1 The genome of the plague-resistant great gerbil reveals species-specific

2 duplication of an MHCII gene

- 3 Pernille Nilsson^{1*}, Monica H. Solbakken¹, Boris V. Schmid¹, Russell J. S. Orr², Ruichen Lv³,
- 4 Yujun Cui³, Yajun Song³, Yujiang Zhang⁴, Nils Chr. Stenseth^{1,5}, Ruifu Yang³, Kjetill S. Jakobsen¹,
- 5 W. Ryan Easterday¹ & Sissel Jentoft¹
- 6
- 7 ¹ Centre for Ecological and Evolutionary Synthesis, Department of Biosciences, University of Oslo
- 8 ² Natural History Museum, University of Oslo, Oslo, Norway
- 9 ³ State Key Laboratory of Pathogen and Biosecurity, Beijing Institute of Microbiology and
- 10 Epidemiology, Beijing 100071, China
- ⁴ Xinjiang Center for Disease Control and Prevention, Urumqi, China
- ¹² ⁵ Ministry of Education Key Laboratory for Earth System Modeling, Department of Earth System
- 13 Science, Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China
- ^{*} Corresponding author, pernille.nilsson@ibv.uio.no
- 15

16 Abstract

The great gerbil (*Rhombomys opimus*) is a social rodent living in permanent, complex burrow systems distributed throughout Central Asia, where it serves as the main host of several important vector-borne infectious diseases and is defined as a key reservoir species for plague (*Yersinia pestis*). Studies from the wild have shown that the great gerbil is largely resistant to plague but the genetic basis for resistance is yet to be determined. Here, we present a highly contiguous annotated genome assembly of great gerbil, covering over 96 % of the estimated 2.47 Gb genome. Comparative genomic analyses focusing on the immune

24 gene repertoire, reveal shared gene losses within TLR gene families (i.e. TLR8, TLR10 and all 25 members of *TLR11*-subfamily) for the Gerbillinae lineage, accompanied with signs of 26 diversifying selection of TLR7 and TLR9. Most notably, we find a great gerbil-specific 27 duplication of the MHCII DRB locus. In silico analyses suggest that the duplicated gene 28 provides high peptide binding affinity for Yersiniae epitopes. The great gerbil genome 29 provides new insights into the genomic landscape that confers immunological resistance 30 towards plague. The high affinity for *Yersinia* epitopes could be key in our understanding of 31 the high resistance in great gerbils, putatively conferring a faster initiation of the adaptive 32 immune response leading to survival of the infection. Our study demonstrates the power of 33 studying zoonosis in natural hosts through the generation of a genome resource for further 34 comparative and experimental work on plague survival and evolution of host-pathogen 35 interactions.

36

37 **Main**

38 The great gerbil (*Rhombomys opimus*) is a key plague reservoir species of Central Asia [1] 39 whose habitat stretches from Iran to Kazakhstan to North Eastern China. This diurnal, 40 fossorial rodent lives in arid and semi-arid deserts, and forms small family groups that reside 41 in extensive and complex burrow systems with a large surface diameter and multiple 42 entrances, food storage and nesting chambers [2]. Where great gerbil communities coincide 43 with human settlements and agriculture they are often viewed as pests through the 44 destruction of crops and as carriers of vector-borne diseases [3-5]. Great gerbil is a dominant 45 plague host species in nearly a third of the plague reservoirs located in the vast territories of 46 Russia, Kazakhstan and China [6].

47

48 Plague, caused by the gram-negative bacterium Yersinia pestis, is a common disease in 49 wildlife rodents living in semi-arid deserts and montane steppes, as well as in tropical 50 regions [7,8]. It is predominantly transmitted between rodents by fleas living on rodents or 51 in rodent nests [9] and regularly spills over into human populations [10], leading to 52 individual cases and sometimes localized plague outbreaks [11]. Historically, spillover has 53 resulted in three major human pandemics and continues to cause annual outbreaks of 54 human plague cases in Madagascar [12-14]. Humans have played an important role in 55 spreading the disease globally [15]. However, they are generally dead-end hosts and the 56 long-term persistence of plague depends on plague reservoirs, which are areas where the 57 biotic and abiotic conditions are favoring the bacterium's survival [5].

58

59 Most commonly plague enters the body through a subcutaneous flea-bite of an infected flea, 60 being deposited in the dermal tissue of the skin [9,16]. Once the primary physical barriers of 61 the mammalian immune defense have been breached, the pathogen encounters a diverse 62 community of innate immune cells and proteins evolved to recognize and destroy invasive 63 pathogens. Here, Toll-like receptors (TLRs) and other pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) 64 are at the forefront and have a vital role in the recognition and initiation of immune 65 responses. Stimulation of adaptive immunity is in turn governed by the major 66 histocompatibility complex (MHCs). MHC class I (MHCI) and class II (MHCII) proteins present 67 antigens to CD8+ and CD4+ T lymphocytes, respectively. In particular, the CD4+ T 68 lymphocyte is a master activator and regulator of adaptive immune responses [17,18].

69

In host-pathogen interactions, both sides evolve mechanisms to overpower the other
engaging in an evolutionary arms race that shapes the genetic diversity on both sides [19,20].

Y. pestis evoke a specialized and complex attack to evade detection and destruction by the 72 73 mammalian immune system to establish infection [21]. Upon entering a mammalian host, 74 the change in temperature to 37° C initiates a change in bacterial gene expression switching 75 on a wealth of virulence genes whose combined action enables Y. pestis to evade both 76 extracellular and intracellular immune defenses [22] at the site of infection, in the lymph 77 node and finally in the colonized blood-rich organs [16,23-26]. The host, in addition to 78 standard immune responses, will have to establish counter measures to overcome the Y. 79 pestis strategy of suppressing and delaying the innate immune responses [27,28]. This 80 includes recognition of pathogen, resisting the bacterial signals that induce apoptosis of 81 antigen presenting cells (APCs) and successfully producing an inflammatory response that 82 can overpower the infection while avoiding hyperactivation.

83

84 Like all main plague reservoir hosts great gerbils can cope remarkably well with plague 85 infections with only a minor increase in mortality levels compared to the natural mortality 86 (see [10,29] for details). In a laboratory setting, a very large dose of Y. pestis is required 87 before a lethal dose is reached where half the injected animals die (LD50) [30]. Variation in 88 plague resistance do exists between individual great gerbils [30] however, the genetic basis 89 of plague resistance and the differences in survival is still unclear. The adaptive immune 90 system requires several days to respond to an infection and Y. pestis progresses so rapidly 91 that it can kill susceptible hosts within days. Consequently, the genetic background of the 92 innate immune system could potentially play a pivotal part in plague survival and also 93 contribute to the observed heterogeneity in plague resistance [31]. For a successful 94 response the innate immune system would have to keep the infection in check whilst 95 properly activating the adaptive immune system [18], which can then mount an appropriate 96 immune response leading to a more efficient and complete clearance of the pathogen. 97 Previous studies investigating plague resistance have indeed implicated components of both 98 innate [32-38] and adaptive immunity [39,40]. Although, none of these studies have involved 99 wild reservoir hosts in combination with whole-genome sequencing, an approach with 100 increased resolution that can be used in a comparative genomic setting to investigate 101 adaptation, evolution and disease.

102

103 The importance of studying (the genetics/genomics of) zoonosis in their natural hosts is 104 increasingly recognized [41] and the advances in sequencing technology has made it possible 105 and affordable to do whole-genome sequencencing of non-model species for individual and 106 comparative analysis of hosts facing a broad range of zoonosis [41].

107 In this paper, we present a *de novo* whole-genome sequence assembly of the major plague 108 host, the great gerbil. We use this new resource to investigate the genomic landscape of 109 innate and adaptive immunity with focus on candidate genes relevant for plague resistance 110 such as *TLRs* and MHC, through genomic comparative analyses with the closely related 111 plague hosts Mongolian gerbil (*Meriones unguiculatus*) and sand rat (*Psammomys obesus*) 112 and other mammals.

113

114 **Results**

115 Genome assembly and annotation

We sequenced the genome of a wild-caught male great gerbil, sampled from the Xinjiang Province in China, using the Illumina HiSeq 2000/2500 platform (Additional file 2: Table S1 and S2). The genome was assembled *de novo* using ALLPATHS-LG resulting in an assembly consisting of 6,390 scaffolds with an N50 of 3.6 Mb and a total size of 2.376 Gb (Table 1),

120	thus covering 96.4 % of the estimated genome size of 2.47 Gb. Assembly assessment with
121	CEGMA and BUSCO, which investigates the presence and completeness of conserved
122	eukaryotic and vertebrate genes, reported 85.88 % and 87.5 % gene completeness,
123	respectively (Table 1). We were also able to locate all 39 HOX genes conserved in four
124	clusters on four separate scaffolds through gene mining (Additional file 1: Fig S1). Further
125	genome assessment with Blobology, characterizing possible contaminations, demonstrated
126	a low degree of contamination, reporting that more than 98.5 % of the reads/bases had top
127	hits of Rodentia. Thus, no scaffolds were filtered from our assembly.
128	Annotation was performed using the MAKER2 pipeline and resulted in 70 974 predicted
129	gene models of which 22 393 protein coding genes were retained based on default filtering

- on Annotation Edit Distance score (AED<1). 130
- 131
- Table 1. Great gerbil genome assembly statistics. 132

Assembly metrics	
Total size of scaffolds (bp)	2 376 008 858
Estimated genome size (bp)	2 464 792 293
Number of scaffolds	6 389
Scaffold N50 (bp)	3 610 217
Longest scaffold (bp)	16 185 803
Total size of contigs (bp)	2 216 488 676
Number of contigs	106 018
Contig N50 (bp)	56 880
Assembly validation	
Complete CEGMA ^ª genes	85.88 % (213/248)
Partial CEGMA genes	95.16 % (236/248)
Complete Single-copy BUSCOs ^b	2 114 (69.9 %)
Complete duplicated BUSCOs	21 (0.69 %)
Fragmented BUSCOs	533 (17.6 %)
Missing BUSCOs	377 (12.5 %)
Total BUSCOs searched	3 023
^a Based on 248 highly Conserved Eukaryotic	Conoc (CECc) ^b Paced on 2 022 vertebrate cooc

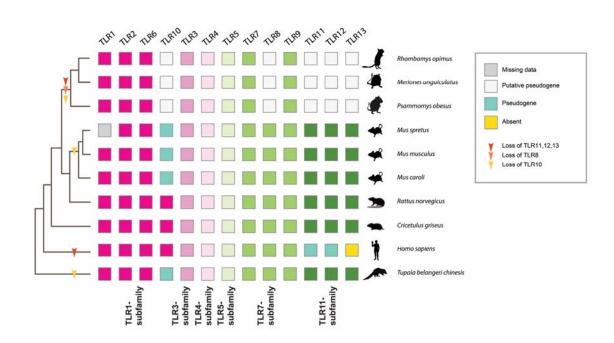
- Based on 248 highly Conserved Eukaryotic Genes (CEGs), ^b Based on 3,023 vertebrate-specific
- **BUSCO** genes 134

- 135 Legend: The table details scaffold and contig assembly statistics as well as results from the assembly
- 136 validation on genic completeness with CEGMA and BUSCO.
- 137

138 Reduced TLR repertoire in great gerbil and Gerbillinae

139 We characterized the entire TLR genetic repertoire in the great gerbil genome and found 13 140 TLRs: TLR1-13 (Fig. 1). Of these, TLR1-7 and TLR9 were complete with signal peptide, ectodomain, transmembrane domain, linker and Toll/interleukin 1 receptor (TIR) domain that 141 142 phylogenetically clustered well within each respective subfamily (Table 2 and Fig.2). For the 143 remaining five TLRs, we were only able to retrieve fragments of TLR8 and TLR10 genes and 144 although sequences of TLR11-13 were near full length, all three members of the TLR11 145 subfamily are putative non-functional pseudogenes as they contain numerous point 146 mutations that creates premature stop codons and frameshift-causing indels. In addition, 147 TLR12 contains a large deletion of 78 residues (Additional file 1: Figure S2). For TLR8, the 148 recovered sequence almost exclusively covers the conserved TIR domain. Relative synteny of 149 TLR7 and TLR8 on chromosome X is largely conserved in both human and published rodent 150 genomes, as well as in the great gerbil with the fragments of *TLR8* being located upstream of 151 the full-length sequence of TLR7 on scaffold00186 (Additional file 1: Figure S3). The great 152 gerbil TLR10 fragments are located on the same scaffold as full-length TLR1 and TLR6 153 (scaffold00357), in a syntenic structure comparable to other mammals (Additional file 1: Figure S3). In addition to being far from full-length sequences, the pieces of *TLR8* and *TLR10* 154 155 in the great gerbil genome have point mutations that creates premature stop codons and 156 frameshift-causing indels (Additional file 1: Figure S2). The same TLR repertoire is seen in 157 great gerbils' closest relatives, Mongolian gerbil and sand rat, with near full-length 158 sequences of TLR12 and TLR13 and shorter fragments of TLR8 and TLR10. Interestingly, for

