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Centromere evolution in the fungal genus Verticillium — Source link 🗹

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Published on: 30 Jun 2020 - bioRxiv (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory)

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1 Centromere evolution in the fungal genus Verticillium

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- 14 Running title: Centromeres across the Verticillium genus

15 ABSTRACT

Centromeres are chromosomal regions that are crucial for chromosome segregation during 16 17 mitosis and meiosis, and failed centromere formation can contribute to chromosomal anomalies. 18 Despite this conserved function, centromeres differ significantly between and even within 19 species. Thus far, systematic studies into the organization and evolution of fungal centromeres 20 remain scarce. In this study, we identified the centromeres in each of the ten species of the fungal 21 genus Verticillium and characterized their organization and evolution. Chromatin 22 immunoprecipitation of the centromere-specific histone CenH3 (ChIP-seq) and chromatin 23 conformation capture (Hi-C) followed by high-throughput sequencing identified eight conserved, 24 large (~150 kb), AT-, and repeat-rich regional centromeres that are embedded in heterochromatin 25 in the plant pathogen V. dahliae. Using Hi-C, we similarly identified repeat-rich centromeres in 26 the other *Verticillium* species. Strikingly, a single repetitive element is strongly associated with 27 centromeric regions in some but not all Verticillium species. Extensive chromosomal 28 rearrangements occurred during Verticillium evolution, yet only a minority could be linked to 29 centromeres, suggesting that centromeres played a minor role in chromosomal evolution. 30 Nevertheless, the size and organization of centromeres differ considerably between species, and 31 centromere size was found to correlate with the genome-wide repeat content. Overall, our study 32 highlights the contribution of repetitive elements to the diversity and rapid evolution of 33 centromeres within the fungal genus Verticillium.

34

35 IMPORTANCE

The genus *Verticillium* contains ten species of plant-associated fungi, some of which are notorious pathogens. *Verticillium* species evolved by frequent chromosomal rearrangements that contribute to genome plasticity. Centromeres are instrumental for separation of chromosomes during mitosis and meiosis, and failed centromere functionality can lead to chromosomal

40	anomalies. Here, we used a combination of experimental techniques to identify and characterize
41	centromeres in each of the Verticillium species. Intriguingly, we could strongly associate a single
42	repetitive element to the centromeres of some of the Verticillium species. The presence of this
43	element in the centromeres coincides with increased centromere sizes and genome-wide repeat
44	expansions. Collectively, our findings signify a role of repetitive elements in the function,
45	organization and rapid evolution of centromeres in a set of closely related fungal species.

46 INTRODUCTION

47 Centromeres are crucial for reliable chromosome segregation during mitosis and meiosis. During 48 this process, centromeres direct the assembly of the kinetochore, a multi-protein complex that 49 facilitates attachment of spindle microtubules to chromatids (1-3). Failure in formation or 50 maintenance of centromeres can lead to aneuploidy, i.e. changes in the number of chromosomes 51 within a nucleus, and to chromosomal rearrangements (3-5). While these processes have been 52 often associated with disease development (6), they can also provide genetic diversity that is 53 beneficial for adaptation to novel or changing environments (7, 8). For example, aneuploidy in 54 the budding yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae can lead to increased fitness under selective 55 conditions, such as the presence of antifungal drugs (9, 10). Thus, centromeric instability can 56 contribute to adaptive genome evolution (11, 12).

57 Despite their conserved function, centromeres are among the most rapidly evolving genomic regions (13, 14) that are typically defined by their unusual (AT-rich) sequence 58 59 composition, low gene and high repeat density, and heterochromatic nature (13, 15). 60 Nevertheless, centromeres differ significantly in size, composition, and organization between 61 species (13, 16). Centromeres in S. cerevisiae are only ~125 nucleotides long and are bound by a 62 single nucleosome containing the centromere-specific histone 3 variant CenH3 (also called 63 CENP-A or Cse4) (17-20). In contrast to these 'point centromeres', centromeres in many other 64 fungi are more variable and larger, and have thus been referred to as 'regional centromeres' (15). 65 For instance, in the opportunistically pathogenic yeast *Candida albicans*, the CenH3-bound 3-5 66 kb long centromeric DNA regions differ significantly between chromosomes, and rapidly 67 diverged from closely related Candida species (21-23). Centromeres in the basidiomycete yeasts 68 *Malassezia* are similar in size (3-5 kb) but contain a short AT-rich consensus sequence in multiple 69 Malassezia species (11). In Malassezia, chromosomal rearrangements and karyotype changes are 70 driven by centromeric loss through chromosomal breakage or by inactivation through sequence

diversification (11). Chromosomal rearrangements at centromeres have been similarly observed in the yeast *Candida parapsilosis*, suggesting that centromeres can be fragile and contribute to karyotype evolution (11, 12). CenH3-bound centromeric regions of the basidiomycete yeast *Cryptococcus neoformans* are relatively large, ranging from 30 to 65 kb, and are rich in Long Terminal Repeat (LTR)-type retrotransposons (16). Centromere sizes differ between *Cryptococcus* species as those lacking RNAi and DNA methylation have shorter centromeres, associated with the loss of full-length LTR retrotransposons at centromeric regions, suggesting

that functional RNAi together with DNA methylation is required for centromere stability (16).

79 In filamentous fungi, centromeres have been most extensively studied in the saprophyte 80 *Neurospora crassa* (15). In this species, centromeric regions are considerably larger than in yeasts 81 (on average ~200 kb), and are characterized by AT-rich sequences that are degenerated remnants 82 of transposable elements and sequence repeats that lack an overall consensus sequence (15, 24, 83 25). The increased AT-content and the degenerated nature of transposable elements in the 84 genome of N. crassa are the result of a process called repeat-induced point mutation (RIP) (15, 85 26). RIP has been linked to the sexual cycle of ascomycetes and targets repetitive sequences by 86 inducing C to T mutations, preferably at CpA di-nucleotides (26). The AT-rich centromeric 87 regions are bound by CenH3 and enriched in the heterochromatin-specific histone modification 88 histone 3 trimethylation of lysine 9 (H3K9me3) (25). Additionally, H3K9me3 and cytosine 89 methylation occurs at the periphery of the centromeres (25). Alterations in H3K9me3 localization 90 compromise centromeric localization, suggesting that the formation and location of 91 heterochromatin, rather than the DNA sequence itself, is essential for function and localization of 92 centromeres in N. crassa (15, 25). However, heterochromatin is not a hallmark for centromeres in 93 all filamentous fungi. Centromeres in the fungal wheat pathogen Zymoseptoria tritici are shorter 94 (~10 kb) and AT-poor, and their presence does not correlate with transposable elements nor with 95 heterochromatin-specific histone modifications such as H3K9me3 or histone 3 trimethylation of

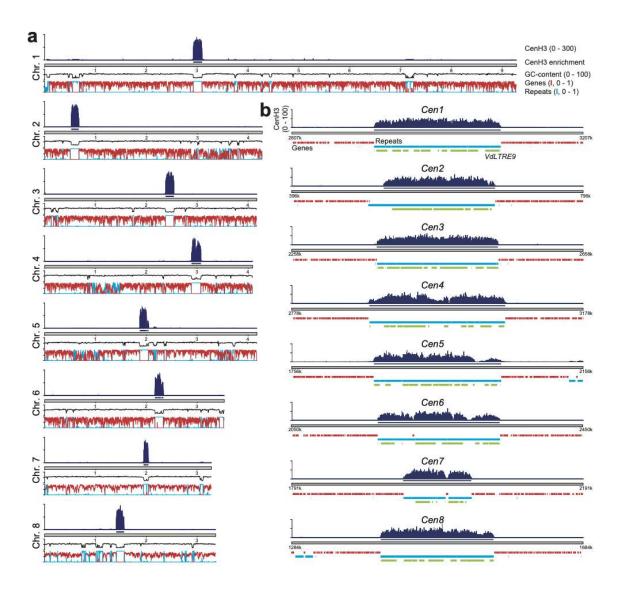
96 lysine 27 (H3K27me3) (27). Thus, even though centromeric function is highly conserved, fungal
97 centromeres differ considerably in size, sequence composition, and organization.

98 Knowledge on centromeres has been impaired by their repetitive nature, which hampers 99 their assembly and subsequent analyses (15, 28). However, recent advances in long-read 100 sequencing technologies enables to study the constitution and evolution of centromeres (11, 16, 101 29-31). By using long-read sequencing technologies in combination with optical mapping, we 102 previously generated gapless genome assemblies of two strains of the fungal plant pathogen 103 Verticillium dahliae (32), whose genomes are characterized by genome rearrangements and the 104 occurrence of lineage-specific (LS) regions (7, 8, 33-35) that are hypervariable between V. 105 dahliae strains and contain genes with roles in adaptive evolution to plant hosts (7, 8, 33, 35). 106 Repetitive elements within the LS regions display a distinct chromatin state when compared with 107 other repetitive regions (36). The Verticillium genus consists of ten species that are all soil-borne 108 and presumed asexual but have different life-styles (37). Nine of these species are haploid, while 109 the species Verticillium longisporum is an allodiploid hybrid between a strain that is closely 110 related to V. dahliae and an unknown Verticillium species (37-39). During the evolution of the 111 different Verticillium species frequent chromosomal rearrangements occurred (8, 35, 40). 112 Facilitated by the availability of high-quality genome assemblies of V. dahliae strains and of all 113 other *Verticillium* species (32, 33, 40, 41), we here sought to identify and study the constitution 114 and evolution of centromeres in the Verticillium genus.

115 **RESULTS**

116 CenH3-binding identifies large regional centromeres in Verticillium dahliae

117 Centromeres differ significantly between fungi, but most centromeres are functionally defined by 118 nucleosomes containing CenH3 (1). To identify centromeres in V. dahliae strain JR2 by 119 chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by high-throughput sequencing (ChIP-seq), we first 120 identified the V. dahliae CenH3 ortholog (Fig. S1a) and generated transformants with N-121 terminally FLAG-tagged CenH3 (Table S1). To this end, the coding sequence for the FLAG-122 tagged CenH3 was inserted in locus behind the native CenH3 promotor (Figs. S1b-c). We 123 subsequently used anti-FLAG antibodies to purify FLAG-tagged CenH3-containing nucleosomes 124 from two V. dahliae transformants (Table S1a) and sequenced the nucleosome-associated 125 genomic DNA. Mapping of the sequencing reads to the V. dahliae strain JR2 genome assembly 126 identified a single CenH3-enriched region per chromosome (Fig. 1a; Fig. S1d-e), while mapping 127 of the sequencing reads derived from the WT strain did not reveal any CenH3-enriched region 128 (Fig. S1d-e). The CenH3-enriched regions, designated as Cen1-8, range between ~94 and ~187 129 kb in size (Fig. 1a; Table 1). To corroborate these centromere sizes, we assessed centromere 130 locations based on a previously generated optical map (32, 35) revealing no significant size 131 differences (Fig. S1f). Thus, we conclude that CenH3-binding defines large regional centromeres 132 in V. dahliae strain JR2.



