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Whole genome comparisons of ergot fungi reveals the divergence and evolution of species

within the genus *Claviceps* are the result of varying mechanisms driving genome evolution

and host range expansion

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Abstract:

The genus *Claviceps* has been known for centuries as an economically important fungal genera for pharmacology and agricultural research. Only recently have researchers begun to unravel the evolutionary history of the genus, with origins in South America and classification of four distinct sections through ecological, morphological, and metabolic features (*Claviceps* sects. *Citrinae, Paspalorum*, *Pusillae*, and *Claviceps*). The first three sections are additionally characterized by narrow host range, while sect. *Claviceps* is considered evolutionarily more successful and adaptable as it has the largest host range and biogeographical distribution. However, the reasons for this success and adaptability remain unclear. Our study elucidates factors influencing adaptability by sequencing and annotating 50 *Claviceps* genomes, representing 21 species, for a comprehensive comparison of genome architecture and plasticity in relation to host range potential. Our results show the trajectory from specialized one-speed genomes (sects. *Citrinae* and *Paspalorum*) towards adaptive two-speed genomes (sects. *Pusillae* and *Claviceps*) through co-localization of transposable elements around predicted effectors and a putative loss of repeat-induced point mutation resulting in unconstrained tandem gene duplication coinciding with increased host range potential and speciation. Alterations of genomic architecture and plasticity can substantially influence and shape the evolutionary trajectory of fungal pathogens and their adaptability. Furthermore, our study provides a large increase in available genomic resources to propel future studies of *Claviceps* in pharmacology and agricultural research, as well as, research into deeper understanding of the evolution of adaptable plant pathogens.

Keywords: adaptive evolution, gene family expansion, two-speed genomes, fungal plant pathogens, RIP, ergot

Introduction:

Fungi, particularly phytopathogenic species, are increasingly being utilized to gain insight into the evolution of eukaryotic organisms, due to their adaptive nature and unique genome structures (Gladieux *et al.* 2014; Dong *et al.* 2015). Adaptation and diversification of fungal species can be mediated by changes in genome architecture and plasticity such as genome size, transposable element (TE) content, localization of TEs to specific genes, genome compartmentalization, gene duplication rates, recombination rates, and presence/absence polymorphism of virulence factors (Dong *et al.* 2015; Möller & Stukenbrock 2017). The presence or absence of repeat-induced point (RIP) mutation is also an important mechanism for fungal genome evolution, as RIP works on a genome-wide scale to silence transposable elements and duplicated genes, which can also "leak" onto neighboring genes (Galagan *et al.* 2003, 2004; Raffaele & Kamoun 2012; Urguhart *et al.* 2018; Möller & Stukenbrock 2019). It is becoming increasingly evident that variations in these factors can be used to classify genomes as a one-speed (one-compartment), such as the powdery mildew fungi *Blumeria graminis* f.sp. *hordei* and f.sp *tritici*, two-speed (two-compartment), such as the late blight pathogen *Phytophthora infestans*, or multi-speed (multi-compartment) such as the multi-host pathogen *Fusarium oxysporum* (Dong *et al.* 2015; Frantzeskakis *et al.* 2019). These different "speeds" are characterized by their potential adaptability such that one-speed genomes are often considered less-adaptable, while two-speed and multi-speed genomes are often considered more-adaptable (Dong *et al.* 2015; Frantzeskakis *et al.* 2019; Möller & Stukenbrock 2019).

The ergot fungi of the genus *Claviceps* (Ascomycota, Hypocreales) are biotrophic species that share a specialized ovarian-specific non-systemic parasitic lifestyle with their grass hosts (Píchová *et al.* 2018). Infections are fully restricted to individual unpollinated ovaries (Tudzynski and Scheffer 2004), and the fungus actively manages to maintain host cell viability to obtain nutrients from living tissue through a complex cross-talk of genes related to pathogenesis, such as secreted effectors, secondary metabolites, or cytokinin production (Hinsch *et al.* 2015, 2016; Oeser *et al.* 2017; Kind *et al.* 2018a, 2018b). Species of *Claviceps* are most notably known for their production of toxic alkaloids and secondary metabolites but are also known for their expansive host range and negative impact on global cereal crop production and livestock farming. These negative effects on human and livestock health are the primary reason *Claviceps* species are referred to as plant pathogens. However, under the light of co-evolution with their grass hosts some *Claviceps* species are considered conditional defensive mutualists with their hosts as they prevent herbivory and can improve host fitness (Raybould *et al.* 1998; Fisher *et al.* 2007; Wäli *et al.* 2013).

The genus *Claviceps* contains 59 species divided into four sections; sects. *Claviceps*, *Pusillae*, *Citrinae*, and *Paspalorum* (Píchová *et al.* 2018). It was postulated that sects. *Citrinae* and *Paspalorum* originated in South America, while sect. *Pusillae* experienced speciation throughout the Eocene, Oligocene, and Miocene as these species encountered newly emergent PACMAD warm-season grasses (subfamilies Panicoideae, Aristidoideae, Chloridoideae, Micrairoideae, Arundinoideae, Danthonioideae) when an ancestral strain was transferred from South America to Africa (Píchová *et al.* 2018). In contrast, the crown node of sect. *Claviceps* is estimated at 20.4 Mya and was followed by a radiation of the section corresponding to a host jump from ancestral sedges (Cyperaceae) to the BOP clade (cool-season grasses; subfamilies

Bambusoideae, Oryzoideae (syn: Ehrhartoideae) (Soreng *et al.* 2015)*,* Pooideae) in North

America (Bouchenak-Khelladi *et al.* 2010; Píchová *et al.* 2018). Section *Claviceps* has the

largest host range with *C. purpurea sensu stricto* (s.s.) having been reported on up to 400

different species in clade BOP (Alderman *et al.* 2004, Píchová *et al.* 2018) across six tribes, and

retains the ability to infect sedges (Cyperaceae) (Jungehülsing and Tudzynski 1997). In contrast,

sect. *Pusillae* is specialized to the tribes Paniceae and Andropogoneae, and sects. *Citrinae* and

Paspalorum only infect members of tribe Paspaleae and tribe Cynodonteae, respectively

(Píchová *et al.* 2018). The shared specialized infection life cycle of the *Claviceps* genus, the

drastic differences in host range potential of different species, and geographic distribution

represent a unique system to study the evolution and host adaptation of eukaryotic organisms.

Despite their ecological and agriculture importance, little is known about the evolution

and genomic architecture of these important fungal species in comparison to other cereal

pathogens such as species in the genera *Puccinia* (Cantu *et al.* 2013; Kiran *et al.* 2016, 2017),

Zymoseptoria (Grandaubert *et al.* 2015, 2019; Estep *et al.* 2015; Poppe *et al.* 2015; Testa *et al.*

2015; Wu *et al.* 2017; Stukenbrock & Dutheil 2018), or *Fusarium* (Kvas *et al.* 2009; Ma *et al.*

2010; Rep & Kistler 2010; Watanabe *et al.* 2011; Sperschneider *et al.* 2015). Unfortunately, the

lack of genome data for the *Claviceps* genus has hampered our ability to complete comparative

analyses to identify factors that are influencing the adaptation of *Claviceps* species across the

four sections in the genus, and the mechanisms by which species of sect. *Claviceps* have adapted

to such a broad host range, in comparison to the other three sections. Here we present the

sequences and annotations of 50 *Claviceps* genomes, representing 19 species, for a

comprehensive comparison of the genus to understand evolution within the genus *Claviceps* by

characterizing the genomic plasticity and architecture in relation to adaptive host potential. Our

analysis reveals the trajectory from specialized one-speed genomes (sects. *Citrinae* and

Paspalorum) towards adaptive two-speed genomes (sects. *Pusillae* and *Claviceps*) through co-

localization of transposable elements around predicted effectors and a putative loss of RIP

resulting in tandem gene duplication coinciding with increased host range potential.

