

1 **RESEARCH ARTICLE**

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3 **Structural variants contribute to pangenome evolution of a plant pathogenic**

4 **fungus**

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6 Li Guo<sup>1,2,#</sup>, Quanbin Dong<sup>2,#</sup>, Bo Wang<sup>1</sup>, Mengyao Guo<sup>2</sup>, Kai Ye<sup>1,2,†</sup>

7 <sup>1</sup> *MOE Key Laboratory for Intelligent Networks & Network Security, Faculty of*

8 *Electronic and Information Engineering, Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an 710049,*

9 *China*

10 <sup>2</sup> *School of Life Science and Technology, Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an 710049,*

11 *China*

12

13 †: *Corresponding author:*

14 [kaiye@xjtu.edu.cn](mailto:kaiye@xjtu.edu.cn) (K. Y.) ORCID: 0000-0002-2851-6741

15 #: *Equal contribution*

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17 **Running Title:** *Fusarium graminearum* Structural Variation Landscape

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19 **Emails and ORCIDs:**

20 Li Guo: [guo\\_li@xjtu.edu.cn](mailto:guo_li@xjtu.edu.cn) ORCID: 0000-0001-6100-3481

21 Quanbin Dong: [yy3118113002@stu.xjtu.edu.cn](mailto:yy3118113002@stu.xjtu.edu.cn) ORCID: 0000-0002-0849-8136

22 Bo Wang: [wangboxjtu@xjtu.edu.cn](mailto:wangboxjtu@xjtu.edu.cn) ORCID: 0000-0002-9041-878X

23 Mengyao Guo: [myguo123@stu.xjtu.edu.cn](mailto:myguo123@stu.xjtu.edu.cn) ORCID: 0000-0002-7895-1290

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31 **ABSTRACT**

32 Genetic variation is the driving force of plant-pathogen co-evolution. Large-scale  
33 genetic variations such as structural variations (SVs) often alter genome stability and  
34 organismal fitness. However, the pangenomic landscape and functional implications  
35 of SVs remain largely unexplored in plant pathogens. Here, we characterized the  
36 pangenomic and SV landscape in wheat head blight fungus *Fusarium graminearum*  
37 by producing and comparing chromosome-level (average contig N50 of 8.9 Mb)  
38 genome assemblies of 98 accessions using a reference-guided approach. Accounting  
39 for 29.05% and 19.01% of *F. graminearum* pangenome, respectively, accessory and  
40 private genomes are enriched with functions related to membrane trafficking,  
41 metabolism of fatty acids and tryptophans, with the private also enriched with  
42 putative effectors. Furthermore, using chromosome-level assemblies, we detected  
43 52,420 SVs, 69.51% of which are inaccessible using read-mapping based approach.  
44 Over a half (55.65%) of 52,645 merged SVs affected 1,660 protein-coding genes, the  
45 most variable of which are involved in fungal virulence, cellular contact and  
46 communications. Interestingly, highly variable effectors and secondary metabolic  
47 enzymes are co-localized with SVs at subtelomeric and centromeric regions.  
48 Collectively, this landmark study shows the prevalence and functional relevance of  
49 SVs in *F. graminearum*, providing a valuable resource for future pangenomic studies  
50 in this cosmopolitan pathogen of cereal crops.

51

52 **Keywords:** *Fusarium graminearum*, head blight, genome evolution, population  
53 genomics, genome assembly, next-generation sequencing

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## 61 INTRODUCTION

62 Fungal pathogens contribute to a substantial fraction of crop diseases and challenge  
63 global food safety, economic and social stability (Savary & Willocquet, 2020). For  
64 example, rice blast disease caused by *Magnaporthe oryzae* threatens rice productions  
65 worldwide (Dean et al., 2012). Fusarium head blight caused by *Fusarium*  
66 *graminearum* is a devastating disease of wheat and barley causing huge yield and  
67 economic losse (Goswami & Kistler, 2004). FHB also threatens human and animal  
68 health through mycotoxins such as trichothecenes and the estrogenic zearalenone  
69 (Chanda et al., 2016). A major obstacle of battling against many devastating crop  
70 diseases including FHB is the constant and rapid evolution of pathogen virulence and  
71 drug resistance through gene mutation and natural selection, an inevitable problem  
72 further deteriorated by fungicide abuses and resistant cultivar monoculture widely  
73 adopted in modern agriculture. Drug resistance in agricultural pathogens also poses  
74 dangers to human health through opportunistic fungal infections in  
75 immunocompromised individuals (Benitez & Carver, 2019). It is thus necessary to  
76 investigate the landscape and function of genetic mutations leading to evolution of  
77 fungal traits such as virulence and antifungal resistance, so that effective and  
78 environment-friendly strategies can be developed for plant disease prevention and  
79 management.

80 Genetic variants arisen from DNA mutations are the driving force behind evolution  
81 (Kronenberg *et al.*, 2018) including host-pathogen co-evolution with a boom-and-bust  
82 cycle (De la Concepcion *et al.*, 2018). Genetic variations come in various forms  
83 including single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), small (<50bp) deletions or  
84 insertions (Indels) and structural variations (SVs) (>50bp) (Mahmoud *et al.*, 2019).  
85 Generally, genetic variants modify gene coding or non-coding sequences leading to  
86 altered gene functions and ultimately organismal fitness (Kronenberg *et al.*, 2018).  
87 Because these variants contribute to the formation of genetically diverse populations,  
88 any reference genome assembly of a single individual hardly represents the complete  
89 genetic information of any species known as pangenome (Parfrey *et al.*, 2008).

90 Pangenome represents a non-redundant complement of genome sequences for all  
91 individuals within a species (Tettelin *et al.*, 2005). First defined in bacteria,  
92 pangenome has been conceptually recognized and explored across all major kingdoms  
93 ranging from human (Li *et al.*, 2010), animals (Li *et al.*, 2017; Tian *et al.*, 2020),  
94 plants (Bayer *et al.*, 2020) to bacteria (Ding *et al.*, 2018) and fungi such as  
95 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Candida albicans*, *Cryptococcus neoformans*, *Aspergillus*  
96 *fumigatus* (Golicz *et al.*, 2016; Peter *et al.*, 2018), and also several plant pathogens  
97 including *Parastagonospora* spp, *Zymoseptoria tritici* (Plissonneau *et al.*, 2018; Syme  
98 *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, characterization of genetic variants is vital to mapping the  
99 pangenomes and understanding the mechanisms of species evolution.

100 Despite the importance of both small and large variants, our current understanding of  
101 fungal genetic variations generally focuses on SNPs that are widely used in  
102 population genetics and genome-wide association studies to link genotypes with  
103 phenotypes. So far, *F. graminearum* population genetic studies have emphasized on  
104 analysis of SNPs. For example, a link between local polymorphisms and pathogen  
105 specificity has been identified in *F. graminearum* genome (Cuomo *et al.*, 2007). Firasl  
106 *et al.* associated SNP diversity with genes crucial for *F. graminearum* phenotype  
107 including trichothecene chemotypes and virulence (Talas *et al.*, 2012). By contrast,  
108 there is to date a lack of both interest and effort in studying large variants such as  
109 indels and SVs in population genetic studies of fungal pathogens. However, compared  
110 to SNPs, SVs are more likely to disrupt the genome stability and function such as  
111 altering gene structure, copy numbers, and gene regulation given their large size  
112 (Alonge *et al.*, 2020). For example, SVs have already been implicated in development  
113 of various genetic disorders in certain human pedigrees or populations (Friedman *et*  
114 *al.*, 1994; Nattestad *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, a lack of population-wide mapping of  
115 structural variants in plant pathogens has led to an underestimation of their genetic  
116 diversities as well as impact on fungal pangenome evolution.

