1	Long title:
2	Genome mining of the citrus pathogen Elsinoë fawcettii;
3	prediction and prioritisation of candidate effectors, cell wall
4	degrading enzymes and secondary metabolite gene clusters
5	
6	Short title:
7	Genome mining of Elsinoë fawcettii; prediction and
8	prioritisation of candidate virulence genes
9	
10	Sarah Jeffress ¹ , Kiruba Arun-Chinnappa ¹ , Ben Stodart ² , Niloofar Vaghefi ¹ , Yu Pei Tan ³ , Gavin
11	Ash ^{1,2}
12	¹ Centre for Crop Health, Institute for Life Sciences and the Environment, Research and
13	Innovation Division, University of Southern Queensland, Toowoomba QLD 4350, Australia
14	² Graham Centre for Agricultural Innovation, (Charles Sturt University and NSW Department
15	of Primary Industries), School of Agricultural and Wine Sciences, Charles Sturt University,
16	Wagga Wagga NSW 2650, Australia
17	³ Department of Agriculture and Fisheries, Queensland Government, Brisbane QLD 4000
18	Australia
19	
20	Email addresses:

Sarah Jeffress: sarah.jeffress@usq.edu.au

21

Kiruba Arun-Chinnappa: kiruba.arunchinnappa@usq.edu.au

23 Ben Stodart: bstodart@csu.edu.au

24 Niloofar Vaghefi: niloofar.vaghefi@usq.edu.au

Yu Pei Tan: YuPei.Tan@daf.qld.gov.au

Gavin Ash: gavin.ash@usq.edu.au

28 Corresponding author:

29 Gavin Ash: gavin.ash@usq.edu.au

Abstract:

Elsinoë fawcettii, a necrotrophic fungal pathogen, causes citrus scab on numerous citrus varieties around the world. Known pathotypes of *E. fawcettii* are based on host range; additionally, cryptic pathotypes have been reported and more novel pathotypes are thought to exist. *E. fawcettii* produces elsinochrome, a non-host selective toxin which contributes to virulence. However, the mechanisms involved in potential pathogen-host interactions occurring prior to the production of elsinochrome are unknown, yet the host-specificity observed among pathotypes suggests a reliance upon such mechanisms. In this study we have generated a whole genome sequencing project for *E. fawcettii*, producing an annotated draft assembly 26.01 Mb in size, with 10,080 predicted gene models and low (0.37%) coverage of transposable elements. The assembly showed evidence of AT-rich regions, potentially indicating genomic regions with increased plasticity. Using a variety of computational tools, we mined the *E. fawcettii* genome for potential virulence genes as candidates for future investigation. A total of 1,280 secreted proteins and 203 candidate

effectors were predicted and compared to those of other necrotrophic (Botrytis cinerea, Parastagonospora nodorum, Pyrenophora tritici-repentis, Sclerotinia sclerotiorum and Zymoseptoria tritici), hemibiotrophic (Leptosphaeria maculans, Magnaporthe oryzae, Rhynchosporium commune and Verticillium dahliae) and biotrophic (Ustilago maydis) plant pathogens. Genomic and proteomic features of known fungal effectors were analysed and used to guide the prioritisation of 77 candidate effectors of E. fawcettii. Additionally, 378 carbohydrate-active enzymes were predicted and analysed for likely secretion and sequence similarity with known virulence genes. Furthermore, secondary metabolite prediction indicated nine additional genes potentially involved in the elsinochrome biosynthesis gene cluster than previously described. A further 21 secondary metabolite clusters were predicted, some with similarity to known toxin producing gene clusters. The candidate virulence genes predicted in this study provide a comprehensive resource for future experimental investigation into the pathogenesis of E. fawcettii.

Introduction:

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

Elsinoë fawcettii Bitancourt & Jenkins, a necrotrophic fungal species within the Ascomycota phylum (class Dothideomycetes, subclass Dothideomycetidae, order Myriangiales), is a filamentous phytopathogen which causes a necrotic disease, known as citrus scab, to the leaves and fruit of a variety of citrus crops around the world. Susceptible citrus varieties include lemon (Citrus limon), rough lemon (C. jambhiri), sour orange (C. aurantium), Rangpur lime (C. limonia), Temple and Murcott tangors (C. sinensis x C. reticulata), Satsuma mandarin (C. unshiu), grapefruit (C. paradisi), Cleopatra mandarin (C. reshni), clementine (C. clementina), yuzu (C. junos), kinkoji (C. obovoidea), pomelo (C. grandis) and

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

Jiangjinsuanju (C. sunki) [1-9]. Numerous pathotypes of E. fawcettii are defined by host range, including the Florida Broad Host Range (FBHR), Florida Narrow Host Range (FNHR), Tyron's, Lemon, Jinguel, SRGC and SM, while cryptic and novel pathotypes are also reported [1, 3, 10]. Only the Tyron's pathotype (which infects Eureka lemon, Rough lemon, clementine, Rangpur lime and Cleopatra mandarin) and the Lemon pathotype (which only infects Eureka lemon, Rough lemon, Rangpur lime) have been described in Australia [2, 3, 7], however E. fawcettii has reportedly been isolated from kumquat (Fortunella sp.), tea plant (Camellia sinensis) and mango (Mangifera indica) [11], indicating a wider range of pathotypes to be present in Australia. Additional species of Elsinoë found causing disease in Australia include E. ampelina, which causes anthracnose to grapes [12] and two E. australis pathotypes; one which causes scab disease to jojoba (Simmondsia chinensis) [13] and a second found on rare occasions on finger lime (C. australasica) in Queensland forest areas [14]. Species of Elsinoë causing crop disease in countries neighbouring Australia include E. batatas, which causes large yield losses in sweet potato crops in Papua New Guinea [15, 16] and E. pyri, which infects apples in organic orchards in New Zealand [17]. Around the world there are reportedly 75 Elsinoë species, the majority of which appear to be host specific [18]. While citrus scab is not thought to affect yield, it reduces the value of affected fruit on the fresh market. Australia is known for producing high quality citrus fruits for local consumption and export, and so understandably, there is great interest in protecting this valuable commodity from disease. E. fawcettii is commonly described as an anamorph, reproducing asexually. Hyaline and spindle shaped conidia are produced from the centre of necrotic citrus scab lesions [19, 20]. Conidia are dispersed by water splash, requiring temperatures between 23.5-27 °C with four

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

hours of water contact for effective host infection. Therefore, disease is favoured by warm weather with overhead watering systems or rain [21]. Only young plant tissues are vulnerable to infection; leaves are susceptible from first shoots through to half expanded and similarly fruit for 6 to 8 weeks after petal fall, while mature plants are resistant to disease [19]. Cuticle, epidermal cells and mesophyll tissue are degraded within 1 to 2 days of inoculation, hyphal colonisation proceeds and within 3 to 4 days symptoms are visible [20, 22]. After formation of necrotic scab lesions on fruit, twigs and leaves, conidia are produced from the scab pustules providing inoculum for further spread. Within 5 days, host cell walls become lignified separating infected regions from healthy cells, which is thought to limit internal spread of the pathogen [20]. The necrosis that occurs during infection is produced in response to elsinochrome, a well-known secondary metabolite (SM) of species of Elsinoë. Elsinochromes are red or orange pigments which can be produced in culture [23, 24]. In aerobic and light-activated conditions, reactive oxygen species are produced in response to elsinochromes in a non-host selective manner, generating an environment of cellular toxicity [25]. Elsinochrome production is required for full virulence of E. fawcettii, specifically the EfPKS1 and TSF1 genes are vital within the elsinochrome gene cluster [26, 27]. However, two points indicate that *E. fawcettii* pathogenesis is more complex than simply the result of necrotic toxin production: (I) the production of elsinochrome appears to be variable and does not correlate with virulence [28]; and (II) elsinochrome is a non-host selective toxin, yet Elsinoë species and E. fawcettii pathotypes cause disease in a host specific manner. Host-specific virulence factors targeted for interaction with distinct host proteins to overcome immune defences, prior to elsinochrome production, could explain the observed host specificity. Candidate virulence genes may include effectors and cell wall degrading enzymes. Effectors are secreted pathogen proteins, targeted to either the host

117

118

119

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

cytoplasm or apoplast, which enable the pathogen to evade recognition receptor activities of the host's defence system and, if successful, infection proceeds. Resistant hosts, however, recognise pathogen effectors using resistant (R) genes which elicit plant effectortriggered immunity and pathogenesis is unsuccessful [29, 30]. While it was previously thought that necrotrophic fungal pathogens would use only a repertoire of carbohydrateactive enzymes (CAZymes) or SM's to infect host plants [31], there is increased awareness of their utilisation of secreted protein effectors [32-37], highlighting the importance of protein effector identification in all fungal pathogens. Frequently shared features of effectors include; a signal peptide at the N-terminal and no transmembrane helices or glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) anchors. Other features less frequently shared include; small size, cysteine rich, amino acid polymorphism, repetitive regions, gene duplication, no conserved protein domains, coding sequence found nearby to transposable elements, and absence in non-pathogenic strains [38-45]. Furthermore, some appear to be unique to a species for example the necrosis-inducing protein effectors NIP1, NIP2 and NIP3 of Rhynchosporium commune [46] and three avirulence effectors AvrLm1, AvrLm6 and AvrLm4-7 of Leptosphaeria maculans [47]. Others have orthologous genes or similar domains in numerous species for example the chorismate mutase effector, Cmu1, of Ustilago maydis [48] and the cell death-inducing effector, MoCDIP4, of Magnaporthe oryzae [49]. Understandably, with such a large variety of potential features, effector identification remains challenging. Effectors are found in biotrophs, for example *U. maydis* [50-53], hemibiotrophs, such as L. maculans [54-56], M. oryzae [57, 58], R. commune [46] and Verticillium dahliae [59-61], necrotrophs, for example Botrytis cinerea [62, 63], Parastagonospora nodorum [34, 42, 64], Pyrenophora tritici-repentis [65], Sclerotinia sclerotiorum [32] and also the hemibiotroph/latent necrotroph Zymoseptoria tritici [66].

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

Genomic location has potential to be an identifying feature of virulence genes in some species, for example pathogenicity-related genes of L. maculans, including those coding for secreted proteins and genes potentially involved in SM biosynthesis, are found at higher rates in AT-rich genomic regions in comparison to GC-equilibrated blocks [47]. It is thought that effectors and their target host proteins co-evolve, in a constant arms race [67], presenting genomic regions with higher levels of plasticity as potential niches which harbour effector genes. Another group of virulence factors likely to play a role in E. fawcettii pathogenesis are cell wall degrading enzymes (CWDE), these are CAZymes, including glycoside hydrolases, polysaccharide lyases and carbohydrate esterases, which can be secreted from fungal pathogens and promote cleavage of plant cell wall components [68-70]. Cell wall components, such as cellulose, hemicelluloses (xyloglucan and arabinoxylan) and pectin (rhamnogalacturonan I, homogalacturonan, xylogalacturonan, arabinan and rhamnogalacturonan II) [71], are targets for pathogens to degrade for nutrients and/or to overcome the physical barrier to their host. CWDE's can include polygalacturonases, pectate lyases, and pectinesterases which promote pectin degradation [72-78], glucanases (also known as cellulase) which breaks links between glucose residues [79] and xylanases which cleave links in the xylosyl backbone of xyloglucan [80-82]. E. fawcettii effectors and/or CWDE's which interact with certain host plant cell wall components could explain the observed host specificity of pathotypes. Computational prediction of genes coding for such virulence factors can lead to many candidate effectors (CE) and potential CWDE's, leading to an overabundance of candidates which require

prioritisation. This study aimed to generate an assembly of the E. fawcettii isolate, BRIP 53147a, through whole genome shotgun (WGS) sequencing, to identify candidate virulence genes and appropriately shortlist these predictions to improve the focus of future experimental validation procedures. Computational methods involving genomic, proteomic and comparative analyses enabled the prediction and prioritisation of CE's and CWDE's which may be interacting with the host plant and overcoming immune defences prior to the biosynthesis of elsinochrome. Additional genes potentially involved in the elsinochrome gene cluster were also predicted, as were additional SM clusters which may be impacting virulence of *E. fawcettii*.

Materials and Methods:

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

E. fawcettii (BRIP 53147a), collected from C. limon (L.) Burm.f. in Montville, Queensland, Australia, was obtained from DAF Biological Collections [11]. The isolate was cultured on potato dextrose agar (Difco) and incubated at 23 to 25 °C for two months. Whole genomic DNA was extracted using the DNeasy Plant Mini kit (QIAGEN) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Paired-end libraries were prepared according to Illumina NexteraTM DNA Flex Library Prep Reference Guide using a NexteraTM DNA Flex Library Prep Kit and NexteraTM DNA CD Indexes. WGS sequencing was performed on Illumina MiSeq platform (600-cycles) at the molecular laboratories of the Centre for Crop Health, USQ. Assembly was performed on the Galaxy-Melbourne/GVL 4.0.0 webserver [83]. Raw reads were quality checked using FastQC (v0.11.5) [84] and trimmed using Trimmomatic (v0.36)

[85] with the following parameters: TruSeq3 adapter sequences were removed using default

Sequencing, assembly, gene prediction, annotation and genomic analyses:

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

settings, reads were cropped to remove 20 bases from the leading end and 65 bases from the trailing end of each read, minimum quality of leading and trailing bases was set to 30, a sliding window of four bases was used to retain those with an average quality of 30 and the minimum length read retained was 31 bases. De novo assembly was performed in two steps, first using Velvet (v1.2.10) [86] and VelvetOptimiser (v2.2.5) [87] with input k-mer size range of 81-101 (step size of 2). Secondly, SPAdes (v3.11.1) [88] was run on trimmed reads with the following parameters: read error correction, careful correction, automatic k-mer values, automatic coverage cutoff and Velvet contigs (>500 bp in length), from the previous step, included as trusted contigs. Contigs >500 bp in length were retained. Reads were mapped back to the assembly using Bowtie2 (v2.2.4) [89] and Picard toolkit (v2.7.1) [90] and visualised using IGV (v2.3.92) [91]. The genome assembly was checked for completeness with BUSCO (v2.0) [92] using the Ascomycota orthoDB (v9) dataset [93]. The extent and location of AT-rich regions was determined using OcculterCut (v1.1) [94] with default parameters and mitochondrial contigs. The prediction of genes and transposable elements (TE) was performed on the GenSAS (v6.0) web platform [95], using GeneMarkES (v4.33) [96] for gene prediction and RepeatMasker (v4.0.7) [97], using the NCBI search engine and slow speed sensitivity, for the prediction of TE's. Predicted gene models containing short exons, missing a start or stop codon or which overlapped a TE region were removed from the predicted proteome. The genome was searched for Short Simple Repeats (SSR) using the Microsatellite Identification tool (MISA) [98], with the SSR motif minimum length parameters being 10 for mono, 6 for di, and 5 for tri, tetra, penta and hexa motifs.

Annotation was performed using BLASTP (v2.7.1+) [99] to query the E. fawcettii predicted proteome against the Swiss-Prot Ascomycota database (release 2018 08) [100] with an evalue of 1e-06 and word size of 3. BLAST results were loaded into Blast2GO Basic (v5.2.1) [101], with InterProScan, mapping and annotation steps being performed with default parameters, except HSP-hit coverage cutoff was set to 50% to increase stringency during annotation. Further annotation was achieved using HmmScan in HMMER (v3.2.1) [102] to query the predicted proteome against the Protein Family Database (Pfam) (release 32) [103]. GC% content of the coding DNA sequence (CDS) of each gene was determined using nucBed from Bedtools (v2.27.1) [104]. Predicted proteins were searched for polyamino acid (polyAA) repeats of at least five consecutive amino acid residues using the FIMO motif search tool [105] within the Meme suite (v5.0.2) [106]. The Whole Genome Shotgun project was deposited at DDBJ/ENA/GenBank under the accession SDJM00000000. The version described in this paper is version SDJM01000000. Raw reads were deposited under the SRA accession PRJNA496356.

