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# Evolutionary strata on young mating-type chromosomes despite the lack of sexual antagonism

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Sex chromosomes can display successive steps of recombination suppression known as "evolutionary strata," which are thought to result from the successive linkage of sexually antagonistic genes to sex-determining genes. However, there is little evidence to support this explanation. Here we investigate whether evolutionary strata can evolve without sexual antagonism using fungi that display suppressed recombination extending beyond loci determining mating compatibility despite lack of male/female roles associated with their mating types. By comparing full-length chromosome assemblies from five anther-smut fungi with or without recombination suppression in their mating-type chromosomes, we inferred the ancestral gene order and derived chromosomal arrangements in this group. This approach shed light on the chromosomal fusion underlying the linkage of mating-type loci in fungi and provided evidence for multiple clearly resolved evolutionary strata over a range of ages (0.9–2.1 million years) in mating-type chromosomes. Several evolutionary strata did not include genes involved in mating-type determination. The existence of strata devoid of matingtype genes, despite the lack of sexual antagonism, calls for a unified theory of sex-related chromosome evolution, incorporating, for example, the influence of partially linked deleterious mutations and the maintenance of neutral rearrangement polymorphism due to balancing selection on sexes and mating types.

evolutionary strata | chromosomal rearrangements | fungi | genomic degeneration | mating-type chromosomes

Incomosomes carrying genes controlling mating compatibility may display suppressed recombination, as seen in sex chromosomes in some animals and plants (1, 2). When recombination is suppressed and one of the sex chromosomes is always in a heterozygous state (e.g., the Y chromosome in humans), extensive rearrangements of that chromosome typically occur. Our understanding of how sex chromosomes evolve remains incomplete, with many unanswered questions (3), including the reasons why these chromosomes display such large regions of suppressed recombination, extending well beyond the sex-determining genes. Sex chromosomes may bear discrete "evolutionary strata" of differentiation between alleles, with divergence decreasing with distance from sex-determining genes in the ancestral gene order, as inferred from the nonrearranged sex chromosome (1). It is generally accepted that such strata result from successive rounds of selection favoring the linkage of sexually antagonistic genes (with alleles beneficial in one sex but detrimental in the other) and sex-determining loci (1, 4). However, there is no definitive evidence to support a prominent role for sexually antagonistic genes in the formation of evolutionary strata in sex chromosomes (3). Other hypotheses have been put forward, including the permanent sheltering of deleterious alleles, which may accumulate in the margins of nonrecombining regions, provided that recombination rates are low in these regions. Another hypothesis is the fixation of neutral rearrangements by drift in one of the two sex chromosomes with automatic recombination arrest and the maintenance of a polymorphic state due to balancing selection on sexes (2, 5–8) ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), SI Text [and Fig. S1\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf).

Recombination suppression has been documented in fungal mating-type chromosomes (9, 10), which carry key loci determining mating compatibility. In basidiomycetes, mating type is typically controlled by two loci:  $(i)$  the pheromone receptor  $(PR)$ locus, which carries one gene encoding a mating-type–specific PR and one to several genes encoding pheromones, and  $(ii)$  the homeodomain gene (HD) locus, encoding two homeodomaintype transcription factors controlling postmating growth. Recombination suppression ensures full linkage of the mating-type genes within each of these two loci, which is required for correct mating-type determination (11), and typically does not extend beyond the mating-type genes (12, 13). Recombination suppression

#### **Significance**

Sex chromosomes can display divergent evolution, as seen in humans, in which the Y chromosome underlying maleness is smaller and contains much less information than the X chromosome. The differentiation between sex chromosomes can occur stepwise along their length, which is thought to result from the successive beneficial linkage of genes with different phenotype optima in the two sexes to sex-determining genes. However, there is little evidence to support this hypothesis. Here, we recovered ancestral chromosome structures and gathered evidence for stepwise differentiation between fungal mating-type chromosomes despite the absence of male/female roles. Our results suggest that the analogous features of sex chromosomes may not be due to differences in selection between males and females.

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Data deposition: The genome assemblies are available at the European Nucleotide Archive. Accession numbers are as follows: [PRJEB12080](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB12080), [ERS459551](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERS459551), and [ERZ250722](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERZ250722) for Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae 1064 a2; [PRJEB12080](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB12080), [ERS1013679,](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERS1013679) and [ERZ250721](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERZ250721) for M. lychnidis-dioicae 1064 a1; [PRJEB12080,](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB12080) [ERS1013678,](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERS1013678) and [ERZ250720](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERZ250720) for Microbotryum lagerheimii 1253 a2; [PRJEB12080,](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB12080) [ERS1013677](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERS1013677), and [ERZ250719](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERZ250719) for M. lagerheimii 1253 a1; [PRJEB12080](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB12080), [ERS1013672,](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERS1013672) and [ERZ250714](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERZ250714) for Microbotryum violaceum s. str. 1249 a2; [PRJEB12080](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB12080), [ERS1013671](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERS1013671), and [ERZ250713](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERZ250713) for M. violaceum s. str. 1249 a1; [PRJEB16471](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB16471) and [ERZ369313](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERZ369313) for Microbotryum intermedium; [PRJEB16741,](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB16741) [ERS1436593,](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERS1436593) and [ERZ370138](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERZ370138) for Microbotryum silenesdioicae 1303 a2; and [PRJEB16741](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB16741), [ERS1436592,](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERS1436592) and [ERZ369313](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ERZ369313) for M. silenes-dioicae 1303 a1.

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in fungal mating-type chromosomes can further link the two mating-type loci, HD and PR, to each other and/or the centromere (9, 14–18). Such linkage is beneficial in species with selfing-based mating systems, as it increases the odds of compatibility between gametes from a diploid parent (16, 19, 20) ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), SI Text [and Fig. S2\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf). It has been repeatedly suggested that some fungal mating-type chromosomes have additional evolutionary strata extending the suppression of recombination beyond mating-type genes (9, 18, 21, 22) ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), SI Text). However, no evidence has been provided of multiple discrete regions in which divergence between fungal mating-type–associated alleles decreases with increasing distance from sexual compatibility loci. Uncertainty about fungal evolutionary strata persists due to difficulties in inferring the ancestral gene order, which is essential for reconstructions of the evolution of mating-type chromosomes. If fungi have evolutionary strata not involving the linkage of mating-type genes, their presence cannot be explained by sexually antagonistic selection, as fungal mating types are not associated with male/female functions. Moreover, there are virtually no differences in ecological or life-history traits between fungal mating types (23), making it unlikely that there is any analogous mating-type–antagonistic selection improving the function of one mating type while having deleterious effects on the function of the other.

We investigated the existence of evolutionary strata in Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae, a castrating anther-smut fungus. This species is particularly suited for determining whether the stepwise evolution of suppressed recombination can occur without sexual antagonism. It has two alternative mating-type chromosomes with a large region of suppressed recombination (10, 17, 24, 25), complete absence of male/female function, and virtually no opportunity for mating-type–antagonistic selection. Indeed, almost all matings occur within the tetrad (26–28) with the isogamous gametes fusing rapidly after meiosis without mitotic proliferation in a free haploid stage (Fig. 1A). There has been much debate about the existence of evolutionary strata in the M. lychnidis-dioicae mating-type chromosomes (17, 21, 22, 25) ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), SI Text). Genes with different levels of synonymous divergence between alleles linked to the two mating types (called  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ ) are widely dispersed over 90% of the chromosome length, suggesting that, if there were any evolutionary strata, they have been erased by massive rearrangements (17). As in all fungi with distinct mating types, and in contrast to plant and animal sex chromosomes, M. lychnidis-dioicae matingtype chromosomes are always heterozygous in the diploid stage, so neither conserves the ancestral gene order (17). This precludes the typical use of the nonrearranged chromosome for the detection of evolutionary strata (1). The recombining regions in M. lychnidis-dioicae, such as the autosomes and the pseudoautosomal regions (PARs), are, however, highly collinear (17) ([SI](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf) Appendix[, Fig. S3](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf)), suggesting that the ancestral gene order should be retained in mating-type chromosomes undergoing recombination, even in selfing species. We use the term "autosome" as a contrast to "dimorphic" chromosomes, as originally intended (29, 30), rather than in opposition to sex chromosomes per se. Similarly, PAR is used to name the genomic regions at the edges of the mating-type chromosomes that are collinear and recombine like autosomes.

We compiled chromosome-length genome assemblies for five Microbotryum species and adopted an approach in which species carrying mostly recombining mating-type chromosomes were identified and used to recover the ancestral chromosomal state and gene order. Using this method, we were able to reconstruct the rearrangements leading to the current nonrecombining mating-type chromosomes in the selfing *M. lychnidis-dioicae*. One important step involved chromosomal rearrangements and fusion of the two separate ancestral mating-type chromosomes, linking the two mating-type loci in the same chromosome, which is beneficial under selfing (although not required) ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf),



Fig. 1. Anther-smut fungi. (A) M. lychnidis-dioicae tetrad with a cell in the spore and three cells in a horizontal promycelium; mating occurs rapidly after meiosis within the tetrad (black arrows). Some haploid cells are budding, but almost 100% of matings occur within the promycelium. (B) Microbotryomycete phylogenetic tree based on 4,000 orthologous genes, including the studied Microbotryum species (shown in the anthers of their host plants) and the outgroup Rhodotorula babjevae. Branch color and symbol indicate linked (gray branches and open diamonds) or unlinked (black branches and closed diamonds) mating-type loci. The closed circles indicate full bootstrap support. Internode certainty with no conflict bipartitions is given below the branches (i.e., the normalized frequency of the most frequent bipartition across gene genealogies relative to the summed frequencies of the two most frequent bipartitions), indicating good support for the nodes. Relative tree certainty of the tree was 0.68. Colored rectangles along the branches indicate the evolution of the various evolutionary strata (see Fig. 3).

