- 2 cycle spanning multiple grass hosts
- 4 Vanina L. Castroagudín<sup>1</sup>¶, Anderson L. D. Danelli<sup>2</sup>¶; Silvino I. Moreira<sup>3</sup>¶; Juliana T. A.
- 5 Reges<sup>1</sup>, Giselle de Carvalho<sup>1</sup>, João L.N. Maciel<sup>4</sup>, Ana L. V. Bonato<sup>4</sup>, Carlos A. Forcelini<sup>5</sup>,
- 6 Eduardo Alves<sup>3</sup>, Bruce A. McDonald<sup>6</sup>, Daniel Croll<sup>6,7</sup>, Paulo C. Ceresini<sup>1</sup>\*
- 8 Department of Crop Protection, Agricultural Engineering, and Soils, UNESP University of
- 9 São Paulo State, Ilha Solteira Campus, São Paulo, Brazil.
- <sup>2</sup> Faculdades Integradas do Vale do Iguaçu, Uniguaçu, União da Vitória, Paraná, Brazil.
- Department of Plant Pathology, Federal University of Lavras, Lavras, Minas
- 12 Gerais, Brazil.

7

- <sup>4</sup>Brazilian Agriculture Research Corporation Embrapa Wheat (EMBRAPA Trigo), Passo
- 14 Fundo, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil.
- <sup>5</sup>Faculdade de Agronomia e Medicina Veterinária, UPF, Passo Fundo, Rio Grande do Sul,
- 16 Brazil
- <sup>6</sup>Plant Pathology Group, Institute of Integrative Biology, ETH Zürich, Zürich, Switzerland.
- <sup>7</sup>Laboratory of Evolutionary Genetics, Institute of Biology, University of Neuchâtel,
- 19 Neuchâtel, Switzerland.
- 21 Short title:

- 22 Pyricularia graminis-tritici on wheat and other poaceous hosts
- \*Corresponding author. E-mail: paulo.ceresini@bio.feis.unesp.br
- These authors contributed equally to this manuscript.

**Abstract** 

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

The wheat blast disease has been a serious constraint for wheat production in Latin America since the late 1980s. We used a population genomics analysis including 95 genome sequences of the wheat blast pathogen *Pyricularia graminis-tritici* (*Pygt*) and other Pyricularia species to show that Pygt is a distinct, highly diverse pathogen species with a broad host range. We assayed 11 neutral SSR loci in 526 Pygt isolates sampled from wheat and other grasses distributed across the wheat-growing region of Brazil to estimate gene flow, assess the importance of sexual reproduction, and compare the genetic structures of Pygt populations infecting wheat and nearby grasses. Our results suggest a mixed reproductive system that includes sexual recombination as well as high levels of gene flow among regions, including evidence for higher gene flow from grass-infecting populations and into wheat-infecting populations than vice versa. The most common virulence groups were shared between the grass- and wheat-infecting *Pygt* populations, providing additional evidence for movement of *Pygt* between wheat fields and nearby grasses. Analyses of fruiting body formation found that proto-perithecia and perithecia developed on senescing stems of wheat and other grass hosts, suggesting that sexual reproduction occurs mainly during the saprotrophic phase of the disease cycle on dead residues. *Phalaris canariensis* (canarygrass) supported the fullest development of perithecia, suggesting it is a promising candidate for identifying the teleomorph in the field. Based on these findings, we formulated a more detailed disease cycle for wheat blast that includes an important role for grasses growing near wheat fields. Our findings strongly suggest that widely grown pasture grasses function as a major reservoir of wheat blast inoculum and provide a temporal and spatial bridge that connects wheat fields across Brazil.

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

# Introduction

*Pyricularia* is a species-rich genus including many fungal pathogens that show specialization towards different host species in the Poaceae family, including rice (*Oryza sativa*), wheat (*Triticum aestivum*), oat (*Avena sativa*), barley (*Hordeum vulgare*), and millets (*Eleusine* 

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

coracana, Pennisetum glaucum, Setaria italica), as well as more than 50 other species of grasses [1-5]. Several studies indicated that distinct *Pyricularia* species emerged through repeated radiation events from a common ancestor [6, 7]. Such radiation events often result from ecological adaptations that include host jumps or shifts and changes in pathogenicity [4, 8]. These ecological adaptations may lead to the emergence of new species of "domesticated" host-specialized fungal pathogens infecting agricultural crops from "wild" ancestral source populations found on undomesticated plants [4, 8]. Examples of speciation following host specialization are common in cereal agro-ecosystems and were already described for several plant pathogenic fungi, including *Pyricularia oryzae* on rice and *P. grisea* on *Digitaria* spp. [5], Zymoseptoria tritici on wheat [9], Rhynchosporium commune on barley [10], Ceratocystis fimbriata on cacao (Theobroma cacao), sweet potato (Ipomoea batatas) and sycamore (*Platanus* spp.) [11], and *Microbotryum violaceum* on *Silene* spp. [12]. For *P*. oryzae, causal agent of rice blast [5, 13], strains that infect rice are thought to have emerged by ecological adaptation via host shifts from millet (Setaria spp.) to rice and to have coevolved with their respective hosts during the domestication of rice and millet in China about 7000 BC [14]. A previous study indicated that a new *Pyricularia* species, named *Pyricularia* graminis-tritici (Pygt), emerged in southern Brazil during the last century as the pathogen causing wheat blast [15]. Pygt is closely related to P. oryzae [15]. Wheat blast was first reported in Paraná State, Brazil in 1985 [16, 17] and since then has become an increasingly important disease, causing crop losses ranging from 40% to 100% [18]. Blast disease has also been reported in other important crops growing in the same agro-ecosystems in Latin America, including pastures of signal grass (*Urochloa brizantha*, ex Brachiaria brizantha), barley, oats, rye (Secale cereale), and triticale (x Triticosecale). Although other Pyricularia species can cause blast symptoms on wheat, we focused this study on Pygt, which is the

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

major species associated with wheat blast [15, 17, 19-24]. Since its discovery, *Pygt* has spread across all wheat-cropping areas in Brazil [17, 18, 25-27] and is now found in Bolivia, Argentina and Paraguay [28]. Its first report outside South America was an outbreak in Bangladesh in 2016 [29-31] followed by its spread to India in 2017 [32, 33]. Wheat blast is a major quarantine disease in the United States [27] and it is considered a threat to wheat cultivation in disease-free areas across Asia, Europe, and North America [34]. *Pygt* can be dispersed over short and long distances by aerial inoculum (conidia) [35]

and also on infected seeds [36]. Unlike most Pyricularia species, Pygt isolates recovered from wheat can infect a wide range of hosts, including the tribes *Hordeae*, *Festuceae*, Avenae, Chlorideae, Agrosteae and Paniceae [37]. Under natural field conditions, close physical proximity between cultivated plants and other poaceous hosts (i.e., weeds or invasive grass species) could enable genetic exchange among Pyricularia populations on different hosts and facilitate host shifts. Cross-infection and inter-fertility between fungal strains from different grass hosts were hypothesized to play a role in the emergence of wheat blast [38, 39]. Evidence to support this hypothesis was presented in a recent study that analyzed variation in the avirulence genes PWT3 and PWT4 [40]. This study proposed that wheat blast emerged via a host shift from a *Pyricularia* population infecting *Lolium*. In their model, a Lolium-derived isolate carrying the Ao avirulence allele at the PWT3 locus infected a susceptible wheat cultivar carrying the rwt3 susceptibility allele. The model further proposes that the spread of wheat blast in the 1980s was enabled by the widespread cultivation in Brazil of susceptible wheat cultivars carrying rwt3. Selection on less common Rwt3 wheat cultivars favored the emergence of pathogen strains with non-functional PWT3 alleles, and the authors proposed that it was these pwt3 strains that eventually became the epidemic wheat blast population found in South America.

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

Pyricularia is considered a genus of pathogens with high evolutionary potential [39, 41, 42]. The evolutionary potential of a pathogen population reflects its ecology and biology, and its population genetic structure [41, 42]. Pioneering studies on the genetic structure of Pygt indicated a highly variable population distributed across different Brazilian states [43, 44]. Analyses of three regional populations sampled in Brazil between 2005 and 2008 suggested long distance gene flow and a mixed reproductive system [39]. These findings indicated that Pygt is a pathogen with high evolutionary potential, according to the risk model proposed by McDonald and Linde [41, 42]. Knowledge about the evolutionary potential of *Pygt* populations is needed to predict the durability of genetic resistance to wheat blast. An intense search for blast resistance began with the first report of the disease more than 30 years ago, but breeding success has been erratic and inconsistent [45-48]. The average durability of resistant wheat varieties has been only two to three years [49]. Furthermore, wheat genotypes behaved differently in different regions, indicating genotype-by-environment interactions or a region-specific distribution of virulence groups [50]. Given that *Pygt* is now present in all Brazilian wheat growing areas [15, 28], it is likely that both the incidence and severity of wheat blast are affected by the virulence groups that predominate in each region [39]. In fact, the occurrence of virulence groups in *Pygt* populations was already described [39, 43, 50, 51], but information about the virulence composition and genetic structure of contemporary populations of the wheat blast pathogen remains limited. Several lines of evidence indicate that *Pygt* populations recombine regularly in Brazil: both mating types and fertile strains were present in wheat fields, field populations contain high genetic diversity, and gametic equilibrium is found among neutral marker loci [26, 39, 52]. Under laboratory conditions, *Pygt* isolates showed the capacity for sexual reproduction

[37] and were shown to be sexually compatible with *Pyricularia* isolates from other poaceous

hosts including plantain signalgrass (*Urochloa plantaginea*, ex Brachiaria plantaginea), goosegrass (*Eleusine indica*), finger-millet (*Setaria italica*), rescuegrass (*Bromus catharticus*), canary grass (*Phalaris canariensis*) and triticale (x *Triticosecale*) [52, 53]. Crosses between isolates recovered from wheat and *Urochloa plantaginea* produced perithecia with asci and ascospores, a clear indicator of sexual reproduction [54], but perithecia have not yet been found in blasted wheat fields and it remains unclear where and when the sexual stage occurs.

Here we bring together findings from a series of experiments conducted to better

Here we bring together findings from a series of experiments conducted to better understand the origins of wheat blast and formulate an improved disease cycle. We first used population genomic analyses including 36 *Pygt* strains originating from many different hosts and 59 strains of other *Pyricularia* species to infer the genealogical relationships among *Pyricularia* species and better define the phylogenetic boundaries of *Pygt*. We next generated and analyzed a microsatellite dataset from 526 contemporary Brazilian isolates of *Pygt* sampled from wheat fields and invasive grasses across Brazil to compare the genetic structures of *Pygt* populations found on wheat and other grasses. We then compared the distribution of *Pygt* virulence groups found in wheat fields with the distribution of virulence groups found on invasive grasses growing in or near those wheat fields. Finally, we conducted experiments to identify grass hosts and tissues where sexual perithecia are most likely to form to better understand the importance of sexual recombination in *Pygt* population biology and identify the hosts most likely to support formation of the teleomorph. This combination of experiments provided novel insights into the origins and epidemiology of wheat blast.

### **Results**

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

together as a near-clonal genotype that was distinct from the group of 32 Pygt strains found

on wheat and other grasses in Brazil and Bangladesh (Fig 1). The inferred genealogical relationships indicated that the *Pygt* strains sampled mainly from wheat comprise a single highly diverse species. The formerly described *P. oryzae* pathotype *Triticum* clade (indicated as *PoT* in the genealogy) [15] was not distinct from the *P. graminis-tritici* (*Pygt*) clade (Fig 1). The clade formed by *Pygt* strains sampled from infected wheat ears and other grass hosts contained much more polymorphism than the rice-infecting *P. oryzae* strains available in public genome databases. Despite the higher overall diversity, several of the Brazilian *Pygt* strains formed sub-clades that may represent expanded clonal lineages (Fig 1). In two of these sub-clades, closely related strains from the same sub-clade were found infecting different hosts.

#### Populations of *Pygt* from wheat and other grasses share genotypes

To explore the possibility of gene and genotype flow among the *Pygt* populations infecting wheat and other grasses, we conducted population genetic analyses using 11 neutral microsatellite (SSR) markers in an expanded dataset including 526 Brazilian *Pygt* isolates. A total of 198 different multilocus microsatellite genotypes (MLMGs) were found among the 526 isolates (Table 2, Fig 2). Of these MLMGs, 165 (83%) were found in only one population (Tables 2-4), but 33 MLMGs (17%) were shared by sympatric (from the same region) or allopatric (from different regions) populations of *Pygt*. These 33 MLMGs encompassed 257 isolates (224 from wheat, and 33 from other grasses), with 20 of these MLMGs (corresponding to 176 isolates) found exclusively on wheat. The number of MLMGs within a population that were shared across populations ranged from four (7 isolates) in SPw to 15 (46 isolates) in MS. No MLMGs were shared between the isolates collected in 2005 and those collected in 2012 (Tables 3 and 4), indicating that *Pygt* clones do not persist over time.

Table 1. Populations of the blast pathogen *Pyricularia graminis-tritici* from wheat and other poaceous hosts characterized in this study.

