

Minimum Requirements of Flagellation and Motility for Infection of *Agrobacterium* sp. Strain H13-3 by Flagellotropic Bacteriophage 7-7-1

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The flagellotropic phage 7-7-1 specifically adsorbs to *Agrobacterium* sp. strain H13-3 (formerly *Rhizobium lupini* H13-3) flagella for efficient host infection. The *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 flagellum is complex and consists of three flagellin proteins: the primary flagellin FlaA, which is essential for motility, and the secondary flagellins FlaB and FlaD, which have minor functions in motility. Using quantitative infectivity assays, we showed that absence of FlaD had no effect on phage infection, while absence of FlaB resulted in a 2.5-fold increase in infectivity. A *flaA* deletion strain, which produces straight and severely truncated flagella, experienced a significantly reduced infectivity, similar to that of a *flaB flaD* strain, which produces a low number of straight flagella. A strain lacking all three flagellin genes is phage resistant. In addition to flagellation, flagellar rotation is required for infection. A strain that is nonmotile due to an in-frame deletion in the gene encoding the motor component MotA is resistant to phage infection. We also generated two strains with point mutations in the *motA* gene resulting in replacement of the conserved charged residue Glu98, which is important for modulation of rotary speed. A change to the neutral Gln caused the flagellar motor to rotate at a constant high speed, allowing a 2.2-fold-enhanced infectivity. A change to the positively charged Lys caused a jiggly motility phenotype with very slow flagellar rotation, which significantly reduced the efficiency of infection. In conclusion, flagellar number and length, as well as speed of flagellar rotation, are important determinants for infection by phage 7-7-1.

grobacterium sp. strain H13-3, formerly known as Rhizobium lupini H13-3, was isolated from the rhizosphere of Lupinus luteus (11). Its complete genome has been recently sequenced, and subsequent genome structure and phylogenetic analyses identified the strain as a nonpathogenic Agrobacterium strain (44). Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 is motile by means of peritrichously inserted flagella. Based on the microscopic appearance, there are two types of flagellar filaments in bacteria, plain and complex. The plain filaments of Escherichia coli have a smooth surface structure and are capable of switching from left-handed to right-handed helicity (22). The complex filaments of Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 and the related soil bacterium Sinorhizobium meliloti exhibit a dominant pattern of alternating ridges and grooves and do not switch handedness (18, 42, 43). The E. coli filament consists of a single type of flagellin, while the Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 filament consists of three related flagellin subunits, FlaA, FlaB, and FlaD, that are assembled as functional heterodimers (35). The C- and N-terminal regions of flagellins are required for assembly of the flagellum and are highly conserved among the three subunits. The central domains, defining the diverse surface of the filament, exhibit more sequence variability. FlaA is the primary flagellin, and a flaA deletion mutant produces severely truncated, straight flagella that appear to be unusually fragile. Since *flaB* and *flaD* deletion mutants exhibit a minor reduction in swimming speed and have a normal flagellar appearance, FlaB and FlaD are considered secondary flagellins. However, a strain carrying deletions in both secondary flagellin genes is nonmotile and produces a very low number of straight flagella. In conclusion, FlaA and at least one secondary Fla protein are required for the assembly of a flagellar filament that can promote motility (35).

Bacterial flagella are driven by a rotary motor at the flagellar base which is energized by a proton gradient across the cytoplasmic membrane (23). The flagellar motors of *E. coli* switch their sense of rotation, which enables them to change direction (21). The complex filaments are more rigid, because interflagellin

bonds lock the filament in a right-handed helical conformation (6). The rigidity of these filaments allows propulsion with a greater force in viscous media (12). Concomitantly, *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 and *S. meliloti* flagellar motors rotate exclusively clockwise and direct the swimming path by modulating their rotary speed (1, 34). This swimming behavior requires the activity of two novel motility proteins, MotC and MotE, which are present in addition to the ubiquitous proton channel-forming MotA and MotB. MotC binds to the periplasmic portion of MotB, whereas MotE serves as its periplasmic chaperone (8).