[Fig. S2](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf)) (16). This finding sheds light on the genomic evolutionary steps leading to changes in breeding systems in fungi. We also provide compelling evidence for multiple, clearly differentiated and ancestrally adjacent evolutionary strata in fungal mating-type chromosomes with several strata devoid of genes controlling mating types. The existence of successive extensions of the region of recombination suppression beyond the linkage of mating-type genes in fungi without male/female functions indicates that evolutionary strata can occur without sexual antagonism. This finding has profound implications for our understanding of the evolutionary genomics of sexual eukaryotes across three kingdoms, highlighting the need for more serious consideration of alternative theoretical models of sex-related chromosome evolution beyond sexually antagonistic processes.

#### Results and Discussion

Ancestral Gene Order in Microbotryum Mating-Type Chromosomes. We obtained high-quality assemblies of haploid genomes for two Microbotryum species expected to have retained the ancestral gene order: Microbotryum intermedium, a distant relative of M. lychnidis-dioicae (Fig. 1B) (31, 32), and Microbotryum lagerheimii, a species known to have unlinked HD and PR mating-type loci (32). As hypothesized, M. intermedium was found to have the PR and HD loci in two different chromosomes that were highly collinear with the mating-type chromosomes of M. lagerheimii (Fig. 2A). The collinearity between these distantly related species indicated a high degree of gene order conservation across multiple speciation events (31), therefore closely reflecting the





ancestral state in this clade. The ancestral gene order has probably been maintained by regular recombination, as also indicated by the collinearity between the  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  mating-type chromosomes in M. lagerheimii ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S4), typical of recombining genomic regions ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S3).

Ancient Linkage of Mating-Type Genes at Each of the HD and PR Loci. We found footprints of ancient recombination suppression linking the essential pairs of interacting mating-type genes at each of the HD and PR loci, as is typical and ancestral in basidiomycete fungi (13). The nucleotide sequences of the  $a_1$  and a2 alleles of the PR gene were too differentiated to be aligned (Figs. 3A and 4) and a previous study inferred that these alleles had been diverging for about 370 million years (33). Recombination suppression linking the two HD mating-type genes was also very old (Fig. 3B), as shown by the second-highest level of synonymous divergence  $(d<sub>S</sub>)$  between the  $a<sub>1</sub>$  and  $a<sub>2</sub>$  mating types at these genes in both M. lagerheimii and M. lychnidisdioicae (Fig. 4) and by gene genealogies (34).

Chromosomal Fusion Led to the Large Nonrecombining Region Linking HD and PR Mating-Type Genes in M. lychnidis-dioicae. A more recent recombination suppression event involved the linkage of the HD and PR mating-type loci to each other (Fig. 3), which is favorable under selfing (15, 16) ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S2), the predominant mating system in Microbotryum (26, 28). Genome comparisons indicated that the M. lychnidis-dioicae mating-type chromosome was



Fig. 3. Scenario of mating-type chromosome evolution in the genus Microbotryum. Strata involving the linkage of mating-type genes are numbered in green circles, whereas strata devoid of mating-type genes are numbered in red circles. (A) Ancestral state with separate HD and PR chromosomes and suppressed recombination restricted to the PR mating-type genes. (B) Suppressed recombination at all mating-type genes (as typically seen in basidiomycete fungi, with linked PR and pheromone genes at one locus and the two linked HD genes linked at a second locus). (C) Extension of suppressed recombination to purple nonmating-type genes. (D) Extension of suppressed recombination to blue nonmating-type genes. (E) Extension of suppressed recombination distal to the purple stratum, forming the orange stratum, devoid of mating-type genes. (F) Fission of the HD chromosome and fusion of one arm with the PR chromosome. (G) Complete linkage between the HD and PR mating-type loci, forming the black stratum. (H) Extension of suppressed recombination to nonmating-type genes forming the red stratum and rearrangements shuffling older evolutionary strata. (I) Further extension of suppressed recombination forming the green stratum and further rearrangements, leading to the current M. lychnidis-dioicae (MvSl) mating-type chromosome with the red stratum located between the PR and HD genes.



Fig. 4. Synonymous divergence (d<sub>s</sub>) between alleles associated with the  $a_1$ and  $a_2$  mating types along mating-type chromosomes, as found in the PacBio-sequenced diploid individual in each Microbotryum species. Per-gene mean  $d<sub>s</sub>$  values and SE values. The locations of the mating-type genes (PR and HD) are indicated. The divergence between the  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  PR alleles was too extensive (33) and could not be computed. It is plotted as an "unalignable" (Un) open purple circle. The M. lagerheimii centromeres are shown in yellow. (A) Synonymous divergence for all single-copy genes common to the M. lagerheimii  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  mating-type chromosomes plotted according to the genomic coordinates of its  $a_1$  mating-type chromosomes. The HD chromosome is displayed on the left and the PR chromosome on the right. Genes with within-individual  $a_1-a_2$  ds > 0 are shown in blue around HD and purple around PR. The mating-type loci are partially linked to the centromere in M. lagerheimii (32). (B) Synonymous divergence for all singlecopy genes common to the M. lychnidis-dioicae mating-type chromosomes and M. lagerheimii, plotted in the ancestral gene order, as inferred from the genomic coordinates of the M. lagerheimii  $a_1$  mating-type chromosomes. The limits of the M. lagerheimii PR and HD mating-type chromosomes are indicated, together with the positions of their centromeres. Blue and purple genes correspond to genes orthologous to the blue and purple regions in A. Other evolutionary strata are indicated in orange, black, red, and green. (Inset) Magnification of the youngest strata. The gray gene with nonzero  $d_S$ value at the right of the green stratum was located within the collinear PAR in Fig. 2B and was separated from the green genes by a small noncollinear region. The PARs in M. lychnidis-dioicae are shown in gray.

formed by the fusion of the complete ancestral PR chromosome with one arm of the ancestral chromosome carrying the HD locus (Fig. 3 D–F and [SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S5A). The remaining ancestral HD chromosome arm became an autosomal component in M. lychnidis-dioicae (Fig. 3 D-F and [SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S5A). Based on the inferred ancestral state, the two mating-type loci were initially some 800 kb apart following the fusion event and the fused chromosome was about 2 Mb long. The subsequent cessation of recombination between the PR and HD mating-type loci led to extensive rearrangements ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S3) and divergence between alleles associated with the  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  mating types in this region (in black in Fig.  $4B$  and Fig. 3  $G-I$ ). Conversely, the chromosome regions ancestrally distal to the PR and HD loci largely constituted PARs that remained collinear ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S1), with a within-individual  $d<sub>S</sub>$  of 0 (gray in Fig. 4B), as expected for recombining regions in organisms with high selfing rates.

For confirmation of the complete and ancient nature of recombination suppression in the region ancestrally between the HD and PR loci (black in Fig.  $4B$ ), we obtained and analyzed high-quality genome assemblies of M. silenes-dioicae and M. violaceum s. str., two species closely related to M. lychnidisdioicae (Fig. 1B). All three species had homologous mating-type chromosomes ( $SI$  *Appendix*, Fig. S5 *B* and *C*), each including the large black nonrecombining region ancestrally located between PR and HD, with a high degree of rearrangement between mating types and between species ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S5). Most of the genes (66%) in the black region displayed trans-specific polymorphism across M. lychnidis-dioicae and M. silenes-dioicae, with alleles associated with the  $a_1$  mating type of both species branching together rather than clustering with the allele associated with the  $a_2$  mating type from the same species. Transspecific polymorphism also extended to the divergence from M. violaceum s. str. in 20% of the genes ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Figs. [S6 and S7](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf)), which were dispersed along the ancestral gene order in the black stratum (corresponding to the black points with the highest  $d_S$  values in Fig. 4B). Such old trans-specific polymorphism associated with mating type could not have persisted without an ancient and complete cessation of recombination preceding the divergence of these three species, as even very low levels of recombination would have had time to break down the association between alleles at genes in the black stratum and mating-type genes. The less marked or absent *trans*-specific polymorphism for some of the genes within the black stratum probably results from occasional localized gene conversion events, as demonstrated for mating-type chromosomes in Microbotryum (35) and other fungi (36, 37). Trans-specific polymorphism in the genealogies of genes in the black stratum never extended to M. lagerheimii, consistent with the lack of linkage between the PR and HD mating-type loci in this species. When calibrated by the previous estimate for the date of the speciation event between M. lychnidis-dioicae and M. silenes-dioicae to 420,000 years ago (38), the divergence between  $a_1$ - and  $a_2$  associated alleles in the black region led to an estimate for the date of linkage between the HD and PR loci of about 1.3 million years ago (95% confi-dence interval between 1.1 and 1.6 million years) ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), SI Text [and Table S1\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf).

