

1 **Implications of the three-dimensional chromatin organization for** 2 **genome evolution in a fungal plant pathogen**

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20 ABSTRACT

21 The spatial organization of eukaryotic genomes is linked to their biological functions,
 22 although it is not clear how this impacts the overall evolution of a genome. Here, we uncover
 23 the three-dimensional (3D) genome organization of the phytopathogen *Verticillium dahliae*,
 24 known to possess distinct genomic regions, designated adaptive genomic regions (AGRs),
 25 enriched in transposable elements and genes that mediate host infection. Short-range DNA
 26 interactions form clear topologically associating domains (TADs) with gene-rich boundaries
 27 that show reduced levels of gene expression and reduced genomic variation. Intriguingly,
 28 TADs are less clearly structured in AGRs than in the core genome. At a global scale, the
 29 genome contains bipartite long-range interactions, particularly enriched for AGRs and more
 30 generally containing segmental duplications. Notably, the patterns observed for *V. dahliae* are
 31 also present in other *Verticillium* species. Thus, our analysis links 3D genome organization to
 32 evolutionary features conserved throughout the *Verticillium* genus.

33 INTRODUCTION

34 The spatial organization of eukaryotic genomes is directly linked to their biological functions,
 35 although underlying mechanisms remain largely unclear. Many plant pathogenic fungi display
 36 a distinct genome organization, commonly termed the ‘two-speed genome’, in which gene-
 37 poor and repeat-rich genomic regions contain genes that mediate host infection, display
 38 increased plasticity, and typically display features of heterochromatin^{1,2}. These dynamic
 39 compartments are paramount for the coevolutionary ‘arms-race’ between pathogens and their
 40 hosts, potentially enabling the avoidance of host immune recognition and evolution of novel
 41 functions in pathogenicity²⁻⁵.

42 In eukaryotic nuclei, physically separated genomic sites colocalize, while proximal
 43 sites may be separated through folding barriers into a three-dimensional (3D) genome
 44 structure that comprises various levels of organization^{6,7}. Local 3D interactions shape
 45 chromosome structure into discrete genomic regions, commonly known as topologically
 46 associating domains (TADs); self-interacting genomic regions that are delineated by
 47 boundaries that display less physical interaction⁸. Although their function is still controversial,
 48 TADs have been associated with transcriptional regulation by governing the impact of
 49 regulatory sequences on nearby genes⁸⁻¹⁰. Other studies implicate TADs in genome
 50 replication by synchronizing origins of replication¹¹. Interestingly, various studies point
 51 towards evolutionary conservation of TAD organization among related organisms¹²⁻¹⁴. While
 52 the genome clearly contains different chromatin states and 3D genome organization, their
 53 exact roles in genome function and evolution remain unclear.

54 In the fungi *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, and *Neurospora*
 55 *crassa*, the 3D genome organization is linked to heterochromatin distribution¹⁵⁻¹⁷.
 56 Determination of the 3D genome of the endophytic fungus *Epichloë festucae* has revealed that
 57 heterochromatic, repeat-rich regions frequently colocalize with TAD boundaries and can be

58 implicated in genome folding¹⁸. Moreover, *in planta* induced genes are enriched near those
59 regions¹⁸. These findings suggest an intimate link between the 3D genome, dynamic genomic
60 compartments, heterochromatin, and conditional gene expression.

61 The asexual soil-borne fungal plant pathogen *Verticillium dahliae* is a notorious broad
62 host-range vascular wilt pathogen¹⁹. The *V. dahliae* genome is characterized by the
63 occurrence of extensive large-scale genomic rearrangements that are associated with
64 segmental duplications that underwent substantial reciprocal gene losses and are enriched in
65 active transposable elements (TEs)^{20–23}. This organization results in distinct dynamic genomic
66 compartments, previously termed lineage-specific regions due to the abundant presence-
67 absence variations, and presently referred to as adaptive genomic regions (AGRs)^{20–22,24}.
68 These AGRs display unique chromatin characteristics such as the enrichment of H3K27me3,
69 depletion of 5mC methylation, and high chromatin accessibility, and are enriched for *in*
70 *planta*-induced genes and other conditionally responsive genes that contribute to
71 environmental adaptation^{20,23–25}. However, it presently remains unclear whether and how the
72 3D genome affects the organization and evolution of the *V. dahliae* genome. Here, we explore
73 the chromatin conformation of *V. dahliae* with DNA proximity ligation followed by
74 sequencing (Hi-C) to uncover the spatial organization of the AGRs within the genome.

