Pan-genome analysis identifies intersecting roles for *Pseudomonas* specialized metabolites in potato pathogen inhibition

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Abstract

Agricultural soil harbors a diverse microbiome that can form beneficial relationships with plants, including the inhibition of plant pathogens. *Pseudomonas* spp. are one of the most abundant bacterial genera in the soil and rhizosphere and play important roles in promoting plant health. However, the genetic determinants of this beneficial activity are only partially understood. Here, we genetically and phenotypically characterize the *Pseudomonas fluorescens* population in a commercial potato field, where we identify strong correlations between specialized metabolite biosynthesis and antagonism of the potato pathogens *Streptomyces scabies* and *Phytophthora infestans*. Genetic and chemical analyses identified hydrogen cyanide and cyclic lipopeptides as key specialized metabolites associated with *S. scabies* inhibition, which was supported by *in planta* biocontrol experiments. We show that a single potato field contains a hugely diverse and dynamic population of *Pseudomonas* bacteria, whose capacity to produce specialized metabolites is shaped both by plant colonization and defined environmental inputs.

Introduction

Plant pathogenic microorganisms are responsible for major crop losses worldwide and represent a substantial threat to food security. Potato scab is one of the main diseases affecting potato quality (1), and presents a significant economic burden to farmers around the world. The Gram-positive bacterium *Streptomyces scabies*, which is the causal organism of potato scab, is ubiquitous and presents a threat in almost all soils (2, 3). Properly managed irrigation is a reasonably effective control measure for potato scab. However, scab outbreaks still regularly occur in irrigated soil, and with increasing pressures on water use it is clear that alternative approaches to the control of scab are needed. An attractive potential alternative involves the exploitation of soil microorganisms that suppress or kill plant pathogens, known as biocontrol agents (4, 5).

Many soil-dwelling *Pseudomonas* species form beneficial relationships with plants, positively affecting nutrition and health (6-8) and exhibiting potent antagonistic behavior towards

pathogenic microorganisms (4, 9, 10). *Pseudomonas* influence the plant environment using a diverse range of secondary metabolites (11-14) and secreted proteins (15, 16). As such, *Pseudomonas* sp. have been identified as key biocontrol organisms in numerous plant-microbe systems (17, 18), and these bacteria have potential applications as agricultural biocontrol agents and biofertilizers (4, 19). Many soil pseudomonads belong to the *P. fluorescens* group, which consists of over 50 sub-species and exhibits huge phenotypic and genetic diversity (6, 10, 20-22), with a core genome of about 1,300 genes and a pan-genome of over 30,000 genes (23). These bacteria use a variety of mechanisms to colonize the plant rhizosphere (24), communicate with plants (7), and suppress a range of plant pathogens (9), including bacteria (25), fungi (26) and insects (27), although a single strain is unlikely to have all of these attributes. Specialized metabolites are critical to many of these ecological functions, and the *Pseudomonas* specialized metabolome is one of the richest and best characterized of any bacterial genus (11-13).

Various studies have associated pseudomonads with potato scab suppression. A significant increase in the abundance of *Pseudomonas* taxa has been observed for irrigated fields, correlating with reduced levels of potato scab (28). Naturally scab-suppressive soils have also been shown to contain a greater proportion of *Pseudomonas* when compared to scab-conducive soils (29, 30), and phenazine production by *P. fluorescens* can contribute to scab control (14, 25, 31). Differences between soil microbial populations that enable effective pathogen suppression are routinely assessed using amplicon sequencing (29, 32). However, the heterogeneity of the *P. fluorescens* group limits the usefulness of these methods for observing changes at the species or even the genus level. To effectively determine the relationship between the soil *Pseudomonas* population and disease suppression, it is important to accurately survey genotypic and phenotypic variability at the level of individual isolates, and to determine how this variation is linked to agriculturally relevant environmental changes (33).

To investigate the genetic bases for *S. scabies* inhibition by *P. fluorescens* and to assess whether the scab-suppressive effects of irrigation derive from increased populations of biocontrol genotypes in the soil or on the plant, we focused on the *Pseudomonas* population from a potato field susceptible to potato scab. We first employed a phenotype-genotype correlation analysis across *P. fluorescens* strains isolated from a single potato field. We hypothesized that an unbiased correlation analysis would identify genetic loci and biosynthetic gene clusters that may be overlooked by screening for bioactive small molecules or by focusing on the biosynthetic repertoire of a limited number of strains. Here, we correlated phylogeny, phenotypes, specialized metabolism and accessory genome loci, then investigated the importance of strong correlations by genetic manipulation of selected wild isolates. In total, 432 *Pseudomonas* strains were phenotyped (with 69 whole genomes sequenced). This approach also enabled us to answer a number of ancillary questions: how diverse is the *P. fluorescens* population from a single field location? Do the phenotypes associated with a *P. fluorescens* strain correlate with its biosynthetic capacity? What does irrigation do to both the population structure of the *P. fluorescens* group and to the wider bacterial community? Using this approach, we identify the *P. fluorescens* genes, gene clusters and natural products that are required for potato pathogen suppression *in vitro*. We use this data to inform the discovery that the cyclic lipopeptide tensin is a key determinant of *in planta* pathogen suppression by a *Pseudomonas* species. We show that irrigation induces profound and repeatable changes in the microbiome, both on a global level and within the *P. fluorescens* species group. Finally, we propose a model for the relationship between irrigation, pathogen suppression, and population-level shifts within the plant-associated *P. fluorescens* population.

Results

Irrigation induces a significant change in the soil microbiome

The ability of irrigation to protect root vegetables against *S. scabies* infection is agriculturally important and widespread, but poorly understood. It is likely that the irrigated soil microbiota plays a role in mediating scab suppression, but how this occurs is unclear. We therefore

assessed the impact of irrigation on the total bacterial population of a commercial potato field in

the United Kingdom. Multiple soil samples were taken from two sites (A1 and B1) within this

field, immediately prior to potato planting in January. Following potato planting, one site was

irrigated as normal (site A), while the second was protected from irrigation (site B). Tuber-

associated soil was sampled from both sites in May (A2 and B2) when tubers were just forming,

and the plants were most susceptible to *S. scabies* infection. Total genomic DNA was then

extracted from replicate samples of each site after each sampling event, and 16S rRNA

amplicon sequencing was used to examine the bacterial population in each of these sites

(Figure 1, Figure S1).

Figure 1   Effect of irrigation on the microbial population of a potato field. (A) The 26 bacterial orders

whose populations were determined to significantly differ across one or more sampling sites using voom

with a false discovery rate of 0.05. Data is shown as a heatmap of the $\log_2$-fold change with respect to

the overall average counts per million for a given order. Sample A1a was omitted from the analysis due

to possible contamination leading to an atypical bacterial population (Figure S1). (B) Overall average

population of each sample site showing the 10 most abundant bacterial orders across all sites. (C) The eight bacterial orders whose populations were determined to significantly differ between irrigated and non-irrigated sites, represented as counts per million reads. Error bars represent the standard deviation of triplicate data.

We used voom (34) with a false discovery rate (FDR) of 0.05 to assess population changes across the four sampling sites. In total, changes were observed for 26 bacterial orders (Figure 1A), with the most significant changes observed between January and May regardless of irrigation. This partially reflects an increase in bacterial orders that have previously been associated with the potato root microbiome (35, 36), including *Rhizobiales*, *Sphingomonadales* and *Flavobacteriales*. Significant population changes (FDR<0.05) were also observed for 8 bacterial orders between the irrigated (A2) and non-irrigated (B2) sites (Figure 1B and 1C), including a larger proportion of *Pseudomonadales* bacteria in the irrigated site. In contrast, despite the potential for microbial heterogeneity across the fertilized field prior to planting, no significant changes were observed between pre-planting sites A1 and B1.

