

Pattern and causes of the establishment of the invasive bacterial potato pathogen Dickeya solani and of the maintenance of the resident pathogen D. dianthicola

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Pauline Blin, Kévin Robic, Slimane Khayi, Jérémy Cigna, Euphrasie Munier, et al.. Pattern and causes of the establishment of the invasive bacterial potato pathogen Dickeya solani and of the maintenance of the resident pathogen D. dianthicola. Molecular Ecology, 2021, 30 (2), pp.608-624. 10.1111/mec.15751. hal-03028685v1

HAL Id: hal-03028685 https://hal.science/hal-03028685v1

Submitted on 1 Dec 2021 (v1), last revised 27 Nov 2020 (v2)

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1	Pattern and causes of the establishment of the invasive bacterial potato pathogen
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4	Short title: coexistence of invasive and resident pathogens on potatoes
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26 Abstract

Invasive pathogens can be a threat when they affect human health, food production or 27 ecosystem services, by displacing resident species, and we need to understand the cause of 28 their establishment. We studied the patterns and causes of the establishment of the 29 pathogen Dickeya solani that recently invaded potato agrosystems in Europe by assessing 30 its invasion dynamics and its competitive ability against the closely-related resident D. 31 32 dianthicola species. Epidemiological records over one decade in France revealed the establishment of D. solani and the maintenance of the resident D. dianthicola in potato fields 33 exhibiting blackleg symptoms. Using experimentations, we showed that D. dianthicola 34 caused a higher symptom incidence on aerial parts of potato plants than D. solani, while D. 35 solani was more aggressive on tubers (i.e. with more severe symptoms). In co-infection 36 37 assays, D. dianthicola outcompeted D. solani in aerial parts, while the two species co-existed in tubers. A comparison of 76 *D. solani* genomes (56 of which having been sequenced here) 38 revealed balanced frequencies of two previously uncharacterized alleles, VfmB_{Pro} and 39 VfmB_{ser}, at the vfmB virulence gene. Experimental inoculations showed that the VfmB_{ser} 40 population was more aggressive on tubers while the VfmBPro population outcompeted the 41 VfmB_{ser} population in stem lesions, suggesting an important role of the vfmB virulence gene 42 in the ecology of the pathogens. This study thus brings novel insights allowing a better 43 understanding of the pattern and causes of the D.solani invasion into potato production 44 agrosystems, and the reasons why the endemic D.dianthicola nevertheless persisted. 45

46

47 KEYWORDS

competitive exclusion; *Dickeya;* invasion; plant pathogens; population genomics; quorumsensing.

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53 **1 Introduction**

Biological invasions represent major threats to biodiversity as invasive species can replace 54 55 native species. Evolutionary and ecological studies are of major importance for understanding the patterns and causes of biological invasions and plant and animal 56 invasions have been extensively studied since the 19th century (Burns, Murphy, & Zheng, 57 2018; Cadotte, Campbell, Li, Sodhi, & Mandrak, 2018; MacDougall, Gilbert, & Levine, 2009). 58 59 Evolutionary and ecological approaches aim at elucidating the dynamics of invasions as well 60 as the advantages of invaders that allow them to outcompete resident species (Facon et al., 2006; Gladieux et al., 2015). Although microbial invasions can represent important threats to 61 ecosystems and human societies, they have been much less studied than invasive plants 62 and animals (Gladieux et al., 2015; Kinnunen et al., 2016; Litchman, 2010; Mallon, Elsas, & 63 Salles, 2015; Perkins, Leger, & Nowak, 2011). 64

In this work, we used evolutionary and ecological approaches for understanding the patterns 65 66 and causes of the establishment of the bacterial pathogen Dickeya solani in potato 67 agrosystems and the maintenance of the resident, related competitor D. dianthicola. There 68 are two major clades of potato bacterial pathogens in Europe, *Pectobacterium* and *Dickeya*. 69 two sister genera among the order Enterobacterales (Gamma-proteobacteria). While some Pectobacterium species had settled since before the 1970s in potato agrosystems in Europe 70 (Pérombelon, 2002), Dickeya species invaded later, in two successive waves. Mostly 71 72 isolated from ornamental plants such as Dianthus, Dahlia and Begonia, D. dianthicola has been reported in Europe as early as the 1950s. Isolation of D. dianthicola from Solanum 73 tuberosum dates back to the 70's (Toth et al., 2011; Parkinson et al., 2009). Nowadays, 74 75 D. dianthicola is considered an endemic pathogen of potato plants in Europe. It is present in 76 all continents, including North-America, where it was associated with disease outbreaks in potato farms in 2015 (Oulghazi et al., 2017; Patel, Baldwin, Patel, Kobayashi, & Wyenandt, 77 2019; Sarfraz et al., 2018; Toth et al., 2011; Wright et al., 2018). 78

Dickeya solani has emerged in potato production systems in Europe much more recently, in
the early 2000s (Toth et al., 2011; van der Wolf et al., 2014). Aside from potatoes, *D. solani*

has been isolated from ornamental plants such as Hyacinthus, Iris and Muscari, but the 81 primary host(s) of that species remain(s) uncertain (Chen, Zhang, & Chen, 2015; Slawiak et 82 83 al., 2009; van der Wolf et al., 2014). Population genomics revealed little genetic variation in 84 D. solani, in agreement with a recent spread of this species with a bottleneck associated to the introduction and/or invasion (Golanowska et al., 2018; Khayi et al., 2015). An analysis of 85 20 D. solani genomes identified a non-synonymous single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in 86 each of the two fliC and fliN genes that are involved in bacterial motility (Khayi et al., 2015). 87 88 Horizontal gene transfer events from D. dianthicola to D. solani have been documented, 89 adding or replacing genomic fragments (Khayi et al., 2015).

The D. solani invader, as well as the D. dianthicola and Pectobacterium spp. residents, are 90 necrotrophic pathogens causing similar symptoms, resulting in blackleg disease on stems 91 and soft-rot disease of tubers (Charkowski 2018; Toth et al., 2011). All these bacteria secrete 92 plant cell-wall macerating enzymes (including the pectate lyases) and proliferate by 93 assimilating the plant cell remains, including iron by producing the chrysobactin and 94 95 achromobactin siderophores. Pectate lyases, i.e., PelA, PelD and especially PelE, play a key 96 role in the initiation of the plant cell wall maceration. Using pectin as a substrate, these enzymes release oligosaccharides that elicit expression of other plant-cell wall macerating 97 enzymes in a positive feedback loop (Duprey, Nasser, Léonard, Brochier-Armanet, & 98 99 Reverchon, 2016). Noticeably, the pelA gene is truncated, hence non-functional, in 100 D. dianthicola (Duprey et al., 2016; Raoul des Essarts et al., 2019). The secretion of these 101 virulence factors is a costly process that is tightly regulated, being induced by the perception 102 of chemicals that inform the pathogen on plant host physiology (mainly plant sugars) and on 103 the size of its own population (quorum-sensing signals) (Leonard, Hommais, Nasser, & 104 Reverchon, 2017). Dickeya pathogens synthetize and sense two types of quorum-sensing signals, the N-acylhomoserine lactones and Vfm compounds, which activate virulence gene 105 expression when a threshold concentration of signals (reflecting the number of cells in the 106 environment) is reached (Crépin et al., 2012; Nasser et al., 2013; Potrykus, Golanowska, 107 Hugouvieux-Cotte-Pattat, & Lojkowska, 2014; Potrykus, , Hugouvieux-Cotte-Pattat, & 108

109 Lojkowska, 2018). By modulating the synthesis of virulence factors, the quorum-sensing signals participate in the transition from an oligotroph lifestyle in soils and surface waters, 110 111 where Dickeya and Pectobacterium bacteria are rare, to a copiotroph lifestyle on a plant host, where they increase in number by several orders of magnitude (Laurila et al., 2008; 112 Potrykus et al., 2016). Functional differences such as metabolic capacities have been 113 identified between D. solani and D. dianthicola by comparative genomics, transcriptomics 114 and biochemical approaches (Bellieny-Rabelo et al., 2019; Raoul des Essarts et al., 2019), 115 116 but fitness differences within host plants remain only partially investigated (Czajkowski et al., 2013; Czajkowski, de Boer, Velvis, & van der Wolf, 2010; Raoul des Essarts et al., 2019; 117 Shyntum et al., 2019). Whether the potato host could be differentially exploited by D. 118 dianthicola and D. solani and whether the two pathogens stably coexist by using different 119 ecological niches or compete directly when exploiting this host remain unsolved questions, 120 despite their importance for understanding the *D. solani* invasion. 121