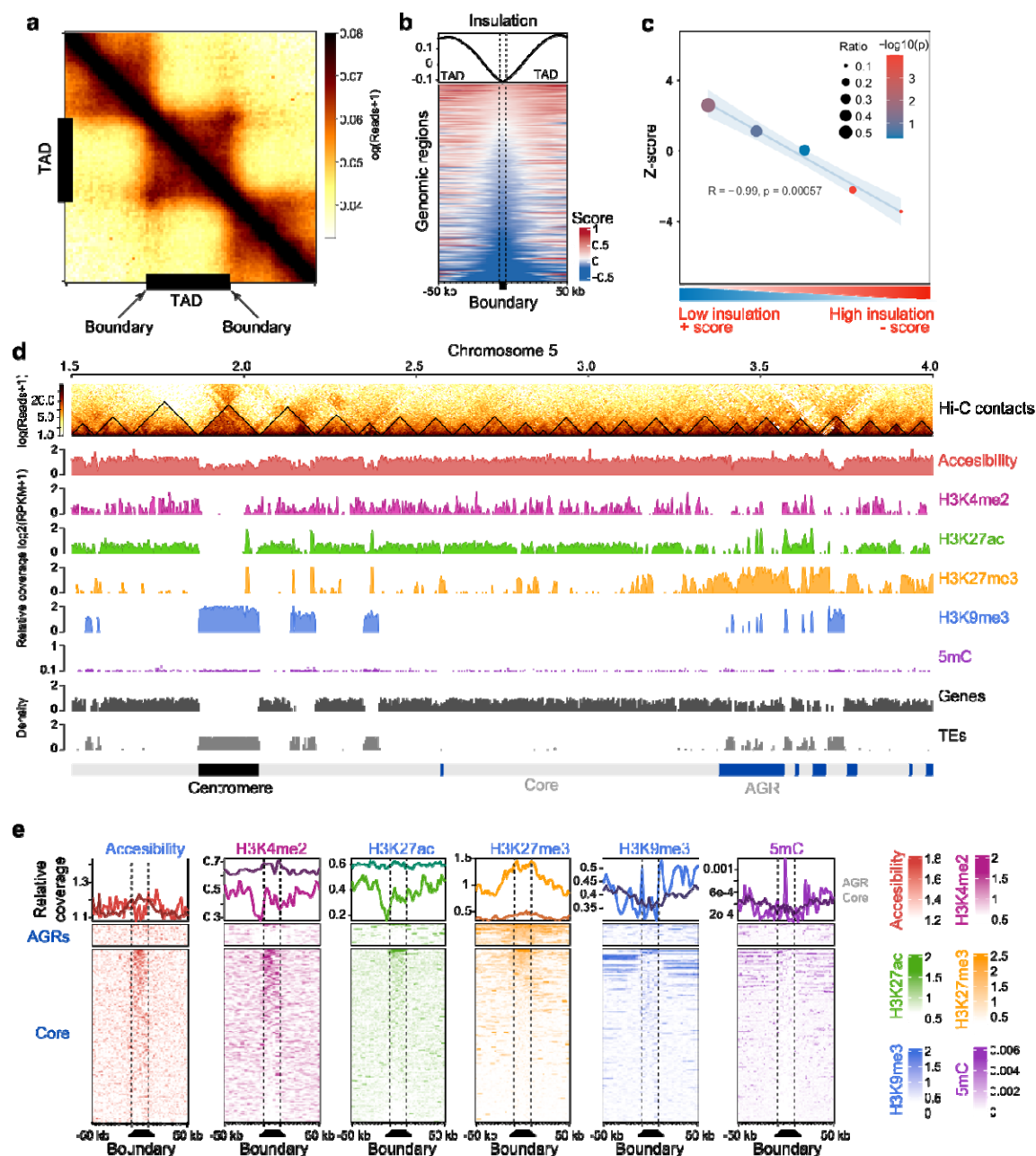
75 RESULTS

76 Topologically associating domains in the *Verticillium dahliae* genome

77 To uncover the 3D organization in *V. dahliae* strain JR2, we performed Hi-C in two highly
 78 correlated biological replicates (Fig. S1a-d), revealing that interaction strength generally
 79 negatively correlated with genomic distance (Fig. S1c). To query for the occurrence of TADs,
 80 the genome was divided into bins (average bin size ~4 kb) and the insulation score based in
 81 the physical interaction strengths between adjacent bins were determined along the genome
 82 (Fig. S1g-i). Given that a TAD is a self-interacting genomic region with sequences that
 83 physically interact more with each other than with sequences outside the TAD, bins that
 84 display a low insulation score weakly interact with neighboring bins and consequently were
 85 assigned as a TAD boundary region. Using this approach, we identified 353 TADs (mean size
 86 102 kb) separated by 345 boundaries (mean size 4.7 kb, excluding the telomeric ends) along
 87 the eight *V. dahliae* chromosomes (Fig. 1a,b,d, Fig. S1e,f). While 277 TADs (78.47%) and
 88 308 boundaries (88.76%) localize in the core genome, 76 TADs (21.53%) and 39 boundaries
 89 (11.24%) localized in AGRs. Interestingly, the insulation of TADs is weaker in AGRs than in
 90 the core genome (Fig. 1c).

91 As observed previously^{23–27}, the core genome is generally enriched in H3K27ac and
 92 H3K4me2, while centromeres and TE-rich core regions are enriched in H3K9me3 and DNA
 93 methylation, and AGRs are enriched in H3K27me3 (Fig. 1d,e, Fig. S2). Such broad chromatin
 94 associations are maintained similarly on TADs and boundaries in core and AGRs (Fig. S3a,b),
 95 suggesting that chromatin characteristics mainly associate with the overall genome
 96 compartmentalization rather than with TAD organization. Nevertheless, we also observe that
 97 TADs and boundary regions in core and AGRs differ in chromatin accessibility, histone
 98 modifications, and DNA methylation (Fig. 1e, Fig. S3b), and these observations suggest that

99 TADs and boundaries differ in functionality, not only between each other, but also between
100 the two compartments.



101

102 **Figure 1. The *Verticillium dahliae* genome is organized in topological associating domains (TADs).** (a)
103 Hi-C contact matrix showing local interaction frequency, aggregated over predicted TADs (black bars)
104 with 50 kb up- and down-stream sequence. The drop in intensity at boundaries at either edge of the TADs
105 indicates stronger interaction within TADs than with neighboring genomic regions. (b) Heatmap showing
106 the physical interaction strength (insulation score) centered over boundaries with 50 kb up- and down-
107 stream sequence as rows, ordered on insulation score with weakest insulated boundaries on top. The top
108 plot displays the average of the insulation scores in the heatmap below. (c) TADs in AGRs are weaker
109 insulated when compared with core genome TADs. The X-axis indicates quintiles of boundaries, separated
110 based on insulation scores. The Y-axis indicates Z-score and the $-\log_{10}(p)$ -value color-scale after a
111 permutation test for enrichment of boundaries in AGRs (10,000 iterations). The plot displays a linear

112 regression (blue line) and confidence interval (light blue) as well as the R and p-value for the linear
 113 regression. **(d)** TAD distribution in *V. dahliae* strain JR2, exemplified by a section of chromosome 5. From
 114 top to bottom: Hi-C contact matrix depicting TADs as black triangles, open chromatin determined with
 115 ATAC-seq, histone modifications H3K4me2, H3K27ac, H3K27me3, and H3K9me3 normalized over a
 116 micrococcal nuclease digestion control, GC methylation, as well as gene and transposable element (TE)
 117 densities in 10 kb windows. Adaptive genomic regions (AGRs) and the centromeric region are indicated in
 118 blue and black, respectively. **(e)** Chromatin characteristics are differentially associated with TAD
 119 boundaries in the core genome and in AGRs. On top, distribution of each chromatin feature centered for
 120 boundaries (dashed lines) with 50 kb up- and down-stream sequence, for the core genome (dark line) and
 121 AGRs (light line). On the bottom the corresponding heatmaps are shown.

123 **Local TAD organization associates with transcriptional regulation**

124 Given the chromatin differences between TADs and boundaries in AGRs and the enrichment
 125 of AGRs in conditionally responsive genes^{20,24,25}, we hypothesized that transcriptional profiles
 126 of core genes and those in AGRs differ between TADs and boundaries. Interestingly,
 127 boundary regions in the core genome are significantly enriched in genes and consequently
 128 depleted of TEs when compared with TADs (Fig. 2a). However, within AGRs we did not
 129 observe differential enrichment of genes or TEs in TADs versus boundaries (Fig. 2a). To
 130 assess the impact of TAD organization on gene expression, we integrated genomic,
 131 transcriptomic, and chromatin data for all *V. dahliae* genes, and performed uniform manifold
 132 approximation and projection (UMAP) for dimensional reduction^{24,25}. As observed
 133 previously, genes separated based on these characteristics show core and AGR groupings
 134 (Fig. S3c)²⁴. Additionally, when considering only boundary genes (Fig. S3c), genes in AGRs
 135 are enriched for H3K27me3, while core genes are enriched for H3K27ac. Furthermore, there
 136 was a clear separation based on transcriptional activity, with genes in core genome boundaries
 137 generally displaying higher transcription levels, associated with increased H3K4me2 levels,
 138 than genes in AGR boundaries (Fig. S3c). Interestingly, boundary insulation and *in vitro*
 139 expression level positively correlated (Fig. 2b, Fig. S3c), indicating that genes in weakly
 140 insulated TAD boundaries are generally lower expressed than genes in strongly insulated
 141 boundaries. Overall, genes located within TAD boundaries are lower expressed than those in
 142 TADs, both for the core genome and AGRs (Fig. 2c), a trend we similarly observed when we

assayed gene expression of *V. dahliae* during infection of the thale cress *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Fig. S4a). However, the expression of genes within TAD boundaries in the core genome is notably higher than the expression of genes within boundaries in AGRs, whereas genes further away from boundaries in the core genome and AGRs are similarly expressed (Fig. 2c).

