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# Genomic features of bacterial adaptation to plants 

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## Supplementary Information

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## Detailed bacterial isolation and genome sequencing process

Bacterial strains from Brassicaceae and Poplar were isolated using previously described protocols ${ }^{1,2}$. Poplar strains were cultured from root tissues collected from Populus deltoides and Populus trichocarpa trees. Strains designated CF and YR were isolated from native Populus deltoides growing in central Tennessee along the Caney Fork river and eastern North Carolina along the Yadkin river, respectively. The strains designated OV and OK were isolated from common garden grown Populus trichocarpa trees in Corvallis and Clatskanie, Oregon, respectively. Root samples were processed as described previously ${ }^{3-6}$. Briefly, rhizosphere strains were isolated by plating serial dilutions of root wash, while for endosphere strains, surface sterilized roots were pulverized with a sterile mortar and pestle in 10 mL of $\mathrm{MgSO}_{4}(10 \mathrm{mM})$ solution followed by plating serial dilutions. For surface sterilization, roots were washed 5 times with sterile water, followed by 30 s incubation in $95 \%$ ethanol, 3 min incubation in $5 \%$ NaOCl , then 6 washes with sterile water ${ }^{3}$. Strains were isolated on R2A agar media, and resulting colonies were picked and re-streaked a minimum of three times to ensure isolation. Isolated strains were identified by 16 S rDNA PCR using primers 8 F (AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG) and 1492R (GGTTACCTTGTTACGACTT) followed by Sanger sequencing and analysis.

For maize isolates, we selected soils associated with two different maize genotypes grown in two regions. II14h, a sweet corn inbred line, and Mo17, a non-stiff stalk maize inbred line, were grown in two different fields (Lansing, NY and Urbana, IL). The rhizosphere soil samples from three replicates of each maize genotype grown at each field at week 12 after planting were collected as previously described ${ }^{7}$. A total of 12 rhizosphere soil samples were used to culture Pseudomonas isolates. From each rhizosphere soil sample, 0.1 g soil was washed in 5 mL sterile phosphate buffered saline with $10 \%$ glycerol for 1 hour with gentle rocking at room temperature. $100 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ of the wash liquid was plated onto Pseudomonas Isolation Agar (BD Diagnostic Systems, Franklin Lakes, NJ) using a disposable inoculating loop. The plates were incubated at $30^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ until colonies formed. To extract genomic DNA, single colonies were inoculated into 5 mL LB, and grown at $30^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ overnight. The cultures were harvested by centrifugation at $5000 \times \mathrm{g}$ for 5 min , and the cells were lysed using the B1 and B2
solutions as described in the Qiagen Genomic DNA Handbook (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). The genomic DNA was precipitated with ethanol and sodium acetate, and pelleted after a centrifugation at $1811 \times \mathrm{g}$ for 30 min . PCR and Sanger sequencing of 16 S rDNA were used to confirm the identity and purity of the genomic DNA preparations. The genomes of the first four Pseudomonas isolates cultured from each rhizosphere soil sample were sequenced. Thus, a total of 48 Pseudomonas isolate genomes were sequenced.

For isolation of single cells, A. thaliana accessions Col-0 and Cvi-0 were grown to maturity in 2.5 cm KORD pots (Canada) in Mason Farm or Clayton soil/sand mix (2 parts soil, 1 part sand $)^{8}$. The pots containing the roots were turned upside down and the root mass was removed, carefully rolling and kneading the root mass to allow most of the soil to fall away. Dirty root masses were submerged and stirred in a separate 4 L beaker of distilled water, allowing most soil to dislodge and sink. Roots were transferred to clean water and the process repeated, until the stirred water no longer appeared murky. All remaining soil and biological debris were carefully picked away from each root using sterile tweezers. For surface sterilization, the pool of visually clean roots was transferred to separate 250 mL glass bottles, each containing 200 mL of a $1: 10$ dilution of household bleach in water containing $0.1 \%$ Triton $\mathrm{X}-100$. Surface sterilization proceeded for 10 min with gentle agitation (inversion). The bleach solution was decanted and immediately replaced twice with autoclaved distilled water. The plant material was then treated for 2 minutes with 200 mL of $2.5 \%$ sodium thiosulfate to fully neutralize the bleach; this was then washed twice more with autoclaved distilled water. Surfaced sterilized roots and leaves were then ground using a sterile mortar and pestle (grinding surfaces were sprayed with $95 \%$ ethanol and flamed several times) in a laminar flow hood. MES buffer ( 2.5 mM , ph 6.0) was added as needed to maintain a liquid consistency while grinding. Two parts of plant lysate were mixed with one part of autoclaved $80 \%$ glycerol for a $27 \%$ final glycerol concentration. This mixture was thoroughly mixed and pipetted in 1.5 mL aliquots into 2 mL capacity cryovials and snapfrozen until further processing, resulting in 10-20 vials per condition.

To prepare cells for cell sorting, each glycerol stock was thawed on ice and diluted with 10 mL sterile MES buffer ( pH 6 ) to reduce viscosity. The solution was filtered
through a 100 micron cell strainer (Fisherbrand) into a 50 mL tube, and subsequently aspirated with a syringe and passed through an 11 micron syringe filter ( $11 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ Millipore nylon mesh in a Millipore Swinnex Filter Holder) to remove remaining plant particulates. The flow through was centrifuged for 5 min at $10,000 \times \mathrm{g}$ to re-concentrate the cells, and resuspended in 1 mL of MES buffer plus 500uL $80 \%$ glycerol. This tube was vortexed, flash frozen, and shipped to the JGI for further processing. Individual cells were isolated using fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) followed by DNA amplification using multiple displacement amplification (MDA), and 16S rDNA screening as described previously ${ }^{9,10}$.

