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* are one of the most abundant bacterial genera in the soil and rhizosphere and play important roles in promoting plant growth and preventing disease. However, the genetic determinants of this beneficial activity are only partially understood, especially in relation to specialized metabolite production. Here, we genetically and phenotypically characterize the *Pseudomonas fluorescens* population in commercial potato field soils and identify strong correlations between specialized metabolite biosynthetic pathways 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. 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 a one of the main diseases affecting potato quality (1, 2), 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 (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 (9-12). *Pseudomonas* influence the plant environment using a diverse range of secondary metabolites (13-15) and secreted proteins (16, 17). As such, *Pseudomonas* sp. have been identified as key biocontrol organisms in numerous plant-microbe systems (18), and these bacteria have potential applications as agricultural biocontrol agents and biofertilizers (19, 20). Many soil pseudomonads belong to the *P. fluorescens* group, which consists of over 50 sub-species and exhibits huge phenotypic and genetic diversity (7, 21-23), with a core genome of about 1,300 genes and a pan-genome of over 30,000 genes (24). These bacteria use a variety of mechanisms to colonize the plant rhizosphere (25), communicate with plants (8), and suppress a range of plant pathogens (9), including bacteria (6), fungi (26) and insects (27), although a single strain is unlikely to have all of these attributes. Secondary metabolites are critical to many of these ecological functions, and the secondary metabolome of the pseudomonads is one of the richest and best characterized of any bacterial genus (13-15).

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 in greenhouse experiments(20). Differences between soil microbial populations that enable effective pathogen suppression are routinely assessed using metagenomic tools (29, 31). 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 (32).

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, secondary 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-genome 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 show that irrigation induces profound and repeatable changes in the microbiome, both on a global level and within the *P. fluorescens* species group. We identify the *P. fluorescens* genes and gene clusters that are required for potato pathogen suppression *in vitro*. Finally, we use these data to explain 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).

We used voom (33) 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 (34, 35), 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.

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 log₂-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.

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. scabiei* 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. scabiei* was a surprisingly rare trait, with 79% of *Pseudomonas* isolates out-competed by *S. scabiei* 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. scabiei* 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.* (24). 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 (24), as well as strains belonging to the *P. putida* and *P. syringae* groups (Figure S4). This genetic heterogeneity was also reflected in the diverse secondary metabolome of these strains, as predicted by a detailed analysis of the BGCs encoded in their genomes. Each genome was subjected to antiSMASH analysis (36), 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 4.0, including BGCs for hydrogen cyanide (HCN) (37), microcin B17-like pathways (38) and the auxin indole-3-acetic acid (IAA). This was achieved by searching the genomes with a personally curated set of known *Pseudomonas* gene clusters using MultiGeneBlast (39) (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 uncharacterised BGC was identified (e.g. NRPS1). All BGCs were mapped to strain phylogeny (Figure 2).

As expected, almost every strain had the genetic potential to make the fluorescent siderophore pyoverdine. Furthermore, other BGCs were commonly found across the sequenced strains, including BGCs predicted to make CLPs (40), arylpolyenes (41) and HCN (37). The unexpected isolation of a few *P. syringae* strains meant that some linear lipopeptide (LLP) BGCs were also found (42). Numerous siderophore BGCs were identified, including pathways predicted to make achromobactin (43), ornicorrugatin (44), pyochelin-like molecules and a pseudomonin-like molecule (45). Curiously, all pyochelin-like BGCs feature one more NRPS module than the characterised pathway (46) (Figure S5). A variety of polyketide synthase (PKS), terpene and NRPS BGCs with no characterised homologues were also identified (Figure 2). Furthermore, eight strains had BGCs with high homology to the microcin B17 pathway (38, 47), two strains had BGCs predicted to make fosfomycin-like antibiotics (48) (Figure S6), and two strains had lantipeptide BGCs (49). One strain contained a BGC predicted to produce the anti-tumour molecule safracin (13), one strain encoded a putative carbapenem BGC (50) and one strain encoded an aminoglycoside-like BGC (51) (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, four strains contain BGCs predicted to produce the plant auxin IAA and one strain was predicted to produce coronamic acid (52). While 23 genomes contained genes for IAA catabolism, these strains do not overlap with the four IAA producers. All 69 strains had BGCs for the production of the electron-transport cofactor pyrroloquinoline quinone (53) (PQQ), reported to function as a plant growth promoter(54). Curiously, four different versions of the PQQ BGC were identified that differed by the precise genes present in each BGC (Figure S7), while a subset of strains contained two PQQ BGCs (Figure 2). Surprisingly, gene clusters for a variety of well characterised *Pseudomonas* secondary metabolites were not observed. For example, no strains were predicted to make phenazines, pyrrolnitrin or 2,4-diacetylphloroglucinol (13). In total, 571 gene clusters were identified that could be sub-divided into 55 gene cluster families (Figure 2).

