Segmental Duplications Drive the Evolution of Accessory Regions in a Major Crop

Pathogen

A.C. van Westerhoven[1,2], C. Aguilera-Galvez[1], G. Nakasato-Tagami [1], X. Shi-Kunne [1], E. Martinez

de la Parte[1], E. Chavarro-Carrero[1], H.J.G. Meijer[1,3], A. Feurtey[4,5], N. Maryani[6], N. Ordóñez[1], H.

Schneiders[7], K. Nijbroek[7,] A. H. J. Wittenberg[7], R. Hofstede[7], F. García-Bastidas[7], E.H. Sørensen[7],

R. Swennen[8,9], A. Drenth[10], E.H. Stukenbrock[4], G.H.J. Kema[1,#,*], M.F. Seidl[2,#,*]

[1]Wageningen University, Laboratory of Phytopathology, Wageningen, the Netherlands

[2]Utrecht University, Department of Biology, Theoretical Biology & Bioinformatics, Utrecht, the

Netherlands

[3]Wageningen University, Department Biointeractions and Plant Health, Wageningen, the

Netherlands

[4]Christian-Albrechts University of Kiel, Germany, and Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Biology,

Plön, Germany

[5]Eidgenössische Technische Hochschule Zürich, Plant Pathology, D-USYS, CH-8092, Zurich,

Switzerland

[6]Biology Education, Universitas Sultan Ageng Tirtayasa, Banten, Indonesia

[7]KeyGene, Wageningen, the Netherlands

[8]Division of Crop Biotechnics, Laboratory of Tropical Crop Improvement, Catholic University of

Leuven, Leuven, Belgium

[9]International Institute of Tropical Agriculture, Kampala, Uganda

[10]The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia

*Authors contributed equally

#Corresponding authors: Gert H.J. Kema and Michael F. Seidl

Email: gert.kema@wur.nl, m.f.seidl@uu.nl

Author Contributions: ACW collected data and performed the analyses. EMP, CAG, ECC, RH,

AW, HS, FGB, NM, NO, EHS and GNT collected data. EHS, AF, KN and XSK contributed to the

analyses. ACW and wrote the manuscript with input from HJGM, GHJK, and MFS. All authors

contributed to writing and editing the manuscript. GHJK, RS, and MFS conceived and supervised

the project.

Competing Interest Statement: The authors declare no competing interests.

This manuscript includes:

Main text (5655 words)

35   Introduction (634 words)

36   Material and Methods (1306 words)

37   Results (2682 words)

38   Discussion (1033 words)

39   Figures 1 to 6 (colour)

40   **Supplementary information:**

41   Supplementary table 1 - 4

42   Supplementary figure 1 – 8

43   Supplementary methods

Abstract

• Many pathogens evolved compartmentalized genomes with conserved core and variable

accessory regions which carry effector genes mediating virulence. The fungal plant

pathogen *Fusarium oxysporum* has such accessory regions often spanning entire

chromosomes. The presence of specific accessory regions influences the host range, and

horizontal transfer of some accessory regions can modify the pathogenicity of the receiving

strain. However, understanding how these accessory regions evolve in strains that infect

the same host remains limited.

• Here, we define the pan-genome of 69 diverse *Fusarium* strains that cause Fusarium wilt

of banana, a significant constraint to global banana production. In this diverse panel of

Fusarium strains infecting banana, we analyzed the diversity and evolution of the

accessory regions.

• Accessory regions in *Fusarium* strains infecting the same banana cultivar are highly

diverse, and we could not identify any shared genomic regions and in planta induced

effectors. We demonstrate that segmental duplications drive the evolution of accessory

regions. Furthermore, we show that recent segmental duplications and aneuploidy occur

specifically in accessory chromosomes and cause the expansion of accessory regions in

F. oxysporum.

• Taken together we conclude that extensive recent duplications drive the evolution of

accessory regions in *Fusarium*, which contribute to the evolution of virulence.

Keywords: Pathogen genome evolution, Genome compartmentalization, Accessory regions,

Fusarium oxysporum, Segmental duplications

Main Text

Introduction

The interaction between fungal plant pathogens and their hosts drives rapid evolution (Möller &

Stukenbrock, 2017). Plant hosts have evolved sophisticated immune systems to detect pathogens,

while adapted pathogens, in turn, secrete effectors to deregulate immune responses and to support

host colonization (Rovenich *et al.*, 2014; Cook *et al.*, 2015). To facilitate this co-evolutionary cycle,

many filamentous plant pathogens evolved compartmentalized genomes where effector genes are

localized in distinct genomic regions (Dong *et al.*, 2015; Torres *et al.*, 2020). These effector-rich

compartments show extensive genetic variation and are enriched for repetitive sequences such as

transposable elements (Raffaele & Kamoun, 2012; Dong *et al.*, 2015; Seidl & Thomma, 2017;

Möller & Stukenbrock, 2017; Torres *et al.*, 2020). This spatial separation is often referred to as the

'two-speed' genome (Dong *et al.*, 2015) and is thought to facilitates the rapid diversification of

effector gene repertoires to enable pathogens to evade host resistances and to enable host jumps

(Sánchez-Vallet *et al.*, 2018).

Fusarium oxysporum is a genetically diverse fungal species complex that consists of three

clades that can be further separated into different lineages, recently reclassified as separate

species (Maryani et al., 2019). Members of this species complex can collectively infect more than

100 economically important crops. In contrast, individual strains typically only infect a single host

plant (Edel-Hermann & Lecomte, 2019). *Fusarium oxysporum* evolved a two-speed genome

organization where specific genomic regions are characterized by extensive presence-absence

polymorphisms between strains (Ma *et al.*, 2010; van Dam *et al.*, 2017; Fokkens *et al.*, 2018; Zhang

et al., 2020). These variable accessory regions (ARs) can be embedded in core chromosomes or

can encompass entire accessory chromosomes (Ma *et al.*, 2010; Fokkens *et al.*, 2018).

Interestingly, shared ARs in otherwise genetically diverse strains have been linked to the adaptation

towards the same host (Fokkens *et al.*, 2018; Henry *et al.*, 2021). Moreover, ARs can transfer the

capacity to infect a specific host between isolates (Ma *et al.*, 2010; Ayukawa *et al.*, 2021). For

example, transfer of accessory chromosome 14 from a tomato infecting *Fusarium* (*Fol*4287) to a

non-pathogenic *Fusarium* strain converts the non-pathogenic isolate into a tomato infecting

pathogen (Ma *et al.*, 2010). This transfer of pathogenicity is likely linked to effector genes that are

localized in ARs such as the 14 well-studied *Secreted In Xylem* (*SIX*) effectors (Rep *et al.*, 2002).

Consequently, the presence and absence of effectors can group genetically diverse *F. oxysporum*

strains based on their host range (van Dam *et al.*, 2016). Whole-genome sequencing of diverse *F.*

oxysporum can provide novel insights into the origin of host specificity (Fokkens *et al.*, 2018; Henry

et al., 2021). A recent population study of *F. oxysporum* isolates infecting chickpea suggests that,

contrary to expectations (Gordon & Martyn, 1997; Henry *et al.*, 2021), *F. oxysporum* might undergo

sexual as well as clonal reproduction (Fayyaz *et al.*, 2023), which could impact the constitution and

the dynamics of ARs and, ultimately, influence pathogenicity. However, despite the importance of

ARs for host adaption, little is known about the constitution of ARs in *F. oxysporum* strains that

cause disease in the same host, and the origin and processes that shape the evolution of ARs in

Fusarium.

Fusarium wilt of banana (FWB), which is caused by a suite of *F. oxysporum* species

(Maryani *et al.*, 2019), is a major constraint for banana production and threatens food security in

tropical and subtropical countries where >400 million people depend on banana cultivation (FAO,

2020). In *F. oxysporum* species causing FWB, three different races can be distinguished based on

their pathogenicity towards subsets of banana varieties; Race 1 (R1) strains cause FWB in Gros

Michel, Race 2 (R2) strains infect Bluggoe, and Tropical Race 4 (TR4) strains infect Gros Michel,

Bluggoe, and Cavendish (Ploetz, 2015). In addition to TR4, subtropical race 4 (STR4) strains can

cause disease in Cavendish banana under environmental stress conditions, for example caused

by lower temperatures in subtropical regions (Ploetz, 2006). All races infect additional locally

important banana varieties. TR4 has developed into a pandemic over the last 60 years (Ordonez

et al., 2015; van Westerhoven *et al.*, 2022b) and is of particular concern as it causes FWB in

Cavendish, the banana variety that dominates global productions (>50%) and export trade (>95%)

(FAO, 2020). Despite the impact of FWB on banana production, we know little about the ARs in

Fusarium strains that infecting banana and their relation to pathogenicity.

Here we analyze the dynamics of ARs in a suite of *Fusarium* strains causing FWB. To gain

insights into the genomic structure, we generate seven chromosome-level reference genome

assemblies for R1, R2 and TR4 strains, and use a pan-genomic framework together with a global

panel of 69 strains to gain insights into the evolution of ARs in genetically diverse *Fusarium* species.

Materials and Methods

Collection of *Fusarium* strains infecting banana

We analyzed a diverse set of 69 *Fusarium* strains infecting banana (**Supplementary Table 1**). *Fusarium* strains were isolated from different banana growing regions worldwide directly from the pseudostem of symptomatic banana plants. Here, 35 *Fusarium* strains were newly sequenced and we included 34 publicly available whole-genome sequencing datasets (based on short-read sequencing approaches) (Guo *et al.*, 2014; García-Bastidas *et al.*, 2014; Zheng *et al.*, 2018; Warmington *et al.*, 2019; Maymon *et al.*, 2020; Garcia-Bastidas *et al.*, 2020; van Westerhoven *et al.*, 2022a). To obtain high-quality reference assemblies, seven strains were sequenced with Oxford Nanopore Technology (ONT).

Whole-genome sequencing

Fusarium isolates were cultured on potato dextrose agar (PDA) and conidia were transferred to liquid media for incubation at 25°C. Fungal material was isolated from liquid culture for genomic DNA extraction. The exact DNA isolation protocol per strain can be found in Supplementary Methods. To obtain long-read, whole-genome sequencing data, seven strain (36102, II5, CR1.1, C058, C135, C081, and M1) were sequenced using Oxford Nanopore Technologies (Oxford, UK). An R9.4.1 flow cell was loaded and run for 24h. Base calling was performed using Guppy (version 3.1.5; C058, C135, C081, and M1) and MiniKNOW (version 3.4.6; II5, 36102, and CR1.1). The other *Fusarium* strains were sequenced by Beijing Genomic Institute (BGI) using Illumina paired-end sequencing, 31 were sequenced during this study and 38 were obtained during other studies (Guo *et al.*, 2014; Ordonez *et al.*, 2015; Zheng *et al.*, 2018; Warmington *et al.*, 2019; Maymon *et al.*, 2020; Garcia-Bastidas *et al.*, 2020; van Westerhoven *et al.*, 2022a).

