Comparative pan-genomics reveals extensive variation in secondary metabolism and the non-coding repertoire of clinically-relevant *Fusarium solani* species complex members

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Abstract

The *Fusarium solani* species complex (FSSC) is a group of dual-kingdom fungal pathogens capable of causing devastating disease on a wide range of host plants and life-threatening infections in humans that are difficult to treat. In this study, we generate highly contiguous genomes for three clinical isolates of *Fusarium keratoplasticum* and three clinical isolates of *Fusarium petroliphilum* and compare them with other genomes of the FSSC from plant and animal sources. We find that human pathogenicity is polyphyletic within the FSSC, including within *F. keratoplasticum*. Pan-genome analysis revealed extensive gene presence-absence in the complex, with only 41% of genes (11,079/27,068) found in all samples and the presence of accessory chromosomes encoding isolate- and species-specific genes. Definition of long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) in *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum* demonstrated that they show a similarly high degree of presence-absence variation but are integrated into the transcriptional network to a similar degree as protein-coding genes, suggesting broad and extensive cellular roles. Elucidation of secondary metabolic potential identified many actively transcribed biosynthetic gene clusters with unknown products and identified several lncRNAs as putative regulators of specific metabolite clusters. Finally, examination of the FSSC for *Starship* gigantic mobile genetic elements revealed that *F. keratoplasticum* had the largest number with a median of four elements per genome and an overall pattern of Starships in the FSSC that were incongruent with the phylogeny, suggesting multiple horizontal transfer events. This study provides valuable insights into the evolutionary dynamics and genomic architecture of the FSSC, with implications for understanding multi-kingdom virulence, something of increasing relevance as climate change potentially increases the number of fungal species that can grow at human temperatures.

Introduction

The genus *Fusarium* encompasses a highly diverse range of filamentous fungal species, including environmental saprobes, plant pathogens, and organisms capable of causing disease in animals and humans. Well established as plant pathogens, *Fusarium* spp. are causal agents for devastating worldwide food supply disruptions, causing significant losses in global yields of wheat, maize, rice, potato, and soybean, with outbreaks of *Fusarium* head blight causing over 50% wheat losses in China, Europe, and the Americas (1–5). Yet beyond this, *Fusarium* spp. are largely unique among fungi in that they are multi-kingdom pathogens capable of also infecting higher eukaryotes (6–8). In this capacity, *Fusarium* spp. play a role in the decline of threatened animal

species (9–11), and are the causative agents with rising numbers of highly lethal human fusariosis

infections (12). In 2022, the World Health Organization identified the genus as one of the highest

priority human fungal pathogens, and with the most urgent need for additional study based on

current knowledge gaps (13). These include lack of diagnostic options, limited epidemiological

data, and intrinsic antifungal resistance, which cumulatively contribute to a high mortality rate of

40-70% (13–17).

Previous studies have highlighted the exceptional range of genomic diversity and plasticity among

Fusarium spp. Even within a single species, the genome structure is highly flexible and strains

often possess accessory chromosomes that are variably conserved and, importantly, confer the

ability to infect specific plant species (18). These accessory chromosomes can even be

horizontally transferred, resulting in a corresponding transfer of host plant specificity (19, 20).

Despite the large number of species in the genus, the majority (reportedly up to 80-90%) of human

infections are due to only two species groups: the *Fusarium oxysporum* species complex and the

Fusarium solani species complex (8, 21–24).

The *Fusarium solani* species complex (FSSC) comprises globally ubiquitous problematic

agricultural pathogens and is the most frequent cause of human fusariosis (8, 21, 24–26). Among

the human pathologies it causes, it is particularly problematic in causing corneal infection and

disseminated disease. More recently, it has been linked to two outbreaks of meningitis in

immunocompetent patients in Mexico due to contaminated anesthetic solutions (27, 28). In the

plant kingdom, the FSSC exhibits a broad host range and is capable of causing root rot in multiple

agriculturally important crops, including peas, cucurbits, and sweet potato (29–32). Even within

individual species of the complex, there is a broad range of habitats and hosts. For example,

F. keratoplasticum has been found in diverse habitats ranging from plumbing systems, strawberry

roots, Chinese softshell turtle eggs, to human nails, eyes, and endocardium (8, 11, 23, 33–35).

This is also likely a non-exhaustive list, as many studies classify isolates as *forma specialis* (*f. sp.*).

based on the host plant, rather than identifying the exact FSSC species member. The diversity of

habitats and pathologies caused by the FSSC in both plants and animals is accompanied by a

correspondingly high level of genomic diversity, including the presence of core and accessory

chromosomes (11). However, the genomes of FSSC members remain understudied compared to

other *Fusarium* groups like the *Fusarium oxysporum* or *graminearum* species complexes.

Moreover, despite its relevance for human health, no FSSC isolates from human infections have

been sequenced to date.

To address this, we defined the pan-genomic diversity of six FSSC member species, focusing on
F. keratoplasticum and *F. petroliphilum*, two of the most prominent FSSC species in human
keratitis (8, 36). We generated near-chromosomal genomes for the first clinical isolates of
F. keratoplasticum and provide the first genomes to date for *F. petroliphilum*. We integrate these
six clinical genomes with six previously sequenced, nearly gapless, genomes from plant and
animal isolates of the FSSC (11) to study the genomic diversity of the complex. Through the
definition of *Starship* mobile genetic elements and prediction of long non-coding RNAs, we
uncover dramatic diversity in the FSSC and generate an important foundation for future work
unravelling the dual-kingdom fungal virulence of the species complex.

97 Results

Genome sequencing of novel clinical *Fusarium solani* species complex isolates and
description of the study dataset
In this study we used PacBio long read sequencing combined with Illumina short read sequencing
to assemble the genomes of six novel FSSC isolates that were collected from keratitis cases by
the German National Reference Center for Invasive Fungal Infections (n=3 *F. keratoplasticum*
and n=3 *F. petroliphilum*). To facilitate more in-depth comparisons within the species complex,
and to include isolates of environmental and animal origin, six additional FSSC isolates with
similarly contiguous genomes were incorporated into the study dataset (11). The published
samples included isolates of *F. falciforme*, *F. keratoplasticum, F. solani* FSSC12, *F. vanettenii*,
and originated from plant (pea plant and orchid flower) and marine animal (including hawksbill
sea turtle, roughtail stingray, and harbor seal) sources (Table 1). The final assemblies of the novel
and published assemblies were highly contiguous, with an average of 58 scaffolds (range 14 to
143) and an average N50 of 3.8 Mb ± 0.4 (Table 1). The FSSC genomes analyzed in this study
ranged in size from 48.0 Mb for one of the newly sequenced *F. keratoplasticum* isolates to 72.9
Mb for *F. vanettenii* Fs6 and encoded between 14,050 and 16,755 protein coding genes.
Parallelling the range of genome sizes, a similar pattern was observed for the fraction of the
genome consisting of repetitive regions, including transposable elements, which varied from 5%
for *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2015-035 to 14% for *F. vanettenii* Fs6. Using BUSCO as a measure
of genome completeness, we found that all genomes were highly complete, recovering on
average >98.5% of the expected single copy orthologs. Despite originating from different studies,
there were no significant differences in key genome quality metrics such as N50, the number of

protein coding genes, or BUSCO completeness between the isolates sequenced in this study and

the public assemblies (p>0.05 by Mann-Whitney U test).

Human and plant association is polyphyletic in the FSSC.

To determine the phylogenetic relationship of the newly sequenced clinical isolates within the

genus *Fusarium* and the FSSC complex, we constructed a whole genome phylogeny from amino

acid sequence of conserved single copy orthologs. As expected, the new isolates of

F. keratoplasticum and *F. petroliphilum* were located within clade 3 of the FSSC in the phylogeny

(Figure 1). The *F. petroliphilum* isolates formed a monophyletic group, with *Fusarium* FSSC12

being the closest relative in the dataset. The *F. keratoplasticum* isolates belonged to a separate

monophyletic group containing *F. solani sensu stricto*, *F. falciforme*, and the two other

F. keratoplasticum isolates in the dataset. Interestingly, the clinical *F. keratoplasticum* isolates

from Germany did not segregate from the marine host-associated isolates from east Asia,

indicating a lack of geographic population structure or host specificity in the species. This overall

pattern was observed in the entire complex, with virulence in both plant and human hosts being

polyphyletic in the FSSC.