Species, host, cultivar	Population	Sampling Location, State	Coordinates	Sampling year	N
Triticum aestivum					
Several cultivars	2005w	Central-southern Brazil		2005	79
BRS 254, BR18	DF-GO <sub>W</sub>	Brasília, DF; and Rio Verde, GO	17°19'46.8"S, 50°06'17.5"W	2012-2013	86
BRS 264, BR18	$MG_W$	Patrocínio, and Perdizes, MG	19°09'10.1"S, 47°16'5.7"W	2012-2013	62
BRS Guamirim	$MS_{W}$	Amambaí, and Aral Moreira, MS	22°59'33.1"S, 55°20'11.1"W	2012-2013	82
CD 104	$PR_{W}$	Londrina, Jandaia do Sul, PR	23°14'16.0"S, 51°10'10.5"W	2012-2013	74
	$RS_W$	Passo Fundo, São Luiz Gonzaga, São Borja and Três de Maio, RS	28°33'16"S, 55°21'52.5"W	2012-2013	52
CD 116	$SP_W$	Itaí, SP	23°33'8"S, 49°3'24.9"W	2012-2013	31
			Total (T. aestivum)		466
Other poaceous hosts					
Avena sativa, Cenchrus echinatus, Chloris distichophylla, Cynodon spp., Digitaria insularis, Digitaria sanguinalis, Echinochloa crusgalli, Eleusine indica, Eragrostis plana, Panicum	$MS_P$	Amambaí and Aral Moreira, MS	22°59'33.1"S, 55°20'11.1"W	2012-2013	29
maximum, Rhynchelytrum repens, Sorghum sudanense,	$PR_P$	Londrina, PR	23°14'16.0"S, 51°10'10.5"W	2012-2013	31
and Urochloa brizantha.			<b>Total (Other poaceous hosts)</b>	)	60
			Total		526

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

The MS<sub>P</sub> and PR<sub>P</sub> populations sampled from other grass hosts shared 11 MLMGs with the populations from wheat. These 11 shared MLMGs were found in 48 strains originating from wheat and 33 strains recovered from other grass species, including Avena sativa, Chloris distichophylla, Cynodon spp., Digitaria insularis, Digitaria sanguinalis, Echinochloa crusgalli, Eleusine indica, Eragrostis plana, Panicum maximum, Rhynchelytrum repens, Sorghum sudanense and Urochloa brizantha (Table 4). The genetic similarity among all MLMGs and their geographical and host distributions are displayed as a minimal spanning network in Fig 3, with the 11 shared MLMGs indicated in red text. The probability that any two isolates drawn at random from the pool of 526 isolates would share one of these 11 MLMGs by chance in a recombining population ranged from 6.82<sup>-6</sup> to 1.28<sup>-10</sup> [55, 56] (Table 4), hence it is highly likely that isolates with the same MLMG represent the same clone or clonal lineage. These 11 MLMGs found on both wheat and other grasses provide compelling evidence for the existence of *Pygt* clones with a broad host range, with transmission among hosts growing in the same region likely occurring via dispersal of asexual spores, and transmission among distant geographical regions likely occurring via movement on infected seeds. The clonal fraction inferred in each geographical population ranged from 0.13 in SPw to 0.72 in DF-GOw, whereas the evenness ranged from 0.19 in the DF-GOw population to ~ 0.90 in SPw. Overall, we found that the MLMGs were not uniformly distributed in the majority of the populations (Table 2). The effective number of genotypes  $(G_Q)$  ranged from 4.5 to 23.4 and was highest in Pygt populations from SP<sub>W</sub> ( $G_O = 23.4$ ), MS<sub>W</sub> ( $G_O = 21.8$ ) and  $PR_W(G_O = 18.3)$  and lowest in DF-GO<sub>W</sub> ( $G_O = 4.5$ ) (Table 2). The allelic richness averaged across ten populations was 2.75. The MS<sub>P</sub> population from other grasses had the highest allelic richness (3.18) (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Measures of gene and genotypic and clonal diversity in populations of *Pyricularia graminis-tritici* from wheat and other poaceous hosts in Brazil<sup>a</sup>

Species, host, population	$N^{\mathrm{b}}$	No. genotypes <sup>c</sup>	No. population specific and shared genotypes <sup>d</sup>	Clonal fraction <sup>e</sup>	Eve. <sup>f</sup>	Ef. No. genotypes <sup>g,h</sup>	Allelic Richness <sup>i</sup>
Triticum aestivum							
$2005_{\mathrm{W}}$	79	26	26 (0)	0.67	0.18	4.80 c	3.06 ab
DF-GOw	86	23	14 (9)	0.73	0.20	4.50 c	2.40 b
$MG_W$	62	27	15 (12)	0.56	0.27	7.42 bc	2.29 b
$MS_{\mathrm{W}}$	82	45	26 (19)	0.45	0.48	21.83 a	3.05 ab
$PR_W$	74	45	34 (11)	0.39	0.41	18.38 a	3.08 ab
$RS_{W}$	52	19	9 (10)	0.63	0.44	8.40 b	2.53 ab
$SP_W$	31	27	22 (5)	0.13	0.87	23.44 a	2.74 ab
Other Poaceae							
$MS_P$	29	16	9 (7)	0.43	0.64	10.32 b	3.18 a
$PR_P$	31	17	10 (7)	0.45	0.47	7.94 bc	2.45 b
Total	526	198	165 (33)	<b>0.49</b> <sup>j</sup>			<b>2.75</b> <sup>j</sup>

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

<sup>a</sup> The measures of genotypic/clonal diversity were calculated with GenoDive ver. 2.0b.17 [57]. b N = sample size. <sup>c</sup> Number of genotypes identified with the different markers in each population. d Number of specific genotypes per population; the number of genotypes shared with other populations is shown in brackets. <sup>e</sup> Clonal fraction is the proportion of fungal isolates originating from asexual reproduction. The clonal fraction was calculated as 1 – [number of different genotypes/total number of isolates]. <sup>f</sup> Eve, the evenness calculated as the ratio between the effective number of genotypes and the number of genotypes. An evenness value of 1 indicates that all genotypes have equal frequencies. g Effective number of genotypes = Stoddart and Taylor's genotypic diversity ( $G_0$ ). h Means followed by the same letter are not significantly different  $(p \le 0.05)$  based on pairwise bootstrap tests, based on 1,000 permutations with subsampling to match the size of the smallest population, calculated with GenoDive ver. 2.0b.17 [57]. <sup>1</sup> Average allelic richness based on minimum sample size of 16 individuals calculated according to El Mousadik and Petit [58].

j Averaged over the nine populations examined.

**Table 3.** Number of multilocus microsatellite genotypes shared between Brazilian population of *Pyricularia graminis-tritici* from wheat and other poaceous hosts.

Charles manufations	Wheat (7	riticum aestiv	um)					Other Poace	eae
Species, populations	2005 <sub>w</sub>	DF-GO <sub>w</sub>	$MG_{\mathrm{w}}$	$MS_{\rm w}$	PRw	$RS_{\mathrm{w}}$	$SP_{\mathrm{w}}$	$MS_p$	PR <sub>p</sub>
$2005_{\mathrm{W}}$	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DF-GO <sub>W</sub>		-	9	1	0	1	0	0	0
$MG_W$			-	3	1	4	0	0	0
$MS_W$				-	8	8	2	5	4
$PR_W$					-	1	4	0	3
$RS_W$						-	0	3	0
$SP_W$							-	0	1
$MS_P$								-	3
$PR_P$									-
Total number of shared genotypes in each population	0	9	11	14	10	10	5	7	7
Total number of isolates with shared genotypes in each population	n 0	68	45	43	19	41	8	12	21

Table 4. Number of isolates showing each of the eleven multilocus microsatellite genotypes shared among sympatric populations of *Pyricularia*graminis-tritici sampled from wheat and other poaceous hosts from Central-southern Brazil

Construe	Nun	nber of isola	ates with	shared	genoty	pe in e	each po	pulatio	n	Total	Doord	Heate
Genotype	2005w	DF-GOw	MGw	MSw	PRw	RSw	SPw	$MS_p$	$PR_p$	Total	Pgen <sup>a</sup>	Hosts
68				5		5		1		11	1.48-9	Triticum aestivum, Urochloa brizantha
69				10		5		2		17	$2.10^{-7}$	T. aestivum, Echinochloa crusgalli, U. brizantha
75				1					4	5	1.97 <sup>-9</sup>	T. aestivum, Avena sativa, Digitaria sanguinalis, Rhynchelytrum repens
76				2				1	2	5	1.01 <sup>-7</sup>	T. aestivum, A. sativa, Eragrostis plana, U. brizantha
79				2				3	9	14	1.39-8	T. aestivum, E. crusgalli, D. sanguinalis, Eleusine indica, Panicum maximum, R. repens, Sorghum sudanense, U. brizantha
80				8	2				1	11	$2.32^{-8}$	T. aestivum, Chloris distichophylla
83				2				3		5	$1.65^{-9}$	T. aestivum, D. sanguinalis, E. crusgalli
99				2	1				2	5	$1.27^{-7}$	T. aestivum, D. sanguinalis, R. repens
122					1			1	1	3	$1.28^{-10}$	T. aestivum, A. sativa, Cynodon spp.
156						1		1		2	$6.82^{-6}$	T. aestivum, Digitaria insularis
170							1		2	3	$2.46^{-9}$	T. aestivum, C. distichophylla
Total	0	0	0	32	4	11	1	12	21	81		13 different hosts

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> *Pgen* provides an estimate of the probability of identical genotypes arising from sexual reproduction and random mating and it is identical to the genotype probability [55, 56].

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

Pygt populations on wheat and other grasses are connected by gene flow The overall fixation index indicated a weak but significant differentiation ( $R_{ST} = 0.07$ , p < 0.070.001) among all populations. When *Pygt* populations from wheat were analyzed separately, AMOVA showed a low but still significant level of population differentiation ( $R_{ST} = 0.07$ ,  $p \le$ 0.001), with 93% of the genetic variation distributed within populations. In contrast, when the two Pygt populations from other grasses (separated by ~ 430 km) were compared, AMOVA indicated an absence of population differentiation ( $R_{ST} = 0.02$ , p = 0.29), with 98% of genetic variation distributed within grass-infecting populations. The orthogonal contrast of Pygt populations from wheat with Pygt populations from other poaceous hosts was significant but the level of differentiation was very low ( $R_{CT} = 0.04$ ), with the majority of genetic variation distributed within populations (93%) (Table 5). It is notable that no subdivision was found for 12 of the 15 pairwise comparisons between the two *Pygt* populations obtained from other grass hosts (MS<sub>P</sub> and PR<sub>P</sub>) and the *Pygt* populations from wheat (Table 6). Historical gene flow was detected among Pygt populations from wheat and other grasses. The unidirectional migration models gave a better fit to the data than the panmictic or bidirectional models (Table 7). Historical migration analyses support unidirectional gene flow into the *Pygt* population infecting wheat from the *Pygt* population infecting other grasses (contributing 4.3 migrants per generation in average) (Table 8), suggesting that the Pygt population infecting wheat is composed of immigrants from the Pygt population infecting other grasses. There were no significant differences between  $\Theta$  values (Table 8).

**Table 5**. Hierarchical distribution of gene diversity among populations of *Pyricularia* graminis-tritici from wheat and other poaceous hosts and *P. oryzae* from rice in Central-southern Brazil <sup>a</sup>

Source of variation	d.f.	Variance components	% of variance	Fixation Index	p
Among populations from wheat					
Among populations	6	1.71	7.1	$R_{ST} = 0.07$	< 0.0001
Within populations	205	22.54	92.9		
Total	211	24.25			
Among populations from other poa	aceous ho	ost			
Among populations	1	0.71	2.0	$R_{ST} = 0.02$	0.2092
Within populations	31	35.82	98.0		
Total	32	36.53			
Populations from wheat blast vs. of	ther poac	eous hosts			
Between groups	1	1.12	3.85	$R_{SC} = 0.04$	< 0.0001
Among populations within groups	26	0.84	2.90		
Within populations	627	27.13	93.25		
Total	654	29.09			

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a.</sup> The analysis of molecular of variance (AMOVA) was performed using Arlequin version 3.1

[59]. The distance method is based on the sum of squared size differences among alleles between two haplotypes for microsatellite data according Slatkin [60]; Significance values were obtained using a non-parametric approach (1023 permutations) [61].

**Table 6**. Pairwise differentiation among populations of *Pyricularia graminis-tritici* from wheat and other poaceous hosts in Central-southern Brazil

D	Wheat (T. aesti	Wheat (T. aestivum)													
$R_{ST}$	2005 <sub>W</sub>	DF-GO <sub>W</sub>	MGw	MSw	PRw	RSw	SPw	$MS_P$	$PR_P$						
2005 <sub>W</sub>	-														
DF-GOw	0.0066	-													
$MG_{\mathrm{W}}$	0.0078	0.0340	-												
$MS_{\mathrm{W}}$	0.0561	0.1567*	0.0403	-											
$PR_{W}$	0.0944*	0.2387*	0.1213*	0.0092	-										
$RS_{\mathrm{W}}$	0.0610	0.1583*	0.0400	0.0298	0.0830	-									
SPw	0.0281	0.1734*	0.0969	0.0480	0.0660	0.1499	-								
$MS_P$	-0.0099	0.0750	0.0203	0.0316	0.0690	0.0733	-0.0050	-							
$PR_P$	0.0380	0.1794*	0.1274*	0.0927	0.0674	0.1661*	0.0044	0.0196	-						

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a.</sup> Fixation index among the nine populations of *P. graminis-tritici*:  $R_{ST} = 0.07$  ( $p \le 0.001$ )

b. Calculation were conducted on clone corrected data and based on the sum of squared size differences among alleles ( $R_{ST}$ ) between two haplotypes for microsatellite data according Slatkin [60]. The test was performed using Arlequin version 3.1[59]. Significance values have been tested using a non-parametric approach (1023 permutations) [61], at  $\alpha = 0.05$  after Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons [62].  $R_{ST}$  values followed by '\*' showed statistically significant p-values at corrected  $\alpha = 0.005$ ).

**Table 7**. Comparison of models of historical migration between pairs of Brazilian populations of *Pyricularia graminis-tritici* grouped by original hosts (wheat and other Poaceae) based on Bezier approximation scores to the marginal likelihood<sup>a</sup>

Populations, run	Migration model (Bezier approximation score)									
i opulations, run	Panmictic	Bidirectional	From 1 to 2	From 2 to 1						
Wheat (1) and other Poac	ceae (2)									
1	-15811.0	-13724.8	-13759.2	-13127.7						
2	-15821.7	-13650.8	-13767.6	-13123.6						
3	-15831.5	-13761.6	-13769.7	-13112.1						
4	-15828.0	-13801.1	-13760.5	-13104.3						
5	-15823.1	-13651.3	-13751.6	-13117.0						
LBF	-5397.8	-1077.4	-1279.0	0.0						

a Migration analyses were implemented in MIGRATE-n v. 3.6.11 at the CIPRES Science Gateway [63], using a maximum likelihood test based on the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method [64-68]. Each of the five runs had ten short initial chains, one long final chain, a static heating scheme (temperatures: 1.0, 100, 100, 1,0000 and 100,000), and swapping interval of 1. The initial chains had 500-recorded steps, a sampling increment of 100, with 2,500 trees recorded per short sample. The long chain had 8,334-recorded steps, a sampling increment of 500, six concurrent replicates, and 500 trees as burn-in. The final number of sampled parameter values was 25,002,000 iterations.

b The likelihood values of the four migration models were compared to select the model that best fitted the data based on the Log of the Bayes Factor (LBF). LBF was calculated as: 2[ln(Prob(Data | ModelX)) – ln (Prob(Data | best of the four models))]. The highest the LBF values, the better the fit of the migration model to the data [64].

c, d. The run with the highest likelihood chosen to represent a given model is in bold, and the model that best fit the migration between a given pair of populations is shaded.

**Table 8**. Migration parameter between pairs of Brazilian populations of *Pyricularia graminis-tritici* from wheat and other Poaceae, under the best fit migration model and obtained by Bayesian inference.

