TITLE

Origin and Evolution of a Pandemic Lineage of the Kiwifruit Pathogen *Pseudomonas*

syringae pv. *actinidiae*

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ABSTRACT

Recurring epidemics of kiwifruit (*Actinidia* spp.) bleeding canker disease are

caused by *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *actinidiae* (*Psa*), whose emergence coincided

with domestication of its host. The most recent pandemic has had a deleterious effect

on kiwifruit production worldwide. In order to strengthen understanding of population

structure, phylogeography and evolutionary dynamics of *Psa*, we sampled 746

Pseudomonas isolates from cultivated and wild kiwifruit across six provinces in

China, of which 87 were *Psa*. Of 234 *Pseudomonas* isolated from wild *Actinidia* spp.

none were identified as *Psa*. Genome sequencing of fifty isolates and the inclusion of

an additional thirty from previous studies show that China is the origin of the recently

emerged pandemic lineage. However China harbours only a fraction of global *Psa*

diversity, with greatest diversity found in Korea and Japan. Distinct transmission

events were responsible for introduction of the pandemic lineage of *Psa* into New

Zealand, Chile and Europe. Two independent transmission events occurred between

China and Korea, and two Japanese isolates from 2014 cluster with New Zealand *Psa*.

Despite high similarity at the level of the core genome and negligible impact of

within-lineage recombination, there has been substantial gene gain and loss even

within the single clade from which the global pandemic arose.

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

Bleeding canker disease of kiwifruit caused by *Pseudomonas syringae* pv.

actinidiae (*Psa*) has come to prominence in the last three decades. Emergence has

coincided with domestication of the host plant and provides a rare opportunity to

understand ecological and genetic factors affecting the evolutionary origins of *Psa*.

Here, based on genomic analysis of an extensive set of strains sampled from China

and augmented by isolates from a global sample, we show, contrary to earlier

predictions, that China is not the native home of the pathogen, but is nonetheless the

source of the recent global pandemic. Our data identify specific transmission events,

substantial genetic diversity and point to non-agricultural plants in either Japan or

Korea as home to the source population.

INTRODUCTION

A pandemic of kiwifruit (*Actinidia* spp.) bleeding canker disease caused by *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *actinidiae* (*Psa*) emerged in 2008 with severe consequences for production in Europe, Asia, New Zealand and Chile (1-7). Earlier disease epidemics in China, South Korea and Japan had a regional impact, however, as infections were often lethal and the pathogen rapidly disseminated, it was predicted to pose a major threat to global kiwifruit production (8, 9). Despite recognition of this threat – one subsequently realized in 2008 – little was done to advance understanding of population structure, particularly across regions of eastern Asia that mark the native home of the genus *Actinidia*.

The origins of agricultural diseases and their link with plant domestication is shrouded by time, as most plant domestication events occurred millennia ago. Kiwifruit (*Actinidia* spp.) is a rare exception because domestication occurred during the last century (10, 11). Kiwifruit production and trade in plant material for commercial and breeding purposes has recently increased in Asia, Europe, New Zealand and Chile (12-16), preceding the emergence of disease in some cases by less than a decade.

The first reports of a destructive bacterial canker disease in green-fleshed kiwifruit (*A. chinensis var. deliciosa*) came from Shizuoka, Japan (17, 18). The causal agent was described as *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *actinidiae* (*Psa*) (18). An outbreak of disease with symptoms similar to those produced by *Psa* was reported to have occurred in 1983-1984 in Hunan, China, though no positive identification was made or isolates stored at that time (17). *Psa* was also isolated from infected green kiwifruit in Korea shortly thereafter (19). The cultivation of more recently developed gold-fruiting cultivars derived from *A. chinensis var. chinensis* (e.g. 'Hort16A') began only

in the 2000s and an outbreak of global proportions soon followed. The first published

notices of the latest outbreak on gold kiwifruit issued from Italy in 2008, with reports

from neighbouring European countries, New Zealand, Asia and Chile occurring soon

after (1-6, 20). Whole genome sequencing showed the most recent global outbreak of

disease was caused by a new lineage of *Psa* (previously referred to as *Psa*-V and now

referred to as *Psa*-3), while earlier disease incidents in Japan and Korea were caused

by strains forming separate clades referred to *Psa*-1 (previously *Psa*-J) and *Psa*-2

(previously *Psa*-K), respectively (21-24). These clades are marked by substantial

variation in their complement of type III secreted effectors, which are required for

virulence in *P. syringae*. Despite the surprising level of within-pathovar differences in

virulence gene repertoires occurring subsequent to the divergence of these three

clades, strains from each clade are capable of infecting and growing to high levels in

both *A. chinensis* var. *deliciosa* and *A. chinensis* var. *chinensis* (23).

The severity of the latest global outbreak is largely predicated on the

expansion in cultivation of clonally propagated highly susceptible *A. chinensis var.*

chinensis cultivars, with trade in plant material and pollen likely providing

opportunities for transmission between distant geographic regions. Identifying the

source from which *Psa* emerged to cause separate outbreaks remains an important

question. Intriguingly, despite the divergence in both the core and flexible genome,

these distinct clades nevertheless exhibit evidence of recombination with each other

and unknown donors (23). This suggests each lineage of *Psa* emerged from a

recombining source population. Definitive evidence for the location, extent of

diversity and evolutionary processes operating within this population remain elusive.

Early reports suggested China may be the source of the latest global outbreak (22,

23). Although the strains of *Psa* available at that time did not provide unambiguous

and well-supported evidence of a Chinese origin, this speculation was based on the

fact that kiwifruit are native to China; it is the provenance of the plant material

selected for commercial and breeding purposes in China, New Zealand, Italy and

other kiwifruit growing regions; there is extensive trade in plant material between all

of these regions; and one Chinese isolate was found to carry an integrative and

conjugative element (ICE) that was also found in New Zealand *Psa*-3 isolates (22).

In order to strengthen understanding of the population structure,

phylogeography and evolutionary dynamics of *Psa*, we isolated *Psa* from cultivated

kiwifruit across six provinces in China and obtained additional isolates from South

Korea and Japan. Genome sequencing of fifty isolates and the inclusion of an

additional thirty previously sequenced isolates show that while China is the origin of

the pandemic lineage of *Psa,* only a single clade is currently present in China, while

strains from multiple clades are present in both Korea and Japan. Strains from the

pandemic lineage are closely related and display reduced pairwise nucleotide

diversity relative to other lineages, indicating a more recent origin. Distinct

transmission events were responsible for the introduction of the pandemic lineage of

Psa into New Zealand, Chile and Europe. Two independent transmission events

occurred between China and Korea, and two Japanese isolates from 2014 cluster with

New Zealand *Psa*. Despite high similarity at the level of the core genome and

negligible impact of within-lineage recombination, there has been substantial gene

gain and loss even within the single clade from which the global pandemic arose.

