

1 Characterization of *Ralstonia pseudosolanacearum* diversity and 2 screening host resistance to manage bacterial wilt in South Asia

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4 Nagendra Subedi^{1,4}, Tabitha Cowell², Matthew Cope-Arguello², Pierce Paul¹, Gilles Cellier³, Hashem
5 Bkayrat², Nicolas Bonagura², Angela Cadatal², Rachel Chen², Ariana Enriquez², Rama Parasar², Lisa
6 Repetto², Aracely Hernandez Rivas², Mahnoor Shahbaz², Kaitlin White², Tiffany M. Lowe-Power^{2*}, and
7 Sally A. Miller^{1*}

8 Affiliations

9 ¹ Department of Plant Pathology, The Ohio State University, CFAES Wooster Campus, 1680 Madison
10 Ave. Wooster, OH 44691

11 ² Department of Plant Pathology, University of California, Davis, Davis, CA 95616

12 ³ANSES, Plant Health Laboratory, Saint Pierre, Reunion Island, France

13
14 ⁴Nepal Polytechnic Institute, Chitwan, Nepal

15
16 * Co-corresponding authors:

17 Tiffany M. Lowe-Power, tlowepower@ucdavis.edu;

18 Sally A. Miller, miller.769@osu.edu

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20 Abstract

21 In South Asia, bacterial wilt pathogens in the *Ralstonia solanacearum* species complex (RSSC)
22 impose major constraints on eggplant, tomato, and pepper production. To improve the efficacy of
23 bacterial wilt management, the goals of this study were to (1) conduct a survey of RSSC pathogens in
24 Bangladesh and Nepal, (2) characterize the genetic diversity of these isolates, and (3) screen 37 tomato,
25 eggplant, and pepper accessions for resistance to six representative isolates from South Asia. We
26 isolated 99 isolates from Bangladesh and 20 isolates from Nepal and determined that all are phylotype I
27 isolates of the *Ralstonia pseudosolanacearum* species. We sequenced and assembled draft genomes for
28 25 isolates. Phylogenomic analyses suggest that there is a wide diversity of endemic phylotype I isolates

29 in South Asia, and possible introductions of two clonal phylotype I lineages into Bangladesh and Nepal.
30 We contextualize our newly described isolates based on prior reports of RSSC diversity in South Asia and
31 global reports of RSSC pathogens on eggplant and pepper. Greenhouse trials revealed multiple tomato,
32 eggplant, and pepper accessions that exhibit promising levels of resistance to six phylotype I isolates
33 from South Asia.

34 **Introduction**

35 Bacterial pathogens in the *Ralstonia solanacearum* species complex (RSSC) cause a group of related
36 wilt diseases by colonizing xylem and impairing water transport (Kelman 1953). RSSC comprises
37 economically significant pathogens of agronomically important crops, such as tomato, eggplant, potato,
38 banana, peanut, ginger and others (Hayward 1991; Savary et al. 2019).

39 Bacterial wilt is a major constraint for production of eggplant (*Solanum melongena* also known as
40 brinjal or aubergine), tomato (*S. lycopersicum*), and pepper (*Capsicum* spp.) in South Asia (Sinha, SK
41 1986; Sood and Singh 1993; Adhikari et al. 1993; Pradhanang et al. 2000; Pradhanang and Momol 2001;
42 Ahmed et al. 2013; Adhikari et al. 1997; Singh et al. 2010). Host resistance is the most practical and
43 sustainable approach for management of this disease, however very few bacterial wilt-resistant cultivars
44 are available (López and Biosca 2005) (Pandiyaraj et al. 2019). The main sources of bacterial wilt
45 resistance in tomato breeding populations are its wild relatives such as *S. pimpinellifolium*, *S. hirsutum*
46 and *S. peruvianum* (Carmeille et al. 2006). Host resistance against bacterial wilt is strain-specific due to
47 the considerable genetic diversity of the pathogen populations (Danesh and Young 1994; Wang et al.
48 1998; Lebeau et al. 2011). In the Check List of Commercial Varieties of Vegetables published by the
49 Government of India, eight tomato, three eggplant, and no pepper varieties are listed as resistant to
50 bacterial wilt (Singh 2012). The major bacterial wilt-resistant cultivars used in South Asia are tomato
51 lines Arka Ananya, Arka Abhijit, Arka Abha, CLN2020C, All Rounder, Swarakhsha, Rakshak, and Trishul,
52 and eggplant lines Kata Begun, Marich Begun, Pusa purple cluster, JC-2, Pant Samrat, Arka Anand, and
53 Uttar (Dutta and Rahman 2012; Rahman et al. 2011; Singh 2012; Timila and Joshi 2007).

54 Grafting desired commercial varieties onto resistant rootstocks is another approach to combat
55 bacterial wilt (Rivard and Louws 2011). Bacterial wilt-resistant *S. sisymbriifolium*, also known as sticky
56 nightshade, fire-and-ice plant, litchi tomato, etc., is a popular rootstock in South Asia that is also
57 resistant to *Meloidogyne* spp. nematodes that cause root-knot (Miller et al. 2005). Plants grafted onto
58 *S. sisymbriifolium* not only reduce bacterial wilt incidence but also increase marketable yield, even in the

59 absence of disease pressure. However, failures of *S. sisymbriifolium* resistance to bacterial wilt at several
60 locations in Bangladesh and Nepal is a concern for researchers and growers in this region.

61 RSSC are classified into four phylotypes (I-IV) that emerged and diversified on different continents
62 (Villa et al. 2005). Phylotype I emerged in continental Asia, II in the Americas, III in Africa, and IV in
63 Indonesia/Southeast Asia (Villa et al. 2005). However, movement of plants through international trade
64 has allowed phylotypes I and II strains to become widely established in new locations. The phylotypes
65 are consistent with the division of RSSC into three species: *R. solanacearum* (phylotype II), *R.*
66 *pseudosolanacearum* (phylotypes I and III), and *R. syzygii* (phylotype IV) (Prior et al. 2016; Safni et al.
67 2014). Recently, an international consortium of *Ralstonia* researchers reaffirmed that phylotypes I and
68 III are two groups within the single *R. pseudosolanacearum* species (Lowe-Power et al. 2023).

69 Phylotype I is the most widespread phylotype in India and Sri Lanka (Ramesh et al. 2014; Gurjar et al.
70 2015; Sagar et al. 2014; Kumar et al. 2013, 2014; Ghorai et al. 2022), but phylotypes II and IV are also
71 present in South Asia. Published studies and public genome databases indicate that isolates in the
72 pandemic brown rot IIB-1 lineage are present as potato pathogens in India, Nepal, Bangladesh, and Sri
73 Lanka (Pradhanang et al. 2000; Sagar et al. 2014; Gurjar et al. 2015; Cellier and Prior 2010). Additionally,
74 phylotype IV has become established in the hills of Meghalaya, the Indian state east of Bangladesh
75 (Gurjar et al. 2015; Sagar et al. 2014). Although RSSC are prevalent pathogens in Bangladesh and Nepal
76 (Ahmed et al. 2013; Pradhanang et al. 2000; Hossain et al. 2022), little is known about their genetic
77 diversity.

78 The objectives of this study were to characterize RSSC isolates from Bangladesh and Nepal and to
79 screen a worldwide collection of tomato, eggplant and pepper genotypes against representative RSSC
80 isolates from India, Bangladesh, and Nepal. In 2012, we purified 119 RSSC isolates from solanaceous
81 crops in Bangladesh and Nepal and a representative subset of 25 isolates were sequenced for their
82 genomes. We screened 37 plant accessions for bacterial wilt resistance, including the 30 accessions
83 proposed as Core-TEP by Lebeau et al. (2011).

84 **Methods**

85 **Bacterial isolates.** We conducted a survey during 2012 to collect RSSC isolates in major vegetable
86 growing regions of Bangladesh and Nepal (Fig. 1A and Table S1). Bacterial isolates were purified from
87 symptomatic eggplant, tomato, pepper, potato (*Solanum tuberosum*), and *S. sisymbriifolium* (used as
88 rootstock of tomato and eggplant scions) on CPG medium (1 g / L casamino acids, 10 g / L peptone, and

89 5 g / L glucose) with 1% tetrazolium chloride (Kelman 1954). The identity of isolates was confirmed as
90 RSSC based on colony morphology, RSSC-specific ImmunoStrips (Agdia Inc., Elkhart, IN), and a
91 polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assay using the RSSC-specific primers 759/760 (Opina et al. 1997) as
92 described previously (Lewis Ivey et al. 2007). Six Indian isolates were also included in the study. All
93 *Ralstonia* isolates were imported to Ohio under APHIS permit no. P526P-11-02092.