- 159 *TLR11* only shorter fragments were located for these two species, which is in contrast to the
- 160 near full-length sequence identified in great gerbil. Moreover, also in these two species
- 161 premature stop codons and indel-causing frameshifts were present in both the near full-
- length and fragmented genes (Fig. 1 and Additional file 1: Figure S2).
- 163



164

165 FIG. 1 TLR repertoire in Gerbillinae compared to members of Rodentia, human and Chinese

166 tree shrew

167 FIG. 1 TLR repertoire of the investigated Gerbillinae, Rodentia, human and Chinese tree shrew 168 mapped onto a composite cladogram (see Additional file 1: Figure S4). The lineage specific loss of 169 TLR8 and all members of the TLR11-subfamily in Gerbillinae and other lineage-specific TLR losses are 170 marked by arrows. Depicted in boxes colored by the six major subfamilies are the individual species' 171 TLR repertoires: TLR1-subfamily (dark pink), TLR3-subfamily (pink), TLR4-subfamily (light pink), TLR5-172 subfamily (light green), TLR7-subfamily (green) and TLR11-subfamily (dark green). Teal colored boxes 173 represent established pseudogenes, empty (white) boxes indicate putative pseudogenes, yellow 174 boxes indicate complete absence of genes and grey boxes represent missing information.

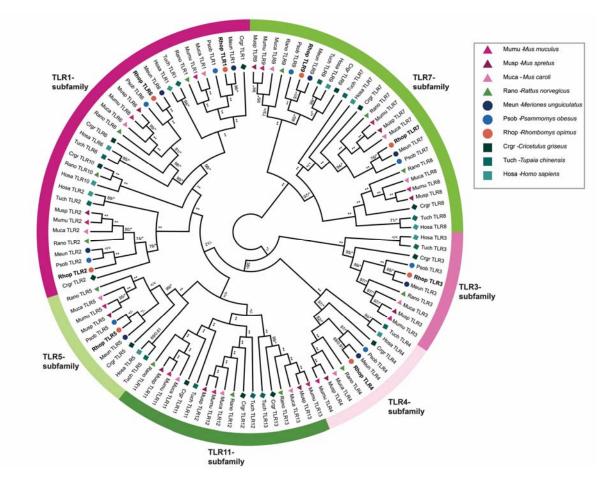
175

176 Table 2. Overview of *TLRs* in great gerbil and their location in the genome assembly.

Gene	Scaffold	Strand	Start	End	Size (aa)	Full- length coding
						sequence
TLR1	scaffold00357	+	837 967	840 348	794	Yes
TLR2	scaffold00513	+	45 595	47 946	784	Yes
TLR3	scaffold00205	-	1 713 605	1 703 075	905	Yes
TLR4	scaffold00158	+	3 555 106	3 573 424	838	Yes
TLR5	scaffold00165	-	2 379 076	2 376 503	858	Yes
TLR6	scaffold00357	+	820 802	823 186	795	Yes
TLR 7	scaffold00186	-	3 421 186ª	3 418 040	1049	Yes ^b
TLR8	scaffold00186	-			130	No ^c
TLR9	scaffold00044	+	7 083 426ª	7 086 521	1032	Yes ^b
TLR10	scaffold00357	+			341	No
TLR11	scaffold00001	+			917	Yes ^d
TLR12	scaffold00071	-	4 008 732	4 006 236	817	No ^d
TLR13	scaffold00845	-			899	Yes ^d

^a Start of second codon in sequence

- ^b Missing start codon
- 179 ^c Close to complete TIR domain plus c-terminal
- 180 ^d Contains multiple point mutations and indels causing frameshifts
- 181 Legend: The table details which scaffolds and in what orientation each *TLR* is located as well as
- 182 coordinates for the start and end of each gene (except for the pseudogenes) on the respective
- 183 scaffolds. Information on the size of the translated amino acid sequence and whether it is complete
- is also shown.



187 FIG.2 ML-phylogeny of full-length TLRs present in all investigated Gerbillinae, Rodentia,

188 human and Chinese tree shrew

FIG.2 A Maximum likelihood (ML) phylogeny of nucleotide sequences all full-length *TLRs* was created using RAXML with 100x topology and 500x bootstrap replicates. A MrBayes phylogeny with 20,000,000 generations and 25 % burn-in was also created and the posterior probabilities added to the RAXML phylogeny. Great gerbil genes are marked in bold and by orange circles. The six major *TLR* subfamilies are marked with colored bars and corresponding names. All investigated *TLRs* including great gerbil's, cluster well within each subfamily as well as being clearly separated into each *TLR* subfamily member.

196

186

197 Diversifying selection of TLRs

198 To explore possible variations in selective pressure across the species in our analysis, we ran 199 the adaptive branch-site random effects model (aBSREL) on all full-length TLRs. Evidence of 200 episodic positive selection was demonstrated for the Gerbillinae lineage for TLR7 and TLR9 201 and for the Mongolian gerbil TLR7 specifically (Additional file 1: Figure S5 and S6). 202 Additionally, all full-length great gerbil TLRs were analyzed for sites under selection using 203 phylogeny guided mixed effects model of evolution (MEME), from the classic datamonkey 204 and datamonkey version 2.0 websites. Reported sites common between both analyses for all 205 full-length TLRs at p-value 0.05 and their distribution among each domain of the proteins are 206 listed in Additional file 2: Table S3. Overall, the sites under selection were almost exclusively 207 located in the ecto-domains with a few sites located in the signal peptide (TLR3, TLR6 and 208 TLR9) and in the Linker and TIR domains (TLR1, TLR2, TLR4 and TLR5). The 3D protein 209 structure of TLR4, TLR7 and TLR9 modelled onto the human TLR5 structure further 210 demonstrated that the sites are predominantly located in loops interspersed between the 211 leucine-rich repeats (Additional file 1: Figures S7-9).

212

Scrutiny of the TLR4 amino acid sequence alignment revealed drastic differences in the properties of the residues at two positions reported to be important for maintaining signaling of hypoacetylated lipopolysaccharide (LPS). In rat (*Rattus norvegicus*) and all mouse species used in this study, the residues at position 367 and 434 are basic and positively charged while for the remaining species in the alignment including all Gerbillinae, the residues are acidic and negatively charged.

219

220 Characterization of the great gerbil class I MHC region

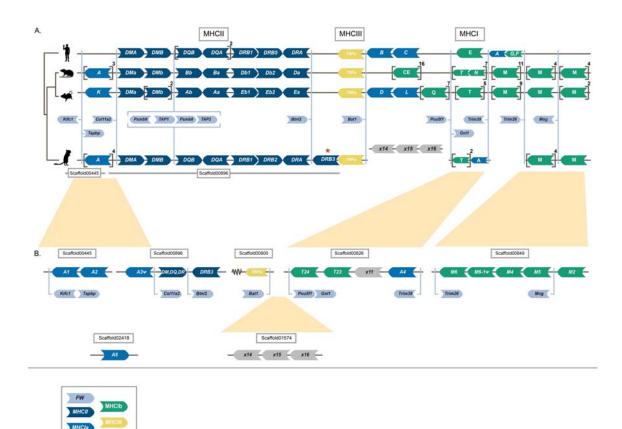
221 The overall syntemy of the MHCI region is well conserved in great gerbil, displaying the same 222 translocation of some MHCI genes upstream of the MHCII region as demonstrated in mouse 223 and rat i.e. with a distinct separation of the MHCI region into two clusters (Fig. 3). Some of 224 the great gerbil copies were not included in the phylogeny due to missing data, which 225 hindered their annotation. Additionally, the annotation was obstructed either by the copies 226 being located on scaffolds not containing framework genes or due to variation in the micro-227 synteny of those particular loci of MHCla and MHClb between mouse, rat and great gerbil 228 (Fig. 3). From the synteny it appears that *MHCI* genes are missing in the region between 229 framework genes Trim39 and Trim26 and possibly between Bat1 and Pou5f1 in the great 230 gerbil. For full gene names for these and other framework genes mentioned below, see 231 Additional file 2: Table S4.

232

233 We were able to identify six scaffolds containing *MHCI* genes (Fig. 3 and Additional file 2: 234 Table S5. Four of the scaffolds contained framework genes that enabled us to orient them. In 235 total, we located 16 *MHCI* copies, of which we were able to obtain all three α domains for 10 236 of the copies. Three copies contain 2 out of 3 domains while for the last three copies we 237 were only able to locate the α 3 domain. In one instance, the missing α domain was due to 238 an assembly gap. Reciprocal BLAST confirmed hits as MHCI genes. Due to high similarity 239 between different MHCI lineages annotation of identified sequences was done through 240 phylogenetic analyses and synteny. Our phylogeny reveals both inter- and intraspecific 241 clustering of the great gerbil MHCI genes with other rodent genes with decent statistical 242 support (i.e. bootstrap and/or posterior probabilities) of the internal branches (Fig. 4). Five 243 great gerbil MHCI genes (RhopA1-5) cluster together in a main monophyletic clade while the 244 remaining copies cluster with mouse and rat *MHClb* genes. Two of the copies (Rhop-A3 ψ

245 and Rhop-M6 ψ) appear to be pseudogenes as indicated by the presence of point mutations 246 and frameshift-causing indels. Additionally, our phylogeny displays a monophyletic 247 clustering of human MHCI genes (Fig. 4). The clade containing five of the great gerbil MHCI 248 genes (Rhop-A1-5) possibly include a combination of both classical (MHCla) and non-classical 249 (MHClb) genes as is the case for mouse and rat, where certain MHClb genes cluster closely 250 with MHCla genes (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4). Also, due to the high degree of sequence similarity of 251 rodent *MHCI* genes the phylogenetic relationship between clades containing non-classical M 252 and T MHCI genes could not be resolved by sufficient statistical support.

253



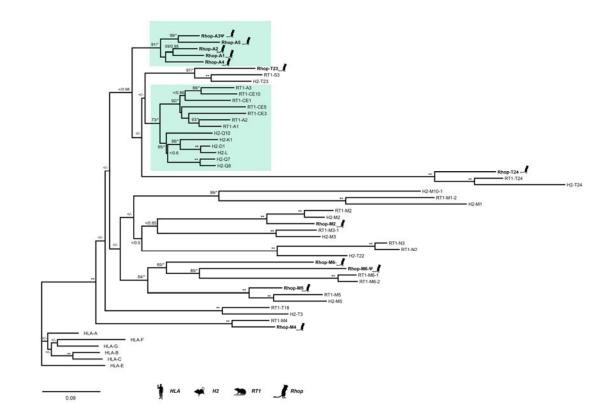
254

255 FIG. 3 Synteny of genes in the Major histocompatibility (MHC) region of human, rat, mouse

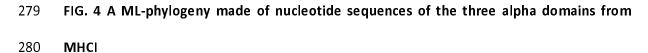
and gerbil

257 FIG 3 Genomic syntemy of genes in the MHC regions of human, mouse, rat and great gerbil mapped 258 onto a cladogram. Genes are represented by arrow-shaped boxes indicating the genomic orientation. 259 The boxes are colored by class region and for class I by classical (Ia) or non-classical (Ib) subdivision: 260 Framework (FW) genes (light blue), MHCII (dark blue), MHCIa (blue), MHCIII (yellow) and MHCIb 261 (green). Square brackets indicate multiple gene copies not displayed for practical and visualization 262 purposes, but copy number is indicated outside in superscript. Due to limitations in space and to 263 emphasize the conserved synteny of FW genes across lineages, the genes are placed in between the 264 general syntenies and their respective locations are indicated by light blue lines. The light blue 265 brackets surrounding the Psmb and TAP genes indicates their constitutive organization. Putative 266 pseudogenes are denoted with ψ . For visualization purposes, genes of the DP (termed H in rat) and 267 DO (termed O in mouse) loci are excluded. The location of all great gerbil MHCII genes including 268 Rhop-DP and Rhop-DO can be found in Table 3. (A) Synteny of all MHC regions detailing MCHI and II. 269 Panel (B) further details the genomic locations of great gerbil MHCI genes as indicated by the 270 presence of FW genes located on the scaffolds and inferred from synteny comparisons with human, 271 rat and mouse regions and phylogenetic analysis (see Fig. 4).