Flagellotropic bacteriophages specifically target bacterial flagella and require motility of the host for a productive infection. They adsorb to the host's flagella and then proceed to the cell membrane, where the phage DNA is injected. This phage family is represented by χ of *E. coli* and *Serratia marcescens*, Φ CB13 and ΦCbK of Caulobacter crescentus, PBS1 and SP3 of Bacillus subtilis, Φ AT1 of *Erwinia carotovora* (10), Φ OT8 of *Serratia* sp. strain ATCC 39006 and Pantoea agglomerans, and 7-7-1 of Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 (9, 13, 15, 16, 19, 28, 30-32). Since not the mere presence of flagella but their rotation is essential for infection, a 'nut-and-bolt" model for the translocation of phage along the filament was suggested. The tail fiber of the *E*. *coli* χ phage fits the right-handed helical grooves on the flagellar surface, and counterclockwise rotation would force the phage to follow the grooves to the base of the flagellar filament (3, 31). Bacteriophage 7-7-1 was isolated from composed soil in Germany in the 1970s (20). It is a member of the Myoviridae family, consisting of a hexagonal head

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TABLE 1 Bacterial strains and plasmid

		Source or	
Species and strain or plasmid	Relevant characteristics ^a	reference	
E. coli			
DH10B	recA1 endA1	GIBCO/BRL	
S17-1	recA endA thi hsdR RP4-2 Tc::Mu::Tn7 Tp ^r Sm ^r	38	
Agrobacterium rhizogenes ATCC 11325		Bertrand Eardly	
Agrobacterium rubi ATCC 13335		Bertrand Eardly	
Agrobacterium sp. H13-3			
RU12/001	Sm ^r ; spontaneous streptomycin-resistant wild-type strain	35	
RU12/002	Sm^r ; $\Delta flaA$	35	
RU12/003	Sm^r ; $\Delta flaB$	35	
RU12/004	Sm^r ; $\Delta flaD$	35	
RU12/005	Sm^r ; $\Delta flaB \Delta flaD$	35	
RU12/006	Sm^r ; $\Delta flaA \Delta flaB \Delta flaD$	35	
RU12/010	Sm ^r ; <i>motA</i> E98K	This work	
RU12/011	Sm ^r ; <i>motA</i> E98Q	This work	
RU12/012	$Sm^r; \Delta motA$	This work	
Agrobacterium tumefaciens C58		Clay Fuqua	
Agrobacterium vitis ATCC 49767		Bertrand Eardly	
Rhizobium etli ATCC 51251		Bertrand Eardly	
Rhizobium galegae ATCC 43677		Bertrand Eardly	
Rhizobium leguminosarum biovar viciae 3841	Sm ^r	Gladys Alexandre	
Rhizobium tropici ATCC 49672		Joshua Shrout	
Plasmid pK18 <i>mobsacB</i>	Km ^r ; <i>lacZ mob sacB</i>	33	

^a Nomenclature is according to Bachmann (2) and Novick et al. (25).

and a tail separated by a neck (5). The diameter of the head is 68 nm, and the phage tail has a length of 135 nm and a diameter of 20 nm. The tail is contractile and ends in bushy fibers (19, 20). 7-7-1 is a lytic phage which specifically infects *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 but not the closely related *S. meliloti*, which also possesses complex flagella (19). The eclipse period lasts approximately 60 min, and the complete cycle of phage propagation takes 80 min, with a burst size of 120 particles per bacterial cell (19, 41). Phage-resistant *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 mutants were selected after chemical mutagenesis, and most of these were nonflagellated. In addition, a small percentage of mutants were found to be nonmotile (19). Therefore, flagella and motility seem to be essential for the infection of *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 by phage 7-7-1. However, it is yet unknown how the phage attaches to the flagellum and reaches the bacterial cell surface.