117 The overall lack of SV knowledge in plant pathogenic fungi is largely down to the  
118 technical challenges to detect SVs based on widely-used next-generation sequencing

119 (NGS) data due to its small read-length (Mahmoud *et al.*, 2019). Although variant  
120 detection tools such as *Pindel* (Ye *et al.*, 2009), *Delly* (Rausch *et al.*, 2012), *Lumpy*  
121 (Layer *et al.*, 2014) are available, application of these tools to NGS data are mostly  
122 ideal for detecting small variants with limited power in large variant discovery.  
123 Third-generation sequencing technology (*i.e.*, Pacific Bioscience or Oxford  
124 Nanopore), able to span most repetitive and complex regions in genome assembly and  
125 variant detection given the long reads (Mahmoud *et al.*, 2019), presents an ideal  
126 alternative to identify SVs. However, long-read sequencing remains expensive for  
127 variant detection in large-scale population genomic studies of plants and fungi.  
128 Recently, an alternative strategy has been proposed for variant detection based on a  
129 chromosome-scale reference genome and population-scale resequencing datasets. It  
130 involves reference-guided scaffolding of draft genome assemblies from NGS data,  
131 followed by assembly-based detection of variants. Several computational tools have  
132 been developed for this task including *Ragout2* (Kolmogorov *et al.*, 2014) and  
133 *RaGOO* (Alonge *et al.*, 2019) etc., providing a fast and affordable option to  
134 characterize pan-SV landscape at population level. The chromosome-scale genome  
135 assemblies also facilitate the analysis of pangenomes for the species being studied.

136 In this study, we sought to identify SVs in a large collection of *F. graminearum*  
137 accessions using chromosome-level genome assemblies, generated by  
138 referenced-guided genome scaffolding of NGS-based assembly, followed by SV  
139 identification. We also constructed the pangenome of *F. graminearum* based on these  
140 assemblies, revealing the contribution of accessory and private genomes to species  
141 adaptation. Intersecting the SVs with pangenome components highlighted the  
142 important role of SV in the genome evolution and pathogenesis of *F. graminearum*.  
143 This study not only presents a valuable resource for future population genomic and  
144 pangenomic investigation in this cosmopolitan fungal pathogen, but also demonstrates  
145 how SVs could be analyzed in fungal population genomic datasets solely based on  
146 NGS.

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## 148 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 149 **Sequencing data and quality control**

150 NGS (Illumina paired end) raw data of 104 *F. graminearum* isolates from five  
151 countries (China, USA, United Kingdom, France and Australia) around the globe  
152 were downloaded from National Center of Biological Information (NCBI) Sequence  
153 Read Archives (SRA) (Table S1). The SRA data were then converted to FASTQ  
154 format using SRA Toolkit (<https://github.com/ncbi/sra-tools>). The quality of the  
155 FASTQ data were assessed from two perspectives. Firstly, *FASTP* (Chen *et al.*, 2018)  
156 was used to check the read quality such as base quality, guanine-cytosine (GC)  
157 content, adapters etc. of the fastq files, followed by filtering reads with the poor  
158 quality and adapters with default parameters settings. Secondly, the software  
159 *Sourmash* (Ondov *et al.*, 2016) was used to check k-mer distributions of each dataset,  
160 finding and filtering out samples with abnormal k-mer frequencies. In total, 98 of 104  
161 samples passed the quality control and these cleaned data were used for the  
162 downstream analysis.

### 163 **Chromosome-level genome assembly**

164 *SPAdes* (Prjibelski *et al.*, 2020) was used to *de novo* assemble the cleaned reads, with  
165 the parameters: -k 33,55,77 --careful -t 28, and then the contigs.fasta and  
166 scaffolds.fasta were generated. *RaGOO* (Alonge *et al.*, 2019) was used to assemble  
167 contigs on the chromosome level based on the results of *SPAdes* (Prjibelski *et al.*,  
168 2020). The running parameter was -b -t 4-g 100-s-i 0.2, and the fasta file at the  
169 chromosome level was obtained. To evaluate the genome assemblies, we run *QUAST*  
170 (Gurevich *et al.*, 2013) with default parameters.

### 171 **Genome annotations and effector prediction**

172 For *F. graminearum* genome annotation, *de novo* gene structure was predicted by  
173 *GeneMark-ES* with parameters '--ES --fungus' (Lomsadze *et al.*, 2005;

174 Ter-Hovhannisyanyan *et al.*, 2008). A *Fusarium* gene model was then used to train  
175 *AUGUSTUS* v. 3.1 (Stanke *et al.*, 2008). *MAKER2* pipeline (Min *et al.*, 2017) with  
176 *RepeatMasker* v. 4.0.7 (Saha *et al.*, 2008) option on to find and mask repetitive  
177 elements, was used to find protein-coding genes integrating gene models predicted  
178 from *GeneMark-ES* and *AUGUSTUS*, and protein sequences of the *F. graminearum*.  
179 The *F. graminearum* putative effectors were predicted as follows: candidate secreted  
180 proteins have a secretion signal as determined by *EffectorP* (Sperschneider *et al.*,  
181 2018) and have no transmembrane domain as determined by *TMHMM* 2.0 (Krogh *et*  
182 *al.*, 2001). Eventually, *WoLF-PSort* v. 0.2 (Horton *et al.*, 2007) software was used to  
183 estimate the located sites and only those proteins that were credibly positioned in the  
184 extracellular space (i.e., extracellular score >15) were included into in the final  
185 secretome (Kaundal *et al.*, 2010). Small secreted proteins (SSPs) are defined here as  
186 proteins that are smaller than 200 amino acids and labeled as ‘cysteine rich’ when the  
187 percentage of cysteine residues in the protein was at least twice as high as the average  
188 percentage of cysteine residues in all predicted proteins of that organism.

### 189 **Variant detection**

190 Structural variant detection was conducted using two different approaches: mapping  
191 based approach (MBA) and assembly-based approach (ABA). For MBA, we first  
192 mapped NGS short reads to *F. graminearum* PH1 genome using *BWA-mem* (Li &  
193 Durbin, 2009), and performed structural variant detection using three mainstream SV  
194 callers *Lumpy* (Layer *et al.*, 2014), *Delly* (Rausch *et al.*, 2012) and *Manta* (Chen *et al.*,  
195 2016), followed by merging the detected SV of each caller (only considering SVs that  
196 are detected by at least two of four SV callers) using *SURVIVOR* (Jeffares *et al.*,  
197 2017). Alternatively, with ABA we aligned each of the 98 chromosome scale genome  
198 assemblies against *F. graminearum* PH1 genome, followed by structural variant  
199 detection using *Assemblytics* (Nattestad & Schatz, 2016). The chromosome-level  
200 genome assembly for each of 98 *F. graminearum* isolates was aligned to the reference  
201 genome PH1 using *minimap2* (Li, 2018) with the parameter settings: *minimap2 -k19*  
202 *-w19 reference.fasta contigs.fasta*, where "reference.fasta" and "contigs.fasta"

203 represents the PH1 reference genome and genome assembly results given by *RaGOO*,  
204 respectively. The alignments (.pav files) were then converted to delta format, and then  
205 used as input to *Assemblytics* for structural variant discovery with the parameter  
206 settings: *assemblytics contigs.delta contig\_SV 1000000 1 1000000*. Structural variants  
207 detected recorded in .bed files as the output of *Assemblytics* were converted to VCF  
208 (variant call format) files using *SURVIVOR* v2.0.1. Structural variants of multiple  
209 isolates were filtered, compared and merged using *SURVIVOR* to identify common  
210 and distinct variants. SNP and indels were identified using Genome analysis tool kit  
211 (*GATK*) (DePristo *et al.*, 2011). *dN/dS* (the ratio of non-synonymous to synonymous  
212 substitutions) data were obtained from a previous report by Sperschneider *et al*  
213 (Sperschneider *et al.*, 2015).