Evolutionary Strata Extending Suppressed Recombination Around Each of the PR and HD Mating-Type Loci. We detected further independent evolutionary strata, extending recombination suppression to nonmating-type genes in several successive steps (Fig. 3 C and D and [SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Table S1). Three strata (blue, purple, and orange strata, Figs. 1, 3, and 4), devoid of mating-type genes, evolved independently after the recombination suppression events at each of the PR and HD mating-type loci but before the HD and PR linkage via chromosome fusion (black stratum, Figs. 1, 3, and 4). Indeed, M. lagerheimii, which has unlinked HD and PR mating-type loci and therefore no black stratum, showed high divergence levels between alleles associated with the  $a_1$  mating type and those associated with the  $a_2$  mating type for 14 HDproximal (blue) genes and 31 PR-proximal (purple) genes, none of which are involved in mating-type determination (Fig. 4A and SI Appendix[, Tables S1, S2, and S3](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf)). These findings are in stark contrast with the near-zero within-individual  $d<sub>s</sub>$  values along the rest of the mating-type chromosomes in this species. These same genes ancestrally located near the PR and HD loci also had the next-highest level of divergence after the mating-type genes themselves in M. lychnidis-dioicae, M. silenes-dioicae, and M. violaceum s. str. (purple and blue in Fig. 4B; [SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), [Tables S1 and S3 and Fig. S8\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf). Most of these genes also displayed high levels of synonymous divergence between mating types in three other Microbotryomycetes *([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf)*, Table S2 and figure 2B in ref. 39) and were also localized within noncollinear regions in these distant outgroups (figure  $1A$  in ref. 39). These results

suggest that recombination suppression linking nonmating-type genes to key mating-type determinants is very old and occurred before these Microbotryomycetes species diverged (Fig. 1B).

Further supporting this inference, all genes in the purple stratum displayed trans-specific polymorphism with 50% displaying trans-specific polymorphism extending up to the divergence of M. lychnidis-dioicae and M. lagerheimii and 12.5% back to the root of the Microbotryomycetes ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Figs. [S6 and S7\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf). This confirms that a set of genes has been linked to the mating-type genes since long before the black stratum evolved, at least before the split between the common ancestor of Microbotryum and these outgroups. Indeed, such trans-specific polymorphisms separating alleles associated with the  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ mating types across species cannot be maintained without a full recombination suppression preceding all those speciation events. Additional strong evidence for an ancient and complete recombination cessation in the purple stratum is provided by the rearrangements between mating types present in M. lagerheimii, with the fully linked PR and pheromone genes of the  $a_1$  genome located at opposite edges of the purple region ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. [S4\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf). Recombination was suppressed in the purple stratum about 2.1 million years ago (95% confidence interval between 1.6 and 2.7 million years), as estimated based on the divergence between alleles associated with the alternative mating types ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), SI Text [and Table S1](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf)). This date confirms that the suppression of recombination predates the black stratum. We also found transspecific polymorphism in the blue stratum in 75% of the genes ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S7). Recombination suppression in the purple and blue nonmating-type genes was more recent than that between the genes at each of the HD and PR mating-type loci, as shown by the lower  $d<sub>S</sub>$  than for the mating-type genes and by the ancestral situation in basidiomycetes, with only mating-type genes linked at each of the PR and HD loci. Furthermore, the estimated dates of recombination suppression and trans-specifc polymorphism in the purple stratum were much more recent than those for the PR gene (SI Appendix[, Table S1 and Fig. S7](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf)) (33). The blue stratum may be more recent than the purple stratum, as suggested by its lower  $d<sub>S</sub>$  values and less deep *trans*specific polymorphism. However, even if equally ancient, the blue and purple strata constitute independent events of recombination suppression, given that they evolved in separate chromosomes, as seen in  $M$ . *lagerheimii* (Figs. 3 and 4).

We found another independent stratum ancestrally located distal to the purple stratum, toward the PARs (orange in Fig.  $4B$ ), with high ds values in M. lychnidis-dioicae, M. silenes-dioicae, and *M. violaceum s. str.* (Fig. 4 and *[SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf)*, Fig. S8). Genes in the orange stratum were not involved in mating-type determination and also displayed deep trans-specific polymorphism, indicating an ancient complete suppression of recombination ([SI](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf) Appendix[, Figs. S6 and S7\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf). The orange stratum most likely evolved before the black stratum linking the HD and PR matingtype genes (Fig.  $3E$ ), as it showed a much higher mean  $d<sub>S</sub>$  value (Figs. 4B and *[SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf)*, Table S1). The orange stratum genes had zero  $d_S$  in *M. lagerheimii* (Fig. 4 and *[SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf)*, Fig. S8), indicating that recombination suppression in this region evolved after the divergence with this species and therefore after the purple stratum (Fig. 3). Consistent with this inference, the genes of the orange stratum had lower  $d<sub>S</sub>$  values than those of the purple stratum.

Additional, Younger Evolutionary Strata Evolved After the Linkage Between HD and PR Mating-Type Loci in M. lychnidis-dioicae. We found evidence for two additional and younger evolutionary strata in *M. lychnidis-dioicae*. These strata did not involve mating-type genes either and arose much later than the linkage between HD and PR mating-type genes (red and green in Fig. 4B and SI Appendix[, Tables S1 and S3\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf). The red stratum contains genes that were ancestrally located distal to the orange stratum

in the PAR and displayed intermediate  $d<sub>S</sub>$  values in *M. lychnidis-*dioicae ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Table S1 and Fig. 4B, Inset). These findings indicate a further distal expansion of recombination suppression, after the evolution of the black stratum, in the lineage leading to *M. lychnidis-dioicae* (Fig.  $3 H$  and *I*). The red stratum is currently located between the HD and PR loci in *M. lychnidis-dioicae* (Fig. 2B), where recombination has been shown to be completely suppressed using segregation analyses (10, 24). This additional recombination suppression step occurred before the divergence of M. lychnidis-dioicae and M. silenes-dioicae, as shown by the nonzero within-individual  $d<sub>S</sub>$  values found in *M. silenes-dioicae* ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S8A) and the trans-specific polymorphism observed in almost 30% of the genes across these species ([SI](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf) [Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S7). In M. silenes-dioicae, the red stratum genes have remained in close proximity but are separated from the PAR by a small noncollinear region in *M. silenes-dioicae* ([SI](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf) [Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S5E). In contrast, the trans-specific polymorphism in the red stratum genes never extended to M. violaceum s. str. ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S7). In this later species, the red stratum genes were located in the PAR and had zero  $d<sub>S</sub>$  values within the se-quenced diploid strain ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Figs. S5 B and D and S7), demonstrating the regular occurrence of recombination. This indicates that the red stratum, which contains no mating-type genes, was formed more recently than the black stratum, in the lineage leading to M. lychnidis-dioicae and M. silenes-dioicae, after its divergence with M. violaceum s. str. (Fig. 1). We estimated the date of recombination suppression in the red stratum at about 0.9 millions years ago (95% confidence interval between 0.7 and 1.1 million years), which is much more recent than the black stratum linking the HD and PR loci ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), SI Text [and Table S1\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf).

We found yet another small, very recent putative evolutionary stratum, also common only to M. lychnidis-dioicae and M. silenes $dioicae$  (green in Figs.  $2B$  and  $4B$ ). In both species, this green stratum was located close to the PAR, but was separated from it by a region with an inversion between  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  (Fig. 2B and [SI](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf) Appendix, Fig.  $S5E$ ), and the genes had low but nonzero  $d_S$ values. These genes probably correspond to a very recent expansion of the nonrecombining region after the formation of the red stratum (Fig. 3*I*), as suggested by their lower  $d_S$  values (Fig. 4B and *[SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf)*, Table S1), distinctive current location in the M. lychnidis-dioicae genome, and lack of trans-specific polymor-phism ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S7). Alternatively, the red and green strata may have been generated in a single event, followed by physical separation due to rearrangements.

We further confirmed recombination suppression in the red and green strata using multiple available resequenced genomes for M. lychnidis-dioicae and M. silenes-dioicae (22, 40). Gene genealogies revealed that the alleles associated with the  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ mating types formed two different clades for at least one species in all of the gene genealogies, and trans-specific polymorphism was observed across all individuals in 23% of cases ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), [Fig. S9](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf)). These patterns can be explained only by full linkage to mating type before the two species split. Furthermore, the mean levels of polymorphism per mating type and per species were significantly lower in all of the evolutionary strata than in the PARs (Student's t tests,  $P < 0.05$ ) ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Fig. S10), as expected in regions without recombination due to the lower effective population size. These findings indicated that the nonzero  $d<sub>S</sub>$  in the evolutionary strata within the sequenced individuals was due to recombination suppression rather than elevated substitution rates. Maximum-likelihood Hudson–Kreitman–Agade tests further supported that the higher  $d<sub>S</sub>$  levels in the purple, blue, orange, black, and red strata compared with the PARs in M. lychnidis-dioicae and M. silenes-dioicae were due to balancing selection (because of linkage to mating type) rather than to el-evated mutation rates ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), SI Text).

