The ecological genetics of *Pseudomonas syringae* from kiwifruit leaves

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RUNNING TITLE (50 CHARACTERS)

Ecological genetics of *Pseudomonas syringae*

ORIGINALITY-SIGNIFICANT STATEMENT

Bacterial pathogen populations are often studied with little consideration of co-

occurring microbes and yet interactions between pathogens and commensals can

affect both population structure and disease progression. A fine-scale sampling of

commensals present on kiwifruit leaves during an outbreak of bleeding canker

disease caused by *P. syringae* pv. *actinidiae* reveals a clonal population structure. A

new clade of non-pathogenic *P. syringae* (PG3a) appears to be associated with

kiwifruit on a global scale. The presence of PG3a on kiwifruit has significant effects

on the outcome of infection by *P. syringae* pv. *actinidiae*. This emphasises the value

of studying the effect of co-occurring bacteria on pathogen-plant interactions.

SUMMARY

Interactions between commensal microbes and invading pathogens are

understudied, despite their likely effects on pathogen population structure and

infection processes. We describe the population structure and genetic diversity of a

broad range of co-occurring *Pseudomonas syringae* isolated from infected and

uninfected kiwifruit during an outbreak of bleeding canker disease caused by *P.*

syringae pv. *actinidiae* (*Psa*) in New Zealand. Overall population structure was clonal

and affected by ecological factors including infection status and cultivar. Most

isolates are members of a new clade in phylogroup 3 (PG3a), also present on

kiwifruit leaves in China and Japan. Stability of the polymorphism between

pathogenic *Psa* and commensal *P. syringae* PG3a isolated from the same leaf was

tested using reciprocal invasion from rare assays *in vitro* and *in planta*. *P. syringae*

G33C (PG3a) inhibited *Psa* NZ54, while the presence of *Psa* NZ54 enhanced the

growth of *P. syringae* G33C. This effect could not be attributed to virulence activity

encoded by the Type 3 secretion system of *Psa*. Together our data contribute toward

the development of an ecological perspective on the genetic structure of pathogen

populations.

INTRODUCTION

46   Kiwifruit (*Actinidia* spp.) cultivation is challenged by outbreaks of the

bacterial pathogen *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *actinidiae (Psa)* – the causative agent

of bleeding canker disease. The latest outbreak was first reported in Italy in 2008

(Balestra *et al.*, 2008) before spreading rapidly through most kiwifruit growing

regions of the world (Abelleira *et al.*, 2011; Everett *et al.*, 2011; Koh *et al.*, 2012;

Zhao *et al.*, 2013; Sawada, 2015), arriving in New Zealand in 2010 (Everett *et al.*,

2011).

53   As a pathogen, *Psa* faces the challenge of colonising diverse environments

before proliferating in the apoplast and vascular tissues. Colonisation of leaf surfaces

prior to invasion is a key infection stage (Wilson and Lindow, 1994; Wilson *et al.*,

1999; Monier and Lindow, 2003; Pfeilmeier *et al.*, 2016). On the leaf surface *Psa* is

likely to encounter and interact with a diverse range of plant-colonising bacteria

(Hirano and Upper, 2000; Lindow and Brandl, 2003). Physical proximity increases the

likelihood of competitive interactions affecting disease outcomes (Lindow and

Brandl, 2003; Hibbing *et al.*, 2010) and increases the probability of horizontal gene

transfer (Sawada *et al.*, 1999; Polz *et al.*, 2013; Colombi *et al.*, 2017).

The local context and the scale of sampling bacterial populations is particularly

important, as it can have an impact on genetic structure (Istock *et al.*, 1992; Souza *et*

al., 1992; Haubold and Rainey, 1996; Spratt and Maiden, 1999). A study by Istock *et*

al. (1992) made a particularly persuasive case by showing that sampling *Bacillus*

subtilis at the local level (instead of pooled collections) contradicted the common

view of its clonal population structure. Similar lessons regarding the scale of

sampling have come from studying *P. syringae* populations with a range of structures

reported depending upon whether or not environmental isolates are included

(Sarkar and Guttman, 2004; Monteil *et al.*, 2013).

Bacterial interactions are context-dependent, ranging from synergistic to

antagonistic, and may have both local and global effects on the plant host

(Stubbendieck *et al.*, 2016). Antagonistic or competitive interactions between

microbes may be direct or indirect, resulting in the inhibition of growth or even

killing (Lindow, 1986; Völksch and May, 2001; Berlec, 2012; Hockett *et al.*, 2015;

Nakahara *et al.*, 2016). Synergistic interactions occur when multiple types cooperate

to cause disease (Singer, 2010; Lamichhane and Venturi, 2015). For example, *P.*

savastanoi pv. *savastanoi,* causative agent of olive knot disease, interacts with non-

pathogenic endophytes *Erwinia sp.* and *Pantoea sp.* in cankers, enhancing the

severity of disease (Marchi *et al.*, 2006; Moretti *et al.*, 2011; Buonaurio *et al.*, 2015).

Synergistic interactions can also be exploitative: bacteria lacking virulence factors

can reap benefits from co-existing pathogenic isolates (Young, 1974; Hirano *et al.*,

1999; Macho *et al.*, 2007; Rufián *et al.*, 2017).

P. syringae is a common member of the phyllosphere (defined as the aerial

part of a plant (Vorholt, 2012)) and engages in both commensal and pathogenic

interactions with plants (Hirano and Upper, 2000; Mohr *et al.*, 2008). The diversity

and population structure of *P. syringae* has been investigated using both multilocus

sequence typing (MLST) and genome sequence analysis of pathogenic isolates

collected from diseased plants (Sarkar and Guttman, 2004; Hwang *et al.*, 2005;

Baltrus *et al.*, 2011; McCann *et al.*, 2013, 2017; Fujikawa and Sawada, 2016; Nowell

et al., 2016). Studies have also explored the structure of *P. syringae* populations

from environmental reservoirs beyond standard host plants (Morris *et al.*, 2008;

Monteil *et al.*, 2013, 2014, 2016). However, the genetic structure of specific

pathovar populations from the phyllosphere of specific host plants have rarely been

studied in the context of co-occurring *P. syringae* types.

Here we describe the population structure of the *P. syringae* species complex

inhabiting the kiwifruit phyllosphere during an outbreak of bleeding canker disease

in New Zealand. Using an MLST scheme, we reveal a largely clonal population

structure, but show that genetic diversity is significantly affected by ecological

factors such as infection status and cultivar. We identified members of four *P.*

syringae phylogroups (PG1, PG2, PG3 and PG5) and recovered a new monophyletic

clade within PG3 (PG3a) that is associated with kiwifruit in different kiwifruit-

growing regions of the world. Investigations into the ecological interactions between

a representative of this new clade and *Psa* show that PG3a restricts *Psa* proliferation,

while *Psa* facilitates growth of PG3a.

RESULTS

Phyllosphere diversity of *Pseudomonas syringae*

Four housekeeping genes (*gapA*, *gyrB*, *gltA*, *rpoD*) were sequenced for each

of 148 *P. syringae* isolated from two varieties of kiwifruit ('Hayward' and 'Hort16A')

in both uninfected and *Psa*-infected orchards. Rarefaction analysis indicates

saturation of the sampling effort (Figure S1). The infected 'Hayward' orchard

displayed the highest α-diversity (D=0.904), while the uninfected 'Hort16A' orchard

displayed the least α-diversity (D=0.737). There was low evenness (ED) among all

sampling sites (0.136 to 0.290). Similarly, the four different sampling sites shared

few species (Sørensen's index of dissimilarity = 0.847).

