

This is a repository copy of *Plant pathogenic bacterium can rapidly evolve tolerance to an antimicrobial plant allelochemical*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/183683/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Alderley, Carrie, Greenrod, Samuel and Friman, Ville-Petri orcid.org/0000-0002-1592-157X
(Accepted: 2022) *Plant pathogenic bacterium can rapidly evolve tolerance to an antimicrobial plant allelochemical*. *Evolutionary applications*. ISSN 1752-4571 (In Press)

Reuse

Items deposited in White Rose Research Online are protected by copyright, with all rights reserved unless indicated otherwise. They may be downloaded and/or printed for private study, or other acts as permitted by national copyright laws. The publisher or other rights holders may allow further reproduction and re-use of the full text version. This is indicated by the licence information on the White Rose Research Online record for the item.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.

1 **Plant pathogenic bacterium can rapidly evolve tolerance to an**
2 **antimicrobial plant allelochemical**

3 Carrie Louise Alderley¹#, Samuel Terrence Edwards Greenrod¹ and Ville-Petri Friman¹

4 ¹University of York, Department of Biology, York, UK

5 Running Head: ITC tolerance in *Ralstonia solanacearum*

6 #Address correspondence to Carrie Louise Alderley, carrie.alderley@york.ac.uk

7 Abstract word-count: 266

8 **Abstract**

9 Crop losses to plant pathogens are a growing threat to global food security and more
10 effective control strategies are urgently required. Biofumigation, an agricultural technique
11 where *Brassica* plant tissues are mulched into soils to release antimicrobial plant
12 allelochemicals called isothiocyanates (ITCs), has been proposed as an environmentally
13 friendly alternative to agrochemicals. While biofumigation has been shown to suppress a
14 range of plant pathogens, its effects on plant pathogenic bacteria remain largely
15 unexplored. Here we used a laboratory model system to compare the efficacy of different
16 types of ITCs against *Ralstonia solanacearum* plant bacterial pathogen. Additionally, we
17 evaluated the potential for ITC-tolerance evolution under high, intermediate and low
18 transfer frequency ITC exposure treatments. We found that allyl-ITC was the most efficient
19 compound at suppressing *R. solanacearum* growth, and its efficacy was not improved when
20 combined with other types of ITCs. Despite consistent pathogen growth suppression, ITC
21 tolerance evolution was observed in the low transfer frequency exposure treatment, leading
22 to cross-tolerance to ampicillin beta-lactam antibiotic. Mechanistically, tolerance was linked
23 to insertion sequence movement at four positions in genes that were potentially associated
24 with stress responses (H-NS histone like protein), cell growth and competitiveness
25 (acyltransferase), iron storage ((2-Fe-2S)-binding protein) and calcium ion sequestration
26 (calcium-binding protein). Interestingly, pathogen adaptation to the growth media also
27 indirectly selected for increased ITC tolerance through potential adaptations linked with
28 metabolism and antibiotic resistance (dehydrogenase-like protein) and transmembrane
29 protein movement (Tat pathway signal protein). Together, our results suggest that *R.*
30 *solanacearum* can rapidly evolve tolerance to allyl-ITC plant allelochemical which could

- 31 constrain the long-term efficiency of biofumigation biocontrol and potentially shape
- 32 pathogen evolution with plants.
- 33 **Keywords:** Antimicrobial tolerance, Plant allelochemicals, Plant pathogenic bacteria,
- 34 Biofumigation, Isothiocyanates (ITCs), *Ralstonia solanacearum*

35 Introduction

36 Plant pathogens are a growing threat to global food security, accounting for up to 40% of
37 crop losses annually (Savary et al., 2012). The phasing out of environmentally toxic chemical
38 fumigants, such as methyl bromide, has directed attention towards alternative biocontrol
39 strategies (Qin et al., 2004). Plant-derived antimicrobial allelochemicals, such as phenolic
40 acids, terpenes and volatile isothiocyanates (ITCs), are naturally exuded by the roots of
41 legumes (Mondal et al., 2015; Wink, 2013), cereals (Larkin & Halloran, 2015; Mazzola & Gu,
42 2002) and other crops such as *Brassica* (Kirkegaard et al., 1996; Sarwar et al., 1998). These
43 compounds could potentially be used to control pathogens by biofumigation, which involves
44 mulching plant tissues into soils to release biocidal allelochemicals. While biofumigation has
45 previously been shown to suppress the growth of soil-borne fungal (Angus et al., 1994;
46 Rumberger & Marschner, 2003; Sarwar et al., 1998), nematode (Lord et al., 2011; Ngala et
47 al., 2015) and bacterial pathogens (Hu et al., 2015; Ji et al., 2007), outcomes are still varied,
48 ranging from clear pathogen suppression (Larkin & Griffin, 2007; Matthiessen & Kirkegaard,
49 2006) to having no effect (Hartz et al., 2005; Kirkegaard et al., 2000; Stirling & Stirling, 2003).
50 A better understanding of the antimicrobial and biocidal effects of plant allelochemicals on
51 pathogens is thus required.

52 The success of biofumigation is influenced by various factors including soil
53 conditions, the biofumigant plant species, timing of application and the half-life of biocidal
54 compounds (Matthiessen & Kirkegaard, 2006). The biocidal effects of *Brassica*-based
55 biofumigation are believed to result primarily from the release of toxic ITCs from their
56 glucosinolate (GSL) pre-cursors (Gimsing & Kirkegaard, 2009; Lord *et al.*, 2011; Matthiessen
57 & Kirkegaard, 2006). Moreover, other allelochemicals such as dimethyl sulfide and methyl

58 iodide might contribute to the biocidal activity of biofumigant plants (Vervoort et al., 2014;
59 Wang et al., 2009). Even though ITC-liberating GSL levels can potentially reach as high as
60 45.3 mM/m² following initial mulching of plant material into the soil (Kirkegaard & Sarwar,
61 1998), their concentrations often decline rapidly due to high volatility, sorption to organic
62 matter, leaching from the soil and microbial degradation (Frick et al., 1998; Gimsing et al.,
63 2007; Hanschen et al., 2015; Matthiessen & Kirkegaard, 2006; Warton et al., 2001). As ITCs
64 often have short half-lives of up to sixty hours (Borek et al., 1995; Gimsing & Kirkegaard,
65 2006), it is important to identify ITCs that are highly effective against pathogens even during
66 short-term exposure.

67 The antimicrobial activity of different types of ITCs can vary depending on their
68 mode of action and the species and genotype of the target pathogen. In the case of
69 bacterial pathogens, several antimicrobial mechanisms have been suggested. For instance,
70 ITCs could damage the outer cell membrane of Gram-negative bacteria leading to changes
71 in cell membrane potential (Sofrata et al., 2011) and leakage of cell metabolites (Lin et al.,
72 2000). Further, it has been suggested that ITCs could bind to bacterial enzymes, such as
73 thioredoxin reductases and acetate kinases and disrupt their tertiary structure and
74 functioning (Luciano & Holley, 2009). It is also possible that some ITCs, such as allyl-ITC,
75 could have multiple targets, making them relatively more toxic to pathogenic bacteria
76 (Luciano & Holley, 2009). However, antimicrobial activity and potential tolerance evolution
77 to ITCs are still poorly understood in plant pathogenic bacteria.

78 Antibiosis is an important mechanism underlying bacterial competition in soils and
79 soil bacteria often produce and are resistant to several antimicrobials, enabling them to
80 outcompete surrounding bacteria for space and nutrients (Hibbing et al., 2010).

81 Antimicrobial tolerance is also important for plant-bacteria interactions, as it can help
82 bacteria to tolerate antimicrobials secreted by plants, such as coumarins, giving them a
83 selective advantage in the plant rhizosphere microbiome (Stringlis et al., 2018). Such
84 tolerance has recently been shown to evolve *de novo* in *Pseudomonas protegens* CHAO
85 bacterium against the antimicrobial scopoletin secreted by *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Li et al.,
86 2020). Prolonged exposure to plant allelochemicals could thus select for more tolerant plant
87 pathogen genotypes also during biofumigation and will likely be affected by the strength
88 and duration of ITC exposure, which is important in determining whether potential
89 tolerance or resistance mutations have enough time to sweep through pathogen
90 populations. If the mutations enabling ITC tolerance are costly, their selective benefit could
91 be further reduced by competition or growth trade-offs, leading to loss of tolerance
92 mutations in the absence of ITCs. While ITC concentrations are known to reach antimicrobial
93 levels during biofumigation in the field (Sarwar et al., 1998), no direct experimental
94 evidence for ITC tolerance evolution in plant pathogenic bacteria exists.

95 To study these questions, we developed a model laboratory system where we tested
96 the growth-inhibiting effects of ITCs produced by Indian mustard (*Brassica juncea*) on
97 *Ralstonia solanacearum* plant pathogenic bacterium, which is the causative agent of
98 bacterial wilt and potato brown rot diseases and a globally important pathogen, affecting
99 over 200 different plant species including various important crops (Elphinstone, 2005;
100 Yabuuchi et al., 1995). The *R. solanacearum* genome is bipartite, consisting of a
101 chromosome and megaplasmid (Salanoubat et al., 2002). Disease control techniques such as
102 crop rotation, the use of clean and certified seeds or resistant plant cultivars, have shown
103 only limited success in controlling *R. solanacearum* (Chellemi et al., 1997; Ciampi-Panno et
104 al., 1989; Ramesh et al., 2009). Indian mustard was chosen as a model biofumigant plant

105 due to its well-established allelochemical properties (Bending & Lincoln, 1999; Kirkegaard &
106 Matthiessen, 2005; Mazzola et al., 2015; Sarwar et al., 1998), which are predominantly
107 caused by the release of allyl, sec-butyl and 2-phenylethyl ITCs (Bangarwa et al., 2011;
108 Olivier et al., 1999; Yim et al., 2016). As these ITCs might vary in their biocidal activity, we
109 first tested to what extent they suppress *R. solanacearum* growth when applied either alone
110 or in combination at concentrations relevant to field biofumigation (Gimsing et al., 2007;
111 Hanschen et al., 2012; Kirkegaard & Sarwar, 1998; Matthiessen & Kirkegaard, 2006; Rudolph
112 et al., 2015). Subsequently, we explored whether long-term exposure to the most effective
113 ITC type could select for resistant or more ITC-tolerant pathogens in the lab, and if ITC
114 tolerance is associated with competitive costs or cross-tolerance to other antimicrobials. It
115 was found that allyl-ITC was the most suppressive allelochemical. However, long-term
116 exposure selected for ITC-tolerant pathogen mutants that also had increased cross-
117 tolerance to the beta-lactam antibiotic ampicillin. At the molecular level, adaptations were
118 associated with a few parallel mutations and loss of insertion sequences mainly in the
119 megaplasmid. Together these results suggest that while Indian mustard could be used as a
120 biofumigant plant against *R. solanacearum* due to the high antimicrobial activity of allyl-ITC,
121 its long-term efficacy could be constrained by rapid ITC tolerance evolution.

122 **Materials and Methods**

123 **(a) Pathogen strain and culture media**

124 We used a *Ralstonia solanacearum* strain (21415687) which was originally isolated from the
125 river Loddon (phylotype II sequevar 1) in the UK as our ancestral pathogen strain (Source:
126 John Elphinstone, Fera Science, 2014). This strain was chosen as river water is the most
127 common environmental source of potato brown rot outbreaks in the UK (Elphinstone *et al.*,

128 1998), and hence highly relevant for UK *R. solanacearum* epidemics. The strain was cultured
129 in CPG broth (1 g casamino acids, 10 g peptone and 5 g glucose per litre of ddH₂O) for 48
130 hours at 28 °C to create cryostocks (20% w/v glycerol) that were preserved at -80 °C. CPG
131 was also used as the main growth media in all experiments except for fitness assays, where
132 lysogeny broth (LB: 10 g tryptone, 5 g yeast, 10 g NaCl per litre of ddH₂O) was also used as a
133 'naïve' growth media to control the effects of *R. solanacearum* adaptation to CPG media
134 during the selection experiment.

135 **(b) Comparing the effects of different types of ITCs for pathogen suppression**

136 To determine antimicrobial activity of ITCs, we first identified concentrations that caused a
137 significant reduction in *R. solanacearum* growth relative to the no-ITC control treatments.
138 To this end, we conducted short-term growth assays where *R. solanacearum* was exposed
139 to allyl, sec-butyl and 2-phenylethyl ITCs at 63, 125, 250, 500, 1000, 2500 and 5000 µM
140 concentrations in CPG media (Suppl. Fig. 2). For this experiment, *R. solanacearum* was
141 revived from cryostocks by growing with shaking (250 rpm) for 48 hours at 28 °C before
142 normalising bacterial density to an optical density (OD) reading of 0.1 (600 nm; Tecan,
143 Sunrise), equalling ~10⁷ cells per ml. This method was consistently used to revive and adjust
144 bacterial densities in all growth experiments. *R. solanacearum* was grown in 200 µl CPG
145 media in different ITC concentrations for 148 hours and bacterial densities were measured
146 every 24 hours (OD_{600 nm}). We found that allyl-ITC concentrations as low as 125 µM
147 inhibited *R. solanacearum* growth, while relatively higher concentrations of 500 µM of sec-
148 butyl and 2-phenylethyl ITC were required to inhibit pathogen growth (Suppl. Fig. 2). Based
149 on this data, 500 µM and 1000 µM ITC concentrations were selected because they showed
150 pathogen growth suppression in the case of all measured ITCs (Suppl. Table 1). Furthermore,

151 these concentrations are known to be achievable at least transiently during biofumigation in
152 the field (Gimsing et al., 2007; Hanschen et al., 2012; Kirkegaard & Sarwar, 1998;
153 Matthiessen & Kirkegaard, 2006; Rudolph et al., 2015). To explore the effects of ITCs on
154 pathogen growth alone and in combination, different ITCs were mixed in all possible two-
155 way and three-way combinations using equal concentrations of each ITC within
156 combinations (two-way 50:50%; three-way 33:33:33%) to achieve final low (500 μ M) and
157 high (1000 μ M) ITC concentrations in 200 μ l of CPG media in 96-well microplates.
158 Microplates were cultured at 28 °C (N= 8 for all treatments) and the experiment was run for
159 three days (72 hours), with population density measurements recorded every 24 hours as
160 optical density at 600 nm.

161 **(c) Determining pathogen ITC and beta-lactam tolerance evolution in response**
162 **to repeated allyl-ITC exposure**

163 To investigate the potential for ITC tolerance evolution, we set up a 16-day selection
164 experiment where we exposed *R. solanacearum* to 500 μ M of allyl-ITC, which has the
165 strongest effect on pathogen growth suppression of all tested ITCs (Fig. 1A; Suppl. Fig. 2).
166 We also manipulated the frequency of ITC exposure using high (1-day), intermediate (2-day)
167 and low (3-day) serial transfer frequency treatments. At each serial transfer, a subset of
168 evolved bacteria (5% of the homogenised bacterial population) was serially transferred to
169 fresh CPG media in the absence (control) and presence of allyl-ITC. ITC treatments thus
170 manipulated both resource renewal and exposure to fresh ITC. The selection experiment
171 was set-up following the same protocols described earlier and following this, separate
172 fitness assays were conducted to directly compare the growth of ancestral and evolved
173 populations (and individual colonies) in the absence and presence of 500 μ M allyl-ITC. In

174 addition to testing potential ITC tolerance evolution, we quantified changes in the growth of
175 evolved bacteria in the absence of ITCs to reveal potential adaptations to the CPG growth
176 media. All fitness assays were also repeated in 'naïve' LB media to control the potential
177 effects of pathogen adaptation to the CPG growth media during the selection experiment. In
178 all assays, bacteria were revived and prepared as described earlier, and grown in 96-well
179 microplates in different media (CPG or LB) in the absence or presence of 500 μ M allyl-ITC for
180 72 hours. Changes in ITC tolerance were quantified as bacterial growth relative to the
181 ancestral and control treatments based on optical density at 600 nm (48-hour time point).
182 Fitness assays were also conducted for individual bacterial colonies at the final time point
183 where a single ancestral colony and one colony from each replicate selection line per
184 treatment were selected resulting in a total of 49 clones.