41% of genes are common to all FSSC isolates, while pan-gene conservation is higher in

individual   species.

We next sought to quantify the genomic diversity of the FSSC by characterizing its pan-genome

and delineating the genes common to all genomes analyzed (core genome) and those which

show presence-absence variation within the species complex (accessory genome). Of the 27,068

orthologous genes identified across the 12 isolates and 6 species, only 41% (n=11,079) were

core, or present in all isolates (Figure 2a, b). The FSSC pan-genome exhibited a long tail

distribution, where 6% of the pan-genome (n=1,666) was present in all but one sample and 7%

(n=1,946) of the accessory genome was isolate-specific (7%; n=1,946) (Figure 2b). Despite the

low fraction of core genes, Heaps' law indicates that the FSSC pan-genome is closed (alpha =

1.57, where alpha values > 1 indicate a closed pan-genome) and the number of pan-genes begins

to plateau with the analysis of six genomes (Figure 2c). Protein sequences of core genes were

significantly longer than those of accessory genes, averaging 505 amino acids compared to 377

for the latter (Wilcoxon p < 0.0001). Within the scope of single species, the fraction of core genes

was notably higher. For *F. keratoplasticum,* 75% of pan-genes were core, or in all 5 isolates

(13,275/17,617), while 88% of pan-genes were core in *F. petroliphilum* (14,067/15,923 pan-

genes; n=3 isolates) (Figure 2d, e).

Diverging patterns in sequence conservation and repetitive elements between core and accessory chromosomes

In addition to also possessing a high degree of gene presence-absence variation, some of the accessory gene content of the *F. oxysporum* species complex is known to be encoded on discrete accessory chromosomes. These accessory chromosomes are involved in plant virulence and the ability to infect specific host plants, but their role in human infection is unclear. Intriguingly, work in the *F. oxysporum* species complex hints that clinical isolates of this species complex may carry accessory chromosomes that are distinct from plant-pathogenic isolates (19). To investigate this in the FSSC, we analyzed our study dataset for the conservation of both core and accessory contigs or chromosomes among the isolates from plant and animal origins. We identified 12 core chromosomes, which were present across the isolates in the dataset with a high degree of nucleotide identity and synteny (Figure 3). However, the relative proportion of the core chromosomes compared to the total genome varied considerably within the species complex. Core chromosomes, encompassing a total length of 46.8 Mb in *F. keratoplasticum* Fu6, made up 95% of its total genome length. In comparison, core chromosomes comprised only 73% of the total genome length of *F. vanettenii* Fs6, which contained 15 additional large contigs or chromosomes with low identity to any other sequences in the dataset (Supplementary Figure 1). We also observed that all samples in the clade containing *F. petroliphilum* and *F. sp.* FSSC12 possessed a substantial chromosomal translocation between the two largest core chromosomes (Supplementary Figure 3).

In contrast to the high synteny and sequence conservation among the core chromosomes, the accessory chromosomes were largely species- or isolate-specific or had much lower levels of sequence identity for the regions that were present (Figure 4). We detected between three and eight accessory chromosomes or contigs >150kb in the *F. keratoplasticum* isolates, and between five and nine in the three *F. petroliphilum* isolates. Many accessory chromosomes were conserved in all isolates of the same species, but not across species. For example, two of the three accessory chromosomes present in *F. keratoplasticum* Fu6 had high identity with the other *F. keratoplasticum* isolates but low synteny with other FSSC isolates (Figure 4). In other cases, accessory chromosomes were isolate-specific, such as chromosome 13 of *F. keratoplasticum* LHS11, which displayed <52% identity with any other contig in the dataset. However, we did not identify any accessory chromosomes or contigs in *F. keratoplasticum* that were specific to the clinical strains. Notably, we also observed cases where the distribution of accessory

chromosomes or contigs did not mirror the core genome-generated phylogeny, suggesting that
horizontal transfer is possible in the FSSC, as has been demonstrated for *Fusarium oxysporum*.
Four *F. keratoplasticum* isolates (Fu6, LHS11, 2015-087, and 2016-116) possessed one to three
contigs with higher nucleotide identity to accessory genomic regions of *F. petroliphilum* than to
the other strains of its own species (Figure 4a). Similarly, *F. petroliphilum* strains 2014-013 and
2015-035 possessed accessory contigs with higher synteny and nucleotide identity to
F. keratoplasticum than to their own species (Figure 4b).
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The accessory chromosomes of all six FSSC species possessed a significantly higher fraction of
canonical repetitive elements, including simple repeats and class I and II transposons, compared
to the core chromosomes (p <0.05 for all species by Mann-Whitney U test) (Supplementary Figure
2). As a concrete example of this, the median canonical repeat content of the 12 core
chromosomes among the five *F. keratoplasticum* isolates was 7%, compared to 25% for the
accessory chromosomes and contigs. Altogether, we defined 12 core chromosomes with a high
degree of sequence conservation across the FSSC and an assortment of species- and isolate-
specific accessory chromosomes that also had a higher content of canonical repetitive elements
and the presence of which were not always congruent with the core genome phylogeny.
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57% of intergenic lncRNAs in *F. keratoplasticum* are conserved in *F. petroliphilum*
In addition to variation in protein-coding genes, eukaryotic genomes encode myriad long non-
coding transcripts (lncRNAs) that are often involved in gene regulation and evolve faster than
coding genes (37). Previous work on lncRNAs in *Fusarium graminearum* has highlighted their
roles in regulating sexual reproduction and carotenoid biosynthesis (38–40). However, the
lncRNA landscape in *Fusarium* has not been explored beyond this. To this end, we sequenced
the transcriptomes of *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069 and *F. petroliphilum* NRZ-2014-079
conidia and of mycelia grown under several environmental conditions to capture the breadth of
lncRNAs expressed by these two species. Using this approach, we predicted lncRNAs for all six
of the new *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum* strains, identifying a range of 2,222 to 2,694
putative lncRNAs per genome (Table 1). For detailed downstream characterization, we focused
on *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069 and *F. petroliphilum* NRZ-2014-079 as representative
models for each species. We found that each shared a comparable ratio of intergenic to antisense
lncRNAs, with the majority of lncRNAs being intergenic and only 16% of lncRNAs being antisense
in both species (Supplementary Figure 4). To identify conserved intergenic lncRNAs between the
two species, we used a combination of reciprocal BLASTn (local alignment), MUMmer (global

alignment), and synteny-based approaches. BLASTn identified 395 conserved lncRNA pairs,
representing 18% of the intergenic lncRNAs in *F. keratoplasticum*. MUMmer alignment identified
385 pairs, with a 95% concurrence with BLASTn. As lncRNAs are known to have lower levels of
sequence conservation compared to protein-coding genes, we also employed a synteny-based
approach as in [34]. Conserved lncRNAs were identified between the two species if they were
flanked by at least one orthologous gene both up- and downstream. This approach identified
1,647 syntenic genomic blocks, containing lncRNAs (Supplementary Figure 5, Supplementary
File 3). Taking the union of the three approaches revealed that 57% of the intergenic lncRNAs in
F. keratoplasticum (1,264/2,224) were conserved in *F. petroliphilum*, in line with the low the
conservation rate among protein-coding genes between the two species. Notably, all conserved
lncRNAs identified through synteny analysis were located on core chromosomes. The fact that
these lncRNAs are located on core chromosomes and are conserved between species indeed
suggests that they are likely to have conserved and crucial functions. However, underscoring the
likely role of noncoding genes in species- and isolate differences, we also detected 51 species-
specific lncRNAs in *F. keratoplasticum* and 104 in *F. petroliphilum* that were located on accessory
chromosomes. Altogether, we defined the lncRNAome of two FSSC species and found that
noncoding genes follow the same trend as the rest of the genome, with a low degree of
conservation. However, the existence of conserved lncRNAs, despite the rapid evolution of non-
coding genes, suggests that they likely perform critical functions.