Multilocus sequence typing

45 unique sequence types (ST) were discovered among the 148 sequenced

strains. All STs were novel, except for ST904 (*Psa*), and not described in the Plant

Associated and Environmental Microbes Database (PAMDB). For a more global

analysis, *P. syringae* allelic profiles were sourced from PAMDB and NCBI (accessions

listed in Table S2), along with *P. syringae* isolated from kiwifruit in Japan (NCBI) , NZ

and the US (Visnovsky *et al.* 2016).

Infected orchards (both 'Hayward' and 'Hort16A') harboured the highest

number of unique STs, sharing only three STs between them (Figure S2). No STs were

present in all four orchards, but two STs were found in three orchards (ST1 and ST3).

From the perspective of clonal complexes (CC), the predominant ST (predicted

founder) was present along with several SLVs (single locus variants). Two clonal

complexes (CC) (21 strains), 5 doubletons (32 strains) and 28 singletons (95 strains)

were identified (Figure S3). CC1 and CC2 are comprised of 11 and 10 strains,

respectively. ST904 (*Psa*, 15/148) and ST1 (PG3, 24/148) made up 25% of the sample

(Figure S3). Strikingly, ST3 (PG3a) was isolated from three out of four orchards and

was also sampled from uninfected gold (*A. chinensis* var. *chinensis*) and green (*A.*

chinensis var. *deliciosa*) kiwifruit in NZ (2010) (Visnovsky *et al.*, 2016) and Japan

(2015), respectively (Figure 1). ST16 was also recovered from uninfected kiwifruit

leaves in NZ in both 1991 and 2013. Other Japanese kiwifruit STs group closely with

P. syringae originating from kiwifruit in NZ.

Sequence diversity

The total concatenated alignment length was 2010 bp with no insertions or

deletions detected for either of the four loci. The number of alleles ranged from 25

(*gapA*) to 35 (*rpoD*) (Table 1). There were a total of 412 polymorphic sites, ranging

from 80 (16.81%, *gapA*) to 145 (28.6%, *gyrB*). The nucleotide diversity index π and

Watterson's θ were highly consistent among loci, varying from 0.040 to 0.055 and

0.024 to 0.041 respectively. The average GC content of 57.99% is similar to that

found in other *P. syringae* studies (59- 61%). The pairwise genetic difference within

phylogroups (PGs) was not greater than 2.7%, whereas among PGs the variability

ranged from 6-11% (Table 2), consistent with previous accounts of genetic variability

for *P. syringae* (Sarkar and Guttman, 2004; Morris *et al.*, 2010; Berge *et al.*, 2014).

Genetic diversity varies by host cultivar and infection status

To test whether genetic diversity was influenced by the presence of

ecological structure, multivariate analyses (PERMANOVA) were performed. A highly

significant difference in genetic diversity was observed among sampled orchards

(Pseudo-F = 5.99, *P* < 0.0001); with pairwise Permanova tests revealing that the

uninfected green orchard differed significantly from every other orchard (*P*<0.003).

The cultivar ('Hayward' vs. 'Hort16A') (Pseudo-F = 5.62, *P*<0.001) and infection status

of an orchard (Pseudo-F = 11.72, P <0.001) also had a significant effect on genetic

diversity, whereas no temporal effect was found (Pseudo-F = 1.10, P >0.34). When

testing the nested effect of all three factors, only the infection status (Pseudo-F =

6.42, P <0.01) had a significant impact on genetic diversity (Table S3).

Recombination among *P. syringae*

Intragenic recombination rates (ρ) ranged from 0.012 (*rpoD*) to 0.038 (*gyrB*)

and 0.006 for the concatenated dataset. The ratio ε (recombination rate/mutation

rate) ranged from 0.187 (concatenated*)* to 0.931 (*gyrB*) suggesting that any single

nucleotide polymorphism is up to five times more likely to have arisen from a

mutation than recombination (Table 3).

Clustering sequences by PG revealed no evidence of recombination within

PG1 and PG5 (ρ=0), however for these phylogroups the sample size was low. There

was evidence of recombination in PG3, more specifically for *gltA* (ε=1.18) and *rpoD*

(ε=4.07), whereas in PG2 recombination was evident in *rpoD* (ε=1.734) alone.

Recombination was neither affected by the host cultivar or infection status (Table

S4). The analysis was repeated with the inclusion of non-redundant global strains.

Overall, intergenic recombination rates were low among PGs, ranging from 0.005 to

0.012 for the concatenated dataset (Table S5). In order to pinpoint any effects of

recombination on phylogenetic reconstruction, single gene trees were constructed

and compared. Tree topologies were significantly different from each other and

from the concatenated dataset (SH test, P<0.05) (Figure S4).

A kiwifruit-associated clade of *P. syringae*

Maximum likelihood trees built using the concatenated alignment of unique

STs revealed that nearly all NZ *P. syringae* kiwifruit isolates fell within four PGs: PG1

(13%), PG2 (29%) and PG3 (56%), with only a few isolates falling into PG5 (2%, Figure

2). Surprisingly, within PG3 all NZ kiwifruit-associated isolates grouped within a new

clade of PG3, hereafter referred to as PG3a. The uninfected orchards showed a

higher number of PG3a isolates compared to infected orchards, although no

influence of infection status was reflected in the number of unique sequence types

(Table S1). We also found that two strains isolated from kiwifruit in NZ in 2010 and

2011 (Visnovsky *et al.*, 2016) belong to this subclade.

This discovery led us to question whether the PG3a subclade might be prevalent on

kiwifruit vines in other countries. To this end we interrogated an unpublished set of

gltA sequences from *P. syringae* strains collected from kiwifruit leaves in China

(sampling as described in McCann *et al.* (2017), GenBank accession numbers:

MG674624 – MG674645). A phylogenetic tree based on *gltA* for NZ, Japanese and

Chinese kiwifruit isolates revealed that isolates obtained from Chinese kiwifruit also

clustered within PG3a (Figure 3). Interestingly, included in this group is isolate 47L9,

which was collected from tea leaves (*Camellia* sp.) growing in a former kiwifruit

orchard in China. No other *P. syringae* strain from the PAMDB database grouped

with PG3a, suggesting PG3a is persistently associated with kiwifruit on a global scale.

196   Ecological interactions between PG3a and PG1

197   To assess whether kiwifruit-associated PG3a strains are stably maintained

198   with *Psa* (PG1), co-inoculation experiments were performed *in vitro* and *in planta*.

199   Two isolates sampled from the same leaf were chosen for these experiments: *P.*

200   *syringae* G33C (ST1, PG3a) and *Psa* NZ54 (ST904, PG1).

201   In vitro *dynamics*

Psa NZ54 and *P. syringae* G33C showed similar growth dynamics when grown

individually *in vitro* (Figure 4). However, when co-inoculated in liquid King's B (KB)

media at an equal starting ratio, *Psa* NZ54 growth was significantly reduced (up to

100-fold) at 24 h (P <0.001, paired *t*-tests). This effect was amplified in shaken liquid

minimal M9 medium, which better approximates nutrient poor conditions in the leaf

compared to KB medium (Hernández-Morales *et al.*, 2009): *Psa* NZ54 population

density collapsed by 20 h in shaken M9 media (relative fitness -12.1 ±0.09, Figure 4).

In order to establish whether the instability of the interaction was influenced

by the ratio of founder cells, we investigated whether *P. syringae* G33C could invade

from rare initial frequency. A strain is able to invade from rare when it increases

relative to its founding density. *P. syringae* G33C successfully invaded from rare after

only 24 h in both rich KB and minimal M9 media (10:1 *Psa NZ54* : *P. syringae* G33C)

and reached a similar population size as when cultured on its own in M9 (Figure 5A).