Phenotypic, phylogenetic and genomic analysis of the *P. fluorescens* field population

Taxonomic identifications using 16S rRNA amplicon analysis showed order-level changes to the field microbiome between sites (Figure S1) but were unable to accurately capture diversity within genera or species groups. Therefore, biologically relevant variation within the populations of genetically diverse species groups such as *P. fluorescens* is potentially overlooked. To investigate the diversity of the fluorescent pseudomonad population, we isolated 240 individual *Pseudomonas* strains from our pre- and post-irrigation field sites (Supporting Dataset 1). These strains were screened for multiple phenotypes including motility, protease production, fluorescence (siderophore production) and on-plate suppression of *S. scabies* using a cross-streak assay (Figures S2 and S3). Each phenotype was scored on an ordinal scale between 0 (no phenotype observed) and 3 (strong phenotype). The cross-streak assay provided a rapid read-out of bacterial antagonism for both contact-dependent and diffusible mechanisms of

growth inhibition. On-plate suppression of *S. scabies* was a surprisingly rare trait, with 79% of

Pseudomonas isolates out-competed by *S. scabies* in this assay. To determine whether this

suppressive activity correlated with specific genetic loci, 69 isolates were selected for whole

genome sequencing, where almost half (32 strains) exhibited on-plate suppression of *S. scabies*

and the remaining strains represented a diverse selection (based on phenotypic variation and

16S rRNA sequencing) of non-suppressive strains. We hypothesized that a comparative

analysis of a similar number of genomes from suppressive and non-suppressive strains would

identify those biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) that play important roles in suppressive activity.

The phylogeny of the 69 sequenced strains was analyzed alongside various model

pseudomonads, including representatives of the eight phylogenomic *P. fluorescens* groups

defined by Garrido-Sanz *et al.* (23). Our sequenced strain collection spans much of this

characterized global phylogenetic diversity and contains representatives of at least five of the

eight *P. fluorescens* phylogenomic groups (23), as well as strains belonging to the *P. putida* and

P. syringae groups (Figure S4). This genetic heterogeneity was also reflected in the diverse

specialized metabolome of these strains, as predicted by a detailed analysis of the BGCs

encoded in their genomes. Each genome was subjected to antiSMASH 5.0 analysis (37), which

was further refined by extensive manual annotation to improve the accuracy of predicted

pathway products. This second annotation step was particularly important for BGCs that are

atypically distributed across two distinct genomic loci (e.g. viscosin and pyoverdine). Our

analysis was further expanded to include BGCs not identified by antiSMASH 5.0, including

BGCs for hydrogen cyanide (HCN) (38), microcin B17-like pathways (39) and the auxin indole-

3-acetic acid (IAA) (40, 41). This was achieved by searching the genomes with a curated set of

known *Pseudomonas* BGCs using MultiGeneBlast (42) (see Supplementary Information for

further details). This manual annotation provided a level of resolution superior to that provided

by automated cluster-searching algorithms alone and provided confidence that the majority of

natural product biosynthetic potential had been identified. Within a given pathway type (e.g.

non-ribosomal peptide synthetases, NRPSs), likely pathway products were assigned where

possible (e.g. cyclic lipopeptides, CLPs) or assigned a code when a conserved uncharacterized

BGC was identified (e.g. NRPS 1). All BGCs were mapped to strain phylogeny (Figure 2).

Figure 2 Comparison of phylogeny, *S. scabies* suppression (red colour scales), *P. infestans* suppression (green colour scale), *G. graminis* pv. *tritici* (take-all) suppression (blue colour scale),

phenotypes (grey colour scales), natural product biosynthetic gene clusters (filled circles = presence of a

gene or gene cluster) and the accessory genome (separated from BGCs by a dotted line). In the

phylogenetic tree of *Pseudomonas* strains, blue strains were collected from irrigated plots while orange

strains were collected from unirrigated plots. All other strains were collected from the pre-irrigation plots.

Figure S4 shows the relationship between these strains and the *Pseudomonas* phylogenomic groups

defined by Garrido-Sanz *et al.* (23)*.

Multiple BGCs were commonly found across the sequenced strains (Figure 2, Supporting

Dataset 1), including BGCs predicted to make CLPs (43), arylpolyenes (44) and HCN (38). In

addition to pyoverdine BGCs (45) in almost all strains, numerous other siderophore BGCs were

identified, including pathways predicted to make achromobactin (46), ornicorrugatin (47),

pyochelin-like molecules (48) (Figure S5) and a pseudomonine-like molecule (49). A variety of

polyketide synthase (PKS), terpene and NRPS BGCs with no characterised homologues were

also identified (Figure 2). Furthermore, BGCs were identified that were predicted to make

compounds related to microcin B17 (39), fosfomycin-like antibiotics (50), lanthipeptides (51),

safracin (52), a carbapenem (53) and an aminoglycoside (54) (Figure S6). Each of these natural

product classes is predicted to have potent biological activity and some are rarely found in

pseudomonads.

In addition to these potentially antibacterial and cytotoxic compounds, all genomes contain

BGCs predicted to produce the plant auxin IAA, while 23 genomes contained genes for IAA

catabolism (55). All 69 strains had at least one BGC for the production of the electron-transport

cofactor pyrroloquinoline quinone (56) (PQQ, Figure S7), reported to function as a plant growth

promoter (57). Surprisingly, BGCs for numerous well characterized *Pseudomonas* specialized

metabolites were not found, including phenazine, pyrrolnitrin or 2,4-diacylphloroglucinol BGCs

(11). In total, 787 gene clusters were identified that could be sub-divided into 61 gene cluster

families (Figure 2).

The *P. fluorescens* species group possesses a highly diverse array of non-essential accessory

genes and gene clusters. These are often critical to the lifestyle of a given strain, and can include

motility determinants, proteases, secretion systems, polysaccharides, toxins and metabolite

catabolism pathways (17). These accessory genome loci were identified using MultiGeneBlast

(details in Supplementary Information), which revealed a high degree of genomic diversity

across strains. Specialized metabolism BGCs and accessory genome loci were mapped to

strain phylogeny (Figure 2), which indicated that for some loci (e.g. the *psl* operon, auxin

catabolism, HCN biosynthesis) there is a close, but not absolute, relationship between

phylogeny and the presence of a gene cluster.

Correlation analysis identifies potential genetic determinants of *S. scabies* inhibition

We hypothesised that genes associated with suppression of *S. scabies* could be identified by a

correlation analysis between *S. scabies* cross-streak inhibition and the presence of BGC

families or accessory genes. We therefore calculated Pearson correlation coefficients for each

BGC with *S. scabies* inhibition (Figure S8). The top 10 positively correlating genotypes and

phenotypes (Figure 3) comprised four BGC families (Pep1, CLP, Pep2 and HCN) (Figure S9),

four accessory genome loci (chitinase ChiC, protease AprA, chitinase class 1 and the Pga

operon) and two phenotypes (motility and secreted protease production). The production of

HCN and/or CLPs by *Pseudomonas* strains have been previously associated with the

suppression of various plant pathogens including fungi (26, 58) and oomycetes (59, 60), and

can also contribute to insect killing (27, 61), but have not been linked to the suppression of

bacteria. A variety of genotypes associated with plant-microbe interactions were moderately

negatively correlated with suppression ($\rho < -0.3$), including BGCs for PQQ biosynthesis and

catabolism of the plant auxins IAA and phenylacetic acid (PAA) (Figure 3A).

Figure 3 Correlation of BGCs and accessory genome loci with *S. scabies* inhibition. (A) Heatmap showing the 10 genotypes and phenotypes that correlated most strongly (positively and negatively) with on-plate suppression of *S. scabies*. Stars represent the statistical significance of a correlation using a two-tailed Mann-Whitney test (p<0.05 = *, p<0.01 = **, p<0.001 = ***). (B) Distributions of *S. scabies* suppressive activity for top 10 positive correlations. Circles are stacked from no (0) to high (3) inhibition, where filled and empty circles represent strains with and without a given genotype/phenotype, respectively. The number of strains (total = 69) in each class is listed, and the area of a circle specifies the proportion of strains with given suppressive activity.

Interestingly, while certain BGC loci (e.g. CLP) positively correlated with both suppression and motility, this relationship was not seen for every locus (e.g. HCN correlates with suppression but is less strongly correlated with motility). Correlation does not equate to causation, especially considering the significant evolutionary association seen for some BGCs (Figure 3C). The importance of correlating BGCs to *S. scabies* suppression was therefore investigated experimentally using a genetically tractable subset of suppressive isolates.