Materials and Methods:

Sample acquisition:

Field collected samples (Clav) were surfaced sterilized, allowed to grow as mycelia, and

individual conidia transferred to make single spore cultures. Thirteen cultures were provided by

Dr. Miroslav Kolařík from the Culture Collection of Clavicipitaceae (CCC) at Institute of

Microbiology, Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic. Raw Illumina reads for samples

(LM28, LM582, LM78, LM81, LM458, LM218, LM454, LM576, and LM583) were

downloaded from NCBI's SRA database. Raw Illumina reads from an additional 21 LM samples

were generated by Dr. Liu's lab (AAFC), sequencing protocol of these 21 samples followed

Wingfield *et al.* (2018). Summarized information can be found in Additional file 1: Table S1.

Preparation of genomic DNA:

Cultures grown on cellophane PDA plates were used for genomic DNA extraction from

lyophilized mycelium following a modified CTAB method (Doyle and Doyle 1987; Wingfield *et*

al. 2018) without using the RNase Cocktail^{TM} Enzyme Mix, only RNASE A was used. DNA

contamination was checked by running samples on a 1% agarose gel and a NanoDrop One^{c}

(Thermo Fishcer Scientific). Twenty samples (7 Clav and 13 CCC) were sent to BGI-Hong Kong

HGS Lab for 150-bp paired-end Illumina sequencing on a HiSeq^{TM} 4000.

Genome assembly:

Preliminary data showed that raw reads of LM458 were contaminated with bacterial DNA but showed strong species similarity to Clav32 and Clav50. To filter out the bacterial DNA sequences, reads of LM458 were mapped against the assembled Clav32 and Clav50 genomes using BBSplit v38.41 (Bushnell 2014). All forward and reverse reads mapped to each of the genomes were concatenated, respectively. Both sets were then interleaved to remove duplicates and used for further analysis. Reads for all 50 samples were checked for quality with FastQC v0.11.5 (Andrews 2010) and trimmed with Trimmomatic v0.36 (Bolger *et al.* 2014) using the commands (SLIDINGWINDOW:4:20 MINLEN:36 HEADCROP:10) to remove poor quality data, only paired end reads were used. To better standardize the comparative analysis all 50 sample were subject to *de novo* genome assembly with Shovill v0.9.0 (https://github.com/tseemann/shovill) using SPAdes v3.11.1 (Nurk *et al.* 2013) with a minimum contig length of 1000 bp.

The reference genomes of *C. purpurea* strain 20.1 (SAMEA2272775), *C. fusiformis* PRL 1980 (SAMN02981339), and *C. paspali* RRC 1481 (SAMN02981342) were downloaded from NCBI. Proteins for *C. fusiformis* and *C. paspali* were not available on NCBI so they were extracted from GFF3 files provided by Dr. Chris Schardl and Dr. Neil Moore, University of Kentucky, corresponding to the 2013 annotations (Schardl *et al.* 2013) available at http://www.endophyte.uky.edu. Reference genomes were standardized for comparative analysis with our 50 annotated genomes, by implementing a protein length cutoff of 50 aa and removal of alternatively spliced proteins in *C. fusiformis* and *C. paspali*, only the longest spliced protein for each locus remained.

Transposable elements:

Transposable elements (TE) fragments were identified following procedures for

establishment of *de novo* comprehensive repeat libraries set forth in Berriman *et al.* (2018)

through a combined use of RepeatModeler v1.0.8 (Smit & Hubley 2015), TransposonPSI (Hass

2010), LTR_finder v1.07 (Xu & Wang 2007), LTR_harvest v1.5.10 (Ellinghaus *et al.* 2008),

LTR_digest v1.5.10 (Steinbiss *et al.* 2009), Usearch v11.0.667 (Edgar 2010), and

RepeatClassifier v1.0.8 (Smit & Hubley 2015) with the addition of all curated fungal TEs from

RepBase (Bao *et al.* 2015). RepeatMasker v4.0.7 (Smit *et al.* 2015) was then used to soft mask

the genomes and identify TE regions. TE content was represented as the proportion of the

genome masked by TE regions determined by RepeatMasker, excluding simple and low

complexity repeats. These steps were automated through construction of a custom script,

TransposableELMT (https://github.com/PlantDr430/TransposableELMT).

Divergence landscapes for TEs in all 53 *Claviceps* genomes were generated using a

custom script

(https://github.com/PlantDr430/CSU_scripts/blob/master/TE_divergence_landscape.py) and the

RepeatMasker output results. The RepeatMasker results were also used with the respective GFF3

file from each genome to calculate the average distance (kbp) of each gene to the closest TE

fragment on the 5' and 3' flanking side. Values were calculated for predicted effectors, non-

effector secreted genes, non-secreted metabolite genes, and all other genes using a custom script

(https://github.com/PlantDr430/CSU_scripts/blob/master/TE_closeness.py).

Genome annotation:

AUGUSTUS v3.2.2 (Mario *et al.* 2008) was used to create pre-trained parameters files

using the reference *C. purpurea* strain 20.1, available EST data from NCBI, and wild-type

RNAseq data (SRR4428945) created in Oeser *et al.* (2017). RNA-seq data was subject to quality

check and trimming as above. All three datasets were also used to train parameter files for the *ab*

initio gene model prediction software's GeneID v1.4.4 (Blanco *et al.* 2007) and CodingQuarry

v2.0 (Testa *et al.* 2015). GeneID training followed protocols available at

http://genome.crg.es/software/geneid/training.html. For CodingQuarry training, RNA transcripts

were created *de novo* using Trinity v2.8.4 (Grabherr *et al.* 2011) on default settings and EST

coordinates were found by mapping the EST data to the reference genome using Minimap2 v2.1

(Li 2018).

Gene models for the 50 genomes were then predicted with GeneID and CodingQuarry

using the trained *C. purpruea* parameter files. CodingQuarry prediction was also supplemented

with transcript evidence by mapping the available EST and RNA-seq *C. purpurea* data to each

genome using Minimap2. BUSCO v3 (Waterhouse *et al.* 2018) was run on all 50 genomes using

the AUGUSTUS *C. purpurea* pre-trained parameter files as the reference organism and the

Sordariomyceta database. The resulting predicted proteins for each sample were used as training

models for *ab initio* gene prediction using SNAP (Korf 2004) and GlimmerHMM v3.0.1

(Majoros *et al.* 2004). Lastly, GeMoMa v1.5.3 (Keilwagen *et al.* 2016) was used for *ab initio*

gene prediction using the soft-masked genomes and the *C. purpruea* 20.1 reference files.

Funannotate v1.6.0 (Palmer & Stajich 2019) was then used as the primary software for

genome annotation. Funannotate additionally uses AUGUSTUS and GeneMark-ES (Ter-

Hovhannisyan *et al.* 2008) for *ab initio* gene model prediction, Exonerate for transcript and

protein evidence alignment, and EVidenceModeler (Hass *et al.* 2008) for a final weighted

consensus. All *C. purpurea* EST and RNAseq data were used as transcript evidence and the

Uniport Swiss-Prot database and proteins from several closely related species (*C. purpurea* strain

20.1, *C. fusiformis* PRL1980, *C. paspali* RRC1481, *Fusarium oxysporum f.sp. lycopersici* 4287,

Pochonia chlamydosporia 170, *Ustilago maydis* 521, and *Epichloe festucae* F1) were used as

protein evidence. The AUGUSTUS pre-trained *C. purpurea* files were used as BUSCO seed

species along with the Sordariomyceta database and all five *ab initio* predictions were passed

through the --other_gff flag with weights of 1. The following flags were also used in Funannotate

"predict": --repeats2evm, --optimize_augustus, --soft_mask 1000, --min_protlen 50. BUSCO

was used to evaluate annotation completeness using the Dikarya and Sordariomyceta databases

(odb9) with --prot on default settings.

Functional annotation:

Functional analysis was performed using Funannotate "annotate". The following analyses

were also performed on the three reference *Claviceps* genomes. Secondary metabolite clusters

were predicted using antiSMASH v5 (Blin *et al.* 2019) with all features turned on. Functional

domain annotations were conducted using eggNOG-mapper v5 (Huerta-Cepas *et al.* 2016, 2019)

on default settings and InterProScan v5 (Jones *et al.* 2014) with the --goterms flag. Phobius

v1.01 (Käll 2007) was used to assist in prediction of secreted proteins. In addition to these

analyses Funannotate also performed domain annotations through an HMMer search against the

Pfam-A database and dbCAN CAZYmes database, a BLASTp search against the MEROPS

protease database, and secreted protein predictions with SignalP v4.1 (Nielsen 2017).