Conversely, *Psa* NZ54 also invaded *P. syringae* G33C from rare (*1:10 Psa* NZ54 : *P.*

syringae G33C), though it established a 100-fold reduced population size of 10^5 - 10^6

cfu ml^{-1} compared to growth alone. The population collapse of *Psa* NZ54 in shaken

M9, as observed for the 1:1 competition experiments, was once again observed

(Figure 5B). The striking suppression of *Psa* NZ54 by *P. syringae* G33C was

unambiguously repeated across three experiments. *P. syringae* G33C outcompetes

Psa NZ54, though both isolates can invade from rare *in vitro* (with the exception of

Psa NZ54 in shaken M9), which suggests that in a controlled environment the

polymorphism is stable.

In planta *dynamics*

In planta experiments were performed on two gold cultivars, 'Hort16A' and

'SunGold', to determine whether *Psa* NZ54 and *P. syringae* G33C also form a stable

polymorphism on kiwifruit leaves. *P. syringae* G33C established an epiphytic and

endophytic population size in both cultivars (Figure 6) and did not produce any

visible symptoms in 'Hort16A' and 'SunGold' (Figure S5, Figure S6). *Psa* NZ54

attained a population size at least 10,000-fold greater than *P. syringae* G33C in both

hosts. However, endophytic and epiphytic growth were reduced 10-fold in 'SunGold'

compared to 'Hort16A' (P <0.05, Mann-Whitney U test). Plants inoculated with *Psa*

NZ54 developed the first leaf spots at 4 dpi and exhibited severe symptoms at 7 dpi

in the more susceptible 'Hort16A', whereas in 'SunGold' leaves displayed only minor

symptoms at 7 dpi.

In 1:1 competition experiments non-pathogenic *P. syringae* G33C maintained

a stable population size. The presence of *Psa* NZ54 had a highly significant positive

effect on the growth of *P. syringae* G33C in both plant hosts (Figure 6A&B). *P.*

syringae G33C established up to 1000-fold higher epiphytic population densities in

'Hort16A' (P <0.01, paired *t*-tests) and 10-fold higher epiphytic and endophytic

population densities in 'SunGold' plants (P <0.05, paired t-test) compared to its

individual growth. Co-inoculated *Psa* NZ54 exhibited a significant reduction (P <0.05,

paired t-test) in epiphytic and endophytic growth on 'Hort16A' in the presence of *P.*

syringae G33C, but only in the early stages of the experiment. On 'SunGold' the

diminished growth of *Psa* NZ54 was more pronounced, with a 100-fold decrease for

the endophytic population at 7 dpi (P <0.05, paired t-test, Figure 6B). Co-inoculated

'Hort16A' plants exhibited a notable delay in symptom onset compared to singly

inoculated plants (Figure S5), whereas there was no difference for 'SunGold' (Figure

S6). The increased fitness of *Psa* NZ54 relative to *P. syringae* G33C in 'Hort16A'

competition experiments was reflected in the relative fitness parameters (0.7± 0.1*

for epiphytic and 4.9± 0.8* for endophytic, *P <0.05, t-test), whereas in 'SunGold'

plants *P. syringae* G33C performed better in the epiphytic environment (-1.6 ± 0.2;

4.7 ± 0.1* for endophytic growth).

To assess whether the heightened growth of *P. syringae* G33C in the

presence of *Psa* NZ54 was due to the virulence activity of the pathogen elicited by

the Type 3 Secretion System (T3SS), the competition experiment was performed

using a T3SS deficient mutant (*Psa* NZ13 Δ*hrcC*). Epiphytic growth of *P. syringae*

G33C on 'SunGold' remained elevated when co-inoculated with *Psa* NZ13 Δ*hrcC*,

indicating the virulence activity encoded by the T3SS was not responsible for the

advantage conferred to the non-pathogenic strain (P <0.05, paired t-test, Figure 6C).

A rarity threshold for *P. syringae* G33C determines the ability to establish a stable

population *in planta*. Upon co-inoculation in a 100:1 (*Psa* NZ54 : *P. syringae* G33C)

ratio on 'Hort16A', *P. syringae* G33C was able to invade from rare over the first 4

days, but was then excluded by *Psa* NZ54 (Figure 7B). An initial increase in growth of

P. syringae G33C from 0 dpi to 4 dpi was followed by a population collapse at 7 dpi

with no endophytic growth detected and minimal epiphytic growth in environments

dominated by *Psa* NZ54. Conversely, *Psa* NZ54 grew to the same population size in

the presence of *P. syringae* G33C, as when inoculated individually (P >0.1, paired *t*-

tests).

In the reciprocal experiment (1:100 *Psa* NZ54 : *P. syringae* G33C), *Psa* NZ54

successfully invaded from rare in both the endophytic and epiphytic environment,

although the rate of invasion was reduced on the leaf surface . However, both epi-

and endophytic population sizes were significantly reduced compared to single

inoculations (P <0.01, paired *t*-tests) (Figure 7). Despite the growing population of

Psa NZ54, *P. syringae* G33C maintained the same epiphytic population size as when

inoculated individually (P >0.2, paired *t*-tests). The endophytic population size of *P.*

syringae G33C increased (P <0.01, 7dpi, paired *t*-test), which mirrored the results

from the 1:1 competition experiments, where the presence of *Psa* NZ54 also had a

positive effect on growth of *P. syringae* G33C.

In order to establish whether there was an advantage to being an early

colonist, a time-stagger experiment was performed to see whether immigration

history influences the interaction (Fukami *et al.*, 2007). 'Hort16A' plants were pre-

inoculated with either of the two strains and followed by a subsequent inoculation

of the other strain after three days. Early colonization provided no advantage to *Psa*

NZ54 (Figure 8A), as *P. syringae* G33C maintained and established a stable

population by 7 dpi and exhibited no significant difference in growth compared to

individual growth (P >0.3, paired t-tests). Reducing the secondary inoculation density

resulted in a reduced initial population size at 3 and 7 dpi for *P. syringae* G33C (P

<0.05, paired t-tests), but by 10 dpi the level was the same as when the two strains

were grown individually (Figure S7C).

When *P. syringae* G33C was the first colonist (Figure 8B) *Psa* NZ54 grew to

the same population size by 7 dpi as compared to individually inoculated plants (P

>0.5, paired t-tests). The growth of *Psa* NZ54 was initially lower compared to

individual growth when inoculated at a lower density (P <0.05, paired t-tests), but

this difference was no longer evident for the epiphytic population by 10 dpi (Figure

S7B).

DISCUSSION

Studies of pathogen populations rarely take into consideration co-occurring

commensal types and yet such types are likely to be important contributors to

population structure and infection progress (Lindow and Brandl, 2003; Demba Diallo

et al., 2012; Bartoli *et al.*, 2015; Buonaurio *et al.*, 2015; Rufián *et al.*, 2017). Here,

with focus on *P. syringae*, we have combined traditional population genetic

approaches with experiments designed to investigate interactions among members

of an ecologically cohesive population. The most significant findings include (i) a

clonal population structure for commensal kiwifruit *P. syringae* (ii) strong association

of genetic diversity with ecological factors, (iii) discovery of a new clade of kiwifruit-

associated kiwifruit *P. syringae* within PG3 (PG3a) (Figure 2, Figure 3), (iv) complex

interactions between the pathogenic *Psa* isolate and PG3a with evidence of a stable

polymorphism under some *in vitro* conditions, but not *in planta* (Figure 4, Figure 6).