Population pairs	Migration model that best fit	Migration parameters estimates <sup>a</sup>								
Population pairs	the data	$\Theta_{\mathrm{Wheat}}{}^{\mathrm{b}}$	Θ Other Poaceae	$xNm_{\text{Donor}} \rightarrow \text{Recipient}^c$						
Wheat and other	Directional (from other	2.97	0.63	$xNm_{\text{Poaceae}} \rightarrow \text{Wheat} = 4.26$						
Poaceae	Poaceae to wheat)	(0.0001 - 3.48)	(0.0001 - 0.84)	(0.0001 - 13.00)						

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Bayesian estimates of the migration parameters were calculated with MIGRATE-n v. 3.6.11 at the CIPRES Science Gateway [63],

using a maximum likelihood test based on the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method [64-68]. Values represent the mean Bayesian estimate, and are followed by the 95% credibility intervals for each parameter given by the 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles of its *a posteriori* distribution in parenthesis.

<sup>b</sup> Theta (Θ) values provide a measure of the effective population size; for haploids,  $\Theta = 2Ne\mu$ , where Ne = 0 effective population size and  $\mu = 0$  mutation rate for each locus [68].

<sup>c</sup>  $xNm_{Donor \to Recipient}$  is the number of immigrants per generation; where N is the real population size, m is the fraction of the new immigrants of the population per generation, and x is an inheritance scalar and x=1 for haploids. The number of immigrants per generation can also be expressed as the product  $\Theta M$  ( $xNm_{Donor \to Recipient} = \Theta_{recipient} M_{Donor \to Recipient}$ ); where M is m divided by the mutation rate  $\mu$  ( $M = m/\mu$ ), and it represents the importance of variability brought into the receiving population by immigration from the donor population compared with the variability created by mutation [68].

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

wheat.

Most of the *Pygt* populations were sexually recombining. We consider a population to be sexually recombined when the majority of locus pairs are at gametic equilibrium and/or  $I_A$  or  $\bar{r}_D$  are not significant (p > 0.05). Under these assumptions, 7 of the 9 populations had signatures consistent with sexual recombination. Only 2005<sub>w</sub> and MS<sub>w</sub> showed evidence for significant clonal reproduction, with six and five pairs of loci showing significant GD, respectively, and significant  $I_A$  and  $\bar{r}_D$  (p < 0.001) (Table 9). Because MSw possessed the highest number of shared MLMGs among populations (N=32, Table 4), we believe that the GD detected in this case was generated by the large influx of immigrants into this population. Perithecia of *Pygt* develop on senescing stems of wheat and other grasses To better understand the role of sexual reproduction in the *Pygt* life cycle and determine whether the sexual cycle was more likely to occur on wheat or other grass hosts we performed a fruiting experiment and measured the production of proto-perithecia (the primordium that when fertilized develops into a perithecium) and perithecia on different host substrates. The ascocarps formed on autoclaved pieces of wheat stem were indistinguishable from those observed on naturally senescing pieces of stems of wheat and other Poaceae. The proto-perithecia and perithecia developed on the epidermal plant surface and within stems, where they were partially immersed in the internode culm. Proto-perithecia were black or very dark brown and sub-globose shaped. The mature perithecia were black and generally formed long beaks that often came from perithecia that were immersed in the plant tissue (Fig 4 and 5). Perithecia showed a mean size of 196 µm in length and 128 µm in width, with average neck size of 243 µm in length and 27 µm in width. Only the proto-perithecia formed on *Phalaris canariensis* reached a mature size consistent with complete development (Fig 5), suggesting that the sexual cycle was more likely to be completed on *P. canariensis* than on

**Table 9**. Estimates of gametic disequilibrium in populations of *Pyricularia graminis-tritici* from wheat and other poaceous hosts in Brazil.

Population	Number of monomorphic loci	Locus pairs at significant disequilibrium <sup>a</sup>	Bonferroni correction α <sup>b</sup>	Mat1-1 (%)	Mat1-2 (%)	Ratio Mat1-1: Mat1-2	$I_A{}^c$	$ar{r}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle D}{}^{\scriptscriptstyle  m c}$	$p^{\rm c}$
2005 <sub>w</sub>	3	5 of 28	0.00183	81.0	19.0	4:1	1.818	0.263	< 0.001
$DF$ - $GO_W$	1	0 of 45	0.00114	100.0	0.0	1:0	-0.191	-0.022	0.850
$MG_W$	2	1 of 36	0.00142	100.0	0.0	1:0	0.177	0.022	0.097
$MS_{W}$	1	6 of 45	0.00114	77.8	22.2	4:1	0.648	0.073	< 0.001
$PR_W$	1	0 of 45	0.00114	90.9	9.1	10:1	-0.093	-0.011	0.777
$RS_{W}$	2	1 of 36	0.00142	73.7	26.3	3:1	0.041	0.005	0.365
$SP_W$	3	0 of 28	0.00183	96.3	3.7	26:1	0.039	0.006	0.347
$MS_P$	1	0 of 45	0.00114	23.1	76.9	1:4	0.694	0.079	0.001
$PR_P$	3	0 of 28	0.00183	66.7	33.3	2:1	-0.079	-0.012	0.608

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Pairs of loci at significant disequilibrium according to the Fisher exact test (probability test) implemented by GENEPOP 3.4 [69] at  $p \le 0.05$  after Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons [62].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Value of  $\alpha$  after Bonferroni correction used for multiple comparisons in the calculation of locus pairs at significant disequilibrium. Initial significance  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup>  $I_A$  and  $\bar{r}_D$  are indexes of multilocus gametic disequilibrium (for the random association of alleles among distinct locus pairs).  $\bar{r}_D$  is adjusted for the number of loci. The calculation of  $I_A$  and  $\bar{r}_D$  and their significance was performed using Multilocus software according Agapow and Burt, [70]. We tested  $H_0$  = complete panmixia based on 1,000 randomizations; if  $p \le 0.05$  the population is under significant disequilibrium.

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

The virulence spectra of *Pygt* populations varied across geographical regions. We examined the virulence spectra for 173 Pygt isolates on both seedlings and detached heads of ten differential wheat cultivars and one barley cultivar. These differentials were chosen based on previous experiments which suggested a gene-for-gene interaction that would allow us to distinguish *Pygt* pathotypes [39]. Our aim in this analysis was to assess the geographical distribution of virulence groups of *Pygt* and determine if virulence groups were shared between strains infecting wheat and other grasses. The 173 assessed *Pygt* isolates, encompassing 80 unique MLMGs, produced typical leaf blast lesions (Fig. 6) and could be grouped into 25 seedling virulence groups (SVGs) (Table 10). These SVGs were named A to Y. SVG L was the predominant group, comprising 47% of the tested isolates. SVG A was the second most frequent group, found in 13% of tested isolates. The 23 remaining SVGs were relatively infrequent (Tables 10 and 11, Fig 7). SVG L was the most widely distributed virulence group across Brazil. The MS<sub>P</sub> population had the highest number of SVGs (11 groups), whereas the PR<sub>w</sub> and SP<sub>w</sub> populations had the lowest number of SVGs (1 and 2 groups, respectively). Nine SVGs (A, F to I, and K to N) were shared among *Pygt* isolates originating from wheat and other grasses (Tables 10 and 11). The same isolates fell into nine different head virulence groups (HVGs) when virulence spectra were assessed on detached, mature wheat heads. Five of these HVGs (A to D, and T) had virulence spectra that were identical to the five SVGs (A to D, and T), so we used the same nomenclature for these SVGs and HVGs. The remaining HVGs were designated AA to DD. HVG A was the predominant virulence group, found in 138 isolates, followed by HVG B found in 25 isolates (Table 12). Both of these virulence groups were found in all Pygt populations (Table 13), including the grass-infecting populations. The

remaining seven virulence groups were found in only 1 or 2 isolates. As found for the

seedling assay,  $MS_P$  was the population with the highest number of HVGs (6), and  $PR_W$  was the population with the lowest number of HVGs (1) (Table 14, Fig 8 and 9).

# **Discussion**

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

The phylogenetic analyses based on entire genome sequences did not support the earlier hypothesis that two distinct species (named P. graminis-tritici (Pygt) and P. oryzae pathotype Triticum (PoT) in Fig 1) cause wheat blast [15]. Instead, our phylogenetic analyses indicate that Pygt is a single, highly diverse pathogen species with a broad host range that encompasses many grasses that were either native (e.g. Chloris distichophylla, Cynodon spp., Digitaria insularis) or introduced into Brazil for food production during the last 200 years. Our current phylogenetic analyses do not allow us to determine whether there were multiple origins or a single origin for the wheat blast pathogen, but the absence of strict host specialization among the major sub-clades suggests that the ability to infect wheat may have originated multiple times. All of our findings are consistent with the hypothesis that wheat blast emerged in Brazil through a host shift from the *Pygt* population infecting other grasses growing near wheat fields, with strong evidence that gene flow still occurs between the Pygt population infecting wheat and the *Pygt* population infecting other grasses. We hypothesize that this recurring gene flow enables *Pygt* populations to maintain significant genetic variation on multiple hosts, a finding that stands in stark contrast to what is found for populations of *P. oryzae* causing rice blast. The microsatellite and virulence datasets revealed that the contemporary Pygt population of Brazil possesses a high degree of genetic and phenotypic diversity. We identified 198 MLMGs and 25 virulence groups among 526 Pygt isolates.

Table 10. Pathogenicity spectra of seedling virulence groups (SVGs) of isolates of Pyricularia graminis-tritici <sup>a</sup>

							W	heat					Barley	Total of
$SVGs^b$	N	%	Anahuac	BR 18	BR	BRS	BRS	BRS	BRS	CNT	MGS 3	Danan	PFC	resistant (R)
			75	Terena	24	220	229	234	Buriti	8	Brilhante	Renan	2010123	reactions
A	22	12.7	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	0
В	3	1.7	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	1
C	1	0.6	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	1
D	1	0.6	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	R	2
E	3	1.7	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	1
F	5	2.9	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	R	S	2
G	13	7.5	S	S	S	S	S	R	R	S	S	R	S	3
H	9	5.2	S	S	S	S	R	R	R	S	S	R	R	5
I	2	1.2	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	1
J	3	1.7	S	S	S	S	S	R	R	S	S	S	S	2
K	2	1.2	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	S	2
L	82	47.4	S	S	S	S	R	R	R	S	S	R	S	4
M	2	1.2	S	S	S	S	R	S	R	S	S	R	S	3
N	2	1.2	S	S	S	S	R	R	R	S	S	S	S	3
O	1	0.6	S	S	S	S	R	S	R	S	S	S	S	2
P	1	0.6	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	R	2
Q	2	1.2	S	S	S	S	S	R	R	S	S	R	R	4
R	1	0.6	S	R	S	S	R	R	R	R	S	R	S	6
S	1	0.6	S	R	S	S	R	R	R	S	S	R	S	4
T	5	2.9	S	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	S	9
U	1	0.6	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	1
V	4	2.3	S	R	R	S	R	R	R	R	R	R	S	8
W	4	2.3	S	R	R	S	R	R	R	S	R	R	S	7
X	1	0.6	S	S	S	S	R	R	R	S	R	R	S	5
Y	2	1.2	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	S	10
Total	173	100.0												
Total of R reactions			1	6	4	2	13	16	17	4	5	16	5	

a Procedures for inoculation assays were previously described [15, 39]. Briefly, spore suspensions (1 × 10<sup>5</sup> spores ml<sup>-1</sup>) were uniformly sprayed onto the adaxial leaf surfaces of 15-day-old seedlings at 4-leaf stage (Zadoks' growth stage 14, [71]) until run off. Two pots containing ten plants in the seedling test were inoculated with each of the 173 isolates. Inoculated pots were placed onto plastic trays and incubated in a plant growth chamber at 25 °C. Plants were kept in the dark for the first 24 h, followed by a 12 h dark /12 h fluorescent light regime. Five days after inoculation, disease reactions in response to individual isolates were visually scored based on the percentage of leaf surface showing typical blast symptoms. Upon this, cultivars were classified in qualitative terms either as resistant (R) or susceptible (S). Cultivars were considered R when they showed ≤ 10% of affected areas consistently across inoculation tests' repetitions and replicates [39]. Experiments were carried out using a two-factor completely randomized balanced design, and the inoculation test was conducted twice.

(SVGs), and SVGs were named with letters.

Table 11. Isolates of Pyricularia graminis-tritici assigned to each seedling virulence group (SVG) per population

								Po	pulation	on							т	otal
SVG	DI	F_GOw		MGw		MSw		PRw		RSw		SPw		$MS_P$		PR <sub>P</sub>	I	otai
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
A	1	2.3	3	12.5	5	20.0	8	100.0	1	6.7					4	15.4	22	12.7
В		•	1	4.2	2	8.0		•		•		•		•		•	3	1.7
C		•		•		•		•	1	6.7		•		•		•	1	0.6
D									1	6.7							1	0.6
E		•		•	1	4.0		•		•	2	33.3		•		•	3	1.7
F	1	2.3	1	4.2	1	4.0			2	13.3							5	2.9
G	3	6.8	3	12.5					3	20.0			2	8.0	2	7.7	13	7.5
Н	5	11.4	2	8.3	1	4.0									1	3.8	9	5.2
I									1	6.7			1	4.0			2	1.2
J	2	4.5							1	6.7							3	1.7
K					2	8.0											2	1.2
L	31	70.5	12	50.0	10	40.0			5	33.3	4	66.7	5	20.0	15	57.7	82	47.4
M					1	4.0									1	3.8	2	1.2
N	1	2.3													1	3.8	2	1.2
O					1	4.0											1	0.6
P			1	4.2													1	0.6
Q			1	4.2	1	4.0											2	1.2
R													1	4.0			1	0.6
S													1	4.0			1	0.6
T													5	20.0			5	2.9
U		•		•		•							1	4.0			1	0.6
V		٠		•		•							4	16.0			4	2.3
$\mathbf{W}$		•		•		•							3	12.0	1	3.8	4	2.3
X				•		•				•			1	4.0			1	0.6
Y				•		•							1	4.0	1	3.8	2	1.2
Total	44	100.0	24	100.0	25	100.0	8	100.0	15	100.0	6	100.0	25	100.0	26	100.0	173	100.0
Total SVGs	7	•	8	è	10		1		8		2		11		8		25	

**Table 12.** Pathogenicity spectra of head virulence groups (HVGs) of isolates of *P. graminis-tritici*<sup>a</sup>

							W	heat					Barley	Total of
HVGs	N	%	Anahuac	BR 18	BR	BRS	BRS	BRS	BRS	CNT	MGS 3	Renan	PFC	resistant (R)
			75	Terena	24	220	229	234	Buriti	8	Brilhante	Kenan	2010123	reactions
A	138	79.8	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	0
В	25	14.5	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	1
C	2	1.2	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	1
D	2	1.2	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	R	R	2
T	1	0.6	S	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	S	9
AA	2	1.2	S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	1
BB	1	0.6	S	S	R	S	S	S	R	S	S	R	S	3
CC	1	0.6	S	S	S	S	S	R	S	S	S	R	R	2
DD	1	0.6	S	R	S	R	R	R	R	S	R	R	S	7
Total	173	100.0												
Total of	R reaction	ons	0	2	3	2	2	3	3	1	2	6	3	-

a. Procedures for inoculation assays have been previously described [15, 39]. In short, spore suspensions (1 ×  $10^5$  spores ml<sup>-1</sup>) were uniformly sprayed onto the head detached heads harvested from plants between anthesis and initial grain-3 to grain-filling stage (Zadoks' growth stages 63 to 71, [71]) until run off. Three polyurethane foam blocks with ten detached heads apice were inoculated with each of the 173 isolates. Inoculated heads were placed in plastic boxes and incubated in a plant growth chamber at 25 °C. Plants were kept in the dark for the first 24 h, followed by a 12 h dark /12 h fluorescent light regime. Five days after inoculation, disease reactions in response to individual isolates were visually scored based on the percentage of detached head showing typical blast symptoms. Upon this, cultivars were classified in qualitative terms either as resistant (R) or susceptible (S). Cultivars were considered R when they showed ≤ 10% of affected areas consistently across inoculation tests' repetitions and replicates [39]. Experiments were carried out using a two-factor completely randomized balanced design, and the inoculation test was conducted twice.

b. According to their pathogenicity spectra on the set cultivars, isolates of *P. graminis-tritici* were grouped in head virulence groups (HVGs). Groups were named with letters, and the name was maintained when the pathogenicity spectra on seedling and on detached heads coincided.

