Multiple independent adaptations to different ranges of host plants indicate high

adaptability despite clonal reproduction in the nematode pest *Meloidogyne*

incognita

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Abstract

The most devastating nematodes to worldwide agriculture are the root-knot nematodes

with *Meloidogyne incognita* being considered as the most ubiquitous. At the species

level, *M. incognita* is polyphagous with thousands of host plants. However, this wide

host range seems to be due to an assemblage of different isolates that each have distinct

and more restricted host compatibilities. In this species, four host races have been

defined as a function of distinct ranges of compatible and incompatible plants. To assess

whether there is an evolutionary signal underlying these host races, we sequenced the

genomes of 11 isolates across these four different races. By aligning the genomes of the

isolates to the *M. incognita* reference genome, we identified SNPs and small-scale

insertions/deletions. We showed that there are relatively low point variations between

the different isolates, despite their various different ecological characteristics.

Furthermore, these variations neither correlate with the four host races, the geographical

origin of the samples nor the host plant on which they have been collected. These

results suggest that multiple independent adaptations to different hosts and

environmental conditions have occurred and illustrate the high adaptive potential of this

agricultural pest despite its clonal mode of reproduction. Although the recognition of

variation in *M. incognita* host range exists, we recommend the discontinuation of the

terminology "race" considering there is no genetic signal underlying and supporting the

concept of races in *M. incognita.*

Introduction

Nematodes cause severe damages to the world agricultural production every year with the root-knot nematodes (RKN, genus *Meloidogyne*) being the most economically harmful in all temperate and tropical producing areas [1,2]. Curiously, the most polyphagous RKN species, which are able to parasitise the vast majority of flowering plants on Earth [3], have abandoned sex and meiosis. Among these mitotic parthenogenetic RKN, *M. incognita* is the most widespread and is present, at least, in all the countries where the lowest temperature exceeds 3°C. Greenhouses over the world also extend its geographic distribution [4]. *M. incognita* is so widely distributed that it is not even included on the list of regulated pests [5]. Due to its worldwide distribution and extreme polyphagy, *M. incognita* has been deemed the most damaging species of crop pest worldwide [3].

However, it has become more and more evident that the broad host range of *M. incognita* as well as the other major RKN species might not be present in every single isolate of these species but that different 'populations' or 'isolates' within one species have more restricted and overlapping host ranges. The assemblage of these different population-specific host ranges constitutes their remarkably wide host range at the species level [2]. Variations regarding host range within one given species gave rise to the concept of "host race" as soon as 1952 [6]. The pattern of compatibility/incompatibility of the nematode interaction with a set of different host plants is used to differentiate the host races [7]. The North Carolina Differential Host Test (NCDHT) was initially developed to provide preliminary identification of the four major RKN species (*M. incognita*, *M. javanica*, *M. hapla*, and *M. arenaria*) based on the host response [8]. Hartman and Sasser [7] later standardised the test to differentiate races within *Meloidogyne* spp. (Table S1). Current identification of species is based on

morphological descriptions [9], isozyme phenotypes [10,11], and molecular analysis [12]. The

NCDHT is mainly used to determine the host race status of *M. incognita* populations

and other main *Meloidogyne* species, given that they are not distinguishable from each

other morphologically or biochemically [13]. All *M. incognita* races reproduce on tomato,

watermelon, and pepper and none infect peanut, but they differ in their response to

tobacco and cotton defining the four host races [7] (Table S1). The genetic features

associated with *M. incognita* races remain unknown. Indeed, diversity studies using

RAPD and ISSR markers across eight isolates and the four races of *M. incognita* found

no correlation between phylogeny and host races [14–16]. Although in one of these works

[16] two out of three esterase phenotypes (I1 and S2) were monophyletic in the

phylogenetic tree of the *M. incognita* isolates, they did not segregate according to the

host races . A different molecular approach to try to differentiate host races was also

proposed based on repeated sequence sets in the mitochondrial sequence [17]. While the

pattern of repeats allowed differentiating one isolate of race 1, one of race 2 and one of

race 4; the study encompassed only one isolate per race, and thus the segregation could

be due to differences between isolates unrelated to the host race status itself.

Because these previous attempts to differentiate the races were performed only

on a few markers, they might have missed other ones, potentially better segregating

with the host races. Intriguingly, despite displaying phenotypic plasticity with great

evolutionary adaptive impact, no clear underlying genetic differences have been

identified so far [18]. Hence, it has remained unclear whether there is a phylogenetic

signal underlying the phenotypic variability (including the host races) or whether this

results from multiple independent adaptations to the same environment or host plants.