Production and role of CLPs in suppression of *S. scabies*

The strong positive correlation between putative CLP gene clusters and *S. scabies* suppression prompted us to investigate whether CLPs play a role in suppressive activity. *Pseudomonas* CLPs have previously been associated with a wide array of functions, including fungal growth inhibition, plant colonisation and promotion of swarming motility (43, 62), although there are no

reports of *Pseudomonas* CLPs functioning as inhibitors of streptomycete growth. However, prior

work has shown that surfactin, a CLP from *Bacillus subtilis,* inhibits *Streptomyces coelicolor*

aerial hyphae development (63), while iturin A, a CLP from *Bacillus* sp. sunhua, inhibits *S.*

scabies development (64).

To determine the identity of each CLP we combined bioinformatic predictions of the NRPS

products (37) with experimental identification using liquid chromatography – tandem mass

spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). In every strain that contained a CLP BGC, a molecule with an

expected mass and MS/MS fragmentation pattern was identified (Figure 4, Figures S10-S16).

This showed that *P. fluorescens* strains from a single field have the collective capacity to make

viscosin (*m/z* 1126.69, identical retention time to a viscosin standard) (65), a viscosin isomer

(*m/z* 1126.69, different retention time to viscosin standard) (Figures S10 and S11), as well as

compounds with BGCs, exact masses and MS/MS fragmentation consistent with tensin (*m/z*

1409.85, Figure S12) (66), anikasin (*m/z* 1354.81, Figure S13) (67), and putisolvin II (*m/z*

1394.85, Figure S14) (68). In addition, an array of related metabolites were observed that

differed by 14 or 28 Da, which is characteristic of different lipid chain lengths. This analysis also

proved that the linear lipopeptides syringafactin A (*m/z* 1082.74) and cichofactin (*m/z* 555.38,

$[M+2H]^{2+}$) were made by strains harbouring BGCs predicted to make these phytotoxins (69, 70)

(Figures S15 and S16). The metabolic capacity of all strains was mapped using mass spectral

networking (71, 72), which showed that CLPs were strongly associated with strains that inhibit

S. scabies (Figure 4).

Strain	Observed [M+H]+	Retention time / min	Predicted molecule
Ps619	1409.85	4.24	Tensin-like
Ps623	1394.85	4.93	Putisolvin II-like
Ps624	1409.85	4.25	Tensin-like
Ps627	1082.74	3.40	Syringafactin A (LLP)
Ps631	1394.85	4.94	Putisolvin II-like
Ps634	555.38	3.08	Cichofactin (LLP)
Ps655	1354.81	4.05	Anikasin-like
Ps663	1126.69	4.28	Viscosin-like
Ps664	1126.70	4.64	Viscosin
Ps681	1409.84	4.25	Tensin-like
Ps682	1126.69	4.28	Viscosin-like
Ps683	1126.70	4.28	Viscosin-like
Ps684	1409.85	4.25	Tensin-like
Ps687	1126.70	4.63	Viscosin
Ps689	1109.76	3.07	Cichofactin (LLP)
Ps720	1126.69	4.64	Viscosin
Ps896	1381.82	3.81	Tensin-like (shorter acyl chain)
Ps907	1126.70	4.32	Viscosin-like
Ps910	1082.74	3.41	Syringafactin A (LLP)
Ps925	1354.81	4.87	Anikasin-like
Ps941	1409.85	4.25	Tensin-like
Ps947	1409.85	4.26	Tensin-like

Figure 4   Mass spectral networking analysis of LC-MS/MS data from the *Pseudomonas* strains used in this study. Node area is proportional to the number of distinct strains where MS/MS data was acquired for a given metabolite. Node colour reflects the proportion of MS/MS scans for a given node that come from strains with a *S. scabies* inhibition score ≥1. Nodes are labelled with the corresponding parent masses and nodes that relate to lipopeptides are labelled (multiple networks arise from differential fragmentation of [M+H]+, [M+2H]2+ and [M+Na]+ ions). Line thickness is proportional to the cosine similarity score calculated by Global Natural Product Social Molecular Networking (GNPS) (72). The table shows production of lipopeptides by strains containing lipopeptide BGCs. Colour-coding reflects level of *S. scabies* inhibition by each strain with same scale as Figure 2 (LLP = linear lipopeptide; all others are CLPs).

To assess the potential role of CLPs in mediating the interaction between *P. fluorescens* and *S.*

scabies, an NRPS gene predicted to be involved in the biosynthesis of a viscosin-like molecule

in Ps682 was deleted by allelic replacement (Figure 5A). The resulting Ps682 Δ*visc* strain was

unable to make the viscosin-like molecule (*m/z* 1126.69, Figure 5B), or to undergo swarming

motility (Figure S17). This is in agreement with earlier work on the role of viscosin in the motility

of *P. fluorescens* SBW25 (62) and the observation that possession of a CLP BGC was the

genotype that most strongly correlated with motility (ρ = 0.65, Figure S8). A cross-streak assay

with *S. scabies* revealed an active role for this CLP in on-plate *S. scabies* inhibition (Figure 5D).

Wild type (WT) Ps682 appeared to specifically colonise the *S. scabies* streak, whereas Ps682

Δ*visc* was unable to restrict *S. scabies* growth. Alternatively, it was possible that this instead

could reflect diffusible inhibition of *Streptomyces* development by WT Ps682, leading to a "bald"

S. scabies phenotype (73). To distinguish between these possible inhibition modes, a

constitutively-expressed *lux* operon was integrated into the chromosomal *att::*Tn7 site (74) of

Ps682 to visualise this interaction by bioluminescence. This clearly showed viscosin-dependent

Pseudomonas colonisation of the *Streptomyces* streaks (Figure 5C).

To quantitatively assess the antagonistic effect of the Ps682 CLP, it was purified and structurally

characterized using MS/MS (Figure S18) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy

(^{1}H, ^{13}C, COSY HSQC, TOCSY, HMBC, Figures S19-S29, Table S4). NMR analysis revealed

that the molecule has an identical amino acid composition to viscosin (3-hydroxydecanoic acid-

Leu1-Glu2-Thr3-Val4-Leu5-Ser6-Leu7-Ser8-Ile9, Figure 5B), which was fully supported by

detailed high-resolution MS (calculated viscosin [M+H]$^+$ = 1126.6970, observed [M+H]$^+$ =

1126.6964) and MS/MS fragmentation data (Figure S18). The LC retention time of this CLP is

different to viscosin, but is almost identical to WLIP (Figure S18), which is a viscosin isomer that

has a D-Leu5 residue instead of L-Leu5 (75). However, comparison of NMR data in DMF-d7

revealed some minor shift differences between published WLIP spectra (75) and the Ps682

CLP, such as the γ-CH$_2$ group of Glu2 (WLIP = δ_H 2.54 ppm, δ_C 30.3 ppm; Ps682 CLP = δ_H

2.24 ppm, δ_C 34.8 ppm). Therefore, we could not conclusively confirm the absolute configuration

of the Ps682 CLP and thus named it viscosin I (for viscosin Isomer). A disk diffusion assay of

purified viscosin I with *S. scabies* (Figure 5D) demonstrated that it directly inhibited *S. scabies*

growth with a minimum inhibitory concentration of approximately 20 µg/mL. Long-term growth

of *S. scabies* in the presence of viscosin I (Figure S30) indicated that the inhibition of *S. scabies*

is temporary and growth partially resumes after several days. These data show that in addition

to its role as a surfactant, viscosin I functions by inhibiting the growth rate of *S. scabies*,

consistent with the on-plate data for Ps682 Δ*visc*.

Figure 5   The role of the Ps682 CLP BGC in *S. scabies* suppression. (A) BGC displaying

identity/coverage scores in comparison to the viscosin BGC in *P. fluorescens* SBW25. Genes encoding

regulatory proteins are green, transporter genes are blue, and NRPS genes are yellow. The NRPS

organization is shown, where C = condensation domain, A = adenylation domain, TE = thioesterase

domain, and grey circles are peptidyl carrier protein domains. Amino acids incorporated by each module are displayed, along with predicted condensation domain specificity. (B) LC-MS analysis of viscosin I production in the WT strain and a mutant (Ps682 Δ*visc*) with an in-frame deletion of NRPS gene 04206. NMR and MS/MS data for viscosin I is shown in Figures S19-S29. (C) Disk diffusion assay of viscosin I against *S. scabies*. Concentrations are indicated (µg/mL), alongside a methanol control. (D) On-plate *S. scabies* suppression activity of Ps682 alongside Ps682 Δ*visc* shown as cross-streaks using strains with and without the *lux* operon. Bioluminescence was detected using a NightOWL camera (Berthold Technologies).

