Functional carbohydrate-active enzymes acquired by horizontal gene transfer from plants in the

whitefly *Bemisia tabaci*

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Summary

Carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes) involved in the degradation of plant cell walls and/or the

assimilation of plant carbohydrates for energy uptake are widely distributed in microorganisms. In

contrast, they are less frequent in animals, although there are exceptions, including examples of

CAZymes acquired by horizontal gene transfer (HGT) from bacteria or fungi in a number of

phytophagous arthropods and plant-parasitic nematodes. Although the whitefly *Bemisia tabaci* is a

major agricultural pest, knowledge of HGT-acquired CAZymes in this phloem-feeding insect of the

Hemiptera order (subfamily Aleyrodinae) is still lacking. We performed a comprehensive and accurate

detection of HGT candidates in *B. tabaci* and identified 136 HGT events, 14 of which corresponding to

CAZymes. The *B. tabaci* HGT-acquired CAZymes were not only of bacterial or fungal origin, but some

were also acquired from plants. Biochemical analysis revealed that members of the glycoside hydrolase

families 17 (GH17) and 152 (GH152) acquired from plants are functional beta-glucanases with different

substrate specificities, suggesting distinct roles. These two CAZymes are the first characterized GH17

and GH152 glucanases in a metazoan. We identified a lower number of HGT events in the related

Aleyrodinae *Trialeurodes vaporariorum*, with only three HGT-acquired CAZymes, including one

GH152 glucanase, suggesting a unique HGT event in the ancestor of the Aleyrodinae. A GH152

CAZyme acquired from plants was also identified in two plant cell-feeding insects of the Thysanoptera

order, suggesting convergent acquisition and highlighting the importance of plant-acquired CAZymes

in the biology of piercing-sucking insects.

Introduction

Horizontal gene transfer (HGT) can be defined as the transfer of genetic material between

organisms without conventional vertical transmission from parent to offspring. HGT allows for the

transfer of genes between different species, regardless of their evolutionary distance. This phenomenon

has been extensively studied in bacteria, for which the supporting mechanisms have been

comprehensively documented (Arnold et al. 2022). Although less common than in bacteria, it is

becoming increasingly evident that HGT has had a significant impact on the evolution of multicellular

eukaryotic genomes, driving functional novelty. In recent years, a number of HGT events have been

described between bacteria or viruses and eukaryotes, and even between different eukaryotic organisms

(Keeling and Palmer 2008; Crisp et al. 2015; Soucy et al. 2015; Drezen et al. 2017; Husnik and

McCutcheon 2018; Chen et al. 2021). Among eukaryotes, HGT has played an important role in the

ability of many animals to feed on plants, including phytophagous arthropods (Kirsch et al. 2014;

Nakabachi 2015; Wybouw et al. 2016; Husnik and McCutcheon 2018) and plant-parasitic nematodes

(Haegeman et al. 2011; Danchin and Rosso 2012; Husnik and McCutcheon 2018). In particular, a

number of genes encoding carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes) involved in plant cell wall

degradation have been described as horizontally transferred in arthropods and nematodes.

The plant cell wall is a dynamic structure that serves multiple functions, including protection

from biotic stresses. It is composed of a network of high molecular weight polysaccharides, including

β-1,4 glucans (cellulose), β-1,4 xylans, β-1,4 mannans or mixed β-1,3/β-1,4 glucans (hemicelluloses),

and the heteropolysaccharide pectin (Perrot et al. 2022). The first plant cell wall degrading enzymes

(PCWDEs) identified in an animal were ß-1,4-endoglucanases (or cellulases), which belong to the

glycoside hydrolase 5 (GH5) family of CAZymes (Drula et al. 2022) and were presumably horizontally

acquired from bacteria by plant-parasitic nematodes (Smant et al. 1998). Since then, numerous

examples of CAZymes acquired by HGT from bacterial or fungal donors and active on polysaccharides

constitutive of the plant cell wall have been described in plant-parasitic nematodes (Danchin et al. 2010;

Haegeman et al. 2011; Danchin and Rosso 2012; Palomares-Rius et al. 2014; Vicente et al. 2019), but

also in phytophagous arthropods (Pauchet et al. 2010; Pauchet and Heckel 2013; Kirsch et al. 2014;

Pauchet et al. 2014; Evangelista et al. 2015; Antony et al. 2017; Faddeeva-Vakhrusheva et al. 2017;

Busch et al. 2019; Shin et al. 2021; Le et al. 2022; Shin and Pauchet 2023). HGT-acquired CAZymes

identified in plant-parasitic nematodes and phytophagous arthropods also include enzymes directly

involved in plant carbohydrate assimilation for energy metabolism (Acuña et al. 2012; Sun et al. 2013;

Danchin et al. 2016; Dai et al. 2021).

The whitefly *Bemisia tabaci* (Hemiptera: Aleyrodinae) is a major agricultural pest. It feeds on

phloem sap, causing damage directly through feeding with its piercing-sucking mouthparts and

indirectly through the transmission of numerous plant pathogenic viruses (Navas-Castillo et al. 2011).

B. tabaci is a highly polyphagous species complex of more than 30 cryptic species, among which the

genome of the Middle East-Asia Minor 1 (MEAM1), Mediterranean (MED), and SSA-East and Central

Africa (SSA-ECA) pests have been recently released (Chen et al. 2016; Xie et al. 2017; Chen et al.

2019). HGT appears to be widespread in *B. tabaci,* with numerous genes reported to have been

transferred not only from bacteria or fungi (Chen et al. 2016; Li et al. 2022), but also from plants (Gilbert

and Maumus 2022; Li et al. 2022), making *B. tabaci* the first metazoan species documented to have

acquired genes of plant origin (Lapadula et al. 2020). Among these horizontally acquired genes,

functional evidence supports the involvement of genes of bacterial origin in B vitamin synthesis (Ren

et al. 2020) and nitrogen metabolism (Yang et al. 2024), genes of fungal origin in the ferredoxin-

mediated suppression of plant defenses (Wang et al. 2023), and genes of plant origin in processes such

as detoxification of plant toxic compounds (Xia et al. 2021) or reproduction (Gong et al. 2023). Careful

mining of previous analyses (Chen et al. 2016; Gilbert and Maumus 2022; Li et al. 2022) suggests the

possible acquisition of several CAZymes of different origin in *B. tabaci*. However, none have been

biochemically characterized and their possible role in the biology of the insect remains unknown.

Furthermore, comprehensive and accurate detection of HGT-acquired CAZymes in *B. tabaci* is still

lacking, leaving a knowledge gap. Phloem feeders, such as aphids or whiteflies, rely on CAZymes to

facilitate stylet penetration through plant cell walls into a phloem sieve element, but also to counteract

the sieve element occlusion defense mechanism consisting of callose (β-1,3-glucan) deposition (Silva-

Sanzana et al. 2020; Walker 2022). CAZymes are also needed to transform sugars taken up from the

plant, mainly sucrose, into fructose for energy metabolism. Finally, some phloem feeders depend on

CAZymes to overcome the high osmolarity of the phloem through osmoregulation (Douglas 2006).

In this work, we used comprehensive phylogenetic analyses to identify HGT events in *B. tabaci*

MEAM1 that are specific to the Aleyrodinae, and we performed further characterization with a focus

on CAZymes. Biochemical analysis revealed that two of the plant-acquired CAZymes, belonging to the

GH17 and GH152 families, are functional beta-glucanases with different substrate specificities,

suggesting distinct functional roles. We then performed a comparative analysis with the related

greenhouse whitefly *Trialeurodes vaporariorum* (Hemiptera: Aleyrodinae), which differs from *B.*

tabaci in various aspects such as host plant range, virus transmission, or insecticide resistance. Finally,

we expanded our analysis beyond the Aleyrodinae to detect HGT in two other piercing-sucking insects,

Frankliniella occidentalis and *Thrips palmi* (Thysanoptera: Thripinae), which feed on the contents of

plant cells. Overall, our findings suggest that the acquisition of CAZymes by HGT has had a significant

impact on the biology of piercing-sucking insects, particularly in the case of *B. tabaci*.

Material and Methods

Data used and quality control

Genome and predicted proteome data from the *Bemisia tabaci* MEAM1 (v1.2) (Chen et al.

2016), MED (v1.0) (Xie et al. 2017), and SSA-ECA (v1.0) (Chen et al. 2019) cryptic species and from

Trialeurodes vaporariorum (v1.0) (Xie et al. 2020) were obtained from the Whitefly Genome Database

(http://www.whiteflygenomics.org).

Genome and predicted proteome data from *Frankliniella occidentalis* (assembly

GCF_000697945.2_Focc_2.1) and *Thrips palmi* (assembly GCF_012932325.1_TpBJ-2018v1) were

obtained from the NCBI database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/).

Proteome completeness was compared between *B. tabaci* MEAM1, MED and SSA-ECA

cryptic species, *T. vaporariorum*, *F. occidentalis* and *T. palmi* using BUSCO (v5) according to the

Arthropoda Odb10 dataset (Manni et al. 2021).

Orthogroup inference

Orthogroups (i) between the *B. tabaci* MEAM1, MED and SSA-ECA cryptic species and *T.*

vaporariorum and (ii) between *F. occidentalis* and *T. palmi* were defined using Orthofinder (v2) with

default parameters (Emms and Kelly 2015; Emms and Kelly 2019).

Functional annotation

All the predicted proteins from the *B. tabaci* MEAM1, *T. vaporariorum*, *F. occidentalis* and *T.*

palmi genomes were analyzed using InterProScan (v5) to identify conserved protein domains (Jones et

al. 2014). The -iprlookup and -goterms options were used to assign Gene Ontology (GO) terms from

the identified InterPro domains.

