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Evolution of Agrobacteria and Their Ti Plasmids—A Review

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The genus Agrobacterium is well-known for its remarkable and unique capacity to transfer DNA into plant cells. The transferred DNA (T-DNA) is part of a large plasmid, the tumor- or root-inducing plasmid (pTi or pRi; in this paper we will use the general name pTi for both pTi and pRi, except where distinction is necessary); its transfer during infection is due to the activity of the plant-inducible virulence (vir) genes located on the Ti plasmid. The T-DNA is integrated into the plant nuclear DNA and subsequent expression of the T-DNA genes leads to the formation of tumors (crown galls) or roots (hairy root disease) and to the production of low molecular weight molecules called opines, which are used by the bacterium for its growth. All known Ti plasmids carry genes coding for opine uptake and catabolism (Petit et al. 1983). Several opines induce the conjugative transfer of the Ti plasmids (Petit and Tempe 1983) and thereby amplify opine induction and utilization. The Ti plasmids can therefore be considered as compact and genetically largely independent packages of genes encoding sophisticated systems of metabolic parasitism. During the last 15 yr, many molecular details of the T-DNA transfer process and of T-DNA gene function have been elucidated. These aspects will not be detailed here, as they have been reviewed on several occasions (Hooykaas and Schilperoort 1984; Morris 1986; Ream 1989; Zambryski et al. 1989). In this review we would like to summarize what is known about the evolution of the Ti plasmids and the Agrobacterium chromosome.

Agrobacterium is a member of the alpha subdivision of the class Proteobacteria. It shares this position with Rhizobium, Phyllobacterium, and the Rickettsiae (Holmes and Roberts 1981; Weisburg et al. 1985; Young et al. 1991). 16S RNA data have yielded a phylogenetic tree for Agrobacterium and its relatives (Young et al. 1991). From data on host evolution it has been estimated that the Agrobacterium-Rhizobium divergence occurred some 250 Mio yr ago (Ochman and Wilson 1987). Agrobacterium has been divided into five species: radiobacter, tumefaciens, rhizogenes, rubi, and vitis (Ophel and Kerr 1990). Because these epithets refer to Ti plasmid-encoded properties and because Ti plasmids may be lost or acquired by conjugation (Petit et al. 1978), it is preferable to use a classification based on chromosomal characteristics. Several systems have been proposed (White 1972; Kersters et al. 1973; Kerr and Panagopoulos 1977; Kerr and Brisbane 1983). The

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scheme of Kerr and Panagopoulos has become generally accepted; it divides *Agrobacterium* into three biovars or biotypes. Uncertainties remain with regard to the taxonomical position of certain isolates (for example: Holmes and Roberts 1981; Zoz *et al.* 1986; Bouzar and Moore 1987).

Most of the basic crown gall and hairy root studies have been done with three model strains: The biovar I strains C58 (a nopaline strain) and A6 (an octopine strain, the Ti plasmid of which is very similar to pTiB6S3, pTiAch5, pTiR10, and pTi15955), and the biovar II A. rhizogenes strain A4 (pRiA4 is very similar to pRi1855, pRiHR1, and pRi15834). However, various other strains with quite different types of Ti plasmid have been described (Sciaky et al. 1978; White and Nester 1980; Thomashow et al. 1981; Costantino et al. 1981; Perry and Kado 1982; Knauf et al. 1983; Buchholtz and Thomashow 1984; Unger et al. 1985; Blundy et al. 1986; Komari et al. 1986; Bouzar and Moore 1987; Brevet and Tempe 1988; Wabiko et al. 1989). The evolutionary links between strains or Ti plasmids remain largely obscure. Recently, we have described a group of related biovar III strains (now called Agrobacterium vitis [Ophel and Kerr 1990]) and reconstructed the evolutionary history of the TA regions of the corresponding Ti plasmids (Huss et al. 1989; Bonnard et al. 1989a, 1989b, 1991; Paulus et al. 1989a, 1989b, 1991a, 1991b, 1991c). Here we summarize these results and relate them to what is known about Ti plasmid evolution in general. Finally, we discuss future areas of research that may improve our knowledge of the origin and evolution of present-day Agrobacterium strains and their Ti plasmids.

