Gene flow between divergent cereal- and grass-specific lineages of the

rice blast fungus *Magnaporthe oryzae*

Pierre GLADIEUX [1*], Bradford CONDON [2*], Sebastien RAVEL [3], Darren SOANES [4], Joao Leodato

Nunes MACIEL [5], Antonio NHANI Jr [5], Ryohei TERAUCHI [7], Marc-Henri LEBRUN [8], Didier THARREAU [3],

Thomas MITCHELL [9], Kerry F. PEDLEY [10], Barbara VALENT [11], Nicholas J. TALBOT [4], Mark FARMAN [2],

Elisabeth FOURNIER [1]

[1] INRA, UMR BGPI, Campus de Baillarguet, Montpellier F34398; [2] Department of Plant Pathology,
University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY 40546; [3] CIRAD, UMR BGPI, Campus de Baillarguet,
Montpellier F34398; [4] College of Life and Environmental Sciences, University of Exeter, Exeter EX4
4QD, UK; [5] Embrapa Wheat, Passo Fundo, Brazil, [6] Embrapa Agricultural Informatics, Campinas,
Brazil ; [7] Iwate Biotechnology Research Center, Kitakami, Iwate, Japan; [8] INRA-AgroParisTech UMR
BIOGER, Campus AgroparisTech, Thiverval-Grignon, F78850; [9] Department of Plant Pathology, Ohio
State University, Columbus, OH 43210; [10] USDA, Agricultural Research Service, FDWSRU, Ft.
Detrick, Maryland, 21702, [11] Department of Plant Pathology, Kansas State University, Manhattan,
KS 66506

* These authors contributed equally to the work

Corresponding author: Elisabeth Fournier

e-mail: elisabeth.fournier@inra.fr

phone: +33 4 99 62 48 63

Abstract

Delineating species and epidemic lineages in fungal plant pathogens is critical to our

understanding of disease emergence and the structure of fungal biodiversity, and also

informs international regulatory decisions. *Pyricularia oryzae (syn. Magnaporthe oryzae)* is

a multi-host pathogen that infects multiple grasses and cereals, is responsible for the most

damaging rice disease (rice blast), and of growing concern due to the recent introduction of

wheat blast to Bangladesh from South America. However, the genetic structure and

evolutionary history of *M. oryzae*, including the possible existence of cryptic phylogenetic

species, remain poorly defined. Here, we use whole-genome sequence information for 76 *M.*

oryzae isolates sampled from 12 grass and cereal genera to infer the population structure

of *M. oryzae*, and to reassess the species status of wheat-infecting populations of the fungus.

Species recognition based on genealogical concordance, using published data or extracting

previously-used loci from genome assemblies, failed to confirm a prior assignment of

wheat blast isolates to a new species (*Pyricularia graminis tritici*). Inference of population

subdivisions revealed multiple divergent lineages within *M. oryzae*, each preferentially

associated with one host genus, suggesting incipient speciation following host shift or host

range expansion. Analyses of gene flow, taking into account the possibility of incomplete

lineage sorting, revealed that genetic exchanges have contributed to the makeup of

multiple lineages within *M. oryzae*. These findings provide greater understanding of the

eco-evolutionary factors that underlie the diversification of *M. oryzae* and highlight the

practicality of genomic data for epidemiological surveillance in this important multi-host

pathogen.

Importance

Infection of novel hosts is a major route for disease emergence by pathogenic micro-organisms. Understanding the evolutionary history of multi-host pathogens is therefore important to better predict the likely spread and emergence of new diseases. *Magnaporthe oryzae* is a multi-host fungus that causes serious cereal diseases, including the devastating rice blast disease, and wheat blast, a cause of growing concern due to its recent spread from South America to Asia. Using whole genome analysis of 76 fungal strains from different hosts, we have documented the divergence of *M. oryzae* into numerous lineages, each infecting a limited number of host species. Our analyses provide evidence that inter-lineage gene flow has contributed to the genetic makeup of multiple *M. oryzae* lineages within the same species. Plant health surveillance is therefore warranted to safeguard against disease emergence in regions where multiple lineages of the fungus are in contact with one another.

Introduction

Investigating population genetic structure in relation to life history traits such as reproductive mode, host range or drug resistance is particularly relevant in pathogens [1, 2]. Knowledge of species, lineages, populations, levels of genetic variability and reproductive mode is essential to answer questions common to all infectious diseases, such as the tempo, origin, proximate (i.e. molecular) and ultimate (eco-evolutionary) causes of disease emergence and spread [3]. Multilocus molecular typing schemes have shown that cryptic species and lineages within species are often more numerous than estimated from phenotypic data alone. Genomic approaches are emerging as a new gold standard for detecting cryptic structure or speciation with increased resolution, allowing fine-grained epidemiological surveillance, science-based regulatory decisions. The added benefit of whole genomes approaches includes identifying the genetic basis of life history traits, and better understanding of both the genomic properties that influence the process of speciation and the signatures of (potentially incomplete) speciation that are observable in patterns of genomic variability [4, 5].

Many plant pathogenic ascomycete fungi are host-specific, and some of their life history traits have been shown to be conducive to the emergence of novel pathogen species adapted to new hosts [6, 7]. Investigating population structure within multi-host ascomycetes thus offers a unique opportunity to identify the genomic features associated with recent host-range expansions or host-shifts. In this study, our model is *Magnaporthe oryzae* (synonym of *Pyricularia oryzae*) [6-8], a fungal ascomycete causing blast disease on a variety of grass hosts. *Magnaporthe oryzae* is well studied as the causal agent of the most

important disease of rice (*Oryza sativa*), but it also causes blast disease on more than 50

cultivated and wild monocot plant species [9]. This includes other cereal crops such as

wheat (*Triticum aestivum*), barley (*Hordeum vulgare*), finger millet (*Eleusine coracana*), and

foxtail millet (*Setaria italica*, *S. viridis*), as well as wild and cultivated grass hosts including

goosegrass (*Eleusine indica*), annual ryegrass (*Lolium multiflorum*), perennial ryegrass (*L.*

perenne), tall fescue (*Festuca arundinacea*) and St. Augustine grass (*Stenotaphrum*

secundatum) [10]. Previous studies based on multilocus sequence typing showed that *M.*

oryzae is subdivided into multiple clades, each found on only a limited number of host

species, with pathogenicity testing revealing host-specificity as a plausible driver of genetic

divergence [11, 12]. More recently, comparative genomics of eight isolates infecting wheat,

goosegrass, rice, foxtail millet, finger millet and barley revealed deep subdivision of *M.*

oryzae into three groups infecting finger millet or wheat, foxtail millet, and rice or barley

[13, 14]. Subsequent analysis of genomic data from nine wheat-infecting isolates, two

ryegrass infecting isolates, and one weeping lovegrass-infecting isolate subdivided lineages

infecting wheat only on the one hand and wheat or ryegrass on the other hand, and

revealed an additional lineage associated with the weeping lovegrass strain [15]. Together,

these studies suggest a history of host-range expansion or host-shifts and limited gene flow

between lineages within *M. oryzae*.