DNA from isolates and single cells was sequenced using next generation sequencing platforms, mostly using the Illumina HiSeq technology (Table S3). Libraries for Illumina sequencing were prepared using the following protocol: Plate-based DNA library preparation for Illumina sequencing was performed on the PerkinElmer Sciclone NGS robotic liquid handling system using a Kapa Biosystems library preparation kit. 200 ng of sample DNA was sheared to 300 bp using a Covaris LE220 focusedultrasonicator. The sheared DNA fragments were size selected with solid phase reversible immobilization (SPRI) beads two times and then the selected fragments were end-repaired, A-tailed, and ligated with Illumina compatible sequencing adaptors from IDT containing a unique molecular index barcode for each sample library. The prepared library was then quantified using KAPA Biosystem's next-generation sequencing library qPCR kit and run on a Roche LightCycler 480 real-time PCR instrument. The quantified library was then then multiplexed with other libraries, and the pool of libraries was then prepared for sequencing on the Illumina HiSeq sequencing platform utilizing a TruSeq paired-end cluster kit, v3 or v4, and Illumina's cBot instrument to generate a clustered flowcell for sequencing. Sequencing of the flowcell was performed on the lllumina HiSeq2000/2500/1TB sequencer using a TruSeq SBS sequencing kit, v3 or v4, following a $2 \times 150$ indexed run recipe.

For the three genomes that were sequenced using MiSeq (Table S3), the libraries were prepared using the Nextera XT kit.

Some genomes were sequenced using 454 technology. Libraries were prepared using the following protocol: double-stranded genomic DNA samples were fragmented
via sonication to 400-800 base pairs. These fragments were end polished and ligated to a set of Y-shape adaptors. The 454 library fragments were then clonally amplified in bulk by capturing them through hybridization on microparticle beads and subjecting them to emulsion based PCR resulting in beads that were covered with millions of copies of a single DNA fragment (size range 400-800bp) where each bead contained a different clonally amplified library fragment. After amplification, the beads were recovered from the emulsions and loaded into the wells of a PicoTiterPlate device (PTP) such that wells contained single DNA beads. The PTP was then inserted into the 454 Genome Sequencer FLX-Titanium instrument for sequencing where sequencing reagents were sequentially flowed over the plate and the sequence of the DNA fragments was determined.

Sequenced genomic DNA was assembled using different assembly methods (Table S3). Genomes were annotated using the DOE-JGI Microbial Genome Annotation Pipeline (MGAP v.4) ${ }^{11}$ and were deposited at the Integrated Microbial Genomes (IMG) database ${ }^{12}$, ENA ${ }^{13}$ or Genbank ${ }^{14}$ for public usage.

## Analysis of the nine taxa prevalence in 16S and metagenome surveys

We used 16S rDNA surveys and metagenomes of the plant environment of Arabidopsis ${ }^{8,15}$, barley ${ }^{16}$, wheat, and cucumber ${ }^{17}$. The published information of the relative abundance and taxonomic assignments of operational taxonomic units (OTUs) was retrieved. Based on the taxonomic assignment the relative abundances of OTUs within a specific taxon were summed to yield the relative abundance of that taxon. If there were multiple replicates of an experiment we used the median value. Reads mapped outside of the bacteria kingdom were ignored in relative abundance calculations.

## Assessment clustering quality using taxon-specific markers

In order to estimate the quality of the clusters output by UCLUST and Orthofinder, we ran the Phyla_Amphora ${ }^{18}$ script MarkerScanner.pl using the default parameters over the 3837 genomes in our dataset. This resulted in the identification of sequences that are
homologues to the curated set of taxon markers contained in Phyla_Amphora. We used a custom script to summarize the marker scanning results in a table depicting the distribution of detected markers across the CDS ids and Genome ids in our dataset. Next, we compared the distribution of each of the taxon-specific markers identified by Phyla_Amphora across the clusters output by UCLUST and Orthofinder.

For each taxon-specific marker, we determined how many proteins in a given taxon (e.g Pseudomonas) were identified as a homologue to that marker. Then, we quantified the distribution of these homologues across the clusters output by UCLUST and Orthofinder. Ideally, all the homologues of a taxon-specific marker should be clustered in a single cluster of CDS (an orthogroup), in addition, that single cluster should contain only the CDS identified as homologues to the taxon marker. Using this logic, we estimated two metrics: the purity and fragmentation index. The purity index quantifies how many CDS are contained across all the clusters (UCLUST, Orthofinder) needed to cover the total number of CDS identified as homologues to a specific Phyla_Amphora taxon marker. The fragmentation index quantifies the number of clusters (UCLUST, Orthofinder) needed to cover the total number of CDS identified as homologues to a specific Phyla_Amphora taxon marker. The two metrics described above were calculated over each of the 9 taxa individually. The data and scripts utilized to compute these measurements across all taxa are available on: https://github.com/isaisg/gfobap/tree/master/phyla amphora benchmark
The plots generated from this analysis were generated using the ggplot ${ }^{19}$ (v 2.2.1) package from $R$.

## Construction of pan genome matrices, relational tables and HMM databases from the Orthofinder orthogroups

For each of the nine taxa, we used custom scripts to transform the orthogroup result output from Orthofinder into pan genome matrices depicting the distribution of orthogroups across the genomes of that given taxon. Additionally, we constructed tables exhibiting the distribution of orthogroups across genomes based on the CDS IDs. The pan genome matrices and tables described above can be downloaded from: http://labs.bio.unc.edu/Dangl/Resources/gfobap website/matrices df ogs.html

The scripts used to compute the matrices and tables can be found in: https://github.com/isaisg/gfobap/tree/master/orthofinder orthogroups to matrices dataf rames

Additionally, for each orthogroup in our dataset consisting of more than two CDS, we built multiple sequence alignments using MAFFT ${ }^{20}$ (v7.305b). Subsequently, we used these alignments as inputs for Hidden Markov Model (HMMs) construction using the hmmbuild command from the HMMER suite ${ }^{21}$ (v 3.1b2). We built nine HMM databases, one corresponding to each of the nine taxa analyzed in this study. Also, to complement these databases, we developed a scanning pipeline that utilizes the HMMER suite to search for the HMM orthogroups in our nine databases over any genome provided to the pipeline. The MAFFT alignments, HMM profiles and HMM databases can be downloaded from:

## http://labs.bio.unc.edu/Dangl/Resources/gfobap website/mafft hmm.html

The scripts to compute the alignments and the HMM profiles plus the pipeline to scan novel genomes using the HMM databases can be downloaded from:
https://github.com/isaisg/gfobap/tree/master/mafft_hmm