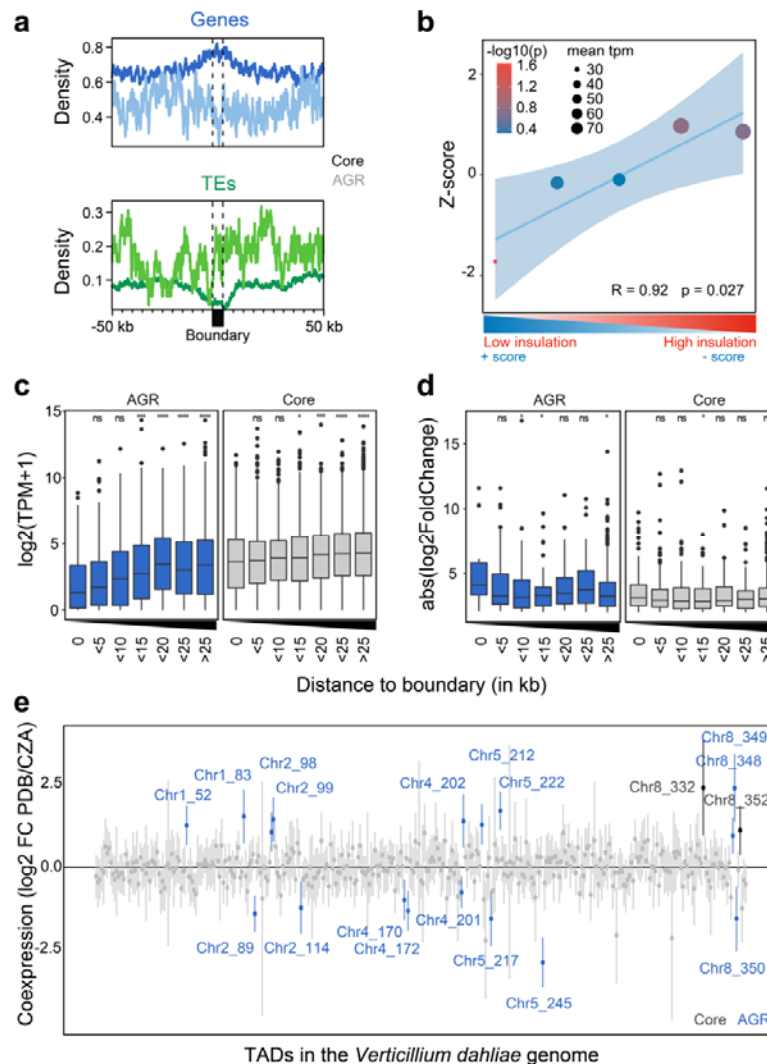


Figure 2. TAD organization is associated with transcription in *Verticillium dahliae*. (a) Average density of genes and transposable elements (TEs) per 1 kb window centred over boundaries with 50 kb up- and down-stream sequence in the core genome and in adaptive genomic regions (AGRs) of *V. dahliae* strain JR2. The core genome (dark line) and in AGRs (light line). (b) Genes in lowly insulated boundaries are lower expressed than those in more highly insulated boundaries. Association between TAD boundary quintiles, separated on insulation score, and transcription of genes located in TAD boundaries. The Y-axis depicts the Z-score, colour of the datapoints indicates the $-\log_{10}(p)$ -value after a permutation test (10,000 iterations) and size of datapoints indicates mean transcription value (TPM) of represented genes. A linear regression (blue line), with 95% confidence interval (light blue), between boundary quintiles is displayed. (c) Transcription values for *V. dahliae* cultivated for 6 days in potato dextrose broth (PDB) and (d) absolute \log_2 -fold change in expression between cultivation in PDB or in Czapec-Dox medium (CZA), for all genes

grouped based on their distance to the closest boundary in the core genome (grey) or in AGRs (blue). Statistically significant differences in average transcription level for the distance groups was compared to the group of genes located in boundaries (distance 0) and determined by the Wilcoxon Rank-Sum test (* $p < 0.05$). Black lines in the boxes depict the median, boxes extend from first to third quartile, vertical lines indicate the 1.5x interquartile range and dots depict outliers for each category. (e) Linear regression effect size of each TAD on differential gene expression between cultivation for 6 days in PDB or in CZA. Mean effect size of each TAD is shown as a point, with 95% confidence interval, and TADs with a significant effect (95% confidence interval is significantly different from 0) are shown in colour and labelled by corresponding chromosome and TAD number, for TADs in the core genome (black labels) and in AGRs (blue labels).

As TADs may govern differential gene expression, we hypothesized that differentially expressed genes (DEGs) *in vitro* and upon plant infection are enriched within TADs and depleted in boundaries. We previously showed that DEGs are enriched in AGRs and in H3K27me3-rich regions in the core genome^{20,24,25}, indicating that TADs may function as regulatory units both in the core genome and in AGRs. We observed that genes at distances of 5-15 kb and >25 kb from TAD boundaries in AGRs are significantly weaker differentially expressed than genes located in AGR boundaries (Fig. 2d). *In planta* differentially expressed genes are only significantly stronger differentially expressed at distances < 5 kb from TAD boundaries (Fig. S4b), thus collectively suggesting that differential gene expression *in vitro* and *in planta* in core and in AGRs is generally not enhanced at TADs.

To investigate whether genes localizing within the same TAD in *V. dahliae* display transcriptional co-regulation, we fitted a linear model in which differential expression of each gene *in vitro* is predicted by TAD association. We identified 19 TADs with a significant effect on co-transcription (Fig. 2e). Of these, 17 are associated with AGRs and only two with the core genome (Fig. 2e), suggesting that transcriptional co-regulation of expression mainly occurs in AGRs. In total, 68 out of 258 (26.4%) TADs in the core genome, while 64 out of 96 (66.7%) TADs in AGRs contain more than five DEGs (Fig. S3d). Of these TADs, 13 out of 68 (19.1%) and 19 out of 64 (29.7%) in the core genome and AGRs, respectively, contain more than twice the number of genes that display co-regulation of differential transcription (Fig. S3d). We similarly identified 50 TADs with a significant effect on co-transcription of *V.*

191 *dahliae* genes during *A. thaliana* infection (Fig. S4c). Due to low fungal biomass most genes
192 are lower expressed *in planta* compared with *in vitro* condition, yet if we only consider co-
193 regulated TADs with increased expression *in planta*, nearly all TADs (18 out of 24) localize
194 in AGRs. Thus, our results implies that TAD organization transcription *in vitro* and *in planta*
195 and that, although some TADs display transcriptional co-regulation of gene expression, this
196 occurs only for a subset of TADs that predominantly locate in AGRs.

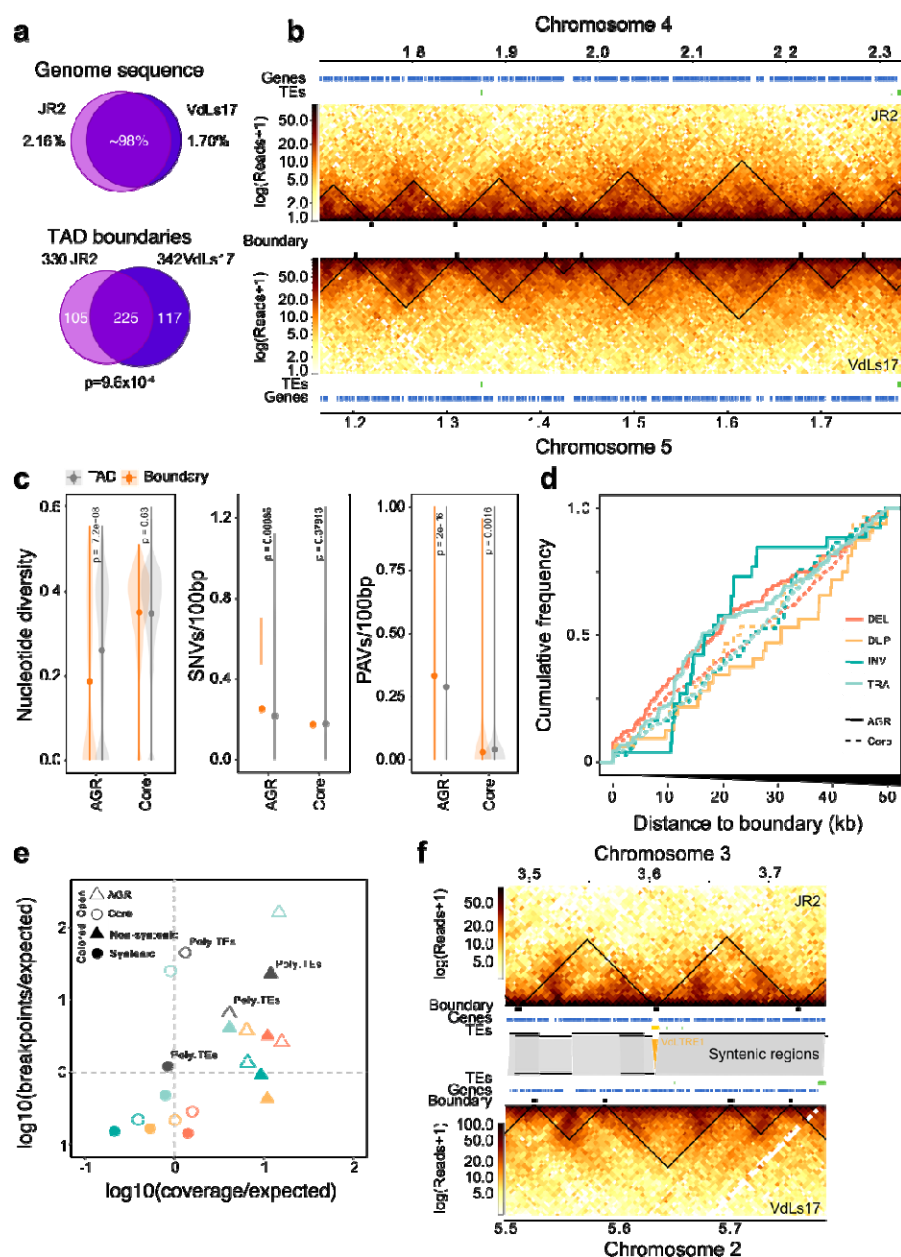
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198 TAD boundaries are conserved