Conclusion. We found multiple evolutionary strata in Microbotryum mating-type chromosomes, several of which included no genes related to mating-type determination ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Tables [S2 and S3\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf). Only the two oldest strata (linking pairs of matingtype genes within each of the separate PR and HD loci, respectively) and the black stratum (linking the HD and PR loci together) involved mating-type genes. The linkage between HD and PR genes probably evolved because it increased the likelihood of compatibility between gametes in a selfing system (16) ([SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), SI Text and Fig. S2). Mating-type loci linkage has been reported in several fungi (9, 14, 41, 42), and our study provides clues to the chromosomal rearrangements underlying this phenomenon. The five other *M. lychnidis-dioicae* evolutionary strata (purple, blue, orange, red, and green strata) did not involve mating-type genes. As this species has no male/ female traits, our results indicate that sexual antagonism is insufficient to account for the occurrence of these evolutionary strata. Furthermore, given the M. lychnidis-dioicae life cycle, the existence of ecological differences between mating types that would enhance alternative mating-type functions is highly unlikely. Alternative hypotheses should therefore be considered, including the capture and shelter of deleterious alleles in a permanently

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heterozygous state, the fixation of neutral rearrangements by drift in one gametolog (see [SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), SI Text and Fig. S1 for more details concerning these hypotheses). These general mechanisms apply to both sex and mating-type chromosomes across the plant, animal, and fungal kingdoms. Our results thus call for an expansion of theories concerning the evolution of eukaryotic sexrelated chromosomes to forces beyond sexual antagonism.

#### Materials and Methods

Haploid genomes were sequenced with P6/C4 Pacific Biosciences SMRT technology (University of California, San Diego IGM Genomics Facility) ([SI](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf) [Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), Table S4). Orthologs were identified by orthomcl (43). Trees were inferred with RAxML (44). Strata divergence times were inferred with BEAST2 (45). More details about the materials and methods used are provided in [SI Appendix](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1701658114/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.1701658114.sapp.pdf), SI Text.

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# **SI Appendix**

# **Evolutionary strata on young mating-type chromosomes despite the lack of sexual antagonism**

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## **SI Text**

### **Mating-type chromosomes in fungi**

There are several hypotheses for the evolution of recombination suppression in fungal mating-type chromosomes, some also holding for animal, plant and algal sex chromosomes. These include:

1) Linkage of two mating-type loci: Most basidiomycete fungi (i.e., mushrooms, rusts and smut fungi) contain two loci determining pre- and post-mating compatibility, respectively. The PR locus controls gamete fusion, with pheromone receptor and pheromone precursor genes (the latter sometimes being present in multiple copies), and the HD locus controls compatibility during growth of after fusion of haploids cells, with two adjacent homeodomain genes [\(1,](#page-18-0) [2 ,](#page-18-1) [3\)](#page-18-2). Both PR and HD mating-type loci in basidiomycetes encompass two to several genes, and recombination is suppressed within each of these two loci, in all species, ensuring proper mating-type d[ete](#page-18-2)[rmi](#page-18-3)nation (3, 4 ). Linkage of these two matingtype loci is beneficial (but not required) under selfing mating systems in basidiomycete fungi as it increases the probability of compatibility among gametes from the same di[ploid](#page-18-4) parent (5-7) (Fig. S2). In contrast, the segregation of the two mating-type loci in association with multi-allelism increases discrimination against selfing and mating among closely related individuals, which [prom](#page-18-4)otes outcrossing (5-9). The PR and HD loci segregate independently in most basidiomycetes, but these loci are link[ed](#page-18-5) [in some](#page-18-6) species (6, 10-13). Independent meiotic segregation of the two mating-type loci in basidiomycetes is called tetrapolarity (because meiotic segregation can result in four possible mating types among gametes of a diploid parent, Fig. S2A), while linkage of the mating-type loci in basidiomycetes leads to bipolarity (segregation of only two mating types among gametes of a diploid parent, Fig. S2C).

2) A second explanation for suppressed recombination in fungal mating-type chromosomes is the linkage of mating-type genes to the centromere. In ascomycete and ba[sidio](#page-18-7)[myc](#page-18-8)[ete a](#page-18-9)utomictic species (*i.e.,* undergoing selfing among products of the s[ame](#page-18-10) [me](#page-18-11)iotic tetrad (11, 14, 15)), such linkage is particularly common and thought to be favorable (16, 17), resulting in mating-type segregation and reformation of the diploid between meiotic products separated at the first meiotic division. In basidiomycetes, linkage of both HD and PR mating-type genes to their respective centromeres increases the odds of compatibility within tetrads (Fig. S2B). Note that in basidiomycete fungi with linked HD and PR genes, linkage to the centromere is not beneficial with regard to the odds of compatibility between gametes, as it will not further increase mating compatibility among gametes in a diploid individual (Fig. S2C).

3) In analogy to the sexually antagonistic selection hypothesis, which is the main theory for explaining [evo](#page-18-12)lutionary strata in sex chromosome evolution, there could be "mating-type antagonistic selection" (18) if some phenotypes were beneficial for improving the  $a_1$  function while being detrimental

to the a<sub>2</sub> function, or vice versa. However, there are not many traits that could have different optima in the two mating types.

4) Epistatic interactions can also favor linkage for protecting beneficial combinations of alleles, unrelated to mating type or sex functions. Unlike hypothesis 3 above that also deals with epistasis (19), this fourth hypothesis postulates that beneficial allelic combinations do not improve the  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  mating type functions in themselves, and therefore does not correspond to "mating-type antagonistic selection". Epistatic interactions can also occur on autosomes but the maintenance of alternative alleles should be facilitated when linked to the mating-type or sex-determining genes, which are under strong balancing selection.

5) Another evolutionary explanation for suppressed recombination on fungal mating-type chromos[omes](#page-19-0)[, tha](#page-19-1)t could also apply to sex chromosomes, involves linkage of deleterious alleles to the mating-type loci, favoring permanent sheltering in an heterozygous state, as has been theoretically modeled (20, 21). This may arise specifically in sex and mating-type chromosomes if recombination frequency gradually decreases from the non-recombining into the PAR, so that partial linkage (linkage disequilibrium) to mating-type or sex-determining genes makes selection against recessive deleterious alleles less efficient. This would allow deleterious alleles to increase in frequency in these PAR edges at the margin of the non-combining region. Rare recombination events would then generate individuals homozygous for deleterious alleles and could therefore be selected against. Complete linkage of these PAR margins in disequilibrium with mating type may thus be favorable and selected for (Fig. S1A). Permanent sheltering would thus be more easily achieved than purging if recombination is rare at the PAR margins. Further theoretical models are needed to explore the general conditions under which such a mechanism can generate evolutionary strata.

6) A last mechanism explaining suppressed recombination involves neutral inversions or rearrangements extending the region of suppressed recombination (22); these could be fixed by drift in one of the sex or mating-type chromosomes and arrest recombination between sex or mating-type chromosomes. For example, an inversion trapping a part of the PAR at the margin of the nonrecombining region could be neutral in the short term, and could be fixed by drift in one of the sex or mating-type chromosomes, and not the other, because of the recombination suppression and because of mating occurring only between mating types (Fig. S1B and C). Such phenomena can occur on any chromosome, but linkage in mating-type [and](#page-19-2) sex chromosomes could be maintained longer in a polymorphic state (and therefore be more detectable), due to balancing selection retaining alternate alleles determining sexes and mating types (22). As for the hypothesis above, theoretical models could be developed for validating whether such a mechanism can generate evolutionary strata.

### **The** *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae* **system**

Contributing to understanding of these various evolutionary models, the anther-smut fungus *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae* has been important for the study of fungal mating-type chromosomes. It was central to the first studies describing bipolar breeding systems in fungi [\(23\)](#page-19-3) and the first case of size-dimorphic mating-type chromosomes in fungi [\(24\)](#page-19-4). Suppressed recombination encompasses ca. 90% of the mating-type chromosome lengths (sized 3.5 Mb for  $a_1$  and 4.0 Mb for  $a_2$ ) with 614 and 683 predicted non-transposable element genes, respectively [\(12,](#page-18-13) [24-27\)](#page-19-4). The non-recombining region shows chaos of rearrangements and gene losses, transposable element accumulation, non-synonymous substitutions and impaired gene expression [\(12,](#page-18-13) [27\)](#page-19-5). The non-recombining region is flanked at both sides by two small recombining and collinear regions, therefore called pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs).