134

135 Figure 1 – CenH3-binding defines centromeres in Verticillium dahliae strain JR2. (a) 136 Schematic overview of the chromosomes of V. dahliae strain JR2 showing the normalized CenH3 137 ChIP-seq read coverage (RPGC normalization in 1 kb bins with 3 kb smoothening), CenH3 138 enriched regions, GC-content, gene density (red line), and repeat density (blue line). (b) 139 Magnification of a 400 kb region containing the centromere is shown for each of the eight 140 chromosomes of V. dahliae strain JR2 (Cen1-8) depicting the CenH3 ChIP-seq read coverage 141 (RPGC normalization in 10 bp bins with a 30 bp smoothening) and enrichment, as well as the 142 presence of genes (red) and repetitive elements (blue). Regions carrying the centromere-specific 143 long-terminal repeat element VdLTRE9 are highlighted in green.

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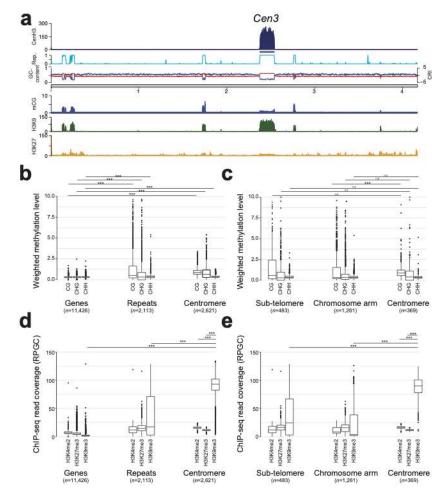
147 Centromeres in *Verticillium dahliae* are repeat-rich and embedded in heterochromatin

Centromeres are often characterized by increased AT-content, increased repeat density, and 148 149 depletion of protein coding genes (13, 15, 29). To characterize the centromeres in V. dahliae 150 strain JR2, we queried the eight chromosomes for the presence of large AT-rich, gene-sparse, and 151 repeat-rich regions. Seven of the eight chromosomes contain only a single large (>93 kb; average 152 size ~150 kb) AT-rich region (~74-78% versus ~46% genome-wide), nearly completely devoid of 153 protein-coding genes and enriched for repetitive sequences, that overlaps with the regions defined 154 by CenH3-binding (Fig. 1a; Table 1). In contrast, chromosome 1 contains three regions with 155 these characteristics (Fig. 1a; Table 1). However, only one of these overlaps with the centromeric 156 regions defined by CenH3-binding (Fig. 1).

157 Elevated AT-levels in repeat-rich regions are caused by RIP mutations in some 158 filamentous fungi (15, 25, 26, 42). Due to its presumably asexual nature (7), the occurrence of 159 RIP in V. dahliae is controversial (8, 43, 44), although signatures of RIP have previously been 160 reported in a subset of repeat-rich regions (36). We assessed the occurrence of RIP signatures in 161 centromeres using the composite RIP index (CRI) (45), which considers C to T mutations in the 162 CpA context. Intriguingly, genomic regions located at centromeres display significantly higher 163 CRI values than other genomic regions (e.g. genes or repetitive elements) (Fig. 2a; Figs. S2, 164 S3a), and thus RIP signatures at repetitive elements located at centromeres likely contribute to the 165 high AT-levels.

In most filamentous fungi and oomycetes, AT- and repeat-rich centromeres are embedded in heterochromatin that is characterized by methylated DNA and by particular histone modifications (H3K9me3 and H3K27me3) (13, 15, 16, 25, 30, 45). We recently determined chromatin states in the genome of *V. dahliae* strain JR2 and revealed that repetitive sequences outside of the LS regions display characteristics of heterochromatin (36). To define centromeric chromatin states, we used previously generated bisulfite sequencing data to monitor DNA

172 methylation (mC) and ChIP-seq data to determine the distribution of the heterochromatic marks H3K9me3 and H3K27me3 (36). To also determine the distribution of euchromatin, we performed 173 174 ChIP-seq with an antibody against the euchromatic mark di-methylation of lysine 4 of histone H3 175 (H3K4me2). We observed overall low genome-wide DNA methylation levels (36) (Fig. 2a; Fig. 176 **S2**), similar to the previously reported levels for Aspergillus flavus (46) and lower than for N. 177 crassa (47). Nevertheless, repetitive elements and centromeres show significantly higher DNA 178 methylation levels in all contexts when compared with genes (Fig. 2b). Methylation (in CG 179 context) at repetitive elements at centromeres is significantly higher than at repeats located along 180 the chromosomal arm, but not at sub-telomeric regions (Fig. 2c), and more methylation at 181 centromeres correlates with increased CRI (Fig. 2a; Figs. S2, S3a). DNA methylation co-182 localizes with H3K9me3 at repeat-rich regions (36) (Figs. 2a; Fig. S2). H3K9me3 occurs 183 predominantly at repetitive elements localized at sub-telomeres and centromeres (Figs. 2d-e; 184 Figs. S2, S3b). In comparison, H3K4me2 and H3K27me3 are largely absent from centromeres 185 (Figs. 2d-e; Fig. S3b). Collectively, these observations indicate that centromeres of V. dahliae 186 display typical characteristics of constitutive heterochromatin.



187

Figure 2 – Centromeres in 188 Verticillium dahliae strain JR2 are embedded in 189 heterochromatin. (a) Schematic overview of chromosome 3 of V. dahliae strain JR2, 190 exemplifying the distribution of heterochromatin-associated chromatin modifications (mC, 191 H3K9me3, and H3K27me3) in relation to the centromeres. The different lanes display the 192 CenH3-FLAG ChIP-seq read coverage (RPGC normalization in 1 kb bins with 3 kb smoothening), the CenH3-FLAG enriched regions, the repeat-density, the GC-content, the CRI as 193 194 well as the weighted cytosine methylation (all summarized in 5 kb windows with 500 bp slide), 195 and the normalized H3K9me3 and H3K27me3 ChIP-seq read coverage (RPGC normalization in 1 196 kb bins with 3 kb smoothening). The schematic overview of all chromosomes is shown in Figure 197 S2. (b) Box plots of weighted DNA methylation levels per genomic context (CG, CHG, or CHH) 198 are summarized over genes, repetitive elements, or 5 kb genomic windows (500 bp slide) 199 overlapping with the centromeric regions. (c) Weighted DNA methylation levels per genomic 200 context (CG, CHG, or CHH) are summarized over repetitive elements that have been split based 201 on their genomic location; sub-telomeres (within the first or last 10% of the chromosome), 202 centromeres, or the remainder of the chromosome arm. (d) ChIP-seq read coverage (RPGC 203 normalized; see (a)) for H3K4me2, H3K27m3, and H3K9me3 is summarized over genes, 204 repetitive elements, or 5 kb windows (500 bp slide) overlapping with the centromeric regions. (e) 205 ChIP-seq read coverage (RPGC normalized; see (a)) for H3K4me2, H3K27m3, and H3K9me3 is 206 summarized over repetitive elements that have been split based on their genomic location; sub-207 telomeres (within the first or last 10% of the chromosome), centromeres, or the remainder of the

chromosomal arm. Statistical differences for the indicated comparisons were calculated using the
 one-sided non-parametric Mann-Whitney test; p-values < 0.001: ***.

210

211 A single repeat associates with Verticillium dahliae strain JR2 centromeres

212 Centromere identity and function is typically defined by CenH3-binding and not by specific DNA 213 sequences, although various types of repetitive sequences, such as transposable elements, are 214 commonly observed in centromeres of plants, animals, and fungi (13, 15, 48, 49). Unsurprisingly, 215 CenH3-bound centromeres are repeat-rich in V. dahliae (Fig. 1). A detailed analysis of the eight 216 centromeres revealed a near-complete (>96%) composition of repetitive elements belonging to 217 only ten different repeat sub-families (Figs. 1b, 3a; Table 1), of which the majority shows 218 similarity to LTR retrotransposons of the Gypsy- and Copia-like families (Fig. 3a). These 219 elements show signs of RIP, are highly methylated, and non-transcribed (Figs. S3c-e), and thus 220 likely inactive. Interestingly, a single LTR retrotransposon sub-family, previously designated 221 *VdLTRE9* (8, 32), covers on average $\sim 70\%$ of the DNA sequences at the eight centromeres, 222 ranging from 47% in Cen7 to 83% in Cen2 (Fig. 3a; Table 1). We scanned the genome for the 223 localization of the ten repeat sub-families (Fig. 3). Intriguingly, although it is one of the most 224 abundant repeats in the genome with 215 complete or partial matches, VdLTR9 is associated to 225 centromeres as 95% of the copies (204 out of 215; one-sided Fisher's exact test; multiple-testing 226 corrected p-value 3e-106) occur at the eight centromeres, whereas only 5% of the copies are 227 dispersed over the genome (Fig. 3b-c). The nine other repeat sub-families have additional 228 matches that are located outside of the centromeres (Figs. 1a; Figs. 3b-c), and only two of these 229 repeats are significantly enriched and consistently present in all eight centromeres; 63% and 45% 230 of the matches of these two sub-families occur at the centromeres (Fig. 3c). Collectively, these 231 findings suggest that only the presence of VdLTRE9 is strongly associated with centromeres in V. 232 dahliae strain JR2.

233	VdLTRE9 displays similarity to LTR retrotransposons. The consensus sequence of
234	VdLTRE9 is ~7.3 kb long (the two LTR sequences are each ~200 bp long), and the individual
235	matches share a high degree of sequence identity (~86%). Sequence similarity based TE-
236	classifications using PASTEC (50) indicates that the consensus sequence displays remote
237	similarity to Gypsy-like retrotransposons. Only ~25% of the VdLTRE9 matches in the genome
238	cover the entire (>97.5%) consensus sequence, but many of these are still fragmented as they
239	occur as discontinuous copies. Furthermore, the VdLTRE9 consensus sequence is AT-rich (~75%
240	AT), which may be caused by RIP (Fig. S3d), indicating that VdLTRE9 has significantly
241	degenerated.

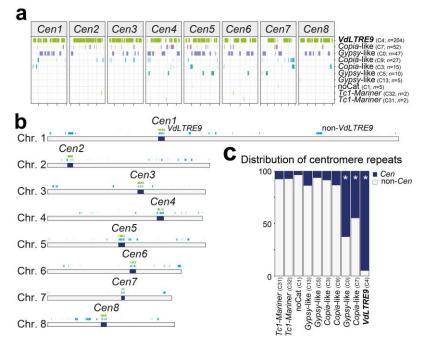


Figure 3 – A single repeat family associates with centromeres in Verticillium dahliae strain 243 244 JR2. (a) The presence of different repeat sub-families is shown across the eight centromeres 245 (Cen1-8), and the number of occurrences for each sub-family within the centromeres is indicated. 246 The individual centromeres in the diagram are shown in equal scale. (b) Genome-wide 247 distribution of the ten repeat sub-families occurring within the eight centromeres (Cen1-8; dark 248 blue); the location of VdLTRE9 is shown in green and the location of elements belonging to the 249 other nine sub-repeat families (from panel (a)) is shown in light blue. (c) The distribution of 250 different repeat sub-families in centromeres (Cen; dark blue) and across the genome (non-Cen; 251 light grey). The enrichment of specific sub-families at centromeres was assessed using a one-252 sided Fisher's exact test. Significant enrichment (multiple-testing corrected p-value < 0.01) is 253 denoted with an asterisk.