Phylogenetic Analysis:

211

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

ITS and partial TEF1α sequences of 12 E. fawcettii pathotypes, 11 closely related Elsinoë species and Myriangium hispanicum were obtained from GenBank (accessions provided in S1) for phylogenetic analysis with E. fawcettii (BRIP 53147a). Sequences for each locus were aligned using MUSCLE [107] with a gap open penalty of -400, concatenated and used to perform maximum likelihood analysis in MEGA7 [108] based on the General Time Reversible model [109] with partial deletion of 90% and 1000 bootstrap replicates. The initial tree for the maximum likelihood analysis was automatically selected using Neighbor-Join and BioNJ on the matrix of pairwise distances estimated using the Maximum Composite Likelihood

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

method. A discrete Gamma distribution utilising 4 categories (+G, parameter = 0.4095) was used and the rate variation model allowed some sites to be invariable (+1, 26.6862% sites). The character matrix and tree were combined and converted to nexus format using Mesquite (v3.6) [110] prior to TreeBASE submission (TreeBASE reviewer access: http://purl.org/phylo/treebase/phylows/study/TB2:S25460?x-accesscode=f3c2b3e55c147986b2a24b44407d9e48&format=html). E. fawcettii (BRIP 53147a) ITS and partial TEF1α sequences (accessions MN784182 and MN787508) were submitted to GenBank. Sequence Information: Genome assemblies and predicted proteomes included in the comparative analysis were obtained from GenBank. These included U. maydis (accession GCF 000328475.2, no. of scaffolds = 27) [111], L. maculans (accession GCF 000230375.1, no. of scaffolds = 76) [112], M. oryzae (accession GCF 000002495.2, no. of scaffolds = 53) [113], R. commune (accession GCA 900074885.1, no. of scaffolds = 164) [114], V. dahliae (accession GCF 000150675.1, no. of scaffolds = 55) [115], B. cinerea (accession GCF 000143535.2, no. of scaffolds = 18) [116], Parastagonospora nodorum (accession GCF 000146915.1, no. of scaffolds = 108) [117], Pyrenophora tritici-repentis (accession GCA 003231415.1, no. of scaffolds = 3964) [118], S. sclerotiorum (accession GCF 000146945.2, no. of scaffolds = 37) [119] and Z. tritici (accession GCA 900184115.1, no. of scaffolds = 20) [120]. Sequences of experimentally verified effector proteins were obtained from EffectorP 2.0 [121]. TE's were identified in each assembly, as described above for E. fawcettii, and predicted genes which overlapped them were similarly removed from predicted proteomes.

Prediction of secretome and effectors:

Secretome and effector prediction was performed on the predicted proteomes of *E. fawcettii* and 10 fungal species known to contain effector proteins. Secretome prediction for each species began with a set of proteins predicted as secreted by either SignalP (v4.1) [122], Phobius [123] or ProtComp-AN (v6) [124]. This set was run through both the TMHMM Server (v2.0) [125] and PredGPI [126] to predict proteins with transmembrane helices and GPI-anchors, respectively. Those proteins with >1 helix or with 1 helix beyond the first 60 amino acids were removed, as were those with "highly probable" or "probable" GPI anchors. Remaining proteins formed the predicted secretome and were subjected to candidate effector prediction using EffectorP (v2.0) [121].

Genomic, proteomic and known effector analyses:

Sequences of 42 experimentally verified effector proteins, which showed >98% similarity to proteins from the 10 species included in this study, and which appeared in both the predicted secretome and candidate effector list for the respective species, were utilised in the known effector analysis. The following analyses were performed on the proteome/genome of each species. Results relating to the 42 known effectors were compared to results of all proteins from each species. Length of the intergenic flanking region (IFR) was determined as the number of bases between the CDS of two adjacent genes. Median IFR values were determined in R (v3.5.1) [127]. Genes were labelled as genedense if the IFR on each side was less than the median IFR length for that particular species, genes on a contig edge were not included among gene-dense labelled genes. Genes with IFR greater than the median on both sides were labelled as gene-sparse. SM clusters were predicted by passing genome assemblies and annotation files through antiSMASH fungal

(v4.2.0) [128] using the Known Cluster Blast setting. Core, accessory and unique genes for each species were determined by mapping proteins into ortholog groups using the orthoMCL algorithm [129] followed by ProteinOrtho (v5.16b) [130] on remaining unclassified genes. Core genes were those shared by all comparative species, accessory genes were shared by at least two species, but not all, and unique genes were found in only one species. GC% content of the CDS of each gene was determined as described above, Q₁ and Q₃ values were determined for each species using R [127]. HmmScan [102] of all protein sequences against the Pfam database [103] was performed as described above. Genomic AT-rich region identification was performed using OcculterCut (v1.1) [94] as described above. For genomes with identified AT-rich regions, the distance between genes and their closest AT-rich region edge was determined using Bedtools closestBed [104], as was the distance between genes and the closest TE.

Prioritisation of candidate effectors:

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

CE's of each species were prioritised using an optimised scoring system based on the analysis of known effectors in 10 fungal species. All were scored out of at least five points, corresponding to one point allocated for each of the following conditions: (I) not labelled as gene-dense; (II) no involvement in predicted SM clusters; (III) labelled as either unique to the species or allocated to the same orthoMCL group as a known effector; (IV) GC% of CDS was either below the Q₁ value or above the Q₃ value of the respective species; and (V) within 10 genes upstream or downstream was at least one gene coding for a protein with a top Pfam ID hit from the following list: p450, Mito carr, FAD binding 3, FAD binding 4, Ras, DUF3328, BTB, Peptidase M28, AA permease or AA permease 2. For species with genomes which had >2% TE coverage or >25% AT-rich region coverage, CE's were scored out of six

points. Those genomes which had both >2% TE and >25% AT-rich region coverage, CE's were scored out of seven points. Hence, all candidate effectors were scored out of n (five, six or seven) points, those CE's which obtained a score of n or n-1 points were labelled as prioritised CE's.

Prediction of other virulence genes:

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

327

SM clusters were predicted using antiSMASH fungal (v4.2.0) [128] as described above. CAZymes were predicted by passing the predicted proteomes through the dbCAN2 meta server [131] and selecting three tools including HMMER scan against the dbCAN HMM database [132], Diamond [133] search against the Carbohydrate-Active enZYmes (CAZy) database [134] and Hotpep query against the Peptide Pattern Recognition library [135]. Predicted CAZymes were taken as those with positive results for at least two out of the three tools. Potential pathogenesis-related proteins were identified by querying the predicted proteomes against the Pathogen Host Interactions Database (PHI-base) (v4.6, release Oct 2018) [136] using BlastP (v2.7.1) [99] analyses with an e-value of 1e-06 and a query coverage hsp of 70%, those results with >40% similarity were retained. Prioritised candidate CWDE's were shortlisted from the predicted CAZymes to those which were predicted as secreted and obtained hits to plant associated fungal pathogenicity-related genes in PHI-base which showed evidence of reduced virulence in knockout or mutant experiments.

Results and Discussion

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

Genome assembly and features:

The genome assembly of E. fawcettii (BRIP 53147a), deposited at DDBJ/ENA/GenBank (accession SDJM00000000), was sequenced using paired-end Illumina WGS sequencing technology. Assembly of reads produced a draft genome 26.01 Mb in size with a coverage of 193x (Table 1) and consisted of 286 contigs greater than 500 bp in length, with an N50 of 662,293 bp, a mean contig length of 90,948 bp and an overall GC content of 52.3%. Running the assembly against the Ascomycota orthoDB (v9) [93] showed 97.6% of complete single copy genes were found in the E. fawcettii assembly, indicating a high degree of coding DNA sequence completeness. The genome of *E. fawcettii* is comparable in size to other fungal genomes including Eurotium rubrum (26.21 Mb) [137], Xylona heveae (24.34 Mb) [138] and Acidomyces richmondensis (29.3 Mb) [139], however it is smaller than the average Ascomycota genome size of 36.91 Mb [140]. When analysed against the 10 fungal species included in this comparative analysis (B. cinerea, L. maculans, M. oryzae, Parastagonospora nodorum, Pyrenophora tritici-repentis, R. commune, V. dahliae, S. sclerotiorum, U. maydis and Z. tritici), the E. fawcettii assembly is the second smallest, after *U. maydis* at 19.6 Kb. TE identification, by analysis against Repbase (release 18.02) [141], showed a coverage of only 0.37%, indicating a low proportion of the E. fawcettii genome is represented by currently known TE's, this is a likely contributor to its comparatively small genome size. This low TE coverage may also be the result of a fragmented genome [142]. It is possible, should long read sequencing of this isolate be completed in the future, TE coverage may appear higher.

Table 1. Features of Elsinoë fawcettii (BRIP 53147a) genome assembly

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

364

General Features	
Assembly length (bp)	26,011,141
Coverage	193x
Number of contigs	286
Mean GC content (%)	52.3
N50 (bp)	694,004
Mean contig length (bp)	90,948
Minimum contig length (bp)	501
Maximum contig length (bp)	2,345,732
Coverage of interspersed repeats (bp)	95,654 (0.37%)
Coverage of short simple repeats (bp)	6868 (0.026%)
Number of predicted gene models	10,080
Number of contigs containing predicted genes	141
Mean gene length (bp)	1,573
Mean number of exons per gene	2.35
Number of genes containing a polyAA repeat	1,073
Mean GC content of CDS (%)	54.7

The E. fawcettii genome has less predicted gene models than the average Ascomycota genome of 11129.45 [140]. Gene prediction produced 10,080 gene models, 5,636 (55.91%) of which were annotated, while 4,444 (44.09%) were labelled as coding for hypothetical proteins. The average gene length was 1,573 bp with an average of 2.35 exons per gene, there were 3,280 single exon genes. The mean GC content of CDS was 54.7%, which was 2.4% higher than the overall GC content and showed a wide variation in range, with the lowest scoring gene at 44.29% GC and the highest being 71.53%, thus exposing a spectrum on which genes may be differentiated. Hmmscan [102] analysis of the predicted proteome against the Pfam database [103] revealed a high proportion (70.1% = 7,069) of genes with at least one hit to a Pfam model. The same analysis performed on the proteomes of the 10 fungal species included in the comparative analysis gave results ranging from 48.6% for

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

S. sclerotiorum, with the lowest proportion of Pfam hits, to 74.9% for U. maydis with the highest, and a mean of 62.1% over the 11 species (S2). Analysis of orthologous genes among E. fawcettii and the 10 comparative species indicated 3,077 (30.5%) of the predicted genes of *E. fawcettii* were core genes, finding hits through OrthoMCL or ProteinOrtho in all 11 species (S2). There were 4,874 (48.4%) E. fawcettii genes found in at least one other species but not all and were therefore considered accessory genes. Lastly, the remaining 2,129 (21.1%) were found in only the E. fawcettii proteome, 140 of these, however, obtained a hit to an orthoMCL group and were therefore set aside and not considered as unique proteins in subsequent analyses, leaving 1,989 (19.7%) genes presumed to be Elsinoë-specific and therefore potentially involved in either Elsinoë- or E. fawcettii-specific pathogenesis pathways. A comparative analysis among the core, accessory and unique genes of the 11 species (S2) (Figure 1) indicated that *U. maydis* was set apart from the other species by showing the lowest proportion of accessory genes, this was expected as *U. maydis* was the only biotroph and Basidiomycete among the group. E. fawcettii showed a below average percentage of unique genes which may be expected due its smaller than average sized genome and proteome. A lower number of unique genes may place a limitation on the ability of *E. fawcettii* to infect a larger range of host plants. Figure 1. Comparison of gene classifications among the proteomes of 11 fungal pathogens. Genes were categorised using orthoMCL group IDs, or proteinortho if no group was assigned. Genes were considered; (I) core if they were shared by all 11 species; (II) accessory

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

if they were shared by at least two species, but not all; (III) unique if they were found in only one of the 11 species.

While the overall GC content of *E. fawcettii* was 52.3%, when taking AT-rich regions into consideration, the average GC content of 98.97% of the genome was 52.8%, while the ATrich regions had an average GC content of 33.8%. AT-rich regions are sections of DNA that are scattered throughout the genome and have a significantly higher AT content compared to adjacent GC equilibrated blocks [94]. The presence of AT-rich regions in genomes varies widely, for example S. sclerotiorum does not show evidence of AT-rich regions [143], while 36% of the L. maculans genome is covered by AT-rich regions which have an average GC content of 33.9% [47]. AT-rich regions are thought to develop in, and nearby to, regions containing TE repeats, through Repeat-Induced Point mutation (RIP), a mechanism used to inhibit the destructive actions of TE's against an organism's genome. Through a fungal genome defence mechanism causing cytosine to thymine polymorphisms, a TE repeat sequence is inhibited from further movement and potential destruction of necessary genes. This same type of polymorphism can also occur in genes nearby to TE regions [144-147], potentially providing numerous genomic locations with increased plasticity scattered throughout the genome. While RIP occurs during the sexual phase it has also been observed in asexual fungi and is thought to indicate a species reproductive history or potential [148]. AT-rich regions are present within the E. fawcettii genome, however the extent of their coverage in the present assembly is low, 59 regions with an average GC content of 33.8% cover only 1.03% of the genome. Sixteen regions are found overlapping TE's, while four are found within 2 Kb of a TE region, meaning 33.9% of the AT-rich regions potentially represent RIP-affected regions. The remaining 66.1%, found either >2Kb away or on a contig that does

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

not contain a predicted TE region, are potentially RIP-affected regions where the TE is no longer recognisable. The AT-rich regions of *E. fawcettii* are not scattered evenly throughout the genome, instead 29/59 (49.2%) are situated at the edge of a contig and 15/59 (25.4%) cover the entire length of a contig, specifically contigs not containing genes. Two further ATrich regions were located between the edge of a contig and the beginning of the first gene and so were grouped with those located at the edge of a contig. The remaining 13 regions (22.0%) were situated within a contig with genes residing on both sides. Hence, the majority either made up the edge of a contig which contained genes or filled entire contigs which did not contain genes, meaning it is likely that the sequence of many E. fawcettii AT-rich regions contain sections of such low complexity that contig breaks result, a hypothesis which could be tested in the future using long read sequencing technology. Eight predicted genes at least partially overlap these regions and 57 are located within 2 Kb, a finding which has potential significance as AT-rich regions have been known to harbour effector genes in fungal pathogens [149, 150]. There was a large range of diversity of AT-rich region coverage among the fungal pathogens analysed in the current study; S. sclerotiorum, Pyrenophora tritici-repentis, M. oryzae and U. maydis showed no AT-rich regions; V. dahliae (1.5%), B. cinerea (4.9%), Parastagonospora nodorum (6.6%) and Z. tritici (17.3%) showed lower degrees of AT-rich coverage; while R. commune (29.5%) and L. maculans (37%) showed the greatest extent. These levels of AT-rich coverage did not appear to corelate with pathogen classification as necrotrophic, hemibiotrophic or biotrophic, nor as hostspecific or broad-host range pathogens. The genomic location of AT-rich regions was, however, further included in the known effectors and candidate effectors analyses.

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

Identification and analysis of SSR's in the E. fawcettii genome located 400 regions covering 6,868 bp (0.026%), 164 (41%) of which were contained within a predicted gene. Furthermore, polyAA repeats, of at least five identical and adjacent residues, were identified within 1,073 predicted protein sequences. The presence of repetitive sequences has been noted in fungal effectors [33, 45, 151] and implicated in the function and evolution of pathogenicity-related genes of other plant-associated microorganisms [152]. Analysis of the 1,105 proteins which obtained either an SSR or polyAA hit indicated 237 (21.45%) were categorised as E. fawcettii-specific and did not obtain a Pfam hit, highlighting potentially novel genus- or species-specific genes involved in host pathogenesis. Phylogenetic analysis of partial ITS and TEF1-α regions of *E. fawcettii* (BRIP 53147a) in comparison with other E. fawcettii isolates and closely related Elsinoë species (Figure 2) indicates E. fawcettii (BRIP 53147a) closely aligns with the E. fawcettii clade. Substitutions appearing in the Jingeul pathotype isolates are not seen in isolate BRIP 53147a. One G to A substitution in the TEF1-α region sets isolate BRIP 53147a apart from the other *E. fawcettii* isolates (S3), a base which is at the 3rd position of a Glu codon and hence does not result in a translational difference. This substitution in the BRIP 52147a isolate appeared with a high degree of confidence, 100% of sequence reads aligned back to the assembly and a coverage of 241x, at this point, agreed with the substitution. While it is thought that isolate BRIP 53147a belongs to either the Lemon or Tyron's pathotype, it is yet to be determined which or if it constitutes a new pathotype of its own. Aside from the one base substitution in the TEF1-α region, there would be some expected differences throughout the genomes of the E. fawcettii BRIP 53147a isolate and the other E. fawcettii isolates due to differences in collection details, such as geographical location, year and host specificity. Specifically,

460

461

462

463

464

465

466

467

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

477

478

479

480

481

isolate BRIP 53147a was collected in Montville, Queensland in 2009, while the other Australian isolates, DAR 70187 and DAR 70024, belonging to the Lemon and Tyron's pathotypes, were collected 15 years earlier in Somersby and Narara in NSW, respectively [7], both a distance of almost 1000 km away. Several isolates from Figure 2 have been tested for host pathogenicity leading to the designation of specific pathotypes [3], as opposed to relying on only sequence data and thus illustrating the importance of experimental validation prior to pathotype or species classification. For example, Jin-1 and Jin-6 are classified as the Jingeul pathotype, SM3-1 as FBHR, S38162 as FNHR, CC-132 as SRGC, DAR 70187 and CC-3 as the Lemon pathotype, and DAR 70024 as Tyron's pathotype [3]. Host specificity experimentation for the E. fawcettii BRIP 53147a isolate is a suggested future step, as is the whole genome sequencing and analysis of further E. fawcettii isolates for comparison. The comprehensive host pathogenicity testing of 61 E. fawcettii isolates and their subsequent classification into six pathotypes [3] coupled with genomic sequencing data analysis would provide a wealth of knowledge of potential host-specific pathogenicityrelated genes and mutations. Figure 2. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of E. fawcettii isolates and closely related species. The phylogenetic tree was inferred from a concatenated dataset including ITS and partial TEF1-α regions. *Myriangium hispanicum* was used as the outgroup. The branch length indicates the number of nucleotide substitutions per site, bootstrap values are shown

at nodes, host in parentheses, new isolate described in the current study denoted with

asterisk (*) and type strains are in bold.