Detection of HGT candidates

A homology search against the NCBI non-redundant (NR) protein database was performed for

the *B. tabaci* MEAM1, *T. vaporariorum*, *F. occidentalis* and *T. palmi* proteomes using DIAMOND (v2)

(Buchfink et al. 2021). The DIAMOND search was performed in the more sensitive mode with an e-

value threshold of $1.0e^{-3}$ and a maximum number of hits of 500.

The DIAMOND homology search results were submitted to AvP (Koutsovoulos et al. 2022) to

calculate the Aggregate Hit Score (AHS) (Koutsovoulos et al. 2022) for each query sequence based on

the normalized sum of the scores of the best metazoan (NCBI:txid33208) and non-metazoan hits. This

AHS metric was shown to be less sensitive to contamination and taxonomic assignment errors in

databases than the classical Alien Index (AI) (Koutsovoulos et al. 2022), which only considers the single

best metazoan and single best non-metazoan hits. Proteins with an AHS greater than 0 have a higher

similarity to non-metazoan than to metazoan hits in the NR database. Self-hits to Aleyrodinae

(NCBI:txid33379) were ignored for *B. tabaci* MEAM1 and *T. vaporariorum.* Self-hits to Thysanoptera

(NCBI:txid30262) have been ignored for *F. occidentalis* and *T. palmi.*

We again used AvP for automatic phylogenetic detection of HGT candidates among proteins

with AHS above 0. The first step of AvP was to cluster the query sequences based on the percentage of

shared hits in the DIAMOND homology search result (default 70% overlap). This clustering method

was supplemented with orthogroups inferred by Orthofinder (see above) and shared Pfam domains as

determined by InterProScan (see above). When analyzing the AVP results, we retained the most

comprehensive clustering method, for which only one HGT event was predicted from the obtained

phylogeny. All protein sequences with significant hits in the DIAMOND homology search result were

retrieved from the NR database by AvP and aligned using MAFFT (v7) with the --auto option (Katoh

and Standley 2013) for each group. The second step of AvP was to infer the phylogeny for each group

and to detect HGT candidates according to the species found in the sister branch of the query sequence

and the ancestral sister branch. FastTree (v2) with the default parameters (Price et al. 2010) was

preferred to IQ-TREE (v2) (Minh et al. 2020) for phylogeny inference in this initial step to improve the

speed of the analysis. In a third step, AvP classified the HGT candidates according to their putative

origin. The fourth step of AvP was to infer a constrained topology in which the query sequence(s) and

the other metazoan sequence(s), if present, form a single monophyletic group and to determine whether

the topology supporting HGT is significantly more likely than the constrained alternative one using an

approximately unbiased (AU) test (Shimodaira 2002). Finally, AvP analyzed the genomic environment

of each HGT candidate gene and calculated a local score ranging from -1 to +1 depending on whether

the gene was surrounded by other HGT candidate genes (indicating a possible contamination,

duplications after an HGT event, or multiple HGTs) or not. The local score was not reported if the

number of genes in the scaffold (including the HGT candidate) was less than 5.

Validation of HGT candidates

A manual analysis of the AvP results was performed, and HGT candidates were not further considered if at least one of the following criteria was met:

(i) The total number of donor sequences was less than 3 in the sister branch plus the ancestral sister branch (if present).

(ii) The HGT-supporting topology was not significantly more likely than the constrained alternative topology in which the query was forced to group with all metazoan sequences from NR. However, HGT candidates were retained if these metazoan sequences were either (i) taxonomically misannotated, likely due to contamination by a donor species or (ii) suspected to have originated from an HGT event themselves based on BLASTP results performed at NCBI against NR (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/).

(iii) At least one donor sequence in the DIAMOND homology search results shared more than 70% identity with the HGT candidate sequence and either (i) no homologous sequence was found in the closely related cryptic species for *B. tabaci* MEAM1, suggesting contamination by a donor species, or (ii) the donor sequences were suspected to be misannotated, probably in the case of Viridiplantae due to contamination of the donor species by the query species (or a related insect species), based on BLASTP results performed at NCBI against NR (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/).

(iv) The identity between the donor sequences and the HGT candidate sequence in the DIAMOND homology search results was less than 30%. Searching for homologous proteins and building a phylogenetic tree below this value is problematic due to the low quality of the alignments.

(v) The average alignment length in the DIAMOND homology search results was less than 100 amino acids with an average query coverage of less than 50%.

(vi) The local score calculated by AvP from the genomic environment of the HGT candidate was less than 0, and there was no indication of duplication after an HGT event or of multiple HGTs, indicating a possible contamination.

Phylogeny reconstruction for validated HGT candidates

For each HGT candidate detected by AvP and satisfying all the above-mentioned criteria, we

reconstructed a maximum likelihood phylogeny with IQ-TREE (v2) (Minh et al. 2020) to improve

accuracy. Before reconstructing the phylogeny, the AvP-defined groups were refined by the following

three preliminary steps:

(i)   We searched for homologous sequences of each HGT candidate validated for *B. tabaci*

MEAM1 in the cryptic species MED and SSA and included them in the groups formed

by AvP. The search for homologous sequence(s) in the cryptic species MED and SSA

was first performed in the orthogroups determined by Orthofinder (see above). If no

homologous sequence was found, we performed a protein-to-genome comparison using

exonerate (v2) with a score threshold of 500 (Slater and Birney 2005). The *B. tabaci*

MEAM1 HGT candidate protein sequence was used as the query and the genome of

each cryptic species as the database. When a significant hit was found, the protein

sequence was inferred from the cryptic species genomic sequence. The homologous

sequence(s) found for the cryptic MED and SSA species were added to the *B. tabaci*

MEAM1 groups previously defined by AvP.

(ii)   We combined the groups defined by AvP for *B. tabaci* MEAM1 and *T. vaporariorum* on

the one hand and *F. occidentalis* and *T. palmi* on the other hand, where the sequences

of the two related species were in the same orthogroup defined by Orthofinder. If no

homologous sequence was found for a validated HGT candidate in the related species,

a protein-to-genome comparison was performed using exonerate (v2) as described

above.

(iii)   Metazoan sequences suspected to be misannotated, probably due to contamination, based

on BLASTP results performed at NCBI against NR (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/)

were removed from the groups.

For each group, a CD-HIT analysis was then performed with an identity threshold of 100% to

remove redundancy (Li and Godzik 2006). Sequences were aligned using MAFFT (v7) with the --auto

option (Katoh and Standley 2013). Poorly aligned regions were removed using trimal (v1.4) with the -

automated1 option (Capella-Gutiérrez et al. 2009). Phylogenies were inferred using IQ-TREE (v2)

(Minh et al. 2020) with automated model selection (Kalyaanamoorthy et al. 2017). Support values were

based on a Shimodaira–Hasegawa approximate likelihood ratio test (SH-aLRT) (Guindon et al. 2010)

combined with an ultrafast bootstrap (UFboot) approximation with 1,000 replicates (Hoang et al. 2018).

Only support values greater than or equal to 80% and 95% for SH-aLRT and UFboot, respectively,

were considered. Phylogenies were visualized using iTol (Letunic and Bork 2021).

When *B. tabaci* MEAM1 and *T. vaporariorum* sequences on the one hand and *F. occidentalis*

and *T. palmi* sequences on the other hand did not form monophyletic groups, we forced a constrained

topology supporting monophyly of metazoan sequences and determined whether the unconstrained

topology was significantly more likely than the constrained alternative one using an approximately

unbiased (AU) test (Shimodaira 2002) with IQ-TREE (v2).

Identification of overrepresented GO terms among validated HGT candidates

227   Identification of overrepresented Gene Ontology (GO) terms among validated HGT candidates

228   was performed using a hypergeometric test as implemented in func (Prüfer et al. 2007) within the R

229   package GOfuncR with a family-wise error rate threshold of 0.05. The -refine option was used to

230   eliminate redundancy between GO terms and to keep only representative terms.

Detection of encoded Carbohydrate-Active enZymes (CAZymes)

All the predicted proteins from the, *T. vaporariorum*, *F. occidentalis* and *T. palmi* genomes

were compared with entries in the CAZy database (Drula et al., 2022). A homemade pipeline combining

the BlastP (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) and HMMER3 (http://hmmer.janelia.org/) tools

was used to compare protein models with the sequences of the CAZy modules. Proteins with E-values

less than 0.1 were further screened by a combination of BlastP searches against libraries generated from

the sequences of the catalytic and non-catalytic modules. HMMER3 was used to search against a

collection of custom Hidden Markov Model (HMM) profiles constructed for each CAZy family. Expert

curators then performed manual inspection to resolve borderline cases.

Structural analysis

Structure prediction was performed using the ColabFold v1.5.2 implementation of AlphaFold2

(Mirdita et al. 2022) at

https://colab.research.google.com/github/sokrypton/ColabFold/blob/main/AlphaFold2.ipynb

with the following parameters: num_relax=1 and template_mode=pdb100. Secondary structure

assignment was performed with the DSSP program (https://www3.cmbi.umcn.nl/xssp/) (Kabsch and

Sander 1983). Visualization of predicted protein structures, alignment of the alpha carbon atoms with

crystallized structures, and calculation of the root-mean-square deviation (RMSD) value were

performed using PyMOL (http://sourceforge.net/projects/pymol/).

Recombinant production of CAZymes

The recombinant proteins were produced using the in-house 3PE Platform (*Pichia Pastoris*

Protein Express; www.platform3pe.com/) as described in Haon et al. (2015). The sequences of the genes

coding for the GH17 Bta06115 and the GH152 Bta13961 from *B. tabaci* were synthesized after codon

optimization for expression in *Pichia pastoris* and inserted into a modified pPICZαA vector using *Xho*I

and *Xba*I restriction sites in frame with the α secretion factor at the N terminus (i.e., without native

signal peptide) and with a (His)$_6$-tag at the C terminus (without *c*-myc epitope) (Genewiz, Leipzig,

Germany). Transformation of competent *P. pastoris* X33 cells (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California, USA)

was performed by electroporation with PmeI-linearized pPICZαA recombinant plasmids as described

in Haon et al. (2015). Zeocin-resistant transformants were then screened for protein production.

