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1 **Comparative genomics of Minnesotan barley-infecting *Xanthomonas translucens* shows**  
2 **overall genomic similarity but virulence factor diversity**

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31 **Abstract:** *Xanthomonas translucens* pv. translucens (Xtt) is a global barley pathogen and a  
32 concern for resistance breeding and regulation. Long-read whole genome sequences allow in-  
33 depth understanding of pathogen diversity. We have completed long-read PacBio sequencing  
34 of two Minnesotan Xtt strains and an in-depth analysis of available Xtt genomes. We found that  
35 average nucleotide identity(ANI)-based approaches organize Xtt strains differently than the  
36 previously standard MLSA approach. According to ANI, Xtt forms a separate clade from  
37 *Xanthomonas translucens* pv. undulosa and consists of three main groups which are  
38 represented on multiple continents. The global distribution of Xtt groups suggests that  
39 regulation of seed is not important for prevention of Xtt spread. Some virulence factors, such as  
40 17 Type III-secreted effectors, are highly conserved and offer potential targets for the elicitation  
41 of broad resistance. However, there is a high degree of variation in virulence factors meaning  
42 that germplasm should be screened for resistance with a diverse panel of Xtt.

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44 *Xanthomonas translucens* pathovar (pv.) translucens (Xtt) causes bacterial leaf streak,  
45 blight and black chaff of barley (Jones et al. 1917; Bragard et al. 1997; Sapkota et al. 2020). Xtt  
46 foliar infections of barley cause translucent streaks that develop into necrotic lesions. Xtt  
47 exudes out of watersoaked lesions providing an opportunity for short distance dispersal. Foliar  
48 infections are called bacterial leaf streak due to their symptomology and in severe cases are  
49 referred to as bacterial blight. Black chaff is a disease of the grain heads characterized by  
50 darkening of the glumes that is associated with seed transmission of Xtt. Little is known about  
51 the seed infection process, how black chaff develops or if seed infection is the main mechanism  
52 of Xtt dispersal. Xtt is increasingly impactful to cereal growers worldwide with recent

53 widespread reports in the northern United States (Curland et al. 2020), Iran (Habibian et al.  
54 2021) and Canada (Tambong et al. 2021). Though losses in barley due specifically to Xtt have  
55 not been quantified, wheat farmers can experience yield reduction as high as 40% due to  
56 infection with the closely related pathogen *X. translucens* pv. *undulosa* (Xtu) (Forster and  
57 Schaad 1988). There is no available single gene resistance to Xtt in barley breeding programs or  
58 for commercial growers.

59 Xtt is classified in the genomic subgroup Xt-I (Sapkota et al. 2020; Goettelmann et al.  
60 2022), which also includes wheat and barley-infecting Xtu. Xtt was historically divided into three  
61 groups (A, B and C) according to multilocus sequencing analysis (MLSA) of four housekeeping  
62 genes (Curland et al. 2018). Strains from these three groups are present globally (Curland et al.  
63 2018; Roman-Reyna et al. 2020; Shah et al. 2021). It is unknown if average nucleotide identity  
64 (ANI) based on whole genome analyses would confirm the phylogenetic groups proposed by  
65 MLSA. Recent research has also provided insights into virulence factor diversity through draft  
66 and whole genome analysis of some Xtt isolates (Peng et al. 2016; Langlois et al. 2017; Roman-  
67 Reyna et al. 2020; Shah et al. 2021; Jaenicke et al. 2016). These analyses have enabled the  
68 development of diagnostic primers for general *X. translucens* identification (Langlois et al. 2017)  
69 and also strengthened our understanding of virulence factor repertoires from Asian Xtt  
70 (Roman-Reyna et al. 2020; Shah et al. 2021).

71 The only strain from the Western Hemisphere with a publicly available long-read  
72 genome was isolated in 1933 (Jaenicke et al. 2016). The lack of genome resources is a roadblock  
73 for defining North American Xtt virulence factors or immune elicitors for barley resistance  
74 screening. A better definition of North American Xtt genomic composition and virulence factor

75 prevalence will directly inform breeders on the most desirable host factors for conferring  
76 durable resistance to Xtt. This is also important background information for identification  
77 efforts to understand pathogen dispersal and survival and may have implications for regulations  
78 that have been based on isolates from outside of North America.

