Biofilm forming capabilities and protein secretion systems distinguish ecologically diverse lineages of *Xanthomonas* from rice

Kanika Bansal[1], Samriti Midha[1,$], Sanjeet Kumar[1,#], Amandeep Kaur[1], Ramesh V. Sonti[2], Prabhu B. Patil[*]

[1]Bacterial Genomics and Evolution Laboratory, CSIR-Institute of Microbial Technology, Chandigarh, India.

[2]CSIR- Centre for Cellular and Molecular Biology, Hyderabad and DBT- National Institute of Plant Genome Research, New Delhi.

[$]Present address: Institute of Infection and Global Health, University of Liverpool, UK.

[#]Present address: Department of Archaeogenetics, Max Planck Institute for the Science of Human History, Jena, Germany.

[*] Corresponding author

Running title:

Ecological and evolutionary genomics of rice associated *Xanthomonas*

Address correspondence to Prabhu B. Patil, pbpatil@imtech.res.in

Abstract

Xanthomonas oryzae is a bacterial pathogen that causes a serious disease of rice (RPX: rice pathogenic *Xanthomonas*). However, there are several reports of *Xanthomonas* strains from healthy rice tissues that are reported to be not pathogenic (NPX: non-pathogenic *Xanthomonas*). In the present study we report additional NPX strains and a detailed genomic investigation of ecologically and geographically diverse *Xanthomonas* isolates from rice plant. Phylogenomic analysis revealed two major lineages corresponding to NPX and RPX species. Interestingly, one of the NPX strain is intermediary to both the lineages suggesting on-going diversification and selection. Genealogical analysis indicated that impact of recombination is more for NPX as compared to RPX which is further supported by exclusive presence of a type IV secretion system (T4SS) in the major lineage of NPX. Pangenome analysis revealed large number of lifestyle specific genes with atypical GC content indicating role of horizontal gene transfer in genome diversification. Acquisition of type III secretion system and its effectome along with a type VI secretion system also seem to have played a major role in the pathogenic lineage. Interestingly, known virulence genes encoding cellobiohydrolase and non-fimbrial adhesin *yapH* are exclusive to pathogenic lineage. Higher biofilm forming capability of the strains from pathogenic lineage also clearly distinguishes them from non-pathogenic lineage. The commonality of loci encoding exopolysacharide, *rpf* signalling molecule, iron uptake, xanthomonadin pigment, etc. suggests their essentiality in adaptation to rice plant. Overall our study has uncovered a distinct evolutionary history of pathogenic and non-pathogenic *Xanthomonas* species associated with rice plant.

Keywords: Non-pathogenic, evolution, type secretion systems, biofilm, virulence-related gene clusters, ecology, *Xanthomonas*.

Importance

Two bacterial pathogens belonging to the genus *Xanthomonas* cause foliar diseases of rice. Although there are reports of rice-associated non-pathogenic *Xanthomonas*, so far these counterparts of the pathogen have not drawn much attention. Our detailed and comprehensive genomic investigation has revealed systematic evolutionary diversification corresponding to diverse lifestyles in *Xanthomonas* strains associated with rice. Our study has also revealed genetic features that can be associated with the adaptation of *Xanthomonas* lineages with two diverse life-styles on the rice plant. In particular distinct set protein secretion systems along with their effectome have played critical role in emergence as a successful pathogen of rice from its non-pathogenic counterparts. Interestingly functions required for attachment the host plant and also formation of biofilm seems to have led to emergence of pathogenic species. This knowledge will open up new avenue for better management of pathogenic strains for sustainable cultivation of a major staple food crop.

Introduction

Xanthomonas is a complex group of bacteria that is primarily known for its pathogenic lifestyle causing infection in 125 monocots and 268 dicots (Leyns, De Cleene et al. 1984, Hayward 1993, Vauterin, Yang et al. 1996, Chan and Goodwin 1999) with remarkable host and tissue specificities. Among the 33 species of *Xanthomonas* (Parte 2018), *Xanthomonas oryzae* is solely known to be associated with rice pathogenicity which has further two pathovars on the basis of rice plant tissue infected by them as *X. oryzae* pv. *oryzae* and *X. oryzae* pv. *oryzicola*, infecting vascular and parenchyma tissues, respectively (NIÑO-LIU, Ronald et al. 2006). However, there are some reports of other *Xanthomonas* strains found to be associated with healthy rice seeds (Vauterin, Yang et al. 1996, Fang, Lin et al. 2015, Triplett, Verdier et al. 2015). Rice pathogenic *Xanthomonas* (RPX) are widely studied, however, their non-pathogenic counterparts (NPX) isolated from healthy plants are vastly overlooked. These non-pathogenic bacterial populations may be coevolving with the plant and their systematic study might give insights into the evolution of pathogenic counterparts. With the advent of the genomics era and renewed interest in bacterial ecology and evolution, non-pathogenic bacterial strains are now coming in the limelight.

Extensive research is underway to identify the genetic features fundamentally required for pathogenicity and virulence potential of *Xanthomonas*. This work has aided in the identification of virulence genes and pathogenesis-related clusters (Van Sluys, Monteiro-Vitorello et al. 2002, Toth, Pritchard et al. 2006). Protein secretion is a fundamental determining feature for pathogenic or symbiotic interactions as well as for inter-bacterial competition. There are six types of bacterial secretion systems reported till now, out of which five are present in pathogenic *Xanthomonas oryzae* strains (Ray, Rajeshwari et al. 2002, Büttner and Bonas 2010, Souza, Andrade et al. 2011, Pruitt, Schwessinger et al. 2015). *Xanthomonas* sp. undergoes different stages in the infection process such as colonizing leaf surfaces as epiphytes, invasion of the host, etc. On the other hand, the host plant has immune receptors for monitoring their extracellular and intracellular environment for the presence of bacteria. The *rax* gene cluster encodes a T1SS and a secreted sulphated peptide called RaxX which is recognized by rice receptor kinase XA21(Pruitt, Schwessinger et al. 2015). The ability to adhere to the host surface is important for successful infection. Among non-fimbrial adhesins, *xadA, xadB* help in attachment to the leaf surface and *yapH* aids in colonization of bacteria in xylem vessels (Das, Rangaraj et al. 2009). Amongst the fimbrial adhesins, the type IV pilus also reported to help in attachment to the host(Juhas, Crook et al. 2008). *In planta* experiments indicate that *xadA, xadB* and *yapH* mutants show deficiency in the initial stages of infection, namely leaf attachment and entry (Das, Rangaraj et al. 2009).

Xanthomonas strains are known to have two representative T2SS gene clusters *xps* and *xcs*. Out of these, *X. oryzae* pv. oryzae and *X. oryzae* pv. oryzicola are equipped with one (*xps*) and *X. campestris* pv. campestris, *X. axonopodis* pv. citri have both the systems (Szczesny, Jordan et al. 2010). *Xanthomonas oryzae* uses the *xps* system for secreting hydrolytic enzymes to degrade rice cell walls, a process that appears to be crucial for pathogenesis (Jha et al., 2007). Further, the T3SS is one of the key pathogenicity factors in gram-negative bacterial pathogens and is used to inject effectors into the host plant (Ghosh 2004). Another secretion system known as the T4SS is involved in transporting effectors and nucleoprotein complexes to the extracellular milieu or directly into the cytoplasm of other cells (Juhas, Crook et al. 2008). The T4SS is known to be involved in horizontal gene transfer, thus contributing to the genome plasticity and evolution of the bacteria. T4SS is found to be absent among *X. oryzae* strains, though it is present in *X. albelineans, X. citri, X. campestris* and *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* (Souza, Andrade et al. 2011).T6SS is a recently discovered secretion system described in human pathogens *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Vibrio cholera* (Mougous, Cuff et al. 2006, Pukatzki, Ma et al. 2006). T6SS proteins are structurally and evolutionary related to phage proteins and contribute towards virulence,

symbiosis, inter-bacterial interactions etc. (Sarris, Skandalis et al. 2010, Schwarz, West et al.
2010, Bernal, Llamas et al. 2018).

