A partial pathogenicity chromosome in *Fusarium oxysporum* is sufficient to cause disease and can be horizontally transferred

3 4

5

8

1

2

Jiming Li¹, Like Fokkens¹, Lee James Conneely¹, Martijn Rep^{1*}

¹Molecular Plant Pathology, University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, 1098 XH, the Netherlands
 *Correspondence: Email: m.rep@uva.nl

9 10 Abstract

11

During host colonization, plant pathogenic fungi secrete proteins, called effectors, to facilitate 12 infection. Collectively, effectors may defeat the plant immune system, but usually not all 13 14 effectors are equally important for infecting a particular host plant. In Fusarium oxysporum f.sp. *lvcopersici*, all known effector genes – also called *SIX* genes – are located on a single 15 accessory chromosome which is required for pathogenicity and can also be horizontally 16 17 transferred to another strain. To narrow down the minimal region required for virulence, we 18 selected partial pathogenicity chromosome deletion strains by fluorescence-assisted cell sorting of a strain in which the two arms of the pathogenicity chromosome were labelled with 19 20 GFP and RFP, respectively. By testing the virulence of these deletion mutants, we show that the complete long arm and part of the short arm of the pathogenicity chromosome are not 21 22 required for virulence. In addition, we demonstrate that smaller versions of the pathogenicity 23 chromosome can also be transferred to a non-pathogenic strain and they are sufficient to turn 24 the non-pathogen into a pathogen. Surprisingly, originally non-pathogenic strains that had 25 received a smaller version of the pathogenicity chromosome were much more aggressive than 26 recipients with a complete pathogenicity chromosome. Whole genome sequencing analysis 27 revealed that partial deletions of the pathogenicity chromosome occurred mainly close to 28 repeats, and that spontaneous duplication of sequences in accessory regions is frequent both in 29 chromosome deletion strains and in horizontal transfer (recipient) strains.

30

31 Author Summary

32

33 Fungal genomes can often be divided into a core genome, which is essential for growth, and an accessory genome which is dispensable. The accessory genome in fungi can be beneficial 34 under some conditions. For example, in some plant-pathogenic fungi, virulence genes are 35 36 present in the accessory genome, which enable these fungi to cause disease on certain hosts. In 37 Fusarium oxysporum f.sp. lycopersici, which infects tomato, all host-specific virulence genes are located on a single accessory chromosome. This 'pathogenicity chromosome' can be 38 horizontally transferred between strains. Here, we found that many suspected virulence genes 39 40 are in fact not required for virulence because strains without a large part of the pathogenicity chromosome, including these genes, showed no reduced virulence. In addition, we demonstrate 41 that partial pathogenicity chromosomes can be horizontally transferred to a non-pathogen. 42 Surprisingly, originally non-pathogenic strains that had received a partial pathogenicity 43

chromosome were more virulent than strains that had received the complete pathogenicitychromosome.

- 46
- 47

48 Introduction

49

50 Accessory chromosomes, also called supernumerary chromosomes, B chromosomes, or 51 lineage-specific chromosomes, were first discovered in Hemiptera in 1907 (1). However, it was only in 1991 that they were first reported in a fungus; the plant-pathogenic fungus Nectria 52 53 haematococca (Fusarium solani) (2). Since then, accessory chromosomes have been found in more than 20 different species of fungi (3), including the plant pathogens Fusarium oxysporum 54 (Fo) (4–7), Fusarium solani (8), and Zymoseptoria tritici (9–11). Accessory chromosomes are 55 generally distinguished from core chromosomes by their relatively high number of repeats, 56 57 lower gene density, distinct codon usage, different evolutionary trajectories and dispensability 58 (12).

59

60 Although accessory chromosomes are dispensable, they can play an important role under 61 specific conditions, such as conferring pathogenicity to specific plant species (3). For example, in Alternaria, host-selective toxin genes are located on accessory chromosomes which are 62 responsible for causing disease on certain plant species (13-15). Recent findings in the 63 64 hemibiotrophic plant pathogen Colletotrichum higginsianum showed that mutants without chromosome 11 are arrested during the biotrophic phase of infection (16). In contrast, loss of 65 this chromosome had no clear effect on vegetative fitness, suggesting that this chromosome 66 plays a specific role during infection (16). One of the most well-documented examples is the 67 pathogenicity chromosome of Fo f.sp. lycopersici (Fol) (4,17,18). While this pathogenicity 68 69 chromosome can be lost without affecting normal growth, strains without this pathogenicity 70 chromosome cannot infect tomato plants (4,16). All 14 known effector genes (Secreted In 71 *Xylem* genes, *SIX* genes) are located on this pathogenicity chromosome (18), and some of these effector genes were shown to contribute to virulence towards tomato plants, including SIX1 72 73 (AVR3) (19), SIX3 (AVR2) (20), and SIX5 (21). Further studies on this pathogenicity 74 chromosome showed that loss of (most of) the long arm (q arm) of this chromosome, including SIX6, SIX9 and SIX11, did not significantly affect virulence (5). 75

76

77 Apart from conferring advantages in a certain environment, at least some accessory chromosomes can also be horizontally transferred from one strain to another (4,6,17,22). The 78 79 first molecular evidence for horizontal chromosome transfer (HCT) in fungal plant pathogens 80 was reported in Colletotrichum gloeosporioides (23). It was suggested that a 2-Mb chromosome in the biotype B isolate Bx most likely originated by a relatively recent transfer 81 82 from biotype A. Shortly after, He and colleagues experimentally demonstrated horizontal 83 transfer of a 2-Mb chromosome from biotype A to biotype B, however, no pathogenicity 84 phenotype was transferred (22).

85

HCT has also been observed in Fo (4,6,17). When co-incubating a Fol strain with a non-pathogenic strain, the pathogenicity chromosome of Fol can be transferred to a non-pathogenic

strain, turning the latter into a tomato-infecting strain (4,17). In some cases, a second accessory
chromosome was co-transferred (4). Similarly, from Fo f.sp. *radicis-cucumerinum* (Forc), a
single chromosome chr^{RC} can be transferred to a non-pathogen, turning the recipient into a
cucurbit-infecting strain (6). The mechanisms behind HCT are largely unknown, but it is most
likely that HCT happens through heterokaryosis, which was supported by the observation that
transfer is not always restricted to accessory chromosomes, but a core chromosome (~4 Mb)

- 94 could also be transferred (17).
- 95

In a previous study, we showed that the short arm (p arm) of the pathogenicity chromosome in 96 97 Fol can be sufficient for causing disease on tomato plants (5). In order to test this hypothesis and narrow down the genes or regions that are essential for infection in Fol, we selected partial 98 pathogenicity chromosome deletion strains. To achieve this, we inserted the *RFP* gene in the 99 short arm (p arm) of the pathogenicity chromosome of a strain with the GFP gene on the q arm 100 101 (16), and used fluorescence-assisted cell sorting to select spores without GFP or RFP (24). By testing the virulence of these deletion mutants, we show that less than half of the chromosome 102 is sufficient for causing disease. In addition, we demonstrate that smaller versions of the 103 104 pathogenicity chromosome can also be transferred to a non-pathogenic strain, with concomitant 105 transfer of pathogenicity towards tomato.

- 106
- 107 **Results:**

108 Construction of a Fol strain with *GFP* and *RFP* on either arm of the pathogenicity 109 chromosome

110

To be able to select for partial pathogenicity chromosome deletion strains in Fol, we set out to 111 create a strain with the *RFP* gene on the short arm (p arm) and the *GFP* gene on the long arm 112 (q arm) of the pathogenicity chromosome. Fluorescence-assisted cell sorting (FACS) with this 113 strain could then be used to select spores without either green fluorescence or red fluorescence. 114 To construct this strain, the strain 14HG6B with GFP on the q arm of the pathogenicity 115 chromosome was used as a starting point (5). To insert the *RFP* gene on the p arm, single copy 116 117 genes FOXG 14135 and FOXG 16428 with relatively low expression during colonization of 118 tomato plants (25) were selected for homologous recombination. With the additional purpose to investigate whether the SIX10/12/7 gene cluster contributes to virulence, this gene cluster 119 was also targeted for homologous recombination. The location of these genes is shown in Fig 120 121 1A.

122

123 To replace genes with RFP, Agrobacterium-mediated transformation was performed. For SIX10/12/7, no *in locus* transformant was found after checking 433 transformants in two rounds 124 of transformation, but two spontaneous SIX10/12 deletion mutants, 14HG6B Δ SIX10 12#1 125 126 and 14HG6B Δ SIX10 12#2, were found. Since these were derived from the same experiment, it could be that they are not independent but arose from a single event. In any case, SIX10 and 127 SIX12, as part of a ~20kb region, were lost in these strains, but SIX7 was retained. In the effort 128 to replace FOXG 16428 with RFP, one in locus transformant, 14HG6B Δ FOXG 16428, was 129 130 obtained out of 945 transformants in three rounds of transformation. However, this

131 transformant also contained (an) ectopic insertion(s) of the *RFP* construct. For the third gene, 132 $FOXG_{14135}$, 300 transformants in two rounds of transformation were checked, and we found 133 one *in locus* transformant without ectopic insertion, 14HG6B_ Δ FOXG_14135 (called 134 **14HGPR** from hereon). Fol transformations are summarized in Table S1. Strain 14HGPR was 135 confirmed microscopically to have both red and green fluorescence, and *in locus* insertion was 136 confirmed by PCR.

137

To assess the virulence of 14HGPR, bioassays were performed. Disease index and fresh weight were scored three weeks after inoculation, and no significant reduction of virulence was observed when comparing 14HGPR with the original strain 14HG6B and an ectopic control (Fig S1). Thus, 14HGPR was used for FACS experiments to obtain partial deletions of the Fol pathogenicity chromosome from both arms. In addition, bioassays were performed to assess virulence of 14HG6B_ Δ SIX10/12#1, 14HG6B_ Δ SIX10/12#2, and 14HG6B_ Δ FOXG_16428, and no significant reduction in virulence was observed (data not shown).

145

146 *GFP* fluorescence is much more frequently lost in spores of 14HGPR than *RFP*147 fluorescence

148

To obtain spontaneous deletions of the Fol pathogenicity chromosome from both arms, Fluorescence Assisted Cell Sorting (FACS) of strain 14HGPR was performed to select spores without green or red fluorescence. In total, 26 different cultures were started from single spore colonies in four different FACS experiments, and from these experiments 43 *GFP* deletion strains and 18 *RFP* deletion strains were kept for further analysis (Table S2).

154

The first FACS experiment served to determine the approximate rate of loss of green or red 155 fluorescence in cultures of the 14HGPR strain. Six single colonies of 14HGPR were separately 156 157 inoculated into NO₃ medium (0.17% yeast nitrogen base, 3% sucrose, 100mM KNO₃). After 158 growing for five days, spore suspensions were obtained by filtering cultures through a double layer of mira-cloth and directly used for FACS. We observed that all the six cultures showed a 159 similar pattern, with a large population of spores still containing both green and red 160 161 fluorescence and a very small fraction without green or red fluorescence (Fig 1B). Strikingly, in all cultures more spores had lost green fluorescence than spores that had lost red fluorescence, 162 as shown in Fig 1B. Only one single spore colony which had lost the RFP gene was kept for 163 further analysis from this first experiment (Table S2). 164

165

For the second FACS experiment, 14HGPR was again mono-spored and five single colonies 166 167 were transferred directly into NO₃ medium and allowed to grow for five days. This time two hundred fifty spores without green fluorescence and 226 spores without red fluorescence were 168 deflected on Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) plates and allowed to form colonies (Table S3). Only 169 170 27 out of 250 (11%) colonies emerged on the plates on which spores without green fluorescence were deflected, while 199 spores selected for loss of red fluorescence (87%) formed colonies 171 (Table S3). It turned out that 18 out of the 27 (66.7%) 'red-selected' colonies were confirmed 172 to be GFP negative when checked by microscopy, but only three out of 199 (1.5%) 'green-173 174 selected' colonies were truly RFP negative (Table S3). Since spores without red fluorescence

175 were extremely rare, the gating was set close to spores containing both red and green 176 fluorescence, and this apparently resulted in many false negative spores. The details from all 177 five cultures are shown in Fig S4. For the 18 'red' and the three 'green' colonies, PCR was 178 used to confirm loss of the *GFP* or *RFP* gene and other regions of the Fol pathogenicity 179 chromosome (Table S2).