79 In this study we generated and analyzed high quality, complete genomes of two Xtt  
80 strains: CIX43 and CIX95. We previously characterized both strains as pathogenic on barley and  
81 non-pathogenic on wheat (Curland et al. 2018). CIX43 and CIX95 were isolated from barley in  
82 Minnesota in 2009 and 2011 and are representative of Xtt MLSA groups A and C, respectively.  
83 These strains were previously included in diversity analyses and serve as a reference for strains  
84 currently used in resistance screening programs. Therefore, we characterized these genomes to  
85 enhance diversity analysis and to help define how virulence factors relate to the broad Xtt  
86 population diversity.

87 DNA was extracted with the Genomic DNA Buffer Set and Genomic-tip 100/G (QIAGEN®)  
88 and sequenced, in 2019, with PacBio RSII (P6-C4) and 20kb SMRT bell library (Psomagen,  
89 Rockville, MD). Reads were assembled with Flye version 2.4 (Kolmogorov et al. 2019) and  
90 genome assemblies were annotated with the National Center for Biotechnology Information  
91 (NCBI) Prokaryotic Genome Annotation Pipeline (Tatusova et al. 2016) and are publicly available  
92 (Table 1). GC content was calculated using the Rapid Annotation of microbial genomes using  
93 Subsystems Technology (Overbeek et al. 2014).

94 The CIX43 genome is 4,700,914 base pairs and has a total of 3,990 coding sequences  
95 (CDS). It contains two circular contigs of 4,664,501 bp and 36,413 bp with mean coverages of  
96 141X and 53X, respectively. This translates to an  $N_{50}$  of 4,664,501 and  $L_{50}$  of 1. The second

97 contig is a plasmid based on the results from Blastn search against the NCBI nucleotide  
98 collection database (Zhang et al. 2000). The results indicate the plasmid has 81% coverage and  
99 85.92% identity to a *X. campestris* pv. *campestris* plasmid. No significant homology to *X.*  
100 *translucens* genomes were found in the same search. The CIX95 genome has 4,647,206 base  
101 pairs in a single contig with a mean coverage of 173X and 3,926 total CDS, for an  $N_{50}$  of  
102 4,647,206 and  $L_{50}$  of 1. Both strains have a GC content of 67.8% and their average nucleotide  
103 identity (ANI) is 99.24% (Table S1).

104         The geographic distribution of Xtt populations remains unclear. Xtt has been isolated  
105 from all continents except Antarctica (Sapkota et al. 2020), but it remains uncertain if this  
106 distribution is from seed or an unknown environmental source. Phylogenomics provides a  
107 method to capture Xtt genetic diversity and characterize Xtt subgroups to begin to infer  
108 inoculum sources. To define the genomic relationships among CIX43, CIX95 and 11 additional  
109 Xtt genomes (Table 1), ANI and life identification numbers (LINs) were calculated with the  
110 webtools Enveomics and LINbase, respectively (Rodriguez-R and Konstantinidis 2016; Tian et al.  
111 2020). Xtu LW16 and *X. translucens* pv. *cerealis* (Xtc) CFBP 2541 were used as outgroups (Pesce  
112 et al. 2015).

113         The Enveomics ANI and LINbase LIN analyses demonstrate that there are three major  
114 Xtt groups, which are internationally dispersed and distinct from Xtu and Xtc (Fig. 1). CIX43 and  
115 CIX95 are in the same phylogenetic cluster and LINgroup. Xtt strains have a high degree of  
116 homology as they share at minimum 98.88% ANI (Table S1). Analyzed Xtt strains have between  
117 97.56% and 97.79% ANI to Xtu LW16 and between 94.89% and 95.07% ANI to Xtc strain CFBP  
118 2541 (Table S1). We further validated this approach by providing LINs for each of the analyzed

