Genomics-enabled analysis of the emergent disease cotton bacterial blight

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Abstract

Cotton bacterial blight (CBB), an important disease of (*Gossypium hirsutum*) in the early 20th

century, had been controlled by resistance genes for over half a century. Recently, CBB re-

emerged as an agronomic problem in the United States. Here, a comparative genomics analysis

of host and pathogen was conducted. Phylogenetic analysis revealed that strains from the

current outbreak cluster with race 18 *Xanthomonas citri* pv. *malvacearum* (*Xcm*) strains. Type

three effector repertoires of 16 *Xcm* isolates reveal 24 conserved effectors as well as nine

variable effectors. In addition, virulent race 18 strains contain 3 to 5 more effectors than non-

race 18 strains. Genome assemblies for two geographically and temporally divergent strains of

Xcm, yielded circular chromosomes and accompanying plasmids. These genomes encode eight

and thirteen distinct transcription activator-like effector genes. RNA-sequencing revealed that

both strains induced 52 conserved gene targets in diverse cotton cultivars, including a

homeologous pair of genes, with homology to the known susceptibility gene, MLO. In contrast,

the two strains of *Xcm* induced different SWEET sugar transporters and in one case, only one

homeolog was significantly induced. Subsequent genome wide analysis revealed the overall

expression patterns of the homeologous gene pairs in cotton after inoculation by *Xcm*. These

data reveal host-pathogen specificity in the *Xcm-G. hirsutum* pathosystem, give explanations for

the CBB reemergence, and strategies for future development of resistant cultivars.

Author Summary

Cotton bacterial blight (CBB), caused by *Xanthomonas citri* pv. *malvacearum* (*Xcm*), significantly limited cotton yields in the early 20th century but has been controlled by classical resistance genes for more than 50 years. In 2011, the pathogen re-emerged with vengeance. In this study, we compare diverse pathogen isolates and cotton varieties to further understand the virulence mechanisms employed by *Xcm* and to identify promising resistance strategies. We generate fully contiguous genome assemblies for two diverse *Xcm* strains and identify pathogen proteins used to modulate host transcription and promote susceptibility. RNA-Sequencing of infected cotton reveals novel putative gene targets for the development of durable *Xcm* resistance. Together, the data presented reveal the underlying cause of CBB re-emergence in the U.S. and highlight several promising routes towards the development of durable resistance including classical resistance genes and potential manipulation of susceptibility targets.

Introduction

Upland cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.) is the world's leading natural fiber crop. Cotton is commercially grown in over 84 countries and in the United States is responsible for $74 billion annually [1, 2]. Numerous foliar diseases affect cotton throughout the world's cotton growing regions. Historically, one of the most significant foliar diseases has been bacterial blight, caused by *Xanthomonas citri* pv. *malvacearum*. Cotton bacterial blight significantly limited cotton yield in the late 20th century. In the 1940's and 1950's, breeders identified and introgressed multiple resistance loci into elite germplasm [3-5].This strategy proved durable for over half a century. In 2011, cotton bacterial blight (CBB) returned and caused significant losses to farmers in the southern United States, more specifically in Arkansas and Mississippi.

Nonetheless, CBB has received little research focus during the last several decades because this

disease had been considered "tamed". Modern molecular and genomic technologies can now

be employed expeditiously to deduce the underlying cause of the disease re-emergence and

pinpoint optimized routes towards the development of durable resistance.

CBB is caused by *X. citri pv. malvacearum* (*Xcm*); however, the pathogen has previously

been placed within other species groupings [6-9]. The *Xcm* pathovar can be further divided into

at least 19 races according to virulence phenotypes on a panel of historical cotton cultivars:

Acala-44, Stoneville 2B-S9, Stoneville 20, Mebane B-1, 1-10B, 20-3, and 101-102.B [10, 11].

Historically, the most common race observed in the U.S. has been race 18, which was first

isolated in 1973 [12]. This race is highly virulent, causing disease on all cultivars in the panel

except for 101-102.B. CBB can occur at any stage in the plant's life cycle and on any aerial

organ. Typical symptoms include seedling blight as either pre or post-emergent damping-off,

black arm on petioles and stems, water-soaked spots on leaves and bracts, and most

importantly boll rot. The most commonly observed symptoms are the angular-shaped lesions

on leaves that, in some cases, can coalesce and result in a systemic vein infection where leaf

lesions coalesce on major leaf veins. Disease at each of these stages can cause yield losses

either by injury to the plant or direct damage to the boll. No effective chemical treatments for

the disease have been released to date. Therefore, the most important methods to reduce loss

as a result of CBB include field methods that rely on cultivation to reduce potential sources of

overwintering inoculum and planting cultivars with known sources of resistance.

Most pathogenic bacteria assemble the type three secretion system (T3SS), a needle-

like structure, to inject diverse type three effectors (T3Es) into the plant cell to suppress

immunity and promote disease [13-17]. For example, transcription activator-like (TAL) effectors

influence the expression levels of host genes by binding directly to host gene promoters in a

sequence-specific way [18]. Up-regulated host genes that contribute to pathogen virulence are

termed susceptibility genes and may be modified through genome editing for the development

of resistant crop varieties [19].

