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Title: Mitochondrial introgression suggests extensive ancestral hybridization events among *Saccharomyces* species

Authors: David Peris^{1,†}, Armando Arias^{1,‡}, Sandi Orlić^{1,§}, Carmela Belloch², Laura Pérez-Través², Amparo Querol², Eladio Barrio^{1,2,3}

¹ "Cavanilles" Institute of Biodiversity and Evolution, University of Valencia, Valencia, Spain.

² Department of Food Biotechnology. Institute of Agrochemistry and Food Technology (IATA), CSIC, Valencia, Spain.

³ Department of Genetics, University of Valencia, Valencia, Spain.

Present addresses:

[†] Laboratory of Genetics, DOE Great Lakes Bioenergy Research Center, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI 53706, USA.

[‡] Biotechnology Laboratory, Botany and Zoology Department, CUCBA, University of Guadalajara, Zapopan, Jalisco, Mexico.

[§] Institute Ruđer Bošković, Zagreb, Croatia.

*Corresponding author:

David Peris Navarro

E-mail: david.perisnavarro@wisc.edu

26 **Abstract** (250 words)

27

28 Horizontal Gene Transfer (HGT) in eukaryotic plastids and mitochondrial genomes is
29 frequently observed, and plays an important role in organism evolution. In yeasts, recent
30 mitochondrial HGT has been suggested between *S. cerevisiae* and *S. paradoxus*.
31 However, few strains have been explored due to the lack of accurate mitochondrial
32 genome annotations. Mitochondrial genome sequences are important to understand how
33 frequent these introgressions occur and their role in cytonuclear incompatibilities. In fact,
34 most of the Bateson-Dobzhansky-Muller genetic incompatibilities described in yeasts are
35 driven by these cytonuclear incompatibilities. In this study, we have explored the
36 mitochondrial inheritance of several worldwide distributed *Saccharomyces* species
37 isolated from different sources and geographic origins. We demonstrated the existence
38 of recombination hotspots in the mitochondrial region *COX2-ORF1*, likely mediated by
39 the transfer of two different types of *ORF1*, encoding a free-standing homing
40 endonuclease, or facilitated by AT tandem repeats and GC clusters. These introgressions
41 were shown to occur both at intra- and interspecific levels. Based on our results we
42 proposed a model which involve several ancestral hybridization events among
43 *Saccharomyces* strains in wild environments.

44

45 *Keywords:* *Saccharomyces*, reticulate evolution, mitochondrial introgression, selfish
46 elements, recombination, interspecies hybridization.

47

48 Introduction

49 Chloroplast and mitochondrial genomes are prone to introgressions and Horizontal
50 Gene Transfers (HGT) (Keeling 2009; Hao et al. 2010), which likely play an important role
51 in the evolution of eukaryotes (Andersson 2009). Mitochondria are involved in multiple
52 cellular processes (Hatefi 1985; Green and Reed 1998; Starkov 2008). In yeasts, around
53 750 nuclear encoded proteins must coordinate with those encoded in the mitochondrial
54 genome (Sickmann et al. 2003). Indeed, a new interdisciplinary field, the “mitonuclear
55 ecology”, is devoted to the study of the evolutionary consequences due to mitonuclear
56 conflicts (Hill 2015).

57 In yeasts, recombination in mitochondrial genomes has been mostly focused on
58 *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Dujon et al. 1974; Birky et al. 1982; Taylor 1986; MacAlpine
59 et al. 1998), the model yeast species in the genus *Saccharomyces* (Hittinger 2013). The
60 mechanism of mitochondrial genome inheritance is well known in *Saccharomyces* (Ling
61 et al. 2007; Basse 2010; Ling et al. 2011); but despite the recently mitochondrial genome
62 characterization of a hundred *S. cerevisiae*, mostly clinical (Wolters et al. 2015), and few
63 *S. paradoxus*, and the detection of mitochondrial introgression between those two species
64 (Wu et al. 2015; Wu and Hao 2015), little is known about the genomic properties of most
65 *Saccharomyces* species.

66 In this study, we inferred the mitochondrial inheritance of 517 *Saccharomyces* strains,
67 as well as 49 natural interspecific hybrids, isolated from different sources and geographic
68 origins, by sequencing a mitochondrial gene, *COX2*. This gene has successfully been
69 used either for phylogenetic purposes (Belloch et al. 2000; Kurtzman and Robnett 2003)
70 or for the identification of mtDNA inheritance (Peris et al. 2012a; Peris et al. 2012b; Badotti
71 et al. 2013; Peris et al. 2014; Pérez-Través et al. 2014; Rodríguez et al. 2014). We
72 extended our work to the downstream gene *ORF1*, an unstudied gene encoding a
73 putative free-standing homing endonuclease. A homing endonuclease gene (HEG) is a
74 selfish element described to evolve neutrally, following three steps: i) invasion of an empty
75 site (HEG⁻) (Colleaux et al. 1986; Burt and Koufopanou 2004), ii) accumulation of
76 mutations generating premature stop codons or invaded by GC clusters which can disrupt
77 their coding frame, iii) and a final loss of the gene (Goddard and Burt 1999). We also
78 sequenced *COX3*, which encodes for cytochrome c oxidase subunit III, to demonstrate

79 the presence of different mitochondrial recombination hotspots in the *COX2-ORF1* region.
80 We suggest molecular mechanisms that drive such recombinations. In addition, we
81 propose a reticulate event model in the *Saccharomyces* mitochondrial genome as a
82 starting hypothesis for future tests, when new complete *Saccharomyces* mitochondrial
83 genomes will be available.

84

85 **Results**

86 ***COX2* shows extensive reticulation among *Saccharomyces* species**

87 To understand the mitochondrial inheritance of worldwide distributed wild and
88 domesticated *Saccharomyces* yeasts (Figure 1), we sequenced and retrieved from public
89 databases, the mitochondrial *COX2* gene sequences, generating a set of 566
90 *Saccharomyces* strain sequences (Table S1). *COX2* sequence alignment contained 80
91 phylogenetically informative positions (see details in Supplementary Text). The *COX2*
92 phylogenetic tree failed to reconstruct the species tree (Figure S1), likely indicating the
93 existence of conflicting data in our sequence alignment. A Median-Joining network
94 showed ten haplogroups, supported by sequence inspection (Figure 2 and S2).
95 *S. cerevisiae* were found in three haplogroups: C1a, C1b and C2. Three haplogroups
96 differentiated *S. paradoxus* populations: P1 (Europe), P2 (America B and C) and P3 (Far
97 East). Two haplogroups for *S. mikatae*: M1 (IFO1815) and M2 (IFO1816). *S. kudriavzevii*
98 strains were split into K1 (European and Asia A - IFO1802) and K2 (IFO1803). Finally,
99 one haplogroup for the rest of species: A (*S. arboricola*, CBS10644), E (*S. eubayanus*)
100 and U (*S. uvarum*).

