Title

Emergence and host range expansion of an epidemic lineage of *Ralstonia solanacearum*

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Keywords

Microbial evolution, disease emergence, bacterial pathogen, mobile elements, plant pathogen

Abstract

Members of the *Ralstonia solanacearum* species complex are soil-borne pathogens of important crop
plants. Strain-level host specialisation is considered typical, yet outbreak monitoring in Martinique
revealed a new lineage with dramatically expanded host range had emerged. Our analysis shows the
outbreak in Martinique was caused by the expansion of lineages from two different *Ralstonia* species.
One lineage is of Asian origin and retains a signature of host specialisation, while the emergent broad
host range lineage originated in the Americas. The presence of similar integrative and conjugative
elements (ICEs) in both lineages suggests they are exchanging genetic material. The emergent lineage
acquired novel prophage along with genes encoding novel catalytic and metabolic functions, but
shows little variation among the virulence proteins considered host specificity determinants. We
postulate that host range expansion is not caused by the evolution of a virulence strategy targeting
host immunity, but is rather due to the acquisition of novel pathways for substrate metabolism
enhancing pathogen fitness in soil or plant tissues.

Introduction

Clarifying the mechanisms underlying pathogen emergence and adaptation to novel hosts is of fundamental importance in deepening our understanding of how microbes evolve and for safeguarding human health and agricultural productivity. Pathogen infections of crop plants impose severe losses on both small-scale and commercial growers. Studies of the molecular mechanisms by which pathogens colonise and disrupt host immune defences have revealed toxins, cell wall degrading enzymes and virulence proteins secreted by the type 3 secretion system (T3SS) allow pathogens to establish infections. The repertoire of virulence factors is shaped by selection in different hosts, and results in the emergence of specialised pathogen lineages. The identification and characterisation of pathogen virulence and host resistance genes underlying host-specific interactions provide insight into molecular mechanisms underlying disease establishment. Sequencing isolates shows recombination and horizontal gene transfer play important roles in shaping virulence gene repertoires, but the genetic determinants of pathogen host range remain undiscovered for the majority of plant pathogens. We have similarly very little understanding of the evolutionary processes and genomic changes associated with outbreak events.

We sought to identify the evolutionary origins of an outbreak lineage and the particular genomic changes associated with its emergence and shift in host range by sequencing the largest collection of *Ralstonia* spp. sampled during an outbreak event. The emergence of a new lineage of *R. solanacearum* in the Caribbean island of Martinique represents a rare opportunity to address fundamental questions in a bacterial plant pathogen of global economic importance. Multiple lineages of *R. solanacearum* are known to infect banana, which is cultivated on an industrial scale in the Caribbean, Central and South America. The pathogen is considered highly aggressive, causing lethal wilting symptoms in susceptible hosts. *R. solanacearum* is subject to extensive monitoring and movement controls to limit its spread, since it is also known for rapid dissemination and long-term persistence in freshwater and soil, not to mention lethal wilting disease in susceptible hosts. An outbreak of disease on cultivated ornamental plants (*Anthurium andreanum*) in Martinique in 1999 caused alarm when the strain recovered was found to be closely related to a banana-infecting lineage [1]. Additional infections on the island were soon reported in many hosts which *R. solanacearum* had not been previously known to infect [2]. An extensive study was therefore initiated to sample *Ralstonia* populations across Martinique, as well as coastal and inland areas of French Guiana, on the South American mainland [3], [4]. This work generated a remarkable collection of strains isolated from infected crops, asymptomatic weeds, soil and freshwater environments. We used this collection to explore the origins of this unusual host range expansion and found the outbreak was caused by two co-occurring, distantly related lineages. One lineage retains a signature of host specialisation and was initially introduced from Asia, while the lineage that underwent apparent host range expansion originated from a population diversifying in the Americas for some time. Mobile elements are circulating between both lineages, serving as vehicles for the movement of genes that may confer novel metabolic functions. We found few changes in secreted virulence proteins, and postulate the host range expansion event is not due to the acquisition of genes linked with host defence manipulation, but is rather due to pathogen adaptation to the agricultural environment.

Results

Global phylogeography of the *Ralstonia solanacearum* species complex

The global phylogeography of the *Ralstonia solanacearum* species complex (RSSC) reveals significant patterns of dissemination and epidemic expansion in Central and South America. Our analysis of 409 single isolate genomes sampled from crops, weeds, soil and freshwater environments paired with 407 genomes available on NCBI shows that diverse populations of both *R. solanacearum* (Rso) and *R. pseudosolanacearum* (Rps) are circulating in the Americas, and the outbreak of infections documented in Martinique was caused by the expansion of two lineages from each species: Rps1S18 and Rso2BS4NPB (Fig. 1, Fig. S1). The center of origin of Rso and Rps is in the Americas and Asia, respectively. Multiple inter-continental dissemination events are evident in the data. A global outbreak of Rso2BS1 on potato (*S. tuberosum*) has an ultimate source in the Americas, while at least four Rps lineages have been introduced to the Americas from Asia (Rps1S14, Rps1S17, Rps1S47, Rps1S48).

The introduction of several Rps lineages into the Americas resulted in their establishment and local diversification, primarily in solanaceous hosts. Rps1S18 is the most frequently isolated Rps lineage in the Americas, where a secondary dissemination event resulted in its introduction to Martinique. Despite the large number of sequenced Rps1S18 isolates and their distribution across Martinique, French Guiana, Brazil and Peru, the lineage displays limited diversity in the core genome and T3E repertoire, consistent with recent epidemic expansion (Fig. 1, Fig. S1). Higher resolution phylogenetic inference of the history and diversity of Rps1S18 shows the most basal members of the lineage are *S. tuberosum* isolates from South Africa (UW393) and Indonesia (UW505) (Fig. S2). Rps1S18 shares recent ancestry with Rps1S14, isolated from solanaceous hosts in Central America, South America and Senegal. The introduction of Rps lineages into Central and South America may have occurred from multiple sources prior to 1961, potentially via the movement of infected plant material. Rps1S18 then diversified across Central and South America prior to its introduction into Martinique, where it displays a broader host range of all Rps lineages in the Americas. Rps1S18 isolates in Martinique were found on non-solanaceous hosts like *Cucurbita* spp., *Anthurium* spp., fallow soil and unidentified weeds, while other Rps isolates from the Americas were sampled from solanaceous hosts.

There is far greater diversity of Rso in the Americas compared to Rps: the center of origin of Rso and its solanaceous hosts alike spans Central and South America. Among the two *Ralstonia* species and multiple lineages sampled in both French Guiana and Martinique, Rso2A encompasses the greatest intraspecific pathogen diversity. There is no evidence of recent clonal expansion among Rso2A lineages, which instead form a broad clade of primarily tomato-infecting strains (68%) sampled across a broad geographic range (Fig. 1, Fig. S1). Considerable diversity is also evident among Rso2B isolated from potato in Peru, Colombia and Brazil. The origin of cultivated potato is in Peru and wild relatives are distributed across the Americas, indicating Rso2B may have a long coevolutionary history with these hosts in the Americas [76].

Multiple Rso2B lineages are responsible for both regional and global outbreak events. Emerging in South America, the Rso2BS1 (formerly race 3 biovar 2) lineage spread globally, causing bacterial wilt infections on potato (*Solanum tuberosum*). Rso2B1 has also been isolated from other *Solanum* spp., *Pelargonium* spp. (formerly *Geranium* spp.), surface water and soil. Although the centre of origin of Rso2BS1 appears to be in South America, the recent global expansion suggests the likeliest mechanism of long-distance dissemination is via international trade in infected seed potatoes,

Fig. 1. Core gene tree of the Ralstonia solanacearum species complex. Maximum likelihood tree of 816 RSSC genomes inferred from a 137,423bp SNP alignment obtained after core gene identification, alignment generation and invariant site removal. Nodes with the bootstrap support values under 70 are collapsed. Clades representing Rso and Rps lineages of interest are highlighted in the tree. The geographic region and host of isolation are shown in the first and second rings, respectively (A and B). Martinique isolates are a subset of Caribbean isolates, and French Guiana isolates are a subset of South American isolates. With the exception of *S. lycopersicum* (tomato) and *S. tuberosum* (potato), the host of isolation for each isolate is shown collapsed to family level. Lower level taxonomic classifications within the same family are indicated with greater colour saturation. Environmental isolates from soil and water are shown in grey and black respectively. A single *Pandanus* spp. isolate is shown in purple. Missing data is shown in white.

134 highlighting the elevated risk of disease transmission during movement of infected plant material [77]
135 [78]. Rso2B lineages are also responsible for Moko disease outbreaks in South American banana
136 plantations, while Rso2BS4NPB has the greatest documented host range of any lineage in the species
137 complex, despite being primarily restricted to Martinique.
138
Banana (*Musa* spp.) is a globally significant commodity and subsistence crop, whose cultivation
typically involves high density single variety monocultures. Multiple outbreaks of Rso on banana
have been documented in the Americas, where it is referred to as Moko disease. The Rso lineages
infecting banana are clearly polyphyletic, and include four Rso2A lineages primarily isolated in
Brazil, two basal lineages in the Rso2B clade from which the global potato outbreak lineage emerged
(Rso2BS25 [79] and Rso2BS3 [27]) and basal members of Rso2BS4. The latter are closely related to
the lineage that underwent host range expansion in Martinique: Rso2BS4NPB. These banana-
infecting lineages are collectively responsible for outbreaks of Moko disease in Panama, Costa Rica,
Colombia, Peru, Brazil and French Guiana from the 1960s onwards (Fig. 1, Fig. S3). Banana was
introduced to the Americas as a crop in the 16th century [80], so it is a matter of some interest that the
most deeply branching basal members of Rso2B are isolated from *Musa* spp. along with *Heliconia*
spp. and *Anthurium* spp., both endemic to the Americas [81], [82]. The expansion of plantation-style
banana cultivation is likely to have afforded multiple opportunities for Rso to emerge and spread in
agricultural areas, allowing it to spread to other crop varieties, both endemic and introduced.

