it is involved in virulence and 9 pathogenesis, but also found in commensal and symbiotic PGPB (Bingle et al., 2008; Russell et 10 al., 2014). In these bacteria, the T6SS participates to intermicrobial rivalry in bacterial and fungal 11 competition, biofilm formation, and establishment of symbiosis (Jiménez-Guerrero et al., 2013; Durand et al., 2014; Russell et al., 2014; Ryu, 2015; Bernal et al., 2017; Trunk et al., 2019; 12 Gallegos-Monterossa and Coulthurst, 2021). At the molecular level, the T6SS acts like a cellular 13 14 "biological syringe": it assembles a bacteriophage tail-like structure anchored to the cell envelope 15 by a membrane complex (Zoued et al., 2014; Coulthurst, 2019; Cherrak et al., 2019). The tail-like structure consists of an inner tube made of hexamers of the Hcp protein capped by a puncturing 16 VgrG-PAAR complex and wrapped in the TssBC contractile sheath (Zoued et al., 2014; Cherrak 17 et al., 2019; Basler, 2015). Effector toxins are loaded onto the VgrG o PAAR proteins or within 18 the Hcp tube (Hernandez et al., 2020; Jurenas and Journet, 2021). Contraction of the sheath propels 19 the inner tube towards the target cell (Basler, 2015; Brackmann et al., 2017). Penetration of the 20 tube into the target cell allows delivery of the effectors (Hernandez et al., 2020; Jurenas and 21 22 Journet, 2021). While the mechanisms of action and the role of T6SS in animal and plant pathogens have been well described in recent years, it has been less studied in plant symbiotic and associative 23

bacteria (Jiménez-Guerrero et al., 2013; Ryu, 2015; Wu et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2019; Bernal et 1 al., 2018; Borrero de Acuña and Bernal, 2021). In Rhizobium leguminosarum, the T6SS affects 2 the attachment, nodulation, and symbiosis processes (Roest et al., 1997; Bladergroen et al., 2003). 3 In Pseudomonas fluorescens, the T6SS is involved in bacterial competition, motility, biofilm 4 formation, and is critical to persist in the rhizosphere microbiome (Decoin et al., 2014; 2015; 5 Gallique et al., 2017; Durán et al., 2021). P. putida produces three T6SSs, including K1-T6SS that 6 confers antibacterial activity against numerous bacterial phytopathogens, and hence can be used 7 8 as a biocontrol agent against plant pathogens (Bernal et al., 2017). Finally, Agrobacterium 9 tumefaciens was shown to deploy a T6SS to destroy competitors and to increase colonization in 10 planta (Ma et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2019). A. brasilense Az39 contains two gene 11 clusters encoding T6SSs. A transcriptomic study of A. brasilense Sp245 showed that the T6SS1 gene cluster is induced by indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) (Van Puyvelde et al., 2011). The activation 12 of T6SS1 by a phytohormone in A. brasilense prompted us to investigate the role of this T6SS in 13 14 interbacterial competition and its interaction with microalgal cells.

The freshwater unicellular microalgae *Chlorella* spp. can associate with several bacterial species (Imase *et al.*, 2008), including *Azospirillum* spp. (Hernandez *et al.*, 2009; de-Bashan *et al.*, 2015). The *Chlorella-Azospirillum* association is an established model system of synthetic mutualism to study cellular mechanisms during plant-bacteria interaction (de-Bashan and Bashan, 2008; de-Bashan *et al.*, 2016). This association significantly promotes the production of carbohydrates, fatty acids, lipids, and pigments of the microalgae, both autotrophically and heterotrophically (de-Bashan *et al.*, 2002, 2015; Choix *et al.*, 2012a, b; Leyva *et al.*, 2014).

Previously, we tested the attachment and mutual aggregation between the microalga
 Chlorella sorokiniana and *Azospirillum brasilense* immobilized in alginate beads to facilitate the

initial stage of formation of this synthetic association (de-Bashan and Bashan, 2008; de-Bashan *et al.*, 2015; de-Bashan *et al.*, 2016). Attachment of *Azospirillum brasilense* to *Chlorella* spp. cells
involve fibrillar connections (Lebsky *et al.*, 2001; de-Bashan *et al.*, 2011), similar to what was
observed during the attachment of *Azospirillum* spp. to cells of higher plants (Bashan *et al.*, 1986;
Bashan *et al.*, 1991). However, we currently lack molecular details on how *Azospirillum* spp.
efficiently colonizes microalgae and plants.

In this study, we show that the A. brasilense T6SS1 has a positive effect on growth of the 7 8 microalgae Chlorella. We further demonstrate that a A. brasilense strain defective for T6SS1 9 presents a reduced enhancement of the production of microalgal metabolites such as lipids, 10 carbohydrates, and photosynthetic pigments compared to wild-type A. brasilense. Finally, we 11 demonstrate that the Azospirillum T6SS provides anti-bacterial activity against E. coli and several plant pathogens, including Agrobacterium tumefaciens, Pectobacterium carotovorum and Dickeya 12 dadantii. These data support the idea that the T6SS is required for the establishment of an efficient 13 14 synthetic mutualism between Azospirillum and Chlorella and confers protection of the microalgae 15 - and potentially of plants - against pathogens.

16

17 Results

18 Construction of the A. brasilense $Az39\Delta hcp$ -E mutant

The Hcp protein is an essential component of the T6SS and its encoding gene is present as a single
copy in the T6SS1 gene cluster of *A. brasilense* Az39. It is located upstream of the *tssE* gene,
which encodes an important component of the T6SS assembly baseplate (Brunet *et al.*, 2015) (Fig.
Both genes are in tandem in chromid 1 in *A. brasilense* Az39 (GenBank, CP007794.1,
AbAz39_p1, WP_051658325.1) and share high identity to those encoded within the genomes of

A. brasilense FP2 (99%), Sp245 (98%), Sp7 (99%), and *Azospirillum* sp. B510 (64%). We used
 targeted mutagenesis to construct an isogenic mutant of Az39. For this, a genomic fragment
 overlapping with the *hcp* and *tssE* genes was replaced with a gentamycin-resistant cassette by
 homologous recombination (Fig. S1). The genomic structure of the wild-type strain and its
 isogenic Δ*hcp-tssE* (Δ*hcp-E*) mutant was confirmed by PCR using several combinations of primers
 (Fig. S1).

7

8 Phenotypic characterization of the A. brasilense Az39∆hcp-E strain for cell growth, IAA
9 production, motility, cell aggregation and biofilm formation

10 To characterize the $Az39\Delta hcp$ -E mutant strain, we measured its growth rate in rich and minimum 11 media, its production of indole-3 acetic acid, and its capacity to swim, swarm and to form biofilm 12 compared to the wild-type strain.