Gene expression analysis

Gene expression patterns were compared between *in vitro* growth and 8 days post infection.

Cavendish 'Grand Naine' banana plants were grown in a greenhouse compartment (28 ± 2°C, 16

h light, and ~85% relativity humidity) and acclimatized under plastic for 2 weeks to maintain high

humidity. The roots of ~2.5 months old plants were dip inoculated with 10^6 spores per ml. RNA was

isolated from the roots of inoculated plants at 8 days post inoculation and from mycelium grown on

PDA medium. Samples were ground and RNA extraction was performed using the Maxwell Plant

RNA kit (Promega) following manufacturer's instructions. The quality of the RNA samples was

tested by agarose electrophoresis and quantified by Nanodrop (ThermoFisher), and subsequently

sent to KeyGene (The Netherlands) for sequencing. Quantifications of gene transcripts from

sequenced RNA-seq reads was performed using Kallisto (Bray *et al.*, 2016).

Genome assembly and annotation

We obtained chromosome-level *de novo* genome assemblies for seven Fusarium isolates

sequenced by ONT long-read technology. Adapter sequences were removed with Porechop

(version 0.2.4, default settings; https://github.com/rrwick/Porechop/tree/master) and reads were

self-corrected, trimmed, and assembled using Canu (Koren *et al.*, 2017) (version 1.8). Genome

assemblies were polished using ONT raw reads with Racon (Vaser *et al.*, 2017) (version 1.5.0) and

with high-quality Illumina short read using two rounds of Pilon(Walker *et al.*, 2014) (version 1.24).

Contigs were scaffolded, if needed, using longstitch (Coombe *et al.*, 2021) (version 1.0.2).

Fusarium strains sequenced solely with short-read sequencing technology were *de novo*

assembled with Spades (Bankevich *et al.*, 2012) (version 3.13.0, with default settings). Contigs

shorter than 500 bp were subsequently removed. To assess the assembly quality, the genome

assemblies were analyzed with QUAST (Gurevich *et al.*, 2013) (version 5.0.2), and genome

completeness was estimated based on the presence of conserved single-copy genes using

BUSCO (Simão *et al.*, 2015) (version 5.1.2) with the *hypocreales* odb10 database.

We performed gene annotation of 69 *Fusarium* genome assemblies using Funannotate

(Palmer & Stajich, 2019) (version 1.8.9) with the *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *lycopersici* 4287

Uniprot proteins, uniport database, and previously predicted effectors (van Dam *et al.*, 2016) as

external evidence. Genomes were masked using RepeatMasker (version 4.1.1) following repeat

prediction with RepeatModeler (http://www.repeatmasker.org). For *Fusarium* strains II5, CR1.1,

and 36102, RNA-seq data was used to guide gene model prediction, and *ab initio* training

parameters estimated using RNA-seq data of II5 were re-used to support the annotation in other

genome assemblies. Effectors genes were predicted based on their association with <u>Mi</u>niature

<u>IMP</u>ala (MIMP) elements in *Fusarium* (van Dam *et al.*, 2016). Briefly, ORFs were predicted 5 kb

up- and downstream to MIMPs ('AGT[GA][GA]G[GAT][TGC]GCAA[TAG]AA') and these were

refined using AUGUSTUS (version 3.3.3)(Stanke & Morgenstern, 2005), with the *Fusarium* species

specified. In the set of predicted MIMP-genes, secreted proteins were predicted using SignalP

(version 5) and subsequently effectors were predicted using EffectorP (version 3.0). The predicted

effectors were added to the Funannotate annotation using AGAT (version 0.8.0.)

To recover potentially missing genes in the gene annotations, we used the comparative

annotation toolkit (Fiddes *et al.*, 2018) (version 2). Cactus (Armstrong *et al.*, 2020) (version 2.0.1)

was used to create whole-genome alignments of all 69 genomes, using the Minigraph-Cactus

approach (Hickey *et al.*, 2023). Consecutively, the CAT was used to carry-over gene annotations

based on Funannotate gene predictions with the RNA-seq data (with Augustus settings pre trained

on II5, --global-near-best 1, --augustus-utr-off, --augustus-cgp, --maf-chunksize 550000 --maf-

overlap 50000), which added approximately 200 genes per genome assembly.

Core gene phylogeny

The phylogenetic relationship between *Fusarium* strains infecting banana together with 55 publicly

available non-banana infecting *Fusarium* strains was inferred from 3,811 conserved single-copy

BUSCO genes. Protein sequences were aligned using Mafft (Katoh *et al.*, 2002), (version 7.453)

and a maximum-likelihood phylogeny was determine using IQtree (Chernomor *et al.*, 2016)

(version 1.6; -m MFP+MERGE, -B 1000 with 1,000 ultra-fast bootstrap), *Fusarium verticillioides*

(ASM14955v1 (Cuomo *et al.*, 2007)) was included as an outgroup.

Pangenome analysis

We detected conserved and accessory regions in the set of *Fusarium* isolates by performing all-vs-all whole-genome alignments with nucmer (Kurtz *et al.*, 2004) (version 3.1; --max-match). We removed small alignments with delta-filter (-l 5000) and only retained the best match per alignment (-1). Genomic regions present in all 69 *Fusarium* isolates were considered core, regions covered by less than 80% were considered accessory, and regions between these values were considered softcore. Pairwise similarity between accessory regions was calculated using custom python scripts (https://github.com/Anouk-vw/Fusarium_pg) and alignments were visualized with PyGenomeViz (https://github.com/moshi4/pyGenomeViz) and Circlize (Gu *et al.*, 2014).

To identify orthologous groups, we used Broccoli (Derelle *et al.*, 2020) (version 1.1) on the predicted protein-coding genes from the 69 *Fusarium* strains infecting banana; per gene, only the longest transcript was included. OGs present in all isolates were considered core, OGs found in more than 55 genomes (80%) were considered softcore, and genes found in less than 55 of the genomes were considered accessory.

We determined the number of non-synonymous and synonymous substitutions (dN/dS) per OG. All genes in an OG were aligned using mafft (Katoh *et al.*, 2002) (version 7.490) and non-synonymous and synonymous substitutions per gene pair in the OG were inferred based on a codon-guided nucleotide alignment, created by pal2nal (Suyama *et al.*, 2006) (version 14), with codeML (from paml (Yang, 2007), version 4.9). Differences between groups of genes were further analyzed using custom python scripts and compared using a two-sided Mann-Whitney U test in SciPy (Virtanen *et al.*, 2020) (version 1.10.1).

Estimation of gene age

Orthofinder (Emms & Kelly, 2019) (version 2.5.4) was used to detect the presence of homologs in 308 phylogenetically distinct fungal species from the joint genome institute; per fungal family, one

fungal genome assembly was randomly selected (Supplementary table **5**). Homologs that occur at

least once outside the phylum Ascomycota are considered *old* homologs, homologs occurring only

within Ascomycota are further subdivided into *Hypocreales* and *Fusarium*.

Detection of duplication events

We detected gene duplication events by self-comparisons of the translated protein sequences (only

the longest isoform) of the chromosome-level genome assemblies of *Fusarium* infecting banana,

as well as *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *lycopersici* (strain *Fol*4287 (Ma *et al.*, 2010);

GCF_000149955.1, *Fusarium* graminearum (Cuomo *et al.*, 2007) (GCF_000240135.3), *Fusarium*

verticillioides (Cuomo *et al.*, 2007) (GCF_000149555.1), and *Fusarium solani* (Mesny *et al.*, 2021)

(GCF_020744495.1). Per *Fusarium* strain, the predicted protein sequences were compared with

BLAST and the best five hits were retained after filtering for an e-value $1e^{-10}$ and query coverage

larger than 50%. Then, BLAST alignments were used to detect collinear duplicated blocks with

MCscanX (Wang *et al.*, 2012); blocks of five genes were considered collinear and matches were

filtered with the parameters match-score 50 and e-value 10^{-5}. Subsequently, we classified

duplicated genes into dispersed, proximal, tandem, or segmental duplications with MCscanX's

'duplicate_gene_classifier' script.

Copy number variations were identified by mapping short-read, whole-genome sequencing

datasets against the chromosome-level genome assembly of *Fusarium* strain II5 using BWA-mem

(Li, 2013) (version 0.7.17). We determined the sequencing coverage over the reference genome

with bedtools (version 2.30), which was visualized Wgscoverageplotter from jvarkit (Lindenbaum,

2015) (version 1.1.0), filtering reads with a mapping quality of 0. Single nucleotide polymorphisms

were called using GATK (version 4.0.2; -ploidy 1) and filtered according to GATK best practices

(Van der Auwera *et al.*, 2013).

Results

Fusarium strains *infecting banana are genetically diverse*

To study the occurrence and evolution of ARs in *Fusarium* strains infecting banana, we sequenced and assembled 69 strains (Fig. **1a**, Supplementary table **1**) that were isolated from all major banana growing regions and classified into R1 (39 strains), R2 (two strains) and TR4 (28 strains) (Fig. **1a,b**, Supplementary table **1**). *De novo* assembly of seven long-read sequencing strains infecting different banana varieties (three TR4, two R1, two R2) achieved chromosome-level contiguity containing 12 to 15 contigs, most of which represent complete chromosomes flanked by telomeric repeats (Supplementary table **2,3**). While genome assemblies obtained solely from short-read data yielded more fragmented assemblies, all assemblies contained at least 96.9% of the single-copy BUSCO genes. The assemblies range from 43 to 51 Mb in size (Fig. **1b**) and encode between 15,664 and 17,865 predicted proteins, of which 551 to 671 are effector candidates, and consist for 2.6 – 8.9% of repeats (Fig. **1e,f**), similar to previous *Fusarium* genome assemblies (van Dam *et al.*, 2016; Warmington *et al.*, 2019; Zhang *et al.*, 2020).

To assess the genetic diversity of *Fusarium* strains infecting banana in relation to 55 publicly available *Fusarium* strains infecting eight different host plants (van Dam *et al.*, 2016) (Supplementary table **1**), we conducted a phylogenetic analysis based on 3,811 single-copy orthologous genes (2,226,902 amino acid positions). As expected, *Fusarium* strains infecting banana are polyphyletic and associated with *F. oxysporum* clades 1, 2, and 3 (Fig. **1a**)(O'Donnell *et al.*, 1998; Maryani *et al.*, 2019). We observed low nucleotide diversity between TR4 strains (pi-nucleotide diversity 0.0018) compared to a 100x higher diversity between R1 strains (pi-nucleotide diversity 0.185), corroborating that TR4 strains evolved from a single recent clonal origin (Ordonez *et al.*, 2015; Maryani *et al.*, 2019). Based on their genetic diversity, *Fusarium* strains infecting banana have recently been separated into different species, and the lineage that encompasses TR4 strains (Fig. **1d**) is now referred to as *Fusarium odoratissimum* (Ordonez *et al.*, 2015; Maryani *et al.*, 2019).

