The genomic landscape of tree rot in *Phellinus noxius* and its Hymenochaetales

members

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ABSTRACT

Background

The order Hymenochaetales of filamentous fungi contains some of the most aggressive wood decayers that have caused major forest incidents as early as 1971. It is also phylogenetically placed between the well-studied Agaricales and Ustillaginales orders, making Hymenochaetales species interesting for investigating the evolutionary transition between the orders of Basidiomycota.

Results

We report four whole-genomes from this group including the tree rot pathogen *Phellinus noxius*, the wood decomposing fungus *Phellinus lamaensis*, the laminated root rot pathogen *Phellinus sulphurascens*, and the trunk rot pathogen *Porodaedalea pini*. While expansion of transposable elements constitutes the main difference between these genomes ranging from 31- to 53-megabases, their karyotype is conserved with distant fungi. We found many genes reflecting their ability as white-rot fungi, and transcriptome data from *in planta* colonization of *P. noxius* revealed members of carbohydrate active enzymes, P450s, and nucleotide-binding-oligomerization-domain like receptors that are upregulated at different infection phases. Population genomics analyses of 60 *P. noxius* isolates across the Asia Pacific region revealed extraordinary genetic diversity and mono-/heterokaryotic nature, and that the isolates can be divided into two genetically separated lineages with contrasting evolutionary scenarios.

Conclusions

These genomes shed light on the basic biology and population genetics of fungal tree pathogens. The combined genome and transcriptome analysis of *P. noxius* can serve as a starting point for understanding the survival strategies of this devastating pathogen, from which new control methods could be developed.

Keywords

Phellinus – Comparative genomics – Population genomics – Fungal biology – Tree pathogens

INTRODUCTION

Under most circumstances, fungi coexist with trees or act as saprotrophs responsible for carbon and nitrogen cycling in forest systems. However, some fungi are also one of the dominant groups of pathogens causing diseases in trees. There has been an emergence of tree disease outbreaks in different parts of the world such as the ash dieback[1], Dutch elm disease[2], laminated root rot caused by *Phellinus sulphurascens*[3], and brown root rot caused by *Phellinus noxius*[4-6]. Factors contributing to this phenomenon include climate change[7] and human activity[8]. If interventions are not implemented early and effective, pathogen infections can kill millions of trees and the spread can become very difficult to stop[9].

Hymenochaetales is dominated by wood decay fungi and belongs to Agaricomycetes of Basidiomycota. Most of which are saprotrophic but some also exhibit pathogenic lifestyles that have been recorded in major forest incidents as early as 1971 in different parts of the world[10, 11]. In particular, *P. noxius* has a very wide host range, spanning more than 200 broadleaved and coniferous tree species (at least 59 families) including many agricultural, ornamental, and forest trees such as longan, litchi, camphor, banyan, and pine[12, 13]. Inoculation assays showed that only seven out of 101 tested tree cultivars (92 species) exhibited high resistance[14]. Moreover, despite the differences in virulence, *P. noxius* isolates exhibited no host specificity[14-16].

The life cycle of *P. noxius*[13] is thought to be similar to other important root-rotting basidiomycetes, such as *Armillaria mellea* and *Heterobasidion annosum*. The new infection can start from previously infected plants/stumps or colonized wood debris, from which the mycelium of *P. noxius* grows to infect the lateral and tap roots of the host tree[13]. An invasion to the cortex and lignified xylem is usually observed[17], sometimes accompanied by gradual expansion of the mycelial mat to the basal stem (**Figure 1a**). Diseased trees with decayed roots may then show symptoms of foliar chlorosis, thinning leaves, defoliation, and eventually decline within a few months to several years. The damaged and fragile roots (**Figure 1b**) also make the trees easily toppled over by strong winds and heavy rains. Basidiocarps are occasionally formed on trunks of infected trees (**Figure 1c-d**). The sexual reproduction system of *P. noxius* has remained unclarified, partly due to the lack of clamp connections for diagnosing compatibility[13].

Brown root rot disease caused by *P. noxius* is widespread in tropical and subtropical
areas in Southeast and East Asia, Oceania, Africa, Central America and the Caribbean.
The geographical distribution appears to be related to the range of growth temperature
range of *P. noxius*: it grows over 10-12°C to 36°C, with optimum growth at 30°C. In
the past 20 years, brown root rot disease has become a serious threat to a variety of
perennial fruit trees, ornamental and landscape trees, and shade trees in Taiwan[6]
and in Ryukyu and Ogasawara Islands of Japan[4]. In Australia, it occurs in the
natural and commercial plantation forests and orchards along the east coast, and has
killed many trees in the Greater Metropolitan area of Brisbane Queensland[18]. In
West Africa and China, brown root rot was reported as the most devastating root
disease attacking the rubber plantations[16]. Trees in urban areas and plantation
forestry in Hong Kong and Macao have also been seriously affected[19, 20]. Recent
population genetics studies based on simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers suggested
that *P. noxius* may spread over short distances via root-to-root contact of the hosts,
and the genetically variable basidiospores are likely involved in long-distance
dispersal and the establishment of unique clones in new disease foci[4, 6].

Here we report the genome sequences of four species from Hymenochaetales: white-
rot fungus *Phellinus noxius*, *Phellinus lamaensis* (wood decomposing fungus that
causes a white pocket rot only on dead heartwood trees)*, Phellinus sulphurascens*
(syn. *Coniferiporia sulphurascens*[21]; pathogen responsible for laminated root rot in
Douglas-fir/ true fir), and *Porodaedalea pini* (syn. *Phellinus pini;* trunk pathogen of
conifers). To investigate the genomic basis of tree pathogenicity in these fungi, we
compared: i) these genomes against other representative species of Basidiomycota; ii)
the transcriptomes of basidiocarps and mycelial mat from infected live trees and in
culture; and iii) whole genome sequencing of 60 *P. noxius* isolates from regions
endemic to brown root rot disease. We identified several features that are conserved
throughout basidiomycetes in the genome of *P. noxius* as well as genes upregulated
during infection. Population genomics analyses of *P. noxius* isolates revealed its
bipolar reproductive mode and two major genetic lineages with different evolutionary
scenarios. Together, this study provides insights into an important tree filamentous
pathogen by applying large-scale comparative and population genomics approaches.