In response to ambient conditions, bacteria have evolved regulatory systems to regulate
expression of pathogenicity related genes. Availability of nutrients, population density,
oxygen levels etc. are some of the factors influencing bacterial growth and colonization. The
rpf gene cluster is involved in synthesis, detection and signal transduction of diffusible signal
factor (DSF) (Tang, Liu et al. 1991). In pathogenic *Xanthomonas* strains the DSF is widely
known to regulate pathogenicity (Barber, Tang et al. 1997, Wang, He et al. 2004, He, Zhang
et al. 2007, Ryan, Fouhy et al. 2007, He and Zhang 2008). External signals are often
recognized and transduced via two-component signal transduction systems (Qian, Han et al.
2008). There are > 50 predicted two component systems in *Xanthomonas* but, RavA/RavR,
RpfC/RpfG, RaxH/RaxR, ColR/ColS and response regulator HrpG are known to contribute to
the virulence (Büttner and Bonas 2010). HrpG perceives environmental signals via an
unknown sensor kinase (Wengelnik, Marie et al. 1996, Wengelnik, Van den Ackerveken et
al. 1996, Wengelnik, Rossier et al. 1999). However, its expression is controlled by PhoPQ, a
two component system and member of GntR regulatory family (Tsuge, Nakayama et al.
2006, Lee, Jeong et al. 2008, Feng, Song et al. 2009). Further, *hrpG* activates *hrpX*, a
regulatory gene which further induces HrpG-induced genes (Wengelnik and Bonas 1996,
Tsuge, Terashima et al. 2005, Koebnik, Krüger et al. 2006).

Iron uptake is always one of the limiting factors in bacterial growth and is shown to affect
virulence in case of animal and plant pathogenic bacteria (Cody and Gross 1987, Meyer,
Neely et al. 1996, Bearden, Fetherston et al. 1997, Franza, Mahé et al. 2005, Lawlor,
O'Connor et al. 2007). Bacteria encode multiple iron uptake pathways whereas, in iron-
limiting conditions, bacteria secrete siderophores (low-molecular weight iron chelators),
facilitating ferric ion acquisition. Iron regulated *xssABCDE* (*Xanthomonas* siderophore
synthesis) and *xsuA* (*Xanthomonas* siderophore utilization) genes encode proteins involved in
biosynthesis and utilization of *X. oryzae* vibrioferrine-type siderophore (Pandey and Sonti
2010). In addition to ferric ions, ferrous iron uptake is carried out via *feo* (ferrous iron
transporter) system. Further, the *fur* (ferric uptake regulator) gene product is shown to have a
regulatory role in siderophore production (Subramoni, Pandey et al. 2012). Genome-wide
expression and genetic and functional studies of *xibR* (*Xanthomonas* iron binding regulator)
mutant have revealed that it regulates iron homeostasis in response to changing iron
availability in environment (Pandey, Patnana et al. 2016). Further, all species of
Xanthomonas are widely known to produce copious amounts of extracellular polysaccharide

(EPS) that is known as xanthan gum. In *Xanthomonas* the EPS is encoded by a 16kb *gum* gene cluster, whose mutants have been largely studied for effects on xanthan gum biosynthesis and virulence (Chou, Chou et al. 1997, Katzen, Ferreiro et al. 1998, Dharmapuri and Sonti 1999). Xanthomonadin is a yellow, membrane-bound halogenated, aryl-polyene pigment that is characteristic to *Xanthomonas* group of bacteria (Stephens and Starr 1963, Goel, Rajagopal et al. 2002). This pigment is encoded by the *pig* cluster and provides protection against photooxidative damage (Goel, Rajagopal et al. 2001, Cao, Wang et al. 2018).

A comprehensive genomic investigation of pathogenic *Xanthomonas* with non-pathogenic *Xanthomonas* strains from the same host can help in identifying the functions acquired, lost or modified during adaptation to a particular lifestyle by a bacterial strain. As the genome of a successful pathogen is shaped by genetic, ecological and evolutionary factors, this comparative study may give a clearer picture of the evolution of bacterial pathogenesis on rice in particular and plants in general. Such a study can also help in developing newer methods of disease control and putative genomic markers for proper diagnosis/identification.

Methods

Isolation of rice associated *Xanthomonas*

Healthy rice seeds of basmati variety (Pusa basmati 1121) were collected from farmer's field in Fazilka, Punjab, India. For bacterial isolation, 5g of seeds were partially crushed (almost 80%) in 0.85 % NaCl (normal saline) using sterile mortar and pestle. This heterogeneous mixture was then suspended in 50 ml of the solution (10%; cottyn et al, 2001). Solution was then incubated for 2hrs at 28°C and serial dilutions up to 10^{-6} were plated on Nutrient Agar (NA), Peptone Sucrose Agar (PSA) and Glucose Yeast extract Calcium carbonate Agar (GYCA). Plates were incubated at 28°C upto 6 days. Bacterial colonies were screened for *Xanthomonas* strains based on 16SrRNA sequences. After isolation, cultures were grown and maintained on PSA medium.

In planta pathogenicity tests

5ml of cultures grown upto 0.8 OD were pellet down and dissolved in phosphate buffer saline (PBS). These were used to inoculate 30 days old plants of Pusa basmati 1121. Inoculations were done by cutting edges of leaves with culture dipped scissors.

Genome sequencing, assembly and annotation

Genomic DNA extraction was carried out using ZR Fungal/Bacterial DNA MiniPrep kit
(Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA). Qualitative assessment of DNA was performed using
NanoDrop 1000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA) and agarose gel
electrophoresis. Quantitative test was performed using Qubit 2.0 fluorometer (Life
Technologies). Nextera XT sample preparation kits (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA)
were used to prepare Illumina paired-end sequencing libraries (250 x 2 read length) with dual
indexing adapters. In-house sequencing of the Illumina libraries was carried out on Illumina
MiSeq platform (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). Adapter trimming was performed
automatically by MiSeq control software (MCS), and remaining adapters were detected by
NCBI server and was removed by manual trimming. Sequencing reads were *de novo*
assembled into high quality draft genome on CLC Genomics Workbench v7.5 (CLC bio,
Aarhus, Denmark) using default settings. Genome annotation was performed by NCBI PGAP
pipeline (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/annotation_prok).

Phylogenomic and taxonogenomic analysis

Phylogenomic analysis based on more than 400 putative conserved genes was constructed
using PhyloPhlAn (Segata, Börnigen et al. 2013) from whole genome proteome data.
Ortholog searching, multiple sequence alignment and phylogenetic construction were done
using Usearch v5.2.32 (Edgar 2010), MUSCLE v3.8.31 (Edgar 2004) and FastTree v2.1
(Price, Dehal et al. 2009) respectively. All strains under study were used as an input to
PhyloPhlAn. *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* was used as an outgroup. Taxonogenomic
analysis of all the strains carried out using OrthoANI values calculated by using USEARCH
(Edgar 2010) for taxonomic status of bacterial species.