Figure 1. *Fusarium* strains infecting banana are genetically diverse. a) *Fusarium* strains that
infect banana are polyphyletic (yellow labels). The relationship between *Fusarium* infecting banana
and *Fusarium* strains that infect other plant hosts (see label color) is estimated using maximum-
likelihood phylogenetic analysis based on 3,811 concatenated conserved single-copy BUSCO
genes. Black outline indicates high quality genome assemblies. **b)** Genome sizes of *Fusarium*
strains range between 43 to 61 Mb. **c**) The sizes of accessory regions in *Fusarium* strains range
from 6.7 to 16.5 Mb. **d**) TR4 strains (purple squares) occur in clade 1 and are genetically similar,
as well as the two R2 strains (green). By contrast, the R1 strains (blue squares) are polyphyletic.
e) *Fusarium* strains that infect banana encode between 15,664 and 17,865 genes and **f**) between
2.9 and 8.9% repeats. **g)** The collection of 69 *Fusarium* strains originates from different banana
growing regions worldwide; the approximate origin of isolation is indicated by dots, colored
according to the race designation (R1, R2, STR4, and TR4). Strains sequenced by long-read
sequencing technology are highlighted in black.

Fusarium *strains causing Fusarium wilt of banana have a compartmentalized genome*

To identify ARs in *Fusarium* strains infecting banana, we performed whole-genome alignments of

the seven chromosome-level genome assemblies to the reference genome assembly of the tomato

infecting *F. oxysporum* strain 4287 (*Fol*4287)(Ma *et al.*, 2010). We observed eleven homologous

chromosomes between the TR4 reference strain II5 and *Fol*4287, that are considered the core

genome (chromosome 1-11; Fig. **2a**). In addition to the core chromosomes, we observed two large

ARs specific for II5. The first spans 1.8 Mb occupying 27% of chromosome 1 in proximity to one

telomere and the second region is 1.1 Mb in size and constitutes the entire contig 12 (Fig. **2a**).

Contig 12 only contains one telomere (Fig. **2b**), and therefore it remains unknown whether this

accessory region represents an extra chromosome or is attached to one of the core chromosomes.

Importantly, we assemble a similar contig in TR4 strain M1, and a similar contig is present in the

independently assembled TR4 strain Eden (Warmington *et al.*, 2019), which strongly suggests that

this contig represents an separate accessory region.

305   Compared to the eleven core chromosomes, the two ARs have an increased repeat

content (28.30% vs 6.41%) and a decreased gene density (32.15% vs 59.71%) and GC content

(46.4% vs 47.5%) (Fig. **2b**). Importantly, the ARs in II5 encode 463 genes, nine are homologous to

SIX genes (Fig. **2b**) and 22 are predicted effectors (out of 629 predicted effectors). Although this

suggests that the ARs are important for pathogenicity on banana, they are not collinear with other

Fusarium strains infecting banana (Supplementary Fig. **1**).

To further analyze the diversity of ARs, we identified ARs in our global collection using a

pan-genomic approach based on all-vs-all whole genome alignments. ARs were defined as regions

longer than 5 kb that are absent in more than 55 of 69 strains (80%). We identified a varying amount

of ARs in *Fusarium* strains infecting banana (Fig. **1c**), ranging from 6.7 Mb (15% of the genome

size) in strain Indo110 (R1) to 15.5 Mb (30%) in strain C135 (R2), in line with the 19 Mb (29%) of

ARs in the reference strain *Fol*4287 (Ma *et al.*, 2010). Next to the two ARs in chromosomes 1 and

contig 12, our pan-genomic approach identified additional 8 Mb of ARs in II5, typically localized at

sub-telomeric regions (defined as the first and last 10% of each chromosome) (Fig. **2b**). These sub-

telomeric regions contain 1,287 genes, of which 80 are predicted effector genes (6.6%). We also

identified that chromosomes 9 (42.6% ARs, 87 SNPs per kb), 10 (27% ARs, 80 SNPs per kb), and

11 (36% ARs, 92 SNPs per kb) are less conserved than the other core chromosomes (on average

20% ARs, 59 SNPs per kb) **(**Supplementary Fig. **2)**, which resembles the situation of the previously

identified 'fast-core' chromosomes in *Fol*4287 (Fokkens *et al.*, 2018).

We show that ARs can be defined based on sequence conservation and differ from the

core genome in gene, repeat and GC-content. Consequently, principal component analyses

distinguished ARs from the core genome based on these four features (Fig. **2c**). Unanticipatedly,

this analysis also separated the large ARs on chromosome 1 and contig 12 from the ARs localized

at the sub-telomeres (Fig. **2c**), this separation is driven by the slightly lower GC content in sub-

telomeric regions (44% vs 47%). A reduced GC-content can be caused by repeat induced

polymorphisms (RIP), a fungal defense mechanisms that introduces C to T mutations in repetitive

regions (Galagan & Selker, 2004). In the sub-telomeric region, 25.4% of the repetitive elements are

likely subjected to RIP (i.e., composite RIP index > 0), in contrast to only 7.7% in the other ARs,

suggesting that repetitive elements at the sub-telomeres are older, or alternatively, that RIP has

been more active.

335
Figure 2. *Fusarium* strains infecting banana carry accessory regions (ARs). a) The TR4
reference strain II5 contains eleven core chromosomes (chromosome 1-11) as well as two ARs
(1,8 Mb on chromosome 1 and entire contig 12). Core chromosomes align to *Fol*4287 in contrast
to the ARs that are highlighted in orange. **b**) The ARs (orange) in II5 carry most *Secreted In Xylem*
(*SIX*) genes and show an increased repeat and lower gene content. A similar pattern is found in
the sub-telomeric regions (green, first and last 10% of the chromosome). **c**) Principal component
analysis on gene-, repeat-, GC-content, and coverage of 69 *Fusarium* strains separates the
genomic regions of II5 into three different clusters. ARs (orange and green) are separated from the
core region (grey) and further separated into those ARs localized in sub-telomeric regions (green)
and those on chromosome 1 and contig 12 (orange).

Highly variable accessory regions in Fusarium *strains infecting banana*

To characterize the similarity of ARs in *Fusarium* strains infecting banana, we compared the ARs from the seven chromosome-level genome assemblies. Notably, the ARs are highly diverse with little sequence and structural similarity (Fig. **3,** Supplementary Fig. **1**). In TR4, the ARs from strain II5 on chromosomes 1 and contig 12 show extensive similarity to the corresponding chromosomes in strain M1 (Fig. **3a**, Supplementary Fig. **1**). On the other hand, isolate 36102, causing milder symptoms in Cavendish than TR4 II5, carries only the AGR on chromosome 1, and does not encode a region similar to contig 12 (Supplementary Figure 1). None of the AGRs from strain II5 are present in the strains representing Race 1 and Race 2. Similar to the TR4 strains, the accessory contigs of two Race 2 strains correspond to each other (Supplementary Fig. **1**), but no shared ARs are found among R1 strains. Moreover, we observed that no ARs are conserved among different races, for example only limited genetic material is shared between ARs of TR4 and R2 (Supplementary Fig. **1**). The diversity of ARs was further corroborated by pairwise analyses of all 69-strains, which revealed that, on average, TR4 shared 91% of the ARs, whereas R1 shared only 24% (Fig. **3b**). In line with the high number of shared ARs in TR4 (*F. odoratissimum*, Fig. **3b**), the amount of shared ARs was highest among R1 strains belonging to the same *Fusarium* species (60% shared ARs**,** Fig. **3b**, Supplementary Fig. **3**), however R1 strains from different species share very few ARs (Fig. **3b**).

To quantify to which extent *Fusarium* strains infecting banana share ARs with *Fusarium* strains infecting different plant hosts, we identified and compared ARs in a set of 55 additional *Fusarium* strains that are pathogenic to different plant hosts (van Dam *et al.*, 2016). We observed that genetically related strains share most ARs (Supplementary Fig. **4**), however we also noticed that *Fusarium* strains infecting banana encode more diverse ARs than for instance the tomato-infecting strains; on average, *Fol* strains share 62% ARs, with a minimal 30% of the ARs shared between any two *Fol* strains (Supplementary Fig. **4**). In contrast, banana-infecting strains on average share 44% of the ARs and a pair of strains can share as little as 12% (Supplementary Fig.

374 **4**). Thus, we demonstrate that ARs are highly variable among *Fusarium* strains infecting banana

375 and, importantly, strains do not share one host-associated chromosome in contrast to what was

376 previously reported for *Fusarium* infecting tomato (Fokkens *et al.*, 2018).

377
Figure 3. Accessory regions in *Fusarium* strains infecting banana differ significantly. a)
Accessory contig 12 of the TR4 reference strain II5 is shared with TR4 strain M1, however this
contig shows little similarity to R1 strain CR1.1. Lines (red and blue) indicate aligned regions
between strains. Small alignments are present between R1 and TR4 (blue lines), however these
are rearranged and often involve repetitive sequences (yellow blocks). **b**) R1 strains (39 strains,
highlighted in blue) have a diverse accessory content sharing on average only 20% of the ARs,
whereas TR4 strains (28, highlighted in purple) share most of their ARs (91%). Phylogenetically
related strains, here indicated by their species name (Maryani *et al.*, 2019), share more ARs than
distantly related strains.

Evolutionary *dynamics of the accessory genome*

Fusarium strains infecting banana do not share large ARs (Fig. **3b**), but we reasoned that ARs nevertheless might share genes that contribute to the pathogenicity towards banana. We therefore grouped 1.1 million protein-coding genes predicted in 69 strains into 22,612 orthologous groups, and subsequently analyzed the gene-content diversity. The pan-genome consisted of 12,101 core groups (53%) that are present in all 69 strains, 2,395 softcore groups present in at least 80% of the strains, 5,595 (25%) accessory groups present in less than 80% of the strains, and 2,521 unique genes (Fig. **4a**). Importantly, the pan-genome based on our collection captures the diversity of protein-coding genes in *Fusarium* strains infecting banana as we did not observe an increase in the pan-genome size after including more than 40 strains (Fig. **4a**). The conserved core genes are, as expected, enriched with genes with housekeeping functions, whilst accessory genes are enriched with genes encoding secondary metabolites (Supplementary Fig. **5**). No enrichment of effector genes is found in any of the three categories (core, accessory, or softcore); the pan-genome consists of 739 gene families encoding predicted effectors that are evenly distributed over the different gene categories (3.7% of accessory genes and 3.5% of the core genes). The role of accessory genes in host infection is suggested by gene expression, as accessory genes are upregulated eight days after banana infection, with a median $\log_2$fold change of 1.59 (compared with the *in vitro* control) (Fig. **4b**), comparable to the upregulation of effector genes (median $\log_2$fold change of 2.4). The core genes, however, show significantly less increase of gene expression upon plant infection (median $\log_2$fold change = 0.25, $P < 0.05$, two-sided Mann-Whitney U test) (Fig. **4b**). Although this suggests a role of accessory genes in host-pathogenicity, we observed a highly diverse gene content in R1 strains with only 246 out of 7,832 accessory genes (3%) being shared among all R1 strains (Fig. **4f**). TR4 strains, in contrast, have a more similar gene profile and share 2,493 of the 4,406 accessory genes (57%).