RESULTS

Genome structure and content

We produced a 31.6 Mb *P. noxius* genome reference assembly from a Japanese KPN91 isolate combining both Pacbio and Illumina technologies. The nuclear genome of *P. noxius* is assembled into 12 scaffolds with six assembled into chromosomes from telomere to telomere **(Figure 2)**, while the mitochondrial genome is assembled into a single sequence of 163.4 kb. To date chromosome-level assemblies are available only for a few basidiomycetous species[22-24] including *P. noxius* (Supplementary Table 1). For a comprehensive understanding of genome evolution amongst members of the hymenochaetoid clade, we also sequenced and assembled three additional species: *P. sulphurascens, P. lamaensis* and *P. pini*, as well as two more isolates (A42 and 718-S1) of *P. noxius*. The three assemblies of *P. noxius* have N50s of 2.4-2.7 Mb, whilst the other three genome assemblies comprise 30.7-53.3 Mb with N50 of 570 kb-2.7 Mb. Together, the genome assembly quality of these Hymenochaetaceae are among the most contiguous and complete of the sequenced basidiomycetes.

A total of 9,833-18,103 genes were predicted in each species, which are 82-94% complete as assessed with the BUSCO[25] Basidiomycota dataset (Supplementary Table 1). To compare these predicted proteins to those of other basidiomycetes to explore chromosome and gene family evolutionary dynamics, we selected the proteomes of fifteen species from the 1000 Fungal Genomes Project that are highly finished or for use as outgroups (Supplementary Table 1). The Hymenochaetales species have median intergenic and intron lengths of 507-634 bp and 59-60 bp, respectively, which are comparable with those observed in genomes of other basidiomycetes. The maximum likelihood phylogeny based on 1,127 single-copy orthologs placed these species with *Fomitiporia mediterranea* and *Schizopora paradoxa,* two other species of the Hymenochaetaceae group with strong bootstrap support (**Figure 1e**). This phylogenetic relationship is consistent with previous findings[26], and species with similar genome sizes and pathogenic habit are grouped together. For instance, *Phellinus noxius* and *P. lamaensis* with compact genome sizes of ~31 Mb are grouped together, while the trunk rot pathogens *P. pini* and *F.*

mediterranea show an expansion of their genome sizes to 53-63 Mb and are also

grouped together.

Analysis of transposable elements and evidence of repeat-induced point mutation

(RIP)

A combination of *de novo* and reference repeat detection classified a total of 53-297

repeat families (Supplementary Table 2). The transposable element (TE) content

makes up 1.4-27.5% of the assemblies in the Hymenochaetales order (Supplementary

Table 3) and is associated with their genome size and taxonomic relationship. The

Class I transposons make up the majority of repetitive elements in these fungal

genomes (Supplementary Table 3). Manual annotation of the 16 most abundant full-

length transposon sequences revealed that these TEs belong to the *Gypsy* and *Copia*

superfamilies of the LTR retrotransposons, and the *Tad1* clade from the LINE

retrotransposons (Supplementary Figure 1). The *Gypsy* elements are 5,295 to 7,629 bp

in length and contain an open reading frame encoding 1,523 amino acid residues,

which contain conserved domains in the order of protease, reverse transcriptase,

RNase H, integrase and chromodomain (Supplementary Figure 1). Chromodomain-

containing *Gypsy* or chromoviruses are widely distributed in eukaryotes and present

in many basidiomycetes[27]. In the case of *P. pini,* 588 full-length copies of two

repeats from the *Gypsy* family (Supplementary Figure 1) make up 10% of the total

assembly. In contrast, a clear exception is *P. sulphurascens* where a *Tad1* class LINE

dominates the TE content of the genome and a *Copia* class of LTR-retrotransposon is

found to be more abundant than *Gypsy*.

Copies of TEs are not distributed uniformly across the genome: the six complete

chromosomes in the *P. noxius* assembly show clear signatures of Basiodiomycete

centromeres (located at the middle of chromosome and comprised solely of TEs) and

enriched at subtelomeres; TEs are distributed as distinct 80.4-118.4 kb blocks (**Figure**

2), which are typical in fungi[22]. These clusters also show a much lower average GC

content suggesting a hallmark of fungal repeat-induced point mutation*[28]* (RIP)

favouring T or A changes (Supplementary Figure 2). In Basidiomycota such

mutational patterns were previously only observed in the Pucciniomycotina

subphylum[29]. However, homologs of known genes responsible for RIP are present

in all four Hymenochaetales species (Supplementary Table 4). Analysis of

dinucleotide transitions[30] has shown significantly higher CpN→TpN mutations, but not vice versa (Supplementary Figure 3), suggesting that RIP have successfully limited TE expansions especially in the compact genomes of *P. noxius* and *P. lamaensis*. Interestingly, each species has a different preferred mode of dinucleotide changes: CpA→TpA mutations clearly dominate in *P. noxius* compared to CpT→TpT and CpG→TpG in both *P. pini* and *P. sulphurascens.*

Chromosome biology

Like other complete chromosomes of basidiomycetes (Supplementary Table 1), the *P. noxius* genome also presents little variability in gene density along its scaffolds with the exception of TE clusters (Supplementary Figure 4). The number of known karyotypes in Basidiomycota ranges from 11 to 14 chromosome pairs (Supplementary Table 1), which suggests a possible ancestor with similar chromosome numbers. In an attempt to characterize chromosome architecture and evolution amongst the Agaricomycotina sub-division, we constructed a linkage network of seven selected species based on single-copy orthologs between species pairs. We identified 13 distinct linkage groups (LG) providing strong evidence that chromosome macro-synteny is largely conserved since the common ancestor of Agaricomycetes (**Figure 3a**; Supplementary Figure 5). Such a relationship is extended to Dacrymycetes where multiple scaffolds can be predominantly assigned to different linkage groups, but it is no longer apparent when compared to Tremellomycetes. Certain scaffolds are found to connect different linkage groups, implying inter-chromosomal rearrangements. For example, *P. noxius* scaffold1 is strongly clustered in LG11 but also shows linkage to LG10, implying a translocation from scaffold5 (**Figure 3**). Within each linkage group, gene collinearity is no longer apparent, suggesting high levels of intra-chromosomal rearrangements which have been observed in different fungal groups[31] (**Figure 3b**).

Like most species, the most common telomere repeating unit in basidiomycetes is TTAGGG[32], although other combinations such as T(n)AG(n)[33] or TTTAGGGG[34] have been described elsewhere. A systematic survey of the selected published genomes reveals the predominance of TTAGGG repeat across basidiomycetes, including *P. pini* and *P. sulphurascens* (Supplementary Table 5). The

karyotype of *P. noxius* has not been reported, but together with *P. lamaensis* we found

10 scaffolds that end with overrepresented 13.6-66.9 copies of a TTAGGTG heptamer,

suggesting a novel telomeric repeat compared to other basidiomycetes[32].

