TITLE

Modeling and experimental determination of infection bottleneck and within-host dynamics of a soil-borne bacterial plant pathogen.

AUTHORS

Gaofei Jiang[1, 2, #], Rémi Peyraud[2, #], Philippe Remigi[3], Alice Guidot[2], Wei Ding[1], Stéphane Genin[2] and Nemo Peeters[2*]

ORCIDs:

GJ: 0000-0002-5331-739X

RP: 0000-0002-7580-042X

PR: 0000-0001-9023-3788

AG: 0000-0001-5282-4157

WD: 0000-0001-8536-5233

SG: 0000-0003-2498-2400

NP: 0000-0002-1802-0769

AUTHOR AFFILIATION

1-Laboratory of Natural Products Pesticide, College of Plant Protection, Southwest University, Chongqing, China.

2-LIPM, Université de Toulouse, INRA, CNRS, Castanet-Tolosan, France

3-New Zealand Institute for Advanced Study, Massey University, Auckland, New Zealand.

Tel: (33) 5 61 28 55 92; Fax: (33) 5 61 28 54 61.

# Contributed equally to this work

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR

Nemo.Peeters@toulouse.inra.fr

KEYWORDS

Infection founding population, bottleneck, population dynamics; modelling; Tomato; *Ralstonia solanacearum* species complex; bacterial wilt; host-microbe interaction

ABSTRACT (250 words)

The soil is known to be a very microbe-rich environement. Plant roots are surrounded by a complex

microbiota among which, in warm climates, the pathogenic bacteria belonging to the *Ralstonia sp.*

species complex. We used a combination of mathematical modelling and experimental plant

infection methods, mimicking the natural conditions, to define the key parameters describing the

infection, colonization and wilting of the host plant ("bacterial wilt" disease). Importantly, our model

takes into account the possibility for the orthologous re-infection of already infected plants. We

showed that it is the case in our experimental setup and likely to also happen *in natura*. We were

able to model and experimentaly measure the plant infection bottleneck, under these non-forced

infection conditions. We then quantified to what extend the plant natural barriers can restrict (up to

50 times) this bottleneck size. We also measured the importance of the bacterial main virulence

determinants (type III effectors) to allowing infection, as there is a reduction of the bottleneck by 70

times when the type III arsenal is absent. We further validated the model by predicting a strain's

caracteristics using only a few experimentally determined parameters. Finally the analysis of the

global colonization dynamics allowed an accurate assessment of the *in planta* bacterial load

triggering disease.

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT (120 words)

Animals and plants have a complex cohabiting microbiota. These microbes can be either beneficial or

deleterious to the host. We have modeled and experimentally measured the intimate interaction

between a plant host (tomato) and a pathogenic, soil-associated bacteria belonging to the *Ralstonia*

sp. species complex. We were able to evaluate how many bacteria are at the origin of the infection

and determine how the plant and the bacteria can impact on this bottleneck. Further within-host

bacterial dynamics analysis allowed to measure at what infection stage a plant would become

symptomatic. Since our experimental condition allows natural infection, as well as re-infection of

already infected plants, our global infection model should prove faithfull to the *in natura* conditions.

INTRODUCTION

As sessile organisms, plants can't extract themselves from their environment. Plant's natural

openings (like stomata, hydathodes and root permeability) are required for the gaz and solute

exchange between the organism and its nutrient-providing environments (air, water and soil). At the

same time, these environments are populated by a diverse microbiota, representing a constant

source of plant inoculum of beneficial, commensal but also pathogenic microbes. Roots are

particularly exposed as soil is known to be the most microbe-rich environment (1).

Not all pathogenic microbes present in a given environment will lead to a successfull plant

infection. Indeed infection and further colonization is dependent on the pathogen (*e.g.* virulence

arsenal), the host (*e.g.* developmental and immunity traits) and the environmental conditions (*e.g.*

temperature, hygrometry), as well as on the interactions between these parameters. These

constraints that sharply limit the infecting population size create bottlenecks that will drastically

influence population dynamics and the evolution of plant pathogens (2). Indeed, the bacterial

genotypes that found the infecting population in the host plant (i.e. the founders) will determine the

genetic makeup of subsequent generations within the host and also of future infections. A reduction

in genetic variability is likely to create a founder effect within the post-bottleneck population (2).

Moreover, plants are in constant interaction with the microbiota community, source of the pathogen

population in their environment. This is especially true for plant roots, in close contact with the

abundant soil microbiota, thus likely to face re-infections (*i.e.* homologous microbial infection) or

superinfection (heterologous microbial infection) (3).

Infection bottlenecks have been evaluated by different means in several host-microbe

systems. The methodologies used range from the analysis post-infection of a few marked quasi-

species (4, 5), several wild-type isogenic tagged strains or WITS (6), or large sequence tag-based

barcoded population (7). Increasing the number of tags is particularly suited for animal infection

systems, as fewer individuals are needed. None of these studies, aiming at quantifying infection

lbottlenecks, actually use natural infection routes by exposing the individual hosts to an infectious

microbiota. Another layer of complexity comes from the dynamics of bacterial populations within the

host. A global, quantitative analysis of the series of events occurring from infection to colonization

and ideally to dissemination is currently lacking for most host-microbial pathogens systems (3). The

exact assesment of all these parameters and their interactions should allow to identify the key

parameters of an infection and understand their influence on population structure of pathogenic

agents (8). Furthermore the botteleck prediction and experimental determination was performed

under non-forced, natural infection condition, including the possibility of subsequent re-infection.

