Microbiome and infectivity studies reveal complex polyspecies tree disease in Acute Oak Decline

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1 Title: Microbiome and infectivity studies reveal complex polyspecies

2 tree disease in Acute Oak Decline

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22 Subject category: Microbe-microbe and microbe-host interactions

23 Abstract

24 Decline-diseases are complex and becoming increasingly problematic to tree health globally. Acute Oak Decline (AOD) is characterised by necrotic stem lesions and 25 galleries of the bark-boring beetle, Agrilus biguttatus, and represents a serious threat to 26 27 oak. Although multiple novel bacterial species and Agrilus galleries are associated with AOD lesions, the causative agent(s) are unknown. The AOD pathosystem therefore 28 provides an ideal model for a systems-based research approach to address our hypothesis 29 that AOD lesions are caused by a polymicrobial complex. Here we show that three 30 bacterial species, Brenneria goodwinii, Gibbsiella quercinecans and Rahnella victoriana, 31 are consistently abundant in the lesion microbiome, and possess virulence genes used by 32 canonical phytopathogens that are expressed in AOD lesions. Individual and polyspecies 33 inoculations on oak logs and trees demonstrated that B. goodwinii and G. quercinecans 34 35 cause tissue necrosis, and in combination with A. biguttatus produce the diagnostic symptoms of AOD. We have proved a polybacterial cause of AOD lesions, providing 36 new insights into polymicrobial interactions and tree disease. This work presents a novel 37 conceptual and methodological template for adapting Koch's postulates to address the 38 role of microbial communities in disease. 39

40 Introduction

41 Trees are essential to landscape function and aesthetics, supporting diverse ecologies 42 (Rackham, 2008) and providing key ecosystem services (Boyd et al., 2013). However, 43 significant areas of forest have been lost due to increasing outbreaks of disease and pest attack, and tree health is a current global concern (Cohen et al., 2016). Tree diseases, 44 45 including decline-diseases, are rising in profile due to an increased risk of introduction and spread through international plant trade, and amplification effects of current and 46 future climate change (Millar and Stephenson, 2015; McDowell et al., 2011; Oliva et al., 47 48 2014). Emerging evidence suggests that complex biotic interactions, including polymicrobial and insect activity affect disease occurrence and severity (Adams et al., 49 2013; Buonaurio et al., 2015; Lamichhane and Venturi, 2015), yet little progress has been 50 51 made in applying the latest advances in sequencing and culture-based methodologies to characterize pathosystems in trees. The prevailing paradigm of infection biology 52 contends that one organism causes one disease (proved using Koch's postulates). In 53 contrast, there is increasing recognition of the importance of polymicrobial interactions in 54 55 human disease, following developments in sequencing technologies that allow 56 microbiome-wide association studies to identify the role of microbial communities in disease (Gilbert et al., 2016). In the medical field this is leading to adaptations of Koch's 57 postulates to include complex interactions between the environment, host, and microbial 58 59 communities (Fredricks and Relman, 1996; Falkow, 1988; Hill, 1965). However, progress in characterising polyspecies interactions in plant disease has been limited, 60 61 although there is clearly a need for contemporary approaches to investigating complex 62 tree diseases (Lamichhane and Venturi, 2015). Analysis of such complex biotic 63 interactions requires an integrated, systems approach, particularly in the case of decline64 diseases where both complex abiotic and biotic interactions underpin disease
65 development.

66 Decline-diseases, first formally described as a specific disease in the United States (Sinclair, 1965; Manion, 1981) but well documented elsewhere (Delatour, 1983; Thomas, 67 68 2008; Sinclair and Lyon, 2005), are of global concern (Pautasso et al., 2015). Unlike 69 most common tree diseases, decline-diseases are not caused by single primary pests or pathogens; instead they are complex syndromes, involving the sequential, combined and 70 71 cumulative effects of (often secondary) biotic and abiotic agents (Brown et al., 2016; Sallé et al., 2014; Thomas, 2008; Manion, 1981). Currently the UK is facing an episode 72 of Acute Oak Decline (AOD), which occurs widely in southern and midland England, 73 74 extending into Wales (Brown et al., 2016; Denman et al., 2016) and represents a significant threat to oak, particularly native species Quercus robur and Q. petraea 75 (Denman et al., 2014). First recognized in Britain in the 1980s (Denman and Webber, 76 77 2009), similar declines have occurred in continental Europe (Gibbs and Greig, 1997; Hartmann et al., 1989; Biosca et al., 2003; Vansteenkiste et al., 2004). AOD-affected 78 79 trees show discrete, weeping stem patches (stem bleeds), signifying areas of necrosis and fluid filled cavities in the underlying inner bark (Denman et al., 2014) (see Figure 1a-c), 80 which disrupt vascular flow of nutrients and water essential to tree survival 81 82 (Vansteenkiste et al., 2004). Larval galleries of the buprestid beetle Agrilus biguttatus are found in conjunction with lesions (Brown et al., 2015, 2017) (Figure 1d), and can also 83 84 impact tree condition by girdling the tree when colonization is intense, leading to tree death (Sallé *et al.*, 2014). AOD typically affects mature oaks, but has also been reported
in young trees (Brown *et al.*, 2016).

87 First steps to determine the causes of stem bleeds led to the isolation of several novel 88 bacterial species from AOD lesions, with three novel species, Gibbsiella quercinecans (Enterobacteriaceae) (Brady et al., 2010), Brenneria goodwinii (Pectobacteriaceae) 89 90 (Adeolu et al., 2016; Denman et al., 2012), Rahnella victoriana (Yersiniaceae) (Adeolu 91 et al., 2016; Brady et al., 2014), and an un-named Pseudomonas (Denman et al., 2016; 92 Sapp et al., 2016) consistently isolated. Some of these species, e.g. G. quercinecans as 93 Serratia sp. (Biosca et al., 2003; Poza-Carrión et al., 2008) on Quercus pyrenacia and Q. *ilex* are implicated as causative agents of stem bleeding on other oak species in Europe 94 95 (Biosca et al., 2003; Poza- Carrión et al., 2003; Denman et al., 2016). There was less 96 consistent isolation of various other bacterial species, for example Lonsdalea quercina ssp. britannica (Brady et al., 2012), which is closely related to Lonsdalea quercina ssp. 97 quercina, the causative agent of acorn gummosis on Q. agrifolia and Q. wislizenii in 98 America (Hildebrand and Schroth, 1967), and several other novel species that are in the 99 process of being formally described. Although correlation of certain bacterial species 100 101 with AOD symptomology has been observed, empirical evidence on the causative agent(s) of AOD lesions is lacking and remains a barrier to developing informed 102 management strategies for this disease. In the absence of a single putative primary 103 104 pathogen as the causal agent of AOD lesions, we hypothesised that a polymicrobial complex is responsible for AOD lesion formation. However, demonstrating causation by 105 a polymicrobial complex with associated insect activity on mature oak trees or logs is 106

107 challenging in the context of fulfilling Koch's postulates and requires a multi-faceted108 methodological and conceptual approach.