Interestingly, the *Dacryopinax primogenitus* assembly contains 31 scaffold ends with

TTAGGG telomeric repeats. Of those, 11 scaffolds have telomeric repeats at both

ends revealing extensive fission of at least 21 chromosomes. **Figure 3b** shows one

example of six scaffolds with such repeats present on the ends in *D. primogenitus*

compared to two scaffolds in both *P. noxius* and *Coprinopsis cinerea.*

Gene families associated with Hymenochaetales and *Phellinus noxius*

We sought to identify genes and protein domains specific to Hymenochaetales by

determining when a new gene family arose and if the family has expanded or

contracted. In total, 7,125-11,659 proteins in the Hymenochaetales order are clustered

together in 5,184 families. Acquisition of gene families was mainly found at the tips

of the phylogeny (531-8,055 families) suggesting each species has a repertoire of

specific genes. The seven Hymenochaetaceae species have a total of 62 enriched

protein domains compared to other basidiomycetes (Supplementary Figure 6). Gain of

domains such as fungal specific transcription factors (Fungal_trans; 53.8 *vs* 41.6

copies) and peroxidase associated protein domains (Peroxidase_ext; 16.7 *vs* 3.9

copies) in these Hymenochaetaceae species reflect their white rot nature. Conversely,

579 gene families were inferred to have been lost in the common ancestor of *P.*

lamaensis and *P. noxius*. Analysis of gene ontology (GO) term enrichment on these

otherwise preserved gene families in *P. sulphurascens* and *P. pini* revealed a common

theme of intracellular signal transduction (Supplementary Table 6). Several signal

transduction pathways may have become more specialized in the ancestor of *P. noxius*

and *P. lamaensis*. For example, multiple copies of NmrA (nitrogen metabolite

repression) were lost in these two species, which act as regulators in nitrogen-

dependent control of secondary metabolism[35].

We sought to identify novel and expanded gene families in *P. noxius* despite its

compact genome (Supplementary Figure 7). In total, 74% (7,313) of 9,833 predicted

genes from *P. noxius* have orthologs from at least one of the other basidiomycetes,

suggesting most of the basidiomycetous core genes are conserved. Consistent with the

fact that *P. noxius* is a fast grower[5], genes encoding 1,3-beta-glucan synthase

responsible for the formation of beta-glucan components of the fungal cell wall[36]

are expanded (14 compared to an average of 1.8 copies). Notably, counts of WD40

protein domains are highest in *P. noxius* and *P. lamaensis* despite their small genome

size (Supplementary Table 7a). This domain is important in protein-protein

interactions of cellular networks and is usually associated with additional domains

with other functional activities[37]. Interrogating this expansion revealed the

association of WD40 domains with the AAA and NACHT domains (Supplementary

Table 7b), both of which are NTPase domains and such combinations are commonly

found in nucleotide-binding-oligomerization-domain like receptors (NLRs). This gene

family is highly diverse in fungi and was found to be central to the process of

programmed cell death and implicated in fungal vegetative incompatibility and

general nonself recognition [38]. A maximum likelihood phylogeny of the NACHT

domain proteins shows different expansions of NLR subfamilies in fungi

(Supplementary Figure 8). In particular, the C2-NACHT-WD40(n) subfamily has

only been found exclusively in a few basidiomycetes[39] and is present in the highest

copy number in *P. noxius* and *P. lamaensis*. The strikingly high abundances of WD40

domains in *P. noxius* and *P. lamaensis* are a result of tandem expansions near

chromosome ends (**Figure 2**). Other expansions include UDP-

glucuronosyltransferases, which catalyse conjugation reactions in the

biotransformation of xenobiotics released by its host environment [40].

P. noxius displays a bipolar heterothallic mating system

Mate recognition of sexual reproduction in Basidiomycota is known to be controlled

by two unlinked loci, named as *A* and *B* locus. Different from the divergently

transcribed *HD1-HD2* observed in most species in Agaricomycetes[41], a conserved

head-to-tail orientation of *HD1-HD2* in *HD* pair 1 was found in Hymenochaetales

(Figure 4). Alignment of 100-kb sequences upstream and downstream of *A* locus in *P.*

noxius isolates KPN91, 718-S1 and A42 revealed that *A* locus is highly polymorphic

(*HD* pairs in particular) despite well-conserved flanking regions (Supplementary

Figure 9). For *B* locus, only one *STE3* encoding seven transmembrane helices was

identified; four pheromone genes were identified but not physically linked to the

highly monomorphic *STE3* (Supplementary Figure 10, Supplementary Table 8,

Supplementary Information), which is characteristic of a bipolar mating system.

To further confirm this observation, allele diversity was analyzed by resequencing *A*

and *B* locus from 10 single-basidiospore isolates originating from a single basidiocarp

(Supplementary Table 9). Sequencing of *STE3* revealed two highly similar alleles (b1,

b2), with 99.5% amino acid identity. The only variant (244V/A) is considered a semi-

conservative mutation (valine and alanine are nonpolar aliphatic acids) and may have

minor or no effect on protein function. Previous studies have shown that although

STE3 is not involved in mating type determination in bipolar fungi, variations can

still be observed[42-44]. Primer walking of *A* locus revealed two distinct haplotypes

(Supplementary Figure 11): the a1 and a2 alleles of *HD* pair I shared an overall 78%

nucleotide identity; the two alleles of *HD* pair II were highly diverse and the HD1

domain in a2 allele contains a 1-bp and a 9-bp deletions and has become a

pseudogene. The loss of HD1 domain was also found in the *HD* pair I of 718-S1

(Figure 4), suggesting that at least one of the HD1 motifs in *A* locus is dispensable for

a functional HD1-HD2 heterodimer in *P. noxius*. The presence or absence of specific

HD domains reflects phylogenetic characteristics and has been commonly observed in

fungi[45]. Clear segregation of two distinct alleles at *A* locus (Supplementary Figure

11) suggests a heterothallic bipolar reproductive mode in *P. noxius*.

Distinct from all the other fungi, *P. noxius* has an exceptionally highly expanded *A*

locus across a ~60-kb region **(Figure 4)**. There are two pairs of HD1-HD2 gene

located ~50-kb away from each other. The characteristic large interval between *HD*

pairs has only been reported in *Schizophyllum commune* (~55 kb) and *Flammulina*

velutipes (~70 kb), in which the genomic separation likely emerged through

inversions or transpositions of gene clusters surrounding *HD*[46]. In the case of *P.*

noxius, the large interval is a result of accumulation of genes transposed from

different parts of the genome (**Figure 4**; Supplementary Figure 12).