Here, we quantified specific and key parameters of a plant pathogenic interaction using a

disease modeling approach and then, predict and experimental measured the size of the infection

bottleneck (or number of founders) of the pathogen. This work was conducted on the model

bacterial soil-borne plant pathogen *Ralstonia sp.* to understand the global parameters of plant

infection and colonization by a soil-borne pathogen **(9)**. This bacterium infect its hosts through the

roots and furthermore it is possible to complete its full life cycle in a reasonable amount of time:

from a soil inoculation mimicking a natural infection to complete wilting and decay of the host plant

(tomato) takes less than 2 weeks. In this work, we relied on this simple infection procedure followed

by disease scoring and bacterial load measurements to model the whole life cycle of the pathogen.

To our knowledge, our study is the first that provides a global modeling of the within-host population

dynamics for a plant bacterial pathogen. Furthermore the bottleneck prediction and experimental

determination was performed under non-forced, natural infection condition, including the possibility

of subsequent re-infection.

RESULTS

Infection process modeling reveals multiple factors shaping the infection bottleneck size.

The life cycle of pathogenic *Ralstonia sp.* in host plant can be divided in five subsequent steps (Fig. 1):

1) root invasion, 2) passage through the root cortex, 3) proliferation within the xylem vessels, 4) a

phenotypic switch, inducing exopolysaccharide (EPS) production, and 5) wilting of aerial organs

leading to the killing of the plant and allowing pathogen transmission to the soil. In order to identify

how those steps influence the infection founders (F) upon a prolonged exposure of the plant to the

pathogen (allowing susequent re-infection events (3)), we designed a mathematical model that

reproduces the bacterial population (B) dynamics upon these 5 steps (See SI Appendix, Method S1,

for the details of this model). We investigated the impact of the model parameters on the infection

bottleneck size of *Ralstonia pseudosolanacearum* strain GMI1000. Five of these parameters lead to a

reduction of the amount of founders when their value increased. These parameters are: i) the plant-

pathogen association constant (K, Fig. 2A), ii) the reduction of the maximum entry flow over time (z,

Fig. 2C), iii) the growth rate in xylem (μ, Fig. 2D), iv) the quorum sensing threshold (Q, Fig. 2E), and v)

the steepness of plant wilting response to EPS concentration (α, Fig. 2F).

Overall, the number of founders is determined by a trade-off between bacterial entry flow

into the roots (controlled by K, V_{fmax} and z) and the wilting kinetics (controlled by μ, Q and α). For K

and z the decrease of the number of founders is due to a reduction of an effective entry flow of cells.

On the other hand increasing parameters μ, Q and α, leads to a delayed transmission phase and thus

reducing the amount of bacteria entering from subsequent re-infections. However, the maximum

number of successful founders can dramatically increase the final founder flow value (V_{fmax}, Fig. 2B).

Interestingly, this last parameter represents the strength of the plant bottlenecks, *i.e.* the plant

barrier and the immune system clearance. Hence, we identified that the strength of these two

blottlenecks can represent the highest sources of founders' variability even if the within-host

population dynamics also plays a role.

Experimental quantification of key parameters of the tomato infection by *Ralstonia*

***pseudosolanacearum* strain GMI1000**

We sought to experimentally determine the values of the key parameters mentioned above in order

to quantitatively predict the size of the infection bottleneck. We hypothesized that plants could be

re-infected by the soil-inoculated pathogen. To test this in tomato, we performed non-simultaneous

inoculations with two equally virulent strains (SI Appendix, Fig. S1A) of *R. pseudosolanacearum*, the

wild type strain GMI1000 and the gentamicin-resistant derivative GRS540 (SI Appendix, Fig. S2A).

Tomato plants were soil-inoculated with GMI1000 and re-infected with GRS540 at 1, 8, 23 and 48

hours after the first inoculation (hours post-infection or hpi). Check the presence of GRS540 in the

bacterial load at 5 dpi showed that 60% of the plants had been re-infected when the second

inoculation occurred at 23 hpi. Only few re-infections were detected at 48 hpi. Hence, the capacity of

subsequent infection decreased over time at a rate of 2 ± 0.1 % h^{-1} (Fig. 3A).

Next, the median infection dose (MID) of *R. pseudosolanacearum* was quantified to evaluate

the infectivity of *R. pseudosolanacearum* in tomato (Fig. 3B) using the method of Reed and Muench

(10). The MID corresponds to the bacterial inoculums that trigger disease for, at least 50%, of the

inoculated plants (SI Appendix, Fig. S3). The MID gradually declined until 10 dpi to an asymptotic

value of $5.9 \cdot 10^6$ cells (Fig. 3B). To ensure that the MID is a feature of the soil-root interface, we

performed a similar assay but using stem injection to bypass the roots (SI Appendix, Fig. S4). Here,

the MID_{stem} was only $4.1 \ 10^3$ bacteria at 5 dpi (SI Appendix, Fig. S4D).

In order to evaluate bacterial growth rate in the stem, the bacterial load in infected plants

was quantified at different times following root infection (Fig. 4A). Fitting data points between days 2

and 5 yielded an exponential growth rate of 0.196 $h^{-1} \pm 0.039$ ($R^2 = 0.42$) (SI Appendix, Fig. 5B). The

weakness of the correlation coefficients results from the intrinsic variability of the timing of the first

infection associated with soil inoculations procedures. In order to address this, the same experiment

was repeated using a stem inoculation procedure. We found a growth rate at 0.233 ± 0.012 h^{-1} ($R^2 =$

0.928 ± 0.024) (Fig. 4B), which is in the range of the *in vitro* growth rate in minimal medium: 0.253 h^{-1}

± 0.034 ($R^2 = 0.97 \pm 0.02$) (SI Appendix, Fig. S5A).