Fusarium keratoplasticum genomes are enriched in branched-chain amino acid and
metallopeptidases, while all FSSC genomes show similar numbers of secreted effectors
Given the degree of variation in the pan-genome of the FSSC and the accessory chromosomes
within and between species, we next performed gene set enrichment analysis to identify Gene
Ontology (GO) categories that were over- or underrepresented in species of the FSSC, with a
focus on *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum*. The genomes of *F. keratoplasticum* had an
expansion of genes involved in branched-chain amino acid GO terms relative to other FSSC
genomes, a pathway which is non-conserved in metazoans, but essential to growth and virulence
in several human pathogenic fungi (Supplementary Figure 6) (41, 42). We also observed an
enrichment in genes annotated with protein ubiquitination and metallopeptidase activity in this
species, which serve roles in fungal growth and pathogenicity, including tissue invasion and
hyphae formation in other fungal species (43–45). The genomes o*f F. petroliphilum* had higher
numbers of genes with endonuclease activity and glutathione metabolic processes relative to the
other FSSC species.

Underscoring their evolutionary trajectory as plant pathogens, all FSSC genomes contained a

similar abundance of secreted effectors and genes with GO annotations related to plant virulence.

These included similar levels of genes with GO terms related to chitosanase activity,

pectinesterase activity, and cellulase activity, all of which are involved in the degradation of plant

cell walls (46–48). All genomes also had between 477-546 secreted effectors. The fact that these

genomic features were present at similar levels in plant isolates and human and marine animal

isolates suggests that the latter likely retain some degree of plant pathogenicity or, alternatively,

that these effectors are also important during interaction with higher eukaryotes. Taken together,

the gene functional analysis revealed that all FSSC genomes share features associated with plant

virulence, while *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum* possessed differential expansion of

genes involved in branched chain amino acid metabolism, oxidative stress protection, and DNA

repair.

Comparison of secondary metabolite biosynthetic gene clusters reveals a core set of

actively transcribed secondary metabolites in the FSSC

Fungi produce an extraordinary array of secondary metabolites, which play key roles in their

interactions with their environment and other organisms. They can be used for microbial

communication, nutrient scavenging, and even as antimicrobial weapons (49–51). These

molecules are typically encoded in biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs), or organized units of

multiple genes all involved in metabolite production. *Fusarium* spp, including FSSC, produce a

diverse range of compounds, with >160 novel *Fusarium* metabolites described (52, 53). However,

the range of BGC produced by FSSC isolates from human and animal origin has not been studied.

Across the 12 genomes, we predicted 45 total BGCs and each isolate encoded a median of 36

BGCs (range 35-39). Of the BGCs identified, 25 were present across all study strains,

representing the core secondary metabolome of the FSSC (Figure 5). Among the core BGCs that

matched a known product were the agricultural contaminant ochratoxin A, as well as squalestatin

S1, metachelin, tryptoquialanine, and lucilactaene, many of which have antimicrobial activity (54–

58). The BGC encoding the antimicrobial and immunosuppressant cyclosporin C was present in

the phylogenetic subclade encompassing *F. keratoplasticum, F. falciforme*, and *F. sp.* Ph1, but

absent in the other FSSC clade examined. Also of interest, *F. sp.* Ph1 was the sole FSSC

predicted to produce gibberellin, a BGC typically restricted to the *Fusarium fujikuroi* species

complex. Gibberellin is a plant growth hormone and its production by *Fusarium fujikuroi* is

considered a major factor in the development of symptoms in rice bakanae disease, which causes

up to 50% crop loss (59, 60).

BGCs are often expressed under particular environmental stimuli or conditions. When we

examined the transcriptomes of *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069 and *F. petroliphilum* NRZ-

2014-079, we observed that many BGCs were transcribed in at least one condition (n=25/40 for

F. keratoplasticum and n=25/36 for *F. petroliphilum*; Figure 5) and many in four or five conditions.

Among the ubiquitous expressed BGCs across both species were clavaric acid, oxyjavanicin, and

squalestatin S1. Fusarubin was expressed in nearly all samples and conditions for

F. petroliphilum, but none for *F. keratoplaticum*, despite the cluster being in the genome,

indicating a divergence in regulation within the complex. Finally, the alkaloid metabolite

tryptoquialanine was expressed at both high temperatures and under carbon starvation, and

across both species, but not in complete media, suggesting a potential relevance for human

infection. Collectively this suggests that the FSSC uses many of its secondary metabolites as a

common response across many conditions, rather than just reserving them for when a specific

stress or microbe is encountered. Altogether we find a wealth of secondary metabolites in the

FSSC, including many that are actively transcriptionally transcribed but have unknown products,

making them exciting candidates for future study.

***F. keratoplasticum* has highest number of *Starship* mobile genetic elements in the FSSC**

Given the pronounced degree of gene content variation between members of the FSSC and within

the same species, we next sought to investigate factors underpinning this. *Starships* are a newly

described class of gigantic transposable elements concentrated in the *Pezizomycotina* that can

extend up to 700 kb. They have the ability to move genetic information within a genome, to other

members of the species, or even to facilitate the horizontal transfer of large genomic "cargo"

regions between evolutionary distant fungal species (61–63). *Starships* are defined by the

presence of a site-specific recombinase, or "captain", which catalyzes the movement and also

allows for the differentiation into different classes and haplotypes (64). Examination of the 12

FSSC isolates revealed 23 *Starships*, all of which were on core chromosomes, and which were

categorized into five distinct families representing the *Arwing*, *Enterprise*, *Galactica*, *Phoenix*, and

Prometheus Starships. However, *Starship* presence was not equally distributed across the FSSC

(Figure 6a). *F. keratoplasticum* had the largest number of *Starships* per genome with a median of

4 (range 1-6), while the median for the species complex was 1.5. This included up to four copies

of the *Enterprise* class in members of *F. keratoplasticum*. We also observed that the presence of

either canonical repetitive elements (*e.g.* shorter transposons, simple repeats) or a *Starship*s

coincided with breakdown in synteny and reduced nucleotide identity on core chromosomes

(Figure 3), highlighting their collective role in generating genomic novelty, even within the largely

conserved core chromosomes. Also of note, no predicted effectors were located within *Starship*

elements, indicating that in contrast to other phytopathogens (63, 65, 66), *Starships* do not appear

to be a significant driver of plant virulence in the FSSC.

Arwing Starships were the most widespread across the complex and were detected as a single

copy in half the samples, including some but not all *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum*

genomes and the FSSC12. Therefore, we next focused our examination on comparing their

synteny and cargo across the complex. The median *Arwing* element was 112.5 kb (range 33.4 -

122.8 kb) and contained a median of 23 genes (range: 6 - 25 genes). Synteny was highly

conserved in all but *F. petroliphilum* NRZ-2015-035, which contained a truncated copy compared

to the rest (Figure 6b). Notably, the presence-absence pattern of the *Arwing* element was not

congruent with the genome-wide phylogeny. This indicates that either it arose in the common

ancestor but has been stochastically lost by roughly half the strains or, alternatively, that it has

potentially been transferred horizontally between species multiple times. Examination of the cargo

functions carried by the *Arwing* element revealed genes related to the cytoskeleton, molecular

chaperones, and replication, recombination and repair as the most abundant within the mobile

element (Figure 6c, Supplementary Figure 7a). However, it is worth noting that the majority of the

cargo genes did not contain any functional annotation, preventing a complete understanding of

horizontally transferred cargo. Analysis of the *Galactica Starships* revealed the same trend in both

specific functional annotation categories and the largest fraction of cargo lacking a predicted

function (Supplemental Figure 7b), collectively underscoring the work still to be done in defining

the functional roles of this novel class of genetic elements in the FSSC and other fungal species.