RESULTS

The phylogeography of *Psa*

The genomes of 50 *P. syringae* pv. *actinidiae* (*Psa*) isolated from symptomatic kiwifruit in China, Korea and New Zealand between 2010 and 2015 were sequenced (Table S1). Combined with 30 *Psa* genomes from earlier outbreaks and different geographic regions (e.g. Italy and Chile), our samples represent the main *Psa* genotypes from the countries producing 90% of kiwifruit production worldwide. The completed reference genome of *Psa* NZ13 (ICMP 18884) comprises a 6,580,291bp chromosome and 74,423bp plasmid (23, 25). Read mapping and variant calling with reference to *Psa* NZ13 chromosome produced a 1,059,722bp non-recombinant core genome for all 80 genomes, including 2,953 nonrecombinant SNPs. A maximum likelihood phylogenetic analysis showed the four clades of *Psa* known to cause bleeding canker disease in kiwifruit were represented among the 80 strains (Figure 1). The first clade (*Psa*-1) includes the pathotype strain of *Psa* isolated and described during the first recorded epidemic of bleeding canker disease in Japan (1984-1988). The second clade (*Psa*-2) includes isolates from an epidemic in South Korea (1997-1998), and the third clade (*Psa*-3) includes isolates that define the global pandemic lineage (2008-present). A fourth clade (*Psa*-5) is represented by a single strain, as no additional sequences or isolates were available (26). The average between and within-clade pairwise identity is 98.93% and 99.73%, respectively (Table S2). All *Psa* isolated from kiwifruit across six different provinces in China group are members of the same clade: *Psa*-3. A subset of Chinese strains group with the *Psa* isolated during the global outbreak in Italy, Portugal, New Zealand, and Chile. This subset is referred to as the pandemic lineage of *Psa*-3.

In order to obtain greater resolution of the relationships between the new

Chinese and pandemic isolates, we identified the 4,853,413bp core genome of all 62

strains in *Psa*-3. The core genome includes both variant and invariant sites and

excludes regions either unique to or deleted from one or more strains. To minimize

the possibility of recombination affecting the reconstruction of evolutionary

relationships and genetic distance within *Psa*-3, ClonalFrameML was employed to

identify and remove 258 SNPs with a high probability of being introduced by

recombination rather than mutation, retaining 1,948 nonrecombinant SNPs. The

within-lineage ratio of recombination to mutation (R/theta) is reduced in *Psa*-3 (6.75

x 10^{-2} ± 3.24 x 10^{-5}) relative to between lineage rates (1.27 ± 5.16 x 10^{-4}), and the

mean divergence of imported DNA within *Psa*-3 is 8.54 x 10^{-3} ± 5.18 x 10^{-7} compared

to 5.68 x 10^{-3} ± 1.04 x 10^{-8} between lineages. Although recombination has occurred

within *Psa*-3, it is less frequent and has introduced fewer polymorphisms relative to

mutation: when accounting for polymorphisms present in recombinant regions

identified by ClonalFrameML and/or present on transposons, plasmids, and other

mobile elements, more than seven-fold more polymorphisms were introduced by

mutation relative to recombination (Table 1). Recombination has a more pronounced

impact between clades, where substitutions are slightly more likely to have been

introduced by recombination than by mutation (Table 1).

The source of pandemic *Psa*

Data show that there is greater diversity among the Chinese *Psa*-3 population

than had been previously identified (Figure 2). Interestingly, clades defining *Psa*-1

and *Psa*-3 exhibit similar levels of diversity (Table S2). These clades share a common

ancestor: assuming they are evolving at a similar rate, they may have been present in

Japan and China for a similar duration. The strains isolated during the latest pandemic

in Italy (I2, I3, I10, I11, I13), Portugal (P1), New Zealand (NZ13, NZ31-35, NZ37-

43, NZ45-49, NZ54), Chile (CL4), Japan (J38, J39) and Korea (K5) during the latest

kiwifruit canker pandemic cluster with nine Chinese isolates (C1, C3, C29-31, C62,

C67-69) (Figure 2). This pandemic lineage exhibits little diversity at the level of the

core genome, having undergone clonal expansion only very recently. The NZ isolates

form a monophyletic group and share a common ancestor, indicating there was a

single transmission event of *Psa* into NZ. Two recently isolated Japanese pandemic

Psa-3 isolated in 2014 group within the New Zealand isolates, suggesting the

pandemic lineage may have been introduced into Japan via New Zealand (Figure 2).

Italian and Portuguese pandemic strains also form a separate group, indicative of a

single transmission event from China to Italy. China is undoubtedly the source of the

strains responsible for the pandemic of kiwifruit canker disease, yet the precise

origins of the pandemic subclade remain unclear. Isolates from four different

provinces in Western China (Guizhou, Shaanxi, Sichuan and Chongqing) are

represented among the pandemic lineage, indicating extensive regional transmission

within China after emergence of the pandemic. Yet each province harbouring

pandemic isolates also harbors basally diverging *Psa*-3 isolates (Figure 3). With the

exception of a group of isolates from Sichuan, there is no phylogeographic signal

among the more divergent Chinese strains. This suggests there was extensive regional

transmission of *Psa* both prior and subsequent to the emergence of the pandemic

subclade in China. Korea harbors both divergent and pandemic subclade *Psa*-3

strains. K5 groups with the Chilean *Psa*-3 strain in the pandemic subclade, while K7

groups with the more divergent Chinese isolates indicating that a transmission event

from strains outside the pandemic subclade may have occurred. This pool of diversity

therefore represents a reservoir from which novel strains are likely to emerge in the

future.