185 To explore potential ITC-tolerance mechanisms, we tested if ITC tolerance correlated
186 with tolerance to ampicillin beta-lactam antibiotic (growth assays), which is commonly
187 produced by various soil bacteria (Ranjan et al., 2021). Moreover, we specifically tested for
188 ampicillin tolerance as we identified potential antibiotic-linked insertion sequence
189 movement in our evolved clones, which has previously been shown to confer beta-lactam
190 antibiotic tolerance in clinical settings (Boutoille et al., 2004; Poirel et al., 2003). Ampicillin
191 tolerance was tested using the sequenced isolated clones from the final time point of the
192 selection experiment (intermediate transfer frequency no-ITC, low transfer frequency no-
193 ITC and low transfer frequency ITC exposure treatments) and the ancestral strain (total of 24
194 evolved clones and 8 replicate ancestral clones per treatment). Clones were prepared as
195 described earlier and grown in 96-well microplates in CPG media in the absence or presence
196 of 15 or 30 μ g/ml ampicillin. Ampicillin tolerance was quantified as bacterial growth relative
197 to the ancestral clones based on optical density at 600nm (48-hour time point).

198 **(d) Genome sequencing of evolved bacterial clones**

199 A subset of evolved clones was whole genome sequenced to identify potential single
200 nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), genomic rearrangements (small insertions and deletions)
201 and potential changes in prophage and insertion sequence movement linked with *R.*
202 *solanacearum* adaptation. Based on phenotypic data, we chose eight clones (1 per replicate
203 selection line) from the low transfer frequency treatments that had evolved in the absence
204 or presence of ITC (16 clones). Moreover, we sequenced the ancestral strain (1 clone) and
205 eight clones from the intermediate transfer frequency no-ITC treatment (8 clones), that
206 showed no evidence of ITC tolerance adaptation (a total of 25 clones), as controls. Genomic
207 DNA was extracted using the Qiagen DNeasy UltraClean Microbial Kit according to the
208 manufacturer's protocol. DNA was quantified using the NanoDrop microvolume
209 spectrophotometer and quality checked by gel electrophoresis imaging. DNA yields of all
210 samples were diluted with EB buffer to 30 ng/μl concentrations and DNA samples were sent
211 to MicrobesNG for sequencing (Illumina 30x coverage; <http://www.microbesng.uk>).
212 MicrobesNG conducted library preparation using Nextera XT Library Prep Kit (Illumina, San
213 Diego, USA) following the manufacturer's protocol with the following modifications: 2 ng of
214 DNA were used as input, and PCR elongation lasted 1 min. Hamilton Microlab STAR
215 automated liquid handling system was used for DNA quantification and library preparation.
216 Pooled libraries were quantified using the Kapa Biosystems Library Quantification Kit for
217 Illumina on a Roche light cycler 96 qPCR machine. Libraries were sequenced on the Illumina
218 HiSeq 2500 using a 250 bp paired end protocol. Reads were adapter trimmed using
219 Trimmomatic 0.30 with a sliding window quality cut-off of Q15 (Bolger et al., 2014).
220 Assembly was performed on samples using SPAdes v.3.7 (Bankevich et al., 2012) and contigs
221 were annotated using Prokka v.1.11 (Seemann, 2014). Genomes were analysed using a

222 standard analysis pipeline (Guarisch-Sousa et al., 2016), where reads were first mapped to a
223 high quality and well annotated UY031 reference genome (NCBI accession: NZ_CP012687)
224 which showed 99.95% similarity with our ancestral *R. solanacearum* strain at the
225 chromosome level and 97.87% similarity at the mega-plasmid level. Variant calling was
226 performed using Snippy v.3.2, a rapid haploid variant calling pipeline (Seemann, 2015).
227 When comparing the sequenced genomes, the SNPs identified in both the ancestral strain
228 and the evolved clones were first filtered out as these likely represent pre-existing
229 phylogenetic differences between the reference genome and our ancestral *R. solanacearum*
230 strain. We also compared the control treatment clones isolated from low and intermediate
231 transfer frequency treatments (no ITC exposure) to identify potential mutations linked with
232 CPG media adaptation. The software IMSindel v.1.0.2 (Shigemizu et al., 2018) was used to
233 identify potential intermediate indels with options “—indelsize 10000” and using UY031 as a
234 reference. After running IMSindel, putative indels in all isolates were combined. Putative
235 short indels that were < 50 bp in length were removed. To investigate potential insertion
236 sequences underlying ITC tolerance and media adaptation, insertion sequences were
237 detected in the UY031 with ISEScan v.1.7.2.3; (Xie & Tang, 2017) using default parameters.
238 Potential false positives were determined by blasting insertion sequences against the
239 ISFinder database (<https://isfinder.biotoul.fr/>) and removing hits with an E-value > e-04.
240 Experimental isolates were then screened for the insertion sequences identified with
241 ISEScan using ISMapper v.2.0; (Hawkey et al., 2015) with default settings. In line with a
242 previous study (Hawkey et al., 2020), ISMapper was run using an IS-removed UY031
243 assembly to improve insertion site precision. The genes flanking putative IS sites were
244 determined by annotating the UY031 assembly using the stand-alone NCBI prokaryotic
245 genome annotation pipeline 2021-07-01.build5508 (Tatusova et al., 2016). Additionally, we

246 determined isolate prophage content and positions to identify potential phenotypic changes
247 via mobile genetic elements. Isolate draft assemblies were generated using Unicycler
248 Illumina-only assembly v.0.4.7 (Wick et al., 2017). Prophages were then identified in draft
249 assemblies using the PHASTER (PHAge Search Tool Enhanced Release) web server (Arndt et
250 al., 2016). Prophage movement was detected by parsing out the 5kb (or to end of contig)
251 flanking regions either side of the prophages in the draft assemblies and mapping them to a
252 closely related complete UY031 genome sequence. Prophage movement was detected if the
253 flanking regions map to different parts of the UY031 genome between isolates. Prophage
254 movement analyses were conducted using custom R and Python scripts available at
255 (https://github.com/SamuelGreenrod/Prophage_movement). All genomes including the
256 ancestral strain have been deposited in the European Nucleotide Archive database under
257 the following accession number: PRJEB42551.

258 **(e) Statistical analysis**

259 Repeated measures ANOVA was performed to analyse all the data with temporal sampling
260 structure and pairwise differences were determined using *post-hoc* t-test with Bonferroni
261 correction. All other statistical analyses (ITC tolerance and cost of tolerance in CPG and LB
262 media and cross-tolerance in ampicillin) were conducted focusing on the 48-hour
263 measurement time point (where ITC was still actively suppressive to *R. solanacearum*, Suppl.
264 Fig. 1) and two-way ANOVA was used to explain variation in bacterial growth between
265 different treatments. Tukey *post-hoc* tests were used to compare differences between
266 subgroups ($p < 0.05$). Where data did not meet the assumptions of a parametric test, non-
267 parametric Kruskal-Wallis test and *post-hoc* Dunn test were used. All statistical analyses and
268 graphs were produced using R (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, R Studio v.3. 5. 1)
269 using ggplot2, tidyverse, ggpubr, lme4, rcompanion and reshape2 packages.

270 Results

271 (a) Only allyl-ITC suppressed pathogen growth irrespective of the presence of 272 other ITCs

273 We first determined the effects of different ITCs on *R. solanacearum* growth alone and in
274 combination. Overall, there was a significant reduction in *R. solanacearum* densities in the
275 presence of ITCs (ITC presence: $F_{1, 120} = 6.33$, $p < 0.01$; Tukey: $p < 0.05$; Fig. 1B). However, this
276 effect was mainly driven by the allyl-ITC, which significantly reduced bacterial densities
277 compared to the no-ITC control treatment (ITC type: $F_{7, 114} = 49.45$, $p < 0.001$; Tukey: $p <$
278 0.05), while other ITCs had no significant effect on the pathogen ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 1B).

279 Increasing the ITC concentration from low to high (500 to 1000 μM) had no effect on
280 inhibitory activity in either single or combination ITC treatments (ITC concentration in single
281 ITC treatment: $F_{1, 43} = 2.0$, $p = 0.17$; combination ITC treatment: $F_{1, 59} = 0.68$, $p = 0.41$; Fig. 1B).

282 However, a significant interaction between ITC type and ITC concentration in both single
283 and combination treatments was found (ITC concentration \times ITC type in single ITC
284 treatment: $F_{2, 39} = 4.67$, $p < 0.05$; in combination ITC treatment: $F_{3, 53} = 4.94$, $p < 0.01$; Fig. 1B),
285 which was driven by the increased inhibitory activity of allyl-ITC at high concentration
286 (Tukey: $p < 0.05$). As a result, ITC combinations were less inhibitory than single ITC
287 treatments (Number of ITCs: $F_{2, 103} = 3.82$, $p < 0.05$; Fig. 1B), which was due to reduced allyl-
288 ITC concentration in combination treatments (total ITC concentrations were kept the same
289 between treatments). Similarly, ITC combinations that included allyl-ITC significantly
290 reduced bacterial densities relative to the control treatment (Allyl-ITC presence: $F_{1, 57} =$
291 36.21 , $p < 0.001$; Fig. 1B), and the presence of allyl-ITC had a clearer effect at the high ITC
292 concentration (Allyl-ITC presence \times ITC concentration: $F_{1, 57} = 7.51$, $p < 0.01$; Fig. 1B). Together

293 these results suggest that allyl-ITC was the most inhibitory compound and its antimicrobial
294 activity was not enhanced by the presence of other ITCs.

295 **(b) Pathogen growth was more clearly suppressed in high and intermediate**
296 **ITC exposure treatments during an experimental evolution experiment**

297 To study the evolutionary effects of ITCs, we exposed the ancestral *R. solanacearum* strain
298 to allyl-ITC at the low concentration (500 μ M) and manipulated the frequency of exposure
299 to ITC by transferring a subset of evolved bacterial population to fresh ITC-media mixture
300 everyday (high), every second day (intermediate) and every third day (low) for a total of 16
301 days. As a result, this manipulation also affected the resource renewal rate. Overall, bacteria
302 reached the highest population densities in the low transfer frequency treatments and the
303 second highest in the intermediate transfer frequency treatments (Transfer frequency: $F_{2, 45} =$
304 4.66 , $p < 0.001$; $p < 0.05$ for pairwise comparison; Fig. 2). While allyl-ITC exposure
305 significantly reduced bacterial densities in all ITC-containing treatments (ITC presence: $F_{1, 46} =$
306 30.68 , $p < 0.001$; Fig. 2), bacterial growth was least affected in the low transfer frequency
307 treatment (ITC presence \times Transfer frequency: $F_{2, 42} = 4.36$, $p < 0.05$; $p < 0.001$ for all pairwise
308 comparisons; Fig. 2). The inhibitory activity of allyl-ITC also varied over time: while relatively
309 more constant suppression was observed in the high and intermediate transfer frequency
310 treatments, pathogen growth suppression became clear in the low transfer frequency
311 treatment only towards the end of the selection experiment potentially due to media
312 growth adaptation in the no-ITC control treatment (Time \times Transfer frequency \times ITC
313 presence: $F_{2, 673} = 7.33$, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 2). Together these results suggest that the long-term
314 ITC activity varied temporally and depended on the ITC exposure and serial transfer
315 frequency.

316 **(c) ITC tolerance evolution was observed only in the low transfer frequency**

317 **ITC exposure treatment**

318 Fitness assays were conducted at the end of the selection experiment to compare the
319 growth of the ancestral strain and evolved populations from different treatments in the
320 presence and absence of allyl-ITC (experimental concentration: 500 μ M). The ancestral
321 strain reached lower densities in the presence of ITC compared to evolved populations
322 regardless of the ITC treatment they had evolved in during the selection experiment
323 (Evolutionary history: $F_{2, 45} = 5.39$, $p < 0.01$; Tukey: $p < 0.05$; Fig. 3A). However, ITC tolerance
324 was mainly observed in the low transfer frequency ITC exposure treatment, while
325 populations that had evolved in the high or intermediate transfer frequency treatments did
326 not significantly differ from the ancestral strain (Transfer frequency within ITC-exposed
327 populations: $F_{2, 19} = 24.72$, $p < 0.001$; Tukey: $p < 0.05$; Fig. 3A). Surprisingly, even the control
328 populations that had evolved in the absence of ITCs in the low transfer frequency treatment
329 showed an increase in ITC tolerance ($p < 0.05$; Fig. 3A). One potential explanation for this is
330 that these populations adapted to grow better in CPG media, which could have helped to
331 compensate for the mortality imposed by allyl-ITC during the fitness assays. To test this, we
332 compared the growth of ancestral and evolved populations in the absence of allyl-ITC in the
333 CPG media (Fig. 3B). We found that all control populations showed improved growth in the
334 CPG media compared to ITC-exposed populations regardless of the transfer frequency
335 treatment (Evolutionary history: $F_{1, 40} = 20.00$, $p < 0.001$; Transfer frequency: $F_{2, 40} = 2.66$, $p =$
336 0.08 , in all pairwise comparisons, Tukey: $p < 0.05$; Fig. 3B). In contrast, none of the ITC-
337 exposed populations showed improved growth in CPG media relative to the ancestral strain
338 (Tukey: $p < 0.05$; Fig. 3B), which suggests that ITC exposure constrained *R. solanacearum*
339 adaptation to the growth media.

340 To disentangle the effects due to adaptation to the media and allyl-ITC, we repeated
341 fitness assays in 'naïve' LB growth media which the bacteria had not adapted to. ITC
342 tolerance was observed only when bacterial populations had previously been exposed to
343 allyl-ITC (Evolutionary history: $F_{2, 49} = 18.82$, $p < 0.001$; Tukey: $p < 0.05$; Fig. 3C), and this effect
344 was driven by adaptation in the low transfer frequency ITC exposure treatment (no ITC
345 tolerance was observed in the high and intermediate transfer frequency treatment; Transfer
346 frequency: $F_{2, 49} = 4.37$, $p < 0.01$; Tukey: $p < 0.05$; Fig. 3C). Crucially, CPG-adapted control
347 populations showed no signs of ITC tolerance, but instead, suffered reduced growth in LB
348 media relative to the ancestral strain and ITC-exposed populations (Evolutionary history: $F_{2, 49} = 94.89$, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 3D), which was clearest in the low transfer frequency exposure
349 treatment (Evolutionary history \times Transfer frequency: $F_{2, 49} = 23.17$, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 3D).

351 We further validated our population level fitness results using individual clones (one
352 randomly chosen clone per replicate population per treatment). In line with previous
353 findings, ITC-exposed clones showed increased ITC tolerance compared to the control and
354 ancestral bacterium in the LB media (Evolutionary history: $F_{2, 49} = 14.20$, $p < 0.001$; Fig. 4A),
355 and tolerance evolution was the greatest in the low transfer frequency ITC exposure
356 treatment (Transfer frequency: $F_{2, 49} = 11.15$, $p < 0.001$; Tukey: $p < 0.05$; Evolutionary history \times
357 Transfer frequency: $F_{2, 49} = 3.04$, $p < 0.05$; Fig. 4A). Together, our results suggest that ITC
358 tolerance, which evolved in the low transfer frequency ITC exposure treatment was robust
359 and independent of the growth media it was quantified in. Moreover, while all control
360 populations adapted to grow better in the CPG media, this adaptation had a positive effect
361 on ITC tolerance only when quantified in CPG media and when the clones had evolved in the
362 low transfer frequency treatment.