Here, we combined epidemiological records in potato fields, experimental inoculations and 122 123 population genomics to contribute to our understanding of the patterns and ecological 124 determinants of D. solani invasion. Epidemiological records over one decade in France allowed to compare the relative abundances of the D. solani invader, the D. dianthicola 125 resident and Pectobacterium spp. Using experimental populations and plant assays in 126 127 greenhouse, with a diversity of strains and of ecological conditions, we then focused on D. 128 solani and D. dianthicola to determine the ecological traits that could facilitate or constrain D. 129 solani establishment, including competition or ecological niche differences between the two Dickeya species. Finally, we obtained the genomes of 56 D. solani isolates that we analyzed 130 together with 20 genomes previously published (Khayi et al., 2015), revealing novel 131 132 variations in *D. solani* population. We focused on the quorum-sensing gene vfmB, because it is known to be involved in virulence, to investigate whether its variation, which has not been 133 studied so far, could be associated to invasion traits in D. solani. 134

135

136 2 Material and Methods

137 2.1 Pathogen sampling and identification in potato fields with blackleg disease 138 symptoms

139 Pectinolytic bacteria were isolated from symptomatic plant tissues on crystal violet pectate medium (Hélias, Hamon, Huchet, Wolf, & Andrivon, 2012). Isolates were purified on agar 140 plates and characterized at the genus (Dickeya and Pectobacterium) and species (D. solani 141 and *D. dianthicola*) levels using the PCR primers listed in **Table S1**. Two sampling strategies 142 143 were used. From 2004 to 2015, a national inventory was conducted in French potato 144 producing areas. Each year (with the exception of the year 2006), fields exhibiting blackleg symptoms were randomly sampled by collecting diseased plants from which isolates were 145 recovered and characterized. From 541 fields, around 1600 isolates were collected and 146 taxonomically characterized. In parallel, from 2013 to 2016, 19 of the potato fields exhibiting 147 more than 1% of blackleg incidence were deeply sampled. Around 30 plants with blackleg 148 symptoms were collected along a transect in each field, and a single isolate was retained 149 from each of the 548 plants. The resulting 548 isolates were characterized taxonomically. 150

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152 **2.2** *Dickeya solani* and *D. dianthicola* strains used in plant assays

Five D. dianthicola strains (RNS11-47-1-1A, CFBP1888, CFBP2982, CFBP2015, MIE34) 153 154 and five *D. solani* strains (3337 = RNS08-23-3-1A, IPO2222, RNS05-1-2A, Ds0432.1, 155 PPO9019) were used to produce plant inoculation assays. The strains were chosen to be representative of the diversity of the populations, i.e. from different geographical locations, 156 isolation years or host of collection (potato plants vs ornamentals), and regarding phylogeny 157 placement with neutral markers (Figure S1 and see characteristics and genome accession 158 159 numbers in Table S2). Phylogeny analyses were conducted using MEGA7 (Kumar, Stecher, 160 & Tamura, 2016). Bacterial strains were stored at -80°C in glycerol (25% vol/vol). They were cultivated in TY medium (tryptone 5 g.L⁻¹; yeast extract 3 g.L⁻¹) with or without agar (15 g.L⁻¹) 161 at 28°C. 162

164 2.3 Plant and tuber inoculations by *D. solani* and *D. dianthicola* strains and 165 experimental populations

166 In our plant and tuber assays, we use the term virulence as the capacity of the pathogen to parasitize a host (symptom incidence) and the term aggressiveness as the degree of 167 damage caused by a pathogen on a host (symptom or disease severity). The terms used to 168 describe pathogens behaviors (virulence, symptom incidence, aggressiveness, disease 169 170 severity index, fitness and competitive index) are defined more extensively in 171 Supplementary Methods 1 (SM1). We designed the whole plant experiments based on our knowledge of the pathosystem, to investigate contrasting conditions relevant for the disease 172 expression in fields. Each bacterial strain was cultivated individually before being used for 173 plant and tuber inoculations, either separately or assembled in populations. To constitute 174 experimental populations of D. solani, D. dianthicola, or mixtures of the two species, cell 175 suspensions of different strains were assembled just before plant inoculation. Potato plants 176 (S. tuberosum var. Bintje) and hyacinths (Hyacinthus orientalis var. Delft blue) were 177 178 cultivated in horticultural compost in individual pots (2 L) in a greenhouse at around 23°C (minimum 20°C maximum 28°C) with a 12-hour photoperiod. For mimicking plant infection by 179 soil pathogens, potato plants (three weeks post-tuber plantation) and hyacinths (four weeks 180 post-bulb plantation) were inoculated by watering the substrate with a pathogen cell 181 suspension at 10⁹ colony-forming units (CFU) per pot. This inoculation load was calibrated to 182 183 obtain a large range (20 to 60%) of symptom incidence in the unwounded potato plant condition (Raoul des Essarts et al., 2015). In a wounded condition, the potato roots were 184 wounded with a sterile knife before infection. The symptom monitoring was adapted from 185 186 Raoul des Essarts et al. (2015). The number of symptomatic potato plants (blackleg disease) 187 and hyacinths (soft-rot disease) was recorded twice a week (see examples of symptoms in Figure 1a-b). For each strain and experimental population and unwounded and wounded 188 conditions, the number of symptomatic and asymptomatic plants (hence two symptom 189 classes that were used in statistical comparisons) was counted at 70 days post infection (dpi) 190 191 using 15 potato plants (up to 25 potato plants when indicated) and 8 hyacinths. A set of noninoculated plants was used as an asymptomatic control. In order to facilitate visualization of
the virulence data in the figures, they are presented as a percentage of symptomatic plants
(symptom incidence).

In tuber assays, potato tubers (S. tuberosum var Bintje) were inoculated using a tip to inject 195 10 µL of calibrated pathogen suspensions. Based on previous results (Raoul des Essarts et 196 al., 2019), we chose two different inoculum loads of strains and experimental populations 197 (10⁷ CFU and 10⁵ CFU per tuber) to obtain a large range of symptom severity, to compare 198 199 the capacity to initiate maceration at different population sizes, to investigate fitness of the 200 two pathogens in two contrasting ecological conditions. After 5 days of incubation at 24°C, the tubers were cut in half and scored based on five aggressiveness classes according to the 201 202 symptom severity in each tuber (from no symptom to the most severe symptoms; Figure 1c). For each strain and experimental population, at least 10 tubers were inoculated. A set of 203 204 non-inoculated tubers was used as an asymptomatic control. In order to facilitate the presentation of the aggressiveness data in the figures, results are presented as normalized 205 206 disease severity index (DSI) of which values, ranging from 0 to 100 (arbitrary unit), increase 207 with symptom severity. DSI was calculated using the five aggressiveness classes assigned to 10 tubers, see formula in Supplementary Methods 1 (SM1). 208

209 Emerging lesions from potato stems and hyacinths and rotting tissue recovered from tubers 210 at 5 dpi were collected and frozen at -80°C, and then used to quantify the abundance D. 211 solani and D. dianthicola pathogens within hosts by Taq Man qPCR as described in 212 Supplementary Methods 2 (SM2). Assessing D. dianthicola and D. solani in inoculum and plant tissues (potato stems and tubers, and hyacinths) permitted the calculation of 213 214 competitive index (CI) values following the formula presented in SM1. A CI value equal to 215 one indicated an equal fitness between D. solani and D. dianthicola, CI value greater than one indicated a fitness advantage to D. solani, and CI value below one indicated a fitness 216 advantage to D. dianthicola. 217

219 2.4 Dickeya solani population genomics

Total DNA was purified from each of 56 *D. solani* isolates (their characteristics in **Figure S2**) 220 221 using MasterPure complete DNA and RNA purification kit (Epicentre, Illumina). After quantity 222 and quality controls of extracted DNA using a NanoDrop (ND 1000) device and agarose gel electrophoresis at 1.0 % (w/v), paired-end libraries were constructed for each strain and then 223 sequenced using High Output Sequencing kit with 75 x 2 cycles on and Illumina NextSeq500 224 225 sequencer (CNRS, Gif-sur-Yvette, France). For each strain, 2.4 to 18 million reads were 226 obtained, corresponding to an average coverage ranging from 37x to 270x. Paired-end 227 reads were trimmed (quality score threshold 0.05) and mapped against the D. solani reference genome, from the 3337 strain, at mild stringency threshold (80% identity on 50% 228 read length) using CLC Genomics Workbench version 10.1.3 (Khayi et al. 2015). The 229 mapping was used for the detection of SNPs and InDels using the variant calling tool from 230 CLC genomic workbench version 10.1.3. Only SNPs and InDels (1 to 9 nucleotides) with a 231 high occurrence (≥ 99 % of the reads) in the mapping step were retained. The representation 232 233 of allelic variants in D. solani population was performed using PHYLOViZ (Francisco et al., 2012). 234