The overall synteny of the MHCI and II regions are very well conserved in great gerbil displaying the same translocation of *MHCI* genes upstream of *MHCII* as seen in mouse and rat and resulting in the separation of the MHCI region into two. Most notably, for *MHCII* there is a duplication of a β gene of the *DR* locus in great gerbil (highlighted by a red asterix) whose orientation has changed and is located downstream of the FW gene *Btnl2* that normally represents the end of the MHCII region.



278



281 FIG.4 A Maximum likelihood phylogeny of nucleotide sequences containing the three α domains of 282 MHCI was created using RAxML with 100x topology and 500x bootstrap replicates. A MrBayes 283 phylogeny with 20,000,000 generations and 25 % burn-in was also created and the posterior 284 probabilities added to the RAxML phylogeny. BS/PP; "*" = BS 100 or PP > 0.96; "**" = BS of 100 and PP>0.97; "<" = support values below 50/0.8 and "-" = node not present in Bayesian analysis. Twelve 285 286 of the 16 great gerbil sequences were used in the analysis and are marked with a gerbil silhouette 287 and in bold lettering. The remaining four *MHCI* sequences were excluded from the phylogenetic 288 analyses due to missing data exceeding the set threshold of 50 %. The clusters containing MHCIa 289 (classical MHCI) and the closest related MHCIb genes are marked by teal boxes. Putative 290 pseudogenes are denoted with ψ .

292 Characterization of the great gerbil class II MHC region

293 A single scaffold (scaffold00896) of 471 076 bp was identified to contain all genes of the 294 MHCII region, flanked by the reference framework genes *Col11a2* and *Btnl2*. We were able 295 to obtain orthologues of α and β genes of the classical MHCII molecules DP, DQ and DR as 296 well as for the 'non-classical' DM and DO molecules (Table 3). The antigen-processing genes for the class I presentation pathway, Psmb9, TAP1, Psmb8 and TAP2 also maps to 297 298 scaffold00896 (Fig. 3). Synteny of the MHCII region was largely conserved in great gerbil 299 when compared to mouse, rat and human regions except for a single duplicated copy of 300 Rhop-DRB (Rhop-DRB3) that was located distal to the Btnl2 framework gene representing 301 the border between class II and III of the MHC region (Fig. 3). The duplicated copy of the 302 *Rhop-DRB* gene has an antisense orientation in contrast to the other copies of the *Rhop-DRB* 303 genes in great gerbil. In rodents, the DR locus contains a duplication of the β gene and the 304 two copies are termed $\beta 1$ and $\beta 2$, with the $\beta 2$ gene being less polymorphic than the highly 305 polymorphic $\beta 1$ gene. The relative orientation of the β and α genes of the DR locus is 306 conserved in most eutherian mammals studied to date with the genes facing each other, as 307 is the case for Rhop-DRB1, Rhop-DRB2 and Rhop-DRA (Fig. 3). Sequence alignment and a 308 maximum likelihood (ML) phylogeny establishes Rhop-DRB3 to be a duplication of Rhop-309 DRB1 (Fig. 5). Rhop-DRB1 and Rhop-DRB3 are separated by around 80 kb containing Rhop-310 DRB2, Rhop-DRA and five assembly gaps (Table 3).

311

Any similar duplication of the *Rhop-DRB1* gene is not seen in either of the two close family members of the Gerbillinae subfamily used in our comparative analyses. BLAST searches of the sand rat genome returned a single full-length copy of the β 1 gene and a near full-length copy of the β 2 gene (Fig. 5 and Additional file 2: Table S6). According to the annotations of

the Mongolian gerbil genome provided by NCBI, this species contains two copies of the DR locus β genes. A manual tBLASTn search using the protein sequences of Mongolian gerbil DRB genes to search the genome assembly did not yield additional hits of β genes in this locus that could have been missed in the automatic annotation process. The phylogeny confirms the copies found in Mongolian gerbil to be $\beta 1$ and $\beta 2$ genes (Fig. 5).

321

Gene	Scaffold	Strand	Start	End	Size (aa)	Full-length coding sequence
Rhop-DPB	scaffold00896	-	116 069	105 406	264	Yes
Rhop-DPA	scaffold00896	+	117 514	120 092	252	Yes
Rhop-DOA	scaffold00896	+	125 319	127 406	241	Yesa
Rhop-DMa	scaffold00896	+	166 162	168 926	265	Yes ^b
Rhop-DMb	scaffold00896	+	175 763	182 090	257	Yes
Rhop-DOB	scaffold00896	+	239 915	245 006	172	No ^c
Rhop-DQB	scaffold00896	+	271 007	278 482	231	No ^d
Rhop-DQA	scaffold00896	-	294 074	290 301	255	Yes
Rhop-DRB1	scaffold00896	+	310 644	319 368	265	Yes
Rhop-DRB2	scaffold00896	+	326 384	347 931	272	Yes ^e
Rhop-DRA	scaffold00896	-	355 351	351 425	254	Yes
Rhop-DRB3	scaffold00896	-	403 768	395 068	265	Yes

322 Table 3. Overview of great gerbil *MHCII* genes and their location in the genome assembly.

^a Missing final residue and stop codon due to conserved overlapping splice site

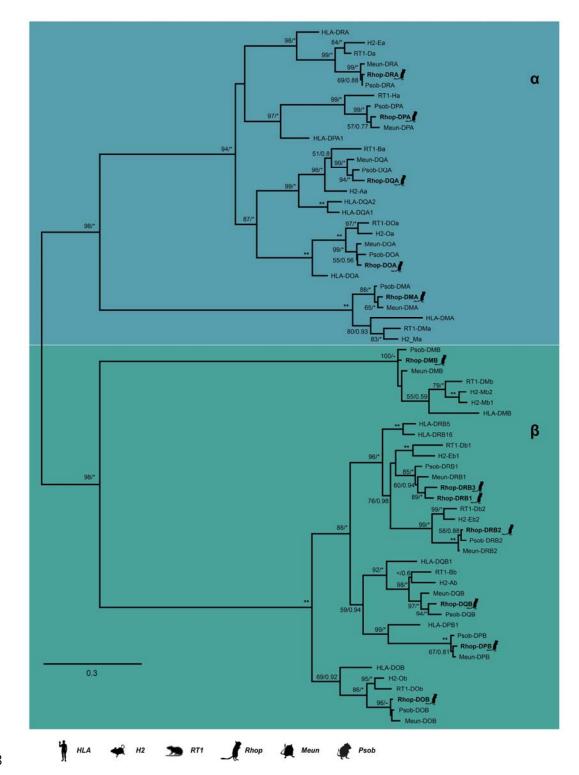
^b Unable to locate a stop codon. The structure of the final two exons is conserved among human,

325 mouse and rat with the ultimate residue overlapping the splice site. The final coding exon therefore

only contains two bp and the stop codon making it hard to determine the location of the final exon in

- 327 the gerbil without supporting RNA information.
- 328 ^c Missing 99 residues (121-219) due to assembly gap
- 329 ^d Start location is that of exon 2 as exon 1 is missing due to an assembly gap.
- ^e The cytoplasmic tail of $\beta 2$ genes are encoded by an exon with no known homology to other exons in
- the MHC II genes and has a low degree of homology between mouse and rat [42]. There is therefore
- some uncertainty related to the completeness of the final exon of *Rhop-DRB2*.

- 333 Legend: The table details the assigned great gerbil gene names, which scaffold and in what
- orientation they are located as well as genomic location on the scaffold for start and end of the
- 335 genes. Information on the size of the translated amino acid sequence and whether it is complete is
- also shown.
- 337



338

339 FIG. 5 A ML-phylogeny made of nucleotide sequences of domains only from MHCII α and β

340 genes

341 **FIG.5** A Maximum likelihood phylogeny of nucleotide sequences containing the α and β domains of 342 MHCII α and β genes was created using RAXML with 100x topology and 500x bootstrap replicates. A 343 MrBayes phylogeny with 20,000,000 generations and 25 % burn-in was also created and the posterior probabilities added to the RAXML phylogeny. BS/PP; "*" = BS 100 or PP > 0.96; "**" = BS of 344 345 100 and PP>0.97; "<" = support values below 50/0.8 and "-" = node not present in Bayesian analysis. 346 Great gerbil genes are indicated with bold lettering and by silhouettes. The 12 great gerbil MHCII 347 genes located in the genome assembly cluster accordingly with the orthologues of human, mouse, 348 rat, sand rat and Mongolian gerbil. The Rhop-DRB duplication (Rhop-DRB3) cluster closely with the 349 Rhop-DRB1 and other DRB1 orthologs with good support. The nomenclature of MHCII genes in 350 Gerbillinae are in concordance with the recommendations of the MHC Nomenclature report [43].

351

352 *MHCII DRB* promoters

MHCII genes each contain a proximal promoter with conserved elements (S-X-Y motifs) that 353 354 are crucial for the efficient expression of the gene. We aligned the proximal promoter of the 355 β genes of the DR locus in great gerbil and the other investigated species to establish if the 356 integrity of the promoter was conserved as well as examining similarities and potential 357 dissimilarities causing the previously reported differences in transcription and expression of 358 $\beta 1$ and $\beta 2$ genes in rodents [42,44]. The alignment of the promoter region reveals the 359 conserved structure and similarities within β_1 and β_2 genes as well as characteristic 360 differences (Fig. 6 and Table 4). Clear similarities are seen for the proximal promoter regions 361 of *Rhop-DRB1* and *Rhop-DRB3* to the other rodent and human $\beta 1$ promoters, as illustrated 362 by high sequence similarity and the presence of a CCAAT box just downstream of the Y motif 363 in all investigated rodent $\beta 1$ promoters. Notably, the CCAAT box is missing in $\beta 2$ promoters. 364 The crucial distance between the S and X motifs is conserved in all β genes and the integrity 365 of the S-X-Y motifs is observable for *Rhop-DRB1* and *DRB3* promoters. However, both the S and X box of *DRB2* are compromised by deletions in great gerbil. The deletion in the X box severely disrupt the motif and reduce its size by half. An identical deletion in the X box is seen in Mongolian gerbil while the sand rat X box sequence covering the deleted parts is highly divergent from the conserved sequence found in the rest of the promoters (Fig. 6). Furthermore, for the $\beta 2$ genes, two deletions downstream of the motifs are shared among all rodents in the alignment as well as an additional insertion observed in Gerbillinae members.



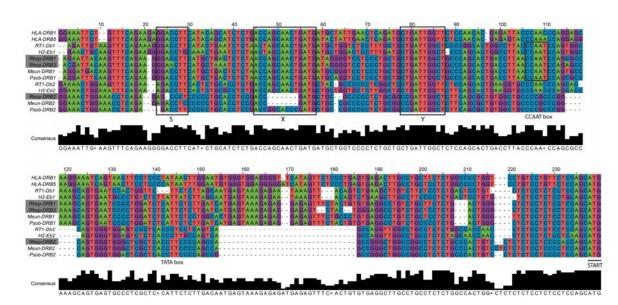






FIG. 6 Sequences of the proximal promoters of $\beta 1$ and $\beta 2$ genes of the DR locus (E locus in mouse and D locus in rat) were aligned in MEGA7 [45] using MUSCLE with default parameters. The resulting alignment was edited manually for obvious misalignments and transferred and displayed in Jalview [46]. For visualization purposes only, the alignment was further edited in Adobe Illustrator (CS6), changing colors of the bases and adding boxes to point out the S-X-Y motifs. The three copies of *DRB* genes located in the great gerbil genome are marked with grey boxes. The alignment shows clear similarities of the proximal promoter region of *Rhop-DRB1* and *Rhop-DRB3* to the other rodent and

human β 1 promoter sequences. For the DRB2 genes, two deletions are shared among all rodents in

the alignment as well as additional indels observed in Gerbillinae members. Most notably, both great

- gerbil and Mongolian gerbil have deletions of half the X box while sand rat X box sequences in that
- 386 same position is highly divergent from the otherwise conserved sequence seen in the alignment.
- 387

388 Table 4. Coordinates of MHCII S-X-Y motifs of the promoters of the DRB genes in

- Gene S-X spacing X-Y spacing S-X-Y Relative position CCAAT box (S-X-Y end to gene start) (bp) (bp) HLA-DRB1 19 -145 TATA box 15 HLA-DRB5 15 19 -146 RT1-Db1 15 19 -137 Yes H2-Eb1 15 19 -139 Yes + TATA box Rhop-DRB1 19 15 -141 Yes Rhop-DRB3 15 19 -137 Yes Meun-DRB1 15 19 -141 Yes Psob-DRB1 15 19 -141 Yes RT1-Db2 15 18 -110 H2-Eb2 15 19 -110 17 Rhop-DRB2 15 -109 Meun-DRB2 15 18 -111 Psob-DRB2 15 18 -109
- 389 investigated species.