363 **(d) Evolution of ITC-tolerance confers cross-tolerance to ampicillin beta-**
364 **lactam antibiotic**

365 We also tested if exposure to allyl-ITC could have led to cross-tolerance to other
366 antimicrobials such as the beta-lactam antibiotic ampicillin. Overall, both low (15 µg/ml) and
367 high (30 µg/ml) ampicillin concentrations had negative effects on *R. solanacearum* growth
368 relative to the no-ampicillin control treatment (Ampicillin concentration: $F_{2, 93} = 50.12$, $p < 0.001$; Tukey: $p < 0.05$; high concentration was relatively more inhibitory, Suppl. Fig. 3).
369 However, the evolved clones from the low transfer frequency ITC exposure treatment
370 reached significantly higher bacterial densities than the ancestral strain (Evolutionary
371 history: $F_{3, 92} = 3.51$, $p < 0.05$; Tukey: $p < 0.05$; Suppl. Fig. 3), while evolved clones derived from
372 low and intermediate transfer frequency control treatments (no prior ITC exposure) did not
373 differ from the ancestral strain (Tukey: $p > 0.05$; Suppl. Fig. 3). Ampicillin tolerance was only
374 observed in the high ampicillin concentration (High ampicillin concentration: $F_{3, 28} = 8.22$, $p < 0.001$; Suppl. Fig. 3C; Low ampicillin concentration: $F_{3, 28} = 1.551$, $p = 0.223$; Suppl. Fig. 3B).
375 Together these results suggest that ITC tolerance conferred cross-tolerance to ampicillin for
376 clones that had evolved in the low transfer frequency ITC exposure treatment.

379 **(e) Media adaptation and ITC tolerance are linked to a few mutations and loss**
380 **of insertion sequences**

381 A subset of clones which were phenotyped regarding ITC and ampicillin tolerance were
382 selected for genome sequencing (N=25). All isolated colonies showed ancestral, fluid colony
383 morphotype with no evidence for spontaneous evolution of small colony types as observed
384 previously (Khokhani et al., 2017; Perrier et al., 2019). Specifically, we focused on comparing
385 parallel small mutations and indels, intermediate indels (>50 bp) and prophage and

386 insertion sequence (IS) movement between populations that had evolved in the absence
387 and presence of ITC in the low transfer frequency treatments (evidence of ITC tolerance
388 evolution) with ancestral and control populations from the intermediate transfer frequency
389 treatment (no ITC tolerance evolution observed). Potential genetic changes were
390 investigated in both the chromosome and megaplasmid of the bipartite genome.

391 Only a few mutations were observed in 1 to 6 different genes, which was expected
392 considering the relatively short duration of the selection experiment (16 days). Of these
393 mutations, 8 were non-synonymous and 4 synonymous (Table 1). Some mutations were
394 observed across all treatments, indicative of adaptation to the culture media or other
395 experimental conditions. For example, parallel non-synonymous mutations in *hisH1* gene
396 controlling imidazole glycerol phosphate synthase were observed in 6/8 to 8/8 replicate
397 clones in all treatments (Table 1; Fig. 5). Similarly, non-synonymous mutations in
398 serine/threonine protein kinase genes (between 5/8 to 8/8 replicate clones) and
399 synonymous mutations in putative deoxyribonuclease *RhsC* gene (between 1/8 to 5/8
400 replicate clones) were found across all treatments (Table 1; Fig. 5). A single clone that had
401 evolved in the absence of allyl-ITC in the intermediate transfer frequency treatment had a
402 unique non-synonymous mutation in the gene encoding the putative HTH-type
403 transcriptional regulator *DmIR* and another clone originating from this treatment had a
404 mutation in the IS5/IS1182 family transposase encoding gene (Table 1; Fig. 5). Additionally,
405 we observed mutations exclusively in the low transfer control clones in genes encoding the
406 dehydrogenase-like uncharacterised protein (3/8 replicate clones) and Tat pathway signal
407 protein (2/8 replicate clones; Table 1; Fig. 5), which may explain ITC tolerance via media
408 adaptation. However, no clear parallel mutations exclusive to the low frequency ITC-
409 exposed populations were found.

410 In terms of putative intermediate indels (>50 bp), we identified 122 and 116 indel
411 sites in the chromosome (Chr) and megaplasmid (MP), respectively. Almost all of these were
412 insertions (Chr, 119/122; MP, 113/116) and the majority were singletons (Chr, 101/122; MP,
413 95/116) or doubletons (Chr, 14/122; MP, 13/116). The number of intermediate indels did
414 not differ between evolutionary treatments either in the chromosome (Kruskal-Wallis: $\chi^2=$
415 3.65; df= 2; p= 0.161) or megaplasmid (Kruskal-Wallis: $\chi^2=$ 3.46; df= 2; p= 0.178). As a result,
416 this genetic variation was likely non-adaptive and driven by random drift.

417 To identify other potential molecular mechanisms, variation in prophages and
418 insertion sequences (ISs) was investigated. Two prophages were found in all sequenced
419 isolates: Inoviridae prophage ϕ RS551 and a novel, unclassified prophage (Table S2).
420 Prophage genome positions were almost identical between all sequenced isolates (Table
421 S2). Therefore, no evidence for systematic prophage movement was observed in the
422 evolved isolates relative to the ancestral strain. In contrast, ISs appeared to be highly mobile
423 regarding 15 variable positions in the chromosome and 15 variable positions in the
424 megaplasmid (Suppl. Fig. 5). In most variable positions (7 in the chromosome and 9 in the
425 megaplasmid), the gain or loss of ISs was infrequent, occurring in up to three clones per
426 treatment (Suppl. Fig. 5), which is indicative of non-adaptive, random IS movement.
427 However, the remaining IS positions showed higher frequency of gain or loss, indicating of
428 potentially adaptive IS movement which was also in some cases treatment-specific. For
429 example, an IS element in position 2302900 on the chromosome absent in the ancestral
430 strain was observed in 2 clones in the intermediate transfer frequency control and 2 low
431 transfer ITC treatment clones, while it was gained by 5 clones in low transfer control
432 treatment. The IS element in this position was found to be close to the start codon (~50 bp)
433 of an acyltransferase. In two of the low transfer control clones, the IS was found to disrupt

434 the gene (Fig. 5), potentially knocking out acyltransferase gene expression after inserting
435 into this position. Moreover, three IS elements in the megaplasmid were almost exclusively
436 lost in the low transfer frequency treatment (Fig. 5). In one of the positions (209500), the IS
437 disrupted a putative calcium-binding protein in the intermediate transfer control clones but
438 was absent in 4/8 low transfer control and 4/8 low transfer ITC treatment clones. In the
439 other two positions (243500 and 253900), the ISs were intergenic (positioned 450 bp and
440 104 bp (243500) and 301 bp and 46 bp (253900) from their left- and right-flanking genes;
441 Fig. 5). The right-flanking genes closest to the ISs included a (2Fe-2S)-binding protein
442 (243500) and an H-NS histone family protein (253900), whilst the left-flanking genes
443 included the type III effector *HopG1* (243500) and an unknown hypothetical protein
444 (253900). The frequency of IS absence in these positions (243500 and 253900) differed
445 between low transfer treatments. Specifically, in position 243500, the IS was absent in 7/8
446 low transfer control and 5/8 low transfer ITC treatment clones. Meanwhile, in position
447 253900, the IS was absent in 4/8 low transfer control and 6/8 low transfer ITC treatment
448 clones. However, despite these patterns, the extent of IS loss did not differ statistically
449 between low transfer control and ITC-exposed clones when analysed individually (Mann-
450 Whitney: 209500: $w = 32$, $n_1 = 8$, $n_2 = 8$, $p = 1$; 243500: $w = 40$, $n_1 = 8$, $n_2 = 8$, $p = 0.29$; 253900:
451 $w = 24$, $n_1 = 8$, $n_2 = 8$, $p = 0.35$) or in combination (Mann-Whitney: $w = 32$, $n_1 = 8$, $n_2 = 8$, $p = 1$).
452 Together, these results suggest that media adaptation and ITC tolerance was potentially
453 driven by parallel mutations in a few genes and more frequent loss of IS elements in the low
454 transfer frequency treatments.

455 Discussion

456 Here we studied the effects of *Brassica*-derived ITC allelochemicals for the suppression and
457 tolerance evolution of plant pathogenic *R. solanacearum* bacterium in a model
458 biofumigation experiment. We found that only allyl-ITC suppressed *R. solanacearum*
459 growth, while no reduction in pathogen densities were observed when sec-butyl and 2-
460 phenylethyl ITCs were applied alone or in combination. By using experimental evolution, we
461 further showed that long-term allyl-ITC exposure selected for ITC tolerance in the low
462 transfer frequency ITC exposure treatment and was associated with cross-tolerance to
463 ampicillin. At the genetic level, tolerance evolution was associated with the loss of IS
464 elements. Together, our results suggest that allyl-ITC derived from Indian mustard is
465 effective at suppressing the growth of the *R. solanacearum* pathogen *in vitro*. However,
466 prolonged exposure could select for increased ITC tolerance, potentially reducing the
467 efficiency of ITC-based biocontrol.

468 Only allyl-ITC suppressed pathogen growth and its effects were not enhanced by the
469 presence of other ITCs. This contradicts previous studies which demonstrated *R.*
470 *solanacearum* sensitivity to 2-phenylethyl ITC at concentrations as low as 330 μM (Smith &
471 Kirkegaard, 2002). However, in the previous experiment *R. solanacearum* was exposed to 2-
472 phenylethyl ITC in agar instead of liquid media, which has been shown to increase the
473 toxicity of ITCs (Sarwar et al., 1998). Moreover, it is possible that different *R. solanacearum*
474 strains respond differently to ITCs, which could also explain discrepancy between ours and
475 other studies. While the suppressive effects of sec-butyl ITC have previously been
476 demonstrated against dust mites (Yun et al., 2012) and fungi (Bainard et al., 2009), no
477 antimicrobial activity has been observed in bacteria. Variation in the antimicrobial activity of

478 ITCs could be explained by differences in chemical side-chain structure and molecular
479 weight which govern ITC volatility and hydrophobicity (Sarwar et al., 1998). Previous studies
480 have shown greater pathogen suppression by ITCs with aliphatic compared to aromatic
481 sidechains in fungal pathogens (Kurt et al., 2011; Sarwar et al., 1998), insect pests
482 (Matthiessen & Shackleton, 2005), and weeds (Vaughn et al., n.d.). With bacteria, the
483 toxicity of allyl-ITC could be attributed to its high volatility, very short R-side chains and high
484 reactivity (Kirkegaard & Sarwar, 1998; Manici et al., 1997; Neubauer et al., 2014). These
485 properties could enable rapid diffusion through the liquid media before ITC is lost in the
486 gaseous phase (Wang et al., 2009). This is supported by a study by Sarwar *et al.* (Sarwar et
487 al., 1998), where a droplet of aliphatic allyl-ITC was shown to volatilise at room temperature
488 in 5 minutes, whilst aromatic 2-phenylethyl ITC remained in the liquid for over 72 hours.
489 Together, our result suggests that high volatility and reactivity could be important
490 properties determining the antibacterial effects of ITCs.

491 The evolution of ITC tolerance was mainly observed in the low transfer frequency ITC
492 exposure treatment. However, we also found that low transfer frequency control
493 populations showed improved tolerance measured in CPG media even though they had not
494 been exposed to allyl-ITC during the experiment. As all treatments were kept separate from
495 each other using tightly sealed bags, this effect is unlikely explained by 'cross selection' due
496 to ITC volatilisation. Alternatively, ITC tolerance evolution could have been linked to certain
497 metabolic adaptations in this transfer frequency treatment. In support of this, we found that
498 evolved control bacterial populations showed improved growth in the CPG media relative to
499 ancestral and ITC-exposed populations, indicative of media adaptation. While similar media
500 adaptations were observed in all control treatment populations, it is not clear why ITC
501 tolerance did not evolve under one- and two-day transfer frequency treatments. One

502 potential explanation for this could be growth-dependent effects on mutation rates. For
503 example, prior studies have shown that bacterial mutation rates can be elevated at
504 stationary phase (Loewe et al., 2003; Navarro Llorens et al., 2010), which could have
505 promoted ITC tolerance and media adaptation in the low transfer frequency treatment
506 where bacteria had spent the relatively longest time at stationary phase (Suppl. Fig. 1).
507 Alternatively, stationary phase growth conditions could have triggered expression of stress
508 tolerance genes, enabling selection for mutants with relatively higher ITC tolerance (Navarro
509 Llorens et al., 2010). For example, expression of *RpoS* sigma factor in *P. aeruginosa* has
510 previously been linked to elevated antibiotic resistance and biofilm formation at stationary
511 phase (Murakami et al., 2005; Olsen, 2015). While more work is needed to elucidate these
512 mechanisms, it is likely that the periodic 3-day growth cycle was important for driving ITC
513 tolerance evolution in our experimental conditions. Interestingly, the ITC tolerance that
514 evolved in the absence of allyl-ITC exposure was specific to CPG media and disappeared
515 when measured in 'naïve' LB media. This result suggests that ITC tolerance observed in
516 control populations was likely driven by adaptation to CPG growth media. Such adaptation
517 may have helped to offset the suppressive effects of allyl-ITC by boosting pathogen growth
518 to compensate increased mortality. Alternatively, it is possible that the glucose availability
519 in the CPG media indirectly favoured the evolution of ITC tolerance via metabolic
520 adaptations, which has previously been shown to occur both in the absence (Knöppel et al.,
521 2017) and presence of clinical antibiotics (Zampieri et al., 2017). Together, our results
522 suggest that prior exposure to allyl-ITC was required for the evolution of robust ITC
523 tolerance, which was independent of the growth media.

524 At the genetic level, ITC tolerance was not associated with any clear parallel mutations
525 or indels in the low transfer frequency treatments. Three clones from the low transfer

526 frequency control treatment had unique mutations in a gene encoding a dehydrogenase-like
527 uncharacterised protein. Dehydrogenase genes have previously been associated with both
528 metabolism and antibiotic resistance (Marshall et al., 1999). For instance, in *Escherichia coli*,
529 a mutation in a glucose dehydrogenase gene has been shown to function in
530 lipopolysaccharide modification and calanic acid biosynthesis, which enabled resistance to
531 polymyxin and other antimicrobial peptides (Lacour et al., 2008; Rodionova et al., 2020),
532 and may have contributed to ITC tolerance in these clones. Additionally, two clones from
533 the low transfer control treatment had mutations in a gene encoding a Tat pathway signal
534 protein which is involved in protein translocation across membranes (Palmer et al., 2005),
535 and may have enabled improved growth in the CPG media. Three clones from the
536 intermediate transfer frequency treatment had unique mutations in a gene encoding a
537 probable transcription regulator protein. While there is little information available regarding
538 this gene, it is located beside the IS2 transposase *TnpB* gene, potentially affecting its
539 regulation in DNA replication, recombination and repair activity (Pasternak et al., 2013).
540 Instead of treatment-specific parallel mutations, certain mutations were found across all
541 treatments. For example, mutations in genes encoding putative serine/threonine protein
542 kinases, amino acid biosynthesis (*hisH1* gene) and DNA replication, recombination and
543 repair (putative *RhsC* gene) were common for clones isolated from all treatments.
544 Mutations observed in serine/threonine protein kinase genes could have potentially
545 affected ITC tolerance if these enzymes were targeted by the ITCs as has been shown before
546 in the fungus *Alternaria brassicicola* (Calmes et al., 2015), and bacterial pathogen *E. coli*
547 (Luciano & Holley, 2009). However, as these mutations were not specific to ITC-treatment
548 clones, they were probably associated with bacterial growth and metabolism.