Plants have specialized immune receptors, collectively known as nucleotide-binding

leucine rich repeat receptors (NLRs), that recognize, either directly or indirectly, the pathogen

effector molecules [20, 21]. Historically, this host-pathogen interaction has been termed the

'gene-for-gene' model of immunity, wherein a single gene from the host and a single gene from

the pathogen are responsible for recognition [22]. Recognition triggers a strong immune

response that often includes a localized hypersensitive response (HR) in which programmed cell

death occurs around the infection site [23]. Nineteen CBB resistance loci have been reported in

Gossypium hirsutum breeding programs; however, none have been molecularly identified [8,

24].

Here we combine comparative genomics of the pathogen *Xcm* with transcriptomics of

the host to identify the molecular interactions underlying this re-emergent disease. This will

inform the development of durable resistance strategies.

Results

CBB Reemergence in the US

In 2011, farmers, Extension specialists, and Certified Crop Advisers in Missouri,

Mississippi, and Arkansas observed cotton plants exhibiting symptoms of CBB. While a major

limiting factor for cotton production through the 1950s, this disease had been controlled by

agricultural practices such as acid-delinting seed as well as planting resistant cultivars. Prior to

the widespread observation of CBB in the mid-southern U.S., isolated, sporadic instances of the

disease were generally detected on an annual basis. Reemergence of the disease occurred

rapidly during 2011. Widespread infected plant material was observed throughout much of the

production area, but appeared to be centered around Clarksdale, Mississippi. Much of the

infestation in the Arkansas production system was reported to have originated from several

infested seed lots [25]. The disease has since spread through much of the cotton belt in the

southern U.S. (Figs 1 and S1).

In 2014, diseased cotton leaves were collected from three sites across Mississippi and

Koch's postulates were conducted to prove causality [26]. PCR amplification of the 16S rRNA

gene confirmed that the causal agent was a member of the *Xanthomonas* genus. Multi locus

sequence type (MLST) analysis and maximum-likelihood analysis were performed using

concatenated sections of the gltA, lepA, lacF, gyrB, fusA and gap-1 loci (Fig 2a) for increased

phylogenetic resolution. The newly sequenced strains were named MS14001, MS14002 and

MS14003 and were compared to four previously published *Xcm* genomes and thirty-six

additional *Xanthomonas* genomes representing thirteen species (Tables S1, S2). MS14001,

MS14002 and MS14003 grouped with the previously published *Xcm* strains as a single

polytomy, further confirming that the current disease outbreak is CBB and is caused by *Xcm*.

The species designation reported here is consistent with previous reports [6, 7]. To date, CBB

has been reported from at least eight out of the sixteen states that grow cotton (Fig 1).

Contemporary U.S. *Xcm* strains cluster phylogenetically with historical race 18 strains.

Race groups have been described for *Xcm* strains by analyzing compatible (susceptible)

and incompatible (resistant) interactions on a panel of seven cotton cultivars. In general, race

groups tend to be geographically distinct. For example, as mentioned previously, race 18 is

prevalent in the U.S. while race 20 is a highly virulent strain reported from several African

countries [7]. Consequently, one possible explanation for the recent outbreak of CBB would be

the introduction of a new race of *Xcm* capable of overcoming existing genetic resistance.

Unfortunately, only 2 cultivars of the original cotton panel plus three related cultivars, were

available and these cultivars were not sufficient to determine whether a new race had

established within the U.S. Consequently, twelve *Xcm* strains were sequenced using Illumina

technology to determine the phylogenetic relationship between recent isolates of *Xcm* and

historical isolates. Isolates designated as race 1, race 2, race 3, race 12 and race 18 have been

maintained at Mississippi State University. Additional isolates were obtained from the

Collection Française de Bactéries associées aux Plantes (CFBP) culture collection. Together,

these isolates include eight strains from the US, three from Africa, and one from South America

and span collection dates ranging from 1958 through 2014 (Fig 1). Illumina reads were mapped

to the *Xanthomonas citri* subsp. *citri* strain Aw12879 (565918 [RefSeq]) using Bowtie and single

nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were identified using Samtools [27, 28]. Only regions of the

genome with at least 10x coverage for all genomes were considered. This approach identified

17,853 sites that were polymorphic in at least one genome. Nucleotides were concatenated

and used to build a neighbor-joining tree (Fig 2b). This analysis revealed that recent *Xcm*

isolates grouped with the race 18 clade. Notably, the race 18 clade is phylogenetically distant

from the other *Xcm* isolates.

Contemporary US *Xcm* strains have conserved virulence protein arsenals and disease

phenotypes with historical race 18 strains.

Type three effector (T3E) profiles from sixteen *Xcm* isolates were compared to

determine whether a change in the virulence protein arsenal of the newly isolated strains could

explain the re-emergence of CBB. Genomes from 12 *Xcm* isolates were de novo assembled with

SPAdes and annotated with Prokka based on annotations from the *X. euvesicatoria* (aka. *X.*

campestris pv. *vesicatoria*) 85-10 genome (NCBI accession: NC_007508.1). T3Es pose a

particular challenge for reference based annotation as no bacterial genome contains all

effectors. Consequently, an additional protein file containing known T3Es from our previous

work was included within the Prokka annotation pipeline [13, 29]. This analysis revealed 24

conserved and 9 variable *Xcm* T3Es (Fig 3a). Most race 18 isolates contain more effectors than

other isolates that were sequenced. The recent *Xcm* isolates (MS14002 and MS14003) were not

distinguishable from historical race 18 isolates, with the exception of XcmNI86 isolated from

Nigeria in 1986, which contains mutations in XopE2 and XopP.

