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Impact of genetic drift, selection and accumulation level on virus adaptation to its host plants

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SUMMARY

The efficiency of plant major resistance genes is limited by the emergence and spread of resistance-breaking mutants. Modulating the evolutionary forces acting on pathogen populations constitutes a promising way to increase the durability of these genes. We studied the effect of four plant traits affecting these evolutionary forces on the rate of resistance breakdown (RB) by a virus. Two of those traits correspond to virus effective population sizes (N_e), either at plant inoculation or during infection. The third trait corresponds to differential selection exerted by the plant on the virus population. Finally, the fourth trait corresponds to within-plant virus accumulation (VA). These traits were measured experimentally on *Potato virus Y* (PVY) and a set of 84 pepper doubled-haploid lines, all carrying the same *pvr2³* resistance gene but having contrasted genetic backgrounds. The lines showed extensive variation for the rate of *pvr2³* RB by PVY and for the four other traits of interest. A generalized linear model showed that three of these four traits, with the exception of N_e at inoculation, and several of pairwise interactions between them had significant effects on RB. RB increased when N_e during plant infection or VA increased. The effect of differential selection was more complex because of a strong interaction with VA. When VA was high, RB increased as the differential selection increased. An opposite relationship between RB and differential selection was observed when VA was low. This study provides a framework to select plants with appropriate virus-evolution-related traits to avoid or delay resistance breakdown.

INTRODUCTION

Resistance to pathogens, defined as the capacity of a host to decrease its pathogen load (Råberg *et al.*, 2007; Restif and Koella, 2004), is widespread in plants. However, resistance efficiency, specificity and genetic determinism are highly variable across genotypes of a given plant species. Up to date, plant breeders have mostly created resistant cultivars using resistance mechanisms showing monogenic inheritance and a high efficiency level, often called ‘qualitative resistance’. Unfortunately, the protection conferred by such resistance genes is often poorly durable and resistance ‘breakdowns’ caused by pathogen evolution can be frequent and rapid (García-Arenal and McDonald, 2003; McDonald and Linde, 2002). In the case of viruses, the breakdown of a major resistance gene recently introgressed into commercial plant cultivars and used by growers can be schematically divided into three major steps (Gómez *et al.*, 2009; Moury *et al.*, 2011). If we assume that no resistance-breaking variant is initially present, the first step is the appearance of such variants from a wild-type (WT) virus population. The second step is within-plant colonization and accumulation of the resistance-breaking variants in competition with the rest of the virus population (*i.e.* WT variants). The last step is the transmission of the resistance-breaking variants to other plants, allowing epidemics to develop in plant cultivars carrying the resistance gene. Different evolutionary forces rule these three steps. The appearance of resistance-breaking variants usually involves a small number of nucleotide substitutions in the so-called avirulence factor encoded by the viral genome (Harrison, 2002; Moury *et al.*, 2011). More rarely may recombination be required for this step (Díaz *et al.*, 2004; Miras *et al.*, 2014). Then, accumulation of the resistance-breaking variants within plants depends on selection and genetic drift. Selection favors the variants with highest fitness, *i.e.* growth rates when considering the within-plant scale, increasing their frequency over time. This deterministic force is usually evaluated with the selection coefficient, defined as the difference in fitness between two variants. By contrast, genetic drift acts in the same way on all variants of the population, introducing random fluctuations in the dynamics of variant frequencies (Charlesworth, 2009). This stochastic force is commonly evaluated with the effective population size N_e , defined as the size of an idealized population (*i.e.* a panmictic population of constant size with discrete generations) that would show the same degree of randomness in the evolution of variant frequencies as the observed population (Kimura and Crow, 1963; Wright, 1931). In plant viruses, the intensity of genetic drift is modulated by bottlenecks occurring at multiple steps of virus infection (Sacristán *et al.*, 2003; French and Stenger, 2003; Gutiérrez *et al.*, 2010, 2012; Zwart and Elena, 2015). Modeling approaches have estimated that the evolutionary forces acting at the within-plant scale, especially the mutational pathway involved in resistance breakdown and the fitness cost

associated with the resistance-breaking mutation(s) accounted for about 50% of the risk of resistance breakdown in the field (Fabre *et al.*, 2009, 2012b, 2015). Experimental data have shown that these two factors were indeed good predictors of the risk of resistance breakdown (Fabre *et al.*, 2012a; Harrison, 2002; Janzac *et al.*, 2009). The remaining 50% depended on factors related to virus epidemiology and thus mostly to step 3 of resistance breakdown.

One way to avoid or delay the breakdown of monogenic qualitative resistances is to combine the resistance gene with a suitable genetic background. Combined with a partially-resistant genetic background, a major resistance gene can show a significant increase in durability, as demonstrated experimentally for resistances targeting an RNA virus (Palloix *et al.*, 2009), a fungus (Brun *et al.*, 2010) or a nematode (Fournet *et al.*, 2013). Indeed, the host genetic background can affect the level of resistance to pathogens and the intensity of different evolutionary forces undergone by pathogen populations (Lannou, 2012). In the case of the *Potato virus Y* (PVY, genus *Potyvirus*, family Potyviridae) - pepper (*Capsicum annuum*; family Solanaceae) pathosystem, Quenouille *et al.* (2013, 2015) showed a significant correlation between the breakdown frequency of a major resistance gene (the *pvr2³* gene, encoding a eukaryotic translation initiation 4E – eIF4E) and the capacity of the virus to accumulate in the plant, *i.e.* the additional resistance level conferred by the plant genetic background. Assuming identical virus mutation rate between plant genotypes, they hypothesized that within-plant virus accumulation was linked to the total number of virus replications during plant infection and consequently to the probability of appearance of the resistance-breaking mutations. Using a progeny of pepper genotypes carrying the same major resistance gene but contrasted genetic backgrounds, Quenouille *et al.* (2014) mapped quantitative trait loci (QTLs) controlling either within-plant virus accumulation or the frequency of breakdown of the major resistance gene in the pepper genome. The two QTLs controlling virus accumulation colocalized with QTLs controlling the frequency of breakdown of the major resistance gene, which provided a genetic explanation for the observed correlation between the two traits. Further, by comparing two pepper genotypes carrying the same major resistance gene associated with either a partially-resistant or a susceptible genetic background, Quenouille *et al.* (2013) showed that the selection of the most adapted resistance-breaking PVY mutants was slower and/or rarer in the plants with a partially-resistant genetic background than in those with a susceptible genetic background. This slower and/or rarer selection may result from (i) the smaller selection coefficient of the adapted mutants and/or (ii) a higher genetic drift in the plants with a partially-resistant genetic background (Charlesworth, 2009; Feder *et al.*, 2016; Quenouille *et al.*, 2013; Rouzine *et al.*, 2001)

The aim of the present study was to disentangle the role and relative importance of the three factors, virus accumulation, selection coefficient between virus variants and virus effective population size, on the breakdown of the major resistance gene in order to foster the breeding of plant cultivars with durable virus resistance.

RESULTS

The breakdown frequency of the *pvr2³*-mediated resistance at the individual plant level (response variable ‘RB’) and several putative explanatory variables linked to within-plant PVY evolutionary processes (mutation, selection and genetic drift) were estimated in 84 doubled-haploid (DH) pepper lines. The terminology ‘resistance breakdown’ is frequently used to describe the increase of infection rates, and often of subsequent economic losses, at the field scale following the adaptation of pathogen populations to resistant cultivars. For simplicity, we use this term to describe pathogen adaptation at the individual plant level, regardless of its epidemiological consequences. The variable RB and the explanatory variables corresponding to within-plant virus accumulation (variable ‘VA’) and to the PVY effective population size at inoculation step (variable ‘ N_e^{inoc} ’) were estimated previously (Quenouille *et al.*, 2014; Tamisier *et al.*, 2017; Table 1 and section Experimental Procedures). In the present study, two additional explanatory variables were estimated: PVY effective population size during plant infection from inoculation to 21 days post inoculation (dpi) and the differential selection exerted by the plant on the same PVY population (variables ‘ N_e ’ and ‘ σ_r ’, respectively; see below; Table 1). Note that in the following, N_e and RB will correspond to the names of the variables estimated in our experimental context, whereas the expressions ‘effective population size’ and ‘resistance breakdown’ will be used to refer to the general concepts.

Estimates of N_e and σ_r with a PVY composite population in 84 pepper DH lines

The intensities of genetic drift and selection operating on PVY during plant infection were estimated experimentally by studying the dynamics of an artificial population composed of five PVY variants from inoculation to 21 dpi. The inoculum was made of a roughly similar amount of these five variants carrying one or two nonsynonymous substitutions (named variants G, K, N, GK and KN). These variants were chosen because they showed contrasted selection coefficients in plants belonging to the same progeny as the one studied here but none of the variants has been

counter-selected too fast, ensuring enough genetic diversity in the PVY populations to allow estimation of N_e and selection coefficients (Rousseau *et al.*, 2017). The variant frequencies in the common inoculum and in pools of three systemically-infected leaves at 21 dpi for each plant were accurately determined using MiSeq Illumina high-throughput sequencing (HTS) of the VPg cistron region where the mutations that distinguish the five variants were located. We also calculated the frequencies of *de novo* nucleotide substitutions in each sample and at each nucleotide position, by comparison with the sequence of PVY SON41p reference clone, as described in Rousseau *et al.* (2017). In all, PVY populations sampled from 30 plants (4.2%) presented one or several *de novo* substitution(s) (38 substitutions in total) with a frequency exceeding 7% (Text S1; Table S1). Thirty-seven of these 38 substitutions were nonsynonymous and 34 involved codon positions 105, 115 or 119 that were previously shown to determine PVY adaptation to *pvr2*-mediated resistance in pepper (Ayme *et al.*, 2006). Consequently, most of these mutations are certainly adaptive for PVY and were selected for during plant infection. Numerical simulations have shown that the presence of an additional, unaccounted for, virus variant present at a mean frequency of 7% had no significant impact on estimates of N_e (Rousseau *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, this 7% frequency threshold is close to the expected error frequency due to RT-PCR and MiSeq Illumina sequencing (Rousseau *et al.*, 2017). Consequently, these 30 PVY populations were removed from analyses. In total, data from 5 or more plant replicates were available for 84 pepper DH lines, which were subsequently analyzed.