In this study, we determined flagellation and flagellar rotation as requirements for infection of *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 by bacteriophage 7-7-1. Defined deletion and amino acid exchange mutants of *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 were constructed by allelic exchange, and the infectivity of bacteriophage 7-7-1 for the resulting flagellar and motility mutants was quantified. Requirements for the infection of *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 are discussed.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and plasmids. Derivatives of *E. coli* K-12 and *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 (17), *Agrobacterium* and *Rhizobium* strains, and the plasmids used are listed in Table 1.

Media and growth conditions. *E. coli* strains were grown in LB at 37° C (4). *Agrobacterium* and *Rhizobium* strains were grown in TYC (0.5% tryptone, 0.3% yeast extract, 0.13% CaCl₂ · 6H₂O [pH 7.0]) or TYC40 (0.2% tryptone, 0.13% yeast extract, 0.05% CaCl₂ · 6H₂O [pH 7.0]), as indicated, at 30°C (27). Cells for motility assays were diluted in 10 ml RB minimal

medium [6.1 mM K₂HPO₄, 3.9 mM KH₂PO₄, 1 mM MgSO₄, 1 mM (NH₄)₂SO₄, 0.1 mM CaCl₂, 0.1 mM NaCl, 0.01 mM Na₂MoO₄, 0.001 mM FeSO₄, 20 μ g l⁻¹ biotin, and 100 μ g l⁻¹ thiamine] (12), layered on Bromfield agar plates (40), and incubated at 30°C for 14 h. The following antibiotics were used at the indicated final concentrations in LB or TYC medium: for *E. coli*, kanamycin at 50 μ g ml⁻¹, and for *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3, neomycin at 120 μ g ml⁻¹ and streptomycin at 600 μ g ml⁻¹.

Culture lysis assays. Cultures were grown in TYC40 from single colonies at 30°C for 18 to 26 h until they reached an optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) of 0.3. For each strain, two cultures were adjusted to an OD_{600} of 0.03 with TYC40; one was incubated with bacteriophage 7-7-1 at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 1.0, and the second was incubated as a control in a shaking incubator at 220 rpm at 30°C. OD_{600} readings were recorded after 24 h, and each experiment was run in triplicates.

Phage drop assays. Swim plates containing Bromfield medium and 0.3% Bacto agar were inoculated with a single colony using a toothpick and incubated at 30°C until the swim ring reached a diameter of 2 cm (typically 1 to 2 days). Two microliters of a phage stock of 2×10^{11} in 0.85% NaCl was carefully pipetted on the outside edge of the swim ring, and 2 μ l of 0.85% NaCl was pipetted on the opposite side of the swim ring as a control (see Fig. 2A). Plates were observed and documented every 24 h until swim rings reached a diameter of approximately 6 cm.

Infectivity assays. Infectivity assays were performed essentially as described by Lotz et al. (19) with a few minor modifications. *Agrobacterium* strains grown in TYC overnight at 30°C were adjusted to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.3 in TYC, and incubated with bacteriophage 7-7-1 at an MOI of 0.01 (20) in a shaking incubator for 15 min at 30°C, and then diluted to 10^{-3} in TYC and incubated further. At 0.5, 1, 2, 3, and 4 h after infection, $100 - \mu$ l aliquots were withdrawn, 5 ml 0.85% NaCl and 100 μ l chloroform were added, and the mixture was vortexed vigorously for 60 s. Serial dilutions were plated by mixing 100 μ l of wild-type *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 as the indicator strain with 4 ml molten TYC and 0.5% Bacto agar, layered on TYC plates, and incubated overnight at 30°C. PFU were normalized to the 30-min time point of strain RU12/001.