The reduced level of diversity within the core genome of pandemic *Psa*-3

demonstrates these strains have been circulating for a shorter period of time relative to

those responsible for earlier outbreaks in both Japan and Korea. In order to estimate

the divergence time of the pandemic lineages as well as the age of the most recent

common ancestor of all *Psa* clades displaying vascular pathogenicity on kiwifruit, we

performed linear regression of root-to-tip distances against sampling dates using the

RAxML phylogenies determined from the non-recombinant core genome of all clades

and of *Psa*-3 alone. No temporal signal was identified in the data. There were poor

correlations between substitution accumulation and sampling dates, indicating the

sampling period may have been too short for sufficient substitutions to occur. There

may also be variation in the substitution rate within even a single lineage. Forty-four

unique non-recombinant SNPs were identified among the 21 pandemic *Psa*-3

genomes sampled over five years in New Zealand (an average of 2.10 per genome)

over five years) producing an estimated rate of 8.7×10^{-8} substitutions per site per

year. The relatively slow substitution rate and the strong bottleneck effect experienced

during infections hinders efforts to reconstruct patterns of transmission, as the global

dissemination of a pandemic strain may occur extremely rapidly (27, 28). The

estimated divergence time of *Psa* broadly considered is likely older than the pandemic

and epidemic events with which they are associated: the earliest report of disease

cause by lineage 1 occurred in 1984 and the first report of infection from the latest

pandemic was issued in 2008.

Diversification and parallelism among *Psa*-3 isolates

2,206 SNPs mapping to the core genome of *Psa*-3 were identified; 258 of these mapped to recombinant regions identified by ClonalFrameML and/or plasmid, prophage, integrative and conjugative elements, transposons and other mobile genetic elements (Table 1, Figure 4). The highest density of polymorphism occurs in and around the integrative and conjugative element (ICE) in *Psa* NZ13 (Figure 4). Of the 1,948 SNPs mapping to the non-recombinant non-mobile core genome, 58.1% (1,132) are strain specific. Most strain-specific SNPs are found in the two most divergent members of the lineage: *Psa* C16 and C17, with 736 and 157 strain-specific SNPs, respectively. The remaining isolates have an average of 4.0 strain-specific SNPs, ranging from 0 to 44 SNPs per strains. There are 816 SNPs shared between two or more *Psa*-3 strains. The pandemic clade differs from the more divergent Chinese strains by 72 shared SNPs. Within the pandemic lineage there are 125 strain-specific SNPs, an average of 3.1 unique SNPs per strain (ranging from 0-27 SNPs) and an additional 29 SNPs shared among pandemic strains. Protein-coding sequence accounts for 88.4% of the non-recombinant, gap-free core genome of this clade. We observed that 78.9% (1,536/1,948) of mutations occurred in protein coding sequence, significantly different from the expectation (1,722/1,948) in the absence of selection (Pearson's χ^2 test: $P < 0.0001$, $\chi^2 = 173.46$). This suggests there is selection against mutations occurring in protein coding sequences. Of the 953 substitutions introduced by mutation in *Psa*-3, 927 resulted in amino acid substitutions, two resulted in extensions and 24 resulted in premature truncations.

Multiple synonymous and non-synonymous mutations were identified in 269 genes. The accumulation of multiple independent mutations in the same gene may be a function of gene length, mutational hotspots or directional selection. A range of

hypothetical proteins, membrane proteins, transporters, porins and type III and IV

secretion system proteins acquired between two and seven mutations. The fitness

impact of these mutations – and the 38 amino-acid changing mutations in the ancestor

of the pandemic subclade – is unknown, yet it is possible these patterns are the

outcome of selective pressures imposed during bacterial residence within a similar

host niche.

Two substitutions are shared exclusively by the European pandemic strains

(AKT28710.1 G1150A and AKT33438.1 T651C) and one silent substitution in a gene

encoding an acyltransferase superfamily protein (AKT31915.1 C273T) is shared

among the European pandemic and six of nine Chinese pandemic strains (C3, C29-31,

C67, C69). As these six Chinese pandemic strains were isolated from Shaanxi,

Sichuan and Chongqing, they do not provide any insight into the precise geographic

origins of the European pandemic *Psa*-3, though transmission from China to Italy is

likely concomitant with dissemination of the pandemic lineage across China. Six

conserved and diagnostic polymorphisms are present in the pandemic New Zealand

and Japanese isolates (Table S3). One of these is a silent substitution in an ion

channel protein (AKT31947.1 A213G), another is an intergenic (T->G) mutation at

position 362,522 of the reference *Psa* NZ13 chromosome and the remaining four are

nonsynonymous substitutions in an adenylyltransferase (AKT32845.1, W977R);

chromosome segregation protein (AKT30494.1, H694Q); cytidylate kinase

(AKT29651.1, V173L) and peptidase protein (AKT32264.1, M418K).

The type III secretion system is known to be required for virulence in *P.*

syringae. A 44,620bp deletion event in *Psa* C17 resulted in the loss of 42 genes

encoding the structural apparatus and conserved type III secreted effectors in *Psa*

C17. This strain is highly compromised in its ability to grow in *A. chinensis* var.

deliciosa 'Hayward', attaining 1.2×10^7 cfu/g three days post inoculation (dpi) and

declining to 8.8×10^4 cfu/g at fourteen dpi (Figure S1). This is a marked reduction

compared to *Psa* NZ13, which attains 3.0×10^9 and 4.2×10^7 cfu/g three and fourteen

dpi, respectively. *Psa* C17 nevertheless multiplies between day 0 and day 3,

indicating that even in the absence of type III-mediated host defense disruption, *Psa*

may still proliferate in host tissues. The loss of the TTSS does not inhibit the growth

of *Psa* C17 as strongly in the more susceptible *A. chinensis* var. *chinensis* 'Hort16A'

cultivar.