We next sought to move beyond genomic presence and assess whether *Starship*-encoded cargo

was being actively transcribed. Using *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069 and *F. petroliphilum*

NRZ-2014-079 for which we had comprehensive RNA-seq data across five culture conditions, we

examined gene expression in the conserved and highly syntenic *Galactica* locus shared by both

strains (Supplementary Figure 6b, Supplementary Figure 8). We observed near-constitutive

expression of cargo genes across most conditions in both species, with an average of 21/29 cargo

genes expressed per condition for *F. keratoplasticum* and 23/25 genes for *F. petroliphilum*

(Supplementary Figure 8). However, while cargo genes in *F. keratoplasticum* displayed low basal

expression across all conditions assayed, *F. petroliphilum* exhibited stronger and consistent transcription across a contiguous block of hypothetical genes that also included two lncRNAs, with the strongest expression under heat stress at 34°C and may be relevant to human infection. Together, these results indicate that *Starships* have played an appreciable role in shaping the genomes of the FSSC and are not silent components of the genome, but instead exhibit condition- and species-specific transcriptional activity.

Minimal transcriptional changes in *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum* at ocular infection temperatures

Given the notable genomic differences between *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum* and gene expression differences between a conserved *Starship* in these species, we expanded our analysis of the transcriptomes of these two species under several stressors. To this end, we compared the transcriptomes of mycelia from *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069 and *F. petroliphilum* NRZ-2014-079 grown in complete media at 25ºC, under carbon starvation at this temperature, and at elevated temperature mimicking the surface temperature of the eye (34ºC). Additionally, the transcriptome of conidia was also assayed. Growth stage (conidia vs. mycelia grown on complete media) had the largest impact on gene expression with 686 and 786 differentially expressed genes (DEG) in *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum* respectively (Supplementary File 4, Supplementary File 5) and indicated a shared enrichment for DNA-regulated transcription and zinc ion binding in mycelia relative to conidia (Supplementary Figure 9). Relative to complete media, growing mycelia under carbon starvation resulted in a positive enrichment for aromatic amino acid metabolic genes and a negative enrichment in genes related to translation (Supplementary Figure 9; Supplementary File 4). Unexpectedly, elevated temperature (34°C) resulted in very modest change to the transcriptome, with only 27 genes differentially expressed in *F. petroliphilum* and 47 in *F. keratoplasticum* (Supplementary File 4). This suggests that both species are more than capable of growing at temperatures experienced during mammalian association or infection with minimal transcriptional alteration compared to growth at 25°C.

Consistent with an earlier study with *Fusarium graminearum* (38), both intergenic and antisense lncRNAs identified in this study had significantly lower expression relative to protein-coding genes (Mann-Whitney U test with Bonferroni correction, $p < 0.0001$ for both lncRNA classes in *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum*; Supplementary Figure 4b). However, we did identify 117 lncRNAs in *F. keratoplasticum* and 106 in *F. petroliphilum* that were uniquely differentially expressed in conidia relative to mycelia grown in complete media, suggesting they may play a

390   role in asexual development (Supplementary File 4). Overall, the transcriptional changes of
391   *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum* were similar across species, and more notably, changes
392   during elevated temperature were minimal, indicating that human infection temperature is not a
393   significant stressor.
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lncRNAs are potential novel regulators of secondary metabolism in *F. keratoplasticum* and
F. petroliphilum
Finally, we aimed to delineate functional roles for the newly defined lncRNAs. Although lncRNAs
represent a small fraction relative to the number of protein coding genes, a similar proportion of
each gene type was expressed, demonstrating the broad participation of lncRNAs in cellular
processes (Figure 7a). Roughly 60% of both annotated lncRNAs and protein coding genes were
expressed in at least one of the five conditions assayed in both *F. keratoplasticum* and
F. petroliphilum, the species for which RNAseq data was available. To assess the integration of
lncRNAs into the gene expression network, we used weighted co-expression analysis. The global
weighted degree and intramodular connectivity, measures of overall gene connectivity and
connectivity within their assigned modules, respectively, was similar between lncRNAs and
protein coding genes in both *F. keratoplasticum* or *F. petroliphilum*, indicating that lncRNAs are
equivalently integrated into the co-expression network as protein-coding genes in both species
(Figure 7b, c)*.*
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To identify novel pathways and regulatory functions of lncRNAs, we next examined their co-
expression with protein-coding genes of known function under the well-established property that
genes that are co-expressed participate in the same function or are members of the same
pathway (67, 68). We specifically focused on characterizing the role of lncRNAs as contributors
to secondary metabolism. The *F. petroliphilum* and *F. keratoplasticum* global co-expression
networks were progressively filtered to retain only the top 0.2-0.4% of strongest co-expression
edges, respectively. Within the filtered co-expression network, 29 lncRNAs in *F. keratoplasticum*
and 10 lncRNAs in *F. petroliphilum* were directly connected to at least one BGC backbone
enzyme, the core catalytic gene of a secondary metabolite cluster. To assess whether these
lncRNA-BGC edges represent meaningful regulatory connections, we compared their co-
expression strengths to those of protein-BGC interactions. Protein-BGC pairs exhibited similar
median co-expression strengths as lncRNA-BGC pairs (median topological overlap measure, *ie*
TOM: 0.18 vs 0.17 in *F. keratoplasticum*, 0.22 vs 0.21 in *F. petroliphilum*; Mann-Whitney U test,
p = 0.11 and p = 0.71, respectively). This supports that the lncRNAs identified in our network are

not simply passive associations, but interact with BGC backbone enzymes at magnitudes

comparable to protein-coding genes and reinforcing that they represent a structured layer of

secondary metabolism control.

The filtered co-expression networks for *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum* were further

restricted to the giant connected component, defined as the largest subnetwork of strongly co-

expressed genes (Figure 7d, e). This step reduced network fragmentation and ensured that

lncRNA–BGC associations were evaluated within a single, highly connected network context. In

F. keratoplasticum, lncRNAs connected to the cyclosporin biosynthetic gene cluster, two

nonribosomal peptides or NRPs (BGC04 and BGC17), and to a phosphonate-like cluster

(BGC12), suggesting roles in the regulation of these clusters. In *F. petroliphilum*, lncRNAs were

directly connected with the BGCs responsible for choline, fusaric acid, fusarubin, and prolipyrone

biosynthesis, as well as several BGCs with unknown products (NRPSs BGC04 and BGC09;

polyketide synthase type I BGC10) (Figure 7d, e; Supplementary Table 8). Most lncRNAs were

connected to a single backbone enzyme. However, a small subset displayed connectivity to two

distinct backbone enzymes, suggesting they may play more global roles in regulating secondary

metabolism. These included four lncRNAs in *F. keratoplasticum* (associated with BGC04 and

BGC12) and two lncRNAs in *F. petroliphilum* (associated with BGC01 and BGC10)

(Supplementary Table 8). Several of these multi-BGC-interacting lncRNAs were conserved

across species, while others were species-specific, indicating a combination of conserved and

lineage-specific regulation. Finally, we observed that while *F. keratoplasticum* and

F. petroliphilum both contain the fusarubin BGC, it was expressed in all four mycelial conditions

in the latter, but silent in all conditions in the former (Figure 5). In searching for a potential

explanation, we identified a conserved lncRNA that was present in both species but whose

expression was negatively correlated with the expression of the fusarubin backbone enzyme

(Pearson R^2 = 0.71, p < 0.001). We hypothesize that this lncRNA may act as a negative regulator

of fusarubin biosynthesis, highlighting the value of our approach for identifying candidates for

functional testing in follow-up work. Together, these results suggest that lncRNAs represent a

well-integrated layer of regulation of secondary metabolism in the FSSC, with most regulating a

single BGC, and a limited subset acting as more global regulators across multiple BGCs.