Therefore, a large-scale whole genome analysis of the different races should

more comprehensively inform on intraspecific genetic polymorphism of

Meloidogyne spp in relation to a biological trait of high agricultural importance such as

their host races. A first version of the genome of *M. incognita* was initially published in

2008 [19] and re-sequenced at much higher depth, providing the most complete *M.*

incognita reference genome available to date [20]. This reference genome comes from a

Mexican strain, named Morelos, reared from the offspring of one single female.

However, no information about the intra-species variation at the whole genome level

was available so far. Recently, a comparative genomics analysis, including different

strains of *M. incognita*, showed little variation at the protein-coding genome level

between strains collected across different geographical locations [21], confirming previous

observations with RAPD and ISSR markers [14–16]. Because the host-race status was

characterised for only one of the eight *M. incognita* strains sequenced in this analysis;

no relation between genomic variations and host race could be analysed. Furthermore,

the variability between isolates at the non-coding level, which represents the vast

majority of the genome, was not taken into account in this initial analysis.

Here, we have characterised 11 isolates representing the four *M. incognita* host-

races from populations parasitising six crops from geographically different sites across

Brazil (Figure 1). We used isozymes profiles, SCAR markers, and the NCDHT to

define the biological materials before the DNA extraction and high throughput genome

sequencing. We classified the *M. incognita* isolates according to their SNP profiles in

comparison to the reference genome. We superimposed on this classification

information of their host race, geographical localisation and host origin plant. We

showed that there is no genealogical signal underlying the host races, suggesting that

the capacity of infecting a particular set of plants most likely result from multiple

independent and convergent adaptations.

Material and Methods

Purification, species identification of M. incognita isolates and determination of host races.

The *M. incognita* isolates involved in this study (Table 1) originate from populations collected from different crops and geographically distant origins in Brazil (Figure 1). We identified and purified the isolates using individual females and their respective egg–masses (Carneiro & Almeida 2001). The identification was based first on esterase phenotypes [10]. We reproduced egg-mass isolates on tomato plants (*Solanum lycopersicum* L. cv. Santa Clara) under greenhouse conditions at a temperature of 25-28 ° C. After three months, we confirmed the *M. incognita* species using esterase phenotypes [22]. We used the same inoculum to perform the North Carolina Differential Host Test (NCDHT) [7] with the following plants: cotton cv. Deltapine 61, tobacco cv. NC95, pepper cv. Early California Wonder, watermelon cv. Charleston Gray, peanut cv. Florunner and tomato cv. Rutgers. We inoculated these plants with 5,000 eggs and J2 of *M. incognita* and maintained them under glasshouse conditions at 25-28° C for three months, with watering and fertilisation as needed. Two months after inoculation, the root system was rinsed with tap water, and eggs masses were stained with Phloxine B [7] to count the number of galls and eggs masses separated for each root system. We assigned a rating index number according to the scale: 0 = no galls or egg masses; 1 = 1-2 galls or egg masses; 2 = 3-10 galls or egg masses; 3 = 11-30 galls or egg masses; 4 = 31-100 galls or egg masses; and 5 > 100 galls or egg masses per root system (Table 1). Host–plants types that have an average gall and egg mass index of 2 or less are designated non-host (-). The other plants (index ≥ 3) are designated hosts (+).

We categorised *M. incognita* host races based on their ability to parasitise

tobacco and cotton (Table 1). Classically, the index for Rutgers tomato (susceptible

control) is higher than 4 (+) (Hartman & Sasser, 1985).

DNA preparation and SCAR test

We extracted and purified the genomic DNA from eggs of each nematode isolate

with the supplement protocol for nematodes of the QIAGEN Gentra® Puregene®

Tissue Kit with the following modifications: incubation at 65 ° C in the cell lysis buffer

for 30 min and incubation at 55 ° C with proteinase K for 4h. We verified DNA

integrity on 0.8% agarose gel and the DNA quantification on Nanodrop.