Prediction of secretome and effectors:

482

483

484

485

486

487

488

489

490

491

492

493

494

495

496

497

498

499

500

501

502

503

504

505

A total of 1,280 genes (12.7% of the proteome) were predicted to code for secreted proteins (SP) in the E. fawcettii genome (Table 2). Using the discovery pipeline outlined in Figure 3, classically secreted proteins with a detectable signal peptide were predicted by either SignalP and/or Phobius providing 1,449 proteins, while ProtComp identified a further 120 as potential non-classically secreted proteins. Of these 1,569 proteins 186 were removed as they were predicted to contain transmembrane helices, an indication that while targeted for secretion the protein likely functions while situated in the cell membrane. A further 103 were removed as they contained a predictable GPI anchor, also suggesting they associate with the cell membrane to perform their function, leaving a total of 1,280 proteins identified as likely SP's. To enable comparison of the species' predicted secretomes and CE's, the same prediction pipeline (Figure 3) was used on the proteomes of 10 further fungal species included in the analysis (Table 2), essentially utilising genomes which contain known protein effectors for comparison. The proportion of predicted SP's in the E. fawcettii proteome was similar to that of other necrotrophic fungal pathogens, which ranged from B. cinerea at 11.3% to Parastagonospora nodorum at 13.9%. It was, however, lower in comparison to the hemibiotrophs; R. commune showed a low of 12.5% SP's while M. oryzae was the highest scoring at 18.5%, demonstrating a small increase in proportion of SP's for the hemibiotrophs compared to the necrotrophs. This potentially provides them with a larger array of secreted proteins compared to biotrophs and necrotrophs, to first support a biotrophic, and secondly a necrotrophic, host interaction.

Table 2. Predicted secreted proteins, candidate effectors and known effectors

506

507

Species	Total proteins*	SP (% of total)	CE (% of SP)	Known effectors correctly predicted as SP's and CE's	Known effectors not predicted as SP's and CE's
Necrotrophs:					
Elsinoë fawcettii	10,080	1,280 (12.7%)	203 (15.9%)	-	
Botrytis cinerea	11,481	1,294 (11.3%)	214 (16.5%)	NEP1	
Parastagonospora nodorum	15,878	2,206 (13.9%)	614 (27.8%)	Tox1, ToxA	
Pyrenophora tritici-repentis	10,771	1,298 (12.1%)	284 (21.9%)	ТохВ	
Sclerotinia sclerotiorum	13,770	1,707 (12.4%)	490 (28.7%)	SsSSVP1	
Zymoseptoria tritici	11,936	1,514 (12.7%)	480 (31.7%)	Zt6, AvrStb6	
Hemibiotrophs:					
Leptosphaeria maculans	12,337	1,883 (15.3%)	495 (26.3%)	AvrLM6, AvrLM11, AvrLM4-7	
Magnaporthe oryzae	12,236	2,263 (18.5%)	742 (32.8%)	SPD10, Msp1, BAS1, SPD4, SPD2, MoCDIP3, MoCDIP4, AVR- Pik, MoCDIP1, Bas107, BAS2, BAS3, BAS4, Avr- Pita1, Bas162, MoHEG13, SPD7, MC69, AvrPi9, AvrPiz-t, SPD9, MoCDIP5	MoCDIP2
Rhynchosporium commune	12,100	1,510 (12.5%)	387 (25.6%)	NIP1, NIP2, NIP3	
Verticillium dahliae	10,441	1,407 (13.5%)	270 (19.2%)	PevD1, VdSCP7	Vdlsc1
Biotroph:					
Ustilago maydis	6,692	856 (12.8%)	178 (20.8%)	Pit2, Pep1, See1, Cmu1, Tin2	Eff1-1

^{*}Not including gene models which overlap a predicted TE region

509

510

511

512

513

514

515

516

517

518

519

520

521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

Figure 3. Pipeline for the discovery of the predicted secretome and candidate effectors. The secretome search started with the predicted proteins of a species, proteins were predicted as secreted using at least one of three tools, proteins with predicted transmembrane helices or GPI-anchors were removed. Candidate effectors were predicted using EffectorP. The number of proteins shown for the predicted proteome, secretome and effectome refers to the Elsinoë fawcettii BRIP 53147a genome. Known effectors were frequently identified by the CE pipeline (Figure 3), with 43/45 (95.6%) correctly predicted as being secreted and 42/45 (93.3%) also predicted as effectors (Table 2), highlighting the effectiveness of the pipeline among these fungal species. Those known effectors which were tested but not identified as SP's included Vdlsc1 (V. dahliae) and MoCDIP2 (M. oryzae). Vdlsc1 lacks an N-terminal signal peptide and is unconventionally secreted [153], however it was not identified as a non-classically secreted protein. MoCDIP2 was removed as it obtained a GPI-anchor hit. Additionally, Eff1-1 (U. maydis) was predicted as secreted but not as a candidate effector, Eff1-1, along with MoCDIP2, are both known false negatives of EffectorP 2.0 [121]. The total number of CE's identified for E. fawcettii was 203, meaning only 15.9% of SP's gained CE classification, this was the lowest proportion out of all 11 species analysed (Table 2). This may be explained by the potential favouring of EffectorP towards SP's of species on which it was trained. To further investigate this potential, results of EffectorP for the 11

species were compared to the results of an alternate candidate effector search; SP's with a protein length less than the species' median and with no Pfam hit other than to that of a known effector (S4). While this second method resulted in the identification of a higher number of CE's for each species, E. fawcettii still obtained the lowest proportion of CE's out of predicted SP's, indicating E. fawcettii may have a lighter dependence, compared to other fungal pathogens, on protein effectors. It also highlighted the advantage of using EffectorP to narrow down an extensive catalogue of SP's, as opposed to identifying CE's based on arbitrary features. However, the CE's predicted by EffectorP still range in the hundreds (Table 2), it was therefore beneficial to further shortlist candidates for prioritisation. To achieve this, known effectors which were correctly predicted as both SP's and as CE's (Table 2) were retained for further analysis to generate an optimised prioritisation scoring system.

Known effector analysis:

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

555

A total of 42 known effectors from 10 fungal species were analysed for; (I) gene density; (II) GC content; (III) involvement in SM clusters; (IV) uniqueness; (V) Pfam hits of surrounding genes; (VI) distance to the closest TE; and (VII) distance to the closest AT-rich regions (Table 3). Results were compared to those of all predicted genes from each of the same 10 species (S5). Features observed at a higher rate among the known effector group compared with each species' proteome were used to generate a prioritisation pathway using a point allocation system. (I) Genes were labelled as gene-dense if the IFR's on both sides were less than the IFR median value for that specific species, allowing an analysis relative to each organism. The proportions of gene-dense genes ranged from 21.6% (Pyrenophora triticirepentis) to 28.0% (B. cinerea) (S5), in contrast to 3/42 (7.1%) known effectors (Table 3). This provided grounds to allocate one point to each known effector which was not labelled

557

558

559

560

561

562

563

564

565

566

567

568

569

570

571

572

573

574

575

576

577

578

579

as gene-dense. (II) GC content of the CDS of each gene was determined and median values calculated for each species, revealing the GC percentage of 32/42 (76.2%) known effectors fell either below the Q₁ value or above the Q₃ value for the respective species. When compared to an expected 50% in the upper and lower quartiles, this provided reason for the allocation of one point to known effectors should they fall in these two quartiles. (III) No overlap was observed between known effectors and the predicted SM clusters within each species, giving strong reason for the allocation of one point to known effector's that were not included in SM clusters. (IV) Analysis of gene classification (core, accessory or unique) for each known effector highlighted that 41/42 (97.6%) were either unique to the species (31/42) or were assigned an orthoMCL group ID of a known effector (10/42). In contrast, the proportion of unique genes for each species was much lower, ranging from 11.9% (B. cinerea) to 33.7% (S. sclerotiorum), with an average of 25.4%. The proportion of genes allocated an orthoMCL of a known effector was similarly low at less than 0.3% for all species. Thus, a point was allocated to known effectors that were either unique to the species or obtained the same orthoMCL ID of a known effector. (V) Pfam hits of genes surrounding known effectors were also compared to the rates of Pfam hits from all 10 proteomes together. Analysis of the 10 genes upstream and downstream of a known effector revealed 10 Pfam hits which appeared at a rate at least double to that seen among the concatenated proteomes. For example, Pfam hits to cytochrome P450 accounted for 2.82% of all hits among the 10 genes up and downstream of a known effector, compared to only 1.26% of Pfam hits from the predicted proteins of all 10 species. Aside from cytochrome P450, further Pfam hits overrepresented among the genes surrounding known effectors included mitochondrial carrier protein, FAD binding domains 3 and 4, Ras family, domain of unknown function (DUF3328), BTB/POZ domain, peptidase family M28, and

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

595

596

597

598

599

600

601

602

amino acid permease 1 and 2. At least one of these Pfam hits was found within 10 genes of 66.7% of the known effectors, which was higher when compared to all genes of each of the 10 species. Proportions ranged from only 28.7% (Pyrenophora tritici-repentis) up to 43.9% (B. cinerea), with an average of 34.1%, over the 10 species, of genes being within 10 genes of an overrepresented Pfam hit. A point was therefore allocated to known effectors which lay within 10 genes of a gene with one of the above mentioned Pfam hits. (VI) Those genomes with >2% TE coverage also showed a high proportion of known effectors in the close vicinity of TE's. Specifically, 29/32 (90.6%) known effectors from Z. tritici, S. sclerotiorum, B. cinerea, R. commune, L. maculans and M. oryzae were within seven genes of a TE region, compared to an average of 47.8% of genes within seven genes of a TE for the same six species. This led to the allocation of one point for known effectors within seven genes of a TE for species with >2% TE coverage. (VII) Lastly, of the genomes analysed, only those consisting of >25% AT-rich regions, being R. commune and L. maculans, were found to have a noticeable association between the location of known effectors and AT-rich regions. The distance of all known effectors to the closest AT-rich region, of these two species, were found to be less than the Q₁ value for each species. Hence, known effectors with these specifications, in species with >25% AT-rich region coverage, were allocated one point. It can be seen that depending on the degree of TE and AT-rich region coverage, each species known effectors may be scored out of five, six or seven points, henceforth referred to as "n points". Over the 10 species with known effectors which were analysed, Table 3 illustrates a total of 36/42 (85.7%) known effectors obtained n or n-1 points, revealing a process which could be used to prioritise the many CE's predicted for the E. fawcettii genome.

Table 3. Features of known fungal effectors used to guide candidate effector prioritisation

	Gene	CDS	Within	Ortholog	Within 10	# of genes	Distance to	Total	Points
Effector	density	GC%	SM gene	class	genes of a	from a TE	AT-rich	possible points (n	scored
Ellectol	class		cluster		specified		region		
					Pfam hit ^A			points)	
Necrotrophic:									
Botrytis cinerea:									
NEP1	Sparse	>Q ₃	No	Accessory ^B	Yes	3	N/A	6	6
Parastagonospo	ra nodorum:								
Tox1		<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	Yes	N/A	N/A	5	5
ToxA	Sparse	<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	No ^c	N/A	N/A	5	4
Pyrenophora trit	ici-repentis:					•			
ToxB		<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	Yes	N/A	N/A	5	5
Sclerotinia sclero	tiorum:								
SsSSVP1	Sparse	Q ₂ ^C	No	Unique	No ^c	2	N/A	6	4 ^D
Zymoseptoria tri	tici:							•	•
Zt6		>Q ₃	No	Core ^B	No ^c	7	N/A	6	5
AvrStb6	Sparse	>Q ₃	No	Unique	No ^c	1	N/A	6	5
Hemibiotrophic:	•							•	
Leptosphaeria m	aculans:								
AvrLM6	Sparse	<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	Yes	1	0	7	7
AvrLM11	Sparse	<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	No ^c	1	0	7	6
AvrLM4-7	Sparse	<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	Yes	1	0	7	7
Magnaporthe or	yzae:		•		'	•	•	•	•
SPD10	Dense ^c	Q ₂ ^C	No	Unique	Yes	4	N/A	6	4 ^D
Msp1		>Q ₃	No	Accessory ^B	Yes	15 ^c	N/A	6	5
BAS1	Sparse	<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	Yes	1	N/A	6	6

SPD4	Sparse	<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	No ^c	1	N/A	6	5
SPD2	Dense ^c	>Q₃	No	Unique	No ^C	6	N/A	6	4 ^D
MoCDIP3	Sparse	>Q ₃	No	Unique	No ^c	1	N/A	6	5
MoCDIP4	Sparse	>Q ₃	No	Accessory ^B	Yes	1	N/A	6	6
AVR-Pik	Sparse	<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	Yes	1	N/A	6	6
MoCDIP1	Sparse	>Q₃	No	Accessory ^B	Yes	29 ^c	N/A	6	5
Bas107		<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	Yes	4	N/A	6	6
BAS2		Q ₂ ^C	No	Accessory ^c	Yes	3	N/A	6	4 ^D
BAS4	Sparse	Q ₂ ^C	No	Unique	Yes	2	N/A	6	5
BAS3		Q ₂ ^C	No	Unique	Yes	6	N/A	6	5
Avr-Pita1	Sparse	<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Accessory ^B	Yes	1	N/A	6	6
Bas162		<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	Yes	4	N/A	6	6
MoHEG13	Sparse	<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	Yes	3	N/A	6	6
SPD7		<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	Yes	3	N/A	6	6
MC69	Sparse	>Q₃	No	Accessory ^B	No ^c	6	N/A	6	5
AvrPi9		>Q ₃	No	Accessory ^B	No ^c	3	N/A	6	5
AvrPiz-t		Q ₂ ^C	No	Unique	Yes	1	N/A	6	5
SPD9	Sparse	Q ₂ ^C	No	Unique	Yes	2	N/A	6	5
MoCDIP5		>Q₃	No	Accessory ^B	Yes	2	N/A	6	6
Rhynchosporium c	ommune:					•			
NIP3		Q ₂ ^C	No	Unique	Yes	11 ^c	1368	7	5 ^D
NIP1	Sparse	>Q ₃	No	Unique	Yes	1	1814	7	7
NIP2	Sparse	>Q₃	No	Unique	No ^C	1	6572	7	6
Verticillium dahlia	e:					•		•	
PevD1		>Q ₃	No	Accessory ^B	No ^C	N/A	N/A	5	4
VdSCP7		Q_2^c	No	Unique	Yes	N/A	N/A	5	4
Biotrophic:									
Ustilago maydis:									

Pit2		<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	Yes	N/A	N/A	5	5
Pep1	Sparse	Q ₂ ^C	No	Unique	Yes	N/A	N/A	5	4
See1	Dense ^c	<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	No ^c	N/A	N/A	5	3 D
Cmu1		>Q ₃	No	Unique	Yes	N/A	N/A	5	5
Tin2		<q<sub>1</q<sub>	No	Unique	No	N/A	N/A	5	4

A Specified Pfam hits: p450, Mito carr, FAD binding 3, FAD binding 4, Ras, DUF3328, BTB, Peptidase M28, AA permease or AA permease 2.

605 B Allocated the same orthoMCL group ID as a known effector

606 ^C Possible point not allocated

607 D Less than *n*-1 points scored

Prioritisation of candidate effectors:

608

609

610

611

612

613

614

615

616

617

618

619

620

621

622

623

624

625

626

627

628

629

630

631

While EffectorP correctly determined most known effectors, it also identified a large number of additional CE's. While it is likely some of these candidates are unknown effectors being utilised by the pathogen to infect its host, it would be worthwhile to shortlist this group, to a list of the more likely candidates, prior to expensive and time-consuming experimental validation procedures. A points-based process was developed, based on the analysis of known effectors, to prioritise CE's based on several features including: their distance to neighbouring genes, lack of involvement in predictable SM clusters, GC% of CDS, proximity to genes obtaining certain Pfam hits and potential uniqueness (Figure 4). For species with genome assemblies containing >2% TE coverage the number of genes a CE was from a TE was taken into consideration. Similarly, the distance between genes and AT-rich regions was acknowledged if AT-rich regions covered >25% of the species' assembly. For each CE gene, one point was available for each of the above features, hence, as described for the known effector analysis, CE's of each species were allocated a possible five, six or seven points (n points). E. fawcettii, Parastagonospora nodorum, Pyrenophora triticirepentis, V. dahlia and U. maydis each had <2% TE coverage and <25% coverage of AT-rich regions, their CE's were therefore scored out of five points. Z. tritici, S. sclerotiorum, B. cinerea and M. oryzae had >2% TE coverage but <25% coverage of AT-rich regions and so were scored out of six points. Only the assemblies of R. commune and L. maculans showed >2% TE's and >25% AT-rich regions, and as such their CE's were scored out of seven points. By using *n* or *n*-1 points as an acceptable score for CE prioritisation, revealed that CE's of the 11 species could be reduced, by 51.1% - 83.6% (average 66.2%) (S6), with species that were scored out of more points achieving higher reductions.