HCN and CLP production both contribute to on-plate *S. scabies* inhibition

Pan-genome analysis showed that HCN production was predicted for a significant number of suppressive strains (ρ = 0.47, Figure S8), where 17 of the 19 strains containing HCN gene clusters were inhibitory towards *S. scabies* (Figure 2). The HCN pathway is encoded by the *hcnABC* gene cluster (Figure S9) and has previously been associated with insect and fungal pathogen inhibition in other *Pseudomonas* strains (27) (59, 76). HCN is toxic to a wide variety of organisms, but not to *Pseudomonas* owing to their branched aerobic respiratory chain that has at least five terminal oxidases, including a cyanide-insensitive oxidase (77, 78). We confirmed that nearly every strain with the *hcnABC* gene cluster produced HCN (18 out of 19) using the Feigl-Anger colorimetric detection reagent (79) (Supporting Dataset 1) and used this assay to identify HCN producers across the original collection of 240 *Pseudomonas* strains. This wider analysis showed that HCN production strongly correlated with *S. scabies* inhibition (ρ = 0.52, Figure S31), in accordance with our analysis of the sequenced strains.

To examine the role of HCN in *S. scabies* suppression and whether it exhibited a synergistic effect with CLP production, Ps619 was investigated as this strain produces both HCN and a tensin-like CLP (Figure 2 and Figure 6A). A tensin BGC has not previously been reported, but the predicted amino acid specificity, mass (Figure 6A) and MS/MS fragmentation (Figure S12) indicated that seven isolates produce tensin-like CLPs (Figure 4). The *hcn* and *ten* gene clusters were inactivated by in-frame deletions to generate single and double mutants of Ps619, and the

resulting Δ*hcn*, Δ*ten* and Δ*hcn*Δ*ten* mutants were subjected to cross-streak assays (Figure 6B).

A comparison of wild type, single and double mutants showed that HCN inhibits *S. scabies*

growth and development across the entire plate, while tensin is important for *Pseudomonas*

motility and helps the *Pseudomonas* to grow competitively at the cross-streak interface.

Furthermore, this suppressive effect is additive: the Ps619 Δ*hcn* and Δ*ten* single mutants both

retained some inhibitory activity towards *S. scabies*, whereas the Ps619 Δ*hcn*Δ*ten* double

mutant could not inhibit *S. scabies*.

Figure 6   The role of the Ps619 CLP and HCN gene clusters in *S. scabies* suppression. (A)

Predicted structure of the tensin-like molecule and LC-MS analysis of CLP production in WT Ps619 and

a mutant (Ps619 Δ*ten*) with an in-frame deletion of NRPS gene 02963 (see Figure S12 for BGC

information). (B) Cross streak assays of Ps619 and associated mutants with *S. scabies*. See Figure S32

for assays with drier plates. (C) Cryo-SEM images of the interfacial region between the Ps619 strains

and *S. scabies*. The order of images is identical to the cross-streaks in panel B.

In drier growth conditions expected to favour streptomycete growth and limit motility, the role of tensin-mediated motility was abrogated, yet tensin and HCN still possessed an additive inhibitory effect at the microbial interface (Figure S32). Notably, Ps619 Δ*hcn* was able to induce a developmental defect in *S. scabies* at the microbial interface that was not present in Ps619 Δ*ten* or Ps619 Δ*hcn*Δ*ten*, showing that the tensin-like CLP induces a developmental defect in *S. scabies* that is independent of *Pseudomonas* motility, comparable to the inhibitory effect of isolated viscosin I. This analysis also clearly showed that at areas distant from the bacterial interaction, *S. scabies* grew more vigorously when cultured with Δ*hcn* strains, consistent with the volatility of HCN enabling a long-range inhibitory effect. A similar volatile effect was seen when Ps619 strains were separated from *S. scabies* by a barrier, where only those strains producing HCN inhibited growth and development (Figure S32).

To further probe how tensin and HCN affected the interaction between Ps619 strains and *S. scabies*, the interfacial regions of cross-streaks were imaged using Cryo-scanning electron microscopy (cryo-SEM). WT Ps619 was able to colonise the *S. scabies* streak meaning that the interfacial region imaged was further from the cross-streak intersection than all other co-cultures (Figure 6C). Here, Ps619 inhibited *S. scabies* development, which appears as a mixture of deformed aerial hyphae and vegetative growth reminiscent of a "bald" phenotype (80). Cryo-SEM indicated that both the Ps619 Δ*hcn* and Δ*ten* mutants induced a similar partially bald phenotype in *S. scabies*, but the Δ*hcn*Δ*ten* double mutant was unable to trigger the same developmental defect, as *S. scabies* could develop aerial mycelia close to the microbial interface (Figure 6C and Figure S33). This appears as a clear boundary between Ps619 Δ*hcn*Δ*ten* (single cells in background, bottom right panel of Fig 6C) and *S. scabies* (hyphae in the foreground). The volatile HCN can inhibit growth and development at a distance, whereas CLP inhibition of development only occurs close to the microbial interface. Both inhibitory mechanisms enable Ps619 to obtain a competitive advantage at the microbe-microbe interface

(Figure 6C and Figure S33), while the CLP also functions as a surfactant enabling Ps619

motility, promoting *Pseudomonas* invasion of the *Streptomyces* cross-streak.

Tensin is a key determinant of *in planta* inhibition of potato scab

To examine the *in planta* biocontrol properties of Ps619 and Ps682, and to determine the

contribution of HCN and CLPs to activity, potato scab suppression assays were carried out in

glasshouse trials. Maris Piper potatoes were infected with *S. scabies* 87-22 and scored for

disease severity after 16 weeks using the method of Andrade *et al*. (81). A subset of plants was

also treated with *Pseudomonas* spp. and associated BGC mutants. Ps619 conferred significant

protection against potato scab, where disease severity was reduced to levels similar to

uninfected control plants (Figure 7). This suppressive ability was lost for Ps619 Δ*ten* and Ps619

Δ*hcn*Δ*ten*, resulting in disease severity similar to scab-infected tubers. In contrast, Ps619 Δ*hcn*

was just as effective as WT Ps619 at suppressing potato scab, which differed from the on-plate

results for HCN. The significance of these results was supported by an independent *in planta*

biocontrol experiment, where equivalent results were obtained for each strain (Figure S34). This

result indicates that tensin plays an important role in the biocontrol of potato scab. In contrast

with its on-plate suppressive activity, potato scab assays showed no significant antagonistic

activity for Ps682 against *S. scabies* infection. Unfortunately, this meant that the role of viscosin

I could not be determined *in planta*.

Figure 7 Potato scab biocontrol assay. The bar chart shows the percentage of diseased tubers following infection with *S. scabies* ("Scab") along with treatment by Ps619, Ps682 and associated mutants. Tubers were scored using a disease severity index from 1 to 6 according to the method of Andrade *et al*. (81). Statistical analyses were calculated by taking into account the average disease index of each plant (n=4). *p* values were calculated using Dunnett's multiple comparison test and asterisks indicate *p* < 0.05 (*), 0.01 (**) as compared to Scab treatment only. Results of a repeat biocontrol experiment and further statistical statistics are shown in Figure S34.