Distribution of CAZymes and secondary metabolic gene clusters

Carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes) are a diverse set of enzymes involved in

the synthesis and degradation of carbohydrates[47]. Efficient degradation of lignin, a

tough biopolymer present in woody plants, by white rot fungi such as members of

Hymenochaetales requires an arsenal of ligninolytic enzymes[48]. Consistent with

this, CAZymes spanning eight families of lignin-degrading enzymes (AA1-AA8)

which include laccases, peroxidases, oxidases, and reductases, and a lytic
polysaccharide mono-oxygenase family (LPMO; AA9) were found in all
Hymenochaetales species (Supplementary Table 10). Specialization includes the
identification of copper-dependent LPMO AA11 and oxidoreductase from AA12
family only in *P. lamaensis* and *P. sulphurascens*, respectively. The most abundant
and diverse among the CAZymes annotated in these four species were glycoside
hydrolases (GHs). GHs act on diverse carbohydrates, including cellulose (e.g. GH1,
GH3, GH5, GH6, GH7 and GH12), hemicellulose (e.g. GH5, CE1, GH3 and GH27),
pectin (e.g. GH28, GH43, GH78, CE8, CE12, PL1 and PL3), starch (GH13, GH15
and GH31), and chitin (e.g. GH18, GH20, GT2 and CBM5) (Supplementary Table
10). Despite its compact genome, *P. noxius* contains a comprehensive repertoire of
carbohydrate-active enzymes; a total of 4.23% (416 proteins) of its proteome were
identified as CAZymes which is more than those in the other Hymenochaetales
(Supplementary Figure 13). Taken together, the diversity of the CAZymes encoded in
the *P. noxius* genome is consistent with its ability to infect a wide range of hosts.

The Basidiomycota phylum is known for the production of huge and diverse sets of
secondary metabolites (SM) such as terpenoid compounds which have roles in
virulence, survival, and host specificity[49]. Investigations on SM gene clusters
revealed that nonribosomal peptide synthase (NRPS), type 1 polyketide synthase
(T1PKS), and terpene synthase (TS) clusters were common among the proteomes of
Hymenochaetales. For *P. noxius*, a total of 18 putative clusters were found, which
included one lantipeptide, one NRPS, two T1PKS, and 11 TS clusters. These SM
clusters contained 4-37 annotated biosynthesis genes (Supplementary Table 11),
distributed evenly in eight of the 12 scaffolds of *P. noxius* (**Figure 2**). Clusters of
lantipeptides were found in only three out of 19 compared fungi, including *P. noxius*
and its closest relative *P. lamaensis.* Lantipeptides are primarily known for their
antimicrobial activities, although some have other roles such as in fungal
morphegenesis[19].

Transcription profiles of *P. noxius* during infection of trees

Upon infection of a tree, which usually starts from the root, the mycelial mat of *P. noxius* can grow and expand on the surface of the basal stems. Occasionally, basidiocarps were found in the diseased tree. To investigate genes and gene families that are likely to contribute to *in planta* colonization and the stress response of *P. noxius*, we characterized transcriptomes of mycelial mats between brown and creamy sections from two adjacent Chinese elm (*Ulmus parvifolia*) trees, fruiting body, and mycelia grown in potato dextrose agar (PDA) medium (2-3 biological replicates for each condition; Supplementary Figure 14a). Samples from naturally infected trees were used because artificial inoculation of *P. noxius* has remained challenging. Limited success has been achieved by wound inoculation of seedlings on the basal stem[14], but the infection site and symptom development did not fully reflect the phenomenon in nature. Global transcriptome profiles of *P. noxius* are grouped together according to conditions (Supplementary Figure 14b), which show a precise regulatory difference of *P. noxius* at different stages. In particular, 151 (58%) members of the most expanded gene family, NACHT- or WD40-encoding proteins, were found to be differentially expressed in at least one pairwise comparison of transcriptome profiles from different conditions (**Figure 5**). Of those, 10-35 genes were found upregulated solely in one condition, suggesting a major role of this gene family across multiple conditions. Other than the involvement in the incompatibility reaction[50], WD40-associated proteins have been found to be central to many developmental processes in ascomycetes, such as fruiting body formation in *Sordaria macrospora*[51] and the regulation of circadian clock in *Neurospora crassa*[52]. Interestingly, we observed that the WD40 domain containing genes with similar transcriptional profile and domain combinations are physically clustered together, suggesting retained function on some of the paralogous genes since tandem duplication.

When compared with transcriptome profiles of *P. noxius* grown in PDA, Cytochrome P450, and CAZymes gene families dominated the list of genes upregulated in field samples (mycelial mat and fruiting body). For instance, despite lacking lignin-degrading peroxidases, *P. noxius* encodes 5, 2, and 11 copies of laccase, glyoxal oxidase, and manganese peroxidase genes with predicted signal peptides, respectively. Of these members of Auxiliary Activity (AA) family, 67% (12) are significantly

upregulated in mycelial mats. This is consistent with the fact that *P. noxius* as a white

rot has the capacity for continuously degrading plant materials including lignin and

responding to xenobiotics elicited by plant defence response[53] (Supplementary

Table 12). Import pathways such as Major Facilitator Superfamily (MFS-1)

transporters was *in silico* predicted to have a role in transporting intermediate

decomposition products during wood decay [54]. This is also true for *P. noxius,*

where 45% (51) out of 113 members of the MFS-1 transporter were upregulated in at

least one of the field conditions. Only 10% of the *P. noxius* secretome were predicted

to be putative effectors[55], which are significantly upregulated in *in planta*

conditions (Supplementary Table 13). The upregulated gene list also contains

hydrophobins (e.g. cerato-platanin), which contributed to virulence of various

fungi[56] and were upregulated in previous inoculation experiments of *P.*

sulphurascens[3].

The creamy and brown mycelial mat on infected trees are physically in close

proximity and reflects relatively early and middle stages of pathogenesis rather than

the late stage of vigorous decomposition. Their global transcriptome profiles were

more similar to each other when compared with the other two conditions. Enrichment

analysis of differentially expressed genes shows different strategies used by *P. noxius*

(Supplementary Table 14): the creamy mycelium shows enrichment of upregulated

genes involved in DNA replication such as ATPases and DNA topoisomerase,

suggesting *P. noxius* is actively progressing outwards along the tree bark

(Supplementary Figure 15). In contrast, members of P450 and CAZymes are

significantly upregulated in the dark mycelial mat, suggesting an even higher

expression of these genes during the middle stage of colonization.

Sequence analysis of 60 *P. noxius* strains

To further understand the regional dissemination of *P. noxius* in Taiwan and Japanese

offshore islands*,* we sequenced the genomes of 60 isolates (Figure 6a) originating

from diseased trees in urban cities as well as trails in natural parks. This collection

was sequenced to a median depth of coverage of 35X, and additional mate pair

libraries were sequenced in two isolates (718-S1 and A42) which were used to

characterize synteny relationship amongst strains. An average of 96% mapping rate

was achieved after aligning reads from each strain to the KPN91 reference genome.

The descriptions and statistics of the strains are provided in Supplementary Table 15.

