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Pablo Villarreal, Carlos Villarroel, Sam O'Donnell, Nicolas Agier, Julian Quintero-Galvis, et al.. Late Pleistocene-dated divergence between South Hemisphere populations of the non-conventional yeast L . cidri. Environmental Microbiology, 2022, 10.1111/1462-2920.16103 . hal-03873794

HAL Id: hal-03873794 https://hal.science/hal-03873794

Submitted on 4 Dec 2022

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Late Pleistocene-dated divergence between South Hemisphere populations of the non-conventional yeast *L. cidri*.

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- 20 Running title: Phylogenomics of wild *L. cidri* strains.

21 ABSTRACT

Most organisms belonging to the Saccharomycotina subphylum have high genetic diversity and a vast repertoire of metabolisms and lifestyles. Lachancea cidri is an ideal yeast model for exploring the interplay between genetics, ecological function, and evolution. L. cidri diverged from the Saccharomyces lineage before the whole-genome duplication and is distributed across the South Hemisphere, displaying an important ecological success. We applied phylogenomics to investigate the genetic variation of L. cidri isolates obtained from Australia and South America. Our approach revealed the presence of two main lineages according to their geographic distribution (Aus and SoAm). Estimation of the divergence time suggest that SoAm and Aus lineages diverged near the last glacial maximum event during the Pleistocene (64-8 KYA). Interestingly, we found that the French reference strain is closely related to the Australian strains, with a recent divergence (405-51 YA), likely associated to human movements. Additionally, we identified different lineages within the South American population, revealing that Patagonia contains a similar genetic diversity comparable to that of other lineages in S. cerevisiae. These findings support the idea of a Pleistocene-dated divergence between South Hemisphere lineages, where the Nothofagus and Araucaria ecological niches likely favored the extensive distribution of L. cidri in Patagonia.

37 Keywords: yeasts, phylogenomics, genetic diversity, population structure, *Lachancea cidri*, South
38 Hemisphere

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51 INTRODUCTION

52 Evaluating the genetic diversity of non-model species is essential for obtaining a thorough understanding of 53 biodiversity and for analyzing the complexity of genotype-phenotype relationships in nature (Fournier et al., 54 2017). In this sense, microorganisms are particularly important since they represent a large proportion of the 55 ecosystem's biomass and provide several ecosystem services such as foods, fuel, and nitrogen fixation 56 capacity (Chen et al., 2019; Mirza et al., 2014). Particularly important are organisms belonging to the 57 Saccharomycotina subplyum (yeasts), many of which have been domesticated for human benefit, 58 representing an ideal group of model and non-model organisms for phylogenomics and population genomics 59 studies (Peter and Schacherer, 2016). However, most phylogenomic studies have been focused on 60 Saccharomyces species and to a lesser extent on other genera like Candida or Lachancea, ignoring the 61 overwhelming biodiversity in the Saccharomycotina subphylum (Almeida et al., 2015; Gallone et al., 2016; 62 Goncalves et al., 2016; Liti et al., 2009). In this context, different phylogenomic studies have provided new 63 evidence on the evolutionary history of non-conventional yeast species and the genetic basis of their 64 phenotypic diversity (Cadez et al., 2019; Friedrich et al., 2012; Vakirlis et al., 2018; Vakirlis et al., 2016).

65 A particularly interesting group of species are the Lachancea cluster (Porter et al., 2019a), initially proposed 66 in 2003 by Kurtzman P. (Kurtzman, 2003). This genus diverged from the Saccharomyces linage prior to the 67 ancestral whole-genome duplication (WGD), 100 or more MYA (Hranilovic et al., 2017). Lachancea species 68 harbor eight chromosomes and exhibit high levels of synteny in the coding regions (Porter et al., 2019b). 69 However, chromosome sizes and nucleotide diversity differ significantly between species (Lachance and 70 Kurtzman, 2011) and there is higher genetic diversity and genetic distance between Lachancea species 71 compared to Saccharomyces (Vakirlis et al., 2016). Lachancea species have been recovered from a wide 72 variety of ecological niches, ranging from plants (Esteve-Zarzoso et al., 2001; Gonzalez et al., 2007; Romano 73 and Suzzi, 1993a, b), tree barks (Nespolo et al., 2020; Villarreal et al., 2021), tree exudates (Varela et al., 74 2020), insects (Phaff et al., 1956), soil (Lee et al., 2009; Mesquita et al., 2013), water (Kodama and Kyono, 1974) as well as food and beverages (Magalhães et al., 2011; Marsh et al., 2014; Nova et al., 2009; Pereira et 75 76 al., 2011; Tzanetakis et al., 1998; Wojtatowicz et al., 2001). Despite the large number of ecosystems where *Lachancea* spp. are present, we still lack information concerning the genetic and genomic adaptations needed
to survive in such a range of ecological niches (Porter et al., 2019b). In this sense, the number of currently
available *Lachancea* genomes is still low, and therefore most species remain unexplored.

80 The availability of complete genomes of many individuals is a prerequisite for exploring the diversity and 81 genomic structure of a species. Thus far, genomic studies have been carried out in Lachancea thermotolerans, 82 L. fermentati, and L. kluyveri, contributing to a better understanding of the population structure, ecology, and 83 evolution of these species (Porter et al., 2019b). L. thermotolerans is the best-studied species of the genus 84 (Banilas et al., 2016; Hranilovic et al., 2017; Hranilovic et al., 2018), and it has been reported that the 85 evolution of L. thermotolerans was driven by geographic isolation and local adaptation (Hranilovic et al., 86 2017). Nonetheless, studies related to the natural population diversity, evolution, and biotechnological 87 potential of other species of the genus are still scarce, mainly due to the low number of isolates sampled to 88 date.

89 Recently, L. cidri was recovered from cider fermentations in Europe, eucalyptus tree sap in Australia and 90 from Nothofagus forests in Patagonia. The isolates exhibit an interesting phenotypic diversity and 91 biotechnological potential for wine and mead fermentations (Nespolo et al., 2020; Villarreal et al., 2021). 92 Patagonian L. cidri isolates showed a greater fitness in high throughput microcultivation assays for 93 fermentative-related conditions. Interestingly, microfermentations in different musts demonstrated the 94 potential of L. cidri in mead, surpassing the fermentative capacity of commercial S. cerevisiae strains, 95 together with providing a distinctive organoleptic profile to the final ferment, mostly because of the 96 production of acetic and succinic acid (Villarreal et al., 2021). However, the phenotypic diversity (and the 97 underpinning genetic variation) of this species has not been determined. The distribution of L. cidri in the 98 South Hemisphere represents an excellent opportunity to establish the ecological and geographic determinants 99 of the actual distribution of a non-conventional yeast (Porter et al., 2019a, b; Villarreal et al., 2021).