235

236 2.5 Characterization of the fitness differences between *Dickeya solani* strains carrying 237 the VfmB_{Ser} and VfmB_{Pro} alleles

238 The structure of the VfmB proteins was modeled and represented using the Phyr2 and EzMol 239 web portals (Kelley, Mezulis, Yates, Wass, & Sternberg, 2015; Reynolds, Islam, Sternberg, 2018). Given the known role in virulence of the vfm gene cluster (Nasser et al., 2013), we 240 investigated the impact on virulence of a SNP detected in the vfm gene cluster : we 241 242 assessed virulence differences between D. solani strains exhibiting either a serine (allele VfmB_{Ser}) or a proline (allele VfmB_{Pro}) at the position 55 of the VfmB protein. Using genomic 243 data, we chose four isolates carrying VfmB_{Pro} (IPO2222, MIE35, AM3a and 3337) and four 244 isolates carrying VfmB_{Ser} (Ds0432.1, RNS10-27-2A, Sp1a and M21a), the four isolates in 245 246 each group differing at other positions in genomes (genome accession numbers and characteristics in **Tables S3** and **S4**). Plant inoculation assays (on potato tubers and stems) were performed following the same protocols as described above using pure strains and mixtures as inocula. In the figures, virulence was presented as the percentage of symptomatic plants (in potato stem infections assay) and aggressiveness by DSI values (in potato tuber infection assays).

To measure their relative fitness, co-inoculation assays were also performed with VfmB_{Ser} 252 253 and VfmB_{Pro} experimental populations, and their relative abundance was quantified by shot 254 gun sequencing of DNA extracted from inoculum and from lesions. From 12 to 28 million reads were obtained for each sample, corresponding to an average coverage of D. solani 255 genomes ranging from 180x to 420x. Sequencing (75 x 2 cycles) was performed using an 256 Illumina NextSeq500 at the I2BC platform (CNRS, Gif-sur-Yvette, France) and Illumina 257 MiSeq platform (University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia). The trimmed reads were 258 mapped on *D. solani vfmB* gene for quantifying the relative abundance of the two VfmB_{ser} 259 and VfmB_{Pro} alleles in each sample using the CLC genomic workbench version 10.1.3. The 260 261 relative abundances of the alleles permitted calculation of CI values of the VfmB_{Ser} and 262 VfmB_{Pro} populations (see **SM1**). A CI value equal to one indicated an equal fitness between 263 D. solani VfmB_{Pro} and VfmB_{Ser} populations, CI value greater than one indicated a fitness advantage to VfmB_{Pro}, and CI value less than one indicated a fitness advantage to VfmB_{Ser}. 264 265 Finally, we used transcriptomics to identity the genes that were differentially expressed 266 between IPO2222 (VfmB_{Pro}) and Ds0432.1 (VfmB_{Ser}) D. solani strains when they grew inside 267 potato tubers (SM2). Transcriptomes were compared as described by Raoul des Essarts et al. (2019). 268

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270 **2.6 Statistical analyses**

The slopes of the dynamics of the percentages of *Dickeya*-, *Pectobacterium*-, *D. solani*- and *D. dianthicola*-positive fields were analyzed using F-tests and ANCOVAs using GraphPad Prism version 8.4.2 for MacOS, GraphPad Software (www.graphpad.com). A Chi-squared method was used to test the non-random distribution of taxa in each field.

275 In all the plant assays, the non-inoculated plants and tubers remained asymptomatic, and this control condition was not considered in statistical analyses. The two symptom levels 276 277 (with or without symptoms) of potato plants and hyacinths virulence assays, the five 278 symptom classes in tuber aggressiveness assays, and gene expression levels were compared among treatments (the different pathogens) by Kruskal-Wallis tests ($\alpha = 0.05$) 279 280 because the data significantly deviated from normality. Then, post-hoc Tukey tests were run 281 to assess what pairwise differences were significant. When the bacterial strains were 282 inoculated separately on plants and tubers, we compared the D. solani and D. dianthicola species traits using each bacterial strain as a replicate of the considered species. When the 283 bacterial strains were inoculated altogether to constitute an experimental population, we 284 compared the D. solani and D. dianthicola species traits using at least two independent 285 286 replicates of the experiments.

In competition assays, the hypothesis of balanced abundances of the two competitors was tested by comparing the calculated CI values to one using a Kruskal-Wallis test. Analyses were carried out with the software R (http://www.R-project.org) using the packages RcmdR and nparcomp.

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292

293 **3 Results**

3.1 Little co-occurrence of *D. dianthicola* and *D. solani* in potato fields

A monitoring of the Pectobacterium and Dickeya populations was performed over one 295 decade (2004-2015) in France. Each year, we recorded the number of fields from which we 296 297 isolated each taxon (Table S5). These data informed on the dynamics of the different 298 pathogen populations. Over the period, Dickeya was detected in 10% to 35% of the sampled fields (Figure 2a). A moderate increase of the percentage of Dickeya-positive fields was 299 observed over time (F= 5.05; DFn= 1; DFd= 9; p= 0.05; $R^2 = 0.36$). Although decreasing in 300 incidence, the resident Pectobacterium species remained the most widespread (67% in the 301 most recent sampling year 2015). As expected, the slopes of the dynamics of the percentage 302

of *Dickeya-* and *Pectobacterium-*positive fields diverged (F= 10.11; DFn= 1; DFd= 18; p= 5 x 10⁻³). Among the *Dickeya* isolates, only two species were identified, *D. dianthicola* and *D. solani* (**Figure 2b**). The slopes of *D. dianthicola-*positive (F= 1.35; DFn= 1; DFd= 9; p= 0.28) and *D. solani-*positive (F= 3.10; DFn=1; DFd= 9; p= 0.11) field percentages were not different from base line and were not different from each other (F= 0.26; DFn = 1; DFd = 18; p= 0.62). This suggests that the *D. solani* invasion did not occur at the expense of *D. dianthicola* in French potato agrosystems.

310 Aside from this national survey, we zoomed at the field level using a more extensive sampling strategy over a four-year period (2013-2016). Along a transect in each of 19 311 sampled fields, we collected ca. 30 plants with blackleg symptoms and a single isolate was 312 characterized from aerial symptoms of each plant, resulting in the sampling of 548 isolates 313 314 (Figure 2c). The Pectobacterium populations were present in all the 19 sampled fields. In each of the 19 fields, the null hypothesis that *Pectobacterium* and *Dickeya* were randomly 315 distributed was rejected (Chi-squared test: DF= 1; p< 0.05), meaning that Pectobacterium 316 and Dickeya co-occurred less often than expected under random distribution. The hypothesis 317 that D. solani and D. dianthicola were randomly distributed along the transect was also 318 rejected in each of the 16 Dickeya-positive fields (Chi-squared tests: DF= 1; p< 0.05) but one 319 320 (field #13; DF= 1; p= 0.24). These field data showed little co-occurrence of taxa at the field levels, both for genera (Dickeya and Pectobacterium) and species (D. solani and D. 321 322 dianthicola). This bias in the symptomatic plants can result from a non-random distribution of the taxa among populations in seed tubers or/and soils and surface waters before plant 323 324 infection, or from competitive exclusion during the infection process of potato plants and tubers. In the following, we focused on the two species D. solani and D. dianthicola to 325 326 compare experimentally their fitness in the course of plant and tuber infection, and in 327 particular to test the hypothesis of competitive exclusion.

328

329 **3.2** *Dickeya dianthicola* exhibited a fitness advantage over *D. solani* in potato plants.

Plant assays were performed in the greenhouse to compare the incidence of blackleg
symptoms after inoculation by *D. dianthicola* or *D. solani* on non-wounded potato plants. Five *D. dianthicola* strains (RNS11-47-1-1A, CFBP1888, CFBP2982, CFBP2015, MIE34) and five *solani* strains (3337 = RNS08-23-3-1A, IPO2222, RNS05-1-2A, Ds0432.1, PPO9019)
were used in these assays.

In a first assay, each strain was inoculated individually on 15 plants and the number of asymptomatic and symptomatic plants were counted at 70 days post inoculation (dpi). A Kruskal-Wallis test revealed differences between *D. solani* and *D. dianthicola* in terms of symptom incidence (k=7; DF=1; p=8 x 10^{-3}): *D. dianthicola* was found more virulent than *D. solani* (percentages of symptomatic plants of $61\% \pm 10$ versus $15\% \pm 11$; **Figure 3a**).