Stable structural variation and frequencies of heterokaryons in *P. noxius*

The detection of frequency of heterokaryons and polyploids of *P. noxius* in nature

remain challenging as its arthospores contain 1-5 nuclei (based on quantification of

145 arthospores from A42 in this study) and multiple allelic fragments in SSRs (2-4

alleles per locus) are commonly found in populations [4, 6]. All the strains were

isolated from either a single arthospore or fungal mat, and thus allowed for the

analysis of variation in genome structure. We found no deviation in coverage across

every scaffold in all strains (Supplementary Figure 16), suggesting a stable number of

chromosome copies in *P. noxius.* To distinguish the frequency of mono- or

heterokaryons in nature, heterozygous SNPs and minor allele frequency (MAF)

distribution was inferred in each strain (Supplementary Figure 17). We identified four

groups (A to D) that clearly differ in heterozygosity and MAF. The group with the

lowest heterozygosity of averaging 0.2 % showed a random MAF distribution. In

particular, strains 718-S1 and A42 each isolated from single basidiospores fall in this

group suggesting they are monokaryotic in nature. Conversely, the other three groups

have a much higher heterozygosity, with the highest group of 1.6% heterozygosity

displaying a peak around 50% in MAF distribution. Peaks around 27%-33% are also

observed in two of the groups, and this is not due to multiple nuclei as the

distributions of the number of nuclei per cell in seven randomly selected isolates are

the same (Supplementary Figure 18). Groups B-D may refer to different compositions

of two or more genetically distinct nuclei. The number of monokaryons present in

nature is 40% and can be found across all regions surveyed in this study.

Diversification of *P. noxius* across Pacific Ocean islands

To examine the population structure of *P. noxius* in this area of Pacific Islands, we

performed principal-component analysis (Figure 6b; Supplementary Figure 19) on the

SNP variants from individual phased haploid genomes. Similar to previous report

based on SSRs on highly diversified populations between Japanese offshore

islands[4], the major principal component divided Ogasawara islands samples from

the rest of the samples, which are located geographically 1,210 km apart. The second

and third principal components defined a tight cluster of Taiwanese isolates with

considerable overlaps between cities despite being 170 km apart. Most isolates from

Ryukyu islands can be differentiated from those from Taiwan. Interestingly, we

identified three isolates from Taiwan that are distinctive from both the Taiwan-

Ryukyu and Ogasawara island clusters, suggesting a possibility of more populations

within the Taiwan island.

We constructed a maximum likelihood phylogeny based on 1,837,281 high

confidence SNPs of *P. noxius* (Figure 6c). Concordant with the PCA, the strains from

Ogasawara islands form a distinctive lineage. We also observed that the majority of

Taiwan and Ryukyu islands strains are grouped together forming another major

lineage, suggesting the possibility of gene flow in this region despite physical

separations by the sea. We inferred the population structure in 144,426 unlinked

bialleic sites using the Bayesian model-based clustering approach[57]. Consistent

with the phylogeny, fastSTRUCTURE[57] also identified two Taiwan-Ryukyu and

Ogasawara lineages circulating in this region (Figure 6c, Supplementary Figure 20).

High nucleotide diversities in *P. noxius* populations

The *de novo* assemblies of three strains of *P. noxius* have on average 97% nucleotide

identity and are largely co-linear to each other with apparent genome translocations

between Taiwan/Ryukyu (A42 and KPN91) and the Ogasawara (718-S1) isolate

(Supplementary Figure 21). We quantified sequence diversity using θs and θπ and

categorised them into whole genome average, four-fold synonymous sites and

replacement sites (Table 1). An large number of SNPs are found in the genome of *P.*

noxius, averaging one SNP identified in every 20-59 bp. Nucleotide diversity at

synonymous sites θπ-syn is 15.8 and 19.2 per kilobase in Ogasawara island and

Taiwan-Ryukyu populations, respectively. This is ~5 fold higher when compared to

the majority of species[58] and is likely an underestimate of true diversity as indels

were not considered. Extremely high diversity has been reported in natural

populations of *Schizophyllum commune*[59]. The Tajima's D is strongly negative in

the Taiwan and Ryukyu islands lineage, suggesting an excess of low frequency alleles

present in the population possibly as a result of high mutation rate[59] or population

expansion. In the Ogasawara population, nucleotide diversity is reduced compared to
the Taiwan/Ryukyu lineage and Tajima's D is positive implying a reduced effective
population size; *P. noxius* may have been introduced recently in these islands. By *de*
novo assembly and annotation of these isolates, we were able to identify a total of 25
differential content of Pfam domains between these two lineages ($P \leq 0.05$; Wilcoxon
rank-sum test; Supplementary Figure 22). Of them, Arv1 can be found in 37/51
strains in Taiwan-Ryukyu lineage which may be related to the traffic of sterol[60].
Together our data suggest that the two *P. noxius* lineages may have derived from
genetically distinct gene pools and have undergone divergent evolutionary scenarios,
possibly as a result of different time of introduction, and different environments
and/or human interference in Taiwan-Ryukyu *vs* Ogasawara areas.

DISCUSSION

Here we report four high-quality genome sequence of Hymenochaetales species that
are global tree pathogens of particular importance. Orthologous relationships with
other complete genomes of basidiomycetes have confirmed conservation of
karyotypes with few fusion or breaks in Agaricomycetes. Our study has shown how a
pathogenic wood decay fungus regulates global transcription at different stages of
colonization on tree host in nature. Such orchestrated responses have been
demonstrated in a few other white rot fungi, including *Pycnoporus coccineus* during
cultivation in three types of lignocellulosic substrates (i.e. cereal straw, softwood, and
hardwood)[55], and *Heterobasidion irregular* during growth in wood substrates, in
the cambial zone of pine, and as fruiting bodies[22]. Although the initial phase for *P.*
noxius to invade the root of a living tree remains to be elucidated, our combined
genome and transcriptome analysis reiterate the importance of CAZymes and P450
families in host adaptation, the involvement of MFS-1 in transporting the intermediate
decomposition products, and the roles of abundant WD40-encoding proteins in
modulating cell differentiation and responses to environmental stimuli. The results
can serve as a starting point for understanding the survival strategies of *P. noxius*,
from which new control methods could be developed.

Population genomics analyses of *P. noxius* suggest that it is a hypervariable species.

Our investigations into mating type loci and genome-wide heterozygosity further

indicated that the genetic hyperdiversity can be attributed to a bipolar heterothallic

reproductive system and heterokaryotic nature, though gene flow and/or high

mutation rate may also play some roles. The exceptional large separation between *HD*

pairs would allow higher probability of recombination between the physically distant

HD genes[41, 46], thus resulting in progeny with more diverse mating types which

are ready to mate. Notably, both monokaryotic and heterokaryotic state of *P. noxius*

mycelia are prevalent in the nature, and some isolates likely contained more than two

genetically different nuclei[6]. In addition, some isolates were able to produce

basidiocarps by themselves when cultured on sawdust medium (P.-J. Ann, pers.

comm.), suggesting dikaryotization or homokaryotic fruiting occurred spontaneously

or in response to certain conditions[63]. It would be interesting to further investigate

the complex regulatory mechanisms underlying anastomosis, karyogamy, and meiotic

division during vegetative growth and basidiocarp formation. Transcriptional

diversity among genetically variable individuals is also warrant further exploration.

