

The phytopathogenic nature of Dickeya aquatica 174/2 and the dynamic early evolution of Dickeya pathogenicity

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1 The phytopathogenic nature of *Dickeya aquatica* 174/2 and the dynamic early 2 evolution of *Dickeya* pathogenicity 3 Alexandre Duprey^{a,\$,&}, Najwa Taib^{b,\$,#}, Simon Leonard^a, Tiffany Garin^b, Jean-Pierre Flandrois^b, 4 5 William Nasser^a, Céline Brochier-Armanet^{b*}, Sylvie Reverchon^{a*} \$: equally contributing authors 6 7 ^a Univ Lyon, Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, INSA-Lyon, CNRS, UMR5240, Microbiologie, 8 Adaptation et Pathogénie, 10 rue Raphaël Dubois, F-69622, Villeurbanne, France ^b Univ Lyon, Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, CNRS, UMR5558, Laboratoire de Biométrie et 9 10 Biologie Évolutive, 43 bd du 11 novembre 1918, F-69622, Villeurbanne, France 11 12 *Corresponding authors 13 E-mail: Sylvie.reverchon-pescheux@insa-lyon.fr, Celine.brochier-armanet@univ-lyon1.fr 14 UMR5240 CNRS-UCBL-INSA, 10 rue Raphaël Dubois, F69622 Villeurbanne Cedex, France 15 Tel: (33) 472 43 26 95; Fax: (33) 472 43 26 86 16 17 Running title: Dickeya aquatica 174/2 complete genome 18 Keywords: Genome evolution, systematics, adaptation, virulence, plant cell wall degrading 19 enzymes 20 21 # Present address: Hub bioinformatique et biostatistique; Unité de Biologie Evolutive de la cellule 22 microbienne, Département de Microbiologie, Institut Pasteur, Paris, France 23 & Present address: Department of Microbial Pathogenesis, Yale School of Medicine, 295 Congress

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Originality-Significance statement

Although the reach of large-scale comparative studies has spread exponentially over the years, the phytopathogenic *Dickeya* group remains overlooked. In this work, we sequence the complete genome of *Dickeya aquatica* type strain, a species isolated from water that was first assumed to be non-phytopathogenic. We show that the proteome of *D. aquatica* contains a wide number of proteins involved in *Dickeya* virulence, including plant cell wall degrading enzymes, suggesting that this species could be in fact pathogenic. Using experimental approaches, we confirm this prediction and uncover the particular affinity of *D. aquatica* for acidic fruits. In-depth phylogenomic analyses reveal that *Dickeya* species display a great degree of genetic plasticity in the pathogenicity determinants, explaining how this bacterial group was able to colonize a wide variety of plants growing in different climates. These observations greatly advance our understanding of how bacteria adapt to new ecological niches.

Summary

Dickeya is a genus of phytopathogenic enterobacterales causing soft rot in a variety of plants (e.g. potato, chicory, maize). Among the species affiliated to this genus, Dickeya aquatica, described in 2014, remained particularly mysterious because it had no known host. Furthermore, while D. aquatica was proposed to represent a deep-branching species among Dickeya genus, its precise phylogenetic position remained elusive. Here, we report the complete genome sequence of the D. aquatica type strain 174/2. We demonstrate the affinity of D. aquatica strain 174/2 for acidic fruits such as tomato and cucumber, and show that exposure of this bacterium to acidic pH induces twitching motility. An in-depth phylogenomic analysis of all available Dickeya proteomes pinpoints D. aquatica as the second deepest branching lineage within this genus and reclassifies two lineages that likely correspond to new genomospecies (gs.): Dickeya gs. poaceaephila (Dickeya sp NCPPB 569) and Dickeya gs. undicola (Dickeya sp 2B12), together with a new putative genus, tentatively named Prodigiosinella. Finally, from comparative analyses of *Dickeya* proteomes we infer the complex evolutionary history of this genus, paving the way to study the adaptive patterns and processes of Dickeya to different environmental niches and hosts. In particular, we hypothetize that the lack of xylanases and xylose degradation pathways in *D. aquatica* could reflects adaptation to aquatic charophyte hosts which, in contrast to land plants, do not contain xyloglucans.

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Introduction

Enterobacterales represent one of the most studied orders of Gammaproteobacteria. According to current systematics, Enterobacterales are divided into eight families: Enterobacteriaceae, Yersiniaceae, Thorselliaceae, Hafniaceae, Morganellaceae, Budviciaceae, Erwiniaceae, and Pectobacteriaceae. Enterobacterales are widespread, being found in very different environments such as soils, fresh water, ocean, sediments, and many of them are associated with plants and animals, including insects and humans (Brenner and Farmer III, 2005). Enterobacterales include also important model organisms such as Escherichia coli, human pathogens such as Salmonella, Shigella, and Yersinia (Dekker and Frank, 2015), and plant pathogens such as Erwiniaceae (e.g. Erwinia, Pantoea, Phaseolibacter) and Pectobacteriaceae (e.g. Pectobacterium, Dickeya, Brenneria, Lonsdalea) (Hauben et al., 1998; Samson et al., 2005). These phytopathogens share virulence genes with zoopathogens such as type III secretion systems (T3SS) that inject effector proteins in eukaryotic cells to suppress the host innate immune defence (Buttner, 2016). They also produce specialized plant virulence factors such as pectinases found in pectinolytic bacteria (Hugouvieux-Cotte-Pattat et al., 2014). Among pectinolytic enterobacterales, Dickeya is the causative agent of soft rot in a wide variety of plants including economically important crops (e.g. potato, chicory, maize, rice, tomato, sugar beet, pineapple, banana) and many ornamental plants (Ma et al., 2007). This causes substantial production losses amounting, for instance for potato, to tens of millions of Euros/year in Europe (Toth et al., 2011). The Dickeya genus was first described by Samson et al. (2005), who initially distinguished six species: Dickeya dadantii, Dickeya dieffenbachiae, Dickeya chrysanthemi, Dickeya zeae, and Dickeya dianthicola. Subsequently, Dickeya Dickeya paradisiaca, dieffenbachiae has been reclassified as D. dadantii subsp. dieffenbachiae (Brady et al., 2012). More recently, three additional Dickeya species have been described: D. solani, a species isolated

from potatoes and hyacinth (Van der Wolf et al., 2014; Slawiak et al., 2009), Dickeya aquatica from freshwater rivers (Parkinson et al., 2014), and Dickeya fangzhongdai from pear trees displaying symptoms of bleeding canker in China (Tian et al., 2016). Thus, the Dickeya genus now comprises eight species with distinctive phenotypic features (Supplementary Table S1). Virulence mechanisms have been extensively studied in *Dickeya dadantii*. During infection, the bacterium enters the host using natural openings and multiplies in intercellular spaces without causing major damage. Then, it suddenly induces the production of aggression factors, such as pectinases, that break down the plant cell wall pectin, causing the macroscopic symptom called soft rot (Reverchon and Nasser, 2013). Dickeya populations were initially considered to be restricted to tropical and subtropical plant hosts and areas (Perombelon, 1990). This assumption was called into question following the identification of D. dianthicola strains from potato plants in Western Europe (Janse and Ruissen, 1988) and the first isolation of *D. solani* strains from potato plants in France, Finland, Poland, the Netherlands, and Israel (Czajkowski et al., 2011; van der Wolf et al., 2014). Strains of D. solani have also been isolated from hyacinth in Netherlands and it was proposed a possible transfer from hyacinth to potato, via contaminated irrigation waters (Sławiak et al., 2009). Finally, it was postulated that the dissemination of the pathogen in Europe has occurred via the international trade of potato seeds (van der Wolf et al., 2014). This highlights the high capacity of adaptation and dissemination of *Dickeya* to new geographic areas and to new hosts. According to a large phylogenomic analysis of 895 single copy gene families, D. paradisiaca was pinpointed as the first diverging species within *Dickeya*, while other species formed two groups, referred hereafter as to clusters I and II (Zhang et al., 2016). Cluster I encompassed D. zeae and D. chrysanthemi, while in cluster II, D. solani and D. dadantii formed the sister-lineage of D. dianthicola (Zhang et al., 2016). Species corresponding to these two clusters display different behaviours. For example, in temperate climate, D. chrysanthemi and D. zeae were frequently isolated from water and were rarely associated to potato infections, contrarily to D. dianthicola and D. solani (Potrykus et al. 2016). It is noteworthy, that in this study, strains M074 and M005, annotated as D. chrysanthemi and D. solani, respectively, branch in-between D. dianthicola and the D. solani / D. dadantii group within Cluster II, thus far away from the type strains of their

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species (Zhang et al., 2016). D. fangzhongdai branched at the base of the Cluster II in a tree based on seven housekeeping genes (Tian et al., 2016). Finally, according to a tree based on six housekeeping genes, D. aquatica emerge just after the divergence of D. paradisiaca but before the divergence of Cluster I and Cluster II (Parkinson et al., 2014). Yet, the associated bootstrap values were weak (Parkinson et al., 2014), meaning that the relative order of emergence of D. paradisiaca and D. aquatica remained to determine. Among Dickeya, D. aquatica is remarkable because all the three known strains 174/2^T, 181/2, and Dw0440 have been isolated from waterways and, in contrast to other species, have no known vegetal host (Supplementary Table S1) (Parkinson et al., 2014; Ma et al., 2007). These features and its early-branching position within Dickeya make D. aquatica very interesting to study the origin and the early steps of the diversification of Dickeya. and in particular, the emergence of their virulence factors and capacity to infect plants. These important questions were the focus of this study. For this purpose, we sequence the complete genome of the D. aquatica 174/2 type strain. Based on the phylogenetic analysis of 1,341 single copy core protein families, we show that D. aquatica represents the second deepest branching lineage within Dickeya, reclassify two lineages that likely correspond to new genomospecies (gs.): Dickeya gs. poaceaephila and Dickeya gs. undicola, and identify a new lineage, tentatively called Prodigiosinella, that likely represents the closest relative of Dickeya. We also highlight the presence of different virulence factors, suggesting that D. aquatica 174/2 could be pathogenic. Stimulated by these findings, we explore the pathogenic potential of *D. aquatica* 174/2. Surprisingly, we identify the acidic fruits tomato (pH 4.8) and cucumber (pH 5.1) as potential hosts for D. aquatica, reflecting the potential of this aquatic species to flexibly adapt to a new ecological niche provided by acidic fruits with a high water content. Accordingly, we show that this strain displays a specific induction of twitching motility under acidic conditions. Finally, using phylogenomic approaches, we trace back the origin and evolution of key factors associated with virulence and host specificity in Dickeya, including D. aquatica. From this study we infer the evolution of gene repertoires along the diversification of Dickeya and highlight a remarkable

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general tendency toward proteome reduction in all Dickeya species.

Results and discussion

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138 General genomic features of D. aquatica 174/2 type strain

The *D. aquatica* 174/2^T genome consists in a single circular chromosome of 4,501,560 base pairs in size, with a GC content of 54.6%. The sequence was submitted to European Nucleotide Archive (accession GCA 900095885). This genome contains a total of 4,202 genes including 4,080 protein-coding DNA sequences (CDS), 22 ribosomal RNA-coding genes organized into seven operons, 76 tRNA-coding genes, and 23 non-coding RNA genes identified by sequence similarity with known functional RNAs entries in the RFAM database (Daub et al., 2015) (Figure 1). These features are typical of Dickeya species (Supplementary Table S2). The origin of chromosome replication (oriC position 1-8 bp) was predicted between mnmG/qidA and mioC as observed in Escherichia coli (Wolanski et al., 2014) and other enterobacterales, including Dickeya (Glasner et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2015; Khayi et al., 2016). The terminus of replication is predicted between positions 2,220,802 and 2,220,829 bp with the D. aquatica $174/2^{T}$ site (GGTTCGCATAATGTATATGTTAAAT) differing from the E. coli K-12 Dif site by only one nucleotide substitution (GGTGCGCATAATGTATATTATGTTAAAT). The distance from oriC to the predicted terminus was nearly equal for the two halves of the chromosome. It corresponds to a region near an inflection point in a slight strand-specific nucleotide compositional bias (Figure 1). The protein coding density is 85% of the genome with a slight preference for the leading strand utilization (57%). This density of predicted ORFs (slightly less than one per kilobase) is typical for Enterobacterales, including Dickeya species (Supplementary Table S2) (Glasner et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2015; Khayi et al., 2016). Thus, despite its different ecological niche, D. aquatica shows genomic organisation very similar to other species of the Dickeya genus.

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Deciphering the early evolution of Dickeya

The massive release of *Dickeya* genomic sequences (7 complete genomes and 41 draft genomes) in public databases (Supplementary Table S3), in addition to the complete genome of *D. aquatica* $174/2^{T}$ reported in this study, provided an interesting resource to explore the evolutionary history of this genus. We investigated the phylogeny of *Dickeya* using 51 ribosomal proteins (rprots), as

these were shown to be well suited to study the systematics of prokaryotes, especially Proteobacteria (Yutin et al., 2012; Ramulu et al., 2014), on the one hand, and 1,341 core protein families (core-pf), on the other hand. The maximum likelihood rprots tree, rooted with Pectobacterium (Pectobacteriaceae) and Serratia (Yersiniaceae), recovered the monophyly of Dickeya (Bootstrap Value (BV) = 100%, Supplementary Figure S1), Surprisingly, Serratia strains, used as outgroup to root the phylogeny of Dickeya together with Pectobacterium, did not form a monophyletic group, due to the robust clustering of Serratia sp. ATCC 39006 with Dickeya (BV = 99%). A similar grouping was also observed in trees based on the RNA components of the small and large subunits of the ribosome (SSU and LSU rRNA, respectively) (Supplementary Figure S2), suggesting that strain ATCC 39006 represents the sister-lineage of Dickeya, and was wrongly affiliated to the Serratia, based on its capacity to synthesize prodigiosin, a red pigment secondary metabolite with antimicrobial, anticancer, and immunosuppressant properties, characteristic of Serratia species (Thomson et al., 2000). The sister-relationship of ATCC 39006 and Dickeya is consistent with the close evolutionary link between the pectinolytic gene clusters (pel. paeY, pemA) shared by these taxa (Duprey et al., 2016b), and with the presence, in Serratia sp. ATCC 39006, of an homologue of the Vfm quorum sensing system previously reported as specific to Dickeya species (Supplementary Table S4 and Figure S3) (Nasser et al., 2013). The phylogenetic analysis of the genes involved in the biosynthesis of the prodigiosin showed that strain ATCC 39006 genes emerge in a cluster gathering sequences from unrelated taxa: Serratia (Yersiniaceae), Hahella (Hahellaceae), and Streptomyces (Actinobacteria), suggesting that the prodigiosin gene cluster spread among these lineages (including ATCC 39006 strain) through horizontal gene transfer (HGT) (Supplementary Figure S3). Interestingly, strain ATCC 39006, like the early-diverging D. paradisiaca species, was deprived of the indABC gene cluster responsible for the characteristic production of blue-pigmented indigoidine in Dickeya spp. (Supplementary Table S4) (Reverchon et al., 2002; Lee and Yu, 2006). Phylogenetic analyses showed that Dickeya IndA, IndB, and IndC proteins are closed to sequences from unrelated bacteria (Supplementary Figure S3), suggesting that indigoidine genes underwent HGT and have been secondarily acquired in Dickeya after the divergence with D. paradisiaca. The evolutionary link between strain ATCC 39006 and Dickeya is