Heterologous protein production in flasks

The best-producing transformants (GH17 Bta06115 and GH152 Bta13961) were grown in 2 L

BMGY medium (10 g.L^{-1} glycerol, 10 g.L^{-1} yeast extract, 20 g.L^{-1} peptone, 3.4 g.L^{-1} YNB, 10 g.L^{-1}

ammonium sulfate, 100 mM phosphate buffer pH 6 and 0.2 g.L^{-1} of biotin) at 30°C and 200 rpm to an

optical density at 600 nm of 2-6. Expression was induced by transferring cells into 400 mL of BMMY

media at 20 °C in an orbital shaker (200 rpm) for another 3 days. Each day, the medium was

supplemented with 3% (v/v) methanol. The cells were harvested by centrifugation, and just before

purification, the pH was adjusted to 7.8 and was filtered on 0.45-μm membrane (Millipore, Burlington,

Massachusetts, USA).

Purification by affinity chromatography

Filtered culture supernatant was loaded onto a 20 ml HisPrep FF 16/10 column (Cytiva, Vélizy-

Villacoublay, France) equilibrated with buffer A (Tris-HCl 50 mM pH 7.8, NaCl 150 mM, imidazole

10 mM) that was connected to an Äkta pure (Cytiva). (His)$_6$-tagged recombinant proteins were eluted

with buffer B (Tris-HCl 50 mM pH 7.8, NaCl 150 mM, imidazole 250 mM). Fractions containing

recombinant enzymes were pooled, concentrated, and dialyzed against Tris-HCl 50 mM pH 7.8, NaCl

150 mM.

Concentration of purified protein was determined by absorption at 280 nm using a Nanodrop

ND-2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with calculated molecular mass and molar

extinction coefficients derived from the sequences. Proteins were loaded onto a 10% Tris-glycine

precast SDS-PAGE gel (BioRad, Gemenos, France) which was stained with Coomassie Blue. The

molecular mass under denaturing conditions was determined with reference standard proteins (Page

Ruler Prestained Protein Ladder, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

Functional enzymatic assays

Enzyme assays (final reaction volume 200 μL) were performed at 30°C in 2 mL Eppendorf

tubes, incubated in a thermomixer (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) at 1000 rpm for 24 h in sodium

phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 7.0). Polysaccharides (Barley β-glucan, Lichenan) (MEGAZYME, Bray,

Ireland) were used at 10 mg.mL^{-1}, and oligosaccharides (laminarihexaose, cellohexaose)

(MEGAZYME) at a concentration of 0.5 mM. Reactions were initiated by the addition of Bta06115 and

Bta13961 at a final concentration of 8 μM. Reactions were stopped by heating at 100°C for 5 min,

centrifuged (12,000xg, 2 min, 4°C), and diluted 10-fold in milliQ H$_2$O before injection onto the HPAEC

column.

HPAEC-PAD analyses

The detection method is performed using a high-performance anion-exchange chromatography

(HPAEC) coupled with pulsed amperometric detection (PAD) (DIONEX ICS6000 system, Thermo

Fisher Scientific). The system is equipped with a CarboPac-PA1 guard column (2 x 50 mm) and a

CarboPac-PA1 column (2 x 250 mm) kept at 30°C. Elution was carried out at a flow rate of 0.25

mL.min^{-1} and 25 µL of samples was injected. The eluents used were 100 mM NaOH (eluent A) and

NaOAc (1M) in 100 mM NaOH (eluent B). The initial conditions were set to 100% eluent A, and the

following gradient was applied: 0 to 10 min, 0 to 10% B; 10 to 35 min, 10 to 35% B (linear gradient);

35 to 40 min, 30 to 100% B (curve 6); 40 to 41 min, 100 to 0% B; 41 to 50 min, 100% A. Integration

was performed using the Chromeleon 7.2.10 data software.

Results and Discussion

The genome of B. tabaci contains numerous genes of non-metazoan origin

Our first objective was to perform a comprehensive and accurate phylogenetic detection of HGT

candidates in *B. tabaci,* a member of the Aleyrodinae subfamily in the Hemiptera order, and to compare

the results obtained with the literature. The proteome completeness estimated by BUSCO was compared

between the three *B. tabaci* cryptic species, MEAM1, MED and SSA-ECA, for which genome and

predicted proteome data are available (Supplementary Table 1). With 95.6% of arthropoda BUSCO

proteins found to be complete, *B. tabaci* MEAM1 had the most complete proteome, compared to less

than 90% for the other two *B. tabaci* cryptic species (Supplementary Table 1). Therefore, the search for

candidate HGTs was performed for *B. tabaci* MEAM1 as a reference.

Of the 15,662 *B. tabaci* MEAM1 predicted proteins, 686 returned an AHS greater than 0,

meaning that they are more similar to non-metazoan proteins than to metazoan proteins. From these

predicted proteins, AvP identified 357 as possible HGT candidates specific to Aleyrodinae. The vast

majority of these (255 out of 357) were validated according to the criteria described in the Material and

Methods section and were from potential bacterial, fungal, or plant (Viridiplantae) donors (Table 1 and

Supplementary Table 2). These 255 validated HGT candidates correspond to at least 136 distinct HGT events (Supplementary Table 2). For each of these events, homologs were found in at least one of the other two *B. tabaci* cryptic species, MED and SSA-ECA, making the possibility of contamination unlikely (Supplementary Table 2). Further supporting the lack of contamination, the local score calculated by AvP was greater than 0 for each of the 255 validated HGT candidates. This result (136 events for 255 genes) also suggests that most of the candidate HGTs were inserted into multiple independent genomic regions and did not undergo massive cis-duplication (Supplementary Table 2).

We compared the HGT candidates of bacterial, fungal and plant origin we found in *B. tabaci* MEAM1 with data from the literature. Most of the HGT candidates described in the literature for *B. tabaci* MEAM1 were confirmed by our study suggesting that our approach is comprehensive despite the stringent filters applied (Figure 1). Of the 93 HGT candidates of bacterial origin described in the literature (Chen et al. 2016; Li et al. 2022), 11 were not found in our work (Figure 1 and Supplementary Table 3). Of these, one was no longer present in version 1.2 of the *B. tabaci* MEAM1 proteome, one was rejected because its sequence identity with the donor sequences was below 30%, and one was considered non-HGT as metazoan sequences were present in the sister and ancestral sister branches (Supplementary Table 3). The remaining eight were found to have an AHS score equal to or less than 0, indicating a higher similarity to metazoans than to non-metazoans in the NR database and thus unlikely acquisition via HGT (Supplementary Table 3). On the other hand, we identified 31 new phylogenetically supported HGT candidates with bacteria as potential donors not yet described in the literature (Figure 1 and Supplementary Table 2). 17 of these new HGT candidates belong to the AAA-ATPase-like domain-containing protein family, a large family of ATPases associated with various cellular activities. All but one of them group with previously identified HGT candidates in *B. tabaci* MEAM1, suggesting that they originate from the same HGT events but were overlooked in previous analyses. The remaining one would correspond to a new, independent HGT event of a member of the AAA-ATPase-like domain-containing protein family in *B. tabaci* (Supplementary Table 2). Horizontal gene transfer from bacteria has been described for members of this protein family in two other phloem-feeding insects of the order Hemiptera, but belonging to the superfamilies Psylloidea and Coccoidea,

separated from Aleyrodinae by more than 250 million years (Myr) (Misof et al. 2014), with a possible

role in mediating the interaction with endosymbionts (Sloan et al. 2014).

Of the 81 HGT candidates of fungal origin described in the literature (Chen et al. 2016), only

two were not retrieved in our work (Figure 1). For one of these two HGT candidates, no similarities

were found in the NR database, preventing the search for a possible HGT origin (Supplementary Table

3). For the second candidate, classified as HGT_complex in our study, the HGT donor could not be

unambiguously determined because the sister branch consists of bacterial sequences and the ancestral

sister branch consists of fungal sequences (Supplementary Table 3). On the other hand, we identified

nine new phylogenetically confirmed HGT candidates with fungi as potential donors (Figure 1 and

Supplementary Table 2). Of these nine new HGT candidates, five cluster with HGT candidates already

described in the literature, suggesting that they originated from the same HGT events as the latter

(Supplementary Table 2). The other four would correspond to previously undescribed HGT acquisitions

of two different genes encoding replication factor A protein 1 and a protein of unknown function,

respectively (Supplementary Table 2).

Finally, of the 53 HGT candidates of plant origin described in the literature (Lapadula et al.

2020; Xia et al. 2021; Gilbert and Maumus 2022; Li et al. 2022), only one was not found in our work

(Figure 1). No significant similarities were found in the NR database for this HGT candidate, which

prevented the search for a possible HGT origin (Supplementary Table 3). In the work of Gilbert and

Maumus (2022), this HGT candidate was identified as a member of a large family of omega-6 fatty acid

desaturases, all derived from a single HGT event. The other 14 members of this family were

successfully found in our work (Supplementary Table 2). On the other hand, we identified one new

HGT candidate acquired from plants (Figure 1 and Supplementary Table 2). This new HGT candidate

belongs to the HXXXD family of acyl-transferases. Other members of this family have already been

described as HGT candidates for *B. tabaci* MEAM1 (Gilbert and Maumus 2022; Li et al. 2022). This new

case would correspond to an independent HGT event in the same family (Supplementary Table 2).