549 In *R. solanacearum*, insertion sequences (ISs) have been shown to affect host
550 virulence and phenotypic plasticity by inserting into and disrupting type III effectors and
551 global virulence regulators (Gonçalves et al., 2020; Jeong & Timmis, 2000). Therefore, we
552 investigated whether IS movement may be the cause of *R. solanacearum* ITC tolerance
553 adaptation. We identified one IS position in the chromosome and three positions in the
554 megaplasmid which showed treatment specific patterns. The gain of IS at position 2302900
555 was primarily observed with low transfer control isolates and was situated either ~50 bp
556 from the start codon or inside of a putative acyltransferase. Acyltransferases have a broad
557 range of functions including lipid storage (Ohlrogge & Browse, 1995), phospholipid
558 biosynthesis (Li et al., 2017), and the production of toxins (Greene et al., 2015) and
559 antibiotics (Kozakai et al., 2020). Whilst many of these functions are critical to cell growth,
560 some such as the production of toxins would be redundant when grown in media.
561 Therefore, gene disruption by ISs in the low transfer control may increase fitness by allowing
562 energy and nutrients to be re-directed towards promoting cell growth and competitiveness,
563 potentially at the expense of reduced virulence *in planta*. We also found loss of two ISs in
564 the intergenic region of the megaplasmid in the low transfer control and ITC treatments.
565 While these were intergenic, they were close (~50-100 bp) to the start codons of their right
566 flanking genes and could have affected gene expression. In position 243500, the IS was
567 situated close to a (2Fe-2S)-binding protein gene. Iron-sulfur clusters have been implicated
568 in cellular metabolism, protein structural stabilisation, iron storage, and the regulation of
569 gene expression (Johnson et al., 2005). In the other position (253900), the IS was situated
570 close to an H-NS histone like protein gene and while non-significant, was lost more
571 frequently across low transfer ITC treatment clones (6/8) than low transfer control isolates
572 (4/8). H-NS histone like proteins are transcriptional repressors generally involved in

573 adaptation to environmental challenges like temperature stress and osmolarity gradients
574 (Atlung & Ingmer, 1997). Further, H-NS histone like proteins have been shown to stabilise
575 the sigma factor *RpoS* (Hommais et al., 2001) which acts as a master regulator of the
576 bacterial stress response. Whilst the H-NS histone-like protein could affect ITC tolerance by
577 mediating the bacterial stress response, the impact of the (2Fe-2S)-binding protein is less
578 clear. Notably, in *Campylobacter jejuni*, genes containing iron-sulfur clusters have been
579 found to be upregulated in response to ITCs, potentially due to their susceptibility to
580 oxidative stress caused by ITC exposure (Dufour et al., 2013). Therefore, by altering the
581 expression of the (2Fe-2S)-binding protein, IS loss could increase the pool of cellular iron-
582 sulfur cluster proteins and compensate for losses caused by ITC oxidative stress. In the final
583 megaplasmid IS position (209500), we identified a loss of IS from a calcium-binding protein
584 gene, which had likely disrupted gene expression or protein function in this gene with the
585 ancestral strain. In human breast cancer cells, ITCs, including phenethyl- (Tuskorn et al.,
586 2013) and allyl-ITC (Bo et al., 2016) have been found to induce mitochondrial calcium ion
587 mobilisation resulting in cytotoxicity through a reduction in mitochondrial membrane
588 potential. Whilst further work is required to determine the causes of ITC cytotoxicity in *R.*
589 *solanacearum*, upregulation of calcium-binding protein gene expression could have
590 increased ITC tolerance by facilitating the sequestration of free calcium ions. However, like
591 other genetic changes, loss of this IS did not occur statistically more often in the presence of
592 ITC selection. As a result, specific genetic mechanisms underlying ITC tolerance remain
593 elusive.

594 In conclusion, our findings demonstrate that allyl-ITC could potentially be used to
595 suppress the growth of *R. solanacearum* plant pathogen. However, repeated ITC exposure

596 could select for mutants with increased ITC tolerance, potentially weakening the long-term
597 efficiency of ITCs and biofumigation. Future work should focus on validating these findings
598 in more complex natural environments. For example, it is currently not clear if *R.*
599 *solanacearum* ITC tolerance evolves in the plant rhizosphere in the presence of other
600 microbes that could constrain mutation supply rate via resource and direct competition.
601 Moreover, different resistance mechanisms could be selected depending on soil
602 physiochemical properties and nutrient and plant root exudate availability, while it is not
603 clear if the ITC concentrations used in this experiment are achievable through biofumigation
604 and whether they might have negative effects on beneficial soil microbes. More efficient ITC
605 application could be attained by drilling the biofumigant plants into fields at the time of
606 flowering when GSL levels are highest using finely chopped plant material, which maximises
607 cell disruption and ITC release to the soil (Back et al., 2019). In addition, the efficacy of
608 *Brassica*-based biofumigation could potentially be improved by using plant cultivars with
609 elevated levels of sinigrin, the GSL precursor to allyl-ITC. Comprehensive *in vivo* work is thus
610 required to validate the potential of allyl-ITC for *R. solanacearum* biocontrol in the field. It
611 would also be interesting to study if ITC tolerance leads to life-history traits in *R.*
612 *solanacearum*, potentially affecting its virulence or competitiveness in the rhizosphere.

613 **Acknowledgements**

614 This work was funded by the NERC ACCE DTP (CLA), the Royal Society (RSG\R1\180213 and
615 CHL\R1\180031; V-P.F) and jointly by a grant from UKRI, Defra, and the Scottish
616 Government, under the Strategic Priorities Fund Plant Bacterial Diseases programme
617 (BB/T010606/1; V-P.F) at the University of York. The funders had no role in study design,
618 data collection and interpretation, or the decision to submit the work for publication.

619 References

- 620 Angus, J. F., Gardner, P. A., Kirkegaard, J. A., & Desmarchelier, J. M. (1994). Biofumigation:
621 Isothiocyanates released from brassica roots inhibit growth of the take-all fungus. *Plant*
622 *and Soil*, 162(1), 107–112. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01416095>
- 623 Arndt, D., Grant, J. R., Marcu, A., Sajed, T., Pon, A., Liang, Y., & Wishart, D. S. (2016).
624 PHASTER: a better, faster version of the PHAST phage search tool. *Nucleic Acids*
625 *Research*, 44(W1), W16–W21. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkw387>
- 626 Atlung, T., & Ingmer, H. (1997). H-NS: a modulator of environmentally regulated gene
627 expression. *Molecular Microbiology*, 24(1), 7–17. [https://doi.org/10.1046/J.1365-](https://doi.org/10.1046/J.1365-2958.1997.3151679.X)
628 2958.1997.3151679.X
- 629 Back, M., Barker, A., & Evans, K. (2019). *Effectiveness of biofumigant crops for the*
630 *management of PCN in GB*. Agricultural And Horticultural Development Board (AHDB).
631 [https://pure.sruc.ac.uk/en/publications/effectiveness-of-biofumigant-crops-for-the-](https://pure.sruc.ac.uk/en/publications/effectiveness-of-biofumigant-crops-for-the-management-of-pcn-in-g)
632 [management-of-pcn-in-g](https://pure.sruc.ac.uk/en/publications/effectiveness-of-biofumigant-crops-for-the-management-of-pcn-in-g)
- 633 Bainard, L. D., Brown, P. D., & Upadhyaya, M. K. (2009). Inhibitory Effect of Tall Hedge
634 Mustard (*Sisymbrium loeselii*) Allelochemicals on Rangeland Plants and Arbuscular
635 Mycorrhizal Fungi. *Weed Science*, 57(4), 386–393. [https://doi.org/10.1614/WS-08-](https://doi.org/10.1614/WS-08-151.1)
636 151.1
- 637 Bangarwa, S. K., Norsworthy, J. K., Mattice, J. D., & Gbur, E. E. (2011). Glucosinolate and
638 Isothiocyanate Production from Brassicaceae Cover Crops in a Plasticulture Production
639 System. *Weed Science*, 59(2), 247–254. <https://doi.org/10.1614/WS-D-10-00137.1>
- 640 Bankevich, A., Nurk, S., Antipov, D., Gurevich, A. A., Dvorkin, M., Kulikov, A. S., Lesin, V.
641 M., Nikolenko, S. I., Pham, S., Prjibelski, A. D., Pyshkin, A. V., Sirotkin, A. V., Vyahhi,
642 N., Tesler, G., Alekseyev, M. A., & Pevzner, P. A. (2012). SPAdes: A new genome
643 assembly algorithm and its applications to single-cell sequencing. *Journal of*
644 *Computational Biology*, 19(5), 455–477. <https://doi.org/10.1089/cmb.2012.0021>
- 645 Bending, G. D., & Lincoln, S. D. (1999). Characterisation of volatile sulphur-containing
646 compounds produced during decomposition of Brassica juncea tissues in soil. *Soil*
647 *Biology and Biochemistry*, 31(5), 695–703. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0038-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0038-0717(98)00163-1)
648 0717(98)00163-1
- 649 Bo, P., Lien, J.-C., Chen, Y.-Y., Yu, F.-S., Lu, H.-F., Yu, C.-S., Chou, Y.-C., Yu, C.-C., &
650 Chung, J.-G. (2016). Allyl Isothiocyanate Induces Cell Toxicity by Multiple Pathways in
651 Human Breast Cancer Cells. [Http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.1142/S0192415X16500245](http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.1142/S0192415X16500245), 44(2),
652 415–437. <https://doi.org/10.1142/S0192415X16500245>
- 653 Bolger, A. M., Lohse, M., & Usadel, B. (2014). Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina
654 sequence data. *Bioinformatics*, 30(15), 2114–2120.
655 <https://doi.org/10.1093/BIOINFORMATICS/BTU170>
- 656 Borek, V., Morra, M. J., Brown, P. D., & McCaffrey, J. P. (1995). Transformation of the
657 Glucosinolate-Derived Allelochemicals Allyl Isothiocyanate and Allylnitrile in Soil.
658 *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 43(7), 1935–1940.
659 <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf00055a033>
- 660 Bouteille, D., Corvec, S., Caroff, N., Giraudeau, C., Espaze, E., Caillon, J., Plésiat, P., &
661 Reynaud, A. (2004). Detection of an IS21 insertion sequence in the mexR gene of
662 *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* increasing β -lactam resistance. *FEMS Microbiology Letters*,
663 230(1), 143–146. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-1097\(03\)00882-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-1097(03)00882-6)

- 664 Calmes, B., N'Guyen, G., Dumur, J., Brisach, C. A., Campion, C., Lacomis, B., PignÉ, S.,
665 Dias, E., Macherel, D., Guillemette, T., & Simoneau, P. (2015). Glucosinolate-derived
666 isothiocyanates impact mitochondrial function in fungal cells and elicit an oxidative
667 stress response necessary for growth recovery. *Frontiers in Plant Science*, 6(June),
668 414. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2015.00414>
- 669 Chellemi, D. O., Olson, S. M., Mitchell, D. J., Secker, I., & McSorley, R. (1997). Adaptation of
670 soil solarization to the integrated management of soilborne pests of tomato under
671 humid conditions. *Phytopathology*, 87(3), 250–258.
672 <https://doi.org/10.1094/PHYTO.1997.87.3.250>
- 673 Ciampi-Panno, L., Fernandez, C., Bustamante, P., Andrade, N., Ojeda, S., & Contreras, A.
674 (1989). Biological control of bacterial wilt of potatoes caused by *Pseudomonas*
675 *solanacearum*. *American Potato Journal*, 66(5), 315–332.
676 <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02854019>
- 677 Dufour, V., Stahl, M., Rosenfeld, E., Stintzi, A., & Baysse, C. (2013). Insights into the mode
678 of action of benzyl isothiocyanate on *Campylobacter jejuni*. *Applied and Environmental*
679 *Microbiology*, 79(22), 6958–6968. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.01967-13>
- 680 Elphinstone, J. G. (2005). The current bacterial wilt situation: a global overview. *Bacterial*
681 *Wilt Disease and the Ralstonia Solanacearum Species Complex*, 9–28.
- 682 Frick, A., Zebarth, B. J., & Szeto, S. Y. (1998). Behavior of the Soil Fumigant Methyl
683 Isothiocyanate in Repacked Soil Columns. *Journal of Environmental Quality*, 27(5),
684 1158–1169. <https://doi.org/10.2134/jeq1998.00472425002700050022x>
- 685 Gimsing, A L., & Kirkegaard, J. A. (2006). Glucosinolate and isothiocyanate concentration in
686 soil following incorporation of Brassica biofumigants. *Soil Biology & Biochemistry*, 38,
687 2255–2264. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2006.01.024>
- 688 Gimsing, Anne Louise, & Kirkegaard, J. A. (2009). Glucosinolates and biofumigation: fate of
689 glucosinolates and their hydrolysis products in soil. *Phytochemistry Reviews*, 8(1), 299–
690 310. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11101-008-9105-5>
- 691 Gimsing, Anne Louise, Poulsen, J. L., Pedersen, H. L., & Hansen, H. C. B. (2007).
692 Formation and degradation kinetics of the biofumigant benzyl isothiocyanate in soil.
693 *Environmental Science and Technology*, 41(12), 4271–4276.
694 <https://doi.org/10.1021/es061987t>
- 695 Gonçalves, O. S., Campos, K. F., Assis, J. C. S. de, Fernandes, A. S., Souza, T. S.,
696 Rodrigues, L. G. do C., Queiroz, M. V. de, & Santana, M. F. (2020). Transposable
697 elements contribute to the genome plasticity of *Ralstonia solanacearum* species
698 complex. *Microbial Genomics*, 6(5), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1099/MGEN.0.000374>
- 699 Greene, N. P., Crow, A., Hughes, C., & Koronakis, V. (2015). Structure of a bacterial toxin-
700 activating acyltransferase. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 112(23),
701 E3058–E3066. <https://doi.org/10.1073/PNAS.1503832112>
- 702 Guarischi-Sousa, R., Puigvert, M., Coll, N. S., Siri, M. I., Pianzola, M. J., Valls, M., &
703 Setubal, J. C. (2016). Complete genome sequence of the potato pathogen *Ralstonia*
704 *solanacearum* UY031. *Standards in Genomic Sciences*, 11(1), 7.
705 <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40793-016-0131-4>
- 706 Hanschen, F. S., Bru□, N., Brodehl, A., Mewis, I., Schreiner, M., Rohn, S., & Kroh, L. W.
707 (2012). *Characterization of Products from the Reaction of Glucosinolate-Derived*
708 *Isothiocyanates with Cysteine and Lysine Derivatives Formed in Either Model Systems*
709 *or Broccoli Sprouts*. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf301718g>