390 Legend: The overview details the relative coordinates for conserved motifs in the promoter regions

392 mouse (H2-Eb) and rat (RT1-Db) orthologous genes. The S-X and X-Y spacing refers to the distance

between the S and X, and X and Y motifs, respectively. The S-X-Y Relative position show the distance

(bp) between the end of the Y motif and the start codon of the gene.

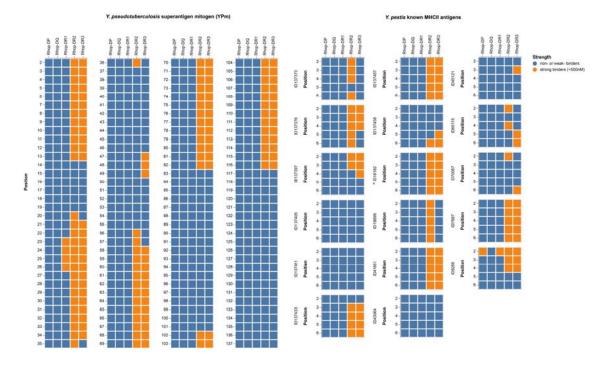
395

396 Peptide binding affinity predictions and expression of Rhop-DR MHCII

397 molecules

³⁹¹ of great gerbil (*Rhop-DRB*), sand rat (*Psob-DRB*), Mongolian gerbil (*Meun-DRB*), human (*HLA-DRB*),

398 Mouse and rat β_2 molecules have been shown to have an extraordinary capacity to present 399 the Y. pseudotuberculosis superantigen mitogen (YPm) [42]. We therefore investigated the 400 peptide binding affinities of the Rhop-DR molecules by running translations of Rhop-DRA in 401 combinations with each of the three Rhop-DRB genes through the NetMHCIIpan 3.2 server [47] along with peptide/protein sequences of YPm, Y. pestis F1 'capsular' antigen and LcrV 402 403 antigen. Universally, the Rhop-DRB3 shows an affinity profile identical to that of Rhop-DRB2 404 displaying high affinity towards both Y. pseudotuberculosis and Y. pestis epitopes while 405 Rhop-DRB1 does not (Fig.7 and Additional file 3). The translated great gerbil MHCII from DP and DQ loci were also tested for peptide binding affinity but only Rhop-DP displayed affinity 406 407 to one of the epitopes tested. Furthermore, analyses of the translated amino acid sequences 408 of sand rat DR (Psob-DR) molecules as well as published protein sequences of Mongolian 409 gerbil DR (Meun-DR) molecules and the mouse ortholog H2-E confirmed the high affinity of β 2 molecules to Y. pseudotuberculosis and Y. pestis (Additional file 1: Figure S10 and 410 411 Additional file 3). The equal capacity of Rhop-DRB2 and Rhop-DRB3 to putatively present 412 Yersiniae combined with the proximal promoter investigations lead us to question the 413 expression of DRB genes in great gerbil. Searching a set of raw counts of great gerbil 414 expressed genes, reveal that Rhop-DRB1 and Rhop-DRB3 are both similarly expressed at 415 similar levels while Rhop-DRB2 is not expressed or at undetectable levels (3936 and 2279 vs 416 14).



418

419 Figure 7 Affinity predictions of great gerbil MHCII molecules

420 **FIG. 7** Affinity predictions of great gerbil MHC class II molecules represented as a heatmap.

For the known *Y. pestis* antigens all are from the F1 capsule precursor except ID16182 (red asterix) which is from the V antigen. Strong binders are defined as <500 nM and depicted in orange, while weak or non-binders are represented in blue.

424

425 Discussion

Here we present a highly contiguous *de novo* genome assembly of the great gerbil covering over 96 % of the estimated genome size and almost 88 % of the gene space, which is equivalent to the genic completeness reported in the recently published and close relative sand rat genome [48] (Additional file 2: Table S7). By comparative genomic analyses where we include genome data from its close relatives within the Gerbillinae, we provide novel insight into the innate and adaptive immunological genomic landscape of this key plague host species.

433

434 The *TLR* repertoire in the great gerbil and Gerbillinae

435 TLRs are essential components of PRRs and the innate immune system as they alert the 436 adaptive immune system of the presence of invading pathogens [49]. The detailed 437 characterization of *TLRs* did not uncover any species-specific features for the great gerbil. 438 However, a shared TLR gene repertoire for the Gerbillinae lineage (i.e. the great gerbil, sand 439 rat and Mongolian gerbil), with gene losses of TLR8, TLR10 and all members of the TLR11-440 subfamily was revealed. This finding could indicate quite similar selective pressures on these species, at least in regard to their function of TLRs, all being desert dwelling, burrowing 441 442 rodents living in arid or semi-arid ecosystems and being capable of carrying plague. Thus, it 443 is possible that the members of this clade have reduced the *TLR* repertoire in a cost-benefit 444 response to environmental constraints or due to altered repertoire of pathogen exposure 445 [50]. These results are in line with the fairly conserved TLR gene repertoire reported within 446 the vertebrate lineage [51], although the repertoire of *TLR* genes present within vertebrate 447 groups can show major differences [51-53], presumably in response to presence or lack of 448 certain pathogen or environmental pressures [54,55]. Outside of Gerbillinae, the presence of 449 TLR11-subfamily appears to be universal in Rodentia, however functionally lost from the 450 human repertoire [51,53]. The TLR11-subfamily recognizes parasites and bacteria through 451 profilin, flagellin and 23S ribosomal RNA [56,57] and it is possible that cross-recognition of 452 these patterns by other TLR members or other PRRs might have made the TLR11-subfamily 453 redundant in Gerbillinae and humans [50]. The varying degree of point mutations, 454 frameshift-causing indels and in some cases almost complete elimination of sequence in 455 TLR8, TLR10 and TLR11-13 in Gerbillinae suggest successive losses of these receptors, where 456 a shared pseudogenization of TLR12-13 across all species investigated were recorded. For

TLR11 however, the pseudogenization seems to have occurred in multiple steps, i.e. with a more recent event in the great gerbil where a near full-length sequence was identified compared to the shorter fragments identified for Mongolian gerbil and sand rat (Additional file 1: Figure S2C). Furthermore, the high degree of shared disruptive mutations among all three species of Gerbillinae indicates that the initiation of pseudogenization predates the speciation estimated to have occurred about 5.5 Mya [58].

463

464 In the context of plague susceptibility, the branch specific diversifying selection reported 465 here for TLR7 and TLR9 in Gerbillinae is intriguing, as both receptors have been implicated to 466 affect the outcome of plague infection in mice and humans [59-61]. For instance, the study 467 by Dhariwala et al. (2017) showed, in a murine model, that TLR7 recognizes intracellular Y. 468 pestis and is important for defense against disease in the lungs but was detrimental to 469 septicemic plague [59]. Moreover, recognition of Y. pestis by TLR9 was also demonstrated by 470 Saikh et al. (2009) in human monocytes [61]. All but one of the residues under site specific 471 selection seen in TLR7 and TLR9 were located in the ectodomain, which may suggest 472 possible alterations in ligand recognition driven by selection pressure from Y. pestis or other 473 shared pathogens. Stimulation of *TLR7* and *TLR9* have also been reported to regulate antigen 474 presentation by MHCII in murine macrophages [62]. These data could therefore indicate a 475 possible connection of the selection in TLR7 and TLR9 with the great gerbil duplication in 476 MHCII. For TLR4, the selection tests and sequence alignment analysis did not reveal any 477 branch-specific selection for great gerbil nor Gerbillinae, whereas we did detect signs of site-478 specific selection in the ectodomain that occasionally was driven by great gerbil or Gerbillinae substitutions. TLR4 is the prototypical PRR for detection of lipopolysaccharides 479 480 (LPS) found in the outer membrane of gram-negative bacteria like Y. pestis. As part of the

481 arms race, however, it is well known that gram-negative bacteria, including Y. pestis, alter 482 the conformation of their LPS in order to avoid recognition and strong stimulation of the 483 TLR4-MD2-CD14 receptor complex [63-65]. Despite this, in mice at least, some inflammatory 484 signaling still occurs through this receptor complex but require particular residues in TLR4 485 not found to be conserved in the Gerbillinae lineage. Whether other mutations in TLR4 in 486 Gerbillinae have a similar functionality as the residues that allow mice to respond to Y. pestis 487 LPS is not known. However, if such functionality is missing in Gerbillinae, the loss of 488 responsiveness to the hypoacetylated LPS [19] could perhaps defer some protection from 489 pathologies caused by excessive initiation of inflammatory responses [66], and thus TLR4 is 490 not likely directly involved in the resistance of plague in great gerbils.

491

492 Cumulatively, our investigations of the great gerbil innate immune system, focusing on the 493 *TLR* gene repertoire, reveal shared gene losses within *TLR* gene families for the Gerbillinae 494 lineage, all being desert dwelling species capable of carrying plague. The evolutionary 495 analyses conducted did not uncover any great gerbil-specific features that could explain 496 their resistance to *Y. pestis*, indicating that other PRRs (not investigated here) could be more 497 directly involved during the innate immune response to plague infection in the great gerbil 498 [36].

499

500 Great gerbil MHC repertoires

501 MHCI and II proteins are crucial links between the innate and adaptive immune system 502 continuously presenting peptides on the cell surface for recognition by CD8+ and CD4+ T 503 cells respectively, and MHC genes readily undergo duplications, deletions and 504 pseudogenization [67]. For *MHCI*, the discovery of 16 copies in great gerbil is in somewhat

505 agreement with what has earlier been reported in rodents, where the MHCI region is found 506 to have undergone extensive duplication followed by sub- and neofunctionalization with 507 several genes involved in non-immune functions [68,69]. However, it should be noted that 508 our copy number estimation is most likely an underestimation, due to the assembly collapse 509 in almost all MHCI containing regions identified. Furthermore, not all copies could be 510 confidently placed in the gene maps as some scaffolds lacked colocalizing framework genes. 511 These two factors are the probable reason why the great gerbil appears to be lacking some 512 MHCI genes compared to mouse and rat.

513

514 For *MHCII* we discovered a gerbil-specific duplication that is not present in other closely 515 related plague hosts or in other rodents investigated. The phylogeny established the 516 duplication's (*Rhop-DRB3*) relationship to *Rhop-DRB1* and other mammalian $\beta 1$ genes and 517 reflects the orthology of mammalian MHCII genes [70]. The localization of Rhop-DRB3 518 outside of the generally conserved framework of the MHCII region and not in tandem with 519 the other β genes of the DR locus is unusual and is not generally seen for eutherian 520 mammals. For instance, major duplication events with altered organization and orientation 521 of DR and DQ genes has been reported for the MHCII region in horse (Equus caballus), 522 however all genes are found within the framework genes [71]. Duplications tend to disperse 523 in the genome as they age [72], thus the reversed orientation and translocation of the great 524 gerbil copy might indicate that the duplication event is ancient occurring sometime after the 525 species split approximately 5 Mya. However, it must also be noted that there are several 526 assembly gaps located between Rhop-DRB1 and Rhop-DRB3 resulting in the possibility of the 527 translocation being a result of an assembly error.