Overall, we found that *P. syringae* from kiwifruit display a clonal population

structure, comprised of two clonal complexes and a small number of abundant STs.

This is in accordance with earlier reports of clonal population structure for *P.*

syringae, despite focus on pathogenic isolates which tend to undergo clonal

expansion upon host specialisation (Sarkar and Guttman, 2004). Homologous

recombination events are few and limited to within phylogroups for *P. syringae*,

which is also supported by well-defined phylogenetic clades (Baltrus *et al.*, 2011; Bull

et al., 2011; Berge *et al.*, 2014; Nowell *et al.*, 2016). A more fine-scale analysis of a

collection of *Pseudomonas viridiflava* (now *P. syringae* PG7 and PG8 (Bartoli *et al.*,

2014; Berge *et al.*, 2014)) isolated from *Arabidopsis thaliana* suggests that

recombination at the phylogroup level is primarily within-clade rather than between

clade (Goss *et al.*, 2005). Apart from the occurrence of recombination at the local

scale, evidence of recombination has also been shown between crop strains and

environmental isolates (Monteil *et al.*, 2013).

Genetic diversity varied according to ecological factors, most strikingly for *P.*

syringae collected from infected orchards, where genetic diversity was highest. This

may reflect effects of *Psa* on the kiwifruit immune response, which may facilitate

migration of leaf colonists into the apoplast and vascular tissues and thus allow

access to water and nutrients. Such effects have been reported for infection of

potatoes by *Pectobacterium atrosepticum* (Kõiv *et al.*, 2015) and herbivore-damaged

bitter cress leaves (*Cardamine cordifolia*) (Humphrey *et al.*, 2014), where in both

instances *Pseudomonas* population densities and diversity increased following plant

damage.

We observed differences in *P. syringae* genetic diversity that appear to be

attributable to differences in plant genotypes. Host species and cultivar identity is

known to significantly affect the composition of phyllosphere bacterial communities

(Adams and Kloepper, 2002; Van Overbeek and Van Elsas, 2008; Whipps *et al.*, 2008;

Bodenhausen *et al.*, 2014; Laforest-Lapointe *et al.*, 2016; Wagner *et al.*, 2016).

Differences in phyllosphere *P. syringae* diversity may also be influenced by

environmental factors (such as humidity, nutrient availability or UV radiation) and

orchard management practices. Different fertilizer and spray regimes (copper,

antibiotics, Actigard^{TM} and biological agents) are employed by growers to prevent or

manage *Psa* infection throughout the growing season

(http://www.kvh.org.nz/vdb/document/99346). These practices may have selected

for copper and streptomycin resistance in *Psa* and kiwifruit epiphytes in NZ and

elsewhere (Han *et al.*, 2003; Colombi *et al.*, 2017; Petriccione *et al.*, 2017).

Strains grouping with four major phylogroups (PG1, PG2, PG3, PG5) were

recovered. This level of diversity in a cultivated environment is not surprising (Goss

et al., 2005; Bull *et al.*, 2011; Kniskern *et al.*, 2011; Beiki *et al.*, 2016; Hall *et al.*,

2016). Two clades of endophytic *P. syringae* pv. *syringae* were recovered from

symptomatic grapevines in Australia with pathogenic and non-pathogenic isolates

clustering together (Hall *et al.*, 2016). Samples obtained from citrus orchards

suffering from citrus blast caused by *P. syringae* pv. *syringae* revealed isolates

associated with PG2, PG7 and an unknown clade (Beiki *et al.*, 2016). Two distinct and

highly divergent subclades of *Pseudomonas viridiflava* (*P. syringae* PG7) were

recovered from a global sampling of wild *A. thaliana* (Goss *et al.*, 2005).

The newly recognised PG3a subclade of *P. syringae* appear to colonise

kiwifruit leaves not only in NZ (dating back to 2010 (Visnovsky *et al.*, 2016)), but also

in other kiwifruit growing regions of the world, including Japan and China. Data from

leaf samples indicate that PG3a is not displaced by *Psa*, but the total number of

PG3a isolates collected is reduced in infected orchards. Interestingly the diversity of

PG3a does not seem to be affected by infection status. Strains clustering with PG3a

formed the majority (>50%) of kiwifruit isolates, and these have not yet been

isolated from any other plant hosts recorded in PAMDB, with the exception of isolate

47L9, collected from tea leaves (*Camellia* sp.) growing in a former kiwifruit orchard.

This indicates that PG3a forms a persistent association with kiwifruit plants – an

observation that is further supported by the repeated isolation of PG3a from

kiwifruit across large geographic distances, suggests that PG3a may have been

coevolving with its host for some time. PG3a is thus also likely to be disseminated

with the exchange of plant material (such as pollen or plant cuttings) between

kiwifruit growing countries. The prevalence of PG3a in other kiwifruit growing

countries (e.g. Korea, France or Italy) is at present unknown. The preferential

occurrence of PG3 with woody hosts (Bartoli *et al.*, 2015; Nowell *et al.*, 2016) could

explain the particular grouping of the kiwifruit resident clade within PG3. A similarly

intriguing signal of host association was found in a collection of *P. syringae* isolates

from *A. thaliana*, where PG2 representatives dominated (Kniskern *et al.*, 2011;

Karasov *et al.*, 2017). Distinct lineages of non-pathogenic isolates have also been

described for other plant pathogens such as *Xanthomonas arboricola,* where non-

pathogenic strains are distant relatives of pathogenic lineages, despite being isolated

from the same host (Essakhi *et al.*, 2015; Triplett *et al.*, 2015).

The kiwifruit commensal *P. syringae* G33C (representative of the PG3a

subclade) successfully colonized the leaf surface and apoplast of kiwifruit without

production of visible disease symptoms. This is reflected in the population size,

which was reduced by 4-logs compared to pathogenic population size of *Psa* at 3 dpi.

Similar population sizes have been reported for *P. syringae* pv. *phaseolicola*, which

grows to a four-log higher population size on its host plant *Phaseolus vulgaris*

compared to a non-pathogenic isolate; a 4-log reduction was also observed in

resistant vs susceptible hosts (Omer and Wood, 1969; Young, 1974). Similar

observations have been made for other plant pathogens, for example non-

pathogenic *Xanthomonas* sp. displays a 4-log reduced growth compared to the

disease-causing *X. oryzae* pv. *oryzae* (Triplett *et al.*, 2015). Bacterial population

density appears to be directly related to the production of disease symptoms, as was

demonstrated for environmental *P. syringae* strains inoculated in kiwifruit, which

grew to near pathogen population size levels, but induced symptoms of disease

(Bartoli *et al.*, 2015).

When grown in competition with *Psa* NZ54, *P. syringae* G33C population

size increased. Studies exploring the dynamics of mixed infections have

demonstrated inoculum density-dependent effects on colonization (Young, 1974;

Macho *et al.*, 2007). The ability of non-pathogenic *P. syringae* to colonize wider

territories in the presence of a pathogenic strain was nicely demonstrated in a

confocal microscopy study (Rufián *et al.*, 2017). It is possible that *P. syringae* G33C

benefits from the virulence activity of *Psa* NZ54. T3SS-dependent hitch-hiking effects

have been observed for *P. syringae* pv. *syringae* (Hirano *et al.*, 1999), however the

increase *in P.* syringae G33C growth persists even in the absence of a functional T3SS

in the pathogenic *Psa* strain. Virulence activities not encoded by the T3SS, such as

phytotoxin production, may be responsible for this outcome.