Virulence related gene clusters

223 Various genes clusters related to virulence (supplementary table 1) examined in the present
224 study were retrieved from NCBI. The tBLASTn searches were performed using retrieved
225 sequences as query. Cut-off for similarity was set to be 40% and coverage was 50%. Cluster
226 figures were generated using Easyfig v2.2.2(Sullivan, Petty et al. 2011)and heat maps for the
227 blast results were generated using GENE-Ev3.0.215 (https://www.broadinstitute.org/).

Lineage-wise gene content analysis

Lineage-wise core genes were fetched from gene profiling done by roary pan genome
pipeline (Page, Cummins et al. 2015). Since, strains we were dealing with were from three

different species (*X. oryzae, X. maliensis* and *Xanthomonas* sp.), pan genome analysis was
performed using identity cut-off of 60%. Further, GC content of genes were calculated and
genes with atypical GC content were identified (GC content not in range of 64.5 +-2%).
Functional analysis of the lineage specific core genes was performed using EggNOG,
PROKKA and GenBank annotation was also considered.

Biofilm assay

Cultures were grown in NB (Nutrient broth) media at 28°C at 180 rpm until OD at 600nm
reaches 0.5. Cultures were then diluted 1:10 with NB media containing 2% glucose. Then,
1ml of diluted culture was dispensed into borosilicate glass tubes. Test tubes were then
incubated at 28°C for 7 days. After 7 days, media was discarded and non-adherent cells were
removed by washing three times with sterile water. Quantification of biofilm formation was
assessed by crystal violet (CV) staining. Briefly, biofilms were fixed at 60°C for 20 min, and
stained with 1.5ml of 0.1% CV for 45 min. The dye was discarded, and the plate was rinsed
in standing sterile water and then allowed to dry for 30 min at RT. Stained biofilms were
dissolved in 1.5ml of ethanol: acetone (80:20) and finally OD was read at 595nm using
spectrophotometer.

Recombination and mutation analysis

Impact of recombination and mutations was evaluated among the strains under study using
ClonalFrameML analysis. Core genome alignment was performed by MAUVE
v2.3.1(Darling, Mau et al. 2004) and it was further used to generate maximum likelihood tree
by PhyML 3.1(Guindon, Dufayard et al. 2010).These alignment and tree were further
subjected to ClonalFrameML analysis (Didelot and Wilson 2015) to calculate frequency and
impact of recombination and mutation.

Results

Strain isolation and pathogenicity tests

We were able to isolate three strains (PPL1, PPL2 and PPL3) belonging to genus
Xanthomonas from healthy rice seeds. Further, their pathogenicity was checked by leaf clip
inoculation studies. Pathogenic strain *Xanthomonas oryzae* pv. oryzae BXO1 was used as a
positive control and PBS (phosphate buffered saline) was used as control for wounding. At
14 days post inoculation (dpi), leaves infected with BXO1 showed lesion of 13 cm length on
an average of 10 leaves taken into account, however, PPL1, PPL2, PPL3 showed 0.61 cm,

0.29 cm and 0.8 cm lesions were respectively. Negative control (PBS) was having wound

symptoms that measured 0.43 cm of (figure 1).

Additionally, five other rice associated *Xanthomonas* strains (LMG27592 (Africa),

LMG12459, LMG12460, LMG12461 (China) and LMG12462 (Antunes, Machado et al.)

were shortlisted for analysis due to the reports on their non-pathogenic behavior towards rice

(Vauterin, Yang et al. 1996). These were procured from the Belgian Co-ordinated Collections

of Micro-organisms/ Laboratory of Microbiology Gent Bacteria Collection (BCCM/LMG).

In-house whole genome sequencing and assembly

Whole genome sequencing of eight NPX isolates was carried out on in-house Illumina MiSeq

platform. The high quality de novo assembly of the Illumina reads resulted in genomes with

coverage ranging from 78x to 203x and with N50 values of 32.9 kb to 77.6 kb (table 1). The

genome size for all the NPX strains was found to be approximately 5 Mb, which is similar to

the pathogenic *Xanthomonas* genus, suggesting no large-scale reductive evolution in these

non pathogenic strains. Further, genome sequences of four additional NPX strains available

on NCBI GenBank database were retrieved. These strains are reported to be isolated from

surface-sterilized rice seeds (SHU166, SHU199, SHU308 (USA) and *X. sacchari* R1 (China).

However, pathogenicity status of these isolates is not reported yet.

Phylogenomic analysis of the RPX and NPX isolates

Phylogenomic relationship among RPX and NPX isolates was evaluated at the whole genome

level (figure 2). Analysis of more than 400 conserved genes resulted in a highly resolved

phylogenomic tree. Based on a previous study from our group, there are five distinct lineages

of Asian *Xanthomonas oryzae* pv. oryzae strains (Midha, Bansal et al. 2017). We have

selected one representative strain from each of the lineages (BXO1, IXO222, XOOP, XOOK

and IXO599 from L-I, L-II, L-III, L-IV and L-V respectively for the analysis. Besides, we

also included representative strains of different geographic locations (BXO1 from India;

AXO1947, CIX44 from Africa; PXO86 from the Philippines; X8-1A from US; YM15 from

China and CFBP2286 from Malaysia). In addition, we have also included one *X. oryzae* pv.

oryzicola strain (BLS256). Further, since one of the strains among the NPX (*X. sacchari* R1)

was classified in *X. sacchari,* type strains of *X. sacchari* and its closest relative *X. albilineans*

were also included in the analysis (López, Lopez-Soriano et al. 2018). For phylogenetic

construction, *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* ATCC13637 (T) was taken as an outgroup.

Phylogenetic analysis clearly depicts that all the NPX isolates formed a distinct major lineage
I (ML-I) while the RPX are forming another major lineage II (ML-II). Interestingly, one of
the NPX isolates, *X. maliensis*, did not cluster in ML-I and was an outlier of ML-II which
consists of RPX (figure 2).

Taxonogenomic status of rice seed associated strains

To assess the taxonomy of the NPX, we looked for the 16S rRNA identity of the isolates. All
the isolates (except *X. maliensis)* had identity value of 99.59% with *X. sacchari* CFBP4641
(T) and 98.50% with *X. albilineans* CFBP2523 (T). Further, to explicitly assess taxonomic
status of ML-I and *X. maliensis* strains, we used OrthoANI values, to define species status
(figure 3). The type strains of *X. sacchari* and *X. albilineans* were also included in this
analysis. OrthoANI uses species delineation cut off of 96% similarity (Richter and Rosselló-
Móra 2009). All ML-I isolates were having ANI values of around 93% with *X. sacchari*
CFBP4641 (T) and around 83% with *X. albilineans* CFBP2523 (T), hence, they comprise a
putative novel species *Xanthomonas sp.* Further, *X. maliensis*is already reported as a distinct
species (Triplett, Verdier et al. 2015). Thus it can be concluded that, all of the rice associated
strains were not belonging to *X. oryzae*. They belong to three different species i.e. *X. oryzae*
(ML-II), *X. maliensis* and putative novel species *Xanthomonas* sp. (ML-I)

Recombination and mutation impact on lifestyle of bacteria

Recombination and mutations are major driving forces of bacterial evolution. To measure
their impact on the major lineage strains (ML-I and ML-II), we carried out ClonalFrameML
analysis. Interestingly, the output suggests that recombinational events are not very frequent
amongst these clades of *Xanthomonas* strains. There is occurrence of around 5 and 12
mutational events for each recombinational event in ML-I and ML-II respectively. However,
even though there is low occurrence, recombination has more impact (r/m = 1.233) towards
the evolution of strains in ML-I. But, this scenario is not seen in the pathogenic strains, where
the impact of recombination is only half that of mutation (r/m = 0.54) (table 2).