109 Here, we applied a systems-level approach to determine cause(s) of necrosis in AOD 110 using microbial isolation and culture, phenotypic tests, genomic analyses of G. quercinecans, B. goodwinii, and R. victoriana, metagenome and metatranscriptome 111 112 analysis of healthy and diseased trees, and inoculation tests comprising both polybacterial 113 inoculations and the addition of live A. biguttatus eggs to recreate the symptoms of AOD. This combined sequencing and cultivation-based approach provides a contemporary 114 115 adaptation of Koch's postulates to address the biotic components of a complex declinedisease, and represents a conceptual model for future analyses of polymicrobial infections 116 in trees and other systems. 117

118

119 Methods

120 Isolation of bacteria from healthy and diseased oak trees

121 In the search for putative causal agents of stem lesions we wanted to determine the 122 veracity of differences in occurrence and composition of bacterial communities in lesions and visually healthy trees, as the bacterial microbiome has previously been identified as 123 124 the likely causal agent of stem lesions (Denman et al., 2016). Conventional isolation and 125 culture and microbiome analyses were used. Samples were acquired through citizen 126 science reports (CSR), as well as structured studies (Denman et al., 2016; Sapp et al., 127 2016) ensuring the broadest possible coverage of AOD sites (Supplementary Table S1 and Supplementary Table S2). Eighteen CSR sites were sampled (Supplementary Figure 128

129 S1 and Supplementary Table S1), together with those from structured studies (Denman et al., 2016; Sapp et al., 2016), as well as five sites that had no history of AOD (N-AOD). 130 Trees were sampled by forest pathologists who made site visits following the enquiry. In 131 total, isolations from 66 trees were analysed. Destructive sampling of trees, by removing 132 panels of diseased oak tissue, as well as healthy oak tissue from apparently healthy trees 133 134 on the same sites, was carried out where permitted, and isolations were made using PYGA medium as described in Denman et al. (2014; 2016) and Sapp et al. (2016). 135 Owing to the nature of the CSR studies, the number of tissue pieces plated out was 136 137 variable, dependent upon the sample. Bacterial colonies emerging from chips of tissue were purified using standard streak-plating techniques; single visually representative 138 colonies were selected, cultivated in Luria Bertani broth (LB) and identified with PCR 139 and DNA amplicon sequencing as described in (Denman et al., 2016). 140

141

142 Statistical analysis of isolation study datasets

Bacterial yield between healthy and diseased trees was tested by fitting a generalized linear mixed effects model with logit link function and binomial error distribution. Fixed effects were fitted for tree health and tissue position and random effects fitted for sites and trees within sites. Over-dispersion in the model was taken into account by including an additional dispersion parameter.

148 Differences in bacterial communities were analyzed by detrended correspondence 149 analysis, down weighting bacterial species occurring in less than 5% of tissue 150 combinations. Monte Carlo permutation tests were used to test for significant differences

151	in bacterial communities between healthy and diseased trees and to test the effect of
152	tissue position within the tree. Finally, Jaccard's similarity index was used to identify any
153	significant associations between bacteria across the 66 trees of the study.
154	
155	Genome sequencing of bacterial strains isolated from Acute Oak Decline affected
156	trees
157	Maintenance of bacterial strains used in genome analyses
158	Gibbsiella quercinecans FRB97 (T) (Brady et al., 2010), Brenneria goodwinii FRB141
159	(T) (Denman et al., 2012), and Rahnella victoriana BRK18a (T) (Brady et al., 2014)
160	were isolated by Forest Research in the CSR studies, from oak trees affected by AOD.
161	Strains were stored in glycerol stocks at -80°C and maintained on nutrient agar (Oxoid) at
162	20°C.
163	
164	DNA preparation and genome sequencing on Pacific Biosciences RSII sequencing
165	platform
166	The whole genomes of G. quercinecans FRB97, B. goodwinii FRB141 and R. victoriana
167	BRK18a were sequenced using the Single Molecule Real-Time (SMRT) technology of
168	the Pacific Biosciences RSII platform. A single colony of each isolate was sampled from
169	nutrient agar (Oxoid) and used as inoculum for liquid culture, which was grown
170	overnight in nutrient broth (Oxoid) at 28°C, and shaken at 150 rpm. Total genomic DNA
171	was isolated using the Gentra Puregene Yeast/Bact. kit (Qiagen) and quantified using a

172 Qubit fluorometer (Life Technologies, Paisley, UK). DNA integrity was assessed using 1% agarose gel electrophoresis. G. quercinecans and B. goodwinii DNA libraries were 173 prepared using 10 µg of genomic DNA and sequenced by DUGSIM at Duke University, 174 NC, USA, using P4/C2 chemistry and six SMRT cells per isolate. The R. victoriana DNA 175 library was prepared and sequenced by the Centre for Genomic Research, University of 176 Liverpool, UK using P6/C4 chemistry and one SMRT cell. All sequence data described 177 in this study is available under BioProject PRJNA323828, (Supplementary Table S3). 178 Genome assembly and annotation is described in Supplementary Methods. 179

180

181 Metagenome sequencing of diseased and healthy oak trees

182 Collection of samples for metagenome sequencing

Tissue samples were collected from Runs Wood, Ross-on-Wye, and two sites in 183 Attingham park (Supplementary Table S2). More than half of the trees sampled for 184 metagenome analysis were also sampled in the isolation study. A panel comprising all 185 layers of stem tissue (outerbark, innerbark, sapwood and heartwood) was removed from 186 187 the visible bleed area on each diseased tree, or from stem areas at similar height on healthy trees, according to previously described methods (Denman et al., 2014, 2016; 188 Sapp *et al.*, 2016). Samples were immediately flash frozen on dry ice and stored at -80°C 189 190 prior to processing.