- 710 Hanschen, F. S., Brüggemann, N., Brodehl, A., Mewis, I., Schreiner, M., Rohn, S., & Kroh, L.
711 W. (2012). Characterization of products from the reaction of glucosinolate-derived
712 isothiocyanates with cysteine and lysine derivatives formed in either model systems or
713 broccoli sprouts. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, *60*(31), 7735–7745.
714 <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf301718g>
- 715 Hanschen, F. S., Yim, B., Winkelmann, T., Smalla, K., & Schreiner, M. (2015). Degradation
716 of Biofumigant Isothiocyanates and Allyl Glucosinolate in Soil and Their Effects on the
717 Microbial Community Composition. *PLoS One*, *10*(7), e0132931.
718 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0132931>
- 719 Hartz, T. K., Johnstone, P. R., Miyao, E. M., & Davis, R. M. (2005). Mustard cover crops are
720 ineffective in suppressing soilborne disease or improving processing tomato yield.
721 *HortScience*, *40*(7), 2016–2019. <https://doi.org/10.21273/hortsci.40.7.2016>
- 722 Hawkey, J., Hamidian, M., Wick, R. R., Edwards, D. J., Billman-Jacobe, H., Hall, R. M., &
723 Holt, K. E. (2015). ISMapper: identifying transposase insertion sites in bacterial
724 genomes from short read sequence data. *BMC Genomics* *2015* *16*:1, *16*(1), 1–11.
725 <https://doi.org/10.1186/S12864-015-1860-2>
- 726 Hawkey, J., Monk, J. M., Billman-Jacobe, H., Palsson, B., & Holt, K. E. (2020). Impact of
727 insertion sequences on convergent evolution of *Shigella* species. *PLOS Genetics*,
728 *16*(7), e1008931. <https://doi.org/10.1371/JOURNAL.PGEN.1008931>
- 729 Hibbing, M. E., Fuqua, C., Parsek, M. R., & Peterson, S. B. (2010). Bacterial competition:
730 Surviving and thriving in the microbial jungle. In *Nature Reviews Microbiology* (Vol. 8,
731 Issue 1, pp. 15–25). Nature Publishing Group. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrmicro2259>
- 732 Hommais, F., Krin, E., Laurent-Winter, C., Soutourina, O., Malpertuy, A., Caer, J.-P. Le,
733 Danchin, A., & Bertin, P. (2001). Large-scale monitoring of pleiotropic regulation of
734 gene expression by the prokaryotic nucleoid-associated protein, H-NS. *Molecular*
735 *Microbiology*, *40*(1), 20–36. <https://doi.org/10.1046/J.1365-2958.2001.02358.X>
- 736 Hu, P., Hollister, E. B., Somenahally, A. C., Hons, F. M., & Gentry, T. J. (2015). Soil bacterial
737 and fungal communities respond differently to various isothiocyanates added for
738 biofumigation. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, *5*, 729.
739 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2014.00729>
- 740 Jeong, E. L., & Timmis, J. N. (2000). Novel insertion sequence elements associated with
741 genetic heterogeneity and phenotype conversion in *Ralstonia solanacearum*. *Journal of*
742 *Bacteriology*, *182*(16), 4673–4676. <https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.182.16.4673-4676.2000>
- 743 Ji, P., Momol, M. T., Rich, J. R., Olson, S. M., & Jones, J. B. (2007). Development of an
744 Integrated Approach for Managing Bacterial Wilt and Root-Knot on Tomato Under Field
745 Conditions. *Plant Disease*, *91*(10), 1321–1326. [https://doi.org/10.1094/PDIS-91-10-](https://doi.org/10.1094/PDIS-91-10-1321)
746 [1321](https://doi.org/10.1094/PDIS-91-10-1321)
- 747 Johnson, D. C., Dean, D. R., Smith, A. D., & Johnson, M. K. (2005). STRUCTURE,
748 FUNCTION, AND FORMATION OF BIOLOGICAL IRON-SULFUR CLUSTERS.
749 [Http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.1146/Annurev.Biochem.74.082803.133518](http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.1146/Annurev.Biochem.74.082803.133518), *74*, 247–281.
750 <https://doi.org/10.1146/ANNUREV.BIOCHEM.74.082803.133518>
- 751 Khokhani, D., Lowe-Power, T. M., Tran, T. M., & Allen, C. (2017). A single regulator
752 mediates strategic switching between attachment/spread and growth/virulence in the
753 plant pathogen *Ralstonia solanacearum*. *MBio*, *8*(5).
754 <https://doi.org/10.1128/MBIO.00895-17>
- 755 Kirkegaard, J. A., & Matthiessen, J. N. (2005). *Developing and refining the biofumigation*
756 *concept*.

- 757 Kirkegaard, J. A., & Sarwar, M. (1998). Biofumigation potential of brassicas: I. Variation in
758 glucosinolate profiles of diverse field-grown brassicas. *Plant and Soil*, *201*(1), 71–89.
759 <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1004364713152>
- 760 Kirkegaard, J. A., Sarwar, M., Wong, P. T. W., Mead, A., Howe, G., & Newell, M. (2000).
761 Field studies on the biofumigation of take-all by Brassica break crops. *Australian*
762 *Journal of Agricultural Research*, *51*(4), 445–456. <https://doi.org/10.1071/AR99106>
- 763 Kirkegaard, J. A., Wong, P. T. W., & Desmarchelier, J. M. (1996). In vitro suppression of
764 fungal root pathogens of cereals by Brassica tissues. *Plant Pathology*, *45*(3), 593–603.
765 <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-3059.1996.d01-143.x>
- 766 Knöppel, A., Näsvall, J., & Andersson, D. I. (2017). Evolution of antibiotic resistance without
767 antibiotic exposure. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, *61*(11), 1495–1512.
768 <https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.01495-17>
- 769 Kozakai, R., Ono, T., Hoshino, S., Takahashi, H., Katsuyama, Y., Sugai, Y., Ozaki, T.,
770 Teramoto, K., Teramoto, K., Tanaka, K., Abe, I., Asamizu, S., & Onaka, H. (2020).
771 Acyltransferase that catalyses the condensation of polyketide and peptide moieties of
772 goadivonin hybrid lipopeptides. *Nature Chemistry* *2020* *12*:9, *12*(9), 869–877.
773 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41557-020-0508-2>
- 774 Kurt, Ş., Güneş, U., & Soylu, E. M. (2011). *In vitro* and *in vivo* antifungal activity of synthetic
775 pure isothiocyanates against *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*. *Pest Management Science*,
776 *67*(7), 869–875. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ps.2126>
- 777 Lacour, S., Bechet, E., Cozzone, A. J., Mijakovic, I., & Grangeasse, C. (2008). Tyrosine
778 Phosphorylation of the UDP-Glucose Dehydrogenase of *Escherichia coli* Is at the
779 Crossroads of Colanic Acid Synthesis and Polymyxin Resistance. *PLoS ONE*, *3*(8),
780 e3053. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0003053>
- 781 Larkin, R. P., & Griffin, T. S. (2007). Control of soilborne potato diseases using Brassica
782 green manures. *Crop Protection*, *26*(7), 1067–1077.
783 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cropro.2006.10.004>
- 784 Larkin, R. P., & Halloran, J. M. (2015). Management effects of disease-suppressive rotation
785 crops on potato yield and soilborne disease and their economic implications in potato
786 production. *American Journal of Potato Research*, *91*(5), 429–439.
787 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12230-014-9366-z>
- 788 Li, E., de Jonge, R., Liu, C., Jiang, H., Friman, V. P., Pieterse, C. M. J., Bakker, P. A. H. M.,
789 & Jousset, A. (2020). Rapid evolution of bacterial mutualism in the plant rhizosphere. In
790 *bioRxiv* (p. 2020.12.07.414607). bioRxiv. <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.12.07.414607>
- 791 Li, Z., Tang, Y., Wu, Y., Zhao, S., Bao, J., Luo, Y., & Li, D. (2017). Structural insights into the
792 committed step of bacterial phospholipid biosynthesis. *Nature Communications* *2017*
793 *8*:1, *8*(1), 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-01821-9>
- 794 Lin, C.-M., Preston Iii, J. F., & Wei, C.-I. (2000). Antibacterial Mechanism of Allyl
795 Isothiocyanate. *Journal of Food Protection*, *63*(6), 727–734.
796 <http://jfoodprotection.org/doi/pdf/10.4315/0362-028X-63.6.727>
- 797 Loewe, L., Textor, V., & Scherer, S. (2003). High Deleterious Genomic Mutation Rate in
798 Stationary Phase of *Escherichia coli*. *Science*, *302*(5650), 1558–1560.
799 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1087911>
- 800 Lord, J. S., Lazzeri, L., Atkinson, H. J., & Urwin, P. E. (2011). Biofumigation for Control of
801 Pale Potato Cyst Nematodes: Activity of Brassica Leaf Extracts and Green Manures on
802 *Globodera pallida* in Vitro and in Soil. *J. Agric. Food Chem*, *59*, 7882–7890.

- 803 <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf200925k>
- 804 Luciano, F. B., & Holley, R. A. (2009). Enzymatic inhibition by allyl isothiocyanate and factors
805 affecting its antimicrobial action against *Escherichia coli* O157:H7. *International Journal*
806 *of Food Microbiology*, *131*(2–3), 240–245.
807 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2009.03.005>
- 808 Manici, L. M., Lazzeri, L., & Palmieri, S. (1997). In Vitro Fungitoxic Activity of Some
809 Glucosinolates and Their Enzyme-Derived Products toward Plant Pathogenic Fungi.
810 *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, *45*(7), 2768–2773.
811 <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf9608635>
- 812 Marshall, C. G., Zolli, M., & Wright, G. D. (1999). Molecular mechanism of VanHst, an α -
813 ketoacid dehydrogenase required for glycopeptide antibiotic resistance from a
814 glycopeptide producing organism. *Biochemistry*, *38*(26), 8485–8491.
815 <https://doi.org/10.1021/bi982843x>
- 816 Matthiessen, J. N., & Kirkegaard, J. A. (2006). Biofumigation and Enhanced Biodegradation:
817 Opportunity and Challenge in Soilborne Pest and Disease Management. *Critical*
818 *Reviews in Plant Sciences*, *25*(3), 235–265.
819 <https://doi.org/10.1080/07352680600611543>
- 820 Matthiessen, J. N., & Shackleton, M. A. (2005). Biofumigation: environmental impacts on the
821 biological activity of diverse pure and plant-derived isothiocyanates. *Pest Management*
822 *Science*, *61*(11), 1043–1051. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ps.1086>
- 823 Mazzola, M., & Gu, Y. H. (2002). Wheat genotype-specific induction of soil microbial
824 communities suppressive to disease incited by *Rhizoctonia solani* Anastomosis Group
825 (AG)-5 and AG-8. *Phytopathology*, *92*(12), 1300–1307.
826 <https://doi.org/10.1094/PHYTO.2002.92.12.1300>
- 827 Mazzola, M., Hewavitharana, S. S., & Strauss, S. L. (2015). *Brassica* Seed Meal Soil
828 Amendments Transform the Rhizosphere Microbiome and Improve Apple Production
829 Through Resistance to Pathogen Reinfestation. *Phytopathology*, *105*(4), 460–469.
830 <https://doi.org/10.1094/PHYTO-09-14-0247-R>
- 831 Mondal, M. F., Asaduzzaman, M., & Asao, T. (2015). Adverse Effects of Allelopathy from
832 Legume Crops and Its Possible Avoidance. *American Journal of Plant Sciences*,
833 *06*(06), 804–810. <https://doi.org/10.4236/ajps.2015.66086>
- 834 Murakami, K., Ono, T., Viducic, D., Kayama, S., Mori, M., Hirota, K., Nemoto, K., & Miyake,
835 Y. (2005). Role for *rpoS* gene of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* in antibiotic tolerance.
836 *FEMS Microbiology Letters*, *242*(1), 161–167.
837 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.femsle.2004.11.005>
- 838 Navarro Llorens, J. M., Tormo, A., & Martínez-García, E. (2010). Stationary phase in gram-
839 negative bacteria. In *FEMS Microbiology Reviews* (Vol. 34, Issue 4, pp. 476–495).
840 Blackwell Publishing Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6976.2010.00213.x>
- 841 Neubauer, C., Heitmann, B., & Müller, C. (2014). Biofumigation potential of Brassicaceae
842 cultivars to *Verticillium dahliae*. *European Journal of Plant Pathology*, *140*(2), 341–352.
843 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10658-014-0467-9>
- 844 Ngala, B. M., Woods, S. R., & Back, M. A. (2015). Sinigrin degradation and *G. pallida*
845 suppression in soil cultivated with brassicas under controlled environmental conditions.
846 *Applied Soil Ecology*, *95*, 9–14. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2015.05.009>
- 847 Ohlrogge, J., & Browse, J. (1995). Lipid biosynthesis. *The Plant Cell*, *7*(7), 957.
848 <https://doi.org/10.1105/TPC.7.7.957>

- 849 Olivier, C., Vaughn, S. F., Mizubuti, E. S. G., & Loria, R. (1999). Variation in allyl
850 isothiocyanate production within Brassica species and correlation with fungicidal
851 activity. *Journal of Chemical Ecology*, *25*(12), 2687–2701.
852 <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1020895306588>
- 853 Olsen, I. (2015). Biofilm-specific antibiotic tolerance and resistance. In *European Journal of*
854 *Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases* (Vol. 34, Issue 5, pp. 877–886). Springer
855 Verlag. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10096-015-2323-z>
- 856 Palmer, T., Sargent, F., & Berks, B. C. (2005). Export of complex cofactor-containing
857 proteins by the bacterial Tat pathway. *Trends in Microbiology*, *13*(4), 175–180.
858 <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.TIM.2005.02.002>
- 859 Pasternak, C., Dulermo, R., Ton-Hoang, B., Debuchy, R., Siguier, P., Coste, G., Chandler,
860 M., & Sommer, S. (2013). IS *Dra 2* transposition in *D. einococcus radiodurans* is
861 downregulated by TnpB. *Molecular Microbiology*, *88*(2), 443–455.
862 <https://doi.org/10.1111/mmi.12194>
- 863 Perrier, A., Barlet, X., Rengel, D., Prior, P., Poussier, S., Genin, S., & Guidot, A. (2019).
864 Spontaneous mutations in a regulatory gene induce phenotypic heterogeneity and
865 adaptation of *Ralstonia solanacearum* to changing environments. *Environmental*
866 *Microbiology*, *21*(8), 3140–3152. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.14717>
- 867 Poirel, L., Decousser, J. W., & Nordmann, P. (2003). Insertion sequence ISEcp1B is
868 involved in expression and mobilization of a blaCTX-M β -lactamase gene. *Antimicrobial*
869 *Agents and Chemotherapy*, *47*(9), 2938–2945. [https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.47.9.2938-](https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.47.9.2938-2945.2003)
870 [2945.2003](https://doi.org/10.1128/AAC.47.9.2938-2945.2003)
- 871 Qin, S., Gan, J., Liu, W., & Becker, J. O. (2004). *Degradation and Adsorption of Fosthiazate*
872 *in Soil*. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf049094c>
- 873 Ramesh, R., Joshi, A. A., & Ghanekar, M. P. (2009). Pseudomonads: major antagonistic
874 endophytic bacteria to suppress bacterial wilt pathogen, *Ralstonia solanacearum* in the
875 eggplant (*Solanum melongena* L.). *World Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*,
876 *25*(1), 47–55. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11274-008-9859-3>
- 877 Ranjan, V. K., Mukherjee, S., Thakur, S., Gupta, K., & Chakraborty, R. (2021). Pandrug-
878 resistant *Pseudomonas* sp. expresses New Delhi metallo- β -lactamase-1 and consumes
879 ampicillin as sole carbon source. *Clinical Microbiology and Infection*, *27*(3), 472.e1-
880 472.e5. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmi.2020.10.032>
- 881 Rodionova, I. A., Zhang, Z., Aboulwafa, M., & Saier, M. H. (2020). UDP-glucose
882 dehydrogenase Ugd in *E. coli* is activated by Gmd and RffD, is inhibited by CheY, and
883 regulates swarming. In *bioRxiv* (p. 2020.01.08.899336). bioRxiv.
884 <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.01.08.899336>
- 885 Rudolph, R. E., Sams, C., Steiner, R., Thomas, S. H., Walker, S., & Uchanski, M. E. (2015).
886 Biofumigation performance of four brassica crops in a green chile pepper (*Capsicum*
887 *annuum*) rotation system in southern New Mexico. *HortScience*, *50*(2), 247–253.
888 <https://doi.org/10.21273/hortsci.50.2.247>
- 889 Rumberger, A., & Marschner, P. (2003). 2-Phenylethylisothiocyanate concentration and
890 microbial community composition in the rhizosphere of canola. *Soil Biology and*
891 *Biochemistry*, *35*(3), 445–452. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0038-0717\(02\)00296-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0038-0717(02)00296-1)
- 892 Salanoubat, M., Genin, S., Artiguenave, F., Gouzy, J., Mangenot, S., Arlat, M., Billault, A.,
893 Brottier, P., Camus, J. C., Cattolico, L., Chandler, M., Choisine, N., Claudel-Renard, C.,
894 Cunnac, S., Demange, N., Gaspin, C., Lavie, M., Moisan, A., Robert, C., ... Boucher, C.
895 A. (2002). Genome sequence of the plant pathogen *Ralstonia solanacearum*. *Nature*,