During the above experiment (Fig. 4A), the disease index (DI) of each plant was also recorded.

This DI scoring uses a 0 to 4 scale representing each a quartile of total plant leaf wilting; from 25%

leaves wilted (DI = 1), to 100%, or complete wilting (DI = 4). Symptomatic plants (DI > 0) have a

bacterial load ranging from 10^8 cfu·$g_{(FW)}^{-1}$ to 10^{11} cfu·$g_{(FW)}^{-1}$ (Fig. 5A), with the notable exception of a

few dried-out plants that had reached DI = 4, several days before bacterial load assessment (SI

Appendix Fig. S6, S7). The dataset was used to identify the *in planta* bacterial threshold triggering

plant symptoms. We used a two class classifier, predicting wilting onset (DI > 0) or not if the bacterial

load exceed a threshold (q) and compared the predictor performance in experimental value for

various threshold levels. The Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC) (11), which is a measure of the

quality of a predictor, was used to find the best threshold value. A maximum MCC value of 0.896 was

obtained (SI Appendix, Fig. S8) for a bacterial threshold of $6.10^7 \pm 0.97.10^7$ cfu·$g_{(FW)}^{-1}$.

We further exploited this large data set of more than 500 individual infected plants scored

for bacterial load and symptoms to extrapolate the wilting time response to the EPS production in

tomato plants. For this purpose, all wilting kinetics of diseased individuals were synchronised to the

first day when wilting symptoms were observed (Fig. 5B). The steepness, α, of the fitted wilting time

response curve was: 0.612 ± 0.012. Then, we determined using the equation 4 the *in planta* EPS

concentration from the known flux of EPS production, V_{EPS}, of *R. pseudosolanacearum* (Peyraud *et al.*

submitted) and the measured bacterial load and growth rate. This EPS concentration over time was

used to assign the scalling factor, β = 2.31, to obtain the wilting dose response curve to the EPS

concentration.

Finally, we determined the reduction of the proliferation, μ^-, due to the collapse of the host

tissues at late infection. From measured data of advanced wilting symptoms and bacterial load we

fitted a value of 0.25 h^{-1}.

Prediction and experimental measurement of the infection bottleneck size for *Ralstonia*

***pseudosolanacearum* strain GMI1000**

The above experimentally defined parameters, namely K = $5.9 \cdot 10^6$, z = 0.02, μ = 0.23,

q = 6.10^7, α = 2.31, β = 0.612 and μ^- = 0.25, were used as input in the mathematical model in order to

predict the size of the infection bottleneck for *R. pseudosolanacearum* strain. First we estimated the

maximum effective entry flow of founders, V_{fmax}, from fitting the model prediction to experimental

wilting onset data (extracted from Fig. 4A data). We found V_{fmax} to be in the range of 5 to 22 cells·h^{-1}.

The model predicts that the actual number of founders at 7 dpi should be in the range of 90 to 476

for an innoculum at 5.10^7 cell·ml^{-1}.

We then experimentally determined the size of the infection bottleneck, i.e. the number of

founders (N_i) in tomato using a simple statistical method based on the co-infection of GMI1000

mixed with minute fractions (from 1% to less than 0,1%) of the gentamycin-marked strain GRS540.

Importantly, both strains were shown to be of equal fitness *in planta* (SI Appendix, Fig. S1). The

probability of an infected plant to also contain the marked strain is directely correlated with the

proportion of the marked strain in the original inoculum ($p < 1\%$, see Materials and methods) and the

size (N_i) of the infection bottleneck. Sets of 32 plants were inoculated with a given GMI1000/GRS540

ratio (p). The resulting proportion of plants infected by GRS540 was then used to generate a single

estimation of N_i through a probabilistic analysis (see M&M and SI Appendix, Fig. S9). After extensive,

60 independent inoculations of sets of 32 plants, the median of N_i was estimated to be 458 cells (SI

Appendix Fig. S10). We observed a high variability of N_i with a two times standard deviation of 2734

cells. This variability could reflect the true biological variability of N_i, however it may also arise from

the stochastic sampling of the marked strain inherent to our experimental setup. Thus, in order to

evaluate the contribution of a stochastic sampling of the marked strain on N_i variation, we simulated

a random sampling based on the same parameters as the experimental setup (number of plants,

concentration of marked strain in innoculum). For a true Ni value of 458 the stochasticity analysis

gave a median N_i of 454 cells (SI Appendix Fig. S10), with a two times standard deviation of 507 cells.

Hence, we evaluated that the stochasticity of individual sampling due to our experimental setup

could represent up to 18% (507/2734) of the variability observed in the experimental N_i estimation.

Plant physical barriers and pathogen type III effectors are major drivers of the infection bottleneck

size.

We used a wounded-root inoculation procedure to estimate the contribution of plant natural

root barriers to the infection bottleneck size. At 4 dpi, all wounded-root plants had symptoms,

indicating an accelerated infection and colonization. We used the same methodology of mixed

inoculations to determine the impact of wouding on the infection bottleneck size ($N_{WT\text{-}wounding}$). We

were able to show that $N_{WT\text{-}wouding}$ dramatically increased to a median of 24215 cells (Fig. 7, blue

circles), significantly larger than N_{WT} (median of 458 cells) as previously defined (Mann Whitney test,

P-value < 0.0001). Analysis of variation in model parameters which fits such high N_i values and

earliest symptoms onset (4 days), reveals that a high entry flow, V_{fmax}, around 1065 cells·h^{-1} likely

occurred in addition to the reduction of the delay time, d, to cross root cortex.