Magnaporthe oryzae isolates causing wheat blast represent a growing concern in terms of

food security. This seed-borne pathogen can spread around the world through movement

of seed or grain. Therefore, understanding the evolutionary origin and structure of

populations causing wheat blast is a top priority for researchers studying disease

emergence and for regulatory agencies. Wheat blast was first discovered in southern Brazil

in 1985 [16] and the disease subsequently spread to the neighboring countries of

Argentina, Bolivia and Paraguay [17-19] where it represents a considerable impediment to

wheat production [20, 21]. Until recently, wheat blast had not been reported outside South

America. In 2011, a single instance of infected wheat was discovered in the U.S., but

analysis of the isolate responsible revealed that it was genetically similar to a local isolate

from annual ryegrass and, therefore, unlikely to be an exotic introduction from South

America [22]. More recently, in 2016, wheat blast was detected in Bangladesh [23]. Unlike

the U.S. isolate, strains sequenced from this outbreak resembled South American wheat

blast isolates rather than ryegrass-derived strains [15, 23], thereby confirming the spread

of wheat blast from South America.

It has recently been proposed that a subgroup of the wheat-infecting isolates, together with

some strains pathogenic on *Eleusine* spp. and other *Poaceae* hosts, belongs to a new

phylogenetic species, *Pyricularia graminis-tritici* (*Pgt*) that is well separated from other

wheat- and ryegrass-infecting isolates, as well as pathogens of other grasses [24]. However,

this proposed split was based on bootstrap support in a genealogy inferred from multilocus

sequence concatenation, and not on a proper application of Genealogical Concordance for

Phylogenetic Species Recognition (GCPSR; [25, 26]). The observed lineage divergence

appeared to be mostly driven by genetic divergence at one of 10 sequenced loci, raising

doubts about the validity of species identification.

The present study was designed to re-assess the hypothesis that *Pgt* constitutes a cryptic

species within *M. oryzae* and, more generally, to infer population structure in relation to

host of origin in this important pathogen. Using whole-genome sequences for 81

Magnaporthe isolates (76 *M. oryzae* from 12 host genera, four *M. grisea* from crabgrass

[*Digitaria* spp.], and one *M. pennisetigena* from *Pennisetum* sp.) we addressed the following

questions: do *M. oryzae* isolates form distinct host-specific lineages; and is there evidence

for relatively long-term reproductive isolation between lineages (i.e. cryptic species) within

M. oryzae? Our analyses of population subdivision and species identification revealed

multiple divergent lineages within *M. oryzae*, each preferentially associated with one host

genus, but refuted the existence of a novel cryptic phylogenetic species named

P. graminis-tritici. In addition, analyses of gene flow revealed that genetic exchanges have

contributed to the makeup of the multiple lineages within *M. oryzae*.

Results

Re-assessing the validity of the proposed *P. graminis-tritici* species by analyzing the

original published data according to Phylogenetic Species Recognition by

Genealogical Concordance (GCPSR)

To test the previous delineation of a subgroup of wheat-infecting isolates as a new

phylogenetic species, we re-analyzed the Castroagudin et al. dataset [24], which mostly

included sequences from Brazilian isolates. However, instead of using bootstrap support in

a total evidence genealogy inferred from concatenated sequences for species delineation,

we properly applied the GCPSR test [25, 26]. This test identifies a group as an independent

evolutionary lineage (i.e. phylogenetic species) if it satisfies two conditions: (1)

Genealogical concordance: the group is present in the majority of the single-locus

genealogies, (2) Genealogical nondiscordance: the group is well-supported in at least one

single-locus genealogy and is not contradicted in any other genealogy at the same level of

support [25]. Visual inspection of the topologies and supports in each single-locus tree

revealed that GCPSR condition (1) was not satisfied since isolates previously identified as

belonging to the phylogenetic species *Pgt* grouped together in only one maximum

likelihood "gene" genealogy – the one produced using the *MPG1* locus (Figure S1A). The *Pgt*

separation was not supported by any of the nine other single-locus genealogies (Figures

S1B-S1J).

Next, we used the multilocus data as input to the program ASTRAL with the goal of

inferring a species tree that takes into account possible discrepancies among individual

gene genealogies [27-29]. The ASTRAL tree failed to provide strong support for the branch

holding the isolates previously identified as *Pgt* (Figure S2). Thus, treatment of the

Castroagudin et al. data according to GCPSR standards failed to support the existence of the

newly described *Pgt* species.

Inferring population subdivision within *M. oryzae* using whole genome data

We sought to test whether a phylogenomic study could provide better insight into the

possibility of speciation within *M. oryzae*. To this end, whole genome sequence data were

acquired for a comprehensive collection of 76 *M. oryzae* isolates from 12 host genera, four

M. grisea isolates from *Digitaria* spp. and one *M. pennisetigena* isolate from *Pennisetum*

(Table 1). The analysis included data for strains collected on rice (*Oryza sativa*), finger

millet and goosegrass (*Eleusine spp.)*, wheat (*Triticum spp.*), tall fescue (*Festuca*

arundinaceum), annual and perennial ryegrasses (*Lolium multiflorum and L. perenne,*

respectively), and barley (*Hordeum vulgare*). Also included were representatives of

previously unstudied host-specialized populations from foxtails (*Setaria* sp.), St. Augustine

grass (*Stenotaphrum secundatum*), weeping lovegrass (*Eragrostis curvula*), signalgrass

(*Brachiaria* sp.), panicgrass (*Bromus tectorum*) and oat (*Avena sativa*). Analyses were based

on 2,682 orthologous coding sequences that were single-copy in all *M. oryzae* genomes (in

total ~6.6 Mb of sequence data), and from whole-genome SNPs identified from pairwise

blast alignments of repeat-masked genomes (average ~36 Mb aligned sequence).

First we employed the multivariate approach implemented in Discriminant Analysis of

Principal Components (DAPC; [30]) to examine population subdivision within *M. oryzae*.