101 Extensive analysis showed the presence of several recombinant haplotypes among
102 strains from different species (Figure S2). New recombinations were identified in Far
103 Eastern *S. paradoxus* (haplotype 64) and *S. cerevisiae* strains (haplotype 2, 60 and 94)
104 (Figure 2 and S2). We segmented the original *COX2* alignment based on the most
105 common recombination point (Figure S2) and a Neighbor-Net (NN) phylogenetic network
106 was reconstructed for each *COX2* segment (Figure S3). The 5' end segment NN
107 phylonetwork shows a clear differentiation of haplotypes by species with the exception of
108 haplotypes 69, 70 and 71 belonging to American *S. paradoxus*, which share identical
109 sequences with some *S. cerevisiae* strains (Figure S3A). Haplotypes from natural hybrids

110 (haplotypes 78, 79, 87, 88, 89 and 93) and *S. eubayanus* (haplotype 102) still appear in
111 an ambiguous position in the network due to the presence of a different recombination
112 point (Figure S2). The extensive presence of incongruent data found in the 3' end
113 segment of *COX2* (Figure S3B) might be also due to recombination.

114 We were able to define the potential donors of several hybrids (*COX2* haplotypes 87,
115 88, 89), being *S. kudriavzevii* (European or Asian) and a European *S. paradoxus* (Figure
116 S2). Hybrids *S. cerevisiae* x *S. kudriavzevii* isolated from wine (UvCEG) and a dietary
117 supplement (IF6), and *S. cerevisiae* x *S. uvarum* isolated from wine (S6U) inherited an
118 already recombinant mitochondria from *S. cerevisiae* (Figure S2, Table S1). Hybrids
119 *S. eubayanus* x *S. uvarum* and *S. cerevisiae* x *S. eubayanus* (haplotypes 78, 79, 93) were
120 also recombinant between *S. eubayanus* and *S. uvarum*.

121 *S. mikatae* IFO1815 and *S. kudriavzevii* IFO1803 haplotypes were also potentially
122 recombinant (Figure S2). In the case of IFO1803, amino acid sequences indicates a
123 recombination between *S. kudriavzevii* and *S. uvarum*; although, the *S. uvarum* haplotype
124 corresponds to an unknown strain. For *S. mikatae* IFO1815, a potential donor might be a
125 *S. cerevisiae* strain from haplogroup C1b, but its amino acid sequence is similar to
126 IFO1816.

127

128 **All *S. cerevisiae* *COX2* haplogroups are worldwide distributed**

129 The recombination hotspot located in *COX2* makes this gene a good candidate to
130 differentiate closely related strains. Those strains sharing a similar recombination are
131 expected to share an ancestor. To describe the phylogeography of *S. cerevisiae*, we
132 explored the polymorphic *COX2* gene of 418 *S. cerevisiae* from 7 continents, isolated
133 from both human-associated (baking, beer, clinical, laboratory, fermentation, sake, wine
134 and traditional alcoholic beverages) and wild environments (Figure 1, Table S1).

135 An association study among *S. cerevisiae* strain origins and their haplogroup
136 distribution was performed (Figure S4A). Clinical and wine samples were significantly
137 associated with haplogroup C2 (χ^2 test p-values 9.9×10^{-5} and 3×10^{-4} , respectively). We
138 applied a similar approach to infer the distribution of haplogroups taking into account their
139 geographic origins (Figure S4B), revealing that European *S. cerevisiae* strains were
140 highly associated with Haplogroup C2 (χ^2 test p-value 9.9×10^{-5}). No significant

141 distribution bias was observed in the remaining strains, possibly due to the low number
142 of wild isolates in our study.

143

144 **Two types of the putative homing endonuclease *ORF1* define two *S. cerevisiae*** 145 **Haplogroups**

146 To define the extension of the recombination, we sequenced the *ORF1* region from
147 36 strains representative of the most frequent *COX2* haplotypes, exploring a total of
148 seventy-two *ORF1* sequences (Table S1). The presence of *ORF1* gene was confirmed
149 for the six available *Saccharomyces* species, indicating its broad dissemination across
150 the genus. *ORF1* length was found to be highly polymorphic among strains and species,
151 mostly due to differing content of AT-rich tandem repeats and GC clusters (see
152 Supplementary Text, Figure S5), with lengths ranging from 1.3kbp (ZA17) to 1.5kbp
153 (VRB).

154 The *ORF1* phylogenetic tree (Figure S5) conflicts with the species tree (Figure S1),
155 indicating a potential HGT from one species to another or the presence of recombinant
156 sequences. To visualize the presence of conflicting data in the alignment, we
157 reconstructed a NN phylogenetic network (Figure 3). Two groups of sequences were
158 visualized in this network: the Type I group contains most *Saccharomyces ORF1*
159 sequences, except for sequences of *S. kudriavzevii*. The Type II group is comprised of
160 *S. cerevisiae* haplotypes from the *COX2* haplogroup C2 and the sequence of the Far
161 Eastern *S. paradoxus* CECT11152 (M51, syn. IFO1804), isolated from Far East Russia,
162 which also appeared as having a recombinant *COX2* (Figure S2 and S3). Haplotypes
163 corresponding to strains of *S. cerevisiae*, some European and Far Eastern *S. paradoxus*,
164 and *S. kudriavzevii*, as well as some hybrids, were located in an ambiguous position in
165 the phylonetwork, between the two main *ORF1* groups (Type I and Type II), suggesting
166 they correspond to recombinant forms.

167 Recombinant analyses, performed with both *RDP* and *GARD* programs, supported the
168 presence of four partitions. A Kishino-Hasegawa test of phylogenetic congruence
169 indicated that phylogenetic trees from each partition were incongruent with each other.
170 The best partition model was 4 partitions ($\Delta AICc$ 143.724), and for each breakpoint the
171 p-value was below 0.01. However, *RDP* and *GARD* disagreed with the location of the

172 second breakpoint due to the presence of different recombinant points, depending on the
173 strain (Figure S6 and S7B). Some recombination breakpoints were located close to A+T-
174 rich sequences or GC clusters (see Supplementary text, Figure 4). One of the
175 recombination points was just on the beginning of the second LAGLIDADG domain of the
176 encoded homing endonuclease (Figure 4). At least one of the recombinant events
177 involved some of the haplotypes located in the ORF1 phylogeny in-between the two main
178 types (Figure S6 and S7). Further recombinations between Type I x Type I, Type I x Type
179 II and Type II x Type II were detected (Figure S6 and S7).