How *P. noxius* is spread in regions of Asia has been the focus of a few studies[4, 6,

64]. Field observations support the root-to-root spread as a major mode of

transmission. Human activity such as planting of infected seedlings may have

promoted the movement of the strains between the islands of Taiwan and the Ryukyu

region, which provide an artificial environment for population to increase. The

within-population hyperdiversity and sporadic pattern of new disease foci also

support the involvement of basidiospores in *P. noxius* dissemination. Abundant

basidiospores produced from perennial fruiting bodies may have the ability to travel

long distance (e.g. the basidiospores of *Heterobasidion annosum* and *Peniophora*

aurantiaca were captured 50–500 km and ~1000 km apart from the inoculum source).

Following the dispersal, highly variable individuals of *P. noxius* would have good

chance of successful colonization. A preliminary model based on 19 bioclimatic

variables of known locations of ~100 *P. noxius* isolates from south eastern Asia,

Australia, and Pacific islands predicted that extensive global regions are at risk, which

includes a big part of the South American continent[65].

CONCLUSION

The Hymenochaetales is phylogenetically placed between the better-studied Agaricales and Ustillaginales orders, making the reference assembly of *P. noxius* KPN91 an attractive genome to study the evolutionary transition between these orders of Basidiomycota. It should be of continuous interest to confirm this observation when more reference genome assemblies become available. Genetic hyperdiversity of *P. noxius* suggests that the pathogen may have greater adaptability to different environments and stresses. Much more attention has to be paid on how global warming and increasing frequency of extreme weather events would enhance disease severity and allow the colonization of a fast grower like *P. noxius* in the warm temperate zones.

 FIGURES AND TABLES

Figure 1. Life stages of *Phellinus noxius* and comparative genomic analysis of Hymenochaetales species. (**a**) The mycelial mat with young creamy leading front and aged brown section. (**b**) In advanced stage of decay, the hyphae form a network of brown zone lines permeating the soft and white wood tissue. (Lower left and lower right) (**c and d**) Basidiocarps are perennial and can be resupinate (**c**) or grow into a sessile bracket-like conk with a broad basal attachment (**d**). The distinctive greyish-brown surface is the hymenial layer with irregularly polygonal pores, containing four-spored basidia, ellipsoid and hyaline basidiospores, but no hymenial setae. (**e**) The phylogeny of four *Phellinus* species with 15 other species of Basidiomycota based on a concatenated alignment of single-copy orthologous genes. All nodes have 100 out of 100 bootstrap replicates. The numbers of gained ("+") and lost ("-") gene families along each branch of the phylogeny is annotated.

Figure 2. The twelve assembled scaffolds of *Phellinus noxius* with telomeres (denoted as T). The plot shows the distribution and density of LTR retrotransposons and various gene families of interest denoted in different colours.

Figure 3. Linkage group (LG) network of Basidiomycota. (**a**) The linkage groups were identified by linking single-copy orthologs of scaffolds between species pairs. All scaffolds included in this plot are larger than 500kb. Each directional edge points toward the reference chromosome. Edges were weighted by the number of single-copy orthologs, and an edge was filtered if it has a weight smaller than 20 or less than 40% of the sum of all weights out of a node. (**b**) Cross-mapping of single-copy orthologs in LG10 and 11. Scaffold names are shown at the upper-right side of each sequence, with detectable telomeric regions labelled as 'T' at the upper-left side.

Figure 4. Synteny around the *A* mating locus. The analysis included *Phellinus noxius, Porodaedalea pini, Phellinus sulphurascens, Phellinus lamaensis*, two other species from Hymenochaetales species (*Fomitiporia mediterranea, Schizopora paradoxa*), two species from Agaricales (*Laccaria bicolar, Coprinopsis cinerea*), *Sistotremastrum niveocremeum*, and *Ustilago maydis*.

Figure 5. WD40 domain containing genes upregulated in the transcriptome of
***Phellinus noxius* at different conditions.** RNA-seq counts of these genes (in log of
FPM, fragments per million) for *P. noxius* cultured in PDA, as mycelial mat and
fruiting body on infected trees are presented as different colours in a heatmap sorted
according to their physical positions on the assembly. The results of differentially
expressed genes from pairwise DEseq2 comparisons (padj < 0.01) are shown in
different colours each corresponding to a specific life stage of *P. noxius*. Different
combinations of protein domains are categorised based on their initial domain from
the N termini. Genes with combination that is shared no more than four other genes
are categorised into 'Others' (3 of ANAPC4, 1 of BOP1NT, 1 of CAF1C_H4-bd, 5 of
Pkinase, 1 of PRP4, 1 of Striatin, 1 of Tup_N).

Figure 6. The population genomics of 60 *Phellinus noxius* isolates. (**a**) Map of
Taiwan and offshore islands of Japan showing origins of the 60 sampled *P. noxius*
isolates. Ogasawara islands were conveniently drawn below Ryukyu island so this
does not represent their actual location. (**b**) PCA plot of 60 *P. noxius* isolates using
genome-wide variation data sampled from 13 islands by the first three eigenvectors.
(**c**) Top: Phylogenetic tree with 100 bootstrap using SNPs computed from alignment
to KPN91 reference. Point separating the Taiwan-Ryukyu and Ogasawara island
isolates was used as root. Nodes with >90% bootstrap were labelled with circles.
Bottom: fastSTRUCTURE analysis of the linkage independent pruned set of variation
data. A model with two ancestral components (K=2) had the highest likelihood to
explain the variation of genome-wide structure on the 60 isolates. Also see
Supplementary Figure 20 for different K.

Table 1. Polymorphism in the two regional lineages of *Phellinus noxius*.

METHODS

Strain preparation and sequencing

Genome sequencing of three *Phellinus* species and *P. pini* (Supplementary

Information) was performed using both Pacific Biosciences (*P. noxius*, *P. lamaensis,*

P. sulphurascens and *P. pini*) and Illumina (*P. noxius*) platforms. DNA was isolated

using the CTAB method[6]. At least 15 μg DNA was used for a 20 kb library prep

according to the manufacturer's instructions. Sequencing was performed on a Pacific

Biosciences RS II system using 8 SMRT cell per run, P6C4 chemistry and 360 min

movie time. A total of 5-7 SMRT cells were run per species yielding a raw depth of

coverage of 173-266X. Illumina shotgun genomic libraries were sheared by Covaris

and genomic libraries prepared using TruSeq DNA LT Sample Prep Kit (Illumina).