Overall, our approach to identify HGT candidates using AvP appeared to be not only reliable, but

also more exhaustive than previous approaches used for bacterial and fungal donors (Chen et al. 2016; Li et

al. 2022) (Figure 1). For HGT candidates with plants as donors, our approach is comparable to that of Gilbert

and Maumus (2022), and both of them are more comprehensive than that of Li et al. (2022) (Figure 1).

B. tabaci has acquired CAZymes from bacteria, fungi, and plant donors via multiple HGT

events

We identified significantly overrepresented GO terms among validated HGT candidates from

potential bacterial, fungal, or plant donors in *B. tabaci* based on their InterPro domain annotation

(Supplementary Table 4). This revealed a significant enrichment of GO terms related to carbohydrate

metabolism and plant cell wall degradation, such as hydrolase activity, acting on glycosyl bonds

(GO:0016798), pectinesterase activity (GO:0030599), or cell wall modification (GO:0042545). This

suggests horizontal acquisition of a substantial proportion of Carbohydrate-Active enZymes

(CAZymes) in *B. tabaci*. We therefore investigated the relationships between HGT candidates and

CAZymes, as well as possible donors, in more detail. A total of 433 *B. tabaci* MEAM1 proteins were

predicted to be CAZymes (Supplementary Table 5). These include two members of the Glycoside

Hydrolase (GH) family GH13, subfamily 17 (GH13_17), which have been shown to catalyze the

detoxification of glucosinolates produced by plants against herbivores (Malka et al. 2020), but were not

detected as having been acquired by HGT.

We identified 25 CAZymes likely acquired by HGT via 14 independent events (Table 2 and

Supplementary Figure 1). Three CAZymes were predicted to originate from bacteria (corresponding to

two HGT events), twelve from fungi (corresponding to four HGT events), and nine from plants

(corresponding to seven HGT events). For the last CAZyme HGT candidate, it was not possible to

decipher whether the origin was bacterial or fungal (Table 2 and Supplementary Figure 1).

Two of the CAZymes of bacterial origin belong to the GH32 family and would correspond to a

single unique HGT event according to the AvP results (Table 2 and Supplementary Figure 1).

Enzymatic activities in the GH32 family include invertase (or ß-fructofuranosidase) activity, which

catalyzes the hydrolysis of sucrose into fructose and glucose. Independent horizontal acquisition events

of ß-fructofuranosidase genes from bacterial donors have been evidenced for a number of metazoans

with a role in assimilation of plant carbohydrates (Nakabachi 2015; Danchin et al. 2016; Wybouw et al.

2016; Dai et al. 2021). Acquisition of these GH32 CAZymes from bacteria would have allowed *B.*

tabaci to metabolize host-derived sucrose, which is abundant in the phloem on which it feeds. The third

protein of bacterial origin classified as a CAZyme contains a carbohydrate-binding module of the

CBM50 family, but no associated catalytic module (Table 2 and Supplementary Figure 1).

Among the CAZymes of fungal origin, three belong to the GH30, GH49 and GH71 families,

respectively (Table 2 and Supplementary Figure 1). Interestingly, GH30 enzymes, presumably acquired

via HGT, have been found in numerous plant-parasitic nematodes (Danchin et al. 2010), with xylanase

activity confirmed in root-knot nematodes (Mitreva-Dautova et al. 2006). However, although xylanase

enzymes have been found in other insects, none of those characterized belong to the GH30 family

(Padilla-Hurtado et al. 2012; Pauchet and Heckel 2013; Pauchet et al. 2014; Vega et al. 2015). This

suggests a convergent acquisition of xylanases from different sources. The GH49 enzyme may be active

on plant arabinan, although arabinanase activity has never been confirmed so far in any eukaryote in

this GH family. Finally, the only known activity to date in the GH71 family is α-1,3-glucanase, which

has been characterized for this family only in fungi. A multigenic family of nine proteins containing a

carbohydrate binding module (CBM32) in tandem with a galactose oxidase module (AA5_2) was also

found to be horizontally acquired from fungi (Table 2 and Supplementary Figure 1). The biological role

of fungal AA5_2 galactose oxidases is not known but other members of this subfamily displaying

alcohol oxidase activity play a role in the mechanism of plant penetration in fungal phytopathogens

(Bissaro et al. 2022). To the best of our knowledge, there have been no reports of horizontal acquisition

of genes containing this combination of modules (AA5_2-CBM32) in metazoans.

The HGT candidate whose bacterial or fungal origin could not be determined from the

phylogeny belongs to the PL1_4 family (Table 2 and Supplementary Figure 1). PL1_4 enzymes are

pectin lyases involved in the degradation of pectin and are usually found in bacteria or fungi

(http://www.cazy.org/; Drula et al. 2022). Sequences from a few other insects, including the Thripinae

F. occidentalis and *T. palmi*, are found in the phylogeny, in different branches for some (Supplementary

Figure 1). This will be further investigated in the last part of the Results and Discussion section.

As far as we know, no CAZyme acquired by HGT from a plant donor has yet been fully

described and characterized in a metazoan. Here, we identified a total of nine *B. tabaci* MEAM1

CAZymes, representing seven HGT events of plant origin (Table 2 and Supplementary Figure 1). Of

these, three belong to the GlycosylTransferase (GT) families GT10, GT17 and GT61. Of the remaining

six, three belong to the GH17 and GH152 families, two belong to the Carbohydrate Esterase 8 (CE8)

family, and one is distantly related to plant expansins. The possible functions of some of these

CAZymes are described in more detail below.

A GH17 CAZyme acquired by HGT from plants in B. tabaci is a functional β-1,3-glucanase

The *B. tabaci* MEAM1 proteins Bta06115 and Bta06118 share similarities with plant ß-

glucanases belonging to the GH17 family (Table 2 and Supplementary Table 2). The GH17 family is

well described, with over 50 enzymes biochemically characterized (http://www.cazy.org/; Drula et al.

2022). The GH17 family includes two major groups of ß-glucanases, endo-β-1,3-glucanases, which

hydrolyze internal β-1,3 glycosidic linkages in β-1,3-glucans, and endo-β-1,3-1,4-glucanases, which

hydrolyze internal β-1,4 glycosidic linkages in mixed β-1,3-1,4-glucans (http://www.cazy.org/; Drula

et al. 2022). Members of the GH17 family are found in bacteria, fungi and plants, but to our knowledge,

they have not been documented in animals so far. Accordingly, homologs of the *B. tabaci* MEAM1

Bta06115 and Bta06118 proteins were identified only in *B. tabaci* MED and SSA-ECA, and no other

organism besides plants (Figure 2A and Supplementary Table 2). The close proximity of both Bta06115

and Bta06118 genes on the same scaffold, together with the bootstrap-supported grouping of all *B.*

tabaci GH17 sequences (Figure 2A), suggests that they originated from a single HGT event from a plant

donor followed by a tandem duplication. The bootstrap-supported grouping of *B. tabaci* MED and SSA-

ECA proteins with each of *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta06115 and Bta06118 proteins, respectively (Figure

2A), further suggests that the duplication occurred before the divergence of the three cryptic species,

which is estimated to have occurred between approximately 5 Myr ago (Chen et al. 2019) and 40 Myr

ago (Mugerwa et al. 2018).

Both *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta06115 and Bta06118 proteins consist of a GH17 domain, preceded

by a signal peptide, suggesting that they are secreted (Figure 2B). The predicted structures of the

Bta06115 and Bta06118 proteins (without the peptide signal) were obtained using AlphaFold2 and

aligned with the crystal structure of barley endo-ß-1,3-glucanase and endo-ß-1,3-1,4-glucanase

(Varghese et al. 1994). The RMSD values for the alpha carbon atoms ranged from 0.629 Å (for all 255

atoms) to 0.767 Å (for all 278 atoms) between the Bta06118 and barley endo-ß-1,3-1,4-glucanase

structures and the Bta06115 and barley endo-ß-1,3-glucanase structures, respectively, indicating a high

degree of structural similarity (Supplementary Figure 2). Accordingly, the predicted structures of

Bta06115 and Bta06118, along with the crystal structures of barley endo-ß-1,3-glucanase and barley

endo-ß-1,3-1,4-glucanase, exhibit the typical $(\alpha/\beta)_8$ TIM barrel motif shared by GH17 glucanases

(Supplementary Figure 2). This motif consists of an inner crown of eight ß-strands linked by loops to

an outer crown of eight α-helices (Varghese et al. 1994; Receveur-Bréchot et al. 2006). The two

glutamic acid catalytic residues that constitute the active site of GH17 ß-glucanases (Varghese et al.

1994) are conserved in the predicted structures of Bta06115 and Bta06118, suggesting the functionality

of the *B. tabaci* MEAM1 GH17 proteins (Figure 2C).

Bta06115 was heterologously expressed in *P. pastoris* and purified to homogeneity. To

investigate substrate preferences of this putative glucanase, we first assayed Bta06115 on cellohexaose

(G6; β-1,4-gluco-oligosaccharides) and laminarihexaose (L6; β-1,3-gluco-oligosaccharides) as

substrates (Figure 3A). Enzyme assays revealed that Bta06115 was able to efficiently cleave L6 into L2

and glucose, suggesting exo-type activity. However, very weak activity was detected on G6. We then

tested the enzyme on two different mixed-linked β-glucans (i.e. lichenan and barley glucan), displaying

a 1,3/1,4 mean ratio of 1:2 and 1:3, respectively (Figure 3B). Significant activity was detected on

lichenan but no activity was detected on barley β-glucan. Therefore, our results indicate a typical

lichenase activity for Bta06115 with a significant cleavage of mixed-linked β-1,3/β-1,4 glucans, while

no significant cleavage was observed on barley β-glucan, that displays a high ratio of β-1,4-linkages,

cellulose or cello-oligosaccharides. Overall, we conclude that the GH17 Bta06115 is a functional β-1,3-

glucanase.

