Repeated loss of function at HD mating-type genes and of recombination

suppression without mating-type locus linkage in anther-smut fungi

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ABSTRACT

A wide diversity of mating systems occur in nature, with frequent evolutionary transitions in mating-compatibility mechanisms. Basidiomycete fungi typically have two mating-type loci controlling mating compatibility, HD and PR, usually residing on different chromosomes. In *Microbotryum* anther-smut fungi, there have been repeated events of linkage between the two mating-type loci through chromosome fusions, leading to large non-recombining regions. By generating high-quality genome assemblies, we found that two sister *Microbotryum* species parasitizing *Dianthus* plants, *M. superbum* and *M. shykoffianum*, as well as the distantly related *M. scorzonarae*, have their HD and PR mating-type loci on different chromosomes, but with the PR mating-type chromosome fused with part of the ancestral HD chromosome. Furthermore, progressive extensions of recombination suppression have generated evolutionary strata. In all three species, rearrangements suggest the existence of a transient stage of HD-PR linkage by whole chromosome fusion, and, unexpectedly, the HD genes lost their function. In *M. superbum*, multiple natural diploid strains were homozygous, and the disrupted HD2 gene was hardly expressed. Mating tests confirmed that a single genetic factor controlled mating compatibility (i.e. PR) and that haploid strains with identical HD alleles could mate and produce infectious hyphae. The HD genes have therefore lost their function in the control of mating compatibility in these *Microbotryum* species. While the loss of function of PR genes in mating compatibility has been reported in a few basidiomycete fungi, these are the first documented cases for the loss of mating-type determination by HD genes in heterothallic fungi. The control of mating compatibility by a single genetic factor is beneficial under selfing and can thus be achieved repeatedly, through evolutionary convergence in distant lineages, involving different genomic or similar pathways.

INTRODUCTION

Mating systems, corresponding to the degree of selfing/outcrossing, influence gene flow, genetic load and adaptability in natural populations[1,2,3,4,5,6,7]. A wide diversity of mating systems occur in nature, controlled by mating compatibility systems (e.g. separate sexes or mating types), with frequent evolutionary transitions between these systems[5,8,9,10,11]. In many animals and dioecious plants, different sexes are determined by sex chromosomes[12]. In hermaphrodite plants, mating compatibility is often controlled by a self-incompatibility locus, which prevents mating between identical alleles at this locus[13]. In fungi with mating types, gamete compatibility is controlled at the haploid stage, where only cells with different mating types can successfully mate[14,15], mating types being determined by one or two loci[16], the systems being then called uni- and bifactorial, respectively. There have been multiple transitions in fungi for changes in the number of loci controlling mating types, between one, two or even none, i.e., lack of discrimination for mating[8,15].

Recombination is typically suppressed at loci determining sexes and mating types, which ensures proper function in these complex phenotypes. Recombination suppression has furthermore often extended stepwise outward from these mating-compatibility loci in plants, animals and fungi[17,18,19,20,21,22,23,24], and the reason why is still debated[23,25]. It has long been accepted that recombination suppression extended on sex chromosomes because it was beneficial to link sexually antagonistic genes (i.e., with an allele being beneficial in only one sex) to the sex-determining locus[26]. However, little evidence could be found in favor of this hypothesis[27], and it cannot explain the stepwise extension of recombination suppression on fungal mating-type chromosomes, as they lack sexual antagonism and other kinds of antagonistic selection[17,23,28].

Other hypotheses have therefore been developed, in order to account for the ubiquity of stepwise extension of recombination suppression on sex-related chromosomes: the neutral accumulation of sequence divergence proximal to the mating-compatibility locus that would reduce recombination rates[29], the spread of transposable elements adjacent to the non-recombining mating-compatibility locus, together with their epigenetic marks[30], or the selection of non-recombining fragments carrying fewer deleterious mutations than the population average while having their load sheltered by a permanently heterozygous allele[31-33].

Following recombination suppression, Muller's ratchet and Hill-Robertson effect[34,35] lead to
genomic degeneration, in terms of gene losses, weaker gene expression, lower frequencies of
optimal codons, and transposable element accumulation[36,37,38,39,40,41]. Rearrangements also
rapidly accumulate[17,18,42], so that recombination can be challenging to restore after the non-
recombining fragments have become highly degenerated[31,33].

Basidiomycete fungi typically have two mating-type loci controlling mating compatibility[16]:
the PR locus, controlling pre-mating fusion with pheromone and pheromone receptor genes,
and the HD locus, controlling post-mating dikaryotic growth with two homeodomain genes
whose products heterodimerize to form an active transcription factor[43]. These two loci are
usually on different chromosomes and may harbor multiple alleles. Some basidiomycetes in
contrast are unifactorial, i.e. with a single segregating unit controlling mating type, which is
caused most often by HD-PR linkage, as in the crop pathogen *Ustilago hordei*[44] and human
pathogens *Malassezia spp*[45,46], or more rarely by the loss of mating-compatibility role by the
PR locus, as in the mushrooms *Coprinellus disseminatus*[47] and *Volvariella volvacea*[48]. A loss
of mating-compatibility role by the HD locus has only been observed so far in experimental
mutants with their two HD genes fused[49].

Microbotryum fungi (Basidiomycota) are plant-castrating pathogens, producing their spores in
the anthers of diseased plants and therefore called anther-smut fungi. Most *Microbotryum*
species specialized on one or a few host plants[50,51,52,53]. *Microbotryum* fungi are model
organisms in as diverse fields as ecology, disease transmission, host specialization and
reproductive isolation evolution, host-pathogen costructure, mating system and sex-related
chromosome evolution[51,53,54,55,56,57,58,59,60,61,62]. *Microbotryum* fungi mostly undergo selfing
via intra-tetrad mating[58,63,64], in which case carrying a single segregating mating-type locus is
advantageous because it maximizes the odds of gamete compatibility[17]. *Microbotryum* fungi
have in fact repeatedly evolved HD-PR linkage, with at least nine events of chromosomal
rearrangements and recombination suppression between the two mating-type loci[17,18,39,41]. In
addition, two non-sister *Microbotryum* species still have their mating-type loci on different
chromosomes although each is linked to its centromere, resulting in the same odds of gamete
compatibility as HD-PR linkage under intra-tetrad selfing[41,65]. Recombination suppression
extended stepwise beyond mating-type loci in several lineages, forming evolutionary strata, i.e.
fragments displaying decreasing differentiation with increasing distance to mating-type loci
along the ancestral gene order[17,18,41].

The non-recombining regions on both mating-type chromosomes in *Microbotryum* fungi display signs of genomic degeneration, as neither ever recombines. For example, polymorphism is common for haploid sporidia of one or the two mating types failing to grow *in vitro* in some *Microbotryum* species, likely due to deleterious mutations linked to mating-type loci[58,66-68]. Indeed, with time since recombination suppression, these mating-type chromosomes accumulate transposable elements, non-synonymous mutations, gene losses, rearrangements and non-optimal codons [18,39,40,42,69]. Transposable elements accumulate rapidly following recombination suppression, and some specific transposable element families expanded preferentially on *Microbotryum* mating-type chromosomes, such as *Helitrons* and *Copia/Ty3* elements[69,70]. These patterns are especially pronounced in species with linked HD and PR loci and extensive suppression of recombination, in contrast to the genomes retaining the ancestral state of unlinked mating types, that exhibit lesser severity of degenerative processes[18,39,40,42,69].

Surveys of the diversity within *Microbotryum* fungi continue to yield novel insights, and preliminary analyses suggested that the species parasitizing *Dianthus* plant species carried unlinked HD and PR loci, yet displaying very high transposable element content compared to other *Microbotryum* species[70]. Using two *Microbotryum* species on *Dianthus*, our aim was therefore to characterize the mating-type chromosomes of these species, elucidate whether the mating-type loci display localized recombination suppression, and if so, whether the mating-type loci were linked together or to their respective centromeres. We found in both species a large non-recombining mating-type chromosome issued from the fusion of the entire ancestral PR chromosome and a part of the ancestral HD chromosome but, surprisingly, not HD locus itself. Genome comparison indicated that the translocation occurred via a transient stage of whole chromosome fusion, a few rearrangements and then separation of a part of the HD chromosome arm. Remarkably, homozygosity was observed at the HD genes in natural populations, indicating that they were not involved anymore in mating-type determination, and one of the HD2 alleles appeared disrupted in *M. superbum*. This novel observation among basidiomycete fungi was also found in a distant congeneric species, *M. scorzonerae*, with unlinked PR and HD loci, but homozygosity and non-functionalization of HD genes, and rearrangements between ancestral HD and PR chromosomes. These results demonstrate the potential for genetic innovation in compatibility systems that directly influence how mating system variation is achieved in nature. In addition, we found multiple evolutionary strata in the

153 three species, i.e., young extensions of recombination suppression on the mating-type
154 chromosomes.

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RESULTS

A large non-recombining PR chromosome including an arm of the ancestral HD
chromosome but not the HD genes

We obtained high-quality genome assemblies from one strain from each of two *Microbotryum*
species parasitizing *Dianthus* plants: *M. superbum* (aka MvDsp2[52], strain 1065) and *M.*
shykoffianum (aka MvDsp1[52], strain c212). The phylogenetic tree based on 2,391 single-copy
orthologs representing 5.2 mb of nucleotide sequences placed them as sister species as expected
(Figure 1). In all four haploid genomes, the PR and HD genes were found on different contigs
(Figures 2 and S1-3) and with telomeric repeats identified on almost all of these mating-type
contig edges (Figure S4-6), showing that the two mating-type loci are located on different
chromosomes. We compared these mating-type chromosomes to those of *M. lagerheimii*,
inferred to be a good proxy for the ancestral gene order of *Microbotryum* mating-type
chromosomes[17,41]. We found the PR gene to be located in both *M. superbum* and *M.*
shykoffianum on a chromosome corresponding to the fusion of the ancestral PR chromosome
and a large part of the ancestral HD chromosome. The remaining part of the ancestral HD
chromosome, carrying the HD gene, was found on a separate chromosome (Figures 2 and S1-
4). This new PR chromosome was non-recombining across most of its length, as it was widely
rearranged between species and between a_1 and a_2 chromosomes in both *M. superbum* and *M.*
shykoffianum (Figures 2 and S1-5). Only small regions were collinear at both edges of the PR
chromosome, corresponding to recombining pseudo-autosomal regions (PAR, Figures S4-S5).
The centromere was identified within the non-recombining region and telomeres at the edges
of the new PR and HD chromosomes (Figures S4-S5). The separate chromosome carrying the
HD genes was very small in both species, and collinear between the two mating types as well
as between species (Figures 3 and S1-5), suggesting ongoing recombination.