Analysis of the genomic sequence of T3E revealed presence/absence differences,

frameshifts and premature stop codons. However, this analysis does not preclude potential

allelic or expression differences among the virulence proteins that could be contributing factors

to the re-emergence of CBB. Therefore, newly isolated strains may harbor subtle genomic

changes that have allowed them to overcome existing resistance phenotypes. Many

commercial cultivars of cotton are reported to be resistant to CBB [30-32]. Based on these

previous reports, we selected commercial cultivars resistant and susceptible (6 of each) to CBB.

In addition, we included 5 available varieties that are related to the historical panel as well as 2

parents from a nested association mapping (NAM) population currently under development

[33]. All varieties inoculated with the newly isolated *Xcm* strains exhibited inoculation

phenotypes consistent with previous reports for these varieties (Figs 3b,c). In these assays,

brightfield and near infrared (NIR) imaging were used to distinguish water-soaked disease

symptoms from rapid cell death (hypersensitive response) that is indicative of an immune

response. These data confirm that existing resistance genes present within cotton germplasm

are able to recognize the newly isolated *Xcm* strains and trigger a hypersensitive response.

Together, the phylogenetic analysis, effector profile conservation and cotton inoculation

phenotypes, confirm that the recent outbreak of *Xcm* in the US represents a re-emergence of

race 18 *Xcm* and is not the result of a dramatic shift in the pathogen.

The USDA Agricultural Marketing Service (AMS) publishes the percentage of upland

cotton cultivars planted in the U.S. each year (www.ams.usda.gov/mnreports/cnavar.pdf). In 2016,

only 25% of the total cotton acreage was planted with resistant cultivars (Fig 3d), based on

previously published CBB phenotypes for these cultivars. This is part of a larger downward

trend in which the acreage of resistant cultivars has fallen each year since at least 2009.

Comparative genome analysis for two *Xcm* strains

Differences in virulence were observed among *Xcm* strains at the molecular and

phenotypic level. In order to gain insight into these differences, we selected two strains from

our collection that differed in T3E content, virulence level, geography of origin and isolation

date. AR81009 was isolated in Argentina in 1981 and is one of the most virulent strains

investigated in this study; MS14003 was isolated in Mississippi in 2014 and causes

comparatively slower and diminished leaf symptoms. However, both strains are able to multiply

and cause disease on susceptible varieties of cotton (S2 Fig). Full genome sequences were

generated with Single Molecule Real-Time (SMRT) sequencing. Genomes were assembled using

the PacBio Falcon assembler which yielded circular 5Mb genomes and associated plasmids.

Genic synteny between the two strains was observed with the exception of two 1.05 Mb

inversions (Fig 4). Regions of high and low GC content, indicative of horizontal gene transfer,

were identified in both genomes. In particular, a 120kb insertion with low GC content was

observed in AR81009. This region contains one T3E as well as two annotated type four

secretion system related genes, two conjugal transfer proteins, and two multi drug resistant

genes. MS14003 contained three plasmids of the sizes 52.4, 47.4, and 15.3kb while AR81009

contained two plasmids of the sizes 92.6 and 22.9kb. Analysis of homologous regions among

the plasmids was performed using progressiveMauve [34]. This identified four homologous

regions greater than 1kb that were shared among multiple plasmids (Fig 4).

The AR81009 genome encodes twelve TAL effectors that range in size from twelve to

twenty three repeat lengths, six of which reside on plasmids. The MS14003 genome encodes

eight TAL effectors that range in size from fourteen to twenty eight repeat lengths, seven of

which reside on plasmids (Fig 5a). Three incomplete TAL effectors were also identified within

these genomes. A 1-repeat gene with reduced 5' and 3' regions was identified in both strains

directly upstream of a complete TAL effector. In addition, a large 4kb TAL effector was

identified in AR81009 with a 1.5 kb insertion and 10 complete repeat sequences. The tool

AnnoTALE was used to annotate and group TAL effectors based on the identities of the repeat

variable diresidues (RVDs) in each gene [35]. Little homology was identified among TAL

effectors within and between strains; only two TAL effectors were determined to be within the

same TAL class between strains (TAL19b of AR81009 and TAL19 of MS14003) and two within

strain MS14003 (TAL14b and TAL16). Both strains express TAL effector proteins as

demonstrated through western blot analysis using a TAL effector specific antibody (Fig 5b).

However, the complexity of TAL effector repertoires within these strains prevented complete

resolution of each individual TAL effector.

Transcriptome changes induced by *Xcm* in *G. hirsutum*.

An RNA-sequencing experiment was designed to determine whether AR81009 and

MS14003 incite different host responses during infection (Fig 6a). Isolates were inoculated into

the phylogenetically diverse *G. hirsutum* cultivars Acala Maxxa and DES 56 (Fig 6b) [33].