199 To study TAD conservation within *V. dahliae*, we analysed Hi-C data of *V. dahliae* strain
200 VdLs17 that is 98% syntenic to strain JR2 (Fig. 3a)²¹, and predicted 365 TADs (mean size 99
201 kb) and 357 boundaries (mean size 4.5 kb) (Fig. S5a-c). Notably, the TAD organization in
202 VdLs17 displays similar patterns of insulation scores, gene-enrichment, and TE-depletion as
203 in JR2, suggesting that TAD characteristics are conserved in *V. dahliae* (Fig. S5c-h).
204 Moreover, based on the distribution of TAD boundaries over syntenic regions between
205 VdLs17 and JR2 (n=342 and n=330 TADs, respectively), we observed a significant overlap
206 and correlation of insulation scores between boundaries of the two strains (n=225, $p=9.6 \times 10^{-4}$,
207 one-way Fisher exact test; Fig. 3a; Fig. S5g), and an overall overlap in TAD positions (Fig.
208 3a,b). Also, we observe that non-syntenic regions in VdLs17 are enriched for weak TAD
209 boundaries (z-score=2.3858, $p=0.00001$, permutation test after 10,000 iterations; Fig. 5h), a
210 characteristic of AGRs in *V. dahliae* strain JR2.

211 Genomic comparisons between *V. dahliae* strains have revealed extensive genomic
212 rearrangements and structural variations (SVs)²⁰⁻²³. However, as TAD boundaries are
213 conserved between *V. dahliae* strains JR2 and VdLs17, we hypothesized that boundaries may
214 lack such genomic variation. We used genome sequencing data of 42 *V. dahliae* strains^{23,24} to
215 query the occurrence of single nucleotide variants (SNVs) and presence/absence

216 polymorphisms (PAVs) over TAD boundaries in *V. dahliae* strain JR2. Indeed, deletions,
 217 duplications, inversions, and translocations occur more commonly in TADs than in
 218 boundaries, indicating depletion of genomic variation from boundaries (Fig. 3c,d). One
 219 possibility is that genomic variation at boundaries negatively impacts *V. dahliae* (i.e.
 220 purifying selection). To assess this, we calculated the expected amount of SV breakpoints and
 221 SV coverage occurring in boundaries and found that SVs occur less frequently than expected
 222 in boundaries localized in syntenic regions (Fig. 3e). Interestingly, while we observed a
 223 depletion of SNVs and of PAVs in boundaries in the core genome (Fig. 3c,d), boundaries in
 224 AGRs showed increased PAV (Fig. S6c) combined with lower nucleotide diversity (Fig.
 225 S6a,b). Moreover, SVs occur more commonly over boundaries in non-syntenic regions and in
 226 AGRs, which agrees with previous observations that SVs occur frequently in non-syntenic
 227 regions (Fig. 3e)²³. Collectively, these findings suggest that TAD boundaries in the core
 228 genome are strongly conserved, while boundaries in AGRs are evolutionary less stable.



229

Figure 3. Topological associating domain (TAD) organization is conserved in *Verticillium dahliae*. (a) Top: *V. dahliae* strains JR2 and VdLs17 are highly similar as 97.84% and 98.30% of their respective genomes are syntenic. Bottom: Most of the TAD boundaries overlap between JR2 and VdLs17. (b) Syntenic block between JR2 chromosome 4 and VdLs17 chromosome 5 shows conserved distribution of TADs and boundaries. Heatmaps represent contact matrixes of JR2 (top) and VdLs17 (bottom) with TADs (black triangles). Genes and transposable elements (TEs) are displayed above and below. (c) Boundaries are not enriched for genomic variation in a set of 42 *V. dahliae* strains. Nucleotide diversity, single nucleotide variants (SNVs), presence/absence variation (PAVs). (d) Cumulative frequency plot of structural variant (SV) breakpoints over distance from boundaries in the core genome (dashed line) and in AGRs (solid line), overlaps with boundaries (distance = 0) are included. SVs are separated in deletions (DEL, orange), duplications (DUP, yellow), inversions (INV, green) and translocations (TRA, blue)²³. (e) TAD boundaries in AGRs and in the core genome contain more and fewer SVs than expected by chance, respectively. SVs in boundaries in the core genome (open circles) and in AGRs (open triangles) are indicated, as well as in boundaries in syntenic (solid circles) and non-syntenic (solid triangles) genomic regions and in polymorphic TEs (grey circles). (f) Synteny breaks associated with transposable elements

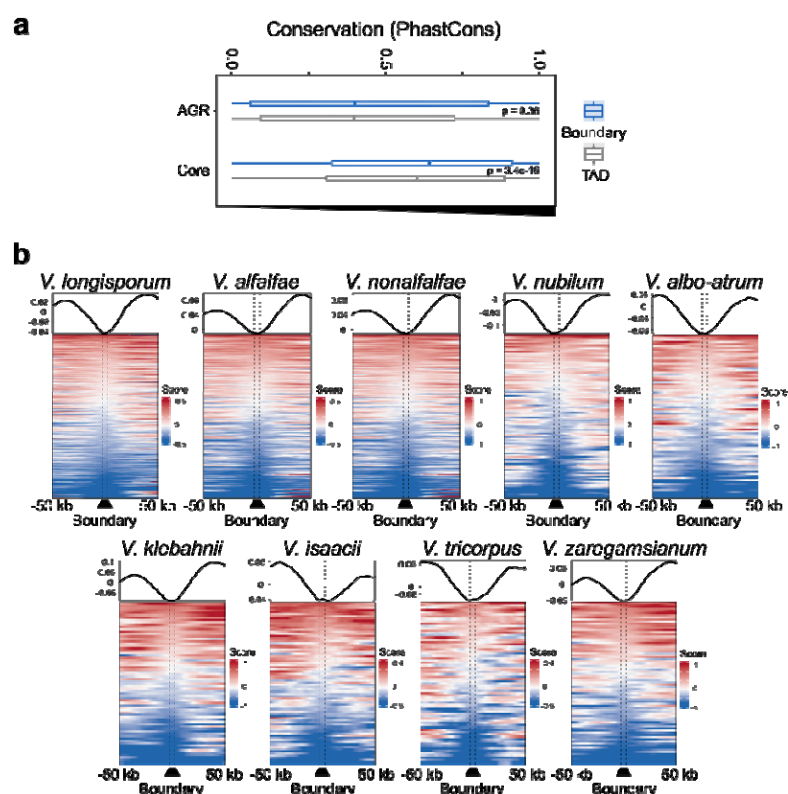
245 affect TAD organization. Heatmaps represent contact matrixes of JR2 (top) and VdLs17 (bottom) with
 246 TADs (black triangles), and TADs, genes and TEs are displayed in between. Syntenic regions are indicated
 247 as grey blocks. A VdLTRE1 insertion in strain JR2 is indicated in yellow.
 248

249 In *V. dahliae*, SVs often colocalize with polymorphic TEs that display PAV between
 250 42 strains and are evolutionary young, scarcely methylated, and highly expressed²³. As TE
 251 activity may mediate the formation of SVs^{22,23}, we investigated whether polymorphic TEs
 252 occur more frequently in TADs than in boundaries. We identified 36 polymorphic TEs
 253 (21.8% of the total) that display PAV between *V. dahliae* strains JR2 and VdLs17. However,
 254 we observed no overrepresentation nor depletion of polymorphic TEs in boundary regions
 255 (Fig. 3e). Nevertheless, interestingly, some TE insertions in *V. dahliae* strain JR2 occur at
 256 sites of boundary differences (Fig. 3f, Fig. S6d,e), suggesting that polymorphic TEs lead to
 257 changes in TAD organization.