The large *P. fluorescens* pan-genome means that the 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. We therefore searched our strains for accessory genome loci using MultiGeneBlast (details in Supporting Information), which revealed a high degree of genomic diversity across strains. Both secondary 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 gene cluster families or accessory genes. We therefore calculated Pearson correlation coefficients for each gene cluster with *S. scabies* inhibition (Figure S8). The top 10 positively correlating genotypes and phenotypes that were highly overrepresented in suppressive strains (Figure 3) comprised four gene cluster 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, 55) and oomycetes (19, 56), and can also contribute to insect killing (27, 57), but have not been linked to the suppression of bacteria. In contrast, a variety of genotypes associated with plant-microbe interactions were moderately negatively correlated with suppression ($\rho < -0.3$), including gene clusters for PQQ biosynthesis and catabolism of the plant auxins IAA and phenylacetic acid (PAA) (Figure 3A).

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 gene clusters (Figure 3C). The importance of correlating BGCs to *S. scabies* suppression was therefore investigated experimentally using a genetically tractable subset of suppressive isolates.

Figure 3 Correlation of BGCs and accessory genome loci with *S. scabiei* inhibition. (A) Heatmap showing the 10 genotypes and phenotypes that correlated most strongly (positively and negatively) with on-plate suppression of *S. scabiei*. Stars represent the statistical significance of a correlation using a Chi-squared test ($p < 0.05 = *$, $p < 0.01 = **$, $p < 0.001 = ***$). (B) Distributions of *S. scabiei* 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, 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. (C) Top correlating genotypes mapped to strain phylogeny. (D) Production of lipopeptides by strains containing lipopeptide BGCs. Colour-coding reflects level of *S. scabiei* inhibition by each strain (LLP = linear lipopeptide; all others are CLPs).

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

The strong positive correlation between putative CLP gene clusters and *S. scabiei* 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 (40, 58), 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 (59), while iturin A, a CLP from *Bacillus* sp. sunhua, inhibits *S. scabies* development (60). Prior to investigating the role of the *Pseudomonas* CLPs, we sought to confirm their identity in each strain. CLPs are produced by modular NRPSs, which enabled a rational prediction of the products of these pathways (14) (Figure 3D).

To validate our preliminary sequence-based annotations, strains were assessed for their ability to make CLPs using liquid chromatography – tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS²). In every strain that contained a CLP gene cluster, a molecule with an expected mass and MS² fragmentation pattern was identified (Figure 3D, 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), a viscosin isomer (m/z 1126.69, different retention time to viscosin standard) (Figures S10 and S11), as well as compounds with gene clusters, exact masses and MS² fragmentation consistent with tensin (m/z 1409.85, Figure S12) (61), anikasin (m/z 1354.81, Figure S13) (62), and putisolvin II (m/z 1394.85, Figure S14) (63). 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 (13, 64) (Figures S15 and S16). This diversity was mapped using mass spectral networking with the Global Natural Product Social Molecular Networking (GNPS) server (65, 66). This networked metabolite data was used to visualize the inhibitory capacity of the strains that produce a specific metabolite (Figure 4). As anticipated from the genotypic data, CLPs were strongly associated with strains that inhibit *S. scabies* (red nodes in Figure 4 indicate molecules from inhibitory strains).

Figure 4 Mass spectral networking analysis of LC-MS² data from the *Pseudomonas* strains used in this study. Node area is proportional to the number of distinct strains where MS² data was acquired for a given metabolite. Node colour reflects the proportion of MS² 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 GNPS (65).