The existence of evolutionary strata has been debated in *M. lychnidis-dioicae.* Varying levels of synonymous divergence between  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  alleles in a handful of genes in the unassembled nonrecombining region led to the claim that evolutionary strata existed [\(28\)](#page-19-6). Based on highly fragmented assemblies, it was then speculated that an oldest stratum evolved for linking pheromone precursor and pheromone receptor genes, a second small (60 kb) old stratum for linking the HD and PR locus, and a third recent and large stratum for linking the MAT genes to the centromeres [\(29\)](#page-19-7). However, the full assemblies of the mating-type chromosomes recently showed that the HD and PR locus are 600 kb apart, that no clear discrete strata patterns were discernable using the current gene orders, as genes with different  $a_1-a_2$  synonymous divergence levels (a proxy for time since recombination suppression) were dispersed chaotically along the chromosomes [\(12\)](#page-18-13). These observations could be explained by a lack of evolutionary strata, extensive rearrangements of original strata, and/or gene conversion, which is known to occur in fungal mating-type chromosomes [\(30,](#page-19-8) [31\)](#page-19-9). A recent study suggested the existence of five evolutionary strata along the mating-type chromosomes in *M. lychnidis-dioicae* using a clustering method based on putative oligonucleotide compositional differences between strata [\(32\)](#page-19-10); however, this method did not seem to yield reliable inference because it could not retrieve the pseudo-autosomal boundary in one mating-type chromosome. Furthermore, each inferred stratum included genes with highly heterogeneous levels of divergence [\(12\)](#page-18-13). Our study shows that the recovered putative strata in this previous study [\(32\)](#page-19-10) in fact did not correspond to genuine evolutionary strata.

Elucidating whether evolutionary strata exist and which genomic regions they include is important for understanding how and why suppressed recombination evolved. The different mechanisms for explaining suppression of recombination outlined above do not all predict the existence of evolutionary strata. For example, linking the two mating-type loci would not generate multiple strata, while the successive linkage of deleterious alleles to the mating-type locus would [\(20\)](#page-19-0). In this regard, an interesting feature of *M. lychnidis-dioicae* is that frequent deleterious alleles linked to mating types have been reported, that prevent haploid growth [\(14,](#page-18-8) [33,](#page-19-11) [34\)](#page-19-12). In fact, many genes have been lost from one or the other mating type [\(12\)](#page-18-13) and transposable elements and non-synonymous substitutions have accumulated in non-recombining regions [\(12,](#page-18-13) [27\)](#page-19-5).

### **Genome assemblies and comparisons**

We used Pacific Bioscience sequencing technologies to generate very high quality genome assemblies for the mating-type chromosomes of several *Microbotryum* species. The a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> haploid genomes of *M. lagerheimii* and one haploid genome of *M. intermedium* were well assembled, with 42 and 37 contigs for a1 and a<sup>2</sup> *M. lagerheimii*, respectively, 24 contigs for *M. intermedium*, for an estimated number of chromosomes of 12 for haploid *Microbotryum* genomes [\(24\)](#page-19-4). The mating-type chromosomes were well assembled; the HD chromosomes of *M. intermedium* and *M. lagerheimii* appeared assembled in a single contig each, and were homologous and syntenic between the species; the complete PR chromosome of *M. intermedium* matched two contigs in the a<sub>1</sub> *M. lagerheimii* assembly, with a small inversion internal to one contig (the MC16 contig, in dark purple in Figure 2A; the inversion is represented by the orange links).

In addition to collinearity with *M. intermedium*, collinearity between the  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  mating-type chromosomes within *M. lagerheimii* (Fig. S4) indicates that recombination is frequent enough to conserve gene order along most of their lengths. In *M. lychnidis-dioicae* the recombining pseudoautosomal regions of the mating-type chromosomes and autosomes are also highly collinear between a<sup>1</sup> and a2 genomes, while the non-recombining regions of the mating-type chromosomes are thoroughly rearranged (Fig. S3).

The two distinct contigs carrying the PR and HD genes in *M. lagerheimii* (Fig. S4) are consistent with the species being tetrapolar, as inferred earlier based on meiotic segregation analysis of recombination between these mating-type loci [\(35\)](#page-19-13). The high degree of collinearity between the matingtype chromosomes of *M. lagerheimii* and *M. intermedium,* and the finding of PR and HD genes in different contigs, each harbouring centromere-specific repeat[s \(1](#page-18-13)2) (Fig. 2A), indicate that *M. intermedium* is also tetrapolar.

We included comparisons of the mating-type chromosomes of *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. violaceum s. str.* (Fig. S5B), whose haploid genomes were also well assembled (Table S4). Three contigs in the  $a_1 M$ , *violaceum sens. str.* genome matched the  $a_1$  mating-type chromosomes of *M. lychnidisdioicae*. In addition, these three contigs had some fragments joined together in the assembly of the *M. violaceum sens. str.* a<sub>2</sub> genome (Fig. S5D), indicating that all three belonged to the mating-type chromosome. The non-recombining region was highly rearranged between *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. violaceum s. str.* (Fig. S5B) in all four possible comparisons, as well as between  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  in both species (Fig. S5D)*.* 

We also compared the mating-type chromosomes of the sister species *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. silenes-dioicae* (Fig. S5C), the latter being assembled in more contigs than other species (Table S4;

6 contigs for both  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  mating-type chromosomes). These different contigs had some fragments joined together in the assembly of the alternative mating type (Fig. S5E) and in *M. lychnidis-dioicae* (Fig. S5C), allowing assigning to mating-type chromosomes. The non-recombining region appeared homologous but already highly rearranged between *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. silenes-dioicae* (Fig. S5C) in all four possible comparisons, as well as between  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  in *M. silenes-dioicae* (Fig. S5E).

## **SI Materials and Methods**

#### **DNA extraction and sequencing**

DNA was extracted using the Qiagen Kit 10243 (Courtaboeuf, France) following manufacturer instructions and using a Carver hydraulic press (reference 3968, Wabash, IN, USA) for breaking cell walls. A haploid genome of *M. intermedium* (strain 1389-BM-12-12, collected on *Salvia pratensis*, Italy, Coord. GPS : 44.33353 & 7.13637), as well as the genomes of  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  haploid cells of *M. lagerheimii* (strain 1253, collected on *S. vulgaris*, near Chambery, France, Coord. GPS : 45.4 & 6.11), *M. violaceum s. str.* (strain 1249, collected on *S. nutans*, Guarda, Switzerland, Coord. GPS : 46.777 & 10.16) and *M. silenes-dioicae* (strain 1303, collected on *S. dioica*, Bois Carre, Lac de Puy Vachier 45.026485 & 6.276612) were sequenced using the P6/C4 Pacific Biosciences SMRT technology (UCSD IGM Genomics Facility La Jolla, CA, USA) (Table S4).

### **Assembly and annotation**

We assembled the haploid genomes of a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> *M. lagerheimii, M. violaceum s. str., M. silenes-dioicae,* and a<sup>1</sup> *M. intermedium,* and re-assembled the reference genome of *M. lychnidis-dioicae* Lamole [\(12\)](#page-18-13) into separated  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  haploid genomes. Assemblies of the genomes were generated with the wgs-8.2 version of the PBcR assembler [\(36\)](#page-19-14) with the following parameters: genomeSize=30000000, assembleCoverage=50. Assemblies were polished with quiver software (https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/GenomicConsensus). A summary of raw data and assembly statistics is reported in Table S4.

The protein-coding gene models were predicted with EuGene [\(37\)](#page-19-15), trained for *Microbotryum*. Similarities to the fungi subset of the uniprot database [\(38\)](#page-19-16) plus the *M. lychnidis-dioicae* Lamole proteome [\(12\)](#page-18-13) were integrated into EuGene for the prediction of gene models.

Mating-type chromosomes were identified by: 1) finding the contigs carrying the PR or HD mating-type genes in both  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  haploid genomes, 2) using BLAST to search the  $a_1$  against the  $a_2$ haploid genomes and visualizing the output using Circos [\(39\)](#page-19-17) for identifying contigs with lack of collinearity, 3) blasting the haploid genomes against the completely assembled mating-type chromosomes of *M. lychnidis-dioicae* [\(12\)](#page-18-13), 4) blasting the  $a_1$  contigs identified in the first steps to the whole a<sub>2</sub> haploid genome, and reciprocally, to identify additional mating-type contigs, 5) repeating this process from step 3 until no additional contig was identified. These contigs were then orientated by: 1) using the centromere-specific repeats [\(12\)](#page-18-13), as initial assemblies often yielded chromosome arms broken at their centromeres, with identifiable centromere-specific repeats on each separated contig (e.g., Fig. 2A); and 2) blasting the  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  mating-type contigs against each other for identifying the PARs as the collinear regions, that were then assumed to be at the edges of the chromosomes. When the mating-type

chromosomes were fragmented and internal contigs did not include centromeric repeats at one of its edges, it was impossible to recover contig orientation (as indicated in the figure captions).

#### **Figures and statistical tests**

The Figures 2, S3, S4 and S5 were prepared using Circos [\(39\)](#page-19-17). We analyzed gene order to identify larger blocks of synteny. Alleles were assigned between the two mating-type chromosomes and between species by applying orthomcl [\(40\)](#page-19-18) to the protein data sets. The Student t test was performed using JMP v7 (SAS Institute).

#### **Species tree**

We compared the translated gene models of five *Microbotryum* species and the red yeast *Rhodotorula babjevae* with blastp+ 2.30, and the output was used to obtain orthologous groups by Markov clustering [\(41\)](#page-19-19) as implemented in OrthoMCL v1.4 [\(40\)](#page-19-18). We aligned the protein sequences of 4,000 single-copy autosomal genes with MUSCLE v3.8.31 [\(42\)](#page-20-0), and obtained the codon-based CDS alignments with TranslatorX [\(43\)](#page-20-1). We used RAxML 8.2.7 [\(44\)](#page-20-2) to obtain maximum likelihood gene trees for all 4,000 fully conserved single-copy genes and a species tree with the concatenated alignment of 2,100,301 codons with no gaps (trimal -nogaps option [\(45\)](#page-20-3)) under the GTRGAMMA substitution model. We estimated the branch support values by bootstrapping the species tree based on the concatenated alignment and by estimating the relative internode and tree certainty scores based on the frequency of conflicting bipartitions for each branch in the species tree among the fully conserved single-copy genes [\(46\)](#page-20-4).