In TR4 strain II5, ARs have a different gene composition than the core regions, with ARs consisting mostly of accessory genes (405 out of 463; 87%), however four core and 38 soft core

genes are also found in accessory regions (Fig. **4e**), indicating that some shared genes can be

found between otherwise non-conserved regions. ARs seem to contain recently evolved genes, as

most AR genes (71%) have homologs in closely related fungi (Fig. **4g,h**) and only 29% are

considered "old", i.e., with homologs in all fungi, which contrasts to the 53% old genes in the core

genome (7,764, out of 14,774 genes) (Fig. **4g,h**). Additionally, accessory genes are significantly

shorter (315 aa) and evolve under relaxed selective pressure (dN/dS = 0.20), compared to the core

genes (469 aa, dN/dS = 0.089; $P < 0.05$, two-sided Mann-Whitney U test) (Fig. **4b,c),** both

hallmarks of more recent genes (Wolf *et al.*, 2009). This suggests that most genes in the ARs

evolved recently, and that these regions serve as cradles for the evolution of novel genes. In

addition, many genes on the ARs (177 out of 463) belong to expanded gene families based on the

defined orthogroups (Fig. **4e**), suggesting that gene duplications play a role in the evolution of ARs

in *Fusarium* strains infecting banana*.*

426
Figure 4. Evolutionary dynamics of genes in the different genomic compartments in
***Fusarium* strains infecting banana. a)** Global collection of *Fusarium* infecting banana has a pan-
genome size of 20,091 orthologous groups (OG, 22,612 when unique genes are included), of which

12,101 are present in all strains (grey). The pan-genome is saturated after adding 40 genomes.
The order of genomes was randomly sampled ten times, dots show the average pangenome size
and the vertical grey lines indicate the standard deviation. **b**) Accessory genes are upregulated *in*
planta at 8 days post inoculation of banana plants. Average log2fold change of accessory genes
(2,416 in II5) and effector genes (629 in II5) shows these genes are typically upregulated upon
plant infection, which contrasts the core (11,740 genes, $\log_2$-fold change = 0.252) and BUSCO
genes (4,364 genes, $\log_2$-fold change = -0.167). The median log2fold change of all gene categories
is significantly different (p<0.05, two sided Mann-Whitney U test). **c**) Sequence conservation
estimated by dN/dS values. BUSCO gene families (4,443 OGs) and core gene families are most
conserved, whereas the accessory genes evolve under more relaxed selective pressure. All gene
categories show significant variation in dN/dS value (p<0.05, Mann-Whitney U test). **d)** Distribution
of protein length separated by different gene categories shows that accessory gene families (5,595
OGs, pink) are shorter (median length of 315 aa per OG) than core gene families (median length
469 aa per OG, 12,101 OGs, grey). All gene categories differed significantly from each other
(p<0.05, Mann-Whitney U test). **e**) ARs in II5 (orange, contig 12 and chromosome 1A) consist
mostly of accessory genes (pink, 405 out of 463, 87%) and 28% of these genes are part of
expanded orthogroups (129 out of 463). Accessory genes can also be found in core chromosomes.
f) Gene content is variable between R1 strains, and only 20% of the genes are present in 80-90%
of the R1 strains. Most genes (60%) in TR4 are present in all TR4 strains (90-100%). **g)** Gene
families in TR4 strain II5 differ to which extend they have homologs in 308 fungal phyla; most genes
are present in related *Fusarium* strains, but only a few gene families (853) are conserved among
all considered fungi. **h**) Accessory regions contain most recent genes, present in *Fusarium* (51)
and Hypocreales (160). Genes in core regions are evolutionarily older with more genes that have
homologs in 'all fungi' (7,764 out of 11,740 genes).

Variable effector repertoire in Fusarium oxysporum *genomes*

Effector gene repertoires define host range (van Dam *et al.*, 2016; Brenes Guallar *et al.*, 2022), and

we anticipated that effector presence-absence profiles would distinguish *Fusarium* strains infecting

banana from *Fusarium* strains infecting other hosts. We predicted candidate effector genes in all

124 *Fusarium* isolates based on their proximity to Miniature IMPala elements (MIMP) that are

known to co-localize with some effector genes in *F. oxysporum* (van Dam *et al.*, 2016; Brenes

Guallar *et al.*, 2022), which yielded 398 MIMP-associated effector gene families (160 of these were

predicted in the complete set of 739 candidate effectors). The predicted MIMP-associated effector

repertoires clustered *F. oxysporum* isolates on host range (van Dam *et al.*, 2016; Brenes Guallar

et al., 2022) (Fig. **5)**. While banana-infecting strains form a clear cluster, only four MIMP-associated

effectors were identified that occur in most (i.e., >80%) of banana-infecting strains but are

consistently absent (i.e., present in less than 20%) in other *F. oxysporum* strains. Moreover, races

within *Fusarium* strains infecting banana are not clearly separated; TR4 strains have very similar

effector profiles, yet R1 strains differ considerably and do not encode shared effectors.

Interestingly, two STR4 strains carry an effector profile remarkably similar to the effector profile of

TR4 strains (Figure 5). This suggests that this effector profile contributes to the pathogenicity of

these STR4 strains to Cavendish banana. However, this effector profile is not STR4 specific as the

other two STR4 strains encode effector profiles similar to R1 strains (Figure 5). This difference can

be the result of misclassification of STR4 strains, because STR4 infects Cavendish only under

environmental stress conditions and this environmental component makes it difficult to distinguish

true STR4 isolates from Race 1 isolates (Ploetz, 2006). To further investigate effectors shared

between TR4 and STR4, an accurate screening strategy to distinguish true STR4 needs to be

conducted. We here reveal a diverse effector repertoire in R1 strains, together with the variable

ARs and gene content, this suggests that the species encompassing R1 utilize varying molecular

mechanisms to support banana infection.

480
Figure 5. Predicted effector profile clusters *Fusarium* strains infecting the same host.
Fusarium strains infecting banana (yellow) are separated from *Fusaria* infecting other hosts. In the
set of 124 *Fusarium* isolates, 398 MIMP-associated effector families are predicted. The R1 strains
(blue) have diverse effector profiles and do not cluster together, whereas the effector profiles of
TR4 strains (purple) are highly similar. Nine SIX effectors (blue) are identified in the 398 MIMP-
associated effector families and are present in Fusarium strains infecting tomato, from which they
are originally identified, as well as in other Fusarium genomes.

***Recent segmental duplications drive accessory genome expansion in* Fusarium oxysporum**

We observed diverse ARs in *Fusarium* strains infecting banana with a high abundance of

evolutionary young genes and genes that evolved via gene duplications (Fig. **4e**). Duplications

have been previously reported in *F. oxysporum*, including *Fusarium* strains infecting banana (Kistler

et al., 1995; Ma *et al.*, 2010; Vlaardingerbroek *et al.*, 2016; Armitage *et al.*, 2018; Li *et al.*, 2020).

To better understand the role of gene duplications in the origin and diversification of ARs, we

characterized gene duplications in *F. oxysporum* using MCscanX (Wang *et al.*, 2012) and classified

them into four categories (dispersed, proximal, tandem, and segmental) (Fig. **6a**). Remarkably,

most genes in strain II5 (8,831 genes) have been affected by gene duplication during their evolution

(Fig. **6b,** Supplementary Fig. **6**). This high number of duplications include old gene duplications,

recognized as distant homologs that acquired considerable number of mutations over time. When

we apply a more stringent percent identity filtering, the number of duplicated genes is reduced, yet

the number of segmental duplicated genes is least affected (supplementary table **4**), indicating that

the segmental duplicated genes acquired less mutations and thus evolved more recently. We

observed similar results for other *F. oxysporum* strains as well as for other *Fusarium* species; *F.*

verticillioides, *F. graminearum,* and *F. solani* (syn. *Neocosmospora solani*), suggesting that

duplications played a major role in *Fusarium* evolution (**Fig 6b**). Interestingly, we observed that

segmental duplicated genes occur specifically in ARs (72 out of 124 in II5) and sub-telomeres (48

out of 124 in II5) in all chromosome-level *F. oxysporum* assemblies (Fig**. 6b**, Supplementary Fig.

6). In *F. solani*, which contains accessory chromosomes analogous to those observed in *F.*

oxysporum (Coleman *et al.*, 2009), 139 segmental duplicated genes were identified. In contrast, in

F. verticillioides and *F. graminearum*, for which no accessory chromosomes have been described,

no segmental duplicated genes are found (Fig. **6c-e**), underscoring the link between accessory

chromosomes and segmental duplications in *Fusarium*. These duplications are possibly driven by

TE activity (Wicker *et al.*, 2010; Faino *et al.*, 2016), and we observe that segmental duplications in

TR4 strain II5 occur closer to transposable elements (median distance of 1734 kb, $p < 0.05$, two

sided Mann-Whitney U test) then other duplication types (dispersed 7721 bp, proximal 7503 bp,

tandem 5941 bp), suggesting that TE activity influences the segmental duplications.

The highest number of segmental duplicated genes (2,887) is observed in *Fol*4287,

carrying the largest accessory genome (19 Mb, 30% of the total genome size) (Fig. **6d**) and 2,366

(82%) of the segmental duplicated genes are in ARs. Interestingly, many segmental duplicated

genes are shared between accessory chromosomes 3 and 6 (Supplementary Fig. **7**), as previously

observed (Ma *et al.*, 2010), indicating that accessory chromosomes evolved by inter-chromosomal

segmental duplication that drive the expansion of ARs in *Fusarium*.

Duplications of AR genes significantly effect effector repertoires as 336 out of 669 predicted

effectors in II5 evolved via duplications, and nine effectors are part of segmental duplications.

Among the segmental duplicated effectors is *SIX1*, an effector that is essential for full virulence to

banana (Widinugraheni *et al.*, 2018). Three copies of *SIX1* (*SIX1a,b,c*) are present in the AR on

chromosome 1 of the TR4 strains M1, 36102 and II5. *SIX1a* and *SIX1b* are part of a segmentally

duplicated block (Fig. **6g**), whereas *SIX1c* is a proximal duplication that shares 82% amino acid

sequence identity with *SIX1a* and 73% sequence identity with *SIX1b*. In contrast, the R1 strain

CR1.1 contains only one copy of *SIX1*, resembling *SIX1c*, on accessory contig 12. The duplicated

blocks with *SIX1* are interspersed with non-duplicated genes (Fig. **6g**), indicating that over time

these blocks further diverged by gene gains and losses. Interestingly, the segmentally duplicated

SIX1 blocks also share similarity to a region on contig 12 (Fig. **6g**), yet no copy of *SIX1* is present,

and thus *SIX1* is either lost or has been gained on chromosome 1 after the segmental duplication

between chromosome 1 and contig 12 occurred. Segmental duplications therefore contribute to the

evolution of virulence factors such as *SIX1*, which is essential for successful banana infection

(Widinugraheni *et al.*, 2018).