633

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653

654

655

Figure 4. Candidate effector prioritisation features and points. The candidate effectors (CE's) of all genomes analysed were scored using features shown in the blue box. Additional features were considered for CE's from genomes with >2% TE coverage (red box) and >25% AT-rich region coverage (green box). Applying the method outlined in Figure 4 to the CE's of E. fawcettii led to the prioritisation of 77 CE's, a reduction of 62%, for future experimental validation. This is a comparable reduction to that of the other necrotrophic pathogens (Figure 5, S6), for which six out of seven known effectors were retained within the shortlisted CE's. Features of the 77 CE's of E. fawcettii (S7) indicated many were small in size, had a high GC content, had a high proportion of cysteine residues and were more likely to be classified as gene-sparse. The median protein length was 181 aa, compared to 409 aa for all *E. fawcettii* predicted genes. The mean GC content was 55.82% and the mean cysteine content was 3.4%, compared to 54.69% and 1.2%, respectively for all predicted genes of *E. fawcettii*. The high proportion (44.2%) of gene-sparse genes among prioritised CE's was expected, as CE's which were not classified as gene-dense were favoured during the prioritisation process, however high proportions of gene-sparse genes were also observed among the SP's and CE's (Table 4). Specifically, 26.8% of all *E. fawcettii* predicted genes were classed as gene-sparse, 26.3% as gene-dense and the remaining 46.9% classed as neither. In comparison, 31.9% of SP's and 35.7% of CE's were classed as gene-sparse and only 15.9% and 16.25%, respectively, were classed as gene-dense, indicating a preference for gene-sparse locations by proteins likely secreted by the pathogen. PolyAA repeat-containing proteins were not overrepresented

among the prioritised CE's, two were found to contain five consecutive Ala residues and one

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

667

668

669

670

671

672

673

674

675

676

677

678

679

other contained five consecutive Arg residues. Additionally, no CE's were found to contain SSR's suggesting that diversity of *E. fawcettii* effector sequences is not being generated through an increased mutational rate related to short repetitive sequences. Furthermore, the prioritised CE's were found scattered throughout the genome over 34 of the 141 genecontaining contigs and did not appear to cluster together. While AT-rich regions were not taken into consideration during the prioritisation of E. fawcettii CE's, due to a low AT-rich coverage of 1.03%, it should be noted that higher proportions of SP's and CE's were found among genes on the edge of a contig and those within 2 Kb of an AT-rich region than expected. Out of the 252 genes found at the edge of a contig, 36 (14.2%) were SP's and 11 (4.3%) were CE's, compared to 12.7% and 2.0%, respectively, out of all *E. fawcettii* proteins. Similarly, of the 57 genes found within 2 Kb of an AT-rich region, 12 (21.1%) were SP's and four (7.0%) were CE's (S7). This suggests that genomic regions near contig breaks, such as sequences of low complexity or regions under-represented by short read sequencing technology, and AT-rich regions may be indicators within the E. fawcettii genome of nearby SP's and effector genes. Interestingly, SP's and CE's were not overrepresented among genes found within 2 Kb of a predicted TE region, of the 120 genes found in these regions 12 (10%) were SP's and 2 (1.7%) were CE's, both slightly less than their proportions across the whole genome. This suggested while potential effector genes are more likely to be found near ATrich regions, a nearby predictable TE region was not necessary. Thus, E. fawcettii, a necrotrophic pathogen not considered at first thought to utilise protein effectors to increase virulence, shows a subtle, yet intriguing, pattern of SP's and CE's near AT-rich regions, at contig edges and in more gene-sparse locations. This potentially points towards a set of virulence-related genes being maintained in specific genomic locations and therefore suggesting their potential significance.

681

682

683

684

685

686

687

688

689

690

691

692

693

694

695

696

697

698

699

Figure 5 Comparison of numbers of secreted proteins, candidate effectors and prioritised candidate effectors among 11 fungal pathogens. Secreted proteins and candidate effectors were predicted using the pipeline in Figure 3. Prioritised candidate effectors were determined using features shown in Figure 4.

Table 4. Gene density classification of *Elsinoë fawcettii* predicted proteins

Classification	All predicted proteins	Secreted proteins	Candidate effectors	Prioritised candidate effectors
Gene-sparse	26.8%	31.9%	35.7%	44.2%
Gene-dense	26.3%	15.9%	16.3%	1.3%
Neither	46.9%	52.1%	48.3%	54.5%

While analysing proteins using the features mentioned above can shortlist CE's, awareness of limitations should be considered. For example, only prioritising CE's which are unique to a species, or obtain the same orthoMCL hit as a known effector, limits the identification of novel effectors which may be utilised by multiple species. Hence, a blast search of E. fawcettii CE's against CE's of the 10 other fungal pathogens was conducted and indicated 12 (5.9%) E. fawcettii CE's had >70% similarity to at least one candidate effector of another species (S7). Four of these 12 proteins were prioritised CE's, one of which had 72.9% similarity to MoCDIP1 (M. oryzae), a known effector which is expressed in planta and induces host cell death [49], thus highlighting this CE for further investigation.

Prediction and prioritisation of cell wall degrading enzymes:

700

701

702

703

704

705

706

707

708

709

710

711

712

713

714

715

716

717

718

719

720

721

722

723

Further potential pathogenicity-related genes of *E. fawcettii* which deserve attention include CWDE's. The E. fawcettii proteome showed 378 (3.75%) predicted CAZymes (S8), comparable to the proportion of CAZymes seen in the other 10 pathogen genomes, which ranged from 2.8% (S. sclerotiorum) to 4.3% (V. dahliae) (S2). Of the total E. fawcettii CAZymes, 203 (53.7%) were also predicted as secreted, highlighting numerous potential CWDE's secreted by the pathogen and targeted for interaction with host carbohydrates. It would be beneficial to compare these potential CWDE's with transcriptomic data once available, however, currently they can be cross-referenced against the Pfam database. Analysis of the 203 potential CWDE's revealed frequently appearing Pfam hits to pectate lyase and pectinesterase (19 hits), the glycosyl hydrolases family 28 of pectin-degrading polygalacturonases (11 hits) and the glycosyl hydrolases family 43 of hemicellulosedegrading beta-xylosidases (10 hits). Hemicellulose- and pectin-degrading enzymes target plant cell wall components including xyloglucans and pectin's, respectively [68], both found in high proportions in the primary cell wall, potentially revealing an arsenal of CWDE's of E. fawcettii which are targeted towards young plant tissues. Polygalacturonases break bonds between polygalacturonic acid residues, thereby degrading pectin, while beta-xylosidases hydrolyse xylan, a hemicellulose component of the cell wall. It is possible that the CWDE's of E. fawcettii have the ability to degrade components of a growing cell wall, however as the host cell wall matures, the E. fawcettii CWDE repertoire becomes less effective, perhaps explaining why only young plant tissues are susceptible to citrus scab. The 203 potential CWDE's were also cross-referenced against PHI-base, resulting in the prioritisation of 21 proteins which had similarity to known virulence factors of plant pathogens (Table 5, S8),

725

726

727

728

729

730

731

732

733

734

735

736

737

738

739

740

741

742

743

744

745

746

thus highlighting candidate virulence genes of E. fawcettii for future experimental investigation. Among these 21 proteins were 14 predicted pectin-degrading enzymes, including two with similarity to polygalacturonase genes, specifically pg1 (53.7%) and pgx6 (66.4%) of Fusarium oxysporum which have been shown to reduce pathogen virulence when both are mutated simultaneously [74]; two showed similarity (61.6% and 41.8%) to the PecA polygalacturonase gene of Aspergillus flavus, a CWDE which primarily degrades pectin, and has been shown to improve pathogen invasion and increase spread during infection [73]; one with similarity to the pectin methylesterase Bcpme1 gene of B. cinerea [78]; four with similarity (45.7% - 63.5%) to PelA and PelD, two pectate lyase virulence factors of Nectria haematococca [75]; and a further five obtained a pectate lyase Pfam hit, of which four showed similarity (40.3% - 53.5%) to the Pnl1 pectin lyase gene of citrus pathogen Penicillium digitatum [76] and one with 58.4% similarity to PelB pectate lyase B gene of Colletotrichum gloeosporioides, seen to affect virulence on avocado [77]. A further five prioritised candidate CWDE's, classed as hemicellulose-degrading enzymes, showed similarity (46.7% - 61.6%) to the endo-1,4-beta-xylanases (glycosyl hydrolase families 10 and 11) of M. oryzae, the knockdown of which is seen to reduce pathogenicity [80]. The remaining two prioritised CWDE's, classed as cellulose-degrading enzymes, showed 51.9% and 52.9% similarity to the Glu1 glucanase gene, a known virulence factor of wheat pathogen Pyrenophora tritici-repentis [79]. The similarities seen between these predicted secreted CAZymes and known virulence factors provides a collection of likely CWDE's of E. fawcettii for future investigation. Unlike SP's or CE's, predicted CWDE's of E. fawcettii were not overrepresented among genes found at the contig edge or within 2 Kb of an ATrich region (S8). There was some crossover between CE's and CWDE's, with five E. fawcettii

proteins being labelled as both prioritised CE's and prioritised CWDE's, thus providing some

CE's with potential carbohydrate-interacting functions.

Table 5. Predicted function of prioritised candidate cell wall degrading enzymes of Elsinoë

fawcettii

747

748

749

750

751

752

753

754

Gene accession	PHI-base hit	Similarity (%)	Top Pfam hit
Predicted pectin-deg	rading enzymes:		
D9617_30g011650	PGX6 Fusarium oxysporum (PHI:4880)	66.39	Glycosyl hydrolases family 28 (GH28)
D9617_1g083410	PG1 F. oxysporum (PHI:4879)	53.69	GH28
D9617_17g047910	PECA Aspergillus flavus (PHI:88)	61.64	GH28
D9617_61g013180	PECA A. flavus (PHI:88)	41.80	GH28
D9617_36g063380	BCPME1 Botrytis cinerea (PHI:278)	47.97	Pectinesterase
D9617_23g005810	PelD Nectria haematococca (PHI:180)	47.27	Pectate lyase (PL)
D9617_10g074300	PelD N. haematococca (PHI:180)	63.45	PL
D9617_18g032830	PelA N. haematococca (PHI:179)	46.38	PL
D9617_32g092100	PelA N. haematococca (PHI:179)	45.69	PL
D9617_22g066030	PNL1 Penicillium digitatum (PHI:3226)	53.46	PL
D9617_1g085350	PNL1 P. digitatum (PHI:3226)	44.74	PL
D9617_2g054490	PNL1 P. digitatum (PHI:3226)	41.70	PL
D9617_1g083610	PNL1 P. digitatum (PHI:3226)	40.33	PL
D9617_23g006380	PELB Colletotrichum gloeosporioides (PHI:222)	58.40	PL
Predicted Hemicellul	ose-degrading enzymes:		
D9617_9g026290	Endo-1,4-beta-xylanase <i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i> (PHI:2204)	61.56	Glycosyl hydrolase family 10 (GH10)
D9617_18g032910	Endo-1,4-beta-xylanase <i>M. oryzae</i> (PHI:2204)	57.69	GH10
D9617_3g022390	Endo-1,4-beta-xylanase <i>M. oryzae</i> (PHI:2208)	46.67	GH10
D9617_36g063160	Endo-1,4-beta-xylanase I <i>M. oryzae</i> (PHI:2214)	58.87	Glycosyl hydrolases family 11 (GH11)
D9617_1g082440	Endo-1,4-beta-xylanase I <i>M. oryzae</i> (PHI:2213)	56.72	GH11
Predicted Cellulose-o	legrading enzymes:		
D9617_40g012710	GLU1 Pyrenophora tritici-repentis (PHI:3859)	52.89	Cellulase - glycosyl hydrolase family 5 (GH5)
D9617_8g049020	GLU1 P. tritici-repentis (PHI:3859)	51.93	Cellulase – GH5

Prediction of secondary metabolite clusters

755

756

757

758

759

760

761

762

763

764

765

766

767

768

769

770

771

772

773

774

775

776

777

778

Much research surrounding E. fawcettii has focused on the SM elsinochrome, which contributes to the formation of necrotic lesions [25-28]. Analysis of the E. fawcettii genome assembly enabled the prediction of further genes potentially involved in the elsinochrome gene cluster than previously described, as well as the prediction of additional SM clusters throughout the assembly. In total, there were 22 predicted SM clusters, involving 404 (4.0%) genes (Table 6, S9). Comparing this to the results of the 10 comparative species showed that the number of predicted SM clusters varies widely among the pathogens, from 13 clusters (*U. maydis*) to 53 clusters (*M. oryzae*) (Figure 6). This wide variety among fungal species, in particular an overrepresentation of SM clusters among hemibiotrophs and necrotrophs has been seen before [154]. From the comparative analysis, it appears E. fawcettii has a lighter dependence upon the variety of secondary metabolite clusters compared to the other necrotrophs and hemibiotrophs, particularly for T1PKS clusters. Blast analysis of the previously determined E. fawcettii elsinochrome cluster [27] against the E. fawcettii proteome indicated high similarities in amino acid sequence for six genes of the predicted Type I Polyketide synthase (T1PKS) SM cluster 1 (S9). Specifically, the predicted core biosynthetic gene of cluster 1 (accession D9617_1g081920) showed 98.6% similarity to the E. fawcettii polyketide synthase (EfPKS1) gene (accession ABU63483.1). An additional predicted biosynthetic gene (accession D9617 1g081900) had 99.6% similarity to the E. fawcettii ESC reductase (RDT1) gene (accession ABZ01830) and the predicted transportrelated gene (accession D9617 1g081940) showed 70.3% similarity to the E. fawcettii ECT1 transporter (ECT1) gene (accession ABZ82008). Additional genes within the E. fawcettii SM cluster 1 obtained hits to the E. fawcettii elsinochrome cluster [27], specifically D9617 1g081930, D9617 1g081910 and D9617 1g081890 had high (97.4% - 100%)

780

781

782

783

784

785

786

787

788

789

790

791

792

793

794

795

796

797

798

799

800

801

similarity to PRF1 prefoldin protein subunit 3 (accession ABZ01833.1), TSF1 transcription factor (accession ABZ01831.1) and EfHP1 coding a hypothetical protein (accession ABZ82009.1). Hence, SM cluster 1 contains the two genes, EfPKS1 and TSF1, which have been shown to be essential in elsinochrome production, as well as four genes (RDT1, PRF1, ECT1 and EfHP1) also thought to be involved in elsinochrome biosynthesis [26, 27]. SM cluster 1 appears to lack four genes, being OXR1, EfHP2, EfHP3 and EfHP4, which have all been reported to code for hypothetical proteins and not thought to be involved in biosynthesis [27]. However, to further investigate these omissions, BLAST analysis querying the nucleotide sequences of the elsinochrome cluster [27] against the contigs of the E. fawcettii genome assembly indicated regions with high similarities (99.3% - 99.7%) consistent with the location of predicted SM cluster 1 on contig 1. This suggests that these unnecessary nearby genes may have become slightly degraded in the E. fawcettii BRIP 53147a isolate and were therefore not recognised during gene prediction. The use of alternate gene model prediction programs between the studies may also be a contributing factor. These differences may be further investigated through future transcriptomics analyses of E. fawcettii. Interestingly, SM cluster 1 consisted of an additional nine genes to the elsinochrome cluster previously described [27], all of which lay in a cluster adjacent to ECT1. Several of these additional genes obtained Pfam hits such as the THUMP domain, peptidase M3, Apolipoprotein O, Gar1/Naf1 RNA binding region and Endonuclease/Exonuclease/phosphatase family, suggesting these additional neighbouring proteins may perform functions such as RNA binding and modification, peptide cleavage, lipid binding and intracellular signalling, thus providing further genes for future investigation into the elsinochrome biosynthesis pathway.