Growth rate - The growth rate and the number of colony-forming units (CFU) of the A. brasilense 13 14 wild-type strain and its *hcp-tssE* mutant were compared in two different media. In both rich (LB) 15 and minimal (MMAB) media, the two strains exhibited similar growth patterns for 80 hours (Fig. S2). Wild-type A. brasilense Az39 had the highest number of living cells $(4.63 \times 10^9 \text{ CFU} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1} \text{ in})$ 16 LB medium, and 1.85×10⁹ CFU·mL⁻¹ in MMAB) during the exponential growth phase (24 h after 17 inoculation) and fewer cells (0.75×10⁹ CFU·mL⁻¹ in LB; 0.75×10⁹ CFU·mL⁻¹ in MMAB) during 18 the stationary growth phase (>36 h after inoculation) (Fig S2). The A. brasilense Az39 Δ hcp-E 19 mutant strain exhibited a similar pattern, with a higher number of cells during the exponential 20 21 growth phase $(2 \times 10^9 \text{ CFU} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1} \text{ in LB}; 1.6 \times 10^9 \text{ CFU} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1} \text{ in MMAB})$ and fewer living cells during the stationary growth phase $(1.5 \times 10^9 \text{ CFU} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1} \text{ in LB}; 1.06 \times 10^9 \text{ CFU} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1})$ (Fig. S2). 22

Indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) production - In minimum medium, the mutant strain produced
significantly less IAA during exponential growth compared to wild-type Az39, with a maximum
difference at 24 h of culture (Az39Δ*hcp-E*: 56.77 ± 2.59 µg·mL⁻¹; Az39: 79.98 ± 2.14 µg·mL⁻¹),
but the accumulation of the phytohormone in the culture medium was restored to wild-type levels
during the stationary growth phase (Az39Δ*hcp-E*: 79.82 ± 1.60 µg·mL⁻¹, Az39: 79.45 ± 4.94
µg·mL⁻¹), showing a saturation kinetic (Fig. 2).

Swimming, swarming, aggregation and biofilm formation - Previous reports have shown that 7 8 mutation within T6SS gene clusters confer defects in swimming, swarming or biofilm formation 9 (Aschtgen et al., 2008; de Pace et al., 2010; Decoin et al., 2014; Bouteiller et al., 2020). The Az39 Δ *hcp-E* mutant strain exhibited better swimming capacity compared to its parental strain in 10 11 swim and MMAB culture media (Fig. 3a). By contrast, both strains swarmed at similar rates (Fig. 3b). Cell aggregation was reduced for the Az39 Δhcp -E mutant in MMAB and LB culture media 12 with an average reduction of 30% in comparison to the wild-type strain (Table 1). Finally, we 13 14 observed that the Az39 Δhcp -E mutant strain produced ~50 % less biofilm after 48 and 72 h of 15 incubation, indicating a reduction in attachment capacity between cells. After 96 h of incubation, the mutant showed a reduction of 23.15 % of biofilm production compared to the wild-type strain, 16 but this difference was not significant (Fig. 3c). Altogether, these data showed that the A. 17 brasilense T6SS1 decreases the ability to swim and confers an increased ability to adhere to abiotic 18 surfaces, at least in the early stages of the attachment phase. 19

20

21 The A. brasilense T6SS provides anti-bacterial activity against competitors, including
22 phytopathogens.

A number of reports have demonstrated that the T6SS is involved in regulating bacterial 1 communities by targeting effector toxins into competing bacteria sharing the same ecological niche 2 (Hood et al., 2010; Wexler et al., 2016; Sana et al., 2016; Anderson et al., 2017; Chassaing and 3 Cascales, 2018; Allsopp et al., 2020; Wood et al., 2020; Duran et al., 2021). We therefore asked 4 5 whether the A. brasilense T6SS might confer protection to the microalgae or plants by delivering anti-bacterial toxins into phytopathogens. We performed in vitro competition experiments in 6 minimal medium against Escherichia coli K-12, the soil bacterium Ralstonia eutropha and 7 8 selected plant pathogens such as Agrobacterium tumefaciens, Pectobacterium carotovorum, 9 Dickeya dadantii and Ralstonia solanacearum. After 8 h of co-incubation with wild-type A. brasilense Az39 and its isogenic Δhcp -E mutant, surviving prey cells were counted on selective 10 11 medium. Fig. 4 shows that the wild-type A. brasilense strain has T6SS-dependent anti-bacterial activity against all the strains tested as only 7-15% of cells survive against the wild-type A. 12 brasilense compared to the Δhcp -E mutant. The T6SS activity was significantly increased in 13 14 presence of indole-3-acetic acid, previously shown to induce the T6SS gene cluster (Van Puyvelde et al., 2011). In presence of IAA, only 0.1-1% of the prey cells survived co-incubation with wild-15 type A. brasilense cells whereas their recovery was not affected when co-incubated with Δhcp -E 16 mutant cells (Fig. 4). We conclude that the A. brasilense T6SS has anti-bacterial activity against 17 several strains and therefore might confer protection to plant and microalgae against bacterial 18 pathogens. 19

20

21 *Contribution of the T6SS for C. sorokiniana/A. brasilense association*

22 *Microalgae growth* - To test the role of the *A. brasilense* T6SS for mutualistic growth of *Chlorella*,

23 we followed the growth of the microalgae alone or in presence of the *A. brasilense* Az39 wild-type

strain or its isogenic Δhcp -E mutant (Fig. 5a). When cultured alone, the C. sorokiniana population 1 increased for the first two days and then slowly decreased. After six days, the population reached 2 its lowest numbers (Fig. 5a, open circles). In the presence of the A. brasilense wild-type or mutant 3 strains, the Chlorella population increased for 4 days and then declined (Fig. 5a, closed squares 4 5 and triangles, respectively). The growth rate of the microalgae after 4 days with either A. brasilense strain was ~3.5 higher than microalgae cultured alone (Fig. 5a). For 6 days, the interaction with 6 both types of bacteria supported larger populations of microalgae, compared to the microalgae that 7 8 were cultured alone.

9

Cell aggregation - Chlorella-Azospirillum association and aggregation were probed by 10 11 fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) (Fig. 5b). Aggregates of the two bacterial strains grown with C. sorokiniana showed different dynamics throughout the experiment. The initial distribution 12 13 of cells represents the outset of the microorganism's interaction (Fig. 5b panels a, e, i, m, q). In all 14 cases, the aggregates are increasing in size from day 1 (Fig. 5b panels a-t; Fig. 5c). The difference 15 in aggregates depending on the bacterial strain is evident at day 4. When C. sorokiniana was cocultured with A. brasilense Az39 large aggregates composed of bacteria and microalgae were 16 found (Fig. 5b panel d; Fig. 5c). Co-cultures of C. sorokiniana with A. brasilense Az39 Δ hcp-E 17 18 showed aggregates mainly composed of microalgae (Fig. 5b panel h) and significantly smaller than the aggregates formed with the wild-type Az39 strain (Fig. 5c). C. sorokiniana alone showed 19 smaller aggregates (5b panel t; Fig. 5c). A. brasilense Az39 growing alone displayed aggregates 20 increasing in size (Fig. 5b panels i-l; Fig. 5c); however, A. brasilense Az39 Δ hcp-E showed less 21 aggregation than wild-type, maintaining a similar size of aggregates at days 2 and 4 (Fig. 5b panels 22 m-p; Fig. 5c), in agreement with the defect in cell aggregation observed previously (Table 1). 23

2	Accumulation of carbohydrates, lipids and photosynthetic pigments - To better understand the
3	effect of the A. brasilense T6SS during mutualistic growth with C. sorokiniana, we measured the
4	accumulation of carbohydrates, lipids and pigments in the microalgae alone or in presence of the
5	A. brasilense Az39 wild-type strain or its isogenic Δhcp -E mutant (Fig. 6 and 7). Fig. 6a shows
6	that co-culture of Chlorella with the wild-type A. brasilense Az39 strain significantly increased
7	the accumulation of carbohydrates in the microalgae-bacteria association only at days 1 and 4 of
8	co-culturing, while co-culture with A. brasilense Az39 Δ hcp-E cells had no effect on carbohydrates
9	accumulation (Fig. 6a). Regarding lipids production, co-culture of C. sorokiniana with either A.
10	brasilense strain significantly improved the production of lipids in the microalgae, although the
11	wild-type induced higher production of lipids at days 1, 2, and 6, while it was higher with the
12	mutant at day 4 (Fig. 6b). The effect of the A. brasilense T6SS on microalgae photosynthesis was
13	indirectly measured by quantifying major and auxiliary photosynthetic pigments: chlorophyll a
14	and b , violaxanthin, lutein and β -carotene (Fig. 7c-f). The accumulation of these photosynthetic
15	pigments followed a similar pattern. After 1 day of co-culture, the presence of A. brasilense strains
16	did not improve the synthesis of pigments. However, the presence of the Az39 wild-type strain
17	increased the production of pigments by Chlorella on days 2, 4 and 6. By contrast, co-culture of
18	<i>Chlorella</i> with the <i>A</i> . <i>brasilense</i> Δhcp - <i>E</i> strain did not improve pigment production during the four
19	first days.