180 Data indicates a recent recombination event between *ORF1* from *S. kudriavzevii* and
181 Far Eastern *S. paradoxus*, supported by the high identity among *S. kudriavzevii* and Far
182 Eastern *S. paradoxus* (CECT11422 and CECT11424) *ORF1* amino acid sequences for
183 two segments of the alignment (Figure S6 and S7). For example, the genetic distance for
184 the second region was: 1.1% (*S.par* FE-*S.kud* IFO1802) and 2.4% (*S. par* FE-*S.kud* EU),
185 much lower compared to the nuclear genetic differences, 13.66% and 13.55%,
186 respectively, and when it was compared to the fourth *ORF1* segment (Figure S6 and S7):
187 46.05% (*S. par* FE-*S.kud* IFO1802) and 47.91% (*S.par* FE-*S.kud* EU).

188 Particular attention must be given to the strains CECT11757 and L1528,
189 representative of the C2xP3 recombinant COX2 haplogroup. Their COX2 sequence
190 suggested that their *ORF1* sequence should be closely related to type II; however, their
191 *ORF1* sequence in fact was related to type I. This result suggests a second recombination
192 event occurred in L1528, which recombinant *ORF1* contains a type II sequence from the
193 second to the last segment (Figure S6 and S7). However, the case of CECT11757 *ORF1*
194 seems more complex. This *ORF1* is a type I closely related to that from European
195 *S. paradoxus*, which suggests a second recombination event with a European
196 *S. paradoxus* *ORF1* while maintaining the typical COX2 3' end region of a Far Eastern
197 *S. paradoxus*. Another scenario might be that COX2 3' end is under a different substitution
198 rate driving to homoplasy in that region, according to a "patchy-tachy" model (Sun et al.
199 2011). For this reason we extended the analysis to the *ORF1* region, where most of the
200 recombinations were well supported by the invasion of *ORF1* or mediated by highly
201 recombinogenic regions.

203 **COX3 supports a mtDNA transfer from *S. cerevisiae* to American *S. paradoxus***
204 **strains and HGT/introgression in the *COX2-ORF1* region**

205 To improve the species assignment based on a mitochondrial gene, we sequenced
206 the *COX3* gene for those strains representative of the most frequent *COX2* haplotypes
207 (Table S1). The selection of *COX3* for species assignment was based on its lack of introns
208 or an overlapping homing endonuclease, minimizing a potential recombinant scenario.

209 The *COX3* NJ phylogenetic tree was congruent with the species tree (Figure S1 and
210 S8), except for American *S. paradoxus*. In addition, the position of *S. mikatae* was not
211 well resolved. The *COX3* MJ phylogenetic network assigned species by haplogroups
212 (Figure 5). We could not define the *S. eubayanus* haplogroup because its *COX3*
213 sequence was not available. We found a high number of nucleotide substitutions in the
214 *S. cerevisiae* *COX3* sequences retrieved from *Saccharomyces* Genome Resequencing
215 Project (SGRP) (H4, H9-11), indicative of assembling errors in these mitochondrial
216 genomes; nevertheless, the topologies of the MJ network and the NJ tree were not
217 affected.

218 The CECT11152 *COX3* sequence was located within *S. paradoxus* haplogroup. This
219 result confirms an HGT event involving the 3' end *COX2* and *ORF1* region (Figure S3B),
220 but not affecting the rest of the mitochondrial genome (Figure S8). A similar conclusion is
221 reached for *S. cerevisiae* x *S. kudriavzevii* hybrids (CECT1102, CECT11011,
222 CECT1990), where most of the mitochondrial genome is from *S. kudriavzevii*. The two
223 representative strains from the *COX2* haplogroup C2 (L1528 and CECT11757) possess
224 an *ORF1* closely related to the European *S. paradoxus* CECT10380 but have a *S.*
225 *cerevisiae* *COX3* sequence type, supporting another HGT for the *COX2-ORF1* region
226 (Figure 5 and S8).

227 Our two representatives from the American *S. paradoxus*, 120MX and CBS5313,
228 displaying an identical 5' end *COX2* segment sequence to *S. cerevisiae* sequences
229 (Figure S2A), also had a *COX3* sequence closely related to the *S. cerevisiae* haplogroup.
230 The *COX3* haplotype 17 of 120MX was identical to *S. cerevisiae* *COX3* sequences
231 (Figure 5 and S8). This result suggests that the American *S. paradoxus* likely inherited a
232 mitochondrial genome from *S. cerevisiae*.

233

234 Discussion

235 Recombinations in the *COX2-ORF1* region might be mediated by *ORF1*, GC clusters 236 and/or AT tandem repeats.

237 Evidence of intraspecific mitochondrial recombination among *S. cerevisiae* strains has
238 been shown (Dujon et al. 1974; Nunnari et al. 1997; Berger and Yaffe 2000). Indeed, a
239 complete DNA recombination map in *S. cerevisiae* has been recently drawn (Fritsch et
240 al. 2014). Mitochondrial recombination is initiated by a double-strand break (DSB)
241 generated and resolved by mainly four nuclear encoded proteins (Lockshon et al. 1995;
242 Ling and Shibata 2002; Ling et al. 2007; Ling et al. 2013) and it can be facilitated by the
243 mitochondrial genome architecture, presence of GC clusters, or by the mobility of
244 mitochondrial elements, such as introns or homing endonucleases (Dieckmann and
245 Gandy 1987; Séraphin et al. 1987; Yang et al. 1998). We found that two *COX2*
246 *S. cerevisiae* and *S. paradoxus* groups of sequences are mainly driven by the presence
247 of two highly divergent *ORF1* gene sequences, type I and type II. The presence of two
248 clear *COX2* groups might be the result of the *ORF1* invasion.

249 A recent study, where fourteen *S. cerevisiae* and *S. paradoxus* mitochondrial
250 genomes were sequenced, found HGTs between those two species mainly facilitated by
251 GC clusters (Wu et al. 2015; Wu and Hao 2015). Our results showed recombination
252 breakpoints close to GC clusters and AT tandem repeats in wild *Saccharomyces* strains,
253 supporting that these genomic elements are facilitating mitochondrial recombination
254 events. All these three elements, GC clusters, AT tandem repeats and homing
255 endonucleases might be responsible of facilitating recombination in mitochondria.

256 The clearest example of *ORF1* transfer was between Far Eastern *S. paradoxus*
257 CECT11152 and *S. cerevisiae*, which is in agreement to the described HGT of GC cluster
258 GC48 between *S. cerevisiae* and IFO1804 (CECT11152) (Wu and Hao 2015), suggesting
259 that both transfers likely occurred at the same time. For this reason, we propose that
260 *ORF1* is a likely functional homing endonuclease similar to other *S. cerevisiae* free-
261 standing homing endonucleases, such as *ORF3* (*ENS2*) (Séraphin et al. 1987; Nakagawa
262 et al. 1992). Following nomenclature rules (Belfort and Roberts 1997), we suggest
263 renaming *ORF1* to F-Scell α or F-Scell β for *S. cerevisiae* and replacing the last two
264 letters with the corresponding first two letters for each species *ORF1*, where “F” stands

265 for freestanding homing endonuclease, “S” for *Saccharomyces*, “ce” for *cerevisiae* and III
266 because F-Scel and F-Scell are designated for Endo.Scel (*ENS2*, *ORF3*) and HO endo,
267 respectively. The type I and type II group membership is designated by using a suffix α
268 and β , respectively.