Table 6. Predicted secondary metabolite (SM) gene clusters of Elsinoë fawcettii

Cluster	SM class	Genomic location (number of genes	Similarity to known SM biosynthetic g	ene clusters	
#		involved)	Known SM cluster gene (GenBank accession)	Similarity (%)	E. fawcettii GenBank accession
1	T1PKS	Contig_1, 641093:686753	Elsinochrome A/B/C:		
		(15 genes)	EfHP1 hypothetical protein (ABZ82009.1)	97	D9617_1g081890
			ESC reductase (ABZ01830.1)	100	D9617_1g081900
			Transcription factor (ABZ01831.1)	98	D9617_1g081910
			Polyketide synthase (ABU63483.1)	99	D9617_1g081920
			ESC prefoldin protein subunit 3 (ABZ01833.1)	100	D9617_1g081930
			ECT1 transporter (ABZ82008.1)	70	D9617_1g081940
2	terpene-	Contig_1, 1100227:1205433	PR toxin:		
	T1PKS	(43 genes)	Short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase SDR (CDM31317.1)	54	D9617_1g083830
			Aristolochene synthase (CDM31315.1)	60	D9617_1g083910
			FAD-binding, type 2 (CDM31316.1)	42	D9617_1g083960
3	other	Contig_2, 204508:248496			
		(18 genes)			
4	other	Contig_2, 1497538:1541073			
		(22 genes)			
5	terpene	Contig_3, 564086:586459			
		(10 genes)			
6	terpene	Contig_3, 907579:930486			
		(11 genes)			
7	other	Contig_4, 582204:627436			
		(23 genes)			
8	other	Contig_6, 282237:328303			
		(19 genes)			
9	other	Contig_6, 329430:373960			

		(19 genes)			
10	other	Contig_6, 783514:830534			
		(17 genes)			
11	terpene	Contig_7, 20929:44027			
		(11 genes)			
12	T1PKS	Contig_7, 199413: 248702	Trypacidin:		
		(25 genes)	Putative toxin biosynthesis regulatory protein AflJ (EAL89340.1)	43	D9617_7g030010
			Hypothetical protein (EAL89347.1)	72	D9617_7g030040
			Putative metallo-beta-lactamase domain protein (EAL89338.1)	57	D9617_7g030060
			Putative polyketide synthase (EAL89339.1)	59	D9617_7g030070
			Pestheic acid:		
			PtaD (AGO59044.1)	57	D9617_7g030040
			PtaB (AGO59041.1)	63	D9617_7g030060
			PtaA (AGO59040.1)	59	D9617_7g030070
13	NRPS	Contig_8, 153859:208507			
		(21 genes)			
14	other	Contig_9, 468080:512558			
		(18 genes)			
15	NRPS	Contig_15, 163571:217225			
		(15 genes)			
16	terpene	Contig_20, 268495:289017			
		(9 genes)			
17	T1PKS	Contig_25, 66786:116804			
		(18 genes)			
18	T1PKS	Contig_28, 107087:155682	Cercosporin:		
		(17 genes)	Polyketide synthase (AAT69682.1)	53	D9617_28g065380
			Cercosporin toxin biosynthesis protein (ABC79591.2)	52	D9617_28g065390
			Oxidoreductase (ABK64184.1)	41	D9617_28g065400
			O-methyltransferase (ABK64180.1)	61	D9617_28g065420
			Oxidoreductase (ABK64182.1)	60	D9617_28g065450
19	T3PKS	Contig_34, 15555:58185			

		(18 genes)
20	NRPS	Contig_35, 41518:95090
		(22 genes)
21	NRPS	Contig_37, 59764:106480
		(19 genes)
22	other	Contig_59, 16530:45727
		(15 genes)

805

806

807

808

809

810

811

812

813

814

815

816

817

818

819

820

821

822

823

824

825

826

827

Figure 6. Comparison of numbers of predicted secondary metabolite gene clusters among 11 fungal species. Numbers of SM gene clusters, shown on the x axis, are divided into SM types; (I) Type I Polyketide synthase (T1PKS); (II) terpene; (III) non-ribosomal peptide synthetase (NRPS); and (IV) other, which contains all clusters identified by antiSMASH as either Type 3 Polyketide synthase (T3PKS), terpene-T1PKS, indole-T1PKS-NRPS, T1PKS-NRPS, indole-T1PKS, T1PKS-terpene-NRPS, indole, siderophore, lantipeptide, T3PKS-T1PKS or other. An additional predicted SM cluster deserving of further investigation was SM cluster 2, a terpene-T1PKS, located 415,394 bp from the elsinochrome SM cluster 1 on contig 1. This cluster shows sequence similarity to three proteins within the PR toxin biosynthetic gene cluster, namely aristolochene synthase (accession CDM31315.1) with 60% similarity to D9617 1g083910, short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase (accession CDM31317.1) with 54% similarity D9617 1g083830 and the type 2 FAD-binding protein (accession CDM31316.1) with 42% similarity to D9617 1g083960. The PR toxin is produced by the saprobe Penicillium roqueforti, a known contaminant of silages [155], while the mechanisms of its likely role in plant degeneration are unknown [156], PR toxin is seen to induce necrosis in human intestinal epithelial cells and monocytic immune cells [157] and exhibits mutagenic activity towards rats [158]. Thus, indicating the potential production of a toxin by E. fawcettii with DNA-binding capabilities. Another predicted SM gene cluster of interest was the T1PKS SM cluster 12. Three genes of cluster 12 (D9617 7g030040, D9617 7g030060 and D9617 7g030070) showed similarity to multiple known biosynthetic

829

830

831

832

833

834

835

836

837

838

839

840

841

842

843

844

845

846

847

848

849

850

851

genes clusters; including the pestheic acid biosynthetic gene cluster of *Pestalotiopsis fici* [159] thought to function as a plant growth regulator [160] and the Trypacidin biosynthetic gene cluster of Aspergillus fumigatus, which produces a SM toxic to human lung cells [161]. Lastly, SM cluster 18 is predicted to code for five proteins with sequence similarity to those of the cercosporin biosynthetic gene cluster of *Cercospora nicotianae* [162]. Specifically, D9617 28g065380 (53% similarity to polyketide synthase, accession AAT69682.1), D9617 28g065390 (52% similarity to cercosporin toxin biosynthesis protein, accession ABC79591.2), D9617 28g065400 (41% similarity to oxidoreductase, accession ABK64184.1), D9617 28g065420 (61% similarity to O-methyltransferase, accession ABK64180.1) and D9617 28g065450 (60% similarity to oxidoreductase, accession ABK64182.1). Cercosporin, similar to elsinochrome, is a fungal toxin which promotes the generation of reactive oxygen species in the presence of light, killing plant cells [163]. Cercosporin produced by C. nicotianae has been shown to cause necrotic lesions on tobacco leaves [164] and is also produced by the apple pathogen Colletotrichum fioriniae [165]. While it has been shown that elsinochrome production is important for full virulence by E. fawcettii [26, 27], biosynthesis of further SM's, such as cluster 2, 12 or 18, may be beneficial to pathogenesis by potentially disrupting host plant signalling, causing additional necrosis or inhibiting competing microbes. Analysis of the distances between predicted SM genes and TE's indicated no TE's were in the close vicinity of SM cluster 1 (elsinochrome), the closest TE to the edge of the cluster was 199,748 bp or 77 genes away. This lack of association was seen among all E. fawcettii predicted SM clusters, with seven clusters predicted on contigs without identified TE's (S9). Of those clusters which did lie on contigs with TE's, genes were an average distance of

236,556 bp away, suggesting recent activity of known TE's was unlikely to be involved in the formation of E. fawcettii SM clusters. The closest AT-rich region to SM cluster 1 was a distance of 90,363 bp, while this was less than the mean distance (257,863 bp), this indication of potential TE degradation by RIP is still quite distant. In contrast to multiple SP's and CE's seen in the close vicinity of AT-rich regions, there were no genes from predicted SM clusters within 2 Kb of an AT-rich region, suggesting genes involved in SM production may benefit from residing in more stable genomic regions.

Conclusion:

852

853

854

855

856

857

858

859

860

861

862

863

864

865

866

867

868

869

870

871

872

873

The WGS sequencing, genome mining and comparative analyses conducted in this study illustrates the potential that exists within the genome of *E. fawcettii* for virulence factors such as protein effectors and CWDE's. The identification of these potential pathogenicityrelated genes is a first step in determining further mechanisms utilised by E. fawcettii in addition to elsinochrome production, thus enabling this pathogen to defeat plant immune strategies in a host-specific manner. This study provides predicted virulence genes for future experimental investigation of E. fawcettii pathogenesis pathways, as well as establishing a comprehensive genomic resource for use in future studies to determine improved methods of control and screening of this pathogen.

Acknowledgments:

We would like to thank members of the Centre for Crop Health at the University of Southern Queensland for their time and work. In particular, Lauren Huth and Katelynn Hadzi for

875

876

877

878

879

880

881

882

883

884

885

886

887

888

889

890

891

892

893

894

895

896

providing laboratory and organisational support for the project, and Levente Kiss for providing guidance throughout this study. References: 1. Xin H, Huang F, Zhang T, Xu J, Hyde KD, Li H. Pathotypes and genetic diversity of Chinese collections of *Elsinoë fawcettii* causing citrus scab. Journal of Integrative Agriculture. 2014;13(6):1293-302. 2. Hyun J, Timmer L, Lee SC, Yun SH, Ko SW, Kim KS. Pathological characterization and molecular analysis of Elsinoe isolates causing scab diseases of citrus in Jeju Island in Korea. Plant disease. 2001;85(9):1013-7. 3. Hyun J, Yi S, MacKenzie S, Timmer L, Kim K, Kang S, et al. Pathotypes and genetic relationship of worldwide collections of *Elsinoë* spp. causing scab diseases of citrus. Phytopathology. 2009;99(6):721-8. Tan M, Timmer L, Broadbent P, Priest M, Cain P. Differentiation by molecular 4. analysis of Elsinoë spp. causing scab diseases of citrus and its epidemiological implications. Phytopathology. 1996;86(10):1039-44. 5. Bitancourt AA, Jenkins AE. Elsinoe fawcettii, the perfect stage of the Citrus scab fungus. Phytopathology. 1936;26(4):393-5. 6. Bitancourt AA, Jenkins AE. Sweet orange fruit scab caused by australis. Journal of Agricultural Research. 1937;54:0001-18. 7. Timmer L, Priest M, Broadbent P, Tan M. Morphological and pathological characterization of species of Elsinoë causing scab diseases of citrus. Phytopathology. 1996;86(10):1032-8.

897	8.	Whiteside J. Biological characteristics of <i>Elsinoe fawcettii</i> pertaining to the
898		epidemiology of sour orange scab. Phytopathology. 1975;65(10):1170-5.
899	9.	Whiteside J. Pathogenicity of two biotypes of Elsinoë fawcettii to sweet orange and
900		some other cultivars. Phytopathology. 1978;68(1).
901	10.	Wang LY, Liao HL, Bau HJ, Chung KR. Characterization of pathogenic variants of
902		Elsinoë fawcettii of citrus implies the presence of new pathotypes and cryptic species
903		in Florida. Canadian Journal of Plant Pathology. 2009;31(1):28-37.
904	11.	Queensland Government. Department of Agriculture and Fisheries. DAF Biological
905		Collections [cited 2019 May 10]. Available from:
906		http://collections.daff.qld.gov.au/web/home.html
907	12.	dos Santos RF, Spósito MB, Ayres MR, Sosnowski MR. Phylogeny, morphology and
908		pathogenicity of Elsinoë ampelina, the causal agent of grapevine anthracnose in
909		Brazil and Australia. Journal of Phytopathology. 2018;166(3):187-98.
910	13.	Ash G, Stodart B, Hyun JW. Black scab of jojoba (Simmondsia chinensis) in Australia
911		caused by a putative new pathotype of Elsinoë australis. Plant disease.
912		2012;96(5):629-34.
913	14.	Miles AK, Tan YP, Shivas RG, Drenth A. Novel pathotypes of Elsinoë australis
914		associated with Citrus australasica and Simmondsia chinensis in Australia. Tropical
915		Plant Pathology. 2015;40(1):26-34.
916	15.	Kokoa P. Review of sweet potato diseases in PNG. Food Security for Papua New
917		Guinea Proceedings of the Papua New Guinea Food and Nutrition 2000 Conference
918		ACIAR Proceedings; 2001.

919	16.	Mau YS. Resistance response of fifteen sweet potato genotypes to scab disease
920		(Sphaceloma batatas) in two growing sites in East Nusa Tenggara, Indonesia. Tropical
921		Drylands. 2018;2(1):5-11.
922	17.	Scheper R, Wood P, Fisher B. Isolation, spore production and Koch's postulates of
923		Elsinoe pyri. NZ Plant Prot. 2013;66:308-16.
924	18.	Fan X, Barreto R, Groenewald J, Bezerra J, Pereira O, Cheewangkoon R, et al.
925		Phylogeny and taxonomy of the scab and spot anthracnose fungus <i>Elsinoë</i>
926		(Myriangiales, Dothideomycetes). Studies in mycology. 2017;87:1-41.
927	19.	Timmer LW, Garnsey SM, Graham JH. Compendium of Citrus Diseases. 2nd ed. The
928		American Phytopathological Society. 2000.
929	20.	Paudyal DP, Hyun JW. Physical changes in satsuma mandarin leaf after infection of
930		Elsinoë fawcettii causing citrus scab disease. The plant pathology journal.
931		2015;31(4):421.
932	21.	Agostini J, Bushong P, Bhatia A, Timmer L. Influence of environmental factors on
933		severity of citrus scab and melanose. Plant disease. 2003;87(9):1102-6.
934	22.	Chung KR. Elsinoë fawcettii and Elsinoë australis: the fungal pathogens causing citrus
935		scab. Molecular plant pathology. 2011;12(2):123-35.
936	23.	Weiss U, Ziffer H, Batterham T, Blumer M, Hackeng W, Copier H, et al. Pigments of
937		Elsinoë species: Pigment production by Elsinoë species; isolation of pure
938		elsinochromes A, B, and C. Canadian journal of microbiology. 1965;11(1):57-66.
939	24.	Weiss U, Merlini L, Nasini G. Naturally occurring perylenequinones. Progress in the
940		Chemistry of Organic Natural Products: Springer; 1987;52:1-71.

perpetuity.

It is made available under a CC-BY 4.0 International license.

Liao HL, Chung KR. Cellular toxicity of elsinochrome phytotoxins produced by the 941 25. 942 pathogenic fungus, Elsinoë fawcettii causing citrus scab. New Phytologist. 943 2008;177(1):239-50. 944 26. Liao HL, Chung KR. Genetic dissection defines the roles of elsinochrome phytotoxin for fungal pathogenesis and conidiation of the citrus pathogen Elsinoë fawcettii. 945 946 Molecular plant-microbe interactions. 2008;21(4):469-79. 947 27. Chung KR, Liao HL. Determination of a transcriptional regulator-like gene involved in 948 biosynthesis of elsinochrome phytotoxin by the citrus scab fungus, Elsinoë fawcettii. 949 Microbiology. 2008;154(11):3556-66. 950 Wang LY, Bau HJ, Chung KR. Accumulation of Elsinochrome phytotoxin does not 28. 951 correlate with fungal virulence among Elsinoë fawcettii isolates in Florida. Journal of 952 phytopathology. 2009;157(10):602-8. 953 29. Hogenhout SA, Van Der Hoorn RAL, Terauchi R, Kamoun S. Emerging concepts in effector biology of plant-associated organisms. Molecular Plant-Microbe 954 955 Interactions. 2009;22(2):115-22. doi: 10.1094/MPMI-22-2-0115. 956 Kamoun S. A catalogue of the effector secretome of plant pathogenic oomycetes. 30. Annu Rev Phytopathol. 2006;44:41-60. 957 958 31. Bolton MD, Thomma BPHJ, Nelson BD. Sclerotinia sclerotiorum (Lib.) de Bary: biology 959 and molecular traits of a cosmopolitan pathogen. Oxford, UK: Blackwell Science Ltd; 960 2006. p. 1-16. 961 32. Lyu X, Shen C, Fu Y, Xie J, Jiang D, Li G, et al. A small secreted virulence-related protein is essential for the necrotrophic interactions of Sclerotinia sclerotiorum with 962 its host plants. PLoS Pathogens. 2016;12(2):e1005435. doi: 963 964 10.1371/journal.ppat.1005435.

965 33. Yu Y, Xiao J, Zhu W, Yang Y, Mei J, Bi C, et al. Ss-Rhs1, a secretory Rhs 966 repeat-containing protein, is required for the virulence of *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*. 967 Molecular Plant Pathology. 2017;18(8):1052-61. doi: 10.1111/mpp.12459. 968 34. Friesen TL, Faris JD, Solomon PS, Oliver RP. Host-specific toxins: effectors of necrotrophic pathogenicity. Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing Ltd; 2008. p. 1421-8. 969 970 Rodriguez-Moreno L, Ebert MK, Bolton MD, Thomma BPHJ. Tools of the crook-35. 971 infection strategies of fungal plant pathogens. Plant Journal. 2018;93(4):664-74. doi: 972 10.1111/tpj.13810. 973 Wang X, Jiang N, Liu J, Liu W, Wang G-L. The role of effectors and host immunity in 36. 974 plant-necrotrophic fungal interactions. Taylor & Francis; 2014. p. 722-32. 975 37. Lo Presti L, Lanver D, Schweizer G, Tanaka S, Liang L, Tollot M, et al. Fungal Effectors 976 and Plant Susceptibility. Annual Review of Plant Biology. 2015;66(1):513-45. doi: 977 10.1146/annurev-arplant-043014-114623. 978 Stergiopoulos I, de Wit PJGM. Fungal Effector Proteins. Annual Review of 38. 979 Phytopathology. 2009;47(1):233-63. doi: 10.1146/annurev.phyto.112408.132637. 980 Manning VA, Pandelova I, Dhillon B, Wilhelm LJ, Goodwin SB, Berlin AM, et al. 39. Comparative genomics of a plant-pathogenic fungus, Pyrenophora tritici-repentis, 981 982 reveals transduplication and the impact of repeat elements on pathogenicity and 983 population divergence. G3 (Bethesda, Md). 2013;3(1):41-63. doi: 10.1534/g3.112.004044. 984 985 40. Sperschneider J, Dodds PN, Gardiner DM, Manners JM, Singh KB, Taylor JM. Advances and challenges in computational prediction of effectors from plant 986 pathogenic fungi. PLoS Pathogens. 2015;11(5):e1004806. doi: 987 988 10.1371/journal.ppat.1004806.

perpetuity.