Distinct gene content among RPX and NPX

To evaluate the gene-content wise relatedness of strains under study, we focused on their core
and pan-genome content (figure 4). Here, core was least (1039) and pan was maximum
(17,221) for all strains (including *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia*). Whereas, for all
Xanthomonas strains (excluding *S. maltophilia*) under consideration, core increased (1291)
and pan decreased (14231). Core and pan values were (1314, 13385) for ML-I and ML-II
strains taken together. Interestingly, core values increased and pan values decreased

dramatically, when ML-I and ML-II strains were considered separately (2224, 6766; 2686,
9415). Interestingly, when *X. maliensis* was included in ML-I, the core decreased and pan
increased (1626, 8357), whereas inclusion of *X. maliensis* did not have such an effect on ML-
II (2391, 10601). Gene content wise analysis also emphasized that although a non-pathogenic
isolate, gene content wise *X. maliensis* is more related to ML-II (pathogenic lineage).

Whether differences in lifestyles of the bacterial isolates are also reflected in the gene
content? To address this, we carried out pangenome analysis in two sets. Set one was to find
genes unique to RPX and NPX strains and set two was for genes unique to ML-I and ML-II
(i.e. excluding *X. maliensis*). Set one will give us distinct gene content present in all
pathogenic (Unique RPX, n = 195) or non-pathogenic (Unique NPX, n = 133) isolates.
However, *X. maliensis* is phylogenomically more closely related to pathogenic ones, so it
may lead to biasness in the analysis, hence, gene content exclusively present in ML-I (Unique
ML-I, n = 686) (i.e. non-pathogenic isolates, but excluding *X. maliensis*) and unique to ML-II
(Unique ML-II, n = 583), i.e. present in pathogenic isolates were also considered.
Interestingly, as soon as *X. maliensis*is excluded from the analysis, number of unique genes
increased by approximately three-fold.

Typical GC content for *Xanthomonas* sp. is within 64.5%+-2.5% range. Among these, the
unique RPX and unique ML-II, 47% and 42% of genes respectively, had atypical GC content
respectively, whereas, in case of unique NPX and unique ML-I it was 87% and 86%
respectively. Interestingly, genes with atypical GC content among unique NPX or ML-I, all
were having GC in higher range (>67%) whereas amongst the unique RPX or ML-II atypical
GC genes had GC in both high and low GC ranges (<62% and >67%). Further, functional
analysis of these genes was carried out. Among 25 COG classes, our data was represented in
17 classes while approx. 50% were having unknown function or hypothetical proteins (Figure
5). Overall, genes related to metabolism (such as carbohydrate, lipid, inorganic ion and
secondary metabolites metabolism biosynthesis and transport) and information storage and
processing such as transcription were more in non-pathogenic as compared to pathogenic.
While, genes unique to the pathogenic pool were more of cell wall/membrane/envelope
biogenesis, motility related or intracellular trafficking, secretion and vesicular transport
related genes. Whereas, genes related to amino acid and nucleotide transport and metabolism;
replication, recombination and repair etc. were comparable among both the pathogenic and
non-pathogenic strains.

Further inspection into the pangenome results were carried out by looking for the annotation
of the genes unique to different sets of strains described above. Interestingly, unique RPX and

ML-II genes for strains following pathogenic lifestyles showed presence of genes related to
various types of secretion systems, PhoPQ-activated pathogenicity-related protein, etc.
Strikingly, pan-genome analysis depicted that biofilm biosynthesis cluster (*pgaABCD*) is
absent from NPX except for *X. maliensis* but is present in RPX. Further, this was also
confirmed experimentally by biofilm analysis (figure 6). The strains from pathogenic lineage
display higher biofilm abilities than strains from non-pathogenic lineage, except *X. maliensis*.

Pathogenicity gene(s) and gene cluster(s) in rice associated *Xanthomonas*

Xanthomonas is a model phytopathogen and numerous genetic studies have identified major
pathogenicity related gene(s) and gene clusters (Büttner and Bonas 2010). We proceeded to
examine the status of various well known *Xanthomonas* pathogenicity genes and gene
clusters (supplementary table 1) amongst the three *Xanthomonas* species associated with rice.
First, we focused on all the protein secretion systems, effectors produced by them and their
regulators which could be playing a critical role in their interaction with the host (figure 7(a),
(b)). Interestingly, T1SS *raxX, raxST, raxA* showed variable or complete absence in non-
pathogenic isolates, however, they were present in the pathogenic isolates. A single T2SS i.e.
xps, is present in pathogenic and non-pathogenic strains, whereas *X. maliensis* has both of the
secretion systems (*xps* and *xcs*).Type II system secreted effectors or cell wall degrading
enzymes which are well studied for *Xanthomonas* were examined in this study were
cellulases (*cbsA, clsA, cel8A, cel9A*); xylanases *(xynA, xyn10A, xyn5A, xyn51A,xynB, xyn10B,*
xyn10C); pectate lyases (*pel10A, pel1A, pel1B, pel1C, pel3A, pel4A, pel9A*); lipase (*lipA*) and
aguA and *pglA* (Dow, Scofield et al. 1987, Ray, Rajeshwari et al. 2000, Rajeshwari, Jha et al.
2005, Potnis, Krasileva et al. 2011). We could observe diversity in the repertoire of cell wall
degrading enzymes among RPX and NPX isolates. Among the cellulases, *cbsA* is present
only in pathogenic (except for *X. oryzae* pv. oryzicola CFBP2286, where it has a frameshift
mutation) strains and was completely lacking in all the NPX isolates. Interestingly, *cel8A* and
cel9A were in all rice non-pathogenic and only present in non-pathogenic strains (except for
absence of *cel8A* in *X. maliensis*) and *clsA* is present in all isolates. However, xylanases and
pectate lyases showed variations in their repertoire among pathogenic and non-pathogenic
isolates. Among xylanases *xynA, xyn10A, xynB* and *xyn10B* are present in pathogenic and *X.*
maliensis; while *xyn10C* is present only in *X. maliensis*. The xylanases *xyn5A* and *xyn51A* are
present in all the isolates (except for absence of *xyn5A* inCFBP2286, CIX44 and YM15).
Further, *aguA* and *lipA* genes are present in all the isolates and *pglA* is present in ML-II and
X. maliensis. In case of pectate lyases, *pel9A* is present in pathogenic and *X. maliensis* except
for PXO86 and *pel1B* was present in all NPX strains except for *X. sacchari* R1. While, *pel1A*

and *pel4A* are present in all the strains (except for absence of *pel1A* in X8-1A) and *pel3A*, *pel10A* and *pel1C* are not present in any of the strains under study. T3SS and its effectors are present in pathogenic strains (ML-II) and absent from all non-pathogenic strains (ML-I and *X. maliensis*). While T4SS is only present in ML-I isolates. Among adhesins (type V effectors), *yapH* is only present in pathogenic isolates, however, *xadA, xadB* and *pilQ* are present among all the isolates.