269

270 **Wine *S. cerevisiae* domestication bottleneck fixed a mitochondrial variant**

271 Wild *Saccharomyces* yeasts reproduce mainly by mitotic divisions (Tsai et al. 2008;
272 Liti et al. 2009); however, some industrial strains have been shown to be hybrids
273 (Lopandic et al. 2007; González et al. 2008; Sipiczki 2008; Dunn and Sherlock 2008;
274 Peris et al. 2012c; Pérez-Través et al. 2014) or experienced some degree of sexual
275 mating with closely related or fairly distant species, as it is supported by the presence of
276 nuclear genome introgressions (Liti et al. 2006; Novo et al. 2009; Dunn et al. 2012;
277 Almeida et al. 2014). The result of hybridization and HGT in industrial conditions can be
278 adaptive (Belloch et al. 2008; Gibson et al. 2013). Most of these studies have been
279 focused in the nuclear genome, but little is known about the mitochondrial genotype of
280 wild and industrial strains.

281 The low mutation rate of yeast’s mitochondrial coding sequences (Clark-Walker 1991)
282 and assembling method improvements are turning the attention to the mitochondria,
283 which have been recently used to estimate time divergence among
284 *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* strains (Jeffares et al. 2015), and to infer the population
285 structure of 100 *S. cerevisiae* (Wolters et al. 2015). Although the presence of
286 recombinations or the utilization of highly polymorphic sequences is not well suited for
287 time divergence estimation, mitochondrial sequence is useful for tracing evolutionary
288 relationships between closely related strains (Bartelli et al. 2013; Wolters et al. 2015).

289 Two independent *S. cerevisiae* domestication events from wild isolates have been
290 inferred (Legras et al. 2007), one for sake and another for wine strains (Fay and
291 Benavides 2005; Liti et al. 2009; Schacherer et al. 2009). Indeed, *S. cerevisiae* wine
292 domestication is attributed to be originated in the Near East (Fay and Benavides 2005;
293 Liti et al. 2009) probably from the wild *S. cerevisiae* stock from the Asian continent (Wang
294 et al. 2012). The high frequency of European wine strains with haplogroup C2 suggests
295 that the bottleneck during the domestication to winemaking fixed few *COX2* variants from

296 haplogroup C2. At the nuclear level, similar results were observed for the wine/European
297 strains (Liti et al. 2009; Schacherer et al. 2009). Most clinical samples are derived from
298 wine isolates, as the mitochondrial haplogroup indicate, in agreement with previous
299 results of the 100 *S. cerevisiae* project (Strope et al. 2015; Wolters et al. 2015). With the
300 expansion of domesticated wine *S. cerevisiae* strains together with vineyards throughout
301 Europe by Phoenicians and Romans, and the migration to America after European
302 colonization, these wine *S. cerevisiae* *ORF1* sequences were able to recombine with
303 other *S. cerevisiae* *ORF1* sequences. Wild and wine *S. cerevisiae* crosses might have
304 been possible, as wine isolates have been found in oak trees close to vineyards (Hyma
305 and Fay 2013). It is also clear how in the case of the dietary supplement and wine hybrids
306 *S. cerevisiae* x *S. kudriavzevii* (IF6 and UvCEG) and a winemaking hybrid *S. cerevisiae*
307 x *S. uvarum* (S6U) inherited a recombinant mitochondria from *S. cerevisiae* strains mostly
308 associated with wine from Europe, South America and Africa. Before hybridization of *S.*
309 *cerevisiae* with other *Saccharomyces* species to generate the IF6/UvCEG and S6U
310 hybrids, *S. cerevisiae* was introgressed with Far Eastern *S. paradoxus*, likely before
311 migrating to Europe (Figure 6). Introgressions occurring before hybridization might be
312 also a potential scenario for some other hybrids, such as *S. cerevisiae* x *S. kudriavzevii*
313 hybrids which showed introgressions from European *S. paradoxus* (Peris et al. 2012a) or
314 introgressions from European *S. uvarum* into mitochondria of *S. cerevisiae* x *S.*
315 *eubayanus* hybrids (Peris et al. 2014).

316 The impact of the haplogroup C2 on the winemaking process is of interest to
317 understand the domestication of *S. cerevisiae*. Interestingly, most of our hybrids have
318 inherited a non-*cerevisiae* mitochondrial genome (Peris et al. 2012a; Peris et al. 2012b;
319 Peris et al. 2014; Pérez-Través et al. 2014). Previous work (Warren *et al.* 2013) has
320 demonstrated how the inheritance of one of the parental mitochondrial genomes impacts
321 respiration in hybrids, highlighting the importance of taking into account the fixation of the
322 mtDNA during the generation of artificial hybrids for specific industrial processes.

323

324 **Introgressions might influence diversification**

325 All potential transfers detected in our study are summarized in Figure 6 which is a
326 starting point to model mitochondrial introgressions in *Saccharomyces* genus. Some

327 particular *Saccharomyces* lineages have some degree of introgression, such as *S.*
328 *kudriavzevii* Asia B, *S. kudriavzevii* Asia A and European and *S. mikatae* IFO1815.

329 The clearest and most interesting introgression was detected in all American *S.*
330 *paradoxus* from populations B and C. These strains have a COX2 sequence with a closely
331 related 5' end to *S. cerevisiae* from haplogroup C1, and the two selected representative
332 strains (120MX and CBS5313) shared a COX3 sequence with *S. cerevisiae* strains.
333 Recent evidence of phylogenetic tree incongruence among *S. cerevisiae* and American
334 population B *S. paradoxus* YPS138 (Leducq et al. 2014) strain was also detected (Wu et
335 al. 2015), supporting our hypothesis. Our results indicate that the American *S. paradoxus*
336 has inherited the mtDNA from *S. cerevisiae*. Indeed, a recent study has described a
337 *S. cerevisiae* from an unknown source with a mitochondrial genome closely related to
338 *S. paradoxus* CBS432 (Wolters et al. 2015), which supports the hypothesis that wild
339 strains can survive with foreign mitochondrial genomes. The increase of new isolates
340 resulting from the improvement of isolation methods (Sampaio and Gonçalves 2008;
341 Sylvester et al. 2015), along with the application of new methods for assembling
342 mitochondrial genome will shed light about other American *S. paradoxus* mitochondrial
343 inheritance and the extension of mitochondrial introgressions among other species. The
344 presence of a foreign mitochondrial genome brings the question is mitochondrial
345 introgression has an influence in the diversification of species. We have previously shown
346 how hybrid *S. cerevisiae* x *S. kudriavzevii* strains inheriting a mitochondrial genome from
347 *S. cerevisiae* are more prone to lose *S. kudriavzevii* genes (Peris et al. 2012c) suggesting
348 an evolutionary constriction due to the proper coordination of nuclear genes with
349 mitochondrial genes. Nonetheless, most of Bateson-Dobzhansky-Muller incompatibilities
350 are between nuclear and mitochondrial genes (Lee et al. 2008; Chou et al. 2010; Hou et
351 al. 2015). In this way, the accommodation of nuclear genome to this new mitochondrial
352 genome might drive the diversification of American *S. paradoxus* from the other *S.*
353 *paradoxus* lineages.