#### 214 **Structural variant effect analysis**

215 The effects of structural variants on genome functions were analyzed using  
216 *ANNOVAR* (Wang *et al.*, 2010). Genome annotation files (.gtf) and VCF files storing  
217 structural variant calls and genome coordinates were used as input to *ANNOVAR* for  
218 calculating the effects of each structural variant including overlaps with gene coding  
219 regions (introns and exons), UTRs, intergenic regions etc. The fungal genes affected  
220 by structural variants were obtained by overlapping the gene annotation information  
221 with the variant information stored in .bed files given by *Assemblytics* using *Bedtools*  
222 (Quinlan & Hall, 2010). A threshold of 10% or more in gene coding regions  
223 overlapping with any structural variant was used to identify genes affected by the  
224 variant.

#### 225 **Pangenomic analysis**

226 The pangenome analysis was conducted using two different approaches:  
227 genome-based and gene-based approach. For genome-based approach, ppsPCP  
228 pipeline (Tahir Ul Qamar *et al.*, 2019) was used for pan-genome analysis to find full  
229 complement of genome sequences from all 98 genomes with default parameters. For



230 the gene-based approach, we used protein sequences of all 98 isolates and PHI to  
231 identify ortholog groups (orthogroups) shared by all proteomes, among different  
232 proteomes and unique to each proteome using *OrthoFinder* (Emms & Kelly, 2019).  
233 Core genome is defined as orthogroups present in all isolates, whereas accessory  
234 genome is defined as orthogroups shared by some but not all isolates. Private genome  
235 is defined as orthogroups unique to each isolate. The three parts of pangenomes were  
236 compared with genes encoding for effectors, carbohydrate-degrading enzymes,  
237 virulence factors (PHI-base records (Urban *et al.*, 2020)) and trichothecene  
238 biosynthetic enzymes to evaluate the evolution of these gene functions in *F.*  
239 *graminearum*. The pangenome components were also compared with genes affected  
240 by structural variants to assess the contribution of the variants to these gene functions  
241 and fungal evolution. Pangenome openness was determined by fitting the pangenome  
242 profile curve model:  $y = Ax^B + C$  (Tettelin *et al.*, 2005), where  $y$  and  $x$  represent  
243 pangenome size and genome number respectively, and  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  are fitting  
244 parameters.

#### 245 **Functional enrichment analysis**

246 For gene function annotation, KEGG pathway analysis was performed using  
247 KOBAS3.0 (Xie *et al.*, 2011), protein domain was annotated by InterProScan (Jones  
248 *et al.*, 2014), and Gene Ontology was annotated by BLAST2GO  
249 (<https://www.blast2go.com/>), and then enrichment analysis was completed by TBtools  
250 (Chen *et al.*, 2020).

#### 251 **Data availability**

252 The genome assemblies and variants reported in this paper have been deposited in the  
253 Genome Sequence Archive in National Genomics Data Center, China National Center  
254 for Bioinformation / Beijing Institute of Genomics, Chinese Academy of Sciences,  
255 under the BioProject ID PRJCA004286 and accession numbers  
256 WGS018715-WGS018812 that are publicly accessible at <https://bigd.big.ac.cn/gsa>.

## 257 **RESULTS**

### 258 **Chromosome-level genome assembly of 98 *F. graminearum* accessions**

259 To reconstruct the pangenome and identify structural variants in *F. graminearum*, we  
260 produced chromosome-level genome assemblies for a collection of *F. graminearum*  
261 accessions via a reference-guided approach. We first downloaded from public  
262 domains NGS data for 104 *F. graminearum* isolates originally sampled from five  
263 countries: China (CN), the United States (US), France (FR), United Kingdom (UK)  
264 and Australia (AUS) (Table S1). Quality of these NGS data were assessed, followed  
265 by removing six problematic datasets (showing abnormal Kmer frequencies) and  
266 poor-quality reads and sequence adapters, yielding a total of 98 high quality datasets  
267 including 60, 24, 6, 4 and 4 from US, AUS, FR, UK and CN, respectively (Figure 1A).  
268 Cleaned reads were then *de novo* assembled by *SPAdes* to generate 98 draft genome  
269 assemblies (Figure 1B; Table S1) with genome sizes ranged from 34.3Mb to 37.4Mb  
270 and an average GC content of 48.20%. Unsurprisingly, these assemblies were overall  
271 fragmented with the number of contigs ranging from 72 to 805 (Figure 1B and 1C),  
272 and contig N50 ranging from 93.8kb to 2.3Mb (Figure 1C).

273 High-quality genome assemblies are needed for optimal pangenome construction and  
274 efficient SV identification based on whole genome alignments. Recently, several  
275 algorithms such as *RaGOO* (Alonge *et al.*, 2019) for reference-guided genome  
276 assembly have been developed to scaffold contig-level assemblies into  
277 chromosome-level assemblies using a reference genome. From the NGS-based draft  
278 genomes of the 98 isolates, we further generated chromosome-scale genome assembly  
279 for each isolate using *F. graminearum* PH1 reference genome as a guide (Figure 1B).  
280 We obtained 98 final genome assemblies of high contiguity with contig N50 ranging  
281 from 8.3Mb to 10Mb (Figure 1C), a significant leap of quality over the draft  
282 assemblies (Table S1). We also observed that the draft contigs of each isolate could  
283 not be fully aligned into four chromosomes of PH1 genome, suggesting that each  
284 isolate has underwent substantial evolution carrying unique genome sequences. It

285 demonstrated the need to characterize the fungal pangenome because any individual  
286 genome is insufficient to represent the genetic information in the whole species.

### 287 **Pangenomic analysis of *F. graminearum***

288 We recovered the *F. graminearum* pangenome sequence by a genome-based approach  
289 from the 98 chromosome-scale genome assemblies using ppsPCP pipeline (Tahir Ul  
290 Qamar *et al.*, 2019). First, each genome assembly was iteratively compared with the  
291 PH1 reference genome, followed by the presence-absence variation identification via  
292 scanning unique sequences (>100bp) of each accession relative to the reference  
293 genome. For each iteration, the unique sequences and the reference genome were  
294 merged into a non-redundant sequence file. The process was repeated for all 98  
295 accessions to complete the pangenome construction for *F. graminearum*. The final  
296 pangenome size of the 98 accessions is 42.6Mb, about 5.6Mb larger than the PH1  
297 reference genome. These extra sequences encoded a total of 1,203 protein-coding  
298 genes, and functional enrichment showed that they were mostly significantly enriched  
299 in pathways such as carbohydrate, fatty acid and tyrosine metabolism, transporters  
300 (Figure S1). Fatty acid, carbohydrate and amino acid metabolism produces primary  
301 metabolites that are not only essential for fungal cellular functions, but also precursors  
302 for fungal secondary metabolism (Chroumpi *et al.*, 2020).