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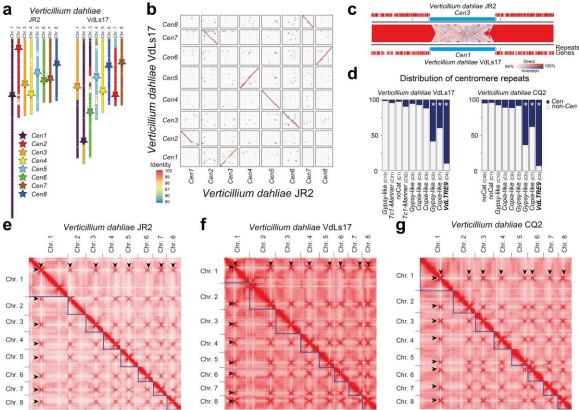
255 *VdLTRE9* as hallmark of *Verticillium dahliae* centromeres

256 To examine if *VdLTRE9* similarly occurs at centromeres in other *V. dahliae* strains, we made use 257 of the complete genome assembly of V. dahliae strain VdLs17 (8, 32, 35). The evolution of V. 258 dahliae is characterised by chromosomal rearrangements (8, 35) (Figs. 4a; Figs. S4a-c). 259 Nevertheless, synteny analyses between V. dahliae strains JR2 and VdLs17 revealed large regions 260 of co-linearity between chromosomes and identified significant sequence and synteny 261 conservation between the centromeres and their flanking regions (Figs. 4b-c; Fig. S4a), 262 suggesting that centromeric sequences and their locations are conserved. We queried the genome 263 of V. dahliae strain VdLs17 for the presence of VdLTRE9 and identified a single region on each 264 chromosome, collectively containing 186 of the 207 (90%) complete or partial matches of 265 VdLTRE9 in the genome (Fig. 4d) (one-sided Fisher's exact test; multiple-testing corrected p-266 value 3e-146). These VdLTR9-rich regions are ~150 kb in size, AT-rich, gene-poor and repeat-267 rich, and share similarity to the previously identified CenH3-bound and VdLTRE9-enriched 268 regions of V. dahliae strain JR2 (Figs. 4b-c; Fig. S4d), suggesting that these regions similarly 269 represent the centromeres of V. dahliae strain VdLs17.

270 Centromeres N. crassa and some other fungi co-localize within the nucleus (15, 51-55). This 271 co-localization can be experimentally determined using chromosome conformation capture (Hi-272 C), which can identify centromeres by their increased inter-chromosomal contacts (55). To 273 confirm that Hi-C can be used to identify centromeres in V. dahliae, we first applied Hi-C to V. 274 dahliae strain JR2. As anticipated, we observed seven strong inter-chromosomal contacts for each 275 of the eight chromosomes (Figs. 4e). Importantly, the interacting regions overlap with the 276 CenH3-bound regions that we identified as centromeres (**Table S1b**), demonstrating that 277 centromeres in V. dahliae strain JR2 co-localize within the nucleus and supporting that Hi-C 278 reliably identifies centromeres (51, 52). We then applied Hi-C to V. dahliae strain VdLs17, and

similarly identified regions with strong inter-chromosomal contacts, one for each of the
chromosomes (Figs. 4f). These regions overlap with the *VdLTRE9*-enriched regions (Table S1b),
suggesting that these represent functional centromeres in *V. dahliae* strain VdLs17.

282 The two V. dahliae strains JR2 and VdLs17 are closely related and differ only by $\sim 0.05\%$ 283 sequence diversity (8, 35). Thus, the conservation of VdLTRE9 at centromeres could be driven by 284 limited divergence between the two V. dahliae strains rather than representing a hallmark of V. 285 dahliae centromeres. Therefore, we sought to determine centromeres in an additional V. dahliae 286 strain with increased sequence diversity when compared with V. dahliae strains JR2 or VdLs17, 287 namely strain CO2 that displays ~1.05 percent sequence diversity (33). We previously obtained a 288 long-read based genome assembly of this strain that encompasses 17 contigs (33). We generated 289 Hi-C data for V. dahliae strain CQ2 and utilized intra-chromosomal contacts to assign the contigs 290 into eight pseudo-chromosomes, leaving ~148 kb unplaced scaffolds (Fig. 4g; Fig. S4e; Table 291 **S1c**). We subsequently identified a single region with seven strong inter-chromosomal contacts 292 for each pseudo-chromosome that is significantly enriched for VdLTRE9 (one-sided Fisher's 293 exact test; multiple-testing corrected p-value 3.4e-166) (Figs. 4d, g; Fig. S4e; Table S1b). 294 Synteny analyses between V. dahliae strains JR2 and CQ2 revealed that the eight VdLTRE9-rich 295 regions and their flanking chromosomal regions are co-linear, suggesting that centromere 296 locations are conserved between different V. dahliae strains (Figs. 4; Figs. S4a-c, f). With an 297 average size of 165 kb, the centromeres of V. dahliae strain CQ2 are similar in size as the 144 kb 298 and 157 kb average sizes in V. dahliae strains VdLs17 and JR2, respectively (Table S1b). The 299 sizes of the corresponding (i.e. homologous) centromeres vary between the different V. dahliae 300 strains. Yet, the consistent co-occurrence of the VdLTRE9-rich regions with the interaction data 301 obtained by Hi-C throughout a selection of V. dahliae strains demonstrates that VdLTRE9 is a 302 hallmark of V. dahliae centromeres.



304

305 Figure 4 – Hi-C contact maps identify VdLTRE9 as hallmark of centromeres in Verticillium 306 dahliae. (a) Synteny analyses of the eight chromosomes of V. dahliae strains JR2 and VdLs17. 307 Schematic overview of the eight chromosomes of V. dahliae strain JR2 (left) and the 308 corresponding syntenic regions in V. dahliae strains VdLs17 (right). Approximate locations of 309 centromeres are indicated by stars, and syntenic centromeres of V. dahliae strain VdLs17 are 310 colored according to Cen1-8 of V. dahliae strain JR2. (b) Sequence alignment of the centromeric 311 regions ± 20 kb in V. dahliae strain JR2 and the corresponding regions in V. dahliae strains 312 VdLs17 shown as dot-plot. For clarity, only alignments with >95% sequence identity are 313 displayed. (c) Magnification of Cen3 of V. dahliae strain JR2 and the syntenic Cen1 of strain 314 VdLs17. Synteny between regions is indicated by ribbons; entire centromeric regions *Cen1* and 315 Cen3 are syntenic and sequence similarity between individual VdLTRE9 elements is visualized. 316 The Cen regions \pm 150 kb are shown as well as genes (red) and repeats (blue) are annotated 317 within this region. (d) Distribution of different repeat families in centromeres (*Cen*; dark blue) 318 and across the genome (non-Cen; light grey) for V. dahliae strains VdLs17 and CQ2. The 319 enrichment of specific sub-families at centromeres was assessed using a one-sided Fisher's exact 320 test. Significant enrichment (multiple-testing corrected p-value < 0.01) is denoted with an 321 asterisk. (e-g) Hi-C contact matrix showing interaction frequencies between genomic regions in 322 *Verticillium dahliae* strains JR2 (e), VdLs17 (f), and CO2 (g). Regions of high inter-chromosomal 323 interaction frequencies are indicative of centromeres and are highlighted by arrow heads. 324 Interaction frequencies are summarized in 50 kb bins along the genome. 325

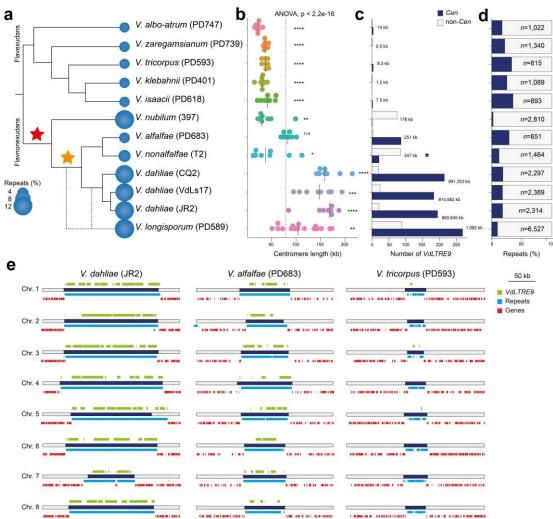
327 The evolution of *Verticillium* centromeres

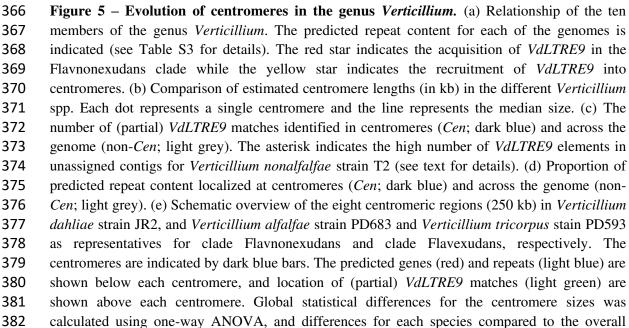
328 In addition to V. dahliae, we previously generated genome assemblies of the eight haploid 329 *Verticillium* species and the allodiploid V. *longisporum* (39, 40) (Fig. 5a) that ranged from 12 to 330 684 scaffolds (**Table S1c**). These ten *Verticillium* species have been traditionally separated over 331 two distinct clades; Flavnonexudans and Flavexudans (Fig. 5a) (37). We generated Hi-C data to 332 study the composition and evolution of centromeres in the different *Verticillium* species. By using 333 intra-chromosomal interaction signals, we first assigned the vast majority of the previously 334 assembled contigs into eight pseudo-chromosomes for each of the haploid Verticillium species 335 and 16 pseudo-chromosomes for the diploid V. longisporum, leaving between 0.5 kb and 2,022 kb 336 unassigned (Fig. S5; Table S1c). For most genome assemblies, the pseudo-chromosomes contain 337 one or both telomeric repeats (Table S1c), and thus we conclude that all Verticillium strains have 338 eight chromosomes, and that this number doubled in V. longisporum. Based on the inter-339 chromosomal Hi-C interaction signals, we identified a single region with high inter-chromosomal 340 contacts for each of the pseudo-chromosomes (Fig. S5; Table S1d), indicating that these are the 341 centromeres in the different Verticillium species. The average centromere size in Verticillium is 342 ~80 kb, yet we observed significant differences between the species (Fig. 5b; Figs. S6a-b). 343 Centromeres within the Flavexudans clade are similarly sized and significantly smaller than the 344 genus-wide average. By contrast, V. dahliae and V. longisporum centromeres are significantly 345 larger.

We subsequently assessed whether *VdLTRE9* defines centromeres in the other *Verticillium* species besides *V. dahliae* as well. Interestingly, *VdLTRE9* is abundant at centromeres in the allodiploid *V. longisporum* and in *V. alfalfae*, but fewer (21) or no *VdLTRE9* copies were identified at centromeres in *V. nonalfalfae* and *V. nubilum*, respectively (**Fig. 5c; Fig. S6c-d**). Similarly, only few or no (partial) matches of *VdLTRE9* consensus could be identified in the genomes of the Flavexudans species (**Fig. 5c; Fig. S6-7; Table S1e**). Collectively, these

findings demonstrate that *VdLTRE9* is specific to Flavnonexudans species and has likely been
recruited to the centromere only after the divergence of *V. nubilum* (Fig. 5a; Fig. S6-7).