### **Gene genealogies**

Gene genealogies were inferred for codon-based alignments of genes in the different strata using RAxML [\(44\)](#page-20-2) version 8.2.7, assuming the GTRGAMMA model and rapid bootstrap (options: -f a and - # 100). We analyzed for trans-specific polymorphism levels all single-copy genes for which we had both alleles and all species.

### **Date estimates for recombination suppression**

In order to estimate dates of recombination suppression, we leveraged the codon-based alignments of single-copy orthologous groups yielding gene trees displaying trans-specific polymorphism in each evolutionary stratum, as the divergence between alleles associated to the  $a_1$  versus  $a_2$  mating types then corresponds to the time since recombination suppression. We could use three gene families in the purple stratum (1,744 aligned codons), 22 gene families in the black stratum (17,776 aligned codons) and four

gene families in the red stratum (2,726 aligned codons), with alignments including the five *Microbotryum* species and the red yeast used as outgroup, and gene genealogies showing trans-specific polymorphism. There was not enough single-copy gene families showing trans-specific polymorphism for reliable date estimate in the other evolutionary strata. Divergence times were estimated using BEAST v2.4.0 [\(47\)](#page-20-5), the xml inputs being generated using BEAUTi, and setting the following parameters (others left as default values): unlinked substitution (HKY+G with empirical frequencies for each codon position) and clock models, Yule process to model speciation, and 10,000,000 mcmc generations sampled every 1,000. For all runs we used a single calibration prior at 0.42 million years, corresponding to the divergence between *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. silenes-dioicae* [\(48\)](#page-20-6), with a normal distribution and a sigma of 0.05.

#### **Transposable element identification**

Repetitive DNA content was analyzed with RepeatMasker [\(49\)](#page-20-7), using REPBASE v19.11 [\(50\)](#page-20-8). For plotting d<sub>s</sub> along chromosomes, these repeats were removed and further filtering of repeats was performed by blasting (tBLASTx) and removing those matching at more than five locations in the genome.

#### **Polymorphism data and analyses**

To rule out high levels of polymorphism as the cause for the observed high ds values in the *Microbotryum* mating-type chromosomes, we assessed the level of polymorphism across *M. silenesdioicae* and *M. lychnidis-dioicae* by using multiple available genomes (Illumina paired-end 60x-100x), from individuals collected across Europe [\(29,](#page-19-7) [51\)](#page-20-9). We only used genomes including a single matingtype chromosome (a<sup>1</sup> or a2) either because a haploid strain was sequenced or because a lethal allele was linked to one mating type in a diploid strain so that only haploid cells carrying the alternative matingtype chromosome could be cultivated *in vitro* and sequenced [\(34,](#page-19-12) [51,](#page-20-9) [52\)](#page-20-10). We compiled sequences for a total of ten a<sub>1</sub> and fourteen a<sub>2</sub> mating-type chromosomes of *M. lychnidis-dioicae*, and six a<sub>1</sub> and eight a<sub>2</sub> mating-type chromosomes of *M. silenes-dioicae* (Table S5).

We used two approaches to determine which mating-type chromosome(s) were present in genomes sequences ( $a_1$  or  $a_2$ ), by checking the presence/absence of the  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  pheromone receptor alleles. First, each genome was assembled *de novo* using SOAPdenovo [\(53\)](#page-20-11) with default parameters, and searched using BLAST for the sequences of the pheromone receptor alleles of *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. silenes-dioicae*, which are highly differentiated between  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  [\(54\)](#page-20-12). In a second validation step, we counted the reads mapped against the two alleles of the mating-type pheromone receptors. Strains that displayed reads mapping against both alleles were excluded from further analyses.

We performed SNP calling as described previously  $(51)$ . Reads were mapped with GLINT (T. Faraut & E. Courcelle, available at http://lipm-bioinfo.toulouse.inra.fr/download/glint/) with parameters set as follows: minimum length of the high-scoring pair hsp  $\geq 90$ , with  $\leq 5$  mismatches, no gap allowed, only best-scoring hits taken into account. For each strain, we used as a reference for mapping the haploid PacBio genome assembly corresponding to its species and mating-type. Between 92% and 97% of reads were mapped as proper pairs, and the mapping coverage ranged from 50 to 171 (Table S5). SNPs were called with VarScan [\(55\)](#page-20-13) (min-coverage 10, min-reads2 5, min-avg-qual 30, min-var-freq 0.3, p-value 0.01), and filtered to remove SNPs located near indels, strand-biased SNPs and heterozygote SNPs.

To compute statistics of diversity, we generated pseudo-alignments of CDS in FASTA format from the VCF file produced by VarScan as previously [\(51\)](#page-20-9). Pseudo-alignments are obtained by substituting reference nucleotides by their variants in the reference sequence. We then computed the  $\theta_\pi$ statistic of diversity with EggLib [vers](#page-20-14)ion 2 (56) for each species and mating-type.

We generated alignments combining the *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. silenes-dioicae* sequences generated above, as well as sequences of the other species*.* Codon-based alignments of single-copy genes in mating-type evolutionary strata and autosomes were obtained with MUSCLE and translatorX (see above). We used a custom python script to incorporate the sequences of the multiple genomes of *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. silenes-dioicae* while taking into account gaps in the translatorX alignments. Trees were computed with the RAxML rapid bootstrap mode (-f a -m GTRGAMMA -x -# 100). To help visualization, trees were rooted using *R. babjevae* and *M. intermedium*, and strains were colored by mating-type with the ETE3 python toolkit [\(57\)](#page-20-15).

For further checking that the observed differences in diversity levels between the pseudoautosomal regions and the different strata in *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. silenes-dioicae* (SI Appendix, Table S6) were not due to differences in mutation rates, we performed maximum-likelihood Hudson-Kreitman-Agade (MLHKA) tests as implemented in the MLHKA software [\(58\)](#page-20-16) using the multiple genomes described above. The MLHKA test is designed to detect signatures of departure from neutrality (either balancing or positive selection) while controlling for mutation rate by the use of divergence data, and it allows multilocus comparisons [\(58\)](#page-20-16). MLHKA tests can thus be used to test whether differences in diversity levels between two sets of genes is most likely due to elevated mutation rates or to balancing selection (in our case due to linkage of genes in evolutionary strata to mating-type genes), by comparing a model where all loci in the dataset evolve neutrally to an alternative model where *N* loci depart from neutrality [\(59,](#page-20-17) [60\)](#page-20-18). Because MLHKA tests require a set of control loci that evolve neutrally, we applied these tests to pairwise comparisons between each stratum and the pseudo-autosomal region. To perform the MLHKA tests, we considered the pooled CDS sequences associated with the  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  mating-types for each stratum in each of *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. silenes-dioicae* and used the genome of *M. violaceum sens. str.* as an outgroup. In order to improve divergence estimates, alignments were realigned with MACSE [\(61\)](#page-20-19). Only synonymous sites were taken into account, and singletons were excluded. Unless stated otherwise, tests were run with 1,000,000 iterations of the Markov chain, and repeated at least three times with different random seed numbers to ensure convergence. We arbitrarily chose a starting value of 10 for divergence time, as this value is of little importance when the number of iterations is high enough for the Markov chains to converge [\(58\)](#page-20-16). Synonymous nucleotidic diversity ( $\theta_{\pi}$ ) was computed with EggLib version 2 [\(56\)](#page-20-14) and used as starting value for theta. As the test assumes independence between loci, we concatenated the alignments of the CDS for each evolutionary stratum. For the largest stratum (the black stratum), we randomly sampled and concatenated CDS for 20 genes, as the high number of genes in this stratum resulted in unreasonable running times. For the two most recent strata (red and green strata), we also ran the tests without concatenating the alignments, with 2,000,000 million of iterations of the Markov chains. This yielded similar results as concatenating the CDS. *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae* displays a strong population structure in Europe [\(51,](#page-20-9) [62\)](#page-20-20), which can lead to over-estimate the diversity in neutral loci and result in false negative tests. In fact, visual inspection of the alignments showed that most polymorphic sites in the PARs in this species corresponded to fixed differences between genetic clusters. We therefore also ran tests separately on the two genetic clusters for which we had several strains of each mating-type, i.e., the Southern and North-Western clusters [\(51\)](#page-20-9). We corrected p-values for multiple testing within each species with a Benjamini and Hochberg correction (R function p.adjust). In *M. silenes-dioicae*, tests for all strata were significant (adjusted p-values < 0.05, Table S7A), indicating that balancing selection was more likely than elevated mutation rates for explaining the higher diversity in strata than in the PARs. In *M. lychnidis-dioicae*, tests were also significant for the purple, blue, black and orange strata (adjusted p-values < 0.05, Table S7B-D). The difference in diversity between the red stratum and the PAR was marginally significant when considering the whole data set, and significant when the tests were run separately on two genetic clusters (Table S7B-D). There was no significant difference in diversity between the green stratum and the PAR in *M. lychnidis-dioicae*, suggesting that suppressed recombination is not complete there in this species, or that it is too recent to have allowed an accumulation of differences between mating types.