In a second plant assay, the five bacterial cultures (i.e., the five strains) of each species were 340 assembled to constitute two experimental populations and each was inoculated on 15 plants. 341 A mixture of the two species (10 strains) was also inoculated on 15 plants. The assay was 342 duplicated (2 x 15 plants per treatment). We compared symptom incidence at 70 dpi. 343 344 Kruskal-Wallis test revealed differences between the three treatments, i.e., D. solani strain 345 mixture, D. dianthicola strain mixture and species mixture (k=6.1; DF=2; p=0.04). Pairwise comparison (Post-hoc Tukey test) showed that D. solani was less virulent than D. dianthicola 346 (F=-2.5; p= 0.03) and the species mixture (F=1.9; p= 0.10). However, symptom incidence 347 348 caused by the species mixture did not differ from those of the *D. dianthicola* mixture (F=-0.5; 349 p = 0.86). Post-hoc Tukey p-values and mean value (± SE) of the percentage of symptomatic plants inoculated by the *D. dianthicola* $(53\% \pm 7)$, *D. solani* $(23\% \pm 3)$ and mixed $(47\% \pm 0)$ 350 351 populations are presented in the figure 3b. To assess the dynamics of the appearance of 352 symptomatic plants, we also drew a disease progress curve for each replicate (Figure S3a) 353 and compared the areas under disease progress curve (Figure S3b). Pairwise comparisons (Post-hoc Tukey tests) confirmed that D. solani was less virulent than D. dianthicola (F=-336; 354 $p<10^{-11}$) and the species mixture (F=386; $p<10^{-11}$). 355

To evaluate which pathogen had emerged at the beginning of the infection process, hence to identify the most probable causative agent of the observed symptoms, we used qPCR to

quantify pathogen loads. When the two species mixtures were inoculated separately, D. 358 *dianthicola* and *D. solani* reached the mean values \pm SE of 2 x 10¹¹ \pm 1 x 10⁴ cells and 3 x 359 $10^9 \pm 1 \times 10^2$ cells per gram of symptomatic stem tissues, respectively. Among the 14 co-360 infected plants exhibiting symptoms, eight lesions were randomly chosen for qPCR 361 quantification of the pathogen abundance: this analysis revealed an excess of D. dianthicola 362 with a CI median value of 10⁻⁵ (Figure 3c). The eight CI values differed from one (Kruskal-363 Wallis test, k=9.5; DF=1; p= 2 x 10^{-3}), meaning that *D. dianthicola* outcompeted *D. solani* in 364 365 blackleg tissues. Altogether, these data revealed a fitness advantage of D. dianthicola in terms of multiplication within lesions in the aerial parts of the host in either the absence or 366 presence of the *D. solani* invader. 367

368

369 3.3 Dickeya dianthicola exhibited a fitness advantage over *D. solani* in potato plants 370 with wounded roots.

To evaluate whether plant wounding could benefit to the D. dianthicola resident or to the D. 371 372 solani invader, pathogen mixtures were inoculated in pots containing plants with wounded 373 roots. Kruskal-Wallis test revealed differences between the three treatments, i.e., D. solani strain mixture, *D. dianthicola* strain mixture and species mixture (k=29.2; DF=2; p=4.6x10⁻⁷). 374 Pairwise comparisons (post-hoc Tukey tests) showed that the numbers of plants with 375 376 symptoms differed between inoculations with D. solani and D. dianthicola (F=-4.5; p=1.9x10⁻ ⁵) and with the mixture of *D. dianthicola* and *D. solani* (F=6.1; p=2.7x10⁻⁹). Mean ± SE of the 377 percentage of symptomatic plants reached 33% ± 0 for *D. solani*, 83% ± 10 for *D. dianthicola* 378 and 93% ± 7 for a mixture of D. dianthicola and D. solani, indicating a stronger virulence of 379 D. dianthicola as compared to D. solani (Figure S4a). Pairwise comparisons (post-hoc Tukey 380 381 tests) of the areas under the disease curves also confirmed that D. solani was less virulent than D. dianthicola (F=-386; $p<10^{-11}$) and than a mixture of D. dianthicola and D. solani 382 (F=386; p<10⁻¹¹) (Figure S3c-d). Because the virulence measured using symptom incidence 383 at the final time point (70 dpi) and area under disease progress curve (from 1 to 70 dpi) gave 384 385 similar results when comparing the two pathogens, only the final point of symptom incidence

was retained for the analysis of the following plant assays, in order to facilitate thepresentation of the data.

In the 27 emerging lesions collected from co-infected plants, qPCR quantification of the pathogens revealed an excess of *D. dianthicola* with a CI median value of 10^{-5} . These CI values were different from one (Kruskal-Wallis test: k=19.5; DF=1; p= 10^{-5} ; **Figure S3b**).

391 Altogether, these experimental data revealed that the resident *D. dianthicola* was more 392 effective at exploiting unwounded and wounded potato host plants than the *D. solani* invader,

i.e. D. dianthicola had a higher fitness regarding this component of its ecological niche.

394

395 **3.4** *Dickeya solani* exhibited a fitness advantage over *D. dianthicola* in potato tubers.

We compared the *D. dianthicola* and *D. solani* ecological traits in potato tubers. Aggressiveness of the pathogens (i.e., disease severity) was compared using five symptom classes and a disease severity index (DSI) was calculated summarizing the observations of the symptom classes on 10 tubers.

In a first tuber rotting assay, each strain was inoculated separately at 10⁷ or at 10⁵ CFU on 400 each set of 10 tubers. The two different inoculum loads allowed comparing the capacity of 401 the pathogens to initiate maceration and exploit tubers in two contrasting ecological 402 conditions. The assay was performed five times, so we collected symptom class information 403 404 from 50 tubers for each bacterial strain and for each inoculation load. Kruskal-Wallis tests revealed differences between the two treatments, D. solani and D. dianthicola, both at high 405 (k=3.2; DF=1; p=0.07) or at low $(k=43.6; DF=1; p=4 \times 10^{-11})$ inoculum dose. The DSI values 406 were calculated for each set of 10 tubers and mean values ± SE across the five replicates 407 reached 63 ± 13 for *D.* solani and 47 ± 4 for *D.* dianthicola with an inoculum of 10^7 CFU per 408 tuber (Figure 4a) and 49 ± 8 for *D. solani* and 7 ± 4 for *D. dianthicola* with an inoculum of 10^5 409 410 CFU per tuber (Figure 4d).

In a second tuber assay, we used strain mixtures for each of the two species and an assembly of the two species to inoculate 10 tubers for each of 10^7 and 10^5 CFU per tuber. This assay was performed twice. Kruskal-Wallis tests revealed differences between the three

treatments, i.e., D. solani, D. dianthicola and the species mixture both at a high (k=51.3; 414 DF=2; $p=4.2x10^{-11}$) and a low (k=22.4; DF=2; $p=1.3x10^{-5}$) pathogen load. At both bacterial 415 416 loads, pairwise comparisons (Post-hoc Tukey tests) showed that aggressiveness was different between *D. solani* and *D. dianthicola* (at a high load: F=2.7; p=0.04; at a low load: 417 F=8.6; p< 10^{-11}). Aggressiveness also differed between *D. solani* and the species mixture (at 418 a high load: F=2.9; p=0.01; at a low load: F=2.2; p=0.07). A DSI value was calculated for 419 420 each set of 10 tubers. Mean value ± SE of the DSI values reached 83 ± 0 (D. solani), 63 ± 3 (D. dianthicola) and 63 ± 8 (D. solani and D. dianthicola) with an inoculum of 10^7 CFU per 421 tuber (Figure 4b) and 69 ± 14 (D. solani), 16 ± 6 (D. dianthicola) and 48 ± 10 (D. solani and 422 *D. dianthicola*) with an inoculum of 10⁵ CFU per tuber (**Figure 4e**). Altogether, these tuber 423 assays revealed a higher aggressiveness of *D. solani* compared to *D. dianthicola* and to the 424 species mixture. 425

The gPCR analyses of 10 symptomatic tubers revealed that the abundance of the D. solani 426 and *D. dianthicola* strain mixtures ranged from $2 \times 10^9 \pm 3 \times 10^9$ to $9 \times 10^9 \pm 9 \times 10^9$ cells per 427 428 gram of rotted tissues (mean values ± SE). These data indicated no substantial differences in the capacity to exploit tubers in terms of population yield. In co-infection assays, qPCR 429 quantification of the pathogens in 10 symptomatic tubers revealed an advantage in favor of 430 D. solani regardless of the initial load (CI median value = 5.7; Figure 4c and 4f). The CI 431 values were different from one (Kruskal-Wallis tests: k=16.3; DF=1; p-value of 5 x 10⁻⁵ with a 432 433 high load; k=7.8; DF=1; p= 0.05 with a low load).