In both *M. superbum* and *M. shykoffianum*, a few genes present on the HD chromosome part
carrying the HD genes in *M. lagerheimii* were however found in the non-recombining region
of the PR chromosome, and conversely (genes colored in green in Figures 3-4 and S4). This
indicates an ancient fusion between the whole PR and HD chromosomes, followed by a few
genomic rearrangements, before an excision of a part of the ancestral short HD chromosome
arm (Figure 3). Such an excision may have occurred in a single step or by chromosome fissions

followed by a new fusion. Some of the genes that were found reshuffled between the ancestral

PR and HD chromosomes were different between *M. superbum* and *M. shykoffianum*, which

may suggest that the fission of the current small HD chromosome occurred independently in

the two species, after their speciation.

Nucleotide polymorphism data further indicated that the PR chromosome was mostly non-

recombining and that the HD genes were not linked to the PR gene in the *Microbotrum* fungi

parasitizing *Dianthus* plants. Using SNPs on 149 Illumina genomes collected on various

Dianthus plants in western Europe, high levels of LD were found across most of the PR

chromosome, while LD levels were much lower between HD and PR contigs (Figure S7). The

LD values within the HD chromosome, as well as against the PR chromosome, were a bit

higher than those within autosomes, but were similar as those between the HD chromosomes

and autosomes, thus not indicating linkage.

The high per-gene synonymous divergence (d_S) between alleles on the a_1 and a_2 mating-type

chromosomes (Figures 4-5) further confirmed the lack of recombination along most of the PR

chromosome, while the HD chromosome appeared recombining. Indeed, because selfing in

Microbotryum anther-smut fungi yields high homozygosity levels, recombining region shows

zero d_S values between alleles in recombining regions such as autosomes, pseudo-autosomal

regions of the PR chromosome and in the HD chromosome (Figures 4-5). In contrast, the

rearranged region of the PR chromosome displayed high d_S values in both *M. superbum* and *M.*

shykoffianum (Figures 4-5). Following previous studies on *Microbotryum* fungi, the region

initially linking the PR and HD genes was called the black stratum (Figures 4-5), although this

stratum does not link the PR and HD mating-type loci any more due to the proposed fission of

the HD-containing chromosome arm (Figure 3). This black stratum evolved before the

divergence of the *M. superbum* and *M. shykoffianum* lineages, as 73% of the genes showed full

trans-specific polymorphism between these two lineages (Figure 6): the alleles clustered

according to a_1 or a_2 mating type rather than species in gene genealogies, indicating

recombination suppression before speciation. We found footprints of previously inferred

evolutionary strata (i.e. the blue, purple and orange strata; Figures 4-5), that were shown to

have evolved around the HD and PR genes ancestrally in the *Microbotryum* clade[17,18,23].

In the *M. shykoffianum* genome, the HD chromosome in the a_2 assembly was much shorter than

in the a_1 assembly, while still carrying the HD gene (Figure S4-5). The mapping of diploid

reads on the a_1 plus a_2 genome assemblies showed double coverage in the missing regions of

the HD chromosome, indicating the collapse of the two homologous chromosomes in the corresponding regions in the a_1 assembly (Figure S8). The coverage was however not doubled in a small region at the edge of one pseudo-autosomal region, and the corresponding genomic region was not found in the a_2 genome assembly, suggesting that this small region may be genuinely missing in the a_2 genome (Figure S8).

Loss-of-function in mating-type determination of HD genes and lack of PR-HD linkage established by segregation analyses

The alleles of the two tightly-linked HD genes (HD1 and HD2) appeared functional in the two haploid genomes of *M. shykoffianum* and in the a_1 genome of *M. superbum*, but not in the a_2 genome of *M. superbum*. The HD2 gene indeed appeared separated into two different protein coding sequences (CDS) in the a_2 genome in *M. superbum,* with an early stop codon and a new start codon (Figure 7). One of the two novel CDS appeared expressed during mating conditions, but not *in planta*, and we detected no expression of the HD2 gene in mating conditions or when cultured as haploid. This may be because the strain is homozygous or because the a1 allele of HD2 is not expressed. In contrast, in *M. lychnidis-dioicae* (with non-recombining mating-type chromosomes) and *M. intermedium* (with almost fully recombining mating-type chromosomes) both HD genes are upregulated under mating or *in planta* conditions (Figure 7). Analyses of non-synonymous substitution proportions based on gene genealogies with all available species (Figure 1) indicated significant positive selection in the two new CDS, suggesting neofunctionalization (significant test for selection intensification: $K = 22.64$; $p = 0.001$, $LR = 11.37$).

Mating tests confirmed that HD genes have lost their mating-type determination function in *M. superbum*. We isolated the four meiotic products of 12 full tetrads from a strain collected on *D. pavonius* in the same site as the reference strain. *Microbotryum* produces linear tetrads allowing assessment of first versus second division segregation[58,71]. We tested whether each of these haploid cell lineages would mate with tester haploid strains from one of the tetrads that carried a_1 or a_2 PR alleles, respectively, as determined by PCR[72]. The typical situation in heterothallic basidiomycete fungi is that i) only haploid cells carrying different PR alleles can fuse and ii) only haploid cells carrying different HD alleles can produce hyphae when mated. In all 12 tetrads but one, two of the four meiotic products conjugated with the a_1 tester and the other half with the a_2 testers, as expected, with PR alleles segregating at the first meiotic division, consistent with linkage of the PR gene to its centromere shown above. Supporting the

view that the HD genes no longer have a role in mating-type determination, all meiotic products compatible for conjugation with a given mating tester also produced hyphae. If HD genes were still involved in mating-type determination, only half of conjugated pairing would produce hyphae due to independent segregation/assortment of PR and HD mating type loci inferred from genomic assemblies.

Additionally, PCR tests confirmed that the 12 meiotic tetrads analysed in *M. superbum* resulted from a field-collected diploid parental genotype that contained identical HD alleles, which indicates the lack of mating-type role of HD genes. We indeed designed primers that would specifically amplify only the allele present in the a_1 or a_2 genome of the *M. superbum* 1065 strain (Table S1). The primers for the HD1 and HD2 genes gave PCR products only with the primer pair designed to amplify the alleles in the a_2 genome of the *M. superbum* 1065 strain, and in all four meiotic products of all tetrads, indicating homozygosity of the diploid parent. Sanger sequencing of the amplicons confirmed that all meiotic products were identical at the HD genes. Therefore, heterozygosity at the HD genes was not required any more in these strains for successful mating and hyphae production. We also inoculated *D. chinesis* in the greenhouse and showed these homozygous pairs could cause disease (5 out of 24 inoculated plants, as typical under inoculations). In one tetrad, two meiotic products produced hyphae alone without any tester strains and the PCR indicated that these sporidia contained the two PR alleles, likely following abnormal meiotic segregation (i.e. non-disjunction), as previously reported in *Microbotryum* fungi (back then called *Ustilago violacea*)[73]. This sporidial line however did not produce disease upon plant inoculation.

We further pulled out two tetrads from each of six additional field-collected *M. superbum* strains. Two strains were homozygous for the HD genes, confirming that mating can occur between cells with identical HD alleles; the other strains were heterozygous. Across tetrads, the PR alleles were not always associated to the same HD alleles, which confirms that the HD and PR loci are unlinked in this species (Table S2).

The HD1 and HD2 coding sequences in *M. shykoffianum* c212 were not disrupted but were 100% identical between the a_1 and a_2 genomes, while the PR alleles showed high differentiation and trans-specific polymorphism as expected. This reinforces the view that the HD genes can be homozygous in *Microbotryum* strains from *Dianthus* species, and that, therefore, HD genes are not involved anymore in mating-type determination.

Polymorphism analysis of the HD genes based on Illumina sequencing confirmed that they could be homozygous in natural strains. We used SNPs called in the 149 Illumina genomes against the a_1 *M. superbum* reference plus the HD and PR chromosomes from the a_2 genome. The genomes were obtained by spreading diploid teliospores on culture medium, where they undergo meiosis and haploid meiosis product multiply. In 23 strains, we found only significant mapping on the a_1 PR chromosome and in 14 strains only on the a_2 PR chromosome. This is likely due to haplo-lethal alleles on the PR chromosome, with gene disruptions that are lethal at the haploid stage due to degeneration following recombination suppression, preventing growth of haploid sporidia on our culture plates, as identified in several *Microbotryum* species[58,66,68]. Among the 62 strains for which we were confident that they carried the two PR chromosomes (and therefore confidently sequenced as diploids), 42 exhibited polymorphism at the HD genes in SNP data, indicating heterozygosity, while 20 showed no polymorphism at the HD genes. These findings confirm that heterozygosity at HD genes is no longer required for mating compatibility or completion of the life cycle. The SNP analysis further indicated a high selfing rate in these fungi: the F_{IS} mode on autosomes was at 0.83, corresponding to a selfing rate of ca s=0.91 using the formula $s=2F_{IS}/(1+F_{IS})$.

Loss of function of HD genes in *M. scorzonerae* and genomic rearrangements

We also identified a loss of HD gene function and homozygosity of field-collected samples in a distant species, *M. scorzonerae* (Figure 1). Oxford Nanopore sequencing of two haploid genomes isolated from the same meiotic tetrad and with opposite PR alleles, revealed identical sequences for both HD1 and HD2 genes. We performed mating tests between meiotic products of 22 tetrads, which again indicated compatibility segregating a single mating-type locus: when cells were compatible for PR-determined conjugation, they also produced hyphae in 100% of the cases.

The HD1 sequences from the sequenced *M. scorzonerae* a_1 and a_2 haploid genomes appeared to have an uninterrupted coding sequence. The HD2 coding sequences displayed a 19 bp gap inducing a frameshift mutation in the coding region and a stop codon which would truncate the gene to 120 amino-acids instead of 487 amino-acids in *M. lagerheimii*. Using PCR amplification and Sanger sequencing, we confirmed that the frameshift is present in all the isolated cultures, as well as in the *M. scorzonerae* sample not used to produce haploid cultures. As in *M. superbum*, the analysis of 22 tetrads indicated that a single genetic factor controlled mating type in *M. scorzonerae*.