We confirmed isolate species purity by SCAR-PCR [23,24] using the SCAR

primers specified in Table S3 for the RKN *M. javanica, M. paranaensis, M. incognita,*

and *M. exigua.*

Sequencing library preparation

We assessed input gDNA quantity using Qubit and normalised the samples to

20ng/ul as described in TruSeq®DNA PCR-Free Library Prep Reference Guide (#FC-

121-3001, Illumina) prior fragmentation to 350bp with Covaris S2. We assessed the

quality of fragments after size selection and size control of the final libraries using High

Sensitivity DNA Labchip kit on an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer.

Whole genome sequencing

We quantified isolated sample libraries with KAPA library quantification kit

(#7960298001, Roche) twice with two independent dilutions at 1:10,000 and 1:20,000.

We calculated the average concentration of undiluted libraries and normalised them to

2nM each then pooled them for sequencing step.

We generated high-coverage genomic data for the 11 *M. incognita* isolates by

2x150 bp paired-end Illumina NextSeq 500 sequencing with High Output Flow Cell

Cartridge V2 (#15065973, Illumina) and High Output Reagent Cartridge V2 300 cycles

(#15057929, Illumina) on the UCA Genomix sequencing platform, in Sophia-Antipolis,

France. We performed two runs to balance the read's representation among the isolates

and obtain homogeneity of coverage for the different samples (Table S2).

Variant Detection

We trimmed and cleaned the reads from each library with cutadapt tool [25] to

remove adapter sequences and bases of a quality inferior to 20. We aligned the clean

reads to the *M. incognita* reference genome [20], using the BWA-MEM software package

[26]. We then used SAMtools [27] to filter alignments with MAPQ lower than 20, sort the

alignment file by reference position, and remove duplicate alignments.

We used the FreeBayes variant detection tool [28] to call SNPs and small-scale

insertions/deletions, incorporating all the library alignment files simultaneously and

produced a variant call file (VCF). We filtered the resulting VCF file with the vcffilter

function of vcflib [29] , retaining the positions that had more than 20 Phred-scaled

probability (QUAL) and a coverage depth (DP) > 10.

Principal component analysis

We performed a principal component analysis (PCA) to classify the isolates

according to their SNP patterns and mapped the race characteristics, geographic

location, or current host plants on this classification. We used the filtered VCF file as

input in the statistical package SNPRelate [30] to perform the PCA with default

parameters.

Phylogenetic network analysis

Based on the VCF file and the *M. incognita* gene predictions [20], we selected

85,413 positions that contained synonymous or non-synonymous mutations (i.e. in

coding regions). We aligned these positions and then used them as an input in

SplitsTree4 with default parameters.

Mitochondrion analysis

We sub-sampled genomic clean reads to 1% of the total library for each *M.*

incognita isolate. Then, we assembled them independently using the plasmidSPAdes

assembly pipeline [31]. We extracted the contigs containing the mitochondrion based on

similarity to the *M. incognita* reference mitochondrial genome sequence (NCBI ID:

NC_024097). In all cases, the mitochondrion was assembled in one single contig. We

identified the two repeated regions (63 bp repeat and 102 bp repeat, described in [17] and

we calculated the number of each repeat present in these regions.

Results

Using the NCDHT (methods), we characterised the host race status of the eleven

M. incognita Brazilian isolates studied in this paper as well as the Mexican strain

(Morelos), corresponding to the reference genome (Table 1). We characterised three

Brazilian isolates as race 1, two as race 2, three as race 3, and three as race 4. The *M.*

incognita reference genome (strain Morelos) was characterised as race 3.

We generated high-quality reads (~76 million per isolate) for each of the eleven

M. incognita isolates. These reads covered the assembled *M. incognita* genome size of

~183Mb [20] at a depth > 100X (Table S2) for each isolate. Overall, we identified 482,545

positions on the *M. incognita* reference genome that were polymorphic across the

different isolates (~0.27% of the total number of non-ambiguous nucleotides). Each

isolate shows a different level of divergence from the reference with R1-2 having the

highest number of variable positions (377,349) and R2-6 having the least (177,979)

variants (Figure 2a). The R3-4 isolate originated from a pool of four populations.

However, low number of SNPs compared to the reference indicates that either the

genomes of these four populations were very close or that a specific population

displaced the other three (Figure 2a). Thus, the R3-4 isolate was analysed exactly as the

other isolates. Overall, the level of variation of the genomes of the eleven isolates

ranges between 0.10 % and 0.21 % compared to the Morelos reference strain. Similarly,

the level of variation in the mitochondrial genome ranges between 0.09% and 0.21%.