Using the haplotypes identified from orthologous loci, the Bayesian Information Criterion

plateaued at K=10 in models varying K from 2 to 20 clusters, indicating that K=10 captures

the most salient features of population subdivision (Figure S3). Clusters identified at K=10

were as follows: (1) isolates from rice and two isolates from barley (dark green); (2)

isolates from *Setaria* sp. (light green); (3) isolate Bd8401 from *Brachiaria distachya*

(brown); (4) isolate Bm88324 from *Brachiaria mutica* (olive); (5) isolates from

Stenotaphrum (red); (6) 17 of the 22 isolates from wheat and an isolate from *Bromus*

(blue); (7) the remaining 3/22 isolates from wheat together with isolates from Lolium,

Festuca, oat and a second isolate from Bromus (purple); (8 & 9) isolates from *Eleusine* that

formed two distinct clusters (orange and light orange); and (10) an isolate from *Eragrostis*

(yellow) (Figure 1). Increasing K mostly resulted in further subdivision among the isolates

from wheat, rice and *Lolium* sp. The discovery of three wheat blast isolates that grouped

with the Festuca-Lolium pathogens in cluster 7 was important because it supports the idea

that wheat-infecting isolates belong to at least two distinct populations.

Next, we inferred gene genealogies using maximum-likelihood and distance-based methods.

Both approaches produced trees that corresponded well with the subdivisions identified in

DAPC. The tree generated using maximum likelihood (ML) analysis of orthologous genes

displayed a topology with eight well-supported lineages (Figure 2). Six of these lineages

had 100% bootstrap support and showed one-to-one correspondence with the K clusters

from DAPC (Figure 1). Another well-supported lineage comprised sister clades made up of

the *Eleusine* and *Eragrostis* pathogens (Figure 1; Figure S3). The final lineage corresponded

perfectly with the "blue" DAPC cluster which contained the 17 isolates from wheat and

isolate P29 from *Bromus*. This last lineage had poor bootstrap support (50%), however,

and showed evidence of further population subdivision among the constituent isolates (i.e.

high confidence subclades).

The neighbor-joining tree built using "total genome" pairwise distances resolved very

similar groupings to the ML ortholog tree (Figure 3). The only major discrepancy between

ML and NJ trees was the confident placement of 87-120 – an isolate from rice – outside of

the rice clade in the NJ tree (Figure 3).

Levels of polymorphism within and divergence between lineages/species

We compared levels of polymorphism within lineages to levels of divergence between

lineages or species to apprehend the relative depth of the lineages within *M. oryzae*.

Genetic variability based on 2,682 orthologs was relatively low and one order of magnitude

higher in the rice and wheat lineages (0.1%) than in the *Lolium* and *Setaria* lineages (other

lineages not included in the calculations due to small sample sizes – only lineages with n>6

included; Table 2). The null hypothesis of no recombination could be rejected in the *Lolium*,

wheat, rice and *Setaria* lineages using the Pairwise Homoplasy Test implemented in the

S­PLITSTREE 4.13 program ([31]; p-value:0.0; Table 2).

Genome-wide nucleotide divergence was one order of magnitude higher between *M. oryzae*

and its closest relatives, *M. grisea* and *M. pennisetigena*, than it was among isolates within

M. oryzae. The maximum pairwise distance (SNPs per kilobase) between any two *M. oryzae*

isolates was less than 1%, genome-wide (Figure S4; Table S1), compared with *M. oryzae* vs

M. grisea, *M. oryzae* vs. *M. pennisetigena,* or *M. grisea* vs *M. pennisetigena*, all of which were

consistently greater than 10%. The low level of genetic divergence among *M. oryzae*

isolates, compared with that observed against isolates with established separate species

status, provides good evidence against the relatively ancient cryptic species within

M. oryzae. (Table S1).

Re-assessment of Pgt as a novel species using whole genome data

While the 10 loci utilized in the Castroagudin et al. [24] study do not support the *Pgt* split

based on GCPSR criteria, our DAPC and whole genome ML and NJ analyses supported the

partitioning of wheat blast isolates into two, genetically-distinct groups: one consisting

almost exclusively of wheat-infecting isolates, the other comprising largely *Festuca-* and

Lolium-infecting isolates as well as few wheat-infecting isolates (Figure 2; Figure 3).

Unfortunately, the Castroagudin et al. study did not include *Festuca-* and *Lolium*-infecting

isolates and genome sequences are not available for their strains. Therefore, to test for

possible correspondence between the proposed *Pgt* species and the *Festuca-Lolium* group

(or indeed the *Triticum* group), we extended the 10 loci analysis to the *M. oryzae* genome

sequences used in the present study. For reference, we included the multilocus data for 16

Castroagudin et al. strains representing all the major clades from that study. Nine of the 10

loci were successfully recovered from 68 of our *M. oryzae* genome sequences. The

remaining locus, CH7-BAC9, was absent from too many genome assemblies and, as a result,

was excluded from the analysis.

The nine concatenated loci produced a total evidence RAxML tree in which very few

branches had bootstrap support greater than 50% (Figure 4). All of the *Pgt* isolates from

the Castroagudin et al. study were contained in a clade with 80% support (labeled Clade A).

Inspection of the *MPG1* marker that was reported to be diagnostic for *Pgt* (Castroagudin et

al. 2016) revealed that all of the isolates on this branch contained the *Pgt*-type allele (green

dots) and should therefore be classified as *Pgt* (Figure 4). Critically, however, this group

also included isolates from the present study which came from wheat, annual ryegrass,

perennial ryegrass, tall fescue, finger millet, and goosegrass – isolates that did not group

together in the DAPC analysis (Figure 1), or in the ML and NJ trees built using the

orthologous genes or whole genome SNP data (Figure 2; Figure 3). Instead they were

distributed among three genetically distinct and well-supported clades (Figure 2; Figure 3).

Furthermore, visual inspection of the topologies and bootstrap supports for each single-

locus tree revealed that GCPSR criteria were not satisfied for clade A. Thus, isolates

characterized by Castroagudin et al. [24] as *Pgt* fail to constitute a phylogenetically

cohesive group based on total genome evidence and, thus, the *Pgt* species is an artificial

construct.

The basis for the erroneous designation of *Pgt* as a novel species was clearly revealed when

MPG1 alleles were mapped onto the ML and NJ trees because there was a remarkable lack

of correspondence between allelic distribution and the phylogenetic groupings determined

using whole genome evidences. The *Pgt*-type allele was distributed among three different

clades but showed a discontinuous distribution. As an example, the *Triticum* group

contained three *MPG1* alleles. Two of these (including the *Pgt*-type) were also present in

the *Festuca-Lolium* clade, while the third was shared by distantly-related isolates from

Stenotaphrum (Figure S5). The *Eleusine* group also contained the *Pgt* allele and two other

variants, while the *Setaria* and *Oryza* pathogens possessed an *MPG1* allele distinct from all

the others. Overall, the distribution of *MPG1* alleles points to the occurrence of incomplete

lineage sorting and/or gene flow during *M. oryzae* diversification. Importantly, at least six

of the other markers studied by Castroagudin et al. showed similar discontinuities in their

distributions (Figure S6). In addition, two of the Castroagudin et al. markers (*ACT1* and

CHS1) showed no sequence variation among the 68 *M. oryzae* isolates analyzed in the

present study (data not shown).