528

529 Predictions of the affinity of the β 1, β 2 and β 3 MHCII molecules to Y. pestis and Y. 530 pseudotuberculosis antigens matched the reported high affinity of rodent β 2 molecules for Yersiniae epitopes [42]. Rhop-DRB3 had an equally high affinity and largely identical affinity-531 profile as Rhop-DRB2. A high affinity for Y. pestis epitopes is important in the immune 532 533 response against plague, as the initiation of a T cell response is more efficient and requires 534 fewer APCs and T cells when high-affinity peptides are presented by MHCII molecules [73]. 535 In the early stages of an infection where presence of antigen is low, there will be fewer 536 MHCII molecules presenting peptides and affinity for those peptides is paramount to fast 537 initiation of the immune response against the pathogen. Individuals presenting MHCII 538 molecules with high affinity for pathogen epitopes are able to raise an immune defense 539 more quickly and have a better chance of fighting off the rapidly progressing infection than 540 individuals that are fractionally slower. This fractional advantage could mean the difference 541 between death or survival.

542

543 We find comparable expression levels for Rhop-DRB1 and Rhop-DRB3 but no detectable 544 expression of *Rhop-DRB2*. These similarities and differences are likely explained by the 545 variations discovered in the proximal promoter of the genes. Integrity of the conserved 546 motifs and the spacing between them is necessary for assembly of the enhanceosome 547 complex of transcription factors and subsequent binding of Class II Major Histocompatibility 548 Complex transactivator (CIITA), and is essential for efficient expression of MHCII genes. The 549 conservation of the proximal promoter of Rhop-DRB3 along with the overall sequence 550 similarity with other $\beta 1$ genes are indicative of a similar expression pattern. In contrast, the 551 deletion in the X box of Rhop-DRB2 reducing the motif to half the size will likely affect the 552 ability of the transcription factors to bind and could explain the lack of expression. Similar

553 disruptions in the $\beta 2$ genes of the other Gerbillinae were found along with a major deletion 554 further downstream in all $\beta 2$ genes that perhaps explains the previously reported low and 555 unusual pattern of transcription for rodent β^2 genes [42,44]. The equal affinity profile but 556 different expression levels of Rhop-DRB2 and Rhop-DRB3 could mean that Rhop-DRB3 has 557 taken over the immune function lost by the lack of expression of *Rhop-DRB2*. The selective 558 pressure might have come from Yersinia or pathogens similar to Yersiniae. A nonclassical 559 function of MHCII molecules have also been reported where intracellular MHCII interacted 560 with components of the TLR signaling pathway in a way that suggested MHCII molecules are 561 required for full activation of the TLR-triggered innate immune response [74]. Moreover, in 562 vertebrates the MHCII DRB genes are identified as highly polymorphic and specific allele 563 variants have frequently been linked to increased susceptibility to diseases in humans [75]. 564 Intriguingly, in a recent study by Cobble et al. (2016) it was suggested that allelic variation of 565 the DRB1 locus could be linked to plague survival in Gunnison's prairie dog colonies [40]. 566 Thus, investigating how the genetic variation of the DRB1 and DRB3 loci in great gerbil 567 manifests at the population level and the affinity of these allelic variants to Yersiniae 568 epitopes, would be the next step to further our understanding of the plague resistant key 569 host species in Central Asia.

570

From the analyses conducted on the genomic landscape of the adaptive immune system of the great gerbil, i.e. *MHCI* and *MHCII* more specifically, the most interesting reporting is the duplication of an *MHCII* gene. *In silico* analyses of *Rhop-DRB3* indicate a high predicted affinity for *Y. pestis* epitopes, which may result in faster initiation of the adaptive immune system in great gerbils when exposed to the pathogen, and thus could explain the high degree of plague resistance in this species.

577

578 Conclusion

579 Plague has historically had a vast impact on human society through major pandemics, 580 however it mainly circulates in rodent communities. A key issue is to understand hostpathogen interactions in these rodent hosts. From the pathogen-perspective, research has 581 582 studied how Y. pestis has evolved to evade both detection and destruction by the 583 mammalian immune system to establish infection. In this study, we have demonstrated the 584 power of using whole genome sequencing of a wild plague reservoir species to gain new 585 insight into the genomic landscape of its resistance by immuno-comparative analyses with 586 closely related plague hosts and other mammals. We reveal the duplication of an MHCII 587 gene in great gerbils with a computed peptide binding profile that putatively would cause a 588 faster initiation of the adaptive immune system when exposed to Yersiniae epitopes. We 589 also find signs of positive selection in TLR7 and TLR9, which have been shown to regulate 590 antigen presentation and impact the outcome of a plague infection. Investigations into how 591 the genetic variation of the MHCII locus manifests at the population level are necessary to 592 further understand the role of the gene duplication in the resistance of plague in great 593 gerbils. Comprehending the genetic basis for plague resistance is crucial to understand the 594 persistence of plague in large regions of the world and the great gerbil de novo genome 595 assembly is a valuable anchor for such work, as well as a resource for future comparative 596 work in host-pathogen interactions, evolution (of resistance) and adaptation.

597

598 Methods

599 Sampling and sequencing

A male great gerbil weighing 180g was captured in the Midong District outside Urumqi in Xinjiang Province, China in October 2013. The animal was humanely euthanized and tissue samples of liver were conserved in ethanol prior to DNA extraction. Blood samples from the individual were screened for F1 'capsular' antigen (Caf1) and anti-F1 as described in [30,76] to confirm plague negative status. The DNA used in the library construction was extracted from liver tissue using Gentra Puregene Tissue Kit (Qiagen Inc. USA). Use of great gerbil tissue was approved by the Committee for Animal Welfares of Xinjiang CDC, China.

607

608 The sequence strategy was tailored towards the ALLPATHS-LG assembly software (Broad 609 Institute, Cambridge, MA) following their recommendations for platform choice and 610 fragment size resulting in the combination of one short paired-end (PE) library with an 611 average insert size of 220 bp (150 bp read length) and two mate-pair (MP) libraries of 3 kbp 612 and 10 kbp insert size (100 bp read length). See Additional file 2: Table S1 for a list of 613 libraries and sequence yields. Sequencing for the *de novo* assembly of the great gerbil 614 reference genome was performed on the Illumina platform using HiSeg2500 instruments at 615 the Norwegian Sequencing Centre at the University of Oslo for the PE library 616 (https://www.sequencing.uio.no) and using HiSeg2000 instruments at Génome Québec at 617 McGill University for the MP libraries (http://gginnovationcenter.com/index.aspx?l=e).

618

619 Genome assembly and Maker annotation

The Illumina sequences were quality checked using FastQC v0.11.2 and SGA-preqc (downloaded 25th June 2014) with default parameters. Both MP libraries were trimmed for adapter sequences using cutadapt v1.5 with option -b and a list of adapters used in MP library prep [77] and the trimmed reads were used alongside the PE short read as input for

ALLPATHS-LG v48639 generating a *de novo* assembly. This combination of short-read sequencing technology combined with the ALLPATHS-LG assembly algorithm is documented to perform well in birds and mammals [78-80]. File preparations were conducted according to manufacturer's recommendation and the option TARGETS=submission was added to the run to obtain a submission prepared assembly version.

629

Assembly completeness was assessed by analysing the extent of conserved eukaryotic genes present using CEGMA v2.4.010312 and BUSCO v1.1.b [81-83]. Gene mining for the highly conserved Homeobox (*HOX*) genes was also conducted as an additional assessment of assembly completeness (see Additional file 1: Note S1 and Figure S10).

All reads were mapped back to the assembly using BWA-MEM v 0.7.5a and the resulting bam files were used alongside the assembly in REAPR v 1.0.17 to evaluate potential scaffolding errors as well as in Blobology to inspect the assembly for possible contaminants, creating Taxon-Annotated-GC-Coverage (TAGC) plots of the results from BLAST searches of the NCBI database [84].

639

640 The genome assembly was annotated using the MAKER2 pipeline v2.31 run iteratively in a 641 two-pass fashion (as described in https://github.com/sujaikumar/assemblage/blob/master/ 642 README-annotation.md) [85]. Multiple steps are required prior to the first pass though 643 MAKER2 and include creating a repeat library for repeat masking and training three different 644 ab initio gene predictors. Firstly, construction of the repeat library was conducted as 645 described in [86]. In brief, a *de novo* repeat library was created for the assembly by running 646 RepeatModeler v1.0.8 with default parameters, and sequences matching known proteins of 647 repetitive nature were removed from the repeat library through BLASTx against the UniProt

648 database. Next, GeneMark-ES v2.3e was trained on the genome assembly using default 649 parameters with the exception of reducing the -min-contig parameter to 10.000 [87]. SNAP 650 v20131129 and AUGUSTUS v3.0.2 was trained on the genes found by CEGMA and BUSCO, 651 respectively. The generated gene predictors and the repeat library were used in the first pass alongside proteins from UniProt/SwissProt (downloaded 16th February 2016) as protein 652 homology evidence and Mus musculus cDNA as alternative EST evidence (GRCm38 653 654 downloaded from Ensembl). For the second pass, SNAP and AUGUSTUS were retrained with 655 the generated MAKER2 predictions and otherwise performed with the same setup. The 656 resulting gene predictions had domain annotations and putative functions added using 657 InterProScan v5.4.47 and BLASTp against the UniProt database with evalue 1e-5 (same 658 methodology as [86,88]). Finally, the output was filtered using the MAKER2 default filtering 659 approach only retaining predictions with AED <1.

660

661 **Genome mining and gene alignments**

662 We searched for TLR genes, associated receptors and adaptor molecules as well as genes of 663 the MHC region (complete list of genes can be found in Additional file 2: Table S4) collected 664 from UniProt and Ensembl. Throughout, we performed tBLASTn searches, manual assembly 665 exon by exon in MEGA7 and verified annotations through reciprocal BLASTx against the NCBI 666 database and phylogenetic analysis including orthologues from human (Homo sapiens), 667 mouse (Mus musculus), rat (Rattus norvegicus) and all three members of the Gerbillinae 668 subfamily. For details on the phylogenetic analyses we refer to descriptions in sections 669 below. In the TLR analyses Algerian mouse (M. spretus), Ryukyu mouse (M. caroli), Chinese 670 hamster (Cricetulus griseus) and Chinese tree shrew (Tupaia belangeri chinensis) were also 671 included.

672

673	Sand rat and Mongolian gerbil genome assemblies were downloaded from NCBI (September
674	12 th 2017). The genome assemblies of the great gerbil, sand rat and Mongolian gerbil were
675	made into searchable databases for gene mining using the makeblastdb command of the
676	blast+ v2.6.0 program. Local tBLASTn searches, using protein sequences of mouse and
677	occasionally rat, human and Mongolian gerbil as queries, were executed with default
678	parameters including an e-value cut-off of 1e+1. The low e-value was utilized to capture
679	more divergent sequence homologs. Hits were extracted from assemblies using bedtools
680	v2.26.0 and aligned with orthologs in MEGA v7.0.26 using MUSCLE with default parameters.
681	In cases where annotations for some of the TLRs for a species were missing in Ensembl and
682	could not be located in either the NCBI nucleotide database or in UniProt, the Ensembl
683	BLAST Tool (tBLASTn) was used with default parameters to find the genomic region of
684	interest using queries from mouse.

685

686 Synteny analyses of MHC regions

A combination of the Ensembl genome browser v92 and comparisons presented in [89] and tBLASTn searches, as described above, were used in synteny analyses of the MHCI and II regions of human, rat and mouse with great gerbil. Synteny of MHCII genes of sand rat and Mongolian gerbil were also investigated, however for simplicity and visualization purposes not included in the figure (Fig. 3).

692

693 Alignment and phylogenetic reconstruction of TLR and MHC

694	Sequences were aligned with MAFFT [90] using default parameters: for both nucleotides and
695	amino acid alignments the E-INS-i model was utilized. The resulting alignments were edited
696	manually using Mesquite v3.4 [91]. See Additional file 2: Tables S8-10 for accession numbers.
697	

698 Ambiguously aligned characters were removed from each alignment using Gblocks [92] with 699 the least stringent parameters for codons and proteins.