Discussion

In this study, we provide the first characterization of a Type VI secretion system from the 1 plant-growth promoting bacterium Azospirillum brasilense (Fig. 7). We show that the A. brasilense 2 T6SS1 is involved in attachment to the microalgae Chlorella sorokiniana, participates to the 3 formation of an efficient algae/bacterium consortium, and in the production of the IAA 4 phytohormone. Through its role on attachment and IAA levels, which exert major changes on 5 growth and the metabolism of the microalgae the T6SS indirectly allows increased lipid 6 metabolism in the microalgae. We also reveal that the A. brasilense T6SS confers protection 7 8 against bacterial phytopathogens. This study therefore demonstrates that the T6SS is an important beneficial determinant of Azospirillum/Chlorella interaction by mediating attachment, 9 10 improvement of the metabolic performances and bio-control (Fig. 7).

11 We have shown that the T6SS participates to biofilm formation on abiotic surfaces and helps attachment of Azospirillum to Chlorella cells and formation of Chlorella clusters. In addition, we 12 observed a role of the T6SS in IAA production. Attachment and IAA production are key in 13 14 Azospirillum-plant cell interactions (Bashan and de-Bashan, 2010). Attachment of Azospirillum 15 to cells is a major, active and complex phenomenon (Bashan, Levanony and Klein 1986; Gafni et al. 1986). The initial interaction of Azospirillum spp. with plant cells it mainly mediated by 16 17 attachment of the bacterium, which employs a variety of piliated appendages at the cell surface to promote stable interactions between the eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells (Pereg et al., 2016); 18 Attachment between bacteria and microalgae was previously observed (de-Bashan et al., 2011, 19 2015, 2016), but the question remains on whether this attachment is significant for the 20 development of this association by creating additional massive microalgae-bacteria aggregates. 21 22 Active attachment to plants and subsequent colonization were observed with the roots of cereals, tomato, pepper, cotton and soybean (Bashan et al. 1989; Bashan, Singh and Levanony 1989; 23

Bashan, Levanony and Whitmoyer 1991; Levanony et al. 1989; Assmus et al. 1995; Pereg Gerk, 1 Gilchrist and Kennedy 2000). The initial step of plant root colonization by Azospirillum spp. 2 necessitates flagella and exopolysaccharides to create very stable interaction between the 3 eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells (Pereg, de-Bashan and Bashan 2016). These structures are also 4 5 needed for adhesion to non-living substrates (Bashan and Levanony 1988; Bashan and Holguin 1993). The polar flagellum of A. brasilense, which is primarily used for swimming, is involved in 6 7 the initial attachment process of the bacteria to wheat roots (Croes et al. 1991). Then the attachment 8 process involves two distinct steps. The first stage is fast and corresponds to a weak adhesion and 9 is mediated by host cell surface hydrophobicity, charges and lectins (Castellanos, Ascencio and 10 Bashan 1998, 2000). The second stage takes longer time but the attachment is irreversible. This 11 stage is mediated by extracellular surface polysaccharides and mucigel-like substances (Gafni et al. 1986; Bashan and Levanony 1988; Bashan, Levanony and Whitmoyer 1991; Levanony and 12 Bashan 1991; Michiels et al., 1989; Puente et al. 1999; Pereg Gerk, Gilchrist and Kennedy 2000; 13 14 Lerner et al., 2009). Other determinants of Azospirillum attachment are the flcA regulator (Pereg 15 Gerk et al. 1998) that is also involved in stress response and carbohydrate and nitrogen metabolism (Hou et al. 2014), chemotaxis pathways (Bible, Russell and Alexandre 2012; Pereg, de-Bashan 16 17 and Bashan 2016), Cpa pili (Wisniewski-Dye et al. 2011) as well as genes related to the surface properties of Azospirillum, such as noeJ (mannose-6-phosphate isomerase) and noeL (GDP-18 mannose 4,6-dehydratase) and pathways involved in lipopolysaccharide core processing (dTDP-19 rhamnose biosynthesis pathway; Jofre et al., 2004) or energy taxis (Greer-Phillips, Stephens and 20 Alexandre 2004). Although the T6SS might be a new molecular determinant of the adhesion of 21 22 Azospirillum to microalgae cells, it remains to define whether the effect of the T6SS mutation on adhesion is due to defect in flagellar synthesis or expression of attachment genes. While cross-talk 23

between the T6SS and flagellar genes have been demonstrated in the *P. fluorescens* PGPB
(Bouteiller et al., 2020), the first hypothesis is unlikely as we have shown here that deletion of the *hcp-tssE* genes does not affect swarming rates and increases swimming rates. The second
hypothesis merits investigation, as previous studies have shown that the inactivation of the T6SS
may affect expression of fimbrial genes in pathogenic *E. coli* strains (de Pace *et al.*, 2010).

Previous studies have shown that A. brasilense enhance the growth and induce an increased 6 accumulation of carbohydrates, starch (Choix et al., 2012a, b), fatty acids, total lipids (Leyva et 7 8 al., 2014; Peng et al., 2020) and pigments (de-Bashan et al. 2002; Peng et al., 2020) in Chlorella 9 spp. The effect has been mostly attributed to the IAA production by the bacteria (de-Bashan and 10 Bashan, 2008; de-Bashan et al., 2011, 2015; Peng et al., 2020). Since the concentration of IAA 11 produced by the wild-type and T6SS A. brasilense strains is similar at the times of the experiments with the microalgae (after 30 hours), the reduction of lipids and photosynthetic pigments induced 12 by the T6SS mutant can be attributed to its lower attachment capacity. It was previously shown 13 14 that attachment is not essential for C and N compounds transfer between individual cells of C. sorokiniana and A. brasilense (de-Bashan et al., 2016); however, the metabolites produced by 15 Azospirillum, might be transient and probably a close cell proximity is required to achieve a more 16 17 effective mass transfer (Peng et al., 2020).

We have also shown that mutation in the *A. brasilense* T6SS affects IAA production. IAA, as a
phytohormone, has no important role in bacterial metabolism (Spaepen and Vanderleyden, 2011),
but is widespread among PGPB (Duca *et al.*, 2014) and increases plant growth. The production of
IAA during the interaction between *Azospirillum* spp. and *Chlorella* spp. and its effect on growth
was reported several times (de-Bashan *et al.*, 2008; Palacios *et al.*, 2016a, b, Peng *et al.*, 2020).
The role of the T6SS in *Azospirillum*/plant interactions suggests that the expression of this cluster

and/or the activity of the machine is responsive to environmental or plant cues. It would be
 therefore interesting to determine what are the environmental signals in addition to IAA (Van
 Puyvelde *et al.*, 2011), and to identify the regulators that control the expression of this T6SS gene
 cluster.