Species tree inference and phylogenetic species recognition from genome-wide data

The total evidence genealogies generated using distance-based and maximum likelihood

approaches on 2,682 single-copy orthologs and 76 *M. oryzae* genomes (Figure 2; Figure 3)

were highly concordant in terms of lineage composition and branching order. However,

concatenation methods can be positively misleading, as they assume that all gene trees are

identical in topology and branch lengths and they do not explicitly model the relationship

between the species tree and gene trees [32]. To estimate the "species tree" and to re-

assess previous findings of cryptic species within *M. oryzae*, we therefore used a

combination of species inference using the multispecies coalescent method implemented in

ASTRAL [27-29] and a new implementation of the GCPSR that can handle genomic data.

The ASTRAL "species tree" with the local q1 support values on key branches is shown in

Figure 5. The four *M. grisea* isolates from crabgrass (*Digitaria* sp.) and the *M. pennisetigena*

isolate from fountaingrass (*Pennisetum* sp.) were included as outgroups, bringing the total

number of isolates to 81 and reducing the dataset to 2,241 single-copy orthologous genes.

The branches holding the clades containing the wheat blast isolates had q1 support values

of 0.49, 0.39 and 0.37 which means that, in each case, fewer than 50% of the quartet gene

trees agreed with the species tree around these branches. The branches that separated *M.*

grisea and *M. pennisetigena* from *M. oryzae* had respective q1 values of 1, providing strong

support for relatively ancient speciation. In contrast, the highest q1 value on any of the

branches leading to the host-specialized clades was 0.8 for the *Setaria* pathogens,

indicating that approximately 20% of the quartet gene trees are in conflict with the species

tree around this branch. Together, these results indicate high levels of incomplete lineage

sorting within, and/or gene flow involving these groups, and are thus inconsistent with the

presence of genetically isolated lineages (i.e. species).

As a formal test for the presence of cryptic species within *M. oryzae*, we applied the

phylogenetic species recognition criteria to the set of 2,241 single-copy orthologous genes

using an implementation of the GCPSR scalable to any number of loci. Applying the GCPSR

following the non-discordance criterion of Dettman et al. (a clade has to be well supported

by at least one single-locus genealogy and not contradicted by any other genealogy at the

same level of support; [25]) resulted in the recognition of no species within *M. oryzae*.

Admixture and gene flow between lineages

The existence of gene flow and/or incomplete lineage sorting was also supported by phylogenetic network analysis. We used the network approach neighbor-net implemented in SPLITSTREE 4.13 [25] to visualize evolutionary relationships, while taking into account the possibility of recombination within or between lineages. The network inferred from haplotypes identified using the 2,682 single-copy orthologs in the 76 *M. oryzae* strains, showed extensive reticulation connecting all lineages, consistent with recombination or incomplete lineage sorting (Figure 6). To disentangle the role of gene flow versus incomplete lineage sorting in observed network reticulations, we used ABBA/BABA tests, which compare numbers of two classes of shared derived alleles (the ABBA and BABA classes). For three lineages P1, P2 and P3 and an outgroup with genealogical relationships (((P1,P2),P3),O), and under conditions of no gene flow, shared derived alleles between P2 and P3 (ABBA alleles) and shared derived alleles between P1 and P3 (BABA alleles) can only be produced by incomplete lineage sorting, and should be equally infrequent [33]. Differences in numbers of ABBA and BABA alleles are interpreted as gene flow assuming no recurrent mutation and no deep ancestral population structure within lineages. The D statistic measuring differences in counts of ABBA and BABA alleles was significantly different from zero (Z-score>3) in 66 of 68 lineage triplets, consistent with a history of gene flow between lineages within *M. oryzae* (Table S2).

We then used the program STRUCTURE [34-36] to gain further insight into the possibility of recent admixture between lineages (Figure S7). STRUCTURE uses Markov chain Monte Carlo simulations to infer the assignment of genotypes into K distinct clusters, minimizing deviations from Hardy–Weinberg and linkage disequilibria within each cluster. STRUCTURE analysis provided evidence for admixture at all K values (Figure S7), suggesting that recent

324   admixture events have recently shaped patterns of population subdivision within *M. oryzae*.

325   The patterns of clustering inferred with STRUCTURE were largely similar to those inferred

326   with DAPC.

Discussion

Population subdivision but no cryptic phylogenetic species

Using population- and phylogenomic analyses of single-copy orthologous genes and whole-

genome SNPs identified in *M. oryzae* genomes from multiple cereal and grass hosts, we

provide evidence that *M. oryzae* is subdivided in multiple lineages preferentially associated

with one host genus. Neither the re-analysis of previous data, nor the analysis of new data

using previous phylogenetic species recognition markers, confirmed the existence of a

wheat blast-associated species called *P. graminis-tritici* [24]. Marker *MPG1*, which holds

most of the divergence previously detected, does not stand as a diagnostic marker of the

wheat-infecting lineage of *M. oryzae* when tested in other lineages. Improper species

identification of cryptic species also stems from the fact that available information on *M.

oryzae* diversity has been insufficiently taken into account. In particular, isolates from the

lineages most closely related to wheat strains (i.e. the *Lolium* lineage; [11, 12, 15, 22]) were

not represented in species identification work [24]. Hence, phylogenetic species

recognition by genealogical concordance did not identify cryptic phylogenetic species and

thus *M. oryzae* is not, strictly speaking, a species complex. As a consequence, Pgt should be

dismissed as a novel species.

Incipient speciation by ecological specialization following host-shifts

Several features of the life cycle of *M. oryzae* are conducive to speciation by ecological

specialization following host shifts, suggesting that the observed pattern of population

subdivision in *M. oryzae* actually corresponds to ongoing speciation. Previous experimental

measurements of perithecia formation and ascospore production – two important

components of reproductive success- suggested inter-fertility in vitro between most pairs

of lineages with high levels of ascospore viability [37-40]. This suggests that intrinsic pre-

or post-mating reproductive barriers, such as assortative mating by mate choice or gametic

incompatibility, and zygotic mortality, are not responsible for the relative reproductive

isolation between lineages – which creates the observed pattern of population subdivision.

Instead, the relative reproductive isolation between lineages could be caused by one or

several pre- or post-mating barriers (Table 1 in [41]), such as mating-system isolation or

hybrid sterility (intrinsic barrier), or difference in mating times, difference in mating sites,

immigrant inviability, or ecologically-based hybrid inviability (extrinsic barriers).