The a$_1$ and a$_2$ genome for *M. scorzonerae* did not assemble as well as for *M. superbum* and *M.*

shykoffianum. Nevertheless, we identified two contigs in the a$_1$ *M. scorzonerae* assembly that

carried regions corresponding to the ancestral PR and HD chromosomes, and also parts of *M.*

lagerheimii autosomes, indicating that mating-type chromosome fusion occurred, and also with

ancestral autosomes (Figure S9A). The contigs carrying parts of the ancestral PR and HD

chromosomes were nevertheless collinear between the a$_1$ and a$_2$ *M. scorzonerae* genomes,

indicating ongoing recombination, with the exception of a relatively small non-recombining

region around the PR locus (Figure S9B). The HD and PR genes were not in the same contigs.

This suggests that there was a transient stage, as in *M. superbum* and *M. shykoffianum,* where

the HD and PR genes were linked by chromosomal fusion of ancestral HD and PR

chromosomes, as well as autosomes, followed by chromosomal rearrangements and subsequent

loss-of-function of HD genes in mating-type determination. We could not detect telomeres

however in any of these contigs.

328 Progressive recombination suppression in the mating-type chromosome: evolutionary

329 strata

We found evidence of four young evolutionary strata specific to the mating-type chromosome

of *M. superbum* or of *M. shykoffianum,* therefore resulting from recent extensions of

recombination cessation. Indeed, when plotting the per-gene synonymous divergence between

mating-type chromosomes in *M. superbum* 1065 along the ancestral gene order (taking *M.*

lagerheimii gene order as a proxy[18,41])*,* we found a region with significantly lower d$_S$ values at

the edge of the non-recombining region, while significantly different from zero (Figures 4 and

S10). We called this region the "turquoise" evolutionary stratum following previous color

names given to young evolutionary strata in *Microbotryum* fungi. This turquoise stratum is

currently situated within the non-recombining region of the PR mating-type chromosome

(Figures S4-5 and S11) while remaining still much less rearranged than the rest of the non-

recombining region, as expected for a young evolutionary stratum. This very same turquoise

stratum had in contrast zero d$_S$ values in *M. shykoffianum* and has remained in the pseudo-

autosomal region (Figures 5 and S4-S5). An additional evidence for the evolution of the

turquoise stratum post-dating speciation between *M. shykoffianum* and *M. superbum* is the lack

of trans-specific polymorphism (Figure 6). A single gene displayed full trans-specific

polymorphism in the turquoise stratum and it was situated just at the limit with the black

stratum, and it may actually belong to the black stratum. Altogether, these findings show that

the turquoise stratum has moved into the non-recombining region in *M. superbum* after its

divergence from *M. shykoffianum*, thus constituting a young evolutionary stratum (Figure 3)*.*

We found footprints of another young evolutionary stratum in *M. superbum*, on the other side

of the PR mating-type chromosome in the ancestral chromosomal arrangement. The d_S plot

indeed showed high d_S values in the left edge of the PR chromosome (Figure 4), in the region

that we called "ruby" (Figure 5).

A changepoint analysis confirmed the inference of distinct evolutionary strata in *M. superbum*,

with the turquoise and ruby strata showing significantly lower mean d_S value than the black

stratum, with discrete changes in mean values (Figure 4). The changepoint analysis even

indicated that the ruby stratum was divided into two distinct sub-strata of different ages, that

we called the "dark" and "light' ruby strata, with significant different mean d_S values and

different locations: the dark ruby stratum was rearranged, while the light ruby stratum was still

at the edge of the chromosome (Figures 4 and S4). The black, turquoise, light and dark ruby

strata in fact had significant different d_S mean values than their nearby strata (Figure S10).

The dark ruby stratum was only partly present in *M. shykoffianum* (Figure 5), suggesting either

an independent origin in the two lineages or an ancestral stratum that would have partly restored

recombination in *M. shykoffianum.* This latter hypothesis is supported by the lack of detected

change-point in *M. superbum* within the dark ruby stratum*,* indicating it evolved in a single

step (Figure 4). Moreover, trans-specific polymorphism was found for the genes from the right

part of dark ruby stratum that have high d_S values in the two species (Figures 4-5).

In *M. scorzonareae,* genes around the PR locus were highly rearranged between mating-type

chromosomes and compared to the *M. lagerheimii* gene order (Fig S9), indicating ancient

recombination suppression, which was further supported by high d_S values (Fig S13). This non-

recombining region extended farther than the purple and orange strata shared among all

Microbotryum species, indicating an extension of recombination suppression specific to *M.*

scorzonareae. We called this extension the emerald stratum, and it encompassed not only a

part of the ancestral PR chromosome, but also a small fragment of the ancestral HD

chromosome, from the middle of the MC03B *M. lagerheimii* contig: this fragment indeed

displays elevated d_S values in *M. scorzonareae* (Fig S13) and is currently located near the PR

locus because of the inter-chromosomal rearrangements (Fig S9). In addition, we detected

footprints of a younger specific evolutionary stratum, called quartz, with very low d_S values

(Fig S13), being collinear between a_1 and a_2 PR mating-type chromosomes but having moved

from the PAR to the middle of the non-recombining region in the a_2 PR chromosome (Fig S9).

The non-zero d_S values extend a bit farther towards the PAR than the translocated fragment,

suggesting that the quartz stratum may be larger than this translocated fragment.

We used the divergence time between M. lychnidis-dioicae and M. silenes-dioicae as a

calibration point (0.42 million years[74]) to estimate the age in million years (MY) of the various

evolutionary strata and their confidence intervals (CI), based on autosomal single-copy genes.

We estimated the following ages: 1.55 MY for the black stratum (CI 1.21-1.92), 1.25 MY for

the dark ruby stratum (CI 0.75-2.23), 0.28 MY for the light ruby stratum (CI 0.16-0.45), 1.61

MY for the emerald stratum (CI 1.03-2.33) and 0.06 MY for the quartz stratum (CI 0-0.16).

Degeneration of the PR mating-type chromosomes

In both *M. superbum* and *M. shykoffianum*, the PR mating-type chromosome shows chaos of

rearrangements between the a_1 and a_2 genomes and in comparison to the ancestral gene order,

taking as proxy the *M. lagerheimii* PR chromosome (Figures 2, S1-S5). Similarly, expected of

non-recombining regions, the PR chromosome has also accumulated transposable elements

(TEs), as seen by the much higher TE content in the a_1 and a_2 PR chromosomes in *M. superbum*

(65% and 67% of bp, respectively) compared to its autosomes (mean 35% of bp) (Figure 8).

Some TE families seem to have preferentially expanded, i.e. *Copia*, Ty3 (*Gypsy)* and *Helitrons*

(Figure 8). As a result, the PR chromosome has become much larger than its ancestral

recombining state (Figure 8, 12,930,922 vs 942,259 bp). In contrast, the HD chromosome did

not have an TE load (mean 36% of bp, Figures), in agreement with the inference of continued

recombination in this chromosome.

DISCUSSION

A wide variety of breeding systems have been reported across fungi, including universal

haploid compatibility, a single mating-type locus or two mating-type loci[8,14]. The role of PR

and HD genes in mating-type determination and their location on different chromosomes is

ancestral in basidiomycetes, corresponding to a bifactorial system, i.e., with two different

mating-type loci. Having two distinct loci controlling mating compatibility can favor

outcrossing, while having a single mating-type locus is advantageous under selfing: one

mating-type locus yields 50% compatibility among gametes of a given diploid individual

versus only 25% with two mating-type loci[56]. There have been multiple independent transitions

across the Basidiomycota from bifactorial to unifactorial systems, i.e., with a single genetic

locus determining mating compatibility. Unifactorial compatibility can occur through two main

pathways: linkage of PR and HD loci or the loss of function at one of the mating type loci[8].

Linkage between mating-type loci has been observed in *Ustilago hordei*[44] and multiple times

independently in the *Malassezia*[45,46] and *Microbotryum*[18,41] clades, as well as in other

basidiomycetes[8,75-78].

Loss-of-function at one of the mating-type loci, specifically at the PR locus, has also been

observed in several basidiomycete fungi, including *Pholiota nameko*[79], *Coprinellus*

disseminatus[47], and others[8]. To the best of our knowledge, this study in *Microbotryum* is the

first known case of functional loss at the HD locus in natural populations of heterothallic

basidiomycete fungi. This shows that unifactoriality, i.e. the segregation of only two mating

types in progenies, can be convergently acquired through a variety of different genomic

pathways in selfing fungi, for which it is beneficial. Furthermore, we found convergent events

of HD gene loss-of-function after a transient HD-PR chromosome fusion, in two very distantly

related anther-smut fungi. Altogether, this sheds new light on the power of selection and on the

repeatability of evolution, and shows that similar phenotypes can be achieved repeatedly, via

similar or different genomic mechanisms.

In addition, finding this example of an HD loss-of-function has important implications for our

understanding of the sexual cycle and gene functions in basidiomycete fungi. The two tightly-

linked genes of the HD locus, HD1 and HD2, are indeed thought to be essential for dikaryotic

growth, as they heterodimerize to activate the dikaryotic growth and can only do so between

different allelic forms at the two genes (using b_1 and b_2 to denote different alleles and where

haploid genomes typically carry either HD1 b_1 with HD2 b_1 or HD1 b_2 with HD2 b_2, dikaryotic

growth is triggered by HD1 b_1 with HD2 b_2 or HD1 b_2 with HD2 b_1). Uniting the two

compatible variants in a haploid genome could allow dikaryotic growth without the need to

mate with a different haplotype, as shown experimentally with a mutant carrying a chimeric

homeodomain protein in the mushroom *Coprinus cinereus*[49]. The need for HD heterodimers

may be bypassed for dikaryotic growth, as shown in the invasive Californian death cap

mushroom, *Amanita phalloides,* that can mate as a haploid homothallic, despite the two HD

genes in haploid genomes being unable to form a heterodimer[80]. Another possibility may be as

in the homothallic basidiomycete yeast *Cystofilobasidium capitatum*, in which the HD1/HD2

heterodimer has likely been replaced by a HD2 homodimer[81]. This hypothesis would explain

the positive selection detected on the new HD coding sequences.