Overall, tubers constituted potato plant tissues in which *D. solani* initiated symptoms more
efficiently (even with a low pathogen load), caused more damage (higher disease severity
index) and was more competitive than *D. dianthicola* (outcompeting *D. dianthicola*).
Remarkably, the disease severity caused by *D. solani* was decreased in the presence of *D. dianthicola*.

439

440 **3.5** *Dickeya solani* exhibited a fitness advantage over *D. dianthicola* in hyacinths.

The symptom incidence and competition were further evaluated in hyacinths, that represent 441 important hosts as they constitute a reservoir or/and primary or intermediate host of D. 442 443 solani. We expected a higher symptom incidence and growth advantage of D. solani on 444 hyacinth host as compared to D. dianthicola. The five D. dianthicola and five D. solani bacterial strains were inoculated separately on eight plants per strain and the number of 445 symptomatic and asymptomatic plants were counted. At 70 dpi, a Kruskal-Wallis test 446 447 revealed differences between D. solani and D. dianthicola in terms of symptom incidence 448 (k=3.03; DF=1; p=0.08): D. solani was found more virulent than D. dianthicola; means ± SE of the percentage of symptomatic plants reached $43\% \pm 17$ and $23\% \pm 9$, respectively 449 450 (Figure S5a).

In co-inoculation assays with species mixtures (**Figure S5b**), the qPCR quantification of the pathogens in five symptomatic tissues showed that the calculated CI were different from one (Kruskal-Wallis test: k=7.8; DF=1; p= 5 x 10^{-3}). The CI median value of 4 x 10^{9} indicated a high competitive advantage of *D. solani* over *D. dianthicola* in rotted tissues of hyacinths. Bulb plants thus appeared promoting competitive exclusion of *D. dianthicola* by *D. solani*, which would lead to an enrichment in *D. solani* in the bulb plant agrosystems.

457

3.6 Pectate lyases gene expression is higher in Dickeya solani than in D. dianthicola 458 459 The capacity of *D. solani* to initiate rotting with a low bacterial load suggested a differential 460 expression of pectate lyase genes between the two species. To test this hypothesis, the 461 expression levels of the pelA, pelD and pelE genes were quantified by RT-qPCR in the five D. solani and five D. dianthicola strains grown separately in a rich medium (in the absence of 462 pectin) and in emerging lesions of potato stems and tubers (see a detailed protocol in SM2). 463 464 The expression of two other virulence genes, cbsE and acsD, which are not involved in the plant cell wall degradation, but in iron-uptake, were also compared. Four RT-qPCR 465 measurements were performed per condition and gene. For each gene, Kruskal-Wallis tests 466 revealed differences between the six treatments (rich medium, stems and tubers for the two 467 species, considering each strain as a replicate) for the different genes: pelA (k=17.1; DF=5; 468

469 p=4x10⁻³), *pelD* (k=25.1; DF=5 ; p=1x10⁻⁴), *pelE* (k=24.9; DF=5; p=1x10⁻⁴), *cbsE* (k=20.3; 470 DF=5 ; p=1x10⁻³) and *acsD* (k=21.3; DF=5; p=7x10⁻⁴).

Pairwise post-hoc Tukey tests were used to compare gene expression between *D. solani* and *D. dianthicola*. In the absence of pectin (**Figure 5**), the *pelA* (F=864.3; p< 10^{-11}), *pelD* (F=864.3; p< 10^{-11}) and *pelE* (F=2.9; p= 4 x 10^{-3}) genes were expressed at a higher level in *D. solani* than in *D. dianthicola*. The expression levels of the *cbsE* (F=0.377; p=0.99) and *acsD* (F=-1.0; p=0.99) genes were not significantly different between species (**Figure S6**). In the absence of pectin, a higher expression of pectate lyase genes, especially *pelE*, could be considered as an advantage for initiating a rapid degradation of the plant cell wall polymers.

In symptomatic potato tubers and stems, some remarkable gene expression patterns could 478 479 be noticed (Figures 5 and S6). The expression levels of pelD and pelE were higher in D. solani than in *D. dianthicola* (*pelD*: F=864.3; $p<10^{-11}$ in tubers and F=4.5; $p=10^{-4}$ in stems; 480 *pelE*: F=4.5; p= 1.1 x 10^{-4} in tubers and F=8.1; p < 10^{-11} in stems). The *pelA* (F=864.3; p< 10^{-11} 481 ¹¹) and *cbsE* (F=3.4; p= 0.01) genes were expressed at higher levels in *D. solani* than in *D.* 482 483 dianthicola stem tissues, but not in tubers (pelA: F=-0.09; p=1 and cbsE: F=0.67; p=0.99). The acsD expression level did not differ between the two species in diseased tubers (F=-1.5; 484 p=0.9) and stems (F=0.5 p=0.9). Overall, in plant symptoms, D. solani maintained a higher 485 486 expression of the virulence genes pelD and pelE compared to D. dianthicola.

487

488 **3.7** *Dickeya solani* genomics revealed two *vfmB* alleles at balanced frequencies

We used a population genomic approach to investigate additional ecological traits of the *D. solani* invading population. We studied SNPs and InDels in 76 *D. solani* genomes (**Figure S2**), 56 of which were assembled after Illumina sequencing in this study, while the 20 others had been previously acquired using the same sequencing approach (Khayi et al., 2015). Out of the 76 genomes, 66 exhibited from 2 to 11 SNPs and InDels when compared to the *D. solani* 3337 reference genome (**Figure S2**). In the nine others, more than 100 SNPs were observed: some of these SNPs were clustered in regions of the chromosome (RNS13-30-1A, 496 PPO9134, PPO9019, RNS13-31-1A, RNS13-48-1A, RNS15-102-1A, RNS07-7-3B) while 497 others were distributed along the genome (RNS05-1-2A and RNS10-105-1A).

498 Focusing on the 66 genomes exhibiting less than 12 SNPs compared to the strain 3337, 45 non-synonymous variations were identified in whole genomes (Table S6). Two-third of them 499 (30 out of 45) were present in one genome only, while the 15 others were found in at least 500 501 two genomes. Among these 15, three SNPs were identical in four strains, two others in five 502 strains and one was present in 19 genomes (Table S6 and Figure 6a). The most balanced 503 frequencies consisted in a thymine (T) in 19 genomes and a cytosine (C) residue in the other 504 48 genomes at the position 2,930,940 in the reference D. solani 3337 genome (Figure 6a). The C to T modification caused a proline (VfmB_{Pro} allele) to serine (VfmB_{Ser} allele) change at 505 the position 55 in the VfmB protein. Such SNPs affecting an amino-acid in the vfmB gene 506 retained our attention because the Vfm quorum-sensing system is involved in the regulation 507 of some virulence traits in Dickeya (Nasser et al., 2013; Potrykus et al., 2018). 508

A SNP-based tree of these 67 strains (Figure 6b) revealed that the D. solani isolates 509 510 carrying VfmB_{Ser} were placed in two different sub-clusters, one with only two VfmB_{Ser} D. 511 solani strains, EU3296 and Ds0432.1, and the other mainly VfmB_{ser} strains. This observation 512 suggests that the VfmB_{ser} allele could have appeared independently in two different D. solani lineages, thus representing convergence. The VfmB_{Ser} allele was present in 25% (19 out of 513 514 76) of all analyzed D. solani genomes. A similar percentage (27%, 17 out of 63) was 515 observed when only the French isolates were considered. Using the isolation year of these 516 63 D. solani isolates, we drew the dynamics of the percentage of the VfmB_{ser} alleles, which 517 was found to fluctuate over the past decade (2005-2015) with a peak in 2013-2014 (Figure 6c). 518

We also investigated the presence of the VfmB_{Pro} and VfmB_{Ser} alleles in other *Dickeya* species. The alignments of VfmB proteins retrieved from genomic databases revealed the occurrence of the VfmB_{Pro} allele in *D. dadantii*, *D. chrysanthemi* and *D. dianthicola* genomes, while the VfmB_{Ser} allele was found in *D. zeae* genomes (**Figure S6**). However, the low

number of genomes available let open the possibility of the existence of additional alleles in
each of these *Dickeya* species.