## https://github.com/isaisg/gfobap/tree/master/scanner orthogroups scripts

## Assesment of PA/NPA prediction robustness using validation genome datasets

Seven validation genome groups were assembled representing the following genera: Bacillus (order Bacillales, $n=222$ ), Burkholderia (order Burkholderiales, $n=121$ ), Chryseobacterium (phylum Bacteroidetes, $\mathrm{n}=35$ ), Flavobacterium (phylum Bacteroidetes, $\mathrm{n}=44$ ), Paenibacillus (order Bacillales, $\mathrm{n}=60$ ), Sphingomonas (Class Alphaproteobacteria, $\mathrm{n}=59$ ), Streptomyces (Group Actinobacteria1, $\mathrm{n}=90$ ). These datasets contained at least 10 genomes in PA and NPA groups and were relatively balanced. In addition, we compiled a new set of genomes from Bacillus ( $\mathrm{n}=66$ ) and Pseudomonas ( $\mathrm{n}=24$ ) that were labeled as PA or NPA based on their isolation sites. Each of the statistical approaches was run on the nine validation datasets to yield
significant PA and NPA Pfam domains. The significant domains were compared against the significant Pfam domains predicted from the original and much larger genome datasets to find the overlap between these two sets. The significant PA/NPA Pfam domains predicted based on the validation sets had on average $65-73 \%, 40 \%$, and $20-$ $24 \%$ overlap with the original results based on the entire dataset, for Hyperg, Scoary, and PhyloGLM, respectively. We deduce that the power and reproducibilty of Phyloglm and Scoary is limited when taxa are compared at low taxonomic ranks genus/family).

## Growth and transformation of Paraburkholderia Kururiensis M130 affecting rice root colonization

Paraburkholderia kururiensis strain M130 was grown at $30^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in King's B medium ${ }^{22}$. $E$ coli strains were grown at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in Luria Bertani medium. When needed, antibiotics were used in the following concentrations: ampicillin, $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$; kanamycin, $50 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$; nitrofurantoin, $50 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$; rifampicin $50 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{mL}$.

## Recombinant DNA techniques

Recombinant DNA techniques, including digestion using restriction enzymes (New England Biolabs UK), agarose gel electrophoresis, purification of DNA fragments, ligation with T4 ligase, and transformation of E. coli were performed as described ${ }^{23}$. Plasmids were purified using EuroClone columns (EuroClone S.p.A., Italy). Triparental matings to mobilize DNA from E. coli to P. kururiensis were carried out with the helper strain E. coli (pRK2013) ${ }^{24}$. PCR amplifications were performed using GoTaq Flexi DNA Polymerase (Promega, Madison, WI, USA).

## Genes reproducibly enriched or depleted in phylogenetically diverse PA and RA genomes

Pfam domains and COG proteins ('terms') that were found as significantly PA and RA, or soil and NPA in multiple taxa according to the hypergeometric test were retrieved. The proportions of genes carrying the term (or multiple terms in cases of a term combination in a gene) in each genome were used in a $t$-test.

We searched the direct neighbors of Lacl-family genes across all analyzed PA genomes. For each gene found, we retrieved its COG annotation which was translated to a COG category. Only informative COG categories were used. COGs belonging to "Function unknown" and "General function prediction only" were filtered out due to limited functional information.

In order to find Lacl-family TF DNA binding sites, we scanned the intergenic regions of over 25 bp length between Lacl-family genes and directly adjacent (in upstream, downstream or antisense head-to-head and tail-to-tail orientations) carbohydrate-related genes for abundant kmers of different lengths using wordcount (Emboss package ${ }^{25}$ ). The most abundant motifs found in multiple taxa were compared against their distribution in random intergenic sequences using the Fisher exact test.

## Annotating proteins with PREPARADOs as being candidates for secretion

We annotated PREPARADO-containing proteins as secreted by Sec if they had a predicted signal peptide ${ }^{26}$ and lacked a transmembrane domain according to IMG annotation. A protein was marked as being secreted by T3SS if it had a score $>0.999$ according to EffectiveT3 as implemented by the effectivedb server ${ }^{27}$. A domain was predicted to be associated with secretion by Sec or T3SS if over $50 \%$ of the proteins carrying the domain were predicted to be secreted by these secretion systems. The proportions of proteins carrying the different domains and being secreted are mentioned in Table S21.

## Detailed construction of $\mathbf{\Delta 5}$-Hyde1 strain

Acidovorax Citrulli (A. citrulli) strain AAC00-1 and its derived mutants were grown on nutrient agar (NA) medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc, Waltham, MA) supplemented with rifampicin ( $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{ml}$ ). To delete a cluster of five Hyde1 genes (Aave_3191, Aave_3192, Aave_3193, Aave_3194, Aave_3195), we performed a marker-exchange mutagenesis as previously described ${ }^{28}$. Briefly, DNA fragments from regions flanking the Hyde1 gene cluster were amplified using the following primers: Aave3187SwaFor and Aave3187SwaRev (upstream region, 1.2Kb), Aave3196PmeFor and Aave3196PmeRev (downstream region, 1.485 Kb ). A kanamycin (Km) resistance gene
(nptII) was amplified from $\mathrm{pDK} 4{ }^{29}$ with primers km _for and km _rev. The derived Nptll gene is flanking with the FLP recognition target sites. The two flanking fragments of the Hyde1 cluster were then fused to the nptll gene by overlap $\mathrm{PCR}^{30}$. The derived cassettes were cloned into the PCR8/GW-Topo vector (Invitrogen), and cloned into the suicide vector pLVC18L-Des ${ }^{31}$ using LR clonase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). The derived construct was then mobilized into A. citrulli strain AAC00-1 by tri-parental mating as previously described ${ }^{32}$. Double crossover mutants were selected using marker-exchange mutagenesis as previously reported ${ }^{31}$. A. citrulli strain that contained impaired genes were selected on NA medium supplemented with rifampicin ( $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{ml}$ ) and kanamycin ( $50 ~ \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{ml}$ ). The kanamycin resistant mutant strain was further transformed with a modified plasmid vector pBBR1FLP2 that carries the FLP recombinase gene ${ }^{33}$. The mutant strain lost the kanamycin resistance gene and the modified pBBR1FLP2 plasmid was further selected as previously described ${ }^{33}$. The marker-free mutant was designated as $\Delta 1$-Hyde1, and its genotype was confirmed by PCR amplification with primers "Aave3187 check for" and "Aave3196 check rev". The PCR product was confirmed by sequencing.