The effective population size of the PVY population during plant infection from 0 to 21 dpi (N_e) and the relative growth rates of the five PVY variants (r_i with $i \in \{G, K, N, GK, KN\}$) were estimated for each DH line using a method developed recently (Rousseau *et al.*, 2017). Briefly, this method allows estimating the N_e and r_i parameters of a multi-allelic Wright-Fisher model for haploids in the absence of neutral markers (Ewens, 2004). Before using the estimation method in our experimental context, we performed several batches of simulations to assess its ability to infer effective population sizes and selection coefficients accurately (see Experimental Procedures and Fig. S1). Overall, these numerical simulations indicated that the σ_r and N_e estimates obtained are precise and accurate. Moreover, it is noteworthy that a Wright-Fisher model including selection and genetic drift fitted our dataset satisfactorily (Fig. 3). The best-fit line between observed and fitted mean variant frequencies was very close to the first bisector (Fig. 3a): the slope was close to 1.0 (0.92; standard deviation = 0.024) and the intercept close to 0.0 (0.016; standard deviation = 0.007), with $R^2=0.77$. The fit was also satisfactory for the variability (*i.e.* standard deviation) of variant frequencies among the eight plants (Fig. 3b; slope = 0.89 with standard deviation = 0.08; intercept = 0.025 with standard deviation = 0.015; $R^2=0.6$).

The fitness (r_i) ranks of the five PVY variants were similar among the 84 DH lines, as described previously on a set of 15 DH lines (Fig. 1; Rousseau *et al.*, 2017). In 78 of the 84 lines, variant ‘G’ was the least fit. In the six remaining lines, variant ‘N’, which shows on average an intermediate fitness among the DH lines, was the least fit. The three variants possessing the ‘K’ mutation (*i.e.* variants ‘K’, ‘GK’ and ‘KN’) showed the highest fitness with small r_i differences among them in 82 of 84 lines. Because of this conserved fitness ranking among the 84 DH lines, we estimated the differential selection exerted by each DH line on the PVY population by the standard deviation of the growth rates r_i of the five PVY variants, σ_r . Among the 84 DH lines, σ_r and N_e showed unimodal distributions (Fig. 2). σ_r varied from 0.041 to 0.156 (mean and median: 0.12) and presented a nearly-Gaussian shape (Fig. 2a). N_e varied from 15.4 to 293.6 (mean: 46.4; median: 35.9) and the DH line distribution was skewed toward small values (Fig. 2b). About two thirds of lines (57 of 84) had $N_e < 50$ and only six lines had $N_e > 100$. Figure 2c shows a set of bar plots representing the frequencies of the five PVY variants in the 8 sampled plants and their mean frequencies in four DH lines showing contrasted N_e and σ_r values.

Effect of evolutionary forces exerted on PVY populations on resistance-breakdown

Weak or no correlation was observed among the explanatory variables N_e , σ_r , N_e^{inoc} and VA (Table 2; Figs. S2 and S3). N_e and VA showed a significant positive correlation (Pearson’s $r=0.31$, p -value=0.0045). However, this effect was mainly due to an outlier DH line showing an extreme N_e value and the highest VA value (Fig. S2). After withdrawing this DH line (or using the Spearman’s rank correlation test), no significant correlation was observed between N_e and VA (p -values ≥ 0.13). With Spearman’s ρ test, a weakly significant correlation was observed between N_e and σ_r ($\rho=-0.22$, p -value=0.048). Finally, a weakly significant correlation was also observed between VA and σ_r , with both Pearson’s and Spearman’s tests (p -values=0.041 and 0.028, respectively). No correlation was detected between N_e and N_e^{inoc} or N_e^{inoc} and VA. Moreover, variance inflation factors (VIF) were calculated for each explanatory variable. All VIF values were below 4, which ensures the lack of multicollinearity between explanatory variables in our analysis.

In contrast, three explanatory variables were significantly and consistently correlated with the response variable RB: σ_r , N_e^{inoc} and VA (Table 2). The correlation was positive and highly significant between RB and either N_e^{inoc} or VA. The correlation was negative and moderately significant between RB and σ_r . Finally, no significant link was noticed between RB and N_e . Pairwise

plots of the variables for the 84 DH lines did not reveal particular relationships other than the linear or ranking relationships revealed by the correlation analyses (Fig. S2 and S3).

Generalized linear model (GLM) analyses were performed to investigate the effect of the four explanatory variables σ_r , VA, N_e and N_e^{inoc} on RB. After a stepwise selection procedure, both forward and backward, based on Akaike's information criterion (AIC), the retained model included three of the four explanatory variables (N_e , VA and σ_r) and four of the six pairwise interactions (Table 3). These factors and interactions had highly significant effects on RB. The model fit was quite good with McFadden $R^2 = 0.40$ (McFadden, 1973).

Significant interactions revealed synergistic effects on RB (Table 3 and Fig. 4). Indeed, the positive effect of N_e^{inoc} on RB is increased with increasing values of VA as attested by the higher slope value (Fig. 4a). The same trend was observed with N_e^{inoc} and N_e or with VA and N_e (Fig. 4b and 4c). For the last significant pairwise interaction, $\sigma_r \times VA$, the effect on RB depended on the values of the variables (Fig. 4d). When VA was small, RB decreased with increasing σ_r values, whereas when VA was high RB increased with increasing σ_r values.

We computed conditional inference regression trees to synthesize the effect of the four explanatory variables on RB (Fig. 5). Regression trees take into account the interactions between explanatory variables and identify combinations of their levels leading to higher or lower RB. The first dichotomy in the regression tree was linked to the variable VA, reflecting its strong influence on RB. The second dichotomies were linked to the variables σ_r and N_e^{inoc} . The variable N_e was not retained (Table 2). The best way to reduce RB is thus to combine a weak VA (≤ 1.474) and a high σ_r (> 0.117). When VA is higher (> 1.474), a low N_e^{inoc} value (≤ 16) contributes also significantly to reduce RB.

DISCUSSION

The main objective of this article was to study the relationships between the frequency of breakdown of the major resistance gene *pvr2³* (variable RB) and proxy variables quantifying the main evolutionary forces exerted by the host plants on the virus population, notably the intensities of genetic drift and selection (N_e^{inoc} , N_e and σ_r) and virus accumulation (VA).

Lack of strong relationships between N_e^{inoc} , N_e , σ_r and VA

No strong evidence of correlations between the four explanatory variables N_e^{inoc} , N_e , σ_r and VA were observed (Table 2). First, a positive correlation could have been expected between N_e^{inoc} and N_e . Indeed, experiments with *Tobacco etch virus* (TEV; genus *Potyvirus*) in pepper or tobacco plants showed that within-plant genetic drift is mostly determined by the inoculation step and not by the colonization of inoculated or apical leaves (Zwart *et al.*, 2011, 2012). Second, a positive correlation could also have been expected between N_e^{inoc} and VA because, for potyviruses, a low N_e^{inoc} was shown to result in a delay in plant infection at the systemic level (Rodrigo *et al.*, 2014; Zwart *et al.*, 2012) or in a lower proportion of infected cells (Lafforgue *et al.*, 2012), hence probably also in a lower VA. Importantly, Lafforgue *et al.* (2012) and Rodrigo *et al.* (2014) analyzed potyvirus infection in one highly susceptible plant species, whereas we used a large number of pepper lines carrying different sets of resistance QTLs (Quenouille *et al.*, 2014). As partial resistance mechanisms may act specifically on the virus local and/or systemic movement, they likely explain the absence of correlation between N_e^{inoc} and VA or between N_e^{inoc} and N_e (Table 2; Fig. S2). The lack of correlation between N_e^{inoc} and N_e is consistent with the narrow bottleneck observed between 6 and 10 dpi, *i.e.* at the onset of systemic infection, in the majority of the pepper DH lines (8 of 15 tested) (Rousseau *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, if links between N_e^{inoc} and N_e (or VA) are likely early in the infection process, they may have blurred with time until disappearing 21 (for N_e) or 36 dpi (for VA) (Table 1). The lack of (or low) correlation between N_e and VA could similarly be due to the bottleneck during systemic infection. As effective population size N_e corresponds to the harmonic mean of effective population sizes over the successive generations, a transient bottleneck could induce a strong reduction of N_e , while its effect could be small on VA because of the subsequent growth of the virus population.

Which evolutionary forces contribute most to resistance breaking?

Relationships between the number of viral mutations required for host adaptation, their probabilities of appearance, the incurred fitness changes and genetic drift are complex (da Silva and Wyatt, 2014; Fabre *et al.*, 2009; Iwasa *et al.*, 2004; Quenouille *et al.*, 2013). We thus also anticipated complex interaction patterns between VA, σ_r , N_e and N_e^{inoc} and RB.

The strong positive correlation between VA and RB, observed earlier (Quenouille *et al.*, 2014), may result from the link between VA and the probability of appearance of the resistance-breaking mutations in the inoculated plants (Quenouille *et al.*, 2013). Indeed, VA is an estimate of the virus census population size at a given time-point, which depends on the population growth rate and generation time. Assuming equal PVY mutation rates between DH lines, VA would actually be a

proxy of the probability for a new mutation to occur during the experiment. This assumption also implies that the within-plant accumulation of the resistance-breaking variant (CI chimera carrying the 'N' substitution; Table 1), used to measure VA, is correlated to the residual accumulation of the WT variant (CI chimera), used to estimate RB. Unfortunately, we could not measure the accumulation of the WT variant in these plants. Indeed, even if the *pvr2³* resistance gene does not control completely PVY multiplication or even movement (Montarry *et al.*, 2011), the WT viruses were outcompeted by the resistance-breaking mutants that appeared stochastically and emerged rapidly in 99% of the infected plants. This scenario, where resistance breakdown results from the residual replication of the WT PVY variant, is suggested by, Montarry *et al.* (2011), who established that the PVY resistance-breaking mutants did not preexist in the inoculum.

The strong positive correlation between N_e^{inoc} and RB was expected if we consider, as mentioned above, that genetic drift frequently slows down adaptation. Since the PVY resistance-breaking mutants were most probably absent from the inoculum, low N_e^{inoc} are not likely to eliminate those putative resistance-breaking mutants at the inoculation step but rather to slow down their probabilities of appearance and subsequent fixation during the early steps of infection.

Similarly, we anticipated a positive correlation between σ_r and RB (Feder *et al.*, 2016), since higher σ_r values would accelerate the fixation of resistance-breaking mutations in the PVY populations. Though the overall link between σ_r and RB was negative (Table 2), the effect of σ_r on RB was complex due to strong interaction with VA (Table 3). When VA was high, RB increased with increasing σ_r values, which fits our expectations. However, when VA was small, RB decreased with increasing σ_r values (Fig. 4 and 5).