We also scanned for the presence of genes encoding virulence regulators (figure 7 (c)). The *rpf* cluster, is present in both groups of bacteria, although non-pathogenic isolates were having a diversified *rpf* cluster as compared to pathogenic isolates. Similarly, we looked for other regulators of virulence, most of them were present in all the isolates under study. However, *hrpG*, *hrpX* global regulators are present in ML-II and *X. maliensis* and absent in ML-I strains. Other two component systems viz., RavA/RavR, RpfC/RpfG, RaxH/RaxR and ColR/ColS are present in all the isolates.

Iron uptake (ferric and ferrous) in response to changing iron availability in environment is mediated via various two component systems, siderophores and *xibR*. Here, all strains showed presence of genes responsible for this, with diversified genes in ML-I lineage, except for *xssA,* which is present only in ML-II and *X. maliensis*. Further, genes responsible for EPS production (*gum* cluster), yellow pigment production (xanthomonadin pigment) and flagellar glycosylation (*gigX* cluster) are present in all the isolates.

Discussion

Distinct evolutionary trajectories in rice associated *Xanthomonas*

Genome based studies are allowing researchers to obtain detailed and comprehensive insights into bacterial evolution. Even though they are of diverse geographic origin, it can be clearly concluded from the present whole genome based analysis that large numbers of rice associated *Xanthomonas* strains (both RPX and NPX) formed two distinct major lineages (ML-I and ML-II) associated with diverse lifestyles. Interestingly, according to the genome based taxonomic and phylogenetic analysis, NPX (except *X. maliensis)* belongs to a putative novel species, whose formal proposal is under progress. Further, *X. sacchari* R1 which was previously classified into *X. sacchari,* is now shown to be misclassified. It is very interesting that NPX strains from diverse geographic areas are clustering together. This indicates that the NPX strains are not random associations with rice and suggest that they represent genuine adaptations of *Xanthomonas* to a non-pathogenic lifestyle on this host.

In addition to these two rice associated species, *X. maliensis* is more related to pathogenic lineage (ML-II) eventhough its reported to haves non-pathogenic lifestyle (Triplett, Verdier et al. 2015). This points out that this species has emerged independently to that of the non-pathogenic *Xanthomonas* sp. in close association with rice plant. The phylogenetic tree suggests that the NPX and RPX lineages diverged a long time ago and belong to two distinct species as seen by ANI values among them. Phylogenetic clustering of RPX and NPX isolates also suggests a distinct rate and pattern of divergence taking place in these two sets of isolates and this is further emphasised by higher recombination rates in NPX than in RPX isolates.

Genome based studies not only allow us to understand bacterial diversity at the sequence level but also make it possible to compare the gene content of pathogenic and non-pathogenic isolates. This can provide insights into evolution of different lifestyles of the bacteria from a common ancestor. Pangenome analysis supports distinct evolutionary trajectories led by pathogenic and non-pathogenic isolates by revealing gene-content differences among them. As a pathogenic group, their genomes are expected to be dynamic as seen by relatively higher pan-genome size of rice pathogenic species. Core-pan gene analysis also confirmed that *X. maliensis*is more related to ML-II and not to ML-I. Strikingly, a number of unique genes are shared by *X. maliensis* and RPX, which are not present in other non-pathogenic isolates (ML-I), reaffirming the closer relationship of *X. maliensis* with RPX. Interestingly, pangenome for both the major lineages were open, while, atypical GC content clearly indicated independent acquisition of unique genes in pathogenic and non-pathogenic bacteria from different sources. At the same time, large numbers of unique genes with unknown functions in both the groups highlight the need for more functional genomics and genetic studies for a detailed understanding of both the pathogenic and non-pathogenic lineages.

Interestingly, pangenome allowed us to identify gene cluster for biofilm biosynthesis (*pgaABCD*) in all the strains of the pathogenic lineage, suggesting importance of its function on evolution and emergence in pathogenic lineage of *Xanthomonas* in rice. Absence of this gene cluster in all non-pathogenic strains except *X. maliensis* reiterate that acquisition of the gene cluster has played pivotal role in success of pathogenic species. Hence comparative genomic strategies have potential to identify novel genomic loci and functions associated with pathogenic life-style and also the potential to target this function in management of pathogenic lineage.

Xanthomonas is a model pathogenic bacterial pathogen to understand molecular aspects of host-pathogen interactions, virulence and pathogenicity (Lu, Patil et al. 2008, Büttner and

[Bonas 2010](), [Jacques, Arlat et al. 2016](). Apart from pan-genome analysis, the present study
has provided novel insights into the status and evolution of well characterized pathogenicity
associated genes/gene clusters in two evolutionarily distinct and ecologically related isolates
having diverse host-microbe interactions (pathogenic and non-pathogenic) ([Price, Dehal et
al.]()) (figure 8). For example, the hallmark of pathogenicity of *Xanthomonas* is T3SS and its
effectors which are well known to be present in RPX strains ([White, Potnis et al. 2009]()) are
interestingly not present in any of the non-pathogenic strains. Hence, T3SS and its effectors
seem to have been acquired by the ancestor of the pathogenic lineage (ML-II) after the
divergence of pathogenic and non-pathogenic lineages and have played a primary role in their
emergence and pathogenicity.

Interestingly, HrpG, HrpX regulons known to be critical for pathogenicity of *Xanthomonas*
are present in all RPX strains and even in *X. maliensis* as well, but are not present in ML-I. It
is consistent with previous reports of their importance for pathogenicity and it was acquired
by common ancestor of pathogenic and *X. maliensis*, i.e. after diversion of ML-I during the
evolution. Similarly presence of T6SS in RPX but absence in ML1 suggests its importance in
success of pathogenic *Xanthomonas* lineage. Conversely, presence of T4SS in ML1 suggests
is importance in emergence and success of major lineage of NPX strains. This is in
accordance with the higher rate of recombination in ML-I as compared to ML-II, as T4SS is
involved in bacterial conjugation and acquiring nucleoprotein complexes by the bacteria. In
this case, it seems to be acquired by ancestor of ML-I after divergence of ML-II and *X.*
maliensis.

On the other hand, among the two type II secretion systems (*xps* and *xcs*), RPX and all the
NPX isolates were having *xps*. Presence of an additional non-canonical T2SS *xps* cluster in *X.*
maliensis but absence in all other strains indicate on-going dynamics and selection within
these species (Szczesny, Jordan et al. 2010). Further, cell wall degrading enzymes (secreted
by T2SS) are also present in all the strains under study, though with differential repertoires.
Conservation of T2SS and most of the effectors where we further see redundancy suggests
that they were present in ancestor of both the lineages and were acquired for plant adaptation.
The exceptions are *cbsA* and *cel9A* genes encoding cellobiosidase and cellulase and are
exclusively present in pathogenic and non-pathogenic strains respectively suggesting their
specific acquisition by RPX and NPX lineages. In an earlier study, cellobiosidase gene is
reported to be a major virulence factor ([Jha, Rajeshwari et al. 2007]()).