Two potentially significant deletion events occurred in the ancestor of the

pandemic subclade: a frameshift caused by a mutation and single base pair deletion in

a glucan succinyltransferase (*opgC*) and a 6,456bp deletion in the *wss* operon (Figure

S2). Osmoregulated periplasmic glucans (OPGs, in particular *opgG* and *opgH*) are

required for motility, biofilm formation and virulence in various plant pathogenic

bacteria and fungi (29-31). Homologs of *opgGH* remain intact in the pandemic

subcclade, yet the premature stop mutation in *opgC* likely results in the loss of glucan

succinylation. The soft-rot pathogen *Dickeya dadantii* expresses OpgC in high

osmolarity conditions, resulting in the substitution of OPGs by O-succinyl residues

(32). *D. dadantii opgC* deletion mutants did not display any reduction in virulence

(32). *Psa* is likely to encounter high osmolarity during growth and transport in xylem

conductive tissues, yet the impact of the loss of *opgC* on *Psa* fitness has yet to be

determined. The most striking difference between the pandemic subclade and more

divergent Chinese *Psa*-3 strains is the deletion of multiple genes involved in cellulose

production and acetylation of the polymer (Figure S2) (33). The loss of cellulose

production and biofilm production is not associated with a reduction in growth or

symptom development of *P. syringae* pv. *tomato* DC3000 on tomato, but may

enhance bacterial spread through xylem tissues during vascular infections (34). In *P.*

fluorescens SBW25 deletion of the Wss operon significantly compromises ability to

colonise plant surfaces and in particular the phyllosphere of sugar beet (*Beta vulgaris*)

seedlings (35). It is possible that loss of this locus aids movement through the

vascular system and / or dissemination between plants, by limiting capacity for

surface colonization and biofilm formation.

Dynamic genome evolution of *Psa*-3

Despite the high similarity within the core genome, extensive variation is

evident in the pangenome of *Psa*-3 (Figure 5). The core genome (4,339 genes in 99-

100% of strains, and 674 genes in 95%-99% of strains, or 58-62 genomes) comprises

50.5% of the total pangenome (9,931 genes). 968 genes are present in 15-95% of

strains (9-57 genomes), the so-called 'shell genes' (Figure 5). The flexible genome is

comprised of the 'shell' and 'cloud' genes; the latter describes genes present in 0-15%

of strains (one to six genomes in this case). Cloud genes contribute most to the

flexible genome: 3,950 genes are present in one to six strains. This is a striking

amount of variation in a pathogen described as clonal and monomorphic. It should be

noted that sequencing and assembly quality will impact annotation and pangenome

estimates: omitting the low quality J39 assembly results in a core and soft-core

genome differing by 18 genes and a reduction of the cloud by 275. Despite a

relatively slow rate of mutation and limited within-clade homologous recombination,

the amount of heterologous recombination demonstrates that the genomes of these

pathogens are highly labile. Mobile genetic elements like bacteriophage, transposons

and integrases make a dramatic contribution to the flexible genome. Integrative and

conjugative elements (ICEs) are highly mobile elements and have recently been

demonstrated to be involved in the transfer of copper resistance in *Psa* (36).

Prodigious capacity for lateral gene transfer creates extreme discordance between ICE

type, host phylogeny and host geography making these regions unsuitable markers of

host evolution and origin.

Three divergent ICEs have been previously described from the global

pandemic lineage (23). Within *Psa*-3 ICEs were found in 53 of 62 isolates (nine of the

divergent Chinese isolates were devoid of any such element) (Figure 2). No

phylogeographic signal is evident. For example, strains from Sichuan, Shaanxi,

Korea, Italy and Portugal share an identical ICE. Even within a single Chinese

province, mulitple ICEs exist (Shaanxi and Sichuan isolates harbour four and three

different ICEs, respectively). Moreover, ICE host range is not limited to *Psa* alone:

the ICE found in every NZ isolate (and also recorded in Chinese isolate C1) exists in

essentially identical form in a strain of *P. syringae* pv. *avellenae* CRAPAV013

isolated from hazelnut in 1991 in Latina, Italy (it exhibits 98% pairwise identity,

differing from the New Zealand ICE by a transposon, 66bp deletion and a mere 6

SNPs).

DISCUSSION

We have described an endemic population of *Psa* infecting cultivated kiwifruit in China. All *Psa* isolated within China are members of the same lineage as that responsible for the latest pandemic. The pandemic strains isolated in Italy, Portugal, Chile and New Zealand form a subclade within this lineage along with a subset of Chinese isolates, indicating that the pandemic ultimately emerged from the Chinese population of lineage 3 strains. Italian pandemic strains share a SNP with six of nine Chinese pandemic *Psa* strains, indicating there was likely a direct transmission event from China to Italy prior to 2008. The New Zealand isolates share six clade-defining mutations, indicating that a separate and single transmission event was responsible for the outbreak of disease there. Identification of the transmission pathway introducing *Psa* into New Zealand is dependent on obtaining a sample of *Psa* sharing some or all of the mutations characteristic of NZ *Psa* from either the overseas source population or from infected plant material arriving into New Zealand from an overseas location. The relatively low mutation rate in the core genome of *Psa* places a lower boundary on the ability of genomic epidemiology to resolve transmission events occurring either rapidly (as a consequence of human-mediated long-distance dissemination) or at a local scale. The Japanese pandemic strains cluster with the NZ strains, and share all six clade-defining mutations. This suggests that pandemic *Psa*-3 was either introduced into Japan via New Zealand, or from the same as-yet unknown region in China from which transmission to New Zealand occurred. *Psa*-3 was first identified as causing disease in four prefectures across Japan in April 2014 (5). Japan imported pollen and plant material from both China and New Zealand prior and subsequent to *Psa*-3 detection in both those countries, though the amount of pollen imported from

New Zealand in 2012 (349 kg) and 2013 (190 kg) far outweighed the amount

imported from China (1 kg in both 2012 and 2013) (37).

Our phylogeographic study of a single lineage giving rise to a pandemic in *P.*

syringae has revealed far greater diversity than was previously appreciated. Extensive

diversity between *Psa* isolates collected from *Actinidia* spp. was observed in the same

province. The amount of diversity present within lineage 3 indicates this population

was present and circulating in China before the pandemic began. The emergence of

the pandemic subclade moreover has not resulted in the displacement of more

ancestral strains: both pandemic and divergent lineage 3 *Psa* were isolated from four

out of six provinces.

Strains from three different clades have been isolated in both Korea and Japan,

while China harbours strains from only a single clade. The most basal clades of

canker-causing *Psa* are comprised of Korean strains isolated between 1997 and 2014

(*Psa*-2) and a member of the recently identified lineage *Psa*-5. One early isolate (*Psa*

K3, 1997) groups with the Japanese isolates in lineage 1, and a more recent Korean

isolate *Psa* K7 (2014) groups with the more diverse Chinese isolates in *Psa*-3. Korea

therefore harbours a more diverse population of *Psa* than China, with strains from

three distinct lineages of *Psa* (1, 2 and non-pandemic subclade 3). The novel group of

Psa recently identified in Japan (*Psa*-5) appears to share an ancestor with the Korean

Psa-2 strains. With the recent dissemination of pandemic *Psa*-3 and the historical

presence of *Psa*-1 in Japan, the Japanese population of *Psa* is comprised of three

distinct clades of *Psa* (1, 5 and pandemic *Psa*-3). Though no strains from *Psa*-1 have

been isolated in either Japan or Korea since 1997, at least two lineages currently

coexist in both Japan and Korea. This strongly suggests that the source population of

all *Psa* is not China, but likely resides in either Korea or Japan. The potential

transmission of a non-pandemic *Psa*-3 strain from China to Korea and the

identification of a new clade in Japan supports our earlier assertion that variants will

continue to emerge to cause local epidemics and global pandemics in the future (23).