180

To obtain more independent deletion strains, a third FACS experiment was performed. With 181 182 the aim of increasing the frequency of spontaneous loss of RFP, five single colonies of 14HGPR were grown on PDA plates for ten days before collecting and inoculating spores from 183 plates into NO₃ medium. After five days incubation at 25°C in the NO₃ medium, the spores 184 were transferred to 4°C for five days and 1 mL of these suspensions were transferred into new 185 NO₃ medium and allowed to grow for another seven days at 25°C before being subjected to 186 sorting. Of spores without green fluorescence deflected, 74 out of 250 (30%) formed colonies, 187 188 while of spores without red fluorescence deflected, 335 out of 375 (89%) formed colonies (Table S3). Fluorescence microscopy revealed that 63 out of the 74 (85%) 'red' colonies were 189 truly green fluorescence negative. However, only ten out of 335 (3.0%) 'green' colonies were 190 191 red fluorescence negative (Table S3). These 63 'red' and ten 'green' colonies were also 192 confirmed by PCR to have lost GFP or RFP, respectively. The details from all five cultures are shown in Fig S5. Twenty four out of 63 'red' and nine out of ten 'green' deletion strains 193 194 were further checked for loss of other regions of the pathogenicity chromosome (Table S2). Concluding, using a longer culturing regime including incubation at 4°C, an increase in the 195 frequency of loss of *GFP* was observed for all the five cultures, but no significant increase in 196 197 the frequency of loss of RFP was observed when compared with the second FACS experiment (Table S3, Table S4 and Table S5). 198

199

200 So far, we obtained a large variety of partial deletions from the q arm of the pathogenicity 201 chromosome, but from the p arm only 13 partial deletion strains with limited variation were 202 found (Table S2). In a final attempt to obtain more partial deletions from the p arm of the pathogenicity chromosome, a fourth FACS experiment was performed to only select spores 203 without red fluorescence. In this case, ten single colonies of 14HGPR were grown on PDA 204 205 plates for one month at 25°C, then the spores were collected from the plates and inoculated into NO₃ medium. The cultures were incubated for five days in NO₃ medium before being used 206 for FACS. Out of 246 single colonies growing from deflected 'green' spores, only five (2%) 207 had truly lost red fluorescence when checked microscopically (Table S3). PCR of these five 208 single colonies confirmed that the RFP gene was lost in all cases (Table S2). The details from 209 210 all ten cultures are shown in Fig S6.

211

212 Illumina whole genome sequencing confirms partial deletions of the Fol pathogenicity213 chromosome and reveals multiplications

214

To more accurately assess which sequences of the pathogenicity chromosome had been lost and whether changes had also occurred in other parts of the genome, we selected ten deletion

strains with different deletion patterns for Illumina whole genome sequencing (Table S7). Ofthese ten deletion strains, six strains had lost part of the q arm, and four strains had lost part of

the p arm. To determine sequence changes in the deletion strains, Illumina short-read mapping
of both *GFP* deletion strains and *RFP* deletion strains was performed to the SMRT assembly
of Fol4287 (Fig 2A and Fig 3A; Fig S2 and Fig S3). In addition, genome sequence reads from
three previously obtained deletion strains, named 14-2, 14-4 and 14-7 (5) were mapped to the
newly generated SMRT assembly of Fol4287 (Fig 2A and Fig S2). As a reference, Fol4287
Illumina sequencing reads were retrieved from SRA and were also mapped (Fig 2A and Fig
3A; Fig S2A and Fig S3A).

226

All nine GFP deletion strains were confirmed to have lost part or complete q arm of the 227 pathogenicity chromosome (Fig 2A). Strains that had completely lost the q arm of the 228 pathogenicity chromosome include 14-4, 14-7, \triangle GFP#20 and \triangle GFP#26. These deletions had 229 happened close to or in the centromere region of the pathogenicity chromosome. Three SIX 230 genes are located on the q arm, SIX9, SIX6 and SIX11, which were lost in all these four deletion 231 232 strains. 14-4 and 14-7 were probably derived from the same deletion event since these two deletion strains showed exactly the same read density pattern (Fig. 2A). The deletion strains 233 14-2 and \triangle GFP#22 still contain a small part of the q arm, but no SIX genes are present in this 234 235 part. The truncation of the pathogenicity chromosome in strain \triangle GFP#8 is quite close to SIX6, 236 and SIX6 was lost in this strain (Table S2). SIX6 and SIX11 are present in the deletion strain 237 \triangle GFP#27, while *SIX9*, *SIX6* and *SIX11* are all present in \triangle GFP#29.

238

239 In addition to partial or complete deletion of the q arm, multiplication of certain regions of the remaining part of the pathogenicity chromosome had also occurred for seven out of nine GFP 240 deletion strains (Fig 2A). For all newly obtained deletion strains in this study, multiplication 241 had occurred in the region where RFP was inserted, and this probably happened during 242 243 insertion of *RFP* into this location. Part of the population of \triangle GFP#8 used to prepare genomic 244 DNA for sequencing probably had lost the multiplication in the RFP region as lower read densities were observed in this region. Duplication of the q arm was only observed for 245 Δ GFP#29. Except multiplication of the *RFP* region, other large multiplications of the p arm of 246 247 the pathogenicity chromosome were observed for deletion strains 14-2, \triangle GFP#20, \triangle GFP#26 and \triangle GFP#27. Surprisingly, the whole contig 58 was duplicated in the deletion strains 14-4 248 and 14-7. 249

250

251 Lastly, to further assess whether deletions or multiplications could be linked to repeats, the 252 distribution of repeats of the pathogenicity chromosome were determined (Fig 2D). Except for 253 the deletion in strain \triangle GFP#22, the remaining eight deletions had occurred close to repeats (Fig 2A and D). Among them, four deletions had occurred in the centromeric region, and the 254 255 other four deletions had occurred close to repeats in different locations. No large changes were observed in the core genome of the GFP deletion strains (Fig S2). Interestingly, however, four 256 257 out of the six newly generated deletion strains of the g arm showed the same deletion in contig 47. Additional deletions and duplications in the core genome were only observed for \triangle GFP#29, 258 259 including a relatively large deletion at the end of contig 3, a smaller deletion at the end of contig 7, and a duplication at the end of contig 61. 260

261

262 The four *RFP* deletion strains all showed different deletion patterns (Fig 3A). Strain △RFP#11 had only lost a small region of the p arm of the pathogenicity chromosome, including the 263 264 SIX10/SIX12/SIX7 gene cluster. The end of the p arm of this deletion strain was still present. Strain $\triangle RFP\#12$ had lost a larger part of the p arm and this lost region including SIX14, SIX1, 265 SIX2, SIX3, SIX5, SIX13, and SIX10/12/7. Interestingly, \triangle RFP#14 not only had lost part of the 266 p arm, but it also had lost the end of the q arm. In this deletion strain, only SIX14, SIX1 and 267 SIX2 are still present on the p arm of the pathogenicity chromosome. Complete loss of the p 268 arm of the pathogenicity chromosome was observed for $\triangle RFP#16$. In contrast to the common 269 270 multiplications observed for most GFP deletion strains, multiplications were only observed for 271 one *RFP* deletion strain, \triangle RFP#12.

272

In the *RFP* deletion strains, all deletions and multiplications had occurred close to repeats (Fig 3A and D). Surprisingly, all four *RFP* deletion strains had the same deletion in contig 47 as the *GFP* deletion strains (Fig S3A). Moreover, strain \triangle RFP#12 contains one relatively large deletion at the end of contig 2 (Fig S3A and C).

277

To conclude, partial deletions of the pathogenicity chromosome were confirmed for all the deletion strains. In addition, multiplications and additional deletions were also observed on the pathogenicity chromosome as well as other parts of the genome in some strains. Lastly, almost all deletions and multiplications had occurred in or close to repetitive regions.

282 283

A partial Fol pathogenicity chromosome can be transferred to a non-pathogenic strain

286 To test which parts of the Fol pathogenicity chromosome can be horizontally transferred, chromosome transfer experiments were performed (26) by co-incubating each of the selected 287 288 24 deletion strains containing different partial deletions with hygromycin or zeocin-resistant transformants of non-pathogenic strain Fo47 ('recipient strains') in five independent 289 290 experiments (Table S8). Since the recipient strains produced more spores than the donor strains, 291 we decided to co-incubate the donor strains and the recipient strains in different ratios, including 1:1, 10:1, and 20:1. Chromosome transfer was observed when using ratios of 1:1 or 292 10:1. Since the transfer frequency was extremely low, no significant difference in transfer 293 frequency between these ratios could be determined. Co-incubation of donor and recipient 294 strains was performed on Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) medium or Czapek Dox Agar (CDA) 295 in two different experiments (Table S9). Again, no significant difference in transfer frequency 296 was observed. Since Shahi et al. (2016) showed that CAT medium (0.17% YNB, 25mM KNO₃) 297 facilitates heterokaryon formation, which could result in horizontal chromosome transfer, we 298 299 also co-incubated the donor and recipient strains in CAT medium for three days before plating spores on PDA or CDA plates in one of the HCT experiments. However, no successful transfer 300 events were observed (Table S9, HCT IV). 301

302

Through these five experiments, we identified four strains, \triangle GFP#8, \triangle GFP#26, \triangle GFP#29, and \triangle RFP#1, with the ability to transfer its partial pathogenicity chromosome to Fo47 (Table

305 S8). Horizontal transfer of partial chromosomes was confirmed by PCR using primers specific to the recipient strains and primers targeting different parts of the pathogenicity chromosome 306 307 (Table S10). For donor strains \triangle GFP#26 and \triangle RFP#1, seven double drug-resistant colonies 308 were found for each, designated HCT \triangle GFP#26-1 to -7 and HCT \triangle RFP#1-1 to -7. For donor 309 strains \triangle GFP#8 and \triangle GFP#29, ten and six double drug-resistant colonies were obtained, designated HCT △GFP#8-1 to -10 and HCT △GFP#29-1 to -6. Among these donor strains, 310 \triangle GFP#8, \triangle GFP#26, and \triangle GFP#29 had lost different parts of the q arm, while \triangle RFP#1 had 311 lost a small part of the p arm. Transfer of partial chromosomes with large deletions of the p 312 arm were not obtained, despite several attempts (Table S8). 313

314

315 It was observed earlier that chromosome size can change during horizontal chromosome transfer (6,17). To assess karyotypes of HCT-strains and donor strains, CHEF gel analysis was 316 performed (Fig 4). One progeny strain from each donor strain (HCT \triangle RFP#1-7, 317 HCT △GFP#29-2, HCT △GFP#8-2, and HCT △GFP#26-1) was selected. As expected, all 318 HCT-strains showed the karyotype of the recipient strain (Fo47) with an extra chromosome. 319 320 For HCT \triangle RFP#1-7 and HCT \triangle GFP#8-2, the size of the extra chromosome is similar to the 321 presumed partial pathogenicity chromosome in donor strains $\triangle RFP#1$ and $\triangle GFP#8$, respectively, which is consistent with the PCR results (Table S10) and the sequencing data (Fig 322 2A). However, in donor strain \triangle GFP#29, instead of an expected smaller version of the 323 pathogenicity chromosome as suggested by the PCR and sequencing data (Table S10 and Fig 324 2A), an extra chromosome of around 4 Mb was observed, suggesting translocation of the 325 remaining part of the pathogenicity chromosome to another chromosome. After horizontal 326 327 chromosome transfer from \triangle GFP#29 to Fo47, an even larger chromosome (around 5 Mb) was found in the background of Fo47. In donor strain \triangle GFP#26, which had lost the whole q arm 328 of the pathogenicity chromosome (Fig 2A), a larger version (~2.5 Mb) of the pathogenicity 329 chromosome was observed, which can be explained by the multiplication of the remaining part 330 331 of the pathogenicity chromosome (Fig 2A). This ~2.5Mb chromosome apparently became smaller after horizontal chromosome transfer (around 2 Mb in HCT △GFP#26-1). 332

333

334 Illumina whole genome sequencing confirms transfer of partial pathogenicity 335 chromosomes and reveals multiplications during chromosome transfer 336

To identify the sequences involved in karyotype changes (observed from the CHEF gel) during 337 338 horizontal chromosome transfer, whole genomes of the HCT-strains HCT \triangle GFP#29-2, HCT △GFP#8-2 and HCT △GFP#26-1 were sequenced. To identify which sequences were 339 340 newly acquired during horizontal chromosome transfer, stringent Illumina short-read mapping of HCT-strains against the SMRT assembly of Fol4287 was performed (Fig 5 and Fig S4). As 341 reference, Illumina reads of donor strains were also mapped. As shown in Fig S4, and in 342 343 accordance with the karvotype patterns as observed in the CHEF gel, all HCT-strains had the 344 background of Fo47 with some extra sequences from the respective donor strains. Remarkably, in HCT-strain HCT △GFP#29-2, the partial pathogenicity chromosome was almost fully 345 duplicated after horizontal chromosome transfer, and contig 58 was co-transferred (Fig 5 and 346 347 Fig S4). This contig 58 corresponds to the co-transferred chromosome in Fol007 (4).

348 Surprisingly, in the same strain a large part of the accessory contig 47 was also transferred (Fig S4). This could explain the large chromosome band observed in the CHEF gel (Fig 4). 349 Consistent with the CHEF gel, HCT △GFP#8-2 had received the partial pathogenicity 350 351 chromosome from the donor strain \triangle GFP#8, and no deletions or multiplications were observed 352 after horizontal chromosome transfer. The partial pathogenicity chromosome from the donor strain \triangle GFP#26 were fully transferred to the HCT-strain HCT \triangle GFP#26-1, but differences in 353 multiplication were observed between \triangle GFP#26 and HCT \triangle GFP#26-1. These differences 354 could explain the chromosome size difference on the CHEF gel (Fig 4). No core chromosome 355 356 transfer was observed in any HCT strain (Fig S4).