The marker-exchange mutagenesis procedure was repeated to further delete four Hyde1 loci: Aave_0989, Aave_4706, Aave_4335, and Aave_1108. Primers used to amplify the up- and downstream flanking sequences and check the deletions are listed in Table S25. The final mutant with deletion of 9 out of 11 Hyde1 genes was designated as $\Delta 5$-Hyde1, which has been used for competition assay.

A similar procedure was also used to generate the $\Delta$ T6SS mutant. The primers used for amplify the upstream and downstream DNA sequences around the vasD gene homologue (Aave_1470) are Aave1469 Swa For and Aave1469 Swa Rev (upstream); Aave1471 PmeFor and Aave1471 PmeFor (downstream). The $\Delta$ T6SS mutant was checked with primers "Aave1470 check for" and "Aave1470 check rev".

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## Supplementary Figure Legends



b Acinetobacter


C


Figure S1. Density plots of genome size as a function of genome label. X and Y axes are genome size and the density in all panels, respectively. a. Taxa in which PA genomes and/or soil genomes are significantly larger than NPA genomes. b. A taxon in which there are no significant differences among any of the groups tested. c. A taxon in which PA and NPA genomes are both significantly larger than soil genomes and there is no significant difference in size between PA and NPA genomes. In all kernel density plots, the color of the main title represents a distinct phylum; green - Proteobacteria, blue - Bacteroidetes, red - Firmicutes, purple - Actinobacteria. Significant genome size differences are based on $t$-test ( $\mathrm{P}<0.05$ is considered statistically significant). Double asterisks denote PhyloGLM results. Green - PA genomes are larger than NPA genomes, brown - soil genomes are larger than NPA genomes, blue - RA (rootassociated) genomes are larger than soil genomes. Full results are presented in Supplementary Table 5.

Pangenome sizes

Phylo. distances between genomes

Actinobacteria1, Streptomyces: PA vs. Animal

Actinobacteria1, Streptomyces:
PA vs. aquatic

Alphaproteobacteria, Sphingomonas:
PA vs. NPA

Bacteridetes, Chryseobacterium: PA vs. NPA

Burkholderiales, Burkholderia PA vs. Animal

Pseudomonas,
Pseudomonas PA vs. Animal





















Pseudomonas,
Pseudomonas
PA vs. Aquatic


Figure S2. PA and NPA bacteria have similar pangenome size. PA genomes tend to be more closely related (lower phylogenetic distance between genomes) and therefore have large core genome and lower number of unique genes in comparison to NPA genomes. Twenty random genomes were selected from genera that have mixed PA and NPA classifications. For each NPA group, we used only organisms isolated from the same type of environment (e.g. Aquatic environment). The genome selection process aimed to minimize differences in phylogenetic distance distribution between the PA and NPA groups (Methods). Left panels: differences in genome size between PA and NPA groups. Y axis is genome size. Central panels: number of genes within each group of genes (core, accessory genes, unique genes, pangenome). Right panel: phylogenetic distances between all pairs in each group. ** significant difference ( $t$-test $\mathrm{P}<0.05$ ).

PA vs. NPA


## Figure $\mathbf{S 3}$.

Fold change differences in gene categories between PA/NPA and RA/soil genomes of the same taxon. Top panel: PA vs. NPA genomes. Bottom panel: RA vs. soil genomes. For both panels, the heat map indicates the level of enrichment or depletion. Hot colored cells indicate significantly more genes (q value $<0.05$, FDR corrected two-sided $t$-test) in PA and RA genomes in the upper and lower panels, respectively. Histograms on the upper and right margins represent the total number of genes compared in each column and row, respectively. PA - plant-associated, NPA - non-plant associated, RA root associated, soil -soil-associated. * not a formal class name. Carbohydrates Carbohydrate metabolism and transport gene category. N.S - non-significant; q value $>=0.05$ (FDR corrected two-sided $t$-test). FC - fold change. Full COG category names from the x axis appear in Table S6. Note that cells with high estimate absolute values (dark colors) are based on categories of few genes and are therefore more likely less accurate.

## PA and NPA genomes of taxon $X$



Protein/domain pooling


Protein/domain clustering + calculation of phylogentic diversity


Calling significant PA and NPA clusters


Calling PA and NPA gene operons:





Figure S4. Overview of the algorithm used to call PA and NPA genes (proteins) and gene operons. High quality PA and NPA genomes were collected. All protein and protein domains were retrieved from genomes. Different protein/domain clustering approaches were used based on existing functional annotation (COG, Pfam, TIGRfam, KEGG orthology) or based on running OrthoFinder over all protein coding genes (for simplicity TIGRfam and KEGG orthology were not mentioned in the figure). Note that clusters may contain a combination of orthologous and paralogous genes. Significant PA/NPA clusters (enriched with PA/NPA proteins/domains) were called based on five tests: PhyloGLM and the Hypergeometric test, both gene copy number and gene presence/absence versions (phyloglmcn, phyloglmbin, hypergen, hypergbin), and Scoary. Genes from PA and NPA genomes in PA and NPA clusters, respectively, are marked with a triangle. Genes from the significant protein clusters (OrthoFinder, COG) were separately used to predict PA/NPA gene operons comprised of nearly exclusively adjacent PA/NPA genes sharing the same orientation. PA Pfam domains were used to search the overlap between those and plant-like protein domains (PREPARADOs).


Figure S5. Orthofinder exhibits lower clustering fragmentation than UCLUST.
We detected taxon specific markers in the 3837 genomes utilized in this study using Phyla_Amphora ${ }^{18}$. Ideally, all the coding sequences (CDS) that were identified as a homologue of a particular Phyla_Amphora marker should be clustered in a single orthogroup. Using this logic, we derived two metrics from the Phyla_Amphora markers detected to quantify the quality of the orthogroups output by UCLUST and Orthofinder. The purity index quantifies how many CDS are contained in all the orthogroups needed to cover the total number of CDS identified by Phyla_Amphora as homologues of a specific marker. The fragmentation index quantifies the total number of orthogroups needed to recover the total number of homologues identified by Phyla_Amphora of a specific marker. For ease of visualization both metrics are transformed to span values between 0 to 1 , values closer to 1 denote higher purity and integrity of the orthogroups analyzed. The data and scripts utilized to compute these measurements across all taxa are available
on:
https://github.com/isaisg/gfobap/tree/master/phyla amphora benchmark.