303 For any species, pangenome typically consists of gene sets conserved in all, some or  
304 none of the isolates, which are defined as core, accessory and private genomes,  
305 respectively. To systematically identify the core, accessory and private genomes in *F.*  
306 *graminearum* pangenome, we first predicted the protein-coding genes from the  
307 chromosome-scale genomes of the 98 *F. graminearum* accessions using *AUGUSTUS*  
308 (Stanke *et al.*, 2008) based on Fusarium-specific gene model (Table S1). *Orthofinder*  
309 was then used to identify orthologs between PH1 and 98 samples, classifying genes  
310 into 15,408 orthogroups, among which 8,003 (51.94%) were present in all samples  
311 defined as the core genomes. Additionally, 2,928 (19.01%) orthogroups associated  
312 with a single accession, defined as private genomes. Finally, the remaining 4,476

313 (29.05%) orthogroups associated with at least two but not all accessions were defined  
314 as accessory genomes (Figure 2A and 2C). We found that the pangenome size  
315 increased before reaching a plateau as the number of accessions increased, but the size  
316 of core genomes decreased (Figure 2B), suggesting that *F. graminearum* has a closed  
317 pangenome. Interestingly, we found significant smaller dN/dS ratios were associated  
318 with the *F. graminearum* core genes than with the accessory genes and private genes,  
319 suggesting a different selection pressure likely being exerted on the three types of  
320 genomes (Figure 2D). Furthermore, functional enrichment showed that the accessory  
321 genes were enriched in membrane trafficking (SNARE mediated vesicle trafficking,  
322 exocytosis and autophagy), ribosome and protein translation. Private genes were  
323 enriched in transcription factors, metabolism of amino acids (valine, leucine and  
324 tryptophan) and fatty acids (Figure 2E), consistent with the finding using  
325 genome-based approach (Figure S1). By contrast, core genomes were enriched in  
326 pathways related to the basic metabolism and house-keeping cellular processes  
327 (Figure 2E). Collectively, the pangenomic analysis indicated that *F. graminearum*  
328 field populations have evolved accessory and private genomes with stronger  
329 diversifying selection compared to core genomes, reflecting the pangenome evolution  
330 behind the fungal adaptation.

### 331 **Mapping structural variants in *F. graminearum***

332 Genetic variants play a central role in genome evolution. With the identified *F.*  
333 *graminearum* pangenome, we are curious about what genomic variations each  
334 accession went through to shape the current fungal genome. We characterized the  
335 structural variations (SVs) in all 98 *F. graminearum* accessions, as SNPs and indels  
336 have already been reported in these isolates previously by others (Cuomo *et al.*, 2007;  
337 Talas *et al.*, 2012). More importantly, SVs are genetic variations typically larger than  
338 50bp such as deletions, insertions, inversions, and translocations, and tend to have  
339 more severe consequences to genome stability and organismal fitness (Medvedev *et*  
340 *al.*, 2009; Escaramís *et al.*, 2015). Here, we focused on detecting large deletions and  
341 insertions, two most common SV types, in 98 *F. graminearum* isolates using two

342 different approaches: mapping based approach (MBA) and assembly-based approach  
343 (ABA). For MBA, we first mapped NGS short reads to *F. graminearum* PH1 genome  
344 using *BWA-mem* (Li & Durbin, 2009), and performed structural variant detection  
345 using three mainstream SV callers *Lumpy* (Layer *et al.*, 2014), *Delly* (Rausch *et al.*,  
346 2012) and *Manta* (Chen *et al.*, 2016), followed by merging variants (only considering  
347 SVs that are detected by at least two of three SV callers) using *SURVIVOR* (Jeffares *et*  
348 *al.*, 2017). Alternatively, for ABA we aligned each of the 98 chromosome-scale  
349 genome assemblies against *F. graminearum* PH1 genome, followed by structural  
350 variant detection using *Assemblytics* (Nattestad & Schatz, 2016).

351 In total, the MBA method detected 10,253 SVs (> 50bp) including 10,118 deletions  
352 and 135 insertions from 98 *F. graminearum* isolates (Figure 3A). Conversely, the  
353 ABA method discovered a total of 52,420 SVs including 30,191 insertions (57.59%)  
354 and 22,229 deletions (42.41%) (Figure 3A). The fact that more SVs were detected by  
355 ABA than by MBA showed the power of chromosome-scale genome assemblies used  
356 for SV discovery. A comparison of SVs found that 8,855 SVs were captured by both  
357 MBA and ABA, occupying 86.36% and 16.89% of total SVs discovered by MBA and  
358 ABA, respectively (Figure 3A). Interestingly, 69.51% SVs (57.15% deletions, 99.55%  
359 insertions) detected by ABA were not detected by MBA. The size distribution showed  
360 that smaller and larger SVs are more detectable by MBA and ABA, respectively  
361 (Figure 3B). Harnessing the strength of both methods, we obtained a merged SV  
362 callset by incorporating variants identified by MBA and ABA, yielding a total of  
363 52,645 SVs (Figure S2) for *F. graminearum*, including 23,614 deletions and 29,031  
364 insertions which were used for downstream characterization of their population  
365 landscape and functional effects. Interestingly, SVs tend to be clustered at  
366 subteleomeric and centromeric regions of *F. graminearum* genome, although SVs  
367 were distributed throughout the genome (Figure 3C), consistent with previous reports  
368 that SVs occur more frequently in highly complex genomic regions (Sudmant *et al.*,  
369 2015).

370 Biosynthesis of trichothecene mycotoxins is controlled by *Tri* gene cluster in *F.*

371 *graminearum* and other trichothecene-producing species (Gauthier *et al.*, 2015). Three  
372 trichothecene chemotypes have been found in natural isolates of *F. graminearum*:  
373 15-acetyl-deoxynivalenol (15ADON), 3-acetyl-deoxynivalenol (3ADON), and  
374 nivalenol (NIV). Studies have shown that gene presence and absence variation within  
375 the cluster leads to the fungal chemotypic diversity. In current study, we detected a  
376 large deletion event (2,379bp) contributing to the loss of *Tri7* gene in all 3ADON and  
377 NX2 chemotype, but not 15ADON chemotype of *F. graminearum* accession from  
378 USA (Figure S3). This is consistent with current knowledge that *Tri7*, a trichothecene  
379 biosynthesis gene encoding an acetyltransferase catalyzing a C-4 oxygenation essential  
380 for T2-toxin production in *F. sporotrichioides* (Brown *et al.*, 2001), is a pseudogene in  
381 *F. graminearum* 15ADON chemotypes and absent in 3ADON chemotypes (Rep &  
382 Kistler, 2010). However, this deletion event was not observed in *F. graminearum*  
383 accessions from China, France, Australia and England. In addition, we also detected a  
384 large segment of deletion (7,640bp) contributing to the loss of *Tri4*, *Tri5* and *Tri6*  
385 genes in 16 of 24 accessions from Australia, which are deletion mutants of the three  
386 genes generated using CRISPR-cas9 genome editing in *F. graminearum* (Table  
387 S2)(Gardiner & Kazan, 2018). The fact that these deletion events are consistent with  
388 the previous reports or prior knowledge indicates the reliability of the structural  
389 variant detection procedure in this study.

390 With the merged SVs, we further examined their population distributions and effects  
391 on coding genes. First, a principle component analysis using a SV presence/absence  
392 matrix revealed that the 98 isolates belonged to distinct clusters that overall  
393 correspond to their geographical regions (Figure 3D). Second, we found the UK  
394 isolates and US isolates had the lowest and highest number of SVs per sample,  
395 respectively (Figure S4), although this discrepancy of SV frequency could well be a  
396 result of insufficient sampling of the *F. graminearum* population of UK compared to  
397 US regions. Third, the genome-wide distribution of SVs showed that majority (84.4%)  
398 of SVs intersected with gene exonic regions and their upstream and downstream  
399 regulatory regions (Figure S5). These SVs affected a total of 1,660 protein-coding

400 genes *F. graminearum* enriched with pathways such as signal transduction and energy  
401 metabolism (Figure 3E), suggesting potential disruptive effects of SVs on the gene  
402 function and potential fitness. Lastly, the number of common SVs between isolates  
403 gradually decreased as the number of compared isolates increased. For instance, 1,660,  
404 597, 145 and 8 protein-coding genes (1kb flanking each side) intersected by SVs were  
405 shared by at least 2, 10, 50 and 90 isolates (Table S3). We further identified highly  
406 variable genes among 98 accessions intersecting with the greatest number of SVs. The  
407 top 20 highly variable genes encode proteins involved in cell contact during mating  
408 (agglutinin like proteins), cell surface associated proteins (Mucins), myosins and  
409 kinesin proteins, virulence-associated proteins and 2OG-Fe oxygenase etc. (Table 1),  
410 suggesting these highly variable genes in *F. graminearum* pangenomes are likely  
411 associated with virulence, fungal cell communications and interactions with either  
412 other cells, or the environment.