357

Single chromosome sequencing confirms partial pathogenicity chromosomes in both donor and HCT strains

360

To further confirm that we correctly identified the putative pathogenicity chromosomes in the 361 CHEF gel. we cut the putative pathogenicity chromosome bands from the gel and isolated DNA 362 from the gel pieces for sequencing. In total, eight strains were selected, including three donor 363 364 *GFP* deletion strains (\triangle GFP#29, \triangle GFP#8, \triangle GFP#26), three HCT strains (HCT \triangle GFP#29, HCT \triangle GFP#8, HCT \triangle GFP#26), and two *RFP* deletion strains (\triangle RFP#11 and \triangle RFP#12). 365 First, a CHEF gel was run (Fig S5), bands were cut from the gel and 11 samples (Table S7) 366 were sent for Illumina sequencing. Reads obtained from each sample were mapped to the 367 SMRT assembly of Fol4287 (Fig S6). Most bands were successfully sequenced and contained 368 sequences from the pathogenicity chromosome, as expected (Fig S6). For example, band 369 \triangle GFP#8 SC in donor strain \triangle GFP#8 and band HCT \triangle GFP#8 SC in the recipient strain 370 HCT \triangle GFP#8 were confirmed to both contain the partial pathogenicity chromosome. 371 Similarly, the bands in the donor strain \triangle GFP#26 and the recipient strain HCT \triangle GFP#26 were 372 373 also confirmed to contain the partial pathogenicity chromosome. For the third pair of donor and recipient strain, \triangle GFP#29 and HCT \triangle GFP#29-2, we observed three extra bands in the 374 375 donor (\triangle GFP#29) and two extra bands in the recipient strain (HCT \triangle GFP#29-2). Therefore, five bands were cut and the isolated DNA sequenced. Probably because of low DNA yield 376 from the smallest band, \triangle GFP#29 SC XS, no reads of this sample could be mapped to the 377 378 SMRT assembly. For the other two bands from the donor strain, \triangle GFP#29 SC L contained the partial pathogenicity chromosome, while \triangle GFP#29 SC S contained sequences from 379 contig 7 and part of the pathogenicity chromosome. It is most likely, therefore, that the partial 380 381 pathogenicity chromosome was partially duplicated and translocated to core contig 7. For the corresponding recipient strain HCT △GFP#29-2, the extra band HCT △GFP#29 SC L 382 383 contained sequences of the pathogenicity chromosome as well as contig 58, and part of contig 47, and all these sequences were originated from the donor strain. This is consistent with the 384 whole genome mapping data, which showed that these sequences were transferred (Fig S4). 385 For the second band in the recipient strain, HCT \triangle GFP#29 SC S, reads mapped abundantly 386 to core contig 5 and much fewer reads mapped to the pathogenicity chromosome, which we 387 suspect to be background. Finally, the bands $\triangle RFP#11$ SC and $\triangle RFP#12$ SC from RFP 388 389 deletion strains $\triangle RFP\#11$ and $\triangle RFP\#12$, respectively, were confirmed to contain the expected partial pathogenicity chromosome (Fig S6). 390

391 392 A partial pathogenicity chromosome is sufficient to cause disease on tomato

393

To investigate which parts of the pathogenicity chromosome of Fol are required for virulence. 394 twenty-two deletion strains (Fig 6) with different deletions in either arm of the pathogenicity 395 396 chromosome were selected to assess pathogenicity. In addition, strains 14-2 and 14-7 obtained earlier, with large deletions in the q arm of the pathogenicity chromosome, and showing no 397 398 reduced virulence on tomato in an earlier investigation, were included as controls (5). Again, we did not observe reduced virulence with these strains. Consistently, deletion strain \triangle GFP#26, 399 generated in this study and with complete loss of the g arm of the pathogenicity chromosome 400 (Fig 2), showed no reduced virulence compared to the parental strain, 14HGPR. We conclude 401 from this that the entire q arm is not required for virulence under the tested conditions. Strain 402 Δ RFP#11, which had lost part of the p arm of the pathogenicity chromosome (Fig 3), including 403 404 the SIX10/12/7 gene cluster, also showed no reduced virulence, suggesting that this part of the chromosome is also not required for virulence. In contrast, strain $\triangle RFP\#14$, with a larger 405 deletion of the p arm, did not show any virulence. Compared to △RFP#11, SIX3, SIX5 and 406 407 SIX13 were lost in \triangle RFP#14. Strains \triangle RFP#12 and \triangle RFP#16, which had lost an even larger part of the p arm, also could not cause any disease on tomato plants. Since SIX3 and SIX5 have 408 409 been shown to contribute to contribute to virulence (20,21), we transformed these to genes together to strain \triangle RFP#14, but this did not lead to regaining of virulence (results not shown). 410 411

412 A partial pathogenicity chromosome can turn an endophyte into a pathogen 413

To investigate whether the endophytic strain Fo47 becomes a pathogen on tomato plants after 414 415 receiving a partial Fol pathogenicity chromosome, three HCT-strains derived from each donor 416 strain were selected to assess their virulence. For the four donor strains, $\triangle RFP\#1$, $\triangle GFP\#29$, \triangle GFP#8 and \triangle GFP#26, there was no significant difference in virulence compared to the 417 parental strain 14HGPR (Fig 7). Fo47 could not cause any disease symptoms on tomato plants. 418 However, all the HCT-strains were pathogenic to tomato plants with some variations in Disease 419 Index (DI). For HCT-strains derived from △RFP#1, HCT △RFP#1-5, HCT △RFP#1-6, and 420 HCT \triangle RFP#1-7, which acquired an almost complete pathogenicity chromosome, a relatively 421 422 low disease index was observed (Fig 7 and Fig 8), which is consistent with the results from previous studies (4,5). Surprisingly, for HCT △GFP#29-1, HCT △GFP#29-2 and 423 HCT \triangle GFP#29-3, much higher virulence was observed, comparable to, or even stronger than, 424 the donor strain △GFP#29 (Fig 7). These HCT strains had large multiplications of the 425 remaining part of the pathogenicity chromosome as well as co-transfer of contig 58 and part of 426 contig 47 (Fig 8). These two contigs correspond to the accessory part of chromosome 3 and 427 chromosome 6 of Fol4287, and they also correspond to the second transferred chromosome in 428 429 Fol007 (4). Interestingly, for HCT △GFP#8-1, HCT △GFP#8-2 and HCT △GFP#8-3, 430 derived from △GFP#8 and HCT △GFP#26-1, HCT △GFP#26-2 and HCT △GFP#26-3, derived from \triangle GFP#26, all strains in which only a partial pathogenicity chromosome was 431 432 present, higher virulence was also observed compared to HCT strains containing the complete 433 pathogenicity chromosome (Fig 7 and Fig 8). In these cases, no extra sequences were co-

transferred, and in \triangle GFP#8-derived strains no multiplication of pathogenicity chromosome sequences was observed.

- 436
- 437

438 Discussion

439

440 The pathogenicity chromosome in Fol is required for infecting tomato plants (4,16), and can 441 be horizontally transferred to a non-pathogenic strain, turning the latter into a tomato pathogen 442 (4,5). Here, we narrow down the regions and genes on the Fol pathogenicity chromosome that are required for virulence. Furthermore, we demonstrate that a partial pathogenicity 443 chromosome can still be horizontally transferred to a non-pathogenic strain, and this is 444 445 sufficient to turn that strain into a pathogen. Surprisingly, transfer of a partial pathogenicity chromosome leads to higher virulence than transfer of a complete pathogenicity chromosome. 446 Possibly, sequences in the missing (q) arm suppress virulence in the genetic background of the 447 non-pathogenic recipient strain, Fo47. 448

449

450 How many effector genes does Fol need to infect its host?

451 Effector genes have been predicted and studied in many different plant pathogenic fungi (27-452 32), including Cladosporium fulvum (33–38), Fusarium oxysporum (19,19–21,39,40,40,41), Leptosphaeria maculans (42–48), Magnaporthe oryzae (49–54), Melampsora lini (31,55,56), 453 454 and Blumeria graminis (57-59). In many cases, deletion of a single effector gene has little 455 effect on virulence, suggesting functional redundancy of effectors (28). Nevertheless, it is likely that a limited number of effectors are required for virulence (5). In Fol, a single 456 457 chromosome contains all effector genes (SIX genes) required and sufficient for infecting tomato (4,5,18). This provides the opportunity to study the minimal regions or genes on this 458 459 chromosome that are sufficient for infection. Previously, several SIX genes have been shown 460 to contribute to virulence, including SIX1 (19), SIX3 (20) and SIX5 (21). Moreover, 461 Vlaardingerbroek and coworkers (5) have shown that most of the long (q) arm of the pathogenicity chromosome, including SIX9, SIX6 and SIX11, is not required for virulence. Here, 462 we confirm that the complete q arm of the pathogenicity chromosome is dispensable for 463 464 pathogenicity. We further demonstrate that a large part of the p arm is also not required for virulence. This part contains SIX10/12/7 gene cluster, indicating that the in xylem secreted 465 proteins Six7, Six10 and Six12 are not required for virulence. Deletion strains with a larger 466 deletion of the p arm are not able to infect tomato plants, suggesting that the remaining part of 467 468 the p arm of the pathogenicity chromosome is required for virulence. This region contains SIX14, SIX1, SIX2, SIX3, SIX5, and one copy of SIX13. We conclude that, although all SIX 469 470 genes are highly expressed during infection (25) and the corresponding Six proteins are 471 abundant in the xylem sap of infected tomato plants (18), only a subset of these proteins are 472 required for virulence.

473

474 Except effector genes, what else on the pathogenicity chromosome does Fol need to infect475 tomato?

476 It has been shown that a homolog of transcription factor gene *FTF1* (FOXG_17084), which is

477 located close to *SIX2*, can induce expression of most *SIX* genes when overexpressed (25). Two

478 additional homologs of *FTF1* are present on the pathogenicity chromosome – one is close to 479 *SIX11* and another one is close to the *SIX10/12/7* gene cluster. Deletion strains without either 480 of the latter two *FTF1* homologs are still fully virulent on tomato plants, indicating that they 481 are dispensable for virulence. All deletion strains that are still virulent, however, contain the 482 *FTF1* homolog FOXG 17084, so this homolog may be important for virulence (25).

In addition, a predicted secondary metabolite gene cluster, including seven genes, is located close to the *SIX10/12/7* gene cluster (18). This cluster can also be lost without affecting virulence. Besides *SIX14*, *SIX1*, *SIX2*, *SIX3*, *SIX5*, *SIX13* and the *FTF1* homolog FOXG_17084, approximately 70 additional predicted protein-coding genes reside within the part of the pathogenicity chromosome that all virulent deletion strains have in common, and some of these might contribute to virulence.

489

490 How stable is the Fol genome?

491 The genomes of many plant pathogenic fungi have a high level of structural variation (8,60-64), including conserved core genome and lineage-specific regions or chromosomes that are 492 characterized by a relatively high number of repetitive elements. The core genome is generally 493 494 rather stable, but the lineage-specific regions are much more dynamic (5,11,16,65). In Fol 495 strain 4287, lineage-specific regions include four accessory chromosomes (3, 6, 14 and 15), part of core chromosome 1 and part of core chromosome 2 (4). The differences in stability (loss 496 497 and duplication) between the core genome and the accessory genome has been investigated 498 previously (5). For example, the loss frequency of lineage-specific chromosomes was estimated to be approximately 1 in 35,000 in spores in a liquid culture. Surprisingly, core 499 500 chromosome 12 in Fol4287 can also be lost but at a very low rate of 1 in 190,000 spores (5,66). In Zvmoseptoria tritici, spontaneous accessory chromosome loss rate was much higher with 501 chromosome loss in 2 to >50% of cells during four weeks of incubation (65). In the present 502 503 study, we observed small deletions and duplications in core chromosomes, tending to occur at 504 the end of chromosomes, as has also been observed in Zymoseptoria tritici (65). We also observed that (part of) the pathogenicity chromosome can be lost frequently (around 6 in 505 100,000 spores) (Fig 1B). It appeared that the p-arm of the pathogenicity chromosome is more 506 stable than the q-arm (Fig 1B). However, this could be explained by multiplication of the region 507 where RFP was inserted in the p-arm (Fig 2). Presumably, this region has undergone 508 multiplication following homologous recombination in the original strain. To conclude, in Fol, 509 510 we can confirm that the core genome is rather stable except for the telomeric regions, while the accessory chromosomes are relatively dynamic. 511

In the present study, a large variety of deletion and multiplication patterns have been observed 512 513 for the pathogenicity chromosome, and almost all the deletions or multiplications have occurred in or close to repetitive elements. It is well known that repetitive elements can lead to 514 intra- or inter- chromosome homologous recombination, resulting in deletions or translocations 515 (67). It has also been shown that in some fungi the facultative heterochromatin mark 516 517 H3K27me3 is present in both the subtelomeric regions of the core chromosomes and accessory chromosomes (12,66). This difference in histone modification compared to the core 518 chromosomes may play a role in the difference in chromosome stability (66,68). 519 520 A highly dynamic accessory genome may accelerate the evolution of the pathogen in the arms

521 race with its host (69). Many effector genes are located in the accessory part of the genome in

many plant pathogenic fungi (4,8,70). However, effectors can be recognized by R proteins in
plants, resulting in an immune response. Mutation or loss of effector genes can help to avoid
recognition and regain virulence. The accessory part of the genome may provide a niche for
rapid diversification of effector genes without influencing basic cellular functions.