258

259 **Conservation of TAD organization throughout the *Verticillium* genus**

260 Given the conservation of TAD organization among *V. dahliae* strains, we investigated
 261 conservation throughout the *Verticillium* genus based on synteny to *V. dahliae* strain JR2
 262 (Fig. S6e) and calculated nucleotide conservation scores²⁸. As expected, we observed higher
 263 conservation scores for the core genome than for AGRs (Fig. 4a). Moreover, like *V. dahliae*
 264 (Fig. 3c-e; Fig. S6f), we observed increased conservation scores for boundaries versus TADs
 265 in the core genome, but not in AGRs (Fig. 4a), indicating that core boundaries are conserved
 266 within the *Verticillium* genus.



267

268 **Figure 4. TAD boundaries show signs of conservation in the *Verticillium* genus.** (a) TAD boundaries
269 are more conserved than TADs. Boxplots display the conservation score of each TAD (grey) and boundary
270 (blue) in the core genome and in AGRs. P-values based on a one-way Wilcoxon rank sum test. (b)
271 Insulation score over TAD boundaries predicted by the sequence-based method, with 50 kb up- and down-
272 stream sequence, for each *Verticillium* species. Line plots display average signals over boundaries and
273 up/down-stream sequence, bottom plots display predicted boundaries in rows, ordered by insulation scores
274 for each independent experiment.
275

276 To assess conservation of TAD organization, we compared the sequence and position
277 of all TAD boundaries in *V. dahliae* strain JR2 to the genome sequences of the other
278 *Verticillium* species (Fig. S7a). We used previously generated Hi-C data²⁷ to assess whether
279 the insulation score of boundaries predicted based on sequence and position is lower than for
280 adjacent genomic regions, i.e. TADs (Fig. S7a). Employing this strategy to the genome of *V.*
281 *dahliae* VdLs17, we recovered 269 boundaries (Fig. S7b-d) that display significant positional
282 overlap with the boundaries as determined with the insulation method (z-score=27.1264,
283 $p=9.99 \times 10^{-5}$; Fig. 6b-e). Thus, we next used this approach for the other *Verticillium* spp. as
284 well. In general, the sequence-predicted boundaries in the *Verticillium* genus depict a drop in
285 insulation score with the adjacent genomic regions (Fig. 4b), indicating that we correctly

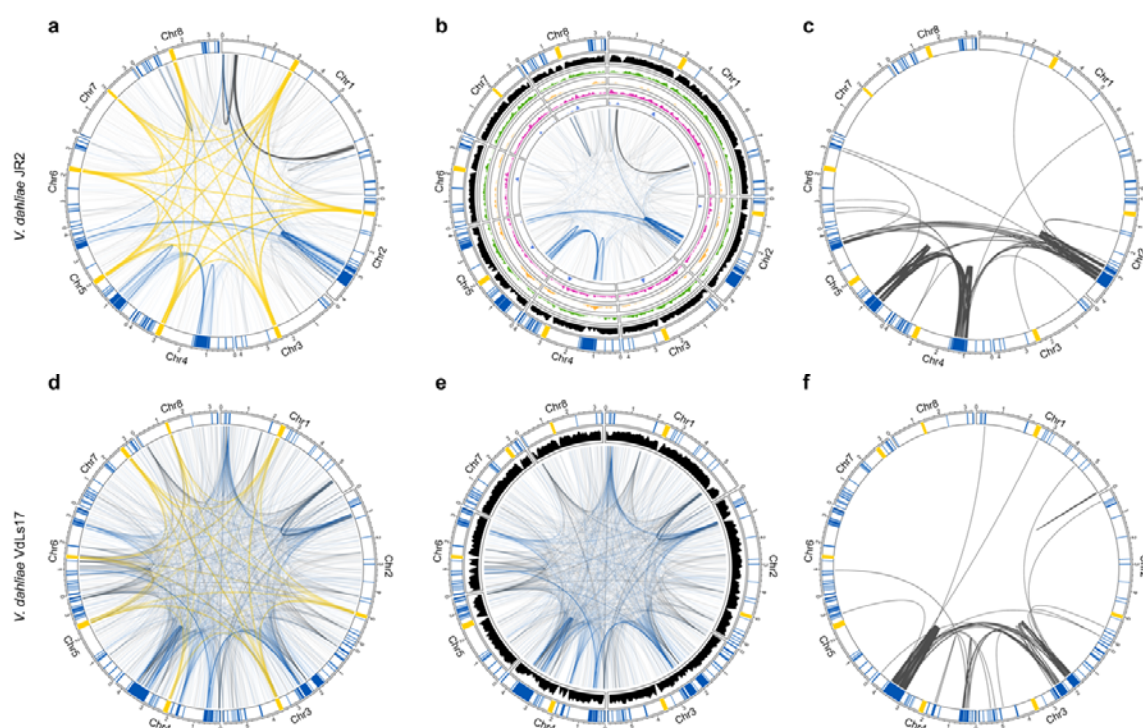
assigned TAD boundaries. The results show that boundaries of *V. dahliae* strain JR2 are more likely to be shared with closer phylogenetic species (Fig. S7f). For instance, only 80 boundaries were recovered in the more distantly related *V. albo-atrum*, whereas 254 boundaries were predicted in *V. alfalfae* and 283 boundaries in *V. longisporum*, both close relatives of *V. dahliae* (Fig. S7f). Additionally, we recovered full length TAD structures in syntenic regions of the other *Verticillium* species, indicating high TAD conservation in the core genome (Fig. S7f). Collectively, our results suggest that TADs and their boundaries are conserved among *Verticillium* species consistent with phylogenetic distance.

Adaptive genomic regions physically colocalize

Besides local genome architecture, we assessed physical associations between distal genomic regions. Making use of previously demonstrated centromeric interactions as references²⁷, we identified 889 additional genomic regions that consistently colocalize. Interestingly, of these, 475 (53.4%) involve AGRs (Fig 5a,b, Table S1), which is a strong overrepresentation (chi-squared test; $p < 0.05$, Table S2) given that AGRs only represent 3.33 Mb (9.6%) of the 36.15 Mb total genome size²⁴. Moreover, colocalization events among AGR regions comprise nearly one-third of the non-centromeric interactions (28.1%), whereas AGR-core and core-core colocalization events comprise 25.3% and 46.6%, respectively. As expected, TADs with a significant effect on co-transcription in AGRs (Fig 2e; Fig. S4c) physically colocalize *in vitro* and upon plant colonization (z-score=1.40, $p=0.0098$, z-score=2.59, $p=0.0196$; permutation test *in vitro* and *in planta* respectively), suggesting that transcriptional co-regulation of expression mainly occurs in close proximity to AGRs.

