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Establishment of a Congenic Strain for the Oyster mushroom reveals

the Structure and Evolution of Mating-Type Loci

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Abstract

Pleurotus ostreatus, a widely cultivated edible oyster mushroom, is an ecologically

versatile species with applications in biotechnology, agriculture, and food production.

It functions as a decomposer and in nutrient-limited conditions it enhances its survival

by using a potent toxin to prey on nematodes. Its adaptability is further regulated by

sexual reproduction, which follows a tetrapolar mating system governed by two

unlinked, multiallelic loci, *matA* and *matB*. The two mating-compatible monokaryotic

strains PC9 and PC15, derived from the parental dikaryon strain N001, exhibit

significant physiological differences. PC9 grows robustly in laboratory conditions,

whereas PC15 grows more slowly, making PC9 the preferred strain for research. To

advance *P. ostreatus* as a genetic model, we characterized the mating-type (*MAT*) loci

of both monokaryon strains and developed a congenic strain. We analyzed the *MAT* loci

in multiple *P. ostreatus* strains, and identified 11 A and 12 B alleles among twelve

haplotypes, confirming their multiallelic nature. Using genetic backcrosses, we

introgressed the *matA* and *matB* loci from PC15 into the PC9 genetic background to

generate the congenic strain PC9.15. After sequencing and assembling a high-quality

and contiguous genome for PC9.15, we confirmed that the genomes of PC9.15 and PC9

are 99% similar, with the only major difference placed at the *matA* and *matB* loci.

Author Summary

Mushrooms are not just decomposers—they can also be predators. The oyster mushroom *Pleurotus ostreatus* is an ecologically adaptable species that thrives by breaking down plant material and preying on nematodes using a potent toxin that triggers rapid paralysis of nematode prey. In addition to its ability to switch from saprophyte to predator, another feature contributing to the ecological success of *Pleurotus* is its reproductive strategy. *P. ostreatus* reproduces sexually through a tetrapolar mating-type system, governed by two unlinked mating loci, *matA* and *matB*. These loci determine mating compatibility and contribute to genetic diversity, yet their precise structure and allelic diversity remain unclear. In this study, we characterized the *matA* and *matB* loci in *P. ostreatus* strains PC9 and PC15 and analyzed *MAT* loci across multiple strains, confirming their multiallelic nature. To enhance *P. ostreatus* as a genetic model, we developed the congenic strain PC9.15 by introgressing *MAT* alleles from PC15 into the PC9 genetic background through genetic backcrosses. Genome sequencing confirmed that PC9.15 closely matches the genome of PC9, except at the *MAT* loci. This study expands our understanding of mating-type diversity in *P. ostreatus*, introduces PC9.15 as a valuable tool for genetic studies and controlled crosses, and facilitates the development of *P. ostreatus* as a model system for fungal biology.

Introduction

The edible oyster mushroom *P. ostreatus* is a fascinating organism with significant ecological and industrial importance. It is one of the most widely cultivated edible mushrooms worldwide and an ecologically versatile species, thriving as a decomposer in forests on decaying wood and forest litter (1, 2). Nutrient-limited environments can trigger a shift in *P. ostreatus* toward carnivory to supplement its nutrient intake. *P. ostreatus* preys on nematodes by producing a potent toxin, 3-octanone, which is concentrated and stored inside specialized structures called toxocysts. Upon release, this toxin rapidly paralyzes nematodes within minutes (3-5), allowing the fungus to consume the immobilized prey. This ability to exploit multiple nutrient sources using two different lifestyles contributes to *Pleurotus*'s adaptability and ecological success.

Like many fungi, *P. ostreatus* relies on sexual reproduction to maintain genetic diversity and adaptability (2). In fungi, sexual reproduction is regulated by mating-type loci (*MAT*), which determine compatibility and control genetic exchange between individuals (6). Fungal mating systems are classified into heterothallism, where individuals require a genetically compatible partner, or homothallism, which is characterized by self-fertilization (7). The *MAT* loci of fungi have evolved into two different organization paradigms: the bipolar and tetrapolar systems (8). In bipolar mating systems, the homeodomain (*HD*) and pheromone/pheromone receptor (*P/R*)

genes are linked at a single *MAT* locus which determines sexual compatibility, requiring

two isolates to carry opposite alleles at this locus for successful mating (6). Conversely,

tetrapolar mating systems involve two unlinked *MAT* loci: the *HD* locus, encoding two

homeodomain-type transcription factors, and the *P/R* locus, which contains tightly

linked mating pheromones and pheromone receptors; mating in tetrapolar systems

requires distinct alleles at both loci for compatibility (6). Among Basidiomycetes, the

majority of species retain this ancestral tetrapolar mating system. However, in certain

lineages such as *Cryptococcus neoformans* and *Ustilago hordei*, the two loci have fused,

resulting in a derived bipolar mating system (9, 10). *P. ostreatus* follows a heterothallic

bifactorial tetrapolar mating system, where sexual compatibility is determined by two

unlinked, multiallelic loci, *matA* and *matB* (11, 12). Analyses of 17 *P. ostreatus* strains

have revealed at least ten distinct *matA* alleles and eight *matB* alleles, confirming the

extensive allelic diversity at both loci (13). Two widely used monokaryotic strains, PC9

and PC15, have been derived from the parental dikaryotic strain N001 through a process

that isolates distinct haploid nuclei called dedikaryotization (14). PC9 carries the

mating type *A2B1*, while PC15 harbors *A1B2* (14). Although the mating-type loci of *P.*

ostreatus have been described previously (13), their detailed structural organization and

allelic diversity remain incompletely characterized. A deeper understanding of these

loci is crucial for elucidating the molecular basis of mating compatibility and

identifying potential structural variations between strains.