526 527

529

528 Materials and Methods

530 Cloning

To replace FOXG 14135, FOXG 16428 or SIX10/12/7 with RFP, three constructs 531 pRW1p Pfem1 RFP FOXG 14135, pRW1p Pfem1 RFP FOXG 16428, 532 and pRW1p Pfem1 RFP SIX10/12/7 were made. Each of them contains a right border 533 (facilitating Agrobacterium tumefaciens mediated transformation), the flanking sequences of 534 535 each gene, the FEM1 promoter, the RFP open reading frame (ORF), the SIX1 terminator, the trpC terminator, the phleomycin ORF resistance cassette, the gpd promotor, another flank of 536 537 each gene, and the left border. Firstly, pRW2h Pfem RFP Tsix1 was constructed by 538 amplifying the RFP ORF from pPK2-HPH-RFP (41) using primers FP6992 539 (AAAtctagaATGGCCTCCTCCGAGGACG) and FP6993 (TTTagatetTTAGGCGCCGGTGGAGTGG) followed by XbaI-BglII digestion and inserting it 540 into the *XbaI-BglII* site of pRW2h Pfem MCS Tsix1 (25). Then the hygromycine resistance 541 cassette of pRW2h Pfem RFP Tsix1 was replaced by the phleomycin resistance cassette of 542 pRW1p Pfem MCS Tsix1, which was modified from pRW1p (25,40). This resulted in 543 544 pRW1p Pfem RFP Tsix1. For the FOXG 14135 deletion construct, around 1kb flanking regions of FOXG 14135 were amplified using primers listed in Table S11. The two fragments 545 were introduced into pRW1p Pfem RFP Tsix1 using the HiFi cloning kit [New England 546 547 Biolabs (UK) Ltd.]. The same method was used to make FOXG 16428 and SIX10/12/7 548 deletion constructs (Table S11). All constructs were checked by sequencing.

549

550 Gene replacement in Fol

14HG6B was transformed via *Agrobacterium* mediated transformation (Table S1), as described previously (71). Transformants were monospored by pipetting 10 µl of sterile water on the emerging colony, and spreading this on a fresh Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) plate supplemented with cefotaxime and Phleomycin. After two days of growth at 25°C, single colonies were picked and transferred to fresh plates. From these plates, glycerol stocks were made and these are the transformants we worked with.

557

558 Fluorescence Assisted Cell Sorting (FACS)

559 Fluorescence Assisted Cell Sorting was used to select independent chromosome 14 deletion 560 strains (24). Firstly, 14HGPR was mono-spored and single colonies were transferred to flasks 561 with NO₃ medium (0.17% yeast nitrogen base, 3% sucrose, 100mM KNO₃) either directly or 562 grown on PDA plates for some time before transferring to the NO₃ medium. After growing for 563 5-7 days, spore suspensions were obtained by filtering cultures through a double layer of mira-564 cloth. To select spores without green or red fluorescence, 25 red (not green) and 25 green (not

red) fluorescent spores were deflected on each plate and allowed to form colonies for 2-3 days

at 25°C. The colonies were observed using the AMG Evos FL digital inverted microscope to
confirm loss of red fluorescence or green fluorescence. Confirmed colonies were transferred
to new plates and allowed to grow for at least two weeks before DNA extraction. To determine
which parts of the pathogenicity chromosome (chromosome 14) were lost, PCR primers (Table
S12) were used to scan the chromosome.

571

572 Bioassays

To test virulence of Fol transformants, deletion strains or horizontal chromosome transfer 573 strains on tomato (line C32), the root dip method was used (19). Briefly, spores were collected 574 from 5-day-old cultures NO₃ medium (0.17% yeast nitrogen base, 3% sucrose, 100mM KNO3) 575 by filtering through miracloth (Merck; pore size of 22–25µm). Spores were centrifuged, 576 resuspended in sterile MilliQ water, counted, brought to a final concentration of 1*10⁷ 577 spores/mL and used for root inoculation of 10-day-old tomato seedlings. The seedlings were 578 579 then potted individually and kept at 25 °C. Three weeks after inoculation, plant weight above the cotyledons was measured, and the extent of browning of vessels in the remaining part of 580 the stem was scored. Disease index was scored on a scale of 0-4 (0, no symptoms; 1, one brown 581 582 vessel below the cotyledons; 2, one or two brown vascular bundles at cotyledons; 3, three 583 brown vascular bundles and growth distortion; 4, all vascular bundles are brown, plant either 584 dead or very small and wilted).

585

586 Horizontal chromosome transfer

To test whether partial pathogenicity chromosomes can be transferred or not, horizontal 587 588 chromosome transfer experiments were performed (26). In total, 24 deletion strains (Table S8) were selected to co-incubate with Fo47pGRB1 (17) or Fo47-H1 (4). Strains were grown in 589 minimal liquid medium (3% sucrose, 0.17% yeast nitrogen base and 100mM KNO₃) for 3-5 590 591 days, after which 10^5 or $2x10^5$ microconidia from the donor and recipient strains were mixed 592 in different ratios and co-incubated on PDA or Czapek Dox Agar (CDA) plates for eight days. Spores were collected from these plates using 2-5 ml sterile MilliQ, filtered through sterile 593 miracloth and pipetted on a double selective PDA plate containing 0.1 M Tris pH 8 594 supplemented with 100 µg/ml hygromycin (Duchefa) and 100 µg/ml zeocin (InvivoGen). 595 Double drug resistant colonies were selected after three days and monospored on a new plate 596 supplemented with both drugs. After two to three days of growth, colonies were selected and 597 transferred to new plates supplemented with zeocin and hygromycin. Fluorescence of double 598 drug-resistant colonies was checked with an AMG Evos FL digital inverted microscope. 599 600 Strains with both red and green fluorescence were allowed to grow for 2 weeks before DNA 601 isolation. Both selection markers and other genes (Table S10) were used to confirm horizontal 602 chromosome transfer by PCR.

603

604 Contour-clamped homogeneous electric field (CHEF) electrophoresis

To confirm horizontal chromosome transfer, Contour-clamped homogeneous electric field
 (CHEF) electrophoresis was performed. Preparation of protoplasts and pulsed-field gel
 electrophoresis were performed as described previously (4). *Fusarium* strains were cultured in

 $100 \text{ ml NO}_3 \text{ medium } (0.17\% \text{ yeast nitrogen base, } 100 \text{ mM KNO}_3 \text{ and } 3\% \text{ sucrose}) \text{ for five days}$ at 25 °C. Then, conidia were collected by filtering through a double-layer of miracloth and the

concentration of spores were measured. Five $\times 10^8$ conidia were transferred to 40 ml PDB (BD 610 biosciences). After approximately 16 hours of growth at 25 °C, germinated spores were re-611 suspended in 10 ml MgSO₄ solution (1.2 M MgSO₄, 50 mM sodium citrate, pH 5.8) 612 supplemented with 50 mg/ml Glucanex (Sigma) + 5 mg/ml driselase (Sigma, D9515) and 613 incubated for approximately 17 hours at 30°C in a shaking water bath (65 rpm). The protoplasts 614 were filtered through a double layer of miracloth, collected by centrifugation and casted in 615 InCert agarose (Lonza) at a concentration of 2×10^8 protoplasts per ml. Plugs were treated with 616 617 2 mg/ml pronase E at 50°C. Chromosomes were separated by pulsed-field electrophoresis for 260 hours in 1% Seakem Gold agarose (Lonza) at 1.5 V/cm in a CHEF-DRII system (Biorad) 618 619 in $0.5 \times \text{TBE}$ at 4 °C, with switch times between 1200 and 4800 s. The gels were stained with 620 $1\mu g/mL$ ethidium bromide in $0.5 \times TBE$.

621

622 Single chromosomes recovery from a CHEF gel

Chromosome DNA recovery from CHEF gels were performed according to the method 623 624 described previously (72). Chromosome bands of interest were excised from the gel and were 625 placed in 2 ml microcentrifuge tubes, then heated at 100°C while shaking at 350 rpm for at least 10 minutes to melt the agarose. After the melting step, six units of thermostable β-agarase 626 (Nippon gene, Tokyo, Japan) were added to the gel solution, and held at 57°C, 350 rpm for 15 627 628 min. After enzyme treatment, tubes were kept on ice for 15 min to confirm the agarose was completely digested. If remaining agarose was observed in the reaction mixture, melting 629 (100°C for 10 min) and subsequent steps were repeated. The concentration of DNA in the 630 reaction mixture was checked by a Qubit 3.0 fluorometer (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and 631 632 the Qubit dsDNA HS Assay kit (Invitrogen).

633

634 Illumina single chromosome and whole genome sequencing

- 635 Genomic DNA isolation was performed on freeze-dried mycelium ground in liquid nitrogen as
- starting material, using multiple rounds of phenol-chloroform extraction and precipitation, aswell as the Purelink plant total DNA purification kit (Invitrogen).
- 638 Illumina sequencing (150 bp paired-end, insert size ~500 bp) was performed on a HiSeq 2500
- 639 machine at the Hartwig Medical Foundation (Amsterdam, the Netherlands) at ~ 100 X coverage,
- 640 resulting in 5.0–5.6 Mb of sequence data per sample.
- Raw reads were trimmed to remove low-quality bases and adapter sequences using fastq-mcf
- v1.04.807 (-q 20). PCR duplicates were removed using PicardTools MarkDuplicates v2.7.1
 with standard settings.
- To assess partial deletions of the pathogenicity chromosome, reads of deletion strains were mapped directly to the SMRT assembly of Fol4287.
- 646 Reads from single chromosomes were also mapped directly to the SMRT assembly of Fol4287.
- 647 To confirm horizontal chromosome transfer, trimmed reads were directly mapped to SMRT
- 648 assembly of Fol4287, and only reads that mapped once with 100% coverage and 100% identity
- 649 were selected (with SAMtools view -q 42) when calculating read densities.
- 650 For visualization of the reads counts in 10 kb non-overlapping sliding windows, SAMtools
- bedcov was used. SAMtools version 1.8 was used in all above-mentioned cases.
- 652

653 Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Petra Houterman for the help with CHEF gel experiments; Harold Lemereis
and Ludek Tikovsky for plant care; J.L. was financially supported by the China Scholarship
Council program (File number: 201504910768). L.F. was financially supported by the NWO
Talent Scheme Veni (Grant number: 016.veni.181.090). No conflict of interest is declared.

658 659

660 **References**:

- Camacho JPM, Sharbel TF, Beukeboom LW. B-chromosome evolution. Philos Trans
 R Soc B Biol Sci. 2000;
- 663 2. Miao VP, Covert SF, Vanetten HD. A fungal gene for antibiotic resistance on a dispensable ("B") chromosome. Science (80-). 1991;
- Bertazzoni S, Williams AH, Jones DA, Syme RA, Tan K-C, Hane JK. Accessories
 Make the Outfit: Accessory Chromosomes and Other Dispensable DNA Regions in
 Plant-Pathogenic Fungi. Mol Plant-Microbe Interact. 2018;
- Ma LJ, Van Der Does HC, Borkovich KA, Coleman JJ, Daboussi MJ, Di Pietro A, et
 al. Comparative genomics reveals mobile pathogenicity chromosomes in Fusarium.
 Nature. 2010;
- 5. Vlaardingerbroek I, Beerens B, Schmidt SM, Cornelissen BJC, Rep M. Dispensable
 chromosomes in Fusarium oxysporum f. Sp. lycopersici. Mol Plant Pathol. 2016;
- 6. Van Dam P, Fokkens L, Ayukawa Y, Van Der Gragt M, Ter Horst A, Brankovics B, et
 al. A mobile pathogenicity chromosome in Fusarium oxysporum for infection of
 multiple cucurbit species. Sci Rep. 2017;
- 676 7. Williams AH, Sharma M, Thatcher LF, Azam S, Hane JK, Sperschneider J, et al.
 677 Comparative genomics and prediction of conditionally dispensable sequences in
 678 legume-infecting Fusarium oxysporum formae speciales facilitates identification of
 679 candidate effectors. BMC Genomics. 2016;
- 680 8. Coleman JJ, Rounsley SD, Rodriguez-Carres M, Kuo A, Wasmann CC, Grimwood J,
 681 et al. The genome of Nectria haematococca: Contribution of supernumerary
 682 chromosomes to gene expansion. PLoS Genet. 2009;
- 683 9. Croll D, Zala M, McDonald BA. Breakage-fusion-bridge Cycles and Large Insertions
 684 Contribute to the Rapid Evolution of Accessory Chromosomes in a Fungal Pathogen.
 685 PLoS Genet. 2013;
- Schotanus K, Soyer JL, Connolly LR, Grandaubert J, Happel P, Smith KM, et al.
 Histone modifications rather than the novel regional centromeres of Zymoseptoria
 tritici distinguish core and accessory chromosomes. Epigenetics and Chromatin. 2015;
- Habig M, Quade J, Stukenbrock EH. Forward genetics approach reveals host
 genotype-dependent importance of accessory chromosomes in the fungal wheat
 pathogen Zymoseptoria tritici. MBio. 2017;
- 692 12. Galazka JM, Freitag M. Variability of chromosome structure in pathogenic fungi-of
 693 "ends and odds." Current Opinion in Microbiology. 2014.
- 694 13. Akagi Y, Akamatsu H, Otani H, Kodama M. Horizontal chromosome transfer, a
 695 mechanism for the evolution and differentiation of a plant-pathogenic fungus.
 696 Eukaryot Cell. 2009;
- Tsuge T, Harimoto Y, Akimitsu K, Ohtani K, Kodama M, Akagi Y, et al. Host-selective toxins produced by the plant pathogenic fungus Alternaria alternata. FEMS Microbiology Reviews. 2013.
- Tsuge T, Harimoto Y, Hanada K, Akagi Y, Kodama M, Akimitsu K, et al. Evolution
 of pathogenicity controlled by small, dispensable chromosomes in Alternaria alternata