Infected and mock-treated tissue were collected at 24 and 48 hours post inoculation. First, we

considered global transcriptome patterns of gene expression. Fifty-two genes were determined

to be induced in all *Xcm-G. hirsutum* interactions at 48 hours (S3 Table). Of note among this list

of genes is a homeologous pair of genes with homology to the known susceptibility target, MLO

[36-39]. Gene induction by a single strain was also observed; AR81009 and MS14003 uniquely

induced 127 and 16, *G. hirsutum* genes, respectively (Fig 6c). The increased number of genes

induced by AR81009 correlates with the observed severe leaf symptoms caused by this strain.

In contrast, the average magnitude of gene induction between the two strains was not

significantly different (S3 Fig). Both *Xcm* strains caused more genes to be differentially

expressed in DES 56 than in Acala Maxxa. Among the 52 genes significantly induced by both

strains, sixteen conserved targets are homeologous pairs, whereas seventeen and fifteen genes

are encoded by the A and D sub-genomes, respectively (Tables 1 and S3). It has been previously

reported that homeologous genes encoded on the *G. hirsutum* A and D sub-genomes are

differentially regulated during abiotic stress [40]. A set of approximately 10,000 homeologous

gene pairs were selected and differential gene expression was assessed (Fig 7). For each

pairwise comparison of *Xcm* strain and *G. hirsutum* cultivar, a similar number of genes were

differentially expressed in each of the A and D subgenomes. However, some homeologous pairs

were up or down regulated differentially in response to disease, indicating a level of sub-

genome specific responses to disease. For example, SWEET sugar transporter gene

Gh_D12G1898 in the D genome is induced over four fold during infection with *Xcm* strain

AR81009, but the homeolog Gh_A12G1747 in the A genome is not. This relationship is further

explored below.

Table 1: Eight homeologous pairs of *Gossypium hirsutum* genes are upregulated in both Acala Maxxa and DES 56

varieties 48 hours post inoculation with *Xanthomonas citri* pv. *malvacearum* strains MS14003 and AR81009.

A Genome	D Genome	Gene Annotation
Gh_A02G0615	Gh_D02G0670	Seven transmembrane MLO family protein
Gh_A03G0560	Gh_D03G0971	Pectate lyase family protein
Gh_A05G2012	Gh_D05G2256	Protein of unknown function DUF688
Gh_A06G0439	Gh_D06G0479	basic chitinase
Gh_A07G1129	Gh_D07G1229	Protein of unknown function (DUF1278)
Gh_A10G0257	Gh_D10G0257	Protein E6
Gh_A10G1075	Gh_D10G1437	Pectin lyase-like superfamily protein
Gh_A13G1467	Gh_D13G1816	pathogenesis-related 4

Different strains of *Xcm* target distinct SWEET transporters in *G. hirsutum*.

SWEET sugar transporter genes are commonly targeted and upregulated by TAL

effectors in *Xanthomonas* plant interactions [19, 41-43]. Surprisingly, no SWEET genes were

detected in the above list of conserved targets. However, of the 54 SWEET sugar transporter

genes encoded by the *G. hirsutum* genome, three were upregulated greater than 4 fold in

response to inoculation by one of the two *Xcm* strains (Fig 8). Potential TAL effector binding

sites were identified using the program TALEnt [44]. MS14003 significantly induces the

homeologs Gh_A04G0861 and Gh_D04G1360 and contains three TAL effectors predicted to

bind within the 300bp promoter sequences of at least one of these genes (Fig 8a). In contrast,

AR81009 significantly induces Gh_D12G1898 but not its homeolog Gh_A12G1747 (Fig 8b).

TAL14a, TAL14c, and TAL16b from AR81009 are all predicted to bind to the Gh_D12G1898

promoter however the latter two are also predicted to bind to the homeolog Gh_A12G1747.

We note that while Gh_A12G1747 did not pass the four fold cut off for gene induction, this

gene is slightly induced in DES 56 compared to mock inoculation.

Discussion

Cotton Bacterial Blight was considered controlled in the U.S. until an outbreak was

observed during the 2011 growing season in Missouri, Mississippi and Arkansas [45]. Until 2011,

seed sterilization, breeding for resistant varieties, and farming techniques such as crop rotation

and sterilizing equipment prevented the disease from becoming an economic concern [46]. The

number of counties reporting incidence of CBB has increased from 17 counties in 2011 to 77

counties in 2015 [47-49]. This paper investigates the root of the re-emergence and identifies

several routes towards control of the disease.

When the disease was first recognized as re-emerging, several possible explanations

were proposed including: (1) A highly virulent race of the pathogen that had been introduced to

the U.S.; (2) Historical strains of *Xcm* that had evolved to overcome existing resistance; and (3)

Environmental conditions over the last several years that had been particularly conducive to

the disease. Here, we present evidence that the re-emergence of CBB is not due to a large

genetic change or race shift in the pathogen as has been previously suggested. Rather, the re-

281 emergence of the disease is likely due to large areas of susceptible cultivars being planted. The

282 presented data do not rule out potential environmental conditions that may also have

283 contributed to the re-emergence. In this context, environmental conditions includes disease

284 conducive temperature and humidity as well as potentially contaminated seed or other

285 agronomic practices that may have perpetuated spread of the disease outbreaks. Importantly,

286 the presented data confirm that the presence of resistance loci could be deployed to prevent

287 further spread of this disease. However, since many of the most popular farmer preferred

288 varieties lack these resistance traits, additional breeding or biotechnology strategies will be

289 needed to maximize utility. Notably, the current *Xcm* isolates characterized in this study all

290 originate from Mississippi cotton fields in 2014. During the 2015 and 2016 growing seasons,

291 resistant cotton cultivars were observed in Texas with symptoms indicative of bacterial

292 infection yet distinct from CBB. Additional work is underway to identify and characterize the

293 causal agent(s) of these disease symptoms.