94 **Phylotype determination.** Phylotype-specific multiplex PCR (Pmx-PCR) was performed using five
95 phylotype-specific (Fegan and Prior 2005) and two species complex-specific primers (Opina et al. 1997).
96 Reaction mixture preparation, amplification and gel electrophoresis were performed as described
97 previously (Fegan and Prior, 2005; Lewis Ivey et al. 2007). Genomic DNA of isolates GMI1000, K60,
98 UW386 and UW443 were used as positive controls for phylotypes I, II, III and IV respectively.

99 **Genome sequencing and assembly and quality control.** Genomic DNA was extracted with Zymo
100 Quick-DNA kits (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA). We used short-read Illumina sequencing to sequence draft
101 genomes of twenty-four of the isolates. Library prep was performed using the Illumina DNA Prep kit
102 (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA) following their standard gDNA library prep workflow. Nextera DNA CD
103 Indexes (Illumina, Inc.) were used for indexing during library prep. The DNA input for each sample was
104 within 100-500 ng, so quantification of the libraries was not performed and instead the library pooling
105 protocol for DNA inputs of 100-500 ng was followed according to the manufacturer's specifications. An
106 aliquot of the pooled libraries was sent for sequencing by SeqMatic (Fremont, CA). Sequencing was
107 performed using a MiSeq V2 300-cycles format (Illumina, Inc.). All bioinformatic analyses were
108 performed on KBase (Arkin et al. 2018). Raw reads (.fastq) were analyzed with FastQC, revealing the
109 presence of Nextera Transposase Sequences on some reads. Reads were trimmed of adaptors and low-
110 quality reads with Trim Reads with Trimmomatic - v0.36 (Bolger et al. 2014) set to remove NexteraPE-PE
111 adaptors. Quast v4.4 (Gurevich et al. 2013) was used to assess whether SPAdes v3.15.3 (Bankevich et al.
112 2012) or IDBA-UD v1.1.3 (Peng et al. 2012) assembled reads in a more complete manner. SPAdes v3.15.3
113 was chosen as it produced assemblies are composed of fewer contigs of larger N50 scores. The Illumina
114 draft genomes yielded 83-281 contigs (Table S1).

115 We sequenced SM743_UCD567 using an Oxford Nanopore sequencing service provided by
116 Plasmidsaurus (Eugene, OR). The Qiagen DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Germantown, MD) was
117 used for genomic DNA extraction using the manufacturer's protocol for gram-negative bacteria. Library
118 prep, sequencing, and assembly were all carried out by Plasmidsaurus. To briefly describe their
119 methods, library prep is performed using the v14 library prep chemistry developed by Oxford Nanopore

120 Technologies (Oxford, UK). Sequencing was performed using the R10.4.1 pore on a PromethION flow
121 cell. For assembly, the worst 5% of reads were removed using Filtlong v0.2.1 with default parameters
122 (github.com/rrwick/Filtlong). An assembly was generated using Flye v2.9.1 (Kolmogorov et al. 2019) with
123 parameters set for high quality Oxford Nanopore Technology reads. Genome annotation was performed
124 using Bakta v1.6.1 (Schwengers et al. 2021); contig analysis was performed using Bandage v0.8.1 (Wick
125 et al. 2015); genome completeness and contamination was checked using CheckM v1.2.2 (Parks et al.
126 2015); and species identification was performed using Mash v2.3 (Ondov et al. 2016), Sournash v4.6.1
127 (Titus Brown and Irber 2016).

128 To check for contamination and completeness of assemblies, CheckM (v1.0.18 for all isolates except
129 SM743_UCD567, v1.2.2 for SM743_UCD657) was used (Parks et al. 2015). The assemblies were more
130 than 99% complete and had less than 1% contamination, so they were used for phylogenetic analysis.

131 **Phylogenetic tree from KBase.** To build a phylogenetic tree of the 25 new genomes and 398 public
132 genomes, we used the KBase app: Insert Set of Genomes Into SpeciesTree - v2.2.0 (Arkin et al. 2018).
133 This KBase app creates a phylogenetic tree based on a multiple sequence alignment of 49 conserved
134 COG gene families, and creates a tree using FastTree2 (Price et al. 2010). The .newick file was uploaded
135 into iTol to annotate the tree and modify the aesthetics (Letunic and Bork 2021). The full-length tree is
136 available on the FigShare Repository (doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23733567).

137 **Endoglucanase (*egl*) gene sequence analysis.** We extracted the partial *egl* sequences from the draft
138 genomes to assign the isolates to sequevars (Fegan and Prior 2005). We used the KBase BlastNv2.13.0+
139 app to identify the *egl* genes in each genome. In order to export the gene sequences, we ran the
140 MUSCLE v3.8.425 App, which allowed us to export the sequences in FASTA format. We used the recently
141 published protocol (Cellier et al. 2023b) to correctly trim the sequences according to international
142 references. Sequences were analyzed with Geneious Prime 2021.1.1 software (Kearse et al. 2012) and
143 aligned, along with international references, through the MUSCLE algorithm (Edgar 2004). Phylogenetic
144 tree reconstruction was performed using PhyML v3.3.20180621 (Guindon et al. 2010). The
145 determination of sequevars was assumed by partial *egl* sequence divergence values less than or equal to
146 1% (Fegan and Prior 2005) and to international reference sequences (Cellier et al. 2023b).

147 **Host resistance screening.** Seeds of 37 accessions of tomato, eggplant and pepper were obtained
148 from AVRDC (The World Vegetable Center, Taiwan), INRAE (Institut National de Recherche pour
149 l'Agriculture, l'Alimentation et l'Environnement, France), BARI (Bangladesh Agricultural Research

150 Institute, Bangladesh), and Makerere University, Uganda (Table S2). The pedigree of 30 Core-TEP
151 accessions is described by Lebeau et al. 2011. BARI 2 and BARI 8 are resistant tomato and eggplant lines,
152 respectively, developed by BARI. Tomato MT56 was received from Uganda but its pedigree is uncertain.
153 Eggplant EG190, EG219 and tomato BF Okitsu were developed by AVRDC. *S. sisymbriifolium* is a common
154 weed in South Asia that is used as a bacterial wilt resistant rootstock in South Asia.

155 Seeds were sown in plastic trays with 2.5 x 2.5 cm² cells containing planting medium (Sungro
156 Horticulture, Agawam, MA). Four-week-old seedlings were soil-drench inoculated with a 5 ml
157 suspension (1×10⁸ CFU/ml) of one of six RSSC isolates from eggplant, pepper, or grafted tomato or
158 eggplant (SM701 (eggplant), SM716 (pepper), SM732 (eggplant grafted onto *S. sisymbriifolium*), SM738
159 (eggplant), SM743 (tomato grafted onto *S. sisymbriifolium*), and MB1 (eggplant)) selected based on host,
160 origin, and genetic diversity, determined as described above. Inoculum was prepared in sterile distilled
161 water from 48 hr-old cultures growing on casamino acid, peptone, glucose (CPG) agar at 28°C. Seedlings
162 were inoculated following root wounding with a sterile scalpel blade. Wilt incidence was recorded twice
163 weekly for 5 weeks after inoculation. The experiment was conducted twice as a randomized complete
164 block design with three replications (blocked by time) of 15 plants per replication, with a split-plot
165 arrangement. *R. pseudosolanacearum* isolates were applied as the main plot effect and seedlings were
166 arranged in sub-plots.

167 Results

168 **RSSC isolates in South Asia.** We isolated 99 RSSC isolates from nine major solanaceous vegetable
169 growing regions of Bangladesh and 20 RSSC isolates from five regions of Nepal. In Bangladesh, 77
170 isolates from eggplant, nine from grafted eggplant/*S. sisymbriifolium*, and 13 from pepper. In Nepal, ten
171 isolates were recovered from eggplant, four from tomato, two from potato, and four from grafted
172 tomato/*S. sisymbriifolium*. An additional six isolates were obtained from four states in India (Fig 1A and
173 Table S1). The phylotype-specific multiplex PCR (Pmx-PCR) was applied on all isolates. All reactions
174 yielded the RSSC-specific amplicon (282 bp) and the phylotype I-specific amplicon (144 bp), indicating
175 that all isolates belong to the *R. pseudosolanacearum* species (Fegan and Prior 2005; Safni et al. 2014).