Apart from protein secretion systems, adhesion to the host is the most crucial step for bacteria
irrespective of the lifestyle followed. However, redundancy is reported in this case as well as,

mutations in majority of these genes do not completely abolish virulence (Das, Rangaraj et al.
2009). However, in the present study, a distinct gene profile for adhesions was observed with
RPX isolates showed more adhesins than NPX isolates suggesting their importance in origin
and evolution of the pathogenic lifestyle. Interestingly, mutation in *yapH* encoding gene
abolished virulence of *Xanthomonas* due to deficiency in leaf attachment and entry (Das,
Rangaraj et al. 2009). Exclusive presence of *yapH* in RPX suggests its importance in
emergence of pathogenic strains of *Xanthomonas* in rice. Conservation of EPS biosynthetic
pathway, siderophore biosynthetic gene clusters, iron uptake genes and regulatory genes
(*xibR*) and other well-known genes like *rpf* cluster, several two component systems for
mediating environmental signals and *gigX* cluster for flagellar glycosylation (Yu, Chen et al.
2018) are present in all the rice associated *Xanthomonas* point to their primary role in plant
adaptation per se. At the same time, this study also allowed us to track genes that are
implicated in virulence but are under reductive evolution in NPX. For example, the type I
secretion system related *raxX* cluster that encodes a peptide recognized by Xa21 rice
resistance gene is present in all RPX strains but seem to be under reductive evolution in non-
pathogenic strains. It indicates that strategies once suitable for adaptation which have been
hijacked or exploited by pathogenic counterparts but are being lost from the non-pathogenic
counterparts. Hence such plant adaptation genes which are now evolved to be virulence genes
can be important candidates for genetic studies of pathogenic isolates of rice.

It is interesting to note that *X. maliensis* is a non-pathogenic strain lacking T3SS and its
effectors, but on the other hand, it is having T6SS, biofilm formation cluster (*pgaABCD)* and
raxX, raxST, rasA genes of T1SS and does not have T4SS all of which are features associated
with the pathogenic strains. Furthermore, it is found to be phylogenomically more related to
pathogenic than to non-pathogenic isolates. Hence, this might be representing a second wave
of evolution of non-pathogenic isolates, which remain non-pathogenic but have some of the
genes which are associated with the pathogenic lineage. What do these intermediate strains
represent? Do they represent variations of a non-pathogenic lifestyle that benefit from
acquisition of genes that are normally present in pathogenic strains? Alternatively, could they
represent non-pathogenic strains that have set off on the path towards pathogenicity? Further
studies on these kinds of intermediate strains as well as the non-pathogenic strains can lead to
a better understanding of the mechanisms of adaptation of the genus *Xanthomonas* on plants.

Conclusion:

531 Although the genus *Xanthomonas* has evolved as highly successful plant pathogens, this
532 study highlights the scope and possibilities for detailed comparatives studies on both

pathogenic and non-pathogenic *Xanthomonas* strains that are associated with a particular plant. A small core genome shared amongst all rice associated *Xanthomonas* strains and non-uniformity of various horizontally acquired gene clusters suggest a non-recent divergence of these lineages and occurrence of various events of gene gain and gene loss amongst these rice associated bacteria. Interestingly the study has revealed many well characterized gene clusters that are common to both life-styles which are indicative of a role for these functions in plant adaptation. Moreover, the study has revealed many novel and interesting gene(s) that are unique to each of the groups. These can be promising material for researchers engaged in genetic and molecular studies to understand *Xanthomonas* biology in particular and pathogenesis in general.

Author Contributions

SM performed strain isolation, identification and genome sequencing was performed by SM, SK and KB. KB performed phylogenomic and comparative analysis. KB and SK have performed virulence gene cluster analysis. AK performed biofilm assay. KB have drafted manuscript with inputs from SK, SM and RVS and PBP. PBP conceived the study and participated in its design with KB, SM and RVS. All the authors have read the manuscripts and approved the manuscript.

Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

KB is supported by fellowship of University Grant Commission (UGC). SM is supported by fellowship of Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR). AK is supported by DST-INSPIRE fellowship. This work is supported by a project entitled "Plant-Microbe and Soil Interactions" BSC0117 of Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) to PBP.

References

Antunes, P., et al. (2005). "Dissemination of sulfonamide resistance genes (sul1, sul2, and sul3) in Portuguese Salmonella enterica strains and relation with integrons." Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy **49**(2): 836-839.

Barber, C., et al. (1997). "A novel regulatory system required for pathogenicity of Xanthomonas campestris is mediated by a small diffusible signal molecule." Molecular microbiology **24**(3): 555-566.

Bearden, S. W., et al. (1997). "Genetic organization of the yersiniabactin biosynthetic region and construction of avirulent mutants in Yersinia pestis." Infection and immunity **65**(5): 1659-1668.

Bernal, P., et al. (2018). "Type VI secretion systems in plant-associated bacteria." Environmental microbiology **20**(1): 1-15.

Büttner, D. and U. Bonas (2010). "Regulation and secretion of Xanthomonas virulence factors." FEMS microbiology reviews **34**(2): 107-133.

Cao, X. Q., et al. (2018). "Biosynthesis of the yellow xanthomonadin pigments involves an ATP-dependent 3-HBA: ACP ligase and an unusual type II polyketide synthase pathway." Molecular microbiology.

Chan, J. W. and P. H. Goodwin (1999). "The molecular genetics of virulence of Xanthomonas campestris." Biotechnology advances **17**(6): 489-508.

Chou, F.-L., et al. (1997). "TheXanthomonas campestris gumDGene Required for Synthesis of Xanthan Gum Is Involved in Normal Pigmentation and Virulence in Causing Black Rot." Biochemical and biophysical research communications **233**(1): 265-269.

Cody, Y. S. and D. C. Gross (1987). "Outer membrane protein mediating iron uptake via pyoverdinpss, the fluorescent siderophore produced by Pseudomonas syringae pv. syringae." Journal of Bacteriology **169**(5): 2207-2214.

Darling, A. C., et al. (2004). "Mauve: multiple alignment of conserved genomic sequence with rearrangements." Genome Res **14**(7): 1394-1403.

Das, A., et al. (2009). "Multiple adhesin-like functions of Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae are involved in promoting leaf attachment, entry, and virulence on rice." Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions **22**(1): 73-85.

Dharmapuri, S. and R. V. Sonti (1999). "A transposon insertion in the gumG homologue of Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae causes loss of extracellular polysaccharide production and virulence." FEMS microbiology letters **179**(1): 53-59.

Didelot, X. and D. J. Wilson (2015). "ClonalFrameML: Efficient inference of recombination
in whole bacterial genomes." <u>PLoS Comput Biol</u> **11**(2): e1004041-e1004041.

Dow, J. M., et al. (1987). "A gene cluster in Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris required
for pathogenicity controls the excretion of polygalacturonate lyase and other enzymes."
<u>Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology</u> **31**(2): 261-271.

Edgar, R. C. (2004). "MUSCLE: multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high
throughput." <u>Nucleic acids research</u> **32**(5): 1792-1797.

Edgar, R. C. (2010). "Search and clustering orders of magnitude faster than BLAST."
<u>Bioinformatics</u> **26**(19): 2460-2461.

Fang, Y., et al. (2015). "Genome sequence of Xanthomonas sacchari R1, a biocontrol
bacterium isolated from the rice seed." <u>Journal of biotechnology</u> **206**: 77-78.

Feng, J., et al. (2009). "The H-NS-like protein-encoding gene xrvA of Xanthomonas oryzae
pv. oryzae regulates virulence in rice." <u>Microbiology</u> **155**: 3033-3044.

Franza, T., et al. (2005). "Erwinia chrysanthemi requires a second iron transport route
dependent of the siderophore achromobactin for extracellular growth and plant infection."
<u>Molecular microbiology</u> **55**(1): 261-275.