Our interpretation relies on the relationships between VA, σ_r and the type of resistance-breaking substitutions (transitions or transversions) (Fig. 6). Indeed, transitions are 5 to 8 times more frequent than transversions in the PVY genome (Ayme *et al.*, 2006). In the experiment performed to estimate RB, the resistance-breaking PVY mutants were single mutants (like G, K and N), double mutants (GK and KN) needing much more time to appear and become fixed (Montarry *et al.*, 2011; Quenouille *et al.*, 2013).

When VA is high (>1.474; plant group 1 in Fig. 6), the PVY population undergoes a large number of replication events and any kind of single mutant is likely to appear, either issued from a transition (G and N mutants) or from a transversion (K mutant). In particular, a high-fitness resistance-breaking mutant (mutant K) is likely to appear rapidly. In this case, the higher the

differential selection σ_r , the faster this mutant will become fixed and the higher RB. A synergistic effect between VA and σ_r on RB is expected in this group of plant.

In contrast, when VA is low (≤ 1.474), the appearance of the N and G transitions could remain nearly certain whereas the appearance of the K transversion could be highly stochastic. It is noteworthy that the relative growth rates of mutants N and G are significantly higher for group 3 than for group 2, whereas, on the opposite, σ_r values are higher for group 2 ($\sigma_r > 0.117$) than for group 3 ($\sigma_r \leq 0.117$) (Fig. 6). Then, starting with a wild-type virus with a low fitness, as was the case in the experiment used to measure RB, the fitness gains provided by mutations G or N are higher for plants of group 3 than for plants of group 2, explaining the higher RB observed in that case (Fig. 6). In these two groups of plants with low VA, a negative correlation between σ_r and RB is therefore expected.

This result underlines the risk of extrapolating selection coefficients from one experimental context to the other, as they may be strongly influenced by the composition of the considered population (kind, number and initial frequency of variants).

Applied consequences: breeding rules to improve the durability of major-effect resistance genes

Breeding cultivars with efficient and durable pathogen resistance frequently relies on measuring the pathogen load (VA in our case). Our results indicate first that independent mechanisms are likely to act on N_e^{inoc} , N_e , σ_r and VA, given the lack of (or low) correlation between them. Accordingly, these evolution-related factors could also be considered as complementary breeding levers to control virus infection and evolution. Indeed, in addition to VA, the intensities of genetic drift and selection are relevant traits to promote the durability of plant resistance genes to viruses (Rousseau *et al.*, 2017; Zhan *et al.*, 2015), as proposed more generally to limit the emergence of microbe variants adapted to drug treatments (Abel *et al.*, 2015). Accordingly, Lê Van *et al.* (2013) showed that the differential selection exerted by apple trees on a composite fungus population was inversely correlated with the spectrum of action of the resistance, hence also inversely correlated with the expected durability of the resistance. From an applied point of view, the regression tree issued from this work can provide insightful decision rules for breeding strategies (Fig. 5). Reducing RB is firstly achieved by reducing VA. Then, if VA is high, one can still reduce RB by favoring plants with low N_e^{inoc} values. Finally, low VA values can be combined with high σ_r values to still improve resistance durability. Note however that this latter effect should be taken with caution, being certainly linked to the experimental context used to estimate σ_r . One can argue,

at least on a limited set of plant-virus genotype \times genotype interactions, that N_e^{inoc} estimates and, to a lower extent, VA estimates may be representative of various PVY population compositions. On the opposite, the differential selection (σ_r) estimates may vary strongly with the PVY population used (notably with different numbers and/or types of variants).

As a conclusion, we provide evidence that traits accounting for the plant impact on virus evolution have a great potential to reduce the risks of breakdown of a major resistance gene. Phenotyping such traits becomes feasible with recent sequencing technologies and population genetics models. Hence, conditions are met to include these, or similar, approaches in plant breeding programs aiming to improve the resistance durability to pathogens.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Previous data

Different variants of the WT PVY clone SON41p (Moury *et al.*, 2004) were chosen to estimate the response variable RB (breakdown frequency of the *pvr2³*-mediated resistance) and the explanatory variables corresponding to within-plant PVY accumulation (VA) and PVY effective population size at inoculation (N_e^{inoc}). RB was previously evaluated after inoculation of each of the DH lines (60 plants per DH line) with the ‘CI chimera’, an artificial recombinant of SON41p carrying the cylindrical inclusion (CI)-coding region of PVY isolate LYE84.2 (Table 1) (Montarry *et al.*, 2011; Quenouille *et al.*, 2014). This variant was preferred to SON41p because of its higher ability to break the *pvr2³* resistance, providing a larger range of RB values among DH lines, hence allowing a higher precision for genetic and statistical analyses. Still, RB obtained with SON41p was shown to be highly correlated with RB obtained with the CI chimera on a subset of sixteen contrasted DH lines (Quenouille *et al.*, 2013). RB corresponds to the frequency of plants showing virus infection at the systemic level around one month after inoculation and was shown to correspond to situations where a nonsynonymous mutation in the VPg-(viral protein genome-linked) coding region became fixed in the PVY population, conferring adaptation to the *pvr2³* resistance (Ayme *et al.*, 2006; Montarry *et al.*, 2011).

PVY accumulation in plants was measured by quantitative DAS-ELISA (double antibody sandwich enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay) (Quenouille *et al.*, 2014). Mean relative virus accumulation (VA) was assessed in pools of three systemically-infected leaves per plant at 36 days post-inoculation (dpi) in 10 plants per DH line (Quenouille *et al.*, 2014; Table 1). For this, a mutant

of the CI chimera carrying the aspartic acid to asparagine substitution at amino acid position 119 of the VPg ('N' substitution) that allowed infection of plants carrying *pvr2*³ was used.

Finally, effective population size at plant inoculation (N_e^{inoc}) was estimated with a SON41p variant carrying a GFP (Green Fluorescent Protein) reporter gene and a single amino acid substitution in the VPg (threonine to lysine substitution at codon position 115; 'K' substitution) which allows infection of plants carrying *pvr2*³ (Tamisier *et al.*, 2017; Table 1). N_e^{inoc} corresponds to the mean number of PVY primary infection foci visualized by the GFP fluorescence 5 or 6 days after mechanical inoculation of 20 pepper cotyledons per DH line.

Analysis of composite PVY populations infecting pepper DH lines

An experiment was dedicated to estimate two more explanatory variables for RB: the PVY effective population size during plant infection (N_e) and the differential selection exerted by the host genotype on a composite PVY population (σ_r). The experimental design was as in Rousseau *et al.* (2017) except for two main differences: (i) the experiment comprised initially 151 pepper DH lines instead of 15 and (ii) only one plant sampling date (21 dpi) was retained instead of six, to keep the experimental size compatible with MiSeq Illumina sequencing capacity. The sampling date at 21 dpi was chosen based on the previous experiments (Rousseau *et al.*, 2017) as a balance between the time for differential selection to operate on the PVY population and the risk of extinction of the less fit PVY variants with time. In the latter case (absence of a virus variant in all sampled plants), the lack of genetic information in the PVY populations would preclude estimation of N_e and σ_r with Rousseau *et al.*'s (2017) model. All the 151 DH lines of *C. annuum* carried the PVY resistance allele *pvr2*³ and differed in their genetic background (Quenouille *et al.*, 2014). They were issued from the F₁ hybrid between 'Perennial', a PVY-resistant pepper line carrying the *pvr2*³ allele, and 'Yolo Wonder', a PVY-susceptible line (Quenouille *et al.*, 2014). The five SON41p variants, named G, N, K, GK and KN based on their amino acid substitutions in the VPg (*i.e.* the 'K' and 'N' mutations defined previously and the 'G' mutation corresponding to the serine to glycine substitution at codon position 101 of the VPg), were mixed in similar amounts based on quantitative DAS-ELISA and were mechanically inoculated to the two cotyledons of eight plants per DH line. Each of these mutations or mutation pairs (double-letter names) conferred to PVY the capacity to infect plants carrying *pvr2*³. At 21 dpi, for each plant, all apical leaves were collected, pooled together and crushed in buffer before RNA purification as in Rousseau *et al.* (2017). One-step reverse-transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) amplification was conducted for the 1208 plants (8 plants × 151 DH lines) individually, in thirteen 96-well PCR plates. The amplified

region was 104 nucleotide long and corresponded to positions 5991-6094 of PVY SON41p (accession AJ439544).

In all, the sampling, RT-PCR and sequencing procedures performed to obtain the viral sequences were essentially as described by Rousseau *et al.* (2017). Eight differently tagged primers were used, corresponding to the eight different plant replicates of the same plant genotype. Three of the eight primers used by Rousseau *et al.* (2017) were poorly efficient in PCR (corresponding to primer tags 5'-GGTCTAGTAC, 5'-GAGGCTCTAC and 5'-TGCTGATATC), and were thus replaced with primer tags 5'-CGACGACTGC, 5'-TGGAGTACGA and 5'-GGAGCGTCAC, respectively. Amplified DNAs corresponding to the eight plant replicates were pooled together on the basis of their intensity on electrophoresis gels. To avoid opening the reaction microtubes and hence cross-contamination between microtubes of the same RT-PCR plate, single-step RT-PCRs were performed on RNA extracts on a first set of 13 PCR plates. For 66 DH lines, no RT-PCR products were detected by agarose gel electrophoresis for at least 4 of the 8 plants. A two-step RT-PCR protocol was thus carried out for all the samples of these 66 DH lines in six additional 96-well PCR plates. This protocol usually provides a higher sensitivity than the first one but increases the risk of contamination (Bustin, 2000). Unfortunately, MiSeq sequencing results showed that significant contaminations occurred in 4 of these 6 additional PCR plates (see below). As next-generation sequencing data may be impacted by contaminations, several controls were included as in Rousseau *et al.* (2017). These controls allowed estimating potential cross-contamination among samples during the crushing step or during RT-PCR. HTS was performed at the GeT-PlaGe Genomic Platform of INRA Toulouse. For this purpose, 2×150 base-pair libraries were prepared with multiplex adapters (12 PCR cycles), and all the RT-PCR-amplified products were pooled into a single large sample. This sample was run on a MiSeq Illumina paired-end sequencer with the MiSeq Reagent Kit v2, for 500 cycles. By using tagged primers and subsequent multiplex adapters, we were able to assign a plant number and a plant genotype to each sequence.