The colocalization of centromeres in *V. dahliae* strain JR2 correlates with CENH3 nucleosomes, *VdLTRE9* (LTR/Gypsy), and H3K9me3²⁷. However, in our attempts to identify epigenetic drivers of long-range interactions, we found no correlation between colocalizing

311 AGR regions and any of the histone modifications H3K9me3, H3K27me3, H3K4me2, and
 312 H3K27ac, nor chromatin accessibility (Fig 5b). Given that all AGRs are involved in
 313 individual bipartite colocalization events, and while AGRs share characteristics, they are
 314 sequence diverse, it may not be surprising that long-ranger interactions do not have a simple
 315 epigenome association (Fig 5b). We previously showed that *V. dahliae* evolution involved
 316 large-scale segmental duplications^{22,23}. Intriguingly, the colocalizing AGR regions are
 317 associated with duplication events (Fig, 5c); of the 475 colocalization events that involve
 318 AGR regions, 260 involve segmental duplications (Fig. 5c, Fig S8, Table S3), which is a
 319 significant enrichment not only genome-wide (z-test, $p < 0.05$), but even within AGRs (z-test,
 320 $p < 0.05$). Moreover, whereas genome-wide 264 interactions were recorded that involve
 321 segmental duplications, nearly all (260; 98.5%) concern AGRs.



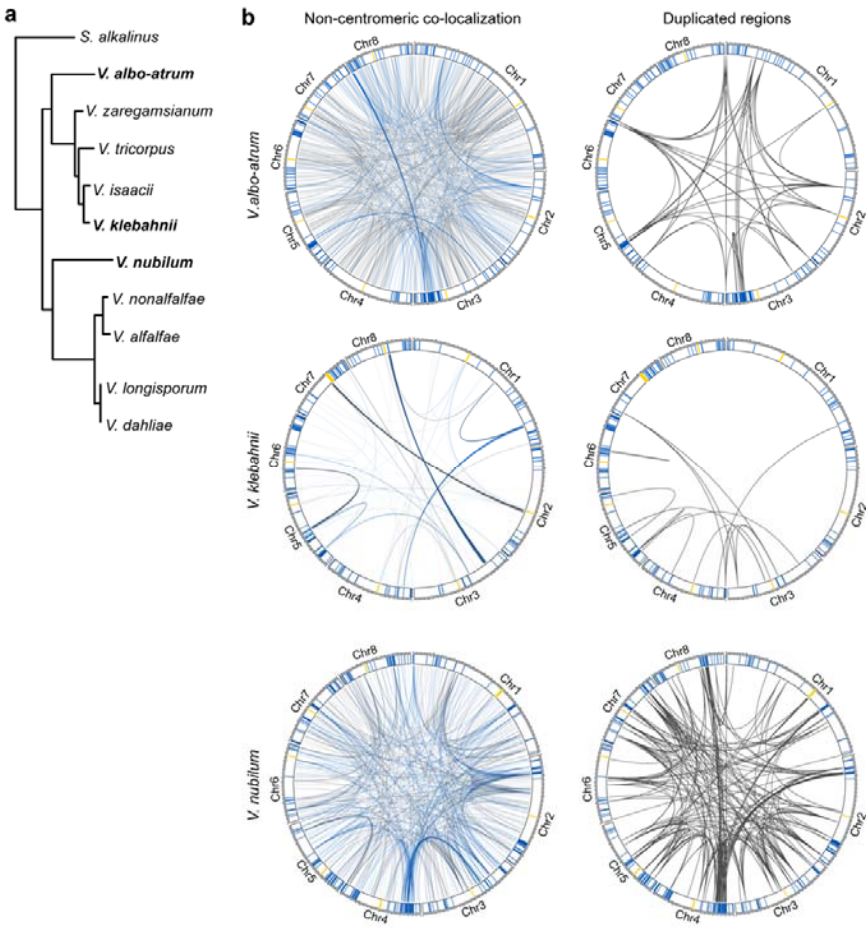
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323 **Figure 5. Adaptive genomic regions physically colocalize in *Verticillium dahliae*.** All circular plots
 324 display in the outer track the eight chromosomes of *V. dahliae* with centromeres highlighted in yellow,
 325 adaptive genomic regions (AGRs) in blue, and core regions in white. Long-range interactions in *V. dahliae*
 326 strain JR2 (a) and VdLs17 (d) that exceed the average interaction strength of centromeres are shown as
 327 edges. Edges for centromeric interactions are shown in yellow, AGR interactions in blue, and core
 328 interactions in grey. Non-centromeric long range interactions in *V. dahliae* strains JR2 (b) and VdLs17 (e)
 329 are shown as edges and the gene density (10 kb) is shown in black. For *V. dahliae* strain JR2, the inner

330 tracks depicting histone modification densities. From outside to inside: H3K27ac (green), H3K27me3
331 (yellow), H3K4me2 (purple), and H3K9m3 (blue). (c and f) Edges represent segmental duplications.
332

333 To assess conservation of AGR colocalization in *V. dahliae*, we similarly analyzed
334 HiC data of the VdLs17 strain. Interestingly, also in VdLs17, non-centromeric colocalization
335 events are enriched for AGR interactions that involve 452 out of 1,451 (31.2%) interactions
336 (chi-squared test; $p=8.5 \times 10^{-56}$; Fig. 5d,e). Moreover, we similarly observed that interacting
337 AGRs are strongly associated with segmental duplications (Fig. 5f, Fig S8, Table 1).
338 Together, these results indicate that long-range interactions between AGRs represent a
339 conserved genome organization in *V. dahliae*.

340 We finally assessed whether the long-range colocalization patterns are conserved
341 throughout the *Verticillium* genus (Fig. 6, Table S3, Table S4). Interestingly, for several
342 *Verticillium* species we could demonstrate that AGRs are overrepresented in long-range
343 interactions (Table S5), namely in *V. albo-atrum*, *V. klebahnii*, *V. nubilum*, and *V.*
344 *nonalfalfae*. Interestingly, also in these species, segmental duplications are enriched in long-
345 range interactions. Moreover, although we were not able to demonstrate enrichment for
346 interactions between AGRs in *V. tricornutus*, *V. alfalfae*, *V. isaacii*, and *V. longisporum*, long-
347 range interactions predominantly occurred among segmental duplications in all species except
348 *V. alfalfae* (Fig. S9). Thus, long-range interactions are conserved across the *Verticillium*
349 genus and involve segmental duplications that are likely instrumental for AGR formation.



350

351 **Figure 6. Adaptive genomic regions physically colocalize across the *Verticillium* genus.** (a) Taxonomic
352 relationship between ten *Verticillium* species. (b) Non-centromeric interactions occur preferentially
353 between adaptive genomic regions (AGRs) in different *Verticillium* species. For all circular plots, outer
354 track depicts centromeres in yellow, AGR regions in blue, and core regions in white. For every genome,
355 non-centromeric interactions that exceed the average interaction strength of centromeres are shown. The
356 right circular plots display segmental duplications for each genome.

357 **DISCUSSION**

358 Based on Hi-C analyses we uncovered the local and global 3D genome organization of *V.*
 359 *dahliae* and related species. The *V. dahliae* genome contains clear TADs that display reduced
 360 insulation in AGRs, as well as significantly enhanced co-regulation of gene expression
 361 compared with the core genome. Notably, TADs are conserved in the *Verticillium* genus and
 362 their boundaries generally lack structural variation. Intriguingly, we show that AGRs
 363 physically interact throughout the *Verticillium* genus, albeit not in an all-versus-all interaction
 364 like centromeres, but rather pairwise. These interactions are associated with segmental
 365 duplications that help to define AGRs. Collectively, our findings link 3D genome
 366 organization with genome function and evolution throughout the *Verticillium* genus.

367 TADs have been described for many eukaryotes, including fungi^{11,15–18}. *V. dahliae*
 368 TADs are smaller (~100 kb) than typical mammalian TADs (~0.2–2.5 Mb)⁸, yet similar to
 369 those in *Drosophila* and other fungi^{11,16,18,29}. In metazoans, TAD boundaries are bound by
 370 CTCF (CCCTC-binding factor) proteins that act as insulator elements for cohesin-mediated
 371 loop extrusion, and are considered hallmarks of TADs^{30,31}. Given that CTCF proteins have not
 372 been identified in filamentous fungi³², annotation of fungal analogs as TADs may be
 373 considered controversial. However, TAD-like domains also occur in bacteria, known as
 374 chromosomal interaction domains (CIDs), and recently the global transcription repressor Rok
 375 was identified as a functional analog of the mammalian CTCF insulator elements³³. A similar
 376 situation may be true for fungi, where additionally many other features are shared with
 377 metazoan TADs.