| Hypergbin Phyloglmbin | PA | NPA | RA | soil |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Scoary <br> Acinetobacter | 1 |  |  |  |
| Alphaproteobacteria | $\begin{gathered} 14692608543 \\ 36_{56}^{110} \end{gathered}{ }^{56}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 473 \\ & 257 \\ & 116 \\ & 17^{3} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} 448 \\ 44 \\ 2110 \\ 16 \end{gathered}$ | 23 <br> 1 |
| Actinobacteria1 | $\begin{aligned} & 56 \\ & 16 \\ & 15 \\ & 261 \\ & 10 \end{aligned}$ |  | $\begin{array}{r} 3 \\ 6872^{3} \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} 10 \\ 3 \\ 69 \\ 89 \end{gathered}$ |
| Actinobacteria2 | $14 \quad 1891$ | $9^{1354}$ | 1 | 31 |
| Bacillales | $61139$ | $\begin{gathered} 1 \\ 2626153 \end{gathered}$ | 1116 | 2114 |
| Bacteroidetes | $\begin{gathered} 1029545688 \\ 1440 \\ 14 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 395_{828}^{52} 204 \\ 33 \end{gathered}$ | $2,4{ }_{10}^{10}$ |  |
| Burkholderiales | $\begin{gathered} 1104 \begin{array}{c} 943 \\ \\ 31_{49}^{89} \end{array} 428 \end{gathered}$ |  | 4315 | 161411 |
| Pseudomonas | $\begin{array}{cc} 66270 & 736 \\ 812 \\ 48 \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{cc}  \\ 28260 & 1136 \\ 136 & \\ 14140 & \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} 1 . \\ 3 \\ 98 \end{gathered}$ | 8559 |
| Xanthomonadaceae | $7$ <br> 531 | $\begin{aligned} & 1 \\ & 2 \\ & \\ & 113 \end{aligned}$ | 1 |  |

Figure S6. Number of significant orthogroups predicted by the presence/absence (binary) versions of the Hypergeometric test (hypergbin) and PhyloGLM (phyloglmbin), and by Scoary. The numbers represent gene clusters found either in each group separately (where circles do not overlap) or in the overlap between the groups. Hypergbin is likely the most promiscuous and sensitive approach as it predict enriched genes in high numbers and does not require a phylogenetic signal (monophyletic genes can be significant in hypergbin). It may lead to many false positive predictions. Phyloglmbin is more stringent than hypergbin but it may be less sensitive than hypergbin as it cannot predict any significant gene in certain taxa that lack sufficiently strong phylogenetic signal (e.g. Actinobacteria2, Xanthomonadaceae). Scoary is probably the most stringent approach that combines a naive statistical test, a phylogenetic test, and label permutations. Therefore it frequently yields the lowest number of significant predictions.


Figure S7. Number of significant orthogroups predicted by the copy number versions of the Hypergeometric test (hypergcn) and PhyloGLM (phyloglmcn), and by Scoary. The numbers represent gene clusters found either in each group separately (where circles do not overlap) or in the overlap between the groups. Hypergen is likely the most promiscuous yet sensitive approach as it predict enriched genes in high numbers and does not require a phylogenetic signal (monophyletic genes can be significant in hypergbin). It may lead to many false positive predictions. Phyloglmcn is more stringent than hypergen but it may be less sensitive than hypergen as it cannot predict any significant gene in certain taxa that lack sufficiently strong phylogenetic signal (e.g. Actinobacteria2, Xanthomonadaceae). Scoary is probably the most stringent approach that combines a naive statistical test, a phylogenetic test, and label permutations. Therefore it frequently yields the lowest number of significant predictions.


Actinobacteria2


## Pseudomonas

## Xanthomonadaceae

Bacillales


Figure S8. Euler diagrams of the significant PA (green), NPA (yellow), RA (blue), and soil (brown) COGs of all nine analyzed taxa. Statistical significance was estimated by hypergen.






Figure S9. Copy number of PA genes in PA and NPA genomes of Bacteroidetes. PA Genes were predicted by a. hypergbin, b. hypergen, c. phyloglmbin, d. phyloglmcn, e. scoary. PA genes are more abundant in PA genomes than in NPA genomes from each of the different environments ( $t$-test, $\mathrm{p}<0.05$ ).


C


Figure S10. Copy number of PA genes in PA and NPA genomes of Actinobacteria1. PA Genes were predicted by a. hypergbin, b. hypergcn, c. phyloglmbin, d. phyloglmcn, e. scoary. PA genes are more abundant in PA genomes than in NPA genomes from each of the different environments ( $t$-test, $p<0.05$ ).


PCo1


Figure S11. PCoA analysis. a and $\mathbf{b}$ show different taxa. We visualized the overall contribution of statistically significantly enriched/depleted orthogroups to the differentiation of PA and NPA genomes based on Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA). We used the Canberra distance to perform PCoA over a pan genome matrix with the total number of orthogroups across a taxon (Full Matrix, including nonsignificant orthogroups) and pan genome matrices containing only the corresponding enriched/depleted orthogroups as called by the different algorithms utilized (hypergbin, hypercn, phyloglmbin, phyloglmen and scoary). The black lines in the plots correspond to the fit of a logistic regression that modeled the binary label of each genome (PA, NPA) given the two first axes of each plot. The blank plots occur when there were not statistically significantly enriched/depleted orthogroups reported by a particular method or because the number of enriched/depleted orthogroups were not sufficient to recover the total number of genomes across a taxon. Inside each scatterplot, we include the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) value output from the logistic regression fit. Smaller AIC values represent a better quality of the model to the data.
Acinetobacter

$\left[\begin{array}{c}\sim \\ 0 \\ \uparrow \\ i \\ i \\ i\end{array}\right.$ 0
0
0
0
0


Alphaproteo.