FIG 1 Optical densities of cultures grown for 24 h at 30°C in the absence and presence of phage 7-7-1. A. sp., Agrobacterium sp. H13-3; A. rhi., A. rhizogenes; A. rub., A. rubi; A. tum., A. tumefaciens; A. vit., A. vitis; R. etl., R. etli; R. gal., R. galegae; R. leg., R. leguminosarum; R. tro, R. tropici. Motile cultures were adjusted to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.03, and phage 7-7-1 was added to an MOI of 1.0. Light and dark gray bars depict cultures grown in the absence and presence of phage, respectively. Each bar represents the average from three independent experiments, and error bars represent standard deviations (Student's *t* test for Agrobacterium sp. H13-3, P < 0.001).

Motility assays. Swim plates containing Bromfield medium and 0.3% Bacto agar were inoculated with 3-µl droplets of the test culture and incubated at 30°C for 3 days. Motile cell samples were observed with a Nikon Eclipse E600 phase-contrast microscope. Tracks of swimming cells were determined by computerized motion analysis using the Hobson Bactracker system (Hobson Tracking System Ltd., Sheffield, United Kingdom) as previously described (40).

DNA methods and genetic manipulations. *S. meliloti* DNA was isolated and purified as described previously (40). Plasmid DNA was purified with NucleoSpin (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany) or the Wizard Plus SV Miniprep system (Promega). DNA fragments or PCR products were purified from agarose gels using a GFX PCR and gel band purification kit (GE Healthcare) or the Wizard SV gel and PCR clean-up system (Promega).

Deletion constructs and codon exchanges were generated using the overlap extension PCR method described by Higuchi (14). These constructs were cloned into the mobilizable suicide vector pK18*mobsacB*, which was then used to transform *E. coli* S17-1, and conjugally transferred to *S. meliloti* by filter mating according to the method of Simon et al. (37). Allelic replacement was achieved by sequential selections on neomycin and 10% sucrose as described previously (40). Confirmation of allelic

replacement and elimination of the vector was obtained by gene-specific primer PCR and DNA sequencing.

RESULTS

Bacteriophage 7-7-1 does not infect closely related Rhizobiaceae. Analysis of the Rhizobium lupini H13-3 genome sequence identified the strain as a nonpathogenic Agrobacterium strain, and the organism has therefore been renamed Agrobacterium sp. H13-3. The flagellotropic bacteriophage 7-7-1 is known to specifically infect Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 but not related soil bacteria with complex flagella, such as Sinorhizobium meliloti and Methylobacterium rhodinum (formerly Pseudomonas rhodos) (36). To uncover detailed information about the host range of phage 7-7-1, we tested eight species from the Rhizobiaceae family that are closely related to Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 (7), namely, Agrobacterium rhizogenes, Agrobacterium rubi, Agrobacterium tumefaciens, Agrobacterium vitis, Rhizobium etli, Rhizobium galegae, Rhizobium leguminosarum, and Rhizobium tropici. We used a broth-based assay to observe phage-induced bacterial lysis. To establish a common growth medium that allowed all nine different species to develop optimal motility, we tested media with different concentrations of TYC (tryptone-yeast extract-CaCl₂). Most consistently, all strains were highly motile in TYC medium with a lower concentration of nutrients (40%) than our standard TYC (TYC40). Using phase-contrast microscopy, we observed that 90% of cells in cultures grown to an OD_{600} of 0.3 were motile. These cultures were diluted with fresh medium, phage was added at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 1.0, and the optical density was determined after 24 h of growth (Fig. 1). The OD of Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 cultures grown in the presence of phage was 10-fold lower than the OD of cultures grown in the absence of phage, showing phage-induced bacterial lysis. The eight remaining strains grew equally well in the absence or presence of phage, indicating that they were not infected by 7-7-1. We also developed a second, qualitative assay, named the "phage drop assay," to demonstrate phage-induced bacterial lysis. This assay takes place in swim plates, where cells consume the carbon source at the inoculation point and migrate toward higher concentrations, thereby forming a swim ring (24, 45). We allowed the formation of a swim ring with a diameter of 2 cm for each of the nine strains before colonies were infected with phage. Figure 2A shows Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 at the time of inoculation and depicts the inoculation procedure. Over time, swim ring development could be observed for all strains, but only Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 cells were lysed at