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**Fig. S1**. **Hypotheses for the generation of evolutionary strata in sex or mating-type chromosomes. (A)** Expansion of linkage to the mating-type loci that encompasses partially linked genetic load loci, favoring permanent sheltering in a heterozygous state. This may occur if recombination frequency gradually decreases from the non-recombining region into the PAR, so that partial linkage (linkage disequilibrium) to mating-type or sex-determining genes makes selection against recessive deleterious alleles less efficient. This may allow deleterious alleles to increase in frequency in these PAR regions at the margin of the non-recombining region, further selecting for cessation of recombination. Rare recombination events would generate individuals homozygous for deleterious alleles and would therefore be selected against. Complete linkage of these PAR regions in linkage disequilibrium with mating type would be selected for. Alternative mechanisms for explaining suppressed recombination involve neutral inversions **(B)** or rearrangements **(C)** extending the region of suppressed recombination; these could be fixed by drift in one of the sex or mating-type chromosomes and arrest recombination between



 $\overline{\text{PR a}}_1$ <br> $\overline{\text{PR a}}_2$  $\Box$  HD b<sub>2</sub>  $H$ D b.

PR  $a_1$   $\bigcap$  PR Chr.  $\bigcap$  HD Chr.  $\bigcap$  Fused  $\bigcap$  Examplession of recombination  $\bigcap$  PR Chr.  $\bigcap$  HD Chr.  $\bigcap$  HD/PR Chr.  $\bigcap$  centromere  $\bigvee$  suppression of recombination

Fig. S2. Odds of compatibility among gametes of a diploid individual in basidiomycete fungi. Gametes are fully compatible only if they carry different alleles at both mating-type loci, i.e., the PR (including pheromone receptor and pheromone genes, with  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ alleles) and HD (including homeodomain genes, with  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  alleles) loci. (A) Under tetrapolarity with PR and HD mating-type loci unlinked from each other and from the centromeres (shown here located in different chromosomes, blue and red, respectively), the percentage of compatibility of a given gamete among the other gametes produced by the same diploid individual is 25% across multiple meioses (a given gamete is compatible with one of every four gametes), and the percentage is 33% within tetrad (a given gamete is compatible with one of the other three gametes in the tetrad) or 67% (a given gamete is compatible with two of the three remaining gametes in the tetrad) depending on segregation of the mating type alleles. The different types of gametes produced are tetratypes (TT), parental ditypes (PD) or non-parental ditypes (NPD), which depends on allele segregation and on whether a crossing-over occurred between one of the two loci and the centromere. (B) Under tetrapolarity with PR and HD mating-type genes linked to the centromeres of different chromosomes (blue and red, respectively), the percentage of compatibility of a given gamete among the other gametes produced by the same diploid individual is 25% across multiple meioses but 67% within a tetrad (a given gamete is compatible with two of the three other gametes in the tetrad) due to the segregation of the variation occurring only at meiosis I for both mating type loci. The different types of gametes produced are parental ditypes (PD) or non-parental ditypes (NPD), which depends on segregation. (C) Under bipolarity, i.e., with HD and PR loci fully linked to each other on the same chromosome, the percentage of compatibility of a given gamete among the other gametes produced by the same diploid individual is 50% across multiple meioses (a given gamete is compatible with two of every four gametes), and 67% within a single meiotic tetrad (a given gamete is compatible with two of the three other gametes in the tetrad).



Fig. S3. Comparison of gene order between *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae* chromosomes. a<sub>1</sub> (top) and a<sub>2</sub> (bottom) mating chromosomes of *M. lychnidis-dioicae*; an autosome pair is shown at the left and the mating-type chromosomes at the right. Blue and orange lines link regions with collinearity across > 5 kb, with the orange links corresponding to inversions. The genomic regions without links correspond to highly rearranged regions. The recombining regions (the autosome and the pseudo-autosomal regions, PARs) are highly collinear between  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  chromosomes, despite a highly selfing mating system, while the non-recombining region on the mating-type chromosome is highly rearranged.



Fig. S4. Synteny between a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> mating-type chromosomes of *Microbotryum lagerheimii*. The homeodomain (HD) mating-type chromosomes are displayed in the left circle and the pheromone receptor (PR) mating-type chromosomes in the right circle. The HD genes are indicated by black circles, the pheromone receptor gene by grey circles and the two pheromone genes by small green circles. Blue and orange lines link regions with collinearity across > 1 kb, with the orange links corresponding to inversions. The genomic region between the pheromone receptor and pheromone genes in the  $a_1$  mating-type chromosomes is rearranged compared to the  $a_2$  mating-type chromosomes. Black marks along the contig circles indicate genes with no synonymous differentiation between  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  alleles within the sequenced individual ( $d_S = 0$ ). Yellow regions on the outer track indicate centromere-specific repeats (12).



**Fig. S5. Comparison of gene order between mating-type chromosomes.** In all panels (A-E), the outer tracks illustrate assembled chromosomes/contigs and are color coded by species as in Fig. 1. The positions of HD and PR genes are indicated by the black and grey small circles, respectively. Yellow regions on the outer track indicate the centromere-specific repeats (12) and, when represented, red ("R") and green ("G") regions indicate the genomic location of the red and green genes as described in Fig. 4B. (A) Comparison between the a<sub>1</sub> mating-type chromosomes (chr.) of *Microbotryum lagerheimii* (orange contigs, with light orange for the PR mating-type chromosome and dark orange for the HD mating-type chromosome) and the mating-type chromosome of *M. lychnidis-dioicae* (light blue contig), as well as an autosomal contig of *M. lychnidisdioicae* (dark blue contig). Blue and orange lines link regions with collinearity across > 2 kb, with orange corresponding to inversions. Genomic regions without links correspond to highly rearranged regions.



Fig. S5. Continued. (B) Comparison of a<sub>1</sub> mating-type chromosomes of *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae* (right, light blue contig) and *M. violaceum s.* str. (left, light green contigs). It should be noted that the orientation of the central contig in the a<sub>1</sub> *M. violaceum s. str.* mating-type chromosome could not be assessed, so all its links were drawn blue. The black marks along the contig circle indicate genes that have no synonymous substitution between a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> alleles (d<sub>S</sub> = 0) in *M. lychnidis-dioicae*. (C) Comparison between the a<sub>1</sub> mating-type chromosomes of *M. silenes-dioicae* (dark purple contigs on the left) and *M. lychnidis-dioicae* (light blue contig on the right). Blue and orange lines link regions with collinearity across > 3 kb, with orange corresponding to inversions (note that the *M. silenes-dioicae* central contigs could not be ordered or oriented). All the remaining features are as described in panel (A).



Fig. S5. Continued. (D) Comparison of a<sub>1</sub> (left, light green) and a<sub>2</sub> (right, dark green) mating-type chromosomes of *M. violaceum s. stricto.* Blue and orange lines link regions with collinearity across > 3 kb, with orange corresponding to inversions. It should be noted that the orientation of the central contig in the  $a_1$  mating-type chromosome could not be assessed. The black marks along the contig circle indicate the genes with no synonymous substitutions between a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> alleles (d<sub>S</sub>=0) in *M. violaceum s. stricto*. (E) Comparison of a<sub>1</sub> (left, light purple) and a<sub>2</sub> (right, dark purple) matingtype chromosomes of *M. silenes-dioicae.* Blue and orange lines link regions with collinearity across >3 kb, with orange corresponding to inversions. Note that the central contigs could not be ordered or oriented. The location of the red ("R") and green ("G") genes in Fig. 4B are indicated in the  $a_2$ genome. The black marks along the contig circle indicate the genes with no synonymous substitutions between  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  alleles ( $d_S = 0$ ). The remaining features are as described in panel (A).



**Fig. S6. Examples of gene genealogies at non-mating type genes showing different levels of trans-specific polymorphism, i.e., with more or less ancient linkage to mating type.** Bootstraps are shown at nodes and the branch length scale is indicated. Strains of the same species are indicated by circles of the same color (a<sub>1</sub>, lighter variant; a<sub>2</sub>, darker variant) and according to Fig. 1. (A) No trans-specific polymorphism (orthogroup belonging to the *M. lychnidis-dioicae* PAR). **(B)** Trans-specific polymorphism across *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. silenes-dioicae* (orthogroup belonging to the *M. lychnidis-dioicae* black stratum). **(C)** Trans-specific polymorphism across *M. lychnidis-dioicae, M. silenes-dioicae* and *M. violaceum* s. str. (orthogroup belonging to the *M. lychnidis-dioicae* black stratum). **(D)** Trans-specific polymorphism across *M. lychnidis-dioicae, M. silenes-dioicae, M. violaceum s. str.* and *M. lagerheimii* (orthogroup belonging to the *M. lychnidis-dioicae* PR stratum). **(E)** Trans-specific polymorphism across *M. lychnidis-dioicae, M. silenes-dioicae, M. violaceum s. str*. *M. lagerheimii* and *Rhodotorula babjevae* (orthogroup belonging to the *M. lychnidis-dioicae* orange stratum)*.*



**Fig. S7**. **Cumulative percentage of genes showing trans-specific polymorphism across strata and age of trans-specific polymorphism relative to speciation events.** Black - single-copy genes with deep trans-specific polymorphism including all species, *M. lychnidis-dioicae* (MvSl)*, M. silenes-dioicae* (MvSd)*, M. violaceum* s. str. (MvSn), *M. lagerheimii* (MvSv)*,* and even *Rhodotorula babjevae* (R); dark grey - genes showing trans-specific polymorphism including only *M. lychnidis-dioicae, M. silenes-dioicae, M. violaceum* s. str., and *M. lagerheimii*; grey - genes showing trans-specific polymorphism with only *M. lychnidis-dioicae, M. silenes-dioicae* and *M. violaceum s. str.;* light grey - genes with trans-specific polymorphism only between *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. silenes-dioicae*; white - genes with no trans-specific polymorphism. Numbers on the top indicate genes for which gene genealogies with all species and alleles were computed. See Figure S6 for examples of gene genealogies with different levels of trans-specific polymorphism.