176 Although all newly described isolates in this study belong to phylotype I, it is known that other RSSC
177 lineages are present in South Asia. We queried the Ralstonia Diversity Database version 4 (Lowe-Power
178 et al. 2022) for isolates isolated in the South Asian countries: Bangladesh, Nepal, India, and Sri Lanka.
179 RSSC isolates were frequently reported on potato (n=185), eggplant (n=95), tomato (n=42), pepper
180 (n=33), and ginger (n=17) (Fig 1B). Of the 477 isolates reported in the literature, the phylotype was

181 identified for 245 isolates (Cellier and Prior 2010; Ghorai et al. 2022; Ramesh et al. 2014; Gurjar et al.
182 2015; Sagar et al. 2014; Kumar et al. 2014; Patil et al. 2017; Cellier et al. 2012). In the available data,
183 phylotype I accounts for all of the published reports of RSSC on eggplant, tomato, and pepper in South
184 Asia. More RSSC lineages have been reported on potato in South Asia: the pandemic IIB-1 lineage
185 (n=87), phylotype IV (n=29), and phylotype I (n=23).

186 **Genome analysis.** We sequenced the genomes of 20 isolates from Bangladesh and five isolates from
187 Nepal. We built a phylogenetic tree of these 25 isolates and 398 publicly available RSSC genomes (Fig 2
188 and Fig S1). Most of the Bangladesh and Nepal isolates (n=18 and n=3, respectively) clustered together
189 in nine clonal groups on four major branches with phylotype I isolates from India (n=1), Sri Lanka (n=1),
190 China (n=1), and Brazil (n=1). The Bangladesh isolates were isolated from eggplant (n=16) and pepper
191 (n=2) in Bogra (n=2), Jamalpur (n=3), Brahmanbaria (n=2), Cumilla (n=4), Jashore (n=2), Joydebpur (n=1),
192 and Narsingdi (n=4). The Nepal isolates were isolated from eggplant in Chitwan (n=3).

193 The remaining four isolates clustered in two distant branches. Two isolates isolated in Syangja,
194 Nepal from tomato grafted onto *S. sisymbriifolium* (SM743 and SM744) formed a clonal group with
195 three tomato isolates from China and an isolate from Mandevilla ornamentals imported into the U.S.
196 The two isolates isolated in Tangail, Bangladesh from eggplant and eggplant grafted onto
197 *S. sisymbriifolium* (SM734 and SM732, respectively) formed a clonal group that clustered close to
198 isolates isolated from diverse locations (India, Benin, Mauritius, Japan, and unknown locations).

199 **Endoglucanase gene sequence analysis.** We extracted the partial *egl* sequence from the genomes of
200 the 25 isolates to assign these isolates to sequevars. The sequevars are listed on Fig 2 and the full *egl*/
201 tree is available on the FigShare Repository (doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23733567). The *egl* tree and
202 sequevar assignments were largely congruent. The majority of the isolates were assigned to sequevar
203 48, and the clonal SM743/744 isolates were assigned to sequevar 14. The clonal SM732/734 isolates
204 were assigned to sequevar 18 although they have a relatively low whole-genome average nucleotide
205 identity with the reference sequevar 18 isolate GMI1000 (estimated 98.80-98.88% by FastANI (Jain et al.
206 2018)). Based on *egl* sequence, SM1851 would be assigned to sequevar 17 even though it clusters within
207 the 21 sequevar 48 isolates on the 49-gene tree (Fig 2).

208 **Host resistance phenotyping.** We tested the resistance of 37 tomato, eggplant, pepper, and
209 *S. sisymbriifolium* accessions against six South Asian isolates from distinct regions (Fig 3A and Table S2).
210 The mean incidence of wilt in the susceptible tomato (L390), eggplant (MM136) and pepper (Yolo

211 Wonder) controls was 85.5, 83.6 and 50%, respectively. Six tomato accessions demonstrated
212 consistently high resistance (mean wilted plants \leq 10% with no isolate causing > 20% wilting) against all
213 six isolates: L285, Mt56, Hawaii 7996, CLN1463, TML46, and R3034. Four additional tomato accessions
214 displayed a bimodal phenotype of susceptibility to SM738, MB1, and SM732 and resistance to SM743,
215 SM716, and SM701: IRATL3, NC72 TR4-4, CRA66, and BF Okitsu. Bari2 was susceptible to SM738, MB1,
216 and SM732, and moderately resistant to SM743, SM716, and SM701. In addition to L390, Okitsu Sozai
217 no. 1 was highly susceptible to all isolates. Eight eggplant accessions displayed high resistance to all six
218 isolates: Eg190, S56B, MM853, Bari8, MM643, EG203, MM152, and Eg219. Three accessions had
219 moderate resistance: MM931, MM195, and MM960. In addition to MM136, MM738 was highly
220 susceptible. Except for PM702, all pepper accessions were resistant to two of the isolates: MB1 and
221 SM732. Three pepper accessions displayed high resistance: PBC631A, PBC66, and 0209-4. The responses
222 of PM659 and PBC384 trended towards resistance. PM1022, PM1443, PM687, and Yolo Wonder were
223 susceptible to the four pepper-virulent isolates. The *S. sisymbriifolium* accession displayed no symptoms
224 after inoculation with four of the isolates, including SM732, which had been isolated from eggplant
225 grafted to this rootstock. Isolates SM743, isolated from grafted tomato, and SM716, isolated from
226 pepper, caused wilt incidences of 19.5% and 33.2%, respectively.

227 **Comparative virulence of South Asian isolates.** Aggressiveness of the *R. pseudosolanacearum*
228 isolates varied with host species, and among accessions within a species (Fig 3B-C and Table S2). The
229 SM738 isolate was the most aggressive, causing more than 20% wilt incidence on seven of 13 tomato,
230 five of 13 eggplant, and seven of 10 pepper accessions. Isolates SM716, SM743, and SM701 displayed
231 consistent patterns of virulence and wilted most pepper accessions. They had no-to-low virulence on
232 tomato accessions, including five tomato accessions that were moderately susceptible to the other
233 three isolates. Additionally, SM716 and SM743 were the only isolates that caused wilting in
234 *S. sisymbriifolium*. Two isolates were largely non-pathogenic on pepper: MB1 and SM732. The genomes
235 of SM732 and SM743 are sequenced. Unfortunately, as of 2022, stocks of the other four isolates were
236 not culturable anymore under standard culture conditions so we were unable to sequence their
237 genomes.

238 **Discussion**

239 Bacterial wilt is one of the most important diseases of tomato, eggplant, and pepper in South Asia.
240 This disease is difficult to manage due to the diversity, adaptability, and environmental survivability of
241 the *Ralstonia* wilt pathogens. Host resistance is one of the best options available to manage this disease.

242 However, the strain specificity of host resistance limits utility of this approach (Wang et al. 2013; Lebeau
243 et al. 2011; Méline et al. 2023). Only pathogen-targeted management approaches, which require prior
244 knowledge of local pathogen populations, can provide satisfactory and sustainable control of this
245 disease. Therefore, we characterized the diversity of RSSC isolates collected from South Asia and
246 screened a worldwide collection of resistant tomato, pepper, and eggplant accessions against
247 representative South Asian isolates to identify suitable hosts that can potentially be used to manage
248 bacterial wilt in the region.

249 Although several phylotypes are present in the region, all isolates in this study were identified as *R.*
250 *pseudosolanacearum* phylotype I. It is possible that this outcome is because the majority of the isolates
251 from this study were purified from wilted pepper and eggplant. Prior studies, including our meta-
252 analysis of 8,000 RSSC isolations, have shown that phylotype I isolates are the most common etiological
253 agents of bacterial wilt on eggplant and pepper while all RSSC phylotypes are commonly isolated from
254 tomato plants (Gurjar et al. 2015; Sagar et al. 2014; Ramesh et al. 2014; Kumar et al. 2014; Hossain et al.
255 2022; Lowe-Power et al. 2022). Globally, phylotypes II and III have both been occasionally isolated from
256 eggplant and pepper (Cellier and Prior 2010; Ravelomanantsoa et al. 2016; Lee et al. 2020; Deberdt et al.
257 2014; Bihon et al. 2020; N'guessan et al. 2013; Sedighian et al. 2020; Safni et al. 2014), while phylotype
258 IV has been isolated from pepper but has not been reported on eggplant (Safni et al. 2014). Including
259 this study, phylotype I accounts for 92.8% and 90.4% of the global RSSC isolations on eggplant (n=446)
260 and *Capsicum* sp. pepper (n=365), respectively. If we had collected more tomato and potato isolates, we
261 may have found more phylotype II and IV isolates in our survey because these phylotypes are known to
262 be present in the region on these crops. A survey for RSSC in potato growing regions of Bangladesh
263 purified RSSC isolates of undetermined phylotype(s) in Jamalpur, Nilphamari, and Munshigonj, while the
264 disease was not detected in four other states during that survey (Ahmed et al. 2013). Further work is
265 needed to investigate *Ralstonia* diversity in the region.