Epidemic expansion of two lineages after their dissemination from South America
The species complex tree shows the surge in plant infections in Martinique is linked with the recent
clonal expansion of two lineages across the island: Rso2BS4NPB and Rps1S18 (Fig. 1). The latter
lineage is historically significant, as it is the source of the first sequenced *Ralstonia* genome and
commonly used model strain GMI1000, isolated in French Guiana in 1978. We investigated the
origins of both lineages using well resolved, non-recombinant core genome trees including closely
related strains from mainland populations (Fig. 2).
160
South American mainland strains most closely related to the emergent Rso2BS4NPB lineage in
Martinique were all isolated from solanaceous hosts or freshwater sources on the mainland, along
with a single isolate from pumpkin (*Cucurbita pepo*). These basal isolates all infect hosts that evolved
in the Americas and represent the ancestral population from which Rso2BS4NPB emerged to sweep
across Martinique. Two strains (RUN2226 and RUN2227) were isolated from tomato plants grown in
areas planted the first season after rainforest clearing, suggesting the ancestral population has a long
coevolutionary history with hosts endemic to the area. There was evidently limited spread of
Rso2BS4NPB on the mainland compared to the dramatic epidemic expansion of the derived
Martinique isolates. The derived lineage has extremely low genetic diversity, differing by only 166
(among them 73 parsimony informative) nonrecombinant SNPs in the core genome. There is a single
Martinique isolate (RUN0016) isolated from *A. andreanum* in Saint Joseph, Martinique that groups
with basal mainland isolates. The detection of additional derived Rso2BS4NPB isolates from the
same host species in Saint Joseph suggest there is an epidemiological link with the introduction and
spread of the emergent lineage in Martinique (Fig. S2).
175
176 The apparent source and dissemination of Rps1S18 parallels the history of Rso2BS4NPB: Martinique
177 Rps1S18 is similarly derived from a mainland population circulating on solanaceous hosts (Fig. 2b).
178 There is no evidence of a dramatic host range expansion however: with few exceptions, the majority
179 of Martinique Rps1S18 was isolated from soil or solanaceous hosts. The sole exceptions are two

Fig. 2. Outbreak lineage core genome trees. (A) Rso2BS4NPB maximum likelihood tree calculated from a 5,206,677 bp non-recombinant non-mobile core genome alignment with 195 SNPs and 73 parsimony informative sites. Internal nodes with bootstrap value above 80 are indicated with black circles. Strain labels shown in bold are closed genomes generated in this study and/or used as mapping references. (B) Rps1S18 maximum likelihood tree calculated from a 4,760,272 bp non-recombinant core genome alignment with 311 SNPs and 116 parsimony informative sites. The asterisk for UQRS637 refers to identical strain under different label: UW745. Strain labels shown in bold are closed genomes generated in this study and/or used as mapping references. (C) Pangenome waffle chart representing the proportion of core (present in 99 - 100% of genomes), soft-core (95 - 99% of genomes), shell (15 - 95% of genomes) and cloud genes (present in less than 15% of genomes) identified by Panaroo, displayed separately for each lineage pangenome.

isolates from cucurbits and three from *A. andreanum*. Unexpectedly, one *Musa* isolate UQRS637_UW745 from Indonesia was assigned to the Rps1S18 lineage. This should be interpreted with caution however, as the assembly version of UQRS637_UW745 used here was later suppressed on NCBI. There is evidence of structuring by sampling location for one site: just as in the Rso2BS4NPB tree, Rps1S18 isolates from Le Lorrain form a well-supported clade. Most Le Lorrain isolates - whether Rps1S18 or Rso2BS4NPB - were recovered from soils (Fig. 2).

We used well-resolved non-recombinant trees to determine the divergence time of Rps1S18 and Rso2BS4NPB. The best estimates for the divergence time of the Rps1S18 lineage is between the 1850s - 1930s (Fig. S5), while estimated divergence times for the split between basal solanaceous and derived host-range expanded Rso2BS4NPB sublineage is between the 1930s and 1980s (Fig. S6). However, the estimated divergence dates are poorly supported as there is insufficient temporal signal in the data even after removing potential outlier samples and collapsing weakly supported nodes in the phylogenies. R-squared values for root-to-tip regressions were 0.05 and 0.09 for Rso2BS4NPB and Rps1S18, respectively, and random date permutation analyses by BactDating showed estimated divergence times for both lineages were better than random in only 50% of simulations, indicating there is no temporal signal in the data. Pangenome analysis for each lineage showed both lineages have similar numbers of core and soft-core genes (4,565 for Rps1S18 and 4,792 for Rso2BS4NPB), but remarkably different accessory genome sizes: 487 accessory genes in Rso2BS4NPB and 2,636 in Rps1S18, amounting to 10% and 35% of each lineage pangenome, respectively (Fig. 2). The larger Rps1S18 accessory genome suggests this lineage has higher rates of horizontal exchange, or that it was introduced to Martinique prior to Rso2BS4NPB, and therefore had more time to acquire accessory genes.

Recombination between co-occurring pathogen lineages

We hypothesized the co-occurrence of two pathogen lineages in the same host or niche provide opportunities for between-lineage homologous recombination. ClonalFrameML analysis for each lineage indicated they exhibit similar relative ratios of recombination to mutation (R/theta, 0.159 for Rps1S18 and 0.152 for Rso2S4NPB). RECOPHY found no evidence of between-lineage homologous recombination however (Fig. S7). Distance trees for each region in the core genome alignment with reduced SNP density (under 10 SNPs/kb) and one high SNP density region (120 SNPs/kb compared to an alignment-wide average of 53 SNPs/kb) display the same topology as the core genome tree, indicating homologous recombination is unlikely to have occurred in these regions.

Although we found no evidence of homologous recombination between Rso2BS4NPB and Rps1S18, pangenome analysis and association testing revealed the presence of an integrative and conjugative element (ICE) that may have been exchanged between these co-occurring lineages in Martinique (Fig. 3). We identified ICEs across the entire species complex using the set of 133 complete RSSC genomes, and found 13 complete ICEs integrated in three chromosomal integration sites. Another 17 putative ICEs were identified that lack flanking direct repeats, but satisfy the other criteria for ICE identification (presence of T4SS gene clusters, a *mob* relaxase and integrase sequence). Some genomes have *mob* relaxase genes framed with direct repeats, but lack adjacent T4SS, these may be relics of degenerate ICEs or integrative mobilizable elements (IMEs). Isolates typically carry a single ICE, and all but seven of the 30 putative ICEs identified in the species complex are present in *R. pseudosolanacearum* genomes alone: two partial ICEs are present in *R. syzygii* and five complete ICEs are exclusively present in *R. solanacearum* from Martinique. The ICEs in Rso2BS4NPB genomes from Martinique are identical to each other, and homologous to a 45.9kb ICE in Rps1S18

Fig. 3. Virulence gene and ICE distribution across the *R. solanacearum* species complex. Maximum likelihood tree of all completely assembled RSSC genomes available in this study. Labels of eight strains from Martinique and French Guiana sequenced by long-read technology during this study are shown in bold. The labels shown in bold italic represent clades collapsed due to low within-clade diversity (Fig. S13). Geographical region and host of isolation are shown for each strain. Nine T3E families exhibiting presence/absence variation for Rso2BS4 and Rps1S18 clades are shown in the third metadata column: dark blue indicates T3E family presence, light blue indicates absence. Fourth column shows position of all annotated relaxases and 100kb ICE attachment regions sharing synteny with ICEs found in Rps1S18 GMI1000 (att-1, blue), Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 (att-2, pink) and Rso2BS4NPB RUN1960 (att-3, green) on chromosome 1 of each RSSC strain. Thin grey lines represent the length ranges of chromosome 1. Purple dots represent MOB relaxases, bold purple diamonds are relaxases located next to T4SS genes. Final column shows the composition of putative ICEs identified in RSSC strains. Green CDSs represent homologs to T4SS genes in Rso2BS4NPB and Rps1S18 genomes; orange CDSs represent CDS associated with Martinique by panGWAS. Purple and red CDS indicate MOBP relaxases and integrases respectively. Black bars around the loci represent the TTTTTTAT repeat motif delimiting putative ICE boundaries.

GMI1000. The ICE is also present in seven other Rps genomes that collectively span the diversity of *R. pseudosolanacearum*. Within *R. solanacearum* it is solely present in Rso2BS4NPB and Rso2A RUN1155, another isolate from Martinique (Fig. 3). Since this ICE is broadly distributed among Rps and present in the reference Rps1S18 GMI1000, we named it ICE^{RpsGMI1000}.

Our exploration of the spatial structure of genetic variation revealed hotspots of ICE exchange among the densely sampled Martinique populations. All but one of the 27 genes associated with isolation in specific regions in Martinique are present on the ICE^{RsoGMI1000} (Table S11, Table S12, Fig. S10). A kmer-based approach also found 625 out of 2,367 Martinique-associated kmers and all 83 soil-associated kmers map to the ICE^{RsoGMI1000}. Precise association between one cluster of eight genes on the ICE^{RsoGMI1000} and isolation from Trinite and Morne Rouge was found, while another two gene clusters have overlapping associations with isolation from soil and from Le Lorrain (Fig. S10, Fig. S14). These clusters correspond to two backbone regions and two hotspots of cargo gene integration (cargo-1 and cargo-2, Fig. 5). Identification of ICE^{RpsGMI1000} presence and cargo region carriage in every Martinique isolate sequenced shows that while there are multiple regions in which both lineages co-occur, Rps1S18 and Rso2BS4NPB isolates in Le Lorrain carry ICEs both with and without the cargo-2 gene cluster. The strain and ICE-level diversity in Le Lorrain suggests it is a region of heightened exchange. Rso2BS4NPB acquisition of ICE^{RsoGMI1000} may have occurred in this region, followed by dissemination to other areas across the island.

The ICE^{GMI1000} cargo-1 gene cluster carries metabolism-associated genes, while the cargo-2 cluster carries bacterial defense systems (Fig. S15). The cargo-1 region present in Rps1S18 and Rso2BS4NPB (e.g. RUN0777 and RUN1960) includes two *limA* genes encoding limonene 1,2-epoxide hydrolases [83] (OFBKGH_09550, OFBKGH_09555 in RUN1145); a phthalate ester hydrolase *pnbA*; an antibiotic biosynthesis monooxygenase *ygiN* (also known as ABM, OFBKGH_09580); a glutathione S-transferase *gstA* linked with the detoxification of organochlorine compounds (1-chloro-2,4-dinitrobenzene) used as an herbicide and pesticides; a pyrazinamidase/nicotinamidase *pncA*, which converts nicotinamide to nicotinic acid, and *fabG*, which encodes a reducing agent of ethyl 4-chloroacetoacetate, an intermediate used in herbicide and pesticide production.