191

Metagenome assembly, annotation and mapping to the genomes of *G. quercinecans*FRB97 (T), *B. goodwinii* FRB141 (T) and *R. victoriana* BRK18a (T)

194 Metagenomic reads were assembled using RAY-meta v2.3.1 (Boisvert *et al.*, 2012) using default parameters. Assemblies were annotated using Prokka v1.11 (Seemann, 2014). 195 Translated annotations were aligned against the translated protein sequences of G. 196 197 quercinecans FRB97 (T), B. goodwinii FRB141 (T), R. victoriana BRK18a (T), and two control genomes *Pectobacterium carotovorum* ssp. carotovorum PC1 and *Paenibacillus* 198 199 polymyxa SC2, using BLASTx v2.2.26 (Altschul et al., 1990). Metagenome sequences with greater than 97% homology for at least 50 amino acids to proteins identified in G. 200 quercinecans, B. goodwinii and R. victoriana were considered a match (Supplementary 201 202 Table S4). Control genomes were selected to measure the stringency of alignment. P. *carotovorum* ssp. *carotovorum* is a canonical plant pathogen, and a member of the soft-203 rot Enterobacteriaceae (SRE) (N.B. many members have recently been reclassified into 204 205 novel families (Adeolu et al., 2016; Charkowski et al., 2012)), which had been identified sporadically and at low relative abundance from metagenomic taxonomic surveys within 206 this study (Supplementary Table S5). However, P. carotovorum ssp. carotovorum had 207 not previously been isolated from necrotic lesions on Acute Oak Decline affected trees. 208 Therefore, it was proposed that coding domain alignments to P. carotovorum ssp. 209 210 carotovorum align to conserved genes which are present in many Enterobacteriaceae, and their low relative abundance does not signify their presence but is an artefact of the 211 alignment process. Resultant Circos plots agree with this proposal as conserved genes are 212 213 frequently found in the metagenomic alignment against the P. carotovorum ssp. 214 carotovorum PC1 genome, which are likely to align to other *Enterobacteriaceae*. Within 215 G. quercinecans, B. goodwinii and R. victoriana there is strong homology to conserved 216 and variant genes. P. polymyxa SC2 was identified at low relative abundance in healthy and diseased metagenomic samples (Supplementary Table S5), therefore it was selected
to test stringency of the metagenomic alignment and to measure its relative abundance in
healthy and diseased microbiomes using an alternative method. Homologous bacterial
protein identities and the workflow used for metagenomic analysis is available from
GitHub: (https://github.com/clydeandforth/multi_omics_study.git).

222

223 Taxonomic classification of metagenome sequences

224 To compare the taxonomic composition of the oak microbiome, raw sequence reads were 225 taxonomically labelled using Kraken v0.10.5 beta (Wood and Salzberg, 2014) and One 226 Codex (Minot et al., 2015) (Figure 2a). Taxonomic labelling using Kraken was 227 performed on the standard RefSeq genome database supported by Kraken, with the addition of the genomes of B. goodwinii FRB141 (T), R. victoriana BRK18a (T), G. 228 229 quercinecans FRB97 (T), and Lonsdalea quercina ssp. quercina ATCC 29281 (Figure 2d 230 and Supplementary Table S5). Taxonomic analysis using One Codex was conducted against the One Codex March '16 Preview database with the addition of the genomes of 231 G. quercinecans, B. goodwinii and R. victoriana. 232

233

234 Functional annotation of metagenome sequences

Metagenome datasets derived from samples AT2, AT3, AT4, AT5, AT6, ROW1, ROW2 and ROW3 were analysed via MG-RAST (Meyer *et al.*, 2008) using Hierarchical Classification against the Subsystems database with an *E*-value cut-off of 1e-5, a minimum percentage identity cut-off of 80%, and a minimum alignment length of 50. Descriptions of the taxonomic and functional composition of the metagenomes derived from MG-RAST were comparable with those derived from analysis of the same datasets using One Codex and Kraken, and further validated by mapping of metagenome reads against the finished genomes of *B. goodwinii, G. quercinecans* and *R. victoriana*.

243

244 Statistical analysis of metagenome datasets

245 Statistical analyses were performed using Primer v7 (Clarke and Gorley, 2015) with 246 PERMANOVA+ add on to explore relationships between community changes (Figure 247 2b). One Codex metagenome data was log (N+1) transformed, to downweight the most 248 abundant genera. Next, dissimilarities were calculated with the S17 Bray-Curtis similarity 249 coefficient. A principal coordinate ordination analysis was performed by plotting the 250 inter-point dissimilarity values for each factor (site and disease status), the variation in 251 community composition was plotted as the first two axes (preserving actual 252 dissimilarities) (Gower, 1966). A correlation was performed between each taxon and each community coordinate. Correlations with each component were deemed significant 253 $(R^2 > 0.5)$ and a vector biplot was overlaid to visualise the strength of the correlation. A 254 255 Welch's t-test was performed to test significance of differences between key taxa (identified above) healthy and diseased trees (pooled abundances for each factor). 256 Resultant *p*-values from Welch's *t*-test are overlaid on correlation biplot with significance 257 at >95% (p<0.05) deemed significant. Comparative functional analysis of MG-RAST 258 (Meyer et al., 2008) annotated, metagenome data was performed using Stamp v2.1.3 259 260 (Parks et al., 2014). Statistically significant functional differences between diseased and healthy communities were calculated using a G-test with Yates' correction. The 261

Newcombe-Wilson test was performed to calculate confidence intervals between twobinomial population proportions (Brown and Li, 2005).

264

265 Metatranscriptome sequencing of AOD diseased oak trees

266 Collection of samples for metatranscriptome sequencing and RNA extraction

For RNA sampling, two separate lesions (samples AT11 and AT12) from a single tree 267 were analysed in June 2013. Swabs of the lesion fluid were collected in addition to tissue 268 269 from the active margins of the lesion and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen, and transported back to the laboratory in a vessel containing liquid nitrogen. Samples were 270 stored at -80°C prior to processing. Before RNA extraction, samples in liquid nitrogen 271 272 were ground with a pestle in a mortar to homogenise the tissue. RNA was extracted from 273 2g of tissue using the PowerSoil Total RNA Isolation Kit (MoBio) according to manufacturer's instructions. RNA was quantified using a Qubit fluorometer (Thermo 274 275 Fisher) and quality assessed using the Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent).

276

277 Metatranscriptome sequencing

Sequencing libraries were prepared from samples of total RNA using the strand-specific ScriptSeq preparation kit (Illumina), and sequenced using 2x100bp paired-end sequencing on the Illumina HiSeq platform. Reads were trimmed using first Cutadapt 1.2.1 (Martin, 2011) and additionally Sickle 1.2.00 (Joshi and Fass, 2011). Due to low

282 RNA yields from the lesion samples, total RNA was sequenced and rRNA sequence
283 reads were subsequently depleted *in silico* prior to mRNA transcript analysis.

284

285 Metatranscriptome assembly and functional annotation

Two in silico rRNA depleted metatranscriptome libraries were aligned to the Gibbsiella 286 287 quercinecans FRB97 (T), Brenneria goodwinii FRB141 (T), Rahnella victoriana 288 BRK18a (T), and control genomes (P. carotovorum ssp. carotovorum PC1 and P. 289 polymyxa SC2) (Supplementary Figure S2 and S3) with Bowtie2 v2.2.4 (Langmead and 290 Salzberg, 2012), using local mode to maximise alignment score. Aligned reads were 291 converted from Sequence Alignment/Map (SAM) to Binary Sequence Alignment/Map 292 (BAM) format and indexed using SAMtools v1.2 (Li et al., 2009). To avoid false positives in the detection of gene expression, a gene was considered as being expressed if 293 294 3 or more transcripts were aligned and the combined coverage from both libraries 295 represented more than 20% of the gene, (adapted from (Versluis et al., 2015) (Figure 2a-c and Supplementary Figure S4). A custom Perl script was designed to extract transcript 296 alignments, and is available from GitHub: 297

(https://github.com/clydeandforth/multi_omics_study.git). Aligned transcripts were
visualised in Artemis (Carver *et al.*, 2012).