294  While resistant cotton cultivars were identified for all strains in this study, variability in

295 symptom severity was observed for different strains when inoculated into susceptible cultivars.

296 Two strains in particular, MS14003 and AR81009, have different effector profiles as well as

297 different disease phenotypes. Comparative genomic analysis of the two pathogens revealed

298 many differences that may contribute to the relative disease severity phenotypes. Similarly,

299 transcriptomic analysis of two cultivars of *G. hirsutum* inoculated with these strains confirm

300 that the genomic differences between the two strains result in a divergence in their molecular

301 targets in the host.

Over the past decade, susceptibility genes have become targets for developing disease

tolerant plants [50, 51]. These genes are typically highly induced during infection [52].

Therefore, RNA-Seq of infected plants has become a preferred way to identify candidate

susceptibility genes. Once identified, genome editing can be used to block induction of these

genes [53]. We report a homeologous pair of genes that are homologs of the MLO gene as

targeted by both *Xcm* strains in both cotton cultivars. This conservation makes it an excellent

candidate for future biotechnology efforts. Because the potential importance of this gene in

cotton biology is unknown, the effect of disrupting this gene in cotton physiology must first be

explored. However, knock-outs of MLO genes in other systems has led to durable resistance

against powdery mildew but also oomycetes and bacteria such as *Xanthomonas* [36, 39]. The

dual purpose of host susceptibility genes has been observed previously. For example, the rice

Xa13 (aka. Os8N3 and OsSWEET11) gene is required for pollen development but also targeted

by a rice pathogen during infection [54]. Xa13 is a member of the SWEET sugar transporters

implicated in many pathosystems. In this case, the induction of Xa13 for pathogen susceptibility

is mediated by a TAL effector. Of the 54 SWEET genes in the *G. hirsutum* genome, three are

significantly upregulated during *Xcm* infection. In contrast to MLO, no single SWEET gene was

induced by both pathogen strains in both hosts. Analysis of SWEET gene expression after

inoculation revealed a context for polyploidy in the *G. hirsutum-Xcm* pathosystem. We

observed a difference in induction between the Gh_A12G1747 and Gh_D12G1898 SWEET

genes. Future research may investigate the diploid ancestors of tetraploid cotton to further

explore the evolution of host and pathogen in the context of ploidy events [55].

Multiple putative TAL effector binding sites were identified within each up-regulated

SWEET promoter. These observations suggest that TAL14b, TAL28a and TAL28b from MS14003

may work independently or in concert to induce the homeologs Gh_A04G0861 and

Gh_D04G1360. Further, TAL14a from AR81009 is likely responsible for the upregulation of

Gh_D12G1898. Whether additional TAL effectors are involved in these responses is not clear. It

is possible that not all the TAL effectors are expressed. Similarly, genome organization in the

host, such as histone modifications or other epigenetic regulation may be affecting these

interactions. Future research will investigate these mechanisms further. However, these

experiments will be difficult as most *Xcm* strains are not amenable to conjugation nor

electroporation.

Collectively, the data presented here suggest that the wide-spread planting of CBB-

susceptible cultivars has contributed to the re-emergence of CBB in the southern U.S. It is

possible that a reservoir of race 18 *Xcm* was maintained in cotton fields below the level of

detection due to resistant cultivars planted in the 1990s and early 2000s. Alternatively, the

pathogen may have persisted on an alternate host or was brought in on contaminated seed as

has previously been suggested [9, 10]. Regardless of the cause of the re-emergence, the

genomic comparisons among pathogen races and host cultivars has identified several possible

routes towards resistance. These include the use of existing effective resistance loci as well as

the potential disruption of the induction of susceptibility genes through genome editing. The

latter is an attractive strategy in part because of recent progress in genome editing [56, 57]. In

summary, within a relatively short time frame, through the deployment of modern molecular

and genomic techniques, we were able to identify the cause of the re-emergence of cotton

bacterial blight and generate data that can now be rapidly translated to effective disease

control strategies.

Methods

Xcm strain isolation and manipulation:

New strains were isolated from infected cotton leaves by grinding tissue in 10mM $MgCl_2$

and culturing bacteria on NYGA media. The most abundant colony type was selected, single

colony purified and then 16S sequencing was used to confirm the bacterial genus as previously

described [58]. In addition, single colony purified strains were re-inoculated into cotton leaves

and the appearance of water soaked symptoms indicative of CBB infection was confirmed. Both

newly isolated strains as well as strains received from collaborators were used to generate a

rifampicin resistance version of each strain. Wildtype strains were grown on NYGA, then

transferred to NYGA containing 100μg/ml rifampicin. After approximately 4-5 days, single

colonies emerged. These were single colony purified and stored at -80C. The rifampicin

resistant version of each Xcm strain was used in all subsequent experiments reported in this

manuscript unless otherwise noted.