To estimate the relative timing of the duplication events, we used the synonymous

substitution rate (dS) between duplicated gene pairs as a proxy of time. Dispersed duplicated genes

had the highest average dS value (3.08), suggesting that these are the most ancient duplicates,

while genes pairs that arose via segmental duplication evolved more recently, with a significantly

lower average dS value of 0.61 (Fig. **6f**). To assess if even more recent large-scale duplications

are present in our global panel, we determined the read depth of all isolates sequenced with short

reads against II5. Based on the genome-wide average read depth (~40x coverage), we determined

that contig 12 has been entirely duplicated (read depth of ~80x coverage), while a section (position

~64-116 kb; ~160x coverage) occurs four times (Fig. **6h**). This demonstrates that the II5 carries

two (nearly) identical copies of contig 12 (i.e., aneuploidy), in addition to the previously observed

segmental duplications (Fig. **6h**). No copy number variation of the accessory region of chromosome

1 is observed. The four partial copies of contig 12 possibly originate from an additional duplication,

it remains unclear if this duplicated stretch is attached to a chromosome, or if it possibly gave rise

to an additional smaller accessory chromosome. To resolve the origin of this duplicated region, we

mapped the long reads to the assembly. We observe many clipped reads in this region, which do

not entirely correspond to the contig 12 assembly, however the clipped regions do not align to

another chromosome. This suggests the region is not attached to another chromosomal arm,

leaving the possibility that the duplicated region could represent a duplicated chromosomal arm.

We didn't observe a threefold increase on contig 12, suggesting that the duplication happened

multiple times. Interestingly, aneuploidy of contig 12 can also be observed in three additional TR4

strains from the Middle East, but not in the other 26 TR4 strains (Fig. **6h**). Collectively, we

demonstrate that the evolutionary dynamics of ARs in *F. oxysporum* is driven by recent segmental

duplications and aneuploidy.

Figure 6. Segmental duplications are involved in the expansion of accessory regions in *F. oxysporum*. a) Four different types of duplications are distinguished. **b**) Segmental duplications (pink) occur mainly in the accessory regions in strain II5 (TR4). Sub-telomeric regions have more dispersed duplicated genes (blue) than the chromosomal arms. On average, the read coverage of II5 mapped onto the II5 reference genome is 40x, whereas contig 12 has a coverage between 80x and 160x, suggesting copy-number variations. **c**) The schematic tree depicts the relationship of *Fusarium* species with **d**) their genome sizes. **e**) Extensive segmental duplications are only found in *F. oxysporum* and *F. solani* and are virtually absent in *F. verticillioides* and *F. graminearum*. **f**) The age of duplications was estimated from the number of synonymous substitutions between duplicated gene pairs. Segmental duplications occurred most recently (kS = 0.119). kS distributions differ significantly between all duplication types (p <0.05, two sided Mann-Whitney U test). **g**) Genes encoding the virulence factor SIX1 (red) are part of a segmental duplication within chromosome 1. *SIX1a* and *SIX1b* are segmentally duplicated, and *SIX1c* is a proximal duplication sharing 82% amino acid sequence similarity to *SIX1a*. Light red blocks indicate segmental duplications, brown lines between the genes (blue arrows) highlight the genes involved in the segmental duplication. Not all genes in a block are part of the segmental duplication, for example a region on contig 12 is similar to the *SIX1* regions on chromosome 1, yet *SIX1* is absent on contig 12. **h)** Sequencing read coverage of strain II5 and three strains from the Middle East (JV11, ISR5, and JV14) show a two-fold increase relative to the genome-wide coverage. The other 26 strains do not show an increase in coverage, although smaller duplications are found throughout contig 12.

Discussion

Many fungal plant pathogens evolved compartmentalized genomes with conserved core regions and variable accessory regions (ARs) (Dong *et al.*, 2015; Torres *et al.*, 2020). Some members of the *Fusarium oxysporum* species complex are important plant pathogens and are well-known to have extensive ARs that can encompass entire chromosomes, which have been linked to pathogenicity towards specific hosts (Sánchez-Vallet *et al.*, 2018). Here we use a pan-genomic framework to study the occurrence, composition, and evolution of ARs in a global collection of banana infecting *Fusarium* species. Strains carry up to 15 Mb of ARs that contain *in planta* induced effector genes as well as most *SIX* effectors. ARs are highly divergent among strains and races, and consequently, we cannot identify shared ARs or accessory chromosomes that can be linked to pathogenicity towards banana. We furthermore demonstrate that *Fusarium* evolved by extensive duplications and that ARs specifically are shaped by recent segmental duplications in *F. oxysporum* and *F. solani*. Lastly, we uncover that an accessory contig in II5 underwent recent aneuploidy, suggesting that these processes drive the emergence and evolution of ARs in *F. oxysporum*.

Fusarium wilt of banana is a major threat to food security as banana is a major staple crop in tropical and subtropical regions (Drenth & Kema, 2021; van Westerhoven *et al.*, 2022b). Compared to R1 strains, which caused epidemics in Gros Michel bananas in the 1900s, TR4 strains emerged more recently (1967) and cause the ongoing FWB pandemic in Cavendish plantations (van Westerhoven *et al.*, 2022b). TR4 strains are genetically highly similar, corroborating that a single clone that circumvents Cavendish resistance drives the ongoing pandemic (Ordonez *et al.*, 2015; van Westerhoven *et al.*, 2022b). By contrast, R1 strains are genetically diverse, which is possibly due to prolonged co-evolution of R1 strains with a plethora of genetically diverse banana varieties in the center of origin in Southeast Asia (Perrier *et al.*, 2011). Extensive genetic diversity among *Fusarium* strains that infect the same host is not uncommon (Baayen *et al.*, 2000; van Dam *et al.*, 2016; Henry *et al.*, 2021; Fayyaz *et al.*, 2023), yet their ARs and effector profiles are typically remarkably similar (van Dam *et al.*, 2016; Fokkens *et al.*, 2018; Brenes Guallar *et al.*, 2022). We,

however, observe that the ARs and effector profile of R1 strains show extensive variation,

underscoring their diversity and possibly suggesting that different mechanisms contribute to

disease in banana (Henry *et al.*, 2021; Brenes Guallar *et al.*, 2022). *Fusarium* strains that infect

strawberry have two distinct ARs, one that contributes to yellowing and the other to wilting (Henry

et al., 2021). Quantitative differences in banana corm-discoloration have been noted between R1

strains (Garcia-Bastidas, 2019), and our results suggest that this might relate to differences in

effector profiles, yet further functional assays are needed to elucidate the link between specific

effectors and phenotypic variation.

We identify abundant and recent segmental duplications in *F. oxysporum* ARs, as well as

aneuploidy of contig 12 in TR4 strain II5. Previous studies have observed large-scale duplications

and deletions in the ARs of *F. oxysporum* during *in vitro* chromosome transfer (Vlaardingerbroek

et al., 2016; Li *et al.*, 2020), yet our results show that duplication of ARs also occur in *Fusarium*

strains sampled directly from infected banana plants. Although variations in chromosome number

typically comes with a fitness cost (Todd *et al.*, 2017), it can also provide genetic variation

necessary for adaptation, for example increasing virulence or fungicide resistance (Sionov *et al.*,

2010; Ropars *et al.*, 2018). We speculate that the observed large-scale duplications play a major

role in the origin and evolution of ARs in *Fusarium*. In the wheat pathogen *Zymoseptoria tritici*,

chromosomal duplication, together with breakage and fusion, shape the evolutionary dynamics of

accessory regions (Croll *et al.*, 2013; Möller *et al.*, 2018). Similar dynamics of chromosome

duplication, breakage, and fusion may underly the recent segmental duplications observed in

Fusarium. For example, the fusion of a (partially) duplicated contig 12 with the arm of chromosome

1 in strain II5 could explain the observed homology between the ARs. The process underlying these

chromosome dynamics remains unclear. *F. oxysporum* has long been considered to evolve strictly

asexually (Gordon & Martyn, 1997), however, the presence of an active sexual cycle in *F.*

oxysporum populations has recently been proposed (McTaggart *et al.*, 2022; Fayyaz *et al.*, 2023)

and we similarly observe reticulation between strains that caused FWB **(**Supplementary Fig. **8**),

which supports an evolutionary history in which ancient or infrequent sexual recombination is

followed by clonal expansion of selected lineages. In this scenario, incomplete chromosome pairing

and non-disjunction during meiosis might drive aneuploidy and ARs diversification (Fayyaz *et al.*,

2023). We show that ARs are similar within individual *Fusarium* lineages but are genetically distinct

when comparing strains from genetically distant lineages. Individual lineages accumulate genomic

changes over time, and this process might be sufficient to explain ARs diversity. If new *Fusarium*

lineages indeed arise from a meiotic cycle followed by clonal expansion, recombination, gain, or

loss of ARs during meiosis might further explain the diversity of ARs between lineages. Similarly,

the absence of meiotic recombination during subsequent clonal expansion would explain the

similarity of ARs within clonal lineages. However, we observe aneuploidy within individual clonal

lineages, for instance the duplication of contig 12 in some *Fusarium* strains, which demonstrates

that aneuploidy can occur independent of a meiotic cycle. Thus, chromosome dynamics in *F.*

oxysporum require further elucidation and, so far, the mechanisms leading to chromosomal

duplications are unclear; they might arise from non-disjunction during mitosis or meiosis (Fayyaz

et al., 2023), from incomplete chromosome loss following heterokaryon formation (Harrison *et al.*,

2014; Shahi *et al.*, 2016), or through consecutive horizontal chromosome transfers when strains

acquire the identical chromosome several times.