After MiSeq sequencing, the number (counts) of reads detected in the negative controls of the former set of 13 PCR plates ranged from 0 to 100, with a mean number (\pm standard deviation) of 40 ± 24 . This contrasts greatly with the number of reads per sample, which ranged from 201 to 11052, with a mean read number of 4919 ± 1747 . As mentioned above, the sequencing results confirmed the occurrence of high contamination levels on four plates in the second set of six PCR plates, with 1449 ± 1917 reads in the negative controls. All DH lines corresponding to these four PCR plates were removed from the dataset. Consequently, sequences corresponding to 89 DH lines were kept and further analyzed. From these reads, counts of sequences corresponding to the five inoculated PVY variants in each individual plant were obtained as in Rousseau *et al.* (2017). The initial

inoculum was also sequenced and the following frequencies were obtained for the five PVY variants: G (22%), N (15%), K (17%), GK (18%) and KN (28%). Counts of sequence corresponding to the five PVY variants in all sampled plants and in the inoculum are available in Table S2. Moreover, the presence of *de novo* nucleotide substitutions in the sequence dataset was checked as described in Rousseau *et al.* (2017) (Text S1; Table S1). A minimal threshold of 7% was considered for these *de novo* mutations, which accounts for (i) potential errors due to RT-PCR and MiSeq Illumina sequencing and for (ii) potential impact on the precision of estimation of genetic drift (N_e) and differential selection (σ_r) with method Rousseau *et al.*'s (2017) method. Consequently, we withdrew plants with *de novo* mutations exceeding 7% of the PVY population. For five DH lines, less than five plant replicates were remaining and these DH lines were removed before further analyses. We ended up with a dataset of 84 DH lines.

Inference of virus N_e and σ_r

Estimation of the strength of genetic drift and the relative growth rates of PVY variants acting on the composite PVY population was performed with the method proposed by Rousseau *et al.* (2017). Estimated parameters are the relative growth rates r_i of each PVY variant i (G, N, K, GK and KN) and the effective population size N_e of the whole PVY population for each of the 84 DH lines considered. For a given DH line, the observed variables are the PVY variant sequence counts obtained from HTS data in the 8 sampled plants. The differential selection (σ_r) exerted by a pepper DH line on the whole PVY population composed of five variants was estimated as the standard deviation of the r_i values of the five PVY variants.

The method of Rousseau *et al.* (2017) was validated for an experimental context involving the determination of virus variant frequencies by HTS in eight plants at each of six sampling dates. In contrast, the present experimental design involved a single sampling date. Before applying the method to the current dataset, we performed several batches of simulations to assess its efficiency to infer accurately virus effective population sizes and relative growth rates with a single sampling date. Briefly, we first simulated the changes in frequency of five virus variants under 400 selection and genetic drift regimes with a Wright-Fisher model for haploid individuals. The simulated datasets have been generated as in Rousseau *et al.* (2017), except that a single sampling date (21 dpi with 8 independent host plants sampled for each plant genotype) was considered and that the criteria for accepting the simulated datasets differed as follows: (i) three out of the five virus variants had to be present at a minimum frequency of 0.5% in at least 50% of the plants and (ii) all variants had to be present in at least one of the eight plants at a minimum frequency of 0.1%. These criteria were met in 83 of the 84 DH lines analyzed.

The genetic drift regimes were defined by a vector of effective population sizes varying every 5 generations (Text S2 in Rousseau *et al.* 2017). For each of the 400 datasets obtained, the true parameters are known and can be compared to the estimated parameters (one growth rate for each variant; one effective population size corresponding to the harmonic mean of effective population sizes over the successive generations).

Estimates of the relative growth rates r_i were highly accurate, with an R^2 of the best-fit line of 0.96, a slope close to 1.0 (0.98) and an intercept of 0.02 (Supplementary Fig. S1a). Estimates of the harmonic mean of effective population sizes N_e^h were also accurate with a best-fit line, in log scale, close to the first bisector ($R^2=0.86$), a slope of 0.98 and an intercept of 0.05 (Supplementary Fig. S1b). In both cases, the 95% confidence interval of the mean relative bias included zero. The 90% confidence interval was highly accurate for N_e^h as it included 89% of the true parameter values. However, the 90% confidence interval of r_i was overestimated, the true parameter values being included in 98% of cases.

Statistical analyses of the links between variables related to the evolution of PVY populations

Statistical analyses were handled with the R software version 3.0.2 (R Core Team, 2013; <http://www.r-project.org/>). We used generalized linear models (GLMs) to study the effects of N_e , σ_r , N_e^{inoc} and VA on the response variable RB, considered as a binary variable representing the occurrence (1) or absence (0) of infection in a total of 60 individual plants per DH line, except seven DH lines for which only 30 plants were assayed (Quenouille *et al.*, 2014). Values of all variables for each DH line are available in Table S3. As a consequence, a binomial distribution was used in the GLMs for RB. All explanatory variables (N_e , σ_r , N_e^{inoc} and VA) and their pairwise interactions were included in the full GLM and stepwise model selection was performed using Akaike's information criterion (AIC) (Akaike, 1974). GLMs were done with the R packages 'lme4' and 'MASS'. The variance inflation factor (VIF) was assessed with the R package 'car'. Additionally, conditional inference regression trees were realized using the method 'ctree' implemented in the package 'party'. Such trees allow to explore the effects of the most significant explanatory variables on RB. Regression trees were computed with a minimum number of 10 DH lines in each terminal 'leaf' of the tree and default setting for other parameters to describe the conditional distribution of RB as a function of the four explanatory variables N_e , σ_r , N_e^{inoc} and VA.

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Table 1 Description of the variables used in this study.

Variable	Experiment	Number of DH lines	Plants per DH line	PVY inoculum [†]	Infection stage / date of measure	Reference
RB: frequency of resistance breakdown	1	151	60	CI chimera	Systemic / 38 dpi [‡]	Quenouille <i>et al.</i> , 2014
VA: level of virus accumulation	2	151	10	Mutant N of CI chimera	Systemic / 36 dpi	Quenouille <i>et al.</i> , 2014
N_e^{inoc} : virus effective population size at inoculation	3	151	10 [§]	Mutant K of SON41p-GFP	Inoculated cotyledon / 5-6 dpi	Tamisier <i>et al.</i> , 2017
N_e : virus effective population size during infection from inoculation to 21 dpi	4	84	8	SON41p mutants G, N, K, GK and KN	Systemic / 21 dpi	This study
σ_r : differential selection exerted on the virus population	4	84	8	SON41p mutants G, N, K, GK and KN	Systemic / 21 dpi	This study

[†]One or two letter codes for mutants correspond to amino acid substitutions in PVY VPg allowing infection of plants carrying the *pvr2*³ resistance gene.

[‡]dpi: days post inoculation

[§]10 plants × 2 cotyledons

Table 2 Pearson r (below the diagonal) and Spearman rank ρ (above the diagonal) correlation coefficients between the $pvr2^3$ resistance breakdown frequency (RB) and four variables linked to evolutionary forces characterizing PVY populations in the different pepper genotypes: the differential selection (σ_r), the effective population size during plant colonization (N_e), the effective population size at inoculation (N_e^{inoc}) and the viral accumulation (VA). Correlations that are significant with both the Pearson and Spearman coefficients are shaded in gray.

	RB	σ_r	N_e	N_e^{inoc}	VA
RB		$\rho = -0.32$ $p^\dagger = 0.003^{**}$	$\rho = 0.05$ $p = 0.65$	$\rho = 0.31$ $p = 0.0046^{**}$	$\rho = 0.50$ $p = 1e-06^{***}$
σ_r	$r = -0.32$ $p = 0.003^{**}$		$\rho = -0.22$ $p = 0.048^*$	$\rho = -0.044$ $p = 0.69$	$\rho = -0.24$ $p = 0.028^*$
N_e	$r = -0.05$ $p = 0.65$	$r = -0.145$ $p = 0.19$		$\rho = 0.067$ $p = 0.55$	$\rho = 0.20$ $p = 0.072$
N_e^{inoc}	$r = 0.40$ $p = 0.00014^{***}$	$r = -0.063$ $p = 0.57$	$r = -0.067$ $p = 0.54$		$\rho = 0.14$ $p = 0.20$
VA	$r = 0.41$ $p = 0.00013^{***}$	$r = -0.22$ $p = 0.041^*$	$r = 0.31$ $p = 0.0045^{**}$	$r = 0.15$ $p = 0.17$	

[†] p -values corresponding to $H_0: r=0$ or $\rho=0$. *, ** and *** correspond to 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001 significance thresholds, respectively.

Table 3 Generalized linear model analysis of the frequency of *pvr2³* resistance breakdown (RB) with four explanatory variables linked to evolutionary forces characterizing PVY populations in the different pepper genotypes. Explanatory variables are the differential selection σ_r , the effective population size during plant colonization (N_e), the effective population size at inoculation (N_e^{inoc}) and the viral accumulation (VA). A stepwise selection procedure, both forward and backward, was applied using Akaike's information criterion. The resulting model presented had a null deviance of 2264.3 on 83 degrees of freedom, while the residual deviance was 1287.7 on 75 degrees of freedom. McFadden's R^2 was 0.40.

Explanatory variable	Estimate	Std. Error	z value	p-value [†]
Intercept	4.71	0.60	7.81	6e-15 ***
σ_r	-56.32	4.02	-14.03	<2e-16 ***
N_e	-3.6e-02	6.7e-03	-5.37	8e-08 ***
VA	-2.92	0.40	-7.26	4e-13 ***
$\sigma_r \times VA$	28.44	2.97	9.56	<2e-16 ***
$N_e \times N_e^{inoc}$	1.5e-03	2.9e-04	5.30	1.1e-07 ***
$N_e \times VA$	7.8e-03	1.8e-03	4.26	2.1e-05 ***
$N_e^{inoc} \times VA$	2.5e-02	9.3e-03	2.73	0.0064 **

[†]** and *** correspond to 0.01 and 0.001 significance thresholds, respectively.