In order to address this problem, we characterized the genomic and phenotypic profiles of 55 *L. cidri* strains.
The isolates were collected from the bark of *Nothofagus* and *Araucaria* trees in Chile and from tree sap
samples of *Eucalyptus gunni* in Australia, together with a single isolate from cider fermentations in France.
Overall, we suggest that Patagonia represents a natural and unique reservoir of genetic and phenotypic

diversity for the species. This is explained by the broad and varied environments in the altitudinal and
latitudinal gradients provided by this biome. Then, our results increased the number of lineages of *Lachancea cidri*, extending our current knowledge of genetics, ecology, and biotechnological potential of this novel
natural resource from Patagonia.

108 EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

109 Sample area, yeast isolation, and *L. cidri* identification.

110 Sampling was performed as previously described (Sampaio and Goncalves, 2008) in twelve locations in 111 primary Forests in Chile (Table S1). The sampling strategy included the identification of the tree species and 112 obtaining a single bark sample from each tree. Each sample was obtained from trees separated for, at least, 5-113 10 meters. Overall, we obtained between 25-100 samples per sampling site. The 5 g bark samples were 114 collected aseptically from different Nothofagus pumilio, Nothofagus dombeyi, Nothofagus antartica and 115 Araucaria araucana trees, and immediately incubated in 10 mL enrichment media (2% yeast nitrogen base, 116 1% raffinose, 2% peptone and 8% ethanol) (Sampaio and Goncalves, 2008). After 10 days, 5 µL were 117 streaked onto YPD (1% w/v yeast extract, 2% w/v peptone, 2% w/v glucose) agar and isolated colonies were 118 stored in 20% v/v glycerol at -80°C. L. cidri isolates were determined by amplification and sequencing of the 119 internal transcribed spacer region (ITS1-5.8rRNA-ITS2) using universal fungal primers, ITS-1 5'-120 TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG-3' and ITS-4 5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3'. Genomic DNA was extracted from 5-mL cultures grown overnight in YPD media with shaking at 20°C, using 50 mg mL⁻¹ 121 122 Zymolyase 20T Concentrate and the Wizard® Genomic DNA Purification Kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. Polymerase Chain Reactions (PCR) were performed in a final volume of 10 µL containing 0.2 123 μL 10 mg mL⁻¹ BSA (Promega), 3.5 μL 2X GoTaq® Colorless Master Mix, 0.6 μL 10 μM ITS1 primer, 0.6 124 μ L 10 μ M ITS4 primer, 1 μ L diluted DNA (10 ng μ L⁻¹) and 4.1 μ L nuclease-free water (Fujita et al., 2001). 125 126 PCR amplifications were performed in a T100[™] Thermal Cycler thermocycler (BioRad) as follows: initial 127 denaturation at 94°C for 5 min, then 35 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 1 min, annealing at 55°C for 2 min, 128 and extension at 72°C for 2 min; followed by a final extension at 72°C for 5 min. To determine the ITS1-5.8SrRNA-ITS2 PCR amplicon size, reaction products were analyzed in a 2% (w/v) agarose gel by 129 130 electrophoresis. ITS sequencing was performed in an Applied Biosystems[™] 3500 instrument (AustralOmics,

131 Valdivia, Chile). Additionally, L. cidri isolates were obtained from tree sap samples of Eucalyptus gunnii 132 from the Central Plateau of Tasmania, Australia, as previously described (Varela et al., 2020). Briefly, the 133 Australian isolates originated from three different locations in the Central Plateau, Trawtha Makuminya, 134 Skullbone Plains (7 kms away) and Five Rivers/Serpentine (18 kms away from the first location). From a 135 total number of 1,029 yeast cultures isolated from 47 bark, soil and/or sap samples, 138 cultures were initially 136 identified as L. cidri by ITS sequencing. All 138 L. cidri isolates were screened under different environmental 137 conditions (different carbon sources and stress conditions) in solid media and 25 were selected based on 138 phenotype differences for further analysis. The isolates obtained and their geographical locations are listed in 139 Table S1.

140 FACS analysis

141 DNA content was analysed using the propidium iodide (PI) staining assay. Cells were first recovered from the 142 glycerol stocks on YPD solid media and incubated overnight at 30 °C. The following day, a fraction of each 143 patch was taken with a pipette tip, transferred into liquid YPD media, and incubated overnight at 30 °C. Then, 144 1 mL of each culture was taken and resuspended in 2.3 mL cold 70% ethanol. Cells were fixed overnight at 4 °C, washed twice with PBS, resuspended in 100 μL staining solution (15 μM PI, 100 μg mL⁻¹ RNase A, 145 146 0.1% v/v Triton-X, in PBS) and finally incubated for 3 h at 37 °C in the dark. Ten thousand cells for each 147 sample were analysed on a FACS-Calibur flow cytometer. Cells were excited at 488 nm and fluorescence was 148 collected with an FL2-A filter. Three strains with known ploidy were used as a control: Two S. euabaynus (n 149 and 2n) and one S. cerevisiae (4n).

150 Whole-genome sequencing and Variant Calling.

Genomic DNA from *L. cidri* was prepared for whole-genome sequencing using a Qiagen Genomic-tip 20/G kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) as previously described (Nespolo et al., 2020) and sent for sequencing using DNBseq technology (BGISEQ-G400 platform) (Liu et al., 2018). Read quality was checked using FastQC 0.11.8 (Andrews, 2010). Reads were processed with fastp 0.19.4 (low quality 3' end trimming, 40 bp minimum read size) (Brickwedde et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2018). We also obtained publicly available sequencing reads of *L. cidri* CBS2950 (Agier et al., 2018), which were processed identically. Reads were aligned against the *L. cidri* CBS2950 reference genome (Vakirlis et al., 2016) using BWA-mem (options: -M - 158 R) (Li, 2013). Mapping quality and overall statistics were collected and examined with Qualimap (García-159 Alcalde et al., 2012). Sorting and indexing of output bam files were performed using SAMTOOLS 1.9 (Li et 160 al., 2009). A L. fermentai isolate (CBS770) was also mapped against the L. cidri CBS2950 genome for 161 phylogenetic analysis (Bellut et al., 2020). Mapping files were tagged for duplicates using MarkDuplicates of 162 Picard tools 2.18.14 (http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/). Variant calling and filtering were done with 163 GATK version 4.0.10.1 (DePristo et al., 2011). More specifically, variants were called per sample and 164 chromosome using HaplotypeCaller (default settings), after which variant databases were built using 165 GenomicsDBImport. Genotypes for each chromosome were called using GenotypeGVCFs (-G 166 StandardAnnotation). Variant files were merged into one genome-wide file using MergeVcfs. This file was 167 divided into SNP calls and INDEL calls using SelectVariants. We applied recommended filters for coverage 168 (> 10 mapping reads = "FORMAT/DP>10") and quality (--minQ 30) (Van der Auwera et al., 2013a). This 169 VCF file was further filtered, depending on the requirements of the given analysis, using vcftools (Van der 170 Auwera et al., 2013a, b). For all datasets, we only considered SNPs that had no missing data using vcftools 171 option –max-missing 1.