Ti plasmids are mosaic structures. Homology studies have shown that Ti plasmids are composed of homologous and nonhomologous sequences; they can therefore be considered as evolutionary mosaics. pTiA6 and pTiC58 have been compared in detail. Overall homology is only 30%, but detailed analysis revealed four regions of about 80–85% DNA homology embedded in nonhomologous regions (Engler et al. 1981). Thus, the octopine and nopaline Ti plasmids did not derive from a common ancestor by gradual accumulation of small nucleotide changes. Most likely some of the homologous and nonhomologous pTi sequences were acquired by horizontal gene transfer, as several pTiA6 and pTiC58 sequences have also been found on other Ti plasmids and even in other bacterial species. A number of such promiscuous Ti sequences are listed in Table 1.

The mosaic structures of Ti plasmids have important consequences for evolutionary studies. Ti plasmid phylogenies cannot be derived without delimiting the areas of common evolutionary origin, and a reconstruction of the large-scale events. A method that uses overall levels of DNA similarity like quantitative restriction fragment analysis would not discriminate between large changes brought about slowly by numerous small nucleotide changes and large changes that took place in a single step such as insertions or deletions. Also, it is difficult to propose a Ti phylogeny from the study of selected regions: On the basis of vir gene sequences it has been proposed (Hirayama

Table 1. Ti and Ri plasmid genes found in different sequence environments^a

Organism	pTi type	Strain	Region	Reference			
Auxin (iaaM and iaaH) genes							
At	О	Ach5	TL	Barker et al. 1983			
At	o/c	Tm4-Hm1	TA	Bonnard et al. 1991			
At	n	C58	T	(Joos et al. 1983)			
At	o/c	Tm4-Ag162	TB	(Knauf et al. 1984;			
				Yanofsky et al. 1985;			
A 4		C.4	T-0	Huss et al. 1989)			
At	v	S4	T2	(Canaday, unpublished)			
Ar Ar ^b	a/m	A4	TR	Camilleri et al. 1991			
Ar	a/m	A4	TL	Slightom et al. 1986; Levesque et al. 1988			
Ar^b	m	8196	T	Hansen et al. 1991			
$Psav^{c}$	•••		•••	Yamada <i>et al.</i> 1985			
$\mathbf{B}\mathbf{j}^{\mathrm{d}}$	•••		•••	Sekine <i>et al.</i> 1989			
Cytokinin (ipt, tzs, ptz) genes							
At	0	Ách5	TL	Heidekamp et al. 1983			
At	o/c	Tm4	TA	Bonnard et al. 1989a			
At	n	C58-T37	T	Goldberg et al. 1984			
At	n	C58-T37	vir	Beaty <i>et al.</i> 1986;			
				Akiyoshi <i>et al.</i> 1985			
At^c	S	Bo542	TL	Strabala et al. 1989			
At	v	S4	T3	(Canaday, unpublished)			
Psav	•••			Powell and Morris 1986			
Psol	•••	•••	•••	Akiyoshi <i>et al.</i> 1989			
Mannopine synthesis genes (mas1', mas2')							
At	0	Ach5	TR	Barker et al. 1983			
At	s	Bo542	TR	(Hood et al. 1986)			
Ar	a/m	A4	TR	Bouchez and Tourneur 1991			
Ar	m	8196	T	Hansen et al. 1991			
Agrocinopine synthase (ags) gene							
At	o/c	Tm4	TA	(Paulus, unpublished)			
At	n	C58	T	(Joos et al. 1983)			
Ar	a/m	A4	TL	Slightom et al. 1986			
rolB							
Ar	a/m	A4	TL	Slightom et al. 1986			
Ar	a/m	A4	TR	Bouchez and Camilleri 1990			
Cucumopii	ne synthas	e (cus) gene					
At	o/c	Tm4	TB	(Paulus et al. 1989a)			
Ar	c	2659	T	Brevet and Tempé 1988			
Common T	-DNA (5-	iaa H-iaa M-ip	-				
At	O	Ach5	TL	Barker et al. 1983			
\mathbf{At}^{f}	o/c	Tm4	TA	(Paulus et al. 1991c)			
At	n	C58	T	(Joos et al. 1983;			
				Willmitzer et al. 1983)			
Atg	S	AT181	T	(Chilton et al. 1984;			
				Blundy et al. 1986)			