525

526 **3.8 VfmB**_{ser} strains were more aggressive than VfmB_{Pro} strains in soft-rot assays

The modeling of the D. solani VfmBPro and VfmBSer protein structures predicted a 527 conformational difference in the beta-sheet structure of the virulence regulator VfmB (Figure 528 529 7a). This change is explained by the exceptional conformational rigidity of proline that 530 strongly affects secondary structures such as alpha helices and beta sheets. The modeling data prompted us to test whether VfmB_{Pro}-VfmB_{Ser} variation could be associated with a 531 change in aggressiveness. To compare the aggressiveness of *D. solani* VfmB_{Ser} and VfmB_{Pro} 532 isolates, we used genomic data to identify a set of 8 isolates carrying either VfmBPro 533 534 (IPO2222, MIE35, AM3a and 3337) or VfmB_{Ser} (Ds0432.1, RNS10-27-2A, Sp1a and M21a), in which the other variations were at different positions (Tables S3 and S4). Soft-rot assays 535 using 10 inoculated potato tubers per strain revealed that the set of the VfmB_{Ser} strains was 536 537 more aggressive (Kruskal-Wallis test; k=9.5; DF=1; p= 2 x 10⁻³) than that of the VfmB_{Pro} strains (Figure 7b). 538

To test the existence of differential expression of virulence genes in tuber tissues, we 539 compared transcriptomes of *D. solani* IPO2222 (VfmB_{Pro}) and Ds0432.1 (VfmB_{Ser}) (Figure 540 541 7c; Table S7). The expression of four genes found differentially expressed based on 542 transcriptomics (pelE, impC, cytA and budA) was further investigated by RT-qPCR in the 543 same samples used for transcriptomics: they found to be also upregulated (Figure S8). Overall, 170 differentially expressed genes (adjusted p-value < 0.05 and absolute log2 fold 544 change > 2) were identified by comparative transcriptomics. Most of them (150 genes) were 545 546 upregulated in Ds0432.1 carrying the VfmB_{Ser} allele (Table S8). We studied more specifically 35 well-characterized D. solani virulence genes (Raoul des Essarts et al., 2019). We 547 observed an enrichment of these virulence genes among the upregulated genes in D. solani 548 Ds0432.1, while none of them was found among the downregulated genes (Table S9). 549 550 These upregulated virulence genes in D. solani Ds0432.1 included the pectate lyase genes

pelB, pelC, pelD, pelE and *pelL,* the protease genes *ptrA, prtB* and *prtC,* and the T6SSrelated toxin/antitoxin genes *hcp* (**Table S9**). These upregulated genes encompassed virulence determinants that are already known to be regulated by the Vfm quorum-sensing in *D. dadantii* (Nasser et al., 2013).

555

3.9 Fitness costs and gains associated with VfmB alleles in potato stems and tubers

557 We used the same eight isolates carrying either VfmB_{Pro} (IPO2222, MIE35, AM3a and 3337) 558 or VfmB_{Ser} (Ds0432.1, RNS10-27-2A, Sp1a and M21a) to constitute VfmB_{Pro} and VfmB_{Ser} 559 experimental populations for comparing their fitness in plant assays.

In soft-rot assays (Figure 8a-b), each of the two experimental populations and their mixture 560 was inoculated on 10 tubers and a symptom class was assigned to each tuber. Two 561 inoculation loads were used (10⁷ CFU or 10⁵ CFU per tuber). This assay was performed in 562 triplicate (3 x 10 tubers per treatment). Kruskal-Wallis tests revealed differences between the 563 three treatments, i.e., inoculation by *D. solani* VfmB_{Pro}, *D. solani* VfmB_{Ser} and their mixture, 564 565 and the differences were significant at both high (k=17.6; DF=2; p= 1.5×10^{-4}) and low (k=7.2; DF=2; p=0.03) pathogen loads. Whatever the bacterial load, pairwise comparisons (Post-hoc 566 Tukey tests) showed that aggressiveness (i.e. symptom severity) was different between D. 567 solani VfmB_{Pro} and *D. solani* VfmB_{Ser} (at a high load: F=4.6; p=9.5 x 10^{-6} ; at a low load: 568 569 F=0.8; p= 0.01). The *D. solani* VfmB_{ser} population was more aggressive than the *D. solani* VfmB_{Pro} population (DSI mean value \pm SE of 92 \pm 2 for VfmB_{Ser} vs 73 \pm 3 for VfmB_{Pro} at a 570 high load and 45 ± 2 for VfmB_{Ser} vs 26 ± 9 for VfmB_{Pro} at a low load; Figure 8a-b). VfmB_{Ser} 571 *D. solani* strains thus more efficiently damaged tubers than VfmB_{Pro} *D. solani* strains. 572

573 When the VfmB_{Ser} and VfmB_{Pro} *D. solani* experimental populations were co-infected in tubers, 574 shotgun sequencing of the pathogens recovered from symptoms allowed to calculate CI 575 values (**Figure 8a-b**). With a load of 10^7 CFU per tuber, the CI values (8 values; median = 576 1.3) were not different from one (Kruskal Wallis test; k=0.8; DF=1; p= 0.4). With a load of 10^5 577 CFU per tuber, the CI values (3 values; median = 2) differed from one (Kruskal Wallis test; 578 k=4.4; DF=1; p= 0.04). In tubers, the VfmB_{Pro} allele thus appeared neutral or to confer a 579 moderate advantage as compared to the VfmB_{Ser} allele.

580 In blackleg symptom assays (Figure 8c), the D. solani VfmB_{Pro} and D. solani VfmB_{Ser} experimental populations and their mixture were inoculated on non-wounded plants and the 581 number of symptomatic and asymptomatic plants were counted. The assay was performed in 582 triplicate: two assays with 25 plants and one assay with 15 plants per treatment. Kruskal-583 584 Wallis tests revealed no difference between the three treatments, i.e., the D. solani VfmBPro 585 strain mixture, the *D. solani* VfmB_{Ser} strain mixture and their mixture (k=0.29; DF=2; p=0.86). Shotgun sequencing of bacteria recovered from symptoms allowed calculation of CI values in 586 16 co-infected plants (Figure 8c). These CI values were different from one (Kruskal-Wallis 587 test; k=6.6; DF=1; p= 9 10⁻³) with a median CI of 14, showing a fitness advantage of the 588 VfmB_{Pro} allele in emerging lesions in the stems. 589

Altogether, the plant assays indicated that the VfmB_{Ser} allele was associated to a higher aggressiveness in the rotted tubers compared to the VfmB_{Pro} allele. This suggested that the VfmB_{Ser} allele could more efficiently initiate maceration of tubers in the field and storage conditions. In contrast, the VfmB_{Ser} allele seemed to confer a lower competitive fitness than the VfmB_{Pro} allele when *D. solani* proliferates in rotted tubers and, particularly, in stem symptoms. Such opposite gains across different conditions could contribute to the maintenance of balanced frequencies of the two alleles in *D. solani* populations.

597

598 4 Discussion

Two successive invasions of *Dickeya* potato pathogens occurred in Europe: first *D. dianthicola* in the middle of the 20th century, this pathogen being now considered as endemic, and second, *D. solani* at the beginning of the 21st century. *Dickeya solani* and *D. dianthicola* cause similar symptoms on potato plants, so that they are expected to compete for the same resources. Over ten years, our epidemiologic surveys revealed a successful establishment of *D. solani* together with a maintenance of *D. dianthicola*. Our experiments contributed to

explain such puzzling co-existence by contrasted advantages in different parts of the plantsand therefore partially different ecological niches.

607 By comparing ecological traits of D. solani and D. dianthicola, using multiple strains representative of the population diversity, we indeed found contrasted behaviors in these 608 species with respect to aerial parts versus tubers of S. tuberosum. The resident D. 609 610 dianthicola more efficiently exploited host stems after an inoculation of the wounded and 611 unwounded roots than did the invader D. solani, i.e., causing higher symptom incidence, and 612 exhibiting greater proliferation and relative fitness in competition assays. In contrast, D. solani more efficiently initiated the rotting process (especially at a low bacterial inoculum) and 613 outcompeted D. dianthicola in tubers, with potential consequences on tubers in the fields and 614 during storage. Hence, our assays suggest that infected tubers could facilitate the entry and 615 establishment of the D. solani invader into the potato agrosystems. A contrasting defense 616 617 response of potato foliage and tuber against Phytophtora infestans has been reported (Gao & Bradeen, 2016). In addition to the intrinsic characteristics of *D. solani* and *D. dianthicola*, 618 619 an organ-specific response of the plant defense system could similarly also contribute to their 620 difference in behavior.