172 Phylogeographic reconstruction

To perform phylogeny on our SNP dataset, a VCF file containing 218,266 SNPs obtained from 55 strains was converted to phylip format using vcf2phylip (Ortiz., 2019) and used as input for IQ-TREE (Nguyen et al., 2015) to generate a maximum likelihood phylogeny with the ultrafast bootstrap option and ascertainment bias correction (-st DNA -o CBS707 -m GTR+ASC -nt 8 -bb 1000) (Hoang et al., 2018). The number of parsimony informative sites was 10,680 SNPs. Trees were visualized on the iTOL website (http://itol.embl.de).

179 Population structure analyses

Given that different tools can provide inconsistent results (Stift et al., 2019), we used STRUCTURE, fineSTRUCTURE and SMARTPCA to determine the population structure in *L. cidri*. For STRUCTURE analysis, a thinned version of the VCF file was generated with vcftools 0.1.15 (--thin 500) (Danecek et al., 2011), containing 11,447 similarly-spaced SNPs, while including only *L. cidri* strains. STRUCTURE was run on this dataset five times for K values ranging from 1 to 7, with 10,000 burn-in and 100,000 replications for

185 each run, using admixture model, infer alpha, lambda =1, fpriormean =1, unifprioralpha 1, and alpha max 10. 186 The structure-selector website was employed to obtain the optimal Κ values 187 (http://lmme.qdio.ac.cn/StructureSelector/) (Li and Liu, 2018) according to the Evanno method (Evanno et al., 188 2005). The results for each K were plotted using CLUMPAK (Kopelman et al., 2015) and visualized using a 189 structure plot (http://omicsspeaks.com/strplot2/) (Ramasamy et al., 2014). In addition, we performed 190 clustering analyses of the same samples by using SMARTPCA without outlier removal (Patterson et al., 191 2006). For fineSTRUCTURE analysis (Lawson et al., 2012), a VCF file that included all SNPs among L. cidri 192 strains was phased using BEAGLE 3.0.4 (Browning and Browning, 2007). Since we lacked a L. cidri 193 recombination map, we used a constant recombination rate between consecutive SNPs based on the average recombination rate of *L. kluyveri* (0.4 cM kbp⁻¹, (Brion et al., 2017)). All versus all chromosomal painting was 194 195 performed with Chromopainter V2, and the output was further analyzed with fineSTRUCTURE (-x 100000 -y 196 100000 -z 1000). Plotting of the ancestry matrix was done using fineSTRUCTURE R scripts.

197 Population genetics

198 We estimated the pairwise of nucleotide diversity, π and the proportion of segregant sites, θ_w using the R package PopGenome (Pfeifer et al., 2014). F_{ST} Values across the genome were calculated with StAMPP 1.5.1 199 200 Weir and Cockerham's unbiased estimator to obtain 95% confidence intervals by performing 5,000 bootstraps 201 (Pembleton et al., 2013; Weir and Cockerham, 1984). The IBD (Isolation by Distance) was performed using 202 the seven locations from Chile. The significance of correlations between distance matrices in the Mantel test 203 was evaluated using 10,000 permutations. The geographic distances were calculated using latitude/longitude 204 of all relevant sampling points using the function of GenAlEx v 6.5 (Peakall and Smouse, 2012). Population 205 pairwise F_{ST} values were used to build the genetic distance matrices for this test. We predicted the number of 206 generations since the most recent common ancestor of any pair of lineages using the mutation parameter, as 207 previously described (Ruderfer et al., 2006).

208

$\theta_{\rm w} = 2N_{\rm \theta}\mu$, where $N_{\rm \theta}$ represents the number of generations

Given that the single-base mutation rate is similar in different yeasts species (Farlow et al., 2015; Fijarczyk et al., 2021), we used the mutation rate ($\mu = 1.84 \times 10^{-10}$ mutations per nucleotide per generation) previously reported from laboratory estimates on *S. cerevisiae* (Lynch et al., 2008) for calculations.

212 Species delimitation analysis

213 We used the SNAPP software (Bryant et al., 2012) to test if lineages of L. cidri could be delimited at the 214 molecular level using the Bayes Factors criteria implemented in BEAST v2.6 (Bouckaert et al., 2019). We 215 evaluated three competing lineages models with the BFD* method (Leache et al., 2014), using as an outgroup 216 the Australian strain (group A, Table S2), and as the interest group we used the strains from B: Huilo-Huilo, 217 C: Coyhaique, D: Altos de Lircay. SNAPP analyses were only performed with a subset of individuals per 218 lineages for computational feasibility; the total number of SNPs in the dataset was 218,266. To change the 219 VCF haploid to diploid we used the java code VcfFilterJdk (Lindenbaum and Redon, 2018). We used the 220 Marginal likelihood estimation with 12 steps for the dataset to steppingstone sampling. We used default 221 settings (e.g., Yule prior for species tree and branch length estimations; gamma distributions for ancestral 222 theta), with five million burn-in iterations. To ensure convergence, we confirmed that our runs reached 223 effective sample size values >500 after burn-in using the program Tracer v1.4 (Rambaut et al., 2018). 224 Maximum credibility trees were generated using TreeAnnotator in BEAST v2.6, and the posterior 225 distributions of species trees were visualized using DensiTree (Bouckaert, 2010).

226 Phenotypic diversity among isolates

227 To determine the phenotypic diversity across the L. cidri isolates, we estimated growth and biomass 228 production in several environmental conditions that represent different yeast habitats, either in nature or in 229 industrial settings. For this, we performed high-throughput phenotyping in 96-well microculture plates as 230 previously described (Kessi-Perez et al., 2016). Briefly, cells were pre-cultivated in 200 µL YNB medium 231 without agitation at 20°C for 48 hours. For the experimental run, each well was inoculated with ten µL of pre-232 inoculum to an optical density (OD) of 0.03–0.1 in 200 µL of different media compositions (Table S3). 233 Culture OD was measured at 620 nm every 30 minutes for 96 hours. From these data, three parameters were 234 estimated: lag phase, growth rate (µmax), and maximum OD using the Growth Rates software with default 235 parameters (Hall et al., 2014).

236 Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using biological triplicates. The differences were considered statistically significant at *p*-values <0.05. The comparison of growth rate between populations and isolation locations was undertaken with a paired *t*-test. The heat map and phenotypic principal component analysis (PCA) were created using R software (Team, 2008), the "pheatmap" and "prcomp" packages stats 3.6.0, and plotted using the "ggplot2" and "ggbiplot" packages.