354 Since VdLTRE9 occurs only in few Verticillium species, we assessed to which extent 355 other repetitive elements contribute to centromere organization. We analyzed the repeats 356 identified by *de novo* repeat predictions for each of the *Verticillium* species. Centromeres in all 357 species are AT- and repeat-rich (Fig. S6a-b), and some repeats occur in high frequency or nearly 358 exclusively at centromeres in species that lack VdLTRE9 (Table S1e). However, in contrast to 359 *VdLTRE9*, these repeats cover only a minority (typically less than 10%) of the centromeres 360 (Table S1e). Sequence similarity-based cluster analyses of the *de novo* repeat consensus 361 sequences revealed that divergent repeat families contribute to Verticillium centromere 362 organization (Fig. S8). Thus, in contrast to VdLTRE9 in most Flavnonexudans species, we could 363 not identify any additional repeat family as a hallmark of centromeres in other Verticillium 364 species.





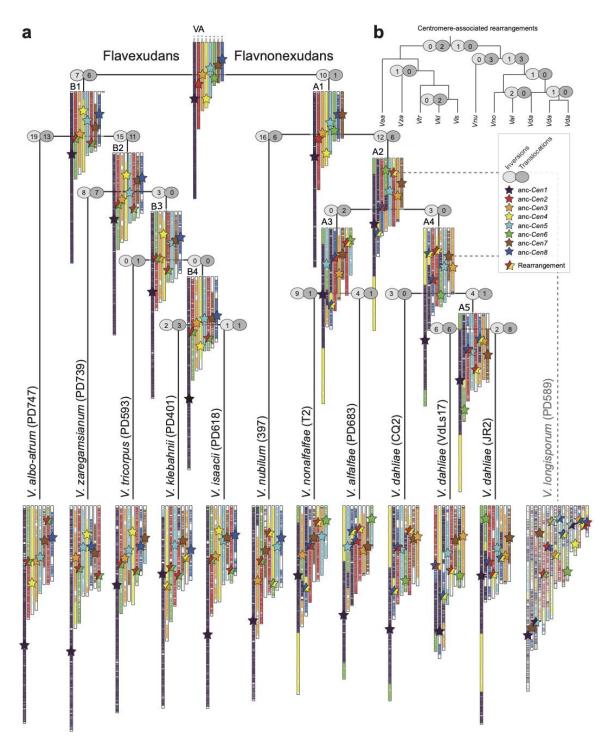
mean were computed using unpaired T-tests; p-values < 0.0001: ****, p-values < 0.001: ***, p-values < 0.01: **, p-values < 0.05: *.

385

386 Centromeres contribute to *Verticillium* karyotype evolution

387 We previously used fragmented genome assemblies to identify chromosomal rearrangements during Verticillium evolution (8, 35, 40). We hypothesize that centromeres might have 388 389 contributed to these chromosomal rearrangements. To identify genome rearrangements and to 390 trace centromeres during Verticillium evolution, we used the pseudo-chromosomes of the haploid 391 Verticillium species to reconstruct ancestral chromosomal configurations using AnChro (Fig 6a) 392 (56). We reconstructed all potential ancestors that predominantly had eight chromosomes and 393 ~8,000 genes (Figs. S9a-b), yet the number of ancestral chromosomes and genes varied when 394 approaching the last common ancestor (Figs. S9a-b). By balancing the number of reconstructed 395 chromosomes and genes, we identified a single most parsimonious ancestral genome with eight 396 chromosomes and ~8,500 genes (Fig. 6a; Fig. S9c), except for the last common ancestor within 397 the clade Flavexudans clade that had eight major chromosomes and two additional 398 'chromosomes' with only six and two genes (Fig. S9d). As these two smaller 'chromosomes' 399 likely do not represent genuine chromosomes, we conclude that all of the ancestral genomes, 400 similar to the extant haploid *Verticillium* genomes, had eight chromosomes (Fig. 6a). Confirming 401 our previous report (40), we observed in total 198 chromosomal rearrangements (124 inversions 402 and 74 translocations) (Fig. 6a). The number of chromosomal rearrangements is lower than 403 previously recorded and we did not observe any chromosomal fusion or fission events, which is 404 likely the result of the drastically improved genome assemblies, but the rearrangement signal on 405 each branch is sufficient to nevertheless recapitulate the known Verticillium species phylogeny 406 (Fig. S9e). Importantly, we observed 17 genomic rearrangements that occurred at, or in close 407 proximity (within ~15 genes up or downstream) to, centromeres, both in extant Verticillium 408 species as well as in the ancestors (Fig. 6). For example, at the branch from the last common 409 ancestor (VA; Fig. 6a) to the ancestor of the clade Flavexudans (B1; Fig. 6a), two centromere-

410 associated translocations (between the ancestral chromosome 2 and 6) led to the formation of two 411 rearranged chromosomes. In total, we observed that five out of the eight ancestral centromeres 412 were associated with a chromosomal rearrangement at one point during evolution (Fig. 6a). 413 Nevertheless, comparisons of protein-coding genes that flank centromeres show that these are 414 syntenic in most extant species. Similarly, none of the recent chromosomal rearrangements 415 observed between V. dahliae strains is associated with centromeres (Figs. 4a-b, 6a). Thus, while 416 chromosomal rearrangements involving centromeres occurred during evolution, they do not 417 account for the majority of the karyotype variation between extant Verticillium species.



419 Figure 6 – Centromeres contribute to karvotype evolution in *Verticillium*. (a) Relationship of 420 the ten members of the genus Verticillium. The allodiploidization event forming V. longisporum 421 is indicated by dashed lines (38, 57). The chromosomal evolution within the haploid members of 422 the genus was reconstructed using AnChro (56). The chromosomal structure of the nine species is 423 shown in relation to the last common ancestor of the genus. The approximate locations of the 424 centromeres are indicated by stars. The number of chromosomal rearrangements (inversions and 425 translocations) are displayed for each branch, and centromeres that co-localize in proximity to 426 chromosomal rearrangements are highlighted by two-colored stars. (b) The number of major

427 chromosomal rearrangements that occurred at, or in close proximity of, centromeres are shown428 along the branches depicting the *Verticillium* species phylogeny shown in (a).

429

430 DISCUSSION

431 Centromeric regions are among the most rapidly evolving genomic regions (13-16, 29), yet 432 centromere evolution has only been systematically studied in few fungi (11, 12, 16, 29). Here, we 433 took advantage of the fungal genus Verticillium and used a combination of genetic and genomic 434 strategies to identify and characterize centromere organization and evolution. Verticillium 435 centromeres are characterized as large regional centromeres that are repeat-rich and embedded in 436 heterochromatin. We furthermore show that centromeres contribute to the karvotype evolution of 437 Verticillium. Finally, we demonstrate that VdLTRE9 is a hallmark of centromeres in some 438 *Verticillium* species, while species that lack *VdLTRE9* display a divergent repeat content.

439 Centromeres in fungi, plants, and animals co-localize within the nucleus (15, 51-55, 58), 440 a phenomenon that can be exploited for their identification (51, 52). Here, we used Hi-C to first 441 establish chromosome-level genome assemblies and subsequently identify centromeres in every 442 Verticillium species, and we demonstrate that centromere locations are in agreement with CenH3-443 binding. While we obtained chromosome-level genome assemblies for all species, Hi-C 444 scaffolded genome assemblies could still contain partially collapsed repeats and assembly gaps, in 445 particular for short-read assemblies (59). With the exception of V. nonalfalfae, we observed only 446 few sequencing gaps and no evidence that would point to collapsed repeats at centromeres, 447 suggesting that the inferred centromeres are of high quality. Verticillium centromere sizes differ, 448 which is likely not driven by assembly artefacts, and centromeres in most *Verticillium* species are 449 larger than in Z. tritici (27), C. neoformans, M. oryzae, or Fusarium graminearum (13, 16, 29), 450 yet smaller than in N. crassa (25). Species of the Flavexudans clade typically encode fewer 451 repeats than species of the clade Flavnonexudans clade (32, 40, 60), and V. nubilum, V. 452 longisporum, and V. dahliae are particularly rich in repeats when compared with other

453 *Verticillium* species (32, 39-41, 60). Thus, increased centromere sizes positively correlate with454 overall increased repeat contents.

455 Using fragmented genome assemblies, we previously identified chromosomal 456 rearrangements during Verticillium evolution (8, 35, 40) that were thought to have contributed to 457 genetic diversity and adaptation in the absence of sexual recombination (7, 35, 40). Chromosome-458 level genome assemblies for an entire genus enabled unprecedented analyses of the karyotype 459 evolution over longer evolutionary timescales. Here, we observed extensive chromosomal 460 rearrangements and provide evidence that some rearrangements at centromeres contributed to 461 karyotype evolution, most of which occurred early during the divergence of Verticillium. 462 Chromosomal rearrangements at centromeres occur in the fungal yeasts Candida, Cryptococcus, 463 and Malassezia (11, 12, 61), and synteny breakpoints have been identified between mammals and 464 chicken (62), suggesting that centromeres often contribute to karyotype evolution. The emergence 465 of chromosomal rearrangements at centromeres could be facilitated by their repeat-rich nature 466 (11, 12). For example, centromeres in *Malassezia* are enriched with an AT-rich motif that could 467 facilitate replication fork stalling, which leads to double strand DNA breaks (11). Repeats 468 localized outside of centromeres in V. dahliae contribute to chromosomal rearrangements (8), and 469 thus it seems plausible that centromeric repeats similarly contribute to chromosomal 470 rearrangements. Chromosomal rearrangements often do not only lead to changes in chromosome 471 organization but also in chromosome number (11, 12). While we observed chromosomal 472 rearrangements, all extant and ancestral genomes contained eight chromosomes, suggesting that 473 eight chromosomes are a stable configuration for all Verticillium species.

474 Centromere position and function are thought to be driven by the protein complement
475 (e.g. CenH3 localization) and by heterochromatin formation rather than by specific DNA
476 sequences (13, 15, 63). In *V. dahliae*, we observed the co-occurrence of CenH3 with H3K9me3
477 and DNA methylation. This suggests that DNA methylation, as previously reported in *N. crassa*

478 and in C. neoformans (16, 25), is also a feature of centromeric DNA in V. dahliae. Co-479 localization of CenH3 with H3K9me2/3 and DNA methylation has been reported for N. crassa 480 (25) and *C. neoformans* (16). In contrast, H3K9me3 and H3K27me3 are absent from centromeres 481 in Z. tritici (27). H3K4me2 borders most centromeres in Z. tritici (27), and is associated with 482 centromeres in S. pombe and some animals and plants (64-67). H3K4me2 has not been observed 483 at centromeres in most fungi, including V. dahliae, and in the oomycete P. sojae (30). Changes in 484 heterochromatin in N. crassa leads to altered CenH3 positioning (25), suggesting that 485 heterochromatin is similarly required for centromere maintenance and function in V. dahliae. 486 Elevated AT-levels in repeat-rich heterochromatic regions can be caused by RIP mutations (15, 487 25, 26, 42). RIP-like mutations have been previously reported in some repeats in V. dahliae (36, 488 44), and we observed strong RIP signals at centromeres. Due to its presumably asexual nature (7), 489 the occurrence of RIP in V. dahliae is controversial (8, 43, 44). Noteworthy, mutational signatures 490 resembling RIP have recently been observed in Z. tritici propagated through mitotic cell 491 divisions, pointing to the existence of a mitotic version of a RIP-like process (42). Thus, we 492 conclude that RIP was an active process in V. dahliae at some point in evolution, or that RIP-like 493 processes outside of the sexual cycle occur in V. dahliae.