Figure S12. Reads from 38 shotgun metagenome samples were mapped to significant PA, NPA, RA, and soil genes predicted by the hypergeometric test, gene copy number version (hypergen). Normalized reads are defined as log2((A * 10000)/(B * $C)$ ), where $A$ is defined as hits of metagenomes reads against predicted gene set (e.g. PA genes of taxon $X$ ), $B$ is defined as hits against phylum-specific phylogenetic marker genes (taking into account the taxon fraction within the sample), and $C$ is defined as number of predicted gene clusters (e.g. PA gene clusters of taxon $X$ ). Samples in which either $B$ or $C$ equals 0 (namely either taxon is absent from the metagenome or there is an unavailable reference) and therefore could not be normalized were omitted. The Arabidopsis, cucumber, wheat, and poplar metagenomes were paired with the other samples from the same plant. These paired samples were taken from the same soil (cucumber and wheat samples were taken from the same pot) and were sequenced together. RA samples are also PA samples but not the other way around, because some PA samples were taken from rhizosphere which is different from our operational definition of RA: rhizoplane and endophytic compartment. The last four columns represent the distribution across all relevant samples. An asterisk above/below a boxplot pair represents a significant difference in the expected direction ( $\mathrm{P}<0.05$, two sided $t$-test). RA genes are required to be more abundant in PA over NPA metagenomes and also in RA over soil metagenomes.

## Acinetobacter

| 8. | : |
| :---: | :---: |
| Actinobacteria $1 \times$ |  |
| $\bigcirc$ | - 1 |

Actinobacteria 2

Alphaproteo.

## Bacteroidetes

## Pseudomonas

Xanthomonad.
 $\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllll}1.5 & 2.5 & 3.5 & 4.5 & 1.5 & 2.0 & 2.5 & 3.0 & 3.5 & 0.5 & 1.0 & 1.5 & 2.0 & 2.5 & 2.5 & 3.0 & 3.5 & 4.0 & 4.5 & 0.5 & 1.5 & 2.5 & 3.5 & 1.5 & 2.0 & 2.5 & 3.0 & 3.5\end{array}$




0
$\stackrel{3}{6}$
$\stackrel{0}{8}$











Figure S13. Reads from 38 shotgun metagenome samples were mapped to significant PA, NPA, RA, and soil genes predicted by the hypergeometric test, gene presence/absence version (hypergbin). Normalized reads are defined as $\log 2((\mathrm{~A}$ * $10000) /\left(B^{*} C\right)$ ), where $A$ is defined as hits of metagenomes reads against predicted gene set (e.g. PA genes of taxon X ), B is defined as hits against phylum-specific phylogenetic marker genes (taking into account the taxon fraction within the sample), and $C$ is defined as number of predicted gene clusters (e.g. PA gene clusters of taxon X ). Samples in which either B or C equals 0 (namely either taxon is absent from the metagenome or there is an unavailable reference) and therefore could not be normalized were omitted. The Arabidopsis, cucumber, wheat, and poplar metagenomes were paired with the other samples from the same plant. These paired samples were taken from the same soil (cucumber and wheat samples were taken from the same pot) and were sequenced together. RA samples are also PA samples but not the other way around, as some PA samples were taken from rhizosphere which is different from our operational definition of RA: rhizoplane and endophytic compartment. The last four columns represent the distribution across all relevant samples. An asterisk above/below a boxplot pair represents a significant difference in the expected direction ( $\mathrm{P}<0.05$, two sided $t$-test). RA genes are required to be more abundant in PA over NPA metagenomes and also in RA over soil metagenomes.


Figure S14. Reads from 38 shotgun metagenome samples were mapped to significant PA, NPA, RA, and soil genes predicted by Scoary. Normalized reads are defined as $\log 2\left((A * 10000) /\left(B^{*} C\right)\right)$, where $A$ is defined as hits of metagenomes reads against predicted gene set (e.g. PA genes of taxon $X$ ), $B$ is defined as hits against phylumspecific phylogenetic marker genes (taking into account the taxon fraction within the sample), and C is defined as number of predicted gene clusters (e.g. PA gene clusters of taxon $X$ ). Samples in which either $B$ or $C$ equals 0 (namely either taxon is absent from the metagenome or there is an unavailable reference) and therefore could not be normalized were omitted. The Arabidopsis, cucumber, wheat, and poplar metagenomes were paired with the other samples from the same plant. These paired samples were taken from the same soil (cucumber and wheat samples were taken from the same pot) and were sequenced together. RA samples are also PA samples but not the other way around, as some PA samples were taken from rhizosphere which is different from our operational definition of RA: rhizoplane and endophytic compartment. The last four columns represent the distribution across all relevant samples. An asterisk above/below a boxplot pair represents a significant difference in the expected direction ( $\mathrm{P}<0.05$, two sided $t$-test). RA genes are required to be more abundant in PA over NPA metagenomes and also in RA over soil metagenomes.


Actinobacteria 2


Figure S15. Reads from 38 shotgun metagenome samples were mapped to significant PA, NPA, RA, and soil genes predicted by PhyloGLM, gene copy number version (phyloglmen). Normalized reads are defined as $\log 2\left((A * 10000) /\left(B{ }^{*} C\right)\right)$, where $A$ is defined as hits of metagenomes reads against predicted gene set (e.g. PA genes of taxon $X$ ), $B$ is defined as hits against phylum-specific phylogenetic marker genes (taking into account the taxon fraction within the sample), and $C$ is defined as number of predicted gene clusters (e.g. PA gene clusters of taxon X). Samples in which either B or C equals 0 (namely either taxon is absent from the metagenome or there is an unavailable reference) and therefore could not be normalized were omitted. The Arabidopsis, cucumber, wheat, and poplar metagenomes were paired with the other samples from the same plant. These paired samples were taken from the same soil (cucumber and wheat samples were taken from the same pot) and were sequenced together. RA samples are also PA samples but not the other way around, as some PA samples were taken from rhizosphere which is different from our operational definition of RA: rhizoplane and endophytic compartment. The last four columns represent the distribution across all relevant samples. An asterisk above/below a boxplot pair represents a significant difference in the expected direction ( $\mathrm{P}<0.05$, two sided $t$-test). RA genes are required to be more abundant in PA over NPA metagenomes and also in RA over soil metagenomes.



Actinobacteria 2

Bacteroidetes

Burkholderiales

Pseudomonas

Xanthomonad.