Interestingly, only a small proportion (< 100 positions) of the variants appear to

be race-specific, except for race 2 (Figure 2b) which shows >4,000 race-specific

variations. This is most probably due to the fact that race 2 is represented by only two

isolates (vs. 3 for the rest of the isolates). All the race-specific variants were checked for

possible impact on the predicted gene set. The vast majority (80-90%) of SNPs were

outside of coding regions. In these coding regions, only 10, 2 and 9 SNPs yielded non-

synonymous substitution or otherwise disruptive mutations in races 1, 3 and 4,

respectively (793 such variants were found in race 2).

Using principal component analysis, we showed that the eleven *M. incognita*

isolates formed three distinct clusters, which we named A, B and C (Figure 3). Cluster

A is represented by Isolate R1-2 alone, which has the highest number of variants.

Cluster B is constituted by R3-2 and R4-4. The rest of the isolates fall in a single dense

cluster C of overall lower variation. The different clusters do not correlate with host

race status, meaning that different isolates of the same host race are not more similar to

each other than isolates of different host races. Thus, there is no apparent correlation

between resemblance in terms of genomic variants and host race status. Furthermore,

we observe that the three distinct clusters also neither correlate with geographic origin

nor the original host plant from which the nematodes have been collected. Interestingly,

the four different host races are all represented in one single cluster (C). Within this

cluster, the total number of variable positions is 176,107. Meaning that the whole range

of host-race is present in a cluster that represents only 39% of the total genomic

variation.

We could confirm the same groups in the phylogenetic network analysis based on SNP

present in coding regions only (Figure 4). According to the two classification methods,

isolate R1-2 seems to be the most divergent from the rest of isolates, which is consistent

with its higher total number of SNPs and number of isolate-specific SNPs. Then, a

small cluster is composed of isolates R3-2 and R4-3 (equivalent to cluster B of the

PCA). Finally, a cluster (equivalent to PCA cluster C) groups the rest of the eight

isolates with apparent high similarity regarding SNP pattern, regardless whether

considered at the whole genome level (PCA, Figure 3) or only at the coding part level

(phylogenetic network, Figure 4).

Consistent with the PCA and phylogenetic network analysis, we also did not

observe any correlation between the number of repeats in the two repeat regions in the

mitochondrion (63R and 102R) and races, geographical origin or host plant of origin

(Table 2).

To investigate more widely the diversity of *M. incognita* isolates in a broader

analysis, we included whole-genome sequencing data for additional geographical

isolates recently published [21]. These genome data included one isolate from Ivory Coast,

one from Libya, one from Guadeloupe (French West Indies) and five from the USA [21]

(Figure 1). We pooled these eight new isolates with the eleven Brazilian isolates

produced as part of this analysis as well as the *M. incognita* Morelos strain (reference

genome) and performed a new PCA with the same methodology. Astonishingly, adding

these new isolates recovered the same separation in three distinct clusters (A, B and C)

(Figure 5). All the new isolates from additional and more diverse geographical origins

fall in just two of the previous Brazilian clusters (A and C). Cluster A that previously

contained R2-1 alone, now encompasses the Ivory Coast, Libyan and Guadeloupe

isolates. Cluster C that previously contained eight of the Brazilian isolates and covered

all the host races now includes the five US isolates as well as the Mexican isolate

(Morelos, reference genome). Cluster B remains so far Brazilian-specific with only R3-

2 and R4-4 in this cluster. Overall, the addition of new geographical isolates [21] did not

substantially increase the number of detected variable positions in the genome.

Discussion

Major *Meloidogyne* spp. control strategies such as resistant cultivars and crop rotation are generally specifically deployed against a species or a race. If the identity of a population is unknown, the crop selected for use in a management scheme may cause dramatic increases in nematode populations [7]. This initially led to the formal recognition of 'host races' within *Meloidogyne* species along with a standardised set of differential hosts for distinguishing these host races. The host race concept has never been universally accepted, in part because it assured only a small portion of the potential variation in parasitic ability [2]. In this initial host race concept, even considering that *M. incognita* presented hundreds of known host plants, only six different host standards were used to characterise races. Another important aspect is the change of the race of an isolate over time. Isolates of *M. incognita* race 2 and 3, which parasitise tobacco and cotton plants respectively, switched to behaviour similar to race 3 and 2 after staying for eight months on coffee plants. This shows an adaptation of the nematode race in another host (coffee tree) (Rui Gomes Carneiro, personal communication). Also, new host races may be identified when including additional hosts in the differential test. For example, two additional *M. incognita* races have been characterized in Spain that did not fit into the previously published race scheme [32]. The term race is important when used in the context of nematode phenotypic diversity and generally refers to populations of nematodes that differ in their ability to infest a particular host that carry specific resistance genes. It has been shown that even within host races (e.g. 3 and 4), different isolates vary in their virulence against resistant cotton genotypes [33].