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193 also consistent with comparison of their proteomes. In fact, strain ATCC 39006 share in average 194 more proteins families with Dickeya (2,554/4,221 - 60.5%), compared to Pectobacterium 195 (2,387/4,221 - 56.5%) or other Serratia species (2,162/4,221 - 51.2%) (Supplementary Table S5). 196 Yet, the large evolutionary distance between ATCC 39006 strain and Dickeya (Supplementary 197 Figure S1), its lower GC content (49.2% vs 52.6 - 56.9% in *Dickeya*) (Supplementary Table S3), 198 and the lower number of protein families shared between ATCC 39006 and Dickeya (60.5%) 199 compared to between Dickeya species (64.7% - 89.6%, Supplementary Table S5), suggested that 200 strain ATCC 39006 does not belong to Dickeya and represents rather a close but distinct lineage, 201 possibly a new genus, that we propose to call Prodigiosinella, with strain ATCC 39006 being reclassified as Prodigiosinella confusarubida. By using leBIBIQBPP phylogenetic SSU rRNA-based 202 203 positioning tool (Flandrois et al., 2015), we detected two Erwinia sp. Strains: MK01 (SSU 204 accession number at the NCBI: AY690711.1) and MK09 (SSU accession number at the NCBI: 205 AY690717.1), isolated from the rhizosphere of *Phragmites communis*, that were very closely 206 related to ATCC 39006 and could belong to P. confusarubida. 207 According to these results and to decrease computation time, the core-pf phylogeny was inferred 208 using P. confusarubida ATCC 39006 as outgroup. The maximum likelihood core-pf and rprots trees 209 displayed similar topologies (Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure S1), excepted regarding D. 210 chrysanthemi, D. sp. NCPPB 569, and D. solani (see below). Worth to note, the rprots tree was 211 overall less resolved than the core-pf tree (i.e. the former displayed lower BV than the latter). Both 212 trees supported the monophyly of D. paradisiaca, D. aquatica, D. zeae, D. dianthicola, D. dadantii, 213 and D. solani (BV \geq 84%). The monophyly of D. chrysanthemi was recovered with core-pf (BV = 214 100%) but not with rprots. In fact, while the relationships among D. chrysanthemi strains were 215 strongly supported in the core-pf tree, they were mostly unresolved (i.e. associated to weak BV) 216 with rprots, meaning that these markers did not contain enough phylogenetic signal to resolved the 217 D. chrysanthemi phylogeny. A composite group composed of strains annotated as D. sp., D. 218 solani, and D. chrysanthemi: M074, M005, B16, MK7, S1, NCPPB 3274, and ND14b (formerly 219 misidentified as Cedecea neteri and transferred recently to D. solani) was present in both trees (BV 220 ≥ 95%). By using leBIBIQBPP tool (Flandrois et al., 2015), we identified strains B16, MK7, and S1 as

222 2018). 223 Cluster I (D. zeae and D. chrysanthemi) and cluster II (D. dianthicola, D. solani, D. dadantii, D. 224 fangzhongdai and D. undicola) were monophyletic (core-pf: both BV ≥ 100% and rprots: both BV ≥ 225 80%, respectively). Within cluster II, D. fangzhongdai diverged first (BV = 100%), while D. solani 226 represented either the sister-group of D. dadantii (core-pf: BV = 100%) or D. dianthicola (rprots: BV 227 = 98%). The conflicting position of *D. solani* was supported by high BV in both trees, indicating a 228 real inconsistence between the two trees. To go further, approximately unbiased tests (Shimodaira 229 2002) performed on individual core-pf and rprots by using the core-pf and the rprots maximum 230 likelihood topologies (Supplementary Table S6). These tests showed that 1,063 out of 1,341 231 (79.3%) core-pf protein families reject the rprots topology, while 853 out of 1,341 (63.6%) core-pf 232 protein families do not reject the core-pf topology. In contrast, 31.4% of the rprots do not reject the 233 core-pf topology and 29.4% do not reject the rprots topology. Thus, a large majority of core-pf 234 protein families favour the core-pf topology, while an equal number of rprots supports either one or 235 the other topology. Accordingly, the rprots topology and in particular the grouping of D. solani with 236 D. dianthicola could be questioned. 237 Regarding the first divergences within Dickeya, both trees pinpointed D. paradisiaca and D. 238 aquatica, as early diverging lineages (core-pf: BV = 100%, rprots: BV = 86%), with D. paradisiaca 239 emerging first (core-pf: BV = 100%, rprots: BV = 65%). Finally, the core-pf placed robustly D. sp. 240 NCPPB 569, a strain isolated from sugarcane in Australia (Supplementary Table S3), at the base 241 of Cluster I (BV = 100%), while its position was unresolved in the rprots tree (i.e. unsupported 242 grouping with D. aquatica, BV = 46%). Irrespective of its position, the evolutionary distances 243 between strain NCPPB 569 and the eight Dickeya species were roughly similar, suggesting 244 NCPPB 569 could correspond to an independent lineage within *Dickeya*. This observation was in 245 agreement with a previous work based on the phylogenetic analysis of recA (Parkinson et al. 246 2009), and led us to propose that strain NCPPB 569 could represent a distinct genomospecies, we 247 proposed to name Dickeya gs. poaceaephila. This hypothesis was strengthened by the fact that

D. fangzhongdai, suggesting that the whole clade could correspond to D. fangzhongdai (Alič et al.,

strain NCPPB 569 could be distinguished from other species according to shared protein families (Figure 2 and Supplementary Figure S4). Among cluster II, Dickeya sp. 2B12 deserved attention. In fact, this strain branched as a distant sister-lineage of *D. fangzhongdai* (core-pf: BV = 100% and rprots: BV = 95%). This suggested that this strain could also represent a new genomospecies that we have tentatively called *Dickeya* gs. undicola. Altogether, the analysis of more than one thousand core protein families and ribosomal proteins allows to resolve most of the speciation events within Dickeya and provides a solid framework to investigate the origin and the evolution of important *Dickeya* biological features. As expected, both trees were largely consistent, even if the rprots tree was globally less resolved, in particular regarding D. chrysanthemi and Dickeya gs. poaceaephila. The main inconsistency concerned the relative order of divergence of D. dadantii, D. dianthicola, and D. solani within cluster II. Approximately unbiased tests suggested that rprots could contain a mix phylogenetic signal, and thus that the rprots tree could be less reliable than the core-pf tree. Determining the origin of the conflicting signal in rprots would require more investigations that are beyond the scope of the study. Because D. solani is a relatively late diverging lineage within Dickeya, we anticipated that this will not impact significantly inferences on the ancient Dickeya evolution. Nevertheless, in all analyses (e.g. evolution of virulence related systems, inference of ancestral gene repertoires, see below), we used the species tree based on core-pf, but by considering both possible placements for D. solani: either as the sister-group of D. dadantii or D. dianthicola. Regarding D. aquatica, the core-pf tree suggested that this species represent the second diverging lineage with Dickeya, while its position was unresolved according to rprots. Our analyses also reclassified strain ATCC 39006 as Prodigiosinella confusarubida, which could represent the closest relative of Dickeya genus. Better characterization of the biology and diversity of Prodigiosinella will provide important clues about their evolutionary links with Dickeya and the emergence of Dickeya as a genus.

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Virulence-associated phenotypes of D. aquatica

While most *Dickeya* species have known vegetal hosts, all the identified strains of *D. aquatica* (174/2^T, 181/2 and Dw0440) have been isolated from waterways (Supplementary Table S1)

276 (Parkinson et al., 2014). To our knowledge, their pathogenicity has never been demonstrated. The 277 in silico survey of the D. aquatica 174/2^T genome for transcriptional regulator binding sites revealed 278 the presence of conserved key regulators of virulence (Supplementary Table S7). More precisely, 279 all the regulators (KdgR, PecS, PecT, CRP, Fis, H-NS, GacA-GacS, RsmA-RsmB, MfbR) 280 controlling virulence gene expression in D. dadantii (Reverchon et al., 2016) are present in D. 281 aquatica 174/2^T. The global regulators FNR and CRP displayed the highest number (approximately 282 80) of targets, followed by Fur, CpxR, ArcA, Lrp and KdgR each with more than 30 targets. The 283 activator CRP and the repressor KdgR have a key role in *Dickeya* virulence (Duprey et al., 2016a), 284 as they tighly control the pectin degradation pathway and are involved in coupling central 285 metabolism to pectinase gene expression (Nasser et al., 1997), while Fur acts as a repressor of 286 pectinase genes (Franza et al., 2002). In addition, Fur represses genes involved in the metabolism 287 of iron, a metal that plays an important role as a virulence regulatory signal in Dickeya (Franza et 288 al., 2002). The presence of regulators controlling the virulence in *D. aquatica* 174/2^T was puzzling and 289 290 prompted us to investigate its pathogenicity. For this, we compared the pathogenic potential of D. 291 aquatica $174/2^{T}$ and D. dadantii 3937 on various infection models such as chicory leaves, potato 292 tubers, cucumbers and tomato fruits (Figure 3). D. aquatica showed little efficiency in rotting potato 293 and chicory. Indeed, only a small rotten area was observed near the entry point, opposed to D. 294 dadantii, which spread inside the tuber or the leaf (Figure 3). Surprisingly, D. aquatica appeared 295 particularly efficient on tomatoes and cucumbers, showing a generalised infection and fruit opening 296 after 42 hours. By contrast, D. dadantii was much less efficient in infecting tomatoes and 297 cucumbers. Importantly, tomatoes and cucumbers are acidic fruits (pH 4.8 and pH 5.1, 298 respectively), whereas potato tubers and chicory leaves display higher pH (around 6.0 and 6.5, 299 respectively), suggesting that D. aquatica could be more efficient on acidic fruits. Yet, neither D. 300 aquatica nor D. dadantii are able to induce pathogenic symptoms on very acidic fruits such as 301 pineapple (pH 4) or kiwi (pH 3) (Figure 3B). Previous studies have shown that some unrelated 302 Dickeya species (i.e. D. chrysanthemi, D. dianthicola) are also capable of infecting tomatoes 303 (Supplementary Table S1), supporting the hypothesis that recurrent adaptations to similar hosts

occurred independently during the evolution of *Dickeya* genus.

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Stress resistance phenotypes of D. aquatica

Osmotic stress

Depending on the plant host, Dickeya species encounter various stresses during the infectious process (Reverchon et al., 2016). We therefore assessed stress resistance of *D. aquatica* 174/2^T (Figure 4). This strain proved to be very sensitive to osmotic stress, as it displayed a 50% growth rate reduction on 0.3 M NaCl while D. dadantii was only slightly affected (20% growth rate reduction). This effect was even more pronounced on 0.5 M NaCl with a growth rate reduction of 90 % for D. aquatica and 43% for D. dadantii (Figure 4A). This sensitivity to osmotic stress could be linked to the lack of two osmoprotectant biosynthetic pathways in D. aquatica: glycine betaine biosynthesis (betA-betB gene cluster) and phosphoglycosyl glycerate biosynthesis (pggS-pggP gene cluster) (Jiang et al., 2016) (Supplementary Table S4). The pggSP gene cluster was present in P. confusarubida and all Dickeya species except D. aquatica. The phylogeny of the two genes was consistent with the phylogeny of species (Supplementary Figure S3), indicating that their absence in D. aquatica results from a specific and secondary loss in this taxon. In contrast, the betABI gene cluster was absent in D. paradisiaca, D. aquatica, D. dianthicola and Cluster I species (Supplementary Table S4). Their phylogenies suggested that the betABI gene cluster could have been present in the ancestor of *P. confusarubida* and *Dickeya*, and secondarily and independently lost in the Dickeya lineages mentioned above (Supplementary Figure S3). Finally, the ousA gene encoding the major osmoprotectant uptake system in D. dadantii is missing in D. aquatica, as well as in most other Dickeya species, suggesting either a recent acquisition by a few species or multiple losses of an ancestral system (Supplementary Table S4). Interestingly, D. solani and D. dianthicola, both lacking the ousA gene, are also more sensitive to osmotic stress than D. dadantii (Figure 4B).

Oxidative stress

330 *D. aquatica* $174/2^{T}$ was also very sensitive to oxidative stress, displaying longer lag time than *D.* 331 *dadantii* in presence of 75 μ M H₂O₂ (Figure 4C). This is consistent with the lack of the periplasmic

superoxide dismutase SodC, whose gene was likely acquired in Dickeya after the divergence of D. paradisiaca and D. aquatica (Supplementary Figure S3), and the lack of the Fe-S cluster assembly SUF system (Supplementary Table S4). Iron-sulfur (Fe-S) clusters are fundamental to numerous biological processes in most organisms, but these protein cofactors can be prone to damage by various oxidants (e.g., O₂, reactive oxygen species, and reactive nitrogen species) (Roche et al., 2013). In addition, the release of free iron in the bacterial cytoplasm amplifies the oxidative stress through the Fenton reaction, producing the highly toxic and reactive hydroxyl radical OH. Most gammaproteobacteria have two Fe-S cluster biogenesis systems SUF and ISC (Roche et al., 2013). For example, Escherichia coli cells switch from the ISC to the SUF system under oxidative stress as OxyR, a sensor of oxidative stress, acts as an activator of suf operon expression (Lee et al., 2004). Both the SUF and ISC systems were shown to be required for D. dadantii growth in the plant host environment that is continually changing in terms of iron availability and redox conditions (Nachin et al., 2001; Expert et al., 2008; Rincon-Enriquez et al., 2008). While both the ISC and SUF systems were likely present in the ancestor of Dickeya and P. confusarubida, phylogeny and taxonomic distribution suggested that SUF genes were secondarily lost in D. paradisiaca, D. aguatica, D. qs. poaceaephila, and D. zeae (Supplementary Figure S3). The absence of both the SUF system and SodC in D. aquatica could be an important factor limiting its host range (Supplementary Figure S3). Finally, the presence of the DNA-binding protein Dps, which has a protective function against a wide range of stresses, in P. confusarubida and all Dickeya excepted D. paradisiaca suggested a specific loss in this latter lineage (Supplementary Figure S3). Regarding other oxidative stress sources, the NorWVR system responsible for nitrite oxide detoxification was absent in the first diverging Dickeya species (Supplementary Table S4). The phylogenies of the corresponding proteins suggested secondary losses in P. confusarubida, D. paradisiaca, and D. aquatica, as these proteins were present in Pectobacterium, a closely related genus of Dickeya (Supplementary Figure S3). Finally, the ascorbate degradation pathway encoded by the ula genes was present in the D. paradisiaca, D. aquatica, D. zeae, and D. chrysanthemi species, suggesting that the pathway was also present in the ancestor of Dickeya and secondarily lost in D. gs. poaceaephila and in the ancestor of Cluster II (Supplementary Figure S3). Ascorbic

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acid, the major and probably the only antioxidant buffer in the plant apoplast, becomes oxidised during pathogen attack (Pignocchi and Foyer, 2003). Modification of the apoplastic redox state modulates receptor activity and signal transduction to regulate plant defence and growth (Pignocchi and Foyer, 2003). The capacity of some *Dickeya* species to catabolize ascorbate could be a strategy to weaken the plant defence.