For downstream analysis, proteins were classified as secreted proteins if they had signal

peptides detected by both Phobius and SignalP and did not possess a transmembrane domain as

predicted by Phobius and an additional analysis of TMHMM v2.0 (Krogh *et al.* 2001). Effector

proteins were identified by using EffectorP v2.0 (Sperschneider *et al.* 2018), with default

settings, on the set of secreted proteins for each genome. Transmembrane proteins were

identified if both Phobius and TMHMM detected transmembrane domains. Secondary metabolite

proteins were identified if they resided within metabolite clusters predicted by antiSMASH.

Proteins were classified as having conserved protein domains if they contained any Pfam or IPR

domains.

Gene family identification and classification:

OrthoFinder v2.3.3 (Emms & Kelly 2019) was run on default settings using Diamond

v0.9.25.126 (Buchfunk *et al.* 2015) to infer groups of orthologous gene clusters (orthogroups)

based on protein homology and MCL clustering. To more accurately place closely related genes

into clusters an additional 78 fungal genomes (Additional file 1 Table S3) with emphasis on

plant associated fungi of the order Hypocreales were added. To standardize, all 78 additional

genomes were subject to a protein length cutoff of 50 amino acids and genomes downloaded

from http://www.endophyte.uky.edu had alternatively spliced proteins removed. For downstream

analysis, orthogroups pertaining to the 53 *Claviceps* genomes were classified as secreted,

predicted effectors, transmembrane, metabolite, and conserved domain orthogroups if ≥50% of

the *Claviceps* strains present in a given cluster had at least one protein classified as such.

Phylogeny and genome fluidity:

Phylogenetic relationship of all 53 *Claviceps* genomes, with *Fusarium graminearum*, *F.*

verticillioides, *Epichloe festucae*, and *E. typhina* as outgroups, was derived from 2,002 single-

copy orthologs obtained from our OrthoFinder defined gene clusters (described above). This

resulted in a dataset of 114,114 amino acids sequences which were concatenated to create a

super-matrix and aligned using MAFFT v7.429 (Katoh & Standely 2013) on default settings.

Uninformative sites were removed using Gblocks v0.91 (Castresana 2000) on default settings.

Due to the large scale of the alignment maximum likelihood reconstruction was performed using

FastTree v2.1.11 (Price *et al.* 2010) using the WAG model of amino acid substitution with the -

gamma, -spr 4, -mlacc 2, -slownni, and -slow flag with 1000 bootstraps. MEGA X (Sudhir *et al.*

2018) was used for neighbor-joining (NJ) reconstruction using the JTT model of amino acid

substitution with gamma distribution and maximum parsimony (MP) reconstruction using the

tree bisection reconstruction (TBR) algorithm with 100 repeated searches. Nodal support for

both NJ and MP reconstructions were assessed with 1000 bootstraps. In addition, an alignment

and ML reconstruction was performed on each of the 2,002 protein sequences following the

procedure as above (MAFFT, Gblocks, FastTree). A density consensus phylogeny was created

from all gene trees using the program DensiTree v2.2.5 (Bouckaert & Heled 2014). PhyBin v0.3-

1 (Newton & Newton 2013) was used to cluster trees from three datasets (1: *Claviceps* genus

without outgroups, 2: sect. *Pusillae* species, 3: sect. *Claviceps* species) together to identify

frequencies of concordant topologies using the --complete flag with --editdist=2. To reduce

noise, from abundant incomplete lineage sorting in sect. *Claviceps*, we implemented a --

minbranchlen=0.015 for our *Claviceps* genus dataset.

Following methodologies established in Kislyuk *et al.* (2011) genomic fluidity, which

estimates the dissimilarity between genomes by using ratios of the number of unique gene

clusters to the total number of gene clusters in pairs of genomes averaged over randomly chosen

genome pairs from within a group on N genomes, was used to assess gene cluster dissimilarity

within the *Claviceps* genus. For a more detailed description refer to Kislyuk *et al.* (2011).

Datasets containing gene clusters from representative members of sect. *Pusillae*, sect. *Claviceps*,

Clavieps genus, and all *C. purpurea* strains were extracted from our OrthoFinder defined gene

clusters. Additional species- and genus-wide gene cluster datasets from the additional 78 fungal

genomes were extracted for comparative purposes. All section- and genus-wide datasets

contained one representative isolate from each species to reduce phylogenetic bias. Each

extracted dataset was used to calculate the genomic fluidity using a custom script

(https://github.com/PlantDr430/CSU_scripts/blob/master/pangenome_fluidity.py). The result

files for each dataset were then used for figure creation and two-sample two-sided z-test statistics

(Kislyuk *et al.* 2011) using a custom script

(https://github.com/PlantDr430/CSU_scripts/blob/master/combine_fluidity.py).

Gene compartmentalization:

A custom script

(https://github.com/PlantDr430/CSU_scripts/blob/master/genome_speed_hexbins.py) was used

to calculate local gene density measured as 5' and 3' flanking distances between neighboring

genes (intergenic regions). To statistically determine whether specific gene types had longer

intergenic flanking regions than all other genes within the genome we randomly sampled 100

each group of genes (specific gene vs. other genes) 1,000 times for both the 5' and 3' flanking

distances. Mann-Whitney U test was used to test for significance on all 2,000 subsets corrected

with Benjamini-Hochberg. Corrected p-values were averaged per flanking side and then together

to get a final p-value. Genes that appeared on a contig alone were excluded from analysis. For

graphical representation, genes that were located at the start of each contig (5' end) were plotted

along the x-axis, while genes located at the end of each contig (3' end) were plotted along the y-

axis.

RIP and BLAST analyses:

For all 53 genomes a self BLASTp v2.9.0+ search was conducted to identify best hit

orthologs within each genome with a cutoff e-value of 10^{-5} and removal of self-hits. This process

was automated, using a custom script

(https://github.com/PlantDr430/CSU_scripts/blob/master/RIP_blast_analysis.py). We further

examined if gene pairs with a pairwise identity of ≥80% were located next to each other and/or

separated by five or fewer genes. Fifty-six important *Claviceps* genes (Additional file 2: Table

S7) including the *rid-1* homolog (Freitag *et al.* 2002) were used in a BLASTp analysis to identify

the number of genes present that passed an e-value cutoff of 10^{-5}, 50% coverage, and 35%

identity. Genes that appeared as best hits for multiple query genes were only recorded once for

their overall best match. In addition, the web-based tool The RIPper (Van Wyk *et al.* 2019) was

used on default settings (1 kb windows in 500 bp increments) to scan whole-genomes for

presence of RIP and large RIP affected regions (LRARs).

Statistical programs and plotting:

Statistics and figures were generated using Python3 modules SciPy v1.3.1, statsmodel

v0.11.0, and Matplotlib v3.1.1. Heatmaps were generated using ComplexHeatmap v2.2.0 in R

(Gu 2016).

Results:

Genome Assembly and Annotation:

To provide a comprehensive view of variability across *Claviceps*, we sequenced and

annotated 50 genomes (19 *Claviceps* spp.), including *C. citrina* the single species of sect.

Citrinae, six species belonging to sect. *Pusillae*, and 44 genomes (12 species) belonging to sect.

Claviceps, of which 23 genomes belong to *C. purpurea* s.s. (Table 1; Additional file 1: Table

S1). The assemblies and annotations were of comparable quality to the reference strains (Table

1). A more detailed representation of the assembly and annotation statistics can be seen in Table

1 and Additional file 1: Figure S1, Table S2.

Overall, species of sect. *Claviceps* had better assemblies and annotations than species of

other sections regarding contig numbers, N50's, and BUSCO completeness scores (Table 1).

Nearly all species of sect. *Claviceps* showed higher BUSCO scores than the references, while

species of sects. *Pusillae* and *Citrinae* generally showed lower scores, likely due to their higher

TE content (average $34.9\% \pm 11.0\%$; Table 1). Exceptions to the low BUSCO scores were *C.*

digitariae and *C. maximensis* (sect. *Pusillae*), which had lower TE content, 20.0% and 19.8%,

respectively, than the rest of the species in sect. *Pusillae* (Table 1).