402   Considering that the divergence time of this monophyletic pathovar predates

the commercialisation of kiwifruit by hundreds if not thousands of years, *Psa* is likely

associated with a non-domesticated host(s) in the wild. Both *A. chinensis var.*

deliciosa or *A. chinensis var. chinensis* are found in natural ecosystems and have

overlapping habitat ranges with cultivated kiwifruit in many areas. However, despite

isolating 746 *Pseudomonas* strains from both wild and cultivated kiwifruit during this

sampling program, we did not identify *Psa* among any of the 188 *Pseudomonas* spp.

isolated from 98 wild *A. chinensis var. deliciosa* or *A. chinensis var. chinensis*

sampled across China (Table S4). Very few *Actinidia* spp. have ranges extending to

South Korea and Japan: *A. arguta*, *A. kolomikta*, *A. polygama* and *A. rufa*. *A. arguta*

are broadly distributed across both Korea and Japan. Early work by Ushiyama *et al.*

(1992) found that *Psa* could be isolated from symptomatic *A. arguta* plants in Japan.

The possibility that this wild relative of kiwifruit harbours diverse strains of *Psa* that

may emerge to cause future outbreaks is currently under investigation. Alternately, a

host shift from another domesticated crop may have occurred after expansion in

kiwifruit cultivation.

418   Numerous epidemiological studies of human pathogens have demonstrated

environmental or zoonotic origins, but there are few such studies of plant pathogens

(23, 38-48). Where ecological and genetic factors restrict pathogens to a small

number of plant hosts some progress has been made, but for facultative pathogens

such as *P. syringae* that colonise multiple hosts and are widely distributed among

both plant and non-plant habitats, the environmental reservoirs of disease and factors

affecting their evolutionary emergence are difficult to unravel (49, 50).

The emergence of *Psa* over the last three decades – concomitant with

domestication of kiwifruit– offers a rare opportunity to understand the relationship

between wild populations of both plants and microbes and the ecological and

evolutionary factors driving the origins of disease, including the role of agriculture. It

is now possible to exclude China as the native home to the source population, but the

precise location remains unclear. Nonetheless, it is likely, given the extent of diversity

among *Psa* isolates and the time-line to domestication, that ancestral populations exist

in non-agricultural plant communities. Attention now turns to Korea and Japan and in

particular the interplay between genetic and ecological factors that have shaped *Psa*

evolution.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and sequencing

Samples were procured by isolation from symptomatic plant tissue. Bacterial

strain isolations were performed from same-day sampled leaf and stem tissue by

homogenising leaf or stem tissue in 800uL 10mM $MgSO_4$ and plating the homogenate

on *Pseudomonas* selective media (King's B supplemented with cetrimide, fucidin and

cephalosporin, Oxoid). Plates were incubated 48 hours between 25 and 30°C. Single

colonies were restreaked and tested for oxidase activity, and used to inoculate liquid

overnight cultures in KB. Strains were then stored at -80°C in 15% glycerol and the

remainder of the liquid culture was reserved for genomic DNA isolation by freezing

the pelleted bacterial cells at -20°C. Genomic DNA extractions were performed using

Promega Wizard 96-well genomic DNA purification system.

Initial strain identification was performed by sequencing the citrate synthase

gene (*cts*, aka *gltA* (51)). Subsequent to strain identification, paired-end sequencing

was performed using the Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform (Novogene, Guangzhou,

China). Additional paired-end sequencing was performed at New Zealand Genomics

Limited (Auckland, New Zealand) using the MiSeq platform, and raw sequence reads

from some previously published isolates were shared by Mazzaglia *et al.* (24).

Variant Calling and Recombination Analyses

The completely sequenced genome of *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *actinidiae*

NZ13 was used as a reference for variant calling. A near complete version of this

genome was used as a reference in our previous publication and subsequently finished

by Templeton *et al.* (2015), where it is referred to as ICMP18884 (23, 25). Variant

calling was performed on all *P. syringae* pv. *actinidiae* isolates for which read data

was available.

Read data was corrected using the SPADEs correction module and Illumina

adapter sequences were removed with Trimmomatic allowing 2 seed mismatches,

with a palindrome and simple clip threshold of 30 and 10, respectively (52, 53).

Quality-based trimming was also performed using a sliding window approach to clip

the first 10 bases of each read as well as leading and trailing bases with quality scores

under 20, filtering out all reads with a length under 50 (53). PhiX and other common

sequence contaminants were filtered out using the Univec Database and duplicate

reads were removed (54).

Reads were mapped to the complete reference genome *Psa* NZ13 with

Bowtie2 and duplicates removed with SAM Tools (55, 56). Freebayes was used to

call variants with a minimum base quality 20 and minimum mapping quality 30 (57).

Variants were retained if they had a minimum alternate allele count of 10 reads and

fraction of 95% of reads supporting the alternate call. The average coverage was

calculated with SAM Tools and used as a guide to exclude overrepresented SNPs

(defined here as threefold higher coverage than the average) which may be caused by

mapping to repetitive regions. BCFtools filtering and masking was used to generate

final reference alignments including SNPs falling within the quality and coverage

thresholds described above and excluding SNPs within 3bp of an insertion or deletion

(indel) event or indels separated by 2 or fewer base pairs. Invariant sites with a

minimum coverage of 10 reads were also retained in the alignment, areas of low (less

than 10 reads) or no coverage are represented as gaps relative to the reference.

Freebayes variant calling includes indels and multiple nucleotide insertions as

well as single nucleotide insertions, however only SNPs were retained for

downstream phylogenetic analyses. An implementation of ClonalFrame suitable for

use with whole genomes was employed to identify recombinant regions using a

maximum likelihood starting tree generated by RaxML (58, 59). All substitutions

occurring within regions identified as being introduced due to recombination by

ClonalFrameML were removed from the alignments. The reference alignments were

manually curated to exclude substitutions in positions mapping to mobile elements

such as plasmids, integrative and conjugative elements and transposons.