242

243 RESULTS

244 High prevalence of *L. cidri* among non-Saccharomyces yeasts in natural environments

245 To explore the distribution of L. cidri in central and southern Chile, we obtained yeast colonies from different 246 tree bark samples collected between 2017 and 2019 that had been previously identified as non-Saccharomyces 247 (Nespolo et al., 2020) using the internal transcribed spacer region (ITS1-5.8rRNA-ITS2). Cultures identified as 248 L. cidri were found in 7 of the 13 sampling regions, between Altos de Lircay National Park (VII Maule 249 Region, Chile) in the north and Coyhaique National Reserve (XI Aysén Region, Chile) in the south. 250 Moreover, the distribution of L. cidri were widely distributed in South Chile, covering regions from the 251 Pacific coast up to the Andes Mountains (approximately 1,000 km long and 300 km wide) (Fig 1a, Table S4). 252 Overall, we identified 30 L. cidri strains in Patagonia, meaning that L. cidri is the most-represented non-253 conventional ethanol-tolerant species in our survey. The L. cidri isolation frequency varied between 1.33 to 254 11.11 % depending on the national park, independent of latitude (Pearson r = -0.338, p-value > 0.05) (Fig 255 S1a, Table S4). In addition, when only non-Saccharomyces yeasts were considered, the isolation frequency 256 values varied between 9.72-100 % (Fig. S1b, Table S4), indicating a high prevalence of this non-conventional 257 yeast in Nothofagus bark samples. The samples from Chile were obtained in four different tree species, N. 258 pumilio (representing 26.7 % of the samples), N. dombeyi (46.7 %), N. antartica (3.3 %), and A. araucana 259 (23.3 %) (Fig. S1c). The frequency of L. cidri in Patagonia was determined by the host tree (hypergeometric 260 test, Table S5); N. dombeyi was the most prevalent host. Additionally, cultures identified as L. cidri were 261 obtained in a previous study from eucalyptus tree sap samples collected in the Central Plateau of Tasmania, 262 Australia (Varela et al., 2020) (Fig. 1a). In this case, L. cidri represented 13% of the total non-Saccharomyces 263 isolates found. Our results demonstrate a high prevalence of L. cidri in Patagonia, distributed from high altitude (Andes Mountains) to low altitude regions (near the Pacific Ocean), covering an extensive range of

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environmental conditions.
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Figure 1. Geographic distribution and phylogeny of *L. cidri* isolates. (a) World map depicting the different
 locations where *L. cidri* were isolated. In Chile, strains were obtained from seven sampling locations. (b)
 Maximum likelihood tree depicting the genetic relationships between 56 strains using 218,266 biallelic SNPs
 (substitution model GTR+F+ASC) and manually-rooted with *L. fermentati* as the outgroup.

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272 Phylogenomic studies in L. cidri

To determine the phylogenetic relationships between strains and the genomic variations in *L. cidri*, we initially estimated the ploidy levels of the isolates. FACs analysis revealed that all *L. cidri* isolates were haploids (Fig. S2). Subsequently, we sequenced the complete genomes of 30 strains from South America, and included an extra set of 25 strains from Australia obtained from sap samples of *Eucalyptus gunnii* from the Central Plateau of Tasmania, Australia. In addition, we incorporated previously published data for the reference strain *L. cidri* CBS2950 (isolated from cider in France) and the *L. fermentati* strain CBS707, which we used as an outgroup. On average, across the 30 South American genomes, we obtained 2,670 SNPs per 280 strain relative to the reference genome (SNPs were found on average every ~ 3.8 kb between two strains). On 281 the other hand, across the 25 Australian genomes, we obtained on average 36 SNPs per strain relative to the 282 reference genome (SNPs were found on average every ~ 282 kb), indicating apparent differences compared to 283 the South American group of strains. In parallel, we found different numbers of insertions and deletions 284 depending on the strain relative to the reference genome, ranging from 79 in the Australian strains to 124 in 285 the South American strains (the Bioinformatic Summary statistics are shown in Table S6). Interestingly, the 286 high number of INDELs are unique to the reference strain, rather than a general trend between any two strains 287 (Table S6).

288 The phylogeographic result with maximum-likelihood phylogeny revealed a topology with two well-289 supported main clades separating South American and Australian strains (Fig. 1b). Australian strains clustered 290 into a single clade (hereafter referred to as Aus), together with the French reference strain L. cidri CBS2950. 291 This clustering of Australian and the CBS2950 strain, together with the low number of polymorphisms found 292 between them (Table S7), suggest a recent migration event between Australia and France (or another closely-293 located region). In contrast, the South American strains were separated in a more complex clade distribution, 294 with substantial differences in branch lengths, as well as different subclades with phylogeographic structures 295 (Fig. 1b). The South American clade (hereafter referred to as SoAm) harbored 15,706 unique SNPs compared 296 to the reference strain (Table S7). Interestingly, the two isolates from Altos de Lircay National Park (AL) (the 297 northernmost locality) (Fig. 1a) cluster together and harbor the greatest genetic divergence within the SoAm 298 group (Fig 1b). Overall, these results suggest a broader genetic diversity in SoAm lineages, where the AL 299 branch showed the highest genetic divergence in the latitudinal gradient (Fig. 1b).

300 Population structure analyses reveal two main genetic groups in *L. cidri*.

To explore the connection between strains and localities, we performed an analysis of the distribution of the genetic variants found in the 55 *L. cidri* strains (Fig. 2a and b). The principal component analysis (PCA) showed a clear separation of the strains depending on their geographical origin, where according to the first two components, PC1 (11.2 %) and PC2 (8.98%), the Aus group is completely separated from the other set of strains (Fig. 2a), illustrating again the genetic differentiation between Aus and SoAm *L. cidri*. Interestingly, SoAm exhibited a separation into two additional groups, one corresponding to AL (most divergent clade) located in the upper part of the PCA plot and the other in the lower part corresponding to the remaining SoAm
strains (Fig. 2a). A second PCA considering just the latter group, clearly revealed that the strains distributed
based on their geographic origin of isolation, including latitude and longitude. According to the first two
principal components, PC1 (7.84 %) and PC2 (6.62 %), those strains collected near to the Pacific Ocean
(Valdivian Coastal Reserve and Chiloé National Park) separated from those isolates obtained in mountainous
regions (color chart, Fig. 2b).



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314 Figure 2. Population structure of L. cidri. (a) Plot of the genomic variation distribution of 56 L. cidri strains 315 based on the first two components of a PCA performed using 13,275 unlinked SNPs. Each dot represents a 316 single strain. The black arrow denotes strains from Altos de Lircay National Park (AL). (b) PCA only 317 considering strains from Patagonia. The color reflects the grouping by location. Villarrica National Park (VI), 318 Huilo-Huilo Biological Reserve (HH), Valdivian Coastal Reserve (VCR), Osorno Volcano (OV), Chiloé 319 National Park (CH), and Coyhaique National Reserve (CY). (c) STRUCTURE and ADMIXTURE. An 320 optimum K = 2 group is shown in both cases. (d) Heat map of a Co-ancestry matrix obtained using 321 fineSTRUCTURE chunk counts. Each row and column represent an isolated color indicating genetic sharing 322 (yellow = low sharing, blue = high sharing). The tree shows the clusters inferred from the co-ancestry matrix. 323 (e) F_{ST} values between localities, using the same abbreviations shown in (b) as well as Central Plateau of Tasmania (CP), Australia. (f) IBD (Isolation by distance) estimates considering seven localities of southernChile. The density of data points is indicated by colors.