Phylogenomics and genome fluidity:

Orthologous gene clusters (orthogroups), which contain orthologs and paralogs, were

inferred from protein homology and MCL clustering using OrthoFinder. Across the 53 *Claviceps*

isolates and outgroups species *Fusarium graminearum*, *F. verticillioides*, *Epichloe festucae*, and

E. typhina. We identified 2,002 single-copy orthologs. We utilized a super-matrix approach to

infer a maximum likelihood (ML) species tree, based on these protein sequences. Results showed

statistical support for four sections of *Claviceps* with a near concordant topology to the Bayesian

five-gene phylogeny in Píchová *et al.* (2018). This topology was supported by neighbor-joining

and maximum parsimony super-matrix analyses (Additional file 1: Figure S2, S3). Notable

exceptions were the placement of *C. paspali* (sect. *Paspalorum*) which grouped closer to *C.*

citrina (sect. *Citrinae*) instead of sect. *Claviceps,* and *C. pusilla* which grouped closer to *C.*

fusiformis instead of *C. maximensis* (Fig. 1). We also found that sect. *Claviceps* diverged from a

common ancestor with sect. *Pusillae* as opposed to sect. *Paspalorum*. Our results provide

support for the deeply divergent lineages of sects. *Pusillae*, *Paspalorum*, and *Citrinae* with a

long divergent branch resulting in sect. *Claviceps* (Fig. 1).

Each of the 2,002 single-copy orthologs were also independently aligned and analyzed in

the same manner as our super-matrix phylogeny from representative isolates of each species. A

density consensus tree of all 2,002 topologies was concordant with our super matrix analysis but

reveals evidence of incongruencies, particularly within sect. *Claviceps* (Additional File 1 Fig.

S4) which could be caused by biological, analytical, and sampling factors (Steenwyk *et al.*

2019). While grouping of species generally held true to Fig. 1, variation was more related to the

order of branches, with *C. cyperi*, *C. arundinis*, *C. humidiphila*, and *C. perihumidiphila* showing

the most variability. These results indicate the presence of some incongruencies within sect.

Claviceps, sect. *Pusillae*, and across the genus (Additional File 1 Fig. S5-7) but a consensus

supporting our ML species tree (Fig. 1, Additional File 1 Fig. S4). There are several potential

causes of these incongruencies which are currently the focal point of an ongoing study.

To further elucidate trends of divergence within the genus we examined genomic fluidity

(Kislyuk *et al.* 2011) using all 82,267 orthogroups from our previous OrthoFinder analysis.

Genomic fluidity estimates the dissimilarity between genomes by using ratios of the number of

unique orthogroups to the total number of orthogroups in pairs of genomes averaged over

randomly chosen genome pairs from within a group on N genomes. For example, a fluidity value

of 0.05 indicates that randomly chosen pairs of genomes in a group will on average have 5%

unique orthogroups and share 95% of their orthogroups (Kislyuk *et al.* 2011). Section *Claviceps*,

which is composed of 12 different species, showed a relatively small genomic fluidity (0.0619 ±

0.0019) with limited variation, indicating pairwise orthogroup dissimilarity between randomly

sampled genomes was quite low. The amount of variation between 12 different *Claviceps* species

was similar to the variation between 24 *C. purpurea* s.s. isolates, however, the fluidities were

significantly different (Additional file 1: Table S4; $P < 0.0001$). In comparison, the fluidity of

sect. *Pusillae* (0.126 ± 0.014; $P < 0.0001$) was two times greater than the fluidity of sect.

Claviceps and exhibited greater variation, indicating greater dissimilarities in orthogroups

between randomly sampled species of sect. *Pusillae*.

Overall, our ML phylogeny (Fig. 1) and genome fluidity analysis (Fig. 2) indicate a large

evolutionary divergence separating sect. *Claviceps*. Our subsequent analyses of the genomic

architecture of all *Claviceps* species examine factors that could be associated with the

evolutionary divergence of sect. *Claviceps* and those driving cryptic speciation.

Transposable element divergences and locations:

Transposable element (TE) divergence landscapes revealed an overrepresentation of LTR

elements in sects. *Pusillae*, *Citrinae*, and *Paspalorum*. All three sections showed a similar large

peak of LTRs with divergences between 5–10% (Fig. 3; Additional file 1: Figure S8), indicating

a relatively recent expansion of TEs. The landscapes of sects. *Pusillae*, *Citrinae*, and

Paspalorum are in striking contrast to species of sect. *Claviceps* which showed more similar

abundances of LTR, DNA, LINE, SINE, and RC (helitron) elements. Species of sect. *Claviceps*

showed broader peaks of divergence between 5–30% but also showed an abundance of TEs with

~ 0% divergence suggesting very recent TE expansion (Fig. 3; Additional file 1: Figure S8). The

TE landscape of *C. cyperi* showed a more striking peak of divergence between 5–10% that more

closely resembled the TE divergences of sects. *Pusillae*, *Paspalorum*, and *Citrinae*. However,

the content of the TE peak in *C. cyperi* largely contained DNA, LINE, and unclassified TEs as

opposed to LTR's (Additional file 1: Figure S8).

389   To identify where genes were located in relation to TEs, we calculated the average

distance (kbp) of each gene to the closest TE fragment. This analysis was performed for

predicted effectors, secreted (non-effector) genes, secondary metabolite (non-secreted) genes,

and all other genes. Secreted genes and predicted effectors of sects. *Claviceps* and *Pusillae*

species were found to be significantly closer to TEs compared to other genes within each

respective section (Fig. 4; $P < 0.05$), suggesting that these genes could be located in more repeat-

rich regions of the genome. It should be noted that we did observe a significant difference ($P <$

0.001, Welch's test) in TE content between sect. *Pusillae* (32.5% ± 9.59%) and sect. *Claviceps*

(8.79.28% ± 1.52%). In both sects. *Claviceps* and *Pusillae* secondary metabolite genes were

located farther away from TEs (Fig. 4; $P < 0.05$), i.e. repeat-poor regions of the genome. These

trends hold true for individual isolates, with a notable exception of *C. pusilla* (sect. *Pusillae*)

showing no significant differences in the proximity of TEs to specific gene types (Additional file

1: Figure S9; $P > 0.05$). Variation existed in whether particular isolates had significant

differences between all other genes compared to secreted genes and secondary metabolite genes,

but all species in sects. *Claviceps* and *Pusillae* (aside from *C. pusilla*) had predicted effector

genes located significantly closer to TEs (Additional file 1: Figure S9; $P < 0.05$). No significant

differences in the proximity of TEs to specific gene types were observed in sects. *Citrinae* and

Paspalorum (Fig. 4; *P* > 0.05), suggesting that TE's are more randomly distributed throughout

these genomes.

Genome compartmentalization:

To further examine genome architecture, we analyzed local gene density measured as

flanking distances between neighboring genes (intergenic regions) to examine evidence of

genome compartmentalization (i.e. clustering of genes with differences in intergenic lengths)

within each genome. Results showed that all 53 *Claviceps* strains exhibited a one-compartment

genome (lack of large-scale compartmentalization). Although, there was a tendency for more

genes with larger intergenic regions in sects. *Claviceps* and *Pusillae* compared to sects. *Citrinae*

and *Paspalorum* (Fig. 5; Additional file 1: Figure S10).

To further clarify evolutionary tendencies, we evaluated whether gene types showed a

difference in their flanking intergenic lengths compared to other genes within their genomes.

Results showed that predicted effector genes in sect. *Claviceps* had significantly larger intergenic

flanking regions compared to other genes, indicating they may reside in more gene-sparse

regions of the genome (*P* < 0.05, Fig. 5, Additional file 1: Figure S10). Only *C. digitariae* and *C.*

lovelessi (Additional file 1: Figure S10; *P* < 0.01, *P* = 0.024, respectively) of sect. *Pusillae* had

predicted effector genes with significantly l

arger intergenic regions than other genes, although, *C. fusiformis* and *C. pusilla* were near

significant (Fig. 5, Additional file 1: Figure S10; *P* = 0.054, *P* = 0.056, respectively). Flanking

intergenic lengths of secreted genes also showed larger intergenic lengths and were often

significantly larger than other genes in sect. *Claviceps* (Fig. 5; Additional file 1: Figure S10). In

contrast, secondary metabolite genes exhibited a widespread distribution of intergenic lengths

that were not significantly different than other genes in all 53 *Claviceps* strains ($P > 0.05$, Fig. 5;

Additional file 1: Figure S10).