#### 413 **Impact of SVs on *F. graminearum* pangenome and pathobiology gene functions**

414 We next investigated how much SVs may have shaped *F. graminearum* pangenomes,  
415 by examining the fractions of genes affected by SVs associated with core, accessory  
416 and private genomes for each accession. Compared to the proportion of core (52%),  
417 accessory (29%) and private (19%) genes in pangenome (Figure 2A), 45%, 29% and  
418 26% genes affected by SVs belong to core, accessory and private genomes,  
419 significantly overrepresented on private genomes but underrepresented on core  
420 genomes (Figure 4A; Table 2). This suggests a clear skewed contribution of SVs  
421 (large deletions and insertions) towards the evolution of private and accessory  
422 genomes, compared to core genomes in *F. graminearum*. As such, SVs would have  
423 caused extensive gene loss and gain in the fungal populations, leading to a diverse  
424 range of dispensable gene content in different accessions. Conversely, the  
425 under-representation of SV-affected genes in core genomes might be a consequence of  
426 purifying selection against disrupting conserved genes, many of which perform  
427 essential house-keeping functions.



428 Next, we examined how structural variants have affected specific groups of genes that  
429 are associated with pathogenesis or secondary metabolism of *F. graminearum*,  
430 including carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZYme), effectors, secondary metabolic  
431 gene clusters and transcription factors. For each of these gene groups, we performed  
432 statistical test (Fisher's exact tests) (Table 2) to determine whether their distribution on  
433 each compartment (core, accessory and private) of pangenome significantly deviated  
434 from a random distribution of three pangenomic compartments, followed by testing  
435 whether such distribution also significantly deviated from the distribution of these  
436 gene groups intersecting with SVs on each compartment of pangenome (Table S4).  
437 For example, we predicted 584 effector proteins in *F. graminearum* pangenome, small  
438 secreted fungal proteins that typically promote pathogenesis, of which 32%, 23% and  
439 45% located in core, accessory and private genome, respectively (Figure 4B), with  
440 private genome significantly enriched with effectors (Table 2). We found 65 effectors  
441 intersected with SVs, of which 26%, 32% and 42% belong to core, accessory and  
442 private genome, respectively (Figure 4B), without enrichment on any compartment  
443 (Table 2). Similarly, we analyzed SV impact on 29 transcription factors (TFs), a list of  
444 764 *F. graminearum* CAZYme-encoding genes (Figure 4B) downloaded from dbCAN  
445 meta server (Zhang *et al.*, 2018), and 696 secondary metabolic genes (SMG) (Figure  
446 4C) we predicted using antismash. The results show that no deviation of distribution  
447 was observed for SMGs, global or SV-affected, on any compartment (Table 2).  
448 Although TFs and CAZYmes are overall enriched on core genome, no significant  
449 enrichment of SV-affected TFs or CAZYmes was found on any compartment (Table  
450 2). Despite such a lack of significant enrichment, an increased proportion on  
451 accessory compartment was found for SV-affected SMG (33.62%) and CAZYmes  
452 (30.10%) compared to pangenomic ratio (29.05%), suggesting that SVs have  
453 contributed to increased variability of these proteins among *F. graminearum* isolates.

454 Finally, we showed that SMG clusters and effectors harbor substantial structural  
455 variations among isolates across different countries (Figure 4E and 4F). We found 22  
456 (33.85%) effectors and 40 (29.41%) SMGs are affected by a deletion or insertion in at



457 least ten isolates, respectively. These highly variable SMGs and effector genes are  
458 mostly located at subteleomeric and centromeric regions of chromosomes, consistent  
459 with the genomic distribution of SVs (Figure 3C, track g-h). Given likely associations  
460 of CAZymes, effectors and SMG clusters to fungal pathobiology, and the disruptive  
461 effects of structural variations on the coding and flanking sequence of these genes, our  
462 results indicate that the pathogen pangenome is likely experiencing rapid evolution in  
463 these genes allowing the fungus to adapt to host and environmental cues.

## 464 **DISCUSSION**

465 The landscape and functional roles of structural variants in fungal pathogens remain  
466 an overall uncharted area of research in plant pathogens. Focusing on *F. graminearum*,  
467 one of the most researched plant fungal pathogens, we for the first time performed  
468 systematic identification of large-scale genome structural variants in a collection of 98  
469 fungal isolates with resequencing data. Knowledge-wise, our study have made new  
470 discoveries in three major aspects. Firstly, through reference-guided genome assembly  
471 and alignment followed by variant detection, we discover that structural variants are  
472 prevalent in *F. graminearum* field populations. Secondly, we show that many of these  
473 deletion and insertion variants co-localize with coding genes and thus may disrupt  
474 their normal functions. The most highly variable genes (found in over 80% of the *F.*  
475 *grmainearum* accessions analyzed in this study) caused by SVs are involved in  
476 agglutinin proteins, mucins and kinesins that mediate cell to cell contact and  
477 communications during mating or interaction with environment. A high proportion of  
478 isolates carrying these mutations indicates pathogen adaptation to surrounding cells or  
479 environment is likely under strong selection. Thirdly, although these variants can be  
480 found throughout the genome, a high density of SVs is associated with genomic  
481 regions near centromere and telomeres. SVs in these highly polymorphic regions  
482 intersected with genes encoding putative effectors and secondary metabolic enzymes.  
483 Whether SVs play similar roles in evolution of other fungal pathogens of plants and  
484 humans would be intriguing to investigate.

485 Our study also showcased a computational strategy to characterize SVs of plant  
486 pathogenic fungi from large populations. The technical challenge of structural  
487 variation detection using short reads has been a major reason why these variants are  
488 left unnoticed in *F. graminearum*. In this study, we showed that the assembly-based  
489 method detected 44,569 structural variants that are inaccessible to traditional  
490 read-mapping method, highlighting the limitation of large variant detection based on  
491 short reads. Recently, variant callers are being developed to identify SVs in human  
492 samples based on single-molecule sequencing data (PacBio and Oxford Nanopore).  
493 Therefore, plant and fungal structural variant detections are bound to be improved  
494 using these long-read sequencing data given their advantage in detecting large and  
495 complex variants, although the cost of producing and analyzing these data from a  
496 massive plant or fungal populations remains a tremendous challenge for most  
497 large-scale population genomics studies so far. The approach (reference-guided  
498 assembly followed by SV detection) we adopted in this study enabled the SV analysis  
499 solely based on short reads, proving its efficacy working with population scale  
500 resequencing data in pathogenic fungi. With the cost of sequencing continuously  
501 plummeting in the near future, it will be possible to obtain long-read-based fungal  
502 resequencing data from hundreds or thousands of field isolates or experimental strains  
503 to reveal a more complete pangenomic and pan-SV landscape.