119 strains. According to their LINs, Xtt strains form a separate LINgroup  
120 (15<sub>A</sub>, 1<sub>B</sub>, 1<sub>C</sub>, 0<sub>D</sub>, 0<sub>E</sub>, 0<sub>F</sub>, 1<sub>G</sub>, 0<sub>H</sub>, 0<sub>I</sub>, 0<sub>J</sub>) from Xtu and Xtc are best divided into three LIN subgroups with a  
121 minimum of 99% ANI within each: 1(Xtt:1<sub>K</sub>), 2(Xtt:0<sub>K</sub>), 3(Xtt:2<sub>K</sub>) (Fig. 1). Strains from different  
122 years and locations intermixed, which argues against seed dissemination by these pathogens.

123 Traditional diversity analysis for *Xanthomonas* pathogens like Xtt was MLSA (Young et al.  
124 2008; Curland et al. 2018). Our ANI analyses, however, are not in agreement with the previous  
125 MLSA groupings (Fig. S1). Briefly, for MLSA, the sequences of four housekeeping genes *rpoD*,  
126 *dnaK*, *fyuA* and *gyrB* were concatenated according to Curland et al. (2018). The webtool  
127 NGPhylogeny was used to align the concatenated sequences with MAFFT, curate them with  
128 Gblocks and infer a tree with MrBayes (Lemoine et al. 2019). A tree with the studied Xtt strains  
129 and those from Curland et al. (2018) was created (Fig. S1) along with a tree only including  
130 studied strains for comparison to ANI-based analyses (Fig. S2). In agreement with previous  
131 work, the MLSA trees divided Xtt into 3 groups, one of which also contained the Xtu strain  
132 LW16 (Fig. S1, S2). Previous genomic studies had shown that Xtu was phylogenetically distinct  
133 based on whole genome analysis (Peng et al. 2016) or MLSA with 12 housekeeping genes  
134 (Langlois et al. 2017), suggesting that MLSA did not appropriately capture genetic diversity.  
135 Overall, our whole genome sequencing approach agrees with this finding because we find a  
136 phylogenetic separation between Xtt and Xtu and phylogenetic relationships between Xtt  
137 strains that do not match MLSA analysis. Therefore, four gene MLSA is not an appropriate  
138 method to define genetic classifications for Xtt.

139 *Xanthomonas* phytopathogens deploy a wide range of virulence factors, including  
140 secreted effectors, during pathogenesis (Timilsina et al. 2020). These effectors support

141 pathogen nutrient acquisition and evasion of host defenses, but their recognition by a host  
142 plant can also trigger resistance to xanthomonads (Schornack et al. 2006; Lolle et al. 2020;  
143 Thomas et al. 2020). Carbohydrate active enzymes (CAZymes) are vital for plant-associated  
144 microbes to gain energy from the plant environment in which carbohydrate photosynthetic  
145 products are the main carbon source (Zhang et al. 2018). Some of these CAZymes are secreted  
146 and their identification can provide information about how a bacterium behaves and gains  
147 energy from its host. For example, one Type II secreted CAZyme, CbsA, functions as a key  
148 genetic determinant for tissue-specific adaptation between Xtt and Xtu (Gluck-Thaler et al.  
149 2020). Because of the link between the presence of this gene and a pathovar-specific  
150 phenotype, we are now developing a subgroup-specific diagnostic.

151 Type III-secreted effectors (T3SEs) are directly injected into and manipulate host cells,  
152 often contributing to virulence (Rossier et al. 1999). One type of T3SE are transcription activator  
153 like effectors (TALEs). TALEs directly interact with specific host DNA sequences, with repetitive  
154 amino acid sequences that differ only in pairs of amino acids called repeat variable diresidues  
155 (RVDs) and promote transcription of downstream genes (Boch and Bonas 2010). This host  
156 manipulation frequently makes them major virulence factors in *Xanthomonas* pathogenesis  
157 (Perez-Quintero and Szurek 2019). For example, Xtu TALEs have a significant role in virulence on  
158 wheat. Little is known about the function of Xtt TALEs, although Xtt strains have approximately  
159 5-8 TALEs according to southern blotting analysis of Iranian *X. translucens* (Khojasteh et al.  
160 2020) and published genome sequences (Roman-Reyna et al. 2020; Shah et al. 2021). Our  
161 understanding of TALEs and their composition is limited despite increasing availability of

162 *Xanthomonas* genomes, because long read sequencing is necessary to correctly describe and  
163 map highly repetitive TALEs in *Xanthomonas* genomes (Peng et al. 2016).