Congenic strains serve as invaluable tools for genetic studies, retaining the genetic

identity of a parental strain while incorporating a specific region of interest. Such strains

enable precise investigations into complex genetic pathways and have been used to

study the function of mating-type loci in sexual and unisexual reproduction, virulence,

uniparental mitochondrial inheritance, and enable efficient genetic mapping and bulked

segregant analysis (BSA) in various fungal models (15-17). Despite their broad utility,

congenic strains are not available in *P. ostreatus*, limiting efficient genetic analyses and

manipulation in this species. A clear need for congenic strains in *P. ostreatus* emerges

from a genomic comparison between two commonly used laboratory strains, PC9 and

PC15. The PC9 and PC15 genomes align with approximately 97% identity over 94%

of the genome, with the remaining 6% showing no alignment (18). This high level of

genetic variation likely contributes to two strains' differing physiological characteristics:

PC9 grows at least twice as fast as PC15 in laboratory conditions, highlighting the

significant impact of their genetic differences and making PC9 the preferred laboratory

reference strain (18).

Here, we report the characterization of the *MAT* loci and the development of a

congenic strain of *P. ostreatus*, PC9.15, through ten genetic backcrosses. We sequenced

and assembled the PC9.15 genome using a long-read (Nanopore) sequencing, enabling

comparison of the *MAT* loci and their flanking regions between PC9 and PC9.15. We

further compared the *MAT* loci among multiple *P. ostreatus* genomes and revealed its

multiallelic structure. From twelve haplotypes analyzed, we identified 11 distinct alleles

at *matA* and 12 at *matB*, highlighting the remarkable genetic diversity of the *MAT* loci

in the *P. ostreatus* population. The development of the congenic strain, PC9.15, in the

genetic background of the model strain PC9, enhances the genetic toolkit for *P.*

ostreatus, offering a powerful genetic tool and resource to advance research in

mushroom biology.

Results

Characterization of the mating-type loci in *P. ostreatus* strains PC9 and PC15

High-quality genome assemblies of *P. ostreatus* strains PC9 and PC15 are available (18-21), yet the mating-type loci remain incompletely characterized. In basidiomycetes, the *matA* locus is typically flanked by the highly conserved mitochondrial intermediate peptidase (*MIP*) and *β*-flanking (*βFG*) genes (22). Using these conserved flanking genes, we identified and characterized the boundaries of the *P. ostreatus matA* locus. The locus spans ~5kb in PC9 and ~10kb in PC15, both located on chromosome 2 (Fig 1A). The *matA* locus encodes two homeodomain (*HD*) genes, *HD1* and *HD2*, which can form heterodimers with compatible HD proteins from the opposite mating partner, enabling intracellular recognition of sexual compatibility after mating (23). Notably, PC9 carries two HD genes (*HD1.1* and *HD2.1*) transcribed in opposite directions, whereas, PC15 harbors four *HD* genes (*HD1.2*, *HD1.3*, *HD2.2*, and *HD2.3*) in the *HD* locus (Fig 1A), suggesting a gene duplication event in PC15. A previous study reported only a single *HD2* gene in the PC15 *matA* locus (13); however, examination of the JGI genome assembly confirmed the presence of two *HD2* genes, consistent with the complete gene content observed in our analysis. To assess allelic divergence, we aligned the protein sequences of HD1 and HD2 from both strains. While all HD proteins share

conserved homeodomain motifs, we still observed distinct sequence variations among

HD1 and HD2 protein (S1A and B Fig), supporting the conclusion that PC9 and PC15

possess genetically distinct and mating-compatible *matA* alleles.

In both PC9 and PC15, the *matB* locus is located on chromosome 9, spanning ~54

kb and ~40 kb, respectively. The locus contains mating pheromone precursor (*PHB*)

and pheromone receptor (*STE3*) genes, which are involved in premating recognition (6).

Unlike the conserved flanking regions of *matA*, the *matB* locus is bordered by more

variable, species-specific genes (22). In both strains, *matB* is flanked by a general

substrate transporter (*MFS*) and a prenyltransferase (*UbiA*), providing genomic

boundaries for this locus. To identify the mating-type genes within *matB*, we searched

for conserved Pfam domains corresponding to *STE3* (Pfam: PF02076) and *PHB* (Pfam:

PF08015) domains. In total, four *STE3* genes (*STE3.1* to *STE3.4*) and five *PHB* genes

(*PHB1* to *PHB5*) were identified in PC9, and five *STE3* genes (*STE3.7* to *STE3.11*) and

six *PHB* genes (*PHB6* to *PHB11*) were identified in PC15 (S1 Table). Four additional

genes encoding Ste3 proteins, *STE3.5*, *STE3.6*, *STE3.12*, and *STE3.13*, that share high

sequence identity (> 96%) were found flanking the *matB* locus, suggesting that they are

not