Given the loss of the HD role in mating-type determination, it was intriguing to discover that

the PR chromosome had incorporated a fragment of the ancestral HD chromosome and was

non-recombining throughout most of its length. Indeed, the large non-recombining regions in

Microbotryum fungi are generally partly due to the linkage of HD and PR genes, even if further

extension of the non-recombining region has repeatedly evolved[18,41]. In the *Microbotryum*

species parasitizing *Dianthus* and *Scorzonareae* plants analysed here, a transient stage seems

to have occurred, with HD-PR linkage by fusion of the whole PR and HD ancestral

chromosomes, followed by a few rearrangements and then excision of a part of the ancestral

HD chromosome, likely once HD has lost its function. This hypothesis is supported by our

finding of genes belonging to the ancestral HD-containing chromosome arm being now located

on the PR chromosome in each of *M. superbum* and *M. shykoffianum.* Reversion to unlinked

mating-type chromosomes has been suggested in *Malassezia*-related fungi[46], but both mating-

type loci kept their functions, such that reversion was likely driven by changes in mating

systems. Here the chromosome fission may have followed the loss of function of the HD genes,

as this loss of function would offset the benefit of HD-PR linkage. Alternatively, the fission

may have occurred first, followed by the loss of function of the HD genes, selected for

unifactoriality, being advantageous under selfing.

This study also provided further support for the existence of three young, species-specific

evolutionary strata associated with the mating type loci in *Microbotryum* fungi. *M. superbum*,

M. shykoffianum and *M. scorzonareae* displayed high differentiation between mating-type

chromosomes and rearrangements within the non-recombining region, but lower differentiation

and lower levels of gene order reshuffling in young evolutionary strata than the rest of the non-

recombining region. The evolutionary cause for such stepwise and repeated recombination

suppression events may be a combination of selection for less genetic load in non-recombining

fragments and deleterious-mutation sheltering[31]. Indeed, if a non-recombining fragment traps

fewer recessive deleterious alleles than average in the population, this fragment will have a

selective advantage, but can only become fixed if it also captures a permanently heterozygous

allele that will shelter its few recessive deleterious mutations when it becomes frequent enough

to often be homozygous in populations[31]. The only other hypothesis that can explain such

repeated evolutionary strata on fungal mating-type chromosomes is a neutral fixation of

inversions or genetic differences impairing recombination[29], but this does not explain the

observed association between dikaryotic life cycle and evolutionary strata in fungi[33]. The

proximal mechanism of recombination suppression may be the observed movements of

fragments from the pseudoautosomal region into the non-recombining region, forming the
young strata, as previously reported for the red stratum in *M. lychnidis-dioicae*[17]. However,
such movements can also be a consequence, rather than a cause, of recombination suppression.

As expected, the older part of the non-recombining region on the PR mating-type chromosome
shows signs of degeneration, with chaos of rearrangements and high TE load. Some TE
families have preferentially expanded, i.e. *Copia*, Ty3 (*Gypsy)* and *Helitrons*, corresponding
to the same families that repeatedly expanded in mating-type chromosomes of other
Microbotryum species[69].

Given such accumulated load that results from mutational degeneration, it has been suggested
that reversion towards recombination could be selected for under the lower-loaded-sheltering
hypothesis, unless dosage compensation evolves[32]. Our scenario actually proposes an early
reversion of recombination suppression along a part of the ancestral HD chromosome. The
chaos of rearrangements on both mating-type chromosomes in the oldest evolutionary strata,
however, reinforces the view that rearrangements accumulate following recombination
suppression such that it seems challenging to restore recombination when load has
accumulated[31,33]. Recombination restoration would be even more difficult if the proximal
mechanism of recombination suppression is the movement of pseudo-autosomal regions into
non-recombining regions, as observed for young evolutionary strata. Recombination
restoration would indeed then require the exact same movement back, with exactly the same
breakpoints, which seems highly implausible. Our findings suggest that recombination
restoration may occur when rearrangements are not too extensive, as evidenced by i) the
footprints of recombination suppression followed by chromosome separation and
recombination restoration in the HD chromosome arm, ii) the reversion of a part of the dark
ruby stratum to a recombining state in *M. shykoffianum.* However, recombination restoration
now seems impossible in the non-recombining region of the PR chromosome given the chaos
of rearrangements there in both mating-type chromosomes.

In conclusion, our study brings novel insights into the evolution of breeding systems and sex-
related chromosomes, reporting unprecedented cases of loss-of-function of HD mating-type
genes in fungi, and fusion of ancestral mating-type chromosomes without linkage of mating-
type genes. Our findings further reinforce the view that recombination suppression can extend
progressively in organisms without sexual antagonism.

Material and methods

Study systems

Microbotryum fungi, parasitizing *Dianthus* and *Silene* species, castrate plants by producing their spores in the anthers of host plants and aborting the ovaries. Diseased plants are identifiable by dark-colored spore masses in their flowers. Most *Microbotryum* fungi are specialized on a single host species and most host species harbor a single *Microbotryum* species, especially in the *Silene* genus[51,52,53,82]. One exception is the clade of *Microbotryum* fungi parasitizing wild carnation relatives in the pink family (*Dianthus* genus, Caryophyllaceae), in which several closely-related and sympatric *Microbotryum* species parasitize multiple *Dianthus* plant species, with host range overlapping to some extent[52,53,83,84] (Figure 1). Three species have been formally described so far in this group[84], but they are challenging to recognize based on their host plant or morphology. We therefore assigned strains to species based on the published sequences of the gene barcodes used for describing the species (EF1-alpha and beta-tubulin;[52,84]; see below). *Microbotryum scorzonerae* parasitizes flowers of *Scorzonera humilis*, in the Asteraceae family[85]. Unlike other *Microbotryum*, *M. scorzonerae* does not cause spore formation on anthers alone. It instead causes spore formation within the entire floral head (Figure 1).

Genomic analyses

Strains, DNA extraction and species identification

We extracted DNA as previously described[17,18]. For the *Dianthus* strains, DNA sequencing based on PacBio (Pacific Bioscience) HiFi long-read sequencing was performed at the GenoToul sequencing facility (Toulouse, INRAE, France) in 2021. We isolated haploid sporidia of opposite mating types from a single meiosis (tetrad) from the strain 1065, collected in July 2011 on *Dianthus pavonius*, in Italy (coordinates 44.189, 7.688, near the Garelli Refugium in the Alps) by Michael Hood, Janis Antonovics and Emme Bruns. Based on preliminary analyses of SNPs, we also identified a strain belonging to another *Microbotryum* species parasitizing *Dianthus* plants: strain C212 (CZ_D24), collected in 2016 on *Dianthus carthusianorum*, in the Czech Republic, coordinates 49.639759, 14.201153 (Bohemia, The Vltava river basin, to the north of Zduchovice) by Klara Koupilova. This later strain had been cultivated on Petri dishes at the haploid stage after spreading diploid teliospores that each underwent meiosis; we therefore sequenced a mixture of haploid sporidia resulting from

multiple meioses from a single diploid individual. The mixture is thus equivalent to a diploid

genome. Cultivation of sporidia was performed on PDA (potato dextrose agar)[86]. The samples

were collected in Italy, which is not a party of the Nagoya protocol, and in the Czech Republic,

which does not regulate access to its genetic resources in relation to the Nagoya Protocol. Using

the best BLAST hits of the EF1-alpha and beta-tubulin genes against the reference

sequences[52,84], we assigned the strain 1065 to *M. superbum* (aka MvDsp2) and the strain C212

to *M. shykoffianum* (aka MvDsp1)[52,84]. For the *M. scorzonarae* strain, obtained in 2018 from

Cefn Cribwr, Wales, by Julian Woodman, sporidia of opposite mating types were isolated from

a single meiosis (tetrad). Although a party to the Nagoya Protocol, the UK does not regulate

access to its genetic resources. From cultures on PDA, extracted haploid genomic DNA was

used to generate long-read sequences with MinION (Oxford Nanopore Technologies), and

short- read Illumina sequencing.

RNAseq from *M. superbum* and *M. intermedium*

We generated RNAseq data for gene prediction and HD gene expression analysis. For

optimizing gene prediction, we sequenced RNA from one of the focal species, *M. superbum,*

and also from an outgroup to our studied *Microbotryum* species, *M. intermedium*. For *M.*

intermedium, we used the strain BM12-12.1 (the same strain as used previously for genome

sequencing[17,39]), under two different conditions: 1) haploid cells of a single PR mating type (a_1

or a_2) grown on nutrient medium (PDA) and then mixed in equal proportions of the two mating

types before RNA extraction ("H" condition), as well as additional replicates grown separately

on nutrient agar, whose transcriptomes were analyzed separately, and 2) mixtures of cells of

the two mating types under mating conditions ("M" condition), i.e. on water agar. Total RNA

was isolated from haploid *M. intermedium* cells using the Monarch® Total RNA Miniprep Kit

(New England Biolabs). For the nutrient medium condition, haploid strains (a_1 or a_2) were

streaked onto potato dextrose agar (PDA) and grown for 3-4 days at 22 °C. Cells were scraped,

suspended in DNA/RNA protection solution, disrupted mechanically in the presence of acid-

washed glass beads (0.5 mm dia), and then total RNA was extracted following the

manufacturer's protocol. For the mating condition, haploid a_1 and a_2 cultures were first grown

separately in yeast extract peptone dextrose (YPD) broth overnight. Cell density was measured

with a spectrophotometer. The concentration of each culture was adjusted to O.D.600 1.0.

Equal volumes of the two haploid cultures were mixed and plated on water agar. These plates

were incubated for four days at 14°C, after which wet mounts were prepared from each "mated"

plate to verify the presence of conjugation tubes, indicating active mating behavior. Cells were

scraped and then total RNA was isolated using the Qiagen RNeasy Plant Mini Kit. After total

RNA isolation, several quality control measures were taken. Concentration and purity were

assessed using a NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific); 260/280 and 260/230

ratios>1.8 were considered satisfactory for RNAseq application. Additionally, cDNA was

prepared and used as a template for intron-spanning primers in PCR reactions to verify the lack

of genomic DNA contamination. Bioanalyzer analysis was completed to detect intact 18S and

23S RNA as a measure of overall RNA quality. After passing all quality control measurements,

RNA was sent for sequencing to CD Genomics (Shirley, NY, USA). Three replicates were

sequenced per condition and means across the three replicates were analyzed.