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 (58) and the observation that possession of a CLP gene cluster was

the genotype that most strongly correlated with motility ($\rho = 0.65$, Figure S8). A cross-streak assay with *S. scabies* (Figure 5C) revealed an active role for this CLP in on-plate *S. scabies* inhibition (Figure 5C). Wild type (WT) Ps682 appeared to specifically colonise the *S. scabies* streak, whereas Ps682 $\Delta visc$ 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 (67). To distinguish between these possible inhibition modes, a constitutively-expressed *lux* operon was integrated into the chromosomal *att::Tn7* site (68) of Ps682 to visualise this interaction by bioluminescence. This clearly showed viscosin-dependent *Pseudomonas* colonisation of the *Streptomyces* streaks (Figure 5C).

Figure 5 The role of the Ps682 CLP gene cluster in *S. scabies* suppression. (A) BGC showing homology to the *P. fluorescens* SBW25 viscosin BGC. 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, and small grey circles are peptidyl carrier protein domains. Amino acids incorporated by each module are displayed (red indicates where the antiSMASH prediction either does not correspond to the structure). (B) LC-MS analysis of CLP production in the WT strain and a mutant (Ps682 $\Delta visc$) with an in-frame deletion of NRPS gene 04228. The predicted structure is based on MS² analysis and comparison to a viscosin standard produced by *P. fluorescens* SBW25 (Figures S10 and S11). (C) On-plate *S. scabies* suppression activity of Ps682 alongside Ps682 $\Delta visc$ shown as cross-streaks using strains with and without the *lux* operon. Colour in the lower plates indicates bioluminescence detected using a NightOWL camera (Berthold Technologies).

Hydrogen cyanide and CLP production both contribute to *S. scabies* inhibition

Pan-genome analysis showed that HCN production was predicted for a significant number of suppressive strains ($p = 0.47$, 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 (19, 27, 69). 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 (70, 71). We confirmed that nearly every strain with the *hcnABC* gene cluster produced HCN (18 out of 19) using the Feigl Anger colorimetric detection reagent (72) (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 ($p = 0.52$, Figure S18), 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 lipopeptide production, Ps619 was investigated as this strain produces both HCN and a tensin-like compound (Figure 2 and Figure 6A). A tensin BGC has not previously been reported, but the predicted amino acid specificity, mass (Figure 6A) and MS² fragmentation (Figure S12) indicated that seven isolates produce tensin-like CLPs (Figure 3D). The *hcn* and *ten* gene clusters were inactivated by in-frame deletions to generate single and double mutants of Ps619, and the resulting Δhcn , Δten and $\Delta hcn\Delta ten$ 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 Δhcn and Δten single mutants both retained some inhibitory activity towards *S. scabies*, whereas the Ps619 $\Delta hcn\Delta ten$ double mutant could not inhibit *S. scabies*.

Figure 6 The role of the Ps619 CLP and HCN gene clusters in *S. scabies* suppression. (A) Organisation of the CLP NRPS from Ps619 alongside a predicted structure of the tensin-like molecule and LC-MS analysis of CLP production in WT Ps619 and a mutant (Ps619 Δten) with an in-frame deletion of NRPS gene 02981. (B) Cross streak assays of Ps619 and associated mutants with *S. scabies*. (C) CryoSEM 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 S19). Notably, Ps619 Δhcn was able to induce a developmental defect in *S. scabies* at the microbial interface that was not present in Ps619 Δten or Ps619 $\Delta hcn \Delta ten$, showing that the tensin-like CLP induces a developmental defect in *S. scabies* that is independent of *Pseudomonas* motility. This analysis also clearly showed that at areas distant from the bacterial interaction, *S. scabies* grew more vigorously when cultured

with Δhcn 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 S19).

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 (CryoSEM). 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 (73, 74). CryoSEM indicated that both the Ps619 Δhcn and Δten mutants induced a similar partially bald phenotype in *S. scabies*, but the $\Delta hcn\Delta ten$ 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 S20). This appears as a clear boundary between Ps619 $\Delta hcn\Delta ten$ (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 S20), while the CLP also functions as a surfactant enabling Ps619 motility, promoting *Pseudomonas* invasion of the *Streptomyces* cross-streak.