Plant inoculations

362 Xcm strains were grown on NYGA plates containing 100μg/ml rifampicin at 30°C for two

363 days before inoculations were performed. Disease assays were conducted in a growth chamber

364 set at 30°C and 80% humidity. Inoculations were conducted by infiltrating a fully expanded leaf

365 with a bacterial solution in 10mM $MgCl_2$ (OD_{600} specified within each assay).

Cotton Cultivar Statistics

Area of cotton planted per county in the United States in 2015 was obtained from the

USDA National Agricultural Statistics Service:

www.nass.usda.gov/Statistics_by_Subject/result.php?7061F36A-A4C6-3C65-BD7F-

129B702CFBA2§or=CROPS&group=FIELD%20CROPS&comm=COTTONUSDA. Estimated

percentage of upland cotton planted for each variety was obtained from the Agricultural

Marketing Service (AMS): www.ams.usda.gov/mnreports/canvar.pdf. CBB disease phenotyping

data from 2009-2016 was determined via cotyledon scratch assays and/or field trials sprayed

with virulent *Xcm* isolates and has previously been described [59-61].

Bacterial Sequencing and Phylogenetics

Illumina based genomic datasets were generated as previously described [29]. Paired-

end Illumina reads were trimmed using Trimmomatic v0.32 (ILLUMINACLIP:TruSeq3-

PE.fa:2:30:10 LEADING:3 TRAILING:3 SLIDINGWINDOW:4:15 MINLEN:36) [62]. Genome

assemblies were generated using the SPAdes *de novo* genome assembler [63]. Strain

information is reported in Supplemental Table 1. Similar to our previously published methods

[29], the program Prokka was used in conjunction with a T3E database to identify type three

effector repertoires for each of the 12 *Xcm* isolates as well as four *Xcm* genomes previously

deposited on NCBI (S2Table) [64].

Multi-locus sequence analysis was conducted by concatenating sequences of the gltA,

lepA, lacF, gyrB, fusA and gap-1 loci obtained from the Plant-Associated Microbes Database

(PAMDB) for each strain as previously described [65]. A maximum-likelihood tree using these

concatenated sequences was generated using CLC Genomics 7.5.

Variant Based Phylogeny

A variant based dendrogram was created by comparing 12 Illumina sequenced *Xcm*

genomes to the complete *Xanthomonas citri* subsp. *citri* strain Aw12879 reference genome

(565918 [RefSeq]) on NCBI. Read pairs were aligned to the reference genome using Bowtie2

v2.2.9 with default alignment parameters [27]. From these alignments, single nucleotide

polymorphisms (SNPs) were identified using samtools mpileup v1.3 and the bcftools call v1.3.1

multi-allelic caller [28]. Using Python v2.7, the output from samtools mpileup was used to

identify loci in the *X. citri* subsp. *citri* reference genome with a minimum coverage of 10 reads in

each *Xcm* genome used Python version 2.7 available at http://www.python.org. Vcftools

v0.1.14 and bedtools v2.25.0 were used in combination to remove sites marked as indel, low

quality, or heterozygous in any of the genomes [66, 67]. Remaining loci were concatenated to

create a FASTA alignment of confident loci. Reference loci were used where SNP's were not

detected in a genome. The resulting FASTA alignment contained 17853 loci per strain. This

alignment was loaded into the online Simple Phylogeny Tool from the ClustalW2 package to

create a neighbor joining tree of the assessed strains [68, 69]. Trees were visualized using

FigTree v1.4.2.

Genome Assembly

Single Molecule, Real Time (SMRT) sequencing of *Xcm* strains MS14003 and AR81009

was obtained from DNA prepped using a standard CTAB DNA preparation. Blue Pippin size

selection and library preparation was done at the University of Deleware Sequencin Facility.

The genomes were assembled using FALCON-Integrate

(https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/FALCON-integrate/commit/cd9e93) [70]. The following

parameters were used: Assembly parameters for MS14003: length_cutoff = 7000;

length_cutoff_pr = 7000; pa_HPCdaligner_option = -v -dal8 -t16 -e.70 -l2000 -s240 -M10;

ovlp_HPCdaligner_option = -v -dal8 -t32 -h60 -e.96 -l2000 -s240 -M10; falcon_sense_option = --

output_multi --min_idt 0.70 --min_cov 5 --local_match_count_threshold 2 --max_n_read 300 --

n_core 6; overlap_filtering_setting = --max_diff 80 --max_cov 160 --min_cov 5 --bestn 10;

Assembly parameters for AR81009: length_cutoff = 8000; length_cutoff_pr = 8000;

pa_HPCdaligner_option = -v -dal8 -t16 -e.72 -l2000 -s240 -M10; ovlp_HPCdaligner_option = -v -

dal8 -t32 -h60 -e.96 -l2000 -s240 -M10; falcon_sense_option = --output_multi --min_idt 0.72 --

min_cov 4 --local_match_count_threshold 2 --max_n_read 320 --n_core 6;

overlap_filtering_setting = --max_diff 90 --max_cov 300 --min_cov 10 --bestn 10. Assemblies

were polished using iterations of pbalign and quiver, which can be found at

https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/pbalign/commit/cda7abb and

https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/GenomicConsensus/commit/43775fa. Two iterations

were run for *Xcm* strain MS14003 and 3 iterations for AR81009. Chromosomes were then

reoriented to the DnaA gene and plasmids were reoriented to ParA. The assemblies were

checked for overlap using BLAST, and trimmed to circularize the sequences [71]. TAL effectors

were annotated and grouped by RVD sequences using AnnoTALE [35]. Homologous regions

among plasmids that are greater than 1 kb were determined using progressiveMauve [34].