Acidic stress

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Regarding pH sensitivity, both D. aguatica $174/2^{T}$ and D. dadantii showed optimum growth at pH 7.0. D. aguatica $174/2^{T}$ displayed no significant growth rate reduction down to pH 5.3 while D. dadantii was slightly affected (20% growth rate reduction at pH 5.3 compared to optimum pH 7.0) (Figure 4D). Below pH 4.9, the growth of *D. aquatica* abruptly diminished compared to that of *D.* dadantii indicating that D. aquatica growth was much more impacted by low pH (Figure 4D). Bacterial response to acid stress involves evasion of cell damage and adaptation of the enzymatic profile by reducing reactions producing protons and promoting those consuming protons (Bearson et al., 1997). Concerning the protection of proteins against pH damage, *Dickeya* strains, including D. aquatica strain 174/2^T, encode the lysine-rich protein Asr acid-inducible periplasmic chaperone, known to protect the proteins by sequestering protons due to its high basic amino acids composition (Seputiene et al., 2003). In Dickeya, the corresponding gene is located downstream the rstAB gene cluster, known to control the asr gene expression (Ogasawara et al., 2007). Yet, due to their atypical amino acid composition these proteins were often wrongly annotated as histone proteins (e.g. in D. dadantii NCPPB 898, D. dianthicola NCPPB 3534, D. dianthicola NCPPB 453, D. dianthicola GBBC 2039, and D. chrysanthemi ATCC 11663). In terms of metabolic adaptation, a major strategy for bacterial pH homeostasis consists in using decarboxylases to remove cytoplasmic protons (Krulwich et al., 2011). The glutamate-, arginine-, and lysine-inducible decarboxylases classically found in enteric bacteria (Foster, 2004) are absent in *Dickeya* species. However they contain some organic acid decarboxylases such as oxalate and malonate decarboxylases (Supplementary Table S4). Some Dickeya species, including D. dadantii, have two oxalate decarboxylation pathways: the frc-oxc pathway, being involved in the acid tolerance response in E. coli (Fontenot et al., 2013) and the OxdD decarboxylase pathway. Most Dickeya

species harbour at least one of these oxalate decarboxylation pathways, except *D. aquatica*, *D.* gs. poaceaephila, *D. chrysanthemi*, and a few *D. zeae* strains, which were deprived of both pathways (Supplementary Table S4 and Supplementary Figure S3). The lack of the two oxalate-decarboxylation pathways in *D. aquatica* could contribute to its sensitivity to acidic pH. Finally, in contrast with *P. confusarubida* and most *Dickeya* species, *D. aquatica* and a few *D. zeae* strains were also devoid of malonate decarboxylation pathway (mdcABCDEFGHR) (Maderbocus *et al.*, 2017), which consumes protons (Supplementary Table S4), suggesting secondary gene losses in these strains, a hypothesis that was confirmed by phylogenetic analyses (Supplementary Figure S3).

Twitching motility

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Interestingly, colony shape changes were observed when D. aquatica was grown at low pH in presence of malic acid (Figure 5). More precisely, colonies became wider (2-3 folds increase in diameter compared to unstressed D. aquatica) with a morphology characteristic of twitching motility (Henrichsen, 1972). Correspondingly, we detected genes encoding a complete type IV pilus assembly responsible for twitching motility in D. aquatica genome and named them pil genes according the Pseudomonas aeruginosa nomenclature (Maier and Wong, 2015). Among the collection of twenty-six *Dickeya* strains representing different species, only eight showed twitching at acidic pH (Figure 5). Interestingly, this phenotype appeared strain-dependent rather than species-dependent, as D. solani, strain RNS07.7.3B showed twitching motility at acidic pH, while D. solani strain PP09019 did not (Figure 5). As the pil genes, inherited by Dickeya from the common ancestor shared with P. confusarubida, were conserved in all species (Supplementary Table S4 and Figure S3), twitching was probably linked to strain-specific induction of these genes under acidic pH. It is noteworthy that twitching motility is strongly influenced by changes in the environment (Henrichsen, 1975). In plant pathogens, the contributions of type IV pilus to virulence have been investigated mainly in vascular pathogens, such as Ralstonia and Xylella, where they were proposed to contribute to bacterial colonization and spread in the xylem through cell attachment, biofilm formation, and twitching motility (Burdman et al., 2011). However, type IV piliation was also shown to be important for initial adhesion and colonization of leaves in a few nonvascular bacteria such as *Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzicola, Pseudomonas syringae pv. tabaci*and *Pseudomonas syringae pv. syringae* (Burdman et al., 2011). The importance of type IV pilus in *Dickeya* pathogenicity is therefore an interesting question for the future studies.

Antimicrobial peptides

420 In response to infection, plants produce antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) to limit pathogen 421 propagation. To overcome AMPs, bacteria remodel their envelope, and more precisely, they 422 modify their LPS to decrease interaction with positively charged AMPs. Among the genes involved 423 in LPS modification, the operons arnABCDEFT and dltXABCD turned out to be ancestral and 424 conserved in all Dickeya species (Supplementary Figure S3), while other genes (i.e. eptAB, pagP, 425 IpxO and IpxT) displayed different taxonomic distributions and evolutionary histories 426 (Supplementary Table S4 and Figure S3). For example, D. aquatica $174/2^{T}$ is lacking pagP, IpxO427 and *lpxT* genes possibly contributing to a greater sensitivity to AMPs. To conclude, our data indicate that, *D. aquatica* 174/2^T has an unanticipated phytopathogenic 428 429 capacity similar to that of other *Dickeya* species. Particular stress resistance profiles and induction 430 of twitching at acidic pH may contribute to its restricted host range. Based on this observation, we decided to compare the *D. aquatica* 174/2^T and other *Dickeya* species proteomes with a special 431 432 focus on the virulence determinants including plant cell wall degrading enzymes, secretion

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Distribution of plant cell wall degrading enzymes in Dickeya

systems, iron metabolism, plant adhesion elements and secondary metabolism.

The plant cell wall is a complex and dynamic meshwork of polymers (cellulose, hemicellulose, pectin, structural glycoproteins) (Pauly and Keegstra, 2016). Among these polymers, pectin is the most complex and includes both linear regions composed of polygalacturonan and ramified regions (RGI and RGII, respectively). RGI contains a rhamnogalacturonan backbone and various lateral chains such as galactan, arabinan and galacturonan (Caffall and Mohnen, 2009). RGII contains a short galacturonan backbone, carrying four side chains, with a diversity of rare monosaccharides (O'Neill et al., 2004). The carboxylic groups of D-galacturonate residues are methyl-esterified to various degrees (up to 80%) and these residues are, to a lesser extent, acetylated at the C2 and/or

444 C3 positions. Feruloyl esters are a type of modification commonly found in arabinan and galactan 445 chains of ramified regions (Ishii, 1997). The virulence of Dickeya is correlated with their ability to 446 synthesize and secrete plant cell wall degrading enzymes, including a full set of pectinases 447 (Hugouvieux-Cotte-Pattat et al., 2014), xylanases and xylosidases (Keen et al., 1996) proteases 448 PrtA, PrtB, PrtC, PrtG (Wandersman et al., 1987), and the cellulase Cel5Z (Py et al., 1991). The 449 presence of these virulence factors varies depending on the species (Matsumoto et al., 2003; 450 Duprey et al., 2016b). To obtain a comprehensive view of this phenomenon, we explored the "Plant 451 cell wall degradosome" of *Dickeya* species including *D. aquatica* (**Figure** 6).

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The pectinasome

The Dickeya pectinasome includes multiple pectate lyases (PelA, PelB, PelC, PelD, PelE, Pell, PelL, PelN, PelW, PelX, PelZ, Pel10), pectin lyases (PnlG, PnlH), polygalacturonases (PehK, PehN, PehV, PehW, PehX), pectin methyl esterases (PemA, PemB), pectin acetyl esterases (PaeX, PaeY), feruloyl esterases (FaeD, FaeT), rhamnogalacturonate lyases (RhiE, RhiF), and one periplasmic endogalactanase (GanA) (Figure 6) (Hugouvieux-Cotte-Pattat et al., 2014). D. gs. poaceaephila NCPPB 569 was the genospecies with the poorest pectinase content. According to their taxonomic distribution and phylogeny, most of these proteins could be inferred in the ancestor of Dickeya and in its sister lineage P. confusarubida. Regarding the pelAED cluster, while P. confusarubida has a single gene, the ancestor of Dickeya had two copies, pelA and an undifferentiated pelDE pectate lyase-coding gene (Duprey et al., 2016b), suggesting that a duplication event occurred in the stem of Dickeya. This undifferentiated pelDE has undergone a duplication event after the emergence of D. paradisiaca, giving rise to pelD and pelE (Supplementary Figure S5) (Duprey et al., 2016b). D. aguatica has then lost pelE, while D. poaceaephila has lost both pelA and pelE. The pelA gene was also lost in D. dianthicola, while pelE was lost in some D. chrysanthemi strains (Figure 6, Supplementary Figure S5). The pelBC cluster was also likely present in the *Dickeya* ancestor, and conserved in most *Dickeya* species. However, pelB was lost in D. gs. poaceaephila, and D. dadantii subsp. dieffenbachiae NCPPB 2976 (Supplementary Figure S3). The pectate lyase Pell was present in Pectobacterium and in all 472 Dickeya, except D. paradisiaca, and in P. confusarubida, suggesting that it could be ancestral in 473 Dickeya. Similarly, the phylogeny of pectin methyl esterase PemB indicated that the protein was 474 present in P. confusarubida and Pectobacterium, suggesting an ancestral presence in Dickeya. 475 Accordingly, its absence in D. paradisiaca, D. aquatica, D. gs. poaceaephila, and D. zeae strains 476 likely reflected secondary losses. The phylogeny of this protein also suggested that the pemB gene 477 found in D. chrysanthemi was acquired by HGT from Cluster II species (Supplementary Figure S3). 478 Regarding the polygalacturonase PehN, a similar scenario could be inferred except that the 479 corresponding gene was also lost in P. confusarubida, and that a few D. zeae strains seemed to 480 have reacquired a PehN from Cluster II species by HGT (Supplementary Figure S3). Regarding 481 the pehVWX cluster, the three genes were derived from a single pehX gene that was present in the 482 ancestor of P. confusarubida and Dickeya. A gene duplication event occurred in the ancestor of D. 483 dianthicola, D. solani and D. dadantii leading to PehV. A second event led to the divergence of 484 PehW in the ancestor of D. solani and D. dadantii (Supplementary Figure S5). The 485 polygalacturonase PehK was likely present in the ancestor of all Dickeya and secondarily lost in D. 486 gs. poaceaephila, *D. solani*, and *D. dianthicola* (Supplementary Figure S3). The pectin lyase PnIG 487 was likely present in the ancestor shared by Dickeya and P. confusarubida, and secondarily lost in 488 D. aquatica, D. gs. poaceaephila, D. chrysanthemi, D. dianthicola and in some D. zeae strains 489 (Supplementary Figure S3). Finally, the rare pectate lyase Pel10 and pectin lyase PnlH displayed 490 patchy taxonomic distributions (Figure 6). Their phylogenies suggested that they spread through 491 HGT in *Dickeya* (Supplementary Figure S3). 492 The saturated and unsaturated digalacturonates resulting from pectin degradation by pectinases 493 are converted into monogalacturonate and 5-keto-4-deoxyuronate by the oligogalacturonate lyase 494 Ogl, which is present in all *Dickeya* species (Figure 6). The phylogenies of the gan gene cluster 495 responsible for degradation of galactan chains in pectin-ramified regions and the 496 rhamnogalacturonate lyase RhiE involved in degradation of RGI pectin-ramified regions indicated 497 they were likely present in the ancestor of P. confusarubida and Dickeya, and secondarily lost in 498 the basal *D. paradisiaca* species, in *D.* gs. poaceaephila, and in a few other strains (Figure 6). The 499 ferulate esterases FaeT and FaeD were absent in P. confusarubida and were acquired in the basal *D. paradisiaca* and *D. aquatica* species. The FaeT enzyme was then secondarily lost in *D.* gs. poaceaephila, and *D. dadantii subsp dieffenbachiae* (Supplementary Figure S3). Altogether, the variability observed in the pectinasome among *Dickeya* species and even among different strains likely reflects the dynamic evolution of the corresponding gene families involving gene acquisitions and losses. More compellingly, this variability indicates that the pectinasome cannot be used to distinguish among various species.

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Cellulases and Xylanases

Two cellulases Cel5Z and CelY were likely ancestral in Dickeya species except in D. gs. poaceaephila, which has lost Cel5Z. While Cel5Z was involved in cellulose degradation, CelY belonged to the bcs gene cluster responsible for cellulose fiber formation (Prigent-Combaret et al., 2012). Xylanases (XynA, XynB) and xylosidases (XynC, XynD) cleave xylan and xyloglucan, which belong to the hemicelluloses. The ß 1,4 xylan is mainly present in plant cell wall of monocots (Pena et al., 2016) and is further decorated, often by acetyl, arabinosyl, and glucuronosyl side-chain substitutions. Notably, the xylan substitution patterns depend on the plant species and are distinct in gymnosperms and angiosperms (Busse-Wicher et al., 2016). Xyloglucan is a β-1,4 glucan that can be substituted with a diverse array of glycosyl and nonglycosyl residues. The type and order of xyloglycan substituents depend on the plant species (Pauly and Keegstra, 2016). Xyloglucan polymers fall into one of two general types. In one type, three out of four backbone glucosyl residues are xylosylated, leading to an XXXG-type xyloglycan, which is predominant in most dicots. Another type of xyloglycan exhibits reduced xylosylation in that only two out of the four or more backbone glucosyl residues are xylosylated, resulting in the XXGGn-type xyloglucan, which is present in early land plants such as liverworts, mosses, lycophytes, and ferns of the order Polypodiales. This type of xyloglucan seems to be absent from the gymnosperms and angiosperms, with the exception of the grasses (Poales) and plants from the order Solanales, such as potato, tobacco and tomato (Pauly and Keegstra, 2016). Thus, it is tempting to hypothesize that the xylanase and xylosidase content of Dickeya species could be correlated with their plant host. Interestingly, all Dickeya species as well as P. confusarubida contained at least one XynA, XynB,

XynC, or XynD coding gene (Figure 6). The phylogeny of XynA indicated that the corresponding gene was likely present in the ancestor of P. confusarubida and Dickeya, and secondarily lost in D. dianthicola, D. gs. undicola, D. chrysanthemi, D. gs. poaceaephila, and D. aquatica (Supplementary Figure S3). The XynB phylogeny suggested a secondary acquisition in Dickeya after the divergence of P. confusarubida, D. paradisiaca, and D. aquatica, followed by losses in D. dianthicola, D. chrysanthemi, and D. gs. undicola (Supplementary Figure S3). While the mode of action of the xylanase XynB was not studied, XynA is a glucuronoxylanase (CAZy family GH30) hydrolyzing the xylan backbone adjacent to each glucuronosyl side-chain (Urbanikova et al., 2011). D. aquatica, D. chrysanthemi, D. gs. undicola, and D. dianthicola were deprived of both XynA and XynB (Figure 6) suggesting that these species would preferentially infect dicots as xylan is mainly present in plant cell wall of monocots. However, this is probably a tendency since D. chrysanthemi strain Ech1591 was isolated from maize, which is a monocot. The phylogeny of Xylosidase XynD suggested that the corresponding gene has been acquired by HGT in D. aquatica and D. chrysanthemi, (Supplementary Figure S3). A secondary acquisition via HGT could also be hypothesized for XynC (Supplementary Figure S3), as it is absent in P. confusarubida and the basal Dickeya species (i.e. D. paradisiaca, and D. aquatica), as well as in D. qs. poaceaephila, D. zeae and some D. chrysanthemi strains. Strikingly, the xylose degradation pathway (XylABFGHR), present in P. confusarubida and in all Dickeya, was absent in D. aquatica, indicating clearly a specific loss in this species (Supplementary Figure S3). The absence of the xylanases XynA and XynB, and xylosidase XynC as well as the xylose degradation pathway in D. aquatica could contribute to its restricted host range.