5 The role of the A. brasilense T6SS in plant/bacterium interactions is supported by the observation that T6SS genes are up-regulated in presence of the IAA phytohormone (Van Puyvelde et al., 6 7 2011). However, contrarily to T2SS or T3SS present in plant-associated bacteria, the A. brasilense 8 T6SS is not deployed for pathogenic purposes. Interestingly, T6SS gene clusters are conserved in 9 proteobacterial and bacteroidetes genomes, including non-pathogenic bacteria such as gut 10 symbiots (Wexler et al., 2016), soil and marine bacteria. The presence of a T6SS in these strains 11 suggests that the T6SS could be used for promoting commensal or mutualistic relationships between bacteria and eukaryotes (Jani and Cotter 2010; Konovalova, Petters and Søgaard-12 Andersen 2010; Jiménez-Guerrero et al. 2013). Indeed, the Rhizobium leguminosarum bv. trifolii 13 14 T6SS has a role in the nodulation process by blocking the colonization/infection process of nonhost peas (Roest et al. 1997; Bladergroen et al. 2003). Whereas it has been proposed that RbsB is 15 a T6SS effector delivered by R. leguminosarum into pea cells (Bladergroen et al. 2003), the 16 effector(s) delivered by the A. brasilense T6SS into plant/algae cells remain to be identified. 17

Finally, our data show that the T6SS provides antagonistic activities to *A. brasilense* against a
number of bacterial strains including phytopathogens such as *Agrobacterium*, *Pectobacterium*, *Dickeya* and *Ralstonia in vitro*. This demonstrates that, in addition to promoting growth, *A. brasilense* likely confers protection against harmful pathogens in a T6SS-dependent manner.
Effectors with DNase, phospholipase and peptidoglycan hydrolase activities have been shown to
be delivered into bacterial cells (Russel *et al.*, 2014; Jurenas and Journet, 2021). The *A. brasilense*

T6SS effector repertoire needs to be determined. It has been shown that the effector genes are usually located within the T6SS gene cluster or within *hcp/vgrG* islands scattered in the genome (Durand *et al.*, 2014). Indeed, the *vgrG* gene encoded within the cluster is fused to an additional domain resembling *Bacillus subtilis* YwqJ, a potent toxin with putative deaminase activity, and is followed by a gene resembling its cognate YwqK antitoxin (Brantl and Müller, 2019; Kobayashi, 2021) (Fig. 1).

In summary, the Chlorella spp.-Azospirillum spp. association has been used as a model system to 7 8 study aggregation, metabolic, and molecular effect occurring during plant-bacteria interaction (de-9 Bashan and Bashan, 2008). The present work extends the potential to study a molecular 10 mechanism occurring between a bacterium and a microalga, specifically by showing that a T6SS 11 mutant is also deficient in attachment capabilities and produces less microalgal aggregation. This T6SS mutant, while promoting the growth of microalgae similar to its parental wild-type A. 12 brasilense strain also impacts lipid, and pigment metabolism. This study has thus far broader 13 14 impacts than observing interactions between microalgae and bacteria in vitro, by demonstrating 15 that a widespread secretion system, known almost exclusively from studies of pathogenesis and antibacterial competition, is participating in processes that are beneficial to the plant/microalga 16 17 cells.

18

19 Experimental procedures

20 Microorganisms and growth conditions

21 The unicellular microalga Chlorella sorokiniana Shih. et Krauss (UTEX 2714, University of

22 Texas, Austin, TX; formerly *C. vulgaris* UTEX 2714, Bashan *et al.* (2016)) was used in this study.

23 *C. sorokiniana* was axenically grown at 27 ± 2 °C, with stirring at 120 rpm under a light intensity

of 60 μ mol photon·m⁻²·s⁻¹ in sterile C30 minimal medium (composition (in g·L⁻¹): KNO₃ (25), 1 2 MgSO₄·7H₂O (10), KH₂PO₄ (4), K₂HPO₄ (1), FeSO₄·7H₂O (1), and (in μ g·L⁻¹): H₃BO₃ (2.86), MnCl₂·4H₂O (1.81), ZnSO₄·7H₂O (0.11), CuSO₄·5H₂O (0.09), and NaMoO₄ (0.021) at pH 5.25), 3 and transferred to new medium every 7 days. Periodically, the cultures were checked for purity 4 5 and absence of bacterial contamination on nutrient agar (#N9405, Sigma-Aldrich, St Luis, MO). 6 The wild-type Azospirillum brasilense Az39 strain (Instituto de Microbiología y Zoología Agrícola del INTA-IMyZA, Castelar, Buenos Aires, Argentina, strain Az39 (WDCM31), Rivera 7 8 et al. (2014)) and its isogenic Az39 Δ hcp-E mutant (this study, see construction below) were grown in BTB medium containing gluconic acid as a carbon source (Bashan, Trejo and de-Bashan 2011) 9 10 for 18 h, at 35 ± 2 °C and stirred at 120 rpm, or in MMAB minimal medium (composition (in g·L⁻ ¹): K₂HPO₄ (3.0), NaH₂PO₄ (1.0), NH₄Cl (1.0), MgSO₄·7H₂O (0.3), KCl (0.15), CaCl₂·2H₂O (0.01), 11 FeSO₄·7H₂0 (0.0025), sodium malate (5.0), biotin (0.005) and microelements) at 28° C. 12

13

14 Construction of the A. brasilense $Az39\Delta hcp$ -E mutant

Genomic analysis of the Type VI secretion system in A. brasilense Az39 - Using the genome sequence of A. brasilense Az39 (Rivera et al. 2014), two complete sets of genes encoding putative T6SSs were detected and analysed by RAST (Aziz et al. 2008), KEGG (Kanehisa et al. 2012), SecReT6 (Li et al., 2015) and BastionHub (Wang et al., 2021). The T6SS1 gene cluster, which was studied here, is shown in Fig. 1 and T6SS proteins are listed in Table S1. The gene cluster encodes all the core-component genes, *tssA-tssM*, required to assemble a fully functional T6SS (Cascales, 2008).

Az39 Δ *hcp-E mutant construction* - The *hcp* and *tssE* genes were simultaneously deleted by homologous recombination. Fragments upstream and downstream of the *hcp-tssE* region were

amplified by PCR from genomic DNA using primer pairs Az39-5'HcpFW/Az39-B-5'HcpRV and 1 Az39-B-3'HcpFW/Az39-3'HcpRV, respectively (Table S2) cloned into the pGemT-Easy vector 2 (Promega, Madison, WI) and sequenced. The upstream fragment was inserted into the downstream 3 4 fragment-containing plasmid, using BamHI, and PstI restriction enzymes to yield the pGemT-Hcp-UD vector. Then, a gentamicin-resistance cassette (Gm^R), excised from pME3280a (Zuber et al., 5 2003) with XhoI, was inserted in reverse orientation into the BamHI site of pGemT-Hcp-UD after 6 blunting ends with T4 DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA). The resulting 7 8 upstream-Gm^R-downstream construction was finally sub-cloned into pK18mobSacB (Schäfer et 9 al., 1994), using PstI and SphI to obtain pK18-Hcp-UGD. This suicide plasmid, carrying the mutagenesis cassette, was mobilized into A. brasilense Az39 by biparental mating with 10 11 *Escherichia coli* S17-1 as the donor (Simon *et al.*, 1983). Double recombinant clones, resistant to gentamicin and sensitive to kanamycin, were recovered without the need for sacB counter 12 selection. To confirm the correct replacement of the targeted genome region, PCR was used with 13 14 several primer combinations, and the amplified fragments were visualized by TAE-agarose 15 electrophoresis. The phenotypes of the mutant were analyzed in three independent clones (C1, C2, and C3) to exclude the presence of additional mutations (Fig. S1). Fig. S1 describes the genomic 16 17 arrangement of the wild-type, the two possible simple recombinants (R1 or R2), and the double recombinant (R1+R2) of A. brasilense Az39. The site of annealing and the product length of the 18 different diagnostic primers (P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, GmR, and GmF) on the four possible 19 arrangements are indicated. The inserted table indicates the PCR products expected for each strain, 20 and the agarose gel shows the actual results of the PCR. A PCR was performed using P3 and P6 21 22 primers that uniquely anneal on the genomic region that flanks the modified region.