The cargo gene clusters cargo-1 and cargo-2 are simply named according to the distinct integration site within the ICE. While the cargo-1 clusters always encode genes linked with metabolism, the cargo-2 gene clusters all encode defence systems. For example, the distinct cargo-2 clusters carried by Rps1S18 GMI1000 ICE^{RpsGMI1000} and Rso2BS4NPB ICE^{RpsGMI1000} each carry multiple defence systems, including the anti-plasmid/phage Lamassu island and anti-viral Gabija islands [84], [85]. The only other ICE present in Rso outside of Rso2BS4NPB is in Rso2A RUN1155, also from Martinique, shares a similar cargo-2 region with Rso2BS4NPB ICE^{GMI1000} (Fig. 5, 6). ICE-mediated horizontal transfer of gene modules encoding novel metabolic function may be linked with increased pathogenicity and epidemic expansion of both Rso2BS4NPB and Rps1S18 in Martinique. The surprising cargo gene partitioning between metabolic function and defense systems has never previously been reported for ICEs.

Minimal changes in virulence gene repertoires linked with host range expansion

Despite the reduced genetic diversity indicative of very recent expansion, the Rso2BS4NPB isolates from Martinique encompass the broadest known host range of any single lineage in the species complex (Fig. 2) The only host this lineage has not been isolated from is *S. tuberosum*. The

Fig. 4. Mobile elements and host-associated kmers in Rso2BS4 and Rso2BS4NPB. ProgressiveMauve alignment of the first chromosomes of Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 and Rso2BS4 UW163 strains shown in grayscale together with mapping positions of kmers reported by GWAS and annotated chromosome length scales. The alignment starts from the RUN1145 origin of replication. UW163 origin of replication is located at the approximate position 882,000. The chromosome length scales are shown as black lines above RUN1145 and below UW163 and annotated with positions of prophages (blue rectangles), CRISPR-Cas loci (grey stars), fhaC-fhaB loci (grey arrows) and ICE insertion in RUN1145 (grey diamond). The prophage found uniquely in Rso2B4NPB strains is marked with an asterisk. Merged mapping positions of the kmers are represented by rectangles between the Mauve alignment and chromosome length scales. Merging was applied to overlapping kmers and kmers located closer than 1kb from each other. The kmers frequently found in the strains sampled in Martinique are shown in orange. The kmers frequently found in *Musa* spp. or Zingiberales isolates are shown in green. The kmers associated with any other trait are shown in grey.

Rso2BS4NPB tree shows strain clustering by host and location. Notably, most Rso2BS4NPB and
Rps1S18 isolates from Le Lorrain cluster together, regardless of whether they were isolated from soil,
cultivated or wild *Solanum* spp. Both basal and derived Rso2BS4NPB were isolated from *Solanum*
and *Cucurbita* spp. in Trinite. Rso2BS4NPB was also isolated from symptomatic banana (*Musa* spp.)
in that location (RUN0296, RUN0295), indicating the appellation 'Non-Pathogenic on Banana'
(NPB) for this lineage may not be wholly accurate. Although Rps1S18 and Rso2BS4NPB alike were
isolated from soil, freshwater isolations yielded Rso2BS4NPB alone.
279
We sought to identify the genes underlying host range expansion in Rso2BS4NPB by assessing
changes in the repertoire of Type 3 secreted effectors (T3Es). The delivery of virulence proteins by
the Type 3 secretion system (T3SS) is known to play an important role in successful host colonisation
[86], [87]. The repertoire of T3Es carried by a strain is thought to play an important role in host
specificity [88], [89]. We assessed the T3E repertoires across each genome and found no link between
the emergence of Rso2BS4NPB and any specific T3E gain or loss (Table S4, Fig. 3 and Fig. S1).
Rso2BS4NPB genomes display nearly uniform T3E repertoires, consistent with recent population
expansion (Fig. S1). However one T3E is uniquely present among the emergent lineage and its sister
lineage Rso2BS4: the hypothetical effector T3E_Hyp13 (UW163_19700 in Rso2BS4 UW163,
OFBKGH_20220 in Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145) which is otherwise absent in all other RSSC genomes
(Fig. S1). Another T3E (RipAX1) is sufficiently divergent from other members of the effector family
to be classified as a clade-specific gene by Panaroo pangenome analysis. BLASTn searches reveal
that RipAX1 is present in most strains across RSSC, but absent from in *Heliconia* and *Musa* RsoS4
isolates from Colombia, other Rso2B *Musa* isolates and some *Rsy* strains (Fig. S3). In sum, there is no
evidence of T3E repertoire variation that may be linked with the host range expansion or emergence
of Rso2BS4NPB specifically.
296
The Rso2BS4 isolates from cultivated monocot hosts that are endemic (*Heliconia* spp.) and
introduced (*Musa* spp. and *Epipremnum* spp.) to the Americas exhibit more variation in effector
repertoire than Rso2BS4NPB. RipAX2 and RipP3 are present in Rso2BS4 and absent in
Rso2BS4NPB (Fig. 3, Fig. S3). RipAX2 is present in many other Rso2B and Rso2A clades,
indicating effector loss in Rso2BS4NPB is likely, while RipP3 is sparsely distributed in Rso2B. Four
effector families exhibit evidence of likely loss in the monocot-infecting Rso2BS4: RipAQ, RipAW,
RipBD and a predicted effector called T3E_Hyp3. The loss of RipAQ is most striking as the family is
otherwise present in all other RSSC strains. RipAW is missing from most Rso2BS4 banana isolates
from Peru, most of the pandemic Rso2BS1 potato isolates and some *R. syzygii*, but is present in all
other RSSC strains. RipBD is missing from Peruvian Rso2BS4 strains, but is otherwise common in
Rso2A. Members of the hypothetical effector family T3E_Hyp3 are infrequently represented across
the RSSC: present in Rso2BS4NPB, absent in the closely related sister clade of Rso2BS4, patchily
distributed in other Rso2B and *R. syzygii*, and absent elsewhere. Since these effector families are
present among related clades and/or across the species complex, the most parsimonious explanation of
the observed pattern is they were lost in the ancestor of some banana-infecting Rso2BS4 strains rather
than being acquired by ancestral Rso2BS4NPB. Their link with the pathogenicity of Rso2BS4 on
monocots *Musa* spp., *Heliconia* spp. and *Epipremnum* spp. is not known.

Ancestral acquisition of novel metabolic functions in the emergent lineage

The host range expansion and epidemic spread of Rso2BS4NPB occurred as a result of genomic
changes in the ancestor of this lineage. We therefore explored whether recombination events
introducing novel genes might be linked with the emergence event. Pangenome exploration revealed

Fig. 5. Ralstonia ICE distribution and cargo gene carriage in Martinique. (A) Sampling location of all Martinique isolates sequenced in this study. The exact longitude and latitude of the sampling locations were jittered for the visualisation purpose. Rso2A (triangle), Rso2BS4NPB (circle), Rps1S18 (square) are represented with as grey (ICEless), green (ICERpsGMI1000 with cargo-1) or orange (ICERpsGMI1000 with cargo-1 and cargo-2) icons. (B). A diagram of ICERpsGMI1000 structure is shown in the center displaying the position of the backbone and cargo gene clusters. The coding sequences in each cargo region are shown above (cargo-1) and below (cargo-2) the diagram of ICE structure, coloured according to their KEGG annotation. Proteins assigned to a KEGG Ontology term not classified in a metabolic pathway are displayed in light blue. The first backbone region includes the T4SS and has a LysR family transcriptional regulator at the 3' end, followed by cargo-1. The second backbone region includes the mob relaxase, *traF, parA, repA, qseC, rdfS* as well as a gene encoding a helix-turn-helix domain-containing protein, a hypothetical protein and various DUF domain-containing proteins (DUF3800, DUF945, DUF2285 (fseA) [139], DUF2840 and DUF2958). The second cargo-2 is flanked by an integrase at the 3' end of the ICE.

84 genes were uniquely acquired in the ancestor of Rso2BS4 and Rso2BS4NPB (Table S3). The acquired genes include enzymes such as a TauD/TfdA family dioxygenase, which has been shown to degrade phenoxy herbicides in soil-borne bacteria like *Burkholderia* and *Ralstonia eutropha* [90], [91], [92], [93], [94], [95]; a CxxC motif protein (UW163_01710, OFBKGH_14170) associated with thiol-disulfide oxidoreductase activity and oxidative damage responses [96], [97]; an electron acceptor flavodoxin (UW163_18870, OFBKGH_23185) also involved in oxidative damage response [98]; and a carboxymuconolactone decarboxylase (UW163_18885, OFBKGH_23170) in the protocatechuate catabolism pathway, linked with conversion of lignin-derived aromatic compounds into tricarboxylic acid intermediates like succinate and malate [99], [100]. The last two genes are located within 2.25kb on the secondary chromosome of Rso2BS4 UW163. These metabolism-associated genes are involved in distinct reactions and pathways, but are variously involved in responses to oxidative stress and aromatic compound catabolism.

Surge of prophage acquisition in the emergent lineage

The identification of an ICE shared between Rsp1S18 and Rso2BS4NPB along with multiple acquisition events from unknown donors suggests multiple mechanisms of recombination are introducing selectable variation into the emergent lineage. Since prophage are known to introduce accessory genes and modify bacterial host fitness, we queried the collection using the PHASTEST phage prediction tool and found evidence of multiple insertions in the ancestor of the emergent lineage. Strikingly, one of the three prophage identified is uniquely present in Rso2BS4NPB and absent from all other sequenced RSSC genomes (Table S4, Table S7). 63 ortholog groups identified as unique to Rso2BS4NPB in Panaroo pangenome analyses are located within the prophage located in chromosome 1 (2,599,979 - 2,636,445 in Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145) as well as a 18kb region directly downstream. The closest BLASTn hits include are soil isolates (*Ralstonia* metagenome-assembled genome from estuary sediment in China, *Pandoraea pnomenusa* from sludge in Malaysia and *Massilia putida* from soil in China), as well as *Xanthomonas albilineans*, a bacterial plant pathogen causing lethal leaf scald in sugarcane from Brazil (Fig. S11). In addition to the core genes encoding the phage head, tail, baseplate and restriction endonucleases, the Rso2BS4NPB-specific phage carries auxiliary genes whose products are predicted to function as a circadian clock protein (*kaiA*, OFBKGH_12090 in RUN1145) and a methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein (OFBKGH_12085). A 17.7Kb region downstream of the phage that is also unique to Rso2B4NPB contains a flagellar motor switch encoding gene *fliM* (OFBKGH_12305). The strong association between this prophage and genomic changes in the emergent lineage was additionally confirmed by Pyseer kmer-based association test, as 1,007 out of 2,367 kmers associated with isolation from Martinique in Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 genome are mapped to the prophage and its downstream auxiliary region (Fig. 4, Table S9).