Accordingly, comparison of the specific residues that determine substrate specificity confirms

that Bta06115 and Bta06118 are ß-1,3-glucanases (Figure 2C). In barley endo-ß-1,3-1,4-glucanase,

residues Q129 and F135 block the catalytic cleft and prevent the ß-1,3-glucans from binding, while the

short T210 leaves sufficient sufficient space for mixed β-1,3-1,4-glucans (Varghese et al. 1994).

Residues F130 and S136, which replace Q129 and F135 in barley endo-ß-1,3-glucanase, provide space

to accommodate ß-1,3-glucans (Varghese et al. 1994), as would M163 and T169 in Bta06115 and M177

and S183 in Bta06118 (Figure 2C). In addition, the replacement of T210 by M209 in barley endo-ß-

1,3-glucanase represents a barrier to a mixed β-1,3-1,4-glucan with a high ratio of β-1,4-linkages

(Varghese et al. 1994). Residues Q244 and Q260 would form a similar barrier in Bta06115 and

Bta06118 respectively (Figure 2C).

A functional GH152 ß-1,3-1,4-glucanase was acquired by HGT from a plant donor in B. tabaci

The *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta13961 protein shares similarities with plant ß-glucanases belonging

to the GH152 family (Table 2 and Supplementary Table 2). The GH152 family is much less described

than the GH17 family (http://www.cazy.org/; Drula et al. 2022), with only one biochemically

characterized enzyme from a filamentous fungi (Sakamoto et al. 2006). In our Diamond homology

search, homologs of the *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta13961 protein were identified in *B. tabaci* MED and

SSA-ECA, but not in any organism other than plants (Supplementary Table 2 and Figure 4A). The

monophyletic grouping of *B. tabaci* sequences was robust, suggesting horizontal acquisition from a

plant donor prior to the divergence of the three *B. tabaci* cryptic species (Figure 4A). The *B. tabaci*

MEAM1 Bta13961 was surrounded by non-HGT genes (Supplementary Table 2), and synteny was quite

conserved in the genomic region of the Bta13961 gene in *B. tabaci* SSA (Figure 4B), ruling out the

possibility of contamination. The Bta13961 protein shares similarities to thaumatin-like (TL) proteins

found in plants (Supplementary Table 2). It consists of a signal peptide followed by a thaumatin family

domain that covers most, if not all, of the mature peptide (Figure 4C), typical of TL proteins (De Jesús-

Pires et al. 2020). Commonly found in plants, TL proteins include pathogenesis-related proteins

involved in plant defense against pathogens (De Jesús-Pires et al. 2020). One mechanism of action of

some of these TL proteins in plant defense would be their demonstrated endo-ß-1,3-glucanase activity,

which would degrade the cell walls of pathogenic fungi (Grenier et al. 1999). TL proteins have also

been identified in animals, although no evidence of HGT has yet been demonstrated, and in fungi,

including a protein from *Lentinula edodes* with demonstrated ß-1,3-glucanase activity (Sakamoto et al.

2006) and classified as the only characterized member of the GH152 family (http://www.cazy.org/;

Drula et al. 2022).

The predicted structure of the Bta13961 protein (without the peptide signal) was obtained using

AlphaFold2 and aligned with the crystal structure of the TL protein NP24-I from tomato (Ghosh and

Chakrabarti 2008). The RMSD values for the alpha carbon atoms was 0.693 Å (for all 157 atoms),

indicating a high degree of structural similarity (Figure 5A). The REDDD motif that form the acidic

cleft responsible for the β-1,3-glucanase activity of TL proteins and that contain the two presumed

catalytic residues (De Jesús-Pires et al. 2020) were conserved in the Bta13961 structure, suggesting the

functionality of the *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta13961 protein (Figure 5A).

To investigate the substrate specificity of Bta13961, we used the same approach as for the GH17

Bta06115. After successful expression in *P. pastoris* and purification, we first demonstrated that the

enzyme was active on both β-1,3 and β-1,4 oligosaccharides using G6 or L6 as substrates (Figure 5B).

The activity was significant but in both cases, the substrates were not fully consumed, meaning that

they are not the preferred substrates. Enzyme activity was much more significant on β-1,3/β-1,4 glucans,

Bta13961 being able to cleave both mixed-linked β-glucans (barley glucan and lichenan) with similar

efficiency (Figure 5C). These results clearly indicate a different behavior of the GH152 Bta13961

compared to the GH17 Bta06115. Indeed, the 1,3/1,4 mean ratio in β-glucans did not impact enzyme

activity and the products released (most probably β-1,3/β-1,4 oligosaccharides) were much longer as

compared to the products released by Bta06115. Overall, these results indicated that the GH152

Bta13961 is a functional endo-β-1,3-1,4-glucanase able to cleave both β-1,3 and β-1,4 linkages.

Interestingly, only β-1,3-glucanase activity has been described for the sole GH152 biochemically

characterized to date (http://www.cazy.org/; Drula et al. 2022).

Two CE8 candidate pectin methylesterases were horizontally transferred from a plant donor

in B. tabaci

The *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta11221 and Bta11222 genes encode proteins with similarities to

pectin methylesterases (PMEs) found in plants (Supplementary Table 2). PMEs are enzymes of the CE8

family of CAZymes that catalyze the demethoxylation of pectin, a major component of the plant cell

wall (Pelloux et al. 2007; Jolie et al. 2010). PMEs are ubiquitous enzymes in plants, but are also found

in bacterial and fungal phytopathogens with a role in breaking down the plant cell wall to allow

infection. PMEs have also been identified in some arthropods (Pauchet et al. 2010; Evangelista et al.

2015; Antony et al. 2017; Faddeeva-Vakhrusheva et al. 2017) and in a plant parasitic nematode (Vicente

et al. 2019), and were likely horizontally acquired from bacteria.

Homologs of the *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta11221 and Bta1122 proteins were identified in *B. tabaci*

MED and SSA-ECA, but not in any organism other than plants (Supplementary Table 2 and Figure

6A). The robust monophyletic grouping of all *B. tabaci* sequences suggests horizontal acquisition from

a plant donor prior to the divergence of the three *B. tabaci* cryptic species (Supplementary Table 2 and

Figure 6A). The *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta11221 and Bta1122 genes were surrounded by genes conserved

in other arthropods and animals, which were therefore not horizontally acquired (Supplementary Table

2). Furthermore, synteny was conserved in the genomic region of the Bta11221 and Bta1122 genes in

B. tabaci SSA (Figure 6B), ruling out the possibility of contamination. The two *B. tabaci* PME genes

are consecutive in *B. tabaci* MEAM1 and SSA-ECA genomes, suggesting that the HGT event was

followed by a tandem duplication before the divergence of the two cryptic species (Figure 6B). Another

possibility is that the two genes were organized in tandem in the plant donor and were transferred in the

same HGT event. However, this is not consistent with the bootstrap-supported grouping of *B. tabaci*

PME proteins into a single monophyletic group (Figure 6A). Both *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta11221 and

Bta1122 proteins consist of a pectinesterase catalytic domain, preceded by one or two pectinesterase

inhibitory domains and, in the case of Bta11222, a signal peptide (Figure 6C). This domain organization,

in which the active part of the protein is later cleaved from the N-terminal inhibitory region, is typical

for group 2 PMEs found exclusively in plants (Pelloux et al. 2007; Jolie et al. 2010). This is consistent

with the hypothesis of an HGT event from a plant donor.

The predicted structures of the PME active part of the Bta11221 and Bta1122 proteins were

obtained using AlphaFold2 and aligned with the crystal structure of carrot PME, the first to be solved

in plants (Johansson et al. 2002). The resulting RMSD values calculated for the alpha carbon atoms

were 0.613 Å (for 285 out of 297 atoms) and 0.529 Å (for 171 out of 210 atoms), respectively, indicating

a high level of structural similarity (Supplementary Figure 3). The five key residues that were identified

in the active site of carrot PME (Johansson et al. 2002; Jolie et al. 2010) are conserved in the predicted

structure of Bta11221 and Bta11222 (Supplementary Figure 3). These observations suggest that the

Bta11221 and Bta11222 proteins are functional PMEs.

An expansin-related protein was acquired horizontally from a plant donor in B. tabaci

Expansins are enigmatic proteins that promote loosening and extension of the plant cell wall,

although they lack enzymatic activity (Cosgrove 2015). Canonical expansins are characterized by the

presence of two domains, an N-terminal six-stranded double-psi beta-barrel (DPBB), which is

structurally related to GH45, and a C-terminal CBM63. The *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta15239 gene encodes

a protein with similarities to GH45 endoglucanases (EG45-like domain-containing proteins) from plants

(Supplementary Table 2). These are expansin-related proteins that contain the N-terminal expansin-like

DPBB domain, but not the C-terminal CBM63 domain found in canonical expansins (Cosgrove 2015).

Consistently, the *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta15239 protein consists of a single DPBB domain preceded by

a signal peptide (Figure 7A). Homologs of the *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta15239 protein were identified in

the *B. tabaci* MED and SSA-ECA cryptic species, but not in any organism other than plants

(Supplementary Table 2 and Figure 7B). The *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta15239 gene was surrounded by

non-HGT genes (Supplementary Table 2), and synteny was conserved in the genomic region of the

Bta15239 gene in *B. tabaci* SSA (Figure 7C), ruling out the possibility of contamination.