FIGURES

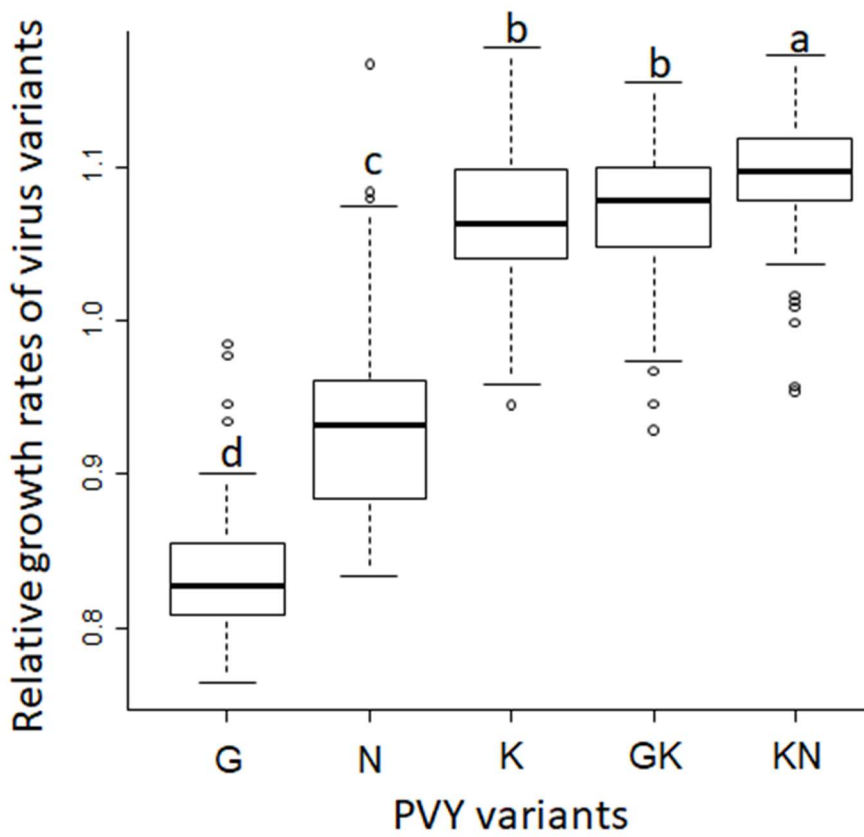


Fig. 1 Distribution of the relative growth rates of the five PVY variants in 84 pepper DH lines. Different letters indicate significantly different groups (p -value <0.05) in Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon tests with Bonferroni correction.

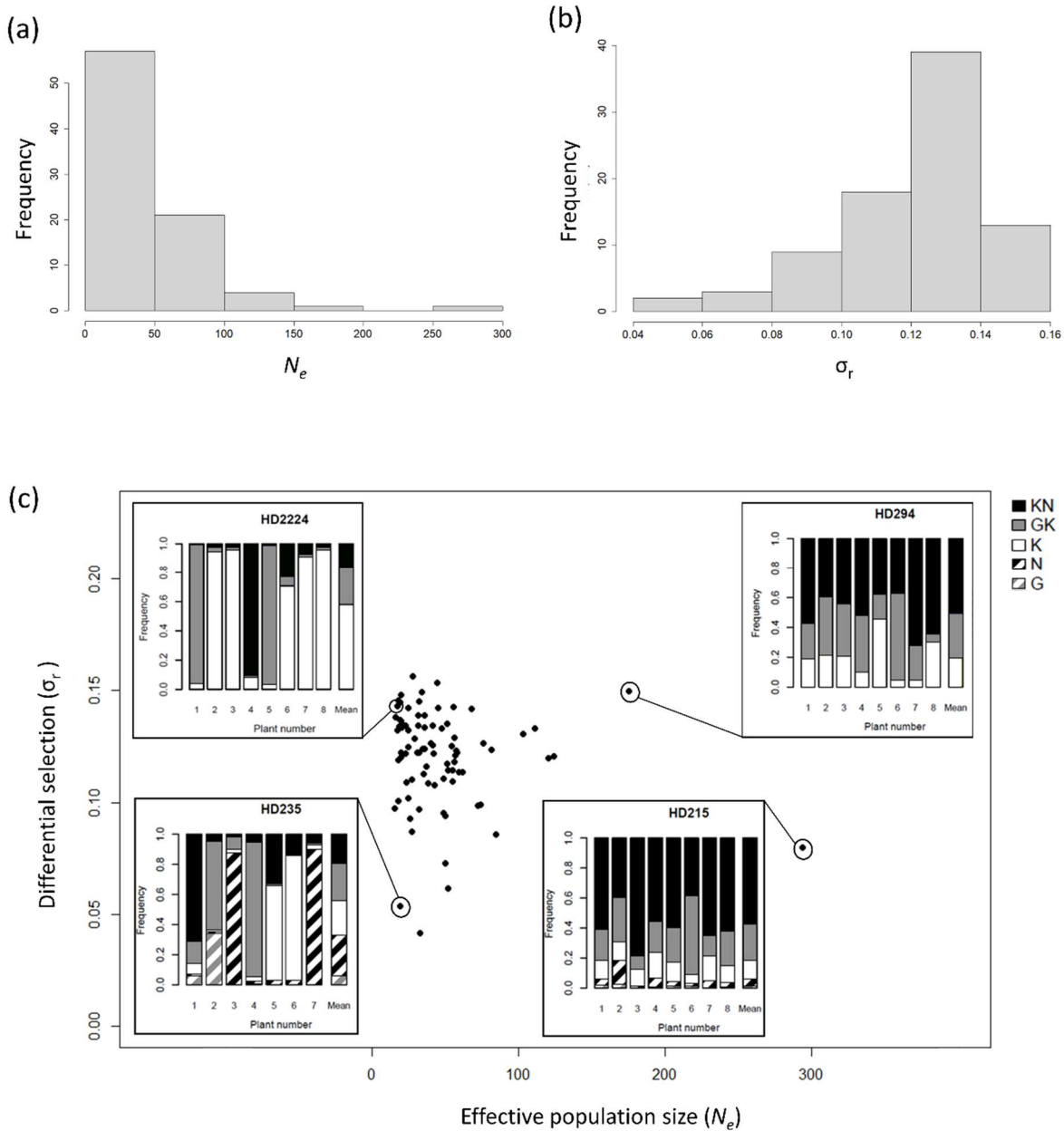


Fig. 2 Distribution of differential selection within, and effective population size of a PVY population in 84 pepper lines. (a) Distribution of differential selection (σ_r). σ_r is the standard deviation of the relative growth rates r_i of the five variants composing the PVY population. (b) Distribution of effective population size (N_e). (c) Distribution of the 84 pepper DH lines according to N_e and σ_r . For four DH lines with contrasted N_e and σ_r values, bar plots illustrating the composition of the PVY population 21 days post inoculation are provided. For each DH line, each of the first 8 bars represents the frequencies of the five PVY variants (G, N, K, GK and KN) in a single plant initially inoculated with a similar amount of the five variants. The last bar represents the mean frequencies of the five PVY variants among the eight plants.

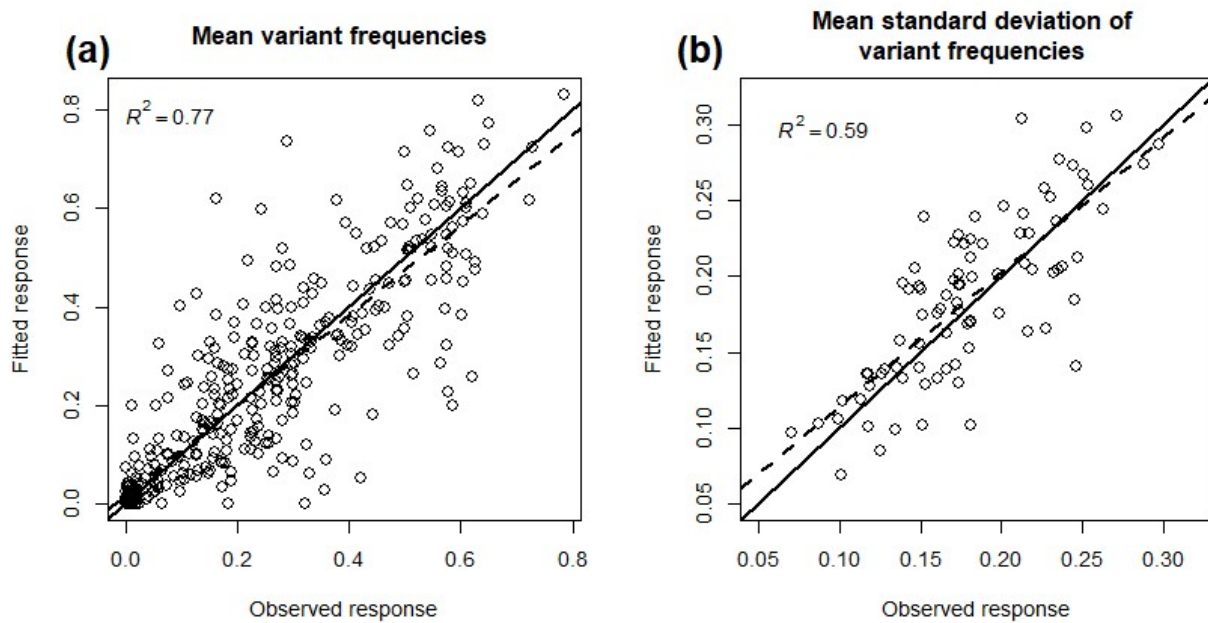


Fig. 3 Goodness of fit of a Wright-Fisher model with selection and genetic drift with the experimental dataset. (a) Correlation between the observed mean frequencies of each of the five virus variants in the population and their fitted values ($n=420$; 84 DH lines, five values per DH line). (b) Correlation between the observed means of the standard deviation of variant frequencies and their fitted values ($n=84$; one value per DH line). In both panels, the black line is the first bisector and the gray dashed line is the best-fitting linear model.