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Proteases

Finally, the proteases PrtA, PrtB, PrtC, and PrtG, resulting from specific duplications that occurred during the diversification of *Dickeya*, and the associated type I protease secretion system PrtDEF were absent in *P. confusarubida* and the basal branching *D. paradisiaca*. Yet, *Pectobacterium* harbour closely related homologues of PrtDEF and a single protease-coding gene closely related to *Dickeya* PrtA, PrtB, PrtC and PrtG. This suggested that the whole system could have been

present in the common ancestor they shared with *Dickeya*, and then secondarily lost in *P. confusarubida* and *D. paradisiaca* (Supplementary Figure S3). PrtG was specifically lost in *D. chrysanthemi*, *D. dianthicola D*. gs. undicola and *D*. gs. poaceaephila. This later genomospecies conserved only one protease PrtC whereas *D. dianthicola* strains RNS04-9 and NCPPB453 contained a *prtA* pseudogene and retained two proteases PrtC, PrtB (Figure 6).

Other factors

In addition to plant cell wall degrading enzymes, *Dickeya* use several other factors to colonize plant tissue and enhance the progression of disease. Such factors include the extracellular necrosis inducing protein NipE and the two paralogous proteins AvrL and AvrM. NipE and AvrL are conserved in *Pectobacterium* and in most *Dickeya* species, except in *D. paradisiaca*, *D.* gs. poaceaephila, and *P. confusarubida*, suggesting secondary losses in these lineages (Supplementary Figure S3). AvrM was also absent in *D. zeae*, some *D. chrysanthemi*, *D.* gs. undicola, and *D. dianthicola*. Interestingly *D. zeae* strains isolated from rice were the only *Dickeya* to be devoid of Avr proteins (Supplementary Table S4). Altogether, our data indicate that the host range specificity of the various *Dickeya* species is probably linked to the particular combination of plant cell wall degrading enzymes and accessory toxins they produce.

Distribution of secretion systems in Dickeya species

For all *Dickeya* species, possession of secretion systems allowing them to actively secrete virulence factors is of crucial importance. Unsurprisingly, different protein secretion systems (T1SS to T6SS) are present in *Dickeya* species (Supplementary Table S4). As previously mentioned, the type I protease secretion system PrtDEF was present in the ancestor of all *Dickeya* species and lost in the basal *D. paradisiaca* species and in *P. confusarubida*. All *Dickeya* species are equipped with the Out specific T2SS responsible for the secretion of most pectinases and the cellulase Cel5Z. The phylogeny of the components of the Out system indicated it was likely present in the ancestor shared by *Pectobacterium*, *P. confusarubida*, and *Dickeya*, and was conserved during the diversification of *Dickeya* (Supplementary Figure S3). A second Stt specific T2SS, allows secretion

of the pectin lyase PnIH (Ferrandez and Condemine, 2008). Accordingly, the taxonomic distributions of the pectin lyase PnIH and the Stt T2SS components were similar, being present in D. dianthicola, D. chrysanthemi, and some D. dadantii strains, (Supplementary Table S4 and Figure 6). In D. gs. poaceaephila, the Stt T2SS was also present but not associated with PnIH, thus its function in this strain remains to be determined (Supplementary Table S4 and Figure 6). Interestingly, a T3SS is present in Pectobacterium, P. confusarubida and in all Dickeya species, except D. paradisiaca and D. qs. poaceaephila deprived of the T3SS and the associated DspE effector, and thus suggesting secondary losses (Supplementary Table S4). Therefore, these latter species are probably unable to suppress the plant immune response (see below). Interestingly, phylogenies of these proteins disclosed a close relationship with two bacterial phytopathogens. Erwinia and Pseudomonas syringae, suggesting that HGT occurred among these lineages (Supplementary Figure S3). In fact, the effector DspE belongs to the AvrE superfamily of Type III effectors (T3Es) (Degrave et al., 2015). The AvrE family is the only family of T3Es present in all type III-dependent, agriculturally important phytobacterial lineages that belong to the unrelated Enterobacteriales, Xanthomonadales, Pseudomonadales and Ralstonia taxa. This indicates that HGT of these effectors occurred in the ancestors of these important plant pathogen lineages (Jacobs et al., 2013). Recent studies indicated that AvrE-type effectors alter the sphingolipid pathway in planta by inhibiting the serine palmitoyl transferase (Siamer et al., 2014). The sphingolipid biosynthetic pathway is induced during the plant hypersensitive response that blocks pathogen attack at the site of infection (Berkey et al., 2012). Therefore, inhibition of this pathway delays hypersensitive response-dependent cell death and allows bacterial development in planta (Degrave et al., 2015). In Dickeya species, the T3SS genes are in synteny with the plcA gene encoding a phospholipase. These genes were probably acquired during the same event since D. paradisiaca and D. gs. poaceaephila that were deprived of the T3SS are also deprived of PlcA (Figure 6). All Dickeya species and P. confusarubida were found to possess a two-partner secretion system (T5SS) CdiB-CdiA mediating bacterial intercellular competition. Their phylogenies clearly indicate an ancestral presence in both lineages (Supplementary Figure S3). CdiB is a transport protein that

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612 exports and presents CdiA proteins on the cell surface (Willett et al., 2015). The Cdi system is 613 involved in contact-dependent growth inhibition (CDI) by delivering the C-terminal toxin domain of 614 CdiA (CdiA-CT) to target bacteria (Aoki et al., 2010). Some Dickeya strains are equipped with two 615 CdiA proteins, for example, D. dadantii 3937, which produces two different CdiA-CT toxins: the first 616 one being a tRNase and the second one harbouring DNase activity (Aoki et al., 2010; Ruhe et al., 617 2013). Each Cdi system also encodes a specific Cdil antitoxin that interacts with the cognate CdiA-618 CT toxin and prevents auto-inhibition (Willett et al., 2015). 619 The most striking feature in D. aquatica was the absence of both type IV (T4SS) and type VI 620 (T6SS) secretion systems, a trait that was shared with *D. paradisiaca*, *D.* gs. poaceaephila and *P.* confusarubida. Yet, the presence of closely related T4SS and T6SS in Pectobacterium and other 622 Dickeya species suggests that both systems were present in the ancestor of Dickeya and 623 Prodigiosinella, and secondarily lost in the three mentioned species (Supplementary Figure S3). 624 T4SS systems were used to transport a variety of biomolecules (DNA or proteins) across the 625 bacterial envelope (Chandran Darbari and Waksman, 2015). Most T4SS detected in Dickeya 626 species are associated with conjugal transfer proteins and thus, correspond likely to conjugative 627 T4SS that transferred DNA (de la Cruz et al., 2010; llangovan et al., 2015). This process is 628 instrumental in bacterial adaptation to environmental changes (Thomas and Nielsen, 2005). T6SS 629 is used for interaction with the host and for inter-bacterial competition (Poole et al., 2011). 630 Unfortunately, while effectors associated to the *Dickeya* T6SS carry C-terminal nuclease domains that degrade target cell DNA, little is known concerning their function in virulence (Ryu, 2015), 632 limiting the interpretation of its absence in *D. aquatica*.

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Distribution of plant adherence elements in Dickeya species

A chaperone-usher pilus assembly pathway, associated with type I fimbriae (fimEAICDFGHB), was present in D. aquatica but not in any other Dickeya species (Supplementary Table S4). Phylogenetic analyses suggested an acquisition from Morganellaceae or Enterobacteriaceae, through HGT (Supplementary Figure S3). The adhesin FimH, a two-domain protein at the tip of type I fimbriae is known to recognize mannoside structures and to be responsible for adhesion to

both animal epithelial cells and plant surface (Haahtela et al., 1985; Sauer et al., 2000). Therefore, we can hypothesize that type I fimbriae could be involved in adherence of D. aquatica to plant surface. Interestingly, in Xylella fastidiosa, the Fim system is known to be an antagonist of twitching motility caused by type IV pili (De La Fuente et al., 2007). In D. aquatica, the mutually exclusive production of type I fimbriae and type IV pilus could be linked to the specific pH regulation of type IV pilus. When *D. aquatica* penetrates into the intercellular apoplast, which is an acidic compartment, twitching motility would be induced to favour bacteria dissemination in plant tissues, while the type I fimbriae would be no longer required during the colonization. This regulation of twitching would thus contribute to the efficiency of D. aguatica for infecting tomatoes, cucumbers, and probably other acidic fruits. While the presence of type I fimbriae is a specific feature of D. aquatica among Dickeya, the Flp/Tad pilus, involved in plant surface adherence (Nykryri et al., 2013), is restricted to D. chrysanthemi likely as the consequence of a HGT from another proteobacterium (Supplementary Table S4 and Supplementary Figure S3). An operon encoding a multi-repeat adhesin (Dda3937 01477) associated to a T1SS secretion pathway was found in the genome of D. dadantii (Supplementary Table S4). This protein contains multiple cadherin-homologous domains and is likely involved in plant adhesion. Indeed, in Pectobacterium atrosepticum, such a multi-repeat adhesin secreted by a type I pathway was shown to be required for binding to the host plant (Perez-Mendoza et al., 2011). This adhesion and its secretion system were absent in the basal Dickeya species as well as in D. zeae and D. chrysanthemi. Phylogenetic analyses indicated an acquisition in the ancestor of Cluster II, followed by a secondary loss in D. dianthicola (Supplementary Figure S3).

From this analysis, it appears that the different *Dickeya* species retained distinct strategies to adhere to plant surfaces and that HGT played an essential role in the acquisition of the involved genes.

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Distribution of iron assimilation systems in Dickeya species

Iron acquisition by Dickeya is required for the systemic progression of maceration symptoms in the

plant hosts (Enard et al., 1988, Dellagi et al., 2005, Franza et al., 2005). To chelate iron from the most *Dickeya* species synthesize and excrete two siderophores: hydroxycarboxylate achromobactin encoded by the acsABCDEF cluster (Munzinger et al., 2000), and the catecholate chrysobactin encoded by the cbsABCEFHP genes (Persmark et al., 1989). The Dickeya strain EC16 produces dichrysobactin and linear/cyclic trichrysobactin in addition to the monomeric siderophore chrysobactin (Sandy and Butler, 2011). These siderophores form a complex with Fe(III) designated as ferric-siderophore (Franza and Expert, 2013). The ferricsiderophores are specifically recognized by outer membrane transporters (Acr for ferricachromobactin; Fct for ferric-chrysobactin). These transporters are gated-channels energized by the cytoplasmic membrane-generated proton motive force transduced by the TonB protein and its auxiliary proteins ExbB and ExbD (Franza and Expert, 2013). Two pairs of ExbB and ExbD proteins are present in most *Dickeya* species. Transport of a ferric-siderophore across the inner membrane involves a specific ABC permease (CbrABCD for ferric achromobactin; CbuBCDG for ferric chrysobactin). Interestingly, the achromobactin genes (acs gene cluster) and related transport system (cbr gene cluster) were absent in P. confusarubida and D. paradisiaca, suggesting they were acquired by HGT in *Dickeya* after the divergence of these two lineages. Dickeya genes are closely related to Pseudomonas fulva and P. syringae sequences, suggesting an HGT between these plant-associated bacteria (Supplementary Figure S3). By contrast the chrysobactin genes (cbs gene cluster) and related transport system (cbu gene cluster) were likely present in the ancestor of *Dickeya* and *P. confusarubida* (Supplementary Figure S3), and then specifically lost in D. dadantii subspecies dieffenbachiae. In addition to ferric-siderophores, various other iron uptake systems are present in Dickeya. The ferrous iron transport systems FeoAB and EfeUOB can be inferred as ancestral in all Dickeya species and P. confusarubida (Supplementary Figure S3). In contrast, the taxonomic distribution and the phylogeny of the YfeABCD permease that can import both iron and manganese, suggested an acquisition through HGT by D. chrysanthemi and Cluster II species, except D. gs. undicola (Supplementary Table S4 and Supplementary Figure S3). The haem transport Hmu system was present in most Dickeya. Its phylogeny suggested an ancestral presence in Dickeya, followed by secondary losses in D.

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dianthicola, D. gs. undicola, D. zeae, and D. aquatica (Supplementary Figure S3, Supplementary Table S4). Although variable combinations of iron assimilation systems exist in *Dickeya* species, at least four systems were present in each species. This multiplicity underscores the fact that competition for this essential metal is critical for the outcome of the plant-*Dickeya* interaction.

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Biosynthesis of secondary metabolites in Dickeya species

In addition to siderophores, some Dickeya species produce secondary metabolites such as the phytotoxin zeamine and the antifungal compound oocydin via non-ribosomal peptide synthases (NRPS) and polyketide synthases (PKS) (Zhou et al., 2011a; Matilla et al., 2012). To evaluate the diversity of secondary metabolites produced by the Dickeya genus, we screened the eight complete genomes (D. paradisiaca Ech703, D. aguatica 174/2, D. zeae EC1, D. zeae Ech586, D. chrysanthemi Ech1591, D. solani IPO2222, D. fangzhongdai N14b, D. dadantii 3937) and the three partial genomes (D. dianthicola RNS04.9, D. qs. poaceaephila Ech569, D. qs. undicola 2B12) for gene clusters encoding NRPS or/and PKS. Then, we analysed the evolutionary history of these genes clusters among the 49 Dickeya genomes. The oocBCDEFGJKLMNOPQRSTUVW gene cluster coding for oocydin biosynthesis proteins was present in D. paradisiaca, D. zeae strains isolated from rice, D. chrysanthemi subspecies chrysanthemi, D. solani, D. dianthicola, and D. fangzhongdai strain NCPPB 3274 (Supplementary Table S4). This could suggest an ancestral presence in Dickeya accompanied by losses in D. aquatica, D. gs. poaceaephila, D. dadantii, D. gs. undicola, most D. fangzhongdai strains, and some Cluster I strains (Supplementary Figure S3). However, the hypothesis of acquisition and spreading through HGT within Dickeya could not be excluded. The zmsABCDEFGIJKLMNPQRS gene cluster directing zeamine biosynthesis was restricted to D. zeae strains isolated from rice, D. fangzhongdai and D. solani (Supplementary Table S4), suggesting secondary acquisition by HGT (Supplementary Figure S3). In addition, genes involved in coronafic acid biosynthesis, a phytotoxin classically produced by Pseudomonas syringae (Bender et al., 1999), were present only in D. gs. poaceaephila and D. dadantii subspecies dieffenbachiae (Supplementary Table S4), suggesting specific acquisition via HGT. We detected four additional gene clusters encoding NRPS and PKS, (i) cluster 1 was specific to D.

paradisiaca and *P. confusarubida*, (ii) cluster 2 was specific to *D. paradisiaca*, (iii) cluster 3 was specific to *D. aquatica*, suggesting recent acquisitions by these species, while (iv) cluster 4 was more widely distributed, being detected in *D. aquatica*, *D.* gs. poaceaephila, *D. fangzhongdai*, *D. solani*, some *D. dadantii* strains, and *D. zeae* except the strains isolated from rice (Supplementary Table S4). To conclude, each *Dickeya* species was characterized by a specific combination of large gene clusters possibly involved in the production and secretion of toxic secondary metabolites. These clusters were likely acquired from unrelated bacteria through HGT and could have been selected based on the constraints imposed by host or environmental factors. For example, the *D. zeae* strains can be subdivided in two groups, the strains isolated from rice, which produce both zeamine and oocydin, while the other strains infecting other crops produce the fourth-type metabolite encoded by cluster 4. This difference between *D. zeae* strains was used by Zhou et *al.* (2015) to define the distinct pathovar linked to rice as *D. zeae* subsp. *oryzae*.