We then treated tomato plants with an *hrp* mutant (*R. pseudosolanacearum* strain GMI1694,

hrcV mutant) and its isogenic gentamycin-marked strain (GRS743, SI Appendix Fig. S1B), to evaluate

the impact of a complete loss of bacterial type III secretion on the infection bottleneck size. Tomato

plants were harvested at 10 dpi in order to maximize the colonization of plants by the *hrp* defective

R. pseudosolanacearum strain. Here, the infection bottleneck size of the *hrp* mutant, N_{hrp}, was

estimated at a median of 6 cells (and mean of 7 ± 4 cells, Fig. 7, green squares), significantly lower

than N_{WT} (Mann Whitney test, P-value = 0.0014).

Using the model to infer life-history traits of a bacterial mutant

The results obtained so far indicated that our model is able to correctly predict the size of the

infection bottleneck from a few key parameters that were determined experimentally. We wondered

if the model could be used with the opposite goal, *i.e.* inferring a strain's characteristics from a

measured number of founders. In *R. pseudosolanacearum,* the type III secretion system (or TTSS) is

required for bacteria to enter xylem vessels (12). A mutant in the TTSS apparatus (*hrp* mutant) is

unable to kill plants, but can sustain a limited population sizes in xylem vessels (13).

We therefore combined the wounding procedure and the inoculation with the *hrp* strains. Samples

were harvested to estimate the number of founders of a *hrp* mutant by wounding ($N_{hrp\_wounding}$) at 7

dpi. The founder amount increased to a mean of 62 ± 40 cells and a median of 53 cells. The mean of

$N_{hrp\_wounding}$ was about 9 times higher than N_{hrp} (P-value = 0.019) but 482 times lower than $N_{WT\_wounding}$

(P-value = 0.0006).

We used these data to infer the strength of the immune system clearance on the entering

bacterial cells and the *in planta* growth rate for GMI1694. The entry flow of founders, $V_{fmax(hrp\_wounding)}$,

was estimated to be around 3 cells·h^{-1}. Thus, if considering that the entry flow in wounded roots of

the *hrp* mutant is similar to the wt (1065 cells·h^{-1}) and that the succesfull founder flow corresponds

to the survivors to the immune system response, we found that the strength of the immune system

clearance was 99.7% of the entered cells. Comparison between the founding number of the wt, 458,

and the *hrp* mutant strain, around 6, leads to a similar value, 98.7 %. Then, we estimated the

maximal growth rate of GMI1694 by considering that no symptoms occurs and thus bacterial load

remains below the quorum sensing treshold, q, for both intact and wounded root conditions. We

found that the maximal growth rate *in planta* should be in the range of 0.9 to 0.11 h^{-1}. We

experimentally tested this prediction by measuring the growth rate of the GMI1694 strain in stem

xylem using the stem injection procedure (SI Appendix, Fig. S11) and found a growth rate of 0.112 ±

0.005 h^{-1}, with R^2= 0.873 ± 0.06. Hence, the clearance of the *hrp* mutant bacteria by the plant

immune system in the stem was evaluated to be at a maximum of 52 %.

DISCUSSION

Our objective in this work was (i) to model the plant infection process and the within-host bacterial

population dynamics, (ii) predict and experimental measure the infection bottleneck size for

R. pseudosolanacearum strain GMI1000 on tomato and finally, (iii) to understand the factors that

participate to the bacterial infection bottleneck. For this purpose we used a natural, soil-drenching,

plant infection bioassays. Plants were scored for disease appearance (bacterial wilt) and bacterial

load. The lowest level of bacterial soil saturation to obtain reliable wilting (> 50%) in our conditions

(12 days), is asymptotic to a value of 6.10^6 cfu·ml^{-1} of inoculum (see Fig. 3B). In our experimental

setup this equates to a $4.6\ 10^6$ cfu·g^{-1} Dry Weight soil inoculum, comparable to the 10^5-10^7 cfu·g^{-1} Dry

Weight of soil detected in the rhizosphere of diseased tomato plants in the field (14). We also

showed that there is a potential for subsequent re-infection, over a time frame of 24-48 h (see Fig.

3A). The success of these further re-infections is likely to be dependent on the density of the local

inoculums which can decline other time (15) and on the interaction between the host immune

response and the bacterial virulence arsenal. Indeed, the lowering of the re-infection probability with

time (see Fig. 3A) could be correlated with the onset of plant immune responses (13).

We showed (Fig. 5A) that asymptomatic plants are displaying different levels of bacterial colonization

whereas diseased plants are always well colonized ($>10^8$ cfu/gFW). We further refined this

relationship by analyzing the large data set of individual plants for which we have obtained both the

disease score and the bacterial count. We were able to determine the *in planta* bacterial load

(6.10^7Cfu/g FW) that would be the best predictor of later wilting (see SI Appendix, Fig. S8). As

Ralstonia sp. plant pathogenic strains are restricted to the xylem vessels of plants, representing

probably less than a 1/10 of the volume/weight of a stem, we could consider our *in planta*

experimental validation as being in the same range as the threshold (10^7-10^8 cfu/ml) determined to

trigger EPS production *in vitro* **(16)**.