1 Strain characterization

Bacterial Growth - Growth curves of A. brasilense Az39 and mutant strain Az39 Δ hcp-E were 2 determined by measuring the turbidity of cell suspensions (OD₅₉₅) and cell number (CFU.mL⁻¹) 3 over time. Sample of 0.5 mL of an overnight culture ($OD_{595} = 1.0, \sim 10^9 \text{ CFU} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$) were 4 5 inoculated to 200-mL Erlenmeyer flasks containing 50 mL of Luria-Bertani medium (LB) or MMAB minimal medium (Vanstockem et al., 1987) supplemented with 100 µg·mL⁻¹ of L-6 7 tryptophan. Cultures were incubated at 37 °C and constant stirring at 180 rpm for 80 h. Turbidity 8 of cell suspensions was spectrophotometrically measured at 595 nm over time (ZelTec ZL5000P, Zel Technologies, Hampton, VA) at 5 h intervals. At the same time, cell counts were performed 9 on LB agar plates supplemented with Congo red (1.5%, v:v), after incubation for 72 h at 37 °C. 10

11

Indole-3-acetic acid production - Pure cultures of A. brasilense Az39 and its Δhcp -E derivative 12 were cultivated in LB and MMAB media, supplemented with L-tryptophan, at 37 °C, under 13 14 constant stirring at 180 rpm for 48 h corresponding to stationary stage of growth of this species. Cultures were centrifuged at $15,650 \times g$ for 10 min and cells were discarded. Quantification of 15 16 IAA was performed by spectrophotometry (Glickmann and Dessaux, (1995) and confirmed by HPLC (Rivera et al., 2018). Briefly, aliquots of 1000 µL of bacterial culture were centrifuged at 17 18 $11,300 \times g$ for 10 min. Subsequently, samples were filtered (0.2 µm), and 500 µL of supernatant 19 were mixed with 500 µL of Salkowski's reagent (7.9 M H₂SO₄ and 12.5 g·L⁻¹ FeCl₃) and gently shaken in inverted position at least 10 times. Samples were incubated in the dark for 30 min and 20 21 the absorbance at 530 nm was measured. An aliquot of filtered supernatants was injected with a final volume of 20 µL in an HPLC Waters 600-MS device (Waters Inc., USA) equipped with an 22 U6K injector and C18 reverse phase column (Purospher STAR RP C-18 3 mm, Lichrocart 55-4) 23

heated at 30°C, coupled to a system with UV-VIS Waters 486 detector (Waters Inc., USA) set at
265 nm. The elution was performed with a mixture of ethanol: acetic acid: water (Et-OH/HAc/H20) (12: 1: 87) as mobile phase at a flow rate of 1 mL·min-1 at 30°C. The retention time for
IAA was 10.1-10.3 minutes and the quantification was performed by integration of the peak area
corresponding to the retention time (RT) using an integration software (Waters Inc. USA). The
IAA concentration was expressed in µg·mL⁻¹

7

8 Motility - Motility was assayed under different concentrations of agar-agar: 1 µL of bacterial 9 culture in late exponential phase was placed in the center of Petri dishes containing minimal swim motility medium (Atkinson et al., 2006) and MMAB medium as previously described 10 (Vanstockem *et al.*, 1987). Minimal swim motility agar plates contained ($g\cdot L^{-1}$) tryptone (10.0) 11 and NaCl (5.0). Both media were prepared with 0.3% (w/v) agar to observe swimming and 0.7%12 (w/v) agar for determining swarming. The plates were inverted and incubated at 28 ± 2 °C for 72 13 h to avoid drying the agar at higher temperatures. The diameter of the displacement halo was then 14 15 measured (Atkinson et al., 1999; Hall and Krieg, 1983).

16

17 *Cell aggregation and biofilm production* - Cell aggregation was measured according to Madi and 18 Henis (1989) with modifications (Burdman *et al.*, 1998). Briefly, 5 mL of stationary cultures of 19 both strains obtained in MMAB and LB culture medium at 37°C and constant stirring at 180 rpm 20 for 48 hours were transferred to 10 mL capacity conical tubes and allowed to stand for 20 min. 21 Then, turbidity was measured at 540 nm using a Zeltec ZL5000P spectrophotometer (OD₁). The 22 culture was homogenized for 1 min and the turbidity was measured again (OD₂). The aggregation 23 percentage was calculated according to the following equation %AP (OD₂ - OD₁) × 100/OD₂.

Biofilm formation was measured according to O'Toole & Kolter (1998). Briefly, 13 µL of late 1 exponential cultures were inoculated in hemolysis tubes containing 1,300 μ L of sterile LB medium 2 and incubated at $37 \pm 1^{\circ}$ C for 48, 72, and 96 h, without stirring. At each sampling time, the culture 3 medium was carefully removed from the tube by micropipetting, leaving only the biofilm. The 4 5 biofilm was rinsed three times with 1,300 μ L of sterile 0.85 % saline solution. Once the culture medium was removed, the biofilm was stained with 0.1% crystal violet (C3886, Sigma-Aldrich) 6 solution (1,300 μ L for 15 min at room temperature, 24 ± 2 °C). The stained biofilm was rinsed 7 8 three times with sterile distilled water. The biofilm was re-suspended in 1,300 µL of 96% ethanol 9 containing three glass beads (3 mm diam) in each tube and stirred vigorously by a vortex for ~ 1 10 min. Finally, absorbance was measured at 560 nm by spectrophotometry (ZelTec ZL5000P, Zel 11 Technologies).

12

13 *Anti-bacterial competition assay.*

14 Spontaneous Agrobacterium tumefaciens, Pectobacterium carotovorum, Dickeya dadantii, Ralstonia eutropha and Ralstonia solanacearum strains resistant to nalidixic acid were obtained 15 after 5 consecutive liquid growth cultures in presence of increasing concentrations of nalidixic 16 acid (2, 5, 10, 20 and 30 μ M) and plating on agar plates supplemented with 40 μ M nalidixic acid. 17 Azospirillum brasilense and nalidixic acid-resistant recipient cells were grown in MMAB 18 supplemented - or not - with 400 µM indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) to an OD₅₉₅ ~1 and concentrated 19 in MMAB to a final OD₅₉₅ of 10. A. brasilense attacker cells were mixed with nalidixic resistant 20 recipient cells at a 4:1 ratio and 15-µl drops of the mixture were spotted on dried minimum MMAB 21 or MMAB/IAA agar plates. After incubation for 8 h at 28°C, the spots were scratched off, cells 22

were re-suspended in LB to an OD₅₉₅ of 0.5, and the surviving recipient cells were counted after
 platting serial dilutions on LB agar plates supplemented with 40 μM nalidixic acid.