300

301 Log inoculations

Pathogenicity tests were set up to reproduce lesions characteristic of AOD undercontrolled conditions. The following hypotheses were tested: 1) Key species consistently

isolated from AOD symptomatic oak can cause necrosis of oak stem tissue, 2)
Combinations of key bacterial species cause more severe tissue necrosis (reflected in
larger lesions), than individual species alone, 3) The interaction between *A. biguttatus*larvae (derived from eggs) and bacteria, leads to the development of AOD symptoms.

Four experiments were carried out over three consecutive years as testing could only be done annually when beetle eggs were available. Three trials were carried out on oak logs in growth chambers, and the fourth trial was set out in the field, where stems of young plantation-oak (25 years old), were used instead of logs.

312

313 Growth Chamber Log trials

Logs used in the trials were obtained from freshly felled Q. robur trees, with diameter at 314 1.3m (DBH) = 16 - 20 cm. The trees were located in the Straits Enclosure of the Alice 315 Holt Forest, Hampshire, England, UK, and logs were transported to the laboratory after 316 felling where they were prepared for inoculation. Logs measuring 40 cm (mini-logs), or 317 130 cm (long logs) in length had the uppermost cut-surface sealed with isoflex liquid 318 319 rubber (Ronseal Ltd, Sheffield) to prevent desiccation. Logs were placed, lower cut 320 surface down, in saucers containing water. Logs were inoculated in August or September, and incubated at 25°C in the growth chamber with a 12h photoperiod. Mini-logs were 321 used for all treatments involving A. biguttatus eggs, in each case only one bacterial + 322 eggs treatment type per mini-log was tested to guard against cross-contamination through 323 larval spread (Supplementary Table S2). All the bacterial treatments without eggs (either 324 single species or combinations of species) were placed on the same long log, with 325

326 inoculation points marked out along its length. Eggs of A. biguttatus were produced in Forest Research's laboratories at Alice Holt (Reed, 2016). In a single experiment (2014 327 NW; Supplementary Table S2), non-wound inoculations were carried out; the remaining 328 two growth chamber trials and the field trial were inoculated using shallow wounds to the 329 outer surface of the innerbark, made by a 10 mm cork-borer. Half a loop of inoculum 330 scooped from 24h-old inoculum plates using disposable plastic loops was inserted into 331 the wound and rubbed to dislodge the bacterial cells around the wound surface. The 332 outerbark plug was replaced on the inoculation point, wounds covered with parafilm and 333 334 damp cotton wool, and sealed with duct tape. After 4 months incubation, experiments were terminated, outer bark stripped from inoculation points to expose lesions, which 335 were hand traced onto tracing paper, and back isolations were cultured onto peptone yeast 336 glucose agar. Mass bacterial colonies that developed were tested for the presence of B. 337 goodwinii, G. quercinecans, Rahnella and Lonsdalea using a multiplex Taqman qPCR 338 assay. Lesion areas were calculated using ASSESS V2 (APS, Minesota). 339

340 Statistical analyses

341 Log lesion areas

The four pathogenicity trials were used to establish the impact of different bacterial species tested individually, in combination (polybacterial inoculations), and with or without the addition of *A. biguttatus* eggs (Supplementary Table S2) on tissue necrosis (assessed by the size of the lesion area associated with each inoculation point).

Lesion area data were refined in a hierarchical fashion, such that the following data setswere used for lesion area analysis:

348	1) Non-contaminated samples fulfilling Koch's postulates, with galleries present (for
349	A. biguttatus samples indicating that eggs had hatched)
350	2) Non-contaminated samples fulfilling Koch's postulates, with or without galleries
351	present (for A. biguttatus samples)
352	3) Non-contaminated samples
353	Further information on statistical analyses of log lesion areas are described in
354	Supplementary Methods.
355	
356	

358 **Results**

359 Isolation study

360 In the isolation study, analysis of 38 diseased trees from 23 sites, plus 13 healthy trees in 11 of these sites, and 15 healthy trees from five sites with no history of AOD, identified 361 159 bacterial taxa. Higher yields of bacteria were obtained from lesion margin tissue of 362 symptomatic trees compared with healthy tree tissue ($F_{1.28}$, p < 0.001), and the lesion 363 margin bacterial profile was significantly different to healthy tissues (Monte-Carlo 364 permutation test of 1000 permutations, p < 0.001) (Supplementary Figure S5 and 365 Supplementary Table S6). Key genera isolated included Pseudomonas (comprising 366 multiple taxa and occurring in healthy as well as diseased trees); but Gibbsiella, 367 368 Brenneria and Rahnella dominated lesion margins (Supplementary Table S6). G. quercinecans occurred on all disease sites, and was isolated from 83% of diseased and 369 4% of healthy trees sampled, comprising 17% of total diseased samples, and <0.1% of 370 371 total healthy samples. B. goodwinii was more difficult to isolate, but was obtained from 15 sites, accounting for 16% of total diseased and <0.1% of total healthy samples. 372 Members of the genus Rahnella were obtained from 65% of diseased sites, but R. 373 victoriana was isolated only from diseased trees (37%), on 9 of the sites. L. quercina ssp. 374 britannica (Brady et al., 2012) was isolated sporadically on four sites, and a 375 Pseudomonas species (P. fulva-like) not yet formally identified, was isolated at eight sites 376 from diseased trees only (Supplementary Table S6). There was a significant co-377 occurrence of G. quercinecans and B. goodwinii in diseased tissue (J=0.56, p<0.001), but 378 379 neither was isolated from trees on sites with no history of AOD.

381 Oak microbiome analysis

382 Taxonomic analysis of the metagenome using unassembled metagenome sequence reads 383 against the One Codex (Minot et al., 2015) March '16 Preview database (with the 384 addition of the genomes of G. quercinecans, B. goodwinii and R. victoriana) also revealed a shift in microbiome composition between healthy stem tissue and AOD lesions 385 386 (Figures 2a and 2b). Periglandula, Burkholderia, Streptomyces, Bacillus and Auriemonas 387 were the most abundant genera in healthy trees, whereas Brenneria dominated diseased tissue (mean read abundance, 37.5%) (Figure 2a). The mean read abundance of 388 389 Gibbsiella (0.9%) and Rahnella (3.7%) was also greater in diseased tissue when compared with healthy tissue (both 0.1%). Pseudomonas, a diverse genus comprising 390 391 both endophytic and phytopathogenic bacteria (Vinatzer et al., 2014), had similar mean abundances in both diseased (4.8%) and healthy trees (3.3%). Correlation coefficients 392 and Welch's unequal variances t-tests revealed that Streptomyces ($t_{Welch's} = 49.7$, 393 p=0.004) and *Periglandula* (t_{Welch's} = 821.8, p<0.001) were significantly associated with 394 healthy trees, whereas Brenneria ($t_{Welch's} = 12.4$, p=0.006) and Gibbsiella ($t_{Welch's} = 4.7$, 395 p=0.05) were strongly correlated with the lesions of diseased trees (Figure 2b and 396 397 Supplementary Table S7). Pseudomonas and Rahnella were not strongly correlated with either health state (Supplementary Table S7). 398