In contrast to the structural variation in the ARs, the core chromosomes in *Fusarium* are

remarkably stable. Although ARs are likely more tolerant to structural variation as they encode

fewer essential genes, additional processes can influence genome stability. First of all, the

accessory genome is enriched in transposable elements (Figure 2b) and the activity of these

elements can contribute to structural variation including gene duplications (Faino *et al.*, 2016;

Torres *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2022; Stalder *et al.*, 2022). Possibly the activity of transposable

elements in the accessory genomic regions gave rise to the observed segmental duplications, for

example, in plant genomes large-scale duplications can arise through double stranded break repair

upon TE-induced double stranded breaks (Wicker *et al.*, 2010; Wang *et al.*, 2022). For example,

the presence of histone modifications such as trimethylation of lysine 27 on histone 3 (H3K27me3),

a histone modification often enriched in ARs (Fokkens *et al.*, 2018; Möller *et al.*, 2019; Torres *et*

al., 2020) in fungal plant pathogens, has been linked to genome instability (Seidl *et al.*, 2016; Möller

et al., 2019). H3K27me3 also occurs in the ARs of *F. oxysporum* infecting tomato (*Fol*4287), but

can also be found in smaller core chromosomes ('fast-core' chromosomes, 9 – 11 (Fokkens *et al.*,

2018)) that do not seem to undergo segmental duplications or aneuploidy, and thus additional

factors likely influence chromosome stability in *F. oxysporum.*

Extensive duplications similarly occur in other plant pathogens (Dutheil *et al.*, 2016; Müller *et*

al., 2019; Wyka *et al.*, 2021; Wacker *et al.*, 2023), and are thought to be important drivers in co-

evolutionary arms races with their hosts. Understanding the evolution of ARs in *Fusarium* can

facilitate the discovery of new effector genes and provide insights into effector diversification.

Knowledge of effector profiles is crucial for designing effective disease control strategies and

supports the identification of durable resistances in crops (Vleeshouwers *et al.*, 2008).

Acknowledgments

ACW, GHJK, CAG, GNT, RS and JD were supported by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation,

grant number AG - 4425. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis,

decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. We thank the Research Support Group (RSG)

at KeyGene (Wageningen, The Netherlands), which provided DNA isolation, library preparation

and long-read sequencing for three of the strains. Banana research at Wageningen University has

been supported by the Dutch Dioraphte Foundation, grant number 20 04 04 02.

682 References

Armitage AD, Taylor A, Sobczyk MK, Baxter L, Greenfield BPJ, Bates HJ, Wilson F, Jackson AC,
Ott S, Harrison RJ, *et al.* 2018. Characterisation of pathogen-specific regions and novel effector
candidates in *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *cepae*. *Scientific Reports* **8**: 13530.

Armstrong J, Hickey G, Diekhans M, Fiddes IT, Novak AM, Deran A, Fang Q, Xie D, Feng S,
Stiller J, *et al.* 2020. Progressive cactus is a multiple-genome aligner for the thousand-genome
era. *Nature* **587**: 246–251.

Ayukawa Y, Asai S, Gan P, Tsushima A, Ichihashi Y, Shibata A, Komatsu K, Houterman PM, Rep
M, Shirasu K, *et al.* 2021. A pair of effectors encoded on a conditionally dispensable
chromosome of *Fusarium oxysporum* suppress host-specific immunity. *Communications Biology*
4: 1–12.

Baayen RP, O'Donnell K, Bonants PJM, Cigelnik E, Kroon LPNM, Roebroeck EJA, Waalwijk C.
2000. Gene genealogies and AFLP analyses in the *Fusarium oxysporum* complex identify
monophyletic and nonmonophyletic formae speciales causing wilt and rot disease.
Phytopathology® **90**: 891–900.

Bankevich A, Nurk S, Antipov D, Gurevich AA, Dvorkin M, Kulikov AS, Lesin VM, Nikolenko SI,
Pham S, Prjibelski AD, *et al.* 2012. SPAdes: a new genome assembly algorithm and its
applications to single-cell sequencing. *Journal of Computational Biology* **19**: 455–477.

Bray NL, Pimentel H, Melsted P, Pachter L. 2016. Near-optimal probabilistic RNA-seq
quantification. *Nature Biotechnology* **34**: 525–527.

Brenes Guallar MA, Fokkens L, Rep M, Berke L, van Dam P. 2022. *Fusarium oxysporum* effector
clustering version 2: an updated pipeline to infer host range. *Frontiers in Plant Science* **13**.

Chernomor O, von Haeseler A, Minh BQ. 2016. Terrace aware data structure for phylogenomic
inference from supermatrices. *Systematic Biology* **65**: 997–1008.

Coleman JJ, Rounsley SD, Rodriguez-Carres M, Kuo A, Wasmann CC, Grimwood J, Schmutz J,
Taga M, White GJ, Zhou S, *et al.* 2009. The genome of *Nectria haematococca*: contribution of
supernumerary chromosomes to gene expansion. *PLOS Genetics* **5**: e1000618.

Cook DE, Mesarich CH, Thomma BPHJ. **2015**. Understanding plant immunity as a surveillance
system to detect invasion. *Annual Review of Phytopathology* **53**: 541–563.

Coombe L, Li JX, Lo T, Wong J, Nikolic V, Warren RL, Birol I. **2021**. Longstitch: high-quality
genome assembly correction and scaffolding using long reads. *BMC Bioinformatics* **22**: 534.

Croll D, Zala M, McDonald BA. **2013**. Breakage-fusion-bridge cycles and large insertions
contribute to the rapid evolution of accessory chromosomes in a fungal pathogen. *PLOS*
Genetics **9**: e1003567.

Cuomo CA, Güldener U, Xu J-R, Trail F, Turgeon BG, Di Pietro A, Walton JD, Ma L-J, Baker SE,
Rep M, *et al.* 2007. The *Fusarium graminearum* genome reveals a link between localized
polymorphism and pathogen specialization. *Science* **317**: 1400–1402.

van Dam P, Fokkens L, Ayukawa Y, van der Gragt M, ter Horst A, Brankovics B, Houterman PM,
Arie T, Rep M. **2017**. A mobile pathogenicity chromosome in *Fusarium oxysporum* for infection
of multiple cucurbit species. *Scientific Reports* **7**: 9042.

van Dam P, Fokkens L, Schmidt SM, Linmans JHJ, Kistler HC, Ma L-J, Rep M. **2016**. Effector
profiles distinguish *formae speciales* of *Fusarium oxysporum*. *Environmental Microbiology* **18**:
4087–4102.

Derelle R, Philippe H, Colbourne JK. **2020**. Broccoli: Combining phylogenetic and network
analyses for orthology assignment. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **37**: 3389–3396.

Dong S, Raffaele S, Kamoun S. **2015**. The two-speed genomes of filamentous pathogens: waltz
with plants. *Current Opinion in Genetics & Development* **35**: 57–65.

Drenth A, Kema G. **2021**. The vulnerability of bananas to globally emerging disease threats.
Phytopathology® **111**: 2146–2161.

Dutheil JY, Mannhaupt G, Schweizer G, M K Sieber C, Münsterkötter M, Güldener U,
Schirawski J, Kahmann R. **2016**. A tale of genome compartmentalization: the evolution of
virulence clusters in smut fungi. *Genome Biology and Evolution* **8**: 681–704.

Edel-Hermann V, Lecomte C. **2019**. Current status of *Fusarium oxysporum* formae speciales and
races. *Phytopathology* **109**: 512–530.

Emms DM, Kelly S. **2019**. OrthoFinder: phylogenetic orthology inference for comparative
genomics. *Genome Biology* **20**: 1–14.

Faino L, Seidl MF, Shi-Kunne X, Pauper M, van den Berg GCM, Wittenberg AHJ, Thomma BPHJ.
2016. Transposons passively and actively contribute to evolution of the two-speed genome of a
fungal pathogen. *Genome Research* **26**: 1091–1100.

FAO. **2020**. *Fruit and vegetables – your dietary essentials: the international year of fruits and*
vegetables, 2021, background paper. Rome, Italy: FAO.

Fayyaz A, Robinson G, Chang PL, Bekele D, Yimer S, Carrasquilla-Garcia N, Negash K,
Surendrarao A, von Wettberg EJB, Kemal S-A, *et al.* **2023**. Hiding in plain sight: genome-wide
recombination and a dynamic accessory genome drive diversity in *Fusarium oxysporum* f.sp.
ciceris. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **120**: e2220570120.

Fiddes IT, Armstrong J, Diekhans M, Nachtweide S, Kronenberg ZN, Underwood JG, Gordon D,
Earl D, Keane T, Eichler EE, *et al.* **2018**. Comparative Annotation Toolkit (CAT)—simultaneous
clade and personal genome annotation. *Genome Research* **28**: 1029–1038.

Fokkens L, Shahi S, Connolly LR, Stam R, Schmidt SM, Smith KM, Freitag M, Rep M. **2018**. The
multi-speed genome of *Fusarium oxysporum* reveals association of histone modifications with
sequence divergence and footprints of past horizontal chromosome transfer events. : 465070.

Galagan JE, Selker EU. **2004**. RIP: the evolutionary cost of genome defense. *Trends in Genetics*
20: 417–423.

Garcia-Bastidas F. **2019**. Panama Disease in Banana: Spread, Screens and Genes.

García-Bastidas FA, Ordóñez N, Konkol J, Al-Qasim M, Naser Z, Abdelwali M, Salem N,
Waalwijk C, Ploetz RC, Kema GHJ. **2014**. First report of *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *cubense*
tropical race 4 associated with panama disease of banana outside Southeast Asia. *Plant Disease*
98: 694–694.

Garcia-Bastidas F, Quintero-Vargas JC, Ayala-Vasquez M, Schermer T, Seidl MF, Santos-Paiva
M, Noguera AM, Aguilera-Galvez C, Wittenberg A, Hofstede R, *et al.* **2020**. First report of
Fusarium wilt tropical race 4 in Cavendish bananas caused by *Fusarium odoratissimum* in
Colombia. *Plant Disease* **104**: 994–994.

Gordon TR, Martyn RD. **1997**. The evolutionary biology of *Fusarium oxysporum*. *Annual Review*
of Phytopathology **35**: 111–128.

Gu Z, Gu L, Eils R, Schlesner M, Brors B. **2014**. Circlize implements and enhances circular
visualization in R. *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)* **30**: 2811–2812.

Guo L, Han L, Yang L, Zeng H, Fan D, Zhu Y, Feng Y, Wang G, Peng C, Jiang X, *et al.* **2014**.
Genome and transcriptome analysis of the fungal pathogen *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *cubense*
causing banana vascular wilt disease. *PLOS ONE* **9**: e95543.

Gurevich A, Saveliev V, Vyahhi N, Tesler G. **2013**. QUAST: quality assessment tool for genome
assemblies. *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)* **29**: 1072–1075.

Harrison BD, Hashemi J, Bibi M, Pulver R, Bavli D, Nahmias Y, Wellington M, Sapiro G, Berman
J. **2014**. A tetraploid intermediate precedes aneuploid formation in yeasts exposed to
fluconazole. *PLOS Biology* **12**: e1001815.

Henry PM, Pincot DDA, Jenner BN, Borrero C, Aviles M, Nam M-H, Epstein L, Knapp SJ, Gordon
TR. **2021**. Horizontal chromosome transfer and independent evolution drive diversification in
Fusarium oxysporum f. sp. *fragariae*. *New Phytologist* **230**: 327–340.