FIG 2 Phage drop assay for *Agrobacterium* H13-3 and *A. tumefaciens* C58. Single colonies were transferred with a toothpick onto a Bromfield swim plate and incubated at 30°C. Phage and control drops were applied when swim rings reached a diameter of 2 cm. (A) *Agrobacterium* H13-3 RU12/001 at time zero of infection. The closed and open circles (not drawn to scale) depict the positions of the phage drop (2 μ l of a phage stock of 2 \times 10¹¹ in 0.85% NaCl) and control drop (2 μ l 0.85% NaCl), respectively. (B) *Agrobacterium* H13-3 RU12/001 after 2 days of infection. (C) *Agrobacterium* H13-3 RU12/001 after 4 days of infection. (D) *A. tumefaciens* C58 after 2 days of infection.

and around the phage inoculation point (Fig. 2B and C). In comparison, the swim ring of A. tumefaciens C58 at 2 days after phage infection is shown in Fig. 2D. The funnel-shaped lysis pattern of Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 reflects phage diffusion but, most importantly, outward movement of infected cells before cell lysis. In addition, a quantitative infectivity assay was performed for Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 and its closest relative, A. tumefaciens. Phage 7-7-1 was added to an exponentially growing bacterial culture at an MOI of 0.01, and phage growth was followed over time. Upon the infection of Agrobacterium sp. H13-3, we observed phage growth after a latent period of about 60 min (Fig. 3A), which is in agreement with previously published results (19). When A. tumefaciens was infected, the number of phage particles in the culture did not increase (Fig. 3A). The initial decrease of PFU for Agrobacterium H13-3 compared to A. tumefaciens is explained by immediate phage adsorption and DNA injection into the host cell and therefore loss of active phage particles. In conclusion, the host range of phage 7-7-1 is confined to Agrobacterium H13-3.

The number and length of flagella are important determinants of infectivity. The adsorption of bacteriophage 7-7-1 to flagellar filaments is an essential prerequisite for infection (19). We therefore analyzed whether infection is affected by two flagellar parameters, namely, number and length. We tested the susceptibilities of five flagellar mutants to infection by 7-7-1 and compared the obtained data to those for the wild type. Genotype and flagellation characteristics of the mutant strains are summarized in Table 2. Deletion of either of the secondary flagellin genes, flaB or *flaD*, did not have a negative effect on phage infection. In fact, phage propagation increased 2.5-fold in the *flaB* deletion strain (Fig. 3B; Table 2). Cells lacking the primary flagellin gene, flaA (strain RU12/002), produce severely truncated and straight flagella (35), and as a consequence, a 3-fold decrease in phage titer was observed. With a 10-fold decrease in phage titer, this trend was even more pronounced in strain RU12/005, which lacks both secondary flagellins (Fig. 3B; Table 2). Very few RU12/005 cells were flagellated, and the few flagellar filaments exhibited an improper helical structure (35). Finally, a strain lacking all three flagellin genes was resistant to phage infection. In conclusion, the number and length of flagellar filaments are important determinants of infectivity by 7-7-1.

Minimal flagellar rotation is sufficient to promote infection. In addition to flagellation, flagellar rotation is another parameter required for efficient infection by flagellotropic phages (19). We therefore analyzed whether infection is affected by the rotational speed of flagellar filaments. The flagellar motors of S. meliloti and Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 can modulate their rotary speed in response to tactic stimuli (1, 12). Two conserved charged amino acid residues in the motor protein MotA, Arg90 and Glu98, are essential for speed modulation. In S. meliloti, a replacement of Glu98 with the charge-neutralizing Gln caused an increase in swimming speed (1). The same mutation was introduced into Agrobacterium sp. H13-3, and the resulting mutant strain, RU12/ 011, also showed an increase in swimming speed (data not shown). When a qualitative infectivity assay was performed, a modest, 2.2-fold increase in phage propagation was observed (Fig. 3C; Table 2). The effect of another mutation in *motA*, replacement of Glu98 by a positively charged Lys, was also analyzed. In S. meli*loti*, this substitution led to a complete loss of motility (1). When we analyzed the swimming behavior of the identical Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 mutant strain (RU12/010) on swim plates, the cells