700 Maximum likelihood (ML) phylogenetic analyses were performed using the "AUTO" 701 parameter in RAxML v8.0.26 [93] to establish the evolutionary model with the best fit. The 702 general time reversible (GTR) model was the preferred model for the nucleotide alignments, 703 and JTT for the amino acid alignments. The topology with the highest likelihood score of 100 heuristic searches was chosen. Bootstrap values were calculated from 500 pseudoreplicates. 704 705 Taxa with unstable phylogenetic affinities were pre-filtered using RogueNaRok [94] based on 706 evaluation of a 50 % majority rule (MR) consensus tree, in addition to exclusion of taxa with >50 % gaps in the alignment. 707

708

709 Bayesian inference (BI) was performed using a modified version of MrBayes v3.2 [95] 710 (https://github.com/astanabe/mrbayes5d). The dataset was executed under a separate 711 gamma distribution. Two independent runs, each with three heated and one cold Markov 712 Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) chain, were started from a random starting tree. The MCMC chains were run for 20,000,000 generations with trees sampled every 1,000th generation. 713 714 The posterior probabilities and mean marginal likelihood values of the trees were calculated 715 after the burn-in phase (25%), which was determined from the marginal likelihood scores of 716 the initially sampled trees. The average split frequencies of the two runs were < 0.01, 717 indicating the convergence of the MCMC chains.

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/449553; this version posted October 31, 2018. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

718

719 Selection analyses

720 All full-length TLRs located in the genomes of great gerbil, sand rat and Mongolian gerbil 721 along with other mammalian TLRs (Additional file 2: Table S8) were analysed in both classic 722 Datamonkey and Datamonkey 2.0 (datamonkey.org) testing for signs of selection with a 723 phylogeny guided approach [96,97]. For each TLR gene alignment a model test was first run prior to the selection test and the proposed best model was used in the analyses. The mixed 724 725 effects model of evolution (MEME) and adaptive branch-site random effects model (aBSREL) 726 were used to test for site based and branch level episodic selection, respectively [98-100]. 727 aBSREL was iterated three times per gene alignment, initially running an exploratory analysis 728 were all branches were tested for positive selection and subsequently in a hypothesis mode 729 by which first the Gerbillinae clade and secondly the great gerbil was selected as 730 "foreground" branches to test for positive selection. All TLR alignments are available in the 731 Github repository (https://github.com/uio-cels/Nilsson innate and adaptive).

732

733 **TLR protein structure prediction**

734 Translated full-length great gerbil TLR sequences were submitted to the Phyre2 structure 735 prediction server for modelling [101]. All sequences were modelled against human TLR5 736 (c3jOaA) and the resulting structures were colored for visualization purposes using Jmol 737 (Jmol: for chemical an open-source Java viewer structures in 3D. 738 http://www.jmol.org/). Colors were used to differentiate between helices, sheets and loops as well as the transmembrane domain, linker and TIR domain. Sites found in the MEME 739 740 selection analysis were indicated in pink and further highlighted with arrows (Additional file

741 1: Figures S7-9). All great gerbil PDB files are available in the GitHub repository
742 (https://github.com/uio-cels/Nilsson innate and adaptive).

743

744 As TLR4 is the prototypical PRR for lipopolysaccharide (LPS) which are found in all gram-745 negative bacteria including Y. pestis, we subjected the sequence alignment to additional 746 investigation of certain residues indicated in the literature to have an impact on signaling 747 [19]. These were the residues at position 367 and 434, which in mouse are both basic and 748 positively charged, enabling the mouse TLR4 to maintain some signaling even for 749 hypoacetylated LPS [19]. Hypoacetylated LPS is a common strategy for gram-negative 750 bacteria to avoid recognition and strong stimulation of the TLR4-MD2-CD14 receptor 751 complex [63-65].

752

753 MHCII promoter investigation

The region 400 bp upstream of human HLA-DRB, mouse H2-Eb and rat RT-Db genes were retrieved from Ensembl (GRch38.p12, GRCm38.p6 and Rnor_6.0). Similarly, the region 400 bp upstream of the start codon of DRB genes in the three Gerbillinae were retrieved using bedtools v2.26.0. Putative promoter S-X-Y motifs, as presented for mouse in [102], were manually identified for each gene in MEGA7 and all sequences were subsequently aligned using MUSCLE with default parameters [102].

760

761 **Peptide binding affinity**

The functionality of MHCII genes is defined by the degree of expression of the MHC genes themselves, and the proteins ability to bind disease-specific peptides to present to the immune system. The ability of an MHCII protein to bind particular peptides can with some

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/449553; this version posted October 31, 2018. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under a CC-BY 4.0 International license.

765 degree of confidence be estimated by MHC prediction algorithms, even for unknown MHCII 766 molecules, as long as the alpha and beta-chain protein sequences are available [47]. We 767 here use the NetMHCIIpan predictor v3.2 [47] to estimate the peptide binding affinities of 768 the novel Rhop-DRB3 MHCII molecule and compare it to various other MHCII molecules from 769 great gerbil, mouse, sand rat and Mongolian gerbil. The program was run with default 770 settings and provided with the relevant protein sequences of alpha and beta chains. We 771 compared the predicted binding affinity of these MHCII molecules for 17 known Y. pestis 772 epitopes derived from positive ligand assays of Y. pestis (https://www.iedb.org/). Specifically, 773 we tested against 16 ligands derived from the F1 capsule antigen of Y. pestis, and 1 ligand 774 from the virulence-associated Low calcium V antigen (LcrV) of Y. pestis. In addition, we 775 compared the binding affinity of these MHCII molecules against the superantigen Y. pseudotuberculosis derived mitogen precursor (YPm) [42]. The threshold for binders was set 776 777 to <500nM [47].

778

779 RNA sampling and sequencing

Two additional great gerbils were captured in the Midong District outside Urumqi in Xinjiang
Province, China, in September 2014. The animals were held in captivity for 35 days before
being humanely euthanized and liver tissue samples were conserved in RNA*later*[™] at -20 °C
prior to RNA extraction. RNA was extracted using standard chloroform procedure [103].
Library prep and sequencing were conducted at the Beijing Genomics Institute (BGI,
https://www.bgi.com/us/sequencing-services/dna-sequencing/) using Illumina TruSeq RNA
Sample Prep Kit and PE sequencing on the HiSeq4000 instrument (150 bp read length).

787	The reads were trimmed using trimmomatic v0.36 and mapped to the genome assembly
788	using hisat2 v2.0.5 with default parameters. A raw count matrix was created by using htseq
789	v0.7.2 with default parameters to extract the raw counts from the mapped files.
790	

791 Acknowledgements

All computational work was performed on the Abel Supercomputing Cluster (Norwegian metacenter for High Performance Computing (NOTUR) and the University of Oslo) operated by the Research Computing Services group at USIT, the University of Oslo IT- department and the Cod nodes of CEES. Sequencing library creation and high throughput sequencing was carried out at the Norwegian Sequencing Centre (NSC), University of Oslo, Norway, and McGill University and Genome Quebec Innovation Centre, Canada.

We would like to thank Morten Skage for assistance in sequence library construction and Ole
K. Tørresen, Srinidhi Varadharajan, Tore O. Elgvin and Cassandra N. Trier for helpful advice
and support during assembly and annotations steps of the genome, Helle T. Baalsrud for

advice during genome mining and Tone F. Gregers for helpful discussions regarding MHCII.

802 For early access to the sand rat genome assembly we thank John F. Mulley.

803

804 Funding

This project was funded by University of Oslo Molecular Life Science (MLS, allocation #152950), the Research Council of Norway (RCN grant #179569), the European Research Council (ERC-2012-AdG No. 324249 -MedPlag), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 31430006) and National Key Research & Development Program of China (2016YFC1200100).

810

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/449553; this version posted October 31, 2018. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under a CC-BY 4.0 International license.

811 Availability of data and materials

- 812 The genome assembly has been deposited DDBJ/ENA/GenBank at 813 under the accession REGO00000000. The version described in this paper 814 is version REGO01000000.
- 815 The genome assembly and annotation are also available from FigShare:
- 816 In the following GitHub repository are files of immune gene alignments, PDB files and more:
- 817 https://github.com/uio-cels/Nilsson_innate_and_adaptive
- 818

819 Authors' contributions

820 PN created the genome assembly and annotated it, performed all BLAST-based, TLR based 821 and promoter analysis and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. MHS conducted the 822 protein model analyses of TLRs and assisted in the BLAST-based and TLR analyses. BVS 823 performed the MHCII affinity analyses. RJSO performed phylogenetic analysis of TLR, MHCI 824 and MHCII genes. YZ, sampled, acclimatised and tested individual great gerbil for plague. RL, 825 YC and YS extracted DNA and RNA for sequencing. PN, WRE, BVS, SJ and KSJ designed the 826 sequencing strategy. WRE, BVS, SJ, KSJ, NCS and RY oversaw the project. All authors read 827 and approved the final manuscript.

828

829 **Ethics approval**

Use of great gerbil tissue was approved by the Committee for Animal Welfares of Xinjiang Centre for Disease Control and Prevention, China. Sampling was performed prior to Chinas signature of the Nagoya Protocol (date of accession September 6th 2016). The sampled species have a "least concern" status in the IUCN Red List of Threatened Species.

834

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/449553; this version posted October 31, 2018. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under a CC-BY 4.0 International license.

835 Consent for publication

836 Not applicable.

837

838 Competing interests

- 839 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
- 840

841 Additional files

- 842 Additional file 1: Additional figures and one Note detailing the HOX gene mining (DOCX
- 843 19.2Mb)
- 844 Additional file 2: Additional tables (DOCX 66Kb)
- Additional file 3: Peptide binding affinity predictions for all MHCII molecules run in
- 846 NetMHCIIpan predictor v3.2 (XLSX)
- 847

848 References

- 1. Anisimov AP, Lindler LE, Pier GB. Intraspecific Diversity of Yersinia pestis. Clinical
- 850 Microbiology Reviews. 2004;17:434–64.
- 851 2. Addink EA, De Jong SM, Davis SA, Dubyanskiy V, Burdelov LA, Leirs H. The use of high-
- resolution remote sensing for plague surveillance in Kazakhstan. Remote Sensing of
- 853 Environment. Elsevier; 2010;114:674–81.
- 854 3. Nowak RM. Walker's Mammals of the World. JHU Press; 1999.

- 4. Zhang Z, Zhong W, Fan N. Rodent problems and management in the grasslands of China.
- 856 In: Singleton GR, Hinds LA, Krebs CJ, Spratt DM, editors. Rats, mice and people: rodent
- biology and management. researchgate.net; 2003. pp. 316–9.
- 858 5. Gage KL, Kosoy MY. Natural history of plague: perspectives from more than a century of
- 859 research. Annu. Rev. Entomol. 2005;50:505–28.
- 860 6. Yang R, Anisimov A. Yersinia pestis: Retrospective and Perspective. Springer; 2016.
- 7. Stenseth NC, Atshabar BB, Begon M, Belmain SR, Bertherat E, Carniel E, et al. Plague: past,
- present, and future. PLoS Med. Public Library of Science; 2008;5:e3.
- 863 8. Bramanti B, Stenseth NC, Walløe L, Lei X. Plague: A Disease Which Changed the Path of
- 864 Human Civilization. In: Yang R, Anisimov A, editors. Yersinia pestis: Retrospective and
- 865 Perspective. Dordrecht: Springer; 2016. pp. 1–26.
- 866 9. Hinnebusch BJ, Jarrett CO, Bland DM. "Fleaing" the Plague: Adaptations of Yersinia pestis
- 867 to Its Insect Vector That Lead to Transmission. Annu. Rev. Microbiol. Annual Reviews;

868 2017;71:215-32.

- 10. Samia NI, Kausrud KL, Heesterbeek H, Ageyev V, Begon M, Chan K-S, et al. Dynamics of
- 870 the plague-wildlife-human system in Central Asia are controlled by two epidemiological
- 871 thresholds. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences. National Academy of Sciences;
- 872 2011;108:14527-32.
- 873 11. Nguyen VK, Parra-Rojas C, Hernandez-Vargas EA. The 2017 plague outbreak in
- 874 Madagascar: Data descriptions and epidemic modelling. Epidemics. 2018.

875	12. Boisier P,	Rahalison L,	Rasolomaharo I	M, Ratsitorahina M	, Mahafal	y M, Razafimahefa M,
-----	----------------	--------------	----------------	--------------------	-----------	----------------------

- 876 et al. Epidemiologic Features of Four Successive Annual Outbreaks of Bubonic Plague in
- 877 Mahajanga, Madagascar. Emerging Infect. Dis. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention;

878 2002;8:311-6.