494 Centromeres are often enriched for a variety of different retrotransposons and other 495 repetitive elements (15, 16, 25, 29, 30). We similarly observed that centromeres in all Verticillium 496 species are repeat-rich. Repeats and their remnants identified at centromeres typically also occur 497 outside of centromeres, as observed in M. oryzae (29) and N. crassa (25). Strikingly, we observed 498 that a single repetitive element, VdLTRE9, is strongly associated with centromeres in some 499 Verticillium species, which to our knowledge, has only been observed in the fungus Cryptococcus 500 where centromeres contain six retrotransposons (Tcn1-6) that nearly exclusively occur at 501 centromeres (16). Similarly, centromeres of the oomycete plant pathogen *Phytophthora sojae* 502 contain multiple types of repeats, but they are enriched for a single element called CoLT (Copia-

503 Like Transposon) (30). The strong associations of specific repeats to centromeres could directly 504 or indirectly link these elements to centromere function. Functional centromeres as observed here 505 are also heterochromatic and contain CenH3. AT-rich repetitive elements can direct 506 heterochromatin formation via DNA methylation and H3K9me3 deposition in N. crassa (45, 68), 507 a phenomenon that can also occurs at repeats outside of centromeres (45). Heterochromatin 508 occurs at centromeres but also at repeat-rich regions outside of centromeres in V. dahliae, thus the 509 repeat-rich nature of centromeres is likely not sufficient to direct CenH3 deposition. In S. pombe 510 heterochromatin formation is directed by short interfering RNAs (siRNA) derived from flanking 511 repetitive elements via RNAi (69, 70), and RNAi and heterochromatin mediate CenH3 512 localization at centromeres (71, 72). RNAi is also important for centromere maintenance and 513 evolution in Cryptococcus, as RNAi deficient species have smaller centromeres than RNAi 514 proficient ones (16). Interestingly, centromere-specific elements (Tcn1-6) in RNAi proficient 515 species are typically full-length elements while only remnants can be found in RNAi deficient 516 species, which could be caused by recombination between elements (16). In Verticillium, 517 centromere size differences correlate with increase of repeat content and the recruitment of 518 VdLTRE9, which is highly fragmented and likely non-active. Furthermore, even though key 519 components of the RNAi machinery exist in at least some Verticillium species (73), we know 520 very little about its biological functions. Similarly, to C. neoformans, we observed no 521 transcriptional activity of VdLTRE9 or any other repeat at centromeres, but it is unclear if this 522 silencing is mediated by RNAi, is a consequence of their heterochromatic nature, is due to their 523 fragmentation, or a combination of these. Ultimately, unravelling how specific elements 524 contribute to centromere identify necessitates future experiments. VdLTRE9 occurs only in some 525 Verticillium species and has likely been recruited to centromeres subsequent to the divergence of 526 V. nubilum. Conversely, these observations raise further questions on the roles of repeats and 527 mechanisms of centromeric identity in species without VdLTRE9. Repeats are important drivers 528 of Verticillium genome evolution and function (8, 36), and here we highlight their contributions

- 529 to centromere diversity within the fungal genus *Verticillium*. Our analyses provide the framework
- 530 for future research into the diversity or convergence of mechanisms establishing centromere
- 531 identity and functioning in fungi.

532 MATERIAL & METHODS

533 Construction of Verticillium dahliae transformants expressing FLAG-tagged CenH3

534 CenH3 and H3 homologs were identified in the predicted proteomes of V. dahliae strain JR2 (32) 535 and selected other fungi through a BLAST sequence similarity search (blastp v2.9.0+; default 536 settings, e-value cutoff 1e-20) (74, 75) using the N. crassa CenH3 (Q7RXR3) and H3 (P07041) 537 sequences as queries. Missing homologs of CenH3 or H3 were identified using manual BLAST 538 (tblastn v2.9.0+; default settings) (74, 75) and exonerate (v2.2.0; default settings) (76) searches 539 against the genome sequences. Protein sequences of selected CenH3 and H3 proteins were 540 aligned using mafft (v7.271; default settings, LINSi) (77). A phylogenetic tree was inferred with 541 maximum-likelihood methods implemented in IQ-tree (v1.6.11) (78) and robustness was assessed 542 by 1,000 rapid bootstrap replicates.

543 To construct the N-terminally FLAG-tagged CenH3 strain of V. dahliae, a recombinant 544 DNA fragment was constructed into the binary vector PRF-HU2 (79) or PRF-GU2 for 545 homologous recombination. The CenH3 locus, from V. dahliae strain JR2, was amplified as 3 546 fragments with overlapping sequences (Table S1f). The 5' most fragment containing the 547 promoter was amplified using primers A + B, the ORF with primers C+D, the Hyg promoter and 548 ORF with primers E+F, and the 3' end of the CenH3 locus with primers G+H. The four fragments 549 were combined by overlap PCR using primers A + H and cloned into a PspOMI and SphI 550 linearized vector using Gibson Assembly. The vector construction was confirmed by Sanger 551 sequencing. Vectors were transformed to Verticillium with Agrobacterium-mediated 552 transformation (80). Correct homologous recombination and replacement at the CenH3 locus was 553 verified by PCR amplification using primer I+J (Fig. S1b, Table S1f). Correct translation of the 554 recombinant protein was assessed using Western analyses with anti-FLAG antibody (Fig. S1c). 555 Briefly, proteins were extracted from 5-day old cultures grown in 100 ml Potato Dextrose Broth 556 at 22°C with continuous shaking at 120 rpm. Mycelium was collected by straining over a double

557 layer of miracloth and subsequently snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and ground with a mortar and 558 pestle using liquid nitrogen. Approximately 0.3 g of ground mycelium was resuspended in 600 559 µL protein extraction buffer (50 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1% glycerol, 560 0.02% NP-40, 2 mM Phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), 100 µM Leupeptin, 1 µg/mL 561 Pepstatin), briefly vortexed, incubated on ice for 15 min and centrifuged at 4°C at 8,000 g for 3 562 min. The supernatant was collected by transferring 20 μ L to a new tube to serve as the input 563 control and the remaining $\sim 500 \ \mu L$ was transferred to a fresh microcentrifuge tube with 15 μL of 564 Anti-FLAG M2 affinity gel (catalog number A2220, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, United 565 States) and incubated while rotating at 4° C for 1 h. Samples were centrifuged at 5,000 g, 4° C for 566 3 min, after which the supernatant was discarded. Samples were washed with 500 μ L of lysis 567 buffer, and the centrifugation and washing were repeated three times. Protein was eluted from the 568 resin by adding 15 µL of lysis buffer, 20 µL of 2x Laemmli loading buffer (4% SDS, 20% 569 glycerol, 0.004% bromophenol blue, 125 mM Tris HCL pH 6.8) and boiled at 95°C for 3 min. 570 Protein samples were separated on a 12% polyacrylamide gel, and subsequently transferred to 571 PVDF membranes, blocked in 5% BSA, washed twice in TBST, and incubated with 1:3500 anti-572 FLAG antibody (monoclonal anti-FLAG M2; Merck KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany).

573

574 Chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by high-throughput sequencing (ChIP-seq)

575 For each V. dahliae genotype, one million spores were added to 100 ml Potato Dextrose Broth 576 and incubated for 7 days at 22°C with continuous shaking at 120 rpm. Mycelium was collected by 577 straining over a double layer of miracloth and subsequently snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and 578 ground with a mortar and pestle using liquid nitrogen. All ground material (0.5-1 gram per)579 sample) was resuspended in 4 mL ChIP Lysis buffer (50 mM HEPES-KOH pH7.5, 140 mM 580 NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1% Triton X-100, 0.1% NaDOC) and dounced 40 times in a 10 cm³ glass 581 tube with tightly fitting pestle on 800 power with a RZR50 homogenizer (Heidolph, Schwabach, 582 Germany), followed by five rounds of 20 seconds sonication on ice with 40 seconds of resting in

583 between rounds with a Soniprep 150 (MSE, London, UK). Samples were redistributed to 2 mL 584 tubes and pelleted for 2 min at maximum speed in a tabletop centrifuge. Supernatants were 585 pooled per sample in a 15 mL tube together with 25 μ L α -FLAG M2 magnetic beads (Sigma-586 Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, United States), incubated overnight at 4°C and continuous rotation. 587 Beads were captured on a magnetic stand and washed with wash buffer (50 mM Tris HCl pH 8, 1 588 mM EDTA, 1% Triton X-100, 100 mM NaCL), high-salt wash buffer (50 mM Tris HCl pH 8, 1 589 mM EDTA, 1% Triton X-100, 350 mM NaCL), LiCl wash buffer (10 mM Tris HCl pH8, 1 mM 590 EDTA, 0.5% Triton X-100, 250 mM LiCl), and TE buffer (10 mM Tris HCl pH 8, 1mM EDTA). 591 Chromatin was eluted twice from beads by addition of 100 µL pre-heated TES buffer (100 mM 592 Tris HCl pH 8, 1% SDS, 10 mM EDTA, 50 mM NaCl) and 10 minutes incubation at 65°C. 10 593 mg/mL 2 µL Proteinase K was added and incubated at 65°C for 5 hours, followed chloroform extraction. DNA was precipitated by addition of 2 volumes 100% ethanol, 1/10th volume 3 M 594 NaOAc pH 5.2 and 1/200th volume 20mg/mL glycogen, and overnight incubation at -20°C. 595

Sequencing libraries were prepared using the TruSeq ChIP Library Preparation Kit
(Illumina, city, country) according to the manufacterer's instructions, but without gel purification
and with use of the Velocity DNA Polymerase (BioLine, Luckenwalde, Germany) for 12 cycles
of amplification for the FLAG-CenH3. H3K4me2 ChIP was performed as described previously
(36), using an α-H3K4me2 antibody (#39913, ActiveMotif; Carlsbad, California, United States).
Single-end (125 bp) sequencing was performed on the Illumina HiSeq2500 platform at KeyGene
N.V. (Wageningen, the Netherlands).