266 Regardless of the original host, all six isolates tested in this study were highly virulent on wilt-
267 susceptible tomato and eggplant accessions, while two of six isolates (from eggplant or grafted
268 eggplant) were avirulent on the wilt-susceptible pepper variety Yolo Wonder. The remaining four
269 isolates were highly virulent on this variety. The isolate SM743, originally isolated from a wilted tomato
270 scion grafted onto *S. sisymbriifolium* rootstock, was highly or moderately virulent on two eggplant and
271 five pepper accessions. This suggests that, despite one-third of the isolates tested being avirulent on all

272 but one pepper accession, recommendations for crop rotations away from solanaceous species should
273 be followed, particularly when wilt-susceptible varieties are deployed.

274 Based on the genome sequences from this study, genomes from other studies (Patil et al. 2017,
275 2020) and prior studies with single gene markers (Ramesh et al. 2014), it is clear that there is
276 considerable diversity of phylotype I RSSC in South Asia, consistent with the theory that phylotype I
277 originated in Asia (Villa et al. 2005). In addition to the diverse, presumably endemic population of
278 phylotype I isolates, we identified at least two lineages that may have been more recently introduced to
279 Nepal and Bangladesh: SM743/744 and SM732/734, respectively. Isolates from these two genetically
280 distant lineages were isolated from crops grafted onto *S. sisymbriifolium* rootstocks, and we confirmed
281 that one isolate (SM743) caused wilting of *S. sisymbriifolium* in our greenhouse trial. There are anecdotal
282 reports that the *S. sisymbriifolium* rootstocks are no longer providing effective mitigation of bacterial
283 wilt in some locations in Bangladesh and Nepal (Subedi 2015). It is plausible that the reason for the
284 breakdown of this host resistance is that exotic lineages have been introduced, and those exotic lineages
285 happen to have genotypes that evade the immune surveillance of *S. sisymbriifolium*. However, the
286 sample size of our study is too small to robustly test this hypothesis. Further studies are needed to
287 understand the epidemiology of bacterial wilt in the region.

288 Sanger sequencing of a portion of the *egl* marker gene remains a popular way to classify isolates
289 into sequevars based on the sequences. *egl*-based diversity analyses of phylotype I isolates should be
290 treated with caution because there are instances where *egl* trees are incongruent with analyses using
291 multiple genetic markers (Cellier et al. 2023a; Sharma et al. 2022; Rasoamanana et al. 2020). Because
292 the *egl* trees rely on a short sequence, impeccable sequence quality and consistent methodology are
293 essential for generating trustworthy conclusions. Here we compared our isolates to the established
294 reference sequences for sequevars and used the recommended analytical methods (Cellier et al. 2023b).
295 This allowed us to confidently assign sequevar 48 to 20 genomes, sequevar 14 to two genomes
296 (SM743/744), and sequevar 18 to two genomes (SM732/734). We identified one conflict case (SM1851)
297 where sequevar assignments based on the *egl* marker contradicted the position of the genome in the
298 49-gene tree. Hence, we have low confidence when assigning SM1851 into sequevar 17, knowing that
299 our prior analysis also indicated that this sequevar has a polyphyletic nature within phylotype I (Sharma
300 et al. 2022).

301 Due to the decade-long time frame of this study, we used classical and contemporary methods to
302 characterize diversity of RSSC isolates from South Asia. At the time this study was initiated, the biovar

303 system and genomic fingerprinting were common methods for RSSC diversity studies (Fonseca et al.
304 2014; Lewis Ivey et al. 2007; Norman et al. 2009; Xue et al. 2011; Zulperi et al. 2014; Ramsuhag et al.
305 2012). However, fingerprinting profiles cannot be compared between laboratories, which inhibits the
306 utility of this approach to compare RSSC populations with published data. Consistent with the current
307 paradigm, we found that both biovar and Rep-PCR classifications (data not shown) were discordant with
308 phylogenetic clustering based on DNA sequence data. Similar inadequacies of Rep-PCR fingerprinting
309 were recently reported for analyzing diversity of a different set of RSSC isolates from Bangladesh
310 (Hossain et al. 2022). Currently, neither the biovar nor DNA fingerprinting is recommended for RSSC
311 diversity analyses.

312 For RSSC diversity studies, we recommend always assigning the phylotype with the multiplex Pmx-
313 PCR to all isolates. For more detailed analysis of RSSC diversity, we recommend *egl* sequence analysis
314 according to the standardized protocol (Cellier et al. 2023b), using schemes with validated discriminating
315 power (e.g. the RS1-MLVA13 scheme from (Cellier et al. 2023a)), or using whole genome analysis. Of
316 these technologies, RS1-MLVA13 is best suited for phylotype I epidemiological studies because it has a
317 demonstrably high discriminatory power that is sufficiently cost-effective to be applied to the large
318 numbers of isolates and enable meaningful and thorough epidemiological surveys (Cellier et al. 2023a).

319 Host resistance to bacterial wilt is quantitative, polygenic, strain-specific, and greatly influenced by
320 the environment, including temperature, soil moisture, and pH (Acosta 1978; Hanson et al. 1996; Scott
321 et al. 2005; Wang et al. 2013). Resistance against all bacterial wilt pathogens is unlikely to be bred or
322 engineered into solanaceous hosts due to the high genetic diversity of RSSC pathogens. For example,
323 most of the tomato accession Hawaii 7996's quantitative trait loci for bacterial wilt resistance are strain-
324 specific (Wang et al. 2013; Carmeille et al. 2006; Danesh et al. 1994; Mangin et al. 1999; Shin et al. 2020;
325 Méline et al. 2023). Variation in RSSC host range is very common because each isolate wields 60-80
326 plant-manipulating effectors, and fewer than 10 effectors are broadly conserved among diverse RSSC
327 isolates (Landry et al. 2020). Nevertheless, host resistance can be a part of effective, integrated bacterial
328 wilt management because RSSC isolates are slow to spread to new locations in the absence of human-
329 mediated movement of infected plant material. Thus, once it is possible to predict pathogen host range
330 based on genomic sequence, it could be possible to deploy targeted host resistance based on knowledge
331 of the RSSC genotypes in different regions.

332 An objective of AVRDC's research on bacterial wilt resistance was to develop resistant lines with
333 more than 90% survival rate (Hanson et al. 1996). With this framework, we identified 18 accessions with

334 less than 10% wilt incidence to at least one RSSC isolate. However, among these 18 accessions, only one-
335 third were highly resistant ($\leq 10\%$ wilting) to all six isolates: three tomato accessions (CLN1463, TML46,
336 and R3034) in addition to the reference resistant line Hawaii 7996, one eggplant accession (EG219), and
337 one pepper accession (0209-04). Among the INRAE accessions, three tomato accessions (CLN1463,
338 TML46, and R3034) and no eggplant or pepper accessions were highly resistant all six isolates. Neither
339 BARI accession nor the Mt56 accession were highly resistant to all isolates. In addition to breeding lines
340 with polygenic bacterial wilt resistance, there is considerable promise in using transgenic approaches to
341 move immune receptors from diverse plant species into crops. For example, transgenic tomatoes and
342 potatoes expressing Efr, a pattern recognition receptor from *Arabidopsis thaliana*, demonstrate
343 bacterial wilt resistance in field and greenhouse trials (Lacombe et al. 2010; Boschi et al. 2017; Kunwar
344 et al. 2018). Additionally, cytoplasmic immune receptors like ZAR1 and Ptr1 can recognize effectors from
345 some RSSC isolates and other pathogens (Ahn et al. 2023), leading to interest in transforming tomato
346 and eggplant with Ptr1 to better manage bacterial wilt with host resistance (Haefner et al. 2023).

347 To effectively manage bacterial wilt with host resistance, there is a need for large-scale research
348 that identifies the geographic distributions of RSSC genotypes and statistical/artificial intelligence
349 models to predict host range from RSSC genotype. To reach these goals, funding is needed for (1)
350 epidemiological surveys of pathogen populations in different regions, (2) quantitatively comparisons of
351 disease outcomes with diverse pairings of host genotypes vs. pathogen genotypes, and (3) generation of
352 host and pathogen genomic data to allow functional genomics and population genomics studies.
353 Genomic data and phenotypic data should be published in both summarized and raw formats to make
354 the data most valuable for future meta-analysis. For this reason, we recently published raw host-range
355 and whole genome sequence data on 19 phylotype IIB-4 RSSC isolates (Beutler et al. 2022). In this study,
356 we quantified wilt incidence on a panel of Solanaceae accessions that have previously been phenotyped
357 against 12 global RSSC isolates and six RSSC isolates from Louisiana, U.S (Lebeau et al. 2011; Lewis Ivey
358 et al. 2021). Across these studies, genomes are available for eight out of 24 *Ralstonia* isolates.
359 Unfortunately, genomes cannot be sequenced for 14 of the phenotyped isolates, including four isolates
360 from this study, due to a combination of regulatory hurdles and lost viability of stocks.