In order to understand and determine all the important parameters of the life cycle of pathogenic

Ralstonia sp., we built a model that captures the global life cycle of the bacterium from infection to

dissemination in the environment after complete wilting of the host plant. We experimentally

estimated the size of the infection bottleneck (*i.e.* the number of founders) by a probabilistic

approach evaluating the presence/absence of a marked strain in the colonized plants at the earliest

stage possible. This experimentally determined number of founders (median N_i =458 cells) was

obtained after the analysis of a large number of individual plants and is in the same range as the one

predicted from the model (N_i = 90 to 476). To our knowledge, it is the first determination of the host-

bacterial pathogen infection bottleneck that takes into account re-infection in an experimental

system mimicking natural infection.

The quantification of this bottleneck imposed by the plant on the bacterial population present in the

soil is required to evaluate the possibility of a "founder effect". This latter is defined as a bottleneck

too narrow to allow the genetic diversity of the infecting population to mirror the genetic diversity of

the soil resident population, leading to a potential genetic drift. The *Ralstonia solanacearum* Species

Complex (RSSC) has a wide species-to-continent geographic distribution **(17)**. Some studies show that

diversity analysis of single isolates from different infected plants can yield up to 42-51 haplotypes

mainly from 2 RSSC species (*R. solanacearum* and *R. pseudosolanacearum* formerly defined as

phylotypes II and I **(17)**) over a narrow geographical distribution **(18, 19)**. So far no studies have

explored the RSSC population diversity in the soil of planted fields, thus it is not possible to establish

whether the size of the infection bottleneck as determined in this work for the GMI1000 strain would

per se result in a genetic drift or not. In addition, in this study, the infection bottleneck was measured

using a clonal population (individuals of the same clone, GMI1000 and isogenic marked strain).

However, in a local natural population, different bacterial genotypes could also contribute to the

infection bottleneck size (*i.e.* presence of strains with different virulence arsenals, different

metabolic capacities). Studying the contribution of different bacterial genotypes to the infection

bottleneck size would be an interesting question for future studies. An interesting corollary of

bottleneck restriction during infection is related to kin selection. Indeed one could imagine that the

restriction imposed by the bottleneck will prevent (or reduce) the infection by non-kin bacteria. This

would limit the super-infection by opportunistic microbes or re-infection by kin-cheaters, generating

a highly related infecting population **(3, 20)**. Studying the ability of different bacterial genotypes to

alter bottleneck sizes in isolation or within diverse (multi-strain or multi-species) communities

will/would be an interesting question for future studies.

In this study we also evaluated the effect of plant and bacterial parameters on the size of the

infection bottleneck. As expected, the bottleneck size increased significantly (> 50 times) after

mechanically wounding the roots. We also showed that this bottleneck was dramatically reduced

(> 70 times), when plants were infected with a *hrp* mutant, devoid of any type III effectors, and

known to produce symptomless but colonized plants **(13)**. This later result shows that type III

effectors are collectively required to establish the first infecting front, like previously shown for

specific type III effectors in an *in vitro* infection model **(21, 22)**. We can hypothesize that one of the

prevalent role of these virulence determinants would be to suppress plant immunity, but we can't

rule out their role in nutrient mobilization, even at these early infection stages. Finally, we tested the

prediction power of our global infection model by testing the predicted *in planta* growth rate of the

hrp mutant strain when inoculated on wounded plants. As the experimentally measured growth rate

fits with the predicted maximal growth rate, our starting hypothesis of same entry flow (in wounded-

root plants) but greater clearance of the *hrp* mutant bacteria by the plant immune system holds true.

Several important questions are still unresolved regarding the parameters controlling the size of the

infection bottleneck **(2)** during the infection of tomato plants by *Ralstonia sp.* In particular it would

be interesting to evaluate variation in the infection bottleneck size with the plant root status, both in

term of root growth (young *vs* old plants) and in terms of root developmental plasticity (*e.g.* in

different type of soils). At a smaller scale even, one could imagine that there could be specific

bottelnecks for the bacteria to cross several distinct cell layers within the root organ **(12)**, like it was

shown for the progression of the anthrax bacteria in different murine tissues **(4)**. Another level of

complexity would be to understand the contribution of the microbiome to this bottleneck.

Specifically, it would be interesting to evaluate whether the protection of plants from bacterial wilt

by trophic competition **(15)** could partly be explained by an "infection-site crowding" thus inducing a

likely reduction in the infection bottleneck size.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Infection model

We designed a mathematical model of the infection kinetics to describe the population

dynamics of *R. pseudosolanacearum* and the founder number within the xylem. The model is

composed of 3 compartments (c), the soil (s), the root cortex (r), and the xylem (x). The volume

dimention of the model was set in ml, since it corresponds to the concentration of cells using soil

drenching methods, and the bacterial load measured in g (fresh weight) wich can be assumed to be

in the range of 1 ml volume. The variables are the concentration of the bacterial cells B_c within the 3

compartments (in cell·ml^{-1}), the fouder number, F, in the root cortex, F_r, and xylem, F_x, (in cell·ml^{-1}),

the EPS concentration in xylem, EPS_x, (in mmol·ml^{-1} of N-acetylglucosamine), the wilting level of the

plant, W, (in DI). B and F can be in the magnitude of few cells in tissues, thus we used entier value for

these variables. The equations, described in the supplementary information, are solved numerically

with a time step of 1 hour. The transmission time was defined as the time when the wilting symptom

reaches DI > 3.5. When no wilting level above 3.5 is reached after 30 days, this time point is taken for

the evaluation of the infection bottleneck.