3

4 Immobilization of microorganisms in alginate beads

5 Before immobilization in alginate beads, 10 mL of axenic microalgae culture was inoculated into 90 mL sterile C30 medium and incubated at 27 ± 2 °C, with stirring at 120 rpm under 60 µmol 6 photons $m^{-2} \cdot s^{-1}$ light intensity for six days. The two strains of *A. brasilense* were grown in BTB 7 culture medium containing gluconic acid as a carbon source (Bashan et al., 2011) for 18 h, at 35 8 9 \pm 2 °C and stirred at 120 rpm. Immobilization procedure was done as described by de-Bashan et 10 al. (2015). Briefly, after growth period, each culture was harvested by centrifugation (Hemle Z 200A, Wehingen, Germany) at 2,000 \times g, washed twice, resuspended in sterile saline solution 11 (0.85% NaCl) and cell density was adjusted to 5×10^6 cells mL⁻¹ for microalgae and $\sim 10^9$ CFU. 12 mL^{-1} (OD_{540 nm} = 1) for bacteria. Then, 40 mL of axenic cultures of *C. sorokiniana* or *A. brasilense* 13 Az39 or A. brasilense Az39 Δ hcp-E were mixed with 160 mL of sterile 1.5% alginate solution 14 (~1200 cP, #05218295, MP Biomedicals, Santa Ana, CA) and stirred for 15 min until the alginate 15 slurry was completely dissolved. Beads (highly homogenous; 3 mm diam) were produced in 2% 16 CaCl₂, using automatic bead-forming equipment under constant pressure to ensure uniformity of 17 each bead (de-Bashan and Bashan, 2010). The beads were cured for 30 min in the same 2% CaCl₂ 18 19 solution to improve hardening. They were washed in sterile 0.85% saline solution. This procedure routinely produces $\sim 1 \times 10^6$ cells bead⁻¹ for each organism with low variability (de-Bashan *et al.*, 20 21 2004). For microalgae and bacteria co-immobilized in the same bead, 20 mL of each culture was mixed in 160 mL alginate to form the beads, as previously described. Because immobilization 22 usually reduces the number of A. brasilense in beads, the beads were incubated again for 24 h in 23

10% (v/v) diluted nutrient broth (N7519, Sigma-Aldrich) to reach an initial population of 1×10⁶
 cells·bead⁻¹.

3

4 *Experimental conditions to assess the performance of microalgae.*

After the second incubation, beads were washed twice with sterile saline solution. In preparation
of each experiment, 15 g of beads from each treatment (microorganisms immobilized alone or coimmobilized) were added to 500 mL Erlenmeyer flasks containing 200 mL of synthetic growth
medium (SGM) with the following ingredients (in mg·L⁻¹): NaCl (7), CaCl₂ (4), MgSO₄•7H₂O
(2), K₂HPO₄ (217), KH₂PO₄ (8.5), Na₂HPO₄ (33.4), NH₄Cl (191) and incubated under 90 µmol
photon·m⁻² s⁻¹ light intensity and stirred at 122 rpm at 29 ± 2 °C for 6 d.

11

12 Quantifying microalgae cells

In each experiment for each sampling time, and each experimental replicate, three beads per flask 13 were solubilized in 1 mL of 4% NaHCO₃ solution for 20 min at ambient temperature ($25 \pm 4^{\circ}$ C). 14 C. sorokiniana cells were counted under a light microscope, using a Neubauer hemocytometer 15 (Bright line counting chamber, Hausser Scientific, Horsham, PA) connected to an image analyser 16 (Image ProPlus 6.3, Media Cybernetics, Silver Spring, MD). Growth rate of *C. sorokiniana* (µ) 17 was defined as: $\mu = (\ln Nt_1 - \ln Nt_0) / (t_1 - t_0)$, where Nt_1 is the number of cells at sampling time, 18 and Nt_0 is the number of cells at the beginning of the experiment, t_1 is sampling time and t_0 the 19 beginning of the experiment (Oh-Hama and Miyachi, 1992). 20

- 22 Analytical methods
- 23 Total carbohydrates

For each replicate of each treatment (n = 15), carbohydrates extraction and analysis were done 1 following Choix et al. (2012a). Briefly, 1 g of alginate beads were sampled after 1, 2, 4, and 6 d, 2 washed in distilled water, dried at 80 °C for 12 h, and ground with a mortar and pestle, which 3 yielded 10 mg samples. These 10 mg ground samples were re-suspended in 5 mL of H₂SO₄ 1 M 4 and sonicated for 4 min at 22.5 kHz with an ultrasonic cell disruptor (Misonix, Farmingdale, NY). 5 Carbohydrates were extracted by acid hydrolysis of the sample at 100°C for 60 min. The 6 quantification was done by the phenol-sulfuric method adapted to microplate (Dubois et al., 1956; 7 8 Masuko et al., 2005).

9

10 *Total lipid analysis*

Lipid extraction followed the method of Leyva *et al.* (2014), which was developed for microalgae
and based on Bligh and Dyer (1959). Quantification of total lipids was done as previously
described (Pande *et al.*, 1963).

14

15 *Pigment analysis*

Extraction of pigments (chlorophyll a and b, violaxanthin, and lutein) was performed with HPLC 16 grade methanol, after dissolving the beads. Identification of pigments used the HPLC method 17 (Vidussi et al., 1996). The HPLC system (Agilent 1100; Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA) 18 was equipped with a reverse phase column (Hypersil BDS C8, 5 µm particle size, 100×45 mm; 19 Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) and was run isocratically. The mobile phase included two 20 solutions. Solution A was a mixture of 70:30 methanol:1N ammonium acetate. Solution B was 21 100% HPLC grade methanol. Injection volume was 20 µL; flow rate was 0.5 mL·min⁻¹. The 22 detector was a diode array with a wavelength of 190-900 nm, with the capacity to detect at five 23

fixed wavelengths. Identification criteria for pigments were retention time of the standard pigments (International Agency for ¹⁴C determinations, Denmark, DHI-Denmark, PPS-CHLA) and absorbance at 350–750 nm from the diode detector. Results are expressed as $\mu g \cdot g^{-1}$.

4

5 *Fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH)*

The FISH procedure described by Palacios *et al.* (2019), was used to analyze the patterns of cell
aggregation during the interaction of *C. sorokiniana* and *A. brasilense* strains. Approximately 100
images were acquired with a digital camera (Evolution FV Cooled Color; Media Cybernetics).
Five random images per treatment were used for quantification and measurement of clusters with
an Image ProPlus 4.5 software (Media Cybernetics).

11

12 *Experimental design and statistical analyses*

Two types of experiments were conducted. (a) In vitro characterization of the two bacteria, strains 13 were performed in batch culture in four replicates. Each experiment was independently repeated 14 three times. (b) The setup of the experiments of microalgae-bacteria was by batch culturing in 15 Erlenmeyer flasks in five replicates, where one flask served as a replicate. Each of these 16 experiments was independently repeated two times. Each experimental setup contained the 17 18 following treatments in beads containing: (1) A. brasilense Az39, (2) A. brasilense Az39 Δ hcp-E, (3) C. sorokiniana, (4) co-immobilization of C. sorokiniana with A. brasilense Az39, (5) co-19 immobilization of C. sorokiniana with the mutant strain Az39 Δ hcp-E (n = 20). The results from 20 21 each treatment from two repetitions were combined. For characterization of the mutant strain, each pair of values at every sampling time were analyzed by Student's *t*-test. For analysis of the effect 22 of A. brasilense strains, the data were first analyzed by one-way ANOVA and then by HSD 23

2	CA), Prism 5.0 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA), and Sigmaplot 13.0 (Systat Software, Chicago,
3	IL).
4	
5	Disclosure Statement
6	No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.
7	
8	Author's contribution
9	Fabricio D. Cassan. Envisioned the project with Luz de-Bashan. Managed the construction of the
10	mutant and its testing in Argentina. Helped with the writing of the manuscript.
11	Anahí Coniglio. Measured bacterial growth, IAA concentration, biofilm formation and performed
12	swimming and swarming experiments.
13	Edgar Amavizca. Performed all experiments and FISH analysis related to microalgae-bacteria
14	interaction.
15	Guillermo Maroniche. Constructed the mutant.
16	Eric Cascales. Edited the final version.
17	Yoav Bashan. General supervision of the microalgae-bacteria studies in Mexico. Wrote the initial
18	draft of the manuscript.
19	Luz E. de-Bashan. Envisioned the project with Fabricio Cassan. Supervised the Mexican part of
20	the project on microalgae-bacteria interaction. Edited the final version.
21	All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Tukey's test. Significance was set at P < 0.05, using Statistica 6.0 (Tibco Software, Palo Alto,