Besides, important books that described screening protocols like 'Plant Resistance to Parasitic Nematodes' recommended the determination of root-knot nematodes races before resistance screening cultivar tests [34]. Although the terminology

'races' of *Meloidogyne* spp. has been recommended not to be used since 2009 [2], some

papers related to *M. incognita* diversity or resistance of selecting cultivars on different

crops to this species are still using this term : coffee [35,36]; cotton [33,37] or soybean [38]. All

these contradictory aspects regarding host race concept and its importance in nematode

management in field conditions led us study to the genome-wide variability of the four

main races of *M. incognita.*

In this study, we found that the cumulative divergence across the eleven isolates

from Brazil and the reference genome (sampled initially from Mexico) reached ~0.27%

of the nucleotides. The maximum divergence between the reference genome and one

isolate covers ~0.21% of the nucleotides and addition of the isolates from Africa, the

West Indies and the USA did not increase the maximal divergence. In the nematode

model *C. elegans*, a RAD-seq analysis covering 8 Mb of the genome revealed 41,188

SNPs over >100 geographical isolates, which corresponds to an estimated ~0.52%

variable nucleotides in the genome [39]. A more comprehensive genome-wide analysis

identified ~600,000 SNPs across 40 *C. elegans* wild isolates from various geographic

locations [40]. This corresponds to ~0.63% of the nucleotides in the *C. elegans* genome.

Thus, point variations between genome sequences seem to happen at a lower magnitude

in *M. incognita* than in *C. elegans*. This difference is probably biologically sound and

not due to a difference of sensitivity of our method since we covered the *M. incognita*

genome at higher depths than all the previous *C. elegans* analyses. This relatively low

divergence is rather surprising, considering the different compatible host spectra (host

races), the geographically distant sampled sites and the different natures of crop species

of origin. These observations suggest that the classical mechanism of mutations

acquisition and selection of the fittest haplotype is probably not the main or at least not

the sole player in the adaptation of this species to different host plants and different

environmental conditions across the globe. Although all these nematode strains have

been collected in cultivated fields, that are by definition anthropised environments, there

are substantial differences in temperature range, weather conditions and soil properties

across these geographical locations. Furthermore, the seven host plants on which the

eleven *M. incognita* strains have been collected represent 110 – 124 Million years of

evolution (last common ancestor of pentapetalae [41]) with different root systems and

defence mechanisms. For instance, in cluster B alone, R3-2 and R4-4 appear to be very

closely related in terms of SNP pattern (Figure 3), however they were collected on two

plant species (cotton and soybean) that show >100 Million years of separation.

Curiously, the mitochondrial divergence was not higher than the nuclear genome

divergence, suggesting a recent diversification of the *M. incognita* species.

Maybe even more surprising is the fact that none of the biological and ecological

traits under consideration matches the SNP-based classification of these isolates. This

non-correlation between genetic grouping and bio-ecological traits is confirmed by the

two independent methods we employed (PCA and phylogenetic networks), and is

consistent with the lack of correlation previously observed with lower resolution

markers [14–16]. This suggests that the host race phenotypes most likely result from

multiple independent adaptations rather than spread of ancestral distinct host races.

Indeed, we observed no correlation between host race and SNP pattern at the whole

genome scale. This implies that there are cases of higher similarity in SNP patterns

between isolates of distinct host races than between isolates of the same host race. The

switch from race 1, which are neither able to infect cotton nor tobacco, to race 4, which

can infect both, appears particularly challenging. However, these two races are already

present in the same dense cluster C that encompasses only 39% of the SNPs. This

suggests that *M. incognita* is able to adapt to the challenge represented by two new

hosts despite showing relatively few variations regarding the genome sequence. This

observation is consistent with the rapid capability (5-10 generations) of *M. incognita* to

overcome the *Mi1.2* nematode resistance gene in tomato, in controlled lab conditions [18].