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327 To determine the population genetic structure of L. cidri, we performed several complementary approaches, 328 including STRUCTURE, ADMIXTURE, and fineSTRUCTURE clustering (Fig. 2c and d). The three 329 analyses revealed a high degree of differentiation between strains isolated from South America and Australia. 330 STRUCTURE and ADMIXTURE analyses indicated an optimum K = 2 groups ($\Delta K_2 = 301$ for 331 STRUCTURE, Fig. 2c, Table S8), showing the presence of two genetic groups, SoAm and Aus. Further 332 analysis using the fineSTRUCTURE Co-ancestry matrix indicated a clear separation between the SoAm and 333 Aus isolates (Fig. 2d), confirming the presence of two large populations. Additionally, we identified a series 334 of subgroups within the SoAm clade, suggesting sub lineage in central and southern Chile confirming the 335 great differentiation and divergence of the group of isolates obtained from AL. To corroborate the results 336 obtained, we calculated the genetic differentiation (F_{ST}) between each of the localities from which L. cidri 337 isolates were obtained (Fig. 2e, Fig. S3a, Table S9). In this case, we found low to high F_{ST} values ranging 338 from 0.04 (p-value < 0.001) between Villarrica National Park and the Huilo-Huilo Biological Reserve, up to 339 0.99 (p-value < 0.001) between Altos de Lircay National Park (AL) and Central Plateau of Tasmania (CP), 340 Australia (Fig. 2e). Although the STRUCTURE and ADMIXTURE analyses did not suggest AL as a third 341 lineage, we found the highest F_{ST} values between AL and the other localities from South America, suggesting 342 that this could represent a third lineage in our study (Fig. 2e, Table S9). Furthermore, a genome wide F_{ST} 343 analysis clearly demonstrates an even distribution of values across the genome between AL and the other 344 South American strains, exhibiting a differentiation throughout the genome (Fig S3a). Intermediate and low 345 F_{ST} values were found between closer localities in southern Chile (Fig. 2e, Table S9). Under this scenario, with IBD we found a moderately significant correlation ($R^2 = 0.39$, *p*-value = 0.05) (Fig. 2f) between genetic 346 347 differentiation and geographic distance in the localities of southern Chile, suggesting that the genetic 348 differences found in Patagonian L. cidri could result from the geographical distribution (distance in 349 kilometers).

350 Southern SoAm isolates exhibited high genetic diversity. In this case, we calculated nucleotide diversity (π) 351 (Fig. S3b, Table S10), and observed a high nucleotide diversity in the SoAm population, most likely due to 352 the number of different locations from which the L. cidri strains were isolated (Fig. S3b). When analyzing the 353 diversity at each locality, higher π values were observed in sampling sites from southern Chile (e.g., Villarrica 354 National Park, Huilo-Huilo Biological Reserve, and Chiloe National Park) compared to central Chile (e.g., 355 Altos de Lircay) or Australia, which exhibited the lowest π values (Fig. S3c), despite being the location with 356 the highest number of isolates (n=25). These results likely reflect a clonal population in Australia, possibly 357 affected by the sampling strategy or the small territory covered in Tasmania. Furthermore, the low number of 358 SNPs between the French reference strain and the Australian population, also suggests a likely low genetic 359 diversity in Australia. The low nucleotide divergence between Australian strains and the French reference 360 strain suggests a recent introduction of the species in Australia or Europe (Fig. S3c, Table S10).

361

362 Pleistocene dated divergence between the main lineages in *L. cidri*

363 Given the genetic divergence of the AL clade and considering the distribution of SNPs according to the PCA, 364 the clustering in the co-ancestry matrix in fineSTRUCTURE and the high F_{ST} values compared to the rest of 365 the SoAm populations, we evaluated the possibility that the group of isolates from AL could represent a 366 different lineage in the species. For this, we performed a species delimitation analyses according to the 367 different models generated, and hypothesized the presence of one to three genetically-different linages or 368 groups utilizing strains of Aus, AL, HH and CY as representatives of the different lineages (Fig. 3a). The 369 Bayes factor species delimitation (SNAPP) analysis supported the scenario where AL represents a different 370 lineage in the species (model 3, Fig 3a), exhibiting the highest Bayes factor (43421.01) (Table S2) and a high 371 Bayesian support (IB = 1, Fig 3a). In addition, this analysis also predicts the presence of four different groups 372 separating HH and CY as a different lineage (Table S2); however, the Bayesian support in the species tree 373 was low and therefore these could not be considered as different lineages (IB= 0.8, Fig 3a). Altogether, this 374 suggests the presence of three different lineages in L. cidri: Aus, AL and SoAm (HH and CY).



375

376 Figure 3. Species delimitation and divergence time analysis in L. cidri populations. (a) DensiTrees 377 gathered in the Bayesian analyses, where nodes values correspond to the Bayesian inference (IB) result of the 378 species tree. Strains from Australia (Aus), Altos de Lircay National Park (AL), Huilo-Huilo Biological 379 Reserve (HH), and Coyhaique National Reserve (CY) are included in the analysis. The blue traces indicate 380 the most frequently occurring topology; red indicates the second most likely topology and the third in light 381 blue. (b) Estimation of the divergence time since the last common ancestor between groups. Time between (1) 382 Australia lineage and SoAm lineage; Time between (2) Australia lineage and CBS2950. Timeline in Million's 383 years (Ky).

384

385 Considering the results obtained, we estimated the divergence time since the most recent common ancestor

between lineages. Using the population genomic data and following the same strategy as previously used for

387 L. kluyveri and S. cerevisiae (Friedrich et al., 2015; Ruderfer et al., 2006) we predicted the number of

388 generations that have passed since the divergence of any two groups. Our data lead to an estimation of 23.9 x 389 10⁶ generations since the most recent common ancestor in *L. cidri*. In the Australian lineage, we obtained an estimation of 1.5×10^5 generations since the most recent common ancestor of the Australian strains and the 390 391 reference CBS2950 strain. In contrast to this, when we analyzed the number of generations of the AL most 392 recent common ancestor, we obtain 23×10^6 generations. Considering that cell division of yeast in the wild 393 ranges from 1 to 8 generations per day (Fay and Benavides, 2005), the divergence time of the Australia and 394 South America lineage correspond to approximately 64-8 KYA (Fig 3b), dating back to the late Pleistocene. 395 On the other hand, the divergence of the Australian strains and the CBS2950 strain is very recent and 396 corresponds to approximately 405-51 YA (Fig 3b). Finally, the coalescence time estimated with population 397 genomic data of the AL lineage would correspond to approximately 62-7.8 KYA.