Input of 1 μg sheared DNA was used for end-repair, A-tailing, adaptor ligation, and

gel size selection. Size range at 600-700bps range was selected form gel and

amplified by 5 cycles of PCR. In addition, Illumina mate-pair libraries were generated

using 8 μg of genomic DNA with gel size selection of tagmented DNA at 2-4kb, 4-

7kb, 7-10kb, and 10-20kb, and amplified by 10~15 cycles of PCR. These libraries

were normalized by KAPA Library Quantification Kit (KAPA Biosystems), and

pooled equally for PE2*300 sequencing on MiSeq V2 sequencer.

To aid annotation for each of the species in this study, 7- to 21-day old mycelia from

PDA cultures were used for RNA-seq. For field samples, *Phellinus noxius* mycelial

mat on creamy and dark region of two Chinese elm trees (*Ulmus parvifolia*) adjacent

to each other in Academia Sinica, Taiwan were scraped down using alcohol wiped

tweezers. The fruiting body of *Phellinus noxius* was found on *Machilus kobu* trees,

Ogasawara island, Japan and was removed aseptically. On diseased trees, dried (and

possibly dead) mycelial mats are most commonly observed. Fresh mycelial mat and

fruiting body only occasionally occur and we were not able to collect both samples

from the same tree. RNA was isolated with Direct-zol (Zymoresearch) according to

manufacturer's instructions. RNA-seq libraries were constructed using the Illumina

TruSeq Stranded mRNA HT Sample Prep Kit with the dual index barcoded adaptors.

Input of 3 μg of total RNA was used for each sample for two rounds of oligo-dT bead

enrichment, and the ligated cDNA were amplified by 10 cycles of PCR. The Stranded

mRNA libraries were quantified by Qubit and molar concentrations normalized

against the KAPA Library Quantification Kit (KAPA Biosystems) for Illumina

platform. The transcriptome libraries were pooled at equal molar concentrations, and

PE2*151nt multiplexed sequencing was conducted on HiSeq 2500 sequencer.

Nuclear quantification

Nuclei in the growing hyphal tips were stained following the procedure described by

Chung et al. (2015). The mycelium on the slide was mounted in 20 µl of a DAPI (4',6-

diamidino-2-phenylindole) solution (10 µg/ml in ddH$_2$O) for an hour, destained in

ddH$_2$O for 30 min, then observed under a OLYMPUS BX41 microscope (Shinjuku-

ku, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with filter cube U-MWU2 (BP 330–385 nm, LP 420 nm).

Images were captured by using a Canon (Ohta-ku, Tokyo, Japan) digital camera EOS

700D. One hundred hyphal cells per strain were counted.

Genome assembly

Genome assembly of different species was carried out with Falcon[66] (ver 0.5.0) and

were improved using Quiver[67] and finisherSC[68]. For assembly of individual

strains of *P. noxius*, Illumina paired end reads were trimmed with Trimmomatic[69]

(ver 0.32; options LEADING:30 TRAILING:30 SLIDINGWINDOW:4:30

MINLEN:50) and subsequently assembled using SPAdes[70] (ver 3.7.1). Multiple

mate-pair reads were available for three strains of *P. noxius* (KPN91, A42 and 718-S1)

and they were assembled using ALLPATH-LG[71] assembler (ver 49688) and

improved using Pilon[72]. The *P. noxius* assembly was further merged with

metassembler[73], miss-assemblies were identified using REAPR[74] and manually

corrected.

Gene predictions and functional annotation

For *P. noxius,* the gene predictor Augustus[75] (v 3.2.1) was trained on a gene

training set of complete core genes from CEGMA[76] and subsequently used for

manual curation of ~1000 genes. Annotation was then run by providing introns as

evidence from RNA-seq data. For *P. lamaensis*, *P. sulphurascens* and *P. pini*, genes

were predicted using Braker1[77] pipeline that automatically use RNA-seq mappings

as evidence hints and retraining of GeneMark-ES[78] and Augustus. Gene product

description was assigned using blast2go[79] (ver 4.0.7) and GO term assignment were

provided by ARGOT2.5[80]. The web server dbCAN[81] (HMMs 5.0, last accessed

September 5 2016) was used to predict CAZymes from the protein sequences of all

species, while AntiSMASH[82] (version 3.0) was used to predict secondary

metabolite gene clusters. For dbCAN results, only hits with <= 1 x 10e-5 e-value, and

>= 30% HMM coverage were considered, while overlapping domains were resolved

by choosing hits with the smallest P value.

Repeat analysis and repeat induced mutation analysis

Consensus sequences of repetitive elements in the assembly of the four

Hymenochaetales species were identified based on UCLUST[83] clustering of 80%

sequence identity from two repeat detection programs: RepeatModeler

(www.repeatmasker.org) and TransposonPSI (http://transposonpsi.sourceforge.net/).

Annotations of these sequences were based on output of both programs and BLAST

results from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) nonredundant

database. RepeatMasker (v3.2.8, http://www. repeatmasker.org) was used to calculate

the distribution of each repeat and its abundance. Consensus sequences of the most

abundant copy were manually curated based on pfam[84] (ver 30.0) domain

prediction from the longest open reading frame. Whenever a LTR retrotransposon

was identified, long terminal repeats (LTR) and associated features were predicted

using LTRharvest[85]. Repeat induced mutation (RIP) analysis was carried out using

RIPCAL[30]

Comparative genomics analysis

Gene families were determined by OrthoFinder[86] (ver 1.0.6). Then, MAFFT[87]

(ver 7.271) was then used to align sequences in each of 1,127 single-copy orthogroups.

Alignments results with less than 10% alignment gaps were concatenated, and the

outcome was taken to compute a maximum likelihood phylogeny using RAxML[88]

with 100 bootstrap replicates. Gene family gain and loss in different positions along

the global phylogeny leading to *P. noxius* were inferred using dollop[89]. Pfam and

GO enrichments were carried out on these gene families using TopGO[90] (ver

2.10.0). Sequences to be included in the phylogenetic tree for NACHT domain

containing genes were selected on the basis of the presence of pfam domain PF05729.

RNA-seq analysis of *P. noxius* at different conditions

For differential gene expression analysis, paired-end Illumina RNA-seq data were mapped against *P. noxius* genome using STAR[91] and number of read counts per gene were determined with featureCounts[92] (ver 1.5.0-p1). DESeq2[93] was used to determine the reliability of our replicates and determine differentially expressed genes between conditions. Pairwise comparison of each transcript is identified as differentially expressed if adjusted p-value is lower than 0.01 and the absolute value of log2(fold change) is greater than 1. GO term enrichment of up- and down-regulated genes between conditions was carried out with GOseq[94].