Evolution of Dickeya gene repertoires

The 49 *Dickeya* proteomes used in this study contained in average 4,022 proteins, ranging in size from 3,533 (*D.* gs. poaceaephila) up-to 4,352 (*D. fangzhongdai* NCPPB 3274) proteins, representing a difference of 819 proteins (Supplementary Table S3). Comparison of the 197,073 proteins contained in the 49 *Dickeya* proteomes led to the delineation of 11,566 protein families (Figure 7). These protein families correspond to the pan-proteome of *Dickeya*. Among these protein families, 13.9% (1,604) were present at least in one copy in all *Dickeya* proteomes (Figure 7) and defined the core-proteome of this genus. Yet, the size of both pan- and core-proteomes could be slightly underestimated because the proteomes of some strains were deduced from draft genomes. Nevertheless, this meant that in average, ~39.9% of the proteins of any *Dickeya* proteome belonged to the core proteome, while a given *Dickeya* proteome encompassed only ~34.8% of the pan-proteome of this genus. Random taxonomic sampling-based rarefaction curves indicated that sequencing more *Dickeya* genomes will probably not change significantly the estimated size of the core-proteome, while it appears that the pan-proteome is far from being fully disclosed (Figure 7B). This highlights the high diversity and plasticity of the gene repertoires in

Dickeya. This observation coupled to the great diversity of the virulence, stress resistance, metabolism, and secretion systems imply that none of the Dickeya strains could be regarded as a representative model for this genus. Core protein families could be punctually lost in a given strain, while some protein families can be present transiently in a few strains. Thus, it is also relevant to consider the persistent (i.e. protein families present in more than 90% of the strains) and volatile proteomes (i.e. protein families present in less than 10% of the strains) (Touchon et al., 2009). In Dickeya, most protein families could be classified either as persistent (2,714 protein families, 23.5%) or volatile (6,426 protein families, 55.6%) (Figure 7A). Unsurprisingly, the persistent proteome was enriched in proteins with known functions, while volatile proteome encompassed mostly hypothetical proteins, prophage elements, and transposases. It is tempting to consider the genes encoding for the volatile proteome as a reservoir of functional innovations, yet the adaptive potential of these genes remains a matter of debate (Touchon et al., 2009). Among the 11,566 protein families inferred in Dickeya, 3,452 corresponded to strain specific families (i.e. being present in a single proteome) (Figure 7A and Supplementary Table S8). The number of strain specific protein families ranged from 336 in D. aquatica $174/2^{T}$ and 304 in D. gs. Poaceaephila, down to zero in Dickeya solani strains MK16, PPO9134 and RNS0773B (Supplementary Table S8). To determine the origin of these strain specific protein families, we used them as seeds to query with BLASTP (e-value cut-off 10⁻⁴) a local database gathering 3,104 complete prokaryotic proteomes, including the 49 Dickeya and P. confusarubida ATCC 39006 proteomes. Results indicated that 1,051 (30.4%) Dickeya strain specific protein families displayed best hit in one of the other 48 Dickeya strains, meaning that those sequences were wrongly considered as strain specific because they did not satisfy the coverage and identity parameters used to delineate the protein families. This was not surprising because some protein families could be fast-evolving, meaning that applying uniform parameters can fail to delineate correctly these protein families and lead to an overestimation of the strain specific protein families. In contrast, 1,625 (47.1%) Dickeya strain specific protein families displayed best hits in non-Dickeya proteomes, meaning that the corresponding genes were likely acquired by HGT from non-Dickeya donors. The taxonomic distribution of the corresponding sequences pinpointed Proteobacteria

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780 (especially Enterobacteriales), and to a less extent Firmicutes as major donors (Supplementary 781 Table S8 B-C). Yet, the contribution of these two phyla is likely overestimated due to their 782 overrepresentation in sequence databases compared to other lineages. Accordingly, these results 783 should be interpreted as general trends but additional data would be required to precisely estimate 784 the real contribution of Firmicutes and Proteobacteria. Finally, 776 (22.5%) Dickeya strain specific 785 protein families displayed no significant hits or no hits at all, indicating that the corresponding 786 genes were truly strain specific or corresponded to annotation errors (false positives). 787 At the species level proteome size variation ranged from 435 (D. aquatica) to 120 (D. paradisiaca) 788 proteins (Supplementary Table S8). The taxonomic distribution of the species-specific protein families displayed overall similar pictures, with most of them being present in all strains of the 789 790 species (Supplementary Figure S6). This revealed a relative homogeneity of proteomes within 791 species. Interestingly, a few strains diverged from this general trend, such as strain NCPBB 3274 792 within D. fangzhongdai, D. aguatica $174/2^{T}$, D. chrysanthemi NCPPB 402, D. dadantii NCPPB 793 2976, and D. solani RNS 0512A. This is consistent with some previous studies. For instance, D. 794 dadantii NCPPB 2976 is part of the dieffenbachiae subspecies and has been shown to be clearly 795 different from the other D. dadantii subsp dadantii strains based on ANI values (Zhang et al., 796 2016). Among, D. solani, strain RNS 0512A was proposed to define a novel D. solani sub-group 797 based on the high number and wide distribution of nucleotide variations compared to other D. 798 solani strains (Khayi et al., 2015). 799 Using COUNT (Csuros, 2010) on the 12,660 protein families built with SILIX and the topology of 800 the core-pf tree, we inferred the ancestral protein repertoires at each node of the Dickeya core-pf 801 phylogeny (Figure 8). COUNT provided similar results for different *Dickeya* species, irrespectively 802 of the position of D. solani, as either the sister-group of D. dadantii or D. dianthicola 803 (Supplementary Table S9), as suggested by core-pf and rprots phylogenetic analyses (see above). 804 The main difference lies in the numbers of gains and losses at the base of Dickeya. 805 We inferred 4,627 protein families in the ancestor of Dickeya, while in average 3,921 protein 806 families are contained in present-day *Dickeya* proteomes. This corresponds to a global loss of 18% 807 of the protein families. Interestingly, loss of protein families dominated over gains and affected all

Dickeya species (Figure 8). Highest protein losses were observed on the stems leading to *D*. gs. poaceaephila and *D*. aquatica and to a lesser extent in *D*. paradisiaca, *D*. gs. undicola, and *D*. dianthicola. These losses were only partially compensated by protein family gains. Surprisingly, more gains were observed in *D*. aquatica 174/2^T, compared to the two other *D*. aquatica strains (Figure 8). We assume that this was not due to biases in the annotation process by RAST, because very similar results were obtained when using PROKKA (Seeman, 2014). In fact, this may reflect the fact that the genomes of DW 0440 and CSL RW240 strains were not completed, being reported as draft genomes. The general trends observed were robust irrespectly of the postion of *D*. solani relatively to *D*. dadantii and *D*. dianthicola (Supplementary Table S9).

Characterization of the D. aquatica mobilome

Mobile Genetic Elements (MGEs) are the main actors of the HGT and include plasmids, viruses (phages and prophages) and transposons (Jackson et al., 2011). They are often localised within genomic islands on chromosomes. The mobilome of a strain is the repertoire of all the genes associated with MGEs. Using both PHAST and IslandViewer, we detected seven phage elements and ten genomic islands in *D. aquatica* $174/2^{T}$ (Figure 1, Supplementary Table S10). Most of the genomic islands contained genes of transposases, integrases or mobile elements that were likely remnants of HGT. They also contain 105 of the 336 ORFAN genes detected in *D. aquatica* 174/2^T strain. Among the seven detected prophages, P2, P6 and P7 were related to transposable Muphage. These were also present in some D. zeae strains isolated from river as well as D. dianthicola strains (Supplementary Table S10). P3 and P5 were specific to some D. aquatica strains, while P1, a defective prophage with only few conserved genes, and P4 were widespread in all Dickeya species (Supplementary Table S10). Among the ten genomic islands detected in D. aquatica 174/2^T, seven (GI1, GI2, GI4, GI5, GI6, GI7, GI9) were mainly composed of mobile elements and small hypothetical proteins, GI2 also contained a type III restriction-modification system, whereas GI4 included a type I restriction-modification system and a toxin-antitoxin system (Supplementary Table S10). Similarly, GI6 contained a toxin-antitoxin system as well as an isolated non-ribosomal peptide synthase, which was also found in D. gs. poaceaephila and D. zeae

(Supplementary Table S10). GI7 contained some metabolic proteins, including the previously mentioned cluster 3 encoding NRPS and PKS, as well as transporters, notably a cobalt/nickel ABC transporter (Supplementary Table S10). Excluding the mobile elements, GI1, GI2, GI4, GI5, GI6 GI7, and GI9 were specific to D. aquatica strains, even if a few genes composing these GIs can be punctually detected in some others strains (Supplementary Table S10). The three other genomic islands (GI3, GI8, GI10) were metabolic islands (Supplementary Table S10). GI3 has been laterally transferred between Erwinia pyrofolia and D. aquatica (Supplementary Figure S3). Gl8 that included proteins related to fatty acid metabolism, was conserved in D. zeae strains isolated from rice or originated from China (Supplementary Table S10). GI10 contained proteins related to the complete carbapenem biosynthetic pathway CarABCDE and the associated resistance proteins CarFG (Supplementary Table S10). P. confusarubida contained genes coding for CarABCDE as well as CarFG, in agreement with its capacity to synthesize the carbapenem antibiotic (carbapen-2-em-3-carboxylic acid) (Thomson et al., 2000; Coulthurst et al., 2005). This cluster was conserved in D. undicola, D. dadantii subspecies dieffenbachiae, some D. chrysanthemi strains and in the D. zeae CSL-RW192 strain isolated from water (Supplementary Table S10). D. paradisiaca only contained the carFG resistance genes but was deprived of the biosynthetic genes (Supplementary Table S9). The phylogeny of CarABCDE and CarFG shows that relationships among the Dickeya sequences are inconsistent with the species phylogeny, suggesting a secondary acquisition through HGT in this genus (Supplementary Figure S3). Overall, phages and genomic islands from D. aquatica are mostly species specific suggesting a

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Concluding remarks

wide genomic plasticity in the Dickeya genus.

In this work, we sequenced the complete genome of *D. aquatica* 174/2 and showed that unlike initially supposed, this bacterium, similarly to other *Dickeya* species, is a phytopathogen. Who is the natural host of *D. aquatica* and why is this bacterium found in aquatic environments rather than associated with plants as are its close relatives? Althought the data at hand are not sufficient to answer these questions, we speculate that *D. aquatica* can be pathogenic for aquatic plants such

as charophytes, which are a family of complex-structured algae living in a variety of wetland and freshwater habitats including those, from which the *D. aquatica* strains have been isolated. Charophytes are thought to be the closest ancestor of land plants. The cells of these algae are surrounded by polysaccharide-based cell walls. However, their cell walls are thin and cannot be distinguished as primary or secondary cell walls. Furthermore, they lack xyloglucans, which are common in most land plants (Sarkar et al., 2009). Intriguingly, *D. aquatica* lacks the xylanases and xylose degradation pathways and we hypothetize that this could reflect an evolutionary adaptation to charophyte hosts.

The comparison of *D. aquatica* 174/2 and *Dickeya* strain proteomes available in public databases

showed that the *Dickeya* genus displays a remarkable diversity featuring many unique protein families and emphasizing that our knowledge of this genus is still limited. The real size of the panproteome is an open question encouraging further exploratory studies on these bacteria, the success of which will depend on the collection of new strains isolated from various environments and the sequencing of the genomes of newly identified representatives of the genus. Remarkably, we observed an enormous degree of genetic plasticity in the pathogenicity determinants that enable various *Dickeya* species to colonize a wide range of plant hosts. Furthermore, in this work, we have postulated the existence of a sister genus of *Dickeya*, *Prodigiosinella*, and characterized two new *Dickeya* genomospecies. The reconstruction of ancestral genomes allowed us to gain new insights into the evolutionary history of this genus and highlighted an evolutionary trajectory dominated by the loss of protein families.

Experimental procedures

Genome sequencing, assembly and annotation

DNA for sequencing of the *D. aquatica* type strain (174/2) genome was extracted from overnight broth culture using Promega bacterial genomic DNA kit. PacBio sequencing to > 350X coverage was performed by Eurofins Genomics (https://www.eurofinsgenomics.eu/). Reads were assembled using CANU (Koren et al., 2017). The annotation was performed automatically with RAST (Aziz et al., 2008), then expertly reviewed using MAGE (Vallenet et al., 2013) and literature data. The

expert review allowed to assign 2,457 gene names, correct 547 annotations and add 5 CDS RAST. The origin missed by replication (oriC) was predicted by OriFinder (http://tubic.tju.edu.cn/Ori-Finder) (Gao and Zhang, 2008). The presence of mobile genetic elements in the D. aquatica 174/2 genome was investigated by the following online tools: IslandViewer (http://pathogenomics.sfu.ca/islandviewer) (Dhillon et al., 2015) for the GI regions, CRISPRDetect (http://brownlabtools.otago.ac.nz/CRISPRDetect/predict_crispr_array.html) (Biswas et al., 2016) for CRISPR arrays, whereas putative prophage sequences were identified by PHAST and PHASTER analysis (http://phast.wishartlab.com/) (Zhou et al., 2011b; Arndt et al., 2016). The genome sequence has been submitted to EMBL database under accession number GCA 900095885 (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/).

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Virulence assays on various hosts

Bacterial cultures were grown in M63G minimal medium (M63 + 0.2% w/v glucose) (Miller 1972) and diluted to a given OD₆₀₀ depending on the host: 0.2 (chicory) or 1 (potato, cucumber, tomato, pineapple and kiwi). For chicory, 5 μL of bacterial suspension were injected into a 2 cm incision at the center of the leaf. For potato, cucumber and tomato, 5, 100 and 200 μL of bacterial suspension were injected into the vegetable, respectively. 200 μL of bacterial suspension were also injected into pineapple and kiwi fruits. Plants were incubated at 30°C with 100% humidity for 18 h (chicory) or 42 h (potato, cucumber and tomato) or 78 h (pineapple and kiwi). The soft rot mass is used to quantify virulence.

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Stress resistance assays

Bacteria were cultured at 30°C in 96 well plates using M63G (M63 + 0.2% w/v glucose) pH 7.0 as minimal medium. Bacterial growth (OD_{600nm}) was monitored for 48 h using an Infinite® 200 PRO - Tecan instrument. Resistance to osmotic stress was analysed using M63G enriched in 0.05 to 0.5 M NaCl. Resistance to oxidative stress was analysed in the same medium by adding H_2O_2 concentrations ranging from 25 to 200 μ M. The pH effect was analyzed using the same M63G medium buffered with malic acid at different pH ranging from 3.7 to 7.0.

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921 Proteome database construction

- 922 We built a local database (DickeyaDB) gathering the proteomes of Serratia sp. ATCC 39006, 48
- 923 Dickeya available at the NCBI (by january 2017), and D. aquatica type strain 174/2
- 924 (Supplementary Table S3). A second database (prokaDB) containing 3,104 proteomes of
- 925 prokaryotes, including the 50 proteomes of DickeyaDB, was also built.

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- Assembly of Dickeya and Serratia ATCC 39006 protein families
- 928 Dickeya and Serratia ATCC 39006 protein families were assembled with SILIX version 1.2.9 (Miele
- 929 et al., 2011). More precisely, pairwise comparisons of protein sequences contained in DickeyaDB
- 930 were performed using the BLASTP program version 2.2.26 with default parameters (Altschul et al.,
- 931 1997). Proteins in a pair providing HSP (High-scoring Segment Pairs) with identity over 60% and
- 932 covering at least 80% of the protein lengths were gathered in the same family. This led to the
- 933 assembly of 12,660 protein families, among which 1,493 were present in at least one copy in all
- 934 DickeyaDB proteomes. In contrast, considering the 49 Dickeya proteomes without taking into
- 935 account Serratia ATCC 39006 led to the assembly of 11,566 protein families, among which 1,604
- 936 were present at least in one copy in all *Dickeya* and *Serratia* ATCC 39006 proteomes, and 1,420 in
- 937 exactly one copy.