398

399 Phenotypic diversity across L. cidri populations

400 To estimate the impact of genetic diversity upon phenotypic diversity, we assessed the phenotypic diversity of 401 L. cidri in the complete set of 56 isolates. For this, we performed microcultures and estimated growth rates 402 (umax, corresponding to the maximum specific growth rate) from curves obtained under 12 conditions 403 comprising different carbon sources, stresses, and environmental parameters. A clustered heat map of the 404 phenotypic correlations between strains showed a separation of the isolates according to their geographic 405 origin, either from SoAm or from Aus, except for three Australian isolates that clustered together with strains 406 from Patagonia (Fig. 4a, Table S11). In this sense, hierarchical clustering of the phenotypic data distributed 407 the strains across four main clades (Fig. 4a). Cluster A contained two isolates (one from SoAm and one from 408 Aus), showing the lowest growth rates for most conditions (Fig. 4a). The different SoAm isolates were 409 distributed in Clusters B and C. Cluster B showed the greatest growth rates compared to the other three 410 clusters, while Cluster C showed intermediate values and exhibited low growth rates in fructose and ethanol. 411 Interestingly, all isolates in Cluster C belong to localities close to the Pacific Ocean (low altitude, Valdivian 412 Coastal Reserve, and Chiloé National Park) (Fig. 4a). Most strains from Australia were distributed in Cluster 413 D (n=21). However, three Australian strains grouped in cluster B, likely because of their greater growth rates 414 using maltose and fructose as carbon sources. The main difference between clusters is the ability of the strains

415 to grow in ethanol-containing media. In this case, we observed significant differences when we compared the 416 growth rate between all clusters (*p*-value < 0.001, t-test). For example, in Clusters B and D we found isolates 417 with the highest growth rates under 6% ethanol. Cluster B contains SoAm isolates from high altitude localities 418 together with strain CBS2950 and three strains of the Aus lineage. On the other hand, Cluster D consists 419 entirely of Aus lineage isolates.



420

421 Fig. 4. Phenotypic diversity across L. cidri populations. (a) Heat map depicting the phenotypic diversity in 422 L. cidri obtained from growth parameter using 12 different microculture conditions. Strains are grouped by 423 hierarchical clustering; colors indicate the lineages (Australia (Aus) and South America (SoAm)), locality (Altos de Lircay National Park (AL), Villarrica National Park (VI), Huilo-Huilo Biological Reserve (HH), 424 425 Valdivian Coastal Reserve (VCR), Osorno Volcano (OV), Chiloé National Park (CH), Coyhaique National 426 Reserve (CY), Central Plateau of Tasmania (CP), Australia, and France (FR)) and isolation altitude (high 427 altitude (HA) and low altitude (LA)). The heat map was elaborated based on the z-score of μ max (h⁻¹). (b) Fitness (μ max h⁻¹) variation in 6% v/v ethanol. Asterisks indicate statistically-significant differences 428 according to the t-test (*p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001; ****p < 0.001; 429

- 431 We observed a clear separation between the SoAm and Aus populations (Fig. S4) using PCA, allowing us to
- 432 further dissect the phenotypic data (Fig. S4). When analyzing the distribution of each isolate, we also
- 433 observed a separation based on locality (Fig. S4b). Nevertheless, the SoAm populations exhibited the greatest

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434 growth rates across the different conditions compared to the Aus isolates (p-value < 0.001, t-test) (Fig. S5a). 435 The SoAm populations exhibited phenotypic differences based on longitude. We found two phenotypic 436 groups, termed high and low altitude locations (HA and LA, respectively), depending on whether they were 437 collected near the Andes or the Pacific Coast, respectively (Fig. 4a). In general, strains isolated from HA 438 locations show greater growth rates than those isolated from LA locations (p-value < 0.001, t-test) (Fig. S4b). 439 Interestingly, LA strains showed a higher growth rate than HA only in 2% maltose (p-value < 0.05, t-test) 440 (Fig. S5c). The longitude comparison showed significant differences for 8 of the 12 conditions evaluated (p-441 value < 0.05, t-test) (Fig. S5c), with the most notable differences (*p*-value < 0.001, t-test) in ethanol (6 and 442 8% v/v), glucose (20% w/v), sorbitol (20% w/v) and NaCl (1.25 mM) (Fig. S5c).

443 **DISCUSSION**

444 Large-scale population genomics studies performed on Saccharomyces spp. allowed us to understand 445 yeast dynamics in nature and their association with anthropogenic environments (Peter and Schacherer, 2016). 446 In this sense, the analysis of complete genomes and the use of molecular markers aided the understanding of 447 the natural genetic diversity in Saccharomyces populations and highlights how they adapt to the environments 448 which they inhabit (Almeida et al., 2015; Almeida et al., 2014; Bendixsen et al., 2021; Parts et al., 2021; Peter 449 and Schacherer, 2016). In the last decade, advances in sequencing technologies have made it possible to 450 extrapolate this type of study to non-model species that have long been overlooked (Bansal and Boucher, 451 2019; Dujon and Louis, 2017). L. cidri, a non-model species, is an attractive model to study since it's a 452 Crabtree-positive yeast located phylogenetically before the whole-genome duplication (Porter et al., 2019b; 453 Vakirlis et al., 2016), and which exhibits substantial biotechnological potential for fermentation (Varela et al., 454 2020; Villarreal et al., 2021). In contrast to Saccharomyces spp., which are mostly diploid in nature (Almeida 455 et al., 2014; Nespolo et al., 2020; Peter et al., 2018), L. cidri isolates are haploids, which might be indicative 456 of a different reproductive cycle. It has been reported that even with identical genomes, ploidy itself is known 457 to have different effects on yeasts. Therefore, understanding how ploidy affects the ecology and evolution of 458 organisms has long been a topic of interest (Gerstein et al., 2011; Gerstein and Otto, 2009). Haploid yeasts 459 have a competitive advantage over diploid yeasts. For example, one of the main differences between the two 460 ploidy levels is cell size, where differences in volume have been shown to directly affect relative fitness in 461 some environments. Under nutrient stress, where a limited concentration of nutrients diffuses across the cell 462 membrane, haploid organisms (which have a smaller size than diploids) would have a greater advantage,

463 likely favoring their survival under extreme environmental conditions (Gerstein et al., 2011).

464 Our results demonstrate that L. cidri is widely-distributed in Patagonia. In fact, L. cidri is found between latitudes 35 °S and 45 °S in Patagonia, which in general are considered non-Mediterranean (cold 465 466 regions). However, L. cidri was not found in extreme southern regions such as Tierra del Fuego (54 °S), 467 probably due to southern Patagonia's extreme cold climatic conditions, where the temperature is below 468 freezing for a large fraction of the year (Ponce JF and M., 2014). Similar observations were reported in other 469 organisms such as Dromiciops species (Quintero-Galvis et al., 2022), and Petaurus species (Malekian et al., 470 2010) where geography and climate conditions determined the organism's distribution. L. cidri samples 471 obtained in South America were collected from tree species belonging to the genera Nothofagus and 472 Araucaria in National Parks from Chile, covering approximately 1,000 km of territory. Then, the 473 biogeographical history of the South American population of L. cidri correlates well with the history and 474 distribution of the Nothofagus forest, comparable to reports for other species isolated in Patagonia 475 (Saccharomyces and non-Saccharomyces) (Nespolo et al., 2020). Our results agree with previous findings, 476 where it has been demonstrated that L. cidri exhibits significant host preference, being more frequently 477 isolated from N. dombeyi in Patagonia (Nespolo et al., 2020; Villarreal et al., 2021). In this way, this study, 478 together with previous studies in Saccharomyces yeasts from forests ecosystems (Almeida et al., 2014; Cadez 479 et al., 2021; Langdon et al., 2020; Libkind et al., 2011; Nespolo et al., 2020) demonstrate the impact of the 480 Nothofagus biome (Woodward et al., 2004) across the southern hemisphere on the current distribution of the 481 Lachancea genus throughout Patagonia.