**Fig. S8. Synonymous divergence between alleles associated with a1 and a2 mating types in the sequenced diploid individual in each of**  *Microbotryum silenes-dioicae* and *M. violaceum s. stricto,* plotted along the ancestral gene order. Synonymous divergence between a<sub>1</sub>-a<sub>2</sub> in *M. silenes-dioicae* (A) and *M. violaceum s. str.* (B) plotted in the ancestral genomic coordinates, as inferred from the *M. lagerheimii* a<sub>1</sub> matingtype chromosome. In both panels, points are mean  $d_S$  values per gene and error bars the standard errors. All non-transposable element genes shared by the mating-type chromosomes are depicted. Divergence between the  $a_1$  [and](#page-20-12)  $a_2$  pheromone receptor (PR) was too extensive (54) and could not be computed in both species (it is plotted as an "unalignable" open circle to ease visualization of the various strata). The positions of the inferred ancestral centromeres are indicated by yellow boxes. Genes with non-zero ds around the PR and HD mating-type loci within the sequenced individual of *M. lagerheimii* are colored in purple and blue, respectively. More recent putative evolutionary strata in *M. silenes-dioicae* (panel A) are indicated in red and green, and zoomed in on the inset shown on the upper right. In panel (B), the genes belonging to more recent evolutionary strata in *M. silenes-dioicae* and *M. lychnidis-dioicae* are indicated by red and green bars.



Fig. S9. Patterns of segregation of alleles at non-mating-type genes, associated with the a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> mating types, respectively, in gene genealogies using **multiple resequenced genomes of** *M. silenes-dioicae* **(MvSd) and** *M. lychnidis-dioicae* **(MvSl). (A)** Percentage (%) of gene genealogies showing different levels of segregation of a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> alleles: white - gene genealogies with mixed a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> *M. silenes-dioicae* and *M. lychnidis-dioicae* alleles; light grey - gene genealogies with a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> alleles separated in *M. silenes-dioicae* or *M. lychnidis-dioicae*, but not in both species; dark grey - gene genealogies with a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> alleles separated in both *M. silenes-dioicae* or *M. lychnidis-dioicae,* but without trans-specific polymorphism across the two species; black - gene genealogies with full trans-specific polymorphism. The numbers at the top indicate the number of genes for which information was available. **(B-E)** Examples of gene genealogies showing different levels of segregation of alleles at non-mating-type genes, associated with the a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> mating types, respectively (shown in lighter and darker color variants, respectively) based on the analyses of multiple *M. silenes-dioicae* (MvSd, purple) and *M. lychnidis-dioicae* (MvSl, blue) genomes. Alleles of *M. lagerheimii* (MvSv, orange), *M. violaceum s. str.* (MvSn, green)*, M. intermedium* (Minter, red) and *Rhodotorula babjevae* (sfc, gray) are also included; **(B)** gene genealogy with full trans-specific polymorphism (red statum); **(C)** alleles at non-mating-type genes, associated with the a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> mating types, respectively, separated in both *M. silenes-dioicae* and *M. lychnidis-dioicae*, but without trans-specific polymorphism across the two species (red stratum); **(D)** gene genealogy with alleles at non-mating-type genes, associated with the a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> mating types, respectively, separated in *M. lychnidis-dioicae* only (red stratum); (E) intermingled alleles at non-mating-type genes, associated with the a<sub>1</sub> and a<sub>2</sub> mating types, respectively, of both *M. silenes-dioicae* and *M. lychnidis-dioicae* (pseudo-autosomal region, PAR).



**Fig. S10.** *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae* **and** *M. silenes-dioicae* **genetic diversity (θπ) based on multiple genomes.** Diversity (±SE) was estimated in a<sub>1</sub> or a<sub>2</sub> mating type separately, in the pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs) and the different evolutionary strata (green, red, black, orange, HD-proximal and PR-proximal). *M. silenes-dioicae* is known to display lower genetic diversity than *M. lychnidis-dioicae* [\(48,](#page-20-6) [51,](#page-20-9) [62\)](#page-20-20).

## **List of SI Tables**

**Table S1.** Synonymous substitution  $(d<sub>S</sub>)$  means within diploid individuals between alleles associated to the  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  mating types for genes in the different putative strata and the pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs), number of genes and estimated dates for recombination suppression.

**Table S2.** Synonymous substitution  $(d_s)$  between alleles at non-mating-type genes, associated with the  $a_1$ and a<sup>2</sup> mating types, respectively, in three outgroup species for the genes belonging to the purple and blue strata in *Microbotryum lagerheimii*.

**Table S3.** Gene ID and putative function of the genes located in the different evolutionary strata in *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae* (MvSl) (shared with *M. lagerheimii* (MvSv) mating-type chromosomes).

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**Table S7.** Results of maximum-likelihood Hudson-Kreitman-Agade (MLHKA) tests for assessing whether differences in diversity between each evolutionary stratum and the pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs) is due to balancing selection or elevated mutation rates.

Table S1. Synonymous substitution (d<sub>s</sub>) means within diploid individuals between alleles associated to the a1 and a2 mating **types for genes in the different putative strata and the pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs), number of genes and estimated dates**  for recombination suppression. Mean ds and standard error (SE) across genes between the large putative strata, numbered in their presumed order of origin of suppressed recombination, whether they involve mating-type genes, the *Microbotryum* species in which recombination is suppressed in these strata, the estimated date of recombination suppression in strata where inference was possible, and number of genes ancestrally in *M. lychnidis-dioicae* in the strata (many genes have been lost from one or the other mating types following recombination suppression).



**Table S2. Synonymous substitution (dS) between alleles associated with the a<sup>1</sup> and a<sup>2</sup> mating types in three individuals of outgroup species for the genes belonging to the** *Microbotryum lagerheimii* **purple and blue strata.** (A) *Sporobolomyces salmonicolor* (Ss) strains CBS 6832 vs. ML 2241; (B) *Rhodotorula toruloides* (Rt) strains JCM 10020 (A1B1) vs. JCM 10021 (A2B11); (C) *Leucosporidium scottii* (Ls) strains CBS 5930 vs. CBS 5931. The ID of the query gene from the reference *M. lychnidis-dioicae* genome, the ID in the outgroup genome, the  $d_S$  value and the putative function inferred from similarity are given. The only functions associated with mating or mating-type functions are the mating-type genes (highlighted in bold). The pheromone receptor genes are not shown as they could not be aligned between mating types.

(A)



### **Table S2.** Continued.

## (B)



### **Table S2.** Continued.

(C)



**Table S3. Gene ID and putative function of the genes located in the different evolutionary strata in** *Microbotryum lychnidisdioicae* **(MvSl) (shared with** *M. lagerheimii* **(MvSv) mating-type chromosomes).** The two HD genes are highlighted in bold and grey. The  $d_S$  corresponds to synonymous divergence between alleles associated to the alternative mating types of the sequenced individual.

















**Table S4. Raw data summary and assembly statistics for the genomes generated in this study**.

#### **Table S5.** *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae* **and** *M. silenes-dioicae* **strains used for performing polymorphism analyses**. Reference

to strain ID, species, mating-type, accession number, number and percentage of reads mapped as proper pairs and reference of the original genome publication, are given.



**Table S6. Nucleotide diversity (θπ) and divergence (mean number of pairwise differences) estimates in pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs) and evolutionary strata in:**



(A) *Microbotryum silenes-dioicae*

(B) *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae* (whole data set)



(C) the North-Western cluster of *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae*



(D) the Southern cluster of *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae*



**Table S7. Results of maximum-likelihood Hudson-Kreitman-Agade (MLHKA) tests for assessing whether differences in diversity between each evolutionary stratum and the pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs) is due to balancing selection or elevated mutation rates**. Genes were concatenated per stratum unless specified otherwise. Statistically significant results before and after correction for multiple testing at the significance level of 0.05 are indicated in bold; d.f.: degrees of freedom; Selection coefficient: maximum likelihood estimate of the selection coefficient.



#### (A) In *Microbotryum silenes-dioicae*

#### (B) In *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae* (whole data set)



(C) In the North-Western cluster of *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae*



(D) In the Southern cluster of *Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae*