354

355 **Mitochondrial introgressions as evidence of ancestral hybridization events in wild**
356 **environments**

357 *Saccharomyces* double and triple hybrids have been isolated from many different
358 industrial conditions, such as “ale” and lager beer, wine, cider, dietary supplements
359 (Casaregola et al. 2001; Barros Lopes et al. 2002; González et al. 2008; Peris et al.
360 2012a; Pérez-Través et al. 2014) and clinical samples (Peris et al. 2012a). However,
361 hybrids have not been isolated from natural samples, suggesting that hybridization is only
362 occurring in artificial conditions where hybrids are better adapted to those stressful
363 environments (Belloch et al. 2008) by the acquisition of beneficial traits from the parents
364 (Peris et al. 2012c; Gibson et al. 2013). HGT between *S. cerevisiae* and *S. paradoxus*
365 may be mediated by the formation of heterokaryons due to pseudohyphae formation of
366 *Saccharomyces* strains found in sympatric association (Wu et al. 2015), such as *S.*
367 *cerevisiae*, *S. paradoxus* and *S. kudriavzevii* in Europe (Sampaio and Gonçalves 2008).
368 However, we cannot rule-out a complete hybridization with a rapid loss of one of the
369 parent genomes by outcrossings with the non-hybridized sibling strains. The diversity of
370 *S. cerevisiae* x *S. kudriavzevii* hybrids (Peris et al. 2012a), most of them with lower
371 *S. kudriavzevii* genome content, suggests a rapid loss of *S. kudriavzevii* genes after
372 hybridization while keeping traits important for low temperature fermentations (Peris et al.
373 2012c). In addition, several introgressions involving most *Saccharomyces* species
374 suggest some gene flow among them (Liti et al. 2005; Muller and McCusker 2009;
375 Almeida et al. 2014) that supports hybridization events in natural environments. Our study
376 suggests that Asia is a hotspot of these hybridization events and that hybridization might
377 be influenced by the presence of all *Saccharomyces* species, as the Asian origin model
378 suggests (Bing et al. 2014; Liti 2015).

379

380 **Material and Methods**

381 ***Saccharomyces* strains and culture media**

382 A collection of 517 *Saccharomyces* strains and 49 natural hybrids, worldwide
383 distributed (Figure 1, Table S1), were used in this study. Species assignment for each
384 strain was delimited by different authors using molecular techniques, such as the
385 sequencing of 5.8S-ITS region, Random Fragment Length Polymorphisms (RFLP), a
386 multilocus sequence approach or whole genome sequencing (Table S1). Hybrids were
387 mostly characterized on the basis of restriction analysis of 35 different nuclear genes

388 (González et al. 2008; Peris et al. 2012a; Peris et al. 2012b; Pérez-Través et al. 2014).
389 *Naumovozyma castellii* sequences were included as outgroup references to root
390 phylogenetic trees. Yeast strains were grown at 28 °C in YPD (2% glucose, 2% peptone
391 and 1% yeast extract).

392

393 **PCR amplification, sequencing and gene alignments**

394 Total yeast DNA was extracted following the procedure described by Querol *et al.*
395 (1992). Partial gene sequence (585bp) of the mitochondrial gene *COX2* was amplified by
396 PCR using the primers described in Belloch *et al.* (2000). *COX3* and *ORF1* gene
397 sequences were amplified and sequenced, using primers described in Table S2, for
398 seventy-two *Saccharomyces* strains, representatives of the most frequent *COX2*
399 haplotypes (Table S1). For the sequencing of *ORF1* we followed a primer walking
400 approach (Figure 4). *ORF1* gene amplification from IFO1815 failed to be amplified, and
401 the reference *S. eubayanus* strain yHCT76 was not available in the period of this study.
402 Sequences were deposited in GenBank under Accession nos. JN676363-JN676823 and
403 JN709044-JN709115. Gene sequence accession numbers from previously sequenced
404 strains are shown in Table S1. Sequences from *S. cerevisiae* strains from the
405 *Saccharomyces* Genome Resequencing Project (SGRP) were retrieve using the blast
406 server (http://www.sanger.ac.uk/cgi-bin/blast/submitblast/s_cerevisiae_sgrp). A PSI-
407 Blast search was run to retrieve *ORF1* sequences from the closest sequences of non-
408 *Saccharomyces* species.

409 *COX2* and *COX3* sequences were aligned using CLUSTALW, as implemented in MEGA
410 v5 (Tamura et al. 2011), and manually trimmed. For *ORF1* we used MUSCLE (Edgar 2004)
411 to align the aminoacid sequences and the nucleotide sequence alignment was further
412 refined by visual inspection in Jalview 4.0b2 (Waterhouse et al. 2009).

413

414 ***COX2*, *ORF1* and *COX3* haplotype classification, and *COX2* genetic diversity**

415 DnaSP v5 (Librado and Rozas 2009) was used to calculate the number of haplotypes
416 of *COX2*, *ORF1* and *COX3* and genetic statistics of *COX2*, such as the number of
417 polymorphic sites(s), average number of differences between sequences (k), nucleotide
418 diversity (π) and haplotype diversity (H_d) based on the species designation.

419

420 **Phylogenetic analysis and detection of recombination**

421 *COX2*, *ORF1* and *COX3* phylogenetic trees reconstructed using the Neighbor-Joining
422 (NJ) methods was performed in MEGA v5 (Tamura et al. 2011), performing 10000
423 pseudoreplicates bootstrapping for branch support. *COX2* and *COX3* median joining
424 networks were reconstructed using PopART v1.7.2b (<http://popart.otago.ac.nz>). *COX2*
425 and *ORF1* Neighbor-Net phylogenetic networks were also reconstructed using
426 SplitsTree v4 (Huson and Bryant 2006) to explore the presence of incongruence in
427 our dataset.