To identify the most abundant species in the lesion microbiome, raw metagenome reads were aligned using Kraken (Wood and Salzberg, 2014) against reference genome databases (see methods), revealing seventeen genomes that were commonly detected in diseased tissue (Figure 2d and Supplementary Table S7). *B. goodwinii, G. quercinecans* and *R. victoriana* were detected in the lesion metagenome of all trees with AOD. Overall,

B. goodwinii was the most abundant genome in the lesion microbiome (range, 0.3-49% of 404 metagenome sequence reads; mean, 12%), but was also detected in much lower 405 proportions in healthy trees (0.01% in all samples). R. victoriana (range, 0.01-15%; 406 mean, 2.1%) and G. quercinecans (range, 0.02-0.8%; mean, 0.3%) were the second and 407 fourth most abundant genomes in the lesions of diseased trees, respectively. Functional 408 metagenome analysis (Figure 2c and Supplementary Figure S6) revealed that genes 409 associated with carbohydrate metabolism, membrane transport, and virulence, defence 410 and disease, are key features of the lesion microbiome, suggesting that many of these 411 412 functions are encoded in the genome of B. goodwinii, G. quercinecans and R. victoriana.

413

414 Genome analysis of AOD-associated bacteria

Whole genome sequencing of B. goodwinii FRB141, G. quercinecans FRB97, and R. 415 victoriana BRK18a (Supplementary Table S8) revealed that they are phylogenetically 416 417 related to opportunistic phytopathogens belonging to the SRE (Charkowski et al., 2012; Adeolu et al., 2016) and possess a catalogue of virulence genes associated with canonical 418 phytopathogens (Supplementary Table S9). The SRE alternate their lifestyle from benign 419 420 commensals to brute force necrotrophic-pathogens, which macerate cell wall polysaccharides by releasing plant cell wall degrading enzymes (PCWDEs) (Toth et al., 421 2006). A genome-wide search for PCWDEs in G. quercinecans, B. goodwinii and R. 422 victoriana revealed the presence of pectinases, cellulases and tannases (Figure 3b, 423 Supplementary Table S9) whose activity has been confirmed phenotypically 424 425 (Supplementary Figure S7). Furthermore, G. quercinecans and R. victoriana possess a type II secretion system, an operon which releases most PCWDEs and is therefore the 426

427 central virulence facilitator of necrotrophic plant pathogens. *B. goodwinii* encodes a type 428 III secretion system, the principal virulence factor of established hemibiotrophic 429 pathogens such as *Pseudomonas syringae*, which use the operon to evade immune 430 surveillance, allowing bacteria to increase their numbers before releasing necrotic 431 enzymes as nutrients are depleted (Tampakaki *et al.*, 2010).

432 To address the role of B. goodwinii, G. quercinecans, and R. victoriana in the aetiology 433 of AOD, we aligned metagenome sequences and transcripts recovered from necrotic 434 lesions of AOD-affected trees against their genomes (Figure 3a). Alignment of six AOD 435 lesion metagenomes, revealed an average of 2225 homologous proteins in B. goodwinii FRB141, 858 in G. quercinecans FRB97 and 396 in R. victoriana BRK18a 436 437 (Supplementary Table S4). Furthermore, annotated genes from the assembled 438 metagenome of a healthy oak revealed only two homologous proteins in B. goodwinii FRB141, one in G. quercinecans FRB97, and two in R. victoriana BRK18a. Lesion 439 transcripts were aligned to coding regions within B. goodwinii FRB141, G. quercinecans 440 441 FRB97, and *R. victoriana* BRK18a; this revealed that the transcripts aligned significantly to virulence genes including PCWDEs, secretion system machinery, and regulators of 442 443 PCWDEs (Figure 3c and Supplementary Figure S4). G. quercinecans FRB97 expressed the pectic enzymes, polygalacturonase and rhamnogalacturonate lyase, and β -glucosidase 444 445 (cellulase), pectate exo-lyase, oligogalacturonide lyase (which cleaves polygalacturonic 446 acid, the by-product of pectin lyase) (Moran et al., 1968). B. goodwinii FRB141 expressed phosphocellosbiose, β -galactosidase and several type III secretion system 447 effectors, *R. victoriana* BRK18a expressed many general secretory pathway (GSP) genes, 448 a β -glucosidase, a tannase and carbohydrate esterase enzyme (Yao *et al.*, 2013). Key 449

regulators of pectinolysis were expressed in all three bacteria including *kdgR*, *phoP*, *pecT*, *rsmA/rsmB*, and *gacA* (Figure 3a).

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453 Log lesion areas

454 Figures 1e-l show lesions caused by bacteria with or without A. *biguttatus* inoculated into 455 logs in pathogenicity tests. Notable results for lesion area analysis are presented in 456 Figures 1m and 1n (non-contaminated samples fulfilling Koch's postulates, with galleries 457 present for A. biguttatus samples). In bacteria only inoculations, lesions significantly bigger than wound controls (Figure 1m) were made by the combination of bacterial 458 species B. goodwinii + G. quercinecans ($t_{dunnetx} = 2.97, p=0.044$); the bacterial species G. 459 460 quercinecans had larger lesion areas versus the controls, although this was not significant and the p < 0.05 level ($t_{dunnetx} = 2.79, p = 0.068$); B. goodwinii lesions were smaller and not 461 significantly different from the controls in terms of mean lesion area ($t_{dunnetx} = 1.30$, 462 p=0.796), but the necrosis was clearly different to the control wound response (see 463 Figures 1e vs 1f). Inoculation with Erwinia billingiae, a known ubiquitous non-464 pathogenic bacterium, served as a negative control demonstrating lesion area no different 465 to the control wound response. The pattern strengthened when bacteria plus A. biguttatus 466 (applied as eggs) were co-inoculated (Figure 1n). Lesions created by B. goodwinii and A. 467 *biguttatus* eggs (larvae) were significantly bigger than wound controls ($t_{dunnetx} = 3.40$, 468 p=0.0125), as were G. quercinecans and A. biguttatus ($t_{dunnetx} = 4.65$, p=0.0002) and the 469 combination of *B. goodwinii* + *G. quercinecans* + *A. biguttatus* ($t_{dunnetx} = 3.92, p=0.0027$) 470 471 (Figure 1n). Bacteria were re-isolated from lesion margins and at intervals along the larval galleries, which were becoming necrotic forming part of the lesion. Apart from 472

demonstrating the necrogenic ability of the bacteria, these results showed that the larvae
and larval galleries have an important part in increasing lesion area, implicating them in
the spread of bacteria within infected trees.