378 As DNA interacts more strongly within than between TADs, they separate genomes
 379 into discrete units that, in several organisms, coordinate DNA replication^{11,34,35}. In addition,
 380 TADs have been implicated in transcriptional co-regulation^{18,36–38}, although a causal role in
 381 coordination of gene expression remains controversial⁹. Similar to studies on the fungi

382 *Rhizophagus irregularis* and *E. festucae*^{18,38}, we find that only few *V. dahliae* TADs display
 383 transcriptional co-regulation. Nonetheless, it is still interesting that for this smaller subset of
 384 TADs, they all reside in AGRs that are epigenetically distinct from the core genome,
 385 involving lack of TE methylation, enrichment in H3K27me3, and accessible DNA²⁴.
 386 Although in *V. dahliae*, similar to other plant-associated fungi^{39–42}, H3K27me3 plays a role in
 387 transcriptional regulation, we also revealed that this modification does not act as the global
 388 regulator of differential gene expression at AGRs²⁵, and additional factors must be involved in
 389 transcriptional regulation.

390 TAD boundaries are typically conserved between close relatives^{12,13,43–45}, which we
 391 similarly observe in *Verticillium*. However, in contrast to the core genome, TAD boundaries
 392 in AGRs are less conserved, implying that TAD organization in the evolutionary younger and
 393 dynamic AGRs still needs to settle or is less strictly defined. It is interesting to note that we
 394 observed TE insertions near newly generated, or extensively rearranged, TAD boundaries in
 395 AGRs. Cultivar-specific TAD boundaries in cotton were reported to generally harbor more
 396 TEs than TAD boundaries that are shared between cultivars⁴⁶. Moreover, *de novo* TE
 397 insertions in humans generated new TAD boundaries⁴⁷. TE activity is largely confined to
 398 AGRs in *V. dahliae*^{22,23}, and may thus be involved in modulating TAD organization. How this
 399 impacts longer-term trajectories of these regions remains to be determined.

400 Besides local interactions in TADs, the 3D genome displays long-distance interactions
 401 within and between chromosomes. We previously reported centromere clustering in *V.*
 402 *dahliae*²⁷, and now revealed long-range interactions among AGRs. In *N. crassa* such
 403 interactions occur between heterochromatic regions, e.g. between H3K27me3 domains^{16,48}.
 404 Thus, we hypothesized that H3K27me3-marked AGRs similarly colocalized in *V. dahliae*.
 405 However, as not all AGRs interact, despite their enrichment in H3K27me3, and AGRs
 406 interact in a pairwise fashion following the pattern of segmental duplications, we conclude

that we currently cannot assign a single epigenetic mark as a clear driver for colocalization. It is tempting to speculate that physical clustering of AGRs in the nucleus involves membrane-less nuclear bodies and liquid-liquid phase separation that allows spatial segregation of e.g. transcription and DNA-repair^{49,50}. Additionally, association with nuclear membranes could cause spatial segregation of AGRs. In mammalian nuclei, heterochromatic regions are associated with lamin proteins and additional anchor proteins to form lamina-associated domains (LAD) at the nuclear membrane^{51,52}. However, LAD proteins have not been found in fungi⁵³, and more generally it is currently not clear what might drive these specific long-range DNA interactions.

The 3D organization of chromosomes influences timing of replication^{35,54,55} and may lead to differential replication timing of AGRs and core genome. Such differences in replication timing have been observed for H3K27me3-rich regions and have been associated with chromosome instability in *Z. tritici*^{41,56,57}. Such instability, and physical colocalization of highly homologous sequences, may lead to decreased DNA separation efficiency during mitosis and increased DNA double-strand breaks that may explain the increase in genomic rearrangements in AGRs^{20,24,58}.

Altogether, we have uncovered a novel phenomenon that contributes to the divergence of plastic regions and the core genome, by showing that their 3D organization differs with clear impact on evolution and transcriptional regulation. This holistic view that combines detailed genetic, epigenetic, and spatial information fosters further understanding of genome function and evolution in fungi.

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442

443 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

444 M.F.S., D.E.C. and B.P.H.J.T. conceived the project. D.E.T., H.M.K., V.T., M.F.S. and B.P.H.J.T.
445 designed the experiments. D.E.T., H.M.K., V.T., and G.L.F. carried out the experiments, D.E.T.,
446 H.M.K., V.T., G.L.F., D.E.C., M.F.S. and B.P.H.J.T. analyzed the data. D.E.T., H.M.K., V.T., M.F.S.
447 and B.P.H.J.T. wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

448

449 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

450 The authors declare no competing interests.

451

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649 ONLINE METHODS

650 Hi-C analysis and TAD prediction

651 Hi-C library preparation was performed with *V. dahliae* strains JR2 and VdLs17 as previously
 652 described²⁷, and paired-end (2 × 150 bp) sequenced on the NextSeq500 platform at USEQ
 653 (Utrecht, the Netherlands). Additional Hi-C datasets of *V. dahliae* strains JR2 and VdLs17, *V.*
 654 *albo-atrum* strain PD747, *V. alfalfa* strain PD683, *V. isaacii* strain PD618, *V. klebahnii* strain
 655 PD401, *V. longisporum* strains PD589 and VLB2, *V. nonalfalfae* strain T2, *V. nubilum* strain
 656 397, *V. tricornis* strain PD593, and *V. zaregamsianum* strain PD739 were previously
 657 generated^{27,59}.

658 For each Hi-C dataset, sequenced read-pairs were quality-filtered and trimmed using
 659 Trimmomatic (v 0.36) in paired end mode with default settings⁶⁰. Filtered and trimmed reads
 660 were mapped to the corresponding genomes^{21,27} using Burrows-Wheeler aligner (BWA mem,
 661 settings: -A1 -B4 -E50 -L0)⁶¹. Hi-C interaction matrices were built and analyzed using
 662 HiCExplorer tools⁶². First, we used hicBuildMatrix to generate the interaction matrix based
 663 on the *in silico* DpnII restriction digested corresponding genome. To determine the optimal
 664 bin resolution, we used the TAD prediction at centromeric regions that we previously
 665 experimentally determined by immunoprecipitation of CenH3 and repeat content²⁷. Matrix
 666 resolution was reduced by merging 5 adjacent bins using hicMergeMatrixBins. For *V. dahliae*
 667 strains JR2 and VdLs17, replicates were corrected separately according to the iterative
 668 correction and eigenvector decomposition (ICE) method⁶³ using hicCorrectMatrix, and TADs
 669 were predicted using hicFindTADs (settings: --delta 0.01). Correlation between replicates was
 670 determined by using a reproducibility score based on a stratified cross-correlation using the
 671 HiCRep package⁶⁴.

672 To combine replicate matrices, resolutions of raw matrices were reduced by merging 5
 673 adjacent bins using hicMergeMatrixBins, normalized between replicates using hicNormalize

(settings: --setToZeroThreshold 1), corrected separately according to the ICE method using hicCorrectMatrix, and finally combined using hicSumMatrices⁶². For the other *Verticillium* species, matrix resolution reduction and correction was performed as above, and hicFindTADs was used to generate a table with per bin insulation scores.

678

679 **Characterization of epigenetic profiles**

Chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by sequencing (ChIP-seq) for H3K4me2, H3K9me3, H3K27me3, and H3K27ac, and the assay for transposase-accessible chromatin followed by sequencing (ATAC-seq) were performed for *V. dahliae* strain JR2 as described previously^{24,25,27}. ChIP datasets were normalized over MNase control samples.