22

1

23 Acknowledgments

1	At UNRC (Argentina), we thank Alejandro Perticari of INTA-IMYZA for providing Azospirillum
2	brasilense Az39. At CIBNOR (Mexico), we thank Francisco Hernandez for pigment analysis and
3	Ariel Cruz for scanning electron microscopy. At Universidad Autonoma de Chihuahua (Mexico),
4	we thank Oskar Palacios for feedback and suggestion to the manuscript.
5	
6	Funding
7	This study was supported by the CONICET (PPI-112-201001-00454-KA1) and FONCyT (PICT-
8	2012-1051) of Argentina; by Consejo Nacional de Ciencia y Tecnología of Mexico (CONACYT-
9	Basic Science-2015, contract 251102 and CONACYT Basic Science-2017, contract 284562), and
10	by the Bashan Institute of Science of the USA. Work in EC laboratory is supported by the CNRS,
11	the Aix-Marseille University, and the Fondation Bettencourt-Schueller.
12	
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1	Table 1. Aggregation percentage of A. brasilense Az39 wild-type and its isogenic Az39 Δ hcp-E					
2	mutant.					
3	Cell aggregation was measured after growth for 48 h in LB or MMAB culture medium. The reduction					
4	of the aggregation percentage in the Az39 Δhcp -E relative to its parental Az39 strain is indicated below.					
5	* Different letters differ significantly at P<0.05 (Tukey's post-hoc test).					
6						
7						
8	Strain	Aggregation percentage				
0		LB	MMAB			
9		LD	MINIAD			
10	A. brasilense Az39	13.2 ± 2.6 c	26.5 ± 1.4 a			
11	A. brasilense Az39 Δ hcp-E	$8.5 \pm 1.1 \text{ d}$	$18.2\pm0.9~b$			
12	Reduction of aggregation activity $(Az39/Az39\Delta hcp-E)$	35.6%	31.3%			

Figure legends

Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the *Azospirillum brasilense* **Az39 T6SS1 gene cluster.** T6SS core components are shown in green, while accessory genes are shown in white. Potential effector and immunity genes are shown in blue. The position of the *hcp* and *tssE* gene deletion used in this work is indicated

Fig. 2. Bacterial production of auxins. Expressed as concentration of IAA-like molecules $(\mu g \cdot m L^{-1})$ in MMAB cultures of *A. brasilense* Az39 (•) and Az39 Δhcp -E mutant (•). Pair of values at each sampling time sharing the same letter do not differ significantly from each other by Student's *t*-test at *P* < 0.05.

Fig. 3. Swimming and swarming motility, biofilm formation and cell aggregation. Swimming (a) and swarming (b) rates, of *A. brasilense* Az39 and its isogenic Az39 Δ *hcp*-E mutant after 72 h incubation at 28 ± 2°C in MMAB or Swim media. The bars represent the mean and SD of growth in diameter (cm) of the swimming and swarming displacement halos, respectively. The percentage of the difference between the mutant and its parental strain is shown on top of the bars. (c) Biofilm production of Az39 and Az39 Δ *hcp*-E after 96-h incubation at 28 ± 2°C in LB medium. The bars represent the mean and standard deviation of absorbance at OD_{560nm}. The percentage of the difference between the mutant and its parental strain is shown on top of the bars. (d) Cell aggregation was measured after growth for 48 h in LB or MMAB culture medium. The reduction of the aggregation percentage in the mutant relative to its parental strain is indicated on top of the

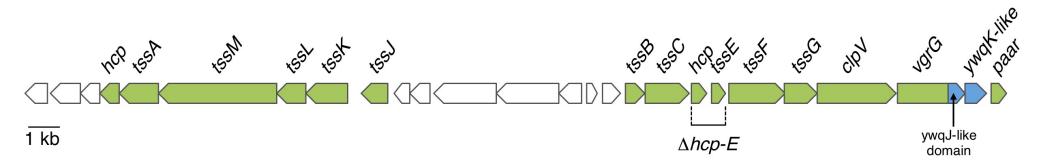
bars. Each pair of columns denoted by a different letter differs significantly from each other by Student's *t*-test at P < 0.05.

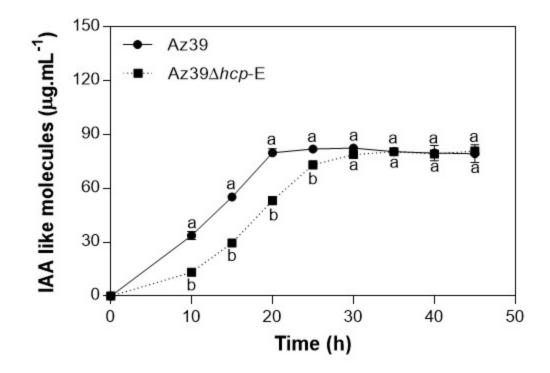
Fig. 4. Antibacterial competition assay. The indicated nalidixic acid-resistant strains were mixed with wild-type or Δhcp -E A. brasilense attacker cells in presence or not of the T6SS gene cluster inducer IAA. The number of surviving recipient cells, counted on nalidix acid plates, is indicated (expressed as \log^{10} of CFU).

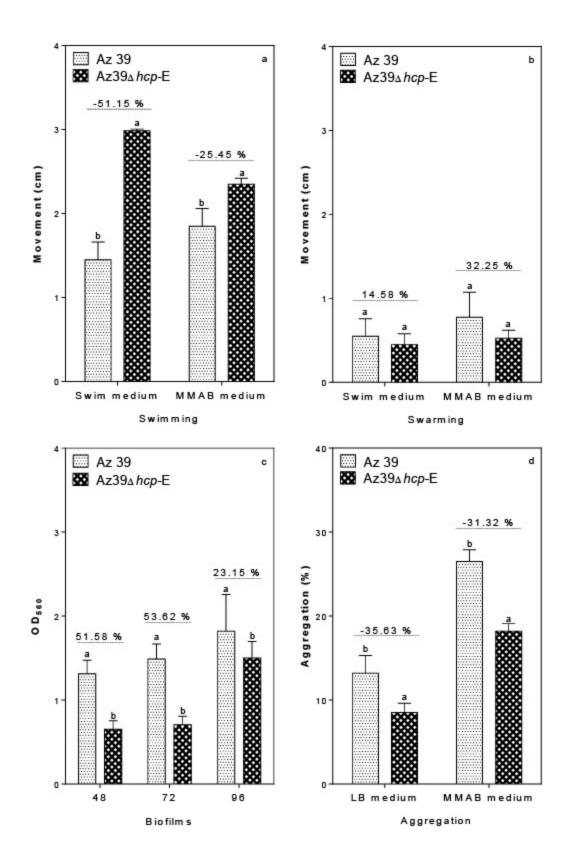
Fig. 5. Effect of co-immobilization of A. brasilense strains on C. sorokiniana growth and cell **aggregation.** (a) The C. sorokiniana cell concentration (expressed as 10^5 cells.mL⁻¹) from cultures of the microalgae alone (O) or grown in presence of A. brasilense wild-type (\blacksquare) or $\triangle hcp-E$ mutant (**A**) cells is plotted against time (in days). Cell concentrations along curves having different capital letters differ significantly, using one-way ANOVA and Tukey's post hoc analysis at P < 0.05. Cell concentrations at each sampling time that are denoted by different lower-case letters differ significantly, using one-way ANOVA and Tukey's post hoc analysis at P < 0.05. Whisker lines represent standard errors (SE). Absence of a whisker line indicates negligible SE. μ = growth rate. (b) Cell aggregation was observed by fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) at time 0, 1, 2 our 4 days. (a-d) A. brasilense Az39 and C. sorokiniana 2714. (e-h) A. brasilense Az39∆hcp-E and C. sorokiniana 2714. (i-l) A. brasilense Az39 alone. (m-p) A. brasilense Az39∆hcp-E alone. (q-t) C. sorokiniana alone. All micrographs were taken by epifluorescence microscopy, C. sorokiniana was not labeled and appeared in red to orange color, while bacterial strains were labeled with specific probes targeting eubacteria (EUB338Mix FITC) and specific probe for A. brasilense (Abras 1420 Cy3) appeared in green to yellow. (c) Size of aggregates created during the interaction, measured from the results obtained by fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH). Treatments analyzed at each hour denoted by different lowercase letter differ significantly at P < 0.05 in one-way analysis of variance, according to Tukey's post hoc analysis. Different capital letter at each day of incubation differs significantly at P < 0.05 in Tukey's post hoc analysis.