504 *F. graminearum* SVs detected in this work represent a valuable resource for future  
505 population genomic and pangenomic studies in this cereal pathogen, which is  
506 important for two reasons. First, the prevalence of large scale genome variants in *F.*  
507 *graminearum* genome clearly shows the inadequacy of a single reference genome in  
508 population genetic studies, since it tends to introduce geographic bias in interpreting  
509 the genomic data. A pangenomic database integrating all types of variants is essential  
510 to a more robust interpretation of genetic variations genotyped in various *F.*  
511 *graminearum* populations. Second, failure to characterize the full spectrum of genome  
512 variants by missing the structural variants represents a blind spot for discovering the  
513 genotype and phenotype associations in *F. graminearum*. Despite the effects of SNPs

514 in gene expression and regulation, they are less disruptive to gene functions and  
515 phenotypes than large-scale variations such as SVs and chromosomal aberrations.  
516 Therefore, it's critical to take into consideration the impacts of a broader spectrum of  
517 variants for identifying the causal mutations behind trait evolution such as tolerance  
518 of antifungal drugs or evasion of host resistance.

519 In conclusion, we have produced genome assemblies for a large collection of *F.*  
520 *graminearum* isolates, based on which the fungal pangenome and structural variants  
521 were comprehensively analyzed. Our study demonstrates that SVs are ubiquitous in *F.*  
522 *graminearum* genomes disrupting functions of genes possibly associated with  
523 pathogenesis and secondary metabolism, providing insights into the fungal genome  
524 evolution. The computational strategies and structural variant resources developed by  
525 this study will be valuable to future population genetic researches of *F. graminearum*  
526 and other plant pathogenic fungi.

#### 527 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

528 LG and KY conceived and designed the project. LG, QBD and MG performed the  
529 quality control, variant detection and pangenome analysis. WB conducted the genome  
530 assembly and annotation. LG, QBD and KY wrote the manuscript. All authors revised  
531 and approved the manuscript.

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#### 539 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

540 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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758 **TABLES**

759 **Table 1.** Summary of the 20 most variable genes intersecting with structural variants

760 and their annotated functions in *Fusarium graminearum* pangenome. The number of

761 variants is the total number of structural variants intersecting with the protein-coding

762 sequene and its 1kb flanking region.

763

Gene ID	Annotations	Number of variants	Number of accessions with variants
FGRAMPH1_01G05643	agglutinin-Like Protein	568	93
FGRAMPH1_01G15613	agglutinin-Like Protein	489	94
FGRAMPH1_01G27087	agglutinin-Like Protein	232	85
FGRAMPH1_01G21813	myosin light chain kinase	187	89
FGRAMPH1_01G25011	mucin 1, cell surface associated (MUC1)	185	85
FGRAMPH1_01G15427	ankyrin-3 protein	184	93
FGRAMPH1_01G12267	mucin 22 protein	157	85
FGRAMPH1_01G25295	virulence-associated lipoprotein MIA	122	84
FGRAMPH1_01G13139	vacuolar carboxypeptidase	118	83
FGRAMPH1_01G22029	nucleoside phosphorylase	117	81
FGRAMPH1_01G08911	Extracellular serine/threonine-rich Protein	116	84
FGRAMPH1_01G08231	cell surface proteins containing the conserved peptide motif (LPXTG)	113	82
FGRAMPH1_01G12003	kinesin light chain	109	81
FGRAMPH1_01G28273	peptidase c14	108	69
FGRAMPH1_01G27923	2OG-Fe oxygenase	104	87
FGRAMPH1_01G11565	Unknown protein	103	73
FGRAMPH1_01G28289	kinesin light chain	102	96
FGRAMPH1_01G04545	zinc finger transcription factor	98	93
FGRAMPH1_01G10821	SNF5-component of SWI SNF transcription activator complex	97	49

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767 **Table 2.** A summary of the core, accessory and private gene fractions in *Fusarium*  
 768 *graminearum* pangenome (Global), SV-affected genes (Pan-SV), and genes belonging  
 769 to four different functional groups (effectors, CAZyme, SMG and TF). Underneath  
 770 the fractions are p-values given by two-tail Fisher's exact tests conducted to determine  
 771 the statistical significance of gene enrichment. SV: structural variants. O:  
 772 overrepresented. U: underrepresented. N: nonsignificant. NA: nonapplicable. SMG:  
 773 secondary metabolic genes. TF: transcription factors.

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Number of genes		Global	Effector	CAZYme	SMG	TF
Pangenome (15,407)	Core (8,003)	51.94%	32.36% $p = 2.3e-08$ (U)	<b>68.98%</b> $p = 1.2e-06$ (O)	56.03% $p = 0.2549$ (N)	<b>71.01%</b> $p = 0.0108$ (O)
	Accessory (4,476)	29.05%	22.60% $p = 0.01155$ (U)	30.10% $p = 0.6724$ (N)	33.62% $p = 0.0647$ (N)	28.99% $p = 0.9817$ (N)
	Private (2,928)	19.01%	<b>45.03%</b> $p < 2.2e-16$ (O)	<b>0.92%</b> $p < 2.2e-16$ (U)	10.34% $p = 1.1e-06$ (U)	0% NA
Pan-SV (1,660)	Core (842)	50.72% $p = 0.6084$ (N)	26.15% $p = 0.54$ (N)	61.90% $p = 0.6839$ (N)	53.68% $p = 0.8471$ (N)	65.52% $p = 0.9248$ (N)
	Accessory (659)	<b>39.70%</b> $p = 2.1e-10$ (O)	32.31% $p = 0.2344$ (N)	38.10% $p = 0.42$ (N)	37.50% $p = 0.6084$ (N)	34.48% $p = 0.8212$ (N)
	Private (159)	9.59% $p = 4.3e-16$ (U)	41.54% $p = 0.8282$ (N)	0% NA	8.82% $p = 0.7388$ (N)	0% NA