Discussion

In this study we generate highly contiguous genomes for six FSSC isolates of clinical origin, including the first three genomes available for *F. petroliphilum*. We show that German keratitis isolates of *F. keratoplasticum* are not phylogenetically distinct from Asian isolates from marine animal origins. We also reveal a low level of core gene conservation among isolates of the FSSC, including pronounced variation in lncRNAs, secondary metabolites, and the presence of accessory chromosomes with isolate- and species- specific genes and a higher repeat content. Finally, we define *Starship* elements across the FSSC, finding that they are widespread, particularly in *F. keratoplasticum*, and that their cargo is actively transcribed. Finally, we define the lncRNA repertoire of the FSSC and find that these non-coding genes are broadly integrated into gene expression networks to a similar degree as protein-coding genes, including that of secondary metabolism, and likely play important, but yet to be characterized, cellular roles.

In line with previous work, our study highlights the considerable genomic flexibility of *Fusarium* spp. However, we find that the level of gene conservation within the FSSC (41%) is even lower than the *Fusarium oxysporum* species complex (FOSC), whose core genome fraction has been reported at 51-53% (69, 70). The proportion of core genes in the FSSC much also lower than environmental human fungal pathogens such as *Aspergillus fumigatus* (69%) and *Cryptococcus neoformans* (80%), but similar to another multi-kingdom pathogen, *Aspergillus flavus* (41-58%) (71–74). This may indicate that the FSSC and other multi-kingdom pathogens occupy a broader niche space and the larger pan-genome has evolved to cope with a more variable set of environmental conditions, as has been found in bacteria (75). It is also tempting to hypothesize that this expanded genomic repertoire, and the resulting flexibility underpin the ability of these organisms to infect multiple kingdoms, with very different metabolic environments and immune systems; a point that requires further investigation. On the other hand, comparing pan-genomes across studies is not without its own limitations (76, 77). It is complicated by differences in the number of isolates between studies, by pangenome methodology (*e.g.* whether consistent gene prediction methods were used, how orthologous genes are identified and what fraction of isolates must contain a gene for it to be considered 'core'), and whether the study defines taxonomic groups using *forma specialis* or species complex definitions.

Previous work comparing a phytopathogenic *F. oxysporum* strain with two *F. oxysporum* isolates from human disease suggested that the latter may have unique accessory chromosomes. While

all FSSC genomes we examined had accessory chromosomes with higher repeat content, as has
been observed for other *Fusarium* species complexes (11, 18, 78, 79), we did not find clear
evidence that accessory chromosome content differed from that of plant or other non-clinical
sources. While we did detect accessory chromosomes that were specific to the clinical isolates of
F. *petroliphilum*, our dataset lacked a phylogenetically matched comparator from environmental
origin for this species. As sequencing becomes even more accessible, we expect that larger
datasets of isolates from plant and human disease will help to further elucidate the important
question of whether there are specific FSSC genomic elements associated with human infection.
495
Starships have facilitated the evolution of virulence in multiple phytopathogenic fungi. In the
Fusarium oxysporum species complex, a *Starship* was responsible for the horizontal transfer of
effector genes conferring host susceptibility across species boundaries (66). *Verticillium dahliae*
displays evidence of anciently acquired virulence genes, whose transfer was mediated by
Starship elements from *Fusarium* spp. (65). The wheat virulence factor ToxTA has also been
transferred between multiple plant pathogens (63). In contrast, we did not find any predicted
effectors or genes previously linked to FSSC pathogenicity within *Starship* elements. This
suggests that while *Starships* have shaped their genome evolution, they do not seem to be the
driver of virulence that they have been in other fungal pathogens. However, due to their large
size, highly contiguous genomes are needed for detecting *Starships*, which are still limited in the
FSSC, so this could change with the availability of additional long read genomes.
507
lncRNAs are increasingly recognized for their important roles in regulating pathogenicity and
virulence in fungal pathogens of plants and humans, acting largely as transcriptional regulators
(80–83). The list of lncRNAs described in this study represent an important starting point for
determining their roles in regulating basic cellular processes in the FSSC and potentially plant
and human virulence. We have already started to address this through the identification of several
lncRNAs that act as putative regulators of secondary metabolism genes. In fact, as lncRNAs are
not bound by the amino acid triplet code, they evolve faster than coding genes, and we posit that
they may represent an important mechanism for fungal adaptation to new hosts and to
environmental change, ultimately shaping the distinct pathogenic capabilities of each species.
Future experimental validation of lncRNAs will help determine the mechanism by which specific
transcripts regulate secondary metabolic processes and beyond.
519

In closing, the FSSC has the potential to be an excellent model system for studying the molecular
mechanisms of multi-kingdom pathogenicity, but is currently hampered by a lack of available
resources. The strains and data provided here, including the novel description of lncRNAs and
Starship regions and identification of conserved and species- or isolate-specific genes, are an
excellent resource to start to unravel multi-kingdom virulence. Through future comparisons of the
transcriptomes of these isolates during plant and mammalian infection in order to identify *in planta*
virulence strategies, which are repurposed for human pathogenicity we can begin to not only
define mechanisms of multi-kingdom virulence but also potential evolutionary trade-offs. This is
increasingly important as climate change is expected to increase the number of environmental
fungal species that can grow at human body temperatures, potentially opening the door for other
phytopathogens to become human pathogens.

531　Materials and methods

Strains analyzed in this study
Six isolates originating from cases of keratitis collected by the German National Reference Centre
for Invasive Fungal Infection (NRZMyk) were sequenced in this work. Prior to whole genome
sequencing, species identification was performed by sequencing of the TEF-1α gene as in (8).
The additional FSSC genomes analyzed in this study originate from plant and aquatic animal
hosts and were generated in (11). The accession numbers of the FSSC genomes analyzed in this
study and those included in the phylogeny are available in Supplementary File 1.
539

Nucleic acid isolation and sequencing
For the isolates sequenced in this study, mycelia were grown shaking at 30°C in complete media.
Mycelia were ground in liquid nitrogen, heat shocked for 1 minute at 95°C, and cellular debris
precipitated using steps and reagents from the MasterPure Yeast DNA Purification Kit (Lucigen).
DNA was finally purified using the Monarch Genomic DNA Purification Kit (New England Biolabs)
for binding and elution.
546

Genome assembly and annotation, including lncRNA annotation
The genomes generated in this study were assembled using the PacBio long reads and Flye
v2.9.1 (84). The draft assemblies then underwent two rounds of polishing using Pilon v1.24 (85)
and the strain-matched Illumina data. Assemblies were then scaffolded using RagTag v2.1.0 (86)
with minimum confidence score set to 0.5, minimum location confidence score set to 0.35, and

the minimum orientation confidence score set to 0.6. The *F. keratoplasticum* genomes were

scaffolded using *F. keratoplasticum* LHS11 as a reference as it was the most contiguous genome

available for the species. As there was no existing chromosome-level genome available for

F. petroliphilum, their genomes were scaffolded using LHS14 because it resulted in the highest

mean location and orientation confidence scores of the FSSC isolates analyzed in this study.

Sequence contamination was identified and removed from genome assemblies prior to gene

prediction using Foreign Contaminant Screen (FSC) v0.4.0 (87).

Before annotation, assemblies were cleaned to remove contigs shorter than 1kb and those with

>95% percent identity and >95% coverage with other contigs in the assembly. A custom FSSC

repeat library was generated using RepeatModeler v2.0.4 (88) and the FSSC genome assemblies

analyzed in this study. RepeatMasker v4.1.2 (89) and the FSSC repeat library were then used to

identify and mask repetitive regions. Genomes were annotated using Funannotate v1.8.9 and all

subsequent software referenced uses the versions packaged in this containerized version. Briefly,

an *ab initio* FSSC gene prediction model was trained using Augustus and the assembled

transcriptome of *Fusarium sp.* FSSC11 available from Mycocosm as the RNAseq data generated

in our study was not available yet. Gene prediction was then performed using EvidenceModeler

incorporating predictions from Augustus, GeneMarkES, Snap, and GlimmerHMM. tRNAs were

predicted using tRNAScanSE. When strain-specific RNAseq data became available later, gene

models were corrected using the update function of Funannotate, which also added 5' and 3'

UTRs to the gene predictions. Functional annotations were assigned using PFAM, Eggnog-

mapper, InterProScan, CAZYmes, BUSCO (dikarya_odb9 lineage), SignalP and KEGG.