164 We predicted secreted proteins with SignalP 5.0 (Almagro Armenteros et al. 2019).  
165 Putative CAZymes were identified with dbCAN2 using the HMMER, DIAMOND and Hotpep  
166 algorithms (Zhang et al. 2018). T3SEs were identified using the BLAST 2.8.1+ blastx algorithm  
167 (Zhang et al. 2000) with studied genomes as queries and a database of known *Xanthomonas*  
168 T3SEs (xanthomonas.org), excluding TALEs which were analyzed separately (below). The BLAST  
169 results were filtered to include only hits with a coverage of over 200 amino acids and a percent  
170 amino acid identity of 60% or greater. TALEs in the eight studied genomes were identified and  
171 classified with AnnoTALE version 1.5 (Grau et al. 2016). FuncTAL version 1.1 in the QueTAL suite  
172 (Pérez-Quintero et al. 2015) was used to analyze the differences in TALE RVD patterns.

173 Though Xtt strains show a high degree of homology at the whole genome level, we  
174 hypothesized that their virulence factor complements would be variable in response to varying  
175 evolutionary pressures. To test this hypothesis, we identified and compared virulence factors in  
176 long-read genomes. All eight genomes each encoded more than 700 proteins with a predicted  
177 signal peptide (Table 1). Putative CAZymes were numerous and diverse, ranging in number from  
178 112-117 per strain and representing a mix of glucoside hydrolases, glycosyltransferases,  
179 polysaccharide lyases and carbohydrate esterases (Table S2). This diversity likely underpins the  
180 ability of Xtt strains to exploit the complex carbohydrate environment of a host barley plant.

181 There are examples of highly conserved T3SEs. All studied strains possess copies of 15  
182 putative T3SEs, suggesting that these proteins have conserved roles in Xtt pathogenesis (Fig. 2;  
183 Table S3). TALE distribution is more complex in comparison to the high conservation of other



184 T3SEs in Xtt. Several TALEs are highly conserved according to their RVD patterns. For example,  
185 every tested strain possesses a TalCT and TalCV effector with identical RVD patterns (Fig. 3;  
186 Table S4). Eight TALEs were present in at least one Iranian and U.S. strain (Fig. 2). Despite the  
187 geographic separation and use of different barley varieties (Izadi et al. 2014; Mortazavian et al.  
188 2014; Zhou et al. 2020), the identical RVD patterns in some TALEs suggests conserved roles in  
189 host manipulation (Fig. 3). Such conserved effectors, if they are critical for pathogenesis, are  
190 ideal elicitors to discover for broad-spectrum resistance in barley.

191 In contrast, there is large variability in the repertoire of TALEs that a particular strain  
192 possesses. According to their RVD patterns, 10 TALE classes identified in our analysis are  
193 present in multiple strains while six are unique to a single strain (Fig. 2; Fig. 3). These included  
194 two distinct TALEs in CIX95 in the classes TalJQ and TalJR. DSM 18974, XtKm7 and XtKm8 also  
195 include at least one TALE that does not match any others in the tested strains. The high  
196 diversity of TALE repertoires presents a challenge for breeders who attempt to characterize  
197 barley resistance against a limited panel of Xtt strains that may not represent the virulence  
198 capabilities of a field population.