For *M. superbum,* we used another strain from the same *D. pavonius* population as the strain

1065 (coordinates 44.191, 7.685, near the Garelli Refugium in the Italian Alps) for RNASeq,

a_1 and a_2 haploid strains were used separately as well as pooled in mating experiments. For

extractions from haploid cells grown on PDA, we used the Zymo -----RNA Extraction Kit

(Zymo Research, Irvine, California). Prior to RNA extractions, each haploid fungal strain was

grown on two PDA Petri dishes at 28°C for 24 hours. Extractions were performed on fungal

cells from the two PDA Petri dishes for each haploid sample replicate. Fungal mating was

accomplished in the following steps. Haploid *M. superbum* a_1 and a_2 cells were grown on YPD

agar for four days prior to the mating assay. Haploid cells were then suspended in distilled and

autoclaved water before adjusting to 10^9 cells/mL. Suspended fungal cells were combined in

equal proportions before being spotted in 50 μl spots on water agar Petri dishes. Plates were

left to incubate at 13° Celsius for 48 hours. Resulting cells were visualized under a light

microscope to confirm the occurrence of mating via the formation of conjugation tubes between

cells. Under these conditions we typically observed about 30% of the cells engaged in mating.

Extractions using the Zymo RNA extraction kit were performed on mated fungal tissue that

was aggregated from the water agar petri dishes for each mated sample. RNAseq of three

biological replicates per condition (mated, haploid a_1 and haploid a_2) were performed by CD

Genomics (Shirley, New York).

Three *D. pavonius* plants infected with *M. superbum* were obtained from Emme Bruns at the

University of Maryland. For generating these diseased plants, seeds of *D. pavonius* were

collected from two populations in Aug 2016 in Italy (Duca coord. 44.1946327, 7.66067016

and Garelli coord. 44.189128, 7.688879), which is not a party of the Nagoya protocol. They

were reared in greenhouse conditions planted in Sept 2016, reared and crossed within
populations in 2017 to produce seeds at the University of Maryland. F1 seeds were planted and
inoculated in 2018 with a strain from the Duca population, and scored as diseased 2020. The
plants (DE 10B 3; HL-2 duca 1061; De 10A 8) were used for RNAseq production. Four
different flower bud size binspools were used in these analyses: 11-12 mm, 13-14 mm, 15-16
mm, and 18-20 mm. These represented different stages of both host and parasite development.
RNA extractions from plant tissue were performed using Qiagen -----RNA Extraction Kit.
Flower buds were harvested from plants that were maintained in a controlled growth chamber.
The number of flower buds used for each extraction was dependent on the size of the buds that
were collected. All extractions with flower buds that fell into the 11-12 mm bin category were
completed with at least two flower buds while extractions on buds in the 13-14 mm or larger
bin categories used one flower bud per reaction. In total we sent 9 samples from three plants
for RNAseq (CD Genomics).

Expression of HD genes

For the gene expression analysis on HD genes, we used only the conditions under which we
had multiple technical replicates and for which HD genes are expected to be expressed, i.e, the
three 11-12 mm *M. superbum* replicates obtained from the same plant and the three replicates
from each of the culture conditions (mated at 48 h and haploid cultures). Expression of HD
genes in *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. intermedium* M. lychnidis-dioicae, or PDA, M.
intermedium, and for both under mating conditions at 48 h[39,76] was assessed as a control of
expectations for functional HD genes, in two or three replicates for each of three culture
conditions (haploid cultures of alternative mating types grown on water, *M. lychnidis-dioicae*,
or PDA, *M. intermedium*, and for both under mating conditions at 48 h[39,87]) and from infected
flowers at a late stage[88], see Table S3. To check whether HD genes were expressed, reads were
mapped with minimap2 2.26-r1175[89] with the -ax sr option, depth per base extracted with
samtools depth function[90], explored with jbrowse 2[91] and visualized with plotkaryotypeR[92].

Genome assemblies and gene prediction

For *M. superbum* 1065, we sequenced separately two haploid genomes, *a priori* of compatible
mating types based on their position in the isolated linear tetrad. We assembled these two
genomes separately with Canu 2.2[93] using the fastq reads files as input, and setting the -pacbio-
hifi parameter. For the strain collected on *D. carthusianorum*, we sequenced sporidial cultures

expected to correspond to mixtures of meiotic products from a diploid individual. Therefore,

we used the software Hifiasm 0.16.1-r375[94], which can separate haplotypes, with default

parameters. We performed quality assessment of the resulting assembly by computing N50 and

L50 statistics and by assessing genome completeness with BUSCO v5.4[95] using the

basidiomycota_odb10 as reference genes.

The two alternative mating types of M. scorzonarae were sequenced on Amherst laboratory

ONT platform. Longer than 1000bp of raw ONT reads were kept for genome assemblies.

Trimmed reads were assembled with Canu v1.7b with default parameters [93]. The resulting

assemblies were polished with Pilon v1.22 (https://github.com/broadinstitute/pilon/wiki) with

default parameters, using Illumina 150 bp paired-end reads belonging to the two mating types

of the same strain. To that end, short-read sequences were quality assessed using FastQC

(https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/), trimmed with Trimmomatic ()

using default parameters. Then 3 rounds of polishing were run iteratively with Pilon, with

Illumina short reads aligned to the polished assemblies obtained from the previous round and

indexed at each iteration using bwa-mem2 [96]. We then assessed Genome completeness with

BUSCO v5.4 [95] using the basidiomycota_odb10 as reference genes.

Repeated regions and low complexity DNA sequences were identified using RepeatModeler[97].

The genome was then softmasked using RepeatMasker open-4.0.9[98] with the *de novo* detected

repeats as well as custom libraries of candidate transposable elements (TEs) from our previous

studies[41] and existing fungal TEs from RepBase[99]. To minimize the rates of false negatives in

the gene prediction steps, we excluded from the softmasking TEs that were labeled as

"unknown" as their TE status was uncertain.

Genes were then predicted on the soft-masked genome using the software Braker version

2.1.6[100] which uses Diamond, ProtHint 2.6.0, GeneMark 4 and AUGUSTUS 3.4.0. To help

gene prediction, we combined RNAseq data from *M. superbum*, *M. intermedium* and *M.*

lychnidis-dioicae, and a set of highly conserved protein sequences previously identified across

multiple *Microbotryum* species. This set of proteins contains fully conserved single-copy genes

not overlapping with the mating-type chromosomes from 18 published *Microbotryum* genomes,

all predicted with the same pipeline[17,18,41,65]. The Illumina RNAseq data from 12 *M. superbum*

and 6 *M. intermedium* samples generated here together with 5 *M. intermedium*[39] and 17 *M.*

lychnidis-dioicae[87] samples previously obtained (Table S3) were processed with fastp[101],

aligned to the reference genome with the software GSNAP and GMAP[102], combined and sorted

with samtools[90] and filtered with Augustus[103] to keep only the unique best match (--uniq

option). Following Braker's documentation, we performed gene predictions separately for
RNAseq data and protein databases. For the gene prediction, we ran five rounds of gene
prediction and kept the run showing the highest BUSCO score. We eventually combined the
protein and RNAseq gene predictions using TSEBRA[104] and assessed the quality of the final
gene set with BUSCO using the basidiomycota_odb10 as reference using a dedicated workflow
(https://github.com/QuentinRougemont/genome_annotation). D*e novo* detection of
transposable elements (TEs) was performed as described previously[69].

Orthogroup construction

We performed orthology reconstruction using a set of 47 published genomes from our previous
work[39,41] and including the newly assembled genomes for three species studied here. The
Rhodosporidium babjavae genome was used as an outgroup[41]. We identified transposable
elements and predicted genes in each genome using Braker v2.1.6 with the protein database
built as explained above and we used in addition, for the *M. superbum*, *M. intermedium* and *M.
lychnidis-dioicae* genomes, RNAseq data from these species (n = 12, 11 and 17 conditions for
M. superbum, *M. intermedium* and *M. lychnidis-dioicae* respectively, Table S3). When
multiple isoforms were present, we kept the gene prediction with the longest transcript. This
extensive dataset was then fed to OrthoFinder[105] with default parameters to reconstruct
orthogroups.

Identification of mating-type chromosomes

We identified the contigs belonging to the mating-type chromosomes by i) detecting the contigs
carrying PR and HD genes using BLASTN 2.6.0[106] with the gene sequences from *M.
lagerheimii* as queries[72,107], ii) plotting the ortholog links for all contigs of our focal species
against the reference genome of the *M. lagerheimii* strain 1512 (a_1)[17] using Rideogram[108] iii)
plotting the ortholog links using Rideogram between the a_1 and a_2 genomes of our focal species.

We also generated circos plots using circlize[109]. In circos plots, we oriented contigs in the
direction involving the fewest inversions and keeping the recombining regions of the mating-
type chromosomes, called pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs), at the edges and non-inverted
between mating-type chromosomes.

Analysis of selection on HD genes

We aligned the coding sequences of the HD2 gene for all the *Microbotryum* species with
available genomes (Figure 1) using the software MACSE v2[110]. The HD2 gene that was
predicted as two separate genes in the a_2 genome of *M. superbum* was manually merged to
form one sequence, conserving the alignment with the other species. We used the RELAX
method from the hyphy package[111] to detect relaxed or intensified selection on the branch of
the HD2 gene in the a_2 genome of *M. superbum*, compared to the HD2 gene sequence in the a_1
and a_2 *M. lagerheimii* branches.

Detection of evolutionary strata

We used as a proxy of the ancestral state the chromosomal arrangement and gene order of *M.*
lagerheimii, as done in previous studies[17,65]. In *M. lagerheimii,* PR and HD loci are located on
different chromosomes[17]. For each species, synonymous divergence (d_S) was computed from
the alignment of a_1 and a_2 allele sequences, obtained with macse[112], using the yn00 v4.9f
program of the PAML package[113] and plotted using the ggplot2 library of R[114]. Pseudo-
autosomal, recombining regions were identified as regions with null synonymous divergence
on d_S plots, as expected in these highly selfing fungi, and with the same gene order between
mating types and as in *M. lagerheimii,* as assessed on circos plots. Non-recombining regions
were identified in contrast as regions with non-null synonymous divergence on d_S plots, and
being most often rearranged compared to the ancestral gene order in synteny plots. In order to
objectively identify the limits of evolutionary strata, we looked for changes in mean d_S along
the ancestral gene order along the mating-type chromosomes using a changepoint analysis
performed using the R package mcp[115]. This analysis relies on Bayesian regression to infer the
location of changes in means of the d_s values.