- 939 Inferrence of reference phylogenies of Dickeya
- 940 Reference phylogenies of *Dickeya* were inferred using ribosomal proteins (rprots) on the one hand
- and core protein families (core-pf) on the other hand. The rprots phylogenetic tree was rooted with
- 942 sequences from Serratia ATCC 39006, together with three Pectobacterium species
- 943 (Pectobacterium carotovorum PC1, Pectobacterium atrosepticum SCRI1043, and Pectobacterium
- 944 wasabia WPP163) and five additional Serratia species (Serratia marcescens FGI94, Serratia
- 945 fonticola DSMZ4576, Serratia liquefaciens ATCC27592, Serratia proteamaculans 568, and
- 946 Serratia plymuthica AS9), while the core-pf phylogenetic tree was rooted with Serratia ATCC
- 947 39006 (see results).

948 Rprots sequences were extracted from the DickeyaDB using the engine of the riboDB database 949 (Jauffrit et al., 2016). Briefly, the riboDB engine allows retrieving rprots sequences through a 950 double approach combining reciprocal best-blast-hits and hidden Markov model (HMM) profiles 951 searches. 952 Starting from the 1,420 core-pf protein families containing exactly one copy in each proteome of 953 the DickeyaDB and 51 rprots, we applied several quality controls. First, within protein families 954 extremely short sequences (<30% of the median length of the family) were discarded. Then, we 955 used FastTreeMP (Price et al., 2010), and PhyloMCOA (de Vienne et al., 2012) to detect and 956 discard outlier sequences, on the basis of nodal and patristic distances. At the end of the quality 957 control process, 1,341 protein families present in more than 35 (70%) out of the 50 considered 958 proteomes and 51 rprots were kept. For each of these protein families, multiple alignments were 959 built using the CLUSTAL-Omega-1.1.0 program (Sievers et al., 2011) and trimmed using 960 GBLOCKS (Castresana, 2000) with parameters set to a minimal trimming. The trimmed multiple 961 alignments corresponding to 1,341 core-pf on the one hand and the 51 rprots on the other hand 962 have been combined using Seaview-4.5.4 (Gouy et al., 2010) to build the core-pf and the rprots 963 supermatrices containing 414,696 and 6,295 amino acid positions, respectively. 964 Maximum likelihood phylogenies of these supermatrices have been inferred with IQ-TREE-1.5.3 965 (Nguyen et al., 2015) with a C60 profile mixture of the Le and Gascuel evolutionary model (Le and 966 Gascuel 2008) and a gamma distribution with four site categories (Γ 4) to model the heterogeneity 967 of evolutionary rates across sites, as proposed by the model testing tool (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 968 2017) available in IQ-TREE. The robustness of the inferred maximum likelihood trees was 969 estimated with the non-parametric bootstrap procedure implemented in IQ-TREE-1.5.3 for the 970 rprots supermatrix (100 replicates of the original alignments) and the ultrafast bootstrap approach

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Phylogenetic analysis of single markers

for the core-pf supermatrix (1,000 replicates).

947 SSU rRNA and 125 LSU rRNA complete sequences from *Dickeya*, *Serratia* (including strain ATCC 39006), and *Pectobacterium* available in public databases were retrieved and aligned with

976 MAFFT v7.222. The resulting multiple alignments were trimmed using BMGE-1.1 (default 977 parameters). The phylogeny of the 947 SSU rRNA sequences was inferred using FastTree-2.1.9 978 (Price et al., 2010), with the GTR + gamma + cat 4 model, while the LSU rRNA tree was inferred 979 with IQ-TREE with the TIM3+F+I+Γ4 model according to the BIC criterion, as suggested by the 980 propose model tool available in IQ-TREE. 981 Homologues of proteins of interest were identified in the prokaDB with BLASTP. The first 75 HSP 982 hits with evalue smaller than 10⁻⁴ were kept. The retrieved sequences, together with the seed were 983 aligned using MAFFT v7.222, alignments were trimmed using BMGE-1.1 (default parameters). 984 Maximum likelihood phylogenies were built using IQTREE-1.5.3 (Nguyen et al., 2015) with the 985 LG+ Γ 4+I+F model. In order to identify the origin and evolution of these proteins in *Dickeya*, their 986 phylogenies were compared and reconciliated with the Dickeya species phylogenies, by 987 considering the two alternative positions of D. solani: as either sister-group of D. dadantii or D. 988 dianthicola.

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Identification of the D. fangzhongdai phylogenetic cluster

systematically affiliated with D. fangzhongdai.

To determine whether some sequenced strains are related to *D. fangzhongdai*, we used all the *D. fangzhongdai* genes available in public databases SSU-rDNA (KT992690.1), *dnaX* (KT992713.1), *gapA* (KT992697.1), *purA* (KT992705.1), *recA* (KT992693.1), *gapA* (KT992701.1) and *rplB* (KT992709.1) genes, we extracted the corresponding genes from the DickeyaDB database and then used these sequences as input for phylogenetic analyses using leBIBI^{QBPP} phylogenetic positioning tool (Flandrois et al., 2015). We found that the strains B16, MK7 and S1 were

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Ancestral gene content

The program COUNT (Csuros, 2010) was used for gene families evolutionary reconstruction in Dickeya species using the topology of the core-pf tree as reference. All the generated 12,660 families were submitted to COUNT, which can perform ancestral genome reconstruction by posterior probabilities in a phylogenetic birth-and-death model. Rates were optimized using a gainloss–duplication model and three discrete gamma categories capturing rate variation across families, with other parameters set at default and allowing different gain–loss and duplication–loss rates for different branches. One hundred rounds of optimization were computed. COUNT was run twice: first with *D. solani* as sister-group of *D. dadantii* and then as sister-group of *D. dianthicola*.

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Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare that no conflicting interests exist.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Genomic organisation of *Dickeya aquatica* 174/2^T chromosome

The chromosome is represented as a wheel and the origin of replication (OriC) and terminus (Ter) are indicated. The circles from outside to inside represent protein-coding sequences (CDS) on the forward strand, CDS on the reverse strand, distribution of ribosomal RNA operons (four on the right replichore and three on the left replichore), distribution of tRNA genes, and then distribution of ncRNA. The blue areas correspond to phage elements detected using PHAST. The thin black lines correspond to four CRISPR arrays and the red areas represent the ten genomic islands predicted using IslandViewer. The next circle (black) indicates the GC content and the central circle (green/purple) shows the GC-skew. The window size of the GC content and GC-skew is 100 nucleotides. Figure 1 was drawn using Gview https://server.gview.ca/.

Figure 2. Phylogeny and proteome comparison of *Dickeya*

Maximum likelihood phylogeny (left) of 1,341 *Dickeya* single copy protein families (core protein families: 50 sequences, 414,696 amino acid positions). The tree was computed with IQ-TREE with the LG+C60 model and rooted using *Serratia* ATCC 39006. Numbers associated to branches correspond to ultrafast bootstrap values. The scale bar corresponds to evolutionary distance (i.e. the average number of the substitutions inferred per site). The table (right) corresponds to the S_{AB} association coefficient computed for each pair of strains as $S_{AB} = (100 \times 2N_{AB})/(N_A + N_B)$, in which N_A is the number of protein families present in strain A, N_B is the number of protein families present in strain B and N_{AB} is the number of protein families shared by strain A and strain B. This coefficient ranged from 0 when both strains do not share any gene family to 100 when all the families present in strain A were also present in strain B. The figure was generated using Evolview (He et al., 2016).

Figure 3. Virulence of *D. aquatica* **on potato, chicory, cucumber and tomato.** Bacterial cultures were grown in M63G minimal medium (M63 + 0.2% w/v glucose) and diluted to a given

OD₆₀₀ depending on the host: 0.2 (chicory) or 1 (potato, cucumber and tomato). For chicory, 5 μL of bacterial suspension were injected into a 2 cm incision at the center of the leaf. For potato, cucumber and tomato, 5, 100 or 200 μL of bacterial suspension were injected into the vegetable, respectively. Plants were incubated at 30°C with 100% humidity for 18 h (chicory) or 42 h (potato, cucumber and tomato). **A)** Picture of representative specimens of infected plants after incubation. Note that the rotten area was removed for potato. **B)** Quantification of the soft rot mass. Data is represented as mean +/- SD of 6 replicates. No soft rot symptoms were detected after 78 h for pineapple and kiwi fruits infected with 200 μL of bacterial suspension at OD₆₀₀ 1.

Figure 4. *D. aquatica* stress resistance. Bacteria were cultured at 30°C in 96 well plates using M63G (M63 + 0.2% w/v glucose) pH 7.0 as minimal medium. Bacterial growth (OD_{600nm}) was monitored for 48 h using an Infinite® 200 PRO - Tecan instrument. A and B) Resistance to osmotic stress was analysed using M63G enriched in 0.05 to 0.5 M NaCl (abscissa) and growth rates (ordinate) were determined. C) Resistance to oxidative stress was analysed in the same medium by adding H_2O_2 concentrations ranging from 25 to 200 μ M (abscissa). The lag time (ordinate) is represented instead of the growth rate because after the degradation of H_2O_2 by bacterial catalases, the growth rates are similar. D) The pH effect on growth rate (ordinate) was analyzed using the same M63G medium buffered with malic acid at different pH ranging from 3.7 to 7.0 (abscissa).

Figure 5. Twitching motility induced under acidic condition in *Dickeya* species. Colony morphologies of various *Dickeya* strains grown on M63G pH 7.0 and M63G buffered with malic acid at pH 5 in agar plates. The strains corresponding to colony numbers and their twitching phenotypes are indicated on the right.

Figure 6. Distribution of plant cell wall degrading enzymes in *Dickeya***.** The type of cell wall degrading enzyme and the number of homologues of each enzyme are indicated for each of the

strains. The phylogeny on the left corresponds the core-pf maximum likelihood tree as described in figure 2.

Figure 7: The core-, pan-, versatile-, and persistent-proteomes of Dickeya genus

- The delineation of core-, pan-, versatile-, and persistant-proteomes was based on the taxonomic distribution of the 11,566 proteins families identified by analyzing the 49 proteomes of *Dickeya*. The core-proteome is defined by the protein families present at least in one copy in all 49 *Dickeya* proteomes, the pan-proteome is defined by the 11,566 protein families, while the versatile- and the persistent-proteomes are defined as the protein families present in less than 10% and in more than
- 1445 90% of the 49 *Dickeya* proteomes, respectively.
- 1446 (A) Distribution 11,566 protein families across the 49 *Dickeya* proteomes.
- The 3,452 protein families present in a single *Dickeya* proteome (i.e. strain specific families) are on the left of the x-axis, while the 1,604 protein families defining the core-proteome are on the right of the x-axis.

(B) Estimation of the Dickeya core and pan-genomes

The graph shows the estimated sizes of the core- and pan-proteomes of *Dickeya* according to the number of considered strains. The curves were computed by calculating the core- and the pan-proteomes for an increasing number of strains randomly selected among the 49 *Dickeya* strains (100 replicates at each point). When all the 49 Dickeya strains were considered, the core- and the pan-proteomes encompasse 1,604 and 11,566 protein families.

Figure 8. Evolution of protein family repertoires along the *Dickeya* phylogeny

The number of protein family repertoires, gains, and losses inferred by COUNT are mapped on the topology of the core-pf reference phylogeny of *Dickeya*. Values mapped above the branches correspond to gains / losses, while values below branches correspond to the number of protein families inferred. Considering the alternative placement of *D. solani* as sister-group of *D. dianthicola* provided very similar results (see Supplementary Table S9).

1464	Supplementary materials		
1465			
1466	Supplementary Figure S1: Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of Dickeya strains based		
1467	on the Fr-protein supermatrix gathering 51 ribosomal proteins (LG+C60, 58 sequences, 6,295		
1468	amino acid positions).		
1469	Numbers at branch correspond to bootstrap values (100 replicates of the original data set). The		
1470	scale bar indicates the average number of substitutions per site. The figure was generated using		
1471	Evolview (He et al., 2016).		
1472			
1473	Supplementary Figure S2: Phylogenetic position of "Serratia sp. ATCC 39006" based or		
1474	LSU and SSU rDNA trees		
1475	Itrees of the Dickeya genus inferred with a collection of (A) 947 SSU rDNA and (B) 125 LSU rDNA		
1476	sequences retrieved from public databases. The trees were rooted using Pectobacterium and		
1477	Serratia sequences. The scale bars represent the estimated average number of substitution per		
1478	site. Numbers at nodes represent ultrafast bootstrap values (A) and bootstrap values (B).		
1479	Pectobacterium sequences are in pink, Serratia sequences in purple, and Dickeya sequences in		
1480	black. Worth to note, LSU and SSU rDNA sequences from Serratia sp. 39006 robustly branch with		
1481	Dickeya sequences and not within the Serratia genus. The trees were drawn using the iToL		
1482	webserver (Letunic and Bork, 2016).		
1483			
1484	Supplementary Figure S3 - Single gene phylogenies		
1485	Maximum likelihood phylogenetic trees of 912 proteins of interest. Numbers associated with each		
1486	branch correspond to ultrafast bootstrap values (1000 replicates of the original data set). The scale		
1487	bars indicate the average number of substitutions per site. For each tree, the name and the		
1488	annotation of the seed is provided in red.		
1489			
1490	Supplementary Figure S4 – Non-metric multi-dimensional scaling (NMDS) plot of <i>Dickeya</i>		
1491	genomes according to their gene content. A Bray distance similarity matrix was calculated		

1492 based on the presence/absence profiles of 8,115 gene families (present in at least 2 genomes) for 1493 the 49 analyzed genomes and used to generate NMDS coordinates for each strain. The shorter 1494 distance linking two genomes indicates higher similarities between these genomes. Genomes from 1495 different species are indicated in different colors. 1496 1497 Supplementary Figure S5: Phylogenies and genetic organisation of pelAED and pehVWX 1498 clusters. 1499 Maximum likelihood trees of pelAED and pehVWX clusters together with genetic organisation of 1500 these clusters are shown. Numbers associated with each branch correspond to ultrafast bootstrap 1501 values (1000 replicates of the original data set). The scale bar indicates the average number of 1502 substitutions per site. For each tree, the name and the annotation of the seed is provided in red. 1503 1504 Supplementary Figure S6: The number of shared protein families between and within 1505 Dickeya species. Figures were generated using the package UpSetR (Conway et al. 2017). 1506 1507 Supplementary Table S1: Phenotypic differentiation of species within the genus Dickeya. 1508 Table showing the phenotypic features of Dickeya species based on Samson et al. (2005), 1509 Parkinson et al. (2014), van der Wolf et al. (2014) and Tian et al. (2016). 1510 1511 Supplementary Table S2: Genomic features of the Dickeya strains with completely 1512 sequenced genomes 1513 1514 Supplementary Table S3: List of the 49 Dickeya genomes used in this study indicating the 1515 plant host or habitat and the geographical origin of each strain 1516 1517 Supplementary Table S4: Distribution of genes with a role in pathogenicity or in adaptation 1518 to plant niche in Dickeya species