199 In conclusion, we determined that globally, *X. translucens* pv. *translucens* strains,  
200 including CIX43 and CIX95, are highly genetically similar with three groups present in both Asia  
201 and North America. The *X. translucens* pv. *translucens* strains CIX43 and CIX95 are within the  
202 same subgroup and therefore more closely related than was previously suggested by MLSA.  
203 There are virulence factors that are highly conserved at the local and global levels, such as the  
204 TalCT and TalCV TALEs and 15 other T3SEs. Although their importance in virulence remains to  
205 be investigated, these effectors are potential targets for durable and broad resistance. On the

206 other hand, there are diverse virulence factors at the population level, especially TALEs, such  
207 that resistance to one strain of *X. translucens* pv. *translucens* likely does not guarantee  
208 resistance to others. Based on the distinct virulence factor profiles observed in our small panel,  
209 multiple distinct strains should be included when completing host resistance phenotyping to  
210 increase the chances that discoveries are relevant to the field population.

211 Genetic resistance to bacterial leaf streak is lacking in elite malting barley varieties and  
212 has not been characterized for reaction to *X. translucens*. To develop representative  
213 phenotyping tests to screen germplasm, it is important to understand the diversity of the causal  
214 agent. The genomes of *X. translucens* pv. *translucens* strains CIX43 and CIX95 advance our  
215 knowledge about the *X. translucens* pv. *translucens* population in the Americas and are a  
216 resource relevant to control measures and barley breeding for cultivation. Representatives  
217 from all the Xtt LINGroups are already globally dispersed. Therefore, international regulation of  
218 seed is unlikely crucial for the control of pathogen spread.

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226 Association to JMJ; and an Environmental Fellowship from The Ohio State University College of  
227 Food, Agriculture and Environmental Science to NH.

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233 **Table Legend**

234 Table 1. *Xanthomonas translucens* genomes analyzed in this study.

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246 **Figure Legends**

247 Figure 1. Xtt strains are separate from Xtu and form three distinct phylogenetic groups

248 according to ANI. Whole genome ANI was calculated for all publicly available *X. translucens* pv.

249 Translucens strains and the outgroup strains LW16 and CFBP 2541. A tree was generated with

250 the webtool Enveomics using the UPGMA clustering method (Rodriguez-R and Konstantinidis  
251 2016). Life identification numbers were calculated with LINbase (Tian et al. 2020). Boxes outline  
252 the LIN values which separate the subgroups.

253

254 Figure 2. Xtt TALEs are diverse but other T3Ses are conserved. Putative T3Ses for eight long-  
255 read *X. translucens* pv. *Translucens* genome assemblies were identified with a local Blastx  
256 against a database of known *Xanthomonas* effectors. Blue colored boxes represent the  
257 presence of a putative effector with shading representing the number of copies present. TALEs  
258 were identified and classified according to AnnoTALE (Grau et al. 2016) and their names begin  
259 with “Tal”. Whole genome ANI was calculated displayed strains and a tree was generated with  
260 the webtool Enveomics using the UPGMA clustering method (Rodriguez-R and Konstantinidis  
261 2016).

262

263 Figure 3. CIX95 has multiple unique TALEs. The colored names represent TALEs from the strains  
264 CIX43 (blue) and CIX95 (gold), sequenced in this study. The output was created with FuncTAL  
265 from the QueTAL suite of tools (Pérez-Quintero et al. 2015), using RVDs determined by  
266 AnnoTALE (Grau et al. 2016).

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372 Table 1. *Xanthomonas translucens* genomes\* analyzed in this study.

Strain – Accession	Publication	Year Isolated	Country	Genome size	Contigs	ANI	Secreted Proteins
CIX43 – CP072988;CP072989	This study	2009	USA	4.70	2	99.55	752
CIX95 – CP072990	This study	2011	USA	4.65	1	99.26	731
UPB886 – GCA_009600865.1	Roman-Reyna et al. 2020	1990	Iran	4.67	2	98.94	702
DSM 18974 - LT604072	Jaenicke et al. 2016	1933	USA	4.72	1	100.00	761
XtKm7 - CP064005	Shah et al. 2021	2014	Iran	4.58	1	99.52	710
XtKm8 - CP064004	Shah et al. 2021	2014	Iran	4.79	1	99.10	751
XtKm9 - CP064003	Shah et al. 2021	2015	Iran	4.69	1	98.92	709
XtKm34 - CP064001	Shah et al. 2021	2015	Iran	4.68	1	99.11	731
B2 - GCA_001542205.1	Peng et al. 2016	2013	USA	4.54	517	99.00	
UPB787 - GCA_001469515.1	Bragard et al. 1997	1990	Paraguay	4.54	763	98.97	
XT8 - GCA_001462125.1	Peng et al. 2016	1942	Canada	5.71	156	98.98	
UPB458 - GCA_001659915.1	Bragard et al. 1997	1970	India	4.52	1,156	99.00	
B1 - LNTA00000000.1	Peng et al. 2016	2013	USA	4.80	523	99.09	
LW16 - GCA_001462075.1	Peng et al. 2016	2009	USA	4.69	475	97.61	
CFBP 2541 - CP074364	Pesce et al. 2015	1941	USA	4.50	1	94.94	