EffectorP 3.0 was used to predict secreted effectors. To ensure consistent genome annotations

across the study dataset, the genome assemblies from Hoh *et al.* 2022 (11) were downloaded

from NCBI and annotated as above, with the Augustus model trained using the RNAseq data

generated in the same publication. Genome completeness in Table 1 was determined using

BUSCO v5.2.2 and the hypocreales_odb10 lineage set.

To identify lncRNAs, we used RNA-seq data from *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069 and *F.*

petroliphilum NRZ-2014-079. For strains lacking RNA-seq data (*F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2015-

087, *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2016-116, *F. petroliphilum* NRZ-2014-013, and *F. petroliphilum*

NRZ-2015-035), lncRNAs were predicted using data from the closely related strain due to high

genome similarity, allowing accurate transcript reconstruction across strains. Genome-guided

transcriptome assembly was performed using Stringtie v.2.2.1 (90) and the individual transcript

assemblies from each species unified into a single transcript assembly using the Stringtie -merge
option. To identify novel transcripts, assembled transcripts were compared against protein-
encoding transcripts using Gffcompare v0.12.6 and novel transcripts >200 bp selected. Where
applicable, the longest isoform was chosen utilizing gtf2gtf from CGAT apps v0.6.0 (91) . Coding
potential prediction was performed using two software tools: CPC2 v3 (92), which was executed
against the UniProt database (https://www.uniprot.org/download), and FEELnc v0.2 (93).
Transcripts were classified as lncRNAs when identified as non-coding transcripts by both tools.
lncRNA transcripts were categorized as intergenic (class code 'u') or antisense (class code 'x')
based on the Gffcompare output. To evaluate the expression levels of lncRNAs in Supplementary
Figure 4, read counts for lncRNA and protein-coding transcripts were calculated using
Featurecounts v2.0.1 (94). Subsequently, count data was normalized by transcript length and
library size, yielding transcripts per million (TPM) values.
598

Whole-genome phylogeny
The *Fusarium* spp. phylogeny was inferred from 1,164 single copy orthologs identified in all
species genomes using OrthoFinder v2.5.4 (95). Amino acid sequences for each orthogroup were
aligned using MUSCLE v3.8 (96). The alignments trimmed were using ClipKIT v1.3.0 (97), and
then concatenated into an alignment of length 614,941. The phylogeny was constructed using IQ-
TREE v2.2.0.3 (98). ModelFinder within IQ-TREE was used to identify JTT+F+I+GR as the best
fitting substitution model based on Bayesian information criterion (BIC). Bootstrapping was
performed using 1,000 ultrafast bootstraps and all branches were supported by values of >98%.
607

Pan-genome analysis and identification of core vs. accessory chromosomes and contigs
GENESPACE v1.3.1 (99), incorporating Orthofinder v2.5.4 and MCScanX v01.11.2022, was used
for synteny-guided orthologous gene identification and their presence-absence between strains.
Heap's Law calculation was done using the MicroPan v2.1 R package using 500 permutations.
Chromosomes and contigs were defined as core and accessory based on alignment using the
nucmer tool of MUMmer v4.0.0 (100). For these analyses, *F. keratoplasticum* Fu6, was used as
the reference query. Core chromosomes were identified using a cutoff of >92.5% mean identity
across a minimum alignment length of 1.75 Mb in all strains and were in agreement with those
identified in Hoh et al. 2022 (11). The remaining chromosomes and contigs, which were not found
in all 12 study strains or which showed <92.0% identify, were designated as accessory.
618

To compare the intergenic lncRNAs of *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum*, we used NRZ-

2014-069 and NRZ-2014-079 as representative examples of each species. Cross-species
lncRNA conservation was assessed using three approaches: BLASTn (local alignment), MUMmer
v.4.0.0 (global alignment) and orthology-based synteny. First, we generated two FASTA files
containing the sequences of intergenic lncRNA in *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum*. The
pairwise comparison of reciprocal hits using BLASTn and the dnadiff tool from the MUMmer4
suite were filtered to get those with e-value > 1e-03 and a coverage > 50%. In parallel, a synteny
based orthology approach, developed and validated in Pegueroles *et al*. 2019 (101), was
performed. We implemented a custom pipeline modificatied to fit the analysis for two species
instead of four, and using the parameters '3 3 1'. This configuration involved analyzing three
protein-coding genes on either side of a specific lncRNA, requiring at least three common genes
for each pairwise comparison between species, and ensuring a minimum of one common gene
on each side of the lncRNA. To visualize the alignment coordinates, we used Circos v.0.69 to plot
the 1-to-1 coordinates (coordinates available in Supplementary File 3).

RNA isolation, sequencing, and transcriptome analysis

Two representative keratitis samples, *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069 and *F. petroliphilum*
NRZ-2014-079 were selected for transcriptomic analysis under a set of five growth conditions:
mycelia grown for 12h in complete media (5.0 g/L ammonium sulfate + 10.0 g/L glucose) at 25°C,
carbon-starvation media (0.1 g/L glucose), elevated temperature (34°C), and ungerminated
conidia harvested after 3 days' growth at 28°C. RNAs from two replicates were isolated using a
phenol-chloroform protocol. Briefly, harvested mycelia were pelleted and bead-beaten in a mix of
lysis buffer and acid phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (PCI). Lysate was centrifuged, upper
phase transferred, then centrifuged again in fresh PCI. The upper phase was incubated at -20°C
in sodium acetate and 2-propanol, pelleted, then twice ethanol-washed. The washed pellet was
air-dried and resuspended in RNAse-free dH_2O, then stored at -80°C.

Illumina TruSeq stranded library preparation and sequencing was performed by the University of
Würzburg Core Unit Systems Medicine on the NextSeq platform. Raw FastQ data files were
trimmed via fastp v0.23.4 (102), quality threshold $\leq$20. Filtered reads were mapped using STAR
v2.7.10b (103), counted using featureCounts v2.0.1 (94) and differentially expressed genes were
identified using DESeq2 v1.44.0 (104), with DEGs that met the threshold of FDR p-adj < 0.01 and
a lfcThreshold > 1.5.

For the functional analysis of differentially expressed genes, gene set enrichment analysis was
conducted the R package fgsea v1.35.3 (105), and GO.db v3.19.1. fgsea was run using the
fgseaMultilevel command with the seed 202507, the column "stats" given by DESeq2 as rank
input, and filtering for pathways with a maximum gene size of 500. Terms with a padj < 0.1 were
retained and collapsed if considered similar by the function "collapsePathways". Terms were
plotted only if padj < 0.01 in at least one condition. Terms were ordered in the dotplot visualization
according to their Normalized Enrichment Score (NES) value, using the function hclust.

Functional enrichment annotation and BGC analysis
To determine the functional differences between FSSC genomes, genes were converted into
matching ontology terms and summed for each strain. ANOVA and post-hoc Dunnett test were
then applied to identify annotations over- or under-represented in a single species, using a
Bonferroni-correct p-value cutoff of 0.05. For visualization purposes per-species expression
values were normalized to z-scores, representing the number of standard deviations above/below
the mean.

Biosynthetic gene clusters were predicted for each isolate genome using the fungal version of
antiSMASH v7.1.0 (106), and unknown metabolites were grouped together across isolates using
BiG-SCAPE v1.1.5 (107). For each predicted BGC cluster, percent identity was calculated via
BLASTp. For assessing whether BGCs were expressed, the cluster was classified as expressed
if at least one biosynthetic backbone enzyme had TPM $\geq$ 1 across both replicates in at least one
condition.

Starship **detection and synteny assessment**
Starships were identified using starfish v1.0.4 (108) using the pre-computed orthogroups
identified by OrthoFinder v2.5.5 above. Synteny among the *Starships* identified was calculated
and visualised using minimap v2.24 (109) and the R package "gggenomes" (v1.0.1). Functional
annotation of *Starship* cargo was based on COG predictions.