Previous pathogenicity assays revealed extensive variability in the host range of *M. oryzae*

isolates, and both in terms of pathogenicity towards a set of host species or pathogenicity

towards a set of genotypes from a given host [38, 42]. Indeed, extensive genetic analyses

show that host species specificity in *M. oryzae*, similar to rice cultivar specificity, is

controlled by a gene-for-gene relationship in which one to three avirulence genes in the

fungus prevent infection of particular host species [40, 43, 44]. Loss of the avirulence genes

would allow infection of novel hosts to occur. Additionally, host species specificity is not

strictly maintained. Under controlled conditions, most lineages have at least one host in

common [42], and strains of within one lineage can still cause rare susceptible lesions on

naive hosts [21, 45]. Moreover, a single plant infected by a single genotype can produce

large numbers of spores in a single growing season [46], allowing the pathogen to persist

on alternative host even if selection is strong, and promoting the rapid and repeated

creation of genetic variation [6]. Although some of these features appear to be antagonistic

with the possibility of speciation by host-specialization within *M. oryzae*, our finding that

the different lineages within *M. oryzae* tend to be sampled on a single host suggests that

ecological barriers alone may in fact contribute to reduce gene flow substantially between

host-specific lineages.

Mating within host (i.e. reproduction between individuals infecting the same host), and to a

lesser extent mating system isolation (i.e. lack of outcrossing reproduction), may

contribute to further reduce gene flow between *M. oryzae* lineages. The fact that mating in

M. oryzae likely occurs within host tissues, such as dead stems [47], may participate in the

maintenance of the different lineages by decreasing the rate of reproduction between

isolates adapted to different hosts [6]. Loss of sexual fertility also appears to have a role in

lineage maintenance. The rice lineage, in particular, is single mating-type and female-sterile

throughout most of its range, which would reduce the chance of outcrossing sex with

members of other lineages [48]. Our analyses rejected the null hypothesis of clonality in all

lineages, but they provided no time frame for the detected recombination events.

Population-level studies and experimental measurements of mating type ratios and female

fertility are needed to assess the reproductive mode of the different lineages within *M.*

oryzae in the field.

Inter-lineage gene flow

Several potential barriers contribute to reduce genetic exchanges between *M. oryzae*

lineages (see previous paragraph), but not completely so, as evidenced by signal of gene

flow and admixture detected in our genomic data. We hypothesize that the lack of strict

host specialization of the different lineages is a key driver of inter-lineage gene flow. Many

of the grass or cereal species that are hosts to *M. oryzae* are widely cultivated as staple

crops or widely distributed as pasture or weeds, including "universal suscepts" such as

Italian ryegrass, tall fescue and weeping lovegrass [37], increasing the chance for

encounters and mating between isolates with overlapping host ranges. These shared hosts

may act as a platform facilitating encounters and mating between fertile and compatible

isolates from different lineages, thereby enabling inter-lineage gene flow [49]. Plant health

vigilance is therefore warranted for disease emergence via recombination in regions where

multiple lineages are in contact and shared hosts are present. This is particularly so, given

that once infection of novel host has taken place (i.e. host shift or host range expansion),

the fungus has the capacity to build inoculum levels very rapidly, facilitating spread of the

disease over considerable distances. It is striking, for example, that wheat blast has, within

a year, spread from Bangladesh into the West Bengal region of India where it emerged in

2017 (openwheatblast.org).

Conclusion

Using a population genomics framework, we show that *M. oryzae* is subdivided into

multiple lineages with limited host range and evidence of genetic exchanges between them.

Our findings provide greater understanding of the eco-evolutionary factors underlying the

diversification of *M. oryzae* and highlight the practicality of genomic data for

epidemiological surveillance of its different intraspecific lineages. Reappraisal of species

boundaries within *M. oryzae* refuted the existence of a novel cryptic phylogenetic species

named *P. graminis-tritici,* underlining that the use of node support in total evidence

genealogies based on a limited dataset in terms of number of loci and of range of variation

in origin (geography and host) of isolates can lead to erroneously identify fungal cryptic

species. Our work illustrates the growing divide between taxonomy that 'creates the

language of biodiversity' [50] based on limited sets of characters, and genomic data that

reveals more finely the complexity and continuous nature of the lineage divergence process

called speciation.

Materials and Methods

Fungal strains

Thirty-eight newly sequenced genomes were analyzed together with 43 published

genomes [13, 14, 22, 51-53] resulting in a total of 81 *Magnaporthe* strains, including 76 *M.*

oryzae genomes representing 12 different hosts available for analysis (Table 1). We also

included as outgroups one strain of *Pyricularia pennisetigena* from *Pennisetum* sp. and four

strains of *Pyricularia grisea* (aka *Magnaporthe grisea*) from crabgrass (*Digitaria*

sanguinalis). All newly sequenced strains were single-spored prior to DNA extraction.

Genome sequencing and assembly

New genome data were produced by an international collaborative effort. Characteristics of

genome assemblies are summarized in Table S3. For newly sequenced genomes provided

by MF and BV, sequences were acquired on a MiSeq machine (Illumina, Inc.). Sequences

were assembled using the paired-end mode in NEWBLER V2.9 (Roche Diagnostics,

Indianapolis, IN). A custom perl script was used to merge the resulting scaffolds and

contigs files in a non-redundant fashion to generate a final assembly. Newly sequenced

genomes BR130 and WHTQ provided by TM were sequenced using an Illumina paired-end

sequencing approach at >50X depth. Short reads were assembled *de-novo* using VELVET 1.2.10

[54] resulting in a 41.5Mb genome for BR130 with N50 44.8Kb, and 43.7Mb for WHTQ with

N50 36.2Kb. For newly sequenced genomes provided by DS and NT, DNA was sequenced on

the Illumina HiSeq 2500 producing 100 base paired-end reads, except in the case of VO107

which was sequenced on the Illumina Genome Analyzer II producing 36 base paired-end

reads. Reads were filtered using FASTQ-MCF and assembled 'de novo' using VELVET 1.2.10

[54].

Orthologous genes identification in genomic sequences

Protein-coding gene models were predicted using AUGUSTUS V3.0.3 [55]. Orthologous genes

were identified in the 76-genomes *M. oryzae* or in the dataset including outgroups using

PROTEINORTHO [56]. The v8 version of the 70-15 *M. oryzae* reference genome [57] was

added at this step in order to validate the predicted sets of orthologs. Only orthologs that

were single-copy in all genomes were included in subsequent analyses. Genes of each

single-copy orthologs sets were aligned using MACSE [58]. Sequences from the lab strain

70-15 were removed and not included in further analyses due to previously shown hybrid

origin [13]. Only alignments containing polymorphic sites within *M. oryzae* strains were

kept for further analyses. This resulted in 2,241 alignments for the whole dataset, and

2,682 alignments for the 76 *M. oryzae* strains.