It is made available under a CC-BY 4.0 International license.

Martinez JP, Oesch NW, Ciuffetti LM. Characterization of the multiple-copy host-989 41. 990 selective toxin gene, ToxB, in pathogenic and nonpathogenic isolates of Pyrenaphora 991 tritici-repentis. Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions. 2004;17(5):467-74. doi: 992 10.1094/MPMI.2004.17.5.467. 993 42. Friesen TL, Stukenbrock EH, Liu Z, Meinhardt S, Ling H, Faris JD, et al. Emergence of a 994 new disease as a result of interspecific virulence gene transfer. Nature Genetics. 995 2006;38(8):953. doi: 10.1038/ng1839. 996 43. Syme RA, Hane JK, Friesen TL, Oliver RP. Resequencing and comparative genomics of 997 Stagonospora nodorum: Sectional gene absence and effector discovery. G3: Genes, 998 Genomes, Genetics. 2013;3(6):959-69. doi: 10.1534/g3.112.004994. 999 Chuma I, Isobe C, Hotta Y, Ibaragi K, Futamata N, Kusaba M, et al. Multiple 44. 1000 translocation of the AVR-Pita effector gene among chromosomes of the rice blast 1001 fungus Magnaporthe oryzae and related species. PLoS Pathogens. 2011;7(7). doi: 1002 10.1371/journal.ppat.1002147. 1003 Ve T, Williams SJ, Catanzariti A-M, Rafiqi M, Rahman M, Ellis JG, et al. Structures of 45. the flax-rust effector AvrM reveal insights into the molecular basis of plant-cell entry 1004 and effector-triggered immunity. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 1005 1006 of the United States. 2013;110(43):17594. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1307614110. 1007 Kirsten S, Navarro-Quezada A, Penselin D, Wenzel C, Matern A, Leitner A, et al. 46. 1008 Necrosis-inducing proteins of Rhynchosporium commune, effectors in quantitative disease resistance. Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions. 2012;25(10):1314-25. doi: 1009 10.1094/MPMI-03-12-0065-R. 1010 Rouxel T, Grandaubert J, Hane JK, Hoede C, Van De Wouw AP, Couloux A, et al. 1011 47. 1012 Effector diversification within compartments of the Leptosphaeria maculans genome

1013		affected by Repeat-Induced Point mutations. Nature Communications.
1014		2011;2(202):202. doi: 10.1038/ncomms1189.
1015	48.	Djamei A, Schipper K, Rabe F, Ghosh A, Vincon V, Kahnt J, et al. Metabolic priming by
1016		a secreted fungal effector. Nature. 2011;478(7369):395. doi: 10.1038/nature10454.
1017	49.	Chen S, Songkumarn P, Venu RC, Gowda M, Bellizzi M, Hu J, et al. Identification and
1018		characterization of in planta-expressed secreted effector proteins from
1019		Magnaporthe oryzae that induce cell death in rice. Molecular Plant-Microbe
1020		Interactions. 2013;26(2):191-202. doi: 10.1094/MPMI-05-12-0117-R.
1021	50.	Doehlemann G, van der Linde K, Assmann D, Schwammbach D, Hof A, Mohanty A, et
1022		al. Pep1, a secreted effector protein of <i>Ustilago maydis</i> , is required for successful
1023		invasion of plant cells. PLoS Pathogens. 2009;5(2). doi:
1024		10.1371/journal.ppat.1000290.
1025	51.	Doehlemann G, Reissmann S, Aßmann D, Fleckenstein M, Kahmann R. Two linked
1026		genes encoding a secreted effector and a membrane protein are essential for
1027		Ustilago maydis-induced tumour formation. Molecular Microbiology.
1028		2011;81(3):751-66. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2958.2011.07728.x.
1029	52.	Mueller AN, Ziemann S, Treitschke S, Assmann D, Doehlemann G. Compatibility in
1030		the <i>Ustilago maydis</i> -maize interaction requires inhibition of host cysteine proteases
1031		by the fungal effector pit2. PLoS Pathogens. 2013;9(2). doi:
1032		10.1371/journal.ppat.1003177.
1033	53.	Tanaka S, Brefort T, Neidig N, Djamei A, Kahnt J, Vermerris W, et al. A secreted
1034		Ustilago maydis effector promotes virulence by targeting anthocyanin biosynthesis
1035		in maize. eLife. 2014;2014(3). doi: 10.7554/eLife.01355.001.

1036	54.	Fudal I, Ross S, Gout L, Blaise F, Kuhn ML, Eckert MR, et al. Heterochromatin-like
1037		regions as ecological niches for avirulence genes in the Leptosphaeria maculans
1038		genome: Map-based cloning of AvrLm6. Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions.
1039		2007;20(4):459-70. doi: 10.1094/MPMI-20-4-0459.
1040	55.	Parlange F, Daverdin G, Fudal I, Kuhn ML, Balesdent MH, Blaise F, et al.
1041		Leptosphaeria maculans avirulence gene AvrLm4-7 confers a dual recognition
1042		specificity by the Rlm4 and Rlm7 resistance genes of oilseed rape, and circumvents
1043		Rlm4 -mediated recognition through a single amino acid change. Molecular
1044		Microbiology. 2009;71(4):851-63. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2958.2008.06547.x.
1045	56.	Huang Y, Li Z, Evans N, Rouxel T, Fitt B, Balesdent M. Fitness Cost Associated with
1046		Loss of the AvrLm4 Avirulence Function in Leptosphaeria maculans (Phoma Stem
1047		Canker of Oilseed Rape). European Journal of Plant Pathology. 2006;114(1):77-89.
1048		doi: 10.1007/s10658-005-2643-4.
1049	57.	Saitoh H, Fujisawa S, Mitsuoka C, Ito A, Hirabuchi A, Ikeda K, et al. Large-scale gene
	37.	Surrountly raylounta of missional of the raylountly model by the surrount general
1050	37.	disruption in <i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i> identifies MC69, a secreted protein required for
1050 1051	37.	
	37.	disruption in Magnaporthe oryzae identifies MC69, a secreted protein required for
1051	58.	disruption in <i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i> identifies MC69, a secreted protein required for infection by monocot and dicot fungal pathogens. PLoS Pathogens.
1051 1052		disruption in <i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i> identifies MC69, a secreted protein required for infection by monocot and dicot fungal pathogens. PLoS Pathogens. 2012;8(5):e1002711. doi: 10.1371/journal.ppat.1002711.
1051 1052 1053		disruption in <i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i> identifies MC69, a secreted protein required for infection by monocot and dicot fungal pathogens. PLoS Pathogens. 2012;8(5):e1002711. doi: 10.1371/journal.ppat.1002711. Li W, Wang B, Wu J, Lu G, Hu Y, Zhang X, et al. The <i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i> avirulence
1051105210531054		disruption in <i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i> identifies MC69, a secreted protein required for infection by monocot and dicot fungal pathogens. PLoS Pathogens. 2012;8(5):e1002711. doi: 10.1371/journal.ppat.1002711. Li W, Wang B, Wu J, Lu G, Hu Y, Zhang X, et al. The <i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i> avirulence gene AvrPiz-t encodes a predicted secreted protein that triggers the immunity in rice
1051 1052 1053 1054 1055		disruption in <i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i> identifies MC69, a secreted protein required for infection by monocot and dicot fungal pathogens. PLoS Pathogens. 2012;8(5):e1002711. doi: 10.1371/journal.ppat.1002711. Li W, Wang B, Wu J, Lu G, Hu Y, Zhang X, et al. The <i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i> avirulence gene AvrPiz-t encodes a predicted secreted protein that triggers the immunity in rice mediated by the blast resistance gene Piz-t. Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions.
1051 1052 1053 1054 1055 1056	58.	disruption in <i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i> identifies MC69, a secreted protein required for infection by monocot and dicot fungal pathogens. PLoS Pathogens. 2012;8(5):e1002711. doi: 10.1371/journal.ppat.1002711. Li W, Wang B, Wu J, Lu G, Hu Y, Zhang X, et al. The <i>Magnaporthe oryzae</i> avirulence gene AvrPiz-t encodes a predicted secreted protein that triggers the immunity in rice mediated by the blast resistance gene Piz-t. Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions. 2009;22(4):411-20. doi: 10.1094/MPMI-22-4-0411.

1060	60.	Wang B, Yang X, Zeng H, Liu H, Zhou T, Tan B, et al. The purification and
1061		characterization of a novel hypersensitive-like response-inducing elicitor from
1062		Verticillium dahliae that induces resistance responses in tobacco. Applied
1063		Microbiology and Biotechnology. 2012;93(1):191-201. doi: 10.1007/s00253-011-
1064		3405-1.
1065	61.	Zhou R, Zhu T, Han L, Liu M, Xu M, Liu Y, et al. The asparagine-rich protein NRP
1066		interacts with the Verticillium effector PevD1 and regulates the subcellular
1067		localization of cryptochrome 2. Journal of Experimental Botany. 2017;68(13):3427-
1068		40. doi: 10.1093/jxb/erx192.
1069	62.	Schouten A, Van Baarlen P, Van Kan JAL. Phytotoxic Nep1-like proteins from the
1070		necrotrophic fungus Botrytis cinerea associate with membranes and the nucleus of
1071		plant cells. New Phytologist. 2008;177(2):493. doi: 10.1111/j.1469-
1072		8137.2007.02274.x.
1073	63.	Cuesta Arenas Y, Kalkman ERIC, Schouten A, Dieho M, Vredenbregt P, Uwumukiza B,
1074		et al. Functional analysis and mode of action of phytotoxic Nep1-like proteins of
1075		Botrytis cinerea. Physiological and Molecular Plant Pathology. 2010;74(5):376-86.
1076		doi: 10.1016/j.pmpp.2010.06.003.
1077	64.	Liu ZH, Faris JD, Meinhardt SW, Ali S, Rasmussen JB, Friesen TL. Genetic and physical
1078		mapping of a gene conditioning sensitivity in wheat to a partially purified host-
1079		selective toxin produced by Stagonospora nodorum. Phytopathology.
1080		2004;94(10):1056-60. doi: 10.1094/PHYTO.2004.94.10.1056.
1081	65.	Martinez JP, Ottum SA, Ali S, Francl LJ, Ciuffetti LM. Characterization of the ToxB
1082		gene from <i>Pyrenophora tritici-repentis</i> . Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions.
1083		2001;14(5):675-7. doi: 10.1094/MPMI.2001.14.5.675.

1084	66.	Zhong Z, Marcel TC, Hartmann FE, Ma X, Plissonneau C, Zala M, et al. A small
1085		secreted protein in Zymoseptoria tritici is responsible for avirulence on wheat
1086		cultivars carrying the Stb6 resistance gene. New Phytologist. 2017;214(2):619-31.
1087		doi: 10.1111/nph.14434.
1088	67.	Raffaele S, Kamoun S. Genome evolution in filamentous plant pathogens: why bigger
1089		can be better. Nature Publishing Group; 2012. p. 417.
1090	68.	Kubicek CP, Starr TL, Glass NL. Plant cell wall degrading enzymes and their secretion
1091		in plant-pathogenic fungi. Annual Review of Phytopathology. 2014;52(1):427-51. doi:
1092		10.1146/annurev-phyto-102313-045831.
1093	69.	King BC, Waxman KD, Nenni NV, Walker LP, Bergstrom GC, Gibson DM. Arsenal of
1094		plant cell wall degrading enzymes reflects host preference among plant pathogenic
1095		fungi. Biotechnology for Biofuels. 2011;4:4.
1096	70.	Cantarel BI, Coutinho PM, Rancurel C, Bernard T, Lombard V, Henrissat B. The
1097		Carbohydrate-Active EnZymes database (CAZy): An expert resource for
1098		glycogenomics. Nucleic Acids Research. 2009;37(1):D233-D8. doi:
1099		10.1093/nar/gkn663.
1100	71.	Cosgrove DJ. Growth of the plant cell wall. Nature Publishing Group; 2005. p. 850.
1101	72.	Zuppini A, Navazio L, Sella L, Castiglioni C, Favaron F, Mariani P. An
1102		endopolygalacturonase from Sclerotinia sclerotiorum induces calcium-mediated
1103		signaling and programmed cell death in soybean cells. Molecular Plant-Microbe
1104		Interactions. 2005;18(8):849-55. doi: 10.1094/MPMI-18-0849.
1105	73.	Shieh MT, Brown RL, Whitehead MP, Cary JW, Cotty PJ, Cleveland TE, et al.
1106		Molecular genetic evidence for the involvement of a specific polygalacturonase, P2c,

1107		in the invasion and spread of Aspergillus flavus in cotton bolls. Applied and
1108		Environmental Microbiology. 1997;63(9):3548.
1109	74.	Bravo Ruiz G, Di Pietro A, Roncero MIG. Combined action of the major secreted exo-
1110		and endopolygalacturonases is required for full virulence of Fusarium oxysporum.
1111		Molecular Plant Pathology. 2016;17(3):339-53. doi: 10.1111/mpp.12283.
1112	75.	Rogers LM, Kim YK, Guo W, Gonzalez-Candelas L, Li D, Kolattukudy PE. Requirement
1113		for either a host- or pectin-induced pectate lyase for infection of <i>Pisum sativum</i> by
1114		Nectria hematococca. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the
1115		United States. 2000;97(17):9813. doi: 10.1073/pnas.160271497.
1116	76.	López-Pérez M, Ballester AR, González-Candelas L. Identification and functional
1117		analysis of <i>Penicillium digitatum</i> genes putatively involved in virulence towards citrus
1118		fruit. Molecular Plant Pathology. 2015;16(3):262-75. doi: 10.1111/mpp.12179.
1119	77.	Yakoby N, Beno-Moualem D, Keen NT, Dinoor A, Pines O, Prusky D. Colletotrichum
1120		gloeosporioides pelB is an important virulence factor in avocado fruit-fungus
1121		interaction. Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions. 2001;14(8):988-95. doi:
1122		10.1094/MPMI.2001.14.8.988.
1123	78.	Valette-Collet O, Cimerman A, Reignault P, Levis C, Boccara M. Disruption of <i>Botrytis</i>
1124		cinerea pectin methylesterase gene Bcpme1 reduces virulence on several host
1125		plants. Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions. 2003;16(4):360-7. doi:
1126		10.1094/MPMI.2003.16.4.360.
1127	79.	Fu H, Feng J, Aboukhaddour R, Cao T, Hwang SF, Strelkov SE. An exo-1,3-[beta]-
1128		glucanase GLU1 contributes to the virulence of the wheat tan spot pathogen
1129		Pyrenophora tritici-repentis. Fungal Biology. 2013;117(10):673.

1130	80.	Nguyen QB, Itoh K, Van Vu B, Tosa Y, Nakayashiki H. Simultaneous silencing of
1131		endo-β-1,4 xylanase genes reveals their roles in the virulence of Magnaporthe
1132		oryzae. Molecular Microbiology. 2011;81(4):1008-19. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-
1133		2958.2011.07746.x.
1134	81.	Brito N, Espino JJ, González C. The endo-β-1,4-xylanase Xyn11A is required for
1135		virulence in Botrytis cinerea. Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions. 2006;19(1):25-
1136		32. doi: 10.1094/MPMI-19-0025.
1137	82.	Noda J, Brito N, Gonzalez C. The <i>Botrytis cinerea</i> xylanase Xyn11A contributes to
1138		virulence with its necrotizing activity, not with its catalytic activity. BMC Plant
1139		Biology. 2010;10:38.
1140	83.	Afgan E, Sloggett C, Goonasekera N, Makunin I, Benson D, Crowe M, et al. Genomics
1141		Virtual Laboratory: A Practical Bioinformatics Workbench for the Cloud. PLoS ONE.
1142		2015;10(10):e0140829. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0140829.
1143	84.	Andrews S. FastQC: a quality control tool for high throughput sequence data. 2010.
1144	85.	Bolger AM, Lohse M, Usadel B. Trimmomatic: A flexible trimmer for Illumina
1145		sequence data. Bioinformatics. 2014;30(15):2114-20. doi:
1146		10.1093/bioinformatics/btu170.
1147	86.	Zerbino DR, Birney E. Velvet: algorithms for de novo short read assembly using de
1148		Bruijn graphs. Genome Research. 2008;18(5):821-9. doi: 10.1101/gr.074492.107.
1149	87.	Gladman S. VelvetOptimiser. Victorian Bioinformatics Consortium, Clayton, Australia:
1150		http://bioinformaticsnetausoftwarevelvetoptimisershtml. 2012.
1151	88.	Bankevich A, Nurk S, Antipov D, Gurevich AA, Dvorkin M, Kulikov AS, et al. SPAdes: A
1152		New Genome Assembly Algorithm and Its Applications to Single-Cell Sequencing.
1153		Journal of Computational Biology. 2012;19(5):455-77. doi: 10.1089/cmb.2012.0021.