Ghosh, P. (2004). "Process of protein transport by the type III secretion system."
<u>Microbiology and molecular biology reviews</u> **68**(4): 771-795.

Goel, A. K., et al. (2002). "Genetic locus encoding functions involved in biosynthesis and
outer membrane localization of xanthomonadin in Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae." <u>Journal</u>
<u>of Bacteriology</u> **184**(13): 3539-3548.

Goel, A. K., et al. (2001). "Pigment and Virulence Deficiencies Associated with Mutations in
the aroE Gene of Xanthomonas oryzaepv. oryzae." <u>Applied and environmental microbiology</u>
67(1): 245-250.

Guindon, S., et al. (2010). "New algorithms and methods to estimate maximum-likelihood
phylogenies: assessing the performance of PhyML 3.0." <u>Syst Biol</u> **59**(3): 307-321.

Hayward, A. (1993). The hosts of Xanthomonas. <u>Xanthomonas</u>, Springer**:** 1-119.

He, Y.-Q., et al. (2007). "Comparative and functional genomics reveals genetic diversity and
determinants of host specificity among reference strains and a large collection of Chinese
isolates of the phytopathogen Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestris." <u>Genome biology</u>
8(10): R218.

He, Y.-W. and L.-H. Zhang (2008). "Quorum sensing and virulence regulation in Xanthomonas campestris." <u>FEMS microbiology reviews</u> **32**(5): 842-857.

Jacques, M.-A., et al. (2016). "Using ecology, physiology, and genomics to understand host specificity in Xanthomonas." <u>Annual Review of Phytopathology</u> **54**: 163-187.

Jha, G., et al. (2007). "Functional Interplay Between Two Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae Secretion Systems in Modulating Virulence on Rice." <u>Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions</u> **20**(1): 31-40.

Juhas, M., et al. (2008). "Type IV secretion systems: tools of bacterial horizontal gene transfer and virulence." <u>Cellular microbiology</u> **10**(12): 2377-2386.

Katzen, F., et al. (1998). "Xanthomonas campestris pv. campestrisgum Mutants: Effects on Xanthan Biosynthesis and Plant Virulence." <u>Journal of Bacteriology</u> **180**(7): 1607-1617.

Koebnik, R., et al. (2006). "Specific binding of the Xanthomonas campestris pv. vesicatoria AraC-type transcriptional activator HrpX to plant-inducible promoter boxes." <u>Journal of Bacteriology</u> **188**(21): 7652-7660.

Lawlor, M. S., et al. (2007). "Yersiniabactin is a virulence factor for Klebsiella pneumoniae during pulmonary infection." <u>Infection and immunity</u> **75**(3): 1463-1472.

Lee, S.-W., et al. (2008). "The Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae PhoPQ two-component system is required for AvrXA21 activity, hrpG expression, and virulence." <u>Journal of Bacteriology</u> **190**(6): 2183-2197.

Leyns, F., et al. (1984). "The host range of the genusXanthomonas." <u>The Botanical Review</u> **50**(3): 308-356.

López, M. M., et al. (2018). "Xanthomonas prunicola sp. nov., a novel pathogen that affects nectarine (Prunus persica var. nectarina) trees." <u>International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary Microbiology</u>.

Lu, H., et al. (2008). "Acquisition and evolution of plant pathogenesis–associated gene clusters and candidate determinants of tissue-specificity in Xanthomonas." <u>PLoS One</u> **3**(11): e3828.

Meyer, J.-M., et al. (1996). "Pyoverdin is essential for virulence of Pseudomonas aeruginosa." <u>Infection and immunity</u> **64**(2): 518-523.

Midha, S., et al. (2017). "Population genomic insights into variation and evolution of Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae." <u>Scientific reports</u> **7**: 40694.

Mougous, J. D., et al. (2006). "A virulence locus of Pseudomonas aeruginosa encodes a
protein secretion apparatus." Science **312**(5779): 1526-1530.

NIÑO-LIU, D. O., et al. (2006). "Xanthomonas oryzae pathovars: model pathogens of a
model crop." Molecular Plant Pathology **7**(5): 303-324.

Page, A. J., et al. (2015). "Roary: rapid large-scale prokaryote pan genome analysis."
Bioinformatics **31**(22): 3691-3693.

Pandey, A. and R. V. Sonti (2010). "Role of the FeoB protein and siderophore in promoting
virulence of Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae on rice." Journal of Bacteriology **192**(12): 3187-
3203.

Pandey, S. S., et al. (2016). "Co-regulation of iron metabolism and virulence associated
functions by iron and XibR, a novel iron binding transcription factor, in the plant pathogen
Xanthomonas." PLoS pathogens **12**(11): e1006019.

Parte, A. C. (2018). "LPSN-List of Prokaryotic names with Standing in Nomenclature
(bacterio. net), 20 years on." International Journal of Systematic and Evolutionary
Microbiology **68**(6): 1825-1829.

Potnis, N., et al. (2011). "Comparative genomics reveals diversity among xanthomonads
infecting tomato and pepper." BMC genomics **12**(1): 146.

Price, M. N., et al. (2009). "FastTree: computing large minimum evolution trees with profiles
instead of a distance matrix." Molecular biology and evolution **26**(7): 1641-1650.

Pruitt, R. N., et al. (2015). "The rice immune receptor XA21 recognizes a tyrosine-sulfated
protein from a Gram-negative bacterium." Science Advances **1**(6): e1500245.

Pukatzki, S., et al. (2006). "Identification of a conserved bacterial protein secretion system in
Vibrio cholerae using the Dictyostelium host model system." Proceedings of the National
Academy of Sciences **103**(5): 1528-1533.

Qian, W., et al. (2008). "Two-component signal transduction systems of Xanthomonas spp.: a
lesson from genomics." Molecular plant-microbe interactions **21**(2): 151-161.

Rajeshwari, R., et al. (2005). "Role of an in planta-expressed xylanase of Xanthomonas
oryzae pv. oryzae in promoting virulence on rice." Molecular plant-microbe interactions
18(8): 830-837.

Ray, S. K., et al. (2002). "A high-molecular-weight outer membrane protein of Xanthomonas
oryzae pv. oryzae exhibits similarity to non-fimbrial adhesins of animal pathogenic bacteria
and is required for optimum virulence." Molecular microbiology **46**(3): 637-647.

Ray, S. K., et al. (2000). "Mutants of Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae deficient in general secretory pathway are virulence deficient and unable to secrete xylanase." Molecular plant-microbe interactions **13**(4): 394-401.

Richter, M. and R. Rosselló-Móra (2009). "Shifting the genomic gold standard for the prokaryotic species definition." Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences **106**(45): 19126-19131.

Ryan, R. P., et al. (2007). "Cyclic di-GMP signalling in the virulence and environmental adaptation of Xanthomonas campestris." Molecular microbiology **63**(2): 429-442.

Sarris, P. F., et al. (2010). "In silico analysis reveals multiple putative type VI secretion systems and effector proteins in Pseudomonas syringae pathovars." Molecular Plant Pathology **11**(6): 795-804.

Schwarz, S., et al. (2010). "Burkholderia type VI secretion systems have distinct roles in eukaryotic and bacterial cell interactions." PLoS pathogens **6**(8): e1001068.

Segata, N., et al. (2013). "PhyloPhlAn is a new method for improved phylogenetic and taxonomic placement of microbes." Nature communications **4**: 2304.