Expansin-like and expansin-related proteins are present in a large number of plant pathogens

among bacteria and fungi with reported roles in plant colonization and virulence (Georgelis et al. 2015;

Cosgrove 2017). Evolutionary analyses suggest that these microbial proteins originated from multiple

horizontal gene transfers from plants as well as between microbes (Georgelis et al. 2015; Cosgrove

2017). In metazoans, expansin-like and expansin-related proteins, probably of bacterial origin, have

been described as effectors of parasitism in several plant parasitic nematodes (Danchin et al. 2010).

Expansins are thought to act by loosening the interactions between plant cell wall components to

facilitate the action of various enzymes also secreted by the nematodes (Qin et al. 2004). However,

there is no evidence of cell wall loosening activity for single domain DPBB proteins, which are likely

to have a function distinct from that of canonical expansins (Cosgrove 2015).

 Much less horizontally acquired CAZymes were found in T. vaporariorum compared to B.

tabaci

Next, we investigated whether HGT events have made similar contributions to the biology and

genome evolution of *T. vaporariorum,* another species in the Aleyrodinae subfamily in the Hemiptera

order, which is separated from *B. tabaci* by approximately 80 to 90 Myr (Misof et al. 2014). In their

study, Gilbert and Maumus investigated whether some homologs of the *B. tabaci* MEAM1 horizontally

acquired genes from plants were conserved in *T. vaporariorum* (Gilbert and Maumus 2022). However,

they did not perform a comprehensive search for horizontally acquired genes in the latter. We used AvP

to identify HGT candidates in *T. vaporariorum* and compared the results with those obtained in *B.*

tabaci. Of the 18,725 predicted proteins in *T. vaporariorum*, 182 proteins were identified as likely HGT

candidates using AvP (Table 1 and Supplementary Table 6). Of these, 75 candidates specific to

Aleyrodinae have been validated with potential donors from bacteria, fungi, or plants, representing less

than one-third of the number of validated HGT candidates for *B. tabaci*. The main difference between

the two species is in the number of HGT candidates from fungi (8 for *T. vaporariorum* compared to 88

for *B. tabaci*) or plants (5 for *T. vaporariorum* compared to 53 for *B. tabaci*) potential donors (Table 1

and Supplementary Table 6).

The 75 HGT candidates that were validated in *T. vaporariorum* correspond to at least 32 distinct

HGT events (Supplementary Table 6). Of these events, 23 showed clustering between sequences of *B.*

tabaci and *T. vaporariorum*, as determined by Orthofinder. For each of these 23 events, we combined

the groups defined by AvP for both *B. tabaci* and *T. vaporariorum*. Phylogenies were then inferred

according to the procedure described in the Material and Methods section. The sequences of *B. tabaci*

and *T. vaporariorum* formed robust monophyletic clades in 11 of the combined groups, suggesting HGT

events that occurred before the two species diverged (Supplementary Figure 4). One of these groups

includes Bta02634, classified as a member of the PL1_4 pectin lyase CAZyme family, and Tv_05105-

RA, identified as its ortholog by Orthofinder (Table 2). The origin of these genes would correspond to

an HGT event in the ancestor of Aleyrodinae, although it could not not be clearly determined from the

phylogeny whether the donor belongs to bacteria or fungi (Supplementary Figure 1).

Sequences of *B. tabaci* and *T. vaporariorum* formed a monophyletic clade in three of the

remaining 12 combined groups, albeit with lower bootstrap support values (Supplementary Table 7). In

the remaining nine combined groups, there was no monophyletic clade grouping both *B. tabaci* and *T.*

vaporariorum sequences (Supplementary Figure 5). Alternative topology tests for monophyly of

Aleyrodinae sequences proved inconclusive for seven of them (Supplementary Table 7). Therefore, it

is difficult to conclude with confidence that there is a single ancestral HGT event for each of these 11

combined groups. One of these groups involves Bta13961, classified as a member of the GH152

CAZyme family acquired from plants and demonstrated to be functional as a glucanase (see above),

and Tv_15928-RA, identified as its ortholog through Orthofinder. The two sequences shared 42.2%

identity and 53.5% similarity at the protein level. Their predicted structures were aligned with an RMSD

of 0.586 Å, indicating structural similarity (Figure 8A and Supplementary Figure 1). Despite their

similarity, sequences of GH152 of *B. tabaci* and *T. vaporariorum* were found in two different clades in

the phylogeny obtained for the combined group (Figure 8B). This may suggest that they originated from

two distinct HGT events, but the alternative topology test with a constrained topology supporting the

monophyly of Aleyrodinae sequences was not significantly less likely (Supplementary Table 7).

Interestingly, the group formed by Tv_15928-RA and two plant sequences included a sequence from *T.*

palmi, which belongs to the Thysanoptera order, an outgroup of Hemiptera (Figure 8B). This candidate

case of HGT in thrips will be further investigated in the next section.

Among the 32 HGT events in *T. vaporariorum,* all nine for which no homologs were found in

B. tabaci have a potential bacterial origin (Supplementary Table 6). Six of these HGT events involve

genes that encode proteins from the AAA-ATPase-like domain-containing protein family. As

previously mentioned, various HGT events that involve this large family of ATPases have already been

identified in *B. tabaci*, and some of them are common to *T. vaporariorum* (Supplementary Table 2).

The six HGT events that are unique to *T. vaporariorum* and that involve AAA-ATPase-like domain-

containing proteins may correspond to new, independent HGT events of other members of this protein

family. Among the three other HGT events unique to *T. vaporariorum*, one concerns the Tv_04079-RA

gene, which codes for a CAZyme belonging to the α-glucosidase GH13 family (Supplementary Table

6). This *T. vaporariorum*-specific CAZyme is not related to the two *B. tabaci* GH13 CAZymes of the

subfamily 17, which have been shown to catalyze the detoxification of glucosinolates produced by

plants against herbivores (Malka et al. 2020), but were not identified as HGT candidates. Unfortunately,

the sequence of the *T. vaporariorum* GH13 CAZyme acquired horizontally from bacteria is only partial

and it is not known to which subfamily it belongs. Overall, only three of the 363 predicted *T. vaporariorum*

CAZymes (Supplementary Table 5), one PL1_4, one GH152 and one GH13, would have been acquired by

HGT, compared to 25 (out of 433) in *B. tabaci* (Supplementary Tables 2 and 5). This is consistent with the

GO analysis, which showed no significant enrichment of GO terms related to carbohydrate metabolism and

plant cell wall degradation among HGT candidates for *T. vaporariorum* (Supplementary Table 7).

Few HGT events in piercing-sucking insects other than Aleyrodinae, but involving CAZymes

with possible activity on plant carbohydrates

Since our results indicate that a member of the GH152 family has been acquired from plants

not only in the Aleyrodinae *B. tabaci* and *T. vaporariorum*, but also in *T. palmi* (see above), we used

the AvP-based approach to identify potential HGT candidates in *T. palmi* and its related species *F.*

occidentalis. Both species are cell-content feeding members of the Thripinae subfamily in the

Thysanoptera order, which is the closest outgroup to Hemiptera, although the divergence between these

two orders probably occurred more than 300 Myr ago (Misof et al. 2014). The number of HGT

candidates specific to Thysanoptera found using AvP was low in *F. occidentalis* and *T. palmi* compared

to *B. tabaci* and *T. vaporariorum* (Table 1). Only 23 candidates were validated for *F. occidentalis* and

only 20 for *T. palmi*. The validated HGT candidates correspond to at least eight HGT events in both *F.*

occidentalis and *T. palmi*, seven of which are shared by both species (Supplementary Tables 8 and 9).

Among the eight HGT events in *F. occidentalis*, we found the three that have been described in the

literature with bacteria as potential donors (Rotenberg et al. 2020), further suggesting that our approach

is reliable.

The analysis of overrepresented GO terms among HGT candidates in *F. occidentalis* and *T.*

palmi showed a significant enrichment in GO terms related to carbohydrate metabolism and plant cell

wall degradation (Supplementary Table 10). These GO terms include hydrolase activity, hydrolyzing

O-glycosyl compounds (GO:0004553), cellulase activity (GO:0008810), or carbohydrate metabolic

process (GO:0005975). Accordingly, five out of eight HGT events in *F. occidentalis* and six out of

eight in *T. palmi* correspond to CAZymes that are predicted to originate from bacteria, fungi, and plants

(Table 3, Supplementary Table 5 and Supplementary Figure 5).

One of these HGT events corresponding to CAZymes is unique to *T. palmi* and involves a

protein of plant origin that contains four carbohydrate-binding modules of the CBM43 family but no

associated catalytic module, suggesting that the protein does not directly digest carbohydrates (Table 3

and Supplementary Figure 6). The other HGT events corresponding to CAZymes are shared by the two

Thripinae species and concern the GH152 family, the GH32 family, subfamily 8 of the GH5 family

(GH5_8), the GH45 family, and subfamily 4 of the PL1 family (PL1_4) (Table 3 and Supplementary

Tables 8 and 9).

Our results confirm that members of the GH152 family of endoglucanases have been acquired

from plants not only in the Aleyrodinae *B. tabaci* and *F. occidentalis* (see above), but also in the

Thripinae *T. palmi* and *F. occidentalis* (Table 3). In the phylogeny performed on the AvP-defined

Thripinae group, the unique sequence found in *F. occidentalis* and the two sequences found in *T. palmi*

form a highly-supported monophyletic group, suggesting that they originated from a single HGT event

(Supplementary Figure 6). In the phylogeny performed after combining the AvP-defined Aleyrodinae

and Thripinae groups, the Aleyrodinae and Thripinae sequences were not clearly separated into distinct

clades (Supplementary Figure 6). In addition, the alternative topology constraining the grouping of

Aleyrodinae and Thripinae sequences into a single clade was not significantly less likely. Thus, the

hypothesis of a single HGT event in the common ancestor of both Aleyrodinae and Thripinae, rather

than two independent HGT events, could not be rejected on the basis of the phylogeny alone. However,

the hypothesis of a single HGT event would require numerous subsequent loss events. Indeed, the last

common ancestor of both Hemiptera and Thysanoptera dates back more than 300 Myr (Misof et al.