Telomeres and centromeres

722   To detect telomeres, we counted the occurrence of the telomere-specific motif 'TTAGGG' and
723   its reverse complement 'CCCTAA' within 1kb windows along the contigs. Peaks occur when
724   telomeres are present as they are constituted by multiple repeats of this motif. Centromeres
725   were identified by searching for the centromeric repeats previously described in *Microbotryum*
726   fungi[41,42].

Trans-specific polymorphism

Trans-specific polymorphism (i.e., the clustering of alleles per mating type across species) can
be used to study the age of recombination suppression linking genes to mating-type loci. Indeed,
as soon as a gene is fully linked to a mating-type locus, its alternative alleles will remain
associated to alternative mating types, even across speciation events. Mutations will therefore
accumulate independently in alleles associated with alternative mating types. In a genealogy,
alleles will therefore be grouped according to mating type rather than according to species. The
node at which the alleles associated with the alternative mating types diverge indicates the time
of recombination cessation[17,18,23].

We performed codon-based alignment with macse v2.05[110] of one-to-one orthologs of genes
ancestrally located on mating type chromosomes (416 genes). Gene trees were obtained with
IQ-TREE 1.6.1[116] with default parameters. Tree topologies were assessed using a homemade
awk command line, available on demand. Trees were separated into three categories: species
tree (a_1 and a_2 are grouped together within the species node), full trans-specific polymorphism
(both a_1 are grouped together and both a_2 are grouped together) and partial trans-specific
polymorphism (when only the a_1 or the a_2 are grouped together, or some alleles are missing).

A large part of the HD chromosome is collapsed in the *M. shykoffianum* genome assembly,
which means that it was not correctly separated between a_1 and a_2 genomes during the assembly.
Therefore, we could not run trans-specific polymorphism analyses in this region because the
genes could only be predicted in the a_1 genome assembly. However, the assembly collapse
means that the a_1 and a_2 alleles were highly similar, with therefore likely no trans-specific
polymorphism.

Dating of evolutionary strata

For each gene assigned to an evolutionary stratum in either of the three focal   species, we
identified the orthologous genes in the mating-type chromosomes of four reference species
(eight haploid assemblies): *M. lagerheimii* and *M. intermedium*, displaying an ancestral-like
gene order [17], and *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. silenes-dioicae*, two species for which the
divergence time has been estimated [74]. We filtered out orthologous groups with a copy number
different from one in any of the haploid genomes. For the   dark   ruby   stratum we only
kept the genes assigned to the stratum in both *M. shykoffianum* and *M. superbum*. We identified
a minimum of 6 (dark ruby stratum) and a maximum of 31 (black stratum) orthologous groups
per stratum. We obtained codon-based alignments for each orthologous group with translatorX
[117] using muscle [118] as protein aligner. For each stratum, we concatenated the codon-based

alignments of its orthologous groups (alignment length range: 9528 - 75651 base-pairs) and reconstructed an ultrametric tree with the least square dating method [119] under the TPM+F+G4 substitution model, as implemented in iqtree2 (version 2.2.6 [116]). We used the divergence time between *M. lychnidis-dioicae* and *M. silenes-dioicae* as a calibration point (0.42 million years[74]).

Illumina sequencing and analysis

A total of 165 samples were collected on several diseased *Dianthus* plants from various species (*D. pavonius, D. seguieri, D. carthusianorum, D. hyssopifolius, D. albinos, D. superbus, D. caryophyllus, D. deltoides* and *Stellaria holostea*) in several locations across Europe. For each strain, diploid spores from anthers of a single flower were spread on a Petri dish containing potato dextrose agar (PDA) and ampicillin, and let grow at 23°C and under artificial light. Spores in a given flower are produced by a single diploid individual[120]. When placed on a nutritive media, the diploid spores undergo meiosis and the resulting haploid sporidia then replicate clonally. There were thousands of haploid sporidia harvested on the Petri dishes representing the numerous meiotic products of a single diploid individual. However, lethal alleles are sometimes found linked to one mating type in populations, so that some mixtures of recovered sporidia can include only the a_1 or a_2 mating-type chromosome[58,66]. Cells were harvested from the medium and stored at -20°C until DNA extraction, using the Macherey-Nagel NucleoSpin Soil® kit following the manufacturer's instructions. The quality of the DNA extracted was then assessed by measuring the ratio of 230/260 and 280/260 nm with a NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). A Qubit 2.0 fluorometer was used to measure DNA concentration. Preparation of DNA libraries for sequencing was performed using the Illumina TruSeq Kits®. Paired-end libraries of 2*150 bp fragments with an insert size of 300 bp were prepared with Illumina TruSeq Nano DNA Library Prep® kit. Sequencing was performed on a HiSeq 2500 Illumina sequencer, with an average coverage of 10-15X. We sequenced 49 genomes of *Microbotryum* strains from *D. carthusianorum*, 87 from *D. pavonius*, 12 from *D. seguieri*, and 17 from other hosts across western Europe. The samples were collected in Italy, which is not a party of the Nagoya protocol, in the Czech Republic, Germany, Finland, UK and the Netherlands, which do not regulate access to its genetic resources in relation to the Nagoya Protocol, in Switzerland, where we just need to keep track of information for fundamental research, and in France, where there was an exception for micro-organisms at the time of sampling.

We followed GATK pipeline best practices for read mapping and SNP calling. Illumina reads from the 165 whole genomes were mapped onto the *M. superbum* reference genome. We constructed a "hybrid" reference genome by merging the whole genome MvDp−1065−A1 and the two mating-type chromosomes of the MvDp−1065−A2 genome (MvDp−1065−A2_tig00000068 and MvDp−1065−A2_tig00000031, respectively harboring the a_2 PR and HD alleles). We mapped the reads against the hybrid reference genome using BWA-MEM2[121] (https://github.com/bwa-mem2/bwa-mem2, t-4 option). For mating type-chromosomes, only reads mapping to a single location were considered for further analyses. We used GATK Haplotype Caller to obtain gVCF from the bam mapping files using the haploid flag (ploidy =1) for the mating-type chromosomes, and using the diploid flag (ploidy =2) for the rest of the genome. We used CombineGVCFs to combine gvcf of the autosomes and mating-type chromosomes for a given individual, and to obtain the vcf file. We filtered out highly genetically related and duplicate individuals (i.e., individuals with pairwise KING-robust kinship estimates among individuals >0.354)[122] with plink version 2.0 [123], and individuals with more than 20% of positions with missing genotype. We computed pairwise linkage disequilibrium between genome-wide biallelic sites with minor allele frequency higher than 0.25 using Plink v1.90b6.26. We used for this analysis only reads mapped to the genome MvDp−1065−A1 and the 149 strains that passed filtering.

In our analysis of homozygosity of HD genes, we first checked the ploidy of the sequenced samples at mating-type chromosomes, as they were mixtures of meiotic products with possibly haplolethal alleles associated with mating types. For this goal, we performed a remapping of the reads on the hybrid reference genome. Two autosomes were used as controls: tig00000012 and tig00000097. We calculated the median coverage along the two autosomes, as well as along the PR and HD chromosomes. Strains with a median coverage lower than six reads for the control autosomes were not considered further. The median coverage of the HD and PR chromosomes were divided by the median coverage of the control autosome (tig00000012), to get their relative coverage. Strains with a relative coverage higher than 0.7 for PR a_1 or higher than 0.8 for PR a_2 were considered as haploid (23 a_1 and 14 a_2 strains). Strains with a relative coverage around 0.5 (between 0.35 and 0.7) for PR a_2 also showed a coverage around 0.5 for PR a_1 and were therefore considered reliable diploid (62 strains). The 17 other strains were considered as having "unknown ploidy". The results were consistent when using the other autosome (tig00000097) as a control. Heterozygosity of the HD chromosomes was calculated

for each strain on the vcf files using the command -het of vcftools, and was defined as the

observed number of heterozygous sites divided by the total number of sites.

Tetrad isolation and PCR analyses

We pulled out tetrads of *M. scorzonerae* from *Scorzonera humilis* (strain 1528, collected in

2018 in Cefn Cribwr, Wales, UK 51°32'08"N 3°38'52"W by Julian Woodman), *Tragopogon*

pratensis (strain 1535 collected in 2018 in Länsimäentie, Helsinki, Finland, 60°13'54.753"N

25°6'57.1716"E, by Juha Tuomola), *Tragopogon pratensis* (strain 1544, collected in 2018 in

De Weere, Netherlands, 52°44'13.33"N 4°59'22.5"E, by Justus and Maureen Houthuesen-

Hulshoff), and *Tragopogon porrifolius* (strain 1560 collected in 2018 in De Weere,

Netherlands, 52°44'13.33"N 4°59'22.5"E 2018, by Justus and Maureen Houthuesen-Hulshoff).

The samples were collected in Finland, the Netherlands and the UK, which do not regulate

access to their genetic resources in relation to the Nagoya Protocol. We also pulled out 20

tetrads from seven *M. superbum* strains collected on *D. pavonius* in 2019 in Garelli (Italy

44.1887, 7.6876). Italy is not a party of the Nagoya protocol.

To obtain pure haploid cultures from *M. scorzonerae* and *M. superbum* samples, teliospores

were first germinated by plating on water agar and incubated at room temperature for

approximately 12 hours. In *Microbotryum* fungi, a linear basidium containing a meiotic tetrad

of cells forms during germination[58]. Meiosis occurs in the basidium, yielding four haploid cells.

The four haploid basidium cells then undergo mitosis to form haploid sporidia. These sporidia

can be separated from the basidium and isolated into separate cultures by micromanipulation[58].

In order to assess segregation patterns of the mating-type loci across multiple meioses, sporidia

cells were isolated from 22 tetrads in *M. scorzonerae* and 20 tetrads in *M. superbum* samples

from seven *M. superbum* strains collected from *D. pavonius*. Each sporidium cell was then

moved by microcapillary pipetting to a potato dextrose agar (PDA) plate, and incubated at

room temperature. Two of every four cells in each tetrad divided only a few times after isolation

in *M. scorzonerae* and then stopped division. This inviability has been seen in other

Microbotryum species and is called haplo-lethality[58]. Sporidial cultures which grew

successfully were maintained continually on PDA and were stored as samples in silica powder

at -18ºC.