702 pathogens. Physiol Mol Plant Pathol. 2016; Plaumann PL, Schmidpeter J, Dahl M, Taher L, Koch C. A dispensable chromosome 703 16. is required for virulence in the hemibiotrophic plant pathogen Colletotrichum 704 705 higginsianum. Front Microbiol. 2018; Vlaardingerbroek I, Beerens B, Rose L, Fokkens L, Cornelissen BJC, Rep M. 706 17. 707 Exchange of core chromosomes and horizontal transfer of lineage-specific 708 chromosomes in Fusarium oxysporum. Environ Microbiol. 2016; Schmidt SM, Houterman PM, Schreiver I, Ma L, Amyotte S, Chellappan B, et al. 709 18. 710 MITEs in the promoters of effector genes allow prediction of novel virulence genes in 711 Fusarium oxysporum. BMC Genomics. 2013; 19. Rep M, Van Der Does HC, Meijer M, Van Wijk R, Houterman PM, Dekker HL, et al. 712 A small, cysteine-rich protein secreted by Fusarium oxysporum during colonization of 713 714 xylem vessels is required for I-3-mediated resistance in tomato. Mol Microbiol. 2004; 20. Houterman PM, Ma L, Van Ooijen G, De Vroomen MJ, Cornelissen BJC, Takken 715 FLW, et al. The effector protein Avr2 of the xylem-colonizing fungus Fusarium 716 717 oxysporum activates the tomato resistance protein I-2 intracellularly. Plant J. 2009; 718 21. Ma L, Houterman PM, Gawehns F, Cao L, Sillo F, Richter H, et al. The AVR2-SIX5 719 gene pair is required to activate I-2-mediated immunity in tomato. New Phytol. 2015: He C, Rusu AG, Poplawski AM, Irwin JAG, Manners JM. Transfer of a 720 22. 721 supernumerary chromosome between vegetatively incompatible biotypes of the fungus Colletotrichum gloeosporioides. Genetics. 1998; 722 Masel AM, He C, Poplawski AM, Irwin JAG, Manners JM. Molecular evidence for 723 23. 724 chromosome transfer between biotypes of Colletotrichum gloeosporioides. Mol Plant-Microbe Interact. 1996; 725 Vlaardingerbroek I, Beerens B, Shahi S, Rep M. Fluorescence Assisted Selection of 726 24. 727 Transformants (FAST): Using flow cytometry to select fungal transformants. Fungal 728 Genet Biol. 2015; 729 25. van der Does HC, Fokkens L, Yang A, Schmidt SM, Langereis L, Lukasiewicz JM, et 730 al. Transcription Factors Encoded on Core and Accessory Chromosomes of Fusarium 731 oxysporum Induce Expression of Effector Genes. PLoS Genet. 2016; Van Der Does HC, Rep M. Horizontal transfer of supernumerary chromosomes in 732 26. fungi. Methods Mol Biol. 2012; 733 734 de Wit PJGM. Cladosporium fulvum Effectors: Weapons in the Arms Race with 27. 735 Tomato . Annu Rev Phytopathol. 2016; 736 28. Selin C, de Kievit TR, Belmonte MF, Fernando WGD. Elucidating the role of effectors 737 in plant-fungal interactions: Progress and challenges. Frontiers in Microbiology. 2016. 738 29. Lo Presti L, Lanver D, Schweizer G, Tanaka S, Liang L, Tollot M, et al. Fungal 739 Effectors and Plant Susceptibility. Annu Rev Plant Biol. 2015; 740 30. Zhang S, Xu JR. Effectors and Effector Delivery in Magnaporthe oryzae. PLoS 741 Pathog. 2014; Petre B, Joly DL, Duplessis S. Effector proteins of rust fungi. Frontiers in Plant 742 31. 743 Science. 2014. Stergiopoulos I, de Wit PJGM. Fungal Effector Proteins. Annu Rev Phytopathol. 2009; 744 32. Joosten MHAJ, Vogelsang R, Cozijnsen TJ, Verberne MC, De Wit PJGM. The 745 33. 746 biotrophic fungus Cladosporium fulvum circumvents Cf-4-mediated resistance by 747 producing unstable AVR4 elicitors. Plant Cell. 1997; Hammond-Kosack KE, Tang S, Harrison K, Jones JDG. The tomato Cf-9 disease 748 34. 749 resistance gene functions in tobacco and potato to confer responsiveness to the fungal 750 avirulence gene product Avr9. Plant Cell. 1998; Krüger J, Thomas CM, Golstein C, Dixon MS, Smoker M, Tang S, et al. A tomato 751 35.

cysteine protease required for Cf-2-dependent disease resistance and suppression of autonecrosis. Science (80-). 2002;
36. Rooney HCE, Van't Klooster JW, Van Der Hoorn RAL, Joosten MHAJ, Jones JDG,
D. Wit DICM. Challen and A. 22 Likita tage to P. 20

- De Wit PJGM. Cladosporium Avr2 inhibits tomato Rcr3 protease required for Cf-2dependent disease resistance. Science (80-). 2005;
- 757 37. De Jonge R, Van Esse HP, Kombrink A, Shinya T, Desaki Y, Bours R, et al.
 758 Conserved fungal LysM effector Ecp6 prevents chitin-triggered immunity in plants.
 759 Science (80-). 2010;
- 38. Sánchez-Vallet A, Saleem-Batcha R, Kombrink A, Hansen G, Valkenburg DJ,
 Thomma BPHJ, et al. Fungal effector Ecp6 outcompetes host immune receptor for
 chitin binding through intrachain LysM dimerization. Elife. 2013;
- 763 39. Rep M, Meijer M, Houterman PM, Van Der Does HC, Cornelissen BJC. Fusarium
 764 oxysporum evades I-3-mediated resistance without altering the matching avirulence
 765 gene. Mol Plant-Microbe Interact. 2005;
- 40. Houterman PM, Cornelissen BJC, Rep M. Suppression of plant resistance gene-based
 immunity by a fungal effector. PLoS Pathog. 2008;
- van der Does HC, Duyvesteijn RGE, Goltstein PM, van Schie CCN, Manders EMM,
 Cornelissen BJC, et al. Expression of effector gene SIX1 of Fusarium oxysporum
 requires living plant cells. Fungal Genet Biol. 2008;
- 42. Gout L, Fudal I, Kuhn ML, Blaise F, Eckert M, Cattolico L, et al. Lost in the middle of
 nowhere: The AvrLm1 avirulence gene of the Dothideomycete Leptosphaeria
 maculans. Mol Microbiol. 2006;
- 43. Van de Wouw AP, Lowe RGT, Elliott CE, Dubois DJ, Howlett BJ. An avirulence
 gene, AvrLmJ1, from the blackleg fungus, Leptosphaeria maculans, confers avirulence
 to Brassica juncea cultivars. Mol Plant Pathol. 2014;
- Ghanbarnia K, Fudal I, Larkan NJ, Links MG, Balesdent MH, Profotova B, et al.
 Rapid identification of the Leptosphaeria maculans avirulence gene AvrLm2 using an intraspecific comparative genomics approach. Mol Plant Pathol. 2015;
- Plissonneau C, Daverdin G, Ollivier B, Blaise F, Degrave A, Fudal I, et al. A game of
 hide and seek between avirulence genes AvrLm4-7 and AvrLm3 in Leptosphaeria
 maculans. New Phytol. 2016;
- 46. Ghanbarnia K, Ma L, Larkan NJ, Haddadi P, Fernando WGD, Borhan MH.
 Leptosphaeria maculans AvrLm9: a new player in the game of hide and seek with
 AvrLm4-7. Mol Plant Pathol. 2018;
- Plissonneau C, Rouxel T, Chèvre AM, Van De Wouw AP, Balesdent MH. One geneone name: the AvrLmJ1 avirulence gene of Leptosphaeria maculans is AvrLm5. Mol Plant Pathol. 2018;
- Petit-Houdenot Y, Degrave A, Meyer M, Blaise F, Ollivier B, Marais CL, et al. A two
 genes for one gene interaction between Leptosphaeria maculans and Brassica
 napus. New Phytol. 2019;
- 49. Sweigard JA, Carroll AM, Kang Seogchan, Farrall L, Chumley FG, Valent B.
 Identification, cloning, and characterization of PWL2, a gene for host species
 specificity in the rice blast fungus. Plant Cell. 1995;
- Farman ML, Leong SA. Chromosome walking to the AVR1-CO39 avirulence gene of
 Magnaporthe grisea: Discrepancy between the physical and genetic maps. Genetics.
 1998;
- 51. Bryan GT, Wu KS, Farrall L, Jia Y, Hershey HP, McAdams SA, et al. A single amino
 acid difference distinguishes resistant and susceptible alleles of the rice blast resistance
 gene Pi-ta. Plant Cell. 2000;
- 801 52. Yoshida K, Saitoh H, Fujisawa S, Kanzaki H, Matsumura H, Yoshida K, et al.

- 802 Association genetics reveals three novel avirulence genes from the rice blast fungal 803 pathogen magnaporthe oryzae. Plant Cell. 2009; 53. Kanzaki H, Yoshida K, Saitoh H, Fujisaki K, Hirabuchi A, Alaux L, et al. Arms race 804 805 co-evolution of Magnaporthe oryzae AVR-Pik and rice Pik genes driven by their physical interactions. Plant J. 2012; 806 807 54. Fernandez J, Orth K. Rise of a Cereal Killer: The Biology of Magnaporthe oryzae 808 Biotrophic Growth. Trends in Microbiology. 2018.
- 55. Lorrain C, Gonçalves dos Santos KC, Germain H, Hecker A, Duplessis S. Advances in understanding obligate biotrophy in rust fungi. New Phytologist. 2019.
- 811 56. Anderson C, Khan MA, Catanzariti AM, Jack CA, Nemri A, Lawrence GJ, et al.
 812 Genome analysis and avirulence gene cloning using a high-density RADseq linkage
 813 map of the flax rust fungus, Melampsora lini. BMC Genomics. 2016;
- Saur IML, Bauer S, Kracher B, Lu X, Franzeskakis L, Müller MC, et al. Multiple pairs
 of allelic MLA immune receptor-powdery mildew AVRa effectors argue for a direct
 recognition mechanism. Elife. 2019;
- 58. Liang P, Liu S, Xu F, Jiang S, Yan J, He Q, et al. Powdery Mildews Are Characterized
 by Contracted Carbohydrate Metabolism and Diverse Effectors to Adapt to Obligate
 Biotrophic Lifestyle. Front Microbiol. 2018;
- 820 59. Bourras S, Praz CR, Spanu PD, Keller B. Cereal powdery mildew effectors: a complex toolbox for an obligate pathogen. Current Opinion in Microbiology. 2018.
- 822 60. Johnson LJ, Johnson RD, Akamatsu H, Salamiah A, Otani H, Kohmoto K, et al.
 823 Spontaneous loss of a conditionally dispensable chromosome from the Alternaria
 824 alternata apple pathotype leads to loss of toxin production and pathogenicity. Curr
 825 Genet. 2001;
- 826 61. Raffaele S, Kamoun S. Genome evolution in filamentous plant pathogens: Why bigger
 827 can be better. Nature Reviews Microbiology. 2012.
- B28 62. Dong S, Raffaele S, Kamoun S. The two-speed genomes of filamentous pathogens:
 Waltz with plants. Current Opinion in Genetics and Development. 2015.
- 830 63. Vanheule A, Audenaert K, Warris S, van de Geest H, Schijlen E, Höfte M, et al.
 831 Living apart together: Crosstalk between the core and supernumerary genomes in a
 832 fungal plant pathogen. BMC Genomics. 2016;
- 833 64. Strom NB, Bushley KE. Two genomes are better than one: history, genetics, and
 834 biotechnological applications of fungal heterokaryons. Fungal Biol Biotechnol. 2016;
- 835 65. Möller M, Habig M, Freitag M, Stukenbrock EH. Extraordinary genome instability
 836 and widespread chromosome rearrangements during vegetative growth. Genetics.
 837 2018;
- Fokkens L, Shahi S, Connolly LR, Stam R, Schmidt SM, Smith KM, et al. The multispeed genome of Fusarium oxysporum reveals association of histone modifications
 with sequence divergence and footprints of past horizontal chromosome transfer
 events. bioRxiv. 2018;
- 842 67. Hedges DJ, Deininger PL. Inviting instability: Transposable elements, double-strand
 843 breaks, and the maintenance of genome integrity. Mutat Res Fundam Mol Mech
 844 Mutagen. 2007;
- 845 68. Möller M, Schotanus K, Soyer JL, Haueisen J, Happ K, Stralucke M, et al.
 846 Destabilization of chromosome structure by histone H3 lysine 27 methylation. Vol. 15,
 847 PLoS genetics. 2019. e1008093 p.
- 848 69. Croll D, McDonald BA. The accessory genome as a cradle for adaptive evolution in pathogens. PLoS Pathog. 2012;
- Peng Z, Oliveira-Garcia E, Lin G, Hu Y, Dalby M, Migeon P, et al. Effector gene
 reshuffling involves dispensable mini-chromosomes in the wheat blast fungus. PLoS