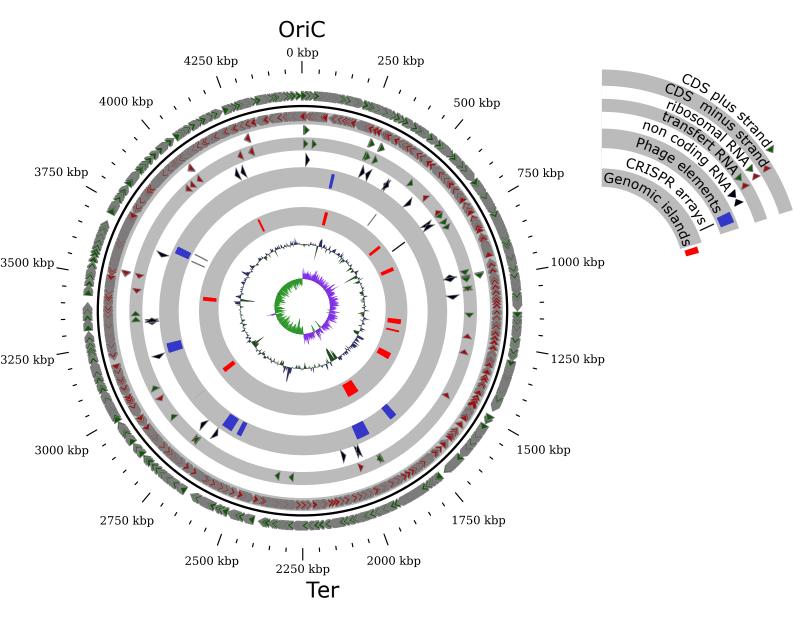
Genes of Dickeya species were considered as present if identity of the encoded protein was higher

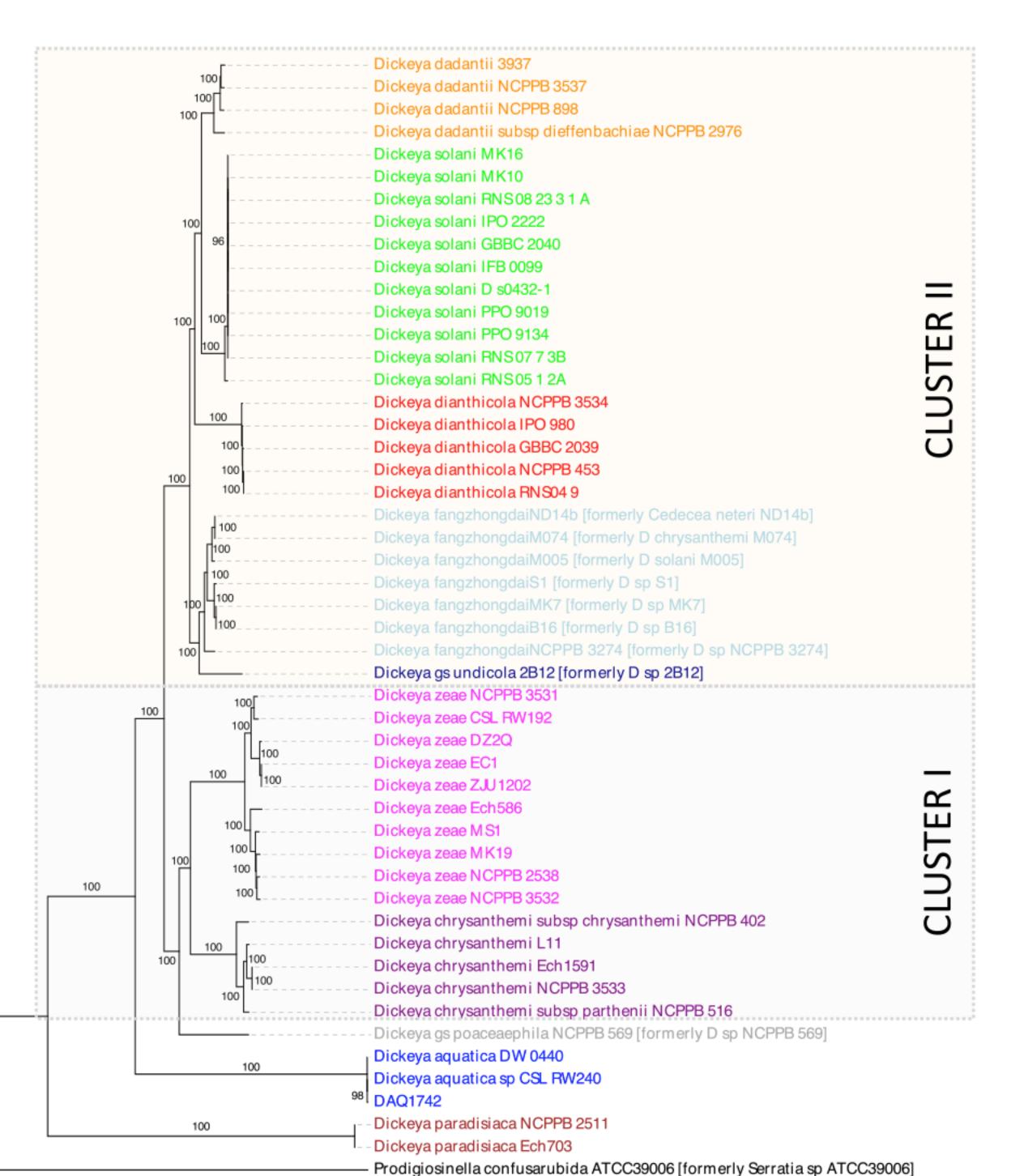
1520 than 60% of full-length amino acids sequence. If local alignments were too short with regard to the length of similar sequences, we performed a nucleotide BLAST on full-length DNA sequences with 1521 1522 similar thresholds (10⁻⁵ e-value, 80% identity of full length sequence). This allowed us to eliminate 1523 false genes. Note that because some genomes represent only drafts, false negatives may occur. 1524 1525 Supplementary Table S5: Protein family distribution within proteomes from Dickeya, 1526 Pectobacterium and Serratia. 1527 Considered strains were Dickeya aquatica 174/2, Dickeya dadantii 3937, Dickeya paradisiaca 1528 NCPPB 2511, Dickeya solani IPO 2222, Dickeya zeae EC1, Pectobacterium atrosepticum 1529 SCRI1043, Pectobacterium carotovorum subsp carotovorum PC1, Pectobacterium wasabiae 1530 WPP163, Serratia fonticola, Serratia liquefaciens ATCC27592, Serratia marcescens FGI94, 1531 Serratia plymuthica AS9, Serratia proteamaculans 568 and Serratia sp ATCC39006. Families were 1532 built using SILIX version 1.2.9 with 60% of sequence identity and 80% of sequence coverage. 1533 1534 Supplementary Table S6: Results of the approximately unbiased tests performed on core-pf 1535 and rprots topologies using the 1,341 core-pf and the 51 rprots. 1536 1537 Supplementary Table S7: Distribution of Transcription factor-binding sites in D. aquatica 1538 174/2 genome. Binding sites for 56 transcriptional regulators were predicted in D. aquatica using 1539 nhmmer (Wheeler and Eddy, 2013). 1540 1541 Supplementary Table S8: Protein family distribution within the proteomes of the 49 Dickeya 1542 strains. 1543 Families were computed with SILIX version 1.2.9 using 60% of sequence identity and 80% of 1544 sequence coverage. 1545 1546 Supplementary Table S9: Comparison of inferences of ancestral gene repertoires in Dickeya

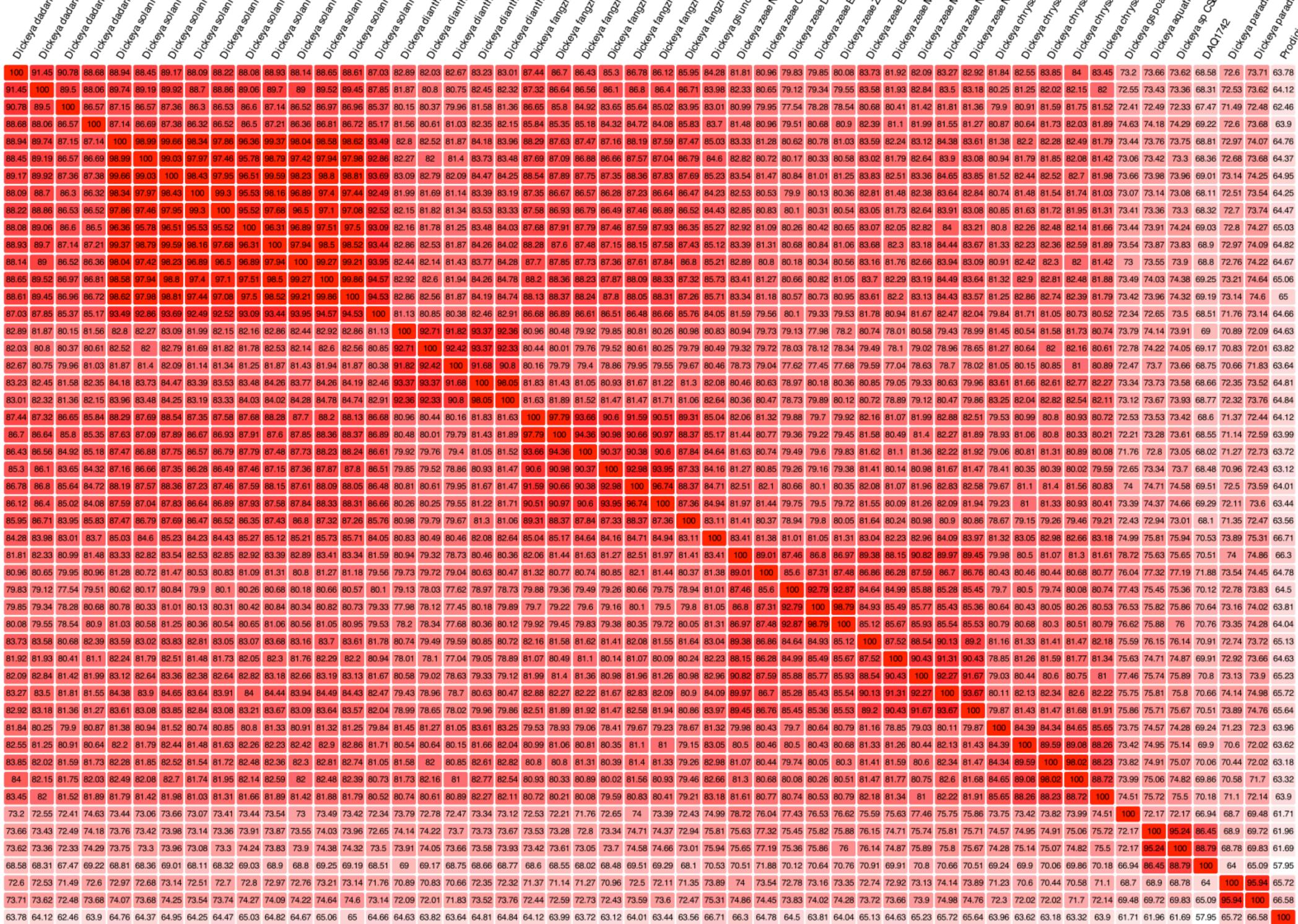
considering the two possible alternative positions for D. solani

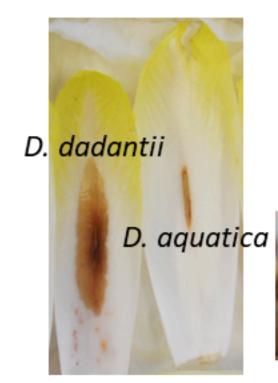
1548	
1549	Supplementary Table S10: Characterization of the mobilome of <i>D. aquatica</i> 174/2 and its
1550	conservation in other <i>Dickeya</i> species
1551	Genes of Dickeya species were considered as present if identity of the encoded protein was higher
1552	than 60% of full-length amino acids sequence. If local alignments were too short with regard to the
1553	length of similar sequences, we performed a nucleotide BLAST on full-length DNA sequences with
1554	similar thresholds (10^{-5} e-value, 80% identity of full length sequence). This allowed us to eliminate
1555	false genes. Note that because some genomes represent drafts, false negatives may occur.