The other two intact prophages are also located on the primary chromosome, one of these is only 60kb downstream of the Rso2BS4NPB-specific prophage (Table S7). These additional prophage are not unique to Rso2BS4NPB, BLASTn hits recover Rso strains from Central and South America. Further prophage prediction in all 12 complete Rso2B genomes shows all Rso2BS4NPB (RUN0777, RUN0823, RUN0808, RUN1145 and basal RUN2004) have three intact and one partial prophage insertion on the primary chromosome, while three of four Rso2BS4 (UW163, Po82 and IBSBF1503) have at most a single intact prophage on the primary chromosome and a single prophage on the secondary chromosome. The exception is Rso2BS4 CIAT_078 (*Musa acuminata x balbisiana* AAB, Colombia, 2004), which has no intact prophage predictions on the primary chromosome.

Alignment of complete assemblies for Rso2BS4 UW163 (symptomatic *Musa acuminata* x *balbisiana* AAB, Peru, 1967) and Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 (symptomatic *Cucurbita moschata*, Martinique, 2002) confirms horizontal gene transfer mediated by the movement of prophage and other mobile genetic elements has had a significant impact on Rso2BS4NPB genome evolution. Despite being isolated 45 years apart from different hosts and regions, these genomes are highly conserved across the first (Fig. 4) and second chromosome (Fig. S9). The 4,989 Mb core genome alignment of Rso2BS4NPB varies by only 2,894 SNPs (Fig. S8). The most striking difference between the two lineages are multiple large insertions in Rso2BS4NPB, most of which are predicted to be prophage (Fig. 4). Additionally, according to RECOPHY, the region with the highest SNP density in the Rso2BS4 core genome alignment (1,060 out of 2,894 SNPs) is located in the region surrounding two prophages and an adjacent *fhaC-fhaB* locus (Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 chr1: 227,422-304,634). This region also contains a high density of Martinique-associated kmers in RUN1145 and *Musa*-associated kmers in UW163. Cumulatively, the data suggests there were multiple phage infections in the ancestor of the emergent Rso2BS4NPB lineage, either prior or soon after its dissemination to Martinique, introducing multiple novel genes that may be linked with apparent host range expansion.

CRISPR array reveals a history of viral encounter in the emergent Rso2BS4NPB lineage

We found repeated evidence of recent mobile element acquisition in the host-range expanded lineage Rso2BS4NPB, attesting to a high frequency of encounter and exchange with members of the soil, freshwater and plant microbiomes. Not all encounters are beneficial: members of the RSSC carry type I-E CRISPR-Cas systems conferring immunity to bacteriophage via acquisition of spacer sequences from prior infections. We found that Rso2BS4 UW163 and Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 share conserved CRISPR-Cas operons (*cas3*, *casA/cas8e*, *casB/cas11/cse2*, *cas7e*, *cas5e*, *cas6e*, *cas1e*, *cas2*), but vary in their CRISPR arrays. The Rso2BS4NPB CRISPR 1 and CRISPR 2 arrays are nearly ten times longer than the Rso2BS4 arrays: Rso2BS4 UW163 has 20 spacers compared to the 171 spacers in Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 (of which 11 are duplicates with 1-5bp differences). These genomes share one leader-proximal and 15 leader-distal spacers. Our kmer-based association tests also show that the largest cluster of Martinique-associated kmers that do not map to MGEs map to the leader-proximal position of CRISPR arrays in Rso2BS4NPB, corresponding to more recent spacer acquisition than the leader-distal spacers shared with Rso2BS4 (Fig. 4, Fig. S12) [101] [102]. This represents a rapid expansion of CRISPR-mediated immunity in the emergent lineage, suggesting bacteria-virus interactions played an important role during the expansion of Rso2BS4NPB across Martinique.

The identity of the viruses challenging Rso2BS4NPB was inferred by using spacer sequences as queries for INPHARED phage database searches. A total of nine phage were identified using this approach (Table S8). Three phage are targeted by spacers shared between Rso2BS4 and Rso2BS4NPB CRISPR systems, and six are exclusively targeted by Rso2BS4NPB. Interestingly, five of the six phage targeted by Rso2BS4NPB are known to infect Rps1 strains (RPZH3, RS603, RSMSuper, Eline, Raharianne), revealing Rso2BS4NPB are encountering Rps phage, consistent with their frequent co-occurrence.

Pathogen genes associated with host and location

We took advantage of the extensive metadata recorded by Wicker and colleagues during sampling to run genome-wide tests for associations between genetic variation (either genes or kmers), host and location of isolation. Many kmers (16,361) were linked with specific hosts, most frequently *Musa* spp. (6,142 kmers), *Heliconia* spp. (4,560 kmers), *Capsicum annuum* (2,554 kmers) and members of the Alismatales (*Anthurium* spp., *Epipremnum* spp., and *Pothos* spp., 2,369 cumulative kmers) (Table

S4). Mapping kmers against Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 showed 25 *Musa*-associated kmers map to
seven loci including a region 5bp upstream of a gene involved in the degradation of aromatic
compounds into succinate and malate via the homoprotocatechuate pathway (5-carboxymethyl-2-
hydroxymuconate Delta-isomerase, OFBKGH_04945 in RUN1145) and a glycine
hydroxymethyltransferase (Table S10. A large fraction of *Musa*-associated kmers map to insertion
sequences, two prophages, multiple intergenic regions, hypothetical protein-encoding genes and one
of three *cheW* genes encoding chemotaxis signal receptor proteins. Interestingly, the histidine kinase
protein CheA, which is known to directly interact with CheW, is one of the most diverse proteins
across both Rso2BS4NPB and Rps1S18 according to our pangenome analysis and inspection of gene
alignments. 52.6% (2,316/4,401) of kmers mapping to the Rso2BS4 UW163 reference genome are
associated with isolation from banana. In comparison, only two banana-associated kmers map to the
RpsS18 GMI1000 genome.
421
Gene-based panGWAS methods (SCOARY and Pyseer) were also applied to search for genes whose
presence or absence is associated with a particular host of isolation. Pyseer reported a total of 938
genes significantly associated with any region or host of isolation traits (Table S11). Among these,
multiple genes associated with isolation from *Musa* spp. (135), *Solanum melongena* (80), *Capsicum*
annuum (56) and *Heliconia* spp. (21) were identified. There was no overlap between the Pyseer and
SCOARY predictions for host of isolation, though there were for association with specific locations,
at varying spatial scales (Table S12). As mentioned, the majority of location-specific genes identified
by both methods are located on the ICE^{RsoGMI1000}. Outside mobile elements, the most common genes
with location-specific associations are *fhaC* and *fhaB* (Fig. 4)*. These encode type 5b two partner
secretion systems comprised of a transporter (FhaC) and extracellular hemagglutinin repeat-
containing protein (FhaB). Interestingly, kmers associated with isolation from two distinct regions can
map to different regions of the same locus. For example, four out of seven *fhaC-fhaB* loci in Rps1S18
GMI1000 have China-associated kmers mapping to the 5' end of *fhaB* and Martinique-associated
kmers mapping to the 3' end of the same gene. The 3' end of another *fhaB* gene is composed of
alternating regions containing either China or Martinique-associated kmers mapping. Fine-scale
spatial associations with *fhaC-fhaB* are also present, for example between an *fhaB* and the region of
Le Lorrain in Martinique. Overlap with predictions for host association occurs as well: kmers
associated with isolation from both *Musa spp.* and Peru map to four of seven *fhaC-fhaB* loci from
Rso2BS4 UW163.

Discussion

This work reveals the evolutionary history of a globally distributed pathogen and highlights particular
genomic changes linked with a remarkable host range expansion event. We found that an outbreak of
disease affecting a broad range of plant species was caused by the dissemination and clonal expansion
of two distantly related lineages: *R. pseudosolanacearum* Rps1S18 and *R. solanacearum*
Rso2BS4NPB. The Rps1S18 lineage retains a signature of host specialisation, while Rso2BS4NPB
displays the broadest host range yet detected in the species complex. Strikingly, despite the link
between T3E carriage and host specific interactions in *Ralstonia* spp. and other bacterial pathogens,
we found little evidence that diversification in T3E repertoire is driving the apparent host range
expansion of Rso2BS4NPB. There is very little variation in effector carriage between the
Rso2BS4NPB and its sister lineage Rso2BS4, which infects banana. Only one hypothetical effector
(*T3E_hyp3*) was acquired and two (*ripAX2* and *ripP3*) were lost. We do not exclude the possibility
that changes in expression and allelic variation among T3Es may be responsible for altered host
range. For instance, *ripS3* is present in both Rso2BS4 and Rso2BS4NPB, but displays considerable

sequence polymorphism compared to all other effectors present across both lineages. These differences may be associated with the altered pathogenicity of Rso2BS4NPB, but appear insufficient to account for the apparently dramatic expansion in pathogen host range, particularly since single effector deletions have limited consequences for infection in the absence of recognition. We argue the causes of apparent host range expansion in Rso2B4NPB are not effector-mediated disruption of recognition and immunity across a broad range of hosts, but more likely due to enhanced fitness due to the acquisition of gene clusters conferring growth on novel carbon sources.