Phylogenetic Analysis

The maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of 80 *Psa* strains comprising new

Chinese isolates and strains reflecting the diversity of all known lineages was built

with RAxML (version 7.2.8) using a 1,062,844bp core genome alignment excluding

all positions for which one or more genomes lacked coverage of 10 reads or higher

(59). Removal of 3,122 recombinant positions produced a 1,059,722bp core genome

alignment including 2,953 variant sites. Membership within each phylogenetic clade

corresponds to a minimum average nucleotide identity of 99.70%. The average

nucleotide identity was determined using a BLAST-based approach in JspeciesWS

(ANIb), using a subset of 32 *Psa* genome assemblies spanning all clades (60). In

order to fully resolve the relationships between more closely related recent outbreak

strains, a phylogeny was constructed using only the 62 *Psa*-3 strains. This was

determined using a 4,853,155bp core genome alignment (excluding 258 recombinant

SNPs), comprising invariant sites and 1,948 non-recombinant SNPs and invariant

sites. Trees were built with the generalized time-reversible model and gamma

distribution of site-specific rate variation (GTR+Γ) and 100 bootstrap replicates. *Psa*

C16 was used to root the tree as this was shown to be the most divergent member of

the phylogeny when including strains from multiple lineages. Nodes shown have

minimum bootstrap support values of 50.

Identification of the core and mobile genome

Genomes were assembled with SPAdes using the filtered, trimmed and

corrected reads (52). Assembly quality was improved with Pilon and annotated with

Prokka (61, 62). The pangenome of *Psa*-3 was calculated using the ROARY pipeline

(63). Orthologs present in 61 (out of a total of 62) genomes were considered core;

presence in 58-60, 9-57 and 1-8 were considered soft-core, shell and cloud genomes,

respectively. BLAST-based confirmation was used to confirm the identity predicted

virulence or pandemic-clade-restricted genes in genome assemblies.

Pathogenicity assays

Growth assays were performed using both stab inoculation as in McCann *et al*.

(2013) an initial inoculum of 10^8cfu/mL and four replicate plants at day 0 and six at

all subsequent sampling time points. Bacterial density in inoculated tissue was

assessed by serial dilution plating of homogenized tissue. Statistical significance

between each treatment at each time point was assessed using two-tailed t-tests with

uneven variance.

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TABLES

551   **Table 1. Origin of SNPs in core genomes**

552

		Intergenic	Synon	Nonsyn	Extension	Trunc	Total	
Psa-**3**	Mutation	412	583	927	2	24	1,948	
	Recombination	35	136	85	1	1	258	7.55
All *Psa*	Mutation	457	1,493	982	3	18	2,953	
	Recombination	355	2,212	558	2	5	3,132[1]	0.94

553   [1]For ten positions in the alignment, two recombination events were predicted to occur

 Table S1. Strains

ID	WGS origin	Host plant	Country	Year	Other collection/alias	Contigs	N50
C1[1]	Mazzaglia *et al*. (2012)	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Shaanxi, Wei	2010	CH2010-6, M7	470	24,560
C3	This paper	*A. deliciosa* 'Hayward'	China, Shaanxi, Xi'an, Zhouzhi	2012	ZY2, CC770	318	46,356
C9[1]	Butler *et al*. (2013)		China, Shaanxi, Wei County	2010	M228	346	38,960
C10	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Sichuan, Shifang	2012	850.1.1. CC822	325	45,191
C11	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Sichuan, Shifang	2012	850.2.2. CC823	335	50,545
C12	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Sichuan, Shifang	2012	850.4.1. CC826	339	48,835
C13	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Sichuan, Shifang	2012	850.5.1. CC827	326	44,835
C14	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Sichuan, Shifang	2012	850.6.1. CC828	326	44,683
C15	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hort16A'	China, Sichuan, Pengzhou, Cifeng	2012	913.1.1 CC835	327	54,039
C16	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Hubei, Enshi, Jianshi	2012	913.5.1, CC836	386	42,362
C17	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Sichuan, Qionglai, Huojing	2012	913.10.1, CC837	366	43,680
C18	This paper	*Actinidia* sp.	China, Shaanxi, Baoji, Meixian	2012	913.15.1, CC838	325	50,834
C24	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Chongqing, Wanzhou, Houshan	2014	120L3	338	48,742
C26	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Chongqing, Wanzhou, Houshan	2014	124L1	343	47,302
C27	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Chongqing, Wanzhou, Houshan	2014	124L7	364	48,757
C28	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Sichuan, Dujiangyan, Xujia	2014	139S2	343	46,114
C29	This paper	*A. deliciosa* 'Hayward'	China, Sichuan, Dujiangyan, Hongkou	2014	163S1	321	41,599
C30	This paper	*A. chinensis*	China, Sichuan, Dujiangyan, Hongkou	2014	165L4	334	43,004
C31	This paper	*A. chinensis*	China, Sichuan, Dujiangyan, Hongkou	2014	166L2	303	43,291
C48	This paper	*A. chinensis*	China, Hunan, Changde City, Shimen	2014	50L1	351	47,058
C54	This paper	*A. deliciosa*	China, Guizhou, Liupanshui, Panxian	2014	77L5	360	47,421
C62	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Jinyan'	China, Guizhou, Liupanshui, Liuzhi	2014	GZ410	327	45,829
C66	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Hubei, Yichang, Yiling	2014	YC5	333	48,710