Bacterial strains, plant material and culture conditions

The *R. pseudosolanacearum* strains used in this work were: GMI1000, the wild-type strain; GRS540, a

derivative strain from GMI1000 with a gentamicin cassette insertion (23); GMI1694, a type III

secretion system mutant (*hrcV* mutant) with spectinomycin cassette insertion (24); GRS743, a

derivative strain from GMI1694 with the integration of the gentamicin cassette of GRS540 (this

study). The gentamicin cassette does not alter the pathogen fitness, as was previously shown by

stem injection (23) and SI Appendix, Fig. S1. *R. pseudosolanacearum* strains were routinely grown at

28 °C in complete BG medium (25). Antibiotics were used at the following final concentrations: 10

µg·L^{-1} gentamicin and 40 µg·L^{-1} spectinomycin. *Solanum lycopersicum* var. Super Marmande was

cultivated in greenhouse. Square trays (30×30×4.5 cm) were used to grow 16 tomato seedlings and

kept in the greenhouse under the following conditions: 75% humidity, 12 h light 28 °C, and 12 h

darkness 27 °C. Plants were inoculated after 4 weeks of growth in dedicated quarantine facilities.

Determination of the median infection dose

Wild-type *R. pseudosolanacearum* GMI1000 was used to determinate the median infection dose

(MID) in tomato. Groups of 16 tomato plants in one tray were soil-drenching inoculated with 5.10^8,

5.10^7, 5.10^6, 5.10^5 or 5.10^4 cfu·ml^{-1} in 500 ml of bacterial suspension. For stem injection, 10 µl of

bacterial suspensions was directly injected into stem with a microsyringe (Hamilton, Reno, NV,

U.S.A.) at the level of the cotyledon. The injection inoculums were diluted to 5.10^7, 5.10^6, 5.10^5, 5.10^4

and 5.10^3 cfu·ml^{-1} of *R. pseudosolanacearum*. Symptom appearance was scored daily for each plant.

Disease index (DI) was used to describe the observed wilting: 0 for no wilting; 1 for 25% of leaves

wilted; 2 for 50%; 3 for 75% and 4 for complete wilting. Symptom onset (DI > 0) was defined as an

infection success of *R. pseudosolanacearum* in tomato. The MID of *R. pseudosolanacearum* in tomato

was used at the 50% endpoint method of Reed and Muench (10). First, we calculated the Reed and

Muench index (RMI) for the 50% endpoint from these dilutions. The obtained RMI was then

corrected by the dilution factor.

$$RMI = \frac{(\% \, infected \, at \, dilution \, inmmediately \, above \, 50\%) - 50\%}{(\% \, infected \, at \, dilution \, inmmediately \, above \, 50\%) - (\% \, infected \, at \, dilution \, inmmediately \, below \, 50\%)}.$$

$Logarithm \, of \, MID = $ (logarithm of the dilution above 50% infection) $+$ RMI×dilution factor.

Each treatment had two technical repeats and three biological repeats with 96 plants in total.

Monitoring of bacterial colonization kinetics and *in planta* growth rate.

The soil-drenching inoculation was performed using GMI1000 at 5.10^7 cfu·ml^{-1}. Symptoms were

recorded before harvest as described above. Sixteen plants were sampled at each dpi and this

experiment was repeated three times with 48 samples in total. For the stem injection procedure,

each plant was injected with 10 µl bacterial solution containing 5.10^6 cfu·ml^{-1} of GMI1000. Sampling

was conducted straight away after injection (0hpi), 7 hpi, 24 hpi and 52 hpi. Each sampling had 4

plants and this experiment was repeated 8 times with 32 samples in total. The 1 cm stem from the

cotyledons upwards was harvested, weighed, and homogenized by mechanical disruption in a

grinder (Retsch France, 95610 Eragny sur Oise, France). Bacteria were then enumerated by plating

serial dilutions on BG agar plates, using an easyspiral (Interscience, Saint Nom la Breteche, France).

Prediction of bacterial threshold to induce symptom.

The following relation was used to predict wilting onset W (W=1) or no witling (W=0) depending on

the bacterial load b, in cfu·ml^{-1}, *in planta*.

W = 1 if b > t then W = 0

With t, the threshold above which the wilting onset occurs. Two-class contingence matrices

with experimental and simulated data were generated for changing values of t. The Matthews

Correlation Coefficient (11) (MCC) was used to compare predicting capacities of t. The MCC can

range from 0 (random assignment) to 1 (perfect prediction).

Estimation of the size of the infection founding population (N_i)

A method was developed to quantitatively estimate the size of the *R. pseudosolanacearum*

infection founding population in tomato, or N_i. The method is based on the measurement of the

proportion of plants infected with a gentamycine marked strain when the host was inoculated with a

mixture of two strains, the wt strain plus various small (0.1% to 0.01%) proportion of a marked strain.

The starting frequency of the marker strain in the inoculum, *p*, was measured by serial plating. The

frequency of the wt strain being 1 - *p*. R is referred to as the event that at least one cell of the

resistant bacteria individual is present in the host plant. *P(R)* is the probability of the event R. NR is

considered as the event that only the wt (Non-Resistant) strain is present. *P(NR)* is the probability of

the event NR. Thus, *P(R)+P(NR)*=1. Based on the above: $P(NR) = (1 - p)^{Ni}$ and $P(R) = 1 - (1 - p)^{Ni}$. And

$N_i = \log(1 - P(R)) / \log(1 - p)$. SI Appendix, Fig. S9 highlights the sigmoid feature of N =f(P) for each

given *p*.. N_i, or "infection bottleneck" can be estimated from this expression through investigating

P(R) experimentally as follows: The resistant, marked strains are GRS540 or GRS743, and their

respective non-marked isogenic strains are GMI1000 and GMI1694 (*hrp* mutant). The sampling time

was at 7 dpi for root inoculation of GMI1000 and GRS540, 4 dpi for wounding inoculation of GMI1000

and GRS540, 10 dpi for inoculation of GMI1694 and GRS743 and 7 dpi for wounding inoculation of