MAT locus

Homologs of the conserved genes in mating locus *A* and *B* were annotated in *P. noxius*, *P. pini*, *P. sulphurascens* and *P. lamaensis* (e-value $< 10^{-5}$) then subjected to InterProScan 5[95] (ver 5.20-59.0) and Pfam[84] (ver 30.0) for protein signature prediction. Syntenic alignment of *A* locus among *Phellinus* spp. and other species (sequences/annotations retrieved from Joint Genome Institute MycoCosm[96]) was plotted using genoPlotR package[97] in R. The sequences of *A* locus in KPN91, 718-S1 and A42 were further compared by MUMmer[98] (ver 3.20) and PipMaker[99] (http://pipmaker.bx.psu.edu/cgi-bin/pipmaker?basic). For identification of candidate pheromone genes, all the potential open reading frames were filtered for small peptides with C-terminal CaaX motif, then searched for pheromone homologies against Pfam-A and scanned for farnesylation signal by PrePs[100] (http://mendel.imp.ac.at/PrePS/).

The sequences of *HD* and *STE3* genes were analyzed for 10 single-basidiospore isolates originating from a basidiocarp by the dideoxy termination method (primers listed in Supplementary Table 16). Long-range PCR followed by primer walking was performed to sequence the highly diverse regions containing *HD1-HD2* in *A* locus. The outer primers were designed manually based on the alignment of all the isolates; the inner primers were developed step by step according to previous sequencing results. The PCR reaction was performed in 30-μl reaction mixture containing 50 to 100 ng genomic DNA, 0.2 mM dNTP, 1X Ex Taq buffer [proprietary, containing 20mM Mg^{2+}] (Takara Bio Inc., Japan), 0.67 μM forward and reverse primers, and TaKaRa Ex Taq® DNA polymerase (Takara Bio Inc., Japan). The thermal cycling

parameters were 1 cycle of 95°C for 3 min, 30 cycles of 95°C for 30 s, 54°C for 30 s,

and 72°C for 60–270 s (according to different product sizes, ~2 kb/min), and a final

extension step of 72°C for 10 min. The PCR products were sequenced by Genomics

Biotechnology Inc. (Taipei, Taiwan). DNA trace data were visualized using 4Peaks

(http://nucleobytes. com/4peaks) and assembled using DNA Sequence Assembler in

DNA Baser (http://www. dnabaser.com).

Population genomics

Paired end reads of 60 *P. noxius* strains were aligned to the KPN91 reference using

Smalt v5.7 (www.sanger.ac.uk/resources/software/smalt/). Removal of PCR

duplicates and bam file sorting were implemented with Picard

(http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/) and samtools[101] (ver 1.3-20-gd49c73b). The

first round of variant identification was implemented in Varscan[102] (v.2.4.0) and

degree of heterokaryon was inferred in each strain based on allele frequency and total

number of heterozygous SNPs called. The final list of SNPs was ascertained by

combining evidences from samtools[101] and FreeBayes[103] (ver1.0.2-16-

gd466dde). A maximum likelihood phylogeny of the SNPs segregating in these 60

strains was produced using FastTree[104]. plink[105] (v1.9) was used to subset

biallelic SNPs without linkage (filtering options: --maf 0.05 --indep-pairwise 50 5

0.2), which were clustered using fastSTRUCTURE[57] to determine number of

populations. Strains were phased using samtools[101] and one haplotype was chosen

at random. Consensus sequences were generated from each strain using bcftools[106]

and population genetics analyses were conducted using Variscan[107].

DECLARATIONS

Ethics approval, consent to participate and consent for publication:

Not applicable in this study.

Availability of data and material:

Genome assemblies and annotations are available from NCBI under whole genome

shotgun (WGS) ID: NBII00000000 (*P. noxius*), NBBA00000000 (*P. sulphurascens*),

NBAY00000000 (*P. pini*) and NBAZ00000000 (*P. lamaensis*). Bioproject and

Biosample ID of raw data are available in Supplementary Table 15, 17 and 18.

Competing interests:

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Funding:

I.J.T. and J.T.L were funded by MOST (105-2628-B-001-002-MY3 and 105-2313-B-

001 -003). C.L.C. was funded by Office of General Affairs, National Taiwan

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and I.J.T. Conceived and directed the project: C.L.C., T.K. and I.J.T.

Acknowledgements:

We thank Yen-Ping Hsueh (IMB, Academia Sinica) and Robert Waterhouse

(University of Lausanne) for commenting the manuscript. We thank Chian-mei Wei,

Kuan-chun Chen (High Throughput Genomics Core at Biodiversity Research Center,

Academia Sinica) for sequencing. We thank Tun-Tschu Chang and Yu-Ching Huang

for strain collection and consultation.

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Species		
L. bicolor	+8055 /-450	+105 /-190
C. cinerea	+2624 /-789	+72 /-247
A. bisporus	+1317 /-1481	+108 /-214
P. ostreatus	+1695 /-1066	+153 /-155
S. commune	+2355 /-1287	+147 /-236
H. annosum	+3131 /-1332	

Hymenochaetales

Species		
P. lamaensis	+931 /-203	+158 /-579
P. noxius	+885 /-279	+76 /-71
F. mediterranea	+1442 /-615	+327 / -94
P. pini	+2195 /-214	+212 /-334
P. sulphurascens	+1556 /-531	+187 /-108
S. paradoxa	+3829 /-441	+181 /-843
S. niveocremeum	+2681 /-1477	+711/ -26
A. subglabra	+7383 /-771	+533/ -59
P. indica	+2636-1147	+785/ -44
D. primogenitus	+2082 /-821	
T. mesenterica	+1975 / -373	+294/ -517
C. neoformans	+531 / -428	

U. maydis

0.3

Population	Analyzed Sites	Segregating sites (S)	Singletons	$\theta\pi$ (x1,000)	θs (x1,000)	Tajima's D
Whole genome						
Ogasawara (n=9)	30,028,158	506,231	174,924	6.6	6.3	0.3
TaiwanRyukyu (n=51)	31,376,691	1,538,598	545,324	8.0	10.9	-0.9
TaiwanRyukyu subset (n=9)[1]	30,640,276	749,681	408,021	8.1	8.9	-0.5
Synonymous Sites						
Ogasawara (n=9)	4,651,751	182,879	59,464	15.8	14.7	0.4
TaiwanRyukyu (n=51)	4,758,211	513,717	161,353	19.2	23.6	-0.7
TaiwanRyukyu subset (n=9)[1]	4,704,161	269,060	136,780	19.3	20.5	-0.4
Replacement Sites						
Ogasawara (n=9)	9,794,069	71,497	25,981	2.9	2.8	0.2
TaiwanRyukyu (n=51)	10,018,114	230,689	93,385	3.6	5.3	-1.2
TaiwanRyukyu subset (n=9)[1]	9,904,211	103,907	60,313	3.6	4.0	-0.6

[1] A random of nine isolates were chosen to repeat the analysis.