RIP analysis:

To test for effects of RIP, we assessed the bi-directional similarity of genes against the

second closest BLASTp match within each isolate's own genome (Galagan *et al.* 2003; Urguhart

et al. 2018), supported by a BLASTp analysis against the *rid-1* RIP gene of *Neurospora crassa*,

and calculations of RIP indexes in 1 kb windows (500 bp increments) using The RIPper (Van

Wyk *et al.* 2019). Results showed that sects. *Pusillae*, *Citrinae*, and *Paspalorum* had homologs

of *rid-1*, fewer genes with close identity ($\geq 80\%$), on average $27.4\% \pm 11.4\%$ of their genomes

affected by RIP, a mean RIP composite index of -0.03 ± 0.21, and 325 ± 138 large RIP affected

regions (LRAR) covering $3{,}984 \text{ kb} \pm 2{,}144 \text{ kb}$ of their genomes, indicating past or current

activity of RIP (Fig. 6; Additional file 1: Table S5, S6; Additional file 2: Table S7). This is

further supported by an average GC content of $42.84\% \pm 3.03\%$ (Table 1) in sects. *Pusillae*,

Citrinae, and *Paspalorum*, which is on average 8.81% lower than in sect. *Claviceps* which shows

an absence of RIP (reported below). The presence of RIP in sects. *Pusillae*, *Citrinae*, and

Paspalorum was unexpected given the abundance of TEs within genomes of these sections

(Table 1; Fig. 3; Additional file 1: Figure S8) as RIP should be working to silence and inactivate

these TEs. While we did not directly test the activity of TEs within our genomes, due to lack of

RNAseq data, the peaks of low TE nucleotide divergence ($<10\%$) in sects. *Pusillae*, *Citrinae*,

and *Paspalorum* (Fig. 3, Additional file 1 Figure S8) suggest recent activity of TEs

(Frantzeskakis *et al.* 2018).

In comparison, species in sect. *Claviceps* lack *rid-1* homologs, showed larger amounts of

gene similarity, and a general lack of evidence of RIP with only 0.13% ± 0.03% of their genomes

putatively affected by RIP, and a mean RIP composite index of -0.59 ± 0.01 suggesting that RIP

is inactive (Fig. 6; Additional file 1: Table S5, S6; Additional file 2: Table S7). Gene pairs

sharing a ≥80% identity to each other were often located near each other. On average 27.02% ±

5.91% of the pairs were separated by five or fewer genes, and 15.95% ± 3.50% of the pairs were

located next to each other, indicating signs of tandem gene duplication within the section

(Additional file 1: Table S5). *Claviceps cyperi* showed the smallest proportions of highly similar

tandem genes (7.77% and 5.7%) compared to other species within sect. *Claviceps*. Additional

variations in the proportions of highly similar tandem genes between other species of sect.

Claviceps were not evident as these proportions appeared to vary more between isolate than

species (Additional file 1: Table S5).

Gene cluster expansion:

The proteome of *Claviceps* genomes were used to infer orthologous gene clusters

(orthogroups) through protein homology and MCL clustering using OrthoFinder. Our results

revealed evidence of orthogroup expansion within sect. *Claviceps* as species contained more

genes per orthogroup than species of the other three sections (Additional file 1: Figure S11). To

identify the types of gene clusters that were showing putative expansion we filtered our clusters

by two criteria; 1) at least one isolates had two or more genes in the orthogroup, 2) there was a

significant difference in the mean number of genes per orthogroup between all 44 isolates in sect.

Claviceps and the 9 isolates from sects. *Pusillae*, *Citrinae*, and *Paspalorum* (α ≤ 0.01, Welch's

test).

Overall, we identified 863 (4.7%) orthogroups showing putative expansion. We observed

extensive expansion (orthogroups with observations of ≥ 10 genes per isolate) present in many

unclassified, predicted effectors, secreted (non-effector) orthogroups, and orthogroups encoding

genes with conserved domains (Fig. 7; Additional file 1: Figure S12, S13). Transmembrane

orthogroups also showed evidence of expansion with several isolates having 5-10 genes.

orthogroups with secondary metabolite genes showed the lowest amount of expansion (Fig. 8).

Overall, sect. *Claviceps* showed expansion in a greater number of orthogroups than sect.

Pusillae, *Citrinae*, and *Paspalorum* in all categories except transmembranes (Additional file 1:

Figure S14). Orthogroups with an average ≥ 5 genes per isolate, within sect. *Claviceps*,

contained a variety of functional proteins, with generally more proteins encoding

protein/serine/tyrosine kinase domains (Additional file 2: Table S8). Additional details can be

obtained from Additional file 2: Table S9 (ordered orthogroups corresponding to heatmaps; Fig.

7 and Additional file 1: Figure S12, S13) and Additional file 3: Table S10-1,2 (orthogroups

identification and functional annotation of all proteins).

Within sect. *Claviceps* patterns of gene counts per orthogroup appeared to break down

and contain variations in the number of genes per orthogroups with some presence/absences

occurring between isolates and species. Notably, *C. cyperi* (CCC1219) showed the lowest

amount of expansion, across all taxa, in comparison to other species of sect. *Claviceps*. In

addition, *C. spartinae* (CCC535)*, C. capensis* (CCC1504), *C. monticola* (CCC1483), *C.*

pazoutovae (CCC1485), *C. occidentalis* (LM77, 78, 84), and *C. quebecensis* (LM458, Clav32,

50) also showed lower expansion (Fig. 7, Additional file 1: Figure S12, S13). However, no

patterns were observed linking the variation in expansions with the literature determined host

range of different species within sect. *Claviceps*.

Discussion:

Our comparative study of 50 newly annotated genomes from four sections of *Claviceps*

has provided us with an enhanced understanding of evolution in the genus through knowledge of

factors contributing to its diversification. Our results have revealed that despite having nearly

identical life-strategies, these closely related species have substantially altered genomic

architecture and plasticity, which may drive genome adaptation. One key difference we observe

is a shift from characteristic aspects of one-speed genomes (i.e. less adaptable) in narrow host-

range *Claviceps* species (sects. *Citrinae* and *Paspalorum*) towards aspects of two-speed genomes

(i.e. more adaptable) in broader host-range lineages of sects. *Pusillae* and *Claviceps* (Fig. 1)

(Dong *et al.* 2015; Frantzeskakis *et al.* 2019).

The basal species of the genus, *C. citrina* (sect. *Citrinae*) and *C. paspali* (sect.

Paspalorum), are characterized by a proliferation of TEs, particularly LTRs, which do not appear

to be co-localized around particular gene types (Fig. 4). Coupled with a lack of large-scale

genome compartmentalization (Fig. 5), these two species can be considered to fit the concept of

a one-speed genome which are often considered to be less adaptable and potentially more prone

to being purged from the biota (Dong *et al.* 2015; Frantzeskakis *et al.* 2019). This could help

explain the paucity of section lineages and restricted host range to one grass tribe, as similar

patterns of large genome size, abundant TE content, and equal distribution of TEs has been

observed in the specialized barley pathogen *Blumeria graminis* f.sp. *hordei* (Frantzeskakis *et al.*

2018). Although, rapid adaptive evolution within *B. graminis* f.sp. *hordei*, has been suggested to

occur through copy-number variation and/or heterozygosity of effector loci (Dong *et al.* 2015;

Frantzeskakis *et al.* 2018, 2019). Our results show a lack of gene duplication occurring in sects.