Alphaproteo.
Bacillales

## Alphaprot Bacillales

Figure S16. Reads from 38 shotgun metagenome samples were mapped to significant PA, NPA, RA, and soil genes predicted by PhyloGLM, gene presence/absence version (phyloglmbin). Normalized reads are defined as $\log 2((A * 10000) /(B \times C))$, where $A$ is defined as hits of metagenomes reads against predicted gene set (e.g. PA genes of taxon X ), B is defined as hits against phylum-specific phylogenetic marker genes (taking into account the taxon fraction within the sample), and $C$ is defined as number of predicted gene clusters (e.g. PA gene clusters of taxon X ). Samples in which either B or C equals 0 (namely either taxon is absent from the metagenome or there is an unavailable reference) and therefore could not be normalized were omitted. The Arabidopsis, cucumber, wheat, and poplar metagenomes were paired with the other samples from the same plant. These paired samples were taken from the same soil (cucumber and wheat samples were taken from the same pot) and were sequenced together. RA samples are also PA samples but not the other way around, as some PA samples were taken from rhizosphere which is different from our operational definition of RA: rhizoplane and endophytic compartment. The last four columns represent the distribution across all relevant samples. An asterisk above/below a boxplot pair represents a significant difference in the expected direction ( $\mathrm{P}<0.05$, two sided $t$-test). RA genes are required to be more abundant in PA over NPA metagenomes and also in RA over soil metagenomes.


Figure S17. All eight deletion mutant gene strains of putative PA genes in Paraburkholderia kururiensis M130 do not affect bacterial growth rates. Mutants are described in Table S17.





Bacteroidetes

Burkholderiales

Pseudomonas

Figure S18. Direct neighbors of Lacl-family transcription factor genes. Genes next to Lacl-family genes were retrieved in all possible orientations relative to the Lacl-family gene: upstream sense, downstream sense, or antisense (head-to-head and tail-to-tail). The COG annotation of each gene was retrieved and was translated into COG category.

DNA-binding transcriptional regulator, MarR family (COG1846)
e Pimeloyl-ACP methyl ester carboxylesterase (COG0596)


b DNA-binding transcriptional regulator, AcrR family (COG1309)



d Glycoside hydrolase family 2 (pfam00703)


Figure S19. Various protein and protein domains enriched in PA and RA bacteria from multiple taxa and occasionally identified by multiple approaches. Double asterisks indicate a significant difference between the compared groups ( $\mathrm{P}<0.05$, $t$-test). Filled circles below each axis denotes the number of approaches in which the protein/domain was found to be significant (maximum is five).


Figure S20. Various protein and protein domains enriched in NPA and soil bacteria from multiple taxa and occasionally identified by multiple approaches. Double asterisks indicate a significant difference between the compared groups ( $\mathrm{P}<0.05, t$-test). Filled circles below each axis denote the number of approaches in which the protein/domain was found to be significant (maximum is five).

All Pfam domains ( $n=16306$ )

Each domain was tested for being PA/RA/NPA/soil by the five approaches in the nine taxa


Domains predicted to be PA/RA in at least 4 tests ( $\mathrm{n}=2670$ )


Discarding domains that are significant NPA/soil in more than two tests ( $\mathrm{n}=1779$ )

Plant-like domains ( $\mathrm{n}=708$ ): Pfam domains that are present in plants and bacterial genomes, yet are at least x2 more abundant in plants


Find overlap

64 Plant resembling PA and RA domains
Random set ( $\mathrm{n}=500$ )


Random set ( $\mathrm{n}=500$ )


A feature statistically enriched (Fisher exact test) with PREPARADOs in comparison to the two random domain sets

Involvement in plant disease resistance

Plant proteins containing PREPARADOs


Figure S21. The algorithm used to predict PREPARADO and their co-enrichment with domains common to plant disease resistance proteins of the NLR class. LRR is illustrated as a PREPARADO as LRR6 and LRR8 are also PREPARADOs.


Figure S22. PREPARADO abundance as a fraction of total Pfam domains across the nine taxa.
a.

Pseudomonas syringae
pv. tomato DC3000
b.


## SUMM2

Arabidopsis thaliana
Kelch_3 Kelch_3 Kelch_3 NB-ARC LRR


XP_018514354
Probable disease resistance RPP8-like protein 2
Brassica rapa

Figure S23. An illustration of PREPARADOs contained in putative effector binding or disease resistance proteins in plants. a. Examples of microbial proteins, each with two PREPARADOs (LRR8, Pkinase_Tyr, Kelch_3, Kelch_4). b. Integration of PREPARADOs into NB-ARC domains in different plant proteins. NB-ARC is present in many disease resistance ( $R$ ) proteins. SUMM2 was suggested to act as an $R$ gene ${ }^{34}$.

PF00076
2588233575_Chryseobacterium_sp._YR460 2587733604_Methylibium_sp._CF468_PF00076 2644808544_Xylophilus_sp._Leaf220_PF00076 2645002702_Pseudorhodoferax_sp._Leaf267 2644060367_Acidovorax_sp._Root217_PF00076 XP_001694459.1_Chlamydomonas_reinhardti XP_002442600.1_Sorghum_bicolor_PF00076 XP_009412272.1_Musa_acuminata_subsp._malaccensis NP_001238373.1_Glycine_max_PF00076 XP_011092799.1_Sesamum_indicum_PF00076 XP_010690881.1_Beta_vulgaris_subsp._vulgaris XP_001794850.1_Phaeosphaeria_nodorum_SN15

PF00182


Figure S24. Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic trees of a few PREPARADO-containing proteins demonstrating high similarity between those found in PA bacteria, fungi, oomycetes, and plants. Only a small fraction of the proteins in the tree are presented due to size limitation. In each label the long integer represents an IMG gene ID. Accession starting with XP_ are Refseq proteins.

|  | Leaf191 | Leaf76 | Leaf84 | Leaf78 |  | Leaf191 | Leaf76 | Leaf84 | Leaf78 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Leaf191 |  | 0.99 | 0.97 | 0.87 | Leaf191 |  | 100 | 99.9 | 94.76 |
| Leaf76 | 1 |  | 0.97 | 0.87 | Leaf76 | 100 |  | 99.9 | 94.77 |
| Leaf84 | 0.96 | 0.96 |  | 0.86 | Leaf84 | 99.9 | 99.9 |  | 94.77 |
| Leaf78 | 0.87 | 0.87 | 0.86 |  | Leaf78 | 94.76 | 94.77 | 94.77 |  |