361 Overall, we characterized the diversity of RSSC isolates from solanaceous hosts in South Asia and
362 identified the most resistant tomato, eggplant and pepper accessions that can potentially be used to
363 manage bacterial wilt in South Asia. As the resistance of these tomato, eggplant, and pepper accessions
364 were evaluated under greenhouse conditions in Ohio, U.S., they must be assessed in field conditions of

365 South Asia before employing them at large scale. This study contributes valuable knowledge on the
366 genetic diversity and host range of RSSC populations infecting solanaceous hosts in Bangladesh and
367 Nepal.

368 **Data availability statement**

369 The genome data are available on NCBI Assembly and NCBI SRA under BioProject PRJNA989236.
370 Isolates that are indicated as viable in Table S1 are available from the Lowe-Power lab. High-resolution
371 PDF format figures are available on FigShare (doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23733567).

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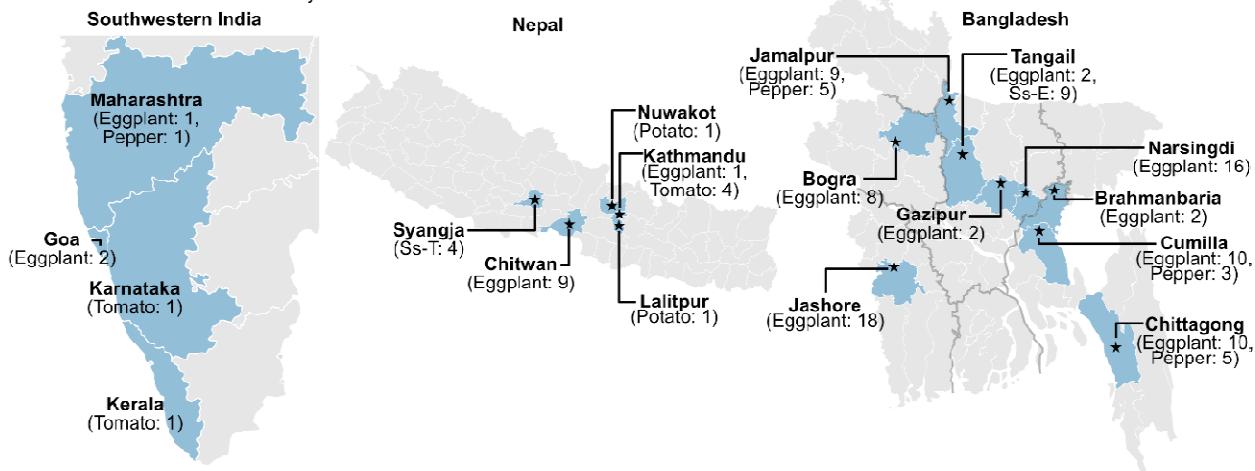
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646 **Figures and Tables**

A. Strains characterized in this study



B. Meta-analysis of RSSC lineages isolated in South Asia

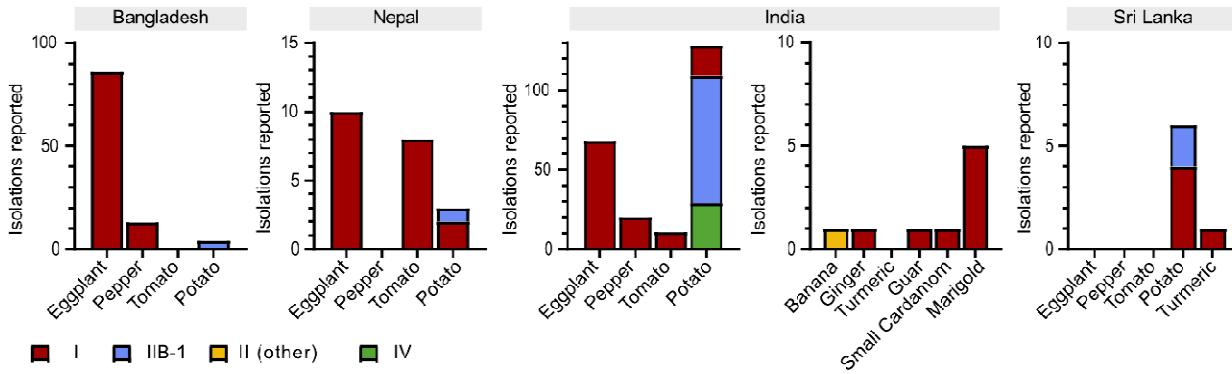
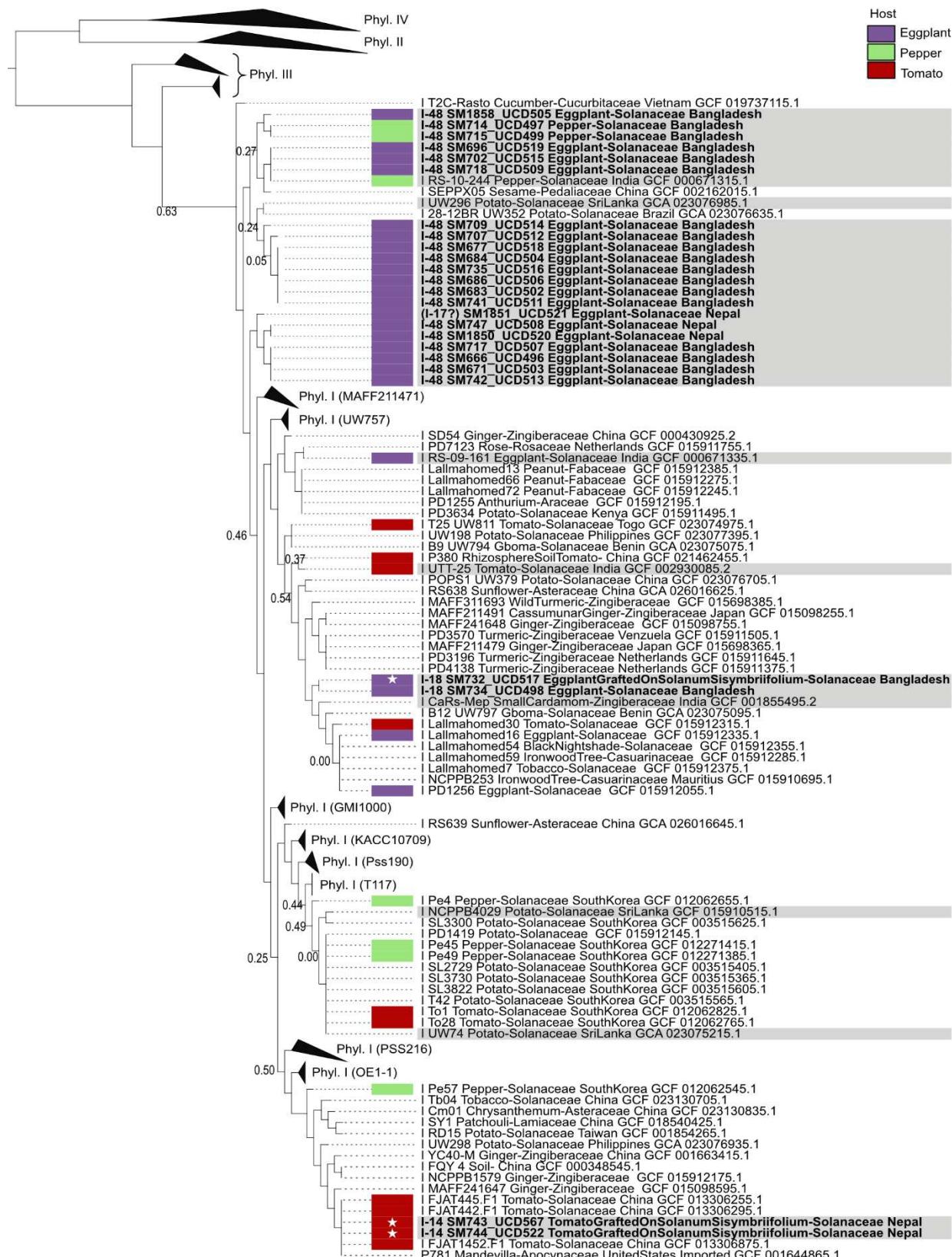