Table 13. Isolates of *Pyricularia graminis-tritici* assigned to each head virulence group (HVG) per population

		Population															Total	
HVG	DF_GOw		MGw		$MS_{W}$		PRw		$RS_{W}$		$SP_{W}$		$MS_P$		$PR_P$		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
A	33	75.0	17	70.8	23	92	8	100	10	66.6	5	83.3	19	76.0	23	88.3	138	79.8
В	10	22.7	6	25.0	2	8			3	20	1	16.7	2	8.0	1	3.9	25	14.5
C									1	6.7	•		•			•	2	1.2
D	1	2.3	1	4.2					1	6.7	•					•	2	1.2
T											•				1	3.9	1	0.6
AA													1	4.0	1	3.9	2	1.2
BB													1	4.0		•	1	0.6
CC									•		•		1	4.0		•	1	0.6
DD													1	4.0		•	1	0.6
Total	44	100.0	24	100.0	25	100.0	8	100.0	15	100.0	6	100.0	25	100.0	26	100.0	173	100.0
Total HVGs	3	•	3	٠	2	•	1	•	4	•	2	•	6		4		9	•

455

456

457

458

459

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

We found little differentiation among populations infecting wheat and other grasses, indicating that Pygt is not a wheat-specialized pathogen. Populations separated by more than 2000 km were very similar, indicating a high degree of gene flow across large spatial scales and/or high levels of genetic diversity, which would reduce the impact of genetic drift and maintain similar allele frequencies over longer periods. The high gene flow may reflect efficient wind-dispersal of conidia and/or ascospores as well as long distance dispersal on infected seed of wheat and Urochloa [72]. Gametic equilibrium was found among SSR markers in most populations, with both mating types present, though with a predominance of the Mat1-1 idiomorph. These findings, coupled with both high genotype diversity (198 MLMGs out of 526 total strains analyzed) and evidence for some clonality, indicate that Pygt has a mixed reproductive system in which cycles of sexual reproduction are followed by the dispersal of locally-adapted clones. The absence of shared MLMGs between populations sampled in 2005 and 2012 suggest that clones do not persist for long periods of time, unlike what has been reported for *P. oryzae* [73]. Alternatively, very high genetic diversity would make it less likely to find the same MLMGs among populations. Historical analyses of gene flow indicated significant genetic exchange between Pygt populations on wheat and other grasses, with the direction of gene flow predominantly from the population infecting other grasses and into the populations infecting wheat. We hypothesize that the fungal strains capable of infecting both wheat and other grasses can move back and forth between hosts, with recombination occurring mainly on the other grasses and giving rise to the highly diverse Pygt population we observe today. Support for this scenario can be found in previous reports of cross infection and inter-fertility between isolates from wheat and other poaceous hosts [52-54], as well as in the lack of differentiation among wheat- and other Poaceae-adapted populations, the sharing of genotypes and virulence groups between the two host groups, and the finding of gametic equilibrium consistent with sexual recombination in most populations.

478

479

480

481

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

The finding that populations of *Pygt* from wheat and other grasses were not genetically subdivided suggests that several grass species can be hosts for the wheat blast pathogen, unlike the strict host specialization observed for the rice blast pathogen. We hypothesize that *Pygt* spends most of its life cycle colonizing grass species neighboring or invading the wheat fields affected by wheat blast. We further postulate that sexual recombination takes place mainly or exclusively in these other poaceous hosts, generating most of the genetic diversity observed in the *Pygt* populations infecting wheat. Other crop pathogens, especially rusts, are also known to undergo sexual recombination on a non-crop host. These hypotheses are consistent with earlier observations that the forage species signal grass (*U. brizantha*) plays a major role in the genetic variation of the wheat blast pathogen by providing a niche for the fungus to sexually reproduce [15, 54]. Because *U. brizantha* is a widely grown forage grass occupying more than 90 million ha in Brazil [74], and is often found growing next to wheat fields, we propose that *U. brizantha* constitutes a major reservoir of wheat blast inoculum and provides a temporal and spatial bridge that connects wheat crops between growing seasons and across the wheat growing areas of Brazil. Virulence phenotyping of 173 Pygt strains differentiated 25 seedling- (SVG) and nine head-virulence groups (HVG). Many wheat cultivars that are resistant to leaf infections are susceptible to head infections, in agreement with the earlier findings [1]. SVG A and HVG A were capable of causing blast on the entire set of tested cultivars. The isolates in these virulence groups form a "super race" that occurs at a relatively high frequency on Brazilian wheat and are also found on Avena sativa (N = 10), U. brizantha (8), Chloris distichophylla (4), Echinochloa crusgalli (4), Rhynchelytrum repens (4), Digitaria sanguinalis (3), Eleusine indica (2), Eragrostis plana (2), Cenchrus echinatus, Cynodon spp., D. insularis, Panicum

*maximum*, and *S. sudanense*.

503

504

505

506

507

508

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

The closely related rice blast pathogen P. oryzae is often presented as a model for understanding wheat blast. P. oryzae populations are considered strictly asexual [75], except for rare sexual populations of *P. oryzae* associated with rice in South-eastern Asia (the origin of rice domestication, and the proposed center of origin for rice blast) [73, 76], and the population associated with finger millet (Eleusine coracana) in West Africa. The Pyricularia population adapted to finger millet is probably a new *Pyricularia* species distinct from *P*. oryzae, with a center of origin in western Kenya and north-eastern Uganda [77]. However, it is yet to be reclassified. Remarkably, sexual perithecia have not been found in the field for either of these sexual populations, illustrating the challenge of proving a population is sexual even when it exhibits the population genetic "signature of sex" composed of gametic equilibrium among neutral markers, low clonality and mating types at equal frequencies. As was the case for the sexual Pyricularia populations on rice in Southeast Asia and on finger millet in West Africa, we have not yet found natural perithecia of Pygt in Brazilian wheat fields, but we have abundant population genetic and biological evidence that strongly indicate the occurrence of sexual *Pygt* populations in Brazil. Our biological evidence for sexual reproduction is the formation of proto-perithecia and perithecia of *Pygt* on autoclaved wheat stems and on senescing stems of wheat and other grasses. Moreira [78] conducted similar experiments by injecting stems of living wheat plants with the same sexually compatible isolates. In that experiment, no sexual structures were produced in living plant tissues [78]. These contrasting results suggest that senescent plant tissues are necessary to stimulate sexual reproduction in Pygt. The same pattern emerged when sexually compatible isolates of *P. oryzae* were placed on living rice plants: perithecia formation occurred only in senescent or detached leaf sheaths [79].

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

While perithecia produced in our assays did not harbor detectable asci and ascospores, the induction of sexual structures in Ascomycetes is known to be affected by many factors including substrate, light, temperature, and the availability of female fertile strains [80]. We hypothesize that the lack of ascospore production in our assays results from one or more of these factors. We suggest that future studies aiming to identify perithecia of Pygt in the field should focus on poaceous hosts such as *Phalaris canariensis* that support the development of fully formed perithecia. Based on all of the existing knowledge of *Pygt* biology and epidemiology, we propose a provisional disease cycle for wheat blast (Fig 10). At the end of a cropping season (Ae), ear infections lead to infected seed (B, C), providing inoculum for both local and long distance dispersal of the pathogen [72]. Crop residues left in the field after harvest provide a niche for Pygt sexual reproduction (D, 1-4); the resulting perithecia release airborne ascospores (D1) that create new genotypes that can cause new infections locally or in distant host populations by the germination of terminal cells (D2), which is followed by fungal vegetative growth and subsequent conidiogenesis (D3) [81]. The asexual conidia produced in the resulting infection are released (D4) and provide airborne inoculum for leaf infection on other grasses located within or next to wheat fields (E, F) [1, 53, 82]. Perithecia can also form in other infected poaceous hosts and on major pasture grasses, with the resulting ascospores falling onto nearby wheat crops (E). Seedborne inoculum (B, C) results in primary infections in newly established wheat crops. (F4) conidia released from leaf blast lesions on other poaceous hosts growing near wheat fields can also contribute inoculum leading to blast on wheat ears [1, 53]. Conidia production on leaves (Af) in the lower canopy of some wheat cultivars can coincide with spike emergence in the field and provide an important source of inoculum for wheat blast epidemics on ears (Ae) [83].

In summary, our experiments showed that Brazilian *Pygt* populations maintain very

high levels of genetic diversity and are able to infect a surprisingly wide array of grass hosts. Pygt populations exhibit a mixed reproductive system and are characterized by high levels of gene flow over long distances. There is evidence for substantial genetic exchange between Pygt populations infecting wheat and Pygt populations infecting nearby grasses. This combination of properties is likely to make wheat blast a particularly difficult disease to control. We hypothesize that the majority of sexual recombination is occurring on nearby poaceous hosts and that Urochloa brizantha, as the major pasture grass in Brazil, plays an important role as a host that provides a steady source of inoculum that connects wheat crops across Brazil.

### **Material and methods**

Population sampling. A total of 556 isolates of *Pyricularia* spp. were characterized in this study, comprising ten regional populations sampled from wheat or other poaceous hosts. 526 of these isolates were found to be *Pygt* while 30 isolates were found to be different *Pyricularia* species. Six populations of *Pygt* (387 isolates) were collected from symptomatic heads during the 2012 and 2013 cropping seasons in naturally infected wheat fields in Rio Grande do Sul (RS<sub>W</sub>), Paraná (PR<sub>W</sub>), Mato Grosso do Sul (MS<sub>W</sub>), São Paulo (SP<sub>W</sub>), Minas Gerais (MG<sub>W</sub>), Goiás and the Federal District (DF-GO<sub>W</sub>). The isolates from Distrito Federal and Goiás were grouped into a single population because these locations comprise a single cropping region. *Pygt* strains from wheat fields were sampled along transects as described previously [26]. A seventh *Pygt* population was composed of 79 isolates with distinct multilocus SSR genotypes representing the *Pygt* diversity found in the major Brazilian wheat-growing areas in 2005 [39] (Table 1, Supplementary Table 1).

Two additional *Pygt* populations comprised isolates sampled from other poaceous hosts

commonly growing as invasive grasses or weeds located within or nearby wheat fields. The

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

599

600

601

two populations from other poaceous hosts (60 isolates) were sampled from within or nearby three wheat fields in Londrina County, Paraná state (PR<sub>P</sub>), and six wheat fields in Dourados County in Mato Grosso do Sul state (MS<sub>P</sub>). For each field, infected leaves were sampled from invasive grass species exhibiting typical blast symptoms located either within the wheat field or less than 100 m from the edge of the wheat field. The Poaceae species sampled included: Avena sativa, Cenchrus echinatus, Chloris distichophylla, Cynodon spp., Digitaria insularis, Digitaria sanguinalis, Echinochloa crusgalli, Eleusine indica, Eragrostis plana, Panicum maximum, Rhynchelytrum repens, Sorghum sudanense, and Urochloa brizantha. Inference of genealogical relationships among Pyricularia graminis-tritici and other Pyricularia species. We performed population genomics analyses using single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) across the genome. For the population genomic analyses, the samples included 47 rice blastassociated P. oryzae strains with publically available genome sequences, 32 Brazilian strains of P. graminis-tritici sampled from wheat and other poaceous hosts, two isolates of P. oryzae from Hordeum vulgare, two isolates of P. grisea from Digitaria sanguinalis, two isolates of Pyricularia spp. from Setaria italica and Eleusine indica, one isolate resulting from a cross between K76-79 (from weeping lovegrass, Eragrostis curvula) and WGG-FA40 (from finger millet, *Eleusine coracana*) and four wheat blast transcriptome samples collected in Bangladesh in spring 2016 [31]. Among the 32 Brazilian Pygt strains sampled between 2005 and 2013, 22 were wheat-infecting strains included in an earlier analysis to infer the origin of wheat blast in Bangladesh [31] and 10 were new blast strains sampled from other grasses and included in this paper. Transcriptomic (RNA) SNPs were identified based on short read alignments against the *P. oryzae* reference genome 70-15, available at Ensembl Fungi (http://fungi.ensembl.org/Magnaporthe oryzae/Info/Index). For all the completely sequenced