Citrinae and *Paspalorum*, likely due to the presence of RIP. However, even with the presence of

RIP there was a high LTR content in these species (Fig. 3). This suggests that these LTR

elements have found a way to avoid RIP or indicate that these species harbor a less active

version of RIP as is found in several fungal species (Kachroo *et al.* 1994; Nakayashiki *et al.*

1999; Graïa *et al.* 2001; Ikeda *et al.* 2002; Chalvet *et al.* 2003; Kito *et al.* 2003). Nonetheless,

due to the high abundance of TEs (Fig. 4) and presence of RIP (Fig. 6; Additional file 1: Table

S5, S6), we hypothesize that aspects of RIP "leakage" could be a likely mechanism for evolution

in *C. citrina* and *C. paspali* (and similarly sect. *Pusillae*), as has been shown to occur in other

fungi (Fudal *et al.* 2009; Van de Wouw *et al.* 2010; Hane *et al.* 2015). It should be noted that

since the estimated divergence of sect. *Citrinae* 60.5 Mya (Píchová *et al.* 2018) it has remained

monotypic. It was only recently that unknown lineages of sect. *Paspalorum* were identified

(Oberti *et al.* 2020), although, these lineages were found on the same genera of host as *C. paspali*

(*Paspalum* spp.) supporting our hypothesis that species within sect. *Paspalorum* have restricted

host ranges. These recent findings further suggest that lack of additional lineages within these

sections could be due to limited records of *Claviceps* species in South America, where the genus

is thought to have originated (Píchová *et al.* 2018). Further research into South American

populations of *Claviceps* will provide significant insight into the evolution of these two sections.

Members of sect. *Pusillae* also exhibited a proliferation of TEs, however, as this section

diverged from sects. *Citrinae* and *Paspalorum* the genomic architecture evolved such that TEs

co-localized around predicted effector genes (Fig. 4). This proximity of TEs to effectors

persisted in sect. *Pusillae* species (except *C. pusilla*; Additional file 1: Figure S9) and sect.

Claviceps species potentially resulting in the large intergenic regions flanking predicted effector

genes (Fig. 5, Additional file 1: Figure S10). Together, these genomic alterations indicate aspects

of a two-speed genome (Dong *et al.* 2015; Möller & Stukenbrock 2017). We hypothesize that

these observed genomic changes influenced the divergence and adaptability of sects. *Pusillae*

and *Claviceps* (Fig. 1) (Raffaele & Kamoun 2012; Stukenbrock 2013; Möller & Stukenbrock

2017).

Furthermore, our analyses suggest that the divergence of sect. *Claviceps*, from sect.

Pusillae, is associated with a loss of RIP (Fig. 1, 6; Additional file 1: Table S6). In the absence

of RIP, the gene-sparse regions rich in TEs and effectors could be hot spots for duplication,

deletion, and recombination (Galagan *et al.* 2003, 2004; Raffaele & Kamoun 2012; Dong *et al.*

2015; Faino *et al.* 2016; Möller & Stukenbrock 2017; Frantzeskakis *et al.* 2018, 2019). This

would explain the observations of tandem gene duplication within the section (Fig. 6, 7;

Additional file 1: Table S5, Figure S11-S14), which may facilitate rapid speciation, as has been

postulated in several smut fungi (Kämper *et al.* 2006; Schirawski *et al.* 2010; Dutheil *et al.*

2016). In fact, *C. cyperi*, a basal species of sect. *Claviceps* and thought to be ancestral from

ancestral state reconstructions of host range (Píchová *et al.* 2018), showed the least amount of

gene cluster expansion and tandem duplication (Fig. 7; Additional file 1: Table S5, Figure S12,

S13). Potentially indicating that gene duplication is contributing to the divergence of new

species, as other species in sect. *Claviceps* have increased genome size, gene count, and number

of closely related gene pairs (≥80% identity) (Table 1; Additional file 1 Table S5). Within sect.

Claviceps gene duplication is likely facilitated by recombination events during annual sexual

reproduction (Esser & Tudzynski 1978). Future studies on recombination will be critical to our

understanding of the mechanisms driving gene duplication and elucidating factors associated

with the observations of potential incomplete lineage sorting (Pease & Hahn 2013) within the

section.

566  Substantially altered genomic architecture and plasticity between *Claviceps* sections was

567 observed in this study, yet it is unclear whether the evolution of these genomes were caused by

568 contact with new hosts and different climates as ancestral lineages migrated out of South

569 America (Píchová *et al.* 2018), or if the evolution towards a two-speed genome provided an

570 advantage in adapting to new hosts or environments. Further research is needed to clarify this

571 point. As sects. *Pusillae* and *Claviceps* have larger host ranges (5 tribes and 13 tribes,

572 respectively) and increased levels of speciation (Píchová *et al.* 2018), they represent ideal

573 systems to test this hypothesis. It is postulated that sect. *Pusillae* was transferred to Africa (ca

574 50.3 Mya), while sect. *Claviceps* originated in North America (ca. 20.7 Mya), and it is likely that

575 the common ancestor shared between these sections (Fig. 1) had strains that were transferred to

576 Africa, likely due to insect vectors via transatlantic long-distance dispersal (Píchová *et al.* 2018).

577 The strains that remained, in South America, likely persisted but appeared to not speciate for

578 roughly 30 Mya (Píchová *et al.* 2018), despite having aspects of a more adaptable two-speed

579 genome (Fig. 4, 5). Limited sampling records could be a factor contributing to this lack of

580 speciation during this 30 My period, but it could also be suggested that the ancestral species of

581 sects. *Claviceps* did not diverge due to a lack of diversification of host species (Píchová *et al.*

582 2018). It is well known that *Claviceps* species share a rather unique relationship with their hosts

583 (strict ovarian parasites). The evolution of *Claviceps* appears to be primarily driven by the

584 evolution and diversification of the host species (Píchová *et al.* 2018). This can be inferred from

585 divergence time estimates which show that the crown node of sect. *Pusillae* aligns with the

586 crown node of PACMAD grasses (ca. 45 Mya) (Bouchenak-Khelladi *et al.* 2010, Píchová *et al.*

587 2018), suggesting that these two organisms radiated in tandem after ancestral strains of sect.

588 *Pusillae* were transferred to Africa. Similarly, the estimated crown node of sect. *Claviceps*

corresponds with the origin of the core Pooideae (Poeae, Triticeae, Bromeae, and Littledaleae),

which occurred in North America (ca. 33-26 Mya) (Bouchenak-Khelladi *et al.* 2010; Sandve &

Fjellheim 2010).

Such a large difference between the estimate divergence age (~30 My) and long

divergence branch (Fig. 1) between sect. *Clavcieps* and the other three sections (Píchová *et al.*

2018) suggests that a sudden event sparked the adaptive radiation within this section (Fig. 1).

Under an assumption that ancestral strains of sect. *Claviceps* were infecting sedges (Cyperaceae),

as is seen in the basal species *C. cyperi*, a host jump to BOP grasses could have ignited the rapid

speciation of sect. *Claviceps*, similar to the suggested tandem radiation of sect. *Pusillae* with the

PACMAD grasses in Africa. However, unknown factors might be responsible for the drastic

genomic changes (i.e. putative loss of RIP) observed in sect. *Claviceps*, as no such changes were

observed in sect. *Pusillae*. The radiation of the core Pooideae occurred after a global super-

cooling period (ca. 33-26 Mya) in North America. During this period, Pooideae experienced a

stress response gene family expansion which enabled adaptation and diversification to cooler,

more open, habitats (Kellogg 2001; Sandve & Fjellheim 2010). As gene cluster expansion was

observed in sect. *Claviceps* (the only section to infect BOP grasses) it suggests that the same

environmental factors that caused the radiation of Pooideae could have similarly affected sect.

Claviceps (Kondrashov 2012) and might have resulted in the host jump to Pooideae, and

potentially other BOP tribes. Interestingly, one of the orthogroups significantly expanded in sect.

Claviceps (OG0000016) contains proteins associated with a cold-adapted (Alias *et al.* 2014)

serine peptidase S8 subtilase (MER0047718; S08.139) (Additional file 2: Table S8). Although

the crown node of sect. *Claviceps* is estimated at approximately 5-10 My before the radiation of

the core Pooideae, the 95% highest posterior density determined in Píchová *et al.* (2018) could

indicate both radiation events occurred at similar times.

Further examination of *Claviceps* species in South and Central America needs to be

conducted to better elucidate the evolution and dispersal of the genus (Píchová *et al.* 2018).