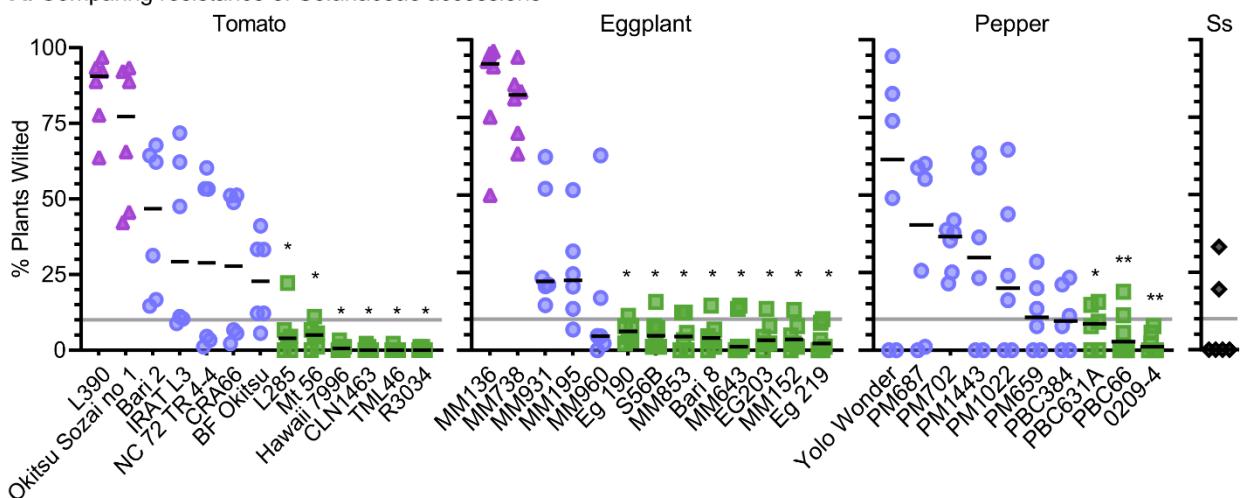
Fig 1. *Ralstonia solanacearum* species complex (RSSC) isolates in South Asia. (A) Origins of South Asian *R. pseudosolanacearum* phylotype I isolates characterized in this study. Stars indicate the sampling locations, and light blue shading indicates districts (Bangladesh/Nepal) and states (India) where isolates originated. Abbreviations: Ss-E, eggplant grafted on *S. sisymbriifolium* rootstock; Ss-T, tomato grafted on *S. sisymbriifolium* rootstock. (B) Meta-analysis of RSSC lineages isolated in South Asia in this study and the literature, adapted from Lowe-Power et al. 2022. This study included Bangladesh isolates (77 from eggplant, nine from grafted eggplant/*S. sisymbriifolium*, and 13 from pepper) and Nepal isolates (ten eggplant, four from tomato, two from potato, and two from grafted tomato/*S. sisymbriifolium*).



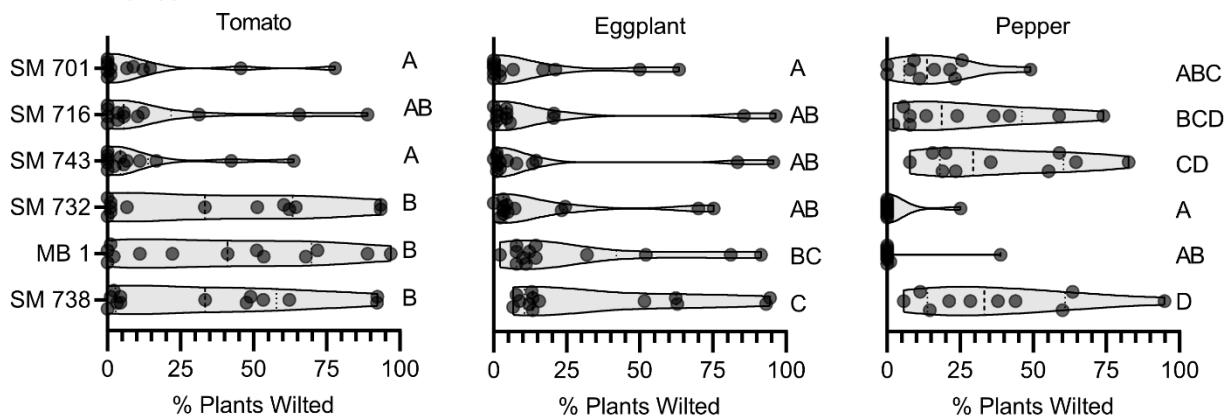
662 **Fig 2.** Phylogeny of South Asian and global RSSC. The phylogenetic tree was built with the KBase
663 SpeciesTree tool, which creates a multiple sequence alignment of 49 conserved bacterial genes and
664 generates a tree using FastTree. Analysis of the *egl* sequence suggested that the *R. pseudosolanacearum*
665 genomes sequenced in this study belong to sequevar 48, 14, 18, and 17. Because the sole sequevar 17
666 assignment to SM1851 was incongruent with the KBase tree, we indicate uncertainty in this assignment
667 with "(17?)". Grey shading indicates isolates from South Asia. Bold indicates genomes sequenced in this
668 study. Purple, red, and light green rectangles identify isolates isolated from eggplant, pepper, or tomato.
669 White stars indicate isolates isolated from crop hosts that were grafted onto *Solanum sisymbriifolium*
670 rootstock. Phylotype I clades without South Asian isolates were collapsed to triangles that reflect the
671 amount of genetic diversity within the collapsed clade. Per triangle, one representative genome from
672 the clade is listed. Additionally, phylotype II, III, and IV clades were collapsed. Bootstrap values are only
673 listed if less than 0.70. A searchable PDF of the full tree is available on the FigShare repository
674 (doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23733567).
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A. Comparing resistance of Solanaceae accessions