428 An alignment with representative sequences of each *COX2* haplotype was used as
429 an input for RDPv3.44 (Martin et al. 2010) to detect and define recombination points.
430 Recombination points detected by two or more methods implemented in RDPv3.44 were
431 considered significant, applying a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons.
432 Although, different recombination points were detected, we defined two *COX2* segments
433 using the most frequent recombinant sites. *COX2* gene was divided into two segments
434 referred as 5'-end (positions 1-496 in the alignment [124-620 in the reference *COX2* gene
435 sequence from the S288c strain, SGD ID: S000007281]) and 3'-end (from 497-end of
436 alignment [621-708 in the reference *COX2* sequence]). The Maximum Likelihood
437 phylogenetic trees for both *COX2* segments was reconstructed with the best fitted
438 models, inferred using jModeltest (Posada 2008). Tree Puzzle v5.2 (Schmidt et
439 al. 2002) was used to test the phylogenetic congruence of the two inferred phylogenetic
440 trees to the species *Saccharomyces* phylogenetic tree topology (Borneman and Pretorius
441 2015). The statistical significance of these comparisons was performed by the
442 Shimodaira-Hasegawa (Shimodaira and Hasegawa 1999) and ELW (Expected-
443 Likelihood Weights) (Strimmer and Rambaut 2002) tests.

444 A concatenated alignment of *COX2* position 621 to the end and the partial *ORF1*
445 sequences was generated. Indels, mostly due to AT repetitive regions, and GC clusters
446 were removed. For the detection of recombinant sites we followed the approach
447 described above. Four segments were described for the most frequent recombinant
448 points. First segment (224bp) takes the *COX2* region and the 246 nucleotide positions of
449 *ORF1* (corresponding to nucleotide 292 in the S288c *ORF1* gene, SGD ID: S000007282).

450 The last *COX2* nineteen nucleotides are the first *ORF1* nucleotides, both CDS are
451 overlapped. The second segment takes 247 to 644 position of *ORF1* (from 203-704 in
452 S288c *ORF1*), the third was built from 64 to 920 (706-980 in S288c), and the forth from
453 921 to the end of the alignment (981-1435 in S288c). Recombinant segments were also
454 supported by the GARD (Genetic Algorithm Recombination Detection) method
455 implemented in *Datamonkey* (Delport et al. 2010), which also perform a Kishino-
456 Hasegawa test (Kishino and Hasegawa 1989).

457 The species tree was reconstructed by using a concatenated alignment of *RIP1*,
458 *MET2* and *FUN14*, generated with *FASCONCAT* v1.0 (Kück and Meusemann 2010). Gene
459 sequences were retrieved from Genbank, blast searches against SGRP *S. cerevisiae*
460 sequences and *S. arboricola* online blast database
461 (<http://www.moseslab.csb.utoronto.ca/sarb/blast/>), or blast searches to local databases
462 generated with the *Saccharomyces Sensu Stricto* (SSS) genomes
463 ([http://www.saccharomycessensustricto.org/cgi-bin/s3.cgi?data=Assemblies&version](http://www.saccharomycessensustricto.org/cgi-bin/s3.cgi?data=Assemblies&version=current)
464 [=current](http://www.saccharomycessensustricto.org/cgi-bin/s3.cgi?data=Assemblies&version=current)). A Maximum-Likelihood (ML) phylogenetic tree was inferred using *RAxML* v8
465 (Stamatakis 2014) by performing 100 heuristic searches for the best gene tree, which
466 branches were bootstrap supported by 1000 pseudosamples.

467

468 **Statistical analysis**

469 χ^2 test for detecting bias distributions of *S. cerevisiae* strains by country or isolation
470 source among the *COX2* haplogroups was performed in R statistical package (Adler and
471 Murdoch D 2009). p-values were replicated 10000 times by a Monte Carlo simulation.

472

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484

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720

721 **Figure Legends**

722 **Figure 1. *Saccharomyces* worldwide distribution map.** *Saccharomyces* strains were
723 colored according to the species designation or the hybrid character (Table S1). Highly
724 sampled regions were zoom in, for better resolution.

725 **Figure 2. *COX2* Median-Joining phylogenetic network.** A hundred and ten *COX2*
726 haplotypes (Table S1) were represented by circles. Circles sizes are scaled according to
727 the haplotype frequency. Pie charts show the frequency of each species in that particular
728 haplotype. Number of mutations from one haplotype to another are indicated by lines in
729 the edges connecting haplotypes.

730 **Figure 3. *ORF1* Neighbor-Net phylonetwork.** The phylonetwork differentiated two
731 groups of *ORF1* sequences, type I and type II. Haplotypes for *ORF1* are represented with
732 M[number] according to Table S1. Haplotype numbers are colored according to the
733 species having them. Scale is given in nucleotide substitution per site.

734 **Figure 4. *COX2-ORF1* mitochondrial region scheme.** A representation of the region
735 *COX2-ORF1* was shown. Homing endonuclease domains were indicated by empty
736 arrows. Primer names and their targets are shown by arrows. Compatible primers are
737 indicated by showing identical arrow types. Location of GC clusters and AT tandem
738 repeats are drawn. Strains and haplotypes containing GC clusters and AT tandem
739 repeats are indicated in Table S3, Figure S5 and S9. *COX2* and *ORF1* coding sequences
740 are overlapped and represented by the grey region.

741 **Figure 5. *COX3* Median-Joining phylogenetic network.** Thirty-four *COX3* haplotypes
742 (Table S1) were represented by circles. Circles sizes are scaled according to the number
743 of sequences in a haplotype. Pie charts show the frequency of each species in that

744 particular haplotype. Asterisks indicate haplotype sequences with nucleotide errors.
745 Number of mutations from one haplotype to another are indicated by lines in the edges
746 connecting haplotypes.