Weighted co-expression network and BGC co-expression analysis
Weighted gene co-expression network analysis was performed on the normalized expression
matrix using WGCNA, v1.73 (110) to identify modules of co-expressed genes. Samples were

evaluated via hierarchical clustering and principal component analysis (PCA), and outlier genes

were removed using the goodSamplesGenes function. Soft-thresholding powers were selected

based on scale-free topology (R² ≥ 0.80), while maintaining adequate mean connectivity: β = 26

for *F. petroliphilum* NRZ-2014-079 and β = 30 for *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069. Networks

were constructed using signed adjacency and topological overlap (TOM) similarity, and modules

were identified using blockwiseModules (TOMType = "signed", mergeCutHeight = 0.25,

maxBlockSize = 16500).

Biosynthetic gene clusters (BGCs) were annotated as described above and classified as

backbone or other members based on antiSMASH functional assignments. Pairwise co-

expression values were extracted from the topological overlap matrix (TOM) for all BGC-

associated genes and their interactions with lncRNAs and other protein-coding genes present in

the network. To reduce network complexity and remove weak associations, an initial pre-filter was

applied by retaining only interactions above the 70th percentile of TOM values. A subnetwork was

then constructed from this filtered edge set, where edges were further refined using a stringent,

species-specific cutoff corresponding to the upper 0.2–0.4% of TOM values, accounting for

differences in network size and correlation structure between species. Subnetworks were treated

as undirected graphs, and nodes were categorized as lncRNAs, BGC backbone enzymes, other

BGC members, or non-BGC protein-coding genes. Giant connected components were extracted,

and node centrality was quantified using degree and betweenness centrality. Highly connected

BGC backbone enzymes and their associated lncRNAs were highlighted as candidate regulatory

hubs involved in secondary metabolism. Networks were visualized using ggraph v2.2.1 and

tidygraph v1.3.1.

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or preparation of the manuscript.

Data and regent availability.

The strains sequenced in this study are deposited in and publicly available from the Jena Microbial

Resource Collection (JMRC). The PacBio, Illumina WGS, and RNAseq data generated in this

study are deposited in the NCBI SRA under BioProject PRJNA1137914 and will be made publicly

available upon publication.

Author Contributions

AEB, RM, and OK conceptualized the study. AZ, AS, and RM performed experimental

investigations. PJTB, MLF, MP, LMK, and AEB performed formal analyses. PJTB, MLF, MP, LMK,

and AEB were responsible for visualization and writing the original draft. All authors were involved

in reviewing and editing the manuscript.

Tables & Figures

	Scaffolds (n)	N50 (Mb)	Genome Size (Mb)	Protein coding genes	lncRNAs	BUSCO completeness	Repeat content	Isolation source	Reference
Fusarium falciforme Fu3	14	3.88	53.6	15,051	-	99.1%	10.1%	Hawksbill sea turtle	[11]
Fusarium keratoplasticum Fu6	25	4.21	49.5	14,050	-	99.0%	7.1%	Hawksbill sea turtle	[11]
Fusarium keratoplasticum LHS11	26	3.50	53.5	15,777	-	98.9%	7.2%	Harbor seal	[11]
Fusarium keratoplasticum NRZ-2014-069	70	4.16	49.6	14,398	2,632	98.9%	4.8%	Keratitis (human eye)	This study
Fusarium keratoplasticum NRZ-2015-087	53	4.02	50.6	14,387	2,694	98.9%	7.1%	Keratitis (human eye)	This study
Fusarium keratoplasticum NRZ-2016-116	55	4.24	50.5	14,979	2,654	98.9%	6.5%	Keratitis (human eye)	This study
Fusarium petroliphilum NRZ-2014-013	120	3.98	51.2	15,060	2,327	99.1%	6.7%	Keratitis (human eye)	This study
Fusarium petroliphilum NRZ-2015-035	143	3.34	48.0	14,212	2,322	98.5%	4.5%	Keratitis (human eye)	This study
Fusarium petroliphilum NRZ-2014-079	95	3.33	48.5	14,541	2,222	99.0%	4.8%	Keratitis (human eye)	This study
Fusarium sp. FSSC12 LHS14	35	3.82	56.3	14,512	-	99.1%	11.2%	Roughtail stingray	[11]
Fusarium sp. Ph1	24	3.30	51.5	14,109	-	99.0%	8.6%	Orchid flower	[11]
Fusarium vanettenii Fs6	39	3.36	72.9	16,755	-	99.1%	14.2%	Pea plant	[11]

Table 1: Genomic characteristics of FSSC isolates included in this study.
BUSCO completeness quantified as the percent of BUSCOs identified as single copies using the hypocreales_odb10.2019-11-20 ortholog set. lncRNAs were only predicted for *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum* based on the availability of RNAseq data for these species.

Figure 1. Phylogenetic reconstruction of *Fusarium* spp., including the FSSC isolates analyzed in this study

Phylogeny constructed from an amino acid sequence of 1,866 single copy orthologs. Pink box indicates the *Fusarium solani* species complex. The strains with highly contiguous long-read genome assemblies included in this study are indicated in bold. Emoji indicates the source for the FSSC isolates that belong to the same clade as the study dataset members. All branches supported by ultrafast bootstrap values >98%.

751
Figure 2. The pan-genome of the FSSC, *Fusarium keratoplasticum*, and *F. petroliphilum*.
(a, d, e). Pan-gene presence-absence matrix of FSSC (a), *F. keratoplasticum* (d), and
F. petroliphilum, where gene presence is indicated with blue and gene absence in black. Colored
bars at the top of the matrices indicate the number of isolates each pangene was present in. (b)
Histogram of pangene frequency in the FSSC, calculated as the number of genomes in which
each pan-gene is present. (c) Pan-gene accumulation plot quantifying the relationship between
the number of genomes analyzed and the number of pan-genes identified (orange) and the
fraction of which were core (grey). Dots represent the individual values from 24 permutations.

760
Figure 3. Sequence conservation of core chromosomes of the FSSC. Gray-scale fill indicates
the nucleotide percent identity between the core chromosome sequence of *F. keratoplasticum*
Fu6 and other FSSC members, which are indicated with the colored boxes. Violet bars on Fu6_5,
Fu6_9, Fu6_10, and Fu6_12 indicate the location of *Starship* elements. Red bars indicate
presence of transposable and other canonical repetitive elements.

Accessory chromosomes and contigs

767
768

Figure 4. Conservation of accessory chromosomes and contigs from *Fusarium keratoplasticum* and *Fusarium petroliphilum*. (a-b) Accessory chromosomes and contigs of (a) *F. keratoplasticum* or (b) *F. petroliphilum* strains and their sequence conservation with other FSSC isolates. Shading indicates percent identity across the syntenic block between the indicated isolate and accessory chromosome/contig indicated, versus the best matching chromosome or contig from the other isolates. For simplicity, the subject (reference sequence) for each comparison is omitted from the plot as it would be a solid black band. Red lines indicate the location of transposable elements and other repetitive elements. Only genomic fragments >150 kb are displayed.

779
Figure 5. Comparison of secondary metabolite biosynthetic gene clusters reveals a core
set of secondary metabolites in the FSSC and prevailing expression. BGCs with a known
predicted product are indicated in bold and those with unknown products labeled with their natural
product class. Percent identity was calculated using amino acid sequence of the backbone
enzymes. Red boxes indicate the isolate whose sequence was used as the query when
calculating percent identity. The circles beneath the heatmap indicate the breadth of conditions
where transcription of the core backbone enzyme was detected in *F. petroliphilum* NRZ-2014-079
and *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069. Dashed circles represent BGCs that were not present in
the genome, empty grey circles (○) represent BGCs where no expression was detected in any of
the five conditions assayed (TPM < 1), black half-filled circles (◑) indicate condition-specific gene
expression with TPM ≥ 1 in 1–3 conditions, and black filled circles (●) denote constitutive
expression (TPM ≥ 1 in ≥ 4 conditions). The dendrogram on the left represents the phylogenetic
relationship of the isolates.