- 13. Migliani R, Chanteau S, Rahalison L, Ratsitorahina M, Boutin JP, Ratsifasoamanana L, et al.
- 880 Epidemiological trends for human plague in Madagascar during the second half of the 20th
- 881 century: a survey of 20 900 notified cases. Tropical Medicine & International Health.
- 882 Wiley/Blackwell (10.1111); 2006;11:1228–37.
- 14. Rahelinirina S, Rajerison M, Telfer S, Savin C, Carniel E, Duplantier J-M. The Asian house
- 884 shrew Suncus murinus as a reservoir and source of human outbreaks of plague in
- 885 Madagascar. Vinetz JM, editor. PLoS Negl Trop Dis. Public Library of Science;

886 2017;11:e0006072.

- 15. Link VB. Plague on the high seas. Public Health Rep. 1951;66:1466–72.
- 888 16. Sebbane F, Jarrett CO, Gardner D, Long D, Hinnebusch BJ. Role of the Yersinia pestis
- 889 plasminogen activator in the incidence of distinct septicemic and bubonic forms of flea-

890 borne plague. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences. National Acad Sciences;

891 2006;103:5526–30.

892 17. Neefjes J, Jongsma MLM, Paul P, Bakke O. Towards a systems understanding of MHC

class I and MHC class II antigen presentation. Nat Rev Immunol. Nature Publishing Group;
2011;11:823–36.

18. Murphy K, Weaver C. Janeway's Immunobiology, 9th edition. Garland Science; 2016.

896	19. Sironi M,	Cagliani R,	Forni D,	Clerici M.	Evolutionary	y insights	into host-	pathogen

- 897 interactions from mammalian sequence data. Nature Publishing Group. Nature Publishing
- 898 Group; 2015;16:224–36.
- 899 20. Brockhurst MA, Chapman T, King KC, Mank JE, Paterson S, Hurst GDD. Running with the
- 900 Red Queen: the role of biotic conflicts in evolution. Proc. Biol. Sci. 2014;281:20141382–2.
- 901 21. Dyer MD, Neff C, Dufford M, Rivera CG, Shattuck D, Bassaganya-Riera J, et al. The
- 902 human-bacterial pathogen protein interaction networks of Bacillus anthracis, Francisella
- 903 tularensis, and Yersinia pestis. Rénia L, editor. PLoS ONE. Public Library of Science;
- 904 2010;5:e12089.
- 905 22. Chung LK, Bliska JB. Yersinia versus host immunity: how a pathogen evades or triggers a
- 906 protective response. Current Opinion in Microbiology. 2016;29:56–62.
- 907 23. Shannon JG, Hasenkrug AM, Dorward DW, Nair V, Carmody AB, Hinnebusch BJ. Yersinia
- 908 pestis Subverts the Dermal Neutrophil Response in a Mouse Model of Bubonic Plague. mBio.
- 909 2013;4:e00170-13-e00170-13.
- 910 24. Shannon JG, Bosio CF, Hinnebusch BJ. Dermal Neutrophil, Macrophage and Dendritic Cell
- 911 Responses to Yersinia pestis Transmitted by Fleas. Monack DM, editor. PLoS Pathog.

912 2015;11:e1004734.

- 913 25. Gonzalez RJ, Lane MC, Wagner NJ, Weening EH, Miller VL. Dissemination of a Highly
- 914 Virulent Pathogen: Tracking The Early Events That Define Infection. Valdivia RH, editor. PLoS
- 915 Pathog. 2015;11:e1004587.

- 916 26. Nham T, Filali S, Danne C, Derbise A, Carniel E. Imaging of bubonic plague dynamics by in
- 917 vivo tracking of bioluminescent Yersinia pestis. PLoS ONE. 2012;7:e34714.
- 918 27. Yang H, Wang T, Tian G, Zhang Q, Wu X, Xin Y, et al. Host transcriptomic responses to
- 919 pneumonic plague reveal that Yersinia pestis inhibits both the initial adaptive and innate
- 920 immune responses in mice. Int. J. Med. Microbiol. 2017;307:64–74.
- 921 28. Comer JE, Sturdevant DE, Carmody AB, Virtaneva K, Gardner D, Long D, et al.
- 922 Transcriptomic and innate immune responses to Yersinia pestis in the lymph node during
- 923 bubonic plague. Infection and Immunity. American Society for Microbiology Journals;
- 924 2010;78:5086–98.
- 925 29. Begon M, Klassovskiy N, Ageyev V, Suleimenov B, Atshabar B, Bennett M. Epizootiologic
- 926 Parameters for Plague in Kazakhstan. Emerging Infect. Dis. Centers for Disease Control and
- 927 Prevention; 2006;12:268–73.
- 928 30. Zhang Y, Dai X, Wang X, Maituohuti A, Cui Y, Rehemu A, et al. Dynamics of Yersinia pestis
- 929 and its antibody response in great gerbils (Rhombomys opimus) by subcutaneous infection.
- 930 PLoS ONE. 2012;7:e46820.
- 931 31. Casanova J-L, Abel L. The genetic theory of infectious diseases: a brief history and
- 932 selected illustrations. Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet. Annual Reviews; 2013;14:215–43.
- 933 32. Tollenaere C, Rahalison L, Ranjalahy M, Rahelinirina S, Duplantier JM, Brouat C. CCR5
- 934 polymorphism and plague resistance in natural populations of the black rat in Madagascar.
- 935 Infection, Genetics and Evolution. Elsevier; 2008;8:891–7.

936 33. Blanchet C, Jaubert J, Carniel E, Fayolle C, Milon G, Szatanik M, et al. Mus	us spretus
--	------------

- 937 SEG/Pas mice resist virulent Yersinia pestis, under multigenic control. Genes and
- 938 Immunity. Nature Publishing Group; 2010;12:23–30.
- 939 34. Busch JD, Van Andel R, Cordova J, Colman RE, Keim P, Rocke TE, et al. Population
- 940 differences in host immune factors may influence survival of Gunnison's prairie dogs
- 941 (Cynomys gunnisoni) during plague outbreaks. Journal of Wildlife Diseases. 2011;47:968–73.
- 942 35. Demeure CE, Blanchet C, Fitting C, Fayolle C, Khun H, Szatanik M, et al. Early Systemic
- 943 Bacterial Dissemination and a Rapid Innate Immune Response Characterize Genetic
- Resistance to Plague of SEG Mice. Journal of Infectious Diseases. 2011;205:134–43.
- 945 36. Vladimer GI, Weng D, Paquette SWM, Vanaja SK, Rathinam VAK, Aune MH, et al. The
- 946 NLRP12 inflammasome recognizes Yersinia pestis. Immunity. 2012;37:96–107.
- 947 37. Tollenaere C, Jacquet S, Ivanova S, Loiseau A, Duplantier JM, Streiff R, et al. Beyond an
- 948 AFLP genome scan towards the identification of immune genes involved in plague resistance
- 949 in Rattus rattus from Madagascar. Mol Ecol. Wiley/Blackwell (10.1111); 2012;22:354–67.
- 950 38. Busch JD, Van Andel R, Stone NE, Cobble KR, Nottingham R, Lee J, et al. The innate
- 951 immune response may be important for surviving plague in wild gunnison's prairie dogs.
- Journal of Wildlife Diseases. 2013;49:920–31.
- 953 39. Tollenaere C, Ivanova S, Duplantier J-M, Loiseau A, Rahalison L, Rahelinirina S, et al.
- 954 Contrasted Patterns of Selection on MHC-Linked Microsatellites in Natural Populations of
- 955 the Malagasy Plague Reservoir. Salamin N, editor. PLoS ONE. Public Library of Science;
- 956 2012;7:e32814.

- 957 40. Cobble KR, Califf KJ, Stone NE, Shuey MM, Birdsell DN, Colman RE, et al. Genetic variation
- 958 at the MHC DRB1 locus is similar across Gunnison's prairie dog (Cynomys gunnisoni) colonies
- 959 regardless of plague history. Ecol Evol. 2016;6:2624–51.
- 960 41. Bean AGD, Baker ML, Stewart CR, Cowled C, Deffrasnes C, Wang L-F, et al. Studying
- 961 immunity to zoonotic diseases in the natural host keeping it real. Nat Rev Immunol. Nature
- 962 Publishing Group; 2013;13:851–61.
- 963 42. Monzón-Casanova E, Rudolf R, Starick L, Müller I, Söllner C, Müller N, et al. The Forgotten:
- 964 Identification and Functional Characterization of MHC Class II Molecules H2-Eb2 and RT1-
- 965 Db2. J. Immunol. American Association of Immunologists; 2016;196:988–99.
- 966 43. Ballingall KT, Bontrop RE, Ellis SA, Grimholt U, Hammond JA, Ho C-S, et al. Comparative
- 967 MHC nomenclature: report from the ISAG/IUIS-VIC committee 2018. Immunogenetics.
- 968 Springer Berlin Heidelberg; 2018;46:333–8.
- 969 44. Braunstein NS, Germain RN. The mouse E beta 2 gene: a class II MHC beta gene with
- 970 limited intraspecies polymorphism and an unusual pattern of transcription. EMBO J.
- 971 European Molecular Biology Organization; 1986;5:2469–76.
- 972 45. Kumar S, Stecher G, Tamura K. MEGA7: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis Version
- 973 7.0 for Bigger Datasets. Mol. Biol. Evol. 2016;33:1870-4.
- 974 46. Waterhouse AM, Procter JB, Martin DMA, Clamp M, Barton GJ. Jalview Version 2--a
- 975 multiple sequence alignment editor and analysis workbench. Bioinformatics. 2009;25:1189-
- 976 91.

- 977 47. Jensen KK, Andreatta M, Marcatili P, Buus S, Greenbaum JA, Yan Z, et al. Improved
- 978 methods for predicting peptide binding affinity to MHC class II molecules. Immunology.
- 979 Wiley/Blackwell (10.1111); 2018;54:159.
- 980 48. Hargreaves AD, Zhou L, Christensen J, Marletaz F, Liu S, Li F, et al. Genome sequence of a
- 981 diabetes-prone desert rodent reveals a mutation hotspot around the ParaHox gene cluster.
- 982 2016;:1**-**10.
- 983 49. Kawai T, Akira S. The role of pattern-recognition receptors in innate immunity: update on
- 984 Toll-like receptors. Nat. Immunol. Nature Publishing Group; 2010;11:373–84.
- 985 50. Salazar Gonzalez RM, Shehata H, O'Connell MJ, Yang Y, Moreno-Fernandez ME,
- 986 Chougnet CA, et al. Toxoplasma gondii- derived profilin triggers human toll-like receptor 5-
- 987 dependent cytokine production. JIN. Karger Publishers; 2014;6:685–94.
- 988 51. Roach JC, Glusman G, Rowen L, Kaur A, Purcell MK, Smith KD, et al. The evolution of
- 989 vertebrate Toll-like receptors. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences.
- 990 2005;102:9577**-**82.
- 991 52. Temperley ND, Berlin S, Paton IR, Griffin DK, Burt DW. Evolution of the chicken Toll-like
- receptor gene family: A story of gene gain and gene loss. BMC Genomics 2015 16:1. BioMed
- 993 Central; 2008;9:62.
- 994 53. Solbakken MH, Tørresen OK, Nederbragt AJ, Seppola M, Gregers TF, Jakobsen KS, et al.
- 995 Evolutionary redesign of the Atlantic cod (Gadus morhua L.) Toll-like receptor repertoire by
- gene losses and expansions. Sci Rep. Nature Publishing Group; 2016;6:39.