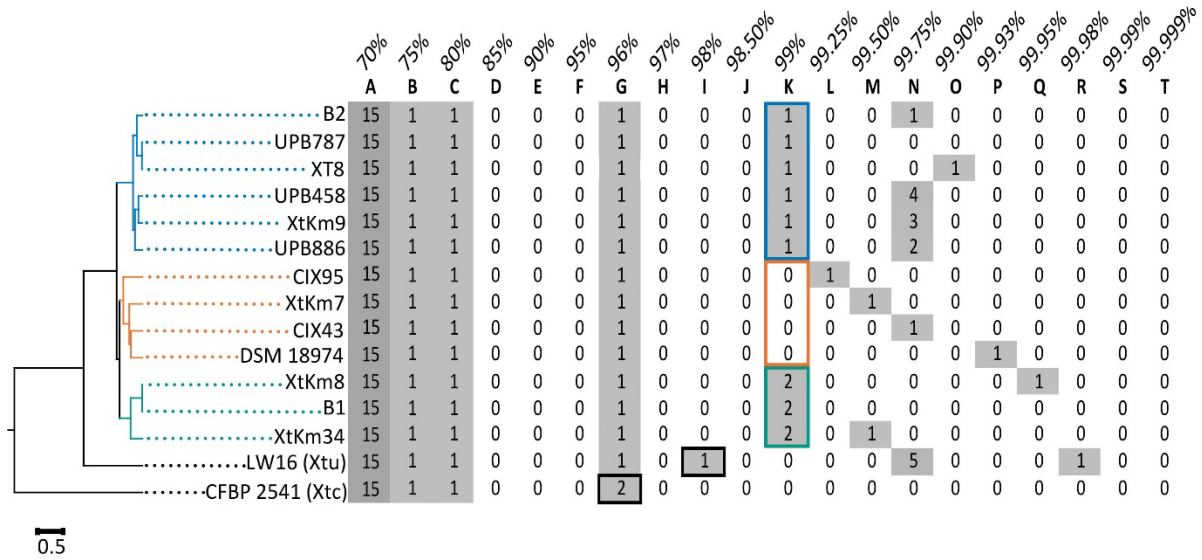
373 \*Genome summary and predicted secreted proteins of *X. translucens* pathovar *translucens*.

374 Genome size and CDS data were determined with PGAP analysis (Tatusova et al. 2016) for

375 strains CIX43 and CIX95 and publicly available information from NCBI was used for other strains.

376 ANI is relative to type *X. translucens* pv. *translucens* strain DSM 18974, determined by

377 Enveomics (Rodriguez-R and Konstantinidis 2016).



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380 Figure 1. Xtt strains are separate from Xtu and form three distinct phylogenetic groups

381 according to ANI. Whole genome ANI was calculated for all publicly available *X. translucens* pv.