^a Abbreviations are: At: Agrobacterium tumefaciens; Ar: Agrobacterium rhizogenes; Psav: Pseudomonas syringae pv. savastanoi; Psol: Pseudomonas syringae pv. solanacearum; Bj: Bradyrhizobium japonicum. o, octopine; n, nopaline; c, cucumopine; a, agropine; m, mannopine; s, succinamopine; v, vitopine. References refer to sequence data; if sequence data are not available, references are given in parentheses. bORF8 (see text).

et al. 1988) that pTiC58 is more closely related to pRiA4 than it is to pTiAch5. Although this conclusion may be true for the vir region, it may be different for other Ti plasmid regions. Indeed, if different Ti plasmids are composed of segments with different levels of relatedness, the overall relatedness of the composite structures can no longer be expressed in percentages of nucleotide or amino acid homology but must include a description of the order and time of occurrence of the different assembly events.

Evolutionary origin of T-DNA genes. In spite of the fact that the T-DNA genes are carried by a bacterial plasmid, they are expressed in plant cells and contain plant cell-specific expression signals (Zambryski et al. 1989; Ream 1989). It may therefore be thought that the T-DNA genes are of plant origin. This model would require a hypothetical plant-Agrobacterium DNA transfer mechanism for which no evidence exists. Instead, it seems likely (Yamada et al. 1985; Morris 1986; Schell 1986) that at least some T-DNA genes are of bacterial origin since iaaM. iaaH, and ipt also occur in other plant-associated bacteria where they are under control of prokaryotic expression signals (Table 1). According to this idea, bacterially expressed hormone genes became part of a T-DNA region and chance insertions close to plant promoters or unspecific low-level expression from plantlike promoter sequences could have led to sufficient plant growth stimulation to initiate a selection process towards eukaryotic promoter sequences. Whether the other T-DNA genes have bacterial counterparts remains unknown.

Some untransformed Nicotiana species carry a nuclear DNA fragment that is homologous to the central part of the A. rhizogenes TL DNA and contains the rolB, C, and D genes (White et al. 1983; Furner et al. 1986). The lack of this fragment in other Nicotiana species and its inverted repeat structure which resembles similar structures found for certain T-DNAs (Jorgensen et al. 1987) suggest that it was acquired through a rare transformation event, which led to the formation of a fertile, transformed regenerant (Furner et al. 1986). The structure, evolution, and possible function of this fragment merit further study. Moreover, this unique example of interkingdom lateral gene transfer links Ti plasmid evolution to the evolution of higher plants and thus provides us with a geological time scale for Agrobacterium evolution. Such a scale is normally lacking for bacterial genes due to the absence of a fossil record (Ochman and Wilson 1987).

Evolution of Ti plasmids. The Ti plasmids consist of a number of integrated functional components: origin of replication and incompatibility region, conjugative transfer genes (regulated by the conjugative opines), virulence genes, opine catabolism genes, and T-DNA genes. Presently, only few clues exist about the evolutionary history of the different regions and the ways they were combined. Little is known about the origins of replication of Ti plasmids. Do all Ti plasmids derive from a common replicon, or have typical Ti plasmid functions become associated with originally unrelated plasmids? Plasmids that belong to the same incompatibility group (like pTiC58 and pTiA6, Hooykaas and Schilperoort 1984) may share the same ancestor, whereas Ti plasmids belonging to other groups (like pRiA4 [Hooykaas and Schilperoort 1984] and pTiAg162 [Knauf

ciaaM and iaaH in direct orientation, in the other cases in opposite orientation.

^dOnly *iaaH* gene sequenced.