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477 Bacterial positive back-isolation and *Agrilus biguttatus* contamination

There was a high success of back-isolation for both B. goodwinii and G. quercinecans 478 when these species were included as treatments (70% and 80% respectively); both 479 480 species were also identified as contaminants (i.e. back-isolated when not part of the treatment inoculation; B. goodwinii = 9%; G. quercinecans = 16%), although the 481 482 contamination rate was significantly lower than treatment back-isolation in both cases (B. 483 goodwinii: z = 7.98, p < 0.001; G. quercinecans: z = 6.65, p < 0.001). For G. quercinecans, the rate of contamination was affected by the presence of A. biguttatus eggs: when eggs 484 were absent G. quercinecans contamination was 3%; when eggs were present this rose to 485 486 38% contamination, a significant increase (z = 3.59, p < 0.001). There was no significant effect of A. biguttatus eggs on B. goodwinii contamination (eggs absent, B. goodwinii 487 contamination = 2%; eggs present, B. goodwinii contamination = 7%, z = 1.60, p=0.11). 488

489 **Discussion**

490 Fulfilling Koch's postulates represents the traditional paradigm for proving disease 491 causation. However, contemporary molecular approaches have transformed our 492 appreciation of the role of microbial communities and polymicrobial interactions in 493 disease. There are situations where the one pathogen causes one disease model is not 494 suitable to prove causality and must be adapted to accommodate polymicrobial 495 infections. For example, in decline-diseases of trees, application of Koch's postulates in 496 the strictest sense cannot fully address proving causality of lesion-formation as more than 497 one necrogenic agent is involved in the disease syndrome. Here, causation of AOD lesions was demonstrated using a combined cultivation-based and sequencing approach 498 499 in a dynamic adaptation of Koch's postulates analogous to that described by Byrd and 500 Segre (2016). Koch's first postulate is fulfilled by the consistent isolation and metagenomic detection of G. quercinecans, B. goodwinii, and R. victoriana in trees 501 affected by AOD. 502

503 This combined approach delivered an improved understanding of lesion microbiome composition, as some species were difficult to isolate and culture. For example, B. 504 505 goodwinii and Lonsdalea quercina ssp. britannica were under-represented, whereas G. quercinecans, which is more amenable to isolation and cultivation, was over-represented, 506 with the opposite trend evident in metagenomic studies. Furthermore, G. quercinecans, B. 507 goodwinii and R. victoriana were absent on sites with no history of AOD, were rarely 508 isolated from healthy oak on diseased sites, and had negligible abundance in healthy 509 510 metagenome samples at AOD sites, complying with Koch's second postulate. Ultra-low levels of G. quercinecans, B. goodwinii and R. victoriana were detected in some of the 511

512 healthy trees, but only from sites where AOD is present, raising interesting questions about their existence in the wider environment. Possible explanations for the presence of 513 G. quercinecans, B. goodwinii and R. victoriana in healthy trees on AOD sites may 514 515 include; (1) the tree is in early stages of lesion formation, where visible symptoms have not yet developed, or that (2) G. quercinecans, B. goodwinii and R. victoriana are 516 endophytes or epiphytes that opportunistically multiply after tissue necrosis is initiated by 517 another organism. In the first situation, the chances of detecting asymptomatic lesion 518 formation seem fairly remote, especially as crown condition is not a reliable indicator of 519 520 tree predisposition status in the early stages of decline development. In the second case, several pieces of evidence counteract the possibility that these organisms multiply 521 opportunistically after tissue necrosis occurs, as (1) we observed the expression of 522 523 putative necrogenic enzymes and virulence factors of these bacteria in AOD lesions in planta, implicating them in having an active role in tissue degradation, and (2) G. 524 quercinecans and B. goodwinii caused significant lesion formation in log inoculation 525 trials, demonstrating actual lesion forming capabilities. It is important to note that the oak 526 logs and trees used in our trials were selected from areas with no history of the disease. 527

Furthermore, all three bacterial species possess the genomic capability to cause tissue necrosis, as determined through genomics, *in situ* functional metagenomics and metatranscriptomics. Inoculation onto live oak logs confirmed significant necrogenic ability of *B. goodwinii* and *G. quercinecans*, but further work with *R. victoriana* inoculation is required. Thus, the pathogenic phenotype of *B. goodwinii* and *G. quercinecans* has been confirmed, broadly fulfilling Koch's third postulate, that inoculation tests can cause the disease anew. However, bacterial species combinations

caused even greater necrosis indicating cumulative effect and possible synergism, this is 535 a contemporary adaptation of Koch's postulates sensu stricto. Finally, once inoculated 536 onto live oak panels, B. goodwinii and G. quercinecans were re-isolated to fulfil Koch's 537 538 fourth postulate (although back-isolation of some species was difficult, and there is a need for developing rapid, cost-effective tools to detect pathogens that are difficult to 539 540 isolate). Consequently, we propose that the biotic component of the AOD lesions is a polybacterial complex comprised primarily of G. quercinecans and B. goodwinii, which 541 are now established as key causal agents of tissue necrosis, the primary symptom of 542 543 AOD. Our studies also indicated that other members of the microbiome may contribute to the pathology of AOD. Microbiome analysis suggested that R. victoriana is abundant and 544 also important in AOD lesions; however, back-isolation of R. victoriana was variable, 545 546 and further tests to characterize its role and interactions with B. goodwinii and G. quercinecans are required. In addition, Lonsdalea quercina ssp. britannica in particular 547 demonstrated variable, but at times virulent pathogenicity in log inoculations, although it 548 was not consistently present in AOD lesions. Our results indicate that Agrilus larvae 549 potentiate the spread of these necrogenic bacterial species within tree tissue, generating 550 551 new break-out points of tissue necrosis, and replicating the observed aetiology of AOD. Ultimately, vascular degradation arising from a combination of bacterial tissue necrosis 552 and inner bark damage from larval galleries exacerbates and accelerates the decline by 553 554 interrupting carbon resource allocation, preventing accumulation in roots, and reducing water availability. 555

It is clear that, where possible, microbiome analysis methods together with inoculation assays should become the accepted standard for profiling disease complexes, particularly

when considering complex interactions between microorganisms, insects, the 558 environment, and the host. This phenomenon has never previously been addressed in 559 arboreal systems using the approaches described here. Our work therefore highlights the 560 561 importance of a systems-level approach for characterizing the pathology of complex diseases, and represents a conceptual and methodological template for adapting Koch's 562 postulates to address the role of microbial communities in disease. In recent years, 563 microbiome studies have transformed our understanding of the role of human gut 564 microbiota in a variety of conditions, including bowel and cardiovascular disease (Frank 565 et al., 2007; Koeth et al., 2013), and consequently, microbiome-wide association studies 566 that link microbial consortia to disease will play an important role in the development of 567 future diagnostics and therapies for disease (Gilbert et al., 2016). For decline-diseases in 568 569 particular, further adaptation may be required to include the role of host predisposition.