M. incognita is also able to overcome this resistance gene in the wild on tomato fields

[42,43], although it is unknown if this resistance breaking is as rapid as in controlled lab

conditions.

Collectively, our observations indicate that *M. incognita* is particularly versatile

and adaptive despite its clonal mode of reproduction. The relatively low divergence at

the SNP level suggests other mechanisms such as epigenetics, copy number variations,

movement of transposable elements or large-scale structural variations could be at play

in the surprising adaptability of this clonal species. Interestingly, the parthenogenetic

marbled crayfish has multiplied by more than 100 its original area of repartition across

Madagascar despite showing a surprisingly low number of nucleotide variation (only

~400 SNPs on a ~3Gb genome representing a proportion of variable positions of $1.3E^{-7}$

only). This also led the authors to suggest that mechanism other than mutation

acquisition and selection of the fittest haplotype must be involved [44].

Recently, we have shown that the genome structure of *M. incognita* itself, could

participate in its versatility. Indeed, being allopolyploid, *M. incognita* has >90% of its

gene in 3 copies, and the majority of these gene copies show diverged expression

patterns one from the other [20]. How the expression patterns of these gene copies vary

across different geographical isolates with different host preferences would be

interesting to explore. Furthermore, the genome of *M. incognita* as well as the two other

economically relevant tropical RKNs (*M. javanica* and *M. arenaria*) seem to be

enriched in transposable elements (TE) as compared to their sexual relative *M. hapla*,

which has a more restricted host range. Whether these TE have different abundances

and genomic positions across the isolates is worth investigating in the future.

To date, the whole divergence of Brazilian isolates encompasses the known

divergence of all the other sequenced *M. incognita* isolates across the world. Although

the sampling is biased towards Brazilian and American isolates with a few coming from

Africa, it provides an initial snapshot of the inter-population pattern of variations. The

addition of more isolates from other parts of the world will unveil whether populations

are part of a gradient transition or are grouped into clusters as shown here.

If the former is correct, it means that populations switch host-compatibility

gradually, while if the latter is the case, it means that members of a group can quickly

transition between different hosts. Altogether, our results show that there is no

genealogical basis underlying the *M. incognita* host-races. Thus, we recommend the

discontinuation of the terminology "race" for this species.

Conclusions

M. incognita shows a variability of ranges of compatible host plants and is able

to proliferate in various different geographical locations around the globe. This high

variability and adaptability is surprising, considering their clonal mode of reproduction

and the overall low variation in terms of SNPs at the whole genome sequence level

shown in this study. This indicates that mechanism other than point mutations

accumulation might be major players in the genomic plasticity required to sustain their

adaptability (e.g. larger scale variation, including copy number variations and

movements of transposable elements). In addition, epigenetics regulation could also

provide a transcriptomic plasticity while keeping point mutation-based variability at a

low level. Classification of *M. incognita* isolates on the basis of their similarity in SNP

patterns at the whole genome level does not correlate with their biological traits (e.g.

host compatibility, geographical origin or current host plant). Some isolates highly

similar in their pattern of shared SNPs show contrasted ranges of host compatibility.

These observations suggest that *M. incognita* is able to rapidly adapt to other hosts and

new environments despite being clonal and showing low variability at the whole

genome scale. Thus, *M. incognita* constitutes an interesting model system to study

adaptive potential in clonal animals.

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Author contributions

EGJD, PC-S and EVSA contributed to the design of the project; RMDGC, ACZM, EM

contributed to collection of samples. Classification of samples into races was done by

RMDGC, ACZM, EM; library preparations were performed by M-JA; GDK, EGJD,

EVSA contributed to the analysis and interpretation of data. EGJD and GDK wrote the

manuscript with contributions of EVSA, RMDGC, PC-S and M-JA. All authors

approved the final manuscript.