This T-DNA may resemble the pTiAch5 TL DNA.

¹6a gene deleted.

^g6b gene deleted.

et al. 1984]) may be less related. Sequence data for various Ti plasmid origins of replication (already available for pRiA4, Nishiguchi et al. 1987) could help resolve this question. The Ti plasmid virulence system has most probably been derived from a bacterial conjugation system (Stachel and Zambryski 1986; Buchanan-Wollaston 1987; Zambryski et al. 1989; Ream 1989; Ziegelin et al. 1991; Pansegrau and Lanka 1991; Waters et al. 1991). All known T-region borders have a common consensus structure and the vir genes which products act on these sequences are also related (Hirayama et al. 1988; Rogowski et al. 1990). Ti-specific vir genes (virF in pTiAch5, Hooykaas et al. 1984; Otten et al. 1985; tzs in pTiAch5, Beaty et al. 1986; Akiyoshi et al. 1985) may have been added to an older, common vir region. The T-regions seem to be composed of a limited number of T-DNA genes that are combined in different ways. For example, genes for auxin and agrocinopine synthesis have been found on several different Ti plasmids (see Table 1). The assembly pathways of the different T-DNA genes into T-regions remains to be elucidated. The anabolic and catabolic opine genes can be expected to evolve in concert. Homology between the anabolic and catabolic mannopine cyclase gene (Hong et al. 1990) suggests that this particular combination arose by gene duplication, but this has not been found for other opine genes.

Although the mosaic Ti plasmid structures probably arose by horizontal DNA transfer, the transition areas from homologous to nonhomologous DNA do not reveal any particular structure that indicates how DNA transfer and integration into the Ti plasmid may have taken place. In one case a transpositional mechanism has been proposed. Yamada et al. (1986) noted that the iaa genes of octopine Ti plasmids like pTiAch5 and P. syringae subsp. savastanoi were both linked to an IS51-like element (truncated in Agrobacterium, and at some distance from the iaa genes) and proposed that the Agrobacterium iaa genes were inserted into a pTiAch5 precursor as part of an IS51-iaa-IS51 transposon. If this happened only once, the different Agrobacterium iaa genes (Table 1) would be expected to be surrounded by the same sequences belonging to the originally transposed fragment. This is not the case, but changes due to subsequent DNA rearrangements cannot be excluded. It is striking that several other Ti plasmids contain IS51like elements close to iaa genes (Table 2), but in none of these cases do the sequences in between resemble each other.

In cases where homologous regions can be clearly delimited, the phylogenies of individual genes or regions may be reconstructed by sequence comparisons. The *iaaM* and iaaH genes found in different strains (Table 1) may be taken as an example. The iaa genes of the "common T-DNAs" of octopine, octopine/cucumopine (o/c), nopaline, and succinamopine Ti plasmids are strongly homologous. The iaa genes of the agropine Ri plasmid and those of the o/c TB region occur in a different sequence context and are less related to the iaa genes of the octopine/nopaline group. Even less homologous are the iaa genes from pTiS4 (J. Canaday, unpublished). *iaaH* and *iaaM* genes have also been found in *Pseudomonas* but differ from the *Agro*bacterium genes in several respects: The iaaM gene is shorter at the 5' end and the iaaM and iaaH genes are oriented in the same, rather than opposite direction. Bradyrhizobium also carries an iaaH gene (Sekine et al. 1989). ORF8 of A. rhizogenes strain A4 is a puzzling iaaM-like hybrid gene coding for a protein of which the N-terminal end is homologous to the products of gene 5 and rolB (Levesque et al. 1988; Bouchez 1990). A phylogenetic tree of the iaa genes should therefore not only use percentages of sequence homologies but must also incorporate data on changes in gene orientation and iaaM gene size. GC constraints may differ between strains (Bouchez and Tourneur 1991; Hirayama et al. 1988) and may therefore complicate sequence comparisons, especially when genes can be shuttled between strains with different GC contents. The possibility of codon usage differences between strains also remains to be investigated. It would be interesting to compare phylogenies based on defined Ti plasmid genes or regions with phylogenies based on (supposedly) stable chromosomal loci like 16S RNA genes (Young et al. 1991). Discrepancies between the two trees could indicate lateral gene transfer.