Epiphytic and *in vitro* growth of *Psa* NZ54 was significantly reduced when

co-inoculated with *P. syringae* G33C. Similarly, *Psa* growth may be suppressed by co-

inoculation with environmental isolates of *P. syringae* (Bartoli *et al.*, 2015). Epiphytes

may suppress pathogen growth either as direct antagonists or indirectly via resource

competition (Wilson and Lindow, 1994). The specific mechanism by which *P.*

syringae G33C suppresses *Psa* remains undetermined. The *Psa* NZ54 population

collapse in shaken M9 was delayed at 10:1 inoculation ratios, which suggests that

this effect was most likely due to the accumulation of antimicrobial compounds

produced by *P. syringae* G33C. Phytotoxin production is widespread among

fluorescent pseudomonads with some toxins having antimicrobial activity that can

be induced dependent on culture conditions (still vs. shaken) *in vitro* (Durbin, 1982;

Bender *et al.*, 1999). Contact-dependant growth inhibition (CDI) via Type 5 and 6

secretion systems or bacteriocins may also mediate *P. syringae* interactions (Hayes

et al., 2010; Haapalainen *et al.*, 2012; Ruhe *et al.*, 2013; Hockett *et al.*, 2015).

Our in-depth localised sampling has revealed a global association of PG3a

with kiwifruit. Additionally, we have shown that this clade of non-pathogenic *P.*

syringae engage in complex interactions with pathogenic *Psa*. This highlights the

value of understanding genotypic diversity and ecological interactions among

pathogens and non-pathogens in field settings. Clarifying how commensals persist in

association with specific hosts over long periods without causing disease and the

mechanism by which they modulate pathogen invasion and proliferation will

contribute to a fuller understanding of plant-microbe interactions.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Plant tissue collection and bacterial isolation

The sampling scheme was designed to obtain strains from *Psa* infected and

uninfected hosts, irrespective of disease stage (symptom development) or

pathogenicity potential of the isolate. *P. syringae* was isolated from the leaf surfaces

of two different cultivars of *Actinidia chinensis*: *A. chinensis* var. *chinensis* Hort16A

(gold) and *A. chinensis* var. *deliciosa* Hayward (green), which vary in their

susceptibility to *Psa*: 'Hort16A' is more susceptible than the green 'Hayward'

(Ferrante and Scortichini, 2010; Cameron and Sarojini, 2014). One infected and one

uninfected orchard of each variety was sampled by collecting three leaves from six

separate vines along a diagonal path of ~400m (Table S1). Sampling occurred at

three intervals during the growing season: spring (after bud break), summer and

autumn (prior to harvest). Vine trunks and canes (secondary branches) were tagged

to ensure resampling of the same spot. Some 'Hort16A' canes were removed during

routine disease management; neighbouring canes on the same vine were then

sampled and tagged. All uninfected Hayward vines were cut down prior to the last

sampling day so the adjoining block of Hayward was sampled instead. The location of

each sampled orchard is listed in Table S2.

Leaves were individually placed in 50 mL conical centrifuge tubes and washed

with 40 mL 10mM $MgSO_4$ buffer supplemented with 0.2 % Tween (Invitrogen, US) by

alternately shaking and vortexing at slow speed for 3 min. After removing the leaf,

the leaf wash was centrifuged at 4600 rpm for 10 min. The supernatant was

removed and the pellet was resuspended in 200 µL 10mM $MgSO_4$. 100 µL of the

resuspension was stored at -80°C and 100 µL was plated on *Pseudomonas* agar base

(Oxoid, UK) supplemented with 10 mg/L cetrimide, 10 mg/L fucidin and 50 mg/L

cephalosporin (CFC supplement, Oxoid, UK). For each leaf two isolates exhibiting *P.*

syringae colony morphology (round, creamy white) were selected randomly from

the plate and restreaked, then used to inoculate liquid overnight cultures for storage

at -80˚C. Isolates were tested for the absence of cytochrome *C* oxidase using

Bactident Oxidase strips (Merck KgaA, Germany), characteristic of *P. syringae*. A total

of 148 *P. syringae* isolates were obtained from the four orchards (Table S1).

PCR amplification & sequencing

A lysate was prepared for each isolate by resuspending a colony in 100 µL ddH_2O and

lysing the cells at 96°C for 10 min. Strains were sequenced using the Hwang *et al*.

(2005) MLST scheme for four housekeeping genes *gapA, gyrB, gltA (=cts)* and *rpoD*

(reverse). Due to amplification problems, the forward primer for *rpoD* from Sarkar

and Guttman (2004) was used. PCR amplification was performed with a BIO-RAD

T100 Thermal Cycler following an adapted protocol of Hwang et al. (2005): a total

reaction volume of 50 µl with a final concentration of 1x PCR buffer (Invitrogen, US),

1 μM for each primer, 0.2 mM dNTP's (Bioline, UK), 1 U Taq Polymerase (Invitrogen,

US), 1 μl lysed bacterial cells, 2% DMSO (Sigma-Aldrich, US) and 1.5 mM MgCl$_2$. Initial

denaturation was at 94°C for 2 min, followed by 30 cycles of amplification with

denaturation at 94°C for 30 s, annealing at 63°C for 30 s and elongation at 72°C for

1 min. Final elongation was for 3 min at 72°C. Samples were purified using the Exo-

CIP method and sequenced by Macrogen Inc (South Korea). Sequence analysis was

performed with Geneious v7.1.7 (Kearse *et al.*, 2012). Sequences were trimmed to

the same length (476 bp *gap1*, 507 bp *gyrB*, 529 bp *gltA*, 498 bp *rpoD*) and

concatenated (2010 bp) (GenBank accession numbers: *gapA* MG642149 -

MG642296; *gyrB* MG642297 - MG642444; *gltA* MG642445 - MG642592; *rpoD*

MG642593 - MG642740).

Population genetics

Sequence diversity indices

A rarefaction analysis was performed using MOTHUR v.1.34.4 by subsampling

using 1,000 iterations (Schloss *et al.*, 2009). Pairwise genetic distances between

isolates were calculated and sequences assigned to Operational Taxonomic Units

(OTUs) based on the corresponding average pairwise genetic distance of each group.

Simpson's index of diversity (D) and evenness (ED) (α-diversity) and

Sørensen's index of dissimilarity (β-diversity) were calculated using the *vegan*

package (Oksanen *et al.*, 2016) in R v3.3.1 (R.Core.Team, 2016). Simpson's D was

converted to the effective number of species (D_c) in order to account for the non-

linear properties of Simpson's index of diversity (Jost, 2006).

Multilocus Sequence Typing

Sequence types (STs) sharing three out of four alleles (SLV, single locus

variants) were grouped using eBURST v3 (bootstrapped with 1,000,000 resamplings)

(Feil *et al.*, 2004; Spratt *et al.*, 2004). A Minimum Spanning Tree providing an

overview of triple locus variants was constructed using Phyloviz v2.0 (Francisco *et al.*,

2012).

165 non-redundant ST profiles of *P. syringae* strains were downloaded from

the Plant Associated and Environmental Microbes Database (PAMDB,

http://genome.ppws.vt.edu/cgi-bin/MLST/home.pl) (Almeida *et al.*, 2010). *P.*

syringae sequences isolated recently from kiwifruit and air in Japan (NCBI) and

kiwifruit isolates from NZ, France and the United States (Visnovsky *et al.*, 2016) were

also included. A reduced set of 37 *P. syringae* isolates representing the different

monophyletic groups of *P. syringae*, as well as the Japanese kiwifruit strains and the

US, France and NZ kiwifruit isolates from previous years were used to provide better

resolution in the phylogenies displayed in Figure 2, Figure 3 and Figure S4.