603

604

605

606

607

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

genomes, we used Bowtie version 2.2.6 [84] to align quality-trimmed Illumina short read data against the reference genome 70-15. Quality-trimmed Illumina short read data generated from RNA from the Bangladesh transcriptomic samples were mapped using TopHat version 2.0.14 [85]. The variants in the genomes of the different strains were identified using the Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK) version 3.5 available at the Broad Institute (https://software.broadinstitute.org/gatk/) [86]. A two-step variant calling was used following the GATK best practice guidelines. Firstly, raw variants with local reassembly of read data were called using Haplotype Caller. All the raw variant calls and filtration were jointly genotyped using the GATK Genotype GVCFs. Secondly, SelectVariants was used to subset the variant calls to contain only SNPs. Finally, we applied SNPs hard-filters to remove lowquality SNPs using the following criteria: QUAL  $\geq$  5000.0, QD  $\geq$  5.0, MQ  $\geq$  20.0, - 2.0  $\leq$ ReadPosRankSum  $\leq 2.0, -2.0 \leq MQRankSum$  upper  $\leq 2.0, -2.0 \leq BaseQRankSum \leq 2.0$ . Furthermore, we used vcftools (https://vcftools.github.io) to generate a SNP dataset for phylogenomic analyses. To avoid biases in the phylogenetic reconstruction, we only retained SNPs that were called in at least 90% of all analyzed strains. Furthermore, we retained a SNP only if the SNP was called in the best-sequenced Bangladesh sample 12, as described previously [31] (Supplementary Table S1). We retained 55,041 informative SNPs. A maximum likelihood phylogeny was constructed from a SNP supermatrix using RAxML version 8.2.8 (http://www.exelixis-lab.org) with a GTR substitution matrix and 100 bootstrap replicates. Microsatellite genotyping and fragment analyses. 526 Pyricularia isolates (Table 1, Supplementary table 1) were genotyped for 11 microsatellite loci (cnpt\_mg-c013Tri, -c047, c060, -c065, -c108, -c129, -c147, -c168, -c233, -c248, and -p1e11) as described earlier [39, 87] (Supplementary Table 2). Briefly, amplifications were performed in a thermal cycler with

628

629

630

631

632

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

conditions as follows: initial denaturation at 95°C for 3 min; followed by 35 cycles of 95°C for 25 s, 55°C or 60°C for 25 s, and 72°C for 25 s; with a final extension of 72°C for 15 min. PCR reactions were diluted and combined in three sets for electrophoresis (Set 1: cnpt-mgc047, -c065, -c248, and -p1e11; Set 2: cnpt-mg-c013Tri, -c060, -c147, and -c168; and Set 3: cnpt-mg-c108, -c129, and -c233). Isolates 12.1.111 and 10880 were included as controls in every run of 93 samples. The fluorescent-labeled PCR products, along with a size standard were separated on an ABI 3730xl capillary sequencer. The fragment analysis for detection and discrimination among allele sizes was performed using Geneious R 9.1.5. Analyses of population genetic structure. SSR datasets were used to calculate gene and genotype diversity and genetic differentiation among populations, generate minimum spanning networks among genotypes, and estimate contemporary patterns of migration and gene flow. We inferred the predominant reproductive mode based on tests of gametic equilibrium and frequencies of the mating type idiomorphs Mat1-1 and Mat1-2. Except for the analyses of genotypic diversity, all analyses used clone-corrected datasets in which only one individual from each multilocus microsatellite genotype was included per population. Genotypic and genetic diversity and allelic richness. The multilocus microsatellite genotype (MLMG) for each isolate was determined using Genodive v. 2.0b7 [57]. Isolates exhibiting the same MLMG were considered clones. A minimum spanning network (MSN) was constructed to show the distribution and genetic similarity among the MLMGs of Pygt found in the nine populations. The MSN was constructed with the bruvo.msn distance function [88] and the *Prim* algorithm of the *igraph* package, [89] using the *poppr* package [90] in the R environment [91].

652

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

667

668

669

670

671

672

673

674

Measures of genotypic diversity included: a) number of MLMGs per population; b) population-specific MLMGs; c) clonal fraction calculated as 1-(number of MLMGs)/(total number of isolates); d) effective number of MLMGs  $(G_O)$  [92]; and e) the evenness, an indicator for how evenly the genotypes were distributed in the population, calculated as the ratio of the effective number of distinct MLMGs scaled by the maximum number of expected MLMGs. We tested the statistical significance of differences in genotypic diversity between pairs of populations based on 1,000 bootstrap resamplings matching the size of the smallest population (19 individuals) [61]. Allelic richness was estimated for each population as the average number of alleles per locus using rarefaction [58]. To test whether populations differed in allelic richness, p values for the significance of the pairwise comparisons were obtained by 1,000 permutations. These calculations were computed using FSTAT v. 2.9.3.2 [93]. The probability of identical genotypes arising from sexual reproduction and random mating and it is identical to the genotype probability was estimated with the *Pgen* index previously described with GenAlEx v6.501 software [55, 56] **Population differentiation**. AMOVA [94] was used to assess the distribution of gene diversity and the degree of differentiation among geographical populations of the pathogen. Populations were also grouped according to the host of origin. Degrees of differentiation were compared using orthogonal contrasts. The sum of squared size differences  $(R_{ST})$  was used as the distance measure between two haplotypes [60]. The significance of the fixation indexes was tested using 1,023 permutations by a nonparametric approach [94] at  $\alpha = 0.05$ after Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons [62]. All calculations were carried out with the program ARLEQUIN v. 3.11 [59].

676

677

678

679

680

681

682

683

684

685

686

687

688

689

690

691

692

693

694

695

696

697

698

699

Assessment of historical migration and demographic parameters. For migration analyses, populations were grouped according to their host of origin. A maximum likelihood test based on MCMC [68] was used to test four different models of migration between the populations obtained from wheat and from other Poaceae. The migration models tested were: a) complete panmixia; b) bidirectional; c) directional, with migration occurring from the wheat population towards the other Poaceae population; and d) directional (inverse) with migration occurring from the population obtained from other Poaceae towards the wheat population. Estimates of gene flow were obtained using five runs, and the run with the highest likelihood was chosen to represent each migration model. Then the likelihood values of the four migration models were compared to select the one that best fit the data based on the Log of the Bayes Factor (LBF). LBF was calculated as 2 [ln(Prob(Data | ModelX)) - ln (Prob(Data | best of the four models))]; higher LBF values reflect better fits of the migration model to the data [64, 66]. For all migration analyses the data type chosen was microsatellite data with Brownian motion and assuming a stepwise mutation model. Each of the five runs had ten short initial chains, one long final chain, a static heating scheme with five temperatures (1, 100, 1000, 10,000 and 100,000), and swapping interval of 1. The initial chains were performed with 500-recorded steps, a sampling increment of 100, with 2,500 trees recorded per short sample. The long chain was carried out with 8,334-recorded steps, a sampling increment of 500, six concurrent chains (replicates) and 500 discarded trees per chain (burn-in). The final number of sampled parameter values was 25,002,000 iterations. The values and confidence intervals for the migration rate (M), and the effective population size  $(\theta = 2 \text{Neu for haploids, where Ne})$ = effective population size and  $\mu$  = mutation rate inferred for each locus) were calculated using a percentile approach. Migration analyses were implemented in MIGRATE-n v. 3.6.11 [64] at the CIPRES Science Gateway [63].

701

702

703

704

705

706

707

708

709

710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

722

723

724

**Tests for gametic equilibrium.** Gametic equilibrium was assessed using a multilocus association test (10). The hypothesis that genotypes at one locus are independent from genotypes at another locus was tested using Fisher's exact test at  $\alpha = 0.05$  and an MCMC algorithm (with 1,000 batches and 1,000 iterations/batch) implemented using the program GENEPOP v.3.4 [69]. The Bonferroni correction was applied to this analysis to avoid false rejections of the null hypothesis due to the large number of comparisons performed [62]. Two loci were in gametic equilibrium when their associated p value was not significant (p > 0.05). We also measured the indexes of multilocus association ( $I_A$  and  $\bar{r}_D$ ) for each Pygt population using Multilocus software ver 1.3b, according to Agapow and Burt [70]. **Determination of mating type idiomorphs.** The mating type idiomorph, *Mat1-1* or *Mat1-2* [95], was determined for each strain using a PCR assay [39]. To amplify Mat1-1, the primers were A1:5'-AGCCTCATCAACGGCAA-3' and A5: 5'-GGCACGAACATGCGATG-3'. For Mat1-2 they were B15: 5'-CTCAATCTCCGTAGTAG-3' and B16: 5'-ACAGCAGTATAGCCTAC-3'. We included isolate Py46.2 as a positive control for *Mat1-1* and a negative control for Mat1-2, and isolate Py5003 as a positive control for Mat1-2 and a negative control for *Mat1-1* [39]. Development of *Pygt* perithecia on senescing stems from several poaceous hosts. *Pygt* strains Py33.1 (*Mat1-1*) and Py05046 (*Mat1-2*) were shown to be fertile in earlier studies [39, 78]. The production of perithecia and asci on autoclaved wheat stems and naturally senescing stems of wheat and other grasses was assessed after co-inoculation with these strains. The other poaceous hosts assayed were: Avena strigosa (black oats) cv. Embrapa 29 Garoa; Hordeum vulgare (barley) cvs. BR Elis and MN 743; Oryza sativa cvs. BRS Primavera, BRSMG Relampago and Yin Lu 30 (red rice); *Phalaris canariensis* (canary

726

727

728

729

730

731

732

733

734

735

736

737

738

739

740

741

742

743

744

745

746

747

748

grass); Secale cereale (rye) cv. BR1; Setaria italica (foxtail millet); Triticum aestivum (wheat) cvs. BRS 264 and MGS Brilhante; Triticale (xTriticosecale) cv. IAC Caninde; Urochloa hybrid cv. Mulato (Urochloa ruziziensis x U. decumbens x U. brizantha). The wheat cv. MGS Brilhante is classified as moderately resistant to wheat blast, while the other wheat cultivar, barley, Urochloa spp., and oats are considered susceptible to wheat blast. In contrast, rice cultivars are resistant to Pygt [15, 39]. The remaining hosts included in this experiment have unknown susceptibility to *Pygt*. Spores of isolates Py33.1 and Py05046 were harvested after 14 days of growth on oatmeal agar [39] and combined in equal proportions at 1x10<sup>4</sup> conidia ml<sup>-1</sup> for co-inoculation as described earlier, with minor modifications [79]. Wheat stems consisted of 4-cm sections collected from one-month old plants and autoclaved at 121°C for 20 min. Autoclaved wheat stems or naturally senescing stems were placed in 90 mm Petri dishes containing water agar (agar, 15g l<sup>-1</sup>) and were inoculated by injection of 0.3 mL of the spore mix. Inoculated materials were kept in a growth chamber at 25°C under a 12 h dark /12 h fluorescent white light photoperiod for 7 days. Subsequently, for perithecia development, the temperature was lowered to 20°C and the samples were incubated for another 21 days (autoclaved stem sections) or one month (senescing stem pieces) under the same photoperiod. The assays were replicated once, with five repeats of each experimental unit each time. The development of sexual structures was documented using light and scanning electron microscopes. The density of proto-perithecia or perithecia on plant debris and on sections of senescing stems was determined by analyzing at least three areas of approximately 0.5 mm<sup>2</sup> on each plant species. Virulence spectrum of *Pygt* on wheat seedlings and detached heads. The virulence spectra of 173 isolates of *Pygt* representing 80 MLMG were assessed on seedlings and detached

heads of ten wheat cultivars and one barley cultivar. Within each MLMG, isolates were selected at random from the eight populations sampled in 2012-2013, including 121 isolates from wheat and 52 isolates from other poaceous hosts. The wheat cultivars included in the tests were: Anahuac 75 (susceptible control), BR 18, BR 24, BRS 220, BRS 229, BRS 234, BRS Buriti, CNT 8, MGS 3 Brilhante, Renan, and barley cv. PFC 2010123.

Detailed procedures for inoculum preparation, inoculation, incubation, disease assessment and data analysis were described earlier [15, 39]. Briefly, inoculations were conducted on 15-day-old seedlings at the 4-leaf stage and on detached heads harvested from plants after anthesis. Seedling and head inoculation experiments were conducted using a two-factor completely randomized balanced design. Two pots containing ten plants each were used for the seedling test, while three foam blocks with ten detached heads apiece were inoculated for each of the 173 isolates. Each inoculation test was conducted twice. In both tests, disease was scored 5 days after inoculation. Cultivars were classified as resistant (R) or susceptible (S) based on visual assessment of the percentage of leaf or detached head showing typical blast symptoms. *Pygt* isolates were placed into seedling virulence groups (SVGs) and head virulence groups (HVGs) according to their pathogenicity spectra on each wheat cultivar.

## **Funding**

This work was funded by FAPESP (São Paulo Research Foundation, Brazil) research grants to P.C. Ceresini (2013/10655-4 and 2015/10453-8), EMBRAPA-Monsanto research grant (Macroprogram II-02.11.04.006.00.00) to J.L.N. Maciel, and research grants from FINEP (Funding Authority for Studies and Projects, Brazil) and FAPEMIG (Minas Gerais Research Foundation, Brazil) to E. Alves (CAG-APQ-01975-15). P.C. Ceresini and E. Alves were supported by research fellowships from Brazilian National Council for Scientific and

775

776

777

778

779

780

781

782

783

784

785

786

787

788

789

790

791

792

793

794

795

796

797

798

Technological Development - CNPq (Pq-2 307361/2012-8 and 307295/2015-0). V. L. Castroagudin was supported by a Post-Doctorate research fellowship FAPESP (PDJ 2014/25904-2, from 2015–2016). S.I. Moreira was supported by a Postdoctoral researcher fellowship PNPD from CAPES (Higher Education Personnel Improvement Coordination, Brazil). A.L.D. Danelli was supported by a Doctorate research fellowship CAPES-PROSUP (Programa de Suporte à Pós-Graduação de Instituições de Ensino Particulares, Brazil). We thank CAPES for sponsoring the establishment of the 'Centro de Diversidade Genética no Agroecossistema' (Pro-equipamentos 775202/2012). Authorization for scientific activities # 39131-3 from the Brazilian Ministry of Environment (MMA) / 'Chico Mendes' Institute for Conservation of Biodiversity (ICMBIO) / System for Authorization and Information in Biodiversity (ICMBIO). DC is supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation (grant 31003A\_173265). BAM is supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation (grant 31003A\_155955) and the Bundesamt für Landwirtschaft (BLW Project PGREL-NN-0034). Acknowledgements: Primer sequences for MAT loci were provided by Didier Tharreau, INRA, Montpellier, France. **Supporting information** S1 Table. Isolates of *Pyricularia* species included in the inference of genealogical **relationships.** This table lists and describes all the isolates included in the inference of genealogical relationships among wheat blast samples of Pyricularia graminis-tritici and several other blast samples.