Several Ti plasmid-encoded proteins are distantly related to proteins from other organisms: Octopine and nopaline synthase are related to various dehydrogenases (Monneuse and Rouzé 1987), Vir A and Vir G to several two-component systems of Escherichia coli (reviewed in Stock et al. 1990), VirB4 to TraG of the IncP plasmid RP4 (Ziegelin et al. 1991), VirB11 to DNA and protein transport systems in other bacteria (Christie et al. 1989; Dums et al. 1991) and to KilB (a Tra protein of RK2, Motallebi-Veshareh et al. 1991), VirD2 to TraI of RP4 (Pansegrau and Lanka 1991), PinF to cytochrome-P-450 (Kanemoto et al. 1989). The products of the opine catabolism genes occ O, occ M, occ P, and occ J show homology to the family of osmotic shocksensitive permeases (Valdivia et al. 1991). One study groups several T-DNA genes from A. tumefaciens and A. rhizogenes into families on the basis of weak amino acid homologies and postulates a number of gene duplication

Table 2. IS elements in or around T-regions^a

IS element	Organism	Strain	Location	Reference
IS66	At	A66	TL	Machida et al. 1984
	At	A66	vir	Machida et al. 1984
	Rf			Ramakrishnan et al. 1986
IS <i>51</i>	Psav			Yamada <i>et al</i> . 1986
	At	Ach5	TC	Yamada <i>et al</i> . 1986
IS868	At	AB3	TA	Paulus et al. 1991b
	At	o/c	TB	Paulus et al. 1991b
	At	S4	pTiS4	Canaday, unpublished
IS866 IS867	At At At At	Tm4 o/c o/c S4	TA TA TB pTiS4	Bonnard <i>et al.</i> 1989b Paulus <i>et al.</i> 1989b Paulus <i>et al.</i> 1989b Canaday, unpublished
IS427 IS869	At At At	T37 AB3 nop-III	pTiT37 TA chrom	De Meirsman <i>et al.</i> 1991 Paulus <i>et al.</i> 1991c Paulus <i>et al.</i> 1991c
IS426	At	T37	T	Vanderleyden et al. 1986
	At	Ach5	TC	De Meirsman et al. 1987
ISRm1	Rm	•••	•••	Martinez et al. 1990

^aAbbreviations: At: Agrobacterium tumefaciens; Rf: Rhizobium fredii, Rm: Rhizobium meliloti; Psav: Pseudomonas syringae pv. savastanoi. Bold Face: IS elements chosen are representative for a given family. References refer to sequence data (if available).

events followed by sequence divergence (Levesque et al. 1988).

Finally, Ti plasmidlike functions have been found outside Agrobacterium: Some Rhizobium strains possess an opinelike system (Murphy et al. 1987), and various bacteria are able to utilize opines (Beaulieu et al. 1988; Bell et al. 1990; Nautiyal et al. 1991; Beauchamp et al. 1991). The corresponding genes have not yet been identified. In this respect it is interesting to note that the agrocinopine utilization systems of some agrobacteria show no detectable DNA homology (Hayman and Farrand 1990) and may therefore be of independent evolutionary origin.

Occurrence of IS elements in Agrobacterium. Part of the Ti plasmid variability is due to the activity of insertion elements. IS elements and repeated DNA elements of unknown origin are a conspicuous feature of Rhizobiaceae (Flores et al. 1987; Martinez et al. 1990). Several IS elements have been found in or close to the T-regions of various Ti plasmids (Table 2). Additional IS sequences are suspected in the TA region of Hm1 (Paulus et al. 1991c), TA region of NW233 (L. Otten, unpublished), o/c TB region (P. Fournier, unpublished), several areas outside the o/c T-regions (F. Paulus and L. Otten, unpublished), pTiAch5 TC region (also found in R. leguminosarum, Yun et al. 1987) and to the immediate left of the pTiAch5 TL region (L. Otten, unpublished). The A. rhizogenes TL DNA and the pSym plasmid of Bradyrhizobium japonicum share a common sequence (Krishnan and Pueppke 1991). The vitopine Ti plasmid pTiS4 (J.-C. Gérard, unpublished) contains a large number of repeated sequences, thereby recalling the structure of some pSym plasmids (de Lourdes Girard et al. 1991). Insertion elements are known to produce deletions, rearrangements, amplifications, and changes in gene expression. In the case of octopine/cucumopine strains it could be shown that they have played an important role in the evolution of the Ti plasmids.