1154	89.	Langmead B, Salzberg SL. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nature
1155		methods. 2012;9(4):357.
1156	90	The Picard Toolkit. http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/ [cited 2018].
1157	91.	Thorvaldsdóttir H, Robinson JT, Mesirov JP. Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV): high-
1158		performance genomics data visualization and exploration. Briefings in
1159		bioinformatics. 2013;14(2):178-92.
1160	92.	Simão FA, Waterhouse RM, Ioannidis P, Kriventseva EV, Zdobnov EM. BUSCO:
1161		Assessing genome assembly and annotation completeness with single-copy
1162		orthologs. Bioinformatics. 2015;31(19):3210-2. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btv351.
1163	93.	Zdobnov EM, Tegenfeldt F, Kuznetsov D, Waterhouse RM, Simao FA, Ioannidis P, et
1164		al. OrthoDB v9.1: Cataloging evolutionary and functional annotations for animal,
1165		fungal, plant, archaeal, bacterial and viral orthologs. Nucleic Acids Research.
1166		2017;45(1):D744-D9. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkw1119.
1167		Testa AC, Oliver RP, Hane JK. OcculterCut: a comprehensive survey of AT-rich regions
1107	94.	resta AC, Oliver NF, Halle JK. Occulter cut. a comprehensive survey of AT-Hall regions
1168	94.	in fungal genomes. Genome biology and evolution. 2016;8(6):2044-64.
	94. 95.	
1168		in fungal genomes. Genome biology and evolution. 2016;8(6):2044-64.
1168 1169		in fungal genomes. Genome biology and evolution. 2016;8(6):2044-64. Lee T, Peace C, Jung S, Zheng P, Main D, Cho I. GenSAS - An online integrated
1168 1169 1170	95.	in fungal genomes. Genome biology and evolution. 2016;8(6):2044-64. Lee T, Peace C, Jung S, Zheng P, Main D, Cho I. GenSAS - An online integrated genome sequence annotation pipeline. 2011. p. 1967-73.
1168 1169 1170 1171	95.	in fungal genomes. Genome biology and evolution. 2016;8(6):2044-64. Lee T, Peace C, Jung S, Zheng P, Main D, Cho I. GenSAS - An online integrated genome sequence annotation pipeline. 2011. p. 1967-73. Lomsadze A, Ter-Hovhannisyan V, Chernoff YO, Borodovsky M. Gene identification in
1168 1169 1170 1171 1172	95.	in fungal genomes. Genome biology and evolution. 2016;8(6):2044-64. Lee T, Peace C, Jung S, Zheng P, Main D, Cho I. GenSAS - An online integrated genome sequence annotation pipeline. 2011. p. 1967-73. Lomsadze A, Ter-Hovhannisyan V, Chernoff YO, Borodovsky M. Gene identification in novel eukaryotic genomes by self-training algorithm. Nucleic Acids Research.
1168 1169 1170 1171 1172 1173	95. 96.	in fungal genomes. Genome biology and evolution. 2016;8(6):2044-64. Lee T, Peace C, Jung S, Zheng P, Main D, Cho I. GenSAS - An online integrated genome sequence annotation pipeline. 2011. p. 1967-73. Lomsadze A, Ter-Hovhannisyan V, Chernoff YO, Borodovsky M. Gene identification in novel eukaryotic genomes by self-training algorithm. Nucleic Acids Research. 2005;33(20):6494-506. doi: 10.1093/nar/gki937.
1168 1169 1170 1171 1172 1173 1174	95. 96. 97.	in fungal genomes. Genome biology and evolution. 2016;8(6):2044-64. Lee T, Peace C, Jung S, Zheng P, Main D, Cho I. GenSAS - An online integrated genome sequence annotation pipeline. 2011. p. 1967-73. Lomsadze A, Ter-Hovhannisyan V, Chernoff YO, Borodovsky M. Gene identification in novel eukaryotic genomes by self-training algorithm. Nucleic Acids Research. 2005;33(20):6494-506. doi: 10.1093/nar/gki937. Smit AFA, Hubley R, Green P. RepeatMasker http://repeatmasker.org.

1178	99.	Altschul SF, Madden TL, Schäffer AA, Zhang J, Zhang Z, Miller W, et al. Gapped BLAST
1179		and PSI-BLAST: A new generation of protein database search programs. Nucleic Acids
1180		Research. 1997;25(17):3389-402. doi: 10.1093/nar/25.17.3389.
1181	100.	The Uniprot Consortium. UniProt: the universal protein knowledgebase. Nucleic
1182		acids research. 2018;46(5):2699.
1183	101.	Conesa A, Götz S, García-Gómez JM, Terol J, Talón M, Robles M. Blast2GO: A
1184		universal tool for annotation, visualization and analysis in functional genomics
1185		research. Bioinformatics. 2005;21(18):3674-6. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/bti610.
1186	102.	Johnson LS, Eddy SR, Portugaly E. Hidden Markov model speed heuristic and iterative
1187		HMM search procedure. BMC Bioinformatics. 2010;11(1). doi: 10.1186/1471-2105-
1188		11-431.
1189	103.	Finn RD, Coggill P, Eberhardt RY, Eddy SR, Mistry J, Mitchell AL, et al. The Pfam
1190		protein families database: Towards a more sustainable future. Nucleic Acids
1191		Research. 2016;44(1):D279-D85. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkv1344.
1192	104.	Quinlan AR. BEDTools: the Swiss-army tool for genome feature analysis. Current
1193		protocols in bioinformatics. 2014;47(1):11.2. 12. 34.
1194	105.	Grant CE, Bailey TL, Noble WS. FIMO: Scanning for occurrences of a given motif.
1195		Bioinformatics. 2011;27(7):1017-8. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btr064.
1196	106.	Bailey TL, Boden M, Buske FA, Frith M, Grant CE, Clementi L, et al. MEME Suite: Tools
1197		for motif discovery and searching. Nucleic Acids Research. 2009;37(2):W202-W8.
1198		doi: 10.1093/nar/gkp335.
1199	107.	Edgar RC. MUSCLE: Multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high
1200		throughput. Nucleic Acids Research. 2004;32(5):1792-7. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkh340.

1201	108.	Kumar S, Stecher G, Tamura K. MEGA7: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis
1202		Version 7.0 for Bigger Datasets. Molecular biology and evolution. 2016;33(7):1870-4.
1203		doi: 10.1093/molbev/msw054
1204	109.	Nei M. Molecular evolution and phylogenetics. Kumar S, editor. Oxford ;: Oxford
1205		University Press; 2000.
1206	110.	Maddison WP, Maddison DR. Mesquite: a modular sysem for evolutionary analysis.
1207		Version 3.6 http://www.mesquiteproject.org2018.
1208	111.	Kämper J, Kahmann R, Bölker M, Ma L-J, Brefort T, Saville BJ, et al. Insights from the
1209		genome of the biotrophic fungal plant pathogen Ustilago maydis. Nature.
1210		2006;444(7115):97.
1211	112.	Rouxel T, Grandaubert J, Hane JK, Hoede C, Van De Wouw AP, Couloux A, et al.
1212		Effector diversification within compartments of the <i>Leptosphaeria maculans</i> genome
1213		affected by Repeat-Induced Point mutations. Nature Communications.
1214		2011;2(202):202. doi: 10.1038/ncomms1189.
1215	113.	Dean RA, Talbot NJ, Ebbole DJ, Farman ML, Mitchell TK, Orbach MJ, et al. The
1216		genome sequence of the rice blast fungus Magnaporthe grisea. Nature.
1217		2005;434(7036):980.
1218	114.	Penselin D, Münsterkötter M, Kirsten S, Felder M, Taudien S, Platzer M, et al.
1219		Comparative genomics to explore phylogenetic relationship, cryptic sexual potential
1220		and host specificity of Rhynchosporium species on grasses. BMC genomics.
1221		2016;17(1):953.
1222	115.	Klosterman S, Subbarao K, Kang S, Veronese P, Gold S, Thomma B, et al. Comparative
1223		genomics of the plant vascular wilt pathogens, Verticillium dahliae and Verticillium
1224		alboatrum. Phytopathology. 2010;100(6):S64-S.

1225	116.	Van Kan JA, Stassen JH, Mosbach A, Van Der Lee TA, Faino L, Farmer AD, et al. A
1226		gapless genome sequence of the fungus <i>Botrytis cinerea</i> . Molecular plant pathology.
1227		2017;18(1):75-89.
1228	117.	Hane JK, Lowe RG, Solomon PS, Tan K-C, Schoch CL, Spatafora JW, et al.
1229		Dothideomycete-plant interactions illuminated by genome sequencing and EST
1230		analysis of the wheat pathogen Stagonospora nodorum. The Plant Cell.
1231		2007;19(11):3347-68.
1232	118.	Moolhuijzen P, See PT, Hane JK, Shi G, Liu Z, Oliver RP, et al. Comparative genomics
1233		of the wheat fungal pathogen Pyrenophora tritici-repentis reveals chromosomal
1234		variations and genome plasticity. BMC genomics. 2018;19(1):279.
1235	119.	Amselem J, Cuomo CA, van Kan JAL, Viaud M, Benito EP, Couloux A, et al. Genomic
1236		analysis of the necrotrophic fungal pathogens Sclerotinia sclerotiorum and Botrytis
1237		cinerea. PLoS Genetics. 2011;7(8):e1002230. doi: 10.1371/journal.pgen.1002230.
1238	120.	Plissonneau C, Hartmann FE, Croll D. Pangenome analyses of the wheat pathogen
1239		Zymoseptoria tritici reveal the structural basis of a highly plastic eukaryotic genome.
1240		BMC biology. 2018;16(1):5.
1241	121.	Sperschneider J, Dodds PN, Gardiner DM, Singh KB, Taylor JM. Improved prediction
1242		of fungal effector proteins from secretomes with EffectorP 2.0. Molecular Plant
1243		Pathology. 2018;19(9):2094-110. doi: 10.1111/mpp.12682.
1244	122.	Petersen TN, Brunak S, Heijne GV, Nielsen H. SignalP 4.0: discriminating signal
1245		peptides from transmembrane regions. Nature Methods. 2011;8(10):785. doi:
1246		10.1038/nmeth.1701.

1247	123.	Käll L, Krogh A, Sonnhammer ELL. A Combined Transmembrane Topology and Signal
1248		Peptide Prediction Method. Journal of Molecular Biology. 2004;338(5):1027-36. doi:
1249		10.1016/j.jmb.2004.03.016.
1250	124.	SoftBerry Inc. ProtComp v6 [cited 2018 July 19]. Available from:
1251		http://www.softberry.com/berry.phtml?topic=fdp.htm&no_menu=on.
1252	125.	Krogh A, Larsson B, Von Heijne G, Sonnhammer ELL. Predicting transmembrane
1253		protein topology with a hidden markov model: application to complete genomes.
1254		Journal of Molecular Biology. 2001;305(3):567-80. doi: 10.1006/jmbi.2000.4315.
1255	126.	Pierleoni A, Martelli P, Casadio R. PredGPI: A GPI-anchor predictor. BMC
1256		Bioinformatics. 2008;9(1). doi: 10.1186/1471-2105-9-392.
1257	127.	R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation
1258		for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria https://www.R-project.org/2018.
1259	128.	Blin K, Wolf T, Chevrette MG, Lu X, Schwalen CJ, Kautsar SA, et al. AntiSMASH 4.0 -
1260		improvements in chemistry prediction and gene cluster boundary identification.
1261		Nucleic Acids Research. 2017;45(1):W36-W41. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkx319.
1262	129.	Fischer S, Brunk BP, Chen F, Gao X, Harb OS, Iodice JB, et al. Using OrthoMCL to
1263		assign proteins to OrthoMCL-DB groups or to cluster proteomes into new ortholog
1264		groups. Current protocols in bioinformatics. 2011;35(1):6.12. 1-6 9.
1265	130.	Steiner L, Findeiß S, Lechner M, Marz M, Stadler Peter F, Prohaska Sonja J.
1266		Proteinortho: Detection of (Co-)orthologs in large-scale analysis. BMC
1267		Bioinformatics. 2011;12(1):124. doi: 10.1186/1471-2105-12-124.
1268	131.	Zhang H, Yohe T, Huang L, Entwistle S, Wu P, Yang Z, et al. DbCAN2: A meta server
1269		for automated carbohydrate-active enzyme annotation. Nucleic Acids Research.
1270		2018;46(1):W95-W101. doi: 10.1093/nar/gky418.

1271	132.	Yin Y, Mao X, Yang J, Chen X, Mao F, Xu Y. DbCAN: A web resource for automated
1272		carbohydrate-active enzyme annotation. Nucleic Acids Research. 2012;40(1):W445-
1273		W51. doi: 10.1093/nar/gks479.
1274	133.	Buchfink B, Xie C, Huson D, H. Fast and sensitive protein alignment using DIAMOND.
1275		Nature Methods. 2014;12(1). doi: 10.1038/nmeth.3176.
1276	134.	Lombard V, Golaconda Ramulu H, Drula E, Coutinho PM, Henrissat B. The
1277		carbohydrate-active enzymes database (CAZy) in 2013. Nucleic Acids Research.
1278		2014;42(1):D490-D5. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkt1178.
1279	135.	Busk PK, Pilgaard B, Lezyk MJ, Meyer AS, Lange L. Homology to peptide pattern for
1280		annotation of carbohydrate-active enzymes and prediction of function.(Report).
1281		BMC Bioinformatics. 2017;18(1). doi: 10.1186/s12859-017-1625-9.
1282	136.	Urban M, Cuzick A, Rutherford K, Irvine A, Pedro H, Pant R, et al. PHI-base: A new
1283		interface and further additions for the multi-species pathogen-host interactions
1284		database. Nucleic Acids Research. 2017;45(1):D604-D10. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkw1089.
1285	137.	Kis-Papo T, Weig AR, Riley R, Peršoh D, Salamov A, Sun H, et al. Genomic adaptations
1286		of the halophilic Dead Sea filamentous fungus Eurotium rubrum. Nature
1287		Communications. 2014;5(1). doi: 10.1038/ncomms4745.
1288	138.	Gazis R, Kuo A, Riley R, Labutti K, Lipzen A, Lin J, et al. The genome of Xylona heveae
1289		provides a window into fungal endophytism. Fungal Biology. 2016;120(1):26-42. doi:
1290		10.1016/j.funbio.2015.10.002.
1291	139.	Rosienski MD, Lee MK, Yu JH, Kaspar CW, Gibbons JG. Genome sequence of the
1292		extremely acidophilic fungus Acidomyces richmondensis FRIK2901. Microbiology
1293		Resource Announcements. 2018;7(16). doi: 10.1128/MRA.01314-18.
1294	140.	Mohanta TK, Bae H. The diversity of fungal genome. BioMed Central Ltd.; 2015.