Primers were designed, using Primer3[124], that would specifically amplify, for each the PR, HD1

and HD2 mating-type genes, either of the two alleles that were present in the two haploid

reference genomes of *M. superbum*, *a priori* compatible for mating given their opposite
position in the tetrad[58] (Table S1).

For amplifying fragments of PR or HD genes, DNA templates were prepared by suspending
portions of fungal cultures (quantity not exceeding the tip of a sterile toothpick) in 40 µL of
ultrapure water. Boiling PCR was performed in a final volume of 30 µL containing 3 µL of
fungal suspension, 15 µL of 2X Buffer (containing a mix of dNTPs 5mM in addition of bovine
serum albumin (BSA) 20mg/ml, W1 detergent 1%, home made 10X Buffer (Ammonium Sulfat
1M, Tris HCl 1M, $MgCl_26H_2O$ 1M) and sterile deionized H_2O), 1.2 µL of each forward and
reverse primers (10 µM), 0.15 µL of Taq DNA Polymerase (5 U/µL, MP Biomedicals) and 9.8
µL of sterile H_2O. The touchdown PCR amplification protocol consisted of 5 min at 94°C for
pre-denaturation, 10 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 sec, annealing at 60°C (with 1°C
decrements from 60°C to 50°C at every cycle) for 30 sec, and extension at 72°C for 1 min. This
was followed by a further 30 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 sec, annealing at 50°C for
30 sec, and extension at 72°C for 1 min. The reaction was finished with a final extension for 5
min at 72°C. The PCR products were revealed and confirmed by the GelRed Nucleic Acid
Stain 10000X (Biotium) and photographed with UV transillumination using the VWR
Genosmart gel documentation system after loading on 1.5% agarose (Nippon Genetics Europe
GmbH)-TAE gels. PCR products were sequenced using Sanger technology at Genewiz.

Mating tests and plant inoculations

To check for compatibility between cultures in tetrads, mating tests were performed between
pairs of cultures from the same meiotic tetrad. Six-day old cultures were suspended in sterile
water. Suspensions were then combined in equal amounts and plated in small spots, less than
10µl each, onto water agar plates with 0.5ml phytol solution and onto water agar plates with
0.5 ml sterile water. The phytol solution was 0.006% phytol and 0.8% ethanol[58]. Phytol has
been shown to induce hyphal growth in *Microbotryum* fungi[125]. Plates were refrigerated at 5ºC.
Spots were checked for hyphae using an inverted scope between 2 and 4 days after plating. We
used cultures of *M. superbum* sporidia of opposite PR mating types but identical HD alleles to
inoculate seeds of *Dianthus chinesis* as previously described[58]. We grew the plants in the
greenhouse and checked for symptoms in anthers. The species *D. chinesis* was used as it is
easier to grow under the greenhouse and make it flower than *D. pavonius* or *D. carthusianorum*
and the focal *Microbotryum* fungi are found on various Dianthus hosts in nature.

Softwares for figures

For figures illustrating synteny, we used the package circlize[126] or Rideogram[108] based on alignments performed with mummer[127]. We used ggplot2 for plotting d_S values. For RNAseq mapping illustration, we used the package karyoploteR[92].

Data availability

RNASeq data for all experiments listed in this section are available in GEO at NCBI, Accession Numbers/Record GSE233508 for the *M. superbum* data.

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Author contributions

T.G., M.E.H., A.C. and R.R.d.l.V. conceptualized the study, acquired funding and supervised the study. M.E.H., T.G. and A.C. acquired the *Microbotryum* strains. A.S. extracted DNA for PacBio sequencing. M.E.H. and W.J.M. sequenced and analysed the *M. scorzonerae* genome. E.L., P.J., Q.R., L.B. and R.R.d.l.V. analyzed the PacBio genomes. A.C. acquired the Illumina genomes and performed SNP calling. P.J. and E.L. analysed the Illumina genomes. M.E.H. and J.G. performed tetrad isolation and mating tests. A.L., E.C., M.E.H. and J.G. performed tetrad segregation analyses. M.H.P. and R.K.H. acquired the expression data. R.R.d.l.V. analyzed the RNAseq data. E.L., P.J. and R.R.d.l.V. produced the figures. T.G. and E.L. wrote the manuscript draft with contributions by P.J., M.E.H., Q.R., M.H.P. and R.K.H. All authors edited the manuscript. The final version of the manuscript was prepared by E.L., R.R.d.l.V. and T.G.

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Figure 1: Species tree with pictures of diseased plants parasitized by the different *Microbotryum* species and showing chromosomal arrangements of the mating-type chromosomes compared to the ancestral state. Arrows of different colors on the tree branches indicate mating-type locus linkage, or their linkage to centromeres, or loss of function. Colored bars at the right of the phylogeny indicate the presence of evolutionary strata suppression recombination beyond mating-type loci. Pictures are from Michael E. Hood and Julian Woodman.

Figure 2: Synteny and rearrangements between the a₁ genomes of *Microbotryum*
***superbum* and *M. lagerheimii*, with all contigs (top) or only the mating-type chromosomes**
(bottom). The *M. lagerheimii* genome represents a proxy for the ancestral state before
recombination suppression and with two separate mating-type chromosomes. The HD mating-
type chromosome from *M. lagerheimii* is represented in blue and the PR mating-type
chromosome in purple (splitted into two scaffolds), with links to orthologous genes to the *M.*
superbum mating-type chromosomes. The positions of the HD and PR mating-type genes are
indicated in red and by red links between the two genomes. The PR chromosome shows a
substantial increase in size and a chaos of rearrangements.

Figure 3: Inferred scenario for the evolution of the mating-type chromosomes in *Microbotryum superbum* and *M. shykoffianum*. Pictures of the diseased plants parasitized by the two species are shown. Recombination suppression is figured by colors corresponding to the different evolutionary strata.

 Figure 4: Differentiation and rearrangements between the mating-type chromosomes in

 Microbotryum superbum. **A)** Per-gene synonymous divergence (d_S) plotted along the ancestral

 gene order (taking as proxy the gene order along the *M. lagerheimii* mating-type chromosomes),

 the HD chromosome at left and the PR chromosome at right; the points are colored according

 to their evolutionary stratum assignment: turquoise, light and dark ruby for the *M. superbum*

 specific evolutionary strata, black for the evolutionary stratum shared by *M. superbum* and *M.*

 shykoffianum, blue, orange and purple for the ancient evolutionary strata shared by most

 Microbotryum species. The pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs) are in grey. The green points

 correspond to genes that were ancestrally on the PR chromosome but found in the HD

 chromosomes in *M. superbum* or reciprocally. **B)** Change-point analysis identifying changes in

 mean dS levels. **C)** Rearrangements compared to the ancestral gene order figured by plotting

 the gene rank in the current gene order (b1 in the a_1 genome and b2 in the a_2 genome) as a

 function of the gene rank in the ancestral gene order.

Figure 5: Differentiation and rearrangements between the mating-type chromosomes in
Microbotryum shykoffianum. **a)** Per-gene synonymous divergence (d_S) plotted along the
ancestral gene order (taking as proxy the gene order along the *M. lagerheimii* mating-type
chromosomes)**,** the HD chromosome at left and the PR chromosome at right. The points are
colored according to their evolutionary stratum assignment: turquoise, light ruby and half of
the dark ruby region for the *M. superbum* specific evolutionary strata, black and the other half
of the dark ruby for the evolutionary stratum shared by *M. superbum* and *M. shykoffianum,*
blue, orange and purple for the ancient evolutionary strata shared by most *Microbotryum*
species. The pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs) are in grey. The position of the *M. superbum*
specific evolutionary strata are indicated by color bars at the bottom. The green points
correspond to genes that were ancestrally on the PR chromosome but found in the HD
chromosomes in *M. superbum* or reciprocally. **B)** Rearrangements compared to the ancestral
gene order figured by plotting the gene rank in the current gene order (b_1 in the a_1 genome and
b_2 in the a_2 genome) as a function of the gene rank in the ancestral gene order.

Figure 6: Trans-specific polymorphism (TP) of genes present along the mating-type chromosomes in *Microbotryum superbum*, considering also *M. shykoffianum* and *M. lagerheimii*. A) Schematic representation of trans-specific polymorphism in genes completely linked to mating-type loci by suppressed recombination, allowing to assess whether recombination cessation occurred before or after speciation, here between *M. lagerheimii, M. superbum* and *M. shykoffianum*. **B)** Percentage of genes within each evolutionary stratum with the following genealogy pattern: full trans-specific

1321   polymorphism (i.e., across both *M. superbum* and *M. shykoffianum*), partial trans-specific

1322   polymorphism (i.e., with only one allele showing clustering by mating type and the other by species, or

1323   with one allele missing, i.e. not informative), and no trans-specific polymorphism or unresolved. The

1324   total number of genes analyzed per stratum is indicated at the left of each barplot. The PARs (pseudo-

1325   autosomal regions) correspond to the PR chromosome PARs pooled together.

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1327 **Figure 7: Structure and expression of the HD genes in *Microbotryum superbum* (A) and**
1328 ***M. lychnidis-dioicae* (B).** In the middle of each panel, the coding sequences of the genes
1329 present in the a_1 HD chromosome and the a_2 HD chromosome are represented by rectangles
1330 (upper rectangles correspond to the coding sequence features and lower rectangles to the
1331 transcript features), and the direction of the transcription is indicated by an arrow. The HD2
1332 and HD1 genes are represented in yellow boxes. The blue areas represent the syntenic regions
1333 between the a_1 and a_2 sequences. Above and below the rectangles, the level of expression is
1334 represented and annotated according to the condition of the RNAseq extraction (mated 24h or
1335 *in planta*).

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Figure 8: Scaffold size and transposable element (TE) content in the genome of *Microbotryum*

***superbum* a₁, as a proportion (A) or absolute content in base pair (bp, B)**. The relative proportions

of transposable element classes in each scaffold is represented by the sizes of the colored bars. The PR

chromosome is separated into its different evolutionary strata (blue, black, turquoise, light and dark

ruby) and the pseudo-autosomal regions (PAR). The blue stratum on the HD chromosome is also

separated from the rest of the chromosome. Only scaffolds longer than 300kb are displayed.