Evolution of octopine/cucumopine Ti plasmids. Recent studies of a group of octopine/cucumopine plasmids of Agrobacterium vitis strains have uncovered some new aspects of Ti plasmid evolution. The TA- and TB-regions of five subclasses of o/c Ti plasmids, represented by pTiTm4, pTiHml, pTiAB3, pTiAg57, and pTiNW233 (Huss et al. 1989; Paulus et al. 1989a, 1991a, 1991b, 1991c; L. Otten et al., unpublished) have different structures. Remarkably, the differences are nearly entirely due to IS elements (some of them still putative): Nucleotide sequences outside the IS elements are more than 99.7% identical. The different TA-regions can be derived from a common ancestor by invoking only a few molecular events (Fig. 1). In this model, an ancestor TA region separated into three lineages by insertion of one of three different IS elements: IS866 for Tm4, IS-x for Hm1, and IS868 for the AB3/NW233/Ag57 group. AB3, NW233, and Ag57 diverged from each other by insertion of IS869, IS-y, and IS867, respectively. Sequence and restriction site conservation shows that the various insertions happened recently. O/c strains are specifically associated with grapevine, possibly due to their ability to degrade tartrate (Szegedi 1985) or to the presence of an Agrobacterium vitis-specific polygalacturonase (Rodriguez-Palenzuela et al. 1991). We have therefore proposed that the recent radiative evolution

of o/c strains is related to the development of viticulture or to the technique of grapevine root-stock grafting. Largescale grafting was introduced at the end of the 19th century because of the Phylloxera epidemic and is considered to be a major factor in the spread of the crown gall disease (Burr and Katz 1983; Burr et al. 1987; Jäger 1988). The role of grafting could be tested by a study of Agrobacterium strains from grapevine areas where grafting has never been practiced or by the study of strains that infect wild Vitis species.

Several of the TA-associated IS elements also occur outside the Ti plasmid. The distribution of IS867 and IS866 has been studied in detail (Paulus et al. 1989b) and can be summarized as follows (Fig. 2):

IS867. All Ti plasmids of the 46 o/c isolates studied so far carry two IS867 copies, one close to the TA region, the other within the TB region. These copies were therefore part of the o/c ancestor plasmid. Because none of the copies outside the o/c Ti plasmid are common to all strains, it is possible that the ancestor strain only contained the two pTi-located copies and that its descendants underwent separation into three lineages before they started to accumulate additional IS867 copies outside the Ti plasmid. Within a given lineage, the IS867 element transposed up to four times within a short period (too short for DNA sequence divergence of the TA region). Transfer of the o/c Ti plasmid between different strains (as described for other Agrobac-

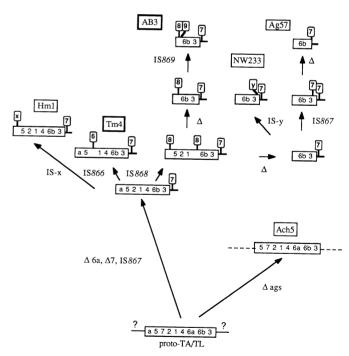


Fig. 1. Evolution of the TA/TL region. The symbols within the T-regions denote: a, agrocinopine synthase gene; 1, iaaM; 2, iaaH; 3, octopine synthase (ocs); 4, ipt; 5, 6a, 6b, and 7, genes 5, 6a, 6b, and 7 (Willmitzer et al. 1983). IS elements are indicated as tags with the following symbols: 6, IS866; 7, IS867; 8, IS868; 9, IS869; the putative IS elements are indicated by x (IS-x) and y (IS-y). Δ, deletion. T-regions are not drawn to scale. For each T-region type a representative strain is shown, Tm4 and AB3 represent frequent TA types; Hm1, NW233, and Ag57 rare types. Dashed line: pTiAch5-specific sequences. The question marks (?) denote uncertainty regarding the nature of the sequences surrounding the proto-TA/TL region.