1295	141.	Bao W, Kojima K, Kohany O. Repbase Update, a database of repetitive elements in
1296		eukaryotic genomes. Mobile DNA. 2015;6(1). doi: 10.1186/s13100-015-0041-9.
1297	142.	Thomma BPHJ, Seidl MF, Shi-Kunne X, Cook DE, Bolton MD, van Kan JAL, et al. Mind
1298		the gap; seven reasons to close fragmented genome assemblies. Fungal Genetics and
1299		Biology. 2016;90:24-30. doi: 10.1016/j.fgb.2015.08.010.
1300	143.	Amselem J, Cuomo CA, van Kan JAL, Viaud M, Benito EP, Couloux A, et al. Genomic
1301		analysis of the necrotrophic fungal pathogens Sclerotinia sclerotiorum and Botrytis
1302		cinerea. PLoS Genetics. 2011;7(8):e1002230. doi: 10.1371/journal.pgen.1002230.
1303	144.	Cambareri EB, Jensen BC, Schabtach E, Selker EU. Repeat-induced G-C to A-T
1304		mutations in Neurospora. (glycine-cysteine to alanine-threonine). Science.
1305		1989;244(4912):1571. doi: 10.1126/science.2544994.
1306	145.	Selker EU, Cambareri EB, Jensen BC, Haack KR. Rearrangement of duplicated DNA in
1307		specialized cells of <i>Neurospora</i> . Cell. 1987;51(5):741-52. doi: 10.1016/0092-
1308		8674(87)90097-3.
1309	146.	Selker EU. Premeiotic Instability of Repeated Sequences in Neurospora Crassa.
1310		Annual Review of Genetics. 1990;24(1):579-613. doi:
1311		10.1146/annurev.ge.24.120190.003051.
1312	147.	Gladyshev E. Repeat-Induced Point Mutation (RIP) and Other Genome Defense
1313		Mechanisms in Fungi. Microbiology spectrum. 2017;5(4).
1314	148.	Braumann I, Berg M, Kempken F. Repeat induced point mutation in two asexual
1315		fungi, Aspergillus niger and Penicillium chrysogenum. Current Genetics.
1316		2008;53(5):287-97. doi: 10.1007/s00294-008-0185-y.
1317	149.	Gout L, Fudal I, Kuhn ML, Blaise F, Eckert M, Cattolico L, et al. Lost in the middle of
1318		nowhere: the AvrLm1 avirulence gene of the Dothideomycete Leptosphaeria

1319		maculans. Molecular Microbiology. 2006;60(1):67-80. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-
1320		2958.2006.05076.x.
1321	150.	Fudal I, Ross S, Brun H, Besnard AL, Ermel M, Kuhn ML, et al. Repeat-Induced Point
1322		Mutation (RIP) as an alternative mechanism of evolution toward virulence in
1323		Leptosphaeria maculans. Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions. 2009;22(8):932-41.
1324		doi: 10.1094/MPMI-22-8-0932.
1325	151.	Kloppholz S, Kuhn H, Requena N. A Secreted Fungal Effector of <i>Glomus intraradices</i>
1326		Promotes Symbiotic Biotrophy. Current Biology. 2011;21(14):1204-9. doi:
1327		10.1016/j.cub.2011.06.044.
1328	152.	Mesarich CH, Bowen JK, Hamiaux C, Templeton MD. Repeat-containing protein
1329		effectors of plant-associated organisms. Frontiers in Plant Science. 2015;6. doi:
1330		10.3389/fpls.2015.00872.
1331	153.	Liu T, Song T, Zhang X, Yuan H, Su L, Li W, et al. Unconventionally secreted effectors
1332		of two filamentous pathogens target plant salicylate biosynthesis. Nature
1333		Communications. 2014;5(1). doi: 10.1038/ncomms5686.
1334	154.	Zuccaro A, Lahrmann U, Langen G. Broad compatibility in fungal root symbioses.
1335		Current Opinion in Plant Biology. 2014;20:135-45. doi: 10.1016/j.pbi.2014.05.013.
1336	155.	Rasmussen R, Storm I, Rasmussen P, Smedsgaard J, Nielsen K. Multi-mycotoxin
1337		analysis of maize silage by LC-MS/MS. Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry.
1338		2010;397(2):765-76. doi: 10.1007/s00216-010-3545-7.
1339	156.	Dubey MK, Aamir M, Kaushik MS, Khare S, Meena M, Singh S, et al. PR Toxin -
1340		Biosynthesis, Genetic Regulation, Toxicological Potential, Prevention and Control
1341		Measures: Overview and Challenges. Frontiers in Pharmacology. 2018;9. doi:
1342		10.3389/fphar.2018.00288.

1343	157.	Hymery N, Puel O, Tadrist S, Canlet C, Le Scouarnec H, Coton E, et al. Effect of PR
1344		toxin on THP1 and Caco-2 cells: an in vitro study. World Mycotoxin Journal.
1345		2017;10(4):375-86.
1346	158.	Polonelli L, Lauriola L, Morace G. Preliminary studies on the carcinogenic effects of
1347		Penicillium roqueforti toxin (PR toxin) on rats. Mycopathologia. 1982;78(2):125-7.
1348		doi: 10.1007/BF00442636.
1349	159.	Xu X, Liu L, Zhang F, Wang W, Li J, Guo L, et al. Identification of the First Diphenyl
1350		Ether Gene Cluster for Pestheic Acid Biosynthesis in Plant Endophyte <i>Pestalotiopsis</i>
1351		fici. ChemBioChem. 2014;15(2):284-92. doi: 10.1002/cbic.201300626.
1352	160.	Shimada A, Takahashi I, Kawano T, Kimura Y. Chloroisosulochrin, Chloroisosulochrin
1353		Dehydrate, and Pestheic Acid, Plant Growth Regulators, Produced by <i>Pestalotiopsis</i>
1354		theae. Zeitschrift fur Naturforschung - Section B Journal of Chemical Sciences.
1355		2001;56(8):797-803. doi: 10.1515/znb-2001-0813.
1356	161.	Gauthier T, Wang X, Dos Santos JS, Fysikopoulos A, Tadrist S, Canlet C, et al.
1357		Trypacidin, a spore-borne toxin from Aspergillus fumigatus, is cytotoxic to lung cells.
1358		PLoS ONE. 2012;7(2):e29906. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0029906.
1359	162.	Chen H, Lee MH, Daub ME, Chung KR. Molecular analysis of the cercosporin
1360		biosynthetic gene cluster in <i>Cercospora nicotianae</i> . Molecular Microbiology.
1361		2007;64(3):755-70. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2958.2007.05689.x.
1362	163.	Daub ME, Hangarter RP. Light-induced production of singlet oxygen and superoxide
1363		by the fungal toxin, cercosporin. Plant Physiology. 1983;73(3):855-7.
1364	164.	Dekkers KL, You B-J, Gowda VS, Liao H-L, Lee M-H, Bau H-J, et al. The <i>Cercospora</i>
1365		nicotianae gene encoding dual O-methyltransferase and FAD-dependent

1366 monooxygenase domains mediates cercosporin toxin biosynthesis. Fungal Genetics 1367 and Biology. 2007;44(5):444-54. doi: 10.1016/j.fgb.2006.08.005. de Jonge R, Ebert MK, Huitt-Roehl CR, Pal P, Suttle JC, Spanner RE, et al. Gene cluster 1368 165. 1369 conservation provides insight into cercosporin biosynthesis and extends production 1370 to the genus Colletotrichum. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States. 2018;115(24):E5459. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1712798115. 1371 1372 Supporting information captions: 1373 1374 S1 Table. GenBank accessions for ITS and TEF1-α sequences included in the phylogenetic analysis with Elsinoë fawcettii isolate (BRIP 53147a). 1375 1376 1377 S2 Table. Comparison of predicted gene classifications among Elsinoë fawcettii and 10 other 1378 species; Pfam hits, predicted CAZymes and core/acc/unique genes. 1379 1380 S3 Text. Sequence alignment of partial ITS and TEF1-α regions of Elsinoë fawcettii (BRIP 53147a) in comparison with other *E. fawcettii* isolates and closely related *Elsinoë* species. 1381 1382 1383 S4 Table. Comparison of results of EffectorP predicted candidate effectors and alternate candidate effector search among 11 species. 1384 1385 S5 Table. Genomic and proteomic analyses of 11 species for use in known effector analysis 1386 1387 and candidate effector prioritisation. 1388

1390

1391

1392

1393

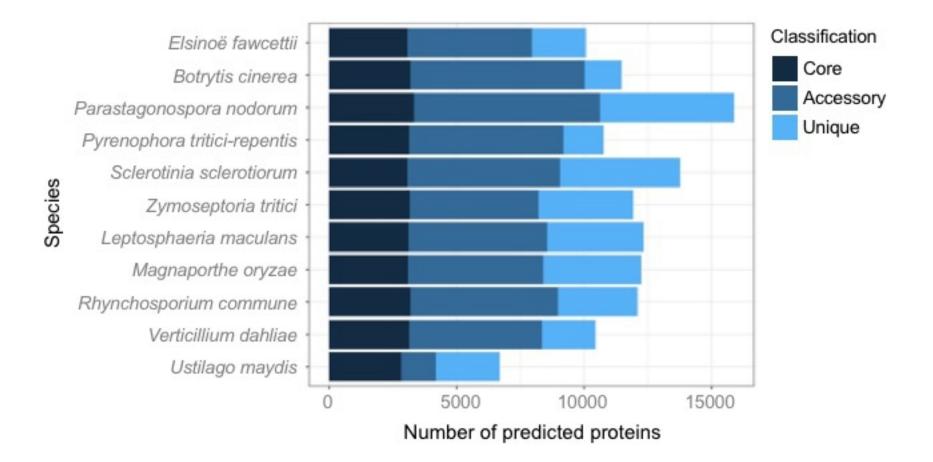
1394

1395

1396

1397

S6 Table. Comparison of numbers of predicted secreted proteins, candidate effectors and prioritised candidate effectors among 11 species. S7 Table. Features and GenBank accessions of 203 Elsinoë fawcettii candidate effectors. S8 Table. Features and GenBank accessions of 378 Elsinoë fawcettii predicted CAZymes. S9 Table. Features and GenBank accessions of 404 Elsinoë fawcettii genes with predicted involvement in secondary metabolite clusters.



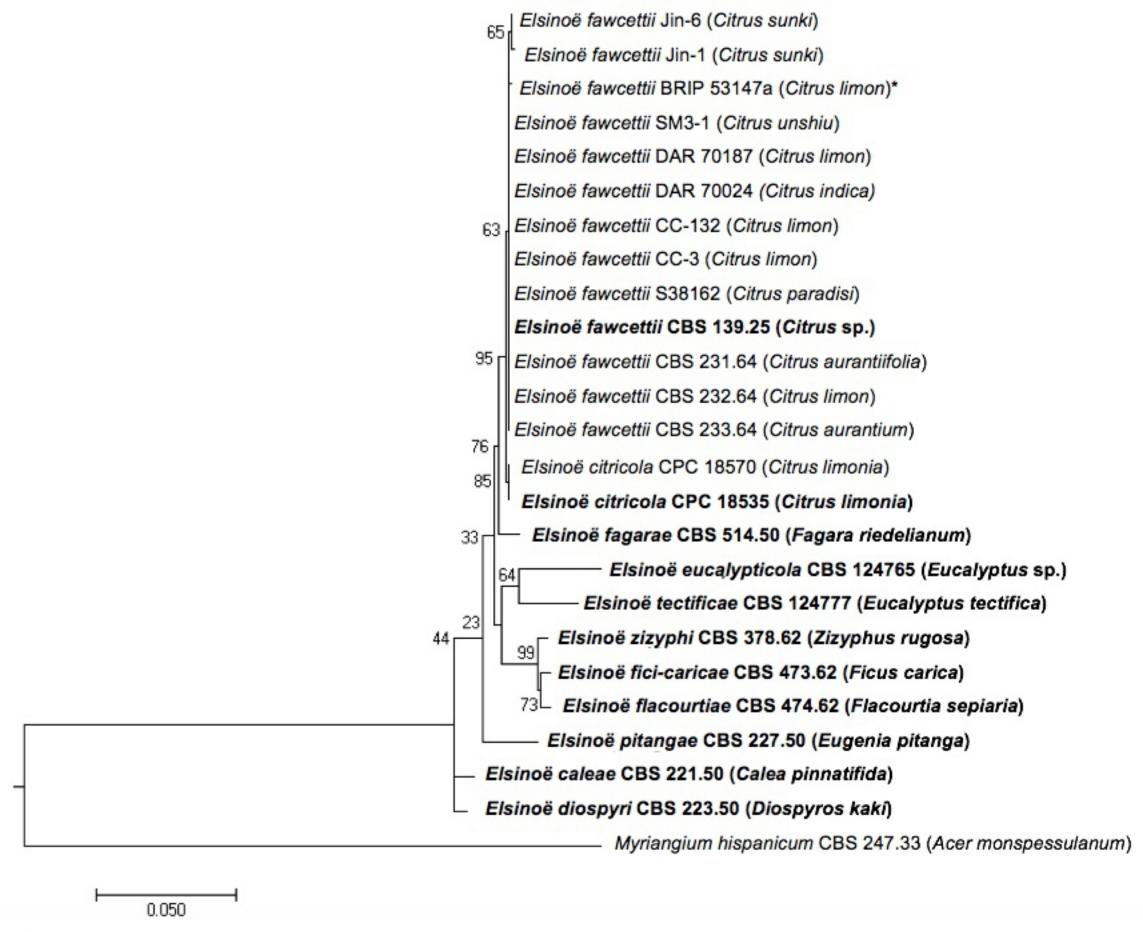


Fig 2

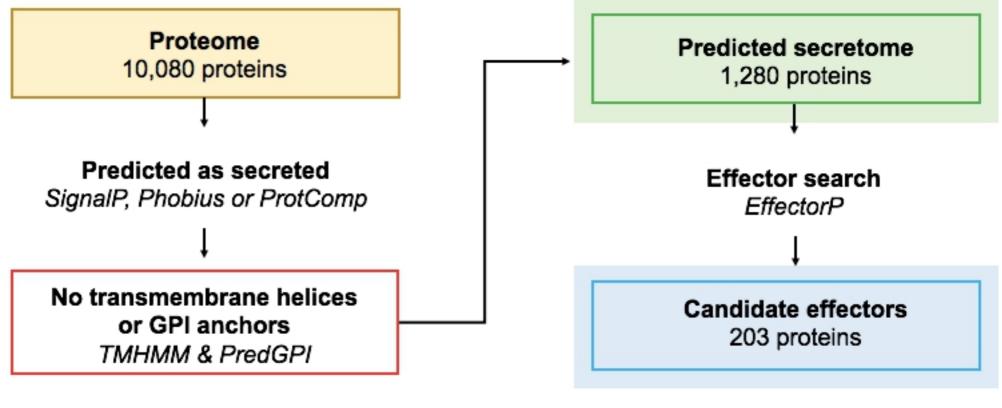


Fig 3

One point for each feature:

- IFR on at least one side of gene is >median
- No involvement in predicted SM gene clusters
- GC content of CDS is <Q₁ or >Q₃
- · Within 10 genes of gene with a specified Pfam hit
- Unique or obtained same orthoMCL ID as a known effector

CE's scored out of a possible 5 points:

 Elsinoë fawcettii, Parastagonospora nodorum, Pyrenophora tritici-repentis, Verticillium dahliae & Ustilago maydis

Additional points:

Genomes with >2% TE coverage:

Within 7 genes of a TE region

CE's scored out of a possible 6 points:

Zymoseptoria tritici, Sclerotinia sclerotiorum,
 Botrytis cinerea & Magnaporthe oryzae

CE's scored out of a possible 7 points:

Genomes with >2% TE coverage & >25% AT-rich regions:

Distance from gene to closest AT-rich region is <Q₁ value

o Rhynchosporium commune &

Leptosphaeria maculans

Fig 4

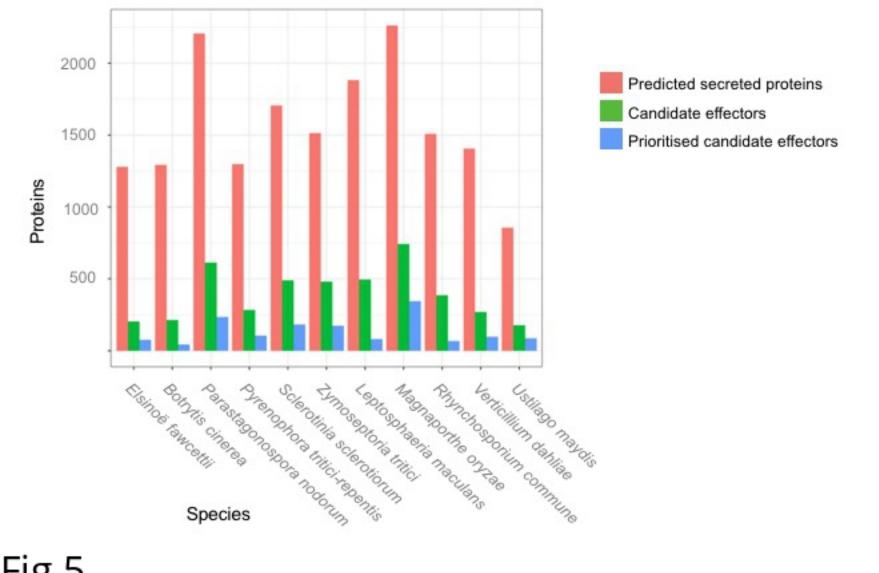


Fig 5

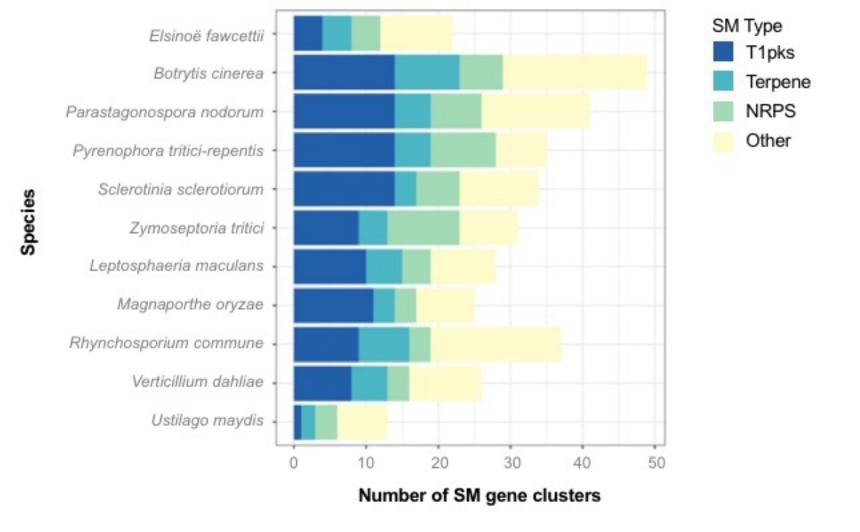


Fig 6