Nitric Oxide Regulates the *Ralstonia solanacearum* Type 3 Secretion System

Connor G. Hendrich[1], Alicia N. Truchon[1], Beth L. Dalsing[1,2], and Caitilyn Allen[1*]

[1] Department of Plant Pathology, University of Wisconsin – Madison, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

[2] Present address: Syngenta, Durham, NC

[*] Correspondence: callen@wisc.edu (Caitilyn Allen)

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Abstract

Ralstonia solancearum causes bacterial wilt disease on diverse plant hosts. *R. solanacearum* cells enter a host from soil or infested water through the roots, then multiply and spread in the water-transporting xylem vessels. Despite the low nutrient content of xylem sap, *R. solanacearum* grows extremely well inside the host, using denitrification to respire in this hypoxic environment. *R. solanacearum* growth *in planta* also depends on the successful deployment of protein effectors into host cells using a Type III Secretion System (T3SS). The T3SS is absolutely required for *R. solanacearum* virulence, but it is metabolically costly and can trigger host defenses. Thus, the pathogen's success depends on optimized regulation of the T3SS. We found that a byproduct of denitrification, the toxic free-radical nitric oxide (NO), positively regulates the *R. solanacearum* T3SS both *in vitro* and *in planta*. Using chemical treatments and *R. solanacearum* mutants with altered NO levels, we show that the expression of a key T3SS regulator is induced by NO in culture. Analyzing the transcriptome of *R. solanacearum* responding to varying levels of NO both in culture and *in planta* revealed that the T3SS and effectors were broadly upregulated with increasing levels of NO. This regulation was specific to the T3SS and was not shared by other stressors. Our results suggest that *R. solanacearum* experiences an NO-rich environment in the plant host and may use this NO as a signal to activate T3SS during infection.

Introduction

Ralstonia solancearum (*Rs*) is a Gram-negative soil-borne betaproteobacterium that causes bacterial wilt disease on a wide range of plant hosts, including important crops like tomato, potato, and banana (Elphinstone, 2005). The bacteria survive in and are spread through infected soil and water, infecting host roots through wounds and natural openings (Vasse *et al.*, 1994). Once inside, *R. solanacearum* cells move to the xylem, where they can grow and spread throughout the plant. Although this bacterium is slow growing and sensitive to stress when grown *in vitro*, in plant xylem vessels *R. solanacearum* is a formidable force. *R. solanacearum* quickly grows to high cell densities in xylem even

though this habitat is low in oxygen and nutrients, and accessible to host defenses (Genin and Denny,

2012). As it grows, *R. solanacearum* produces an arsenal of virulence factors, including highly mucoid

extracellular polymeric substances (EPS), a consortium of cell wall degrading enzymes, and dozens of

protein effectors that are injected into host cells via the Type III Secretion System (T3SS) (Genin and

Denny, 2012). Water transport in infected plants is eventually blocked by a combination of host-produced

gels and tyloses, degradation of vessel walls, EPS, and the sheer mass of bacterial cells. Without

sufficient water, plants wilt and die while *R. solanacearum* cells escape back into the soil, where they can

find another host (Swanson *et al.*, 2007).

The lethality of bacterial wilt disease combined with its wide host range and a lack of effective

treatments make *R. solanacearum* an important agricultural problem around the world (Elphinstone,

2005; Yuliar *et al.*, 2015). Successful disease management depends on understanding *R. solanacearum*

biology, but the pathogen behaves very differently in culture than it does in its natural environment

(Jacobs *et al.*, 2012). In particular, the T3SS, which is absolutely essential for virulence and subject to a

complex regulatory cascade, is affected by the plant environment in ways that remain poorly understood

(Poueymiro and Genin, 2009). The PhcA quorum sensing system upregulates T3 secretion in culture, but

not *in planta* (Génin *et al.*, 2005; Jacobs *et al.*, 2012; Khokhani *et al.*, 2017; Monteiro, Genin, *et al.*, 2012).

An unidentified 'diffusible factor' increases T3SS expression *in planta* via the HrpG global regulator

(Genin and Denny, 2012).

We have discovered that the diffusible free radical nitric oxide (NO) plays a role in *R.*

solanacearum life inside plants. Xylem sap is rich in nitrate, which *R. solanacearum* uses as an alternate

electron acceptor to respire in the hypoxic xylem environment (Dalsing *et al.*, 2015). The *R.*

solanacearum strain GMI1000 reduces nitrate completely to dinitrogen gas by means of denitrifying

respiration. The genes required for this process are highly expressed during infection (Jacobs *et al.*,

2012; Khokhani *et al.*, 2017). However, denitrifying respiration produces NO as an intermediate. In large

quantities, NO is toxic and strongly inhibits *R. solanacearum* growth. The pathogen manages this threat

by detoxifying NO with the nitric oxide reductase NorB and the flavohemoglobin HmpX, which are both

highly expressed *in planta* and required for full virulence (Dalsing *et al.*, 2015; Jacobs *et al.*, 2012). Plants

use NO extensively for both signaling and defense, and can produce NO through multiple different

pathways (Delledonne *et al.*, 1998; Leitner *et al.*, 2009; Scheler *et al.*, 2013; Simontacchi *et al.*, 2015;

Wilson *et al.*, 2008). Thus, *R. solanacearum* likely encounters NO during plant pathogenesis.

In this study, we identify a link between NO and regulation of the *R. solanacearum* T3SS. We first

show that T3SS gene expression increases when *R. solanacearum* is actively denitrifying. We then show

that this effect depends specifically on the presence of NO. Based on these results, we conducted a

transcriptomics experiment to determine the effects of NO on *R. solanacearum* gene expression in culture

and *in planta* and show that levels of many transcripts, including 107 T3SS-related genes, are altered by

changes in NO levels.

Results

Nitric oxide changes expression of the *R. solanacearum* T3SS

Regulation of the T3SS in *R. solanacearum* is multi-layered and incompletely understood (Figure

1a). Because *R. solanacearum* actively denitrifies *in planta*, we wondered if this pathway or its products

affect T3SS expression during plant infection (Dalsing *et al.*, 2015; Jacobs *et al.*, 2012). To test this

hypothesis, we used an *R. solanacearum* reporter strain carrying a fusion of the *lux* operon to the

promoter of *hrpB*, which encodes a key T3SS regulator (Genin and Denny, 2012). Transcription of *hrpB*

increased >3-fold when the bacterium was denitrifying in culture (Figure 1b). We therefore further

explored how denitrification and NO specifically affect *hrpB* expression. We incubated a *hrpB::lux* cell

suspension with tomato seedlings for 24 hours with or without the NO scavenger cPTIO (Pfeiffer *et al.*,

1997). As expected, the presence of a host plant activated *hrpB* gene expression but adding cPTIO to the

mixture completely reversed this effect (Figure 1c). This indicated that the denitrifying respiration-

dependent increase in *hrpB* expression that we observed in culture is specifically triggered by NO.