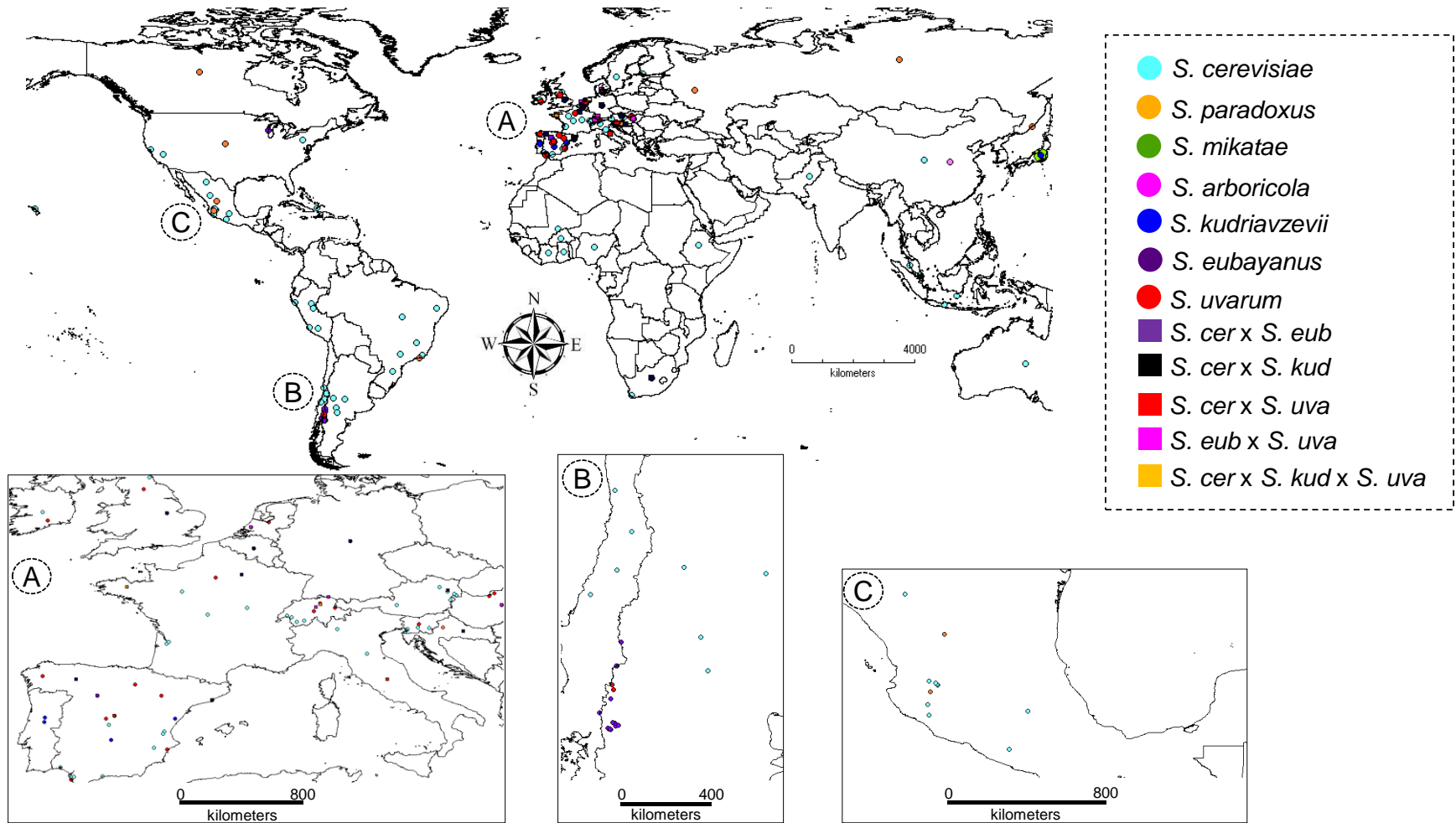
747 **Figure 6. A summary model of potential *COX2-ORF1* introgression in wild**
748 **environments and during domestication.** A starting model of potential introgressions
749 in *Saccharomyces* is described. Black, light blue, orange, green, dark blue, pink, red and
750 purple yeasts represent the yeast ancestors, *S. cerevisiae*, *S. paradoxus*, *S. mikatae*,
751 *S. kudriavzevii*, *S. arboricola*, *S. uvarum* and *S. eubayanus* yeasts, respectively. Small
752 circles inside yeasts represent the mtDNA, which is colored according to the species
753 designation. A *S. paradoxus* yeast with a blue small circle indicates an inheritance of
754 mtDNA from *S. cerevisiae*. Red, green or red/green boxes represent type I, type II or
755 recombinant *ORF1* sequences, respectively. A question tag indicates dubious scenario,
756 unknown *ORF1* or unknown mtDNA sequence due to the absence of *COX3* sequence to
757 support the mtDNA inheritance.