- 896 415(6871), 497–502. <https://doi.org/10.1038/415497a>
- 897 Sarwar, M., Kirkegaard, J. A., Wong, P. T. W., & Desmarchelier, J. M. (1998). Biofumigation
898 potential of brassicas. *Plant and Soil*, *201*(1), 103–112.
899 <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1004381129991>
- 900 Savary, S., Ficke, A., Aubertot, J. N., & Hollier, C. (2012). Crop losses due to diseases and
901 their implications for global food production losses and food security. In *Food Security*
902 (Vol. 4, Issue 4, pp. 519–537). Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12571-012-0200-5>
- 903 Seemann, T. (2014). Prokka: rapid prokaryotic genome annotation. *Bioinformatics*, *30*(14),
904 2068–2069. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btu153>
- 905 Seemann, T. (2015). *Snippy: fast bacterial variant calling from NGS reads*.
906 <https://github.com/tseemann/snippy>.
- 907 Shigemizu, D., Miya, F., Akiyama, S., Okuda, S., Boroevich, K. A., Fujimoto, A., Nakagawa,
908 H., Ozaki, K., Niida, S., Kanemura, Y., Okamoto, N., Saitoh, S., Kato, M., Yamasaki,
909 M., Matsunaga, T., Mutai, H., Kosaki, K., & Tsunoda, T. (2018). IMSindel: An accurate
910 intermediate-size indel detection tool incorporating de novo assembly and gapped
911 global-local alignment with split read analysis. *Scientific Reports 2018 8:1*, *8*(1), 1–9.
912 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-23978-z>
- 913 Smith, B. J., & Kirkegaard, J. A. (2002). In vitro inhibition of soil microorganisms by 2-
914 phenylethyl isothiocyanate. *Plant Pathology*, *51*(5), 585–593.
915 <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-3059.2002.00744.x>
- 916 Sofrata, A., Santangelo, E. M., Azeem, M., Borg-Karlson, A.-K., Gustafsson, A., & Pütsep, K.
917 (2011). Benzyl Isothiocyanate, a Major Component from the Roots of *Salvadora*
918 *Persica* Is Highly Active against Gram-Negative Bacteria. *PLoS ONE*, *6*(8), e23045.
919 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0023045>
- 920 Stirling, G. R., & Stirling, A. M. (2003). The potential of Brassica green manure crops for
921 controlling root-knot nematode (*Meloidogyne javanica*) on horticultural crops in a
922 subtropical environment. *Australian Journal of Experimental Agriculture*, *43*(6), 623–
923 630. <https://doi.org/10.1071/EA02175>
- 924 Stringlis, I. A., Yu, K., Feussner, K., De Jonge, R., Van Bentum, S., Van Verk, M. C.,
925 Berendsen, R. L., Bakker, P. A. H. M., Feussner, I., & Pieterse, C. M. J. (2018).
926 MYB72-dependent coumarin exudation shapes root microbiome assembly to promote
927 plant health. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of*
928 *America*, *115*(22), E5213–E5222. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1722335115>
- 929 Tatusova, T., DiCuccio, M., Badretdin, A., Chetvernin, V., Nawrocki, E. P., Zaslavsky, L.,
930 Lomsadze, A., Pruitt, K. D., Borodovsky, M., & Ostell, J. (2016). NCBI prokaryotic
931 genome annotation pipeline. *Nucleic Acids Research*, *44*(14), 6614–6624.
932 <https://doi.org/10.1093/NAR/GKW569>
- 933 Tuszkorn, O., Senggunprai, L., Prawan, A., Kukongviriyapan, U., & Kukongviriyapan, V.
934 (2013). Phenethyl isothiocyanate induces calcium mobilization and mitochondrial cell
935 death pathway in cholangiocarcinoma KKU-M214 cells. *BMC Cancer 2013 13:1*, *13*(1),
936 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2407-13-571>
- 937 Vaughn, S. F., Palmquist, D. E., Duval, S. M., & Berhow, M. A. (n.d.). *Herbicidal Activity of*
938 *Glucosinolate-Containing Seedmeals* (Vol. 54, Issue 4).
- 939 Vervoort, M. T. W., Vonk, J. A., Broelsma, K. M., Schütze, W., Quist, C. W., De Goede, R. G.
940 M., Hoffland, E., Bakker, J., Mulder, C., Hallmann, J., & Helder, J. (2014). Release of
941 isothiocyanates does not explain the effects of biofumigation with Indian mustard

- 942 cultivars on nematode assemblages. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 68, 200–207.
943 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2013.10.008>
- 944 Wang, D., Rosen, C., Kinkel, L., Cao, A., Tharayil, N., & Gerik, J. (2009). Production of
945 methyl sulfide and dimethyl disulfide from soil-incorporated plant materials and
946 implications for controlling soilborne pathogens. *Plant and Soil*, 324(1–2), 185–197.
947 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-009-9943-y>
- 948 Warton, B., Matthiessen, J. N., & Shackleton, M. A. (2001). Glucosinolate content and
949 isothiocyanate evolution - Two measures of the biofumigation potential of plants.
950 *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 49(11), 5244–5250.
951 <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf010545s>
- 952 Wick, R. R., Judd, L. M., Gorrie, C. L., & Holt, K. E. (2017). Unicycler: Resolving bacterial
953 genome assemblies from short and long sequencing reads. *PLOS Computational
954 Biology*, 13(6), e1005595. <https://doi.org/10.1371/JOURNAL.PCBI.1005595>
- 955 Wink, M. (2013). Evolution of secondary metabolites in legumes (Fabaceae). *South African
956 Journal of Botany*, 89, 164–175. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sajb.2013.06.006>
- 957 Xie, Z., & Tang, H. (2017). ISEScan: automated identification of insertion sequence
958 elements in prokaryotic genomes. *Bioinformatics*, 33(21), 3340–3347.
959 <https://doi.org/10.1093/BIOINFORMATICS/BTX433>
- 960 Yabuuchi, E., Kosako, Y., Yano, I., Hotta, H., & Nishiuchi, Y. (1995). Transfer of Two
961 *Burkholderia* and An *Alcaligenes* Species to *Ralstonia* Gen. Nov. *Microbiology and
962 Immunology*, 39(11), 897–904. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1348-0421.1995.tb03275.x>
- 963 Yim, B., Hanschen, F. S., Wrede, A., Nitt, H., Schreiner, M., Smalla, K., & Winkelmann, T.
964 (2016). Effects of biofumigation using *Brassica juncea* and *Raphanus sativus* in
965 comparison to disinfection using Basamid on apple plant growth and soil microbial
966 communities at three field sites with replant disease. *Plant and Soil*, 406(1–2), 389–
967 408. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-016-2876-3>
- 968 Yun, Y.-K., Kim, H.-K., Kim, J.-R., Hwang, K., & Ahn, Y.-J. (2012). Contact and fumigant
969 toxicity of *Armoracia rusticana* essential oil, allyl isothiocyanate and related compounds
970 to *Dermatophagoides farinae*. *Pest Management Science*, 68(5), 788–794.
971 <https://doi.org/10.1002/ps.2327>
- 972 Zampieri, M., Enke, T., Chubukov, V., Ricci, V., Piddock, L., & Sauer, U. (2017). Metabolic
973 constraints on the evolution of antibiotic resistance. *Molecular Systems Biology*, 13(3),
974 917. <https://doi.org/10.15252/msb.20167028>
- 975

976 **Tables**

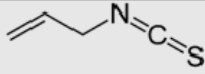
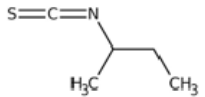
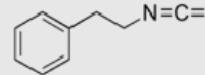
| Location | Chromosome | Chromosome | Chromosome | Chromosome | Chromosome | Chromosome | Chromosome | Chromosome | Chromosome | Chromosome | Plasmid | Plasmid | Plasmid |
|--------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|---|---|---|--|---|---|---|--|--|---|---------|
| Position | 293900 | 294413 | 585646 | 1257034 | 1258240 | 2302809 | 2830656 | 2874048 | 3123064 | 44512 | 105610 | 124931 | |
| Type | snp | snp | ins | snp | snp | snp | ins | ins | ins | del (27bp) | del (1bp) | snp | |
| Ref | G | C | T | G | C | C | A | C | A | TCGTGAGCGGCA AGCCGGCACATCG CAA | TG | G | |
| Alt | A | T | TCGTGCTG | C | G | T | ACAGCAACGG | GGGGCACT | AC | T | T | A | |
| Effect | Synonymous variant | Synonymous variant | Frameshift variant | Missense variant | Missense variant | Synonymous variant | Conservative inframe insertion | Frameshift variant | Conservative inframe insertion | Frameshift variant | Synonymous variant | Missense variant | |
| Locus tag | RSUY_02640 | RSUY_02640 | RSUY_05230 | RSUY_11710 | RS_RS11675 | RSUY_21390 | RSUY_26530 | ATK36_5281 | BSE24067_05643 | NABA_21102 | RSIPO_03141 | RSUY_33140 | |
| Product | Putative deoxyribonuclease RhsC | Putative deoxyribonuclease RhsC | Imidazole glycerol phosphate synthase subunit HisH1 | HTH-type transcriptional regulator Dmir | Probable transcription regulator protein (86.1% similarity) | F-box domain-containing protein (83.3% similarity) | Putative serine/threonine protein kinase (84.6% similarity) | Dehydrogenase-like uncharacterised protein (90.9% similarity) | Tat pathway signal protein (90.9% similarity) | DNA-3-methyladenine glycosidase II (100% similarity) | Hypothetical transmembrane protein (100% similarity) | ISS/IS1182 family transposase (100% similarity) | |
| Int No ITC 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Int No ITC 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Int No ITC 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Int No ITC 4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Int No ITC 5 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Int No ITC 6 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Int No ITC 7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Int No ITC 8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low No ITC 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low No ITC 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low No ITC 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low No ITC 4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low No ITC 5 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low No ITC 6 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low No ITC 7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low No ITC 8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low ITC 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low ITC 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low ITC 3 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low ITC 4 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low ITC 5 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low ITC 6 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low ITC 7 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Low ITC 8 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

977

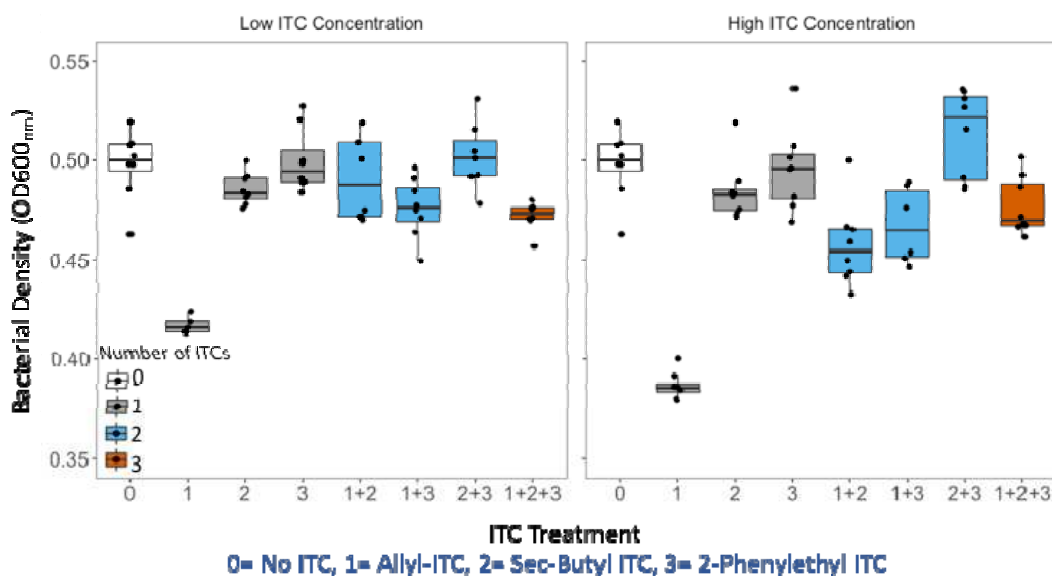
978 **Table 1. Mutated *Ralstonia solanacearum* genes and annotated gene functions observed**
 979 **in intermediate and low transfer frequency control (no-ITC), and ITC-exposed low transfer**
 980 **frequency treatments.** Gene function predictions were derived based on BLAST using
 981 UNIPROT and percentage (%) sequence similarity is included for putative (hypothetical)
 982 proteins. Filled cells denote for the presence of mutations in given clones and white cells
 983 denote for the absence of given mutations. Replicates are named by treatments, IntNoITC=
 984 Intermediate transfer frequency, no ITC; LowNoITC= Low transfer frequency, no ITC;
 985 LowITC= Low transfer frequency, ITC.

986 Figures and figure legends

A

| Isothiocyanate | IUPAC name | Molar mass (g mol ⁻¹) | Structure |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|
| Allyl | 3-isothiocyanato-1-propene | 99.15 |  |
| Sec-Butyl | 2-isothiocyanatobutane | 115.19 |  |
| 2-Phenylethyl (PEITC) | (2-Isothiocyanatoethyl) benzene | 163.24 |  |

B



987

988 **Figure 1. The antimicrobial activity of different ITCs against *Ralstonia solanacearum***

989 **pathogen when applied alone and in combination.** The chemical properties of the three

990 different ITCs predominantly released from Indian mustard biofumigant plant (*Brassica*

991 *juncea*) (A), and their effects on *R. solanacearum* growth after 48h exposure when applied

992 alone and in combination in liquid microcosms at low (500 μ M) and high (1000 μ M)

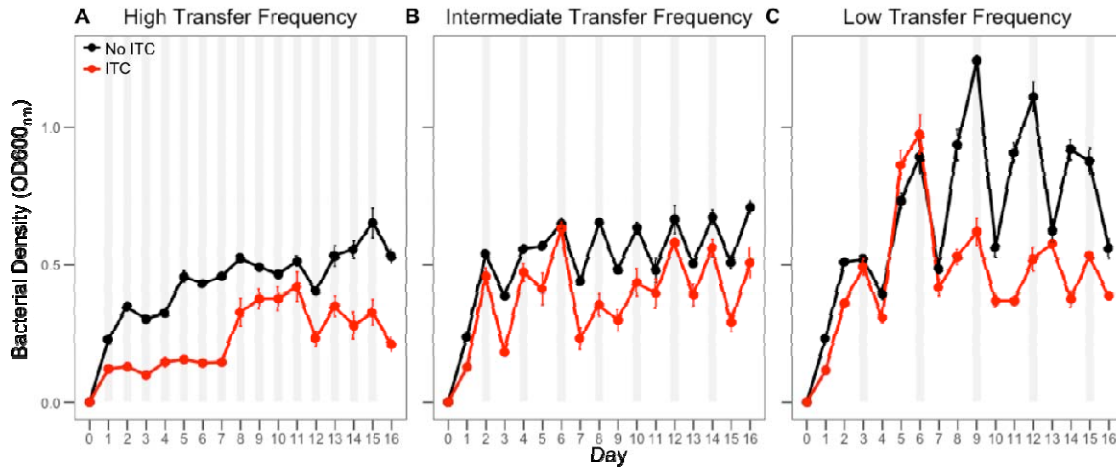
993 concentrations (B). In (B) boxplot colours represent different ITC treatments that are

994 labelled on X-axes as follows: (0): no-ITC (control); (1) allyl-ITC; (2) sec-butyl ITC and (3) 2-