Sequence diversity and recombination

START2 (v0.9.0 beta) was employed to calculate parameters of genetic

diversity, number of alleles and polymorphic sites, GC content and the ratio of non-

synonymous to synonymous substitutions (d_N/d_S ratio) (Jolley *et al.*, 2001). The

number of mutations and amino acid changes and nucleotide diversity parameter π

were calculated with DnaSP v. 5.10.1 (Rozas and Rozas, 1995). Jmodeltest 2.1.7

(Guindon and Gascuel, 2003; Darriba *et al.*, 2012) was used with default parameter

settings to find the best-fitting evolutionary model. Pairwise genetic variability

among and between phylogroups was calculated using MEGA7 (Kumar *et al.*, 2016).

To test whether genetic diversity varied by sampling location, time of sampling,

orchard infection status and/or cultivar, a permutational multivariate analysis of

variance (PERMANOVA) (Anderson, 2001; McArdle and Anderson, 2001) was

performed using PRIMER v 6.1.12 (PRIMER-E Ltd., Plymouth, UK, PERMANOVA+ add-

on v. 1.0.2.). Pairwise distances among unique STs were used as input and tests were

run with 9999 permutations. Any effects due to unequal sample size were taken into

account using the Type III SS (sum of squares) option.

LDHAT v2.2a (Auton and McVean, 2007) was used to estimate the rate of

mutation (Watterson's θ) and recombination (ρ) using the composite likelihood

method of Hudson (Hudson, 2001) with an adaption to finite-site models. Only

polymorphic sites with two alleles were included and the frequency cut-off for

missing data was set to 0.2.

Phylogenetic reconstruction

Trees were built using single representatives of each unique ST from this

study to improve readability of the tree. MrBayes v.3.2 (Ronquist *et al.*, 2012) was

used to construct Bayesian trees, using the best-fitting evolutionary model

(jModeltest) for individual genes and the concatenated alignment. Single gene trees

(Figure S4) were constructed with TREEPUZZLE (Schmidt *et al.*, 2002) and Dnaml

(PHYLIP v3.695, Felsenstein 1989) was used to test for congruence between single

trees (SH-test) using default parameters, providing Maximum Likelihood trees as

input and a random number seed of 333.

Strains and culture conditions

A list of all bacterial strains used in this study can be found in Table S2. *Pseudomonas* strains were cultured in King's B or minimal M9 media at 28°C and *E. coli* was cultured in Luria Bertani medium at 37°C. Liquid overnight cultures were inoculated from single colonies and shaken at 250 rpm for 16 hrs. The antibiotics kanamycin (kan) and nitrofurantoin (nf) were used at a concentration of 50 µg/ml. Kanamycin resistant *Psa* NZ54 and *Psa* NZ13 Δ*hrcC* were employed in all *in vitro* and *in planta* experiments. Both *Psa* strains belong to the same pandemic clade of *Psa* (biovar 3), and differ in three SNPs across the core genome as defined in McCann *et al.* (2017).

Mutant development

Psa NZ13Δ*hrcC* was constructed by in-frame deletion of *hrcC* via marker exchange mutagenesis. Knockout construct was generated by overlap extension PCR (Ho *et al.*, 1989) using the primers listed in Table S6. DNA was amplified from *Psa* NZ13 with Phusion® High-Fidelity DNA polymerase. The deletion construct was inserted into pK18mobsacB (Schäfer *et al.*, 1994). The recombinant vector was transferred into *Psa* NZ13 via triparental mating, using as helper *E. coli* DH5α strain containing pRK2013. Mutants were selected by plating on KB kanamycin (50 µg/mL) and subsequently on KB containing 5% sucrose. Mutants were screened by PCR using external primers (Table S6) and the deletion was then confirmed by sequencing.

Triparental matings were performed to introduce a kanamycin resistant Tn*5* transposon into *Psa* NZ54 and *Psa* NZ13 Δ*hrcC*. *E. coli* S17-1 Tn*5hah Sgid1* (donor)

(Zhang *et al.*, 2015), *E. coli pRK2013* (helper) (Ditta *et al.*, 1980) and *Psa* NZ54 or *Psa*

NZ13 Δ*hrcC* (recipient) were grown in shaken liquid media overnight. 200 µl of donor

and helper and 2mL of recipient were individually washed, pelleted and combined in

30 µl 10 mM $MgCl_2$. The mixture was plated on a pre-warmed LB agar plate and

incubated at 28°C for 24 hrs. The cells were scraped off and resuspended in 1 mL 10

mM $MgCl_2$ and plated on KB plates supplemented with kanamycin and

nitrofurantoin. Bacterial growth was compared to the wild type recipient in both KB

and M9 media to ensure marker introduction did not result in a loss of fitness.

Competition assays

The two isolates (*P. syringae* G33C and *Psa* NZ54) used for competition assays were

isolated from the same leaf in a *Psa* infected orchard, reflecting co-occurrence of the

strains in nature.

In vitro competition assays

Competition experiments were performed *in vitro* using rich (King's B) and

minimal (M9) media in a shaken and static environment. Competition experiments

were performed in 1:1, 1:10 and 10:1 ratios for each of the four assay conditions.

Liquid overnight cultures of each strain in KB were established from single colony

inoculations. 30 mL vials with 4 mL of the appropriate media were inoculated with

each strain, adjusted to a founding density of either $5x10^6$ cfu ml^{-1} (OD_{600} 0.006) or

$4x10^4$ cfu ml^{-1} (OD_{600} 0.0004). Control vials were inoculated with a single strain,

adjusted to $5x10^6$ cfu ml^{-1}. Cultures were incubated at 28°C and grown over a period

of 72 hrs, either still or shaken at 250rpm. Bacterial density was calculated at 0, 24,

48 and 72 hrs by plating dilutions on KB kan and M9 agar plates to distinguish

between competing strains. The experiment was performed using three replicates

and repeated three times.

In planta competition and pathogenicity assays

Epiphytic and endophytic growth of *Psa* NZ54, *Psa* NZ13 Δ*hrcC* and *P.*

syringae G33C was evaluated on 4-week old kiwifruit plantlets using single and

mixed-culture inoculation. Clonally propagated *A. chinensis* var. *chinensis* 'Hort16A'

and 'SunGold' were grown for a minimum of one month in a Conviron CMP6010

growth cabinet at 21°C with a 14/10 hr light/dark cycle and 70% humidity. Bacterial

strains were incubated for two days at 28°C on KB plates, after which they were

resuspended in 10 mM $MgSO_4$ buffer. Mixed inoculum (1:1, 1:100 and 100:1) was

prepared in 50 mL 10 mM $MgSO_4$ buffer and 0.002% Silwet-70 (surfactant), with

strains adjusted to $8x10^7$ cfu ml^{-1} (OD_{600} 0.1) or $8x10^5$ cfu ml^{-1} (OD_{600} 0.001). Single

strain plant inoculations were also performed using an initial $8x10^7$ cfu ml^{-1} (OD_{600}

0.1).

Plants were inoculated by submerging leaves in the inoculum for 5 s and

allowing to air-dry. Plants were returned to the growth cabinet and watered every

second day. Bacterial density was assessed at either 0, 2, 4, 7 and 10 days post

inoculation (dpi) or 0, 3, and 7 dpi (Δ*hrcC* competition experiments). Epiphytic

growth was assessed by placing inoculated leaves in separate sterile plastic bags

with 35 mL 10 mM $MgSO_4$ buffer and shaking manually for 3 minutes. The leaf wash

was centrifuged at 4600 rpm for 3 min and the supernatant discarded. Bacteria were

resuspended in 200 µl buffer and serial dilutions plated on M9 and KB+kan agar

plates.