B. Comparing aggression of six strains



C. Isolation locations and hosts of the six strains

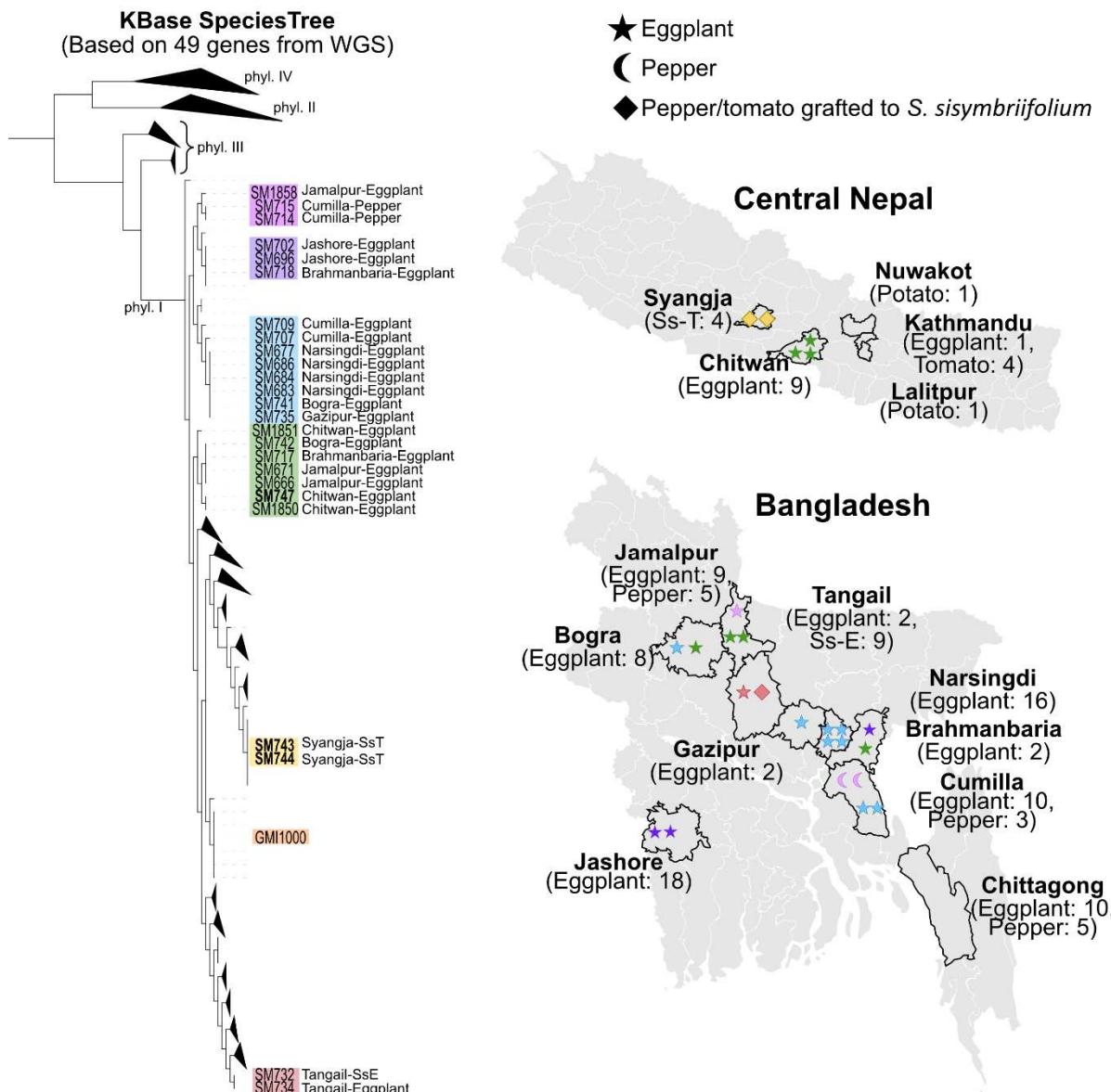


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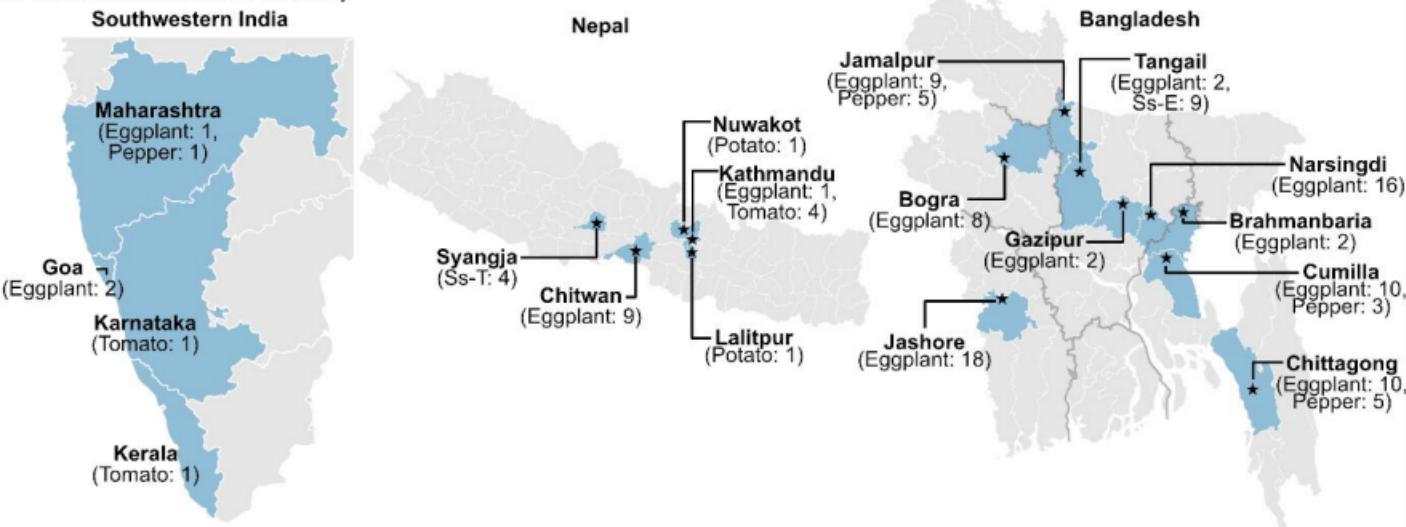
678 **Fig 3.** Disease interactions of 13 tomato accessions, 13 eggplant accessions, ten pepper accessions, and
679 one *Solanum sisymbriifolium* (Ss) accession against six South Asian phylotype I isolates. Four-week-old
680 seedlings were soil drench-inoculated with 5 ml of bacterial suspension (10^8 CFU/ml) following root
681 injury. The experiment was conducted twice as a randomized complete block design with three
682 replications (blocked by time) of 15 plants per replication. Each point represents the average wilt
683 incidence of two experiments recorded five weeks after inoculation. Isolates were SM701 (eggplant in
684 Jessore, Bangladesh), SM716 (pepper in Comilla, Bangladesh), SM732 (eggplant grafted on *S.*
685 *sisymbriifolium* in Tangail, Bangladesh), SM738 (eggplant in Bogra, Bangladesh), SM743 (tomato grafted
686 on *S. sisymbriifolium* in Syangja, Nepal), and MB1 (eggplant in India). **(A)** Relative resistance of tomato,
687 eggplant, and pepper accessions. Asterisks indicate significance compared to the most susceptible
688 cultivar (L390 tomato, MM136 eggplant, and Yolo Wonder pepper) based on $p<0.05$ with Friedman test
689 and Dunn's multiple comparison correction. **(B)** Relative virulence of the six isolates across the
690 accessions. Each symbol indicates the mean incidence of the isolate on a single accession. Letters
691 indicate significance groups ($p<0.05$) by Friedman test and Dunn's multiple comparison correction. **(C)**
692 Origins of the six South Asian isolates.

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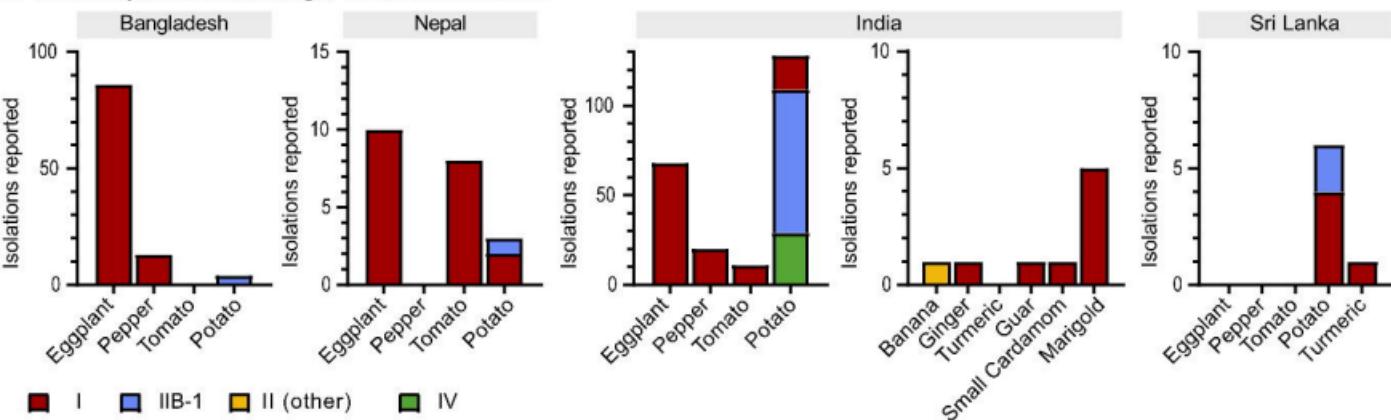
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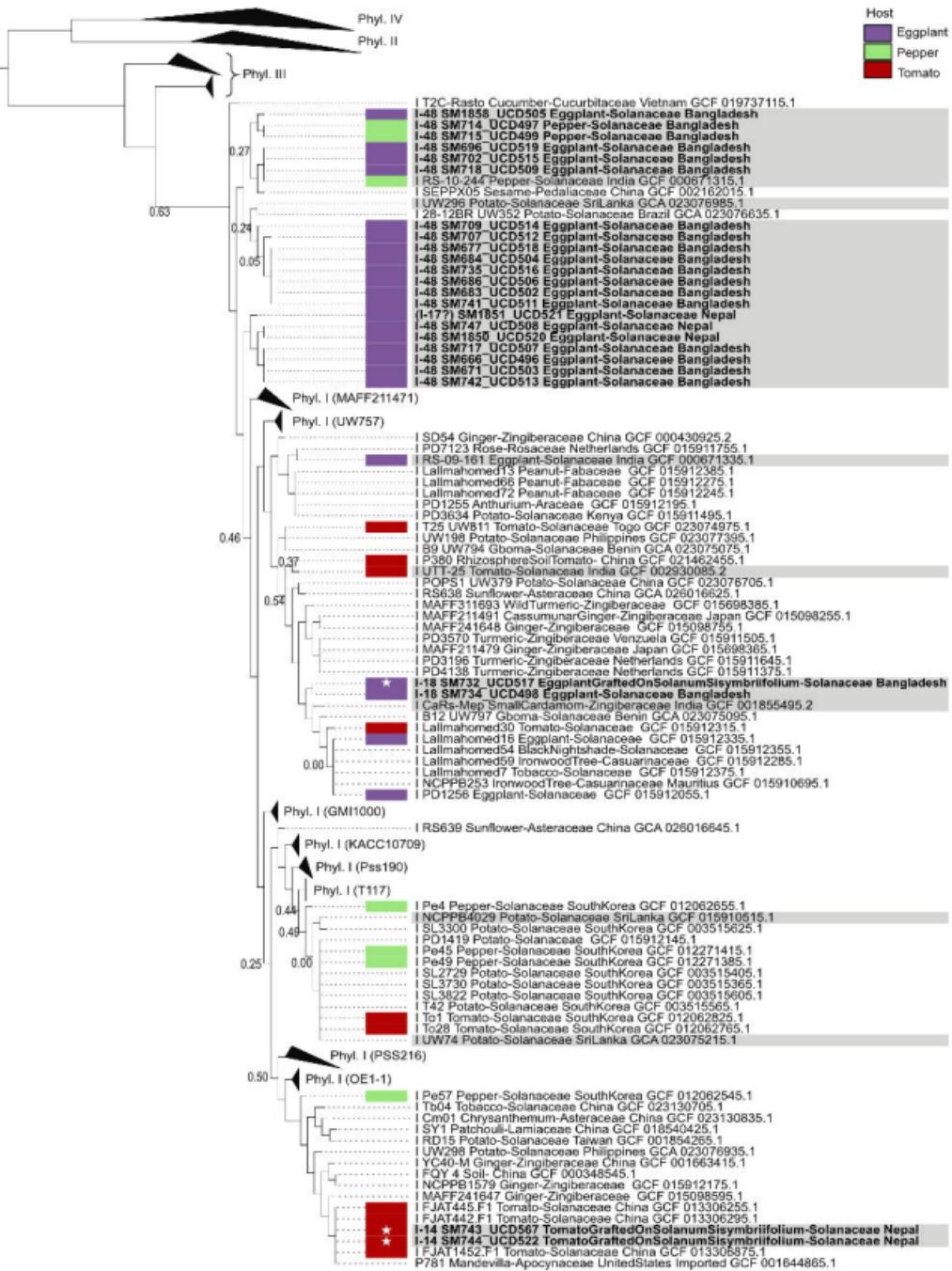