Bacterial metabolism and manipulation of nutrient availability in the host is increasingly recognised as an important component of pathogenicity, in mammalian and plant pathogens alike [103], [104], [105], [106]. For instance, genes whose products facilitate the use of xylem sap as a carbon source [107] and horizontally acquired components of the denitrification pathway [108] have been shown to be important for xylem colonisation and virulence in *Ralstonia*. Transcriptome sequencing of experimentally evolved Rps1S18 GMI1000 showed fatty acid metabolism is upregulated in evolved clones of Rps1S18 GMI1000, highlighting the importance of metabolism during adaptation to a novel host [109]. Carbohydrate metabolism and tricarboxylic acid-related pathways were downregulated in Rso2BS1 UW551 during the late stage of xylem infection [110]. We postulate the acquisition of novel pathways for substrate catabolism resulted in enhanced bacterial growth either in the soil or within plant tissues, resulting in a sudden and explosive increase in symptom production in the field.

The acquisition of an ICE with novel metabolic enzymes may have been pivotal to the host range expansion of Rso2BS4NPB. ICEs facilitate rapid horizontal gene transfer of entire functional genetic modules, allowing rapid adaptation to novel hosts and environmental niches [111]. All Rso2BS4NPB strains in Martinique carry an ICE with a cargo-1 gene cluster encoding multiple enzymes and regulators. Many of these are linked with the degradation and detoxification of environmental pollutants and reactive xenobiotics. The functional significance of these acquisitions for Rso2BS4NPB virulence is unclear, although there are striking links with degradation of both plant-derived and organic compounds present in the soil. The limonene 1,2-epoxide hydrolases *limA* may act on plant-derived epoxides, which are induced during pathogen attack and methyl jasmonate application [112]. The phthalate ester hydrolase (*pnbA*) is linked with the degradation of phthalate esters, common synthetic organic compounds that are known to be environmental pollutants [113]. Homologs of *gstA* and *fabG* are known to degrade organochlorine compounds used as primary active ingredients (1-chloro-2,4-dinitrobenzene) or intermediates (ethyl 4-chloroacetoacetate) in the production of herbicides and pesticides [114], [115]. Strikingly, two genes in cargo-1 are linked with the manipulation of host-derived metabolites: a homolog of *ygiN* (ABM) hydroxylates jasmonic acid in rice, attenuating plant defences during infection [116]. Finally, the pyrazinamidase/nicotinamidase (*pncA*) is known to convert nicotinamide to nicotinic acid and is linked with xylem colonisation of grape by *Xylella fastidiosa*, where nicotinic acid accumulation is observed during infection [117]. *Ralstonia* spp. degradation of plant metabolites has been observed in Rso2BS1 UW551, which degrades phenolic compounds in xylem sap [118], and many *Ralstonia* spp. genomes contain salicylic acid degradation pathways [119].

Recombination events introducing metabolic enzymes occurred beyond the ICE as well, in the ancestor of Rso2BS4 and Rso2BS4NPB. These are similarly linked with protection against environmental toxicity or oxidative stress, like the acquisition of a TauD/TfdA family dioxygenase that may degrade phenoxy herbicides. The ability to metabolise toxic or antimicrobial compounds is not unusual in *Ralstonia*: *R. pickettii* is known to degrade DDT pesticides [120] and *R. eutropha* is able to degrade chloroaromatic compounds [121]. The ancestral acquisition of a

503 carboxymuconolactone decarboxylase is also of considerable interest, since the protocatechuate
504 catabolism pathway is responsible for the conversion of lignin-derived aromatic compounds into
505 amino acids and organic acids, fueling *Ralstonia*'s growth in plant tissues.
506
There are likely additional genomic changes associated with Rso2BS4NPB's adaptation to multi-host
environments. However, we found fewer genomic variants linked to a particular host of isolation than
to spatial sampling location. Rso2B4NPB moreover shows reduced pairwise diversity among core and
accessory genes, and a smaller set of accessory genes compared to Rps1S18 in Martinique, indicating
the host range expansion is not due to higher rates of exchange in the flexible genome. Although we
cannot exclude the possibility favourable climatic conditions and other biotic or abiotic variables may
have enhanced opportunities for infection to occur, the introduction and expansion of another lineage
in Martinique provides additional evidence Rso2BS4NPB underwent a rare host range expansion
event: Rps1S18 retains a clear signature of host specialisation and was mainly isolated from *Solanum*
spp.
517
The coexistence of both Rso2BS4NPB and Rps1S18 in Martinique and likelihood of coinfection is
reflected by the presence of the ICE^{RpsGMI1000} in both lineages. The Rso2BS4NPB ICE^{RsoGMI1000} shares
a similar backbone and identical cargo-1 cluster with the Rps1S18 ICE^{RsoGMI1000}, differing only in the
carriage of distinct cargo-2 clusters [66]. Examination of the spatial patterns of pathogen diversity and
mobile element distribution show the ICE is present in only three Rps1S18 and all Rso2B4NPB in
Martinique (Fig. 5), as well as some basal members of the Rso2B4NPB lineage in French Guiana.
With the exception of a single Martinique Rso2A isolate also carrying the ICE, the other *R.*
solanacearum sequenced to date are otherwise curiously ICE-free, despite chromosomal homology at
preferred ICE integration sites and an abundance of direct repeats targeted by the ICE^{RsoGMI1000}
integrase. In contrast, we identified multiple additional ICEs circulating among *R.*
pseudosolanacearum. While we cannot explain the pattern of species-specific variation in ICE
carriage, we speculate ICE acquisition by Rso2B4NPB likely occurred prior to or soon after
Rso2BS4NPB dissemination to Martinique, perhaps via coinfection with Rps1S18 or another *R.*
pseudosolanacearum. It is not possible to reliably infer the source and directionality of transfer events
for mobile elements like ICEs. Rps1S18 in Martinique may have acquired cargo-1 via recombination
with the Rso2B4NPB ICEs for instance, and Rso2BS4NPB may have acquired the ICE^{RsoGMI1000} from
an unsampled lineage of *Ralstonia* sp., or a less related member of the microbial community
altogether. The distribution of ICEs among the *Ralstonia* spp. sampled across Martinique nevertheless
provide some insight into how intermicrobial interactions resulting in horizontal gene transfer shape
pathogen evolution, and may be linked with the emergence of epidemic lineages.
538
We found additional genomic signatures of host-parasite interactions in Rso2BS4NPB, which exhibits
evidence of frequent encounter with its own potential parasites. The expansion of CRISPR repeats and
acquisition of multiple fragmented and intact prophages in Rso2BS4NPB genomes provide clear
evidence of exposure to phage infection. Acquired immunity provides an additional advantage to
Rso2B4NPB in the phage-rich soil environment [122]. Some of the CRISPR spacers with identifiable
origins correspond to phage known to successfully infect *R. pseudosolanacearum* strains like
Rps1S18. Coinfections of the same plant host or co-occurrence in the same environmental niche may
therefore represent an avenue for Rso2BS4NPB exposure to Rps1S18 phage. Rso2BS4NPB also
acquired multiple prophage, including one which has not yet been identified in any other sequenced
member of the species complex. The acquisition of prophage is frequently accompanied by the
acquisition of accessory gene clusters, which may also encode novel functions altering microbial
lifestyle and pathogenicity [123].

Resolving the origins of disease outbreaks in crop plants remains challenging, as the establishment of sampling programs typically occurs years after pathogens emerge and spread in susceptible hosts. Sampling is then typically limited to symptomatic hosts of interest, excluding adjacent crops and uncultivated plants and substrates, and sequencing in turn may be sporadic, dependent on available resources and how it may contribute to plant breeding efforts. These constraints limit our ability to identify disease reservoirs and infer patterns of dissemination in agricultural crops. This unique collection of *Ralstonia* spp. sampled across Martinique and French Guiana provides insight into the genomic changes associated with the emergence and host range expansion of Rso2BS4NPB, the microbial interactions shaping bacterial evolution, and patterns of dissemination between continental and island pathogen populations. The data shows Rso2BS4NPB did not emerge in Martinique, but is derived from an ancestral population still present on the mainland, from which the Rso2BS4NPB and banana infecting Rso2BS4 lineages diverged. The Rso2BS4 isolates from Peru and Colombia form a sister lineage that is associated with banana infection. The isolation of Rso2BS4NPB from fields in French Guiana that were only cleared of forest for cultivation one season prior additionally suggests Rso2BS4NPB became established prior to the outbreak in Martinique. The basal French Guiana Rso2BS4NPB isolates were predominantly isolated from *Solanaceae* however. The genomic changes associated with host range expansion in Rso2BS4NPB may have occurred immediately prior or subsequent to dissemination to Martinique, since a similar epidemic across a broad range of hosts was not identified in French Guiana.

The emergence of a pandemic lineage infecting crop plants is frequently linked with the introduction and expanded cultivation of susceptible host varieties [124], [125], [126], [77]. Banana was introduced as a crop to the Americas five centuries ago, and intensive industrial cultivation only began in the last two centuries [127]. Infectious disease outbreaks occurred soon after, most notoriously those caused by *Fusarium oxysporum* TR1 and *F. odoratissimum* TR4, which previously eliminated and currently threaten the Gros Michel and Cavendish varieties, respectively [128] [129]. Banana pathogenicity evolved independently multiple times in *R. solanacearum*, which has a center of origin in the Americas. Rso2BS4NPB is closely related to Rso2B4 strains responsible for outbreaks in banana plantations in Peru and Colombia, but exhibits reduced pathogenicity on this host. The convergent evolution of banana pathogenicity across the species complex aligns with observations of Rso2BS4NPB's lack of pathogenicity on banana and suggestion pathogenicity on this host is a derived trait in Rso2BS4 [2], [3], [130]. Convergent trait evolution and high frequency of recombination across the species complex enabled the identification of multiple genes and loci linked with isolation from banana. These represent interesting candidates for study of the genetic basis of specialisation on this host, along with the acquisitions we hypothesize are responsible for increased fitness of Rso2BS4NPB in environmental and plant-associated niches, and the consequent outbreak of this lineage across a wide variety of plant hosts. Cumulatively, this work provides insight into the origins of disease emergence caused by *Ralstonia* spp., and reveals how ecological interactions with co-occurring bacterial species and bacteriophage alike can shape pathogen evolution and contribute to the emergence of infectious disease.