S2 Table. Isolates of Pyricularia species analyzed in this study. This table lists and

800

801

802

803

804

805

806

807

808

809

810

811

812

813

814

815

816

817

818

819

820

821822823

824

describes all the isolates examined in this study, including their original host, year and location of sampling, mating type, multilocus microsatellite genotype, alleles found in 11 microsatellites loci, and seedling and head virulence group for each isolate. S3 Table. Oligonucleotides. This table lists all primers for microsatellite loci and their sequences in this study. **Author Contributions** Conceptualization: PCC, JLNM, EA, BAM Data Curation: VLC, ALDD, JTAR, ALVB, CAF, JLNM, SIM, PCC, EA, DC Formal Analysis: VLC, PCC, SIM, DC Funding Acquisition: JLNM, EA, PCC, BAM, DC Investigation: VLC, ALDD, SIM, JTAR, GC, JLNM, PCC, DC Methodology: VLC, ALDD, SIM, GC, ALVB, JLNM, PCC, DC **Project Administration:** VLC, JLNM, PCC, EA, DC Resources: PCC, JLNM, EA, DC, BAM Supervision: PCC, JLNM, CAF, BAM Validation: VLC, ALDD, ALVB, SIM, JTAR, JLNM, EA, PCC, DC Visualization: GC, PCC Writing-Original Draft Preparation: VLC, SIM, PCC Writing-Review & Editing: VLC, JNM, BAM, SIM, JLNM, PCC, DC References 1. Urashima AS, Kato H. Pathogenic relationship between isolates of *Pyricularia grisea* of wheat and other hosts at different host developmental stages. Fitopatol Bras. 1998; 23:30-5.

- 2. Takabayashi N, Tosa Y, Oh HS, Mayama S. A gene-for-gene relationship underlying the
- 826 species-specific parasitism of Avena/Triticum isolates of Magnaporthe grisea on wheat
- 827 cultivars. Phytopathology. 2002; 92:1182-8.
- 3. Murakami J, Tomita R, Kataoka T, Nakayashiki H, Tosa Y, Mayama S. Analysis of host
- species specificity of Magnaporthe grisea toward foxtail millet using a genetic cross between
- isolates from wheat and foxtail millet. Phytopathology. 2003; 93:42-5. doi:
- 831 10.1094/PHYTO.2003.93.1.42.; PMID: 18944155.
- 4. Couch BC, Fudal I, Lebrun M-H, Tharreau D, Valent B, van Kim P, et al. Origins of host-
- specific populations of the blast pathogen Magnaporthe oryzae in crop domestication with
- subsequent expansion of pandemic clones on rice and weeds of rice. Genetics. 2005;
- 835 170:613-30. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1534/genetics.105.041780. PubMed PMID:
- 836 PMC1450392.
- 5. Couch BC, Kohn LM. A multilocus gene genealogy concordant with host preference
- indicates segregation of a new species, *Magnaporthe oryzae*, from *M. grisea*. Mycologia.
- 839 2002; 94:683-93. PMID: 21156541.
- 6. Hirata K, Kusba M, Chuma I, Osue J, Nakayashiki H, Mayama S, et al. Speciation in
- 841 Pyricularia inferred from multilocus phylogenetic analysis. Mycol Res. 2007; 111:799-808.
- 842 doi: 10.1016/j.mycres.2007.05.014. PMID: 17656080.
- 7. Klaubauf S, Tharreau D, Fournier E, Groenewald JZ, Crous PW, de Vries RP, et al.
- Resolving the polyphyletic nature of *Pyricularia* (*Pyriculariaceae*). Stud Mycol. 2014;
- 79:85-120. doi: 10.1016/j.simyco.2014.09.004. PMID: 25492987
- 8. Huyse T, Poulin R, Theron A. Speciation in parasites: a population genetics approach.
- 847 Trends Parasitol. 2005; 21:469-75. doi: 10.1016/j.pt.2005.08.009. PMID: 16112615.
- 9. Stukenbrock EH, Banke S, Javan-Nikkhah M, McDonald BA. Origin and domestication of
- the fungal wheat pathogen Mycosphaerella graminicola via sympatric speciation. Mol Ecol
- 850 Evol. 2007; 24:398-411. doi: 10.1093/molbev/msl169. PMID: 17095534.
- 851 10. Zaffarano PL, McDonald BA, Linde CC. Rapid speciation following recent host shifts in
- the plant pathogenic fungus *Rhynchosporium*. Evolution. 2008; 62:1418-36.
- 853 11. Baker CJ, Harrington TC, Krauss U, Alfenas AC. Genetic variability and host
- specialization in the Latin American clade of *Ceratocystis fimbriata*. Phytopathology. 2003;
- 93:1274-84. doi: doi:10.1094/PHYTO.2003.93.10.1274. PubMed PMID: 18944327.
- 856 12. Bucheli E, Gautschi B, Shykoff JA. Host-specific differentiation in the anther smut
- fungus *Microbotryum violaceum* as revealed by microsatellites. J Evol Biol. 2000; 13:188-98.
- 858 doi: 10.1046/j.1420-9101.2000.00160.x.
- 13. Kato H, Yamamoto M, Yamaguchi-Ozaki T, Kadouchi H, Iwamoto Y, Nakayashiki H, et
- al. Pathogenicity, mating ability and DNA restriction fragment length polymorphisms of
- 861 Pyricularia populations isolated from Gramineae, Bambusideae and Zingiberaceae plants. J
- 862 Gen Plant Pathol. 2000; 66:30-47. doi: 10.1007/PL00012919.

- 14. Stukenbrock EH, McDonald B. The origins of plant pathogens in agro-ecosystems. Ann
- 864 Rev Phytopatol. 2008; 46:75-100. doi: 10.1146/annurev.phyto.010708.154114. PMID:
- 865 18680424
- 15. Castroagudín VL, Moreira SI, Pereira DAS, Moreira SS, Brunner PC, Maciel JLN, et al.
- 867 Pyricularia graminis-tritici, a new Pyricularia species causing wheat blast. Persoonia. 2016;
- 868 37:199-216. doi: 10.3767/003158516X692149.
- 16. Igarashi S, Utiamada CM, Igarashi LC, Kazuma AH, Lopes RS. Pyricularia em trigo. 1.
- Ocorrência de *Pyricularia* sp. no estado do Paraná. Fitopatol Bras. 1986; 11:351-2
- 17. Anjos JRND, Silva DBD, Charchar MJD, Rodrigues GC. Ocurrence of blast fungus
- 872 (Pyricularia grisea) on wheat and rye in the savanna region of Central Brazil. Pesq Agropec
- 873 Bras. 1996; 31:79-82.
- 18. Maciel JLN. *Magnaporthe oryzae*, the blast pathogen: current status and options for its
- 875 control. Plant Sci Rev. 2011; 2011:233-40. doi: 10.1079/PAVSNNR20116050.
- 876 19. Gutiérrez SA, Cúndom MA. *Pyricularia oryzae* affecting barley crops in Corrientes
- 877 (Argentina). Summa Phytopathol. 2015; 41:318-20. doi: 10.1590/0100-5405/2063.
- 878 20. Verzignassi RS, Poltronieri LS, Benchimol RL, França SKS, Carvalho EA, Fernandes
- 879 CD. Pyricularia grisea: new pathogen on Brachiaria brizantha cv. Marandu in Pará. Summa
- 880 Phytopathol. 2012; 38:254. doi: 10.1590/S0100-54052012000300016
- 21. Marangoni MS, Nunes MP, Fonseca N, Mehta YR. *Pyricularia* blast on white oats: a new
- threat to wheat cultivation. Trop Plant Pathol. 2013; 38:198-202. doi: 10.1590/S1982-
- 883 56762013005000004.
- 22. Reges JTA, Negrisoli MM, Dorigan AF, Castroagudín VL, Maciel JLN, Ceresini PC.
- 885 Pyricularia pennisetigena and P. zingibericola from invasive grasses infect signal grass,
- 886 barley and wheat. Pesq Agropec Trop. 2016; 46:206-14. doi: 10.1590/1983-
- 887 40632016v4641335.
- 888 23. Martins TD, Lavorenti NA, Urashima AS. Methods to examine transmission of
- 889 Pyricularia grisea from seeds to seedlings of triticale. Fitopatol Bras. 2004; 29:425-8. doi:
- 890 10.1590/S0100-41582004000400011.
- 24. Crous PW, Wingfield MJ, Burgess TI, Hardy GESJ, Crane C, Barrett S, et al. Fungal
- 892 Planet description sheets: 469–557. Persoonia. 2016; 37:218-403. doi:
- 893 10.3767/003158516X694499.
- 25. Silva CP, Nomura E, Freitas EG, Brugnaro C, Urashima AS. Efficiency of alternative
- treatments in the control of *Pyricularia grisea* in wheat seeds. Trop Plant Pathol. 2009; 34:
- 896 127-31. doi: 10.1590/S1982-56762009000200009
- 897 26. Castroagudín VL, Ceresini PC, Oliveira SC, Reges JTA, Maciel JLN, Bonato ALV, et al.
- 898 Resistance to QoI fungicides is widespread in Brazilian populations of the wheat blast
- pathogen Magnaporthe oryzae. Phytopathology. 2015; 104:284-94. doi: 10.1094/PHYTO-06-
- 900 14-0184-R. PMID: 25226525.

- 901 27. Kohli MM, Mehta YR, Guzman E, Vierdma L, Cubilla LE. *Pyricularia* blast a threat to
- wheat cultivation. Czech J Genet Plant Breed. 2011; 47:S130-S4.
- 903 28. Duveiller E, Hodson D, Tiedmann A, editors. Wheat blast caused by *Magnaporthe*
- 904 grisea: a reality and new challenge for wheat research. 8th Int Wheat Conf; 2010 2010; St.
- 905 Petersburg. Vavilov Res. Inst. Plant Ind.: Vavilov Research Institute of Plant Industry.
- 906 29. Callaway E. Devastating wheat fungus appears in Asia for first time. Nature. 2016;
- 907 532:421-2. doi: 10.1038/532421a. PMID: 27121815
- 30. Croll D. The origin of wheat blast in Bangladesh 2016 [cited September 29, 2016.].
- 909 Available from: Available from: https://github.com/crolllab/wheat-blast.
- 910 31. Islam MT, Croll D, Gladieux P, Soanes DM, Persoons A, Bhattacharjee P, et al.
- 911 Emergence of wheat blast in Bangladesh was caused by a South American lineage of
- 912 Magnaporthe oryzae. BMC Biology. 2016; 14:84. doi: 10.1186/s12915-016-0309-7. PMID:
- 913 27716181.
- 914 32. Chaudhuri SR. Tackling wheat blast: Bengal government bans wheat cultivation within 5
- 915 km of Bangladesh border. Hindustan Times. 2017 19th July, 2017.
- 916 33. Press Trust of India. Deadly wheat blast disease spreads to Bengal districts. The New
- 917 Indian Express. 2017 9th March, 2017.
- 918 34. McTaggart AR, van der Nest MA, Steenkamp ET, Roux J, Slippers B, Shuey LS, et al.
- 919 Fungal genomics challenges the dogma of name-based biosecurity. PLoS Pathogens. 2016;
- 920 12:e1005475. doi: 10.1371/journal.ppat.1005475. PMID: 27149511.
- 921 35. Goulart ACP, Sousa PG, Urashima AS. Damages in wheat caused by infection of
- 922 *Pyricularia grisea*. Summa Phytopathol. 2007; 33:358-63. doi: 10.1590/S0100-
- 923 54052007000400007
- 924 36. Goulart ACP, Paiva FA, Andrade PJM. Qualidade sanitária de sementes de trigo
- produzidos no Mato Grosso do Sul, safras 1987 a 1992. Summa Phytopathol. 1995; 21:235-8.
- 926 37. Urashima AS, Igarashi LC, Kato H. Host range, mating type, and fertility of *Pyricularia*
- 927 *grisea* from wheat in Brazil. Plant Dis. 1993; 77:1211-6.
- 928 38. Ceresini PC. Estrutura genética de populações do patógeno da brusone do trigo
- 929 Magnaporthe oryzae no Brasil. Ilha Solteira: Universidade Estadual Paulista (UNESP); 2011.
- 930 39. Maciel JLN, Ceresini PC, Castroagudin VL, Kema GHJ, McDonald BA. Population
- 931 structure and pathotype diversity of the wheat blast pathogen *Magnaporthe oryzae* 25 years
- after its emergence in Brazil. Phytopathology. 2014; 104:95-107. doi: 10.1094/PHYTO-11-
- 933 12-0294-R. PMID: 23901831.
- 40. Inoue Y, Vy TTP, Yoshida K, Asano H, Mitsuoka C, Asuke S, et al. Evolution of the
- 935 wheat blast fungus through functional losses in a host specificity determinant. Science. 2017;
- 936 357:80-3. doi: 10.1126/science.aam9654. PMID: 28684523.

- 937 41. McDonald BA, Linde C. The population genetics of plant pathogens and breeding
- 938 strategies for durable resistance. Euphytica. 2002; 124:163-80. doi:
- 939 10.1023/A:1015678432355.
- 940 42. McDonald BA, Linde C. Pathogen population genetics, evolutionary potential, and
- durable resistance. Ann Rev Phytopatol. 2002; 40:349-79. doi:
- 942 10.1146/annurev.phyto.40.120501.101443. PMID: 12147764
- 943 43. Urashima AS, Galbieri R, Stabili A. DNA fingerprinting and sexual characterization
- 944 revealed two distinct populations of Magnaporthe grisea in wheat blast from Brazil. Czech J
- 945 Genet Plant Breed. 2005; 41:238-45.
- 946 44. Urashima AS, Hashimoto Y, Don LD, Kusaba M, Tosa Y, Nakayashiki H, et al.
- Molecular analysis of the wheat blast population in Brazil with s homolog of retrotransposon
- 948 MGR583. Ann Phytopathol Soc Jpn. 1999; 65:429-36.
- 949 45. Goulart ACP, Paiva FA. Incidência da brusone (*Pyricularia oryzae*) em diferentes
- 950 cultivares de trigo (*Triticum aestivum*) em condições de campo. Fitopatol Bras. 1992; 17:321-
- 951 5.
- 952 46. Goulart ACP, Paiva FA, Andrade PJM. Relação entre a incidência da brusone em espigas
- 953 de trigo e a presença de *Pyricularia grisea* nas sementes colhidas. Fitopatol Bras. 1995;
- 954 20::184-9.
- 955 47. Maciel JLN, Paludo EA, Só e Silva M, Scheeren PL, Caierão E. Reação à brusone de
- 956 genótipos de trigo do programa de melhoramento da Embrapa Trigo no estádio de planta
- 957 adulta. Passo Fundo: Embrapa Trigo; 2008. p. 14.
- 958 48. Cruz MFA, Prestes AM, Maciel JLN, Scheeren PL. Partial resistance to blast on common
- and synthetic wheat genotypes in seedling and in adult plant growth stages. Trop Plant
- 960 Pathol. 2010; 35:24-31. doi: 10.1590/S1982-56762010000100004.
- 961 49. Urashima AS, Lavorenti NA, Goulart ACP, Mehta YR. Resistance spectra of wheat
- 962 cultivars and virulence diversity of *Magnaporthe grisea* isolates in Brazil. Fitop bras. 2004;
- 963 29:511-8. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/S0100-41582004000500007.
- 964 50. Urashima AS, Lavorent NA, Goulart ACP, Mehta YR. Resistance spectra of wheat
- 965 cultivars and virulence diversity of *Magnaporthe grisea* isolates in Brazil. Fitopatol Bras.
- 966 2004; 29:511-8. doi: 10.1590/S0100-41582004000500007.
- 967 51. Cruz MF, Maciel JLN, Prestes AM, Bombonatto EAS, Pereira JF, Consoli L. Molecular
- pattern and virulence of *Pyricularia grisea* isolates from wheat. Trop Plant Pathol. 2009;
- 969 34:393-401. doi: 10.1590/S1982-56762009000600005.
- 970 52. Galbieri R, Urashima AS. Sexual characterization, compatibility and occurrence of sexual
- 971 reproduction among isolates of *Pyricularia grisea* from different hosts. Summa Phytopathol.
- 972 2008; 34:22-8. doi: 10.1590/S0100-54052008000100005
- 973 53. Urashima AS, Igarashi LC, Kato H. Host range, mating type, and fertility of *Pyricularia*
- 974 *grisea* from wheat in Brazil. Plant Dis. 1993; 77:1211-6. doi: 10.1094/PD-77-1211.