621 The capacity of *D. solani* to cause rotting at a lower bacterial load than *D. dianthicola* is likely 622 at least partly due to a higher expression of the *pel* enzymes, especially PelE that acts as an 623 initiator of the plant cell wall degradation (Duprey et al., 2016). By comparing the expression 624 of some *pel* genes in emerging lesions in potato stems and tubers, we observed a higher 625 expression of the virulence genes pelD and pelE in D. solani compared to D. dianthicola. Remarkably, by comparing pel genes in several Dickeya species, Duprey et al. (2016) 626 627 showed that D. solani evolved specific regulatory sequences that contributes to a different 628 expression level of the pelD and pelE genes compared to D. dianthicola. The pelA gene is truncated in D. dianthicola (Duprey et al., 2016; Raoul des Essarts et al., 2019), but full-629 length and expressed in *D. solani* (as shown in this study), reinforcing their virulence arsenal. 630 Other metabolic traits could also contribute to the fitness advantage of *D. solani* for exploiting 631 632 tubers: comparative transcriptomics revealed a higher expression of the glyoxylate shunt in

633 *D. solani* than in *D. dianthicola*, a pathway that contributes to exploit alternative carbon 634 sources when sugar availability is low (Raoul des Essarts et al., 2019).

635 Beside the tripartite interaction between potato plant host, D. solani and D. dianthicola, additional environmental (soil and climate) and biological factors (microbiota including 636 Pectobacterium species, other hosts and non-host plants) may facilitate or limit D. solani 637 638 establishment (Charkowsky 2018; Shyntum et al., 2019; Toth et al., 2011). We showed that 639 D. solani efficiently outcompeted D. dianthicola in hyacinths, in line with the epidemiologic 640 data supporting the bulb plants as potential intermediate hosts with an important role in the recurrent invasion of potato agrosystems (Chen, Zhang, & Chen, 2015; Slawiak et al., 2009; 641 van der Wolf et al., 2014). Prophylactics may allow circumventing the propagation of D. 642 solani from an agrosystem to another. Competition and facilitation processes have been well 643 studied in pathogenic fungi (Al-Naimi, Garrett, & Bockus, 2005; Abdullah et al., 2017; 644 Gladieux et al., 2015; Zhan & McDonald, 2013). Another factor that could reduce competition 645 between the two Dickeya species is their natural low abundance in soils and surface waters, 646 647 as well as in seed tubers that are subjected to prophylactic diagnosis. A small population size 648 belonging to a single species could proliferate in a plant individual without any interactions with another Dickeya or Pectobacterium pathogen species. These effects linked to 649 650 population size and dispersal are expected to delay invasion. In line with this hypothesis, the 651 observed slow increase of the percentage of Dickeya-positive fields over one decade (2004-652 2015) suggested that the Dickeya invasion was still ongoing. Among the emerging literature 653 on microbial invasion, the D. solani pathogen appears as a good example illustrating how different ecological components (here, the plant host and a resident pathogen) should be 654 655 considered to understand the biological invasion by a bacterial pathogen (Cadotte et al., 656 2018; Germain, Mayfield, & Gilbert, 2018).

The genome sequencing data indicating low diversity in *D. solani* suggest a bottleneck during introduction in Europe. The dispersal modes (either horizontally via soil, surface water, insects and some agricultural practices or vertically by asymptomatically contaminated seed tubers) could contribute to further bottlenecks in *D. solani* (Charkowsky 2018; Toth et al.,

2011). Selection on some genes may also have further reduced genetic diversity through 661 selective sweeps across the whole genomes as these bacteria are clonal. Allelic changes 662 related to quorum-sensing systems were already observed in different plant and animal 663 664 pathogens along the host-colonization process (Feltner et al., 2016; Guidot et al., 2014; Tannières, Lang, Barnier, Shykoff, Faure, 2017), indicating that balancing selection 665 contributed to maintain their variability. Remarkably, we observed balanced frequencies of 666 two alleles in the VfmB protein involved in the Vfm-type quorum-sensing in *Dickeya* bacteria. 667 668 The chemical structure of the Vfm signal is not known, but it is known to be involved in tuber rotting and upregulation of some virulence genes including pectate lyases (pel genes), 669 proteases (prt genes) and cellulases (cel genes) (Nasser et al., 2013; Potrykus et al., 2018). 670 Using tuber assays, we observed a slightly higher aggressiveness in VfmB_{Ser} strains 671 672 compared to VfmB_{Pro} strains. Using transcriptomics of *D. solani* pathogens recovered from tuber symptoms, we confirmed an enrichment of upregulated genes, including pel and prt 673 674 genes, in the VfmB_{ser} strain Ds0432.1 compared to VfmB_{Pro} strain IPO2222. Because of the 675 role of the VfmB protein in Vfm signaling is not completely elucidated, it was premature to go 676 deeper into the mechanistic characterization of the VfmB_{Ser} and VfmB_{Pro} alleles. In a near 677 future, the reconstruction of allelic mutants and comparison with the wild strain with otherwise the same genetic background should help characterizing the role of VfmB in Vfm 678 679 quorum-sensing and ecology of *D. solani*.

680 In this work, we strongly suggest that the VfmB_{Ser} strains are more aggressive than the 681 VfmB_{Pro} strains in potato tubers, but not more virulent in potato stem assays, and that the VfmB_{Ser} strains were less competitive than the VfmB_{Pro} strains in tuber and stem symptoms. 682 Such an environment-dependent advantage of VfmB_{ser} and VfmB_{Pro} alleles in plant infection 683 684 assays predicts balancing selection in natural populations. The VfmB_{ser} allele could thus provide an advantage when competition is reduced at the beginning of the establishment in 685 potato agrosystems and under a high dispersal condition. In contrast, VfmB_{ser} could be 686 outcompeted by VfmB_{Pro} when *D. solani* is already established. Our epidemiologic data 687 688 revealed up and down variation of VfmB_{ser} relative abundance in field populations over the past decade, in agreement with an increase of competition between *D. solani* VfmB alleles in the more recent sampling year. There is a very low number of SNPs/InDels (<12) in the genomes beyond those in Vfm, however, functional genetics will be required to fully validate the causal role of the Vfm alleles.

In conclusion, this study using complementary approaches, multiple strains representative of the population diversity and multiple ecological conditions, brings novel insights allowing a better understanding of the pattern and causes of the *D. solani* invasion into potato production agrosystems, and the reasons why *D. dianthicola* nevertheless persisted. More broadly, this study contributes to our understanding the ecological determinants of pathogen invasion and of the conditions for the maintenance of endemic competitors.

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700 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

PB was supported by a PhD grant from Université Paris-Sud (Université Paris-Saclay), KR 701 was supported by a PhD grant from FN3PT/inov3PT with the support of ANRT 702 703 (N°2016/0800). KGC thanks the financial support from the University of Malaya (FRGS grant FP022-2018A and HIR grant H-50001-A000027). This work has benefited from the facilities 704 and expertise of the high throughput sequencing platform and the plant culture facilities at 705 706 I2BC (Gif-sur-Yvette). This work was supported by CNRS (SE2016-2017-2018), French 707 Federation of Seed Potato Growers (FN3PT/inov3PT), Agence Nationale de la Recherche 708 (ANR-15-CE21-0003) and LabEx Saclay Plant Sciences-SPS (ANR-10-LABX-0040-SPS).

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859 DATA ACCESSIBILITY

B60 DNA sequences: Genbank accessions VYSC00000000; VZQE00000000; VZQF00000000;

861 VZQG0000000; VZQH00000000; VZQI00000000; VZQK00000000; VZQJ00000000;

862 VZQL0000000; VZQM0000000

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864 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION**

- DF, PB, VH conceived experiments; JC, EM, PD, AL, AB and VH performed field sampling and molecular diagnosis; PB characterized fitness traits in *D. solani* and *D. dianthicola*; PB, KR and EM characterized fitness traits in *D. solani* vfmB variants; PB performed RNA analyses (RT-qPCR and transcriptomics); YJ, KWH, KGC, AL and PB prepared DNA samples and perforemd sequencing; SK compared *D. solani* genomes; PB, KR and DF performed statistical analyses; DF, TG, PB, VH, SR wrote the manuscript.
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872 CONFLICT OF INTEREST

- 873 No potential conflict of interest was disclosed.
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- 879 Figure legends
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Figure 1 Symptoms caused by *Dickeya* pathogens. Symptoms (white arrows) caused by *Dickeya solani* and *Dickeya dianthicola* on potato stems (**a**) and hyacinths (**b**). The five symptom classes (0 to 4) used to compare the aggressiveness of *Dickeya solani* and *Dickeya dianthicola* on potato tubers (**c**).