A subset of *P. fluorescens* strains are generalist pathogen suppressors

To determine whether the strains and metabolites we identified have suppressive activity towards a range of plant pathogens, we investigated the ability of the potato field strain collection to suppress the growth of *Phytophthora infestans*, the oomycete that causes potato blight (82), and *Gaeumannomyces graminis* var. *tritici*, the fungus that causes take-all disease of cereal crops (17). These assays revealed strong congruence between the genotypes that correlated with suppression of each pathogen (Figure S35). HCN and CLPs have both previously been identified as inhibitors of oomycete and fungal growth (26, 59). To assess whether these natural

products are critical for inhibition of *P. infestans* and *G. graminis* by Ps619 and Ps682, the

HCN/CLP mutants were tested for inhibitory activity (Figure S35). Surprisingly, neither HCN or

tensin were required for Ps619 inhibition of either *G. graminis* or *P. infestans* (Figure S35),

indicating the production of at least one other secreted inhibitory factor. In contrast, inactivation

of the viscosin I pathway in Ps682 abolished activity towards both pathogens (Figure 8C). These

data indicate that a subset of pseudomonads can function as generalist pathogen suppressors,

possessing multiple growth inhibition mechanisms (e.g. Ps619) and/or by producing molecules

with broad bioactivity (e.g. Ps682).

Multiple other genome loci are strongly correlated with pathogen suppression (Figure 3A, Figure

S35), including chitinases (83) and the extracellular metalloprotease AprA (84). Phenotypically,

extracellular protease activity also positively correlates with suppression. The BGC that

correlated most strongly with *S. scabies* suppression was Pep1 ("Peptide 1"), while the related

Pep2 also correlated strongly (Figure 3A). These were identified by antiSMASH as putative

"bacteriocin" BGCs, and encode short DUF2282 peptides alongside DUF692 and DUF2063

proteins (Figure S9). The DUF692 protein family includes dioxygenases involved in

methanobactin (85) and 3-thiaglutamate (86) biosynthesis. Other studies indicate that DUF692

and DUF2063 proteins may be involved in heavy metal and/or oxidative stress responses (87-

89). Further work is required to determine the significance of both the Pep BGCs and the

accessory genome loci for pathogen inhibition.

The effect of irrigation on the soil *Pseudomonas* population

Irrigation is currently the only effective way to control potato scab, so we hypothesised that this

may lead to an increase in the number of inhibitory bacteria associated with the soil and/or

tuber, especially as the *Pseudomonadales* population moderately increased in irrigated soil

(Figure 1C). However, a greater number of strongly suppressive strains (inhibition score ≥ 2)

were isolated from non-irrigated sites (7/60 strains) than from irrigated sites (1/60 strains). A

similar pattern was observed for strongly motile (score ≥ 2) strains (6 non-irrigated versus 2

irrigated). Analysis of the BGCs in our sequenced strains revealed a similar result, where 5/18

unirrigated strains contained CLP BGCs versus 0/16 irrigated strains. This counter-intuitive

observation led us to hypothesise that irrigation enables non-motile, non-suppressive bacteria

to survive and colonise plant roots, whereas highly motile bacteria that produce multiple

biological weapons can more effectively colonise plants in drier, more 'hostile' conditions.

To test these hypotheses, we sampled irrigated and unirrigated sites in a neighbouring field two

years after the first sampling event. 48 strains were isolated from bulk soil and the rhizospheres

of tuber-forming potato plants, with and without irrigation, providing a total of 192 *P. fluorescens*

strains (Supporting Dataset 1). These strains were scored for motility, HCN production and *S.*

scabies suppression (Figure 8A). Our results were in strong agreement with the first sample

set, including strong positive correlations between *S. scabies* inhibition, motility and HCN

production (Figure 8B). A negative correlation was observed between irrigation and *S. scabies*

suppression on the plant roots, but not in the surrounding soil. This appeared to be driven

primarily by differences in the unirrigated samples, where a substantially greater proportion of

suppressive isolates were associated with roots than with the surrounding soil. We observed a

strong positive correlation between motility and root association for unirrigated samples, while

the reverse was true for irrigated plants (Figure 8A). This effect of irrigation on the distribution

of motile bacteria was striking – in dry plants the motile population was almost entirely

associated with roots, while in irrigated plants a comparable proportion of motile bacteria were

found in the soil and roots (Figure 8A).

Figure 8 The effect of irrigation and environment (soil versus root) on the *P. fluorescens* population. (A) Plots showing the proportion of strains exhibiting a particular phenotype from each environment (n = 48 for each condition). HCN production was scored on a scale of 0-2 based on a qualitative assessment of the colour change in the Feigl-Anger assay. The size of each circle is proportional to the number of strains with a given phenotypic score. Statistical comparisons were carried out two-tailed Mann-Whitney tests where ns (not significant) = p≥0.05, * = p<0.05, ** = p<0.01, *** = p<0.001. (B) Pearson correlation scores for phenotypes from strains isolated from roots (n = 96) and soil (n = 96).

This analysis therefore supports the root colonisation hypothesis, where a lack of irrigation leads to a more specialized pseudomonad population colonising the root. Upon irrigation, the difference between the bulk soil and root pseudomonad populations is much less significant. The mechanism for this population change is not yet defined and these changes are counter-intuitive in relation to the suppression of potato scab upon irrigation, given there is a drop in suppressive strains colonising the potato root following irrigation. Irrigation did lead to moderately more motile pseudomonads in bulk soil versus unirrigated conditions, but this was not associated with more suppressive strains or HCN producers (Figure 8A, 8B). The

mechanism and significance of this irrigation effect requires further investigation. It is possible

that a protective microbiome in irrigated conditions actually contains a mixture of *S. scabies*-

suppressive "biocontrol" *Pseudomonas* strains alongside other non-motile pseudomonads that

interact with the plant in important ways due to traits usually absent from the "biocontrol" strains,

such as their ability to produce PQQ and catabolise auxins (55, 57). Profound irrigation-

associated changes in antibiotic-producing *Pseudomonas* populations have previously been

observed for the wheat rhizosphere (90, 91).

Discussion

Prior studies on the suppression of potato scab have indicated a potential biocontrol role for

Pseudomonas bacteria (14, 25, 28, 29). Fluorescent pseudomonads form multiple beneficial

relationships with plants, including growth promotion and biocontrol (7, 9). However, there is

limited understanding of the genetic factors that are critical for such activity, and little is known

about the diversity of the *P. fluorescens* species group within a given agricultural field or how

this population is shaped by environmental changes. In this study, we integrated genomics,

metabolomics, phenotypic analysis, molecular biology and *in planta* assays to identify the

genetic determinants of *Pseudomonas* antagonism towards *S. scabies*. This population level

approach shows that the *P. fluorescens* population in a single field is highly complex,

heterogeneous and dynamic (Figures 2, 3 and 8), where the overall genotypic diversity is similar

to the global diversity of *P. fluorescens* (23). Pan-genome analysis and metagenomics

represent increasingly powerful routes to understanding the genetic determinants of biological

activity in plant-associated microbes (10, 22, 92-95).

Multiple BGCs and accessory genome loci were identified that correlated with on-plate inhibition

of *S. scabies* growth and development (Figure 3), including BGCs for CLPs and HCN. These

loci also correlated with inhibition of *P. infestans* and *G. graminis*, and their contribution to

suppression was validated genetically. This confirmed a role for both molecules in *S. scabies*

inhibition (Figures 5 and 6), representing a new function for these *Pseudomonas* specialized

metabolites. Co-culture assays and cryo-SEM imaging (Figure 6) showed that HCN and a tensin-like CLP produced by Ps619 arrest the formation of streptomycete aerial hyphae and subsequent sporulation, providing the pseudomonad with a competitive advantage at the microbial interface.

In planta experiments confirmed that Ps619 could suppress potato scab and that CLP production was a key determinant of this inhibitory effect (Figure 7). In contrast, HCN production was not a requirement for potato scab suppression by Ps619. It is possible that HCN is not produced in sufficient amounts during root colonisation for *S. scabies* inhibition, or that it instead has an alternative natural role, such as metal chelation (96). The roles of the CLPs are reminiscent of the interaction between *B. subtilis* and *S. coelicolor*, where the CLP surfactin functions as a surfactant required for the formation of aerial structures in *B. subtilis* and arrests aerial development in *S. coelicolor* (63). Collectively, these results are surprising given that streptomycetes themselves use surfactants to assist in the erection of aerial mycelia (97, 98) and points to secondary antagonistic roles for these molecules beyond the reduction of surface tension. This is strongly supported by the inhibitory effect of purified viscosin I towards *S. scabies* (Figure 5C).