While AOD has been formally described as a major threat to UK oak, similar decline-570 diseases have been reported in mainland Europe (Biosca et al., 2003; Poza-Carrión et al., 571 572 2008; Hartmann et al., 1989; Vansteenkiste et al., 2004; Delatour, 1983), the Middle East, and the Americas (Lynch et al., 2014) indicating that AOD is a global concern that 573 has likely evaded attention due to the complexity of its causative agents. The 574 polybacterial nature of AOD exhibits similarities to other economically important tree 575 diseases such as olive knot disease (Buonaurio et al., 2015) but may also be applied to 576 577 other complex diseases. Generally, our findings highlight the importance of understanding polymicrobial interactions in the context of future-proofing plant health to 578 protect important but increasingly disease-prone forests and crops that are a fundamental 579 part of our global landscape. 580

581 Accession codes

582	All sequence data described in this study is available under BioProject PRJNA323828
583	and PRJNA321868.
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766 Supplementary Information accompanies this paper on The ISME Journal website

768 Fig 1. Symptoms of Acute Oak Decline observed in the field (a-d), reproducing the symptoms of AOD through log inoculations with combinations of bacteria and Agrilus larvae associated with 769 770 AOD (e-l), and statistical analysis of lesion formation in log inoculations (m-n). (a) Stem bleeds symptomatic of Acute Oak Decline (AOD) on a mature Quercus robur in the field. (b) Close up 771 view of stem bleeds and bark cracks characteristic of AOD. (c) Cross-section through AOD stem 772 bleeds, showing degradation of vascular tissue (red arrow). (d) Longitudinal section through an 773 AOD stem bleed showing the association between bacterial lesions (blue arrow) and Agrilus 774 biguttatus galleries (red arrow). (e) Wound response in the innerbark of the control treatment 775 (inoculation of a wound with sterile water) of log inoculation trials. (f) Lesion formed in the 776 innerbark of oak logs inoculated with Brenneria goodwinii in log inoculation trials. (g) Lesion 777 formed in the innerbark of oak logs inoculated with Gibbsiella quercinecans in log inoculation 778 trials. (h) Lesion formed in the innerbark of oak logs inoculated with a combination of B. 779 goodwinii and G. quercinecans in log inoculation trials. (i) Wound response in the innerbark of 780 the A. biguttatus treatment (inoculation of a wound with live eggs of A. biguttatus). Note the 781 wound response (blue arrow) and clean gallery created by a larva (red arrow). (j) Lesion formed 782 in the innerbark of oak logs inoculated with B. goodwinii and eggs of A. biguttatus. Note the 783 lesion developing from the inoculation point (blue arrow), and from the galleries (red arrow). (k) 784 785 Lesion formed in the innerbark of oak logs inoculated with G. quercinecans plus eggs of A. biguttatus. Note the lesion developing from the inoculation point (blue arrow), and from the 786 787 galleries (red arrow). (1) Lesion formed in the innerbark of oak logs inoculated with B. goodwinii, G. quercinecans plus eggs of A. biguttatus. Note the lesion developing from the 788 789 inoculation point (blue arrow), and from the galleries (red arrow). (m) Mean lesion area formed in the inner bark of logs inoculated with bacteria. Colour indicates statistical significance (see 790 791 key). The bacterial species inoculated were back-isolated in fulfilment of Koch's fourth postulate. Error bars = - standard error. (n) Mean lesion area formed in the inner bark of logs 792 793 inoculated with bacteria and A. biguttatus eggs. Colour indicates statistical significance (see key in m). The bacterial species inoculated were back-isolated in fulfilment of Koch's fourth 794 postulate. Eb – Erwinia billingiae, Bg – Brenneria goodwinii, Gq – Gibbsiella quercinecans. 795 796 Error bars = - standard error.

798 Fig 2. Comparative metagenomic analysis of the taxonomic composition and function of the oak 799 microbiome in healthy tissue (from trees without AOD) and diseased tissue (from trees with 800 AOD). (a) The plot depicts the genera represented in all metagenomes based on One Codex binning of raw reads, demonstrating a clear shift in the microbial community between healthy 801 802 and diseased trees. (b) Brenneria and Gibbsiella are statistically correlated to diseased tissue, as shown by a principal coordinate ordination analysis based on statistics calculated by Primer v7 803 804 and PERMANOVA+ using One Codex binning data. The first two axes depict the plotted community composition. Correlation vectors in the graph are significant using an $R^2 > 0.05$. A 805 Welch's t-test was performed to test significance of differences between key taxa (identified 806 above) between healthy and diseased trees (pooled abundances for each factor). Resultant p-807 values from Welch's t-test are overlaid on the correlation biplot. (c) Gene groups involved in 808 bacterial phytopathogenic activity are significantly increased in AOD diseased trees, as shown 809 by comparative functional analysis of SEED subsystem categories as annotated by MG-RAST on 810 assembled metagenome contigs. The analysis of SEED subsystem metagenome data was 811 performed using Stamp. Statistically significant functional differences between diseased and 812 healthy communities were calculated using a G-test with Yates' correction. The Newcombe-813 Wilson test was performed to calculate confidence intervals between two binomial population 814 815 proportions. (d) The genomes of 17 species were found to be common across all AOD metagenomes. Visualization of Kraken metagenome analysis of stem samples demonstrates the 816 817 shifts in bacterial microbiome compositions. Bubble sizes are categorized based on the relative percentage frequencies of Kraken species-level alignment of raw metagenome sequencing reads, 818 and are depicted in the figure as 1 (read frequency <0.01), 2 (read frequency 0.01-0.1), 3 (read 819 frequency 0.1-1), 4 (read frequency 1-10) and 5 (read frequency >10). Red bubbles signify 820 821 samples from diseased trees, while blue bubbles signify samples from healthy trees. The 17 common species were determined based on common occurrence across all diseased tissue 822 823 samples. Additionally, six species more abundant among the healthy trees were included to provide a contrasting shift. 824