Endophytic growth was assessed by removing one 1cm^2 leaf disk per plant

(including the midrib), surface sterilizing in 70% EtOH for 30 sec, drying and

homogenising for 1 minute in a 1.5 mL Eppendorf tube containing 200 µl buffer and

two metal beads with the TissueLyser II (QIAGEN). The plant homogenate was

serially diluted and plated on M9 and KB+kan agar plates. All experiments were

performed in duplicate, with at least 4 replicates per experiment.

Statistical analysis

A Student's *t*-test was used to verify the statistical difference where

applicable. For non-normally distributed data with unequal variance, the Mann

Whitney U test was performed.

The fitness of each strain in the competition experiments is expressed as the

Malthusian parameter (Lenski *et al.*, 1991). The Malthusian parameter was

calculated as $M = (ln(N1_{f1}/N1_i))/(ln(N2_f/N2_i))$, where $N1_i$ is initial number of

cfu of strain 1 at 0h and $N1_f$ cfu after 24 hrs (*in vitro*) or 2/3 dpi (*in planta,*

'Hort16A'/'SunGold').

BIOSECURITY AND APPROVAL

All worked was performed in approved facilities and in accord with APP201675,

APP201730, APP202231.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We want to particularly thank kiwifruit growers David French, Rex Reed and Bruce

and Fiona Aitken for granting access to their orchards. The work conducted was

supported by the New Zealand Ministry for Business, Innovation and Employment

(C11X1205). Christina Straub was supported through a PhD scholarship from the

New Zealand Institute for Advanced Studies (NZIAS) and Plant & Food Research.

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FIGURE AND TABLE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Global Minimum Spanning Tree (MST). Displaying the relationships

between STs at the triple-locus-variant level, illustrated using PHYLOViZ (Francisco *et*

al., 2012). The size of the circle correlates with the frequency of the ST. Color-coded

accorded to origin: green = this study, black = PAMDB, blue = Visnovsky *et al.* (2016),

purple = Japan.

Figure 2. Bayesian tree based on the concatenated alignment (2010 bp) of four

housekeeping genes: *gapA*, *gyrB*, *gltA* and *rpoD*. The Bayesian tree was

reconstructed using MrBayes based on the Tamura-Nei + G + I model using

30,000,000 MCMC. Single representative sequences for each ST were used to

improve readability (corresponding STs and frequency of each ST listed in Table S2).

Values indicated at nodes are Bayesian posterior probabilities. The corresponding

phylogroups (PG) are indicated, eg. PG1 = phylogroup 1 with clades 1a and 1b. Origin

of isolates is illustrated in colour coded boxes, green = this study, black = PAMDB,

blue = Visnovsky *et al.* 2016, purple = Japan.

Figure 3. Global Bayesian tree reconstructed from *gltA* sequences highlighting the

particularity of PG3a, which includes kiwifruit isolates from NZ, China, Japan, the

US and France. The tree was built on a 529 bp alignment using MrBayes (TN+G+I

model; 1,700,000 MCMC), using *Pseudomonas fluorescens* SBW25 as outgroup.

Values indicated at nodes are Bayesian posterior probabilities. The source of each

isolate is highlighted in colour-coded boxes, green = this study, red = China, black =

PAMDB, purple = Japan, blue = US, NZ and France.

Figure 4. Individual growth dynamics of *Psa* NZ54 and *P. syringae* G33C compared

with co-inoculation (1:1 ratio) *in vitro*. Competition experiments were performed in

a 1:1 ratio (founding ratio 5x10^6 cfu ml^{-1} each), with individual inoculations as

reference. Solid lines represent individual growth and dashed lines represent growth

in competition. The presented mean and standard error were calculated from three

replicates. Asterisk indicate significance between individual and co-cultured growth

at the 5% level (paired *t*-test).

Figure 5. *In vitro* growth curves from invasion from rare experiments for *Psa* NZ54 :

***P. syringae* G33C and vice versa.** Vials were inoculated with a (A) 10:1 ratio and (B)

1:10 ratio for *Psa* NZ54 : *P. syringae* G33C. The presented mean and standard error

were calculated from three replicates. Parameters of relative fitness of *Psa* NZ54

relative to *P. syringae* G33C calculated as ln difference *Psa* NZ54 – *P. syringae* G33C

using the Malthusian parameters at 24hrs were -2.1* ±0.02 (KB shaken), -1.9*±0.05

(KB static), -12.1*±0.09 (M9 shaken) and -3.9*±0.00 (M9 static). Asterisks indicate

significance at the 1% level (Students *t*-test).

Figure 6. 1:1 competition growth assays of *Psa* NZ54 vs. *P. syringae* G33C *in planta*.

'Hort16A' plantlets (A) and 'SunGold' plantlets (B) were inoculated with a 1:1 mix of

P. syringae G33C : *Psa* NZ54 (founding density 8x10^7 cfu ml^{-1}). (C) 'SunGold' plants

were inoculated with 1:1 mix of *P. syringae* G33C : *Psa* NZ13 Δ*hrcC* (founding density

8x10^7 cfu ml^{-1}). Solid lines represent individual growth and dashed lines represent

growth in competition. The presented mean and standard error were calculated

from the mean of four ('Hort16A') and five ('SunGold') individual measurements.

Asterisk indicate significance between individual and co-cultured growth at the 5%

level (paired *t*-test).

Figure 7. Invasion from rare experiments for *Psa* NZ54 : *P. syringae* G33C *in planta.*

'Hort16A' plantlets were inoculated with different ratios of strains *Psa* NZ54 : *P.*

syringae G33C. A) Individual growth. B) Invasion from rare 100:1 and C) invasion

from rare 1:100. Solid lines represent individual growth and dashed lines represent

growth in competition. The presented mean and standard error were calculated

from the mean of four individual measurements. Asterisks indicate significance

between individual and co-cultured growth at the 5% level (paired *t*-test).

Figure 8. *In planta* priority effect of *Psa* NZ54 or *P. syingae* G33C with subsequent

inoculation of the respective second strain with the same founding density. (A) *In*

planta growth assay of *P. syringae* G33C using 'Hort16A' plantlets pre-inoculated for

three days with *Psa* NZ54 (8x10^7 cfu ml^{-1}). (B) *in planta* growth assay of *Psa* NZ54

using 'Hort16A' plantlets pre-inoculated for three days with *P. syringae* G33C (8x10^7

cfu ml^{-1}). Solid lines represent individual growth and dashed lines represent growth

in competition. The presented mean and standard error were calculated from the

mean of five individual measurements. Asterisks indicate significance between

individual and co-cultured growth at the 5% level (paired *t*-test).

TABLES

Table 1: Nucleotide and amino acid diversity. L = length in bp, AA = amino acid, GC =

average GC content in %, N$_A$ = number of alleles, P = number of polymorphic sites,

d_N/d_S ration, mut = mutations, π = nucleotide diversity indices, θ = Watterson's

theta.

Table 2: Average pairwise genetic diversity between and among phylogroups.

Analyses were conducted on the concatenated alignment (2006 bp, gaps removed)

using the Maximum Composite Likelihood model with a gamma distribution of 1. N=

number of strains.

Table 3: LDhat recombination analysis. Showing the length of the alignment in bp, N

= number of sequences, mutation rate θ (=2Neμ) per site, recombination rate ρ

(=2Ner) per site, ratio ε = ρ/ θ and Tajima's D.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Table S1. Geographic location of orchards, strain summaries and diversity indices

per orchard. Specification of cultivar and infection status at the time according to

KVH (Kiwifruit Vine Health), orchard ID, GPS coordinates, location and month of

sampling, N = number of collected *P. syringae* strains, N PG3a = number of PG3a

strains in total sample, N STs = number of unique STs, N STs PG3a = number of

unique STs grouping with PG3a, D = Simpsons index of diversity, D_c = converted to

effective number of species, ED = Simpsons evenness.