HCN and CLPs have also been associated with insect (27) and nematode (76) killing, as well as the suppression of pathogenic fungi (26, 99). This indicates that a subset of pseudomonads are generalist suppressors of pathogens (and presumably also non-pathogenic organisms) due to the production of these broad range antimicrobials. Genetic analysis indicates that these strains are more likely to produce multiple suppressive metabolites and proteins. Evidence for this is provided by the inhibition of both *P. infestans* and *G. graminis* by Ps619 ΔhcnΔten (Figure S35). A study of the inhibitory properties of bacteria associated with the *Arabidopsis* leaf microbiome showed that a large proportion of the total inhibitory activity was due to *Pseudomonadales* bacteria and that a subset of individual strains were active against a wide array of bacteria (100).

Unexpectedly, irrigation led to a decrease in the proportion of suppressive pseudomonads on

potato roots (Figure 8A) even though irrigation is one of the most effective ways to suppress

potato scab. One possible reason for this discrepancy is that irrigation enables non-suppressive

Pseudomonas spp. with low motility to be transported to plant roots more effectively.

Recruitment of non-suppressive pseudomonads to the rhizosphere may benefit the plant in

other ways, such as immune system priming (101, 102) or modulation of auxin biosynthesis.

For example, Cheng *et al.* (8) showed that auxin biosynthesis was linked to plant growth

promotion and induced systemic resistance by *P. fluorescens* Pf.SS101*.* An alternative

hypothesis is that changes in the overall relative abundance of soil *Pseudomonas* over

Streptomyces resulting from irrigation may override the observed shift towards less-suppressive

Pseudomonas genotypes. In support of this, drought-induced enrichment for commensal

Streptomyces and depletion of *Proteobacteria* in sorghum and rice plants have been shown to

be reversed by irrigation (103, 104). In this model, irrigation may reduce the relative fitness of

S. scabies versus *Pseudomonas* spp., while the microbiome of irrigated roots simultaneously

becomes less optimal for disease suppression.

Our data show that Ps619 is highly effective at inhibiting potato scab, yet Ps619-like strains are

naturally less abundant in irrigated conditions. Therefore, possible future efforts to control potato

scab could combine irrigation with pre-treatment with effective biocontrol strains, like Ps619, to

ensure tubers are colonized by a significant proportion of biocontrol strains. Such a strategy

could reduce the quantity of water required for effective scab suppression. While our study was

focused on fluorescent pseudomonads, interactions between these bacteria and the wider

microbiome (Figure 1) may also have a key role in potato scab suppression.

Moving forward, systematic analyses of individual organisms within microbiomes will continue

to help answer questions relating to microbial communities and host interactions that are difficult

to address using global 'omics approaches alone. For example, the role of many bacterial

specialized metabolites in nature is poorly understood, especially for prolific producers such as the pseudomonads and the streptomycetes (105). Future studies could examine whether the host selects for bacterial populations enriched in specific BGCs and whether environmental stimuli modulate the abundance of these BGCs. Synthetic microbial communities based on well-characterized natural communities could then be used to test hypotheses on the role of specialized metabolites in shaping the community or modulating the health of the host organism.

Materials and Methods

Strains and growth conditions

All strains used in this study are listed in Table S1. Unless otherwise stated, chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, enzymes from New England Biolabs, and molecular biology kits from GE Healthcare and Promega. All *P. fluorescens* strains were grown at 28 °C in L medium (Luria base broth, Formedium) and *Escherichia coli* at 37 °C in lysogeny broth (LB) (106). 1.3% agar was added for solid media. Gentamicin was used at 25 μg/mL, carbenicillin at 100 μg/mL and tetracycline (Tet) at 12.5 μg/mL. *S. scabies* spore suspensions were prepared using established procedures (107).

Soil sample collection

Soil samples were collected from potato fields at RG Abrey Farms (East Wretham, Norfolk, U.K., 52.4644° N, 0.8299° E). The first sampling was conducted in 2015 from two adjacent plots in a single field. Soil samples were taken on 22nd January 2015, immediately prior to planting. One plot was then covered loosely in polythene to protect it from irrigation. The same field sites were sampled again in May at the point of maximum scab impact, once potato tubers had begun to form. In this case soil samples were taken from the base of the plants, near the root system. For each sampling event, a total of 12 samples were taken from three parallel potato beds at regularly spaced intervals approximately one metre apart. For the second experiment, 12

irrigated and 12 non-irrigated potato plants were uprooted from field sites in June 2017 and

returned to the laboratory in large pots. Bulk soil samples were taken from these pots alongside

an equivalent number of rhizosphere-associated samples, which were defined as isolated root

systems gently shaken to remove bulk soil before processing as below. Samples were collected

in sterile 50 mL tubes and stored at 4 °C.

Isolation of soil *Pseudomonas*

Sample processing was conducted at 4 °C throughout. 10 mL of sterile phosphate-buffered

saline (PBS, per litre: 8 g NaCl, 0.2 g KCl, 1.44 g Na_2HPO_4, 0.24 g KH_2PO_4, pH 7.4) were added

to 50 mL tubes containing 20 g of soil or root material, and vortexed vigorously for 10 minutes.

Samples were then filtered through a sterile muslin filter to remove larger debris. The resulting

suspension of soil and organic matter was centrifuged at 1000 rpm for 30 s to pellet remaining

soil particles, before serial dilution in PBS and plating on *Pseudomonas* selective agar. The

selection media comprised *Pseudomonas* agar base (Oxoid, UK) supplemented with CFC

(cetrimide/fucidin/cephalosporin) *Pseudomonas* selective supplement (Oxoid, UK). Plates were

incubated at 28 °C until colonies arose, then isolated single colonies were patched on fresh

CFC agar and incubated overnight at 28 °C before streaking to single colonies on King's B (KB)

agar plates (108). Six isolates were selected at random per soil sample and subjected to

phenotypic/genomic analysis.

Amplicon sequencing

Genomic DNA was isolated from 3 g of pooled soil samples using the FastDNA™ SPIN Kit for

soil (MP Biomedicals, UK) following the manufacturer's instructions. Genomic DNA

concentration and purity was determined by NanoDrop spectrophotometry as above. Microbial

16S rRNA genes were amplified from soil DNA samples with barcoded universal prokaryotic

primers (F515/R806) targeting the V4 region(109), and then subjected to Illumina® MiSeq

sequencing (600-cycle, 2x300 bp) at the DNA Sequencing Facility, Department of Biochemistry,

University of Cambridge (UK). The data was analysed using the MiSeq Reporter Metagenomics

Workflow (Illumina, UK) to acquire read counts for all taxonomic ranks from phylum to genus.

MiSeq data were visualized and analysed using Degust 3.1.0 (http://degust.erc.monash.edu/)

and Pheatmap (https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=pheatmap) in R 3.5.1.

Phenotypic assays

All phenotyping assays were conducted at least twice independently, and where disagreements

were recorded in the ordinal data, additional repeats were conducted until a firm consensus was

reached.

Swarming motility: 0.5% KB agar plates were poured and allowed to set and dry for 1 hour in a

sterile flow chamber. Plates were then inoculated with 2 µL spots of overnight cultures and

incubated overnight at room temperature. The motility of each isolate was tested in triplicate

and scored from 0 (no motility) to 3 (high motility).

Secreted protease activity: 5 µL of overnight cultures were spotted onto KB plates containing

1.0% skimmed milk powder. Plates were incubated at 28 °C and photographed after 24 hours,

with individual isolates scored as protease positive (score = 2) or negative (score = 0).

Hydrogen cyanide (HCN) production: An adaptation of the method described in Castric *et al.*

(110) was used. *Pseudomonas* isolates were inoculated into 150 µL of liquid KB medium in

individual wells of a flat bottomed 96-well plate. The plates were then overlaid with Feigl-Anger

reagent paper (79), prepared as follows. Whatman 3MM chromatography paper was soaked in

Feigl-Anger detection reagent (5 mg/mL copper(II) ethyl acetoacetate and 5 mg/mL 4,4'-

methylenebis(N,N-dimethylaniline) dissolved in chloroform). After complete solvent

evaporation, the paper was placed under the plate lid and strains were grown at 28 °C overnight

with gentle shaking. The intensity of blue staining on the paper was then scored from 0 (no

colour) to 3 (high blue intensity). The same method was applied to isolates growing on agar

medium.