terium strains, [Petit et al. 1978] and found in three exceptional cases for small TA o/c Ti plasmids [Paulus et al. 1989a]) would obviously complicate this model. A study of the occurrence of IS866, IS867, IS868, IS869, and IS-x in different Agrobacterium vitis strains indicates, however, that plasmids found in such strains do not appear to move between different chromosomal backgrounds.

IS866. In many o/c isolates, the TA-iaaH gene is interrupted by a copy of IS866. Such strains contain in most cases additional IS866 copies (up to five) outside the Ti plasmid. As in the case of IS867, the distribution pattern of IS866 suggests that the first copy of this element was introduced on the Ti plasmid, and then spread to other sites by replicative transposition (Bonnard et al. 1989b; Paulus et al. 1989b).

The influence of the TA IS elements on the functional properties of the strains is unknown. They do not seem to reduce tumor formation on grapevine: Functional studies of pTiTm4 (Huss et al. 1990) and reconstruction of the

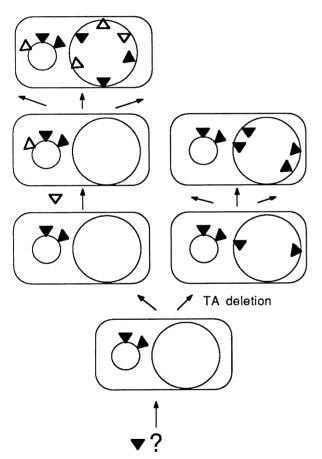


Fig. 2. Model of IS867 and IS866 transposition in Ti plasmids and chromosomes of o/c strains. The original strain contained two, Ti plasmidborne IS867 copies (of unknown origin, as indicated by the question mark) and its Ti plasmid had a large TA region. In one line of evolution (on the right) the TA region underwent an internal deletion (see also Fig. 1). IS867 subsequently multiplied into different positions outside the Ti plasmid, as symbolized by the three arrows. In a second line (on the left) the TA region was interrupted by IS866, and both IS867 and IS866 subsequently multiplied to different positions outside the Ti plasmid. Black triangles: IS867; white triangles: IS866.

TA-iaaH gene (Paulus et al. 1991c) have shown that five of the six known pTiTm4 tumor genes can be deleted without loss of tumorigenicity. This suggests that the o/c ancestor Ti plasmid was originally associated with a more demanding host plant. When a strain carrying this plasmid became established on grapevine, nonessential T-DNA genes may have served as selectively neutral target sites for IS elements. In spite of this, some strains appear to be more frequent than others: Our collection (with isolates from Germany, Hungary, France, South Africa, Australia, Greece, Russia, United States, and Spain) contains many strains of the Tm4 type, whereas Hm1 and Ag57 are unique. Several hypothetical intermediate TA structures (Fig. 1) have not been found so far. Differences in frequency may be explained by coselection of certain TA structures with unknown favorable mutations or by chance factors like a particular geographical distribution of clonally infected grapevine material resulting from human trade. The origin of the various IS elements, the way in which they were introduced into the recipient strains, and the regulation of their transposition deserve further study.

Chromosomal evolution. Although *Agrobacterium* strains can be grouped in three biovars on the basis of chromosomal properties that are supposedly stable, i.e., not subjected to horizontal gene transfer, nothing is known about the evolutionary relationships of the different strain types. Our analysis of the distribution of IS866 and IS867 elements in the chromosomes of o/c strains (Paulus et al. 1989b) indicates that the phylogenetic relationships between TA regions may be extrapolated to the corresponding chromosomes. O/c chromosomes show a high degree of polymorphism (L. Otten, unpublished) as also found for Rhizobium (Martinez et al. 1990). In contrast to this, the octopine Ti plasmids of the biovar I strains have been found to be conserved (Sciaky et al. 1978). For reasons that remain to be established, such plasmids may have been less vulnerable to modification by IS elements.