Genomic comparisons between the MS14003 and AR81009 chromosomes were visualized using

Circos [72]. Single-copy genes on each of the chromosomes were identified and joined using

their annotated id's. Lines connecting the two chromosomes represent these common genes

and their respective positions in each genome. A sliding window of 1KB was used to determine

the average GC content. Methylation was determined using the Base Modification and Motif

Analysis workflow from pbsmrtpipe v0.42.0 at

https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/pbsmrtpipe.

Western Blot Analysis

Western Blot analysis of Transcription Activator-Like (TAL) effectors was performed

using a TAL specific antibody [43]. Briefly, bacteria were suspended in 5.4 pH minimal media for

4.5 hours to induce effector production and secretion. Pellet was then suspended in laemmli

buffer at 95 degrees Celsius for three minutes to lyse the cells. Freshly boiled samples were

then loaded onto a 4-6% gradient gel and run for several hours to ensure sufficient separation

of the different sized TAL effectors. Polyclonal rbTal10 antibody was used to visualize all TALs.

Gene Expression Analysis

Susceptible cotton were inoculated with *Xcm* using a needleless syringe at an OD_{600} of

0.5. Infected and mock-treated tissue were collected and flash frozen at 24 and 48 hours post

inoculation. RNA was extracted using the Sigma tRNA kit. RNA-sequencing libraries were

generated as previously described [73].

Raw reads were trimmed using Trimmomatic [62]. The Tuxedo Suite was used for

mapping reads to the TM-1 NBI *Gossypium hirsutum* genome [74], assembling transcripts, and

quantifying differential expression [27, 75].

Homeologous pairs were identified based on syntenic regions with MCScan [76]. A

syntenic region is defined as a region with a minimum of five genes with an average intergenic

distance of 2 and within extended distance of 40. All other values are set to the default.

Bioinformatic prediction of TAL effector binding sites on the *G. hirsutum* promoterome

was performed using the TAL Effector-Nucleotide Targeter (TALEnt) [44]. In short, the regions of

the genome that were within 300 basepairs of annotated genes were queried with the RVD's of

MS14003 and AR81009 using a cutoff score of 4. Promiscuously binding TALs 16 from MS14003

and 16a from AR81009 were removed from analysis.

Fig Legends

Fig 1: Cotton Bacterial Blight (CBB) symptoms and reemergence across the southern United

States. (Left) Typical CBB symptoms present in cotton fields near Lubbock, TX during the 2015

growing season include angular leaf spots, boll rot, and black arm rot. Acres of cotton planted

per county in the United States in 2015 (blue) and counties with confirmed CBB in 2015 (red

outline). Statistics on cotton planted in the U.S. were acquired from the USDA. CBB was

reported by Extension agents, Extension specialists, and Certified Crop Advisers in their

respective states, and compiled by Tom Allen.

Fig 2: Phylogenetic analysis of *Xcm* isolates and 13 species of *Xanthomonas* A) MLST (Multi

Locus Sequence Typing) analysis of 12 Illumina sequenced *Xcm* isolates (this paper) and 40

other Xanthomonads using concatenated sections of the gltA, lepA, lacF, gyrB, fusA and gap-1

loci. B) SNP based Neighbor-Joining Tree generated from 17853 variable loci between 14 *Xcm*

isolates and the reference genome *Xanthomonas citri* subsp. *citri* strain Aw12879. The tree was

made using the Simple Phylogeny tool from ClustalW2.

Fig 3: Molecular and phenotypic analysis of *Xcm* and *G. hirsutum* interactions. A) Type three

effector profiles of *Xcm* isolates were deduced from de novo, Illumina based genome

assemblies. Effector presence absence was determined based on homology to known type

three effectors using the program Prokka. B) Commercial and public *G. hirsutum* cultivars were

inoculated with 14 *Xcm* isolates. Susceptible (S) indicates water soaking symptoms. Resistant

(R) indicates a visible hypersensitive response. Plants were screened with a range of inoculum

concentration from OD_{600} = 0.001-0.5. C) Disease symptoms on *G. hirsutum* cultivars Stoneville

5288 B2F and DES 56 after inoculation with *Xcm* strain AR81009 (OD_{600} = 0.05). Symptoms are

visualized under visible (VIS) and near infrared (NIR) light. D) The proportion of US fields

planted with susceptible and resistant cultivars of *G. hirsutum* was determined based on

planting acreage statistics from the USDA-AMA and disease phenotypes based on previous

reports for common cultivars [59-61].

Fig 4: SMRT sequencing of two phenotypically and geographically diverse *Xcm* isolates:

MS14003 and AR81009. Circos plot comparing the circular genomes. Tracks are as follows from

inside to outside: synteny of gene models; GC Content; Methylation on + and – strands;

location of type three effectors (teal) and TAL effectors (red). On each side, accompanying

plasmids are cartooned. Type three effector repertoires and the type IV secretion systems were

annotated using Prokka, homologous regions greater than 1kb were identified using MAUVE,

and TAL effectors were annotated using AnnoTALE.