2014), and no GH152 is found in the numerous other species from these orders (particularly Hemiptera)

represented at the sequence level in public libraries. Our results thus suggest a convergent acquisition

of GH152 family glucanases in the Aleyrodinae *B. tabaci* and *T. vaporariorum* on the one hand, and

the Thripinae *F. occidentalis* and *T. palmi* on the other.

Two sequences, which are predicted to have a bacterial origin and are found in both *F.*

occidentalis and *T. palmi,* belong to the GH32 family. This family includes several horizontally-

acquired genes in various metazoans that are involved in plant carbohydrate assimilation, including the

metabolism of host-derived sucrose (Nakabachi 2015; Danchin et al. 2016; Wybouw et al. 2016; Dai et

al. 2021). The four *F. occidentalis* and *T. palmi* sequences did not form a monophyletic group,

suggesting that they resulted from two distinct HGT events (Supplementary Figure 6). However, the

alternative topology test using a constrained topology supporting the monophyly of these four sequences

was not significantly less likely, and the hypothesis of a single event cannot be rejected. It is worth

noting that members of the GH32 family have also been identified as HGT candidates in *B. tabaci* (see

above). However, they form a completely distinct clade in a phylogeny performed after combining the

AvP-defined *B. tabaci* and Thripinae groups (Supplementary Figure 6), with different bacteria as donors

for *B. tabaci* (phylum Pseudomonodata) and for the Thripinae (phylum Actinomycetota). In addition,

the alternative topology constraining all Thripinae and *B. tabaci* sequences into one clade was

significantly less likely (Supplementary Figure 6). This, together with the absence of homologous

sequences in other members of the Thysanoptera and Hemiptera, suggests two independent and

convergent acquisition events.

Three sequences found in *F. occidentalis* and two in *T. palmi*, all predicted to originate from

bacteria, belong to the GH5_8 family of endomannanases (Table 3). All five sequences form a highly-

supported monophyletic group, indicating that they originated from a single HGT event (Supplementary

Figure 6). GH5_8 enzymes, which degrade mannan, have reportedly been acquired by several other

arthropods through HGT, possibly playing a role in plant cell wall degradation (Acuña et al. 2012; Vega

et al. 2015; Shin et al. 2021).

Three sequences found in *F. occidentalis* and two in *T. palmi*, all predicted to originate from

fungi, belong to the G45 family of endoglucanases capable of hydrolyzing cellulose (Table 3). All five

sequences constitute a monophyletic group supported by bootstrap, suggesting a single HGT event

origin (Supplementary Figure 6). Sequences from other arthropods, as well as from nematodes and

rotifers, appear in the phylogeny. Although they also share similarities with GH45 proteins from fungi,

they form distinct clades in the phylogeny (Supplementary Figure 6). This was not unexpected, as it has

been shown that GH45 enzymes, with cellulase activity characterized in some cases, were probably

acquired by HGT independently in various phytophagous and phytoparasitic organisms (Palomares-

Rius et al. 2014; Szydlowski et al. 2015; Busch et al. 2019).

The last HGT event corresponding to a CAZyme and shared by the two Thripinae species

concerns 10 sequences found in *F. occidentalis* and nine in *T. palmi* belonging to the PL1_4 family of

pectin lyases (Table 3). All sequences form a highly-supported monophyletic group, indicating that they

originated from a single HGT event, although we could not clearly determine from the phylogeny

whether the donor belonged to bacteria or fungi (Supplementary Figure 6). It is worth noting that a

member of this family has been identified as an HGT candidate in *B. tabaci* and *T. vaporariorum* (see

above), and that sequences from two other insects, belonging to Hemiptera and Hymenoptera, are found

in the phylogeny (Supplementary Figure 6). In the phylogeny performed after combining the AvP-

defined Aleyrodinae and Thripinae groups, the Hemiptera and Thysanoptera sequences were not

separated into distinct clades, in contrast to the Hymenoptera sequences (Supplementary Figure 6). The

alternative topology, which constrains all metazoan sequences to be grouped in a single clade, was not

significantly less likely (Supplementary Figure 1). The hypothesis of a single ancestral HGT event could

therefore not be rejected, although it would require numerous subsequent loss events. Indeed, the last

common ancestor of Hemiptera, Hymenoptera, and Thysanoptera dates back approximately to 360 Myr

(Misof et al. 2014), and most of the descendant species lack this gene while being represented at the

sequence level in public libraries.

Conclusion

In the present study, we used the AvP software package (Koutsovoulos et al. 2022) followed by

manual validation to perform a comprehensive and accurate detection of HGT candidates from non-

metazoan donors in the related phloem-feeding insects *B. tabaci* MEAM1 and *T. vaporariorum*,

members of the subfamily Aleyrodinae of the order Hemiptera. With a total of 255 HGT candidates

(corresponding to 136 distinct HGT events), our results confirm findings from previous studies

indicating that a large number of genes have been acquired by HGT from bacterial, fungal, but also

plant donors in *B. tabaci* (Chen et al. 2016; Gilbert and Maumus 2022; Li et al. 2022). In contrast, the

number of HGT candidates in the related species *T. vaporariorum* was substantially lower, with 75

HGT candidates corresponding to a total of 32 HGT events, of which only three represented gene

acquisition from plants (compared to 27 for *B. tabaci*). The majority of HGT events found in *T.*

vaporariorum appear to have occurred in the common ancestor of the Aleyrodinae, whereas the majority

of HGT events found in *B. tabaci* MEAM1, including the plant-acquired BtPMaT1 gene involved in

detoxification of plant toxins (Xia et al. 2021), are more recent and occurred in the common ancestor

of the three cryptic species of *B. tabaci*. An even lower number of HGT candidates was obtained from

a similar automated HGT detection and manual validation analysis performed on the plant cell-feeding

insects, *F. occidentalis* (23 HGT candidates corresponding to eight HGT events) and *T. palmi* (20 HGT

candidates corresponding to eight HGT events), members of the subfamily Thripinae of the order

Thysanoptera. Most of the HGT events are shared between *F. occidentalis* and *T. palmi* and probably

occurred in the common ancestor of the Thripinae, in contrast to the Aleyrodinae, for which most of the

HGT events are unique to *B. tabaci*. The much higher number of HGT candidates in *B. tabaci* compared

to the three other species analyzed is consistent with the results of a recent study of 218 insect species,

in which *B. tabaci* had by far the highest number of HGT-acquired genes (Li et al. 2022). An open

question would be to determine the reasons why the number of HGT-acquired genes, especially from

plants, is so high in *B. tabaci* compared to *T. vaporariorum*, but also to other piercing-sucking insect

species.

In this study we focused on the horizontal acquisition of CAZymes, given their significance in

phytophagous arthropods (Kirsch et al. 2014; Nakabachi 2015; Wybouw et al. 2016; Husnik and

McCutcheon 2018). A total of 25 HGT-acquired CAZymes (corresponding to 14 HGT events) were

identified for *B. tabaci*, with potential roles including plant cell wall degradation to facilitate stylet

penetration into a phloem sieve element or assimilation of carbohydrates found in phloem. In contrast,

only three CAZymes acquired by HGT were found in the related *T. vaporariorum*, one of which would

correspond to a HGT event unique to this species. This suggests that the HGT acquisition of CAZymes

has had a less significant impact on the biology of *T. vaporariorum*, compared to *B. tabaci*. The 14

HGT events corresponding to CAZymes identified for *B. tabaci* involved not only bacteria or fungi as

potential donors, as is typically described, but also plants for as many as seven of them. A functional

analysis was conducted on two of the plant-acquired *B. tabaci* CAZymes, belonging to the GH17 and

GH152 families. Both CAZymes were found to be functional glucanases, exhibiting different activities.

The GH17 enzyme exhibited ß-1,3-glucanase activity, while the GH152 enzyme exhibited ß-1,3-1,4-

glucanase activity, capable of cleaving both β-1,3 and β-1,4 linkages. These findings suggest that the

GH17 and GH152 *B. tabaci* CAZymes may have distinct functional roles, given their different substrate

specificities. One of these enzymes may be involved in counteracting one of the mechanisms by which

plants defend themselves against phloem-feeding insects. This involves the occlusion of the punctured

sieve element by the deposition of callose, which is composed of β-1,3-glucan (Silva-Sanzana et al.

2020; Walker 2022).

A member of the GH152 family was also identified as having been acquired from plants in *T.*

vaporariorum, suggesting a unique HGT event in the ancestor of the Aleyrodinae. However, our results

do not exclude the possibility that it originated from a distinct HGT event. It is noteworthy that a HGT-

acquired GH152 CAZyme with a plant as a potential donor was identified as well in the Thripinae *F.*

occidentalis and *T. palmi*. This suggests a convergent acquisition of a GH152 CAZyme in the unrelated

Aleyrodinae and Thripinae, indicating the potential importance of this enzyme for piercing-sucking

insects. Although the number of HGT events identified for *F. occidentalis* and *T. palmi* was relatively

low compared to the Aleyrodinae, the majority of them corresponded to the acquisition of CAZymes,

several of which had predicted functions important in the plant-insect interaction. This indicates that

HGT-acquired CAZymes have biological significance not only for Aleyrodinae, and particularly *B.*

tabaci, but also for other piercing-sucking insects, including the Thripinae *F. occidentalis* and *T. palmi*.