852 853 854 855 856 857 858 859 860 861 862 863 864	71.	Genet. 2019; Takken FLW, van Wijk R, Michielse CB, Houterman PM, Ram AFJ, Cornelissen BJC. A one-step method to convert vectors into binary vectors suited for Agrobacterium-mediated transformation. Curr Genet. 2004; Kashiwa T, Kozaki T, Ishii K, Turgeon BG, Teraoka T, Komatsu K, et al. Sequencing of individual chromosomes of plant pathogenic Fusarium oxysporum. Fungal Genet Biol. 2017;									
865	Sup	porting information									
866											
867		51: Deletion of <i>FOXG_14135</i> does not result in reduced virulence.									
868		weight (A) and disease index (DI) (B) of infected tomato plants were scored three weeks									
869	after inoculation. When ten days old tomato seedlings were inoculated with 1*10 ⁷ spores/mL										
870 871		°C, the $FOXG_{14135}$ deletion strain 14HGPR showed similar disease index and fresh									
871 872	•	ht as the original strain 14HG6B. As control, disease symptoms of an ectopic transformant NA was randomly inserted in the genome) were assessed, and no significant difference in									
873		ence was observed compared to 14HG6B. Water (Mock)-treated plants were completely									
874		hy. Disease index was scored on a scale of 0–4 (0, no symptoms; 1, one brown vessel									
875		v the cotyledons; 2, one or two brown vascular bundles at cotyledons; 3, three brown									
876		alar bundles and growth distortion; 4, all vascular bundles are brown, plant either dead or									
877		small and wilted). One-way ANOVA was performed on fresh weight. Kruskal-Wallis test									
878	was p	performed on disease index.									
879											
880	Fig S	2: Illumina whole genome read mapping of <i>GFP</i> deletion strains reveals a few									
881		or changes in the core genome.									
882		Whole genome reads of nine <i>GFP</i> deletion strains were mapped to the SMRT assembly of									
883		287. As reference, Illumina reads of Fol4287 itself were also mapped. For comparison of									
884 885		rences within and between deletion strains, genome coverage was normalized. No obvious									
885 886		ges were observed in the core genome of the three previously generated strains 14-4, 14- d 14-2. For all the deletion strains generated in this study, the same small deletion was									
887	,	rved at the end of contig 0. In addition, \triangle GFP#20, \triangle GFP#22, \triangle GFP#8, and \triangle GFP#29 all									
888		red at the end of contig 0. In addition, $\triangle GFP#20$, $\triangle GFP#29$, deletions at the end of contig 3 and									
889		g 7 and one duplication at the end of contig 61 were also observed. GC content (B) and									
890		it distribution across the genome (C) are also displayed.									
891	-1										
892	Fig S	3: Illumina whole genome read mapping of <i>RFP</i> deletion strains reveals a few									
893		or changes in the core genome.									
894	(A) V	Vhole genome reads of four <i>RFP</i> deletion strains were mapped to the SMRT assembly of									
895	Fol42	287. As reference, Illumina reads of Fol4287 itself were also mapped. For comparison of									

896 differences within and between deletion strains, genome coverage was normalized. For all the 897 deletion strains, the same small deletion was observed at the end of contig 0 and in the middle 898 of contig 47. For $\triangle RFP\#12$, a deletion at the end of contig 2 was observed. GC content (B) and 899 repeat distribution across the genome (C) are also displayed.

900

901 Fig S4: Stringent selection of mapped Illumina reads of HCT strains and donor strains

to the SMRT assembly of Fol4287 shows absence of core chromosome transfer and 902 903 confirms transfer of accessory regions.

- 904
- (A) Illumina reads of HCT strains (HCT △GFP#29-2, HCT △GFP#8-2 and HCT △GFP#26-1) and their respective donor strains (\triangle GFP#29, \triangle GFP#8 and \triangle GFP#26-1) were mapped to 905 the SMRT assembly of Fol4287, and only those reads that mapped completely and without any 906 mismatches were selected. In the case of transfer of core chromosomes, a high density of 907 908 perfectly mapped reads was expected, even in the sub-telomeric regions as shown for the 909 reference donor strains. No core chromosome transfer was observed for any HCT strain. (Partial) pathogenicity chromosome transfer was confirmed for all HCT strains. In 910 HCT △GFP#29-2, co-transfer of contig 58 and part of contig 47 was observed. GC content 911 912 (B) and repeat distribution across the genome (C) are also displayed.
- 913

914 Fig S5: Single chromosomes cut from a CHEF gel for sequencing.

- Eight strains were selected for chromosome separation in a CHEF gel. In total, 11 bands were 915 916 cut from the gel (1 to 11) and sent for sequencing. The numbers are indicated on the respective bands. The same number indicates corresponding bands from the same strain. The name used 917 in the main text for each number is listed below the gel. Chromosomes of S. cerevisiae were 918 919 used as marker.
- 920

921 Fig S6: Single chromosome sequencing confirms partial pathogenicity chromosomes in 922 both donor and HCT strains.

(A) Illumina reads of 11 bands cut from a CHEF gel (see Fig. S5) were mapped to the SMRT 923 assembly of Fol4287. As reference, Illumina reads of Fol4287 itself were also mapped. Except 924 925 band \triangle GFP#29 SC XS, which was not successfully sequenced, the remaining ten bands indeed contained sequences of the pathogenicity chromosome (contig 14). For example, the 926 same partial pathogenicity chromosome is present in donor strains (Δ GFP#8 and Δ GFP#26) 927 928 and the respective recipient strains (HCT \triangle GFP#8-2 and HCT \triangle GFP#26-1). Band 929 \triangle GFP#29 SC S contained sequences from contig 7 and part of the pathogenicity chromosome. 930 Instead of band HCT △GFP#29 SC S, band HCT △GFP#29 SC L was confirmed to be the transferred chromosome, containing sequences of the pathogenicity chromosome as well as 931 932 contig 58 and part of contig 47. GC content (B) and repeat distribution across the genome (C) 933 are also displayed.

934

935 Table S1: Summary of Agrobacterium-mediated Fusarium transformations.

936

937 Table S2: Fol pathogenicity chromosome deletion strains obtained.

938 939	Symbols used in the table: + for positive PCR result, - for negative PCR result; grey regions without symbol for presumed presence, white regions without symbols for presumed absence.
940	
941	Table S3. Summary of three Fluorescence Assisted Cell Sorting (FACS) experiments.
942	
943	Table S4. Details of the second Fluorescence Assisted Cell Sorting (FACS) experiment.
944	
945	Table S5. Details of the third Fluorescence Assisted Cell Sorting (FACS) experiment.
946	
947	Table S6. Details of the fourth Fluorescence Assisted Cell Sorting (FACS) experiment.
948	
949	Table S7: Strains and single chromosomes sent for sequencing.
950	
951	Table S8. Summary of Horizontal Chromosome Transfer (HCT) experiments.
952	No: no successful transfer; Yes: successful transfer. Only strains for which transfer was
953	attempted are shown in this table.
954	
955	Table S9. Different strain ratios and media used in five HCT experiments.
956	PDA: potato dextrose agar; CDA: Czapek Dox Agar. CAT medium: 0.17% YNB, 25 mM
957	KNO ₃
958	
959	Table S10. Horizontal chromosome transfer was confirmed by PCR.
960	Symbols used in the table: + for positive PCR result, - for negative PCR result; black regions
961	without symbol are presumed to be present, white regions without symbols are presumed to be
962	absent.
963	
964	Table S11: Primers used for cloning.
965	
966	Table S12: Markers on the pathogenicity chromosome.
967	
968	
969	
970	Figure legends
971	
972	Fig 1: In cultures of Fol strain 14HGPR, loss of green fluorescence is much more
973	frequent than loss of red fluorescence.
974	(A) Schematic representation of the Fol pathogenicity chromosome and genes selected for
975	replacement with RFP. The long arm is indicated as q arm, while the short arm is indicated as
976	p arm. (B) Dot plot of a fluorescence assisted cell sorting experiment. Each blue dot represents
977	a fungal spore. Most spores contain both red and green fluorescence. Some spores had lost
978	green fluorescence, while very few spores had lost red fluorescence. Axis labels show the
979	detection channel (X-axis: λ =488nm; Y-axis: λ =561nm).
980	

Fig 2: Illumina read mapping confirms partial deletions and reveals multiplications in the Fol pathogenicity chromosome in *GFP* deletion strains.

(A) Reads of nine GFP deletion strains were mapped to the SMRT assembly of Fol4287. As 983 reference, Illumina reads of Fol4287 itself was also mapped. For comparison of differences 984 985 within and between deletion strains, all genome coverage was normalized. All deletion strains 986 had lost part of or the complete q arm of the pathogenicity chromosome. In addition, multiplications had occurred in the remaining part of the pathogenicity chromosome or contig 987 988 58 in some deletion strains. Part of contig 58 belongs to the pathogenicity chromosome as indicated between the solid and dotted lines. (B) Schematic representation of the pathogenicity 989 990 chromosome (contig 14 and part of contig 58) and, for comparison, the rest of contig 58. Secreted In Xylem (SIX) genes are also indicated. GC content (C) and repeat distribution across 991 992 the genome (D) are also displayed.

993

Fig 3: Illumina read mapping confirms partial deletions and reveals multiplications in the Fol pathogenicity chromosome in *RFP* deletion strains.

(A) Reads of four *RFP* deletion strains were mapped to the SMRT assembly of Fol4287. As 996 997 reference, Illumina reads of Fol4287 itself was also mapped. For comparison of differences 998 within and between deletion strains, all genome coverage was normalized. All deletion strains 999 had lost part or complete p arm of the pathogenicity chromosome. Multiplications had occurred only in \triangle RFP#12. Surprisingly, the end of the g arm was lost in \triangle RFP#14. Part of the contig 1000 1001 58 belongs to the pathogenicity chromosome as indicated between the solid and dotted lines. (B) Schematic representation of the pathogenicity chromosome (contig 14 and part of contig 1002 58) and, for comparison, the rest of contig 58. Secreted In Xylem (SIX) genes are also indicated. 1003 1004 GC content (C) and repeat distribution across the genome (D) are also displayed.

1005

Fig 4: Contour-clamped homogeneous electric field (CHEF) electrophoresis confirms horizontal chromosome transfer.

HCT-strains HCT △RFP#1-7, HCT △GFP#29-2, HCT △GFP#8-2, and HCT △GFP#26-1 1008 1009 all showed the karyotype of the recipient strain (Fo47), with an extra chromosome indicated 1010 with a red arrow. The extra chromosome in HCT △RFP#1-7 and HCT △GFP#8-2 is of a size 1011 similar to that of the partial pathogenicity chromosome in the donor strains $\Delta RFP#1$ and △GFP#8 (red arrows), respectively. However, the extra chromosome in HCT △GFP#29-2 and 1012 HCT \triangle GFP#26-1 is of a different size compared to the extra chromosome in donor strain 1013 \triangle GFP#29 and \triangle GFP#26, respectively (red arrows). Chromosomes of *S. pombe* was used as a 1014 marker. The figure was cropped. 1015

1016

Fig 5: Stringent mapping of Illumina reads of HCT strains and donor strains to the SMRT assembly of Fol4287 confirms partial pathogenicity chromosome transfer.