S. scabies inhibition: Two parallel lines of *S. scabies* 87-22 spores were streaked onto SFM

plates (107) using a sterile toothpick. These lines were then cross streaked with overnight

cultures of *Pseudomonas* isolates. Plates were incubated at 30 °C and the relative performance

of each species was assessed daily for 5 days.

P. infestans inhibition: Assays were conducted with *P. infestans* #2006-3920A (6-A1) (The

Sainsbury Laboratory, UK). This was maintained on rye agar medium supplemented with 2%

sucrose (C-RSA) (111) at 21 °C. C-RSA was filtered through muslin fabric to enable clearer

observation of oomycete growth. Three 10 µL drops of overnight cultures per *Pseudomonas*

isolate strain were placed equidistantly 15 mm from the edge of C-RSA plates. A 3 mm plug

from the leading edge of a *P. infestans* culture was then placed in the centre of each plate and

incubated for a further 7 days at 21 °C before scoring and imaging.

Take-all inhibition: Assays were conducted with *Gaeumannomyces graminis var. tritici* strain

NZ.66.12 (*Ggt*) (17). Three 10 µL drops of overnight *Pseudomonas* cultures per strain were

placed equidistantly 15 mm from the edge of potato dextrose agar (PDA) plates and incubated

for 24 hours at 28 °C. *Ggt* NZ.66.12 was cultured on PDA agar for five days at room

temperature. A 3 mm plug from the leading edge of the NZ.66.12 culture was then placed in the

centre of each plate and incubated for a further five days at 22 °C before the extent of *Ggt*

inhibition was assessed.

DNA extraction and Illumina® genome sequencing

Single colonies of each isolate to be sequenced were picked from L agar plates and grown

overnight in L medium. DNA was then extracted from 2 mL of cell culture using a GenElute™

Bacterial Genomic DNA Kit (Sigma-Aldrich, USA). DNA samples were subjected to an initial

quality check using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA)

before submission for Nextera library preparation and paired-end read sequencing on the

Illumina® MiSeq platform (600-cycle, 2x300 bp) at the DNA Sequencing Facility, Department of

Biochemistry, University of Cambridge (UK). Reads from 35 pseudomonads collected in

February 2015 were assembled into genomes using MaSuRCA v3.2.6 (112) with the following

settings:

GRAPH_KMER_SIZE=auto; USE_LINKING_MATES=1; LIMIT_JUMP_COVERAGE=60;

CA_PARAMETERS = ovlMerSize=30 cgwErrorRate=0.25 ovlMemory=4GB;

NUM_THREADS=16; JF_SIZE=100000000; DO_HOMOPOLYMER_TRIM=0.

Reads from 32 samples collected in May 2015 were assembled into genomes using SPAdes

v3.6.2 (113) with k-mer flag set to -k 21,33,55,77,99,127. All assembly tasks were conducted

using 16 CPUs on a 256 GB compute node within the Norwich Bioscience Institutes (NBI) High

Performance Computing cluster. An additional strain from May 2015 (Ps925) was sequenced

and assembled by MicrobesNG (http://www.microbesng.uk), which is supported by the BBSRC

(grant number BB/L024209/1). The 69 assembled genome sequences were annotated using

Prokka (114), which implements Prodigal (115) as an open reading frame calling tool. Assembly

qualities were assessed using CheckM (116). Genome assemblies are available at the

European Nucleotide Archive (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/) with the project accession

PRJEB34261.

Phylogenetic and bioinformatic analysis

The *gyrB* housekeeping gene sequence was identified in each newly sequenced genome by

BLAST comparison with the sequence of *gyrB* from *P. fluorescens* SBW25. The full-length *gyrB*

sequences from these strains and several reference strains were aligned using MUSCLE 3.8.31

(117) with default settings, then a maximum likelihood tree was calculated using RAxML 8.2.12

(118) on the CIPRES portal (119) with the following parameters: raxmlHPC-HYBRID-AVX -T 4

-f a -N autoMRE -n result -s infile.txt -c 25 -m GTRCAT -p 12345 -k -x 12345. Genomes were

subjected to bioinformatic analysis as described in the Supplementary Information.

Phylogenetic trees and presence/absence data for accessory genes were visualised using

Interactive Tree of Life (iTOL) (120), with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAO1 *gyrB* as the

outgroup.

Molecular biology procedures

Cloning was carried out in accordance with standard molecular biology techniques. *P. fluorescens* deletion mutants were constructed by allelic exchange as described previously (121). Up- and downstream flanking regions (approx. 500 bp) to the target genes were amplified using primers listed in Table S2. PCR products in each case were ligated into pTS1 (122) between XhoI and BamHI. The resulting deletion vectors were transformed into the target strains by electroporation, and single crossovers selected on L + Tet and re-streaked to isolate single colonies. 100 mL cultures in L medium from single crossovers were grown overnight at 28 °C, then plated onto L + 10% sucrose plates to counter-select for double crossovers. Individual colonies from these plates were then patched onto L plates ± Tet, with Tet-sensitive colonies tested for gene deletion by colony PCR using primers external to the deleted gene in each case (Table S2).

Luminescent-tagged strains were produced by introduction of the *Aliivibrio fischeri luxCDABE* cassette into the neutral *att::Tn7* site in *Pseudomonas* chromosomes using the Tn7-based expression system described in Choi *et al.* (74). Strains were electroporated with plasmids pUC18-mini*Tn7*T-Gm-*lux* and the helper pTNS2, and transformant colonies were grown on solid L medium + gentamicin for 2-3 days at 28 °C. Integration of the *lux* cassette into *Pseudomonas* genomes was confirmed by PCR and with a luminometer. Luminescent cells were then tracked using the NightOWL visualisation system (Berthold Technologies, Germany). All plasmids used in this study are reported in Table S3.

Liquid chromatography - mass spectrometry detection of lipopeptides

Pseudomonas isolates were grown overnight in L medium (10 mL) for 16 hours at 28 °C. 100 µL of each culture was used to inoculate 40 mm diameter KB agar plates. Plates were incubated for 24 hours at 28 °C, before the agar from each plate was decanted into a sterile 50 mL tube

and extracted with 10 mL 50% EtOH with occasional vortexing for 3 hours. 2 mL was taken from

each sample and centrifuged in 2 mL tubes for 5 min at 16,000 g. The supernatant was collected

and stored at -80 °C. Samples were diluted with an equal volume of water, then subjected to

LC-MS analysis using a Shimadzu Nexera X2 UHPLC coupled to a Shimadzu ion-trap time-of-

flight (IT-TOF) mass spectrometer. Samples (5 μL) were injected onto a Phenomenex Kinetex

2.6 μm XB-C18 column (50 x 2.1mm, 100 Å), eluting with a linear gradient of 5 to 95%

acetonitrile in water + 0.1% formic acid over 6 minutes with a flow-rate of 0.6 mL/min at 40 °C.

To compare the retention times of viscosin I (Ps682), WLIP (*Pseudomonas* sp. LMG 2338) and

viscosin (*P. fluorescens* SBW25), extracts were prepared from their producing organisms as

described above. The same chromatography conditions as above were used, but with a linear

gradient of 5 to 100% acetonitrile in water + 0.1% formic acid over 15 minutes.

Positive mode mass spectrometry data was collected between *m/z* 300 and 2000 with an ion

accumulation time of 10 ms featuring an automatic sensitivity control of 70% of the base peak.

The curved desolvation line temperature was 300 °C and the heat block temperature was 250

°C. MS/MS data was collected in a data-dependent manner using collision-induced dissociation

energy of 50% and a precursor ion width of 3 Da. The instrument was calibrated using sodium

trifluoroacetate cluster ions prior to every run.