C67	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Chongqing, Qianjiang, Jinxi	2012	163W4	310	46,111
C68	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Jinyan'	China, Guizhou, Liupanshui, Liuzhi	2014	GZ3-5	347	45,058
C69	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Jinyan'	China, Shaanxi, Xi'an, Zhouzhi	2014	SH1-14	304	47,863
C70	This paper	*A. chinensis*	China, Sichuan, Dujiangyan, Xujia	2014	141S5	327	48,715
C73	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Sichuan, Dujiangyan, Xujia	2014	139L10	365	48,937
C74	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Sichuan, Dujiangyan, Xiange	2014	148L1	326	47,058
C75	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hongyang'	China, Sichuan, Dujiangyan, Xiange	2014	148L4	336	47,058
CL4[1]	Butler *et al.* (2013	*A. deliciosa*	Chile, Maule	2010		370	37,470
I1[1]	Marceletti *et al.* (2011)	*A. deliciosa* 'Hayward'	Italy, Roma	1992	NCPPB3871	405	27,730
I2[1]	Marceletti *et al.* (2011)	*A. chinensis* 'Hort16A'	Italy, Latina	2008	CRAFRU8.43	523	22,372
I3[1]	Mazzaglia *et al.* (2012)	*A. chinensis* 'Hort16A'	Italy, Lazio	2008	CFBP 7286	329	31,420
I10[1]	Butler *et al.* (2013)	*A. deliciosa*	Italy, Roma	2010	ICMP18744, CRAFRU11.41	358	35,904
I11	Mazzaglia *et al.* (2012)	*A. chinensis* 'Jin Tao'	Italy, Veneto	2008	CFBP 7285	359	33,568
I13	Mazzaglia *et al.* (2012)	*A. deliciosa* 'Hayward'	Italy, Lazio	2008	CFBP 7287	357	36,668
J1[1]	Baltrus *et al.* (2011)	*A. deliciosa*	Japan, Kanagawa	1984	MAFF 302091	248	65,551
J2[1]	Mazzaglia *et al.* (2012)	*A. chinensis*	Japan	1988	PA459	634	17,643
J25[1]	Mazzaglia *et al.* (2012)	*A. deliciosa* 'Hayward'	Japan, Shizuoka	1984	KW41	570	18,393
J29	McCann *et al.* (2013)	A. arguta	Japan, Kanagawa	1987	MAFF302133, JpSar1	412	30,107
J30	McCann *et al.* (2013)	A. arguta	Japan, Kanagawa	1987	MAFF302134, JpSar2	401	32,586
J31	McCann *et al.* (2013)	*A. deliciosa* 'Hayward'	Japan, Kanagawa	1987	MAFF302143, JpKiw4	1723	4,505
J32	McCann *et al.* (2013)	*A. deliciosa* 'Hayward'	Japan, Wakayama	1988	MAFF302145, JpWa1	465	33,908
J33	McCann *et al.* (2013)	*A. deliciosa* 'Hayward'	Japan, Wakayama	1988	MAFF302146, JpWa2	410	31,305
J35	McCann *et al.* (2013)	*A. deliciosa* 'Hayward'	Japan, Shizuoka	1984	NCPPB 3739, Kw11	368	39,207
J36[1]	Butler *et al.* (2013)	*A. deliciosa* 'Hayward'	Japan, Shizuoka	1984	Kw1	417	27,018
J37[1]	Fujikawa & Sawada (2015)		Japan, Saga	2014	PRJDB2950	291	50,639
J38	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hort16A'	Japan	2014		313	48,009

ID	Reference	Species	Location	Year	Code		
J39[2]	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hort16A'	Japan, Saga	2014		1221	9,308
K3	Mazzaglia *et al.* (2012)	*A. deliciosa*	Korea, Jeonnam	1997	KN.2	962	10,103
K4	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hort16A'	Korea	2014		258	46,118
K5	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hort16A'	Korea, Jeju	2014		313	46,355
K6	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hort16A'	Korea	2011		270	43,774
K7	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hort16A'	Korea	2014		330	46,153
K26	McCann *et al.* (2013)	*A. chinensis*	Korea, Jeonnam	1997	KACC10584	290	36,930
K27	McCann *et al.* (2013)	*A. chinensis*	Korea, Jeonnam	1998	KACC10594	413	25,076
K28	McCann *et al.* (2013)	*A. chinensis*	Korea, Jeonnam	1997	KACC10574	297	37,347
NZ13	McCann *et al.* (2013)	*A. deliciosa* 'Hayward'	New Zealand, Te Puke	2010		1	
NZ31[1]	Butler *et al.* (2013)	*A. deliciosa*	New Zealand, Paengaroa	2010		382	33,149
NZ32[1]	Butler *et al.* (2013)	*A. chinensis*	New Zealand, Te Puke	2010		367	31,162
NZ33[1]	Butler *et al.* (2013)		New Zealand, Te Puke	2011	TP1	380	31,549
NZ34[1]	Butler *et al.* (2013)		New Zealand, Te Puke	2011	6.1	386	46,155
NZ35	This paper	*Actinidia* sp.	New Zealand, Te Puke	2010		330	47,026
NZ37	This paper	*Actinidia* sp.	New Zealand, Te Puke	2010	BF	317	46,211
NZ38	This paper	*A. deliciosa*	New Zealand, Te Puke	2014	627	322	46,155
NZ39	This paper	*A. deliciosa*	New Zealand, Te Puke	2014	670	315	46,155
NZ40	This paper	*A. deliciosa*	New Zealand, Te Puke	2014	793	322	45,201
NZ41	This paper	*A. deliciosa*	New Zealand, Te Puke	2014	854.2	322	46,356
NZ42	This paper	*A. deliciosa*	New Zealand, Te Puke	2014	632.1	322	48,669
NZ43	This paper	*A. deliciosa*	New Zealand, Te Puke	2014	694.1	322	44,416
NZ45	This paper	*A. deliciosa*	New Zealand, Te Puke	2014	1014	364	48,150
NZ46	This paper	*A. chinensis*	New Zealand, Matakana Island	2012		325	48,671
NZ47	This paper		New Zealand, Te Puke	2014	851	320	46,212
NZ48	This paper	*A. chinensis* 'Hort16A'	New Zealand, Te Puke	2013	821	320	48,955

NZ49	This paper		New Zealand, Te Puke	2011	691		325	46,155
NZ54	This paper	*A. chinensis*	New Zealand, Pukekohe	2014			323	48,754
NZ59	This paper		New Zealand	2015			315	44,129
NZ60	This paper		New Zealand	2015			332	38,090
P1	Mazzaglia *et al.* (2012)	*A. deliciosa* 'Summer'	Portugal	2010	346		354	31,352

556 [1]Simulated reads were generated from contigs available for these previously sequenced genomes
557 [2]Different sequencing runs were employed for draft genome assembly and variant calling

Table S2. Average percent identity within and between Psa lineages

Lineage	*Psa*-1	*Psa*-2	*Psa*-3	*Psa*-5
Psa-1	99.70			
Psa-2	98.97	99.76		
Psa-3	99.06	98.91	99.73	
Psa-5	98.87	98.96	98.83	ND[1]