GMI1694 and GRS743. Stem samples were collected as described before and appearance of the two

strains was determined by plating on BG agar with and without antibiotics. The two extreme output

value of N_i, *i.e.* N_i= 0 and N_i= infinity, respectively obtained when *P(R)*= 0/32 or *P(R)*= 32/32 were

excluded from the analysis as they artificially skew the estimation of N_i. Indeed these limit values are

the two asymptotes of the sigmoid curve of N= f(P) (see SI Appendix Fig. S9)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

GJ was supported by China Scholarship Council (No. [2013] 3009) and TECHNO II Erasmus Mundus

Programme (2015-2016). RP was supported by EMBO (Long-Term Fellowship ALTF 1627-2011) and

Marie Curie Actions (EMBOCOFUND2010, GA-2010-267146). This work was performed with funding

from the LABEX "TULIP" (ANR-10-LABX-41). We also thank our colleagues for useful discussions. The

funding bodies played no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or

preparation of the manuscript.

AUTHORS CONTRIBUTION

GJ, RP, PR and NP designed the research, GJ, RP performed research, GJ, RP, AG, SG and NP analyzed

data, GJ, RP, PR, AG, SG, WD and NP wrote the paper. All authors have read and approved the

manuscript for publication. GJ and RP contributed equally to the work.

REFERENCES

1.   Zarraonaindia I, et al. (2015) The soil microbiome influences grapevine-associated microbiota.
mBio 6(2):e02527–14–10.

2.   Abel S, Abel Zur Wiesch P, Davis BM, Waldor MK (2015) Analysis of Bottlenecks in
Experimental Models of Infection. *PLoS pathogens* 11(6):e1004823.

3.   Gog JR, et al. (2015) Seven challenges in modeling pathogen dynamics within-host and across
scales. *Epidemics* 10:45–48.

4.   Plaut RD, Kelly VK, Lee GM, Stibitz S, Merkel TJ (2012) Dissemination bottleneck in a murine
model of inhalational anthrax. *Infection and immunity* 80(9):3189–3193.

5.   Pfeiffer JK, Kirkegaard K (2006) Bottleneck-mediated quasispecies restriction during spread of
an RNA virus from inoculation site to brain. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 103(14):5520–5525.

6.   Grant AJ, et al. (2008) Modelling within-Host Spatiotemporal Dynamics of Invasive Bacterial
Disease. *PLoS biology* 6(4):e74–14.

7.   Abel S, et al. (2015) Sequence tag–based analysis of microbial population dynamics. *Nature*
Methods 12(3):223–226.

8.   Louie A, Song KH, Hotson A, Thomas Tate A, Schneider DS (2016) How Many Parameters Does
It Take to Describe Disease Tolerance? *PLoS biology* 14(4):e1002435.

9.   Peeters N, Guidot A, Vailleau F, Valls M (2013) Ralstonia solanacearum, a widespread bacterial
plant pathogen in the post-genomic era. *Molecular Plant Pathology* 14(7):651–662.

10.   Reed LJ, Muench H (1938) A simple method of estimating fifty per cent endpoints. *Am J*
Epidemiol 27(3):493–497.

11.   Matthews BW (1975) Comparison of the predicted and observed secondary structure of T4
phage lysozyme. *Biochimica et biophysica acta* 405(2):442–451.

12.   Vasse J, Genin, S., Frey P, Boucher C, Brito B (2000) The hrpB and hrpG regulatory genes of
Ralstonia solanacearum are required for different stages of the tomato root infection process.
Molecular plant-microbe interactions: MPMI 13(3):259–267.

13.   Feng D-X, et al. (2012) Biological control of bacterial wilt in Arabidopsis thaliana involves
abscissic acid signalling. *New Phytol* 194(4):1035–1045.

14.   Horita M, Tsuchiya K (2005) Diversity of *Ralstonia solanacearum* in Tomato Rhizosphere Soil.
Bacterial Wilt Disease, eds Prior P, Allen C, Elphinstone J (Allen, C. Prior, P. Hayward, A.C.).

15.   Wei Z, et al. (2015) Trophic network architecture of root-associated bacterial communities
determines pathogen invasion and plant health. *Nature communications* 6:8413.

16.   Clough SJ, Flavier AB, Schell MA, Denny TP (1997) Differential Expression of Virulence Genes
475   and Motility in Ralstonia (Pseudomonas) solanacearum during Exponential Growth. *Applied*
476   *and Environmental Microbiology* 63(3):844–850.

477   17.   Safni I, et al. (2014) Polyphasic taxonomic revision of the Ralstonia solanacearum species
478   complex: proposal to emend the descriptions of Ralstonia solanacearum and Ralstonia syzygii
479   and reclassify current R. syzygii strains as Ralstonia syzygii subsp. syzygii subsp. nov., R.
480   solanacearum phylotype IV strains as Ralstonia syzygii subsp. indonesiensis subsp. nov.,
481   banana blood disease bacterium strains as Ralstonia syzygii subsp. celebesensis subsp. nov.
482   and R. solanacearum phylotype I and III strains as Ralstonia pseudosolanacearum sp. nov. *Int J*
483   *Syst Evol Microbiol* 64(Pt 9):3087–3103.

484   18.   Ramsubhag A, et al. (2012) Wide genetic diversity of Ralstonia solanacearum strains affecting
485   tomato in Trinidad, West Indies. *Plant Pathology* 61(5):844–857.