Figure 6. Synteny and cargo of a conserved *Arwing Starship* in the FSSC. (a) Bubble plot indicating the number of unique *Starship* elements identified per genome, categorized by class of their captain. (b) Synteny plot depicting the between the different *Arwing Starships*. The dark purple shows the whole *Starship* and the light purple in combination with a star highlights the captain of each *Starship*. Strains were ordered corresponding to their phylogenetic position in panel b. (c) Bubble plot indicating the phylogenetic relationships of the samples and the COG functional annotation of the cargo. Numbers indicate the number of ORFs with each COG annotation within the *Starship* element.

803
Figure 7. Expression and co-expression network properties of lncRNAs and protein-coding genes in *Fusarium keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069 and *F. petroliphilum* NRZ-2014-079. (a) Proportion of expressed genes by gene type across samples. Genes were retained for analysis if they reached a raw count threshold of ≥10 in at least 8/10 samples and their expression had a variance-stabilizing transformed (VST) value > 1 in at least one sample. (b-c) Violin plot of global

connectivity (weighted degree) (b), and intramodular connectivity (kWithin) (c) within the co-
expression network. Boxplot within the violin indicates the summary statistics for the distribution.
(d-e) Giant connected components of filtered co-expression networks from *F. petroliphilum* NRZ-
2014-079 (d) and *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069 (e) after retaining the strongest co-
expression edges. In the plot, node size is scaled by betweenness centrality and nodes are
colored by gene type (BGC backbone enzyme, other BGC member, lncRNA, and non-BGC
protein coding genes). Edges represent the top 0.4% (*F. keratoplasticum*) and 0.2%
(*F. petroliphilum*) of TOM-based co-expression values. Statistical comparisons were performed
using Mann-Whitney U test. NS indicates p > 0.05.

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Supplementary Figure 1. Conservation of accessory chromosomes and contigs from
***Fusarium falciforme, Fusarium sp.* FSS12*, Fusarium sp.* Ph1 *and Fusarium vanettenii*.**
Accessory chromosomes and contigs of *F. sp.* Ph1, *F. falciforme*, *F. sp* FSSC12, and *F. vanettenii*
strains and their sequence conservation with other FSSC isolates. Shading indicates percent
identity across the syntenic block between the indicated isolate and accessory
chromosome/contig indicated, versus the best matching chromosome or contig from the other
isolates. Red lines at the bottom of each subplot indicate the location of transposable elements
and other repetitive elements.

830
Supplementary Figure 2. Repeat content of core and accessory chromosomes. Repeat
content calculated as the number of repetitive bases masked compared to the total chromosome
length. Only chromosomes and contigs >150kb were included in the analysis. *F. keratoplasticum*
and *F. petroliphilum* boxplots represent aggregated chromosome data from n=3 genomes each;
all other species represent the chromosomes from n=1 genome. Significance determined by
Mann-Whitney U test. * denotes p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001.

Supplementary Figure 3. Pairwise synteny of *F. keratoplasticum* Fu6 and the other study isolates. Colors indicate synthetic blocks shared between *F. keratoplasticum* Fu6 and the indicated strain, with the individual chromosome colors representing the syntenic block's chromosome number in Fu6. Only genomic chromosomes and contigs larger than 400 kb are displayed.

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Supplementary Figure 4. Identification and molecular properties of lncRNAs in *Fusariarium*
keratoplasticum and Fusarium petroliphilum. (a) The number of intergenic and antisense
predicted for *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069 (upper panel) and *F. petroliphilum* NRZ-2014-079
(bottom panel). (b) Density plots showing the distribution of sequence length (left) and expression
(right) between intergenic lncRNAs, antisense lnRNAs, and protein-coding genes. Dashed lines
represent the median. Statistical significance calculated using the Mann-Whitney U test with
Bonferroni correction. Intergenic lncRNAs are significantly shorter than protein-coding genes
(*F. keratoplasticum*: p < 0.0001, *F. petroliphilum*: p < 0.0001). Antisense lncRNAs do not differ
significantly in length compared to protein-coding genes. Both intergenic and antisense lncRNAs
show lower expression levels compared to protein-coding genes (p < 0.0001 for both classes of
lncRNAs in both species compared to protein coding genes.

857
Supplementary Figure 5. Synteny analysis of conserved intergenic lncRNAs in *Fusariarium*
***keratoplasticum* and *Fusarium petroliphilum*.** Circos plot depicts the syntenic relationships of
intergenic lncRNAs between *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069 and *F. petroliphilum* NRZ-2014-
079. For a lncRNA to be considered syntenic, at least three common genes for each pairwise
comparison between species, with a minimum of one common gene on each side of the lncRNA.
Syntenic regions are visualized as black ribbons connecting segments between the two species.
Only genomic scaffolds >615 kb are displayed.

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Supplementary Figure 6. Heat map of over and underrepresented gene ontology (GO)
terms in *Fusarium keratoplasticum* and *petroliphilum* compared to other members of the
FSSC. Significantly over- or under-represented GO terms for *F. keratoplasticum* and
F. petroliphilum identified by t-test and Bonferroni-corrected p < 0.05. Heat map fill represents the
Z-scaled number of genes per genome annotated with each term. GO terms of particular interest
or highlighted in the text are written in bold.

Supplementary Figure 7. Functional annotations of cargo of *Arwing* and *Galactica* Starships. (a) GO biological process terms and their gene copy number in *Arwing* cargo. (b) COG annotations and their copy number in *Galactica Starships*.

F. keratoplasticum

F. petroliphilum

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Supplementary Figure 8. Expression of *Galactica Starship* cargo genes and associated
lncRNAs in *F. keratoplasticum* NRZ-2014-069 and *F. petroliphilum* NRZ-2014-079 across
different culture conditions. The heat map displays $\log_2$-transformed TPM values
($\log_2$(TPM+1)) for genes within the *Starship* cluster and co-localized lncRNAs under five
experimental conditions: 25°C complete medium (CM), 25°C carbon starvation (CS), 25°C
nitrogen starvation (NS), 34°C complete medium (CM), and 28°C conidia grown on solid media
(SAB). Each value represents the average expression of two biological replicates. Genes are
ordered according to their genomic position in the *Starship* element. Gene types are color-coded
in the annotation bar: orange indicates the captain gene, blue represents *Starship* genes, and
green denotes lincRNAs. Genes ordered by synteny.

Supplementary Figure 9. Comparison of enriched and depleted Gene Ontology terms in the transcriptomes of *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum*. Experiments were conducted using NRZ-2014-069 for *F. keratoplasticum* and NRZ-2014-079 for *F. petroliphilum*. Differential expression for the conditions shown was calculated in comparison to mycelia grown in complete media at 25°C. Color indicates normalized enrichment score calculated by fgsea. Circle size indicates the number of genes for each GO term that were differentially expressed. Circles with a black outline indicate GO terms for which adjusted p-value < 0.01. All other circles have an adjusted p-value < 0.1.

Supplementary File List

Supplementary File 1. Accession numbers for the genome assemblies used in the phylogeny, including the publicly available FSSC isolates analyzed.

Supplementary File 2. Gene Ontology terms significantly over- or underrepresented in the genomes of *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum*. File includes the gene counts and z-scored values depicted in Figure 5. Description of genome-wide ontology terms.

Supplementary File 3. Conservation of lncRNAs between *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum* identified through nucleotide alignment of lncRNA sequences and synteny using flanking protein-coding genes.

Supplementary File 4. Differentially expressed genes in conidia, under carbon starvation, and at 34°C relative to mycelia grown in complete media. Description of DEG file.

Supplementary File 5. Gene set enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes in *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum*.

Supplementary File 6. Newick phylogeny displayed in Figure 1.

Supplementary File 7. Core and accessory genes for the FSSC, *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum*

Supplementary File 8. Characterization of lncRNA-BGC regulatory networks and expression profiles. Summary of lncRNA-BGC co-expression interactions in *F. keratoplasticum* and *F. petroliphilum*, including the number of connected clusters and the identity of biosynthetic products. Transcriptional activity metrics for lncRNAs and BGC backbone enzymes across five growth conditions.

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