482 The aim of the current study was to compare the genomic and phenotypic landscape across L. cidri 483 isolates, regardless of how these cultures were isolated. The phylogenomic analysis of wild L. cidri (SoAm) 484 strains demonstrates a SoAm genetic diversity ($\pi = 0,000278$) comparable to that of other Saccharomyces 485 natural populations, such as S. eubayanus (PB-2 and PB-3, $\pi = 0,0009$ and, $\pi = 0,0005$ respectively) and S. 486 *cerevisiae* lineages, such as Alpechin, Ecuadorean, North America oak, and Sake clades ($\pi = 0.00095$; 487 0,00015; 0,00010; and 0,00080, respectively) (Peter et al., 2018). In contrast, we observed a lower nucleotide 488 diversity in the SoAm populations compared to other S. cerevisiae lineages from Taiwan ($\pi = 0,005$) or China 489 $(\pi = 0,006)$ (Lee et al., 2022). These differences are likely explained by the number of isolation sites where

490 yeasts identified as L. cidri were obtained, and further sampling efforts could improve our understanding on 491 the genetic diversity in L. cidri. Since the strains from Australia were collected in a smaller territory and 492 showed relatively low genetic variation (Varela et al., 2020), we were not able to assess comparable 493 parameters to South America. In this sense, sampling in Patagonia a broader geographic distribution with 494 varied seasonal and spatial variation generated an enormous genetic differentiation and nucleotide diversity 495 between localities. Therefore, our population structure analysis, developed with different strategies, generated 496 a consistent phylogenetic picture: two populations depending on geographic origin (SoAm and Aus), with the 497 Australian isolates forming a tight cluster with the reference strain from France (CBS2950). The utilization of 498 STRUCTURE, together with fineSTRUCTURE and PCA are appropriate for this type of analysis, since 499 altogether, these analyses can provide further insights into the population history within a species (Stift et al., 500 2019). The Australian population showed a low genetic diversity, and a low genetic differentiation to the 501 reference strain, suggesting a recent exchange between Australia and Europe, likely coalescing between 405 502 to 51 years ago. In contrast, the variability found within the South American population is in accordance with 503 the different localities from which the isolates were obtained. The different environmental conditions and the 504 extensive distribution of the Nothofagus forest in Patagonia likely facilitated the presence of a unique genetic 505 diversity (Cadez et al., 2019; Cubillos et al., 2019; Nespolo et al., 2020; Villarreal et al., 2021), not only in 506 yeasts, but also in higher mammals like Dromiciops gliroides and D. bozinovici (a recently proposed species 507 with higher nucleotide diversity in South America) (Quintero-Galvis et al., 2022). In the same way, the 508 phenotypic data corroborates the large genetic diversity observed in Patagonia. Although it has been reported 509 that genetic diversity is not always a reflection of diversity at the physiological level (Banilas et al., 2016; 510 Pfliegler et al., 2014), we were able to demonstrate how greater diversity at the genetic level is determinant 511 when performing phenotypic analyses under natural and stressful conditions.

The divergence between Australian and South American strains is interesting and deserves attention. The split could have originated in the Late Pleistocene, near the last glacial maximum (LGM), an event that has modified the abundance and distribution of the biota in South America (Sérsic et al., 2011). The absence of fossil records for yeasts and the lack of precise estimates on the number of generations complicates the interpretation, but the geographic origin of our samples, the high association with native forests with a welldocumented phylogeographic history (Acosta et al., 2014; Hinojosa et al., 2016), and the genetic differences

518 found in L. cidri from South America permit to delineate some hypotheses. The LGM during the Late 519 Pleistocene (~35,000 years ago)(Davies et al., 2020) resulted in an ice cover that expanded through the south 520 of South America from latitude 53°S to 38°S, leaving only a few areas free of ice, such as Altos de Lircay 521 (Hewitt, 2000; Hinojosa, 1997). For example, despite the short distance between HH and VCR (~300 km), 522 these two sites exhibit a significant genetic distance between L. cidri populations, likely due the ice cover 523 separation. Thus, most areas including Coyhaique were covered by the ice, and present-day plants and 524 animals are young populations that colonized the area either from Argentina or from coastal refuges, during 525 the last ~10,000 years. This large isolation barrier would explain the divergence observed between the South 526 American L. cidri populations, unlike the French and Australian strains that likely migrated because of human 527 movements.

528 In summary, our results demonstrate the presence of two genetically-different populations in L. cidri 529 and a high phylogeographic structure among the localities of South America. The species delimitation method 530 and genetic differences between Altos de Lircay populations and southern populations in Patagonia suggest 531 that the former represents a different lineage. This is a striking result since the unique conditions of Patagonia 532 during the Late Pleistocene could have contributed to the differentiation of L. cidri populations in South 533 America. Furthermore, we propose that there was a recent exchange between Australia and France due to the 534 low genetic differentiation between strains from both regions. In conclusion, this work provides valuable 535 insight into the genetic and phenotypic diversity of L. cidri, contributing to a better understanding of the 536 phylogeography, population structure, ecology, and divergence time of this underexplored yeast species, with 537 remarkable biotechnological potential.

538

539 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

FC acknowledges the Comisión Nacional de Investigación Científica y Tecnológica CONICYT FONDECYT
[1180161] and ANID - Programa Iniciativa Científica Milenio - ICN17_022 and NCN2021_050. PV is
supported by ANID FONDECYT POSTDOCTORADO [grant 3200575]. RN is supported by FIC
'Transferencia Levaduras Nativas para Cerveza Artesanal' and FONDECYT grant [1180917]. FC, RN, PV,
TP, SO, and GF were funded by PROGRAMA DE COOPERACIÓN CIENTÍFICA ECOS-CONICYT

- 545 ECOS180003. We thank Dr. Vladimir Jiranek from the University of Adelaide and the AWRI Culture
- 546 Collection for access to L. cidri isolates, Michael Handford (Universidad de Chile) for language support and
- 547 Fundación Huilo Huilo for the assistance during the fieldwork. We also acknowledge Fundación Ciencia &
- 548 Vida for providing infrastructure, laboratory space and equipment for experiments.
- 549
- 550 Author Contributions
- 551 Conceptualization: P.V., C.V., F.A.C. Formal analysis: P.V. Investigation: P.V., C.A.V., S.O., N.A., T.P.,
- J.F.Q-G, C.V. Writing original draft: P.V., F.A.C. Writing review & editing: P.V., R.F.N., C.V., G.F.,
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- 554 Data accessibility

All new *fastq* sequences were deposited in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI).
Sequence Read Archive under the BioProject accession number PRJNA787570
(www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/787570).