Souza, D. P., et al. (2011). "A component of the Xanthomonadaceae type IV secretion system combines a VirB7 motif with a N0 domain found in outer membrane transport proteins." PLoS pathogens **7**(5): e1002031.

Stephens, W. L. and M. P. Starr (1963). "Localization of carotenoid pigment in the cytoplasmic membrane of Xanthomonas juglandis." Journal of Bacteriology **86**(5): 1070-1074.

Subramoni, S., et al. (2012). "The ColRS system of Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae is required for virulence and growth in iron-limiting conditions." Molecular Plant Pathology **13**(7): 690-703.

Sullivan, M. J., et al. (2011). "Easyfig: a genome comparison visualizer." Bioinformatics **27**(7): 1009-1010.

Szczesny, R., et al. (2010). "Functional characterization of the Xcs and Xps type II secretion systems from the plant pathogenic bacterium Xanthomonas campestris pv vesicatoria." New Phytologist **187**(4): 983-1002.

Tang, J.-L., et al. (1991). "Genetic and molecular analysis of a cluster of rpf genes involved in positive regulation of synthesis of extracellular enzymes and polysaccharide in Xanthomonas campestris pathovar campestris." Molecular and General Genetics MGG **226**(3): 409-417.

783   Toth, I. K., et al. (2006). "Comparative genomics reveals what makes an enterobacterial plant
784   pathogen." Annu. Rev. Phytopathol. **44**: 305-336.

785
786   Triplett, L. R., et al. (2015). "Characterization of a novel clade of Xanthomonas isolated from
787   rice leaves in Mali and proposal of Xanthomonas maliensis sp. nov." Antonie van
788   Leeuwenhoek **107**(4): 869-881.

789
790   Tsuge, S., et al. (2006). "Gene involved in transcriptional activation of the hrp regulatory
791   gene hrpG in Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae." Journal of Bacteriology **188**(11): 4158-4162.

792
793   Tsuge, S., et al. (2005). "Effects on promoter activity of base substitutions in the cis-acting
794   regulatory element of HrpXo regulons in Xanthomonas oryzae pv. oryzae." Journal of
795   Bacteriology **187**(7): 2308-2314.

796
797   Van Sluys, M., et al. (2002). "Comparative genomic analysis of plant-associated bacteria."
798   Annual review of phytopathology **40**(1): 169-189.

799
800   Vauterin, L., et al. (1996). "Identification of non-pathogenic Xanthomonas strains associated
801   with plants." Systematic and Applied Microbiology **19**(1): 96-105.

802
803   Wang, L. H., et al. (2004). "A bacterial cell–cell communication signal with cross-kingdom
804   structural analogues." Molecular microbiology **51**(3): 903-912.

805
806   Wengelnik, K. and U. Bonas (1996). "HrpXv, an AraC-type regulator, activates expression of
807   five of the six loci in the hrp cluster of Xanthomonas campestris pv. vesicatoria." Journal of
808   Bacteriology **178**(12): 3462-3469.

809
810   Wengelnik, K., et al. (1996). "Expression and localization of HrpA1, a protein of
811   Xanthomonas campestris pv. vesicatoria essential for pathogenicity and induction ofthe
812   hypersensitive reaction." Journal of Bacteriology **178**(4): 1061-1069.

813
814   Wengelnik, K., et al. (1999). "Mutations in the Regulatory Gene hrpG ofXanthomonas
815   campestris pv. vesicatoria Result in Constitutive Expression of All hrp Genes." Journal of
816   Bacteriology **181**(21): 6828-6831.

817
818   Wengelnik, K., et al. (1996). "HrpG, a key hrp regulatory protein of Xanthomonas campestris
819   pv. vesicatoria ls homologous to two-component response regulators." Mol Plant-Microbe
820   Interact **9**: 704-712.

821
822   White, F. F., et al. (2009). "The type III effectors of Xanthomonas." Molecular plant
823   pathology **10**(6): 749-766.

824
825   Yu, C., et al. (2018). "A ten gene-containing genomic island determines flagellin
826   glycosylation: implication for its regulatory role in motility and virulence of Xanthomonas
827   oryzae pv. oryzae." Molecular Plant Pathology **19**(3): 579-592.

Figure Legends

Figure 1: *In planta* infected leaves of rice (Pusa Basmati 1121) (a) leaves showing symptoms after 14 dpi (b) lesion length (cm) for positive (BXO1), negative (PBS) control and PPL1, PPL2 and PPL3 strains.

Figure 2:ML tree based on >400 conserved genes of all RPX (in red) and NPX (in green) strains constructed using PhylPhlAn. *Stenotrophomonas maltophilia* ATCC13637 (T) was used as outgroup and other type strains are designated as (T).

Figure 3: OrthoANI of the RPX and NPX isolates including type strains of *Xanthomonas sacchari* CFBP4641 (T) and *Xanthomonas albilineans* CFBP2523 (T).

Figure 4: Core and pan genome for different combinations of strains indicated along x-axis.

Figure 5: COG functional classification of unique genes to NPX, RPX, ML-I and ML-II.

Figure 6: Biofilm assay: Ability of strains to form biofilms in borosilicate glass tubes determined using crystal violet staining. Here, ML-I, *X. maliensis* and ML-II are represented in green, yellow and red boxes.

Figure 7: Distribution of pathogenicity related gene(s) and gene cluster(s) among ML-II (in red box), ML-I (in green box) and *X. maliensis* (in yellow box). Different colors are corresponding to different clusters and the intensity of the color indicates level of identity with the query as depicted by the scale.

856 **Figure 8: Pattern of acquisition or loss of pathogenicity** related clusters among RPX (in

857 red box) and NPX (in green box).

861 **Tables:**

862 **Table 1:** Genome statistics of genomes sequenced in the present study

S. N.	Strain Name	Completen ess/ Contamina tion	Fol d (X)	N50 (kb)	Contigs	Genome Size	GC (%)	CDS	rRNA + tRNA	Isolation source	Accession No.
1	*X. sacchari* PPL1	96.31/0.22	78	32.9	332	4.8	69	4149	3+51	Rice seeds	NQYO
2	*X. sacchari* PPL2	95.79/0.07	109	48.1	200	4.9	68.8	4105	2+50	Rice seeds	NQYP
3	*X. sacchari* PPL3	98.56/0.55	80	40.3	231	4.8	68.8	4106	3+52	Rice seeds	NMPO
4	*X. maliensis* LMG27592	96.74/0.30	155	77.5	141	5.2	66.1	4369	3+53	Rice seeds	NSET
5	*Xanthomona*sp. LMG12459	98.17/0.86	184	59.3	143	4.8	68.8	4055	3+51	Rice seeds	NSGT
6	*Xanthomona*sp. LMG12460	96.58/0.00	180	50.7	178	4.7	69	3934	4+51	Rice seeds	NKUH
7	*Xanthomona*sp. LMG12461	98.76/0.64	202	71.8	134	4.8	68.9	4060	3+51	Rice seeds	NQYT
8	*Xanthomona*sp. LMG12462	97.64/0.52	176	76	136	4.8	68.9	4062	3+52	Rice seeds	NMPP

866 **Table 2:** ClonalFrameML output parameters for ML-I and ML-II.

	Ratio of rates of recombination v/s mutation (R/theta)	**Relative impact of recombination v/s mutation(r/m)**
ML-I	0.195	1.233
ML-II	0.083	0.54

(A)   (B)

Biofilm Assay