758

759 **Tables and Figures**

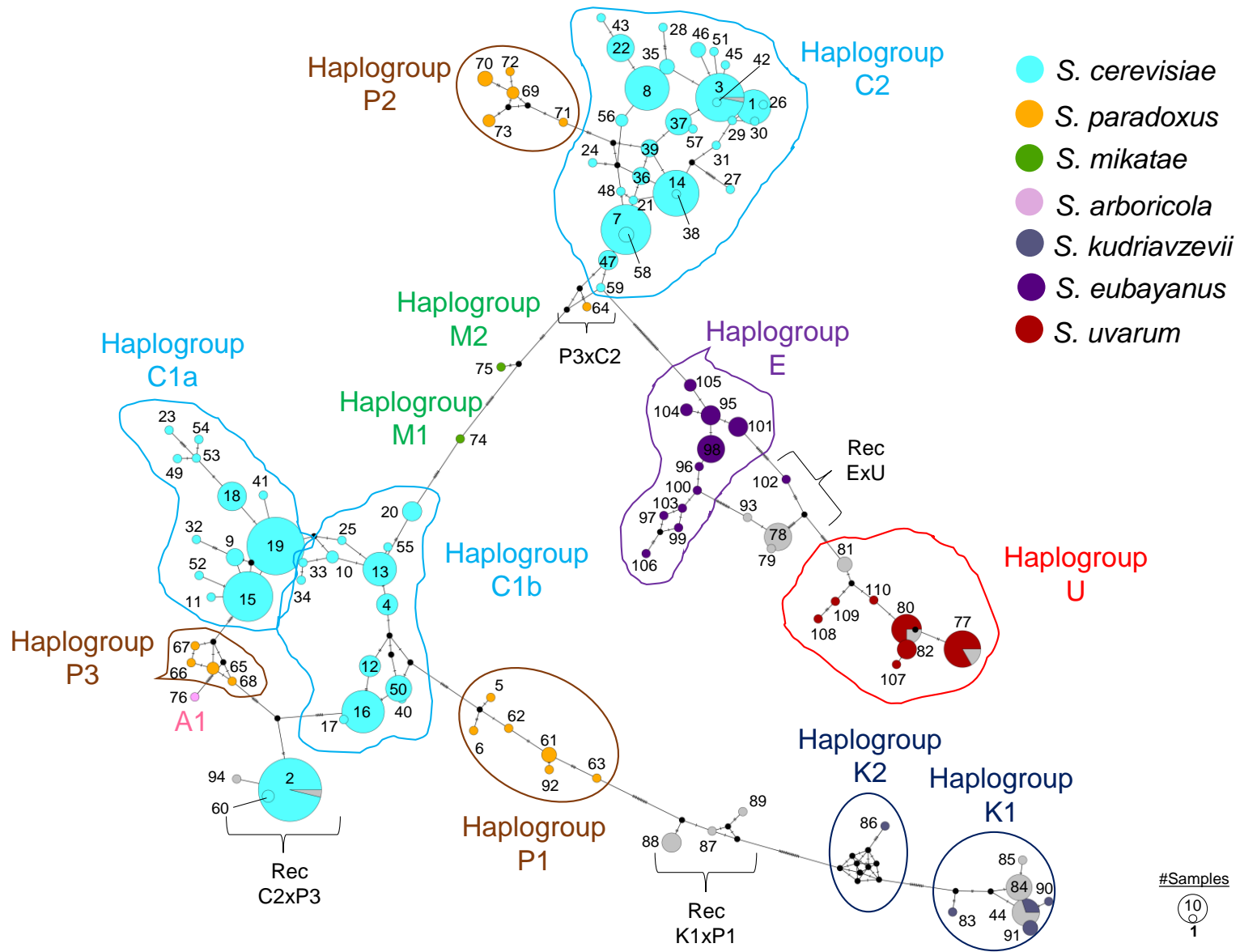
760

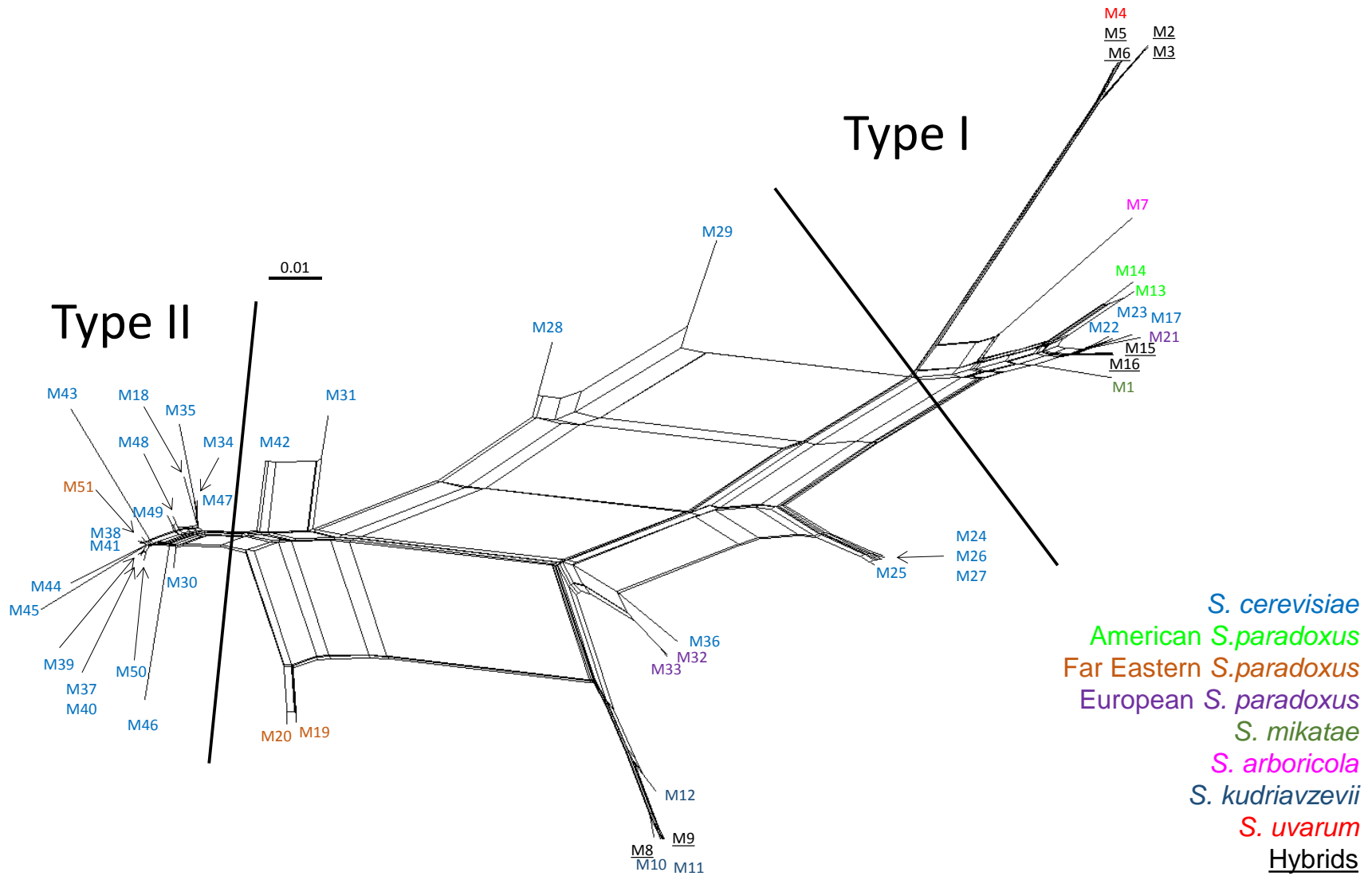
761 **Figure 1**



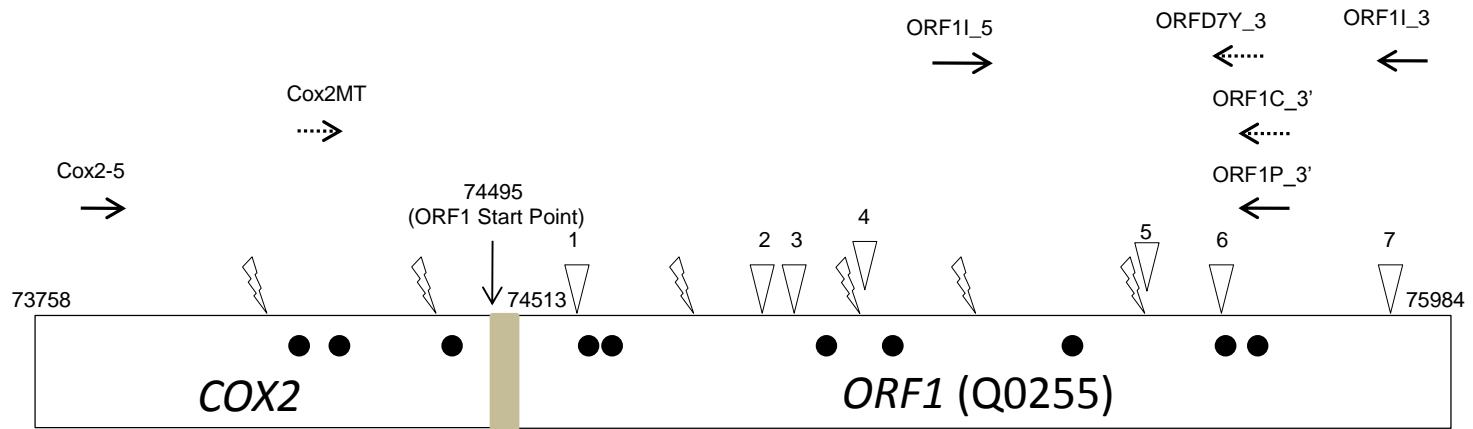
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769 **Figure 4**



-  GC Cluster Insertion
-  Recombination point
-  A+T Tandem repeats

770

771