Further, this result suggests that NO could be the unknown soluble signal that increases *hrp* regulon

expression *in planta*.

Figure 1 Nitric oxide affects expression of the *R. solanacearum* T3SS. **(a)** Summary of known T3SS

regulation in *R. solanacearum* strain GMI1000. Arrows indicate positive regulation, barred lines indicate

repression, dashed lines indicate an unknown or uncharacterized mechanism, green text indicates plant-

derived signals, and blue text indicates metabolites. T3SS genes, such as the T3 effector *ripX*, are

controlled by the transcriptional regulator HrpB. HrpB is transcriptionally activated by HrpG and PrhG,

which are themselves controlled by the quorum-sensing regulator PhcA, but only *in vitro*. PrhG activity

also depends on three uncharacterized proteins, PrhK, PrhL, and PrhM, through an unknown mechanism.

HrpG is activated by the contact-dependent plant cell wall sensor PrhA as well as by an unknown soluble

signal present during plant infection. **(b)** Expression of a bacterial luciferase transcriptional reporter of

HrpB. *R. solanacearum* strain GMI1000 *hrpB::lux* was grown in denitrification-inducing conditions with or

without 30 mM nitrate. Both culture density (OD_{600}) and luminescence were measured every 30 min, and

luminescence was normalized to culture density. Error bars represent standard error of the mean.

Cultures grown with nitrate had significantly increased *hrpB* expression (2-way ANOVA, P=0.0003). **(c)**

The NO scavenger cPTIO decreased T3SS activity in the presence of a host. Luminescence of *R.*

solanacearum hrpB::lux was measured after 24 h incubation in water with or without five day-old tomato

seedlings, and with or without 1 mM cPTIO, an NO-scavenger. Exposure to tomato seedlings induced

hrpB::lux expression (P=0.004, students T test). *R. solanacearum* cells exposed to both tomato seedlings

and cPTIO had luminescence indistinguishable from that of cells without tomato seedlings. Error bars

represent standard error of the mean.

Denitrifying metabolism causes broad changes in *R. solanacearum* gene expression.

To better understand the effects of NO on *Rs* biology, we sequenced the transcriptomes of *R.*

solanacearum cells grown with varying levels of NO both in culture and in infected tomato plants (Figure

2a). In culture, we grew the cells in 0.1% O_2 in a modified Van den Mooter medium (VDM), which

promotes denitrifying respiration (Dalsing *et al.*, 2015). We manipulated intracellular *R. solanacearum* NO

levels genetically by using mutants lacking either the NarG nitrate reductase (the *ΔnarG* mutant cannot

denitrify and does not produce NO), or the NorB nitric oxide reductase (the *ΔnorB* mutant accumulates

NO, see Supplementary Figure 1). Exogenous NO levels were manipulated by treating cells with CysNO,

a nitrosothiol NO donor. Because high NO levels are toxic to *R. solanacearum*, we controlled for general

stress responses by also profiling transcriptomes of cultures treated with H_2O_2, a non-NO source of

stress. After about 18 h, growth of the *ΔnorB* mutant was inhibited by accumulating NO, so we sampled

cultures 16 hpi, when *ΔnarG*, *ΔnorB*, and the wild-type strain were at similar densities (Supplementary

Figure 1). CysNO or H_2O_2 treatments were added 4 h before sampling, at the highest concentrations that

did not significantly alter culture growth (Supplementary Figure 2a). Total RNA was extracted from

bacteria *in planta* 3 days after tomato plants were inoculated with ~2000 CFU of *R. solanacearum*

through a cut petiole (Khokhani *et al.*, 2017). This method synchronized the infection process better than

root inoculation. Bacterial colonization in sampled tissue was standardized by extracting RNA only from

stems containing between $5x10^7$ and 10^9 CFU/g stem, as determined by dilution plating a ground stem

section (Supplementary Figure 2B). Each of the three biological replicates contained pooled RNA from 4

or 5 plants.

Figure 2 Nitric oxide causes broad changes in _R. solanacearum_ gene expression. **(a)** Design of RNA-seq experiment. We extracted RNA from _R. solanacearum_ grown with altered NO levels from stems of infected tomato plants (_in planta)_ and from denitrifying VDM medium (in culture) and NO levels were increased chemically by adding the NO donor CysNO to wild type (WT) and increased genetically by

using a NO-accumulating *Δ*norB mutant. The *ΔnarG* mutant has reduced levels of NO. H_2O_2 -treated WT

was included as a control for non-nitrosative general stress responses. **(b)** Whole-transcriptome datasets

were used for principal component analysis; plot created in R with the package Vegan (Oksanen, *et al.*,

2019). Each data point represents one biological replicate, with three replicates per condition. Ellipses

represent a 95% confidence interval for each condition (some ellipses are so small that they appear as

lines).

Around 97% of RNA-seq reads from *in vitro* samples mapped to the *R. solanacearum* genome

(Supplementary Figure 3A). Because tomato stem slices also included host RNA, only 9.2% of the *in*

planta RNA reads mapped to the *R. solanacearum* genome. However, the absolute number of bacterial

transcripts from the *in planta* samples still exceeded 10^6 reads per replicate. Principal component

analysis clustered the *in vitro* samples together based on treatment, and the *in planta* samples were even

more tightly clustered, reflecting less variation in gene expression than the culture samples (Figure 2b).

Genes were considered differentially expressed if they had an adjusted P-value <0.05. A full list of gene

expression values can be found in Supplementary Table 2.

We validated our transcriptomic results by using qRT-PCR to measure the expression of two

regulators of T3SS, *hrpB* and *hrpG*, and one well-expressed T3E, *ripX*. Expression levels of each of these

genes in the *ΔnarG* and *ΔnorB* mutants closely matched those obtained from RNA-seq analysis (Figure

3). As with *hrpB* expression, *hrpG* and *ripX* were both activated by NO, whether it was produced

endogenously or exogenously.

Figure 3 Expression analysis of selected T3SS-related genes by qRT-PCR validated RNA-seq

results. RNA was extracted from *R. solanacearum* cultured in VDM media at 0.1% oxygen for 16 hours

for both qRT-PCR and RNA-seq analysis. *R. solanacearum* samples were: wild type strain GMI1000 (WT,

untreated control reference), non-denitrifying low-NO mutant *(ΔnarG)* and NO-accumulating mutant

(ΔnorB), and WT treated for 4h with exogenous NO (CysNO). Gene expression levels in all samples were

normalized using *serC* (Jacobs *et al.*, 2012). Error bars indicate standard error of the mean. Black bars,

$\log_2$fold-change expression of T3SS regulatory gene *hrpB;* green bars, $\log_2$ fold-change expression of

T3SS regulatory gene *hrpG;* blue bars, $\log_2$ fold-change expression of Type 3-secreted effector gene

ripX. * *P*<0.05, for qRT, student's t-test compared to gene expression level in untreated WT bacteria; for

RNA-seq, FDR using Benjamini-Hochberg.

Denitrifying conditions in culture do not replicate *in planta* conditions

Because xylem fluid contains relatively small amounts of nutrients, minimal media has often been

considered to mimic the xylem environment (Arlat *et al.*, 1992; Lowe-Power, Hendrich, *et al.*, 2018).

Because VDM is a minimal medium and *R. solanacearum* experiences low-oxygen conditions and uses

denitrifying respiration during tomato infection, we asked if anaerobic growth in VDM would better mimic

the tomato xylem environment than rich media (Dalsing *et al.*, 2015). However, when we examined

expression of *R. solanacearum* genes in tomato stems compared to in VDM, we found a total of 1038

genes were differentially regulated in these conditions (Supplementary Table 2). Most genes involved in

denitrification were expressed at a higher level in VDM than *in planta*. Other broad categories that were

altered include sugar metabolism, flagellar motility, amino acid transporters, iron uptake genes, and

ribosomal proteins. In line with previous results, T3SS-related genes were among the most highly

upregulated genes *in planta* (Jacobs *et al.*, 2012). Overall, growth in VDM did not closely replicate the *in*

planta environment and the bacterium seemed more reliant on denitrifying metabolism in VDM.

Altering denitrification and NO levels causes large gene expression shifts in culture, but minor

shifts *in planta*

To determine if the effects of NO on the T3SS were specific or a part of a general response, we

examined genes differentially regulated by altering NO levels chemically and genetically. *In planta*, 187

genes were significantly altered by blocking denitrification and NO production in *ΔnarG* while only 49

genes were altered in the NO accumulating *ΔnorB*. In *ΔnarG*, nine of the most significantly upregulated

genes were directly involved in nitrate sensing and uptake or were components of the nitrate reductase

protein, though expression of sulfur metabolic and flagellar assembly genes and the alkanesulfonate

uptake protein *ssuB* were also decreased (Supplementary Table 3). When the *ΔnorB* mutant grew *in*

planta, expression of *ssuB and* some genes involved in chemotaxis and flagellar assembly were

decreased relative to the wild-type strain. This muted response highlights the robust regulatory state of *R.*

solanacearum growing *in planta* and shows that even changes in fundamental aspects of its biology can

tolerated (Peyraud *et al.*, 2018).

The transcriptomic profiles of the denitrification mutants grown in culture were much more

divergent, with 3,145 significantly altered genes in *ΔnarG* and 3,976 altered in *ΔnorB*. In the non-

denitrifying *ΔnarG*, the bacterium showed changes in many metabolic pathways, some of which

suggested reduced growth and metabolic activity. Down-regulated genes were enriched in KEGG

pathways like purine and pyrimidine metabolism, oxidative phosphorylation, and tRNA synthetases

(Supplementary Table 3). As also observed *in planta*, *ΔnarG* had reduced expression in genes involved in

sulfate and alkanesulfonate uptake and sulfate reduction. *ΔnarG* also had increased expression of

flagellar assembly and chemotaxis genes and decreased expression of genes associated with the Sec-

dependent secretion and the Type II secretion systems.

Genes up-regulated in the NO-accumulating *ΔnorB* mutant were enriched in the KEGG pathways

of flagellar assembly, sulfur relay system and fatty acid degradation (Supplementary Table 3).

Downregulated genes were enriched in central metabolic KEGG pathways like oxidative phosphorylation,

pyrimidine metabolism, biosynthesis of amino acids, and fatty acid biosynthesis. Many of the most highly

induced genes were annotated as being involved in either siderophore synthesis or iron uptake, a trend

that was also observed in CysNO-treated cells. CysNO-treated *R. solanacearum* cells and *ΔnorB* also

saw reduction in expression of Types I, II, and VI secretion systems.

R. solanacearum encounters more nitrosative stress in VDM than *in planta*

To determine the overlap between oxidative and nitrosative stress responses, we examined the

expression of genes known to be involved in ROS and RNS responses in *R. solanacearum* and *E. coli*.

General ROS-responsive genes included *oxyR*, *katEG*, *sodBC*, *groEL, groES*, *dnaK*, *recA*, *ahpF* and

ahpC1, *ndh*, *icsA*, *zwf*, *trxA*, and *gor* (Flores-Cruz and Allen, 2009; Flores-Cruz and Allen, 2011). To

search for a purely nitrosative response, we looked at the expression of *norB* and *hmpX*, which directly

detoxify NO in *R. solanacearum* (Dalsing *et al.*, 2015; Farr and Kogoma, 1991). Transcriptomes of *R.*

solanacearum cells grown in tomato stems indicated increased oxidative stress *in planta* relative to when

growing in VDM. Expression of the *katE* catalase increased 35-fold in wild type bacteria growing in

tomato, but *norB* and *hmpX* expression decreased 5-fold and 20-fold, suggesting lower nitrosative stress

levels. *In planta*, neither the non-denitrifying *ΔnarG* strain nor the NO overproducing *ΔnorB* strain showed

significant changes any known oxidative stress response genes or in *norB* or *hmpX* expression. In

culture, our oxidative stress control treatment with H_2O_2 increased expression of *katE*. The H_2O_2 treated

cells also had increased expression of NO detoxifying genes *hmpX* and *norB*. The non-denitrifying *ΔnarG*

mutant showed changes in most oxidative stress response genes, with decreased expression of a few

key genes, such as superoxide dismutase. The NO accumulating *ΔnorB* saw an overall similar trend to

ΔnarG in its expression of oxidative stress response genes, except it had decreased expression of the

chaperones *groES* and *groEL* and increased expression of the iron-sulfur protein *sufA*. As expected, the

ΔnorB mutant transcriptome suggested NO stress, with an 11-fold up-regulation of the NO-detoxifying

hmpX. Overall, these results showed some overlap in the response to ROS and RNS stress in culture

and suggested that *R. solanacearum in planta* experienced less nitrosative stress in tomato xylem than

denitrifying in VDM.

Nitric oxide induced expression of T3SS-related genes both *in vitro* and *in planta*.

To determine if in addition to *hrpB*, other T3SS-associated genes are induced by NO in culture,

we measured relative expression of all 107 known *R. solanacearum* T3SS genes under each tested

condition. These genes encode T3SS structural elements, regulators, secreted effectors, and chaperones

(Figure 4, Supplementary Table 4) (Brito *et al.*, 1999; Cunnac *et al.*, 2004; Génin *et al.*, 2005; Van

Gijsegem *et al.*, 1995; Lonjon *et al.*, 2015; Lonjon *et al.*, 2017; Marc Marenda *et al.*, 1998; Peeters *et al.*,

2013; Plener *et al.*, 2010; Zhang *et al.*, 2011; Y., Zhang *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2018). Cells of the NO-

accumulating *ΔnorB* mutant grown in culture had broadly increased T3SS gene expression relative to wild

type, with nine of sixteen structural elements significantly increased. Only one structural element, *hrpF*,

trended non-significantly towards reduced expression (Figure 4a). Five out of thirteen known regulators of

T3SS were significantly upregulated in *ΔnorB*, although expression of the *prhA*, *prhG*, *prhO*, and the

prhKLM operon were all reduced. Two out of the four T3E chaperones had significantly elevated

expression in *ΔnorB*, as did most T3Es. The differential expression of effectors did not seem to correlate

with their known interactions with chaperones (Supplementary table 4). The expression of T3SS genes in

CysNO-treated cells largely mirrored that of *norB*, with 80% of tested genes having a similar trend.

However, the magnitude of the effect was lower. T3SS gene expression in *ΔnarG* was more varied, with

fewer significantly differentially regulated genes than *ΔnorB*. In contrast to *ΔnorB*, *ΔnarG*, and CysNO-

treated cultures, H_2O_2-treated cultures had only eight significantly changed T3SS genes (Figure 4a).

Overall, we saw a greater induction of T3SS genes in culture by our high-NO conditions than low-NO

conditions.

(a) vs WT in culture

(b) vs WT *in planta*

(c) WT in culture vs WT *in planta*

Figure 4 Nitric oxide alters expression of T3SS-related genes both *in vitro* and *in planta*. (a)

Heatmap showing relative expression levels of 107 T3SS-associated genes in *R. solanacearum* cells

growing in rich medium with varying NO levels. All fold-change numbers are compared to levels in

untreated wild-type (WT) cells. Gene annotations, fold change, and significance levels can be found in

Supplementary table 4. NO levels were modified genetically using mutants lacking *narG* (deleting this

nitrate reductase reduces endogenous NO) and *norB* (deleting this nitric oxide reductase increases

endogenous NO). NO levels were increased chemically by adding 1 mM CysNO. Cells treated with 100

μM hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) were a non-NO control to show general stress responses. **(b)** Relative

expression levels of 107 T3SS-associated genes in *R. solanacearum* cells growing *in planta*. About 2000

CFU of WT *R. solanacearum, ΔnarG*, or *ΔnorB* were introduced into 17-day old Bonny Best tomato plants

through a cut petiole and RNA was harvested from a stem slice 3 days after inoculation. **(c)** Expression of

most T3SS-associated genes in *R. solanacearum* strain GMI1000 was enhanced when the bacterium

grew in tomato plants relative to when *R. solanacearum* cells multiplied *in vitro* under denitrifying

conditions (VDM medium, 0.1% O_2).

To determine if altering NO levels affects *R. solanacearum* T3SS gene expression in a

biologically relevant environment with all natural T3SS regulating inputs, we examined changes in T3SS

gene expression in *ΔnarG* and *ΔnorB in planta*. Compared to *R. solanacearum* grown in culture, wild type

R. solanacearum in planta had much higher expression of almost every T3SS-associated gene (Figure

3c). When growing in tomato stems, *ΔnorB* grown *in planta* had no significantly differentially regulated

T3SS genes, possibly because relatively high levels of NO are already present in the plant environment

(Figure 3b, Supplementary Table 4). In contrast, the non-denitrifying *ΔnarG* mutant showed an overall

trend of lower T3SS gene expression, with expression of nine genes significantly reduced (Figure 3b,

Supplementary Table 4). Even in the highly T3SS-inducing *in planta* environment, reducing *R.*

solanacearum-produced NO was sufficient to reduce T3SS gene expression in tomato xylem.

Discussion

The T3SS is essential for *R. solanacearum* virulence, as it is for many Gram-negative pathogenic

bacteria. Involving at least 16 structural proteins, this secretion system is metabolically expensive to

synthesize and operate, so the bacterium is under strong selection pressure to express it only when it

increases fitness (Boucher *et al.*, 1985; Genin *et al.*, 1992). Many factors contribute to the regulation of

T3SS in *R. solanacearum*, including the presence of undefined host cell wall materials, unknown soluble

factors, unknown metabolic cues, and (in culture) quorum sensing (Aldon *et al.*, 2000; Brito *et al.*, 1999;

Genin and Denny, 2012; Senuma *et al.*, 2020; Zhang *et al.*, 2011; Zhang *et al.*, 2018; Zuluaga *et al.*,

2013). While many T3SS regulators have been described, open questions remain, such as why T3SS is

repressed in rich media and whether specific host cell wall components activate PrhA. In addition, many

genes that affect T3SS gene expression do so via unknown mechanisms (Zhang *et al.*, 2011; Y., Zhang

et al., 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2018). The results presented here suggests that NO participates in this complex

regulatory network.

Despite its toxicity at high concentrations, NO is widely used as a signaling molecule in all domains of life

(Asgher *et al.*, 2017; Astuti *et al.*, 2018; Simmonds *et al.*, 2014). Many effects of NO are mediated by NO-

dependent protein post-translational modifications, including binding transition metals, S-nitrosylation of

cysteine, and tyrosine nitration (Cooper, 1999; Kolbert *et al.*, 2017; Leitner *et al.*, 2009; Russwurm and

Koesling, 2004; Simmonds *et al.*, 2014; Wünsche *et al.*, 2011; R., Zhang *et al.*, 2015). While most well-

characterized mechanisms of NO signaling have been described in eukaryotes, examples of NO signaling

in bacteria have also been identified. Species in *Legionella*, *Shewanella*, *Vibrio*, and *Silicibacter* have

been shown to use H-NOX proteins to sense NO and regulate biofilm formation (Carlson *et al.*, 2010;

Henares *et al.*, 2012; Liu *et al.*, 2012; Network *et al.*, 2012; Rao *et al.*, 2015). NO also contributes to

biofilm regulation in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* via the protein NosP (Hossain and Boon, 2017). Both H-

NOX proteins and NosP bind NO using iron centers, but no orthologues of these genes are apparent in

the *R. solanacearum* genome. The first example of S-nitrosylation in bacteria was the oxidative stress

response protein OxyR in *E. coli* (Seth *et al.*, 2012). OxyR regulates a distinct set of genes when a key

cysteine is nitrosylated rather than oxidized. In addition to this, nitrosative stress damage triggers S-

nitrosylation of the *Salmonella enterica* redox sensor SsrB and affects the S-nitroso proteome of

Mycobacterium tuberculosis (Husain *et al.*, 2010; Rhee *et al.*, 2005). Although we show NO activates a

key virulence factor in *R. solanacearum*, its specific mechanism of action is not yet known. Using *in silico*

predictions of NO-dependent post-translational modifications, we could identify and selectively modify

potentially important residues in T3SS regulatory proteins to determine the mechanism of NO-dependent

T3SS activation (Liu *et al.*, 2011; Xue *et al.*, 2010).

To explore the possibility that the up-regulation by NO of T3SS-associated genes in *R.*

solanacearum is mediated by S-nitrosylation, we searched for potential S-nitrosylation sites in T3SS

regulatory proteins using GPS-SNO (Xue *et al.*, 2010). The strain GMI1000 HrpB protein contains a

predicted S-nitrosylation site at cysteine 112 that is conserved across the RSSC and in the corresponding

regulatory protein HrpX in plant pathogenic Xanthomonads. However, we were unable to conclusively

test this hypothesis since mutating this residue yield ambiguous results (as might be expected for a

function regulated by many factors), and we were unable to purify sufficient HrpB protein to chemically

measure S-nitrosylation. Thus, this mechanism remains possible but unproven.

We found that expression of T3SS-associated genes was enhanced by the presence of a plant

host and by exogenous NO released by the NO donor CysNO, and the plant-mediated induction was

suppressed by the NO scavenger cPTIO. T3SS gene expression also increased in response to nitric

oxide produced by *R. solanacearum* itself, both at natural levels generated by denitrifying respiration and

at enhanced levels caused by deleting *norB*. As previously reported (Jacobs *et al.*, 2012; Khokhani *et al.*,

2017; Monteiro, Genin, *et al.*, 2012), *R. solanacearum* cells infecting tomato plants highly expressed most

T3SS genes, but reducing *R. solanacearum*-produced NO by preventing denitrifying respiration with a

ΔnarG mutation significantly decreased expression of some T3SS-related genes *in planta*. These

included genes encoding structural components, HrpF and HrcN, key regulators HrpB and PrhG, the

chaperone HpaG, and four T3-secreted effectors. This was especially striking because overall gene

expression in *ΔnarG* was otherwise very similar to that of wild type. These results raise the possibility that

R. solanacearum uses the presence of NO as an indirect indicator of the host xylem environment. There

was no increase in T3SS gene expression in the NO-overproducing *ΔnorB* mutant, which may indicate

that T3SS genes are already so highly expressed *in planta* that the addition of more NO does not further

increase this elevated level of expression.

Besides its effects on the T3SS, altering NO concentrations in culture elicited broad changes in

gene expression. We reduced NO levels using the non-denitrifying mutant *ΔnarG*. However, preventing

the cells from using the denitrification pathway has significant effects on the biology and metabolic state

of the cells, making the interpretation of these results challenging. For example, the *ΔnarG* cells grown in

culture showed evidence of decreases in growth rate and metabolic activity, indicated by decreased

expression in the biosynthetic pathways of nucleotides, reduced expression of the oxidative

phosphorylation system, and decreased production of many tRNAs. Treating the cells with NO, either with

exogenously applied CysNO or with the NO-overproducing *ΔnorB*, caused similar changes in many

metabolic pathways in culture. However, a primary force in culture was the stress caused by increased

NO concentrations. This manifested in decreased expression of denitrification and nitrate uptake

functions and an increased expression of the NO-detoxifying enzyme *hmpX*. This stress was associated

with decreased expression of most *R. solanacearum* secretion systems. However, expression of the

T3SS showed the opposite trend, indicating the specificity of NO-dependent T3SS regulation.

When denitrification mutants grew *in planta* they had far fewer alterations in gene expression

relative to wild type than when the mutants grew in culture. This suggests that inputs from the plant host

help *R. solanacearum* control its metabolism and behaviors. Overall, the cells grown *in planta* seem to

encounter less nitrosative stress than cells grown in denitrifying conditions in culture. This could mean

that NO stress is not as important *in planta* than in culture, but it does not take into account differences in

the microenvironments of the xylem environment. Bacteria grown in culture experience a uniform

environment with consistent NO stress. In contrast, *R. solanacearum* cells colonizing plant stems occupy

multiple different microenvironments, which likely contain varying NO levels.

A previous study compared gene expression between *R. solanacearum* grown in rich media and

R. solanacearum living in tomato xylem (Jacobs *et al.*, 2012). Although there were methodological

differences between that experiment and this one, we saw many similarities in the DEGs present between

in culture and *in planta R. solanacearum*. In both experiments, many of the most highly upregulated

genes are involved in the T3SS. Of the genes that were upregulated *in planta* in both experiments, 31 out

of 141 (~22%) encoded structural components, regulators, or effectors of the T3SS. Three exceptions to

this trend were *prhKLM*. Mutating any of these genes leads to a loss of T3SS gene expression, yet all

three were highly downregulated *in planta* compared to either CPG or VDM (Supplementary Table 4)

(Jacobs *et al.*, 2012; Zhang *et al.*, 2011). Several other genes that were highly upregulated *in planta* in

both experiments encode metabolism of sucrose or myo-inositol, two carbon sources important for *R.*

solanacearum during infection (Hamilton *et al.*, 2020; Lowe-Power, Khokhani, *et al.*, 2018; Xian *et al.*,

2020). Additionally, genes involved in flagellar motility were upregulated in both experiments. A similar

number of genes (137) were downregulated *in planta* in both experiments. These included several genes

predicted to be involved in amino acid transport and metabolism and the superoxide dismutase genes

sodB and *sodC*.

393   Components of the denitrification pathway were among the most highly upregulated *R.*

solanacearum genes *in planta* compared to in rich medium. Consistent with this observation, *R.*

solanacearum mutants unable to denitrify were reduced in growth *in planta* and in bacterial wilt virulence

(Dalsing 2015). However, the same genes were around 20-fold more highly expressed in denitrifying

culture than *in planta*. Further, the RNS-responsive NO-detoxifying genes *norB* and *hmpX* were

upregulated *in planta* compared to rich media but were expresses much less *in planta* than in denitrifying

conditions in culture. This indicates that *Rs* experiences more nitrosative stress when growing in

denitrifying culture conditions than when growing in the plant host, which in turn is more nitrosatively

stressful than aerobic growth in rich media. These data add to the strong evidence that *R. solanacearum*

gene expression and metabolism are very different in the biologically realistic host environment than in

culture. This may be due to the complex structure of the xylem environment, where host inputs modulate

R. solanacearum gene expression, the ability to form defensive biofilms and multiple microenvironments

with different nutrient or oxygen concentrations, or because the xylem is a flowing environment,

constantly bringing new nutrients into the bacterial habitat. The bacterium's behavior in culture should be

regarded as artifactual unless proven otherwise.

We attempted to directly measure the concentrations of NO in healthy and infected tomato xylem

collected from fluid pooling on a cut stem using the NO-reactive fluorescent dye DAF-FM, electro

paramagnetic resonance (EPR), and an NO-sensitive microsensor (Kleschyov *et al.*, 2007; Namin *et al.*,

2013; Schreiber *et al.*, 2008; Yoshioka *et al.*, 1996). While a fluorescent signal was observed when DAF-

FM was added to xylem sap, no signal was detected through EPR using the NO spin trap cPTIO or with

the microsensor (Unisense, Aarhus, Denmark), suggesting that the DAF-FM fluorescence was not

specific to NO. These results highlight the need to measure NO using multiple methods in biological

systems (Gupta and Igamberdiev, 2013). This failure to detect NO in tomato xylem may not reflect true

levels of NO in an intact plant. We collected xylem sap by de-topping tomato plants just above the

cotyledons and allowing root pressure to force xylem fluid to pool on the cut stem. Any material exuded in

the first two minutes after cutting was removed in an attempt to limit the amount of cellular debris and

phloem in the collected material. This method, while useful for obtaining sap to analyze for stable

metabolites may not work with a transient metabolite like NO (Lowe-Power, Hendrich, *et al.*, 2018).

Cutting the stems stimulates production of reactive oxygen species, which quickly react with NO to form

other reactive nitrogen species, potentially diluting any NO signal (Beckman and Koppenol, 1996; Van

Faassen and Vanin, 2007; Milling *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, this approach can only measure NO levels

in bulk xylem sap. The xylem is a dynamic and physically heterogenous environment. Xylem flow, xylem

structure, and *R. solanacearum*-produced biofilms may all create gradients or microenvironments with

altered NO concentrations in the xylem of intact plants (Zimmermann, 1983; Kim *et al.*, 2016; Tran *et al.*,

2016; Lowe-Power, Khokhani and Allen, 2018). These factors complicate direct measurement of xylem

NO. Confocal microscopy of intact infected stems using fluorescent markers to visualize *R.*

solanacearum, biofilms, and NO may eventually give a more complete understanding of this challenging

landscape.

Overall, these results reveal a strong connection between NO levels and expression of the *R.*

solanacearum T3SS. They suggest that *R. solanacearum* regulates virulence in part by using denitrifying

metabolism and the resulting NO as a signal of the hypoxic high-nitrogen host xylem environment.

Ongoing work is exploring how *R. solanacearum* manages nitrosative stress and identify additional

effects of NO on biology of both host plant and bacterial pathogen.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions.

All strains, plasmids, and primers used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 1. *R.*

solanacearum was cultured in either CPG or a modified VDM medium at 28˚C (Dalsing *et al.*, 2015;

Hendrick and Sequeira, 1984). *E. coli* was grown in Luria-Bertani (LB) media at 37˚C. As needed,

cultures were supplemented with antibiotics: 25 μg/mL kanamycin or 15 μg/mL gentamicin.

Strain construction.

An *R. solanacearum* GMI1000 mutant lacking *hrpB* (RSp0873) was created using a modified

sacB-dependent positive selection vector, pUFR80 (Castañeda *et al.*, 2005). The regions directly

upstream and downstream of *hrpB* were amplified using the ΔhrpBup/dwn primer pairs. These fragments

were then inserted into pUFR80 digested with *Hind*III using Gibson assembly (Sievers *et al.*, 2011). The

resulting plasmid, pUFR80-ΔhrpB was transformed into *R. solanacearum* GMI1000 and successful

plasmid integrations were selected for kanamycin resistance. The resulting colonies were then counter

selected on CPG + 5% w/v sucrose. Successful deletions were confirmed using PCR, sequencing, and a

functional screen for the ability to induce HR on the incompatible host *N. tabacum* (Poueymiro *et al.*,

2009).

The *ΔhrpB* mutation was complemented by inserting a DNA fragment encoding *hrpB* and *hrcC*

with the ~600 bp upstream containing their native promoter into the selectively neutral *att* site in the *R.*

solanacearum chromosome using pRCK (Monteiro, Solé, *et al.*, 2012). The fragment was amplified using

hrpBcomp_F/R and inserted into *AvRII/XbaI*-digested pRCK using Gibson assembly. This vector was

then transformed into *ΔhrpB* and selected on CPG+kan.

Plant growth conditions.

Wilt-susceptible tomato cv. Bonny Best were germinated and grown in BM2 all-purpose

germination and propagation mix (Berger, Saint-Modeste, QC). Plants were grown at 28°C with a 12 hr

photoperiod. Seedlings were transplanted after 14 days. After transplanting, plants were watered on

alternate days with 1/2 strength Hoagland solution. Tomato seeds for axenic seedling production were

sterilized by washing with 10% bleach for ten minutes, followed by two five-minute washes in 70%

ethanol, then rinsed five times with water and germinated on water agar plates.

Lux reporter assays.

To test the effect of denitrification on T3SS gene expression, *R. solanacearum* strain GMI1000

carrying a *hrpB::lux* reporter gene fusion was grown in denitrifying conditions as follows (Monteiro, Genin,

et al., 2012). Overnight cultures grown in CPG were resuspended in VDM with or without 30 mM

potassium nitrate to an initial OD_{600} of 0.001. These cultures were grown in 200 μL volumes in clear-

bottomed white-walled 96 well plates at 28°C in 0.1% O_2 with shaking. Every half hour, the Abs_{600} and

luminescence was measured using a BioTek SynergyHT microplate reader (BioTek, Winooski, VT, USA).

To determine the effects of the NO scavenger cPTIO on T3SS gene expression, *hrpB::lux* cultures were

resuspended in 24-well plates in 1 mL of water, either with or without two five day-old sterile tomato

seedlings. As appropriate, cPTIO was added to a final concentration of 1 mM. The plates were incubated

at 28°C with shaking for ~24 hours. The pigmented liquid was removed from the seedlings and

transferred to 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes, after which the bacteria were pelleted by centrifugation. The

pigmented supernatant was removed, and the pellets resuspended in 200 μL of water. These

suspensions were transferred to a new plate and the Abs_{600} and luminescence was measured as detailed

above.

RNA extraction for sequencing.

To profile gene expression of *R. solanacearum* at various levels of NO stress, we extracted RNA

from *R. solanacearum* grown in culture and *in planta*. For each in condition, we used *R. solanacearum*

from three separate overnight cultures as biological replicates. For the *in vitro* samples, overnight cultures

grown in CPG were resuspended to a final OD_{600} of 0.01 in 50 mL of VDM + 30 mM potassium nitrate in

conical tubes. These cultures were incubated without shaking for 12 hours at 28°C in 0.1% O_2. Four hours

before harvesting, CysNO or H_2O_2 were added to the relevant cultures to a final concentration of 1 mM

and 100 μM, respectively. CysNO was synthesized by adding HCl to a solution containing 200 mM L-

cysteine and 200 mM sodium nitrite. The solution was incubated in the dark for ten minutes before it was

neutralized by adding sodium hydroxide to a final concentration of 200 mM. The molarity of the solution

was determined using the absorbance at 334 nm and the extinction coefficient 90/M*cm. After 16h total

incubation, sub-samples were collected for dilution plating to determine CFU/ml and the tubes were

capped and centrifuged at room temperature for 5 min at 8000 rpm. The supernatant was removed and

pellets were frozen in liquid nitrogen. RNA extractions were carried out using a modified version of the

Quick-RNA™ MiniPrep kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA), as follows. Pellets were resuspended in

400 μL of ice cold TE pH 8 with 1 mg/mL lysozyme, 0.25 μL Superase Inhibitor (Ambion, Austin, TX,

USA), and 80 μL of 10% SDS, vortexed for 10s, transferred to a new 2 mL tube, and shaken at ~300 rpm

for 2 min. 800 μL of RNA-Lysis lysis buffer was added, the tubes were vortexed again for 10 s, cleaned

according to the kit manufacturer's instructions, and eluted in 100 μL of water. Nucleic acid

concentrations were estimated using a nanodrop, normalized to 200 ng/uL, and cleaned using the DNA-

free DNAse kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Samples were incubated at 37C for 1 hour, with 2 μL

more of DNAse added at 30 min. After DNAse inactivation, samples were further cleaned by chloroform

extraction, then precipitated overnight at -20°C with 100 μM Sodium Acetate pH 5.5 and 66 % ethanol.

Samples were checked for concentration on a Nanodrop, for DNA contamination by PCR using the qRT-

PCR primers *serC*_F/R, and for RNA integrity (RIN) using an Agilent Bioanalyzer 21000 (Agilent, Santa

Clara, CA, USA). All samples had RIN values above 7.3.

The *in planta* samples were harvested after 21 day old Bonny Best tomatoes were inoculated with

~2000 CFU of each bacteria strain through the cut petiole of the first true leaf. At 3 dpi, approximately 0.1

g of stem tissue was collected from the site of inoculation, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen, and

stored at -80°C. Another ~0.1 g of tissue was collected from directly below the inoculation site and was

ground in bead beater tubes using a PowerLyzer (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) for two cycles of 2200 rpm

for 90 s in each with a 4 min rest between cycles. This material was then dilution plated to measure

bacterial colonization. From each biological replicate, we chose six plants with the most similar level of

colonization. RNA was extracted from these using a modified hot phenol-chloroform method (Jacobs *et*

al., 2012). Between 4 and 5 individual plants were pooled per biological replicate. Nucleic acid sample

quality was checked using a nanodrop, Agilent bioanalyzer, and qRT-PCR primers Actin_F/R. All samples

had RIN values of above 7.2.

RNA sequencing and data analysis.

All RNA was sent to Novogene (Beijing, China) for library preparation, sequencing, and analysis.

rRNA depletion, fragmentation, and library construction were done using NEBNext® µLtra™ Directional

RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina® (NEB, Ipswitch, MA, USA) following the manufacturer's

recommendation and starting with 3 µg of RNA per sample. After the libraries were constructed, their

quality was assessed using an Agilent Bioanalyzer 21000 system and sequenced using an Illumina

platform to generate paired-end reads. Between 19,000,000 and 40,000,000 reads were produced per

sample. Raw reads were converted to FASTQ files using Illumina CASAVA v1.8, and then filtered for

quality, removing reads with adaptor contamination, greater than 10% uncertain nucleotides, or more than

50% of nucleotides with a Q_{pred} less than or equal to 5. Over 95% of reads were of good quality, and were

mapped to the *R. solanacearum* GMI1000 genome

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/assembly/GCF_000009125.1) using Bowtie2 -2.2.3 (Langmead *et al.*,

2009). From this, gene expression was calculated using HTseq v0.6.1 and differential gene expression

was calculated using DESeq 1.18.0. P-values calculated by DESeq were adjusted to control for the false

discovery rate (FDR) using the Benjamini-Hochberg approach. Gene Ontology enrichment was analyzed

using GOseq Release2.12 and KEGG enrichment was calculated using KOBAS v2.0 software.

Measuring T3SS expression with qRT-PCR.

Expression of T3SS genes was measured in denitrification mutants grown in 40 mL of VDM + 30

mM nitrate grown in GasPak™ EZ microaerobic pouches (BD, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) at 28°C with

shaking for 18 hours starting from an OD_{600} of 0.001. RNA extractions were carried out using a hot

phenol-chloroform method(Jacobs *et al.*, 2012). Extractions were carried out using the Quick-RNA™

MiniPrep kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA). cDNA synthesis was done using the Superscript VILO

cDNA synthesis kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). qPCR reactions were carried out in 10 μL volumes

using 5 ng of total template using PowerUp Syber Green Master) in a QuantStudio 5 Real-Time PCR

System Mix (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA).

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Data Availability Statement

The data supporting this research are openly available in the Gene Expression Omnibus at

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE160024, GEO accession: GSE160024.

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Supplementary Materials

Supplementary Table 1 – Bacterial strains, plasmids, and primers

Strains	Relevant characteristics	Reference
R. solanacearum		
GMI1000	Phylotype I seq 18 strain isolated from tomato in French Guyana	(Boucher *et al.*, 1985)
hrpB::lux	GMI1000 expressing the bacterial *lux* reporter controlled by the *hrpB* promoter, Kan[R]	(Monteiro, Genin, *et al.*, 2012)
ΔnarG	GMI1000 lacking *narG*, a nitrate reductase. Cannot denitrify and does not produce NO, Gm[R]	(Dalsing *et al.*, 2015)
ΔnorB	GMI1000 lacking *norB*, a nitric oxide reductase. Can denitrify, but accumulates NO, Gm[R]	(Dalsing *et al.*, 2015)
ΔhrpB	GMI1000 lacking *hrpB*. Avirulent and does not express a T3SS	This study
hrpB comp	*ΔhrpB* complemented.,Kan[R]	This study
E. coli		
DH5α	dlacZ, Delta M15 Delta(lacZYA-argF) U169 recA1 endA1 hsdR17(rK-mK+) supE44 thi-1 gyrA96 relA1	(Hanahan, 1983)
Plasmid	**Description**	**Reference**
pUFR80	Positive sucrose selection vector, Suc[S], Kan[R]	(Castañeda *et al.*, 2005)
pRCK-GWY	Gateway destination vector that integrates into the GMI1000 genome at the neutral *att* site; Kan[R]	(Monteiro, Solé, *et al.*, 2012)
pUFR80-ΔhrpB	Vector used to make unmarked *R. solanacearum ΔripB*, Suc[S], Kan[R]	This study
pRCK-hrpBcomp	Complementation vector containing WT *hrpB* and *hrcC*, Kan[R]	This study
Cloning Primers		
Primer	**Sequence[a]**	**Reference**
ΔhrpBup_F	5' – cgacggccagtgccaGTTCGATACCAGCGAAAGC target locus: RSp0873	This study
ΔhrpBup_R	5' – cggagggcGGCAATGCTCCTGAAGCG target locus: RSp0873	This study
ΔhrpBdwn_F	5' – gcattgccGCCCTCCGGCGGACCGCC target locus: RSp0873	This study
ΔhrpBdwn_R	5' – acctgcaggcatgcaGCTGTTGCCGACGTATTGACCGGTGC target locus: RSp0873	This study
hrpBcomp_F	5' – tgcgcgagcaggggaattgcGACAACGTCTCCGGGTTC target locus: RSp0873-RSp0874	This study
hrpBcomp_R	5' – cgaccctagtctaagatcttCTTCGGCATTCGGCAATG target locus: RSp0873-RSp0874	This study
qRT-PCR Primers		
Primer	**Sequence**	**Reference**
hrpB_F	5' – CCTGCCCGAATACGCAAATG target locus: RSp0873	This study
hrpB_R	5' – CGAATGGCGGATCAGGCGCT target locus: RSp0873	This study
hrpG_F	5' – GCAGAACGTGGAATGTGTCC target locus: R.	This study

	solanacearump0852	
hrpG_R	5' – AGACTGAATGCCTCGGTACG target locus: RSp0852	This study
ripAA_F	5' – GGAATACAGCAACTGCGTGC target locus: RSc0608	This study
ripAA_R	5' – TTGTAGTTGCGGACCCTCAGtarget locus: RSc0608	This study
serC_F	5' – CGCGCAAATACGGTGAAGTG target locus: R. solanacearumc0903	This study
serC_R	5' – GTGCACAGATGCACGTAAGC target locus: RSc0903	This study
Actin_F	5' – TCAGCAACTGGGATGATATG target locus: BT013524	(Milling *et al.*, 2011)
Actin_R	5' – TTAGGGTTGAGAGGTGCTTC target locus: BT013524	(Milling *et al.*, 2011)

[a] Capitalized bp anneal to the target locus, non-capitalized bp anneal to other fragments in a Gibson assembly

reaction

Supplementary Figure 1 Growth and NO levels of *R. solanacearum* strains under denitrifying conditions

in culture. Cultures were started at a concentration of 10^6 CFU/mL in VDM containing the NO-detecting

fluorescent dye DAF-FM DA at 10 μM. Cultures were incubated in in clear-bottomed, white-walled 96-well

plates at 30C for 24 h at $[O_2]$ =0.1%. Culture growth (dotted lines) is shown as absorbance at 600 nm. NO

concentration (solid lines) was measured as DAF-FM fluorescence at 495/515 nm. The *ΔnorB* mutant

strain accumulates NO, which significantly impairs its growth.

(a)

(b)

Supplementary Figure 2 In vitro cell densities and tomato stem colonization of samples used in RNA-seq. **(a)** Cell densities of culture samples as measured by dilution plating. One H_2O_2-treated plate was uncountable due to plate contamination. OD_{600} values of each culture were also collected and had comparable values. **(b)** Colonization of tomato plants used for transcriptome sequencing. Roughly 0.1 g of stem tissue was collected from directly below the sample used for sequencing. The tissue was ground and dilution plated to enumerate CFU/g stem.

Supplementary Figure 3 (a) Total and mapped reads per RNA-seq sample. The *in planta* samples had

lower percentage of mapped reads due to the presence of host RNA. **(b)** Hierarchical clustering and

expression heat map of the 1000 most variable genes in the dataset. Blue indicates higher expression

and brown indicates lower expression. All genes were normalized to the mean gene expression across all

conditions. Samples collected from *R. solanacearum* grown *in planta* are denoted with the prefix "p".

Heatmap created using iDEP.90 (Ge *et al.*, 2018).

Supplementary Table 2 Complete list of gene expression and $\log_2$ fold change values for all conditions

included in this study. All fold-change numbers are compared to levels in untreated wild-type (WT) cells.

NO levels were modified genetically using mutants lacking *narG* (deleting this nitrate reductase reduces

endogenous NO) and *norB* (deleting this nitric oxide reductase increases endogenous NO). NO levels

were increased chemically by adding 1 mM CysNO. Cells treated with 100 μM hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2)

were a non-NO control to identify general stress responses. *P*-values were calculated by DESeq were

adjusted to control for the false discovery rate (FDR) using the Benjamini-Hochberg approach.

Supplementary Table 3 KEGG enrichment of genes altered in each condition. enrichment was

calculated using KOBAS v2.0 software. *P* values were calculated using a hypergeometric test and

adjusted using the Benjamini and Hochberg FDR correction method.

Supplementary Table 4 Annotations, $\log_2$ fold change relative to wild-type and adjusted p-values for *R.*

solanacearum T3SS related genes in response to changes in NO concentration both *in planta* and in

culture (see Figure 3 for heatmap of these data). All fold-change numbers are compared to levels in

untreated wild-type (WT) cells. *in planta* samples are denoted by a 'p' in front of the treatment (e.g.

pnorB). Genes organized by their category, including structural genes, regulatory genes, chaperones, and

effectors. Effectors are subgrouped based on their known association with chaperones (Lonjon *et al.*,

2015).