1019 (A) Illumina reads of three HCT strains (HCT_ Δ GFP#29-2, HCT_ Δ GFP#8-2 and 1020 HCT_ Δ GFP#26-1) and their respective donor strains (Δ GFP#29, Δ GFP#8 and Δ GFP#26-1) 1021 were mapped to the SMRT assembly of Fol4287, and only those reads that mapped completely 1022 and without any mismatches were selected. As reference, Illumina reads of Fol4287 were also 1023 mapped. Partial pathogenicity chromosome transfer was confirmed for all HCT strains. 1024 Surprisingly, in HCT \triangle GFP#29-2, co-transfer contig 58 was observed while this was not observed for the other two HCT strains. In HCT △GFP#29-2, large multiplications of the 1025 remaining part of the pathogenicity chromosome and the end of contig 58 (not part of the 1026 pathogenicity chromosome) were also observed. Sequence multiplication during horizontal 1027 chromosome transfer was also observed in HCT \triangle GFP#26-1, but not in HCT \triangle GFP#8-2. (B) 1028 Schematic representation of the pathogenicity chromosome (contig 14 and part of contig 58) 1029 and, for comparison, the rest of contig 58. Location of SIX genes and GFP and RFP are 1030 indicated. GC content (C) and repeat distribution across the genome (D) are also displayed. 1031

1032

1033 Fig 6: A partial pathogenicity chromosome in Fol is sufficient to cause disease on tomato1034 plants.

- Bioassays were performed to assess virulence of deletion strains. Ten days old tomato seedlings 1035 1036 were inoculated with 1*10⁷ spores/mL at 25°C, and disease index (DI) of infected tomato plants was scored three weeks after inoculation. 14HGPR showed no reduced virulence 1037 1038 compared to the parental strain 14HG6B. Deletion strains 14-2, 14-7 and △GFP#26, with 1039 almost complete loss of the q arm, showed no reduced virulence. Similarly, $\triangle RFP\#11$ without 1040 the SIX10/12/7 gene cluster showed no reduced virulence. Deletion strains with a larger deletion of the p arm (\triangle RFP#12, \triangle RFP#14 and \triangle RFP#16) did not cause disease on tomato 1041 plants. Disease index was scored on a scale of 0–4 (0, no symptoms; 1, one brown vessel below 1042 the cotyledons; 2, one or two brown vascular bundles at cotyledons; 3, three brown vascular 1043 bundles and growth distortion; 4, all vascular bundles are brown, plant either dead or very small 1044 and wilted). Kruskal-Wallis test was performed on disease index. 1045
- 1046

1047 Fig 7: A partial pathogenicity chromosome can turn an endophyte into a pathogen.

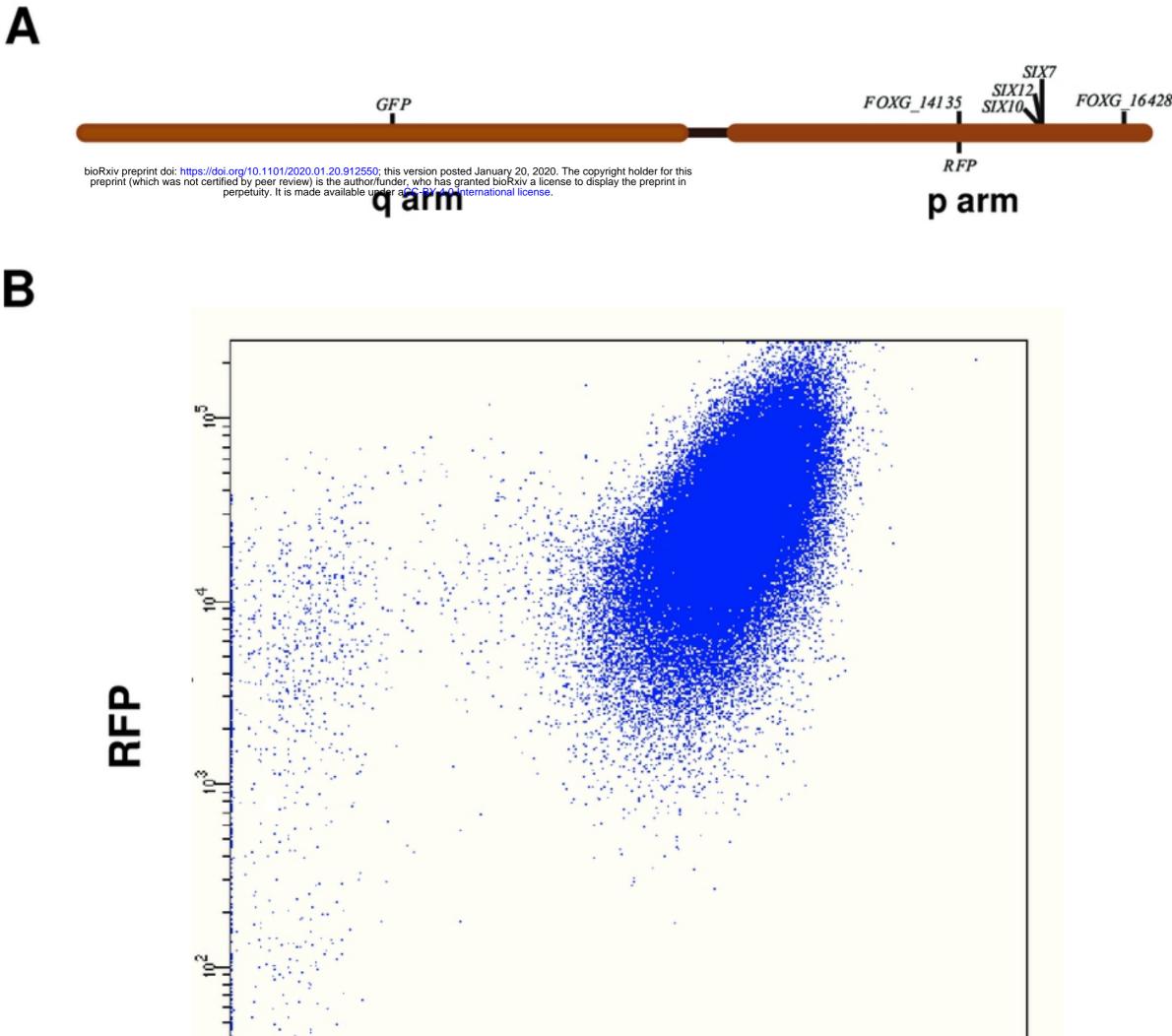
Bioassays were performed to assess the virulence of HCT strains. Ten days old tomato 1048 seedlings were inoculated with 1*10⁷ spores/mL at 25°C, and disease index (DI) of infected 1049 tomato plants was scored three weeks after inoculation. All four donor strains, $\Delta RFP\#1$, 1050 \triangle GFP#29, \triangle GFP#8 and \triangle GFP#26 caused similar disease index compared to 14HGPR. 1051 Fo47 GRB1 did not cause any disease symptoms on tomato plants, while all HCT strains in 1052 the background of Fo47 GRB1 were able to cause disease on tomato plants, with some 1053 variation in Disease Index (DI). Disease index was scored on a scale of 0-4 (0, no symptoms; 1054 1055 1, one brown vessel below the cotyledons; 2, one or two brown vascular bundles at cotyledons; 1056 3, three brown vascular bundles and growth distortion; 4, all vascular bundles are brown, plant either dead or very small and wilted). Kruskal-Wallis test was performed on disease index. 1057

1058

Fig 8: A partial pathogenicity chromosome in *Fusarium oxysporum* is sufficient to cause disease and can be horizontally transferred.

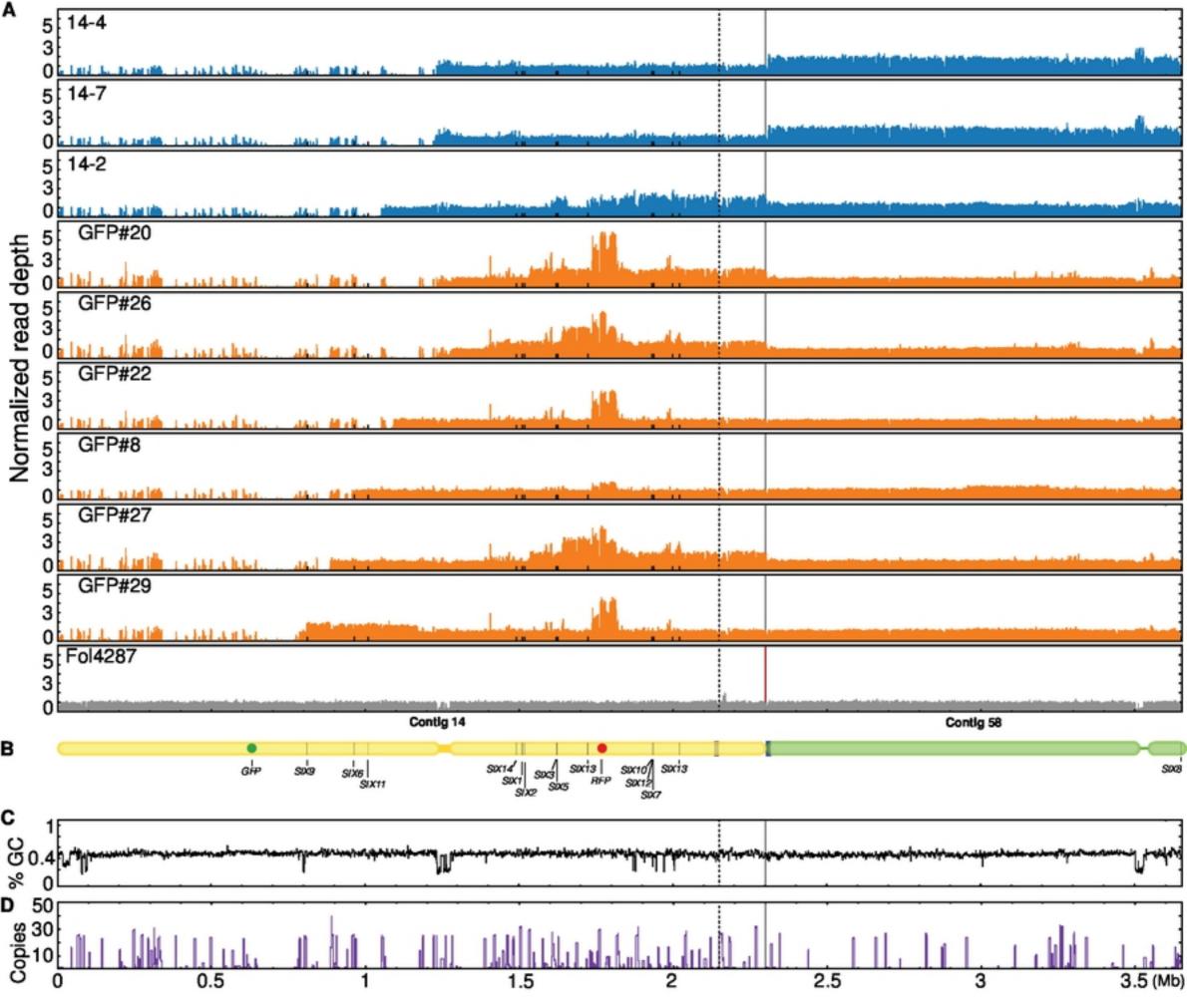
1061 Graphical summary of key observations. Strain \triangle RFP#1 with a small deletion in the *RFP* 1062 region of the pathogenicity chromosome was still able to cause disease on tomato plants. In 1063 addition, it was able to transfer its pathogenicity chromosome to Fo47, turning the recipient 1064 strain into a tomato-infecting strain but with only mild virulence. Deletion strain \triangle GFP#29 had 1065 lost a large part of the long (q) arm of the pathogenicity chromosome (white bar) and underwent 1066 a duplication of the remaining part of the q arm (yellow bar). This deletion strain still caused 1067 disease on tomato plants. Surprisingly, not only the partial pathogenicity chromosome but also (the rest of) contig 58 and part of contig 47 were transferred from \triangle GFP#29 to Fo47. These 1068 1069 transferred sequences most likely form one big chromosome, according to single chromosome sequencing (Fig S6) and CHEF gel analysis (Fig S5). The resulting HCT strain 1070 HCT \triangle GFP#29-2 caused severe disease on tomato plants. Deletion strain \triangle GFP#8 had lost a 1071 large part of the g arm of the pathogenicity chromosome but it still caused disease on tomato 1072 plants. The partial pathogenicity chromosome in \triangle GFP#8 could be transferred into Fo47, 1073 turning the recipient strain into a tomato pathogen (HCT △GFP#8-2) with the same virulence 1074 as its donor, \triangle GFP#8. Deletion strain \triangle GFP#26 had completely lost the q arm of the 1075 1076 pathogenicity chromosome and underwent an almost complete duplication of the short arm (p arm). This version of the pathogenicity chromosome could also be transferred into Fo47. Both 1077 1078 the donor strain △GFP#26 and the recipient strain HCT △GFP#26-1 caused disease on tomato plants to similar levels. 1079