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Table 1. Host race characterization of the 11 *Meloidogyne incognita* isolates used in this study

Race	ID[a]	Host Crop[b]	PID[c]	Geographic origin	Esterase phenotype	NCDHT note[d]						Reference
						tb	tm	wm	pt	pr	ct	
1	R1-2	soybean	INC15	Londrina - PR	I2	0	5	4	0	5	0	(Mattos et al., 2016)
	R1-3	cucumber	ND	Piracicaba - SP	I2	0	5	5	0	4	0	
	R1-6	tobacco	LGM39	Mercedes - PR	I2 / I1	0	5	5	0	4	0	(Filho, Machado, Dallagnol, & Aranha Camargo, 2016)
2	R2-1	tobacco	LGM09	Sombrio - SC	I2	5	5	4	0	4	0	(Filho et al., 2016)
	R2-6	coffee	22B	São Jorge do Patrocínio - PR	I1	4	5	5	0	4	1	
3	R3-1	cotton	PR-3	Umuarama - PR	I2	0	5	5	0	5	5	(da Silva et al., 2014)
	R3-2	soybean	ND	Londrina - PR	I2	0	5	5	0	5	5	
	R3-4	cotton (pool)	PR-3 Umu, PR-3 Lon, MTS-R3, BA-R3	Umuarama - PR, Londrina - PR, Dourados - MS, L.E.Magalhães - BA	I2	0	5	5	0	5	5	(da Silva et al., 2014)
4	R4-1	cotton	MT-4	Campo Verde - MT	I2	5	5	5	0	5	5	(da Silva et al., 2014)
	R4-3	watermelon	NG	Londrina - PR	I2	5	5	5	0	5	5	
	R4-4	cotton	GEN 306	Vargem Grande do Sul - SP	I1	5	5	5	0	5	5	

a, isolate identification code

b, host plant crop (soybean, *Glycine max*; cucumber, *Cucumis sativus*; tobacco, *Nicotiana tabacum*; coffee, *Coffea arabica*; cotton, *Gossypium hirsutum*.; watermelon, *Citrullus vugaris*

c, population id

d, host range results for the North Carolina Differential Host Test (NCDHT), numbers represent gall index with 0 = no galls; 1 = 1 to 2; 2 = 3 to 10; 3 = 11 to 30; 4 = 31 to 100; and 5 = more than 100 galls. (tb=tobacco 'NC95', tm=tomato 'Rutgers', wm=watermelon 'Charleston Gray', pt=peanut 'Florunner', pr=pepper 'Early California Wonder', ct=cotton 'Deltapine 61'

Table 2. Number of repeats per region (63nt and 102nt) in the mitochondrial DNA of each
isolate, decimals indicate truncated repeats

ID	63nt Region	102nt Region	Location	Host plant
R1-2	7.3	5.5	Londrina - PR	soybean
R1-3	7	13	Piracicaba - SP	cucumber
R1-6	1.2	7	Mercedes - PR	tobacco
R2-1	7	15.4	Sombrio - SC	tobacco
R2-6	7	9	São Jorge do Patrocínio - PR	coffee
R3-1	7	13	Umuarama - PR	cotton
R3-2	14	8.3	Londrina - PR	soybean
R3-4	6	13	Umuarama – PR	cotton
			Londrina – PR	
			Dourados – MS	
			L.E.Magalhães - BA	
R4-1	6	14.7	Campo Verde - MT	cotton
R4-3	3	9	Londrina - PR	watermelon
R4-4	14	8.3	Vargem Grande do Sul - SP	cotton

546   Figure 1. World map showing geographical origins for all samples used in the study.

547   a

550   b

Figure 2. Variant analysis. **a.** Number of variants per isolate, **b.** Common variants in species
belonging to the same race.

Figure 3. PCA analysis of the different *M. incognita* isolates groups them into three clusters (A,

B, and C). The geographic origins are associated to coloured shapes: black circle: Paraná,

orange diamond: Santa Catarina, green square: São Paulo, red triangle: Mato Grosso, blue star:

pool. Host plant representative pictures are displayed next to the isolates: soybean pod (R1-2

and R3-2); cotton flower (R3-1, R3-4, R4-4, and R4-1); coffee grain (R2-6); cucumber

vegetable (R1-3); tobacco leaves (R1-6 and R2-1); and watermelon fruit slice (R4-3).

Figure 4. Phylogenetic network for *M. incognita* isolates based on SNPs present in coding
sequences.

Figure 5. PCA analysis of all known *M. incognita* genomes. The isolates were regrouped based

on SNP patterns. Origin countries are indicated by flags (Brazil for R1-2, R1-3, R1-6, R2-1, R2-

6, R3-1, R3-2, R3-4, R4-1, R4-3, R4-4; USA for L27, 557R, HarC, W1, VW6; Mexico for

Morelos; Libya for A14; Ivory Coast for L9; Guadeloupe for L19). Morelos isolate is Race 3

and L27 isolate is Race 1.