486   19.   Lin CH, Tsai KC, Prior, P., Wang J-F (2014) Phylogenetic relationships and population structure
487   of Ralstonia solanacearum isolated from diverse origins in Taiwan. *Plant Pathology* 63:1395–
488   1403.

489   20.   van Leeuwen E, O'Neill S, Matthews A, Raymond B (2015) Making pathogens sociable: The
490   emergence of high relatedness through limited host invisibility. *The ISME journal*.
491   doi:10.1038/ismej.2015.111.

492   21.   Turner M, et al. (2009) Dissection of bacterial Wilt on Medicago truncatula revealed two type
493   III secretion system effectors acting on root infection process and disease development. *Plant*
494   *Physiology* 150(4):1713–1722.

495   22.   Wang K, et al. (2015) Functional Assignment to Positively Selected Sites in the Core Type III
496   Effector RipG7 from Ralstonia solanacearum. *Molecular Plant Pathology*:n/a–n/a.

497   23.   Guidot A, et al. (2014) Multihost experimental evolution of the pathogen Ralstonia
498   solanacearum unveils genes involved in adaptation to plants. *Molecular Biology and Evolution*
499   31(11):2913–2928.

500   24.   Cunnac S, Occhialini A, Barberis P, Boucher C, Genin S (2004) Inventory and functional analysis
501   of the large Hrp regulon in Ralstonia solanacearum: identification of novel effector proteins
502   translocated to plant host cells through the type III secretion system. *Molecular Microbiology*
503   53(1):115–128.

504   25.   Plener L, Boistard P, González A, Boucher C, Genin S (2012) Metabolic adaptation of Ralstonia
505   solanacearum during plant infection: a methionine biosynthesis case study. *PloS One*
506   7(5):e36877.

509
Figure 1: The life cycle of plant pathogenic *Ralstonia sp.*

Ralstonia sp. lives in the soil, penetrates into the plant through the roots, pass the root cortex and

then colonize the xylem vessels. When high bacterial densities are reached, a phenotypic switch is

induced with production of exopolysaccharide (EPS).The xylem water flux is interrupted, promoting

the wilting symptoms. After plant death, the bacteria returns to the soil where it will continue as a

saprophyte until a new host is infected.

Figure 2: Sensitivity of the infection bottleneck to different parameters of the infection cycle.

Simulations were performed using the population dynamics model (see results) and by varying the different values of the model parameters K (panel A), V_{fmax} (panel B), r (panel C), µ (panel D), q (panel E), s (panel F), see the list Fig.1 and Appendix SI Fig. 2. Simulations were performed for 3 concentrations of bacterial soil inoculum, 1.10^6, 1.10^7 and 1.10^8 cell·ml^{-1}.

Figure 3: Infectivity of *Ralstonia pseudosolanacearum* in tomato.

(A) Tomato host is continuously infected by *R. pseudosolanacearum* within 48 hours. Plants were first

inoculated with the wild type GMI1000 strain and subsequently inoculated with the marked GRS540

strain (SI Fig. 1A) at 1, 8, 23 and 48 hours after the first inoculation. Bacterial load of these two

strains were quantified at 5 dpi to obtain the fraction of GRS540 in final bacterial population. (B) The

median infection dose (MID) of *R. pseudosolanacearum* in tomato following soil-drenching

inoculation. Five 10 times dilution of *R. pseudosolanacearum* inoculums, volume of 500 ml per trial,

were poured on each tray of 16 plants. Daily phenotyping was performed (SI Fig. 3) and the Reed-

Muench method was adopted to determine the MID at each dpi. The red dotted line represent an

asymptotic value at MID = $5.9 \cdot 10^6$ cells.

Figure 4: Colonization dynamics of *Ralstonia pseudosolanacearum in planta*.

(A) The bacterial load of individual tomato plants was assessed from 1 dpi to 12 dpi. Sixteen plants were analysed at each time-point (dpi). This experiment is representative of 3 biological replicates (Appendix SI Fig. 6). Bar represents the median of bacterial load in each group. (B) *In planta* growth of *R. solanacearum* after the stem injection inoculation. Samples were harvested at 0, 7, 25, 52 hpi. Thirthy-two individual plants from 8 biological replicates were analysed. After growth curve fitting, the rate was determined at 0.233 ± 0.012 h^{-1}; $R^2 = 0.937 \pm 0.024$ (mean ± sd).

Figure 5: Bacterial wilt disease dynamics.

The data from Fig. 4A was used for this correlation analysis with three biological repeats (SI Fig. 7).

(A) Correlations of bacterial load and disease index (DI) in tomato. Box plots represent the median

and 5-95 percentiles in each DI group. *** indicates P-value < 0.0001, Mann-Whitney test, ns: P-

value > 0.05. (B) Time response curve of symptom onset (wilting) synchronized to the first day of the

symptom appearance for each individual plant.

P-value	WT	WT_wounding	hrp
WT_wounding	< 0.0001		
hrp	0.0014	0.0035	
hrp_wounding	0.0032	0.0006	0.019

Figure 6. Contribution of plant physical barriers and bacteria type III effectors to the infection

bottleneck size.

Wild type GMI1000 (grey dots) and *hrp* mutant GMI1694 (hrp, green squares) of *R.*

pseudosolanacearum were harvested at 7 dpi and 10 dpi following root inoculation. GMI1000

wounding (WT-wounding, blue dots) and GMI1694 wounding (hrp_wounding, green open squares)

were harvested at 4 dpi and 7 dpi by wounding root inoculation. Each experimental condition can be

distinguished from the others as indicated by the Mann-Whitney test P-values in the table.

563
564
565