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SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

Figure S1: Synteny and rearrangements between the a₁ genomes of *Microbotryum superbum* and *M. lagerheimii*, with all contigs (top) or only the mating-type chromosomes (bottom). The *M. lagerheimii* genome represents a proxy for the ancestral state before recombination suppression and with two separate mating-type chromosomes. The HD mating-type chromosome from *M. lagerheimii* is represented in blue and the PR mating-type chromosome in purple (splitted into two scaffolds), with links to orthologous genes to the *M. superbum* mating-type chromosomes. The positions of the HD and PR mating-type genes are

1364 indicated in red and by red links between the two genomes. The PR chromosome shows a
1365 substantial increase in size and a chaos of rearrangements.

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Figure S2: Synteny and rearrangements between the a₁ genomes of *Microbotryum*
***shykoffianum* and *M. lagerheimii*, with all contigs (top) or only the mating-type**
chromosomes (bottom). The *M. lagerheimii* genome represents a proxy for the ancestral state
before recombination suppression and with two separate mating-type chromosomes. The HD
mating-type chromosome from *M. lagerheimii* is represented in blue and the PR mating-type
chromosome in purple (splitted into two scaffolds), with links to orthologous genes to the *M.*
superbum mating-type chromosomes. The positions of the HD and PR mating-type genes are
indicated in red and by red links between the two genomes. The PR chromosome shows a
substantial increase in size and a chaos of rearrangements.

M. lagerheimii a$_2$

M. shykoffianum a$_2$

M. lagerheimii a$_2$

M. shykoffianum a$_2$

Figure S3: Synteny and rearrangements between the a$_2$ genomes of *Microbotryum shykoffianum* and *M. lagerheimii*, with all contigs (top) and only the mating-type chromosomes (bottom). The *M. lagerheimii* genome represents a proxy for the ancestral state before recombination suppression and with two separate mating-type chromosomes. The HD mating-type chromosome from *M. lagerheimii* is represented in blue and the PR mating-type chromosome in purple (splitted into two scaffolds), with links to orthologous genes to the *M. superbum* mating-type chromosomes. The positions of the HD and PR mating-type genes are indicated in red and by red links between the two genomes. The PR chromosome shows a substantial increase in size and a chaos of rearrangements.

Figure S4: Synteny and rearrangements between the a_1 (left) and a_2 (right) HD and PR mating-
type chromosomes of *Microbotryum superbum* (A-B) and *Microbotryum shykoffianum* (C-D)
compared to those of *M. lagerheimii.* Links are represented between orthologous genes, in blue for
the genes on the *M. lagerheimii* HD mating-type chromosome and in purple for the *M. lagerheimii* PR
mating-type chromosome. The HD and PR mating-type genes are indicated in red. Centromeres are
figured in yellow and telomeres in dark green on the outer track. The strata are indicated by their color
on the inner track. Genes that have moved from the ancestral short HD chromosome arm to current PR
chromosome, or reciprocally, are in green on the inner track.

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 Figure S5: Synteny and rearrangements between the a_1 and a_2 mating-type chromosomes (HD
 and PR chromosomes) of *Microbotryum superbum* (A) and *Microbotryum shykoffianum* (B). Links
 are represented between orthologous genes, colors corresponding to the evolutionary strata. The HD
 and PR mating-type genes are indicated in red. Centromeres are figured in yellow and telomeres in dark
 green on the outer track. The strata are indicated by their color on the inner track. Genes that have
 moved from ancestral short HD chromosome arm to current PR chromosome, or reciprocally, are in
 green on the inner track.

1409 **Figure S6: Telomere motifs count over 1kb windows for *Microbotryum violaceum superbum* (A)**

1410 **and *M. shykoffianum* (B).** Top panel corresponds to the motif TTAGGG for a_1 and a_2 contigs, and

1411 bottom panel to the inverse complement CCCTAA for a_1 and a_2 contigs.

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 Figure S7: Linkage disequilibrium between the mating-type chromosomes and two autosomes in

 the a_1 genome of *Microbotryum superbum*. Linkage disequilibrium as measured by r^2 is represented

 with colors along chromosomes (a) and summarized with boxplots (b). The two autosomes are called

 Aut1 and Aut2, and the two contigs of the PR chromosomes in the a_1 genome are called PR1 and PR2.

Figure S8: Read mapping coverage along the HD chromosome in *Microbotryum shykoffianum.*

The mapping coverage is represented against the a_2 genome at the top and against the a_1 genome at the

bottom. The location of the canonical HD mating-type genes is represented by the red vertical bar. The

median read coverage is indicated by the blue horizontal bar. The orange arrows represent the regions

collapsed in the a_1 genome assembly. The region delimited by vertical dotted lines is the region that

was assigned correctly to a_1 and a_2 mating types. The grey arrow represents a region that might be

missing from the a_2 genome.

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1436 **Figure S9: Synteny and rearrangements between the a₁ genomes of *Microbotryum scorzonarae***
1437 **and *M. lagerheimii* (A) and between a₁ and a₂ genomes of *M. scorzonarae* (B).** The *M. lagerheimii*
1438 genome represents a proxy for the ancestral state. The HD and PR loci are linked between genomes by
1439 red links. On the right, a picture of a diseased flower.

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1442 **Figure S10:** Boxplot of the synonymous divergence (d_S) values for each stratum in *Microbotryum*

1443 *superbum*. Wilcoxon tests were performed between each pairwise comparison of strata to assess

1444 significant differences in mean d_S between strata. Only significant p-values are shown.

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Figure S11: Differentiation and rearrangements in the HD (A-C) and PR (B-D) mating-type chromosomes in *Microbotryum superbum*. A-B correspond to the a_1 mating type, and C-D to the a_2 mating type. Per-gene synonymous divergence (d_S) plotted along the current gene order in the PR and HD chromosomes, in the a_1 and a_2 genomes; the points are colored according to their evolutionary stratum assignment: turquoise, light ruby for the *M. superbum* specific evolutionary strata, dark ruby and black for the evolutionary stratum shared by *M. superbum* and *M. shykoffianum,* blue, orange and purple for the ancient evolutionary strata shared by most *Microbotryum* species. The pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs) are in grey. The genes ancestrally located in the alternative mating-type chromosome are in green (i.e. the genes ancestrally in the HD chromosome arm are in green on the PR chromosome, and reciprocally). The yellow boxes correspond to the position of the centromeres. The vertical red lines indicate the position of the HD and PR loci.

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Figure S12: Differentiation and rearrangements in the HD (A-C) and PR (B-D) mating-type

chromosomes in *Microbotryum shykoffianum*. A-B correspond to the a_1 mating type, and C-D to the

a_2 mating type. Per-gene synonymous divergence (d_S) plotted along the current gene order in the PR

and HD chromosomes, in the a_1 and a_2 genomes; the points are colored according to their evolutionary

stratum assignment: dark ruby and black for the evolutionary strata shared by *M. superbum* and *M.*

shykoffianum, blue, orange and purple for the ancient evolutionary strata shared by most *Microbotryum*

species. The pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs) are in grey. The genes ancestrally located in the

alternative mating-type chromosome are in green (i.e. the genes ancestrally in the HD chromosome arm

are in green on the PR chromosome, and reciprocally).

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Figure S13: Differentiation and rearrangements between mating-type chromosomes in
***Microbotryum scorzoraneae*. a)** Per-gene synonymous divergence (d_S) plotted along the ancestral gene
order (taking as proxy the gene order along the *M. lagerheimii* mating-type chromosomes, its HD
chromosomes encompassing the MC03A and B contigs and the PR chromosome the MC12 and MC16
contigs). The points are colored according to their evolutionary stratum assignment: emerald and quartz
for the young evolutionary stratum specific to *M. scorzonareae,* and blue, orange and purple for the
ancient evolutionary strata shared by most *Microbotryum* species. The pseudo-autosomal regions
(PARs) are in grey. **B)** Rearrangements compared to the ancestral gene order figured by plotting the
gene rank in the current gene order (in the a_1 genome and in the a_2 genome) as a function of the gene
rank in the ancestral gene order. The different contigs in *M. scorzonareae* have different colors in the
gene rank panels.

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Figure S14- Differentiation and rearrangements in the PR mating-type chromosomes in *Microbotryum scorzoraneae*. Per-gene synonymous divergence (d_S) plotted along the current gene order in the PR chromosome in the a_1 (A) and a_2 (B) genomes; the points are colored according to their evolutionary stratum assignment: emerald and quartz rose or the *M. scorzoraneae* specific evolutionary strata, orange and purple for the ancient evolutionary strata shared by most *Microbotryum* species. The pseudo-autosomal regions (PARs) are in grey.

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Supplementary Tables

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Gene	Allele	Primer Forward	Primer Reverse
HD1	a_1	CCAAAGACGTGGCTGACTTC	ACCAGATGTCAGGACCGAAG
HD1	a_2	TGGAATCAAGCGAGCTGGTA	ATGTGGCGAGCGATGATGA
HD2	a_1	TGAGAGTGTCTTAAGCAGCCT	TTCTTCTTCCGTGCTAGCCA
HD2	a_2	CTCGAAACACTGCATTCCGT	AAGTCGGTAGGGTTGAACGA
PR	a_1	CTCTCGTCGACATCCCTCTC	CCGCCCAGTGACGATATACT
PR	a_2	CGACATAGGCGCAACTTTCA	AAGGCCGCAAAGAATACGAC

1502 **Table S1:** Primer pairs designed for specifically amplifying the different alleles at the genes HD1, HD2

1503 and PR as designed from *Microbotryum superbum* 1065.

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Tetrad	Cell in tetrad	PR a_1	PR a_2	HD1 a_1	HD1 a_2	HD2 a_1	HD2 a_2
12	P	+	-	-	+	-	+
12	D	-	+	-	+	-	+
14	P	-	+	+	-	+	-
14	D	+	-	-	+	-	+
6	P	-	+	-	+	-	-
6	D	+	-	-	+	-	-
10	P	+	-	+	-	+	-
10	D	-	+	+	-	+	-
6	P	-	+	-	+	-	+
6	D	+	-	-	+	-	+
3	P	+	-	+	-	+	-
3	D	-	+	-	+	-	+

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Table S2: Segregation of mating-type alleles in six tetrads of *Microbotryum superbum* (two opposite
cells in a linear tetrad were analysed, i.e. P and D, corresponding to segregation at first meiotic division).
A + sign indicates amplification by PCR of a fragment using primers designed to amplify specifically
the a_1 or a_2 alleles in the *M. superbum* reference genome for the three mating-type genes PR, HD1 and
HD2.

Table S3: RNA seq sources (see excel file)

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