561
562 [1]Not determined for *Psa*-5 as only a single strain has been sequenced from this lineage. ANIb values
563 determined using representative strains for *Psa*-1 (J31, K3, J2, J1, J30, J29, J35, J32, J33, I1, J36, J25),
564 *Psa*-2 (K27, K6, K4, K26, K28), *Psa*-3 (C16, C17, C10, C11, C70, K7, C15, C54, C74, C69, K5, C62,
565 I13, NZ13) and *Psa*-5 (J37)

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567

568 **Table S3. SNPs shared between all pandemic NZ and Japanese isolates**

Protein ID (NZ13)	Product	Codon
AKT31947.1	ion channel protein Tsx	71 (silent)
AKT32845.1	bifunctional glutamine-synthetase adenylyltransferase	W977R
AKT30494.1	chromosome segregation protein SMC	H694Q
AKT29651.1	cytidylate kinase	V173L
AKT32264.1	peptidase PmbA	M418K
Intergenic		362,522 (G->T)

570 **Table S4. Isolates identified by cultivation and disease status of host**

	A. arguta	*A. callosa*	*A. chinensis* var. *chinensis*	*A. chinensis* var. *deliciosa*	*Actinidia* sp.	*Camellia* sp.	*Prunus* sp.	Total
Cultivated	3		373	350	1	45	45	817
Disease	3		323	244		30	45	645
Not determined	2		121	81		20	10	234
Pseudomonas spp.	1		123	120		8	35	287
P. syringae			12	23		2		37
Psa			67	20				87
Healthy			27	44		1		72
Not determined			10	16		1		27
Pseudomonas spp.			17	28				45
P. syringae								0
Psa								0
Suspected			17	62		14		93
Not determined			9	27		1		37
Pseudomonas spp.			7	31		12		50
P. syringae			1	4		1		6
Psa								0
Wild	38	15	157	230		21		461
Disease	14		3					17
Not determined	2		1					3
Pseudomonas spp.	11		2					13
P. syringae	1							1
Psa								0
Healthy	10	15	62	214		21		322
Not determined	3	3	33	121		16		176
Pseudomonas spp.		12	15	81		4		112

P. syringae	7		14	12		1		34
Psa								0
Suspected	14		92	16				122
Not determined	4		33	11				48
Pseudomonas spp.	10		42	5				57
P. syringae			17					17
Psa								0
Total	41	15	530	580	1	66	45	1278

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575 **FIGURES**

576 **Figure 1. Phylogeny of *Psa***

579 **Figure 2. Phylogeny of *Psa*-3**

581 **Figure 3. Psa isolation locations in East Asia**
582

585   **Figure 4. Genomic context of polymorphisms in *Psa*-3**

Psa NZ13 CDS
Recombinant regions
Polymorphisms

589 **Figure 5. Pangenome of *Psa*-3**

594   **Figure S1. Bacterial growth assay of *Psa* on *A. chinensis***
595

A   **Bacterial density in *A. chinensis* var. *chinensis* Hort16A stem tissue (cfu/g)**

B   **Bacterial density in *A. chinensis* var. *deliciosa* Hayward stem tissue (cfu/g)**

597 **Figure S2. *Wss* operon disruption in *Psa*-3**
598

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Phylogeny of *Psa*

RaxML Maximum likelihood tree based on 1,059,722bp non-recombinant core

genome alignment including 2,953 variant sites. All nodes displayed have bootstrap

support values above 50% (50-75% in green, 76-100% in blue). Province of isolation

is displayed for Chinese isolates.

Figure 2. Phylogeny of *Psa*-3

Maximum likelihood tree based on 4,853,155bp non-recombinant core genome

alignment including 1,948 variant sites. All nodes displayed have bootstrap support

values above 55% (55-80% in green, 81-100% in blue). Year and province (China) or

country of isolation is displayed. Integrative and conjugative elements (ICEs) present

in each host genome are indicated.

Figure 3. Psa isolation locations in East Asia

Filled circles' positions correspond to location of isolation (select Japanese and

Korean isolates do not have reliable isolation location information). Colour

corresponds to the phylogenetic position of the isolates as shown in Figure S1. Map

generated in Microreact.

Figure 4. Genomic context of polymorphisms in *Psa*-3

Polymorphisms and recombinant regions mapped onto *Psa* NZ13 reference genome

using CIRCOS (64). *Psa* NZ13 CDS are displayed in the first and second ring (blue),

with annotated Type 3 secretion system and effectors highlighted (red). Inner rings

display polymorphisms in *Psa*-3 genomes ordered from most to least divergent

relative to *Psa* NZ13 (see Figure 2). The most polymorphic region corresponds to the

location of the integrative and conjugative element (ICE) in *Psa* NZ13.

Figure 5. Pangenome of *Psa*-3

A. Presence/absence matrix of all core and accessory genes in *Psa*-3, ordered

according to strains' phylogenetic relationships. Country of isolation is indicated at

left. B. The core and flexible genome of *Psa*-3. The core, soft-core, shell and cloud

genomes are defined according to the numbers in parentheses. C. Number of new,

unique and conserved genes with addition of each genome.

Figure S1. Bacterial growth assay on *A. deliciosa*

Bacterial growth of pandemic *Psa* NZ13, I4 (red) and divergent C17 (orange) strains

on *A. chinensis* var. *chinensis* 'Hort16A' and *A. chinensis* var. *deliciosa* 'Hayward'.

Mean *in planta* bacterial density in stem tissue (cfu/g) at 0, 3 and 7 days post-

inoculation is shown (mean ± SEM) with superscript denoting significant difference

between strains at each sampling time (P<0.05, two-tailed t-test, unequal variance).

Four replicate plants were assayed at day 0, and six replicates at each subsequent time

point.

Figure S2. Wss operon disruption in *Psa*-3

Genes encoding components of the *wss* operon (blue), hypothetical and conserved

hypothetical (light and dark grey), chemotaxis, diguanylate cyclase and *aroA* (green).

Deletions (black line) and position of single base pair insertion (red triangle)

displayed with reference to *Pto* DC3000. Insertion results in frameshift mutation in

wssE, two predicted derivatives annotated as *wssE1* and *wssE2*. The subsequent 6.5kb

deletion in the ancestor of the pandemic subclade results in the truncation of *wssE2*,

annotated as *wssE2'*.

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