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

To determine whether the strains and metabolites we identified specifically suppress *S. scabies* or have suppressive activity towards a range of plant pathogens, we investigated the ability of the potato field strain collection to suppress the growth of the destructive plant pathogens *Phytophthora infestans*, the oomycete that causes potato blight (75), and *Gaeumannomyces graminis* var. *tritici*, the fungus that causes take-all disease of cereal crops (18). Notably, this revealed strong positive correlations between suppressive phenotypes for each of the pathogens tested (a correlation coefficient of 0.55 between *S. scabies* and *P. infestans* inhibition, Figure S8). More generally, there was strong congruence between the genotypes that correlated (positively and negatively) with suppression of each pathogen (Figure 7A).

HCN and CLPs have both previously been identified as inhibitors of oomycete and fungal growth(19, 26). To assess whether these natural products are critical for inhibition of *P. infestans* and *G. graminis* by Ps619 and Ps682, our HCN/CLP mutants were tested for inhibitory activity (Figure 7). Surprisingly, neither HCN or tensin were required for Ps619 inhibition of either *G. graminis* (Figure 7B) or *P. infestans* (Figure S21), indicating the production of at least one other

secreted inhibitory factor. In contrast, inactivation of the viscosin-like pathway in Ps682 abolished bioactivity towards both pathogens (Figure 7C). 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).

Figure 7 *Pseudomonas* suppression of *P. infestans* and *G. graminis*. (A) Heatmap of Pearson correlation coefficients of pathogen inhibition versus genotypes and phenotypes (see Figure S8 for full correlations). The same colour scale as Figure 3A is used. (B) On-plate inhibition of *G. graminis* growth by WT and mutant Ps619 strains. See Figure S21 for an analysis of *P. infestans* growth. (C) WT and mutant Ps682 activity towards *P. infestans* and *G. graminis*.

Multiple accessory genome loci (Figure 7A) are strongly correlated with pathogen suppression and these are often associated with the same subset of strains (Figure 3C). These loci include chitinases (76), the extracellular alkaline metalloprotease AprA (77) and the *pga* operon, which produces the biofilm structural polymer poly-β-1,6-N-acetyl-D-glucosamine (78). Phenotypically, extracellular protease activity also positively correlates with suppression. The gene cluster that correlated most strongly with *S. scabiei* suppression was Pep1 (“Peptide 1”), while the related Pep2 also correlated strongly ($\rho = 0.57$ and 0.50 , respectively, Figure 3A). These were identified by antiSMASH as putative “bacteriocin” BGCs, as they encode short peptides (DUF2282 family) alongside DUF692 and DUF2063 proteins (Figure S9). Nothing is known about DUF2282 peptides, whereas the DUF692 protein family includes MbnB, which

was recently characterised as a dioxygenase involved in methanobactin biosynthesis (79) and PmaH, an iron-dependent dioxygenase involved in the biosynthesis of 3-thiaglutarate in *Pseudomonas syringae* (80). Studies in other bacteria indicate that DUF692 and DUF2063 may be involved in a heavy metal and/or oxidative stress responses (81-83). Further work is ongoing to determine the significance of both the Pep gene clusters 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). Interestingly 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 natural product gene clusters 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. scabiei* suppression (Figure 8A). Our results were in strong agreement with the first sample set, including strong positive correlations between *S. scabiei* inhibition, motility and HCN production (Figure 8B). Pseudomonads with these traits were more likely to be found in the rhizosphere, and this was more pronounced in the unirrigated samples, where statistically significant differences (p-values <0.001) between the root and soil populations were observed for each trait (Figure 8A). In addition, analysis of the samples isolated from roots showed that motility, HCN production and *S. scabiei* suppression were all negatively correlated with irrigation, but these correlations were not observed in the strains isolated from bulk soil (Figure 8B).

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 using chi-squared tests where ns (not significant) = $p \geq 0.05$, * = $p < 0.05$, ** = $p < 0.01$, *** = $p < 0.001$. (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 specialised 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. It is possible that a protective microbiome in irrigated conditions actually contains a mixture of *S. scabiei*-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 (54, 84).