- 997 54. Barreiro LB, Ben-Ali M, Quach H, Laval G, Patin E, Pickrell JK, et al. Evolutionary Dynamics
- 998 of Human Toll-Like Receptors and Their Different Contributions to Host Defense. McVean G,
- editor. PLOS Genetics. Public Library of Science; 2009;5:e1000562.
- 1000 55. Babik W, Dudek K, Fijarczyk A, Pabijan M, Stuglik M, Szkotak R, et al. Constraint and
- 1001 Adaptation in newt Toll-Like Receptor Genes. Genome Biology and Evolution. 2014;7:81–95.
- 1002 56. Mathur R, Oh H, Zhang D, Park S-G, Seo J, Koblansky A, et al. A Mouse Model of
- 1003 Salmonella Typhi Infection. Cell. Cell Press; 2012;151:590–602.
- 1004 57. Oldenburg M, Krüger A, Ferstl R, Kaufmann A, Nees G, Sigmund A, et al. TLR13
- 1005 Recognizes Bacterial 23S rRNA Devoid of Erythromycin Resistance–Forming Modification.
- 1006 Science. American Association for the Advancement of Science; 2012;337:1111–5.
- 1007 58. Chevret P, Dobigny G. Systematics and evolution of the subfamily Gerbillinae (Mammalia,
- 1008 Rodentia, Muridae). Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution. Academic Press; 2005;35:674-
- 1009 88.
- 1010 59. Dhariwala MO, Olson RM, Anderson DM. Induction of Type I Interferon through a
- 1011 Noncanonical Toll-Like Receptor 7 Pathway during Yersinia pestis Infection. Bäumler AJ,
- 1012 editor. Infection and Immunity. 2017;85.
- 1013 60. Amemiya K, Meyers JL, Rogers TE, Fast RL, Bassett AD, Worsham PL, et al. CpG
- 1014 oligodeoxynucleotides augment the murine immune response to the Yersinia pestis F1-V
- 1015 vaccine in bubonic and pneumonic models of plague. Vaccine. 2009;27:2220–9.

1016 61. Saikh KU, Kissner TL, Sultana A, Ruthel G, Ulrich RG. Human monocytes infected with

- 1017 Yersinia pestis express cell surface TLR9 and differentiate into dendritic cells. J. Immunol.
- 1018 2004;173:7426–34.
- 1019 62. Celhar T, Pereira-Lopes S, Thornhill SI, Lee HY, Dhillon MK, Poidinger M, et al. TLR7 and
- 1020 TLR9 ligands regulate antigen presentation by macrophages. Int. Immunol. 2016;28:223–32.
- 1021 63. Raetz CRH, Reynolds CM, Trent MS, Bishop RE. Lipid A modification systems in gram-
- 1022 negative bacteria. Annu. Rev. Biochem. Annual Reviews; 2007;76:295–329.
- 1023 64. Rebeil R, Ernst RK, Gowen BB, Miller SI, Hinnebusch BJ. Variation in lipid A structure in
- the pathogenic yersiniae. Mol. Microbiol. Wiley/Blackwell (10.1111); 2004;52:1363–73.
- 1025 65. Steimle A, Autenrieth IB, Frick J-S. Structure and function: Lipid A modifications in
- 1026 commensals and pathogens. Int. J. Med. Microbiol. 2016;306:290–301.
- 1027 66. Foster SL, Medzhitov R. Gene-specific control of the TLR-induced inflammatory response.
- 1028 Clin. Immunol. 2009;130:7–15.
- 1029 67. Nei M, Gu X, Sitnikova T. Evolution by the birth-and-death process in multigene families
- 1030 of the vertebrate immune system. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences.
- 1031 National Academy of Sciences; 1997;94:7799–806.
- 1032 68. Amadou C, Younger RM, Sims S, Matthews LH, Rogers J, Kumanovics A, et al. Co-
- 1033 duplication of olfactory receptor and MHC class I genes in the mouse major
- 1034 histocompatibility complex. Hum. Mol. Genet. 2003;12:3025–40.

- 1035 69. Ohtsuka M, Inoko H, Kulski JK, Yoshimura S. Major histocompatibility complex (Mhc)
- 1036 class Ib gene duplications, organization and expression patterns in mouse strain C57BL/6.
- 1037 BMC Genomics 2015 16:1. BioMed Central; 2008;9:178.
- 1038 70. Hughes AL, Nei M. Evolutionary relationships of class II major-histocompatibility-complex
- 1039 genes in mammals. Mol. Biol. Evol. 1990;7:491–514.
- 1040 71. Viļuma A, Mikko S, Hahn D, Skow L, Andersson G, Bergström TF. Genomic structure of
- 1041 the horse major histocompatibility complex class II region resolved using PacBio long-read
- sequencing technology. Sci Rep. Nature Publishing Group; 2017;7:45518.
- 1043 72. Katju V, Lynch M. The structure and early evolution of recently arisen gene duplicates in
- 1044 the Caenorhabditis elegans genome. Genetics. Genetics Society of America; 2003;165:1793–
- 1045 803.
- 1046 73. Gregers TF, Fleckenstein B, Vartdal F, Roepstorff P, Bakke O, Sandlie I. MHC class II
- 1047 loading of high or low affinity peptides directed by li/peptide fusion constructs: implications
- 1048 for T cell activation. Int. Immunol. 2003;15:1291–9.
- 1049 74. Liu X, Zhan Z, Li D, Xu L, Ma F, Zhang P, et al. Intracellular MHC class II molecules promote
- 1050 TLR-triggered innate immune responses by maintaining activation of the kinase Btk. Nat.
- 1051 Immunol. Nature Publishing Group; 2011;12:416–24.
- 1052 75. Matzaraki V, Kumar V, Wijmenga C, Zhernakova A. The MHC locus and genetic
- 1053 susceptibility to autoimmune and infectious diseases. Genome Biology. BioMed Central;
- 1054 2017;18:76.

- 1055 76. Zhang Y, Dai X, Wang Q, Chen H, Meng W, Wu K, et al. Transmission efficiency of the
- 1056 plague pathogen (Y. pestis) by the flea, Xenopsylla skrjabini, to mice and great gerbils.
- 1057 Parasit Vectors. BioMed Central; 2015;8:256.
- 1058 77. Martin M. Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput sequencing reads.
- 1059 EMBnet.journal. 2011;17:pp.10–2.
- 1060 78. Gnerre S, Maccallum I, Przybylski D, Ribeiro FJ, Burton JN, Walker BJ, et al. High-quality
- 1061 draft assemblies of mammalian genomes from massively parallel sequence data. Proc. Natl.
- 1062 Acad. Sci. U.S.A. National Acad Sciences; 2011;108:1513-8.
- 1063 79. Elgvin TO, Trier CN, Tørresen OK, Hagen IJ, Lien S, Nederbragt AJ, et al. The genomic
- 1064 mosaicism of hybrid speciation. Sci Adv. 2017;3:e1602996.
- 1065 80. Pujolar JM, Dalén L, Olsen RA, Hansen MM, Madsen J. First de novo whole genome
- sequencing and assembly of the pink-footed goose. Genomics. 2018;110:75–9.
- 1067 81. Parra G, Bradnam K, Korf I. CEGMA: a pipeline to accurately annotate core genes in
- 1068 eukaryotic genomes. Bioinformatics. 2007;23:1061–7.
- 1069 82. Parra G, Bradnam K, Ning Z, Keane T, Korf I. Assessing the gene space in draft genomes.
- 1070 Nucleic Acids Res. 2009;37:289–97.
- 1071 83. Simão FA, Waterhouse RM, Ioannidis P, Kriventseva EV, Zdobnov EM. BUSCO: assessing
- 1072 genome assembly and annotation completeness with single-copy orthologs. Bioinformatics.
- 1073 Oxford University Press; 2015;31:3210–2.

- 1074 84. Kumar S, Jones M, Koutsovoulos G, Clarke M, Blaxter M. Blobology: exploring raw
- 1075 genome data for contaminants, symbionts and parasites using taxon-annotated GC-coverage
- 1076 plots. Front Genet. Frontiers; 2013;4:237.
- 1077 85. Holt C, Yandell M. MAKER2: an annotation pipeline and genome-database management
- 1078 tool for second-generation genome projects. BMC Bioinformatics. 2011.
- 1079 86. Varadharajan S, Sandve SR, Gillard GB, Tørresen OK, Mulugeta TD, Hvidsten TR, et al. The
- 1080 grayling genome reveals selection on gene expression regulation after whole genome
- 1081 duplication. Genome Biology and Evolution. 2018.
- 1082 87. Lomsadze A, Ter-Hovhannisyan V, Chernoff YO, Borodovsky M. Gene identification in
- 1083 novel eukaryotic genomes by self-training algorithm. Nucleic Acids Res. 2005;33:6494–506.
- 1084 88. Tørresen OK, Brieuc MSO, Solbakken MH, Sørhus E, Nederbragt AJ, Jakobsen KS, et al.
- 1085 Genomic architecture of haddock (Melanogrammus aeglefinus) shows expansions of innate
- 1086 immune genes and short tandem repeats. BMC Genomics 2015 16:1. BioMed Central;
- 1087 2018;19:240.
- 1088 89. Hurt P, Walter L, Sudbrak R, Klages S, Müller I, Shiina T, et al. The genomic sequence and
- 1089 comparative analysis of the rat major histocompatibility complex. Genome Res. Cold Spring
- 1090 Harbor Lab; 2004;14:631–9.
- 1091 90. Katoh K, Standley DM. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7:
- improvements in performance and usability. Mol. Biol. Evol. 2013;30:772-80.
- 1093 91. Maddison WP, Maddison DR. Mesquite: a modular system for evolutionary analysis.
- 1094 Version 3.4.

- 1095 92. Talavera G, Castresana J, Kjer K, Page R, Sullivan J. Improvement of Phylogenies after
- 1096 Removing Divergent and Ambiguously Aligned Blocks from Protein Sequence Alignments.
- 1097 Kjer K, Page R, Sullivan J, editors. Systematic Biology. Oxford University Press; 2007;56:564-
- 1098 77.
- 1099 93. Stamatakis A. RAxML-VI-HPC: maximum likelihood-based phylogenetic analyses with
- 1100 thousands of taxa and mixed models. Bioinformatics. Oxford University Press;
- 1101 2006;22:2688–90.
- 1102 94. Aberer AJ, Krompass D, Stamatakis A. Pruning rogue taxa improves phylogenetic
- accuracy: an efficient algorithm and webservice. Systematic Biology. 2013;62:162–6.
- 1104 95. Huelsenbeck JP, Ronquist F. MRBAYES: Bayesian inference of phylogenetic trees.
- 1105 Bioinformatics. 2001;17:754–5.
- 1106 96. Delport W, Poon AFY, Frost SDW, Kosakovsky Pond SL. Datamonkey 2010: a suite of
- 1107 phylogenetic analysis tools for evolutionary biology. Bioinformatics. Oxford University Press;
- 1108 2010;26:2455–7.
- 1109 97. Weaver S, Shank SD, Spielman SJ, Li M, Muse SV, Kosakovsky Pond SL. Datamonkey 2.0: a
- 1110 modern web application for characterizing selective and other evolutionary processes. Mol.
- 1111 Biol. Evol. 2018;83:8916.
- 1112 98. Kosakovsky Pond SL, Murrell B, Fourment M, Frost SDW, Delport W, Scheffler K. A
- 1113 Random Effects Branch-Site Model for Detecting Episodic Diversifying Selection. Mol. Biol.
- 1114 Evol. 2011;28:3033–43.

- 1115 99. Murrell B, Wertheim JO, Moola S, Weighill T, Scheffler K, Kosakovsky Pond SL. Detecting
- 1116 individual sites subject to episodic diversifying selection. Malik HS, editor. PLOS Genetics.
- 1117 2012;8:e1002764.
- 1118 100. Smith MD, Wertheim JO, Weaver S, Murrell B, Scheffler K, Kosakovsky Pond SL. Less is
- 1119 more: an adaptive branch-site random effects model for efficient detection of episodic
- diversifying selection. Mol. Biol. Evol. 2015;32:1342–53.
- 1121 101. Kelley LA, Mezulis S, Yates CM, Wass MN, Sternberg MJE. The Phyre2 web portal for
- 1122 protein modeling, prediction and analysis. Nat Protoc. Nature Publishing Group;
- 1123 2015;10:845–58.
- 1124 102. Péléraux A, Karlsson L, Chambers J, Peterson PA. Genomic organization of a mouse
- 1125 MHC class II region including the H2-M and Lmp2 loci. Immunogenetics. 1996;43:204–14.
- 1126 103. Chomczynski P, Sacchi N. The single-step method of RNA isolation by acid guanidinium
- 1127 thiocyanate-phenol-chloroform extraction: twenty-something years on. Nat Protoc. Nature
- 1128 Publishing Group; 2006;1:581–5.