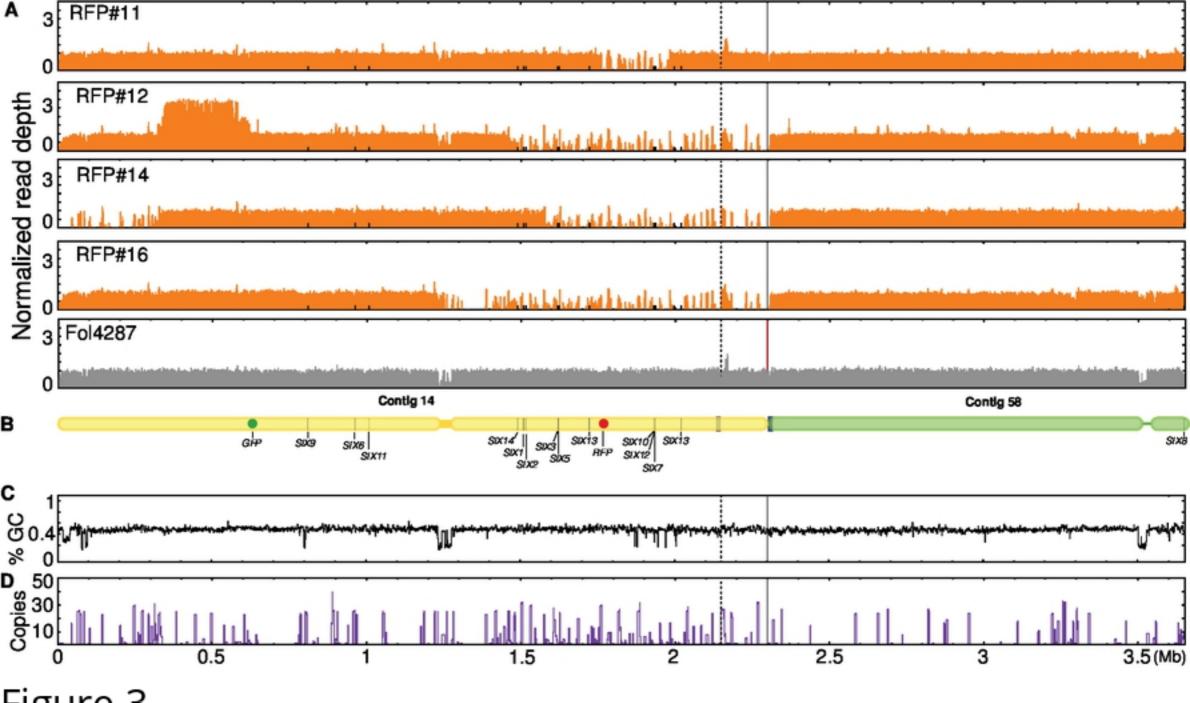


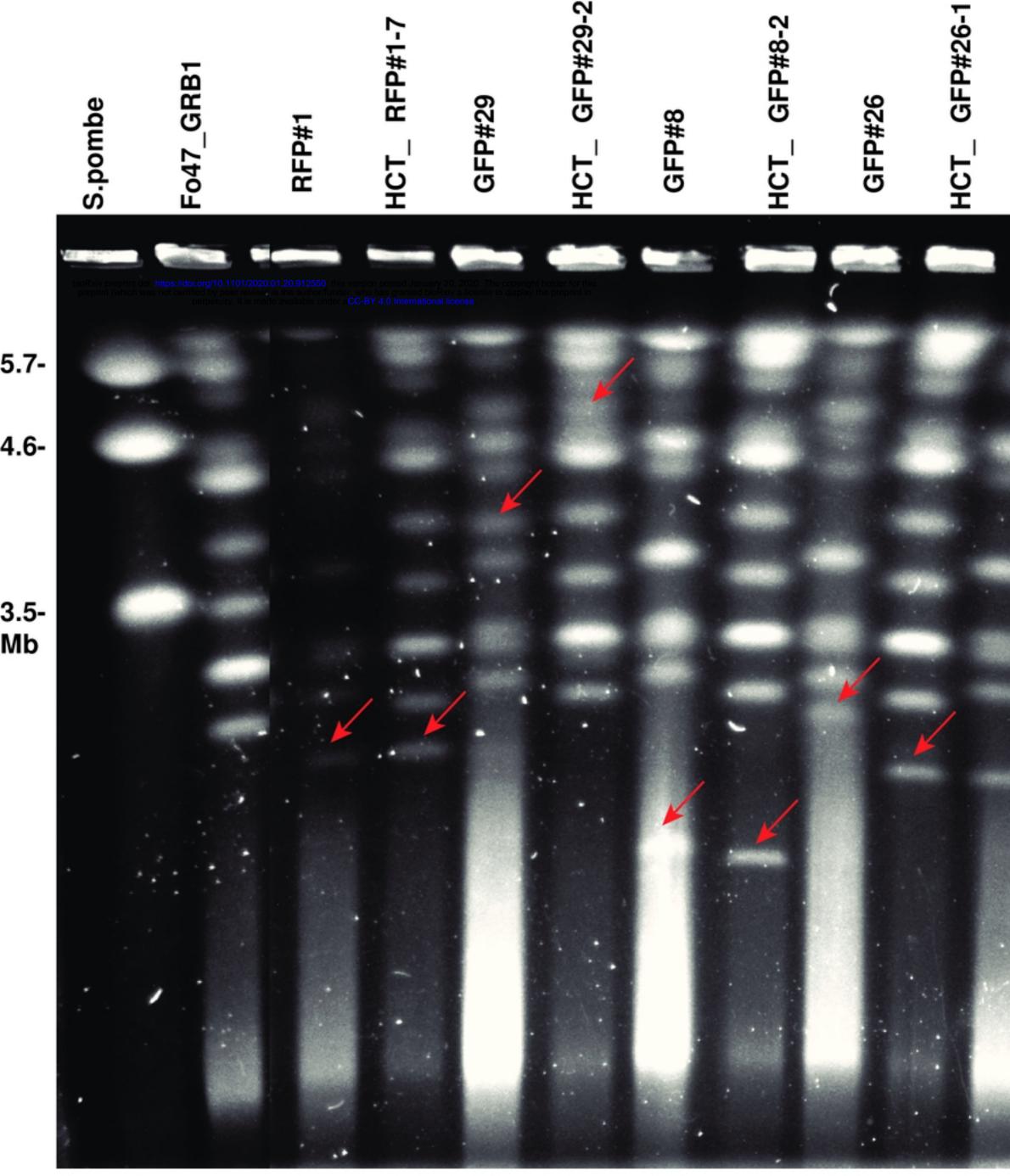
GFP

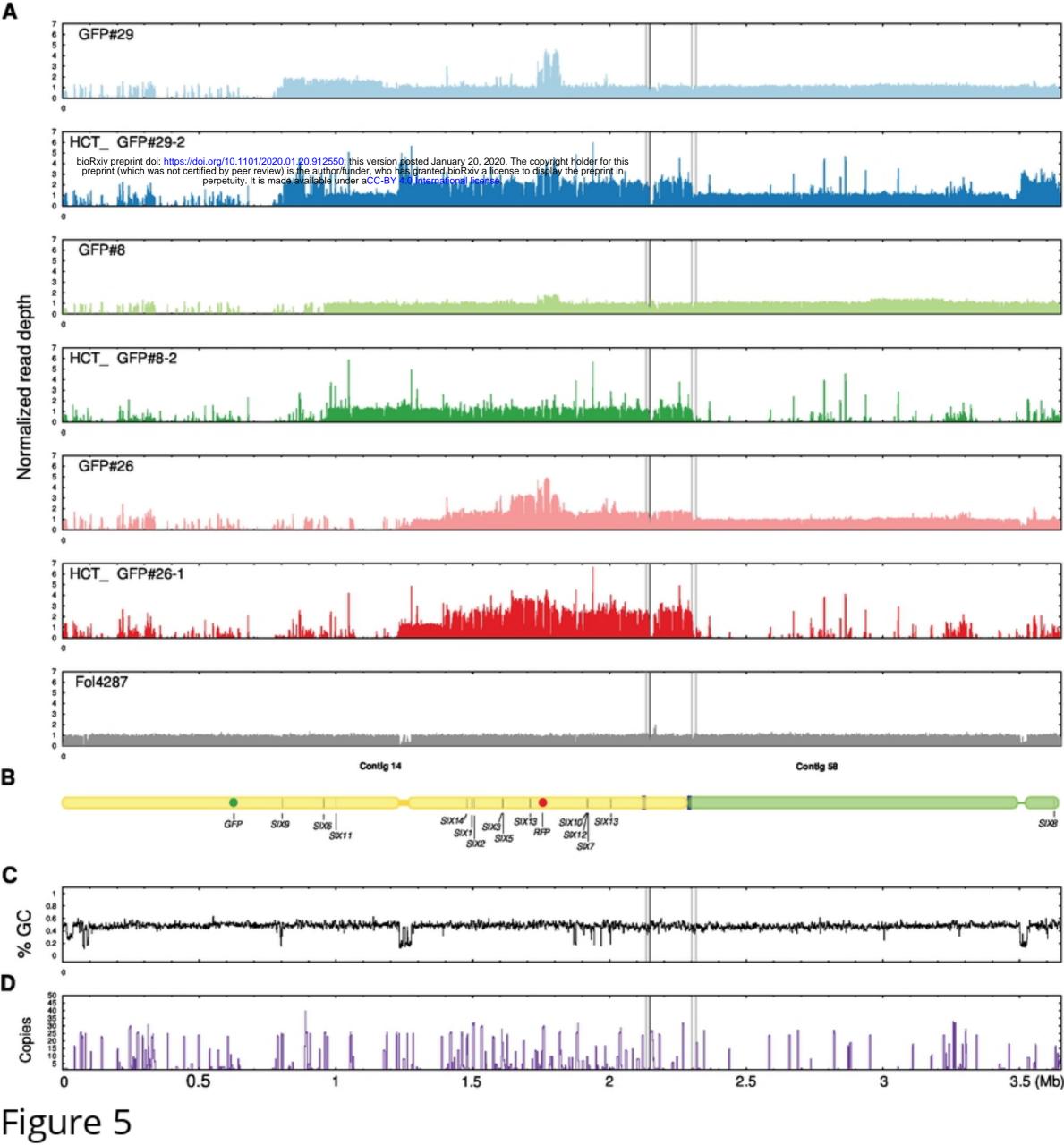
Figure 1



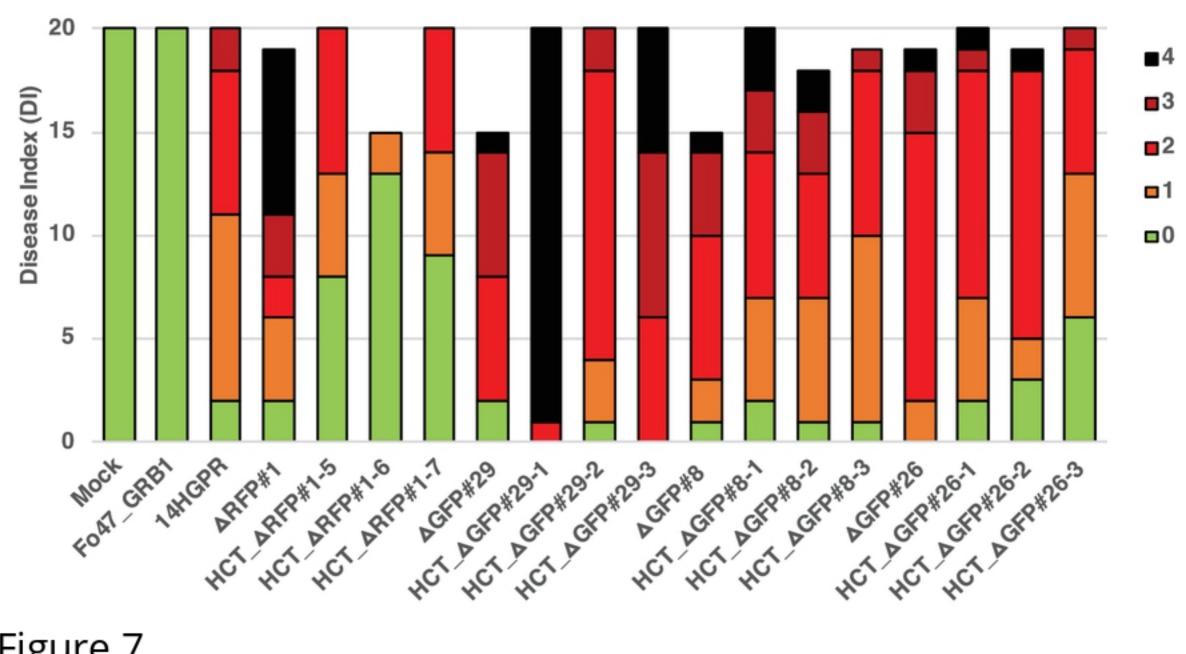
A







	с	g	GFP	SLX9	SIX6	ORXI	SIX11	Cen	SIX14	SIX2	SIX3	SIX5	SIXI3	RFP	SLX10	SIX12	SIX7	SIX13	Bioassay_I	Bioassay
14HG6B	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+		
14HGPR	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		
14-2								+												
14-7	-	-	-	-	-		-	+												
△GFP#1				-	+									+						
∆GFP#6								+	+					+						
△GFP#8	-			-		+	+	+	+					+						
△GFP#12								+	+					+						
△GFP#20									+		+			+	+	+	+			
△GFP#22								+	+	+	+	+	+	+						
△GFP#23				+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+						
△GFP#24	+	+		+	+	+	+	+						+						
△GFP#26				-				+	+	+		+		+						
△GFP#27					+		+	+	+	+		+		+						
△GFP#29				+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+		+						
△GFP#30							+		+		+	+		+	+	+	+			
△GFP#34	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+						
△GFP#38	+				+	+	+	+	+	+		+		+						
△GFP#40								+	+	+	+	+	+	+						
△GFP#41					+	+	+	+	+	+		+		+						
△RFP#1			+						+	+		+					+			
△RFP#11	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	-		-	-			
△RFP#12	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-											
△RFP#14			+	+			+	+	+	+										
△RFP#16			+	+			+													
△RFP#18			+					+	+	+	+	+					+			



25