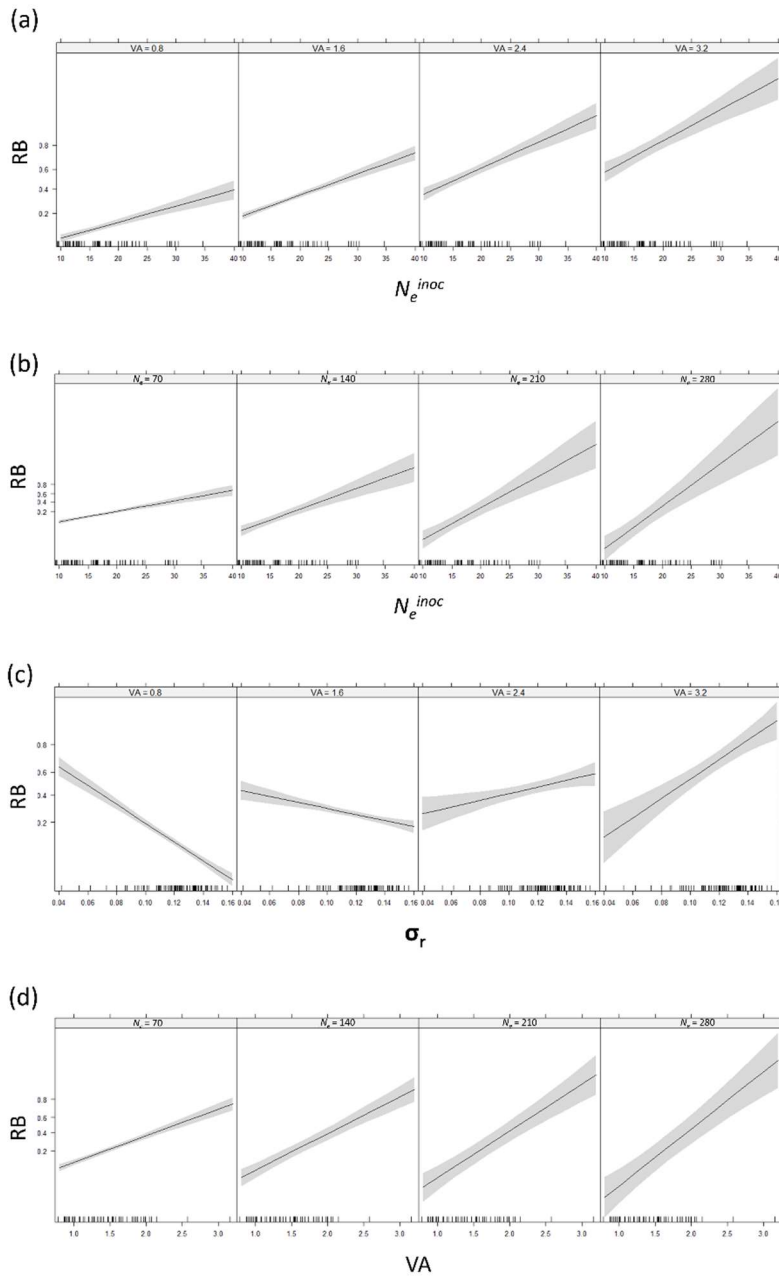


Fig. 4 Response of RB to pairwise interactions between the four explanatory variables according to the GLM. Only significant interactions are shown (Table 3). RB is the frequency of breakdown of the *pvr2³*-mediated resistance in 84 pepper DH lines. The four explanatory variables considered were within-plant virus accumulation (VA), effective population size at the plant inoculation step (N_e^{inoc}) or during plant colonization (N_e) and differential selection exerted by the host plant on the composite PVY population (σ_r). (a) Pairwise interaction between N_e^{inoc} and VA. (b) Pairwise interaction between N_e^{inoc} and N_e . (c) Pairwise interaction between σ_r and VA (d) Pairwise interaction between VA and N_e . Gray areas correspond to the 95% confidence intervals and black bars above the x axes correspond to observed data.

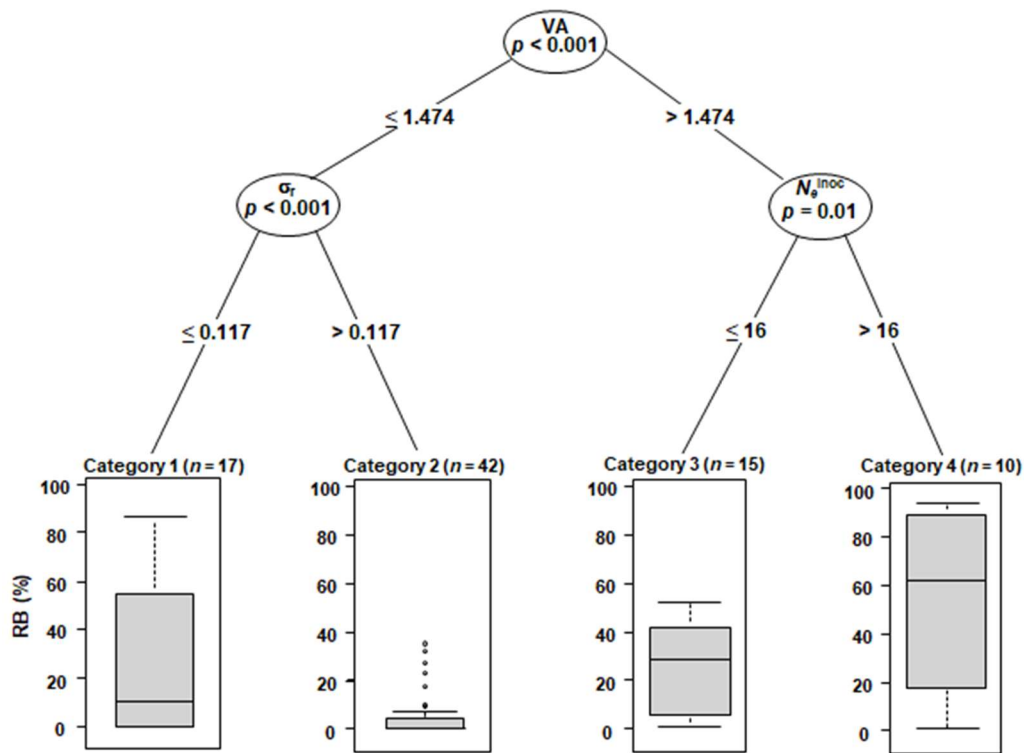


Fig. 5 Conditional inference regression tree modelling RB with three explanatory variables. RB is the frequency of breakdown of the $pvr2^3$ -mediated resistance in 84 pepper DH lines. Three explanatory variables representing evolutionary forces exerted by the host plant on PVY populations were retained by the analysis: VA, N_e^{inoc} and σ_r . Given the parameters of the analysis (minimum number of 10 DH lines in each terminal ‘leaf’ of the tree and default setting for other parameters), the fourth explanatory variable (N_e) was not found to determine significantly RB. The number of DH lines in each category is indicated in brackets. p : p-value indicating the significance of the variable.

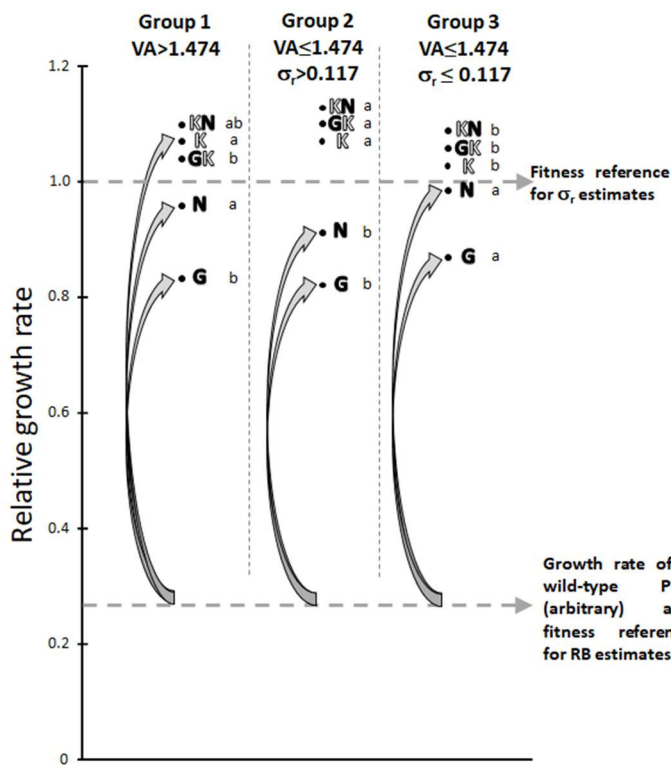


Fig. 6 Interpretation of the combined effects of virus accumulation and differential selection on RB. The effects of virus accumulation (VA) and differential selection (σ_r) on RB, the frequency of resistance breakdown, were considered for the three groups of DH lines defined by the regression tree (Fig. 5). Represented are the mean relative growth rates of the five PVY variants (uppercase single or double letters) used to estimate σ_r in experiment 4 (Table 1) among each plant group. Letters filled in black correspond to transitions and letters filled in white to a transversion. Lower case letters represent, for each PVY variant, significant differences in relative growth rates among plant groups (Kruskal-Wallis test, p -value <0.05). Double mutants GK and KN did not appear in the resistance breaking experiments but were used for estimation of σ_r . When VA is high (group 1), the K mutant which confers a high fitness gain to PVY and requires a transversion is likely to appear. When VA is lower, resistance breakdown involves more likely mutants which require a transition (G and N) but confer lower fitness gains. Since RB was evaluated in experiment 1 (Table 1) with a wild-type PVY, its initial fitness in *pvr2³*-carrying plants is low (fictitious broken line). Fitness gains associated with resistance-breaking mutations G and N are higher for group 3 than for group 2, despite higher σ_r values in the latter group. This may explain the negative effect of σ_r on RB when VA is low (Fig. 4).

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

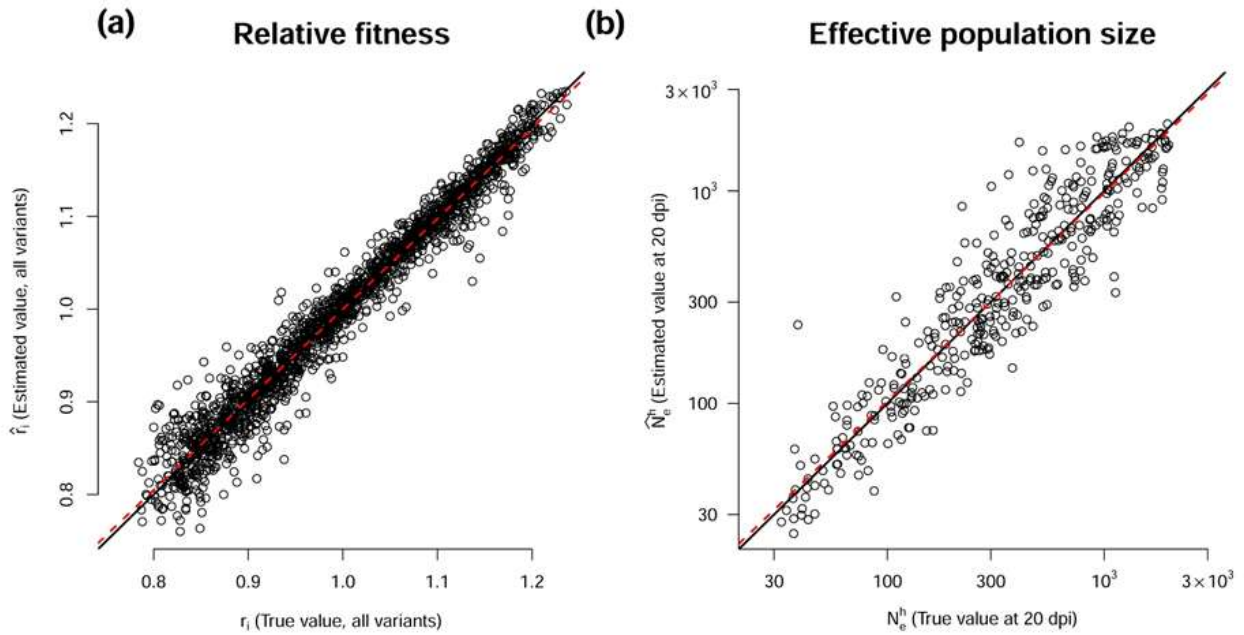


Fig. S1 Inference of the relative growth rates of virus variants and of the effective population size of the virus population with 400 datasets simulated with five virus variants and a single sampling date with the method of Rousseau *et al.*, (2017). (a) Correlation between true and estimated relative growth rates r_i (all variants mixed). (b) Correlation between true and estimated harmonic means of effective population sizes N_e^h (log-scale). In both panels, the black line is the first bisector and the red dashed line is the best linear model fit.