382 *translucens* strains and the outgroup strains LW16 and CFBP 2541. A tree was generated with

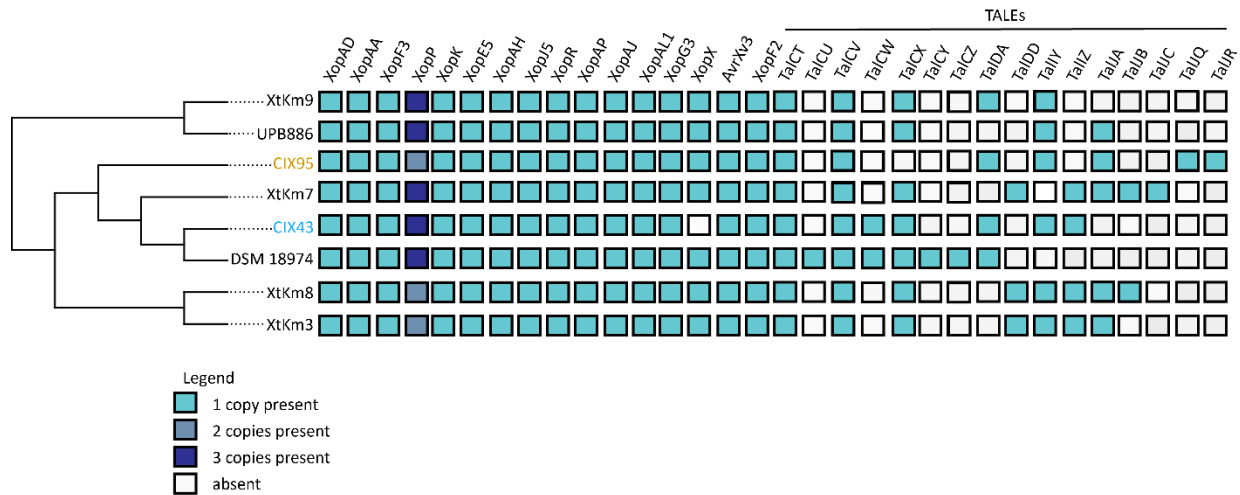
383 the webtool Enveomics using the UPGMA clustering method (Rodriguez-R and Konstantinidis

384 2016). Life identification numbers were calculated with LINbase (Tian et al. 2020). Boxes outline

385 the LIN values which separate the subgroups.

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389 Figure 2. Xtt TALEs are diverse but other T3SEs are conserved. Putative T3SEs for eight long-  
 390 read *X. translucens pv. translucens* genome assemblies were identified with a local Blastx  
 391 against a database of known *Xanthomonas* effectors. Blue colored boxes represent the  
 392 presence of a putative effector with shading representing the number of copies present. TALEs  
 393 were identified and classified according to AnnoTALE (Grau et al. 2016) and their names begin  
 394 with “Tal”. Whole genome ANI was calculated displayed strains and a tree was generated with  
 395 the webtool Enveomics using the UPGMA clustering method (Rodriguez-R and Konstantinidis  
 396 2016).