A molecular network was created using the online workflow at the Global Natural Product Social

Molecular Networking (GNPS) site (https://gnps.ucsd.edu/) (72). The data was filtered by

removing all MS/MS peaks within +/- 17 Da of the precursor *m/z*. The data was then clustered

with MS-Cluster with a parent mass tolerance of 1 Da and a MS/MS fragment ion tolerance of

0.5 Da to create consensus spectra. Consensus spectra that contained less than 2 spectra were

discarded. A network was then created where edges were filtered to have a cosine score above

0.6 and more than 4 matched peaks. Further edges between two nodes were kept in the network

if each of the nodes appeared in each other's respective top 10 most similar nodes. The spectra

in the network were then searched against GNPS spectral libraries. The library spectra were

filtered in the same manner as the input data. All matches kept between network spectra and

library spectra were required to have a score above 0.7 and at least 4 matched peaks. Networks

were visualised using Cytoscape v3.8.2 (123) and the data was manually filtered to remove

duplicate nodes (same *m/z* and retention time). The data is available as a MassIVE dataset at

ftp://massive.ucsd.edu/MSV000084283/ and the GNPS analysis is available here:

https://gnps.ucsd.edu/ProteoSAFe/status.jsp?task=51ac5fe596424cf88cfc17898985cac2

High-resolution mass spectra were acquired on a Synapt G2-Si mass spectrometer equipped

with an Acquity UPLC (Waters). Aliquots of the samples were injected onto an Acquity UPLC®

BEH C18 column, 1.7 µm, 1x100 mm (Waters) and eluted with a gradient of acetonitrile/0.1%

formic acid (B) in water/0.1% formic acid (A) with a flow rate of 0.08 mL/min at 45 °C. The

concentration of B was kept at 1% for 1 min followed by a gradient up to 40% B in 9 min, ramping

to 99% B in 1 min, kept at 99% B for 2 min and re-equilibrated at 1% B for 4 min. MS data were

collected in positive mode with the following parameters: resolution mode, positive ion mode,

scan time 0.5 s, mass range *m/z* 50-1200 calibrated with sodium formate, capillary voltage =

2.5 kV; cone voltage = 40 V; source temperature = 125 °C; desolvation temperature = 300 °C.

Leu-enkephalin peptide was used to generate a lock-mass calibration with 556.2766, measured

every 30 s during the run. For MS/MS fragmentation, a data directed analysis (DDA) method

was used with the following parameters: precursor selected from the 4 most intense ions; MS2

threshold: 5,000; scan time 0.5 s; no dynamic exclusion. In positive mode, collision energy (CE)

was ramped between 10-30 at low mass (*m/z* 50) and 15-60 at high mass (*m/z* 1200).

Purification and characterisation of viscosin I

Pre-cultures of Ps682 were grown in 10 mL LB medium for 16 hours and 600 µL aliquots were

used to inoculate 140 mm diameter KB agar plates. Fifteen plates were inoculated and

incubated for 24 hours. The agar was decanted and extracted with 500 mL ethyl acetate for 2

hours with occasional mixing. The organic fraction was filtered off, washed with 3 x 200 mL

water, dried over $MgSO_4$, and then solvent was removed *in vacuo*. The resulting material was

dissolved in MeOH and applied to a 12 g C18 flash chromatography column (Biotage), pre-

equilibrated in 70% MeOH. Separation proceeded by a gradient of 70-100% MeOH over 10

column volumes. Each fraction was subject to LC-MS analysis using a Shimadzu Nexera X2

UHPLC coupled to a Shimadzu IT-TOF mass spectrometer, as described above.

Solvent was removed from viscosin I-containing fractions using a rotary evaporator and then a

Genevac (SP Scientific). Fractions were then dissolved in MeOH to 1 mg/mL and further purified

using a Thermo Dionex Ultimate 3000 HPLC system. 200 µL aliquots were injected onto a

Phenomenex C18 Luna column (5 µm, 250 mm x 10 mm) and eluted with a linear gradient of

5% to 95% acetonitrile/H_2O over 30 minutes, with a flow rate of 4 mL/min and UV absorption

data collected at 210 nm. LC-MS analysis (as described above) was used to identify pure

fractions, which were combined and dried *in vacuo* to yield 1.4 mg viscosin I as a white powder.

Viscosin I (1.4 mg) was dissolved in *N,N*-dimethylformamide-d_7 (DMF-d_7) and nuclear magnetic

resonance (NMR) spectra were acquired on a Bruker Avance Neo 600 MHz spectrometer

equipped with a TCI cryoprobe. The experiments were carried out at 298 K with the residual

DMF solvent used as an internal standard (δ_H/δ_C 2.75/29.76). The residual solvent signal from

H_2O was suppressed through a presaturation sequence in 1D ^1H. Resonances were assigned

through 1D ^1H and DEPT135 experiments, and 2D COSY, HSQCed, HMBC, TOCSY and

HSQC-TOCSY experiments. Spectra were analysed using Bruker TopSpin 3.5 and Mestrelab

Research Mnova 14.0 software. NMR data are reported in Figures S19-S29 and Table S4.

Disk Diffusion Assays

A *S. scabies* 87-22 spore suspension was diluted 1:100 in sterile MQ water and 60 µL aliquots

were applied to instant potato medium (20 g/L Smash™ Instant Mash, 20 g/L agar) on 100 mm

square plates. The spore solution was evenly distributed using a sterile cotton bud and the plate was dried for 30 min. Viscosin I was diluted in MeOH to produce a range of concentrations from 20 to 100 µg/mL. Each concentration was applied to a 6 mm filter paper disk, in 5 x 20 µL applications at 10 min intervals, and then dried for 30 min. The disks were then applied to the surface of the agar plate, which was incubated at 30 °C and imaged daily.

Scanning electron microscopy

Small pieces of the *Pseudomonas-Streptomyces* co-culture samples were excised from the surface of agar plates and mounted on an aluminium stub using Tissue Tek[R] (BDH Laboratory Supplies, Poole, England). The stub was then immediately plunged into liquid nitrogen slush at approximately -210 °C to cryo-preserve the material. The sample was transferred onto the cryostage of an ALTO 2500 cryo-transfer system (Gatan, Oxford, England) attached to an FEI Nova NanoSEM 450 (FEI, Eindhoven, The Netherlands). Sublimation of surface frost was performed at -95 °C for three minutes before sputter coating the sample with platinum for 3 min at 10 mA, at colder than -110 °C. After sputter-coating, the sample was moved onto the cryo-stage in the main chamber of the microscope, held at -125 °C. The sample was imaged at 3 kV and digital TIFF files were stored.

Potato scab biocontrol assays

In planta assays were performed as described previously (124, 125) with some modifications. Briefly, 2 L of GYM (4 g/L glucose, 4 g/L yeast extract, 10 g/L malt extract, 2 g/L $CaCO_3$, pH 7.2) was inoculated with a *S. scabies* 87-22 starter culture from a spore suspension and incubated for 48 h at 30 °C, 250 rpm. Each culture was then centrifuge at 16,994 x *g* for 15 min and washed twice with PBS (2 L). *Pseudomonas* strains Ps619, Ps682 and associated mutants were grown overnight at 28 °C, 250 rpm in 50 mL L medium (Luria base broth, Formedium), centrifuged at 1,520 x *g* for 15 min, washed twice with PBS (20 mL) and adjusted to OD600 = 0.2 for the final inoculation.

50 mL of autoclaved vermiculite and 50 mL of bacterial culture were mixed to constitute the final

inoculum. 5 L pots were filled with steam-sterilised substrate (John Innes Cereal Mix) and

inoculum was applied into the pots and mixed with the soil. Different combinations of bacterial

inocula were made accordingly following the same method. Potato seeds cv. Maris Piper

obtained from VCS Potatoes Ltd (Suffolk, UK) were surfaced disinfected by immersion in 1%

sodium hypochlorite for 15 min. Tubers were then rinsed with water, air-dried and placed in

pots. Pots were watered until saturation according to their growth stage. Potato plants were

grown in a glasshouse with a light cycle of 16h/8h at 18-20 °C. Two independent experiments

were run between 17th July - 6th November 2020 and 31st July - 20th November 2020, and three

- four plants were used per treatment. Tubers were collected, washed, weighed and scored

accordingly to a one to six scale as described in Andrade *et al.* (81). Potato plants were dried

for four days at 30 °C and aerial parts and tuber weights were both recorded, as well as tuber

number. Treatment differences were carried out based on the disease index (DI) of each plant

(n=4 for each treatment). The DI was calculated as the mean of all the scored tubers per plant

and *p* values were calculated using Dunnett's multiple comparison test.

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