603

604 Chromatin confirmation capturing followed by high-throughput sequencing (Hi-C)

We determined the inter- and intra-chromosomal contact frequencies using Hi-C in *V. dahliae*strains CQ2, JR2, and VdLs17, as well as in *V. albo-atrum* strain PD747, *V. alfalfae* strain
PD683, *V. isaacii* strain PD618, *V. klebahnii* strain PD401, *V. longisporum* strain PD589, *V.*

608 nonalfalfae strain T2, V. nubilum strain 397, V. tricorpus strain PD593, and V. zaregamsianum 609 strain PD739. For each strain, one million spores were added to 400 mL Potato Dextrose Broth 610 and incubated for 6 days at 22°C with continuous shaking at 120 rpm. Mycelium was collected by 611 straining over double layer miracloth and 300 mg (fresh weight) was used as input for generating 612 Hi-C sequencing libraries with the Proximo Hi-C kit (Microbe) (Phase Genomics, Seattle, WA, 613 USA), according to manufacturer's instructions. Hi-C sequencing libraries of V. dahliae strains 614 CQ2, JR2. and VdLs17 were paired end (2x125 bp) sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq2500 615 platform at KeyGene N.V. (Wageningen, the Netherlands). Hi-C sequencing libraries of the other 616 Verticillium species were paired-end (2x150 bp) sequenced on the NextSeq500 platform at USEQ 617 (Utrecht, the Netherlands).

618

619 In vitro transcriptome profiling using RNA-seq

RNA sequencing of *V. albo-atrum* strain PD747, *V. isaacii* strain PD618, *V. klebahnii* strain
PD401, *V. longisporum* strain PD589, *V. nonalfalfae* strain T2, *V. nubilum* strain 397, *V. tricorpus* strain PD593, and *V. zaregamsianum* strain PD739 as described previously (36). Single-

623 end (50 bp) sequencing was performed on the BGISeq500 platform at BGI (BGI Hong Kong).

624

625 Analyses of high-throughput sequencing data

626 High-throughput sequencing libraries (**Table S1a**) have been analyzed as follows: Illumina reads 627 were quality-filtered and trimmed using trimmomatic (version 0.36) (81). Sequencing reads were 628 trimmed and filtered by removing Illumina TruSeq sequencing adapters (settings seed 629 mismatches 2, palindrome clip threshold 30, and simple clip threshold 10), removal of low-630 quality leading or trailing bases below quality 5 and 10, respectively, and 4-base sliding window 631 trimming and cutting when average quality per base dropped below 15. Additionally, filtered and 632 trimmed reads < 90 nt were removed from further analyses. Filtered and trimmed reads were 633 mapped to the corresponding genome assembly with Bowtie2 (default settings) (82), and mapping

634 files were converted to bam-format using samtools (v 1.8) (83). Genomic coverage was determined using deepTools (v3.4.1; bamCoverage) (84) by extending sequencing reads to 147 635 636 bp followed by RPGC normalization with a bin-size of 1,000 bp and smoothening of 3,000 bp. To 637 assess between sample variability, we used deepTools (v3.4.1, plotPCA) (84) to generate 638 principle component analyses. Furthermore, we employed deepTools (v3.4.1, 639 multiBigwigSummary) (84) to summarize genomic coverages of over genes, repetitive elements, 640 and genomic windows (5 kb windows with 500 bp slide). Genomic regions enriched for FLAG-641 CenH3 were identified using MACS2 (v2.1.1) (broad peak option; broad cutoff 0.0025) (85).

642 To determine DNA (cytosine) methylation, we utilized sequencing data of bisulfite treated 643 genomic DNA previously generated for V. dahliae strain JR2 (36). Sequencing reads were 644 mapped to the V. dahliae strain JR2 genome assembly as previously described (36). 645 Subsequently, the number of reads supporting cytosine methylation in CG-context were extracted, 646 and weighted CG-methylation levels were calculated over genes, repetitive elements, and 647 genomic windows (5 kb window size with 500 bp slide) (86); weighted CG-methylation was 648 defined as the sum of reads supporting cytosine methylations divided by the sum of all reads 649 occurring at all CG sites in the respective regions. Sites with less than four reads were not 650 considered.

651 To improve the genome assemblies of the Verticillium species, we mapped Hi-C 652 sequencing reads to genome assemblies of V. dahliae strain CQ2, V. albo-atrum strain PD747, V. 653 alfalfae strain PD683, V. isaacii strain PD618, V. klebahnii strain PD401, V. longisporum strain 654 PD589, V. nonalfalfae strain T2, V. nubilum strain 397, V. tricorpus strain PD593, and V. 655 zaregamsianum strain PD739 using Juicer (v1.6) with early stage setting (87). The contact 656 matrices generated by juicer were used by the 3D de novo assembly (3D-DNA) pipeline (88) 657 (v180922) with a contig size threshold of 1000bp to eliminate mis-joints in the previous 658 assemblies and to generate improved assemblies. The genome assemblies were manually

improved using Juicebox Assembly Tools (JBAT) (v1.11.08) (89) and improved genome
assemblies were generated using the 3D-DNA post-review asm pipeline (88). Centromere
locations were determined using a 1 kb-resolution contact matrix in JBAT, by identifying a region
per chromosome that displays strong inter-chromosomal interactions, yet weak intrachromosomal interactions (see Figure S12, S13).

664 To assess potential repeat collapses during genome assemblies at centromeric regions, we 665 mapped previously generated short-read data V. dahliae strain JR2 and VdLs17, V. albo-atrum 666 strain PD747, V. alfalfae strain PD683, V. isaacii strain PD618, V. klebahnii strain PD401, V. 667 longisporum strain PD589, Verticillium nonalfalfae strain T2, V. tricorpus strain PD593, and V. 668 zaregamsianum strain PD739 (39, 40, 90, 91) to the genome assemblies using BWA (v0.7.17; 669 mem) (83). We first used bedtools (v2.29.2) (92) to identify few genomic regions with > 500x670 coverage. We then applied deepTools (v3.4.1, computeGCBias) (84) to compute GC biases of 671 read depth across the genome, excluding the identified high coverage regions, and used 672 deepTools (v3.4.1, correctGCBias) (84) to correct GC biases, which addresses known biases in 673 sequencing library preparation to ensure even read coverage throughout the genome irrespective 674 of their base composition (93). We used deepTools (v3.4.1, bamCoverage, bins 50 bp, CPM 675 normalization) (84) to obtain the read coverage throughout the genome, excluding regions 676 containing sequence assembly gaps (Ns). Assuming that collapsed repeats would lead to a local 677 increase in read depth, we used the ratio of the average read coverage at the centromeres and 678 outside of the centromere at each chromosome to correct the inferred centromere sizes. To further 679 validate the genome assembly of regions identified as centromeres of V. dahliae strain JR2, the 680 genome assembly was compared to the previously generated optical map (35) using MapSolver (v 681 3.2; OpGen, Gaithersburg, MD).

682 The transcriptional activity for genes and repetitive elements in *V. dahliae* strain JR2 was
683 assessed *in vitro* (in Potato Dextrose Broth) using previously generated deep transcriptome

datasets (36). To this end, single-end sequencing reads of three biological replicates were mapped to the *V. dahliae* strain JR2 genome assembly (32) using STAR (v2.4.2a; max. intron size 1 kb and outFilterMismatchNmax to 5) (94). The resulting mapped reads were summarized per genomic feature (gene or repeat) using summarizeOverlaps (95), converted to counts per million (cpm) mapped reads, and averaged over the three biological replicates.

689

690 Sequence analyses of *Verticillium* genome assemblies, centromeres, repeat and gene content

691 Repetitive elements in the genomes of V. dahliae strains JR2, VdLs17 and CQ2 (32, 33) were 692 identified as previously described (36). Briefly, repetitive elements were identified in each 693 genome independently using a combination of LTRharvest (96) and LTRdigest (97) followed by 694 identification of RepeatModeler. Identified repeats in the different V. dahliae strains were 695 clustered into a non-redundant library that contained consensus sequences for each repeat family. 696 The repeat library was manually curated and annotated using PASTEC (98) or by sequence 697 similarity to previously identified and characterized repeat families (32, 44). Genome-wide 698 occurrences of repeat families were determined using RepeatMasker (v 4.0.9; sensitive option and 699 cutoff 250), and the output was postprocessed using 'One code to find then all' (99). We only 700 considered matches to the repeat consensus library, and thereby excluded simple repeats and low-701 complexity regions.

De novo gene and repeat annotation for the Hi-C-improved *Verticillium* genome assemblies, and for *V. dahliae* strains JR2 and VdLs17 as a comparison was performed using the funannotate pipeline (100). Briefly, repetitive elements were first *de novo* identified using RepeatModeler and masked for gene prediction using RepeatMasker. Subsequently, gene prediction parameters were estimated using *in vitro* RNA-seq data (see above for details; exception: *V. alfalfae* for which no RNA-seq data was available, *V. nonalfalfae* for which publicly available RNA-seq data was used (90), and *V. dahliae* strain JR2 for which in addition to

709 the *in vitro* RNA-seq data generated in this study, also previously generated *in vitro* (xylem sap 710 and half-MS; (36)) as well as long-read nanopore cDNA data (101) was used). Based on the gene 711 prediction parameters, gene prediction was performed with funannotate using a combination of *ab* 712 *initio* gene predictors, consensus predictions were obtained using Evidencemodeler (v1.1.1)713 (102), and gene predictions were adjusted using information from the RNA-seq data. Repeat 714 annotation for each genome assembly was based on the *de novo* repeat family consensus 715 sequences obtained with funannotate. Genome-wide occurrences of these repeat families as well 716 as previously defined repeat families for V. dahliae (see above) were determined using 717 RepeatMasker (v 4.0.9; sensitive option and cutoff 250), and the output was postprocessed using 718 'One code to find then all' (99). De novo repeat families overlapping with centromeres in the 719 different species were clustered using BLASTClust (v2.2.26; parameter '-S 60 -L 0.55 -b F -p F'), 720 and subsequently visualized using Cytoscape (v.3.8.0) (103). Next to RepeatMasker, genome-721 wide occurrences of the previously determined VdLTRE9 (32, 36) were identified by BLAST 722 searches (blastn v2.9.0+; e-value cutoff 1e-5, no soft-masking and dust, fixed database size 10e6) 723 (74, 75), and similarity between VdLTRE9 consensus sequences and the *de novo* predicted repeat 724 families was established using BLAST (blastn, e-value cutoff 1e-5, query coverage > 50%, no 725 soft-masking and dust, fixed database size 10e6).

Repeat and gene density (*V. dahliae* strain JR2 and VdLs17 based on previous gene annotation (101)), GC-content, and composite RIP index were calculated along the genome sequence using sliding windows (5 kb window with 500 bp slide). The composite RIP index (CRI) was calculated according to Lewis et al. (45). CRI was determined by subtracting the RIP substrate from the RIP product index, which are defined by dinucleotide frequencies as follows: RIP product index = TpA / ApT and the RIP substrate index = (CpA + TpG)/(ApC + GpT). Overlaps between different genomic features (for example repetitive elements over centromeric

regions) was assessed using bedtools (v2.29.2) (92). Genome-wide data was visualized using R
(104) with the packages ggplot2 (105), karyplotR (106), or Gviz (107), as well as EasyFig (108).