We used the umap-learn implementation through the R/umap package. This implementation make use of the python UMAP algorithm⁶⁵. For the gene analysis, the following variables were used: GC content, ATAC-seq, 5mC, H3K27ac, H3K27me3, H3K9me3 and log2(PDB *in vitro* expression +1), with the following parameters random_state=42, n_neighbors=50, n_components=2, min_dist=0.01, metric=cosine. The resulting two-dimensional values from UMAP fit.transform were used for plotting and further statistical analysis using Matplotlib, Numpy and Seaborn V0.8.1⁶⁶⁻⁶⁸.

691

692 **Characterization of transcriptional regulation**

RNA sequencing of *V. dahliae* strain JR2 cultivated for six days in potato dextrose broth (PDB) and Czapek-Dox medium (CZA) was previously performed^{24,25}. RNA sequencing of *Arabidopsis thaliana* inoculated with *V. dahliae* JR2 was performed at 28 dpi as previously reported²⁴. Analyses of gene²¹ and TE presence^{23,27} over TADs and TAD boundaries were performed using the EnrichedHeatmap package in R^{69,70}. To assess co-regulation of genes within TADs, we used R to fit a linear model with log2 fold-change in expression of target

genes between PDB and CZA as the response variable and TAD membership as a predictor, similarly as previously described¹⁸.

Characterization of genomic variation

Structural variants (duplications, deletions, inversions and translocations), single nucleotide variants, nucleotide diversity, presence/absence variations and polymorphic transposable elements were previously identified using paired-end sequencing reads of each 42 previously sequenced *V. dahliae* strains²³. Briefly, structural variants were predicted using the ‘sv-callers’ workflow with few modifications that enabled parallel execution of multiple SV callers⁷¹, an approach that is considered optimal as it exploits complementary information to predict SVs^{72,73}. Single nucleotide variants were identified using the -HaplotypeCaller of the Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK) v.4.0⁷⁴, and the average pairwise nucleotide diversity was calculated in 1 kb sliding windows (500 bp sliding) over the genome, as previously²³. Presence Absence Variations were identified using whole-genome alignments of DNA sequence reads from the 42 *V. dahliae* strains to the reference genome assembly of *V. dahliae* strain JR2 and summarized in 100 bp non-overlapping windows²³. Transposable element PAV was analyzed using TEPIID v.2.0⁷⁵. To investigate if SVs and polymorphic TEs co-localize with TAD boundaries, we summarized the overlap of each set of variants by their breakpoint frequency (start or ends ± 1 bp of the feature) and coverage (number of bases covered) across the genome of *V. dahliae* strain JR2¹³. Similar to Fudenberg and Pollard (2019), we calculated the log10(observed/expected) of each feature representing the deviation from a uniform distribution across the genome, therefore accounting for the proportion of the genome covered by a specific genomic feature. Finally, we considered two scenarios: core genome vs AGRs, and syntenic regions between JR2 and VdLs17 versus non-syntenic regions. Syntenic regions between *V. dahliae* strains JR2 and VdLs17 were previously determined²². Briefly, whole-genome alignments between the eight chromosomes was performed using MUMmer 3.0 and

724 GEvo^{76,77}, where only gene-coding regions were used as anchors between syntenic
725 chromosomal regions.

726 To further expand our analysis of *V. dahliae* to the full genus, we used the recently
727 available Hi-C-corrected genomes of all *Verticillium* species^{27,59}. The phylogenetic tree was
728 generated using Realphy v. 1.12 using a maximum likelihood inferred by RAxML^{78,79}. We
729 aligned the *Verticillium* genomes using ProgressiveCactus⁸⁰. This approach allowed us to
730 reduce the reference-bias and consider more accurate further analysis. We obtained the
731 specific MAF alignments on JR2 and syntenic regions using the HAL package⁸¹. To analyze
732 the nucleotide conservation throughout the genus, we used PhastCons, a hidden Markov
733 model-based method that estimates the probability that each nucleotide belongs to a
734 conserved element based on a multiple sequence alignment guided by the established
735 phylogenetic relationships²⁸. Briefly, for each independent JR2 chromosome we assumed a
736 neutral evolution model and correction for indels. For further analysis, we summarized the
737 PhastCons score over TADs and TAD boundaries in the core genome and in AGRs.

738

739 **TAD boundary prediction throughout the *Verticillium* genus**

740 The Hi-C datasets of the *Verticillium* species (excluding *V. dahliae*), were available with one
741 biological replicate. Therefore, we decided to predict TAD boundaries based on sequence
742 homology to boundaries in *V. dahliae* strain JR2. We first filtered the boundary sequences
743 that do not have a TE insertion and queried them to the *Verticillium* genomes using Blastn,
744 retaining those with >50% coverage that were contiguous in the same syntenic block. Finally,
745 we cross-referenced those putative TAD boundary regions with the previously calculated
746 insulation score for each independent species.

747

748 **Statistical analysis and visualization**

Hi-C matrix and TAD visualizations were performed using HiCExplorer and FAN-C⁸². Heatmap and enrichment visualization of insulation scores over boundaries, normalized chromatin marks, structural and nucleotide variants, as well as the PhastCons score, were performed using the R/EnrichedHeatmap v1.2 package⁶⁹. Permutation tests were computed using R/Bioconductor regionR v1.18.1 package⁸³ and performed with 10,000 iterations, using overlaps between TAD boundaries divided by the insulation score quantiles and the predefined AGRs, and circular randomization to maintain the order and distance of the regions in the chromosomes. All statistical analyses and comparison tests were performed in R v.3.6.3⁷⁰, and visualized with ggplot2⁸⁴.

758

759 **Identification of significant colocalization events from Hi-C data**

Expected-Observed interaction read counts were obtained from HiCExplorer (version 3.7) through the export function with expected-observed nonzero from the corrected and summed matrices. Expected-observed counts matrixes containing the interactions between all the merged bins were filtered to keep only physical interactions between physically distant regions. Two regions were considered physically distant if the bins belonged to different chromosomes or if two bins were more than 20kb distant from each other. Next, the bins were annotated based on which genomic compartment they belong to (centromere or AGR) and the remaining bins were annotated as core genome. Mean centromere-to-centromere expected-observed read counts is calculated and only interaction events with expected-observed counts above this threshold are kept and thus, involved in long range interactions. It needs to be noted that our analysis is limited by the fact that we only assess those interactions that are stronger than the average interaction strength that occurs between centromeres in each species but, given that the constitution of centromeres differs between *Verticillium* spp.²⁷ this interaction strength may consequently not be uniform between species. Visualization of the

774 interaction and associated genetic and epigenetic features was done in R with the circos
775 package.

776

777 **Identification of duplicated regions and association with long-range interactions**

778 Self-whole-genome alignments of the genome assemblies of *Verticillium* species were
779 performed using MUMmer⁷⁶, regions that mapped elsewhere on the genome with a nucleotide
780 identity above 80% and above 1kb in size are considered duplicated. For each colocalization
781 event that associate two distant regions, we verify if there is a duplicated region that borders
782 with or overlaps with both distant regions. We consider the colocalization event to be
783 neighboring a duplicated region, if the average distance between the colocalizing region and
784 the duplicated region is below 50 kb.

785 We calculated the enrichment of colocalization events neighboring duplicated regions
786 through a permutation test. We simulated random interactions genome wide and calculated
787 the number of observed interactions neighboring a duplicated region. We repeated the process
788 100 times to generate a distribution of expected interactions neighboring duplicated regions
789 and ran a t-test versus the observed value. This permutation test was performed using the
790 genome wide-duplicated regions distribution and AGR compartment specific.

791

792 **Determination of adaptive genomic regions**

793 Nucleotide sequences from the *V. dahliae* strain JR2 AGR compartment were aligned versus
794 each of the *Verticillium* genomes included in this work using ProgressiveCactus⁸⁰. Syntenic
795 regions in the respective genomes are considered AGR regions in the respective organism.
796 Additionally, each *Verticillium* strain genome was aligned using ProgressiveCactus⁸⁰ with the
797 other *Verticillium* strain genomes included in this work. Genomic regions which were unique
798 and not found in any other genome are also considered AGR in that strain.