995 phenylethyl ITC. Individual data points show bacterial densities for each technical replicate

996 (N=8). The boxplots show the minimum, maximum, interquartile range and the median

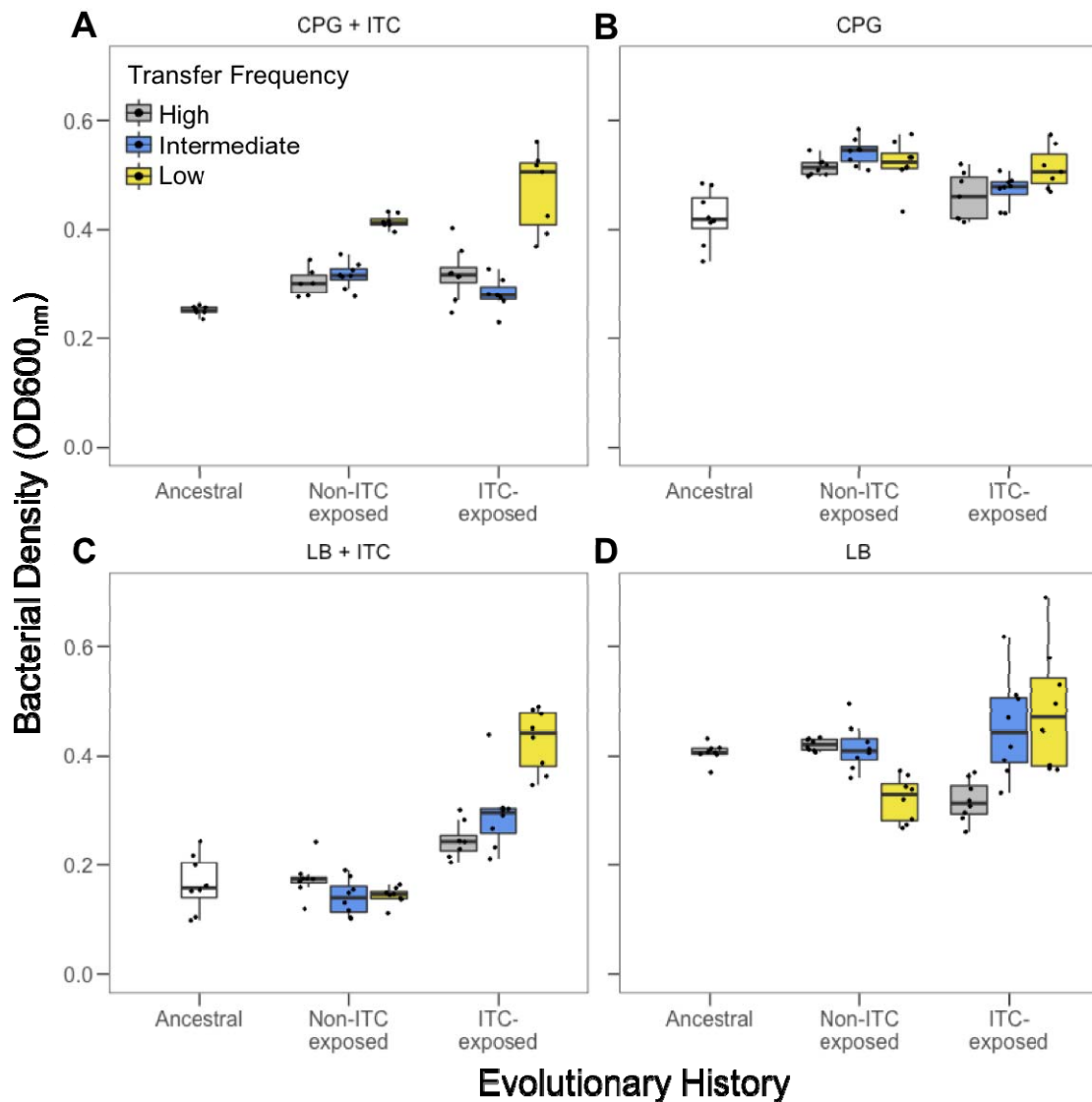
997 (black line).



998

999 **Figure 2. *Ralstonia solanacearum* density dynamics (OD_{600nm}) during the evolution**
1000 **experiment in the absence and presence of allyl-ITC in high, intermediate and low transfer**
1001 **frequency treatments.** In all panels, black and red lines correspond to *R. solanacearum*
1002 densities in the absence and presence of 500 μ M allyl-ITC, respectively. Panels A-C
1003 correspond to high (1-day), intermediate (2-day) and low (3-day) transfer frequency
1004 treatments, respectively. Grey shaded areas indicate the time point of serial transfers, while
1005 optical density reads were taken at 24-hour intervals in all treatments. Each time point
1006 shows the mean of eight biological replicates and bars show ± 1 error of mean.

1007

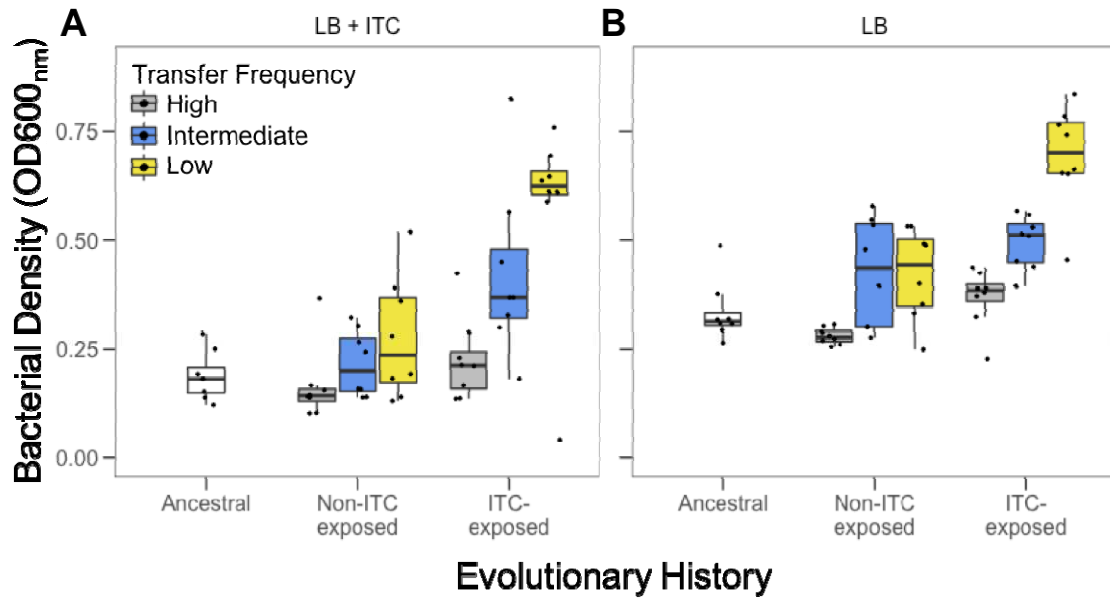


1008

1009 **Figure 3. Comparison of *Ralstonia solanacearum* ITC tolerance between the ancestral**
1010 **clone and evolved populations from high, intermediate and low transfer frequency**
1011 **treatments at the end of the evolution experiment in CPG and LB media. ITC tolerance was**
1012 **determined as *R. solanacearum* growth (OD600_{nm}) after 48h exposure to 500 μ M allyl-ITC in**
1013 **CPG (A) and LB (C) media. Growth was also measured in the absence of allyl-ITC in both CPG**
1014 **(B) and LB (D) media. High (1-day), intermediate (2-day) and low (3-day) transfer frequency**

1015 treatments are shown in grey, blue and yellow boxplots, respectively, and boxplots show
1016 the minimum, maximum, interquartile range and the median (black line). Individual data
1017 points show bacterial densities for each biological replicate population (N=8).

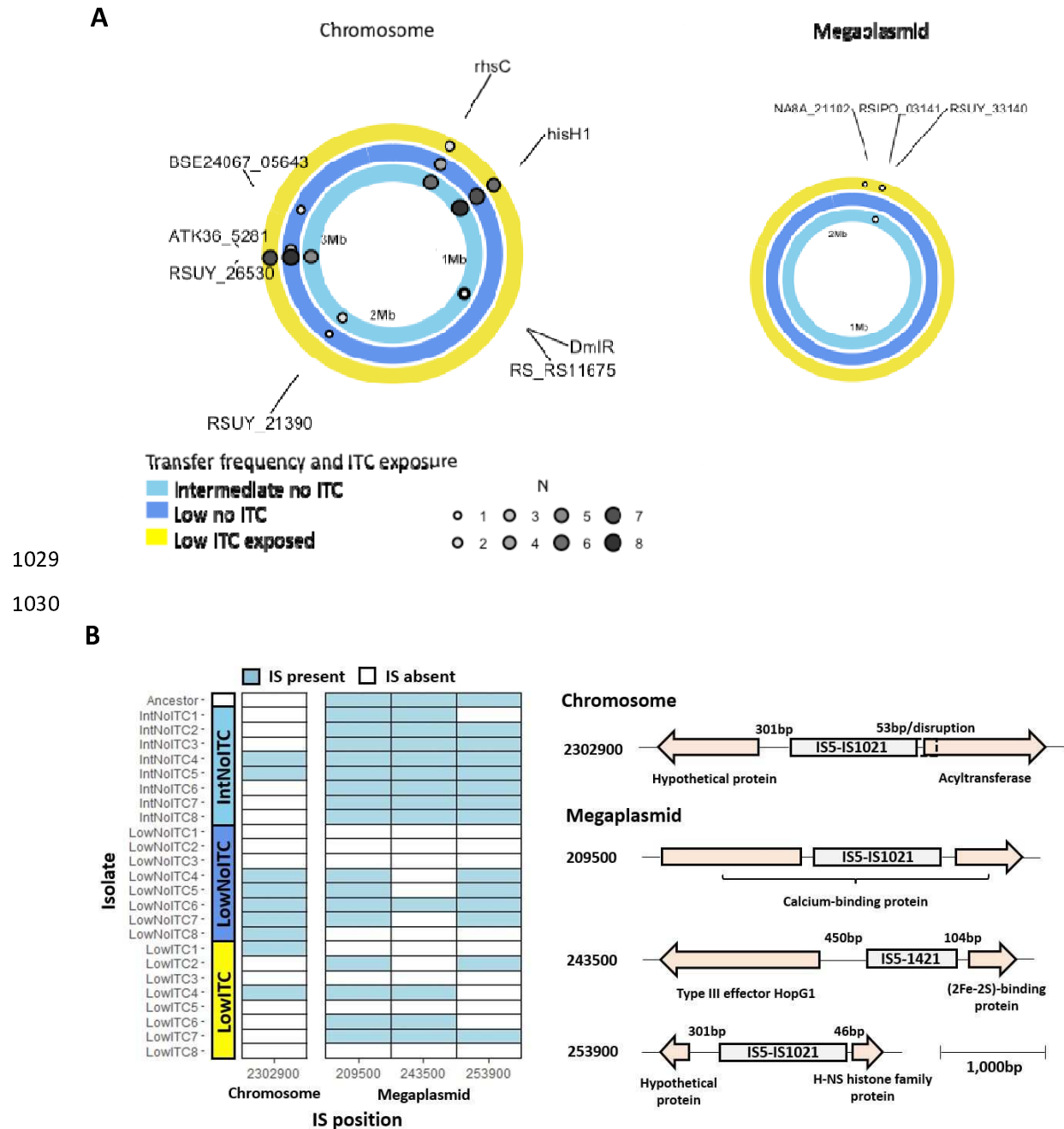
1018



1019

1020 **Figure 4. Comparison of *Ralstonia solanacearum* ITC tolerance between the ancestral and**
1021 **evolved clones from high, intermediate and low transfer frequency treatments at the end**
1022 **of the evolution experiment in LB media.** ITC tolerance was determined as *R. solanacearum*
1023 growth (OD_{600nm}) after 48h exposure to 500 μ M allyl-ITC in LB media (A). Growth was also
1024 measured in the absence of allyl-ITC (B). High (1-day), intermediate (2-day) and low (3-day)
1025 frequency treatments are shown in grey, blue and yellow, respectively, and boxplots show
1026 the minimum, maximum, interquartile range and the median (black line). Individual data
1027 points show bacterial densities for each biological replicate population (N=8).

1028



1031 **Figure 5. Mutations (A) and insertion sequences (IS; B) associated with evolved *Ralstonia***
 1032 ***solanacearum* clones.** Each ring in panel A represents the *R. solanacearum* genome
 1033 (Chromosome on the left and Megaplasmid on the right). Rings are grouped by the
 1034 sequenced treatments) in different colours (see key) and dots represent mutations at
 1035 different loci. Dots are sized and coloured by the number of replicates that had the same
 1036 mutations (N=8) in the indicated locus. Labels show the gene name, when named, or the

1037 numbered locus tag. Distance marker is shown as Mb within each ring. In panel B, tile plot
1038 shows presence (filled tiles) and absence (unfilled tiles) of insertion sequences (ISs) in each
1039 isolate. The X-axis of the tile plot shows the IS position rounded to the nearest 100 bp. Gene
1040 schematics on the right show insertion sequence at each position and nearby genes. Gene
1041 annotation and distance between insertion sequence and genes are shown, with gene size
1042 and distance proportional to the scale bar (bottom right).

1043 **Supplementary Materials**

1044 **Supplementary Table 1. The mean density reduction (%) of *Ralstonia solanacearum***
1045 **bacterium when exposed to 500 or 1000 μ M allyl, sec-butyl and 2-phenylethyl ITCs in CPG**
1046 **growth media after 24, 48 or 72 hours relative to when grown in the absence of ITCs. This**
1047 **table is based on the same data presented in Supplementary Fig. 2.**

| ITC Type and Concentration (μM) | Time (h) | Bacterial density reduction (%) compared to control |
|---|-----------------|--|
| Allyl-ITC, 500 | 24 | 66 |
| | 48 | 54 |
| | 72 | 27 |
| Allyl-ITC, 1000 | 24 | 66 |
| | 48 | 47 |
| | 72 | 41 |
| Sec-Butyl ITC, 500 | 24 | 33 |
| | 48 | 26 |
| | 72 | 9 |
| Sec-Butyl ITC, 1000 | 24 | 30 |
| | 48 | 27 |
| | 72 | 8 |
| 2-Phenylethyl ITC, 500 | 24 | 39 |
| | 48 | 13 |
| | 72 | 10 |
| 2-Phenylethyl ITC, 1000 | 24 | 38 |
| | 48 | 18 |
| | 72 | 13 |

1048

1049 **Supplementary Table 2. Prophage information of ancestral and experimental isolate assemblies as determined using flanking regions**
 1050 **mapped to UY031.** Replicates are named by treatments, IntNoITC= Intermediate transfer frequency, no ITC; LowNoITC= Low transfer
 1051 frequency, no ITC; LowITC= Low transfer frequency, ITC.