Efforts should focus on the elusive *C. junci*, a pathogen of Juncaceae (rushes), which is thought

to reside in sect. *Claviceps* based on morphological and geographic characteristics (Langdon

1952; Píchová *et al.* 2018). This species, and potentially others, will provide further insight into

the early evolution of sect. *Claviceps* and could bridge the current gap between the

environmental factors that sparked the radiation of the core Pooideae and sect. *Claviceps*.

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Data availability:

Datasets and scripts are available on Dryad: Wyka, Stephen *et al.* (2020), Genus-wide

comparison reveals divergence and evolution of the four sections within the genus Claviceps are

the result of varying mechanisms driving genome evolution and host range, Dryad,

Dataset, https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.18931zcsk. (Submitted upon publication)

Genomes and Illumina raw reads were deposited to NCBI under the BioProject

PRJNA528707 (Additional file 1: Table S1). Scripts are maintained within the GitHub repository

of the primary author's, https://github.com/PlantDr430/CSU_scripts. TransposableELMT can be

found at Zenodo doi: 105281/zenodo3469661. All phylogenetic trees were made available at

TreeBase (ID:XXXX).

Author Contributions:

The project was conceived and designed by S.A.W., S.J.M., and K.B.; S.A.W. performed

the research, annotations, bioinformatic workflows, and analyzed the data with technical

troubleshooting from S.J.M.; M.L. and J.R.D initiated whole-genome sequencing of LM

samples; M.L., V.N., and K.B. provided management, research advice, and editorial

contributions; S.A.W. wrote the paper with contributions from all other authors.

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Figure Captions:

Figure 1: Maximum likelihood phylogenetic reconstruction of the *Claviceps* genus using amino

acid sequences of 2,002 single copy orthologs with 1000 bootstrap replicates. Pink dots at

branches represent bootstrap values ≥95. Arrows and descriptions indicate potential changes in

genomic architecture between *Claviceps* sections identified in this study.

Figure 2: Genomic fluidity (dashed lines) for specified groups within the order Hypocreales.

Species level groups contain multiple isolates of a given species, while section and genus level

groups contain one strain from representative species to remove phylogenetic bias. Shaded

regions represent standard error and were determined from total variance, containing both the

variance due to the limited number of samples genomes and the variance due to subsampling

within the sample of genomes. Letters correspond to significant difference between fluidities

determined through a two-sided two-sample z-test ($P < 0.05$; Additional file 1: Table S4).

Legend is in descending order based on fluidity, and names are additionally appended to mean

lines for clarity.

Figure 3: Transposable element (TE) fragment divergence landscapes for representative species

of each *Claviceps* section; *C. purpurea* 20.1 (sect. *Claviceps*), *C. maximensis* CCC398 (sect.

Pusillae), *C. paspali* RRC1481 (sect. *Paspalorum*), and *C. citrina* (sect. *Citrinae*). Stacked bar

graphs show the non-normalized sequence length occupied in each genome (y-axis) for each TE

type based on their percent divergence (x-axis) from their corresponding consensus sequence.

Landscape for all remaining isolates can be seen in Additional file 1: Figure S8.

Figure 4: Boxplot distributions of predicted effectors, secreted (non-effectors), secondary

metabolite (non-secreted) genes and other genes (i.e. genes that are not effectors, secreted, or

secondary (2°) metabolite genes) in *Claviceps* sections showing the mean distance (kbp) of each

gene to the closest transposable element fragment (5' and 3' flanking distances were averaged

together). Kruskal Wallis (*P*-value; * < 0.05, ** < 0.01, *** < 0.001, n.s. = not significant).

Pairwise comparison was performed with Mann-Whitney U-test with Benjamini-Hochberg

multi-test correction. Letters correspond to significant differences between gene categories

within sections ($P < 0.05$). Plots for all individual isolates can been seen in Additional file 1:

Figure S9.

Figure 5: Gene density as a function of flanking 5' and 3' intergenic region size (y- and x-axis)

of representative isolates of each of the four sections within the *Claviceps* genus; *C, purpurea*

20.1 (sect. *Claviceps*), *C. maximensis* CCC398 (sect. *Pusillae*), *C. paspali* RRC1481 (sect.

Paspalorum), and *C. citrina* (sect. *Citrinae*). Colored hexbins indicate the intergenic lengths of

all genes with color-code indicating the frequency distribution (gene count) according to the

legend on the right. Overlaid markers indicate specific gene types corresponding to legends in

the top right within each plot. Line graphs (top and right of each plot) depict the frequency

distributions of specific gene types (corresponding legend color) and all other genes not of the

specific type (black). For visualization purposes the first genes of contigs (5' end) are plotted

along the x-axis and the last gene of each contig (3' end) are plotted along the y-axis. For

information on statistical test see Methods and for plots of all remaining isolates see Additional

file 1: Figure S10.

Figure 6: Representative isolates of each *Claviceps* species showing the fraction of BLAST hits

at a given % identity (y-axis) within each isolate (z-axis) at a given percent identity (x-axis) from

the second closet BLASTp match of proteins within each isolate's own genome. Two *C.*

purpruea s.s. isolates are shown to compare a newly sequenced genome versus the reference.

Figure 7: Heatmap of gene counts in orthogroups for all 53 *Claviceps* strains ordered based on

ML tree in Fig. 1 and separated by sections. Orthogroups are separated based on their

classification and are only represented once (i.e. secondary (2°) metabolite orthogroups shown

are those that are not already classified into the effector or secreted orthogroups) and are ordered

based on hierarchical clustering, see Additional file 2: Table S9 for list of orthogroups

corresponding to the order shown in the heatmaps. The host spectrum (right) is generalized

across species, as no literature has determined the existence of race specific isolates within

species, is shown on the left side of the figure determined from literature review of field

collected samples (Supplementary Material in Píchová *et al.* 2018) and previous inoculation tests

Campbell (1957) and Liu *et al.* (*Submitted*). For heatmap of conserved domains see Additional

file 1: Figure S12 and for unclassified gene families see Additional file 1: Figure S13.

Table 1: Assembly and annotations statistics for the three reference *Claviceps* genomes and the 50 *Claviceps* genomes used in this study.