It remains to be established whether IS elements play the same important role in chromosomal evolution as they do in the case of the TA region. Chromosomal diversity in *Rhizobium* has been attributed to IS elements and has led some workers to conclude that *Rhizobium* taxonomy might be faced "with an unpredictable huge number of genomes" (Martinez et al. 1990). The same will almost certainly be true for *Agrobacterium*.

Perspectives. The study of the evolution of Ti plasmids and of the Agrobacterium genome is still in its infancy. The analysis of the TA region of the o/c Ti plasmids has vielded a detailed picture of the evolution of this DNA fragment and has demonstrated the importance of IS elements. Further studies should establish whether other o/c Ti regions have a similar IS density and are subject to the same loss of original sequences as the TA region. Several IS elements present on the o/c TA regions may have been introduced from other strains. Because o/c strains occur exclusively on grapevine it should be possible to determine whether other grapevine-associated bacteria contain similar elements and are able to donate them to Agrobacterium. As more o/c isolates from grapevine become available, additional forms of o/c Ti plasmids will probably be found and can extend the existing evolutionary

scheme. The study of other strains may show whether our results can be generalized to other Ti plasmids; it may be that the o/c Ti plasmids constitute a particular case of rapid divergence due to the association of one particular Ti plasmid type with one particular host; other Ti plasmids may diverge more slowly or be less exposed to insertion elements.

A challenging task for the future is to follow the evolution of natural Agrobacterium populations. Molecular analysis of large numbers of isolates may yield information on the frequency of occurrence and geographical distribution of particular strain types. Such studies will require the development of rapid analytical methods, such as PCR techniques and the use of specific probes to recognize the variants. Descriptive studies may be complemented by experimental approaches, for example by release of genetically marked strains under controlled conditions resembling the natural environment. The chance of detecting genetic changes within a reasonable time span will depend on the frequency of these changes, their fixation in the population, and the sensitivity of the detection method. If the o/c strains started their evolution only 100 years ago and if the number of five different IS elements (in 50 different o/c isolates) inserted in the TA region (average size about 10 kb) can be extrapolated to the entire Agrobacterium genome (at least 5,000 kb, Burkhardt et al. 1987), 50 randomly isolated descendants of a released strain may together accumulate as many as 25 new IS elements within 1 yr. Methods for rapid inspection of large parts of the genome may detect such changes and need to be developed. Especially interesting is the question of how populations develop within crown gall tumors and whether certain conditions will accelerate their evolution. Grapevine might be an excellent model plant to study such problems because the naturally infecting strains are now well-known (Paulus et al. 1989a). Coinfections with couples of isolates may show whether a correlation exists between frequency of occurrence in nature and competitiveness under experimental conditions and may lead to the identification of factors involved in selection. Nopaline and vitopine strains of Agrobacterium vitis deserve more study, as they occur ubiquitously, but do not seem to show the same variability in their T-regions as the o/c strains (Paulus et al. 1989a). Is this equally true for the rest of their genomes, or do functional constraints prevent modification of the nopaline and vitopine T-regions?

The evolutionary relationships within and between the three biovars could be established by comparative studies of chromosomal sequences. If lateral gene transfer is a common phenomenon, the choice of those sequences that should yield a phylogenetic tree may be difficult. The extent of lateral gene transfer may be determined by detailed analysis of a large number of different chromosomal sequences, which should include supposedly stable sequences like origins of replication or ribosomal genes. Reconstruction of the events within the chosen regions (nucleotide sequence changes and large-scale events) may yield a phylogenetic tree for Agrobacterium chromosomes. As in the case of the o/c TA region, the success of this enterprise will depend on the discovery of a sufficient number of related structures that retain the traces of the past.

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