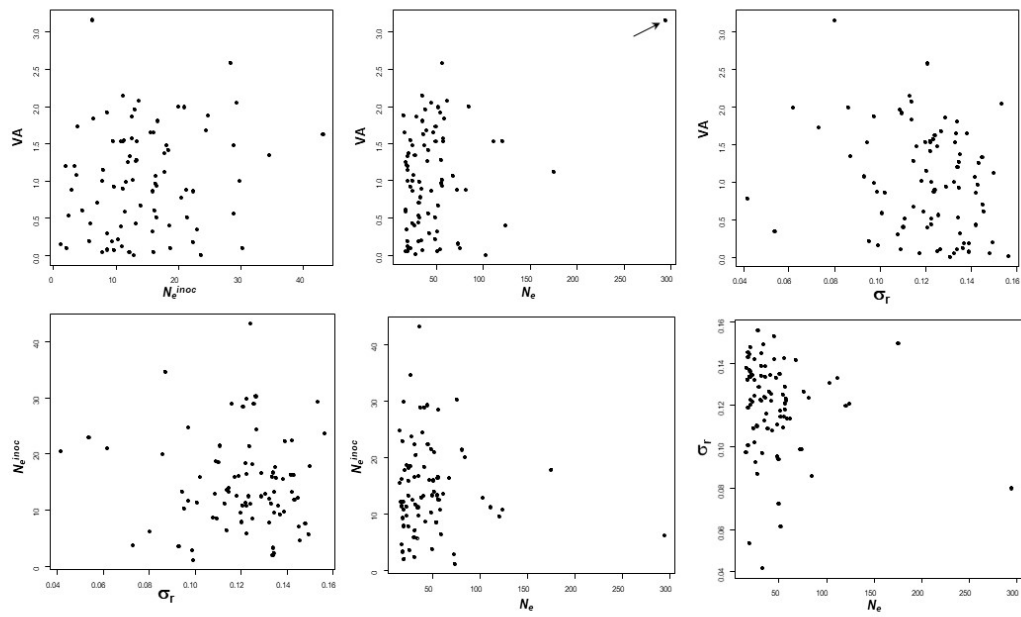


Fig. S2 Pairwise relationships between the four explanatory variables related to PVY evolution: VA (within-plant virus accumulation), σ_r (differential selection exerted on the virus population), N_e (virus effective population size during plant infection) and N_e^{inoc} (virus effective population size at virus inoculation). The arrow indicates the outlier for N_e .

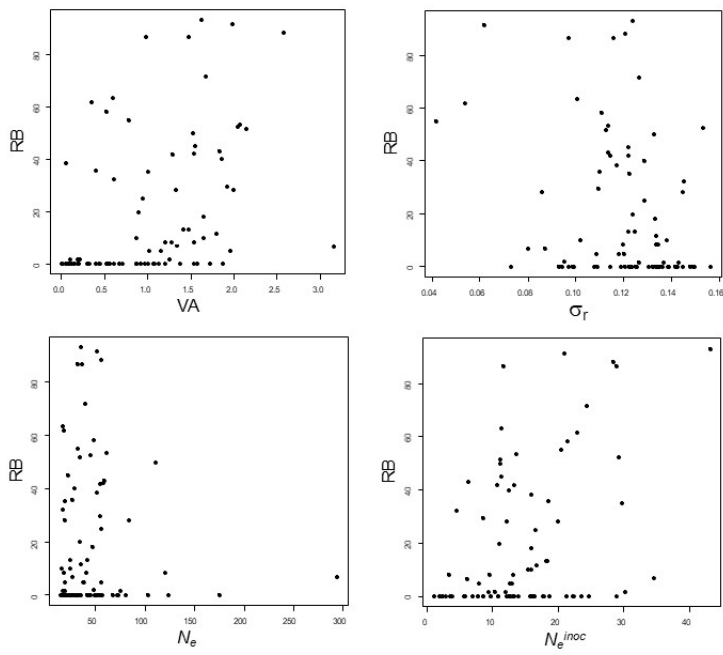


Fig. S3 Pairwise relationships between the response variable RB (frequency of breakdown of the *pvr2³*-mediated resistance) and each of four explanatory variables related to PVY evolution: VA (within-plant virus accumulation), σ_r (differential selection exerted on the virus population), N_e (virus effective population size during plant infection) and N_e^{inoc} (virus effective population size at inoculation).

Supplementary Information -- Text S1: Analyses of Illumina sequences to detect *de novo* mutations in PVY populations

Viruses being characterized by high mutation rates, we conducted a sequence analysis to detect potential *de novo* mutations in virus populations representing the common inoculum and the infected plants. This analysis is similar to the one performed in Rousseau *et al.* (2017) (Supplementary material). In all, 660 samples were analyzed, corresponding to all infected plants from the 89 doubled-haploid (DH) lines of pepper, as well as 6 samples representing replicates of the initial inoculum. This analysis is important because the presence of new mutants could affect the dynamics of virus populations and the intensities of the evolutionary forces at stake. We analyzed each nucleotide position in all sequences. First, we focused on the three single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) located at codon positions 101, 115 and 119 of the VPg cistron which distinguish the five variants mixed to make the inoculum, *i.e.* variants G, N, K, GK and KN. For each sequence, we identified the variant among the eight possible (2^3) at the three nucleotide positions of interest. By doing so, we could estimate the frequencies of the five variants included in the inoculum and of the three other possible variants carrying alternative SNP combinations at the three nucleotide positions of interest (*i.e.* the wild-type variant SON41p and variants GN and GKN). Then, for each of the 666 PVY populations, we determined the relative frequencies of these eight PVY variants. The additional three possible variants SON41p, GN and GKN could have appeared by mutation or recombination, either *in vivo* or *in vitro*, and should thus be surveyed. In a second step, we calculated the frequencies of all remaining nucleotide substitutions in each virus population by comparison with the sequence of the SON41p reference clone (equivalent to comparison with sequences of the G, N, K, GK and KN clones).

Sequence counts of the eight variants corresponding to the SNPs present in the initial inoculum

We assigned each sequence to one of the eight potential PVY variants defined by the three SNPs of interest (variants G, N, K, GK, KN, SON41p, GN or GKN). The sum of the frequencies of the three variants SON41p, GN and GKN that had not been included into the inoculum remained below 7% in all virus populations analyzed except for one. The exception concerned plant number 2 of DH line 2109, featuring a surprisingly high frequency of variant SON41p (43.8%), but also a very low total number of sequences (242). This plant sample was removed for estimations of effective population size and selection. In all, 77.58% of samples showed a sum of frequencies of the three variants SON41p, GN and GKN below 2%, and 98.64% were below 5%. Given the low frequencies recorded, we cannot tell if those sequences indeed correspond to variants present in the virus population, or if they are artifacts due to errors during RT-PCR or sequencing (Rousseau *et al.*, 2017).

Frequencies of *de novo* nucleotide substitutions

The complementary analysis consisted in looking for *de novo* substitutions at all remaining nucleotide positions and in looking for the two possible remaining substitutions at the three SNP positions of interest, *i.e.* those that were absent of the inoculum (first part). We focused on the sum of the frequencies of potential *de novo* substitutions at each nucleotide position, in plant samples or in the inoculum (Table 1 below). In infected plants, 5.60% (3662/65340) of nucleotide positions did not show any *de novo* substitution (*i.e.* frequency of 0%). Additionally, 98.70% of nucleotide positions showed a frequency of *de novo* substitutions below 1%, 99.93% showed a frequency below 5% and 99.94% below 7%.

We expect a total maximum error rate of 0.86% per nucleotide in our experiment, due to the reverse transcription (RT), polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and Illumina MiSeq sequencing steps

(Rousseau *et al.*, 2017). The vast majority (97.96%) of the sum of frequencies of substitutions at each nucleotide position recorded fall below this estimated error rate. Hence, given this threshold, most identified substitutions probably result from *in vitro* errors during RT-PCR or Illumina MiSeq sequencing rather than being real substitutions occurring during virus replication.

Globally, the sum of the frequencies of *de novo* substitutions per nucleotide position varied between 0 and 83.94% in plant samples, while they reached at most 0.53% in the inoculum. Hence, in some plants, mutations have appeared and largely spread in the virus population during infection. Nevertheless, those cases are fairly rare as only 0.06% of observations (39) show a sum of frequencies of substitutions at a nucleotide position above 7% (Table 1), and 0.02% of observations (38) with a frequency of a single substitution (not the sum) above 7% (see Table S1). Thirty-seven of these 38 substitutions were nonsynonymous. We removed all plant samples showing a frequency of a single substitution above 7%, representing 30 cases (as some plant samples showed more than one single substitution above 7%). Interestingly, the vast majority (25/38) of single substitutions above 7% concerned codon position 119, corresponding to the codon position mutated in PVY variant N. While variant N had an asparagine (N) codon at position 119 and SON41p had an aspartic acid (D) codon at that position, the *de novo* mutations yielded a glycine (G) codon. The second most frequent single substitution (8/38) concerned codon position 115, corresponding to the codon position mutated in variant K. While variant K had a lysine (K) codon at position 115 and SON41p had a threonine (T) codon at that position, the *de novo* mutations yielded a methionine (M) codon. The five remaining substitutions concerned codon positions 95, 100, 105, 113 and 117, with mutation at codon position 113 being synonymous.