Dickeya aquatica 174/2 genome



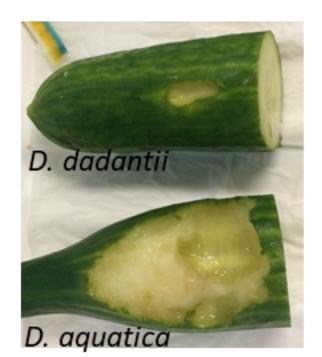










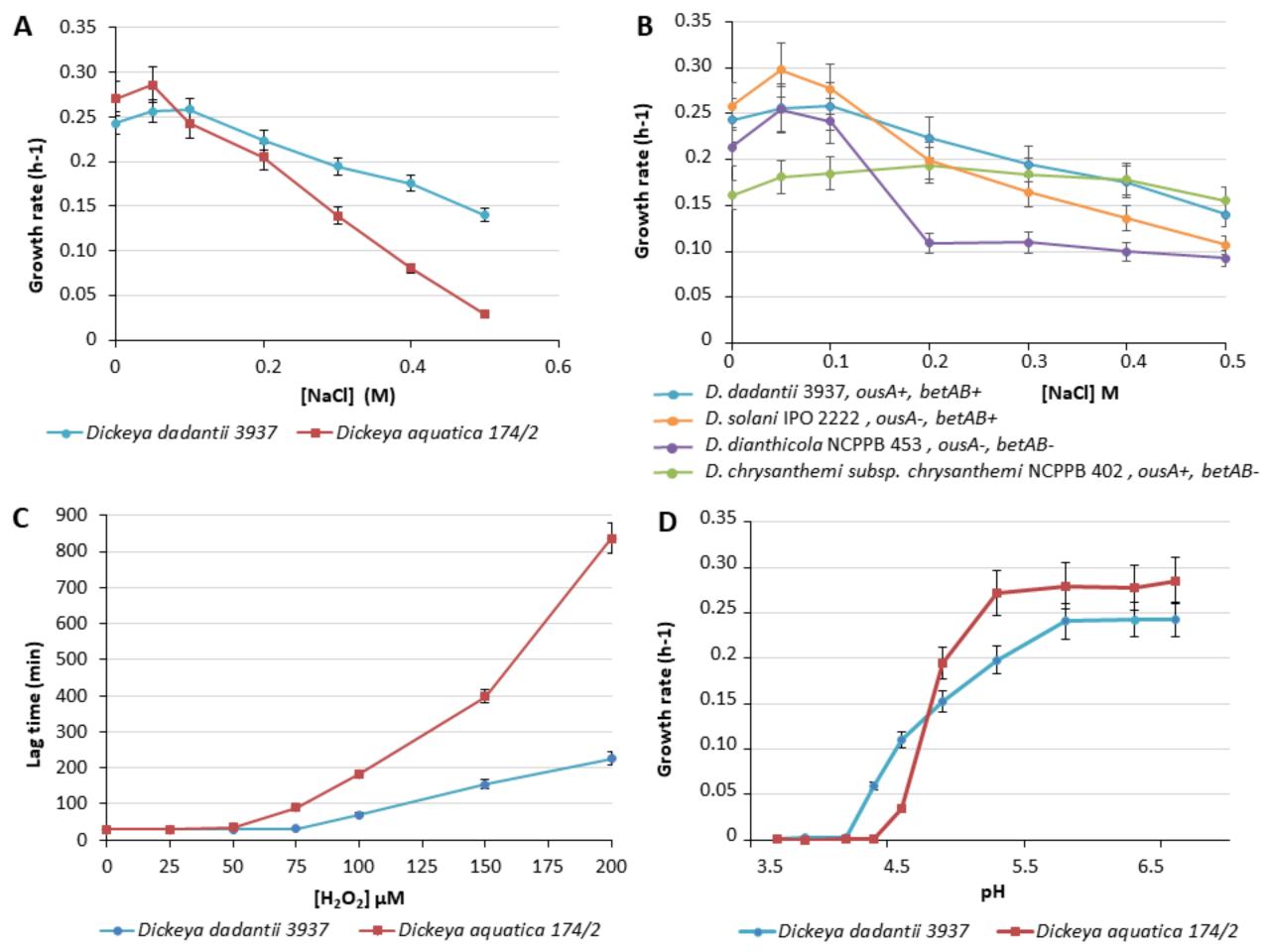


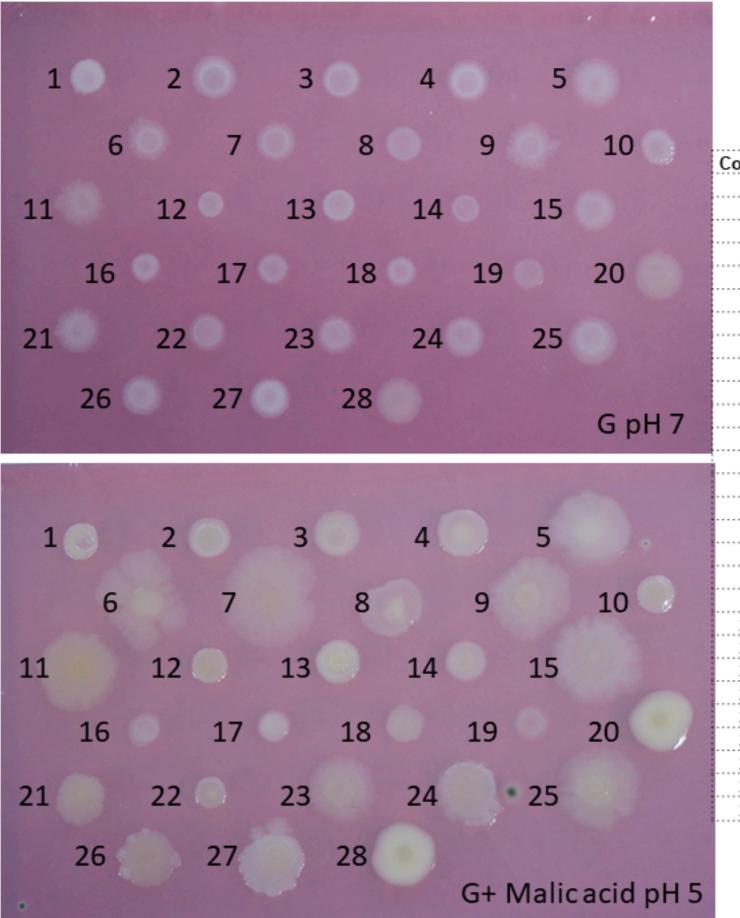




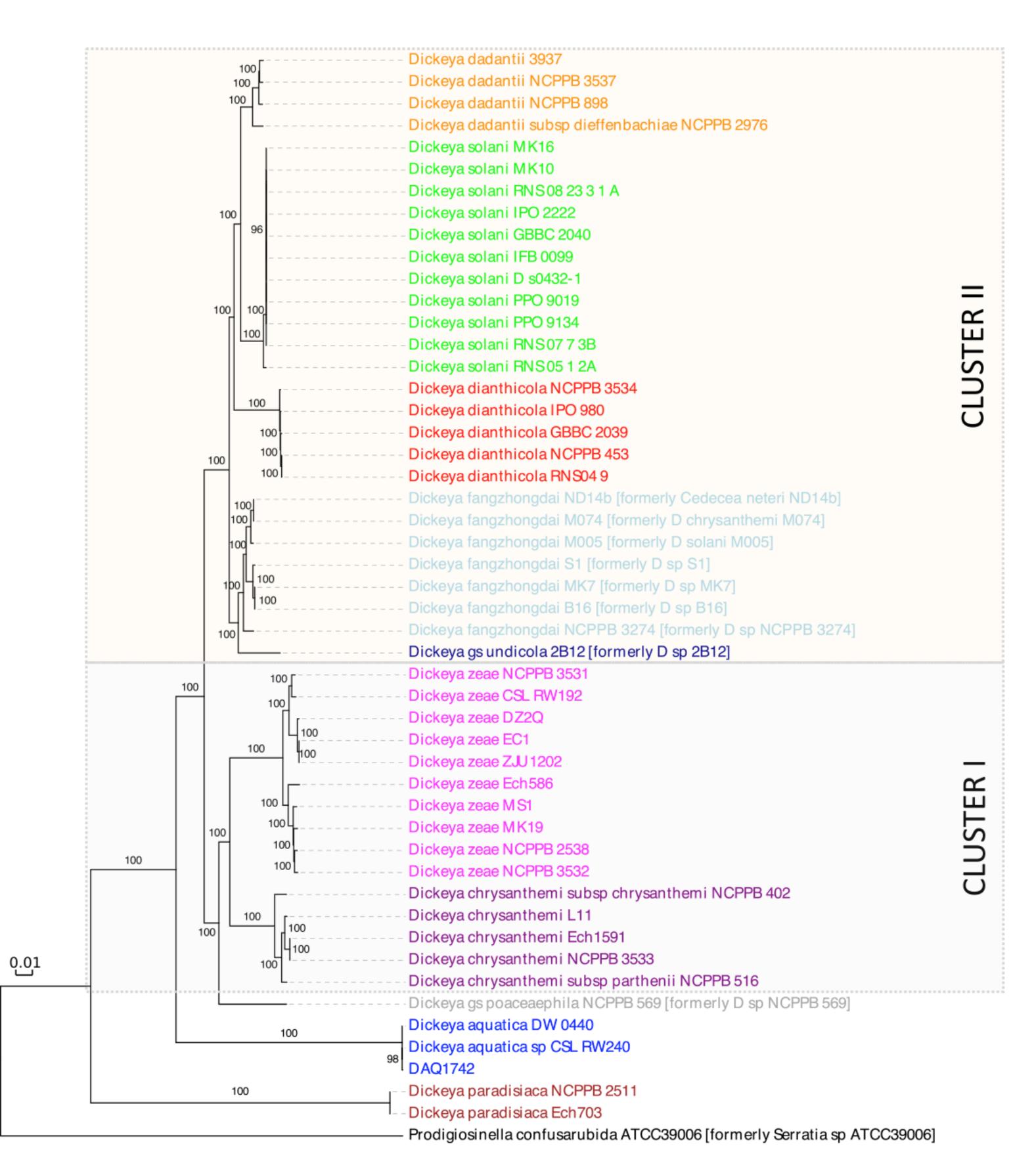
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Rotten mass (g)	D. dadantii	D. aquatica
Chicory (leaf)	0.9 ± 0.5	0.02 ± 0.04
Potato (tuber)	5.7 ± 2.4	1.7 ± 0.2
Cucumber (fruit)	0.38 ± 0.49	11.6 ± 10.6
Tomato (fruit)	8.0 ± 4.6	36 ± 16
Pineapple (fruit)	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0
Kiwi (fruit)	0.0 ± 0.0	0.0 ± 0.0

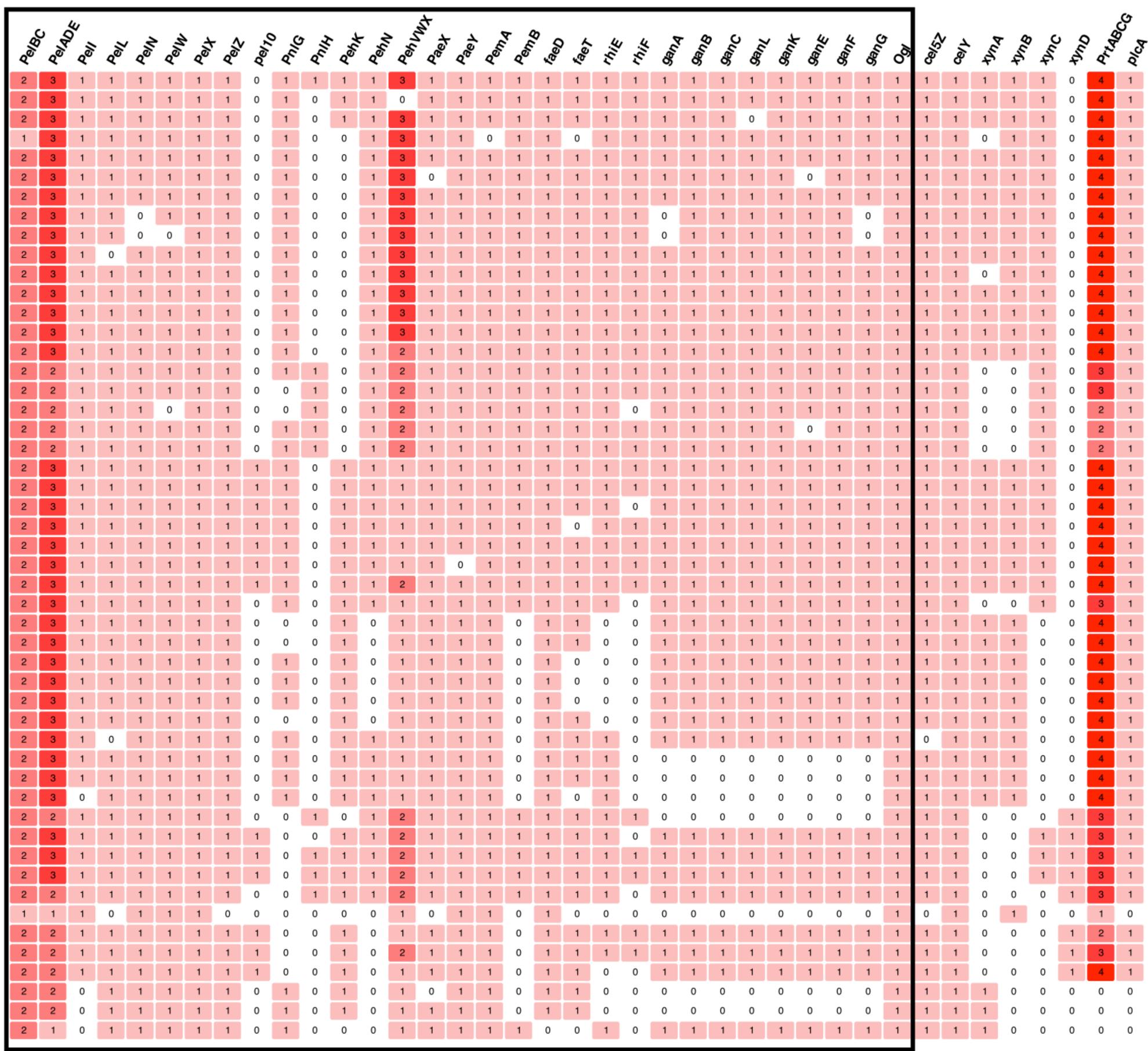


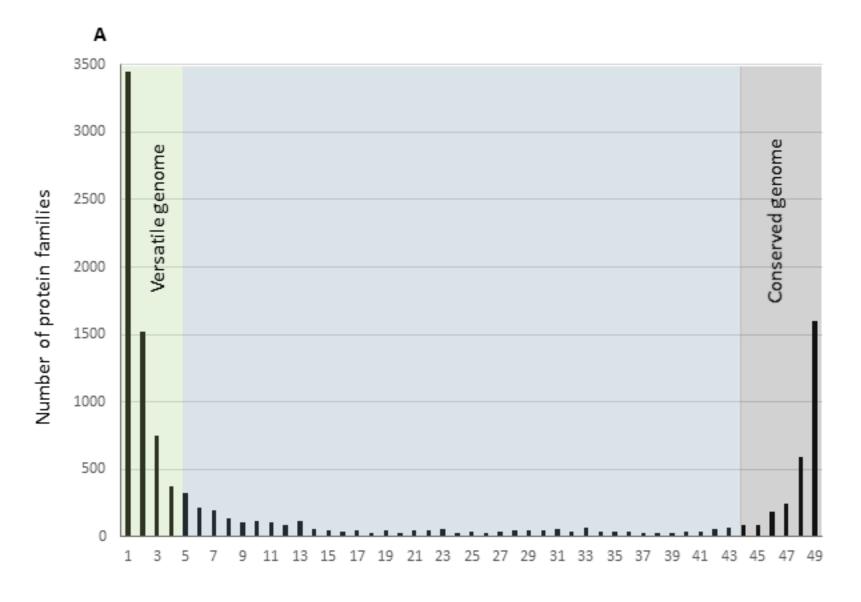


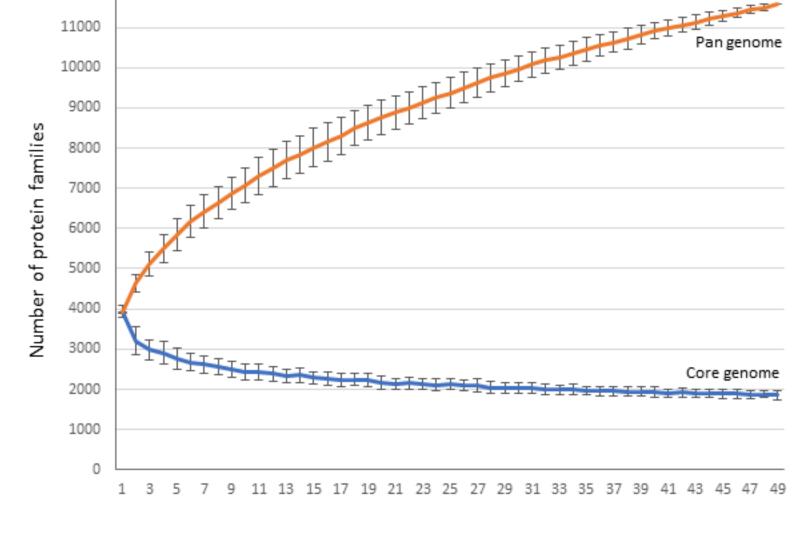
Colony	Strain	Twitching
1	D. dadantii 3937	-
2	D. dadantii 3937	-
3	D. dadantii NCPPB 3537	
4	D. dadantii NCPPB 898	-
5	D. aquatica 174/2	+
6	D. fangzhongdai NCPPB 3274	+
7	D. fangzhongdai B16	+
8	D. fangzhongdai NCPPB 3274	+
9	D. undicola 2B12	+
10	D. poaceaphila NCPPB 569	-
11	D. zeae NCPPB 3532	+
12	D. zeae NCPPB 2547	-
13	D. zeae NCPPB 2538	-
14	D. chrysanthemi NCPPB 402	-
15	D. chrysanthemi NCPPB 3533	+
16	D. dianthicola RNS04.9	-
17	D. dianthicola CFBP 1888	-
18	D. dianthicola CFBP 2982	-
19	D. dianthicola NCPPB 453	
20	D. paradisiaca NCPPB 2511	-
21	D. solani IPO2222	-
22	D. solani PP09019	-
23	D. solani RNS07.7.3B	+
24	D. solani GBBC2040	-
25	D. solani Ds0432-1	+
26	D. solani RNS05.1.2A	
27	D. dadantii subsp. dieffenbachiae CFBP3694	-
28	D. dadantii subsp. dieffenbachiae NCPPB 2976	



Pectinasome







В

Number of proteomes

Number of proteomes