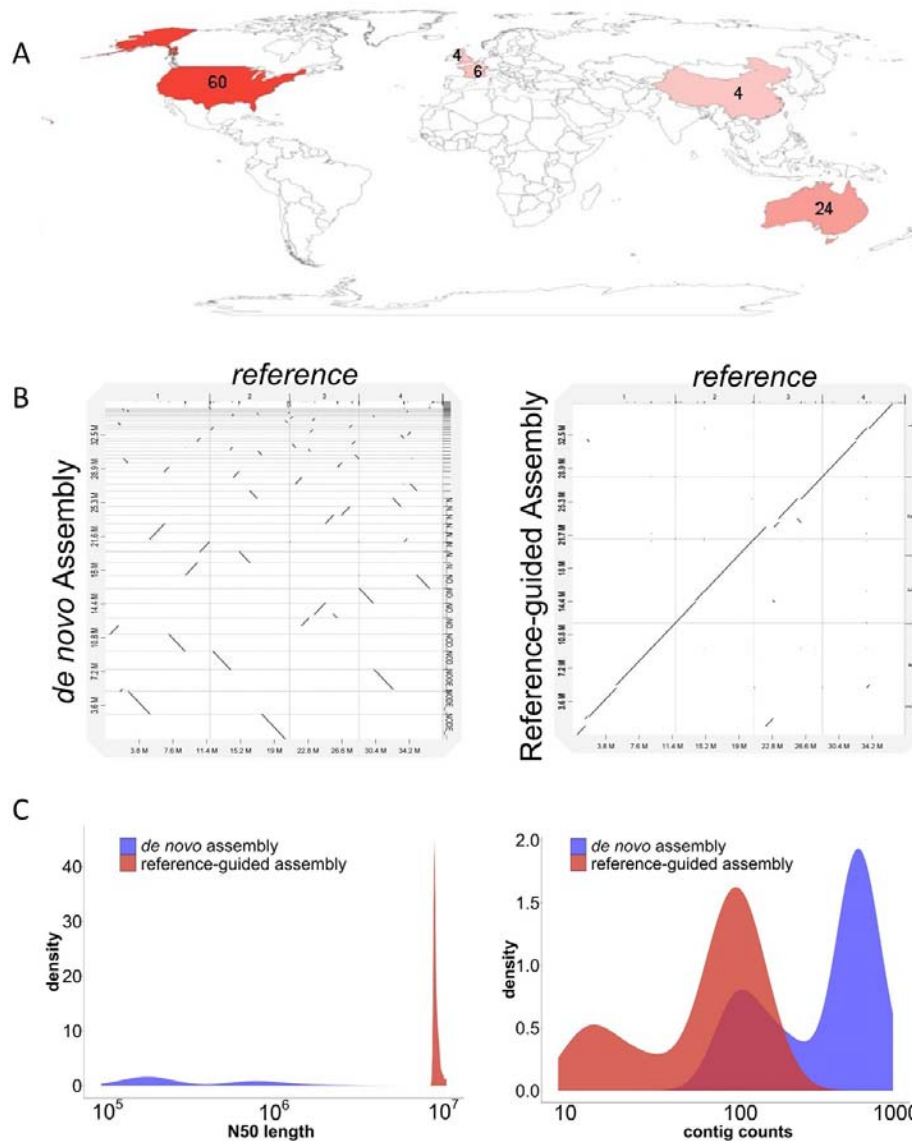
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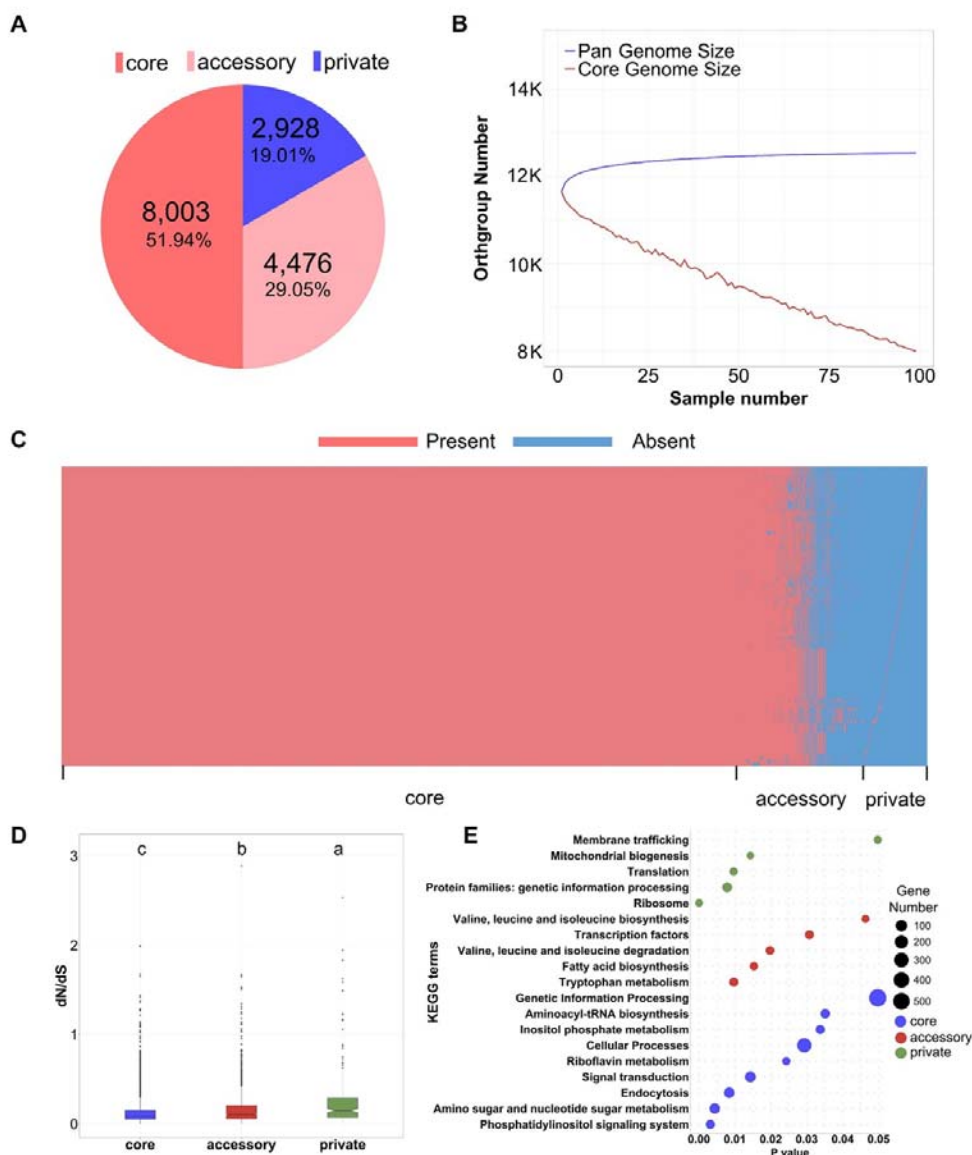
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781 **Figure 1. Geographic distribution and genome assembly of 98 *Fusarium***  
782 ***graminearum* accessions. A.** World map displaying the countries of origin for the *F.*  
783 *graminearum* accessions included in this study. The color scale is proportional to the  
784 number of accessions marked on the map. **B.** Whole genome alignments of *F.*  
785 *graminearum* reference genome PH1 against the genome assembly using Illumina  
786 short reads alone (left) and using *RaGOO* to perform a scaffolding based on the NGS  
787 assembly (right), using UK2999 isolate as an example. **C.** Density distribution of  
788 contig counts (left) and contig N50 (right) for the 98 genome assemblies using short

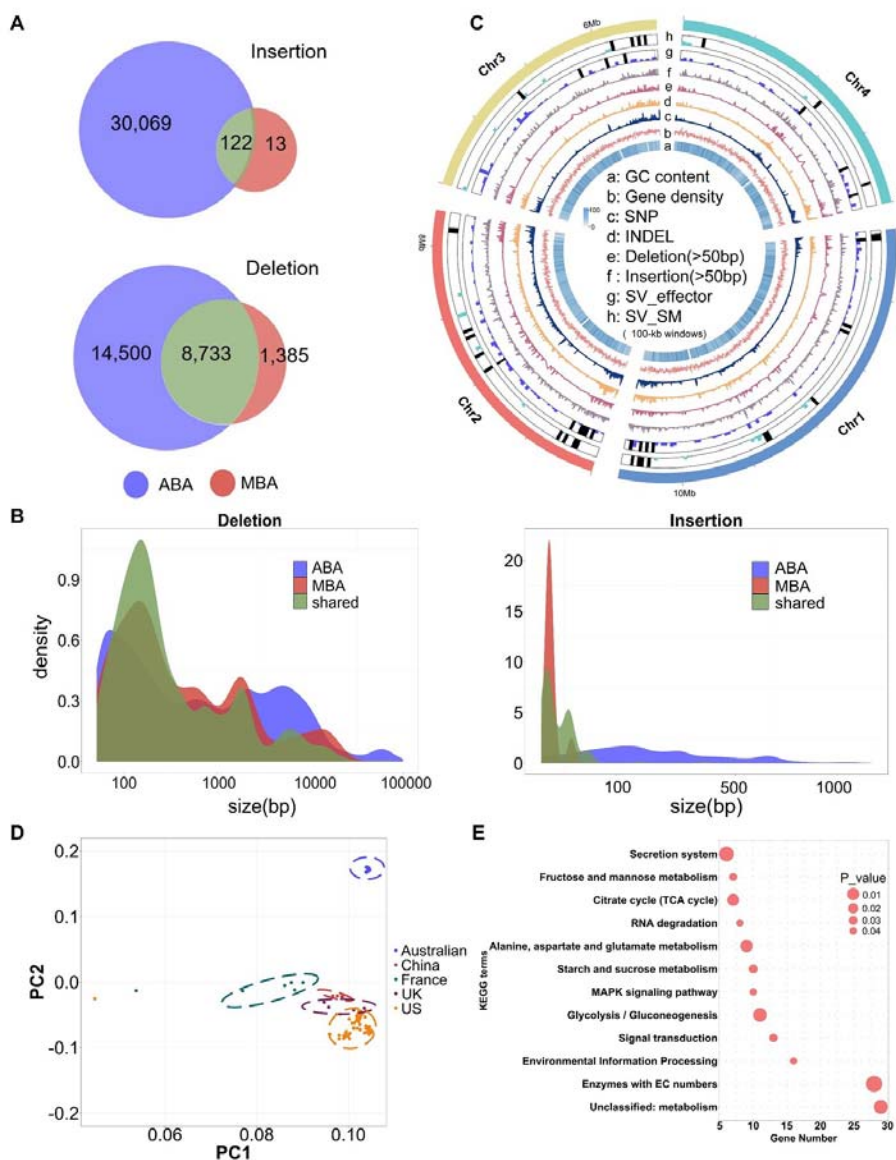
789 reads alone (blue) or using reference-guided assembly of the short reads (red).