Population subdivision, summary statistics of polymorphism and divergence

Population subdivision was analyzed using DAPC and STRUCTURE [30, 34-36], based on

multilocus haplotype profiles identified from ortholog alignments using a custom Python

script. DAPC was performed using the ADEGENET package in R [13]. We retained the first 30

principal components, and the first 4 discriminant functions. Ten independent STRUCTURE

runs were carried out for each number of clusters K, with 100,000 MCMC iterations after a

burn-in of 50,000 steps.

Polymorphism statistics were computed using EGGLIB 3.0.0b10 [59] excluding sites with

>30% missing data. Divergence statistics were computed using a custom perl script.

To infer total evidence trees within the 76 *M. oryzae* strains (respectively within the 81

Magnaporthe strains), all sequences from the 2,682 (respectively 2,241) orthologous

sequences were concatened. The maximum-likelihood tree was inferred using RAxML [60]

with the GTR-gamma model, and bootstrap supports were estimated after 1000 replicates.

Retrieval of loci used in the Castroagudin et al. (2016) study

The 10 loci used by Castroagudin et al. [24], i.e. actin (ACT), beta-tubulin1 (βT-1),

calmodulin (CAL), chitin synthase 1 (CHS1), translation elongation factor 1-alpha (EF1-α),

hydrophobin (MPG1), nitrogen regulatory protein 1 (NUT1), and three anonymous

markers (CH6, CH7-BAC7, CH7-BAC9), were search in all genomes using BLASTn. Due to

heterogeneity in the quality of assemblies, 9 of the 10 loci could be full-length retrieved

without ambiguity in 68 out of the 81 available genomes, still representative of the

diversity of host plants.

Secondary data analysis

Species recognition based on multiple gene genealogies as described by Castroagudin et al.

[24] was repeated following the reported methods. The robustness of the Pgt species

inference was tested by re-iterating the study, omitting one marker at a time. Individual

genealogies were built using RAxML with the GTR-gamma model and 100 bootstrap

replicates.

Inference of "species tree" using ASTRAL

The ASTRAL method [27, 29] is based on the multi-species coalescent and allows taking

into account possible discrepancies among individual gene genealogies to infer the "species

tree". Individual genealogies inferred using RAxML with the GTR-gamma model and 100

bootstrap replicates, were used as input data for ASTRAL analysis. Local supports around

branches were evaluated with 100 multilocus bootstrapping using the bootstrap replicates

inferred from each individual gene tree as input data, and with local quartet supports (q1,

obtained using the –t option of ASTRAL) that represent the proportion of quartet trees

around the branch that agree with the topology of this branch in the species tree.

MPG1-based classification

The *MPG1* hydrophobin sequence is described as being diagnostic for the

P. graminis-tritici/M. oryzae species split [24]. *MPG1* sequences from one of each species

(GIs: KU952644.1 for *P. gramini-triticis*, KU952661.1 for *M. oryzae*) were used as BLAST

[61] queries to classify isolates as either *P. graminis-tritici* or *M. oryzae.*

Signatures of gene flow and/or incomplete lineage sorting

A phylogenetic network was built using SPLITSTREE 4.13 [62], based on the concatenation of

sequences at single-copy orthologs identified in *M. oryzae*, excluding sites with missing

data, sites with gaps, singletons, and monomorphic sites. The null hypothesis of no

recombination was tested using the PHI test implemented in SPLITSTREE.

ABBA/BABA tests

ABBA/BABA tests were performed using custom python scripts. The D statistic measuring

the normalized difference in counts of ABBA and BABA sites was computed using equation

(2) in ref. [63]. Significance was calculated using block jackknife approach (100 replicates,

1k SNPs blocks), to account for non-independence among sites.

Phylogenetic species recognition

We used an implementation of the GCPSR scalable to genomic data ([https://github.com/b-](https://github.com/b-brankovics/GCPSR)

[brankovics/GCPSR](https://github.com/b-brankovics/GCPSR)). The method works in two steps: (1) Concordance and non-

discordance analysis produces a genealogy that has clades that are both concordant and

non-discordant across single gene genealogies, with support value for each of the clades

being the number of single gene genealogies harboring the given clade at bootstrap support

above 95%; (2) Exhaustive subdivision places all the strains into the least inclusive clades,

by removing clades that would specify a species within potential phylogenetic species. We

kept only two outgroup sequences per gene (BR29, *M. grisea*; Pm1, *M. pennisetigena*) to

make sure to have the same isolate at the root of all genealogies (Pm1 isolate). Majority-

rule consensus trees were produced from 100 outgrouped RAxML bootstrap replicates for

all 2241 genes. The concordance and non-discordance analysis was carried out assuming

95 as the minimum bootstrap support value, and a discordance threshold of 1. Exhaustive

subdivision was carried out using a concordance threshold of 1121.

Whole genome alignment & tree building

A custom perl script was used to mask sequences that occur in multiple alignments when

the genome is BLASTed against itself. The masked genomes were then aligned in a pairwise

fashion against all other genomes using BLAST [61]. Regions that did not uniquely align in

each pair at a threshold of $1e^{-200}$, were excluded. SNPs were then identified for each

pairwise comparison and scaled by the total number of nucleotides aligned after excluding

repetitive and duplicate regions. This produced a distance metric of SNPs/Mb of uniquely

aligned DNA. The pairwise distances were used to construct phylogenetic trees with the

neighbor-joining method as implemented in the R package, Analyses of Phylogenetics and

Evolution (APE) [64].

Because alignments are in pairwise sets as opposed to a single orthologous set, assessment

of confidence values by traditional bootstrapping by resampling with replacement is not

possible. Instead, confidence values were assigned by creating 1,000 bootstrap trees with

noise added from a normal distribution with a mean of zero, and the standard deviation

derived from the pairwise distances between or within groups.