FIG 3 Bacteriophage growth after addition of phage 7-7-1 to bacterial cultures. (A) *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 (\blacksquare) and *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (\bullet). (B) *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 wild-type cells (\blacksquare) and flagellar mutant cells: $\Delta flaA (\Box)$, $\Delta flaB (•)$, $\Delta flaD (•)$, $\Delta flaD (•)$, and $\Delta flaABD (•)$. (C) *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 wild-type cells (\blacksquare) and motility mutant cells; *motAE98* (\bigcirc), *motAE98*Q (\Box), and $\Delta motA (•)$. Cultures were adjusted to an OD₆₀₀ of 0.3, corresponding to 3.5×10^8 cells/ml, and phage 7-7-1 was added at an MOI of 0.01. After 15 min of phage adsorption, the mixtures were diluted 1:1,000 and incubated further at 30°C. Samples were taken at 1-h intervals, and PFU were determined by the soft agar layer technique. Each data point represents the average from three independent experiments, and error bars represent standard deviations.

TABLE 2 Properties of Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 fla and mot mutants

Strain	Genotype	Flagellar morphology ^a	Motor rotation ^a	Relative phage sensitivity $(mean \pm SD)^b$
RU12/001	Wild type	Normal	Normal	1.00 ± 0.12
RU12/002	$\Delta flaA$	Straight, truncated	Normal	0.30 ± 0.11
RU12/003	$\Delta flaB$	Normal	Normal	2.52 ± 0.26
RU12/004	$\Delta flaD$	Normal	Normal	1.29 ± 0.27
RU12/005	$\Delta flaB \Delta flaD$	Straight, low numbers	Normal	0.12 ± 0.04
RU12/006	$\Delta flaA \Delta flaB$	No flagella	Normal	0.03 ± 0.01
	$\Delta flaD$			
RU12/010	motAE98K	Normal	Slow	0.34 ± 0.15
RU12/011	motAE98Q	Normal	Fast	2.19 ± 0.29
RU12/012	$\Delta motA$	Normal	Immotile	0.04 ± 0.01

^{*a*} Data for RU12/001 to RU12/006 are from reference 35.

^b Numbers of phage particles detected after 4 h of culture growth compared to numbers after growth on the wild type.

grew only at the inoculation point and did not generate a swim ring, indicating the predicted immotile phenotype (Fig. 4A). However, RU12/010 was not found to be resistant to phage as expected for a nonmotile strain, but instead, phage propagation exhibited only a 3-fold decrease compared to that for the wild type (Fig. 4C; Table 2). When we examined the strain using phasecontrast microscopy, we observed jiggly movement with some spatial displacement (Fig. 4C), which was slightly larger than the Brownian motion of a nonmotile strain (Fig. 4D). In addition, a spontaneously tethered cell (Fig. 4C, inset) showed slow rotational movement. Although the mutant had severely impaired motility, the flagellar filaments were still able to rotate. This slow rotation allowed the infection by 7-7-1. To show that a nonmotile mutant is indeed phage resistant, we introduced an in-frame deletion in the motA gene. The resulting mutant, RU12/012, was immotile on swim plates (Fig. 4A) and during microscopic observation (Fig. 4D). Furthermore, RU12/012 showed resistance toward 7-7-1 (Fig. 3C; Table 2). In conclusion, flagellar rotation is required for infection, slow flagellar rotation reduces infection efficiency 3-fold, and fast flagellar rotation increases infection efficiency 2.2-fold.