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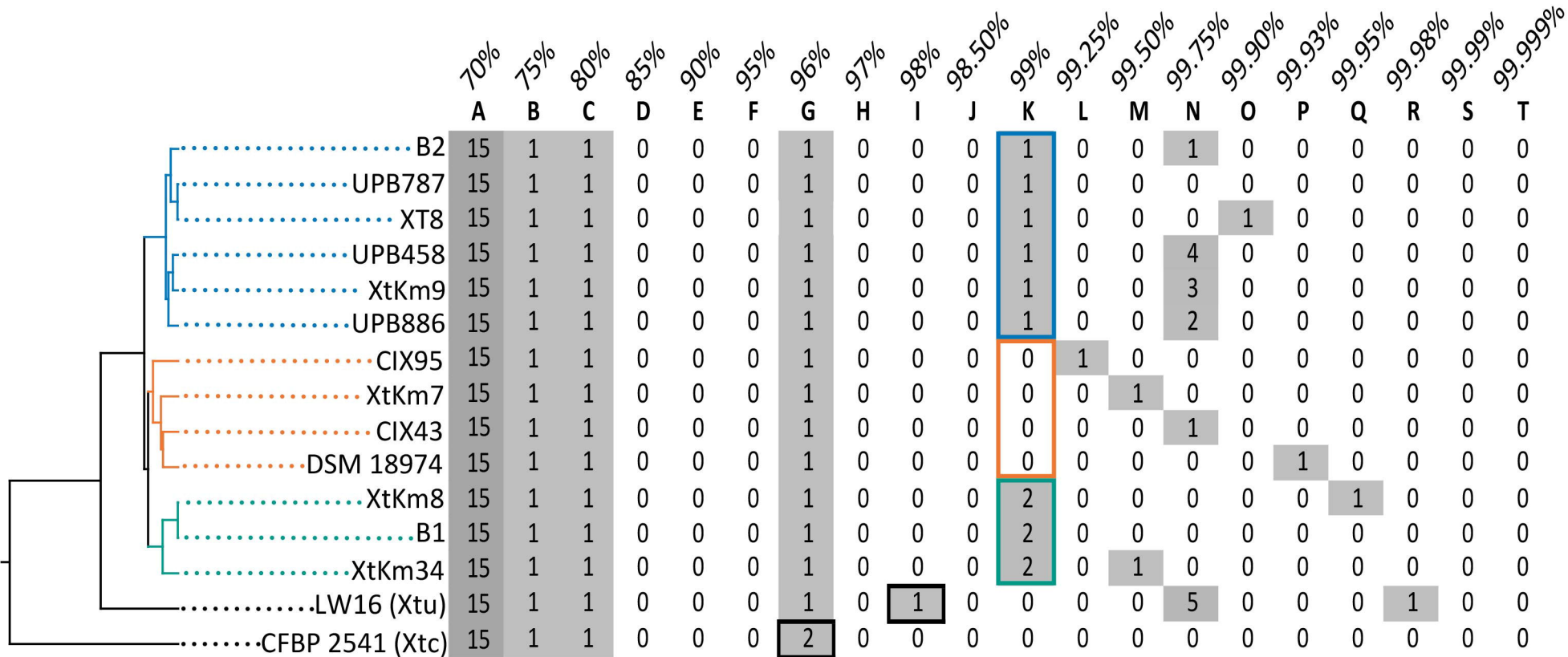
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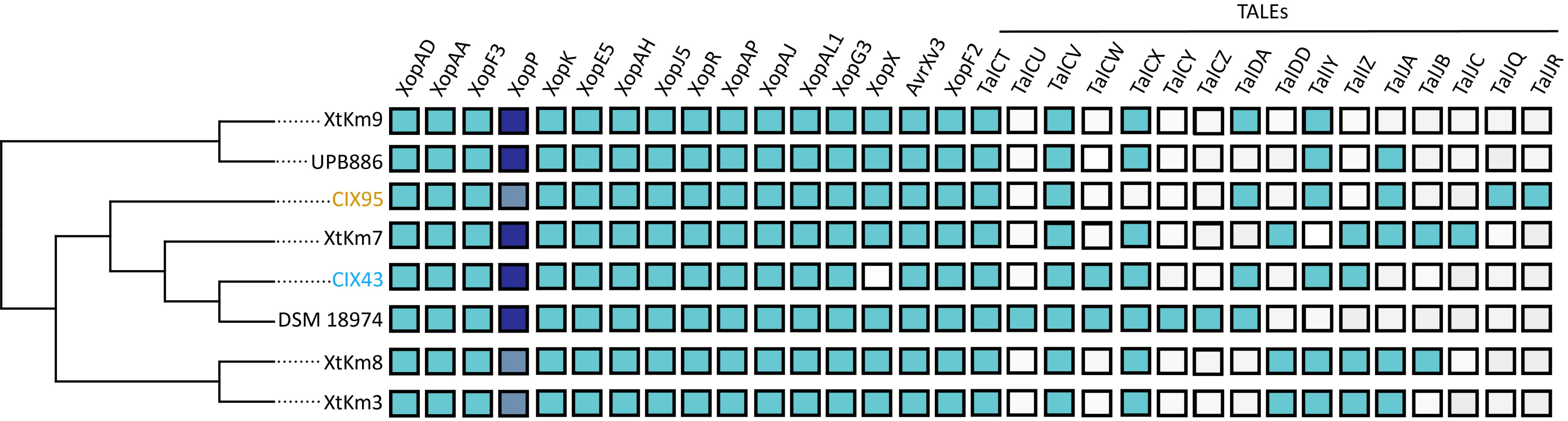
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TALEs