- 558
- 559 Conflicts of interest
- 560 The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.
- 561
- 562 References
- 563
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- 843
- 844 Figures

Figure 1. Geographic distribution and phylogeny of *L. cidri* isolates. (a) World map depicting the different
locations where *L. cidri* were isolated. In Chile, strains were obtained from seven sampling locations. (b)
Maximum likelihood tree depicting the genetic relationships between 56 strains using 218,266 biallelic SNPs
(substitution model GTR+F+ASC) and manually-rooted with *L. fermentati* as the outgroup.

849 Figure 2. Population structure of L. cidri. (a) Plot of the genomic variation distribution of 56 L. cidri strains 850 based on the first two components of a PCA performed using 13,275 unlinked SNPs. Each dot represents a 851 single strain. The black arrow denotes strains from Altos de Lircay National Park (AL). (b) PCA only 852 considering strains from Patagonia. The color reflects the grouping by location. Villarrica National Park (VI), 853 Huilo-Huilo Biological Reserve (HH), Valdivian Coastal Reserve (VCR), Osorno Volcano (OV), Chiloé 854 National Park (CH), and Coyhaique National Reserve (CY). (c) STRUCTURE and ADMIXTURE. An 855 optimum K = 2 group is shown in both cases. (d) Heat map of a Co-ancestry matrix obtained using 856 fineSTRUCTURE chunk counts. Each row and column represent an isolated color indicating genetic sharing 857 (yellow = low sharing, blue = high sharing). The tree shows the clusters inferred from the co-ancestry matrix. 858 (e) $F_{\rm ST}$ values between localities, using the same abbreviations shown in (b) as well as Central Plateau of 859 Tasmania (CP), Australia. (f) IBD (Isolation by distance) estimates considering seven localities of southern 860 Chile. The density of data points is indicated by colors.

Figure 3. Species delimitation and divergence time analysis in *L. cidri* populations. (a) DensiTrees
gathered in the Bayesian analyses, where nodes values correspond to the Bayesian inference (IB) result of the
species tree. Strains from Australia (Aus), Altos de Lircay National Park (AL), Huilo-Huilo Biological
Reserve (HH), and Coyhaique National Reserve (CY) are included in the analysis. The blue traces indicate

the most frequently occurring topology; red indicates the second most likely topology and the third in light
blue. (b) Estimation of the divergence time since the last common ancestor between groups. Time between (1)
Australia lineage and SoAm lineage; Time between (2) Australia lineage and CBS2950. Timeline in Million's
years (Ky).

869

870 Fig. 4. Phenotypic diversity across L. cidri populations. (a) Heat map depicting the phenotypic diversity in 871 L. cidri obtained from growth parameter using 12 different microculture conditions. Strains are grouped by 872 hierarchical clustering; colors indicate the lineages (Australia (Aus) and South America (SoAm)), locality 873 (Altos de Lircay National Park (AL), Villarrica National Park (VI), Huilo-Huilo Biological Reserve (HH), 874 Valdivian Coastal Reserve (VCR), Osorno Volcano (OV), Chiloé National Park (CH), Coyhaique National 875 Reserve (CY), Central Plateau of Tasmania (CP), Australia, and France (FR)) and isolation altitude (high 876 altitude (HA) and low altitude (LA)). The heat map was elaborated based on the z-score of μ max (h⁻¹). (**b**) 877 Fitness (µmax h⁻¹) variation in 6% v/v ethanol. Asterisks indicate statistically-significant differences according to the t-test (*p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001; ****p < 0.0001). 878

879

880 Supplementary Material

881 Supplementary Figures

Fig. S1. (a) Frequency of isolation of *L. cidri* compared to the total yeast found. (b) Frequency of successful *L. cidri* isolation of the non-*Saccharomyces* yeast found. (c) n° of isolates per tree host.

Fig. S2. FACS analysis of *L. cidri* isolates. Number of cell vs propidium iodide intensity is shown. Haploid
 (n), diploid (2n), and tetraploid (4n). *S. eubayanus* strains were used as a control.

Figure S3. Genetic differentiation and diversity across *L. cidri* **populations.** (a) *Fst* values across the genome between lineages (b) Nucleotide diversity (π) in Chilean (SoAm) locations and the Australian (Aus) population. (c) Nucleotide diversity (π) in each locality. Altos de Lircay National Park (AL), Villarrica National Park (VI), Huilo-Huilo Biological Reserve (HH), Valdivian Coastal Reserve (VCR), Osorno Volcano (OV), Chiloé National Park (CH), Coyhaique National Reserve (CY), and Central Plateau of Tasmania (CP), Australia.

Fig. S4. Principal Component Analysis of the phenotypic data. Circles surround different populations (a)
and localities (b). South America population (SoAm), Australia population (Aus), Altos de Lircay National
Park (AL), Villarrica National Park (VI), Huilo-Huilo Biological Reserve (HH), Valdivian Coastal Reserve
(VCR), Osorno Volcano (OV), Chiloé National Park (CH), Coyhaique National Reserve (CY), Central
Plateau of Tasmania (CP), Australia, and France (FR).

897

898 Fig. S5. Phenotypic diversity of SoAm *L. cidri* strains isolated from high and low altitude locations. (a)

899 Fitness (μ max h⁻¹) variation between Aus and SoAm population. (b) Fitness (μ max h⁻¹) variation between

High Altitude (HA= Altos de Lircay National Park, Villarrica National Park, Huilo-Huilo Biological Reserve,
 Osorno Volcano, Coyhaique National Reserve) and Low Altitude (LA= Valdivian Coastal Reserve and

- 901 Osorno Volcano, Coynaique National Reserve) and Low Altitude (LA= Valdivian Coastal Reserve and
 902 Chiloé National Park) isolation locations. (c) Fitness (µmax h⁻¹) variation between HA and LA across
- 902 Conditions assessed. (*) indicate statistically significant differences according to the t-test (*p < 0.05; **p <
- 904 0.01; ***p < 0.001; ****p < 0.0001; ns = not significant).
- 905
- 906 Supplementary Tables
- 907 **Supplementary Table 1.** List of isolates employed in this study.
- 908 Supplementary Table 2. Species delimitation models.

- 909 Supplementary Table 3. Growth media utilized in this study and their composition in semi-solid and 96-well
- 910 plate phenotyping assays.
- 911 **Supplementary Table 4.** The number of samples obtained from each National Park.
- 912 Supplementary Table 5. Hypergeometric test results.
- 913 Supplementary Table 6. Summary of bioinformatics statistics.
- 914 Supplementary Table 7. Common and unique SNPs among populations and the reference strain CBS2950.
- 915 Supplementary Table 8. Structure selector output.
- **Supplementary Table 9.** F_{ST} values by geographical location and population.
- 917 Supplementary Table 10. Summary of population genetics statistics for each clade and locality.
- 918 Supplementary Table 11. Phenotype data for *L. cidri* strains.

919