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888 Figure 2 Dickeya and Pectobacterium prevalence from potato fields exhibiting blackleg 889 symptoms. Percentage of Pectobacterium-containing and Dickeya-containing fields (a) and that 890 of D. solani-containing fields and D. dianthicola-containing fields (b) were calculated each year 891 from 2004 to 2015 (with the exception of 2006). (c) Number and relative abundance of the 892 Pectobacterium, D. dianthicola and D. solani isolates collected in 19 symptomatic fields sampled 893 from 2013 to 2016. A hierarchical clustering paired group method delineated four pathogen 894 population groups, i.e. Pectobacterium only (I: 3 fields), D. solani and Pectobacterium (II: 9 fields), 895 D. dianthicola and Pectobacterium (III: 3 fields), and D. dianthicola, D. solani and Pectobacterium 896 (IV: 4 fields).

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898 Figure 3 Symptom incidence and fitness of Dickeya dianthicola and D. solani in potato 899 plants. In a, mean value and standard error (SE) of the percentage (%) values of plants exhibiting 900 blackleg symptoms, which were measured after inoculation of each of the five D. solani strains 901 (3337, IPO2222, RNS05-1-2A, Ds0432.1, PPO9019) and five D. dianthicola strains (RNS11-47-1-902 1A, CFBP1888, CFBP2982, CFBP2015, MIE34) on 15 plants. The p-value of the Kruskal-Wallis 903 test comparing of the symptomatic classes between the two species is indicated below the graph. 904 In b, mean value and SE between two replicates of the percentages (%) of plants exhibiting 905 blackleg symptoms which was measured on 15 plants inoculated by D. dianthicola and D. solani 906 populations and their mixture. The p-values of the pairwise comparisons (Post-hoc Tukey tests) of 907 the symptomatic classes are indicated below the graph, when $p \le 0.1$. In **c**, competitive index (CI) 908 values between D. solani and D. dianthicola populations were calculated in eight emerging lesions 909 of co-infected plants and revealed a competitive advantage of D. dianthicola: the CI median (= 2.4 10⁻⁵) is represented by a thick bar; p-values resulting from Kruskal-Wallis tests testing difference 910 from one are indicated. Legend: * for $0.05 \le 0.1$; ** for $0.01 \le 0.05$ and *** for $p \le 0.01$. 911

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- Figure 4 Aggressiveness and fitness of Dickeya dianthicola and D. solani in potato tubers. 918 Rotting assays were conducted by inoculating each tuber by either 10⁷ colony-forming units (CFU) 919 (in **a**, **b** and **c**) or 10⁵ CFU of pathogens (in **d**, **e** and **f**). In **a**, **b**, **d** and **e**, each disease severity 920 921 index (DSI) value was calculated using symptom classes observed on 10 tubers. In a and d, mean 922 values and standard errors (SE) of DSI values were measured for each of the five D. solani strains (3337, IPO2222, RNS05-1-2A, Ds0432.1, PPO9019) and five D. dianthicola strains (RNS11-47-1-923 924 1A, CFBP1888, CFBP2982, CFBP2015, MIE34) using five (a) and two (d) independent experiments. The p-values of the Kruskal-Wallis tests comparing symptom classes are indicated 925 926 below the graphs. In **b** and **e**, mean values and standard errors of DSI values were measured 927 twice for each of the experimental populations of D. dianthicola, D. solani and the mixture of the 928 two. The p-values of the pairwise Tukey tests comparing the symptomatic classes are indicated, 929 when $p \le 0.1$. In **c** and **f**, the competitive index (CI) between D. solani and D. dianthicola 930 populations was calculated in 10 co-infected symptomatic tubers: the median values (indicated by 931 a thick bar) reached 5.7 (c) and 5.8 (f) and the CI values were statistically different from one (Kruskal-Wallis test; $p = 5 \ 10^{-5}$ and p = 0.05 respectively), revealing a competitive advantage of 932 D. solani. Legend: * for 0.05<p≤0.1; ** for 0.01<p≤0.05 and *** for p ≤0.01. 933
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936 Figure 5 Expression of the pectate lyase genes pelA, pelD and pelE. The expression level of the pelA, pelD and pelE genes was evaluated in each of the five D. solani strains (3337, IPO2222, 937 938 RNS05-1-2A, Ds0432.1, PPO9019) and five D. dianthicola strains (RNS11-47-1-1A, CFBP1888, 939 CFBP2982, CFBP2015, MIE34), grown in three conditions: a rich culture medium in the absence 940 of pectin (exponential growth phase) and symptomatic tubers (at 5 days post infection) and emerging lesions in stems. Relative expression was measured four times and normalized using 941 the rpoB and yafS gene expression. In the graphs, the mean values and standard error (SE) of 942 943 gene expression from all strains of a given species are indicated, as well as p-values of pairwise 944 comparisons by Tukey tests. Legend: * for $0.05 ; ** for <math>0.01 and *** for <math>p \le 0.01$.

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Figure 6 Population genomics of *Dickeya solani*. In a, scan of 67 *D. solani* genomes revealed
that the genome position 2,930,940, (according the *D. solani* 3337 genome), in the *vfmB* gene,
was the most balanced non-synonymous variation, with alternated VfmB_{Pro} (71%) and VfmB_{Ser}
(29%) alleles. In b, single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP)-based tree of *D. solani* strains using
PHYLOViZ; the name of the French isolates is indicated in blue font; the VfmB_{Ser} and VfmB_{Pro}
strains used in the plant assays are underlined. In c, dynamics of the VfmB_{Ser} allele (%) among
the *D. solani* isolates along the sampling period 2005-2015 in France.

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Figure 7 Characterization of the VfmB alleles. In a, using the Escherichia coli AidB protein (the 958 959 PDB accession is 3DJL) as a model, the Phyre2-predicted structure of the VfmB protein showed conformational differences in the beta-sheet associated with the VfmB_{Pro} and VfmB_{Ser} alleles; the 960 Pro55 and Ser55 positions are in red color in the VfmB representations obtained using the EzMol 961 962 web server. In b, mean values and standard error (SE) of disease severity index (DSI) values, which were calculated by recording symptom classes on 10 tubers infected by 10⁷ CFU of each of 963 964 the D. solani strains carrying either VfmBPro (IPO2222, MIE35, AM3a and 3337) or VfmBSer (Ds0432.1, RNS10-27-2A, Sp1a and M21a); the p-value of the Kruskal-Wallis test comparing the 965 966 four VfmB_{Pro} and four VfmB_{Ser} strains using symptom classes is indicated below the graph. In **c**, comparative transcriptome of *D. solani* 3337 (VfmB_{Pro}) and Ds0432.1 (VfmB_{Ser}) recovered from 967 968 soft-rot lesions in potato tubers; upregulated virulence genes were enriched in Ds0432.1 (VfmB_{Ser}) 969 as illustrated by the *pelB*, *pelC*, *pelC*, *hcpA* and *prtA* genes (closed circles).

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Figure 8 Aggressiveness, symptom incidence and fitness assays of two Dickeya solani 973 experimental populations expressing the VfmB alleles. Soft-rot assays were conducted by 974 inoculating each tuber by either 10⁷ colony-forming units (CFU) (a) or 10⁵ CFU (b) of the VfmB_{Pro} 975 and VfmB_{Ser} D. solani populations and a mixture of the two. In a and b, each disease severity 976 977 index (DSI) value (measuring aggressiveness) was calculated using symptomatic classes 978 observed on 10 tubers; the assays were performed in triplicate. The p-values of the pairwise 979 Tukey tests comparing the symptom classes are indicated, when $p \le 0.1$. In **c**, percentage (%) of 980 plants exhibiting blackleg symptoms was measured on plants inoculated by the VfmB_{Pro} and 981 VfmB_{Ser} D. solani populations and a mixture of the two. These assays measuring symptom 982 incidence were performed in triplicate. Kruskal-Wallis test revealed no difference between the 983 three treatments using symptom classes (p = 0.86). In **a**, **b** and **c**, competitive index (CI) values of VfmB_{Pro} and VfmB_{Ser} populations were calculated using allele counts based on shotgun 984 985 sequencing of bacterial populations recovered from co-infected tissues. Median values of CI are represented as thick lines and reached 1.7 (8 repeats in a), 2.0 (3 repeats in b) and 14.0 (16 986 987 repeats in c) in the three treatments. Statistical differences between CI values and 1 (Kruskal-Wallis test) revealed that neither *D. solani* VfmB_{Pro} or *D. solani* VfmB_{Ser} had significant advantage 988 989 in tubers inoculated with a high load (p = 0.3 in **a**), but *D. solani* VfmB_{Pro} was more competitive in tubers inoculated with a low load (p = 0.04 in b) and in stems (p = 9 x 10^{-3} in c). Legend: * for 990 0.05<p≤0.1; ** for 0.01<p≤0.05 and *** for p ≤0.01. 991