A. Strains characterized in this study

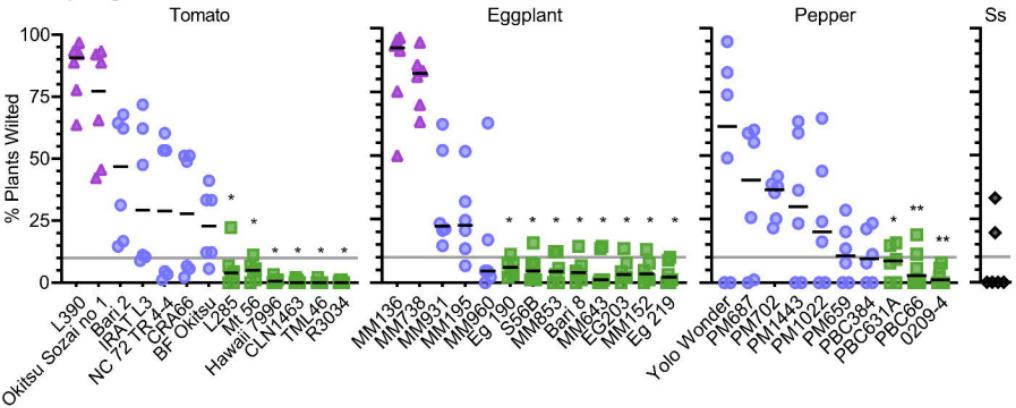


B. Meta-analysis of RSSC lineages isolated in South Asia

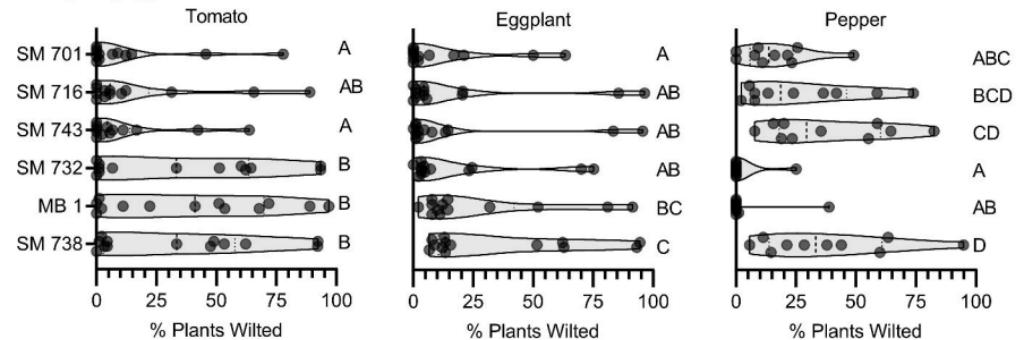




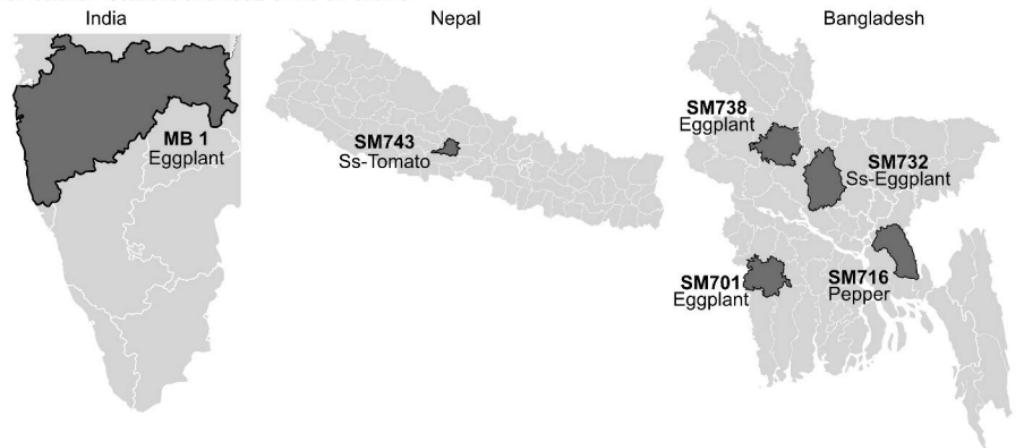
A. Comparing resistance of Solanaceae accessions



B. Comparing aggressiveness of six strains

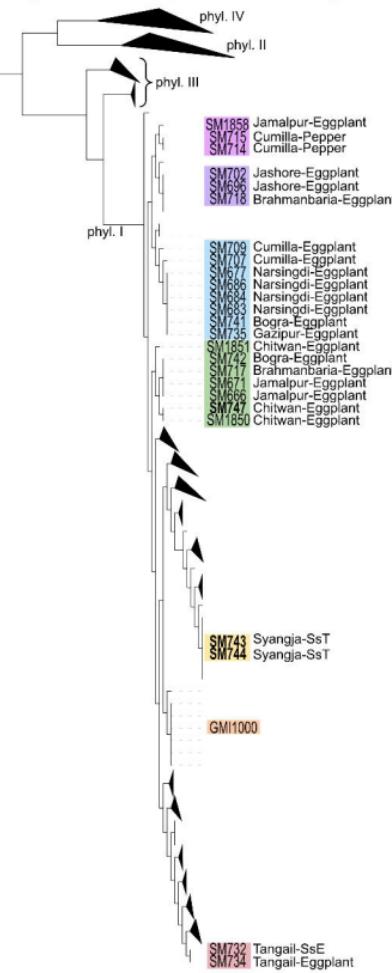


C. Isolation locations and hosts of the six strains



KBase SpeciesTree

(Based on 49 genes from WGS)

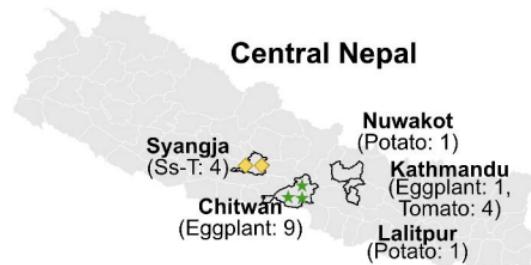


★ Eggplant

☾ Pepper

◆ Pepper/tomato grafted to *S. sisymbriifolium*

Central Nepal



Bangladesh