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Tables

Table 1. *Magnaporthe oryzae*, *M. grisea* and *M. pennisetigena* strains used in this study

Strain (ID if different)	Host	Year	Place of Isolation	Sequence source
BdBar	*Triticum aestivum*	2016	Barisal, Bangladesh	this study
BdJes	*Triticum aestivum*	2016	Jessore, Bangladesh	this study
BdMeh	*Triticum aestivum*	2016	Mehepur, Bangladesh	this study
B2	*Triticum aestivum*	2011	Bolivia	this study
B71	*Triticum aestivum*	2011	Bolivia	this study
Br7	*Triticum aestivum*	1990	Parana, Brazil	this study
BR32 (BR0032)	*Triticum aestivum*	1991	Brazil	[13]
Br48	*Triticum aestivum*	1990	Mato Grosso do Sul (Brazil)	[14]
Br80	*Triticum aestivum*	1991	Brazil	this study
Br130	*Triticum aestivum*	1990	Mato Grosso do Sul, Brazil	this study
P3	*Triticum durum*	2012	Canindeyu, Paraguay	this study
PY0925	*Triticum aestivum*	2009	Predizes, Brazil	[15]

Strain (ID if different)	Host	Year	Place of Isolation	Sequence source
PY36-1	*Triticum aestivum*	2007	Brasilia, Brazil	[15]
PY5003	*Triticum aestivum*	2005	Londrina, Brazil	[15]
PY5010	*Triticum aestivum*	2005	Londrina, Brazil	[15]
PY5033	*Triticum aestivum*	2005	Londrina, Brazil	[15]
PY6017	*Triticum aestivum*	2006	Coromandel, Brazil	[15]
PY6045	*Triticum aestivum*	2006	Goiania, Brazil	[15]
PY86-1	*Triticum aestivum*	2008	Cascavel, Brazil	[15]
T25	*Triticum aestivum*	1988	Parana, Brazil	this study
WHTQ	*Triticum aestivum)*	?	Brazil	this study
WBKY11	*Triticum aestivum*	2011	Lexington, KY	[22]
P28	*Bromus tectorum*	2012	Paraguay	this study
P29	*Bromus tectorum*	2012	Paraguay	this study
CHRF	*Lolium perenne*	1996	Silver Spring, MD	this study
CHW	*Lolium perenne*	1996	Annapolis, MD	this study
FH	*Lolium perenne*	1997	Hagerstown, MD	[22]
GG11	*Lolium perenne*	1997	Lexington, KY	this study
HO	*Lolium perenne*	1996	Richmond, PA	this study
LpKY97	*Lolium perenne*	1997	Lexington, KY	[22]
PgKY4OV2.1 (PgKY)	*Lolium perenne*	2000	Lexington, KY	[15]
PgPA18C-02 (PGPA)	*Lolium perenne*	1998	Pennsylvania, USA	[15]
PL2-1	*Lolium multiflorum*	2002	Pulaski Co., KY	this study
PL3-1	*Lolium multiflorum*	2002	Pulaski Co., KY	[22]
Pg1213-22	*Festuca arundinaceum*	1999/ 2000	GA	this study
TF05-1	*Festuca arundinaceum*	2005	Lexington, KY, USA	this study

Strain (ID if different)	Host	Year	Place of Isolation	Sequence source
IB33	*Oryza sativa*	?	Texas, USA	A. Marchetti
FR13	*Oryza sativa*	1988	France	[13]
GY11	*Oryza sativa*	1988	French Guyana	[13]
IA1	*Oryza sativa*	2009	Arkansas, USA	this study
IB49	*Oryza sativa*	1992	Arkansas, USA	this study
IC17	*Oryza sativa*	1992	Arkansas, USA	this study
IE1K	*Oryza sativa*	2003	Arkansas, USA	this study
INA168	*Oryza sativa*	1958	Aichi, Japan	[14]
KEN53-33	*Oryza sativa*	1953	Aichi, Japan	[14]
ML33	*Oryza sativa*	1995	Mali	this study
P131	*Oryza sativa*	?	Japan	[52]
Y34	*Oryza sativa*	1982	China, Yunnan	[52]
P-2	*Oryza sativa*	1948	Aichi, Japan	[14]
PH14 (PH0014-rn)	*Oryza-sativa*		The Philippines	[13]
TH3	*Oryza sativa*	?	Thailand	[14]
87-120	*Oryza sativa*			
TH12 (TH0012-rn)	*Hordeum vulgare*		Thailand	[13]
TH16 (TH0016)	*Hordeum vlgare*		Thailand	[13]
Arcadia	*Setaria viridis*	1998	Lexington, KY, USA	this study
US71 (US0071)	*Setaria*		USA	[13]
GrF52	*Setaria viridis*	2001	Lexington, KY, USA	this study
KANSV1-4-1	*Setaria viridis*	1975	Kanagawa, Japan	[14]

Strain (ID if different)	Host	Year	Place of Isolation	Sequence source
SA05-43	*Setaria viridis*	2005	Nagasaki, Japan	[14]
Sv9610	*Setaria viridis*	1996	Zhejian, China	[53]
Sv9623	*Setaria viridis*	1996	Zhejian, China	[53]
GFSI1-7-2	*Setaria italica*	1977	Gifu, Japan	[14]
B51	*Eleusine indica*	2012	Quirusillas, Bolivia	this study
BR62	*Eleusine indica*	1991	Brazil	this study
CD156	*Eleusine indica*	1989	Ferkessedougou, Cote d'Ivoire	[13]
EI9411	*Eleusine indica*	1990	Fujian, China	[53]
EI9064	*Eleusine indica*	1996	Fujian, China	[53]
G22	*Eleusine coracana*	1976	Japan	this study
Z2-1	*Eleusine coracana*	1977	Kagawa, Japan	[14]
PH42	*Eleusine indica*	1983	The Philippines	this study
SSFL02	*Stenotaphrum secundatum*	2002	Disneyworld, FL, USA	this study
SSFL14-3	*Stenotaphrum secundatum*	2014	New Smyrna, FL, USA	this study
G17	*Eragrostis curvula*	1976	Japan	this study
Br58	*Avena sativa*	1990	Parana, Brazil	[14]
Bd8401	*Brachiaria distachya*	1984	The Philippines	this study
Bm88324	*Brachiaria mutica*	1988	The Philippines	this study
PM1	*Pennisetum americanum*	1990	Georgia, U.S.A	this study
BR29	*Digitaria sanguinalis*	1989	Brazil	[13]

Strain (ID if different)	Host	Year	Place of Isolation	Sequence source
Dig41	*Digitaria sanguinalis*	ND	Hyogo, Japan	[14]
DsLIZ	*Digitaria sanguinalis*	2000	Lexington, KY, USA	this study
VO107	*Digitaria sanguinalis*	1981	Texas, USA	this study

ND, no data

Table 2. Summary of population genetic variation at 2682 single-copy orthologous genes in wheat, lolium, rice and setaria lineages of *Magnaporthe oryzae*

Lineage	n	S	K	H_e	θ_w	π	PHI test (p-value)
Wheat	20	5.8	1.9	0.17	1.28E-03	1.24E-03	0
Lolium	17	3.1	1.5	0.10	7.02E-04	6.54E-04	0
Rice	18	5.3	2.3	0.12	1.55E-03	7.75E-04	0
Setaria	8	2.6	1.8	0.18	9.10E-04	7.68E-04	0

Other lineages were not included in calculations because of too small a sample size (n<6); n is sample size; θ_w is Watterson's θ per bp; π is nucleotide diversity per bp; H_e is haplotype diversity; K is the number of haplotypes. PHI test is the Pairwise Homoplasy Test. The PHI test is implemented in SPLITSTREE. The null hypothesis of no recombination was tested, for the PHI test using random permutations of the positions of the SNPs based on the expectation that sites are exchangeable if there is no recombination

Figure legends

Figure 1. Discriminant Analysis of Principal Components, assuming K=10 clusters

Each isolate is represented by a thick vertical line divided into K segments that represent the isolate's estimated membership probabilities in the K=10 clusters (note that all isolates have high membership probabilities in a single cluster, hence only a single segment is visible). The host of origin of samples is shown below the barplot.