In a numerical experiment, we tested the impact of a sixth, not accounted for variant starting at a frequency of 3% in the inoculum, being neutral, and still present at the last sampling date (see Text S2 in Rousseau *et al.*, 2017). The mean frequency of this sixth variant at all sampling dates and in all plants was 7% (5% quantile = 1%, median = 4%, 95% quantile = 24%). Overall, the accuracy of estimations of effective population sizes and selection coefficients was not significantly impacted by the presence of this sixth variant. Hence, our estimations of effective population sizes and selection can be considered as accurate if we neglect *de novo* substitutions or potential recombinants present on average at a frequency <7%. This threshold was used to accept or reject plant virus samples to estimate effective population sizes and selection coefficients with Rousseau *et al.*'s (2017) method (Table S1). Following this, five DH lines had less than five plant replicas. Thus, for the subsequent statistical analyses, we removed these five DH lines, leading a final dataset of 84 DH lines.

Reference

Rousseau, E., Moury, B., Mailleret, L., Senoussi, R., Palloix, A., Simon, V., Valière, S., and Grognaard, F. Fabre, F. (2017) Estimating virus effective population size and selection without neutral markers. *PLoS Pathog.* **13**, e1006702.

Table S1. *De novo* mutations observed in PVY populations in inoculated plants in Illumina sequencing data.

Only mutations representing >7% of the PVY populations are indicated.

DH line	Plant number	VPg codon position	Original codon	Mutant codon	Original amino acid in PVY SON41p	Mutant amino acid	Mutant frequency (%)
2395	1	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	83.7
285	7	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	76.2
2354	6	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	72.9
2234	6	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	64.2
2395	7	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	63.7
285	4	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	62.6
2275	1	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	55.2
2353	8	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	53.0
2354	1	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	51.4
2275	1	115	ACG	ATG	T	M	45.5
2395	8	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	44.2
2354	6	115	ACG	ATG	T	M	37.2
2395	3	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	34.4
2353	8	115	ACG	ATG	T	M	31.3
2362	8	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	29.1
2400	3	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	28.9
2362	4	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	26.9
282	5	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	26.6
2354	1	115	ACG	ATG	T	M	26.0
2395	7	115	ACG	ATG	T	M	20.1
240	4	113	ATA	ATT	I	I	19.7
2362	4	115	ACG	ATG	T	M	17.4
2362	8	115	ACG	ATG	T	M	16.7
2409	6	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	16.6
2376	3	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	14.7
2250	5	95	GAT	GGT	D	G	13.8
2391	3	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	13.6
2173	7	117	GCC	ACC	A	T	12.6
285	5	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	12.3
2400	1	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	11.7
2395	5	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	10.5
2377	2	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	10.5
2400	6	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	10.1
282	6	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	9.5
2353	2	119	GAT	GGT	D	G	8.6
2395	3	115	ACG	ATG	T	M	8.5
2376	1	100	TTT	TCT	F	S	8.2
2377	1	105	AGG	TGG	R	W	7.3

Table S2. Number of sequences and composition of the virus populations in each plant sample.

Columns indicate (i) the name of each DH line, (ii) the plant number, (iii) the infection status of each plant (0: not infected / 1: infected / 2: infected with a *de novo* substitution >7% of the virus population), (iv-viii) the number of sequences for each inoculated viral variant (G, N, K, GK and KN). The last lines correspond to six independent sequencing replicas of the artificial PVY population used to inoculate all plants.

Table S3. Values of variables for each DH line. See main text for definition of variables. In experiments designed to estimate variable RB, the frequency of resistance breakdown, the number of infected plants was RB1 and the number of noninfected plants was RB2.

DH line	N_e	N_e^{inoc}	RB1	RB2	RB (%)	VA	Differential selection (σ_r)
206	123.959123324167	10.85	0	60	0	0.402	0.120614017471755
215	293.613521251306	6.2	4	56	6.66	3.159	0.0799462991003434
218	61.4725263408622	13.6	32	28	53.3	2.075	0.113509722718915
219	58.8894968325962	6.45	13	17	43	1.833	0.113504294220534
221	32.1390683845346	11.65	52	8	86.6	0.988	0.0969395324787145
231	47.1598861942085	16	10	50	18.1	1.649	0.133212526233715
233	42.6717833651847	8.65	0	30	0	0.303	0.107688447192553
234	72.2575931041494	2.9	0	30	0	0.877	0.0986796619182158
235	18.7848629791033	22.95	37	23	61.6	0.352	0.0536269919547612
239	51.9615297329996	13.95	0	60	0	0.677	0.114510207174603
240	51.9568114905302	21	55	5	91.5	1.988	0.0617445045263597
242	56.2934605838755	12.65	3	57	4.99	1.017	0.118037758867062
244	110.840703250172	11.2	30	30	50	1.528	0.132862407933287
246	16.0718210568684	15.55	6	54	9.96	1.648	0.138018262782007
248	34.5238411665498	11.1	12	48	19.9	0.902	0.123956614172317
249	24.7873867889044	15.9	6	54	9.99	0.869	0.102045706095016
260	53.9580872692692	8.6	0	60	0	0.081	0.125095281003111
263	19.949303976852	7.89473684210526	3	57	5	1.153	0.120198306803743
264	23.246561146524	18.7	0	60	0	0.102	0.108864315603886
265	31.7640231092193	16.5	0	60	0	0.519	0.122294931250294
268	120.45034690372	9.55	5	55	8.3	1.541	0.119741758477197
275	31.1938837928442	2.45	0	60	0	0.537	0.134275929900691
278	81.1529911916004	21.35	0	60	0	0.876	0.123503970243151
282	57.1104588014194	12.55	0	60	0	1.575	0.123112650654723
284	54.7882878031952	8.55555555555556	17	43	29.7	1.923	0.109323051531975
285	51.4311550769197	16	23	37	38.3	0.055	0.117120910574781
286	38.3908087164146	12.95	3	57	5	1.965	0.108601547971275
290	19.9031750294449	2	0	60	0	1.2	0.133968828179481
294	174.86100515639	17.8	0	60	0	1.129	0.14979164320024
295	32.8926918846316	20.5	33	27	54.9	0.783	0.0414810834071738
2103	37.2292948266171	28.9	52	8	86.6	1.475	0.115944417436632
2107	19.8582720713438	29.8	21	39	35.1	1.006	0.122347926885454
2109	17.7946515797788	11.45	38	22	63.3	0.594	0.100634305689342
2123	56.4307807327544	28.4	53	7	88.2	2.579	0.1208013943977
2155	31.7632376031176	7.1	0	60	0	0.709	0.144977040595252
2158	19.2576056132862	9.35	1	59	1.66	0.192	0.136775685796097
2159	20.5065833880416	2.05	0	60	0	0.102	0.133502452802895
2161	27.0204670719948	18.55	21	39	35.8	0.404	0.109980397277647

2171	17.486951888289	12	1	59	1.66	1.254	0.143085975411449
2173	34.9521138735587	11.2	31	29	51.6	2.148	0.112652396079693
2179	28.8930848079405	12.55	24	36	39.9	1.859	0.128610142924955
2180	22.8175437461878	11.35	27	33	45	1.549	0.121826033902129
2205	24.888138760332	18.15	8	52	13.2	1.474	0.12472158910503
2211	54.9866274617889	13.3157894736842	25	35	41.9	1.285	0.114504014615469
2216	41.8492850056295	18.4	8	52	13.3	1.414	0.121921138630552
2219	34.0522065634319	5.7	0	30	0	0.203	0.14908786052462
2223	17.3727611164411	12.15	0	30	0	0.053	0.132241150162489
2224	19.3100076733163	12.25	17	43	28.3	1.331	0.144752004853822
2225	27.226551562202	34.6	2	28	7	1.345	0.0870407370094859
2226	73.682450799382	1.15	0	60	0	0.158	0.0989551976669403
2228	48.6016701454531	21.45	35	25	58.3	0.516	0.110594825862756
2229	103.051004187961	12.85	0	60	0	0.007	0.130585290563726
2230	18.673820580299	3.4	5	55	8.33	1.206	0.133806324029694
2234	48.8238029465615	10.35	1	59	1.78	0.219	0.0951281029159785
2246	27.8942996004424	23.65	0	30	0	0.013	0.156266571617204
2250	56.3067931947882	16.6	15	45	24.9	0.943	0.128882174988266
2251	35.4501673215504	9.73684210526316	0	60	0	0.08	0.138649837157804
2256	17.633532329912	4.65	19	41	32.2	0.612	0.145447324329785
2259	19.6967627374859	7.8	0	60	0	0.053	0.147913474558192
2261	50.9693923888999	15.85	0	60	0	0.322	0.13511206300719
2262	57.7629881641324	10.75	25	35	42	1.533	0.122175063471002
2263	30.5476921098108	5.9	0	60	0	0.442	0.122373821018838
2264	41.0154790719931	13.2	5	55	8.33	1.273	0.134407183410458
2275	24.9189142801904	7.85	0	60	0	1.006	0.132261952392773
2277	67.5548092350664	16.3888888888889	0	60	0	1.073	0.141655078895297
2283	22.8255008136001	9.7	0	60	0	0.925	0.134352324003078
2310	21.1538402470955	17.75	0	60	0	1.375	0.134753380307559
2312	41.4387839443524	28.85	0	60	0	0.564	0.125567350798243
2327	19.6837758220903	10.9	0	60	0	0.128	0.13615527619978
2330	49.7732334035533	13.35	0	60	0	1.53	0.0940675314742942
2362	35.6851185774822	16.75	7	53	11.6	1.803	0.133633548052305
2376	49.6964360767138	3.85	0	60	0	1.732	0.0728449154755829
2377	17.7891075021703	16.2	0	60	0	0.609	0.118859621924108
2393	44.6122061674507	29.25	31	29	52.3	2.044	0.153252004797242
2401	55.5811973512049	16.3529411764706	0	60	0	0.969	0.142672328068211
2403	45.1479935623742	22.4210526315789	0	60	0	0.868	0.142095518296076
2408	25.6335851239137	3.65	0	60	0	1.08	0.0926941716076049
2409	84.2710695381114	20	17	43	28.3	1.997	0.0858521019099796
2412	15.4018445229049	24.8	0	60	0	1.878	0.0971345306172575
2416	24.7823258906935	13.2	0	60	0	0.434	0.142080629462278
2433	31.2223920890736	22.3	0	60	0	0.185	0.138883314469363
2434	75.7066539007268	30.3	1	59	1.66	0.101	0.126461870663673
2435	40.1115880605815	24.45	43	17	71.6	1.681	0.126481198193577
2437	36.0343285363284	43.2	56	4	93.2	1.626	0.123815451436912