Hickey G, Monlong J, Ebler J, Novak AM, Eizenga JM, Gao Y, Marschall T, Li H, Paten B. **2023**.
Pangenome graph construction from genome alignments with Minigraph-Cactus. *Nature*
Biotechnology: 1–11.

Katoh K, Misawa K, Kuma K, Miyata T. **2002**. Mafft: a novel method for rapid multiple sequence
alignment based on Fast Fourier transform. *Nucleic Acids Research* **30**: 3059–3066.

Kistler HC, Benny U, Boehm EW, Katan T. **1995**. Genetic duplication in *Fusarium oxysporum*.
Current Genetics **28**: 173–176.

Koren S, Walenz BP, Berlin K, Miller JR, Bergman NH, Phillippy AM. **2017**. Canu: Scalable and
accurate long-read assembly via adaptive k-mer weighting and repeat separation. *Genome*
Research **27**: 722–736.

Kurtz S, Phillippy A, Delcher AL, Smoot M, Shumway M, Antonescu C, Salzberg SL. **2004**.
Versatile and open software for comparing large genomes. *Genome Biology* **5**: 1–9.

Latorre SM, Were VM, Foster AJ, Langner T, Malmgren A, Harant A, Asuke S, Reyes-Avila S,
Gupta DR, Jensen C, *et al.* 2023. Genomic surveillance uncovers a pandemic clonal lineage of
the wheat blast fungus. *PLOS Biology* **21**: e3002052.

Li H. **2013**. Aligning sequence reads, clone sequences and assembly contigs with BWA-mem.

Li J, Fokkens L, Conneely LJ, Rep M. **2020**. Partial pathogenicity chromosomes in *Fusarium*
oxysporum are sufficient to cause disease and can be horizontally transferred. *Environmental*
Microbiology **22**: 4985–5004.

Lindenbaum P. **2015**. JVarkit: Java-based utilities for bioinformatics.

Ma L-J, van der Does HC, Borkovich KA, Coleman JJ, Daboussi M-J, Di Pietro A, Dufresne M,
Freitag M, Grabherr M, Henrissat B, *et al.* 2010. Comparative genomics reveals mobile
pathogenicity chromosomes in Fusarium. *Nature* **464**: 367–373.

Maryani N, Lombard L, Poerba YS, Subandiyah S, Crous PW, Kema GHJ. **2019**. Phylogeny and
genetic diversity of the banana fusarium wilt pathogen *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *cubense* in the
Indonesian centre of origin. *Studies in Mycology* **92**: 155–194.

Maymon M, Sela N, Shpatz U, Galpaz N, Freeman S. **2020**. The origin and current situation of
Fusarium oxysporum f. sp.*cubense* tropical race 4 in Israel and the Middle East. *Scientific Reports*
10: 1590.

McTaggart AR, James TY, Idnurm A, Park RF, Shuey LS, Demers MNK, Aime MC. **2022**. Sexual
reproduction is the null hypothesis for life cycles of rust fungi. *PLOS Pathogens* **18**: e1010439.

Mesny F, Miyauchi S, Thiergart T, Pickel B, Atanasova L, Karlsson M, Hüttel B, Barry KW,
Haridas S, Chen C, *et al.* 2021. Genetic determinants of endophytism in the Arabidopsis root
mycobiome. *Nature Communications* **12**: 7227.

Möller M, Habig M, Freitag M, Stukenbrock EH. **2018**. Extraordinary genome instability and
widespread chromosome rearrangements during vegetative growth. *Genetics* **210**: 517–529.

Möller M, Schotanus K, Soyer JL, Haueisen J, Happ K, Stralucke M, Happel P, Smith KM,
Connolly LR, Freitag M, *et al.* 2019. Destabilization of chromosome structure by histone H3
Lysine 27 methylation. *PLOS Genetics* **15**: e1008093.

Möller M, Stukenbrock EH. **2017**. Evolution and genome architecture in fungal plant pathogens.
Nature Reviews Microbiology **15**: 756–771.

Müller MC, Praz CR, Sotiropoulos AG, Menardo F, Kunz L, Schudel S, Oberhänsli S, Poretti M,
Wehrli A, Bourras S, *et al.* 2019. A chromosome-scale genome assembly reveals a highly
dynamic effector repertoire of wheat powdery mildew. *New Phytologist* **221**: 2176–2189.

O'Donnell K, Kistler HC, Cigelnik E, Ploetz RC. **1998**. Multiple evolutionary origins of the fungus
causing panama disease of banana: concordant evidence from nuclear and mitochondrial gene
genealogies. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **95**: 2044–2049.

Ordonez N, Seidl MF, Waalwijk C, Drenth A, Kilian A, Thomma BPHJ, Ploetz RC, Kema GHJ.
2015. Worse comes to worst: bananas and panama disease—when plant and pathogen clones
meet. *PLOS Pathogens* **11**: e1005197.

Palmer J, Stajich J. **2019**. nextgenusfs/funannotate: funannotate v1.5.3.

Perrier X, De Langhe E, Donohue M, Lentfer C, Vrydaghs L, Bakry F, Carreel F, Hippolyte I,
Horry J-P, Jenny C, *et al.* 2011. Multidisciplinary perspectives on banana (Musa spp.)
domestication. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **108**: 11311–11318.

Ploetz RC. **2006**. Fusarium Wilt of Banana Is Caused by Several Pathogens Referred to as
Fusarium oxysporum f. sp. cubense. *Phytopathology®* **96**: 653–656.

Ploetz RC. **2015**. Management of Fusarium wilt of banana: a review with special reference to
tropical race 4. *Crop Protection* **73**: 7–15.

Raffaele S, Kamoun S. **2012**. Genome evolution in filamentous plant pathogens: why bigger can
be better. *Nature Reviews Microbiology* **10**: 417–430.

Rep M, Dekker HL, Vossen JH, de Boer AD, Houterman PM, Speijer D, Back JW, de Koster CG,
Cornelissen BJC. **2002**. Mass spectrometric identification of isoforms of PR proteins in xylem sap
of fungus-infected tomato. *Plant Physiology* **130**: 904–917.

Ropars J, Maufrais C, Diogo D, Marcet-Houben M, Perin A, Sertour N, Mosca K, Permal E, Laval
G, Bouchier C, *et al.* 2018. Gene flow contributes to diversification of the major fungal pathogen
Candida albicans. *Nature Communications* **9**: 2253.

Rovenich H, Boshoven JC, Thomma BPHJ. **2014**. Filamentous pathogen effector functions: of
pathogens, hosts and microbiomes. *Current Opinion in Plant Biology* **20**: 96–103.

Sánchez-Vallet A, Fouché S, Fudal I, Hartmann FE, Soyer JL, Tellier A, Croll D. **2018**. The genome
biology of effector gene evolution in filamentous plant pathogens. *Annual Review of*
Phytopathology **56**: 21–40.

Seidl MF, Cook DE, Thomma BPHJ. **2016**. Chromatin biology impacts adaptive evolution of
filamentous plant pathogens. *PLOS Pathogens* **12**: e1005920.

Seidl MF, Thomma BPHJ. **2017**. Transposable elements direct the coevolution between plants
and microbes. *Trends in genetics: TIG* **33**: 842–851.

Shahi S, Beerens B, Bosch M, Linmans J, Rep M. **2016**. Nuclear dynamics and genetic
rearrangement in heterokaryotic colonies of *Fusarium oxysporum*. *Fungal genetics and biology:*
FG & B **91**: 20–31.

Simão FA, Waterhouse RM, Ioannidis P, Kriventseva EV, Zdobnov EM. **2015**. BUSCO: Assessing
genome assembly and annotation completeness with single-copy orthologs. *Bioinformatics* **31**:
3210–3212.

Sionov E, Lee H, Chang YC, Kwon-Chung KJ. **2010**. *Cryptococcus neoformans* overcomes stress of
azole drugs by formation of disomy in specific multiple chromosomes. *PLOS Pathogens* **6**:
e1000848.

Stalder L, Oggenfuss U, Mohd-Assaad N, Croll D. **2022**. The population genetics of adaptation
through copy number variation in a fungal plant pathogen. *Molecular Ecology* **n/a**.

Stanke M, Morgenstern B. **2005**. AUGUSTUS: A web server for gene prediction in eukaryotes
that allows user-defined constraints. *Nucleic Acids Research* **33**: W465–W467.

Suyama M, Torrents D, Bork P. **2006**. Pal2nal: robust conversion of protein sequence
alignments into the corresponding codon alignments. *Nucleic Acids Research* **34**: W609-612.

Todd RT, Forche A, Selmecki A. **2017**. Ploidy variation in fungi: polyploidy, aneuploidy, and
genome evolution. *Microbiology Spectrum* **5**: 5.4.09.

Torres DE, Oggenfuss U, Croll D, Seidl MF. **2020**. Genome evolution in fungal plant pathogens:
looking beyond the two-speed genome model. *Fungal Biology Reviews* **34**: 136–143.

Torres DE, Thomma BPHJ, Seidl MF. **2021**. Transposable Elements Contribute to Genome
Dynamics and Gene Expression Variation in the Fungal Plant Pathogen Verticillium dahliae.
Genome Biology and Evolution **13**: evab135.

Van der Auwera GA, Carneiro MO, Hartl C, Poplin R, del Angel G, Levy-Moonshine A, Jordan T,
Shakir K, Roazen D, Thibault J, *et al.* **2013**. From fastQ data to high-confidence variant calls: the
genome analysis toolkit best practices pipeline. *Current Protocols in Bioinformatics* **43**: 11.10.1-
11.10.33.

Vaser R, Sović I, Nagarajan N, Šikić M. **2017**. Fast and accurate de novo genome assembly from
long uncorrected reads. *Genome Research* **27**: 737–746.

Virtanen P, Gommers R, Oliphant TE, Haberland M, Reddy T, Cournapeau D, Burovski E,
Peterson P, Weckesser W, Bright J, *et al.* **2020**. Scipy 1.0: fundamental algorithms for scientific
computing in Python. *Nature Methods* **17**: 261–272.

Vlaardingerbroek I, Beerens B, Schmidt SM, Cornelissen BJC, Rep M. **2016**. Dispensable
chromosomes in *Fusarium oxysporum* f. sp. *lycopersici*. *Molecular Plant Pathology* **17**: 1455–
1466.

Vleeshouwers VGAA, Rietman H, Krenek P, Champouret N, Young C, Oh S-K, Wang M,
Bouwmeester K, Vosman B, Visser RGF, *et al.* **2008**. Effector genomics accelerates discovery
and functional profiling of potato disease resistance and *Phytophthora infestans* avirulence
genes. *PLOS ONE* **3**: e2875.

Wacker T, Helmstetter N, Wilson D, Fisher MC, Studholme DJ, Farrer RA. **2023**. Two-speed
genome evolution drives pathogenicity in fungal pathogens of animals. *Proceedings of the*
National Academy of Sciences **120**: e2212633120.