Figure 2. Total evidence maximum likelihood tree based on the concatenation of 2,682 orthologous coding sequences extracted from 76 *M. oryzae* genome. Numbers above branches represent bootstrap supports after 100 bootstrap replicates. Only nodes with bootstrap support > 50 are labelled.

Figure 3. Total evidence neighbor-joining distance tree using pairwise distances (SNPs/kb) calculated from analysis of pairwise blast alignments between repeat-masked genomes. Only nodes with confidences > 80% (see methods) are labeled. Gray ovals are drawn around the main host-specialized populations for clarity.

Figure 4. Maximum likelihood tree based on concatenated dataset comprising nine "Castroagudin" loci retrieved from 76 *M. oryzae* genomes. Numbers above branches represent bootstrap supports after 100 bootstrap replicates. Only nodes with bootstrap support > 50 are labelled. Representatives of isolates used by Castroagudin et al. [24] in

their study were included in the analysis and are colored in light grey. Green dots mark the strains containing the *Pgt*-type allele according to Castroagudin et al. [24].

Figure 5. ASTRAL analysis to test for incomplete lineage sorting/gene flow among 81 *Magnaporthe* genomes, using 2,241 single-copy, orthologous marker loci. Dark branches represent branches that have a bootstrap support > 50 after multilocus bootstrapping. Number above branches represent q1 local support (i.e. the proportion of quartet trees in individual genealogies that agree with the topology recovered by the ASTRAL analysis around the branch). Black arrows show branches holding wheat blast isolates.

Figure 6. Neighbor-Net network built with Sᴘʟɪᴛsᴛʀᴇᴇ. The figure shows relationships between haplotypes identified based on the full set of 25,078 SNPs identified in 2,682 single-copy orthologs, excluding sites missing data, gaps and singletons.

Supplementary Tables legends

Table S1. Pairwise distances measured in SNPs per megabase of uniquely aligned DNA

Table S2. Gene flow signatures from ABBA/BABA tests. P1, P2, P3 refer to the three lineages used for the tests. The D statistic tests for an overrepresentation of ABBA versus BABA patterns. SE is the standard error. Z-score and P-value for the test of whether D differs significantly from zero, calculated using 1000 block jackknifes of 100 SNPs. Analyses were based on 354,848 biallelic SNPs identified in 2241 single-copy orthologous genes, with *M. grisea* as the outgroup. Brachiaria_1: Bm88324. Brachiaria_2: Bd8401. Eleusine_1 and Eleusine_2 are, respectively, the light orange and orange clusters in DAPC analysis.

Table S3. Summary statistics of genome assemblies used in this study.

Supplementary Figure legends

Figures S1A-S1J Maximum likelihood tree based on *MPG1, ACT1, b-tubulin1, BAC6, CAL, CH7BAC7, CH7BAC9, CHS, Ef1a* and *NUT1* marker, respectively. Trees are represented as unrooted cladograms. Dark branches represent branches with bootstrap support > 50 after 100 bootstrap replicates (corresponding support are indicated). Clades are labeled according to the convention used by Castroagudin et al. [24]. Green dots: representatives of Pgt (*Pyricularia graminis-tritici sp. nov.*). Red dots: representatives of Pot (*Pyricularia oryzae* pathotype Triticum) clade 1. Blue dots: representatives of Pot clade 2. Orange dots: representatives of Poo (*Pyricularia oryzae* pathotype Oryza).

Figure S2. Species tree inference based on the dataset of Castroagudin et al. [24] using ASTRAL. The tree is represented as an unrooted cladogram.

Multilocus bootstrap supports above 50 are indicates above branches. Dark branches represent branches with bootstrap support > 50 after 100 bootstrap replicates (corresponding support are indicated). Number in brackets are q1 local quartet supports (i.e. the proportion of quartet trees in individual genealogies that agree with the topology recovered by the ASTRAL analysis around the branch). Clades are labeled according to the convention used by Castroagudin et al. [24] as in S1-S10 Figures.

Figure S3. Bayesian Information Criterion vs number of clusters assumed in DAPC analysis. The Bayesian Information Criterion assesses the fit of models of population structure assuming different K values.

Figure S4. Neighbor joining tree showing the genetic distance separating the *M. oryzae* strains from *M. grisea* and *M. pennisetigena.* Distances are in SNPs/kb.

Figure S5. Distribution of *MPG1* alleles among *M. oryzae* isolates as indicated by mapping onto the neighboring tree built using whole genome SNP data. *MPG1* alleles were identified by using a reference marker sequence to search all the genomes using BLAST.

Figure S6. Distribution of alleles among *M. oryzae* isolates as indicated by mapping onto the neighboring tree built using whole genome SNP data. Trees are shown for the following loci: A) BAC6, B) β-tubulin1, C) CAL, D) CH7BAC7, E) CH7BAC9, F) EF1α, G) NUT1. Sequence variants are noted above each tree using the BLAST backtrace operations (BTOP) format.

Figure S7. A) Log likelihood of data vs number of clusters assumed in STRUCTURE analysis. Error bars are standard deviations of likelihood across STRUCTURE repeats. **B) STRUCTURE analysis of population subdivision, assuming K=2 to K=15 clusters.** Each isolate is represented by a thick vertical line divided into K segments that represent the isolate's estimated membership proportions in the K clusters (note that two to seven clusters are empty, i.e. represented by no isolates, for models with K>9). The host of origin of samples is shown below the barplot.

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	Oryza		Setaria		Eleusine		Triticum		Lolium		Avena
	Hordeum		Brachiaria		Eragrostis		Bromus		Festuca		Stenotaphrum

Figure 3

Clade A

2.0

■ Oryza   ■ Setaria   ■ Eleusine   ■ Triticum   ■ Lolium   ■ Oat

■ Hordeum   ■ Brachiaria   ■ Eragrostis   ■ Bromus   ■ Festuca   ■ Stenotaphrum   ■ Digitaria

■ Oryza	■ Setaria	■ Eleusine	■ Triticum	■ Lolium	■ Oat	■ Pennisetum
■ Hordeum	■ Brachiaria	■ Eragrostis	■ Bromus	■ Festuca	■ Stenotaphrum	■ Digitaria