DISCUSSION

Successful infection of bacterial cells by bacteriophages depends on the presence of bacterial cell surface receptors such as membrane proteins and lipopolysaccharides (26, 29, 39). The use of the bacterial flagellum as a primary receptor for phage attachment is rare (9, 10, 19, 31, 32). Infection by flagellotropic phage is often species specific; χ infects *E. coli* and *Serratia marcescens* (15, 31, 32), and as shown in this study, 7-7-1 infects only Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 and not closely related Rhizobiaceae (Fig. 1 and 2). The requirements for infection of E. coli by x phage are counterclockwise rotation of the flagellum and appropriate dimensions of the right-handed surface grooves on the flagellar filament, suggesting a nut-and-bolt mechanism for phage movement along the filament (31). Similarly, active clockwise rotation of the Agrobacterium sp. H13-3 flagellum is essential for infection by 7-7-1 (Fig. 3). Here, we analyzed the requirements of flagellar structure and rotation in more detail.

We observed a clear correlation between infectivity and flagellar length and number. Mutant strains expressing flagella severely reduced with regard to number or length exhibited an overall reduction of infectivity of 70 to 90% (Table 2). However, phage 7-7-1 was able to locate these reduced structures, suggesting a high affinity to the flagellar filament. Since straight flagellar rods, as produced by flaA and flaB flaD deletion strains, were still promoting infection, the overall flagellar shape was not important. We have shown previously that these straight flagellar filaments exhibit a pattern of helical ridges and grooves (35). Therefore, and as reported for χ phage, the correct structure of helical grooves on the surface of the filament is important for infection (31). Interestingly, individual deletions of the secondary flagellin genes flaB and *flaD* led to a modest increase in infectivity (Table 2). We speculate that the FlaA subunit is the primary docking site. If the density of this docking site is increased along the filament due to the absence of the secondary flagellin subunits, infection efficiency increases.

We also confirmed that rotation of the *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 wild-type filament is essential for infection by phage 7-7-1. An earlier study performed with spontaneous and mutagen-induced immotile mutants indicated the importance of flagellar ro-



FIG 4 Motility behavior of motility mutants compared to wild-type *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3. (A) Swim test of wild-type (RU12/001) (top), *mot*AE98K (RU12/010) (bottom left), and $\Delta motA$ (RU12/012) (bottom right) *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3. Strains to be tested were transferred with a micropipette (3 µl) onto Bromfield swim plates and incubated at 30°C for 2 days. The diameter of a swim ring reflects the motility of a given strain. (B to D) Swimming paths of wild-type *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 RU12/010 (B), *mot*AE98K RU12/010 (C), and $\Delta motA$ RU12/012 (D). Swimming cells were monitored by computerized motion analysis. The inset in Fig. 2C represents the rotational path of a cell spontaneously tethered to the coverslip by one of its flagellar filaments.

tation for infection (19). However, the experiments reported in that study were performed with a nondefined mutant. This led us to investigate the susceptibility of a *motA* deletion strain, and we found it to be phage resistant, confirming the previous study. Furthermore, we studied the correlation between speed of flagellar rotation and infection by using single point mutations in *motA*. Slow rotation of the flagellar filament, which was not sufficient to effectively propel the cells in an aqueous environment, still yielded a noticeable, but significantly reduced, infection (Fig. 3C and 4). In contrast, infection rates doubled for a mutant strain (1) with continuously fast flagellar rotation (Fig. 3C). While flagellar rotation is required for infection, the rotational speed apparently exerts a fine-tuning mechanism on infection rates.

The flagellar filament of *Agrobacterium* sp. H13-3 serves as the primary receptor for phage 7-7-1. Any reduction in the length or number of flagellar filaments decreases the efficiency of infection. The other determinant for an effective infection is active rotation of the flagellar filament. Moreover, infection rates are proportional to the rotational speed of the flagellum. Further physiological and structural studies are required to determine the exact mechanisms by which the phage binds to the flagellum, moves toward the cell surface, and infects the cell.

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