Walker BJ, Abeel T, Shea T, Priest M, Abouelliel A, Sakthikumar S, Cuomo CA, Zeng Q,
Wortman J, Young SK, *et al.* **2014**. Pilon: an integrated tool for comprehensive microbial variant
detection and genome assembly improvement. *PLOS ONE* **9**: e112963.

Wang Y, Tang H, DeBarry JD, Tan X, Li J, Wang X, Lee T, Jin H, Marler B, Guo H, *et al.* **2012**.
MCscanX: a toolkit for detection and evolutionary analysis of gene synteny and collinearity.
Nucleic Acids Research **40**: e49.

Wang X, Yan X, Hu Y, Qin L, Wang D, Jia J, Jiao Y. **2022**. A recent burst of gene duplications in
Triticeae. *Plant Communications* **3**: 100268.

Warmington RJ, Kay W, Jeffries A, O'Neill P, Farbos A, Moore K, Bebber DP, Studholme DJ.
2019. High-quality draft genome sequence of the causal agent of the current panama disease
epidemic. *Microbiology Resource Announcements* **8**: e00904-19.

van Westerhoven AC, Meijer H, Houdijk J, Martínez de la Parte E, Matabuana EL, Seidl M,
Kema GHJ. **2022a**. Dissemination of Fusarium wilt of banana in Mozambique caused by
Fusarium odoratissimum tropical race 4. *Plant Disease*.

van Westerhoven AC van, Meijer HJG, Seidl MF, Kema GHJ. **2022b**. Uncontained spread of
Fusarium wilt of banana threatens African food security. *PLOS Pathogens* **18**: e1010769.

Wicker T, Buchmann JP, Keller B. **2010**. Patching gaps in plant genomes results in gene
movement and erosion of colinearity. *Genome Research* **20**: 1229–1237.

Widinugraheni S, Niño-Sánchez J, Does HC van der, Dam P van, García-Bastidas FA,
Subandiyah S, Meijer HJG, Kistler HC, Kema GHJ, Rep M. **2018**. A SIX1 homolog in *Fusarium*

oxysporum f.sp. *cubense* tropical race 4 contributes to virulence towards Cavendish banana.
PLOS ONE **13**: e0205896.

Wolf YI, Novichkov PS, Karev GP, Koonin EV, Lipman DJ. **2009**. The universal distribution of
evolutionary rates of genes and distinct characteristics of eukaryotic genes of different apparent
ages. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **106**: 7273–7280.

Wyka SA, Mondo SJ, Liu M, Dettman J, Nalam V, Broders KD. **2021**. 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. *Genome Biology and Evolution* **13**: evaa267.

Yang Z. **2007**. PAML4: phylogenetic analysis by maximum likelihood. *Molecular Biology and*
Evolution **24**: 1586–1591.

Zhang Y, Yang H, Turra D, Zhou S, Ayhan DH, DeIulio GA, Guo L, Broz K, Wiederhold N,
Coleman JJ, *et al.* 2020. The genome of opportunistic fungal pathogen *Fusarium oxysporum*
carries a unique set of lineage-specific chromosomes. *Communications Biology* **3**: 1–12.

Zheng S-J, García-Bastidas FA, Li X, Zeng L, Bai T, Xu S, Yin K, Li H, Fu G, Yu Y, *et al.* 2018. New
geographical insights of the latest expansion of *Fusarium oxysporum* f.sp. *cubense* tropical race 4
into the greater Mekong subregion. *Frontiers in Plant Science* **9**.

Figure 1. *Fusarium* strains infecting banana are genetically diverse. a) *Fusarium* strains that infect banana are polyphyletic (yellow labels). The relationship between *Fusarium* infecting banana and *Fusarium* strains that infect other plant hosts (see label color) is estimated using maximum-likelihood phylogenetic analysis based on 3,811 concatenated conserved single-copy BUSCO genes. Black outline indicates high quality genome assemblies. **b)** Genome sizes of *Fusarium* strains range between 43 to 61 Mb. **c)** The sizes of accessory regions in *Fusarium* strains range from 6.7 to 16.5 Mb. **d)** TR4 strains (purple squares) occur in clade 1 and are genetically similar, as well as the two R2 strains (green). By contrast, the R1 strains (blue squares) are polyphyletic. **e**) *Fusarium* strains that infect banana encode between 15,664 and 17,865 genes and **f**) between 2.9 and 8.9% repeats. **g)** The collection of 69 *Fusarium* strains originates from different banana growing regions worldwide; the approximate origin of isolation is indicated by dots, colored according to the race designation (R1, R2, STR4, and TR4). Strains sequenced by long-read sequencing technology are highlighted in black.

Figure 2. *Fusarium* strains infecting banana carry accessory regions (ARs). a) The TR4 reference strain II5 contains eleven core chromosomes (chromosome 1-11) as well as two ARs (1,8 Mb on chromosome 1 and entire contig 12). Core chromosomes align to *Fol*4287 in contrast to the ARs that are highlighted in orange. b) The ARs (orange) in II5 carry most *S*ecreted *I*n *X*ylem (*SIX*) genes and show an increased repeat and lower gene content. A similar pattern is found in the sub-telomeric regions (green, first and last 10% of the chromosome). c) Principal component analysis on gene-, repeat-, GC-content, and coverage of 69 Fusarium strains separates the genomic regions of II5 into three different clusters. ARs (orange and green) are separated from the core region (grey) and further separated into those ARs localized in sub-telomeric regions (green) and those on chromosome 1 and contig 12 (orange).

Figure 3. Accessory regions in *Fusarium* strains infecting banana differ significantly. a)
Accessory contig 12 of the TR4 reference strain II5 is shared with TR4 strain M1, however this
contig shows little similarity to R1 strain CR1.1. Lines (red and blue) indicate aligned regions
between strains. Small alignments are present between R1 and TR4 (blue lines), however these
are rearranged and often involve repetitive sequences (yellow blocks). **b**) R1 strains (39 strains,
highlighted in blue) have a diverse accessory content sharing on average only 20% of the ARs,
whereas TR4 strains (28, highlighted in purple) share most of their ARs (91%). Phylogenetically
related strains, here indicated by their species name (Maryani *et al.*, 2019), share more ARs than
distantly related strains.

Figure 4. Evolutionary dynamics of genes in the different genomic compartments in
***Fusarium* strains infecting banana. a)** Global collection of *Fusarium* infecting banana has a pan-
genome size of 20,091 orthologous groups (OG, 22,612 when unique genes are included), of which
12,101 are present in all strains (grey). The pan-genome is saturated after adding 40 genomes.
The order of genomes was randomly sampled ten times, dots show the average pangenome size
and the vertical grey lines indicate the standard deviation. **b**) Accessory genes are upregulated *in
planta* at 8 days post inoculation of banana plants. Average log2fold change of accessory genes
(2,416 in II5) and effector genes (629 in II5) shows these genes are typically upregulated upon
plant infection, which contrasts the core (11,740 genes, $\log_2$-fold change = 0.252) and BUSCO
genes (4,364 genes, $\log_2$-fold change = -0.167). The median log2fold change of all gene categories
is significantly different (p<0.05, two sided Mann-Whitney U test). **c**) Sequence conservation
estimated by dN/dS values. BUSCO gene families (4,443 OGs) and core gene families are most
conserved, whereas the accessory genes evolve under more relaxed selective pressure. All gene
categories show significant variation in dN/dS value (p<0.05, Mann-Whitney U test). **d)** Distribution
of protein length separated by different gene categories shows that accessory gene families (5,595
OGs, pink) are shorter (median length of 315 aa per OG) than core gene families (median length
469 aa per OG, 12,101 OGs, grey). All gene categories differed significantly from each other
(p<0.05, Mann-Whitney U test). **e**) ARs in II5 (orange, contig 12 and chromosome 1A) consist
mostly of accessory genes (pink, 405 out of 463, 87%) and 28% of these genes are part of
expanded orthogroups (129 out of 463). Accessory genes can also be found in core chromosomes.
f) Gene content is variable between R1 strains, and only 20% of the genes are present in 80-90%
of the R1 strains. Most genes (60%) in TR4 are present in all TR4 strains (90-100%). **g)** Gene
families in TR4 strain II5 differ to which extend they have homologs in 308 fungal phyla; most genes
are present in related *Fusarium* strains, but only a few gene families (853) are conserved among
all considered fungi. **h**) Accessory regions contain most recent genes, present in *Fusarium* (51)
and Hypocreales (160). Genes in core regions are evolutionarily older with more genes that have
homologs in 'all fungi' (7,764 out of 11,740 genes).

Figure 5. Predicted effector profile clusters *Fusarium* strains infecting the same host.
Fusarium strains infecting banana (yellow) are separated from *Fusaria* infecting other hosts. In the
set of 124 *Fusarium* isolates, 398 MIMP-associated effector families are predicted. The R1 strains
(blue) have diverse effector profiles and do not cluster together, whereas the effector profiles of
TR4 strains (purple) are highly similar. Nine SIX effectors (blue) are identified in the 398 MIMP-
associated effector families and are present in *Fusarium* strains infecting tomato, from which they
are originally identified, as well as in other Fusarium genomes.

1005

Figure 6. Segmental duplications are involved in the expansion of accessory regions in *F. oxysporum*. a) Four different types of duplications are distinguished. **b**) Segmental duplications (pink) occur mainly in the accessory regions in strain II5 (TR4). Sub-telomeric regions have more dispersed duplicated genes (blue) than the chromosomal arms. On average, the read coverage of II5 mapped onto the II5 reference genome is 40x, whereas contig 12 has a coverage between 80x and 160x, suggesting copy-number variations. **c**) The schematic tree depicts the relationship of *Fusarium* species with **d**) their genome sizes. **e**) Extensive segmental duplications are only found in *F. oxysporum* and *F. solani* and are virtually absent in *F. verticillioides* and *F. graminearum*. **f**) The age of duplications was estimated from the number of synonymous substitutions between duplicated gene pairs. Segmental duplications occurred most recently (kS = 0.119). kS distributions differ significantly between all duplication types (p <0.05, two sided Mann-Whitney U test). **g**) Genes encoding the virulence factor SIX1 (red) are part of a segmental duplication within chromosome 1. *SIX1a* and *SIX1b* are segmentally duplicated, and *SIX1c* is a proximal duplication sharing 82% amino acid sequence similarity to *SIX1a*. Light red blocks indicate segmental duplications, brown lines between the genes (blue arrows) highlight the genes involved in the segmental duplication. Not all genes in a block are part of the segmental duplication, for example a region on contig 12 is similar to the *SIX1* regions on chromosome 1, yet *SIX1* is absent on contig 12. **h)** Sequencing read coverage of strain II5 and three strains from the Middle East (JV11, ISR5, and JV14) show a two-fold increase relative to the genome-wide coverage. The other 26 strains do not show an increase in coverage, although smaller duplications are found throughout contig 12.