Discussion

Prior studies on the suppression of potato scab have indicated a potential biocontrol role for *Pseudomonas* bacteria (20, 28, 29). Fluorescent pseudomonads form multiple beneficial relationships with plants, including growth promotion and biocontrol (9, 85). 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 and molecular biology to identify the genetic determinants of *Pseudomonas* antagonism towards *S. scabiei*. 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). The genetic and metabolic diversity of various genera or species groups have previously been investigated in detail for several bacteria, including *Salinospora* (86), *Rhodococcus* (87) and *Pseudoalteromonas* (88), *Burkholderia* (89) as well as prior studies on *P. fluorescens* (7, 14, 15) and wider analyses of prokaryote secondary metabolism (41) and its biogeographic distribution (90). However, these studies typically focus on the biosynthetic capacity and associated phylogenetic relationships of globally distributed strains rather than addressing the distribution and dynamics of natural product production for bacteria within a defined geographic region.

Multiple biosynthetic gene clusters and accessory genome loci were identified that correlated with on-plate inhibition of *S. scabiei* growth and development (Figure 3), including BGCs for cyclic lipopeptides and hydrogen cyanide. 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. scabiei* inhibition (Figures 5 and 6), representing a new function for these *Pseudomonas* specialized metabolites. Co-culture assays and CryoSEM imaging (Figure 6C) showed that HCN and cyclic lipopeptides produced by Ps619 arrest the formation of streptomycete aerial hyphae and subsequent sporulation, providing the pseudomonad with a competitive advantage at the microbial interface. The roles of the CLPs are reminiscent of the interaction between *B. subtilis* and *Streptomyces coelicolor*, where surfactin functions as a surfactant required for the formation of aerial structures in *B. subtilis* and arrests aerial development in *S. coelicolor* (59). Collectively, these results are surprising given that streptomycetes themselves use surfactants to assist in the erection of aerial mycelia (91, 92) and point to secondary antagonistic roles for these molecules beyond the reduction of surface tension.

HCN and CLPs have also been associated with insect (27) and nematode (69) killing and the suppression of other pathogenic fungi (26, 93). 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 encode the biosynthetic potential to make multiple suppressive metabolites and proteins. Evidence for this is provided by the inhibition of both *P. infestans* and *G. graminis* by Ps619 $\Delta hcn\Delta ten$ (Figure 7B and Figure S21). A recent comprehensive 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 (94).

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. There are multiple possible reasons for this discrepancy. Recruitment of non-suppressive pseudomonads to the rhizosphere may benefit the plant in other ways, given that they are more likely to modulate auxin biosynthesis (Figures 2 and 3A). For example, Cheng *et al.* used transposon mutagenesis in the rhizobacterium *P. fluorescens* Pf.SS101 to show that auxin biosynthesis was linked to plant growth promotion and induced systemic resistance, but found no link with volatile or lipopeptide biosynthesis (6), while Mauchline *et al.* (18) also observed a negative correlation between genes for viscosin production and plant hormone manipulation pathways. It is also possible that irrigation enables *Pseudomonas* to out-compete *S. scabies* in the rhizosphere due to relative fitness in wet conditions. 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 (32). 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. Future studies could examine whether the host selects for bacterial populations enriched in specific biosynthetic gene clusters and whether environmental stimuli modulate the abundance of these gene clusters. 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) (95). 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.

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 Na₂HPO₄, 0.24 g KH₂PO₄, 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 (96). 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 (515F/R806) targeting the V4 region, 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

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.* (97) 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 (72), 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.

Streptomyces scabies inhibition: Two parallel lines of *S. scabies* 87-22 spores were streaked onto SFM plates (98) 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.

Phytophthora 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) (99) 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 (18). 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. 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 (100) 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 (101) 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 (102), which implements Prodigal (103) as an open reading frame calling tool. 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 (104). The *gyrB*

sequences from these strains and several reference strains were aligned using MUSCLE 3.8.31 (105) with default settings, then a maximum likelihood tree was calculated using FastTree MP (106) using default parameters on the CIPRES portal (107). 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 v3 (108), 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 (109). 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 (110) 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.* (68). Strains were electroporated with plasmids pUC18-mini *Tn7T*-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, 100Å), 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. 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/>) (65). 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 v2.8.3 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>

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[®] (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.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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