735 Whole-genome alignments between V. dahliae strains JR2, VdLs17, and CQ2 were 736 performed using NUCmer, which is part of the MUMmer package (v 3.1; --maxmatch) (109). To 737 remove short matches, we only considered alignments longer than 10 kb. Ancestral genome 738 configurations were reconstructed using AnChro (56). We first determined the syntemy 739 relationships between all possible pairs of haploid Verticillium genomes and two outgroup 740 genomes (Plectosphaerella cucumerina and Sodiomyces alkalinus) using SynChro with synteny 741 block stringency (delta parameter) ranging from 2-5 (110). We then obtained all ancestors by 742 calculating all possible pairs of genomes (G1 and G2) and outgroups $(G3,..,G_n)$ and by varying 743 the delta' (G1 and G2 comparisons) and delta'' (G1/G3..G1/G_n and G2/G3..G2/G_n comparisons) 744 parameters for AnChro. We additionally reconstructed all ancestors starting from the extent 745 genomes in a sequential approach with multiple successive cycles of SynChro and AnChro (delta 746 parameters varied between 2-5). For each ancestor, we chose the optimal reconstructed by the 747 delta parameter combination (delta' and delta'') that minimizes the number of reconstructed 748 chromosomes and rearrangements and at the same time maximizes the number of genes, both 749 guided by the most commonly observed number of chromosomes and genes in all 750 rearrangements. We obtained the number of large-scale rearrangements between reconstructed 751 ancestral genomes and the extent Verticillium genomes using ReChro with a delta parameter of 1 752 (56). The relationship between chromosomes of the reconstructed ancestors and the extent species 753 in relationship to the common ancestor is generated with SynChro with a delta parameter of 1 754 (110). A species phylogeny that uses synteny relationships computed by SynChro (see above) as 755 informative character between the Verticillium genomes and the outgroup genomes was 756 reconstructed using PhyChro (111).

758 Data availability

759 ChIP-seq and Hi-C data were submitted to the Short Read Archive (SRA) under the accession
760 PRJNA641329 (Table S1a).

761

762 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Work in the laboratories of M.F.S and B.P.H.J.T. is supported by the Research Council Earth and

764 Life Sciences (ALW) of the Netherlands Organization of Scientific Research (NWO).

Furthermore, B.P.H.J.T. would like to acknowledge the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG,

766 German Research Foundation) under Germany's Excellence Strategy – EXC 2048/1 – Project ID:

767 390686111. This work was supported in part by a European Molecular Biology Organization

768 postdoctoral fellowship (EMBO, ALTF 969-2013) and Human Frontier Science Program

769 Postdoctoral Fellowship (HFSP, LT000627/2014-L) to D.E.C. A portion of the work was also

carried out in the laboratory of D.E.C. under USDA-NIFA-PBI grant 2018-67013-28492. We

thank Utrecht Sequencing Facility for providing sequencing service and data. Utrecht Sequencing

772 Facility is subsidized by the University Medical Center Utrecht, Hubrecht Institute, Utrecht

773 University, and The Netherlands X-omics Initiative (NWO project 184.034.019).

774 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

775 **Figure S1** – (a) Phylogenetic analyses of the canonical H3 and the centromeric-specific CenH3 in 776 *Verticillium dahliae* (strain JR2) and other fungal genomes. (b-c) Transformation of the coding 777 sequence of N-terminally FLAG-tagged CenH3 directed by its native promoter at the CenH3 778 locus in Verticillium dahliae strain JR2. (b) Correct homologous recombination and replacement 779 at the CenH3 locus was verified by PCR amplification was assessed using PCR and (c) Correct 780 translation of the recombinant protein was assessed using Western Blot analyses with anti-FLAG 781 antibody. (d) Sequencing read coverage (RPGC normalization in 1 kb bins with 3 kb 782 smoothening) from ChIP-seq experiments using FLAG-tag antibodies on two independent 783 transformants of Verticillium dahliae strain JR2 that express FLAG-tagged CenH3 and the wild-784 type strain are mapped to the eight chromosomes of V. dahliae strain JR2 (32). Gene (red) and 785 repeat (blue) density are shown below each chromosome. (e) Principal component analysis of the 786 four FLAG-tag ChIP-seq samples (two wild-type and two CenH3-FLGA). (f) Comparison of the 787 centromeric regions with the identified centromeres highlighted as blue block in the genome 788 assembly of *Verticillium dahliae* strain JR2 with a previously generated optical map (35). Vertical 789 lines display corresponding (in silico) restriction sites and their alignment.

Figure S2 – Schematic overview of the eight chromosomes of *Verticillium dahliae* strain JR2 displaying different heterochromatin-associated chromatin modifications (mC, H3K9me3, and H3K27me3) in relation to the centromeres. The different lanes display the CenH3-FLAG ChIPseq read coverage (RPGC normalization in 1 kb bins with 3 kb smoothening), the repeat-density, the GC-content, the CRI as well as the weighted cytosine methylation (all summarized in 5 kb windows with 500 bp slide), and the normalized H3K9me3 and H3K27me3 ChIP-seq read coverage (RPGC normalization in 1 kb bins with 3 kb smoothening).

797

798 **Figure S3** – (a) Boxplot displaying the composite RIP index (CRI) of C to T in CA recorded in 799 genomic windows (5 kb, 500 bp slide), per gene, per annotated repeat, and per window 800 overlapping with the CenH3-enriched centromeres. Statistical differences for the indicated 801 comparisons were calculated using the one-sided non-parametric Mann-Whitney test; p-values < 802 0.001: ***. (b) Summary of H3K4me2 (green), H3K9me3 (red), and H3K27me3 (orange) 803 normalized ChIP-seq read coverage (RPGC normalization in 1 kb bins and 3 kb smoothening) in 804 genomic bins (2.5%) across the chromosomal arms of the eight chromosomes of Verticillium 805 dahliae strain JR2 (divided into 2.5% bins) and the centromeric regions (divided into 10% bins). 806 The dots indicate the average ChIP-seq coverage and the whiskers indicate ± 1.5 times the 807 interquartile range. (c-e) Boxplots displaying the (c) weighted methylation levels (CG context), 808 (d) the composite RIP index, and (e) the expression in PDB growth medium (counts per million) 809 for repetitive elements belonging to ten repeat families identified in the eight centromeres in 810 Verticillium dahliae JR2.

811 Figure S4 (a-c) Whole-genome alignments between the eight chromosomes of (a) Verticillium 812 dahliae strains JR2 and VdLs17 (32), (b) V. dahliae strains CQ2 and JR2 (32, 33), and (c) V. 813 dahliae strains CQ2 and VdLs17 (32, 33). (d-e) Schematic overview of the genome assemblies of 814 Verticillium dahliae strains (d) VdLs17 and (e) CQ2. The individual lanes show the GC content, 815 the gene (red) and repeat (blue) density (all summarized in 5 kb windows with 500 bp slide), and 816 the location of the centromere associated VdLTRE9. (f) Synteny analyses of the eight 817 chromosomes of V. dahliae strains JR2 and CQ2. Schematic overview of the eight chromosomes 818 of V. dahliae strain JR2 (left) and the corresponding syntenic regions in V. dahliae strains CQ2 819 (right). Centromeres are indicated by stars, and syntenic centromeres of V. dahliae strain CQ2 are 820 colored according to Cen1-8 of V. dahliae strain JR2.

Figure S5– Hi-C contact matrix showing the interaction frequencies between genomic regions in
(a) *V. nonalfalfae* (T2), (b) *V. alfalfae* (PD683), (c) the allodiploid *V. longisporum* (PD589), (d)

V. nubilum (397), (e) V. albo-atrum (PD747), (f) V. zaregamsianum (PD739), (g) V. tricorpus
(PD593), (h) V. klebhanii (PD401), and (i) V. isaacii (PD618). Regions of high interchromosomal interaction frequencies are indicative of centromeres and are highlighted by arrow
heads, and the blue line indicated boundaries between the pseudo-chromosomes.

827 Figure S6 - (a-b) Comparison of normalized read coverage and corrected centromere lengths for 828 *Verticillium* species for which short-read data is available. (a) Counts per million mapped reads 829 (CPM) normalized read coverage was calculated for GC-biased corrected short-read libraries in 830 50 bp genomic windows, excluding regions containing assembly gaps (Ns). Genomic windows 831 are summarized in boxplots (outliers not shown) by genomic location, centromeric regions (Cen, 832 blue) and non-centromeric regions (non-Cen, grey). (b) Centromeric lengths inferred by Hi-C 833 data were 'corrected' based on the ratio of normalized read depth between centromeres and non-834 centromeric regions per chromosomes. Differences for each species compared to the overall mean 835 were computed using unpaired T-tests; p-values < 0.0001: ****, p-values < 0.001: ****, p-values 836 < 0.01: **, p-values < 0.05: *. (c) The number of BLASTn matches of the VdLTRE9 consensus 837 element to the genomes of the Verticillium species separated by their genomic location, 838 centromeric regions (Cen, blue) and non-centromeric regions (non-Cen, grey). The overall 839 number of base pairs (bp) covered by the BLASTn matches in each genome sequence is 840 indicated. The asterisk denotes the high number of VdLTRE9 matches to unassigned, non-Cen 841 regions in the genome assembly of *Verticillium nonalfalfae* (T2). (d) The number of repetitive 842 element matches identified by RepeatMasker for each Verticillium species based on 843 species/strain-specific repeat libraries generated by RepeatModeler separated by their genomic 844 location, centromeric regions (Cen, blue) and non-centromeric regions (non-Cen, grey). (e) GC-845 content of the Verticillium genomes in 50 bp windows and separated by their genomic location, 846 centromeric regions (*Cen*, blue) and non-centromeric regions (non-*Cen*, grey). (\int) The repeat

847 content of centromeric regions in percent covered sequences in the different *Verticillium* species.

Each data point summarized in the boxplot is the repeat content per centromere.

Figure S7 – Schematic overview of the centromeric regions (250 kb) in (a) *Verticillium dahliae*strain JR2, in (b) species belonging to clade Flavnonexudans, and in (c) species belonging clade
Flavexudans. The centromeres are indicated by dark grey bars. The predicted genes (black) and
repeats (blue) are shown below each centromere, and location of *VdLTRE9* (partial) matches
(light green) are shown above each centromere. Repeats that share sequence similarity (BLASTn)

to the *VdLTRE9* consensus sequence are shown above each centromere (dark green).

855 Figure S8 – Sequence comparisons of *de novo* repeat families identified with RepeatModeler and 856 RepeatMasker in the genome assemblies of the different Verticillium species. Individual repeat 857 family consensus sequences were clustered using BLASTClust. (a) Relationships between 858 different repeat family consensus sequences are displayed as connected graphs. The sub-graph 859 with the consensus sequences with similarity to VdLTRE9 is highlighted in yellow. (b) The 860 presence/absence matrix indicates the occurrences of different repeat families in the analyzed 861 Verticillium species (black present, white absent). The cluster containing consensus sequences 862 with similarity to VdLTRE9 is highlighted.

863 Figure S9 – Reconstruction of ancestral genomes within the genus Verticillium with AnChro 864 (56). The number of (a) chromosomes and (b) genes predicted by all potential ancestral 865 reconstructions using different combinations of genomes and stringency parameters. The 866 phylogenetic tree in (a) depicts the relationships between Verticillium species and the 867 abbreviations used for the ancestors. The inlays display boxplots to summarize the number of (a)868 chromosomes and (b) genes per ancestral reconstruction. (c) The number of chromosomes and 869 genes of the chosen 'optimal' reconstruction for each of the internal ancestors. (d) The number of 870 genes per chromosome for each of the reconstructed ancestor and the extant Verticillium species. 871 The star highlights the reconstruction for the B1 ancestor that had ten chromosomes, but with two

872 chromosomes with six and two genes. (e) Reconstruction of the *Verticillium* species phylogeny
873 based on synteny relationship using PhyChro (111).