790

791 **Figure 2. Pan-genome analysis of *Fusarium graminearum*.** A. Core, accessory and  
 792 private genomes represent 51.94%, 29.05% and 19.01% of *F. graminearum*  
 793 pan-genome, respectively. B. Variation of gene families in the pan-genome and  
 794 core-genome along with an additional *F. graminearum* genome. C. The number of  
 795 genes counted for each pan-genome composition (core, accessory and private) in 98  
 796 individual genomes. D. Boxplot of  $dN/dS$  ratio (nonsynonymous substitution rate  
 797 divided by synonymous substitution rate) distribution for *F. graminearum* genes  
 798 located on each pan-genome composition (core, accessory and private). The  
 799 lower-case letter a, b and c represents the significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ) using  
 800 Student's t-test. E. A bubble plot summarizing the functional enrichment analysis of  
 801 each composition of *F. graminearum* pangenome. Y-axis and X-axis denotes the  
 802 enriched KEGG terms and p value ( $p < 0.05$ ).

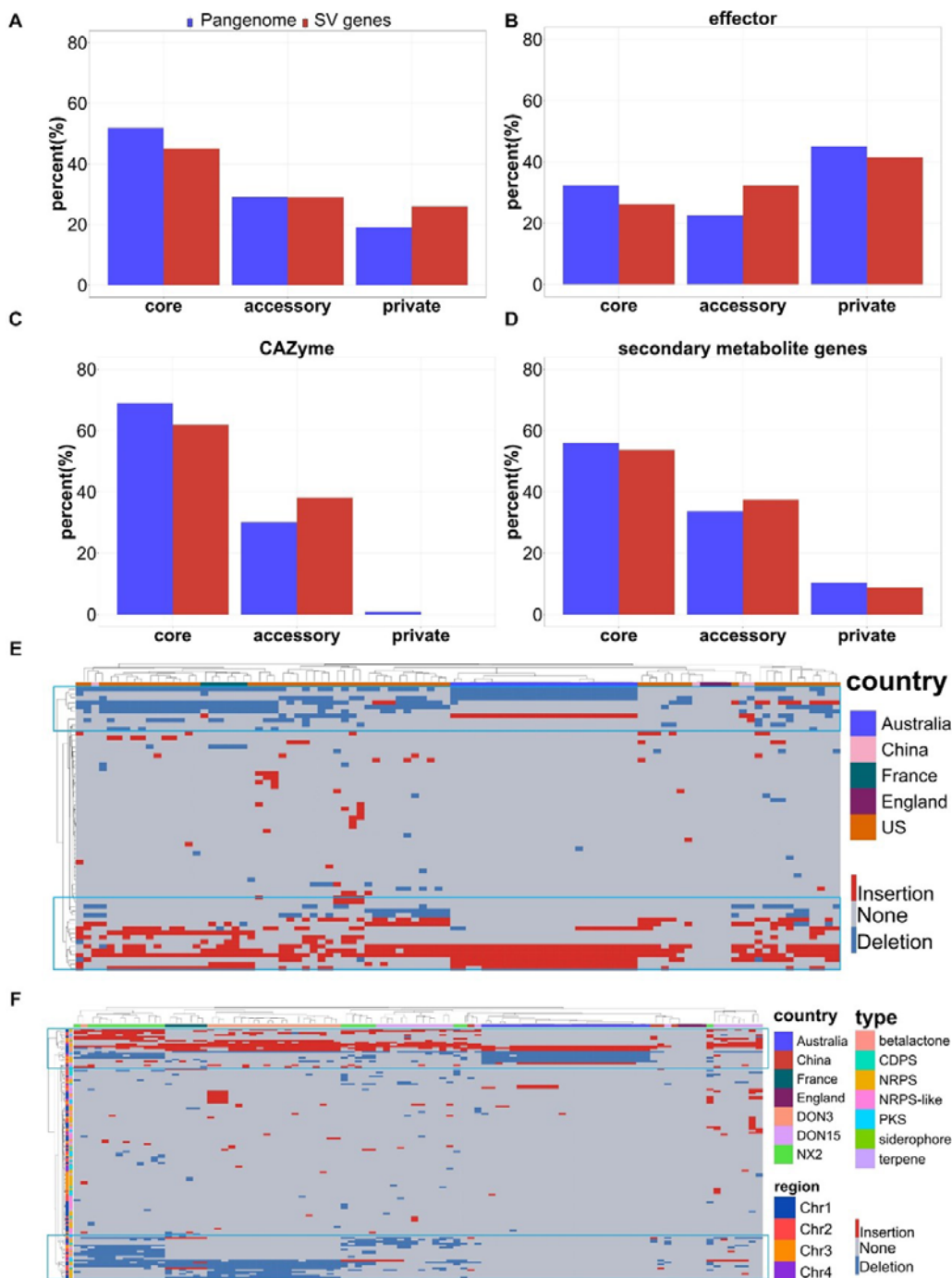
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805 **Figure 3. An overview of structural variant landscape in 98 *Fusarium***  
 806 ***graminearum* accessions. A.** Comparison of *F. graminearum* structural variants  
 807 detected using two different approaches: mapping-based approach (MBA) and  
 808 assembly-based approach (ABA). **B.** The size distribution of structural variants  
 809 showed that smaller and larger structural variants are more easily detectable by MBA  
 810 and ABA, respectively. **C.** Genome circos plot displaying the distributions of key  
 811 genomic features for *F. graminearum*. (a-h) GC content, Gene density, SNP density,  
 812 indel density, structural variant (SV-deletion, SV-insertion) density, effector and  
 813 secondary metabolic (SM) gene density calculated in 100-kb windows. Black bars (g  
 814 and h) represent the highly variable effectors and SM genes intersected with structural  
 815 variants among at least 80% of *F. graminearum* accessions. **D.** Principal components  
 816 analysis of the structural variants and geographical locations based on a  
 817 presence/absence matrix of the 98 accessions. **E.** Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and

818 Genomes (KEGG) pathway analyses of SV genes.



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820 **Figure 4. Structural variations contribute to accessory genome evolution in *F.***  
 821 ***graminearum*.** **A.** Proportions of genes affected by structural variants (SV) across the  
 822 pangenome. **B-D.** Pan-SV categories of carbohydrate-active enzymes (**B**), effectors  
 823 (**C**) and secondary metabolite (SM) gene clusters (**D**). **E-F.** Heatmaps showing SV  
 824 frequency of effector (**E**) and secondary metabolic (**F**) genes.

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