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827 Fig 3. Functional genome analysis of Gibbsiella quercinecans FRB97 (T), Brenneria 828 goodwinii FRB141 (T), and Rahnella victoriana BRK18a. (a) Circular representations of B. 829 goodwinii FRB141, G. quercinecans FRB97, and R. victoriana BRK18a genomes. From 830 outside to inside, circles represent: (1) Assembled bacterial genomes, outermost (orange) 831 circle, with encoded secretion system annotated at their genomic loci. (2) Metatranscriptome 832 heatmap. Alignment of two in silico combined metatranscriptomes recovered from two 833 necrotic lesions of AOD-affected trees, against the bacterial genomes. Blue saturation 834 represents increasing transcript alignments. (3-9) Seven metagenomes from necrotic lesions 835 on AOD affected trees and one healthy tree (metagenomes were extracted from two sites, 836 Attingham and Runs Wood), were aligned through their coding domains to homologous 837 regions in the bacterial genomes. (3) Attingham healthy (AT1) aligned metagenome coding 838 domains (light purple). (4) Attingham diseased (AT7) aligned metagenome coding domains 839 (aqua). (5) Attingham diseased (AT8) aligned metagenome coding domains (blue). (6) 840 Attingham diseased (AT9) aligned metagenome coding domains (orange). (7) Runs Wood 841 diseased (RW1) aligned metagenome coding domains (green). (8) Runs Wood diseased 842 (RW2) aligned metagenome coding domains (pink). (9) Runs Wood diseased (RW3) aligned 843 metagenome coding domains (grey). (10) G+C content across the bacterial genome. (11) 844 G+C skew across the bacterial genome. (b) Schematic diagram of transporters and 845 transported proteins recovered from lesion metatranscriptomes and aligned against each 846 bacterial genome. Number of significantly expressed (>3 aligned transcripts, covering >20% 847 of the gene) genes is shown in parentheses. (c) Number of transcripts aligned against selected 848 virulence genes encoded within B. goodwinii FRB141, G. quercinecans FRB97, and R. 849 victoriana BRK18a. Gene categories are represented by the following colours, red - plant cell 850 wall degrading enzymes (PCWDE), purple - general secretory pathway (GSP), yellow - type 851 II secretion system (T2SS), blue - type III secretion system (T3SS), pink - type III secretion 852 system effectors (T3SS effectors), and green - global regulators (GR)

853 Supplemental Tables:

Supplementary Table S1. Forest and woodland sites used for bacterial isolation from
diseased (Acute Oak Decline) and healthy oak trees. Ordinance survey co-ordinates are
provided.

Supplementary Table S2. Annual log inoculation test treatments using single and 857 858 multiple bacterial species inoculations, with or without the addition of eggs of Agrilus 859 *biguttatus.* Microbiome samples for metagenomic analysis were gathered at three of these 860 sites, two sites in Attingham park were sampled on two dates: Samples AT1, AT7, AT8 and 861 AT9 were collected from OS Eastings 356033, Northings 310372, in November 2013 as part of the CSR framework of sample collection; and samples AT2, AT3, AT4, AT5 and AT6 at 862 863 OS Eastings 356033, Northings 310372, were collected additionally in June 2015. Samples 864 RW1, RW2 and RW3 were collected from Runs Wood in February 2014 (OS Eastings 865 563207, Northings 310858) as part of the CSR framework, and samples ROW1, ROW2 and 866 ROW3 were additional samples collected from Ross-on-Wye (OS Eastings 357887, 867 Northings 221731), in June 2015. Ordinance survey co-ordinates are provided.

Supplementary Table S3. Accession numbers for genomic, metagenomic,
metatranscriptomic libraries. All libraries were submitted to the National Center for
Biotechnology Information. *Genome assembly.

871 Supplementary Table S4. Alignment of metagenome coding domains to the genomes of 872 Brenneria goodwinii FRB141 (T), Gibbsiella quercinecans FRB97 (T), and Rahnella 873 victoriana BRK18a (T) and two control genomes, Pectobacterium carotovorum ssp. 874 carotovorum PC1, a known plant pathogen, and the endophyte, Paenibacillus polymyxa 875 SC2. To assess the abundance of Brenneria goodwinii, Gibbsiella quercinecans, and Rahnella victoriana in the Acute Oak Decline (AOD) lesion metagenome, alignments were 876 made between assembled metagenomic libraries from AOD diseased and a healthy oak tree 877 (AT1), and assembled bacterial coding domains of B. goodwinii, G. quercinecansand R. 878 879 victoriana. In addition, to assess the veracity of our alignment approach, we tested two 880 additional control genomes; Pectobacterium carotovorum ssp. carotovorum PC1 is a well-881 characterized bacterial phytopathogen that has not previously been associated with oak. This genome would therefore not be expected to be present within AOD lesion metagenomes, and 882 883 therefore provides an indication of the potential level of alignment matches from homologous 884 genes found within other members of the Enterobacteriaceae. Only a small proportion of 885 metagenome coding domains (44-183) mapped with *P. carotovorum* ssp. carotovorum PC1, 886 suggesting that the greater proportion of matches that occur between B. goodwinii, G. 887 *quercinecans* and *R. victoriana* reflect the actual presence and abundance of those species in 888 AOD lesion metagenomes, rather than them representing metagenome coding domains from 889 other *Enterobacteriaceae* that have been falsely attributed to our focal species (*B. goodwinii*, 890 G. quercinecansand R. victoriana). Paenibacillus polymyxa SC2 is a putative endophyte 891 found at low relative abundance within symptomatic and healthy oak tissue and was included 892 as a control to ensure that the high numbers of metagenome coding domains mapped to B. 893 goodwinii, G. quercinecansand R. victoriana are accurate and would not occur in the same 894 way for other *Enterobacteriaceae* that are known to also be present in AOD lesions. The low 895 numbers of coding domains that map against P. polymyxa SC2 (0-8) again supports the veracity of our alignment approach, and the abundance of B. goodwinii, G. quercinecansand 896 897 *R. victoriana* in AOD lesion tissue.

Supplementary Table S5. Combined Kraken output data table. Output data of Kraken
metagenomic binning of all metagenomes. Where U=unidentified, D=domain, P=phylum,
C=class, O=order, F=family, G=genus, S=species. The standard Kraken database was
supplemented using the sequenced genomes of *Rahnella victoriana*, *Lonsdalea quercina*, *Gibbsiella quercinecans* and *Brenneria goodwinii*.

Supplementary Table S6. Occurrence of the most commonly isolated bacterial taxa on
sites and trees.

Supplementary Table S7. Significance of genera detected in healthy and symptomatic
 metagenome samples. Welch's unequal variances *t*-tests of genus abundance detected in
 metagenome datasets derived from healthy and diseased oak trees. ^aAsymptotically F
 distributed.

Supplementary Table S8. Genome metrics of *Brenneria goodwinii* FRB141 (T), *Gibbsiella quercinecans* FRB97 (T), and *Rahnella victoriana* BRK18a (T) sequenced
bacterial isolates. Bacteria were isolated from necrotic lesions of Acute Oak Decline
affected trees.

Supplementary Table S9. Genomic loci of putative bacterial virulence genes. Genes
encoded within *Brenneria goodwinii* FRB141, *Gibbsiella quercinecans* FRB97, and *Rahnella victoriana* BRK18a. PCWDE – plant cell wall degrading enzymes, T2SS – type II secretion
system, T3SS – type III secretion system, T4SS – type IV secretion system.