- 975 54. Urashima AS, Bruno AC. Sexual relationship between Magnaporthe grisea from wheat
- and from other hosts. Fitopatol Bras. 2001; 26:21-6. doi: 10.1590/S0100-
- 977 41582001000100004.
- 978 55. Sydes MA, Peakall R. Extensive clonality in the endangered shrub *Haloragodendron*
- 979 *lucasii* (Haloragaceae) revealed by allozymes and RAPDs. Mol Ecol. 1998; 7: 87-93.
- 980 56. Peakall R, Smouse PE. *GenAlEx* 6: genetic analysis in Excel. Population genetic software
- 981 for teaching and research. Mol Ecol Notes 2006; 6:288-95. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-
- 982 8286.2005.01155.x.
- 983 57. Meirmans PG, Van Tienderen PH. Genotype and genodive: two programs for the analysis
- of genetic diversity of asexual organisms. Mol Ecol Notes. 2004; 4:792-4. doi:
- 985 10.1111/j.1471-8286.2004.00770.x.
- 986 58. El Mousadik A, Petit RJ. High level of genetic differentiation for allelic richness among
- populations of the argan tree [Argania spinosa (L.) Skeels] endemic to Morocco. Theor Appl
- 988 Genet. 1996; 92:832-9. doi: 10.1007/BF00221895. PMID: 24166548.
- 989 59. Excoffier L, Laval G, Schneider S. Arlequin (version 3.0): An integrated software
- package for population genetics data analysis. Evol Bioinform Online. 2005; 1:47-50. PMID:
- 991 19325852.
- 992 60. Slatkin M. A measure of population subdivision based on microsatellite allele
- 993 frequencies. Genetics. 1995; 139:457-62.
- 994 61. Manly BFJ. Randomization, bootstrap and Monte Carlo methods in biology. 2 ed.
- 995 London: Chapman & Hall / CRC; 1991. 399 p.
- 996 62. Bonferroni CE. The calculation of confidence in test groups. (In Italian). Studi in onore
- 997 del professore Salvatore Ortu Carboni. Rome, Italy1935. p. 13-60.
- 998 63. Miller MA, Peiffer W, Schwartz T. Creating CIPRES Science Gateway for inference of
- large phylogenetic trees. Proceedings of the Gateway Computing Environments Workshop
- 1000 (GCE), 14 Nov 2010 New Orleans, LA. 2010.
- 1001 64. Beerli P, Palczewski M. Unified framework to evaluate panmixia and migration direction
- among multiple sampling locations. Genetics. 2010; 185:313-32. doi:
- 1003 10.1534/genetics.109.112532. PMID: 20176979.
- 1004 65. Beerli P. How to use migrate or why are markov chain monte carlo programs difficult to
- use? In: Bertorelle G, Bruford MW, Hauffe HC, Rizzoli A, Vernesi C, editors. Population
- 1006 Genetics for Animal Conservation. Conservation Biology. 17. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge
- 1007 University Press; 2009. p. 49-72.
- 1008 66. Beerli P. Comparison of Bayesian and maximum-likelihood inference of population
- genetic parameters. Bioinformatics. 2006; 22:341-5. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/bti803.
- 1010 PMID: 16317072.
- 1011 67. Beerli P, Felsenstein J. Maximum likelihood estimation of a migration matrix and
- effective population sizes in n subpopulations by using a coalescent approach. PNAS. 2001;
- 1013 98:4563-8. doi: 10.1073/pnas.081068098. PMID: 11287657.

- 1014 68. Beerli P, Felsenstein J. Maximun-likelihood estimation of migration rates and effective
- population numbers in two populations using a coalescent approach. Genetics. 1999;
- 1016 152:763-73. PMID: 10353916.
- 1017 69. Raymond M, Rousset F. GENEPOP (Version 1.2): Population genetics software for exact
- 1018 tests and ecumenicism. J Hered. 1995; 86:248-9.
- 1019 70. Agapow P-M, Burt A. Indices of multilocus linkage disequilibrium. Mol Ecol Notes.
- 1020 2001; 1:101-2. doi: 10.1046/j.1471-8278.2000.00014.x.
- 1021 71. Zadoks JC, Chang TT, Konzak CF. A decimal code for the growth stages of cereals.
- 1022 Weed Res. 1974; 14:415-21.
- 1023 72. Urashima AS, Leite SF, Galbieri R. Efficiency of aerial dissemination of *Pyricularia*
- 1024 grisea. Summa Phytopathol. 2007; 33:275-9. doi: 10.1590/S0100-54052007000300011.
- 1025 73. Saleh D, Xu P, Shen Y, Li C, Adreit H, Milazzo J, et al. Sex at the origin: an Asian
- population of the rice blast fungus *Magnaporthe oryzae* reproduces sexually. Mol Ecol. 2012;
- 1027 21:1330-44. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-294X.2012.05469.x. PMID: 22313491.
- 1028 74. Jank L, Barrios SC, do Valle CB, Simeão RM, Alves GF. The value of improved pastures
- to Brazilian beef production. Crop Pasture Sci. 2014:1132-7. doi: 10.1071/CP13319.
- 1030 75. Tharreau D, Fudal I, Andriantsimialona D, Utami D, Fournier E, Lebrun MH, et al.
- World population structure and migration of the rice blast fungus, *Magnaporthe oryzae*. In:
- Wang GL, Valent B, editors. Advances in genetics, genomics and control of rice blast disease
- Dordrecht, The Netherlands.: Springer; 2009. p. 209-15.
- 1034 76. Saleh D, Milazzo J, Adreit H, Fournier E, Tharreau D. South-East Asia is the center of
- origin, diversity and dispersion of the rice blast fungus, *Magnaporthe oryzae*. New Phytol.
- 1036 2014; 201:1440-56. doi: 10.1111/nph.12627. PMID: 24320224.
- 1037 77. Takan JP, Chipili J, Muthumeenakshi S, Talbot NJ, Manyasa EO, Bandyopadhyay R, et
- al. Magnaporthe oryzae populations adapted to finger millet and rice exhibit distinctive
- patterns of genetic diversity, sexuality and host interaction. Mol Biotechnol. 2012; 50:145-58.
- 1040 doi: 10.1007/s12033-011-9429-z. PMID: 21701860.
- 78. Moreira SI. Sexual reproduction studies with *Pyricularia oryzae* [Ph.D. Thesis]. Lavras,
- 1042 Minas Gerais, Brazil: Federal University of Lavras; 2015.
- 1043 79. Hayashi N, Li YC, Li JL, Naito H. In vitro production on rice plants of perithecia of
- 1044 Magnaporthe grisea from Yunnan, China. Mycol Res. 1997; 101:1308-10. doi:
- 1045 10.1017/S095375629700422X.
- 1046 80. Trail F. Sex and Fruiting in *Fusarium*. In: Brown DW, Proctor RH, editors. Fusarium:
- Genomics, Molecular and Cellular Biology. Norfolk, UK.: Caister Academic Press.; 2013. p.
- 1048 10.
- 1049 81. Moreira SI, Ceresini PC, Alves E. Reprodução sexuada em *Pyricularia oryzae*. Summa
- 1050 Phytopathol. 2015; 41:175-82.

- 1051 82. Papaïx J, Burdon JJ, Zhan J, Thrall PH. Crop pathogen emergence and evolution in agro-
- ecological landscapes. Evol Appl. 2015; 8:385-402. doi: 10.1111/eva.12251. PMID:
- 1053 25926883.
- 83. Cruz CD, Kiyuna J, Bockus WW, Todd TC, Stack JP, Valent B. Magnaporthe oryzae
- conidia on basal wheat leaves as a potential source of wheat blast inoculum. Plant Pathol.
- 1056 2015; 64:1491-8. doi: 10.1111/ppa.12414.
- 1057 84. Langmead B, Salzberg SL. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nat Methods.
- 1058 2012; 9:357-9. doi: 10.1038/nmeth.1923. PMID: 22388286.
- 1059 85. Trapnell C, Roberts A, Goff L, Pertea G, Kim D, Kelley DR, et al. ifferential gene and
- transcript expression analysis of RNA-seq experiments with TopHat and Cufflinks. . Nat
- 1061 Protoc. 2012; 7:562-78. doi: 10.1038/nprot.2012.016. PMID: 22383036.
- 1062 86. DePristo MA, Banks E, Poplin R, Garimella KV, Maguire JR, Hartl C, et al. Aframework
- for variation discovery and genotyping using next-generation DNA sequencing data. Nat
- 1064 Genet. 2011; 43. doi: 10.1038/ng.806. PMID: 21478889.
- 1065 87. Pereira JF, Consoli L, Bombonatto EAS, Bonato ALV, Maciel JLN. Development of
- genomic SSR markers and molecular characterizaton of *Magnaporthe oryzae* isolates from
- wheat in Brazil. Biochem Genet. 2014; 52:52-70. doi: 10.1007/s10528-013-9627-4. PMID:
- 1068 24271825.
- 88. Bruvo R, Michiels NK, D'Souza TG, Schulenburg H. A simple method for the
- calculation of microsatellite genotype distances irrespective of ploidy level. Mol Ecol. 2004;
- 1071 13:2101-6. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-294X.2004.02209.x. PMID: 15189230.
- 89. Csárdi G, Nepusz T. The igraph software package for complex network research. Inter J
- 1073 Complex Syst. 2006:1965.
- 1074 90. Kamvar ZN, Tabima JF, Grunwald N. Poppr: an R package for genetic analysis of
- populations with clonal, partially clonal, and/or sexual reproduction. PeerJ. 2014:2:e281. doi:
- 1076 10.7717/peerj.281.; PMID: 24688859.
- 91. R-Core-Team. R: a language and environment for statistical computing. R foundation for
- statistical computing. Vienna, Austria. 2013.
- 1079 92. Stoddart JA, Taylor JF. Genotypic diversity: estimation and prediction in samples.
- 1080 Genetics. 1988; 118:705-11.
- 1081 93. Goudet J. FSTAT (Version 1.2): A computer program to calculate F-statistics. J Hered.
- 1082 1995; 86:485-6.

- 1083 94. Excoffier L. Smouse PE, Quattro JM. Analysis of molecular variance inferred from
- metric distances among DNA haplotypes: application to human mitochondrial DNA
- 1085 restriction data. Genetics. 1992; 131:479-91.
- 1086 95. Xu JR, Hamer JE. Assessment of *Magnaporthe grisea* mating type by spore PCR. Fungal
- 1087 Genet Newsl. 1995; 42:80. doi: 10.1079/CJB200545.

Figure Legends.

1089

1090

1091

1092

1093

1094

1095

1096

1097

1098

1099

1100

1101

1102

1103

1104

1105

1106

1107

1108

1109

1110

1111

1112

1113

Fig 1. Population genomic analyses of transcriptomic single nucleotide polymorphisms among isolates of *Pyricularia graminis-tritici* from wheat and several other poaceous hosts in Brazil, P. oryzae, P. grisea from Digitaria sanguinalis and other Pyricularia spp. from Setaria italica, and Eleusine indica. The scale bar shows the number of informative sites. The samples included 47 rice blast strains with publically available genome sequences, 32 Brazilian wheat and other poaceous blast strains, seven strains from various additional hosts and four wheat blast samples collected in Bangladesh in spring 2016. The dataset contained only SNPs reliably called in the transcriptomic sequences of the Bangladesh sample 12 and genotyped in at least 90% of all other strains. We retained 55,041 informative SNPs. A maximum likelihood phylogeny was constructed using RAxML version 8.2.8 with a GTR substitution matrix and 100 bootstrap replicates. Pygt and PoT stands for the formerly described P. graminis-tritici and P. oryzae pathotype Triticum. Fig 2. Geographical location of populations of Pyricularia graminis-tritici and P. oryzae examined in this study. The distinct colors in each population indicate the proportion of clones, while light gray indicates the proportion of distinct genotypes. Population 2005w was included because it represents a collection of MLMG genotypes sampled earlier in 2005 from central-southern Brazil. Fig 3. Minimum spanning network based on Bruvo distance for comparing 219 multilocus microsatellite genotypes (MLMG) of Pyricularia graminis-tritici isolates obtained from wheat and other poaceous hosts, and *P. oryzae* obtained from rice. Each node in the network

represents a single haploid MLMG determined using 11 microsatellite loci. The size of the