Fig 5: SMRT sequencing and western blot reveal diverse TAL effector repertoires between

***Xcm* strains MS14003 and AR81009.** A) Gene models of TAL-effectors identified by AnnoTALE.

Blue and Green highlighted gene models represent TALs grouped in the same clade by RVD

sequence using AnnoTALE. B) Western Blot of TAL effectors using polyclonal TAL-specific

antibody.

Fig 6: RNA-Sequencing analysis of infected *G. hirsutum* tissue demonstrates transcriptional

changes during CBB. A) Disease phenotypes of *Xcm* strains MS14003 and AR81009 on *G.*

hirsutum cultivars Acala Maxxa and DES 56, 7dpi. B) RNA-Seq Experimental Design: Acala Maxxa

and DES 56 were inoculated with *Xcm* strains MS14003 and AR81009 at an OD of 0.5 and a

mock treatment of 10mM $MgCl_2$. Inoculated leaf tissue was collected at 24 and 48 hpi (before

disease symptoms emerged). C) Venn diagram of upregulated *G. hirsutum* genes (Log2(fold

change in FPKM) ≥ 2 and p value ≤ 0.05) in response to *Xcm* inoculation. Cuffdiff output was

parsed using a custom script and visualized with the VennDiagram package in R.

Table 1: RNA-Seq analysis reveals that 8 homeologous pairs of *G. hirsutum* genes are

upregulated in both Acala Maxxa and DES 56 cultivars 48 hours post inoculation with *Xcm*

strains MS14003 and AR81009 at Log2(fold change in FPKM) ≥ 2 and p value ≤ 0.05).

Homeologous pairs were identified using genic synteny.

Fig 7: Expression of homeologous pairs across the A and D *G. hirsutum* genomes in response

to *Xcm* inoculation. Genes considered up or down regulated meet both differential expression

from mock significance of q-value < 0.05 and the absolute value of the log2 fold change is

greater than 2. A) Acala Maxxa inoculated with MS14003 B) DES 56 inoculated with MS14003 C)

Acala Maxxa inoculated with AR 81009 D) DES 56 inoculated with AR81009.

Fig 8: Three candidate *G. hirsutum* susceptibility genes are targeted by two different *Xcm*

strains. (left) Bioinformatically predicted *Xcm* TAL Effector binding sites on the 300bp promoter

region of four SWEET genes. These were predicted with TALEsf using a quality score cutoff of 4.

(right) Heat-map of Cuffdiff results of significantly upregulated *G. hirsutum* SWEET genes (p ≤

0.05) with a Log2 (fold change in FPKM) ≥ 2, 48 hours after inoculation with *Xcm.*

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Supporting Information

S1 Table: Illumina and SMRT sequenced *Xcm* genomes described in this paper.

S2 Table: *Xanthomonas* genomes previously deposited on NCBI that are referenced in this

paper.

S3 Table: RNA-Seq analysis reveals that 52 genes are induced in all *Xcm-G. hirsutum*

interactions at 48 hours ((p ≤ 0.05) with a Log2 (fold change in FPKM) ≥ 2).

S1 Fig: Maps of CBB incidence in the US from 2011-2012 and 2014-2016. CBB incidence was

reported by farmers, Extension specialists and Certified Crop Advisers in their respective states

for the years 2011-2012 and 2014-2016, and compiled by Tom Allen. CBB reports for 2013 were

infrequent.

S2 Fig: Growth assay of MS14003 and AR81009 on cotton cultivars Acala Maxxa and DES 56.

S3 Fig: Expression levels of significantly upregulated genes with a Log2 fold change of 2 in *G.

hirsutum A) All significantly upregulated genes with a Log2 fold change of 2 B) All significantly

upregulated genes (p ≤ 0.05) with a Log2 (fold change in FPKM) ≥ 2 that are unique to each

cultivar/pathovar disease interaction in *G. hirsutum.*

Acres of Cotton Planted in 2015 by County (thousands)

Chromosome Effector Annotation	Methylation	GC Content	Genes and Homologous Regions
TAL Effector	>80	< 0.45	TAL Effector
T3E	70	0.45	T3E
	60	0.56	Type IV Secretion
	50	0.61	Homologous Region I
	40	0.65	Homologous Region II
	<30	0.67	Homologous Region III
		0.71	Homologous Region IV
		> 0.71	

Expression of Selected SWEET Genes in
Mock and Inoculated Cotton, 48 Hpi

	Mock	MS14003	AR81009	Mock	MS14003	AR81009
A04G0861	11.83	403.75	2.61	10.73	468.54	10.47
D04G1360	1.88	190.09	1.60	0.73	279.72	5.52
A12G1747	117.23	102.12	144.52	92.05	74.32	277.98
D12G1898	93.21	77.79	888.87	69.40	63.66	850.18
	Acala Maxxa			DES 56		

Expression (FPKM)

800
600
400
200

2011

2012

2014

2015

2016

■ Counties with reported CBB incidence

CFU Assay of *Xcm* Infected *G. hirsutum* at OD: 0.05