Table S2. List of all strains. Strain information and assigned sequence type of strains

used for MLST study (all) and strains used for phylogenetic analysis (highlighted in

grey). Phylogroup association only provided for isolates used for phylogenetic

analysis. Alias provides the name used for competition experiments.

Table S3. PERMANOVA results of 3-factor nested analysis for differences in genetic

diversity.

Table S4. LDhat recombination analysis for host and disease status. Length of

alignment in bp, number of sequences, number of segregating sites, mutation rate θ,

recombination rate ρ and ratio ε (ρ/ θ).

Table S5. LDhat recombination analysis for global data sorted according to

phylogroup (PG). Length of alignment in bp, N = number of sequences, number of

segregating sites, mutation rate θ, recombination rate ρ and ratio ε (ρ/ θ).

Table S6. List of primers used for construction of the deletion mutant *Psa* NZ13

ΔhrcC.

Figure S1. Rarefaction curves based on the concatenated sequences. Two curves

each are shown for *P. syringae* (n=148) and the sequences grouped according to

phylogroups (PG): solid lines represent grouping based on unique STs and dashed

lines according to a cut-off equal to the average pairwise genetic distance of the

group: PG1, PG2 & PG3 = 0.02 cut-off, Psyr all = 0.05 cut-off.

Figure S2. Shared and unique STs among orchards. Gold I = infected 'Hort16A'; Gold

NI= uninfected 'Hort16A'; Green NI = uninfected 'Hayward'; Green I = infected

'Hayward' orchard; n= number of STs found in orchard.

Figure S3. eBurst snapshot of STs at the single locus variant level. The size of the

circles correlates with the frequency of the respective ST found in the dataset.

Colours correspond to the different orchards, orange = infected 'Hort16A', yellow =

uninfected 'Hort16A, dark green = infected 'Hayward', light green = uninfected

'Hayward'. CC = clonal complex.

Figure S4. Maximum Likelihood trees based on single genes. Each Maximum

Likelihood tree is rooted on *Pseudomonas fluorescens* SBW 25 and was

reconstructed using TREEPUZZLE based on the Tamura-Nei model using 100,000

puzzling steps. Trees were built using single representatives of each unique ST to

improve readability of the tree. Values indicated at nodes are bootstrap values. The

corresponding phylogroup distinctions based on the concatenated ML tree are

indicated with the coloured squares.

Figure S5. Leaves of 'Hort16A' plants inoculated with *Psa* NZ54, *P. syringae* G33C

and a 1:1 mix of *Psa* NZ54 : *P. syringae* G33C at 2, 4, and 7 days post inoculation.

Figure S6. Leaves of 'SunGold' plants inoculated with *Psa* NZ54, *P. syringae* G33C,

***Psa* NZ13 ΔhrcC and 1:1 mix of the respective strain combinations at 3 and 7 days**

post inoculation. For leaves showing minor leaf spots, the lower side of the leaf is

also shown for easier detection of symptoms.

Figure S7. *In planta* priority effect of *Psa* NZ54 or *P. syringae* G33C with subsequent

inoculation of the second strain with 100-fold lower concentration. *In planta*

growth assay using 'Hort16A' plantlets pre-inoculated (8×10^7 cfu ml^{-1}) with one strain

followed by inoculation of the second strain at (8×10^5 cfu ml^{-1}). The two panels

display growth curves for endo- and epiphytic growth respectively. A) Individual

growth, B) inoculation of *Psa* NZ 54 at day 3 and C) inoculation of *P. syringae* G33C at

3 dpi. Solid lines represent individual growth and dashed lines represent growth in

competition. The presented mean and standard error were calculated from the

mean of five individual measurements. Asterisks indicate significance between

individual and co-cultured growth at the 5% level (paired *t*-test).

PG3a

PG3

PG2

PG6

PG5

PG4

PG1

1a

1b

PG7

0.01

Japan   NZ   PAMDB   Visnovsky *et al.* 2016

■ China	■ NZ	■ Visnovsky *et al.* 2016
■ Japan	■ PAMDB	

0.008

Table 1. Nucleotide and amino acid diversity. L = length in bp, AA = amino acid, GC = average GC content in %, N_A = number of alleles, P = number of polymorphic sites, d_N/d_S ration, mut = mutations, π = nucleotide diversity indices, θ = Watterson's theta.

Locus	L (bp)	AA length	GC	N_A	P*	d_N/d_S	mut	π	θ
gapA	476	158	60.81	25	80 (16.81)	3.365	97	0.055	0.024
gyrB	507	169	53.15	28	145 (28.60)	0.018	184	0.054	0.041
gltA	529	176	58.45	27	88 (16.64)	0.011	102	0.040	0.025
rpoD	495	166	59.56	35	99 (20)	2.022	118	0.042	0.030
Mean	502	167	57.99	29	105 (20.51)	1.354	125	0.048	0.030

Table 2. Average pairwise genetic diversity between and among phylogroups. Analyses were conducted on the concatenated alignment (2006 bp, gaps removed) using the Maximum Composite Likelihood model with a gamma distribution of 1. N= number of strains.

N	Phylogroup	1	2	5	3
19	1	0.010			
43	2	0.098	0.027		
3	5	0.111	0.106	0.008	
83	3	0.099	0.063	0.107	0.014

Table 3. LDhat recombination analysis. Showing the length of the alignment in bp, N = number of sequences, mutation rate θ (=2Neμ) per site, recombination rate ρ (=2Ner) per site, ratio ε = ρ/ θ and Tajima's D.

Gene	Length (bp)	N	Segregating sites	θ	ρ	ε = ρ/θ	Tajima's D
All *P. syringae*:							
concatenated	2010	148	335	0.030	0.006	0.187	0.513
gapA	476	148	63	0.024	0.021	0.902	2.204
gyrB	507	148	116	0.041	0.038	0.931	-0.204
gltA	529	148	74	0.025	0.012	0.461	0.678
rpoD	498	148	82	0.030	0.012	0.416	0.03
Phylogroup 1							
concat	2010	19	66	0.009	0.000	0.000	0.207
gapA	476	19	8	0.005	0.000	0.000	0.407
gyrB	507	19	20	0.011	0.000	0.000	0.611
gltA	529	19	19	0.010	0.000	0.000	0.026
rpoD	498	19	19	0.011	0.000	0.000	-0.188
Phylogroup 2							
concat	2010	43	147	0.017	0.002	0.120	1.754
gapA	476	43	29	0.014	0.006	0.457	2.307
gyrB	507	43	63	0.029	0.000	0.000	2.131
gltA	529	43	27	0.012	0.008	0.654	0.993
rpoD	498	43	28	0.013	0.023	1.734	0.621
Phylogroup 3							
concat	2010	83	163	0.016	0.015	0.937	-0.746
gapA	476	83	34	0.014	0.013	0.898	2.096
gyrB	507	83	96	0.038	0.024	0.636	-2.434
gltA	529	83	13	0.005	0.006	1.175	1.991
rpoD	498	83	20	0.008	0.033	4.073	0.3
Phylogroup 5							
concat	2010	3	23	0.008	0.000	0.000	-
gapA	476	3	-	-	-	-	-
gyrB	507	3	13	0.017	0.000	0.000	-
gltA	529	3	3	0.004	0.000	0.000	-
rpoD	498	3	7	0.009	0.000	0.000	-