Organism	Strain	Section	Host of Origin: Family / Tribe	Host of Origin: Genus / species	Read Coverage	Genome size (Mb)	Contig (#)	N50	Genomic GC (%)	TE§ content (%)	Gene count	BUSCO Completeness: Dikarya	BUSCO Completeness: Sordariomyceta
References:													
C. purpruea	20.1	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Secale cereale*	--	32.1	1,442[†]	46,498[†]	51.6%	10.9%	8,703	95.30%	94.70%
C. fusiformis	PRL1980	Pusillae	Paniceae	*Pennisetum typhoideum*	--	52.3	6,930	19,980	37.3%	47.5%	9,304	96.70%	94.90%
C. paspali	RRC1481	Paspalorum	Paspaleae	*Paspalum* sp.	--	28.9	2,304	26,898	47.7%	17.5%	8,400	94.30%	93.30%
This study:													
C. purpruea	Clav04	Claviceps	Bromeae	*Bromus inermis*	46x	31.8	3,288	21,051	51.7%	10.1%	8,824	95.50%	94.10%
C. purpruea	Clav26	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Hordeum vulgare*	59x	30.8	1,361	49,697	51.7%	9.1%	8,737	97.70%	96.50%
C. purpruea	Clav46	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Secale cereale*	58x	30.8	1,409	49,302	51.7%	9.7%	8,597	98.00%	96.60%
C. purpruea	Clav55	Claviceps	Poeae	*Lolium perenne*	59x	30.7	1,525	44,299	51.8%	9.8%	8,480	97.10%	95.90%
C. purpruea	LM4	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Tricosecale*	64x	30.6	1,296	47,441	51.8%	10.0%	8,470	97.00%	95.80%
C. purpruea	LM5	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Hordeum vulgare*	67x	30.5	1,258	51,505	51.8%	9.0%	8,508	96.90%	95.50%
C. purpruea	LM14	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Hordeum vulgare*	49x	30.6	1,297	49,955	51.8%	10.0%	8,422	97.40%	95.60%
C. purpruea	LM28	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Triticum aestivum*	49x	30.6	1,343	51,635	51.7%	9.6%	8,713	97.30%	96.10%
C. purpruea	LM30	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Secale cereale*	64x	30.6	1,224	51,374	51.8%	9.4%	8,526	97.00%	95.50%
C. purpruea	LM33	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Secale cereale*	45x	30.5	1,398	44,564	51.8%	9.2%	8,557	96.30%	95.50%
C. purpruea	LM39	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Triticum turgidum subsp. durum*	81x	30.5	1,282	48,443	51.8%	10.1%	8,591	97.10%	96.10%
C. purpruea	LM46	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Triticum turgidum subsp. durum*	79x	30.6	1,291	50,932	51.8%	9.6%	8,455	97.00%	95.80%
C. purpruea	LM60	Claviceps	Poeae	*Avena sativa*	81x	30.6	1,259	47,464	51.7%	9.3%	8,498	97.00%	95.80%
C. purpruea	LM71	Claviceps	Poeae	*Alopercurus myosuroides*	168x	30.5	1,400	45,114	51.8%	9.6%	8,472	97.10%	95.60%
C. purpruea	LM207	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Elymus repens*	53x	30.5	1,352	45,388	51.8%	9.2%	8,475	97.00%	95.70%
C. purpruea	LM223	Claviceps	Bromeae	*Bromus riparius*	74x	30.8	1,297	46,577	51.7%	10.5%	8,438	97.00%	95.70%
C. purpruea	LM232	Claviceps	Poeae	*Phalaris canariensis*	53x	30.7	1,348	49,571	51.7%	9.4%	8,512	96.60%	95.70%
C. purpruea	LM233	Claviceps	Poeae	*Phalaris canariensis*	49x	30.6	1,331	50,327	51.8%	9.9%	8,717	96.70%	95.90%
C. purpruea	LM461	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Elymus repens*	37x	30.5	1,440	44,216	51.8%	8.4%	8,656	96.60%	95.20%
C. purpruea	LM469	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Triticum aestivum*	75x	30.5	1,257	48,403	51.8%	10.0%	8,394	97.30%	96.00%
C. purpruea	LM470	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Elymus repens*	26x	30.5	1,797	32,579	51.8%	9.0%	8,591	96.50%	95.30%
C. purpruea	LM474	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Hordeum vulgare*	64x	30.6	1,354	47,245	51.8%	9.4%	8,500	96.80%	95.70%
C. purpruea	LM582	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Secale cereale*	89x	30.7	1,600	39,003	51.8%	9.6%	8,518	97.20%	95.40%
C. aff. purpruea	Clav52	Claviceps	Poeae	*Poa pratensis*	60x	29.6	1,334	48,893	51.6%	8.2%	8,316	96.80%	96.20%
C. quebecensis‡	Clav32	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Hordeum vulgare*	64x	28.7	1,068	58,118	51.6%	4.5%	8,232	98.00%	96.60%
C. quebecensis‡	Clav50	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Elymus sp.*	59x	28.8	1,075	66,795	51.6%	6.9%	8,046	97.50%	96.30%
C. quebecensis‡	LM458	Claviceps	Poeae	*Ammophila* (plant)	78x	28.4	1,166	45,693	51.6%	6.1%	8,055	97.10%	95.80%
C. occidentalis‡	LM77	Claviceps	Poeae	*Phleum pratense*	58x	28.7	1,728	29,222	51.4%	6.0%	8,162	96.10%	94.70%
C. occidentalis‡	LM78	Claviceps	Bromeae	*Bromus inermis*	64x	28.8	1,689	29,608	51.4%	6.0%	8,231	95.80%	94.70%
C. occidentalis‡	LM84	Claviceps	Bromeae	*Bromus inermis*	164x	28.9	1,404	36,685	51.4%	6.0%	8,221	97.00%	95.40%
C. ripicola‡	LM218	Claviceps	Poeae	*Phalaris arundinacea*	146x	31.1	1,072	60,464	51.4%	10.3%	8,327	96.70%	95.70%
C. ripicola‡	LM219	Claviceps	Poeae	*Phalaris arundinacea*	55x	30.8	1,239	55,312	51.4%	9.5%	8,381	96.80%	95.80%
C. ripicola‡	LM220	Claviceps	Poeae	*Phalaris arundinacea*	91x	30.9	1,223	54,100	51.4%	9.3%	8,449	97.10%	95.90%
C. ripicola‡	LM454	Claviceps	Poeae	*Ammophila breviligulata*	156x	31.2	1,508	40,844	51.4%	8.4%	8,562	97.10%	96.10%
C. spartinae	CCC535	Claviceps	Zoysieae	*Sporobolus anglicus*	60x	29.3	1,456	42,688	51.4%	7.1%	8,433	97.50%	95.90%
C. arundinis	LM583	Claviceps	Molinieae	*Phragmites australis*	69x	30.6	996	70,672	51.4%	9.8%	8,235	96.80%	95.70%
C. arundinis	CCC1102	Claviceps	Molinieae	*Phragmites australis*	61x	30.3	896	91,905	51.4%	8.3%	8,486	97.70%	96.50%
C. humidiphila	LM576	Claviceps	Poeae	*Dactylis sp.*	77x	31.2	1,236	55,717	51.5%	9.9%	8,440	97.00%	95.90%
C. perihumidiphila‡	LM81	Claviceps	Triticeae	*Elymus albicans*	140x	31.2	1,003	67,487	51.5%	11.0%	8,291	97.10%	95.90%
C. cyperi	CCC1219	Claviceps	Cyperaceae (family)	*Cyperus esculentus*	56x	26.6	1,921	27,113	51.7%	8.9%	7,673	97.70%	95.40%
C. capensis	CCC1504	Claviceps	Ehrharteae	*Ehrharta villosa*	66x	27.7	1,136	59,777	51.7%	6.2%	8,037	97.60%	95.70%
C. pazoutovae	CCC1485	Claviceps	Stipeae	*Stipa dregeana*	61x	27.6	1,304	42,785	51.7%	6.8%	7,941	97.50%	96.00%
C. monticola	CCC1483	Claviceps	Brachypodieae	*Brachypodium sp.*	58x	27.8	1,144	56,619	51.6%	7.0%	7,977	98.10%	96.50%
C. pusilla	CCC602	Pusillae	Andropogoneae	*Bothriochloa insculpta*	52x	45.9	5,068	15,010	40.4%	42.1%	8,735	90.90%	88.30%
C. lovelessii	CCC647	Pusillae	Eragostidinae	*Eragrostis sp.*	53x	41.1	5,300	12,480	42.1%	33.9%	8,862	91.60%	88.20%
C. digitariae	CCC659	Pusillae	Paniceae	*Digitaria eriantha*	57x	33.4	1,773	32,638	44.8%	20.0%	8,285	95.90%	94.70%
C. maximensis	CCC398	Pusillae	Paniceae	*Megathyrsus maximus*	58x	33.0	829	81,956	44.9%	19.8%	7,943	98.30%	96.50%
C. sorghi	CCC632	Pusillae	Andropogoneae	*Sorghum bicolor*	60x	35.6	3,660	16,225	44.4%	30.4%	8,208	89.90%	87.10%
C. africana	CCC489	Pusillae	Andropogoneae	*Sorghum bicolor*	56x	37.7	1,781	37,639	42.5%	34.0%	8,119	95.00%	91.50%
C. citrina	CCC265	Citrinae	Cynodonteae	*Distichlis spicata*	64x	43.5	4,772	16,294	41.5%	51.7%	7,821	92.20%	88.20%

† The reference strain *C. purpurea* 20.1 was additionally assembled into 191 scaffolds with a scaffold N50 of 433,221.
‡ Newly identified species Liu *et al.* (*Submitted*)
§ Transposable element (TE) content represented as percent of the genome masked by TEs

Fig. 1

- Absence of RIP
- Lower TE content
- Evidence of tandem gene duplication
- Increased host range

- Evolution towards a two-speed genome.
- Co-localization of TEs around predicted effector genes
- Evidence of predicted effectors located in more gene-spares regions of the genome

- Specialists with aspects of a one-speed genome

Tree scale: 0.05

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. 5

Fig. 6

Fig. 7