$\mathbf{b}_{\text {IMG gene IDs }}$

| gene IDs |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
| 2644955942 |  |
| 2645547462 |  |
| 2644976292 |  |
| 2644955943 |  |
| 2644976293 |  |
| 2645547463 ( |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & 2645547464 \\ & 2644976291 \end{aligned}$ |  |
|  |  |
| 2644955942 | EADAS§YVSKFETNRTRAEVAAEASTVAQTRSIEP---AGSRVVTYKSTADRAAVRAQAA |
| 2645547462 | EADAS¢YVSKFETNRTRAEVAAEASTVAQTRSIEP---AGSRVVTYKSTADRAAVRAQAA |
| 2644976292 | EADAS¢YVSKFETNRTRAEVAAEASXVAQTRSIEP---AGSRVVTYKSTADRAAVRAQAA |
| 2644955943 |  |
| 2644976293 | EADASCEATQFETNRTRAEVAAEASTVAQTRSTFP---RGSRUVTYKGTADRAZVRAOAA |
| 2645547463 |  |
| 2645547464 |  |
| 2644976291 | EADAS¢YVLA-----VGAVLIVSSSLIVIVPVFSPQVVAGSSRSAYA,VA--ALIRR |
|  |  |
| 2644955942 | Daveredipsgas-- $\square$ Point mutation |
| 2645547462 | DPVREAPIPSGFGE-- $\square$ Insertion/deletion |
| 2644955943 | Eavianilicsgi isam $\square$ N-terminus duplication |
| 2644976293 | Eavra IIPSGI ISAM $\square$ Divergence of C terminal |
| 2645547463 | eavranimsgisfam $\square$ Divergence of C terminal |
| $\begin{aligned} & 2645547464 \\ & 2644976291 \end{aligned}$ | Eavraitipsgitsam $\quad \square$ Divergence of N terminal |

c
$\xrightarrow{\text { Acidovorax sp. Leaf191, Brugg, Switzerland, } 08.10 .13 \text { Leaf \#6 }}$

Acidovorax sp. Leaf78, Brugg, Switzerland, 02.10.13 Leaf \#7

A. sp Root267, non-pathogen, Arabidopsis root

A. radicis N35 non-pathogen, wheat root

A. sp. 316, non-pathogen, poplar root

A. sp. Leaf191, non-pathogen, Arabidopsis leaf

A. sp. Root568, non-pathogen, Arabidopsis root

A. delafieldii DSM 64, non-pathogen, soil


Delftia acidovorans SPH-1


Delftia tsuruhatensis 391

A. avenaeae ATCC19860, pathogen, maize leaf

e IMG gene IDs


Figure S25. Jekyll gene variability and neighbors. a. Comparison of the genome similarity between four Acidovorax isolates from naturally grown Arabidopsis leaves in Switzerland ${ }^{35}$. b. Multiple sequence alignments using online MAFFT of the proteins shown in Figure 6b. c. Comparison of evolutionary changes between Jekyll genes versus short control genes in the same genomic neighborhood is presented in Table S24. d. A Jekyll locus within a conserved genomic region showing specific presence in non-pathogenic PA Acidovorax isolated from different plants (upper green labels) and soil-associated (brown labels) Acidovorax. Below are NPA Acidovorax and Delftia genomes (orange labels) and pathogenic PA Acidovoarx (two last green labels) e. Multiple sequence alignment using MAFFT of proteins marked in $\mathbf{d}$.

## a

IMG gene IDs

d


C IMG gene IDs


| 2565189001 | Vfacmitarrs |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2549667789 |  | $\square$ Point mutation |
| 2508866418 64841476 |  | Insertion/deletion |
| 2549667790 | IVAGM Figen vspdall | ergence of |
| ${ }^{2508866417}$ | VYACM |  |
| 648414777 |  | C terminal |

Trans-membrane helix C terminal


Figure S26. Hyde genes variability and protein motifs. a. Multiple sequence alignment by MAFFT of the Hyde1 proteins presented in Figure 6c. b. A variable Hyde locus. Note the absence of the locus from the last soil-associated isolate despite the conservation of the genomic environment. c. Multiple sequence alignment by MAFFT of the Hyde1 proteins presented in b. d. Similarity between Hyde and other Hyde1-like proteins of different Proteobacteria. From top to bottom, proteins in the following genera: Acidovorax, Aeromonas, Plesiomonas, Dickeya, Xenorhabdus, Enterobacter, Pantoea, Pluralibacter, Klebsiella, Tolumonas, Delftia, Pseudomonas, Erwinia, Salmonella, Yersinia, Cronobacter, Archangium, Herbaspirillium, Sphingomonas, Variovorax, Vibrio. Red color denotes hydrophobic amino acids. A transmembrane helix is predicted in the N terminus. The rest of the protein shows no conservation.


Hyde1-like: 2648875312


Genome: Dickeya dianthicola NCPPB 3534
Scatiold: Dickeva dianthicola NCPPB 3534: DD13534DRAFT AOOK01000010 1.10


Hyde2: 2639231653
Hyde1-like: 2639231652

Delftia acidovorans SPH-1


PAAR motif (AA 1-96
Hyde2 (AA 101...)


Hyde2: 2623599269
Azospirillum lipoferum R1C


Figure S27. Association between Hyde loci and T6SS. a. Genomic proximity between different Hyde2 proteins (marked in red, number represent IMG gene number) and different T6SS components and a fusion event between Hyde2 and PAAR domain in Azospirilium. AA - amino acids. b. Similarity between Hyde2 protein of Pseudomonas syringae pv. tomato DC3000 (DC3000 gold standard) and FHA1 protein - a core scaffolding protein of the $P$. aeruginosa H -T6SS that is required for protein secretion by T6SS ${ }^{36}$. The amino acids marked in red are phosphopeptide binding motif. Hyde2 is shorter than the FHA protein and lacks the FHA domain (pfam00498).


Figure S28. Hyde loci in Acidovorax citruli AAC00-1.

```
a
```

E. coli recovery


- AAC00-1 wt
- AAC00-1 $\Delta$ T6SS
- AAC00-1 $\Delta 5$-Hyde1
- NB Medium
duration co-incubation
b


C


Figure S29. Recovered prey cells after co-incubation with Acidovorax aggresor strains. Chloramphenicol-resistant prey cells E. coli BW25113 (a), L58 Pseudomonas (b), and L434 Pseudomonas (c) were mixed at equal ratio with different Acidovorax strains or NB medium. After co-incubation of the indicated times on NB agar plates at 28C, mixed populations were resuspended in NB medium and spotted on Chloramphenicol-containing NB agar. Means with SD are shown ( $\mathrm{n} \geq 3$ ).


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