1115

1116

1117

1118

1119

1120

1121

1122

1123

1124

1125

1126

1127

1128

1129

1130

1131

1132

1133

1134

1135

1136

1137

1138

node (circle) represents the frequency of the sampled MLMGs. The shading (colors) of the nodes represents the membership of each population, while the thickness of the connecting lines and shading represent the degree of relationship between MLMGs. The line length is arbitrary. MLMGs shared among populations of *P. graminis-tritici* from wheat and other grasses are shown in red, while MLMGs associated only with one host are showed in black. Fig 4. Development of proto-perithecia and perithecia of *Pyricularia graminis-tritici* induced by injection of living conidia of isolates PY33.1 (Mat1-1) and PY05046 (Mat1-2) within autoclaved stems sections of wheat (Triticum aestivum) cv. MGS Brilhante. Panel A, site of injection (arrow 1) and fungal colonization within plant tissues (arrow 2); development of proto-perithecia (B) and perithecia (C) inside stems; D, perithecia developing from the internal plant tissues to beak emersion; proto-perithecia at interface (E) and on surface of plant tissues (F and G). H, Control composed of autoclaved stems without inoculation. The images of panels A, B, E and G were acquired by scanning electron microscope. Images of panels C, D and F were acquired by light microscope. Fig 5. Development of proto-perithecia and perithecia of Pyricularia graminis-tritici induced by injection of living conidia of isolates Py33.1 (Mat1-1) and Py5046 (Mat1-2) within senescing stems sections of different Poaceae species. Panel A, Procedure for inoculation by injection of living spores into the host stems. B, Pieces of stem placed at 120 mm Petri dishes to incubation in humid chamber 1 month after inoculation. C, Stems with proto-perithecia and/or perithecia development after incubation in humid chamber (arrows). Fruiting body in different plant species: D, canary seeds (*Phalaris canariensis*); E, rice (*O. sativa*) cv. Primavera; F, rice cv. Relampago; G, red rice (O. sativa) cv. Yin Lu 30; H, Brachiaria cv. Hybrid Mulato; I, barley (Hordeum vulgare) cv. BR Elis; J, barley cv. MN 743; K,Rye

1140

1141

1142

1143

1144

1145

1146

1147

1148

1149

1150

1151

1152

1153

1154

1155

1156

1157

1158

1159

1160

1161

1162

(Secale cereale) cv. BR1; L, black oat (Avena strigosa) cv. Embrapa 29 Garoa; M, foxtail millet (Setaria italica); N, wheat (Triticum aestivum) cv. BRS 264; O, wheat cv. MGS Brilhante; P, triticale (x *Triticosecale*) cv. IAC Caninde. The images of panels D to P were acquired by bright field microscopy. Fig 6. Virulence spectrum and typical blast lesions on wheat seedlings caused by isolates of Pyricularia graminis-tritici belonging to the predominant seedling virulence group (SVG L) on the differential set of ten wheat (Triticum aestivum) cultivars and one barley (Hordeum vulgare) cultivar. The differential set was consist of ten wheat cultivars: a) Anahuac 75; b) BR 18; c) BR 24; d) BRS 220; e) BRS 229; f) MGS 3 Brilhante; g), BRS Buruti; h) CNT 8; j) Renan; k) BRS 234; and one barley cultivar: i) PFC 2010123. Varieties indicated in bold showed resistant reaction. Isolate inoculated: 12.1.109. Fig 7. Distribution of seeding virulence groups (SVGs) of the wheat blast pathogen Pyricularia graminis-tritici in ten populations from central-southern Brazil. Fig 8. Virulence spectrum and typical blast lesions on wheat heads caused by isolates of Pyricularia graminis-tritici belonging to the predominant head virulence group (HVG A) on the differential set of ten wheat (Triticum aestivum) cultivars and one barley (Hordeum vulgare) cultivar. The differential set was consist of ten wheat cultivars: a) BRS 229; b) CNT 8; d) BR 234; e) Anahuac 75; f) BR 24; g) BRS 220; h), BR 18; i) Renan; j) BRS Buriti; k) MGS 3 Brilhante; and one barley cultivar: c) PFC 2010123. All cultivars showed susceptible reactions. Isolate inoculated: 12.1.170.

**Fig 9.** Distribution of head virulence groups (HVGs) of the wheat blast pathogen *Pyricularia graminis-tritici* in ten populations from central-southern Brazil.

1163

1164

1165

1166

1167

1168

1169

1170

1171

1172

1173

1174

1175

1176

1177

1178

1179

1180

1181

1182

Fig 10. Pyricularia graminis-tritici life cycle and wheat blast disease cycle. At the end of a cropping season (Ae), wheat blast infection on ears will result in seed infection (B, C), providing inoculum for either local or long distance dispersal of the pathogen [72]. Crop residues remaining in the field after harvesting, especially under no tillage conditions, serves as a niche for sexual reproduction of the fungus (D, 1-4); the resulting mature perithecia release ascospores by deliquescence of asci (D1), giving rise to new fungal individuals by the germination of terminal cells (D2), which is followed by fungal vegetative growth and subsequent conidiogenesis (D3) [81]; primary conidia originating from this process are released (D4) and constitute airborne inoculum for leaf infection on other poaceous hosts, either invasive or contiguous to wheat fields (E, F) [1, 53, 82]. Perithecia can be formed also in other infected poaceous hosts and major pasture grasses and ascospores released out onto a nearby wheat crop (E). Seedborne inoculum (B, C) results in primary infections in a newly established wheat crops. (F4) conidia released from leaf blast lesions on other poaceous hosts nearby wheat crops also contributes inoculum for wheat blast on ears [1, 53]. Conidia production on leaves (Af) in the lower canopy of certain wheat cultivars coinciding with spike emergence under field conditions and could be an important trigger for wheat blast epidemics on ears (Ae) [83].

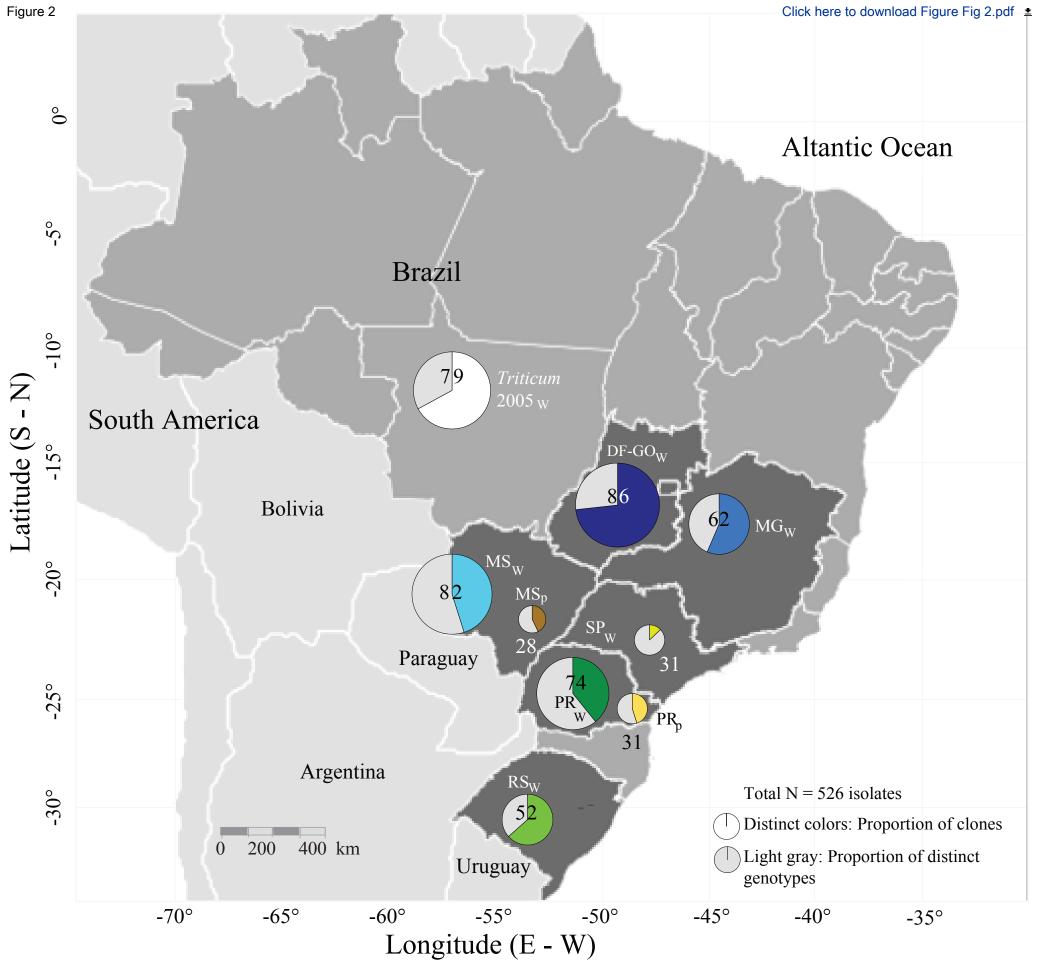
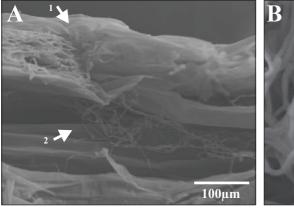
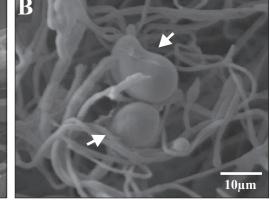
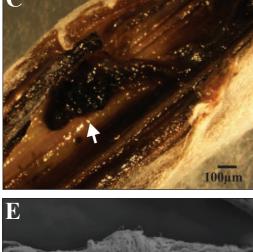


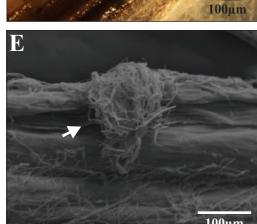
Figure 4 Click here to download Figure Fig 4.pdf ≛



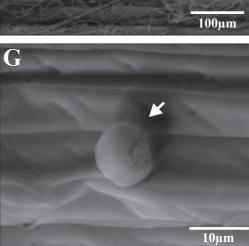




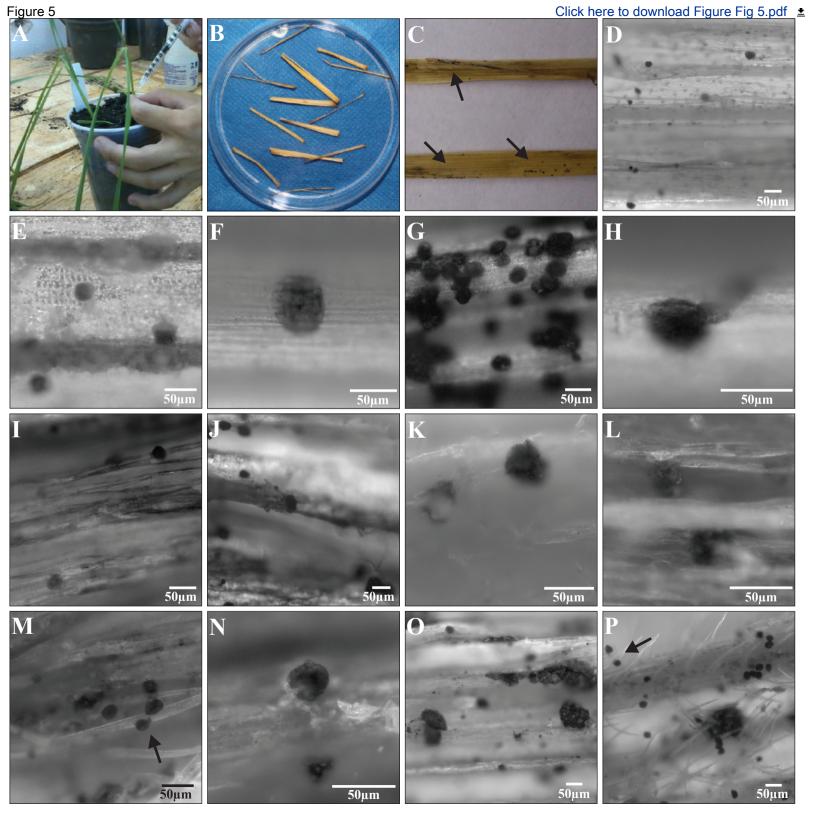












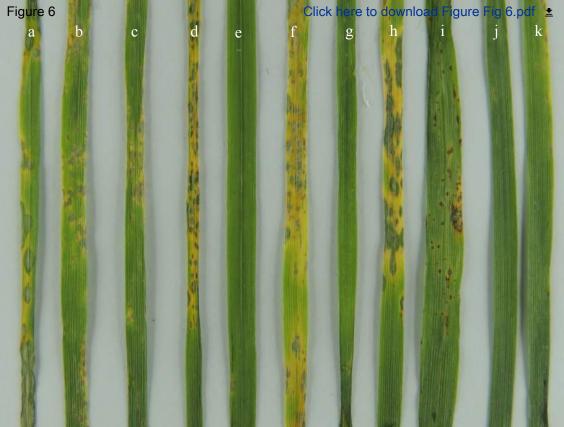


Fig 5.

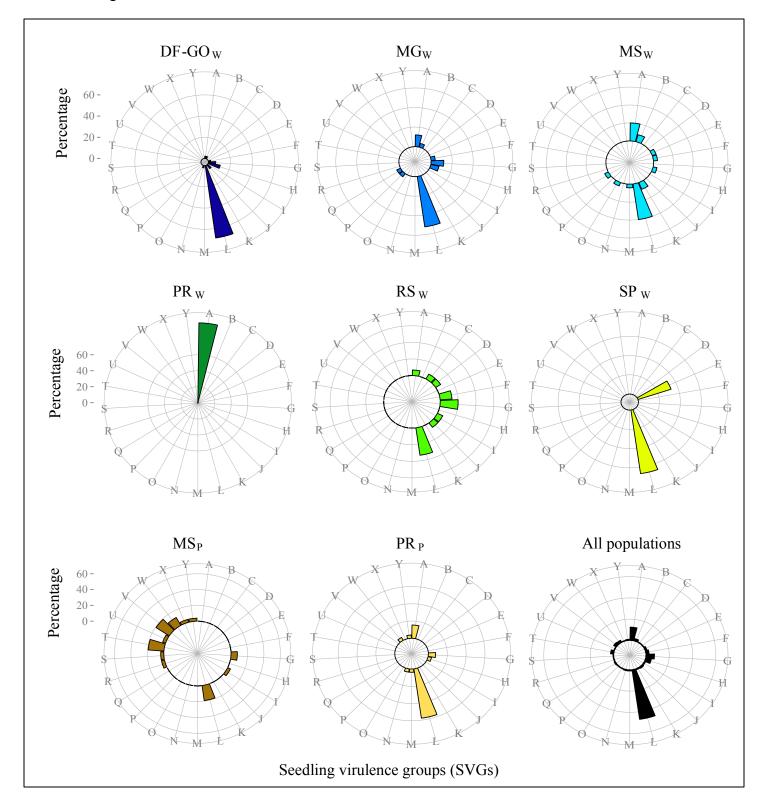




Fig 7