1052

| Clone | Prophage | Left flank UY031 position | Right flank UY031 position | Length (kb) | GC content (%) | Total proteins # |
|-----------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------|----------------|------------------|
| UY031 | Unclassified A | - | - | 37 | 62.76 | 44 |
| | RS551 | - | - | 13.4 | 61.24 | 16 |
| | PHAGE_Vibrio_VHML_NC_004456 | - | - | 18.5 | 64.64 | 29 |
| Ancestor | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121824-1126823 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162291-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 42 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218220-1223219 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236384-1237639 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 17 |
| IntNoITC1 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121824-1126823 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162291-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 42 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218233-1223232 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236385-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 17 |
| IntNoITC2 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121824-1126823 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162291-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 42 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218233-1223232 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236385-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 17 |

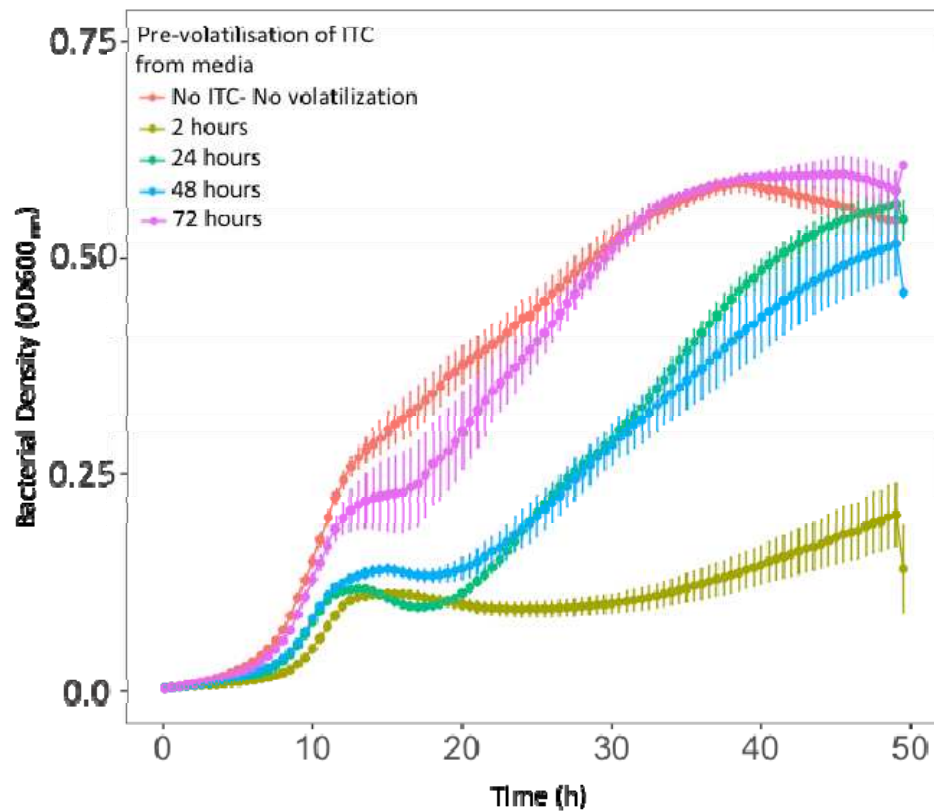
| | | | | | | |
|-----------|----------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|------|-------|----|
| IntNoITC3 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121823-1126822 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162290-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 43 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218233-1223232 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236385-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 17 |
| IntNoITC4 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121823-1126822 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162290-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 43 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218233-1223232 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236385-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 18 |
| IntNoITC5 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121824-1126823 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162291-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 42 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218233-1223232 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236385-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 18 |
| IntNoITC6 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121823-1126822 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162290-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 43 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218233-1223232 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236385-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 18 |
| IntNoITC7 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121824-1126823 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162291-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 43 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218233-1223232 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218233-1223232 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 17 |
| IntNoITC8 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121823-1126822 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162290-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 41 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218233-1223232 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236385-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 17 |
| LowNoITC1 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121824-1126823 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162291-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 42 |

| | | | | | | |
|-----------|----------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|------|-------|----|
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218233-1223232 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236385-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 17 |
| LowNoITC2 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121824-1126823 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162291-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 42 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218233-1223232 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236385-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 18 |
| LowNoITC3 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121823-1126822 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162290-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 41 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218233-1223232 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236385-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 18 |
| LowNoITC4 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121823-1126822 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162290-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 43 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218233-1223232 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236385-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 17 |
| LowNoITC5 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121823-1126822 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162290-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 43 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218220-1223219 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236385-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 18 |
| LowNoITC6 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121823-1126822 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162290-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 41 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218220-1223219 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236384-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 18 |
| LowNoITC7 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121823-1126822 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162290-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 41 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218220-1223219 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236384-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 18 |

| | | | | | | |
|-----------|----------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|------|-------|----|
| LowNoITC8 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121824-1126823 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162291-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 42 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218220-1223219 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236384-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 17 |
| LowITC1 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121824-1126823 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162291-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 43 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218220-1223219 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236384-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 17 |
| LowITC2 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121823-1126822 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162290-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 43 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218220-1223219 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236384-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 17 |
| LowITC3 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121824-1126823 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162291-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 42 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218220-1223219 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236384-1237640 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 18 |
| LowITC4 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121824-1126823 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162291-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 42 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218220-1223219 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236384-1237639 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 17 |
| LowITC5 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121823-1126822 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162290-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 41 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218220-1223219 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236384-1237639 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 18 |
| LowITC6 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121824-1126823 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162291-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 42 |

| | | | | | | |
|---------|----------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|------|-------|----|
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218220-1223219 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236384-1237639 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 17 |
| LowITC7 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121823-1126822 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162290-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 41 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218220-1223219 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236384-1237639 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 18 |
| LowITC8 | Unclassified A | NZ_CP012687.1:1121823-1126822 | NZ_CP012687.1:1162290-1162775 | 35.4 | 62.85 | 41 |
| | RS551 | NZ_CP012687.1:1218220-1223219 | NZ_CP012687.1:1236384-1237639 | 13.1 | 58.58 | 18 |

1053



1054

1055

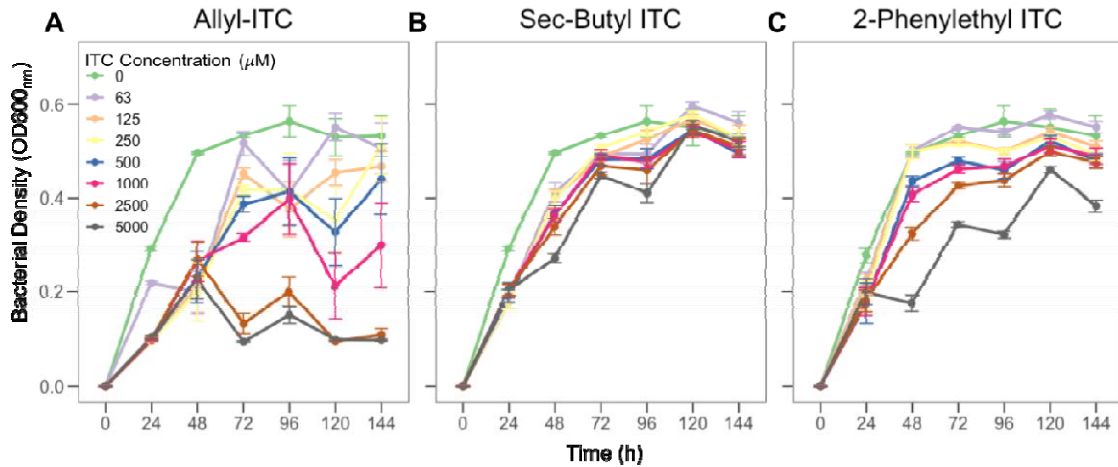
1056 **Supplementary Figure 1. The effect of allyl-ITC pre-volatilisation for antibacterial activity**

1057 **against *Ralstonia solanacearum*.** *R. solanacearum* bacterial growth was measured in CPG

1058 media supplemented with 0 (No allyl-ITC) or 500 μ M of allyl-ITC that had been allowed to

1059 volatilise for 2, 24, 48 or 72 hours (see key). All data points show the mean of eight technical

1060 replicates and bars show ± 1 standard error of the mean (SEM).



1061

1062 **Supplementary Figure 2. Effects of allyl, sec-butyl and 2-phenylethyl ITCs on *Ralstonia***

1063 ***solanacearum* growth at different ITC concentrations.** In all panels, *R. solanacearum*

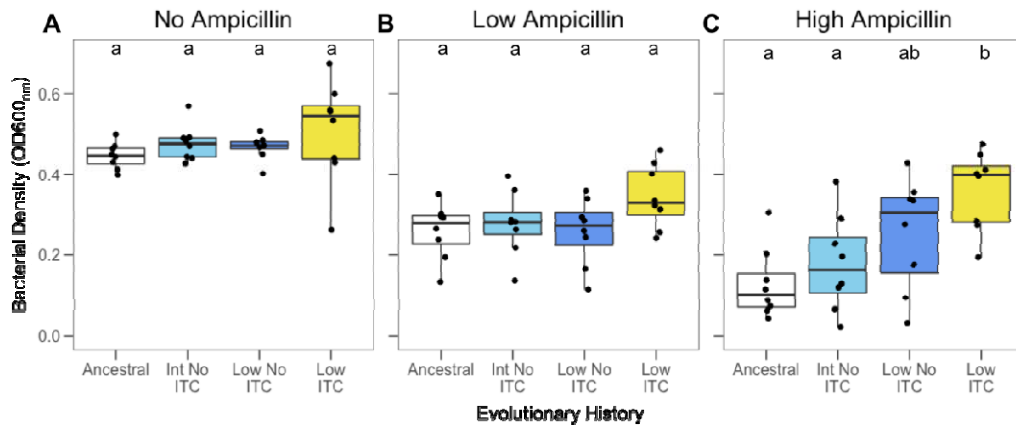
1064 bacterial densities are shown on the Y-axis as optical density ($\text{OD}_{600\text{nm}}$), measured at 24-

1065 hour intervals (X-axis). In all panels, different line colours refer to different ITC

1066 concentrations (see key in A). All data points show the mean of eight technical replicates

1067 and bars show ± 1 standard error of the mean (SEM).

1068



1069

1070 **Supplementary Figure 3. *Ralstonia solanacearum* tolerance to ampicillin beta-lactam**

1071 **antibiotic.** Ampicillin tolerance was measured as the growth of ancestral and evolved *R.*

1072 *solanacearum* clones isolated from intermediate (Int) and low transfer frequency (Low)

1073 control treatments (no-ITC) and ITC-exposed low transfer frequency treatment in the

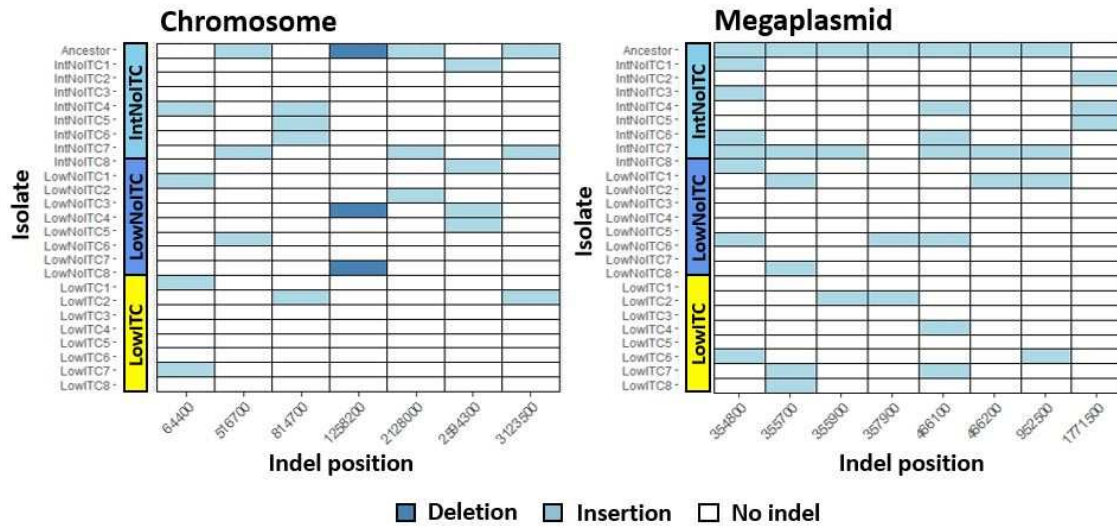
1074 absence (A) and presence (B-C) of ampicillin (15 and 30 μ g/ml concentrations). Boxplots

1075 show the minimum, maximum, interquartile range and the median (black line) after 48

1076 hours. Individual data points show bacterial densities for each biological replicate clone (N=

1077 8). Different small case letters above boxplots indicate significant pairwise differences

1078 (Tukey: $p < 0.05$) between treatments within each panel.



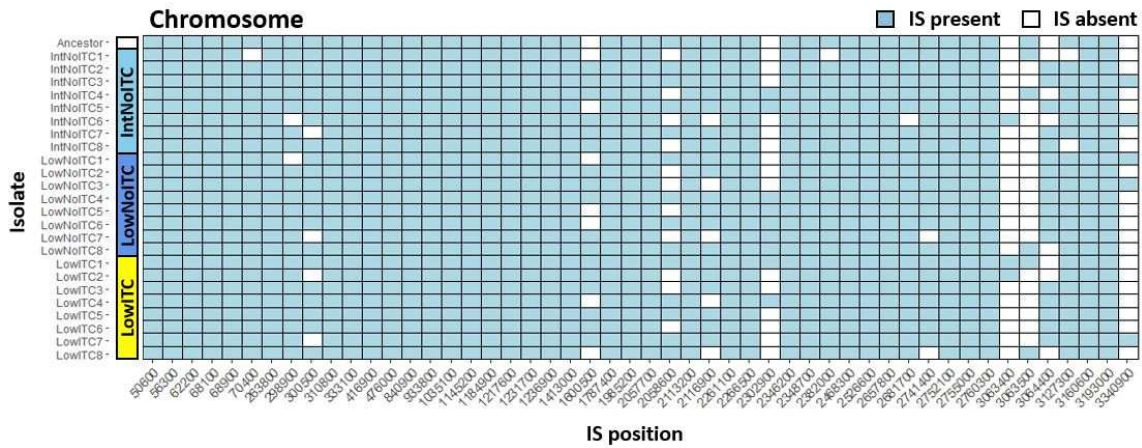
1079

1080 **Supplementary Figure 4. Presence and absence of intermediate indels found in more than**

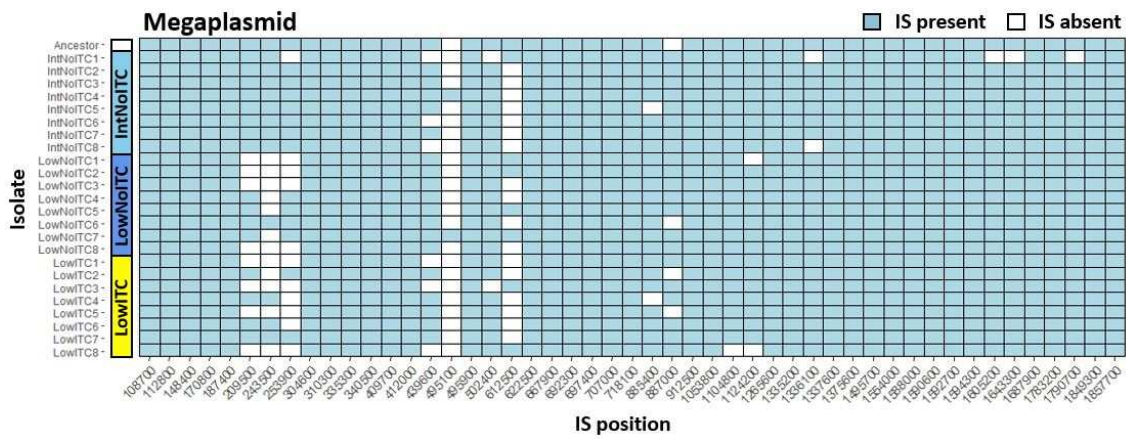
1081 **two isolates in the chromosome and megaplasmid.** The X-axis shows the indel position

1082 rounded to the nearest 100bp. The Y-axis shows isolates grouped as shown in Figure 5.

1083



1084



1085

1086 **Supplementary Figure 5. Presence and absence of insertion sequences in the chromosome**

1087 **and megaplasmid.** The X and Y-axes show the insertion sequence position and experimental

1088 isolate, respectively, as outlined in Figure 5.

1089