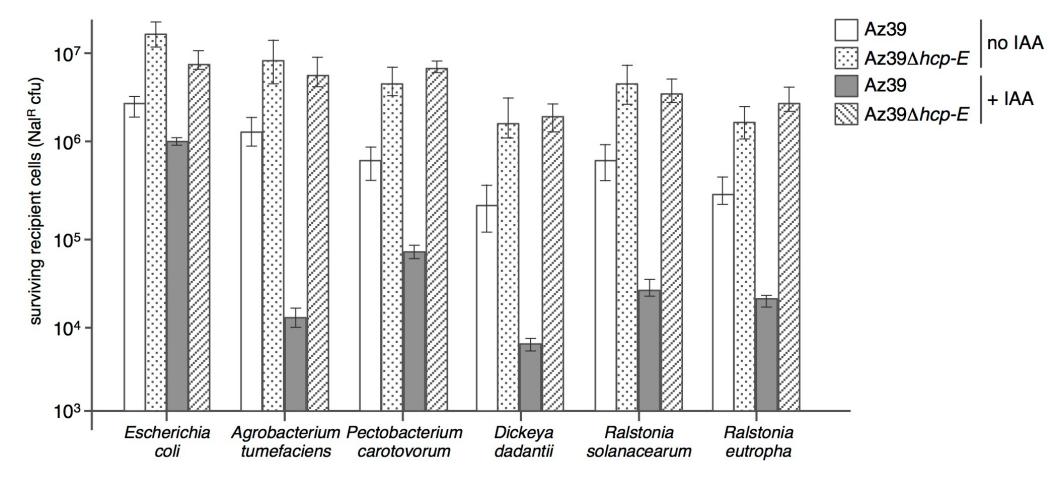
Fig. 6. Effect of *A. brasilense* co-immobilization on *C. sorokiniana* carbohydrates, lipids, and photosynthetic pigments production. Effect of co-immobilization of wild-type *A. brasilense* Az39 and its isogenic Az39 Δ *hcp-E* mutant on accumulation of (a) carbohydrates, (b) total lipids, (c) chlorophyll *a*, (d) chlorophyll *b*, (e) violaxanthin, and (f) lutein in *Chlorella sorokiniana*. Significant differences (one-way ANOVA and Fisher's post hoc analysis at *P* < 0.05) are indicated by different capital letters on top of each columns. Whisker lines represent SE.

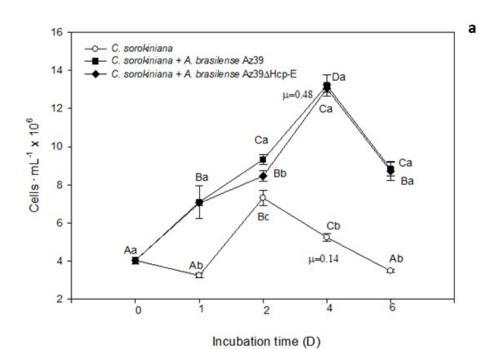
Fig. 7. Schematic representation of the roles of *A. brasilense* **T6SS1.** The *A. brasilense* T6SS1 is involved in *Azospirillum*/microalgae, *Azospirillum*/*Azospirillum* and *Azospirillum*/bacteria interactions. *Azospirillum*/microalgae interaction: the *A. brasilense* (orange cells) T6SS is required for efficient attachment to the microalgae *C. sorokiniana* (green cell) and participates to the increase of the microalgae population and carbohydrates and photosynthetic pigments production. *Azospirillum*/*Azospirillum* interaction: the T6SS is required for biofilm formation and indole-3-acetic acid (IAA, purple triangles) production. IAA positively regulates the expression of the *A. brasilense* T6SS1 gene cluster. *Azospirillum*/bacteria interactions: *A. brasilense* uses its T6SS to eliminate bacteria sharing the same niche (blue cell). By targeting plant pathogens, it confers protection to plants and microalgae.









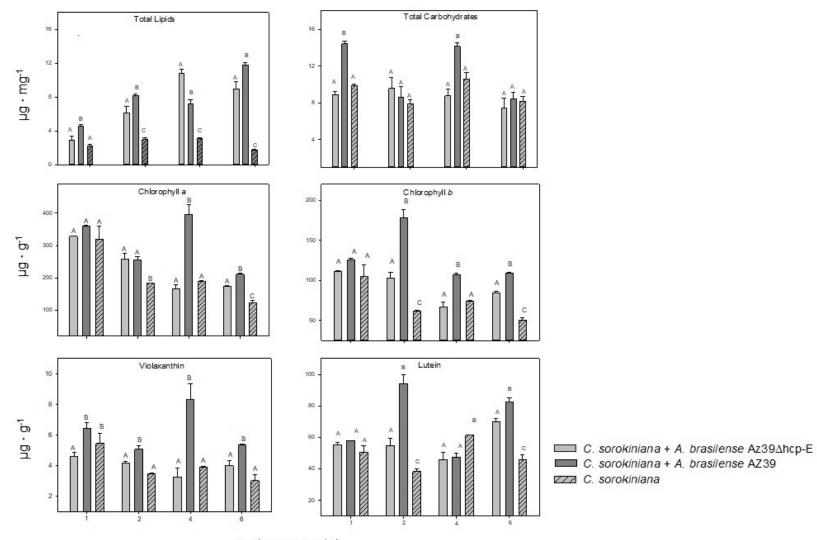


	Incubation time (D) 0 1 2 4			
Co-immobilized 2714- Az39	a	b M	· · · · · ·	d
Co-immobilized 2714- Az39 ∆ <i>hcp-E</i>	e	27	g Ø	h h
A. brasilense Az39	s st	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	k	
A. brasilense Az39 ∆hcp-E	m	n	٥	p
C. sorokiniana 2714	q			

Treatments	Aggregate size (μm²) *			
	1 day	2 day	4 day	
C. sorokiniana	8.96 ±1.28 aA	44.80 ± 3.91 bA	94.27 ± 7.37 cA	
C. sorokiniana + A. brasilense Az39	16.99 ±1.70 aC	42.31 ± 8.49 bA	170.44 ± 24.01 cB	
C. sorokiniana + A. brasilense Az39∆hcp-E	11.22 ± 0.68 aA	39.50 ± 2.28 bA	121.89 ± 2.89 cC	
A. brasilense Az39	4.13 ± 0.67 aB	26.40 ± 1.75 bB	36.80 ± 2.29 cD	
A. brasilense Az39∆hcp-E	3.41 ± 0.53 aB	16.00 ± 1.22 bC	19.50 ± 2.42 bE	

С

b



Incubation time (D)

Azospirillum brasilense