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Data and resource availability

Phylogenetic trees generated by IQ-TREE for validated HGT candidates from potential bacterial,

fungal, or viridiplantae donors for *B. tabaci*, *T. vaporariorum*, *F. occidentalis*, and *T. palmi* are available

as supplementary datasets online at Data INRAE: https://doi.org/10.57745/6GC9WA

Author contributions

Conceived and designed the study: DC, JGB, EGJD

Performed experiments: DC, MH, MB, SG, GDK

Analyzed the data: DC, ED, MB, SG, JGB, EGJD

Contributed analysis tools: CB

Wrote the manuscript: DC, EGJD, with contribution from JGB

All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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1052   **Figures**

1053   **Figure 1.** Comparison of the number of HGT candidates found for *B. tabaci* MEAM1 with bacteria

1054   (A), fungi (B) or plant (C) as donors with data from the literature.

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Figure 2. Analysis of the GH17 family proteins acquired by HGT in *B. tabaci*. (A) Phylogenetic tree

with *B. tabaci* MEAM1, MED and SSA sequences shown in black. Green branches represent plant

sequences. Gray circles indicate nodes with support values greater than or equal to 80% and 95% for

SH-aLRT and UFboot, respectively. (B) Domain organization of the *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta06115 and

Bta06118 proteins. (C) Comparison of the two catalytic glutamate residues (red) and specific residues

that determine substrate specificity (yellow) in the catalytic cleft between the crystal structures of barley

endo-ß-1,3-glucanase and endo-ß-1,3-1,4-glucanase and the predicted structures of *B. tabaci* MEAM1

Bta06115 and Bta06118 proteins.

A

B

C

1069 **Figure 3.** Functional analysis of the GH17 family protein Bta06115 acquired by HGT in *B. tabaci*. The

1070 graphs show HPAEC-PAD chromatograms of reaction products released by the GH17 Bta06115 from

1071 cellohexaose (G6) and laminarihexaose (L6) (A) and from barley glucan and lichenan (B).

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1073 A

B

Figure 4. Analysis of the GH152 family protein Bta13961 acquired by HGT in *B. tabaci*. (A)

Phylogenetic tree with *B. tabaci* MEAM1, MED and SSA sequences shown in black. Green branches

represent plant sequences. Gray circles indicate nodes with support values greater than or equal to 80%

and 95% for SH-aLRT and UFboot, respectively. (B) Comparative map of the genomic region of the

gene encoding the GH152 family protein in *B. tabaci* MEAM1 (Bta13961) and SSA (Ssa10394) Each

rectangle represents a *B. tabaci* gene. (C) Domain organization of the *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta13961

protein.

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Figure 5. Structural and functional analysis of the GH152 family protein Bta13961 acquired by HGT

in *B. tabaci*. (A) Comparison of the crystal structure of tomato TL protein NP24-I (green) with the

predicted structure of *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta13961 (cyan). Amino acids of the REDDD motif are

colored red for the two putative catalytic residues and yellow for the other three. (B and C) HPAEC-

PAD chromatograms of reaction products released by the GH152 Bta13961 from cellohexaose (G6)

and laminarihexaose (L6) (B) and from barley glucan and lichenan (C).

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Figure 6. Analysis of the pectin methylesterases acquired by HGT in *B. tabaci*. (A) Phylogenetic tree

with *B. tabaci* MEAM1, MED and SSA sequences shown in black. Green branches represent plant

sequences. Gray circles indicate nodes with support values greater than or equal to 80% and 95% for

SH-aLRT and UFboot, respectively. (B) Domain organization of the *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta11221 and

Bta11222 proteins. (C) Comparative map of the genomic region of the gene encoding the pectin

methylesterases in *B. tabaci* MEAM1 (Bta11221 and Bta11222) and SSA (Ssa12987 and Ssa12988).

Each rectangle represents a *B. tabaci* gene.

A

B

C

Figure 7. Analysis of the expansin-related EG45 domain-containing protein acquired by HGT in *B.*

tabaci. (A) Domain organization of the *B. tabaci* MEAM1 Bta15239 protein. (B) Phylogenetic tree with

B. tabaci MEAM1, MED and SSA sequences shown in black. Green branches represent plant

sequences. Gray circles indicate nodes with support values greater than or equal to 80% and 95% for

SH-aLRT and UFboot, respectively. (C) Comparative map of the genomic region of the gene encoding

the expansin-related EG45 domain-containing protein in *B. tabaci* MEAM1 (Bta15239) and SSA

(Ssa02751). Each rectangle represents a *B. tabaci* gene.

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Figure 8. Analysis of the GH152 family protein acquired by HGT in *B. tabaci* and *T. vaporariorum*.

(A) Predicted structure of *T. vaporariorum* Tv_15928-RA colored in blue. Amino acids of the REDDD

motif are colored red for the two putative catalytic residues and yellow for the other three. (B)

Phylogenetic tree showing *B. tabaci* and *T. vaporariorum* sequences in black. Green branches represent

plant sequences, and the red branch corresponds to a Metazoan sequence (*T. palmi* of the Thysanoptera

order, accession number XP_034247376.1). Gray circles indicate nodes with support values greater

than or equal to 80% and 95% for SH-aLRT and UFboot, respectively.

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1115 **Tables**

1116 **Table 1.** Overall comparison of HGT candidate search results

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	Bemisia tabaci MEAM1	*Trialeurodes vaporariorum*	*Frankliniella occidentalis*	*Thrips palmi*
Number of protein-coding genes	15,662	18,275	15,678	14,332
Number of predicted proteins with AHS > 0	**686**	**910**	**281**	**233**
Number of HGT candidates detected by AvP	**357**	**182**	**50**	**57**
- Bacteria	147	87	15	6
- Fungi	93	10	10	29
- Viridiplantae	78	15	7	9
- Other	39	70	18	13
Number of validated HGT candidates	**255**	**75**	**23**	**20**
- Bacteria	113	61	10	6
- Fungi	88	8	3	2
- Viridiplantae	53	5	1	3
- Complex: Bacteria or Fungi	1	1	10	9

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1122 **Table 2.** Horizontally acquired CAZymes in *B. tabaci* and *T. vaporariorum.*

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CAZy		Origin of donor sequences	*B. tabaci*		*T. vaporariorum*	
Description	Definition		HGT event	Sequence name	HGT event	Sequence name
GH32	Glycoside Hydrolase Family 32 protein	Bacteria	BtaB53	Bta00773 Bta04549	-	-
CBM50	Carbohydrate-Binding Module Family 50	Bacteria	BtaB62	Bta15714	-	-
GH13	Glycoside Hydrolase Family 13 protein	Bacteria	-	-	TvaB10	Tv_04079-RA
GH49	Glycoside Hydrolase Family 49 protein	Fungi	BtaF06	Bta02250	-	-
GH71	Glycoside Hydrolase Family 71 protein	Fungi	BtaF15	Bta02866	-	-
CBM32-AA5_2	Carbohydrate-Binding Module Family 32 / Galactose oxidase	Fungi	BtaF18	Bta01072 Bta03567 Bta05090 Bta05091 Bta05092 Bta05093 Bta07691 Bta09066 Bta12453	-	-
GH30_3	Glycoside Hydrolase Family 30	Fungi	BtaF20	Bta02658	-	-
GH152	Glycoside Hydrolase Family 152 protein	Viridiplantae	BtaV01	Bta13961	TvaV01	Tv_15928-RA
GT10	Glycosyltransferase Family 10 protein	Viridiplantae	BtaV10	Bta08851	-	-
GH17	Glycoside Hydrolase Family 17 protein	Viridiplantae	BtaV12	Bta06115 Bta06118	-	-
EXPN	Distantly related to plant expansins	Viridiplantae	BtaV13	Bta15239	-	-
CE8	Carbohydrate Esterase Family 8 protein	Viridiplantae	BtaV24	Bta11221 Bta11222	-	-
GT61	Glycosyltransferase Family 61 protein	Viridiplantae	BtaV25	Bta14885	-	-
GT17	Glycosyltransferase Family 17 protein	Viridiplantae	BtaV27	Bta15659	-	-

| PL1_4 | Polysaccharide Lyase Family 1 protein | Complex: Bacteria or Fungi | BtaC01 | Bta02634 | TvaC01 | Tv_05105-RA |

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1125   **Table 3.** Horizontally acquired CAZymes in *F. occidentalis* and *T. palmi.*

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CAZy		Origin of donor sequences	*F. occidentalis*		*T. palmi*	
Description	**Definition**		**HGT event**	**Sequence accession**	**HGT event**	**Sequence accession**
GH32	Glycoside Hydrolase Family 32 protein	Bacteria	FocB01	XP_026273122 XP_026287851	TpaB01	XP_034233420 XP_034232383
GH5_8	Glycoside Hydrolase Family 5 protein	Bacteria	FocB02	XP_026276666 XP_026285289 XP_026285291	TpaB02	XP_034242052 XP_034242578
GH45	Glycoside Hydrolase Family 45 protein	Fungi	FocF01	XP_026287984 XP_026289264 XP_026291890	TpaF01	XP_034236588 XP_034233350
GH152	Glycoside Hydrolase Family 152 protein	Viridiplantae	FocV01	XP_026290383	TpaV01	XP_034247376 XP_034247673
CBM43-CBM43-CBM43-CBM43	Carbohydrate-Binding Module Family 43 protein	Viridiplantae	-	-	TpaV02	XP_034245819
PL1_4	Polysaccharide Lyase Family 1 protein	Complex: Bacteria or Fungi	FocC01	XP_026274115 XP_026279513 XP_026279528 XP_026280402 XP_026285066 XP_026285067 XP_026285883 XP_026289641 XP_026292396 XP_026292397	TpaC01	XP_034235640 XP_034237191 XP_034239440 XP_034241038 XP_034248354 XP_034248552 XP_034253769 XP_034253771 XP_034254938

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