874

875 **Table S1** – (a) Overview of the different *Verticillium* sequencing libraries used in this study. (b) 876 Position of the individual centromeric regions inferred by Hi-C inter-chromosomal interaction 877 frequencies and the overlap (in kb) with CenH3-enriched regions and the centromere associated 878 VdLTRE9 in Verticillium dahliae JR2, VdLs17, and CQ2. (c) Overview of the different 879 Verticillium genomes assembled using Hi-C interactions. (d) Position, length, and number of 880 assembly gaps (Ns) of the individual centromeric regions inferred by Hi-C inter-chromosomal 881 interaction in Verticillium nonalfalfae (T2), Verticillium alfalfae (PD683), the allodiploid 882 Verticillium longisporum (PD589), Verticillium nubilum (397), Verticillium albo-atrum (PD747), 883 Verticillium zaregamsianum (PD739), Verticillium tricorpus (PD593), Verticillium klebhanii 884 (PD401), and Verticillium isaacii (PD618). (e) The number of de novo repeat consensus 885 sequences identified within and outside of centromeric regions in the Verticillium species. Only 886 consensus elements with > 5 matches in centromeric regions are displayed. Note that the 887 consensus names between species/strains are not comparable. (f) The primers used for cloning the 888 CenH3 FLAG tag in Verticillium dahliae strain JR2

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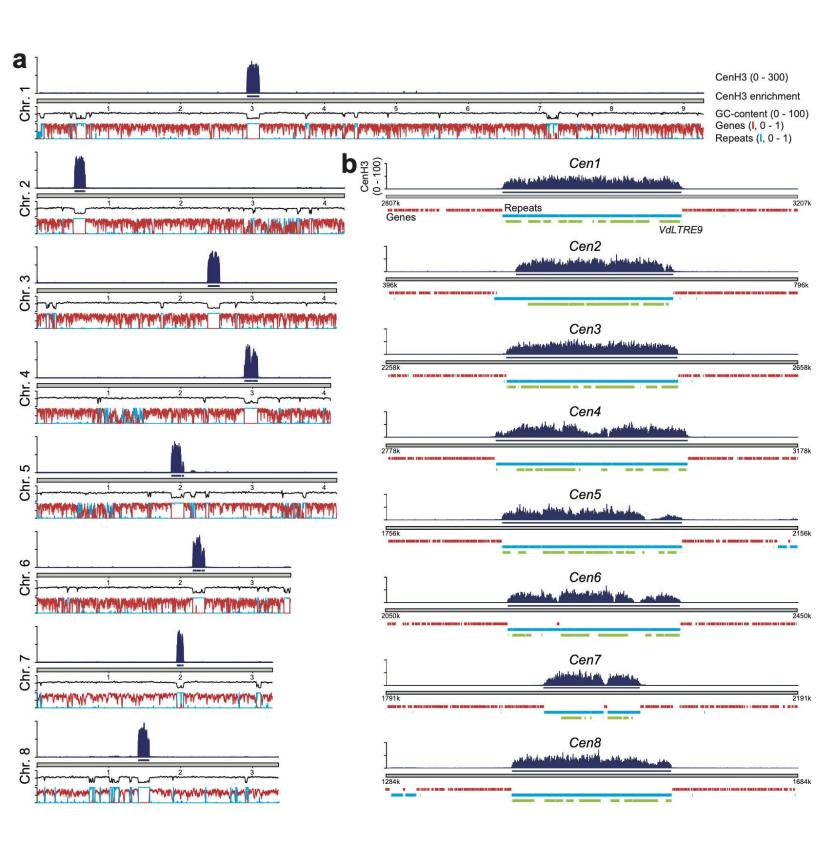
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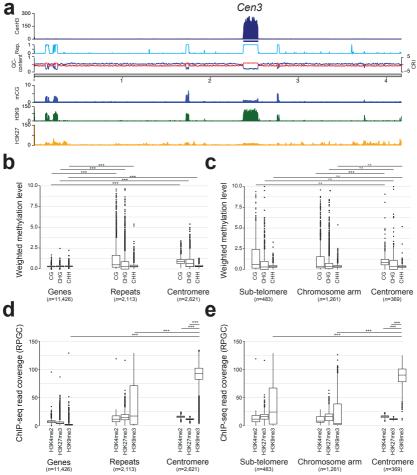
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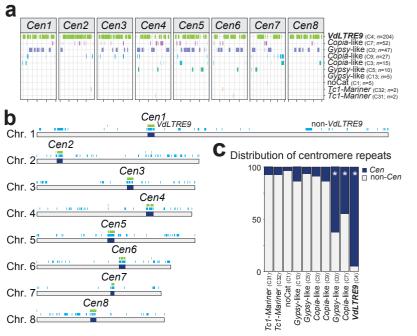
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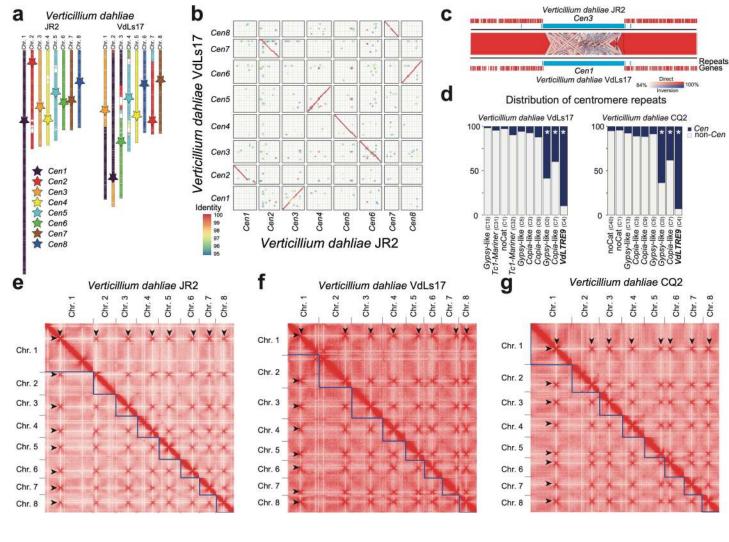
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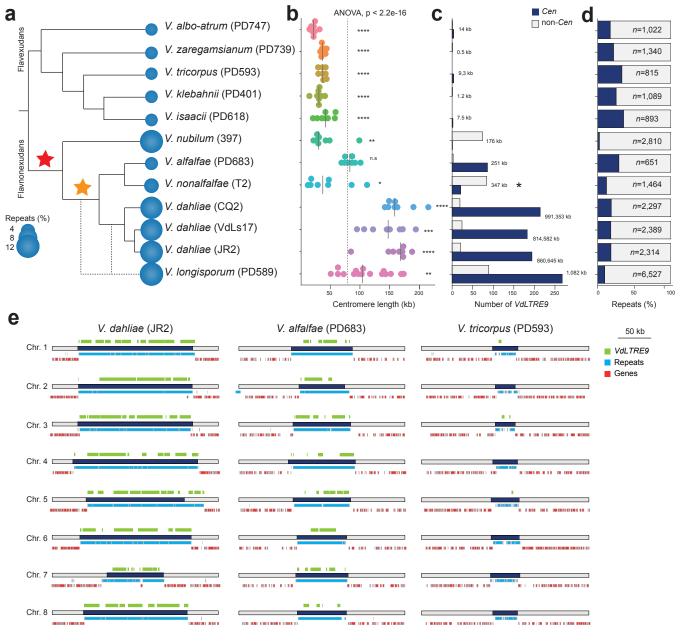
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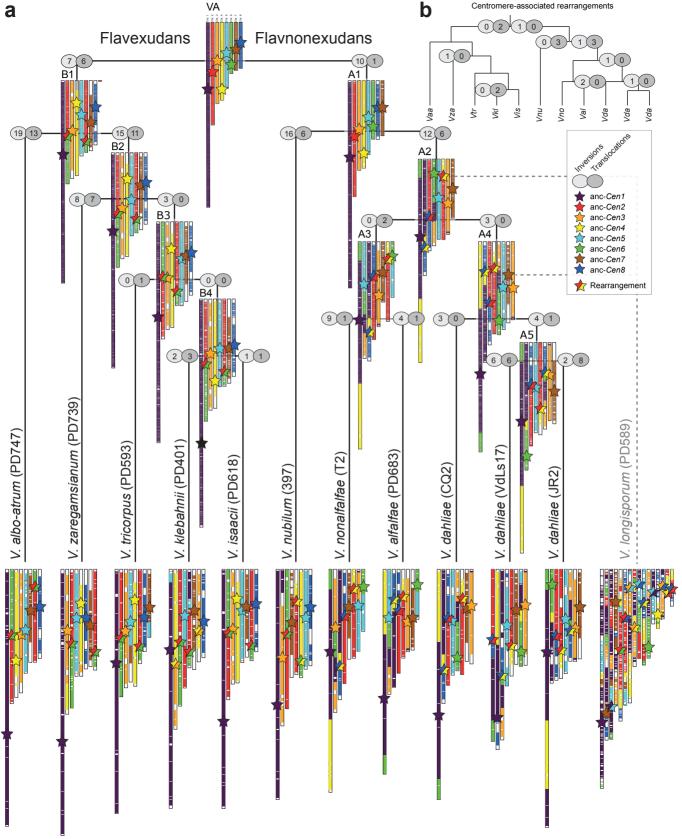












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		Cen	AT-rich	AT-content (%) ³		Repetitive elements		
Chr.	Locus	CenH3 position (bp) ¹	CenH3 length (bp)	Position (kb) ²	Chr.	Cen.	# Repeats (%) ⁴	# VdLTRE9 (%) ⁴
1	CEN1	2,920,143-3,094,179	174,037	2,919-3,094	45.7	77.1	50 (99.8)	27 (70.4)
2	CEN2	520,698-672,281	151,584	516-672	46.3	77.8	43 (99.7)	26 (83.0)
3	CEN3	2,374,294-2,541,026	166,733	2,375-2,542	45.8	77.3	47 (99.8)	31 (80.5)
4	CEN4	2,884,316-3,071,412	187,097	2,885-3,072	46.2	75.4	54 (99.5)	24 (53.8)
5	CEN5	1,868,317-2,043,260	174,944	1,868-2,044	46.7	73.9	58 (99.5)	25 (63.1)
6	CEN6	2,166,972-2,333,060	166,089	2,167-2,334	46.4	75.2	48 (100)	31 (62.6)
7	CEN7	1,944,367-2,038,091	93,725	1,945-2,038	44.7	76.5	32 (95.8)	14 (47.8)
8	CEN8	1,406,398-1,561,664	155,267	1,406-1,562	47.7	77.0	37 (100)	26 (73.9)

¹: position of CenH3-enriched domains; enriched domains within 10 kb have been merged ²: position of AT-rich domains; AT-rich domains with 20 kb have been merged ³: average AT-content of 1 kb windows of the entire chromosome and the AT-rich domain ⁴: percentage of centromeric region covered