Methods

Genome sequencing

Ralstonia spp. were collected in Martinique and French Guiana as described in Wicker *et al*. 2009 [3] and Deberdt *et al*. 2014 [4]. Isolates collected after the initial sampling were assigned to phylotype and sequevar by sequencing endoglucanase (*egl*) and mutation mismatch repair (*mutS*) genes. For this study, we extracted genomic DNA from 487 strains using Promega Wizard, then used a modified Nextera protocol for library preparation, as described in [5]. Paired-end sequencing with Illumina NextSeq 2000 was then performed. Since the first round of sequencing produced under 25-fold average coverage and under 40-fold maximum coverage, a second round of library preparation and sequencing was performed. Eight isolates (RUN0777, RUN0808, RUN0820, RUN0823, RUN1145, RUN1155, RUN1952 and RUN2004) were additionally sequenced using Oxford Nanopore Technology with a FLO-MIN106 flow cell and SQK-RBK004 barcoding kit. Basecalling and demultiplexing was performed with guppy_basecaller (v. 5.0.7) and guppy_barcoder v. 4.5.4 [6].

Genome assembly and annotation

Paired-end 150bp reads of both Illumina sequencing runs were filtered and trimmed with fastq_screen [7], bbduk [8] and fastp [9], [10] (--dedup --detect_adapter_for_pe --cut_front 15 --length_required 50). Assembly was performed with SPAdes [11], [12] using both separate and pooled (i.e. both sequencing runs) read sets. QUAST was used for assembly quality assessment [13]. Pooling both sequencing runs improved average assembly N50 values from 73Kb to 195Kb and decreased average contigs per assembly from 370 to 217, so assemblies generated from pooled sequencing runs were used. After filtering out assemblies with under 50-fold coverage, over 250 contigs, total assembly length exceeding 6Mb and N50 exceeding 75Kb, a total of 409 assemblies were retained for downstream analyses.

Oxford Nanopore long read data was filtered with Filtlong (v. 0.2.1) [14] to remove reads under 1Kb and the 5% of reads with the lowest quality values, then assembled with Trycycler (v. 0.5.4) [15], using Flye [16], Miniasm [17], Minipolish [18] and Raven [19] as underlying assemblers. Contigs that did not pass the reconciling step of Trycycler pipeline were manually removed. Final Trycycler consensus sequences were polished three times using long reads with Medaka [20], followed by two rounds of short read polishing using BWA [21] and Polypolish [22], using separate batches of the Illumina reads produced by each sequencing run.

All assemblies were annotated by Bakta [23], [24] using Prodigal [25] gene models and a reference protein database built using all complete *Ralstonia* spp. genome assemblies available from the RefSeq database in October 2022.

NCBI datasets and reference genomes

All available *R. pseudosolanacearum, R. syzygii* and *R. solanacearum* genome assemblies were downloaded from NCBI in February 2023 to provide additional phylogenetic context for analyses. Assemblies with fewer than 200 contigs, total assembly length between 5.0 - 6.2Mb, N50 over 75Kb and unflagged by the NCBI Genome datahub [26] for evidence of potential contamination were retained. A total of 410 Ralstonia spp. genomes passed these filters: 370 *R. solanacearum* (Rso), 35 *R. pseudosolanacearum* (Rps) and 5 *R. syzygii* (Rsy) genomes (Table S1). Three isolates were present in duplicate in the NCBI filtered dataset (MAFF 211479, UW163 and UW551), the lowest quality duplicate assembly was removed, producing a final NCBI dataset of 407 assemblies. These were then

636 reannotated with Bakta and merged with the 409 assemblies produced in this work for downstream
637 pangenome analyses. Metadata (host, geographical region and year of isolation) for genomes in the
638 NCBI dataset was obtained by inspecting Biosample entries. If the information was missing in
639 Biosample entries, we used RSSCdb records [27], [28] or publications describing the initial isolation
640 of the strain of interest [29].

Type 3 secreted effector identification

Amino acid sequences of 118 *R. solanacearum* type 3 secreted effectors (T3Es) from the manually
curated RalstoT3E database [30] were downloaded and used as query sequences for DIAMOND
BLASTp [31] searches against proteomes of the Bakta-annotated assemblies, using the --
ultrasensitive mode. Hits were filtered using a S30L25 strategy: retaining sequences with alignment
identity of at least 30% and query sequence coverage of 25% or greater. Since the T3E query set
includes multiple alleles of the same effector families, hits were then grouped into T3E families by
sorting first by identity and query length coverage. T3E family assignment for each protein sequence
was performed using the most significant T3E hit. Effector presence and absence was visualised by a
heatmap in R, omitting duplication events. This approach was tested by comparing the predicted T3E
repertoires in Rps1S18-GMI1000 and Rsy-RPSI07 with the ones provided in the RalstoT3E database.
Average pairwise similarity of T3E repertoires within RSSC clades was estimated by Scikit-learn
function cosine_similarity [32] using the information about presence-absence of effector families as
an input binary matrix.

Pangenome inference and core gene tree reconstruction

Panaroo [33] was used to identify core and flexible genomes for the RSSC dataset, i.e. the merged
dataset of 816 *Ralstonia* genomes sequenced in this study (409 strains) and downloaded from NCBI
(407 strains). A concatenation of core genes was used as an input alignment for phylogenetic analysis
of the species complex. Alignment columns with gaps or ambiguities and invariant sites were
removed with SNPsites [34], producing a final alignment of 137,423bp. Tree inference was then
performed using IQtree [35] with a GTR+ASC model of sequence evolution, model for alignments
that do not contain constant sites, and 1000 bootstrap replicates. The ggtree R package [36] was used
for all tree and metadata visualisation.
664
665 Panaroo gene presence and absence tables for the RSSC dataset were queried using a custom Python
666 script to identify genes uniquely present in either Rps1S18, RsoS4 or Rso2BS4NPB. Genes are
667 referred to as clade-specific when they are present in at least 95% of all genomes in a given focal
668 clade, and present in no more than 10 non-focal clade assemblies.
669
The species complex tree from the set of core genes identified by Panaroo was used for clade
delineation and lineages assignment. Most genomes clustered according to the phylotypes initially
assigned by *egl* and *mutS* sequencing in Wicker *et al.* 2007 [3] and Deberdt *et al.* 2014 [4], although
some discrepancies are present. We simplify strain species, phylotype and sequevar references here
using the following format: [species][phylotype][sequevar]-[strain ID]. For instance, *R. solanacearum*
phylotype IIB sequevar 4 strains are referred to as Rso2BS4, where the 'S' precedes prior sequevar
assignment. Those strains that were not classified by sequevar have a shorter designation:
[species][phylotype]-[strain ID]. The clade designation in this work may differ from historically
assigned sequevar or even phylotype labels, since these were first assigned using *egl* and *mutS*
sequences rather than whole genome sequencing and core gene tree reconstruction. The criteria for

membership in a named clade is exceeding a minimum shared identity of 99% in the RSSC core gene
alignment.

Separate pangenome analyses and core gene tree reconstructions were performed on three specific
clades: *R. pseudosolanacearum* phylotype 1 sequevar 18 (Rps1S18, 102 strains), *R. solanacearum*
phylotype 2 sequevar 4 (Rso2BS4, 226 strains), and the emergent lineage *R. solanacearum* phylotype
2 sequevar 4 Non-Pathogenic on Banana (Rso2BS4NPB, 180 strains). The strains forming each clade
were identified with reference to the RSSC core gene tree (Figure 1). Assemblies for IBSBF_2571
(GCA_003590605.1) and O12BS_UW407 (GCA_023076615.1) were excluded due to abnormally
long terminal branch lengths and P673 was excluded due to contradictory phylogenetic position of
two assembly versions: the most recent P673 assembly GCA_015698365.1 was assigned to
Rso2BS4NPB clade, while the earlier version GCA_000525615.1 grouped with other Rso2BS4
Epipremnum isolates from the USA.

An additional iteration of clade-specific pangenome analysis was performed for both Rso2BS4NPB
and Rps1S18. Although strain IBSBF1503 (GCA_001587155.1) groups with other Rso2BS4NPB
strains in the RSSC core gene tree, the clade-specific tree revealed this strain is a more distant relative
and more properly referred to as an outgroup strain, therefore this was excluded from a second
iteration. Similarly, Rps1S18 strains CIP266_UW505 (GCA_023075875.1) and UW393
(GCA_023076675.1) form a distant outgroup to other Rps1S18 strains, therefore these were excluded
from the second iteration of the Rps1S18 pangenome analysis.

Mobile element prediction in reference genome assemblies

All potential mobile elements, including genes annotated as integrases, transposases, prophage-related
genes and IS elements, were identified and masked for the downstream phylogenetic analysis in the
Bakta-annotated genome assemblies for Rps1S18 strain GMI1000 (GCA_000009125.1), RsoS4 strain
UW163 (GCA_001587135.1) and Rso2BS4NPB strain RUN1145. Prophage and IS elements were
predicted using the PHASTER, PHASTEST [37], [38], [39] and ISfinder [40] online tools. All gene
annotations containing keywords "phage" OR "transposase" OR "tail" OR "head" OR "integrase" OR
"terminase" OR "conjugal" OR "integrase" OR "integrative conjugative element" OR "conjugative
transfer" OR "conjugative coupling" were manually searched for and flagged in Geneious Prime [41].
The results were converted into BED files, then sorted, merged and used for masking with Bedtools
[42]. Masked references were used for reference-based contig mapping.

Phylogenetic analyses

Reference-based contig mapping was performed for the Rps1S18, RsoS4 and Rso2BS4NPB clades, as
defined by using RSSC and clade-specific core gene trees. Rps1S18 included 100 genomes, with
GMI1000 as reference. The RsoS4 clade contained 226 genomes, with UW163 as reference.
Rso2BS4NPB included 179 genomes, with RUN1145 as reference. The Brazilian *Cucumis sativus*
isolate IBSBF1503 is referred to as Rso2B4NPB in the literature and initially grouped with
Rso2BS4NPB in the species complex tree, and, so we initially used this strain as a reference for
Rso2BS4NPB. While more closely related to Rso2B4NPB than any other available complete *Rso*
genome, we found IBSBF1503 is clearly an outgroup relative to other Rso2BS4NPB isolates (Fig.
S4). The average pairwise nucleotide diversity is 0.002% between Rso2BS4NPB genomes, and an
order of magnitude greater (0.02%) relative to IBSBF1503. According to progressiveMauve whole
genome alignments, Rso2BS4NPB isolate RUN1145 differs from RUN1960 and IBSBF1503 by 134

and 1,215 SNPs, respectively. Since IBSBF1503 is too divergent to be considered a member of the
same lineage, we reclassified IBSBF1503 as Rso2BS4. We resequenced five Rso2BS4NPB strains
from Martinique using Nanopore long-read sequencing to generate closed hybrid assemblies and used
the complete assembly of Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 as a reference for more reliable core genome
alignment-based phylogenetic inference of relationships between closely related strains. The Rps1S18
contig mapping using Rps1S18 GMI1000 as reference resulted in 4,760,272 bp consensus alignment
with 311 SNPs and 116 parsimony informative sites.
732
Reads and contigs mappings were performed separately for each assembly with bwa-mem2 [21], [43]
or Minimap2 [44] using asm5 mode respectively. All resulting BAM alignments were sorted and
indexed with Samtools [45]. BCFtools mpileup was used to filter and retain bases with mapping
quality above 60 [45]. Variants were called with bcftools-call and filtered by bcftools-filter using the
expression TYPE="snp" && DP>=X && QUAL>30 && AF1>=0.95 with X=10 for reads and X=1
for contig mapping. Any alignment column with a gap site was removed. Consensus sequences were
obtained using bcftools-consensus, masking the sites with coverage depth below one as identified by
Mosdepth [46]. The consensus sequences for all strains in a given clade were concatenated into a
FASTA alignment file. Sites containing N characters were trimmed with goalign clean-sites [47].
Recombinant regions were predicted and removed by ClonalFrameML [48] using an initial tree
calculated by IQtree [35] under GTR+F+I+R2 substitution model. The final Maximum likelihood
trees were calculated from the non-recombinant alignments for each clade by IQtree using the MFP
(ModelFinder Plus) option for the best model search [49]. The contig mapping approach resulted in
better resolved and bootstrap supported trees, therefore the trees generated by reads mapping were
excluded from further analysis. Tree visualisations were created with ggtree [36].

Tree dating

Root-to-tip regression and dating of the Rso2BS4NPB and Rps1S18 non-recombinant core genome
trees were performed with BactDating using 100,000 Markov Chain Monte Carlo iterations [50]. For
the Rso2BS4NPB tree, RsoS4 strain IBSBF1503 was added as an outgroup for tree calculation and
dating, as the initRoot function was otherwise unable to root the tree. TempEst [51] was used to
confirm root-to-tip regression results obtained with BactDating, setting the 'Best-fitting root' option
of TempEst to 'R squared'. Tree tips with missing sampling date information (Rps1S18
UQRS637_UW745 and UW193, Rso2BS4NPB RUN0283 and RUN0739) and outliers (Rps1S18
UW299, RUN0679, RUN0037 and GMI1000) identified by TempEst were dropped from the
Rps1S18 and Rso2BS4NPB trees using the R function ape::drop.tip. Branches with edge lengths of
zero were manually collapsed into a single node by Dendroscope [52]. A Dates Permutation Test was
performed with BactDating by randomly generating dates between 2000 and 2012 and randomly
assigning these to tree tips. The simulated trees were compared to the actual dating model using the
modelcompare function of BactDating.

CRISPR-Cas system identification

CRISPR-Cas systems were identified with Bakta annotation of Rso2BS4 and Rso2BS4NPB genomes.
CRISPR repeats and spacers were then annotated in two closed references Rso2BS4-UW163 and
Rso2BS4NPB-RUN1145 using the CRISPRloci workflow [53]. The spacer sequences identified with
CRISPRloci were then used for BLASTn searches against the RefSeq Phage database downloaded
from PhageScope [54], NCBI Nucleotide collection (nr_nt) and Environmental samples (env_nt)
databases accessed in June 2024. The extracted spacers were also used for INPHARED database [55]
searches using the SpacePHARER [56] toolkit in August 2024.

Inter and intraspecific recombination prediction

Potential homologous recombination events within and between Rso2BS4 and Rps1S18 lineages were investigated using the RECOPHY toolkit [57]. Two datasets were analysed: Rso2BS4 alone and in combination with Rps1S18, using Rso2BS4NPB-RUN1145 as a reference in each case. Prior to RECOPHY execution, all genome pairs with a Mash distance [58] below zero were identified and one member of each pair was then randomly removed from the dataset. The final datasets included 49 genomes for the Rso2BS4 analysis alone, and with an additional 64 Rps1S18 genomes for the merged analysis. The regions of core alignment with increased and reduced density of SNPs per 1 kb block were extracted and investigated separately. In order to find discrepancies with the core phylogeny, a simple Neighbor-Joining tree was calculated for each of these regions using Geneious Prime software [41].

Pangenome-wide association testing

Scoary [59] and Pyseer [60] pan-GWAS analyses were used to investigate associations between gene presence and absence patterns and the host or location of strain isolation. The broad (country) and fine-scale (village) locations and all taxonomic levels of the host of isolation or environmental substrate were converted from the metadata table into a binary traits table using the pandas.get_dummies function [61]. For example, a strain isolated from a tomato plant in China would receive the value "1" in the columns China, *Eudicots, Asterids, Solanales, Solanaceae, Solanum* and *S. lycopersicum*, and receive the value "0" in all other columns of the traits table. This traits table was used as input for both Scoary and Pyseer pan-GWAS analyses, along with the gene presence and absence table from Panaroo.

The significance of candidates identified with Scoary was assessed after multiple test corrections: individual (naive) p-value, Bonferroni adjusted p-value, Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value, entire range of pairwise comparison p-values, and empirical p-value from 100 permutations, using thresholds of p=0.05 for all corrections. Significant genes identified by Scoary after all the corrections were further filtered using 95% sensitivity and 70% specificity thresholds. A lower specificity threshold was chosen due to the nature of the trait dataset: the traits table simply reflects the known host of isolation and the location of isolation. The actual host range of a particular strain may include additional hosts, closely or distantly related, just as closely related strains may be present in vastly different geographic regions. Since the Scoary and Pyseer pan-GWAS analyses aim to identify genes linked with survival in a particular host, environment or substrate, the sensitivity should be high. Those same genes may also be present in strains isolated from other plants however, therefore specificity is reduced. For example: a gene whose product is strongly associated with tomato (*S. lycopersicum*) infection should be overrepresented among tomato isolates in the dataset. Therefore we seek genes present in 95% of tomato isolates. We reduced the specificity threshold to 70% to allow for instances where another strain carries that same gene and is also capable of infecting tomato, but happens to have been isolated from a different host.

For the Pyseer analysis, the distance matrix from the RSSC core gene tree and the number of patterns for the likelihood ratio test (LRT) were calculated using phylogeny_distance.py and count_patterns.py scripts downloaded from the Pyseer GitHub page [62], accessed on January 2024. The pattern count resulted in 6,075 patterns for the RSSC, leading to the likelihood ratio test (LRT) p-value threshold of 3.8e-08 = 0.05/(patterns_number*traits_number). Hits with effect size (beta value) under 0.2 and phenotypic variance values (variant_h2) above 0.5 were filtered out.

Pan-GWAS of gene presence/absence data is an effective tool for the identification of genes
associated with traits of interest, but is limited to the accessory genome and does not test for trait
associations within the core genome and intergenic regions. This gap is filled with a kmer-based
association test. Analogously to the method used for gene presence/absence data, Pyseer was applied
to identify the kmers significantly associated with any host or location of isolation across the RSSC,
using the same binary metadata table as described for the pan-GWAS analysis. The initial set of 31bp
long kmers was generated for all the RSSC genomes using unitig-caller [63]. The distance matrix
from the species complex core genes tree and the number of patterns for the likelihood ratio test
(LRT) were calculated using phylogeny_distance.py and count_patterns.py scripts from the Pyseer
GitHub page [62]. The pattern count reported 1,484,018 patterns for the RSSC kmers, producing a
LRT p-value threshold of 5.0e-10 = 0.05/(patterns_number*traits_number). Hits with effect size (beta
value) under 0.2 and phenotypic variance values (variant_h2) above 0.5 were filtered out. The
presence and positions of significant kmers in Rso2BS4NPB reference strain RUN1145, RsoS4
reference strain UW163 and Rps1S18 reference strain GMI1000 was identified and stored in BED
files using a custom Python script. For visualisation purposes, all kmers mapped on a genome within a
1kb distance were merged using the bedtools-merge function [42].
832
The panGWAS and kmer-based tests identify many genes associated with isolation from specific
hosts. These tests vary in how they control for population structure, but some genes were predicted to
have associations with particular traits using multiple methods. Separate association tests were
performed using either spatial location or host/substrate of isolation metadata. We noticed that many
genes have overlapping predictions using both metadata types, particularly where it concerns isolates
recovered from soil or water. For example, gene presence associated with *S. lycopersicum* isolation
often overlaps with gene presence associated with *Solanaceae* isolation. All overlaps were
investigated using a custom Python script and visualised in an Upset plot using the UpSetR R package
[64]. For the genes assigned to multiple nested traits, the lowest level of taxonomic identification (e.g.
species rather than genus) or the finest level of geographical scale (e.g. village rather than country) for
which significance was identified were chosen. Overlaps within the Scoary, Pyseer pan-GWAS and
kmer-based outputs were identified using the same strategy.

Identification of integrative and conjugative elements

Complete integrative and conjugative elements were identified in 133 complete RSSC genome
assemblies using the following criteria: the presence of a type 4 secretion system (T4SS) required for
conjugal transfer between strains, a *mob* family relaxase and integrase, and the presence of 8bp direct
repeats (TTTTTTAT) encompassing the predicted ICE [65]. This 8bp repeat is described as an ICE
insertion site for Rps1S18 GMI1000 in the ICEberg 3.0 database [66]. We note this repeat occurs
between 50-70 times elsewhere in each RSSC genome. This does not preclude them from being actual
ICE integration sites: despite the apparent existence of preferred ICE integration sites in the RSSC,
some ICE integrases are known to be promiscuous and may target different repeats as attachment sites
across the genome. For example, ICE Tn916 targets AT-rich loci and integrates almost at random
across genomes [67]. MOBscan was used for identification of relaxases [68], followed by BLASTn
sequence homology searches for a T4SS and adjacent integrases [69] using Rso2BS4NPB RUN1960
T4SS and integrase sequences as BLASTn queries, followed by T4SS locus confirmation with the
TXSScan module of MacSyFinder toolkit [70]. The flanking repeat sequence TTTTTTAT was
identified using a custom python script. In genomes where the repeat was not identified within 10kb
of the T4SS, relaxase and integrase, putative insertion sites were manually identified.
861

The genomic context of putative ICEs in the RSSC assemblies was inferred by aligning 50 kb
upstream and downstream flanking regions surrounding putative ICEs in Rps1S18 GMI1000,
Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 and Rso2BS4NPB RUN1960 to the genomes. The presence of genes
significantly associated with isolation from Martinique by panGWAS analysis was also confirmed by
BLASTn, retaining hits with e-values under 1.0^{-5}, query length coverage over 10% and overall
alignment length exceeding 1 kb.
868
The involvement of ICE cargo genes in specific metabolic pathways was predicted using KEGG
Orthology assignment with protein sequences from the cargo regions of interest, performing searches
in the database for the genus Ralstonia (taxa ID: 48736). The locus structure of putative ICEs was
visualised with the ggtree::geom_motif R function [36]. Complete ICE sequences identified in *Rps*
362200, *Rps* RS24, *Rps* RUN1952, Rps1S18 RUN820, Rps1S18 GMI1000, Rso2BS4NPB RUN1960,
RUN0777, Rso2A RUN1155 and *Ralstonia pickettii* strain 12J were aligned to each other using the
progressive Mauve [71] algorithm implemented in Geneious [41].

Geographical metadata display

877   Information about the geographical region of isolation for each strain was obtained from the country
878   of isolation metadata collected for the RSSC strains set as described above. Counties of isolation were
879   converted into continents using pycountry Python package [72]. The "Caribbean" region of isolation
880   was manually assigned for all Martinique isolates to highlight the region of interest.
881
Longitude and latitude of the sampling site was recorded for 83/500 strains sampled in Martinique and
French Guiana. For the remaining 417/500 strains, the commune (administrative district) or the
nearest village was listed in the strain metadata. For these cases, approximate longitude and latitude
values were retrieved using the geolocator function of the geopy.geocoders Python package [73] using
the commune or nearest village names. Commune maps of Martinique and French Guiana in geojson
format were downloaded from the France Geojson collection [74]. The actual and estimated longitude
and latitude values for each isolate were visualised with the geopandas package [75].

Supplemental Results

Phylogeography of Rso2BS4NPB and Rps1S18

The Rso2BS4NPB tree shows the Gros Morne sampling site is adjacent to Trinite and also harbours
strains from multiple clades of Rso2BS4NPB, though all but two isolates (which were obtained from
lake water) were from the same host species endemic to the Americas: *A. andreanum*. Similarly, all
but one isolate from Sainte Anne group together, despite the fact they were isolated from dissimilar
hosts: tomato and cucumber (*Cucumis sativus*). There is a clade of Macouba village isolates from
Heliconia spp. and from *Musa* spp., though the latter are from plants with atypical symptoms.

Identification of ICEs in the *Ralstonia solanacearum* species complex

All eight ICE[RpsGMI1000] identified in Rps genomes have integrated into one of three attachment (att)
sites on the primary chromosome, numbered incrementally in order of distance from the origin of
replication in Rps1S18 GMI1000 (i.e. att-1, att-2 and att-3). Two Rps genomes have ICE[RpsGMI1000] in
att-1, four Rps genomes have ICE[RpsGMI1000] in att-2, and three genomes have ICE[RpsGMI1000] in att-3.
ICE attachment sites frequently overlap with tRNA genes, but this is not the case here, and
comparison of the flanking regions shows structural rearrangements have occurred [131]. The att-1
site appears least preferred for ICE integration, and is located between genes encoding a hypothetical

protein and a purine metabolism enzyme phosphoribosylformylglycinamidine cyclo-ligase. The att-2 is located between XRE family transcriptional regulator and inositol monophosphatase genes, while att-3 is located between genes encoding a universal stress protein and isocitrate lyase. All five ICEs identified in complete Rso assemblies are ICE^{RpsGMI1000} integrated into att-2 sites in Martinique isolates, although two Rso2BS4NPB draft assemblies (RUN1960 and RUN1959) contain an ICE integrated into the att-3 site. The att-3 is the preferred integration site in Rps genomes for most complete or partial ICEs, ICE^{RpsGMI1000} or otherwise.

Rps ICEs retain core backbone genes (*trb* conjugative system, *traG* coupling protein, *mob* relaxase and integrase) but vary considerably in cargo, i.e. gene clusters that do not encode functions critical to the ICE lifecycle, but are highly variable between ICEs and may confer novel fitness-enhancing functions to the bacterial host. Conserved and cargo regions in the broader family of ICEs were delineated using ProgressiveMauve alignment of complete ICEs from five Rps genomes representing five clades in the phylogenetic tree, three Rso (Rso2A and two Rso2BS4NPB with ICEs in either att-2 or att-3) and one outgroup *R. picketii* genome (Fig. 5). The cargo-1 in Rps1S18 RUN0820 and Rps RUN1155 ICEs encodes genes associated with carbohydrate metabolism and folate biosynthesis [132], and Rps RUN0820 ICE cargo-1 encodes various reductases, oxidases and dehydrogenases involved in the metabolism of fucose, a sugar found on plant cell surface [133] (gene ID PEIJFM_11570).

Virulence gene repertoires in the *Ralstonia solanacearum* species complex

Patterns of T3E family presence and absence correlate with genetic distance, i.e. strains within the same species or the same clade share similar T3E repertoires. The average pairwise similarity within T3E families is higher within Rso (92%) and Rps (94%) than it is across the entire species complex (86%). *R. syzygii* (Rsy) exhibits the highest diversity among T3E families (88%), despite being less well sampled than both *Rso* and *Rps*. The core effector arsenal of the species complex is comprised of 31 T3E families present in more than 99% of all RSSC genomes: *ripA3, ripA4, ripA5, ripB, ripC1, ripD, ripE1, ripG4, ripG7, ripH2, ripM, ripR, ripS2, ripS5, ripU, ripW, ripY, ripZ, ripAB, ripAC, ripAD, ripAE, ripAI, ripAJ, ripAM, ripAN, ripAO, ripAP, ripAR, ripAY, ripTPS*. Some T3Es were found in only a single RSSC genome: RipO2 is present solely within *Rsy* strain NCPPB_3219 from clove (*Syzygium aromaticum*), RipBN is limited to Rps3S29 strain CMR15 from tomato (*S. lycopersicum*) and the hypothetical effector Hyp17 is present solely in Rps strain Tb04 from tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) (Fig. S1). Five T3E families were not identified in any of the RSSC genomes despite being listed in the RalstoT3 database (RipG8, RipAF2, RipBE, RipBP and RipBQ). This may be due to filtering and assignment to a T3E family based on similarity of the best hit, or the exclusion of the relevant genomes from our dataset. A single Australian isolate grouping with the Rso2BS4 strains carrying RipP3 was also isolated from *S. tuberosum*.

Rps1S18 displays a uniform effector repertoire, with one exception: RipS4 is variable across Rps1S18. The gain and loss of RipS4 does not appear to be linked with host, substrate or location of isolation however. The same effector is often missing in other *Rps* clades circulating in French Guiana, but present in the majority of *Rps* strains from Asia. Rps1S18 also lacks RipAL, an effector otherwise present in almost every other RSSC genome. Conversely, Rps1S18 acquired RipBO, an effector almost entirely absent from every sequenced Rps and Rso (Fig. 3). The effector RipAX2 has been demonstrated to trigger specific resistance in eggplant [134].

CRISPR-Cas loci in Rso2BS4 and Rso2BS4NPB

The CRISPR-Cas operon (*cas3*, *casA/cas8e*, *casB/cas11/cse2*, *cas7e*, *cas5e*, *cas6e*, *cas1e*, *cas2*) is conserved between Rso2BS4-UW163 and Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 (a single nucleotide frameshift mutation resulting in a premature stop in Rso2BS4 UW163 *cas3* is likely a sequencing error as it is located in a region of 6 consecutive cytosines). The kmer-based association tests also show that the largest cluster of Martinique-associated kmers that do not map to MGEs map to the leader-proximal position of CRISPR arrays in Rso2BS4NPB. The 31bp kmers partially overlap with the near identical 29bp CRISPR 1 and CRISPR 2 repeat sequences, as well as up to 7bp of spacer sequence, with CRISPR repeats sometimes differing in the final 1-2bp.

The INPHARED phage database was queried using Rso2BS4 and Rso2BS4NPB spacers, yielding hits to nine different Ralstonia phages: RPZH3 [135], RS603, RSMSuper [136], Eline, Raharianne [137], YO010_2, YO134_2, YO026_1 and YO158_1 [138] (Table S8). Spacers shared between CRISPR arrays of both Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 and Rso2BS4 UW163 map to YO134_2, YO026_1 and YO158_1 phage. The other spacers with hits in the INPHARED database are among the set unique to and recently acquired by Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145. None of the Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 spacers aligned to the RefSeq Phage or env_nt databases. NCBI-nr BLASTn reported two hits for Rso2BS4NPB unique spacers: Rps3S23 (LN899820.1) and *Burkholderia* sp. S-53 (CP090483 and CP090484) genomes.

Spatial distribution of genetic variation

There are many genes found solely in association with specific location, at varying spatial scales (Table S12). The overlapping set of genes identified by both SCOARY and Pyseer panGWAS includes 27 genes associated with isolation from specific districts (communes) in Martinique (Fig. S10, Table S11, Table S12). Many kmers (48,477) were identified as being associated with a specific district (commune) or country (Table S9). Very few had overlapping geographic associations (for example between country and district), but 32% (15,747/48,477) of these had overlapping associations between location and host of isolation. For example, some kmers show evidence of association with isolation from both banana and Peru. Mapping kmers against reference genomes shows there is ample genetic variation associated with Martinique among both Rso2BS4NPB and Rps1S18. This is not unique to Martinique: there are also China and Peru-specific kmer associations (Table S10). 93.5% of the kmers mapping to Rso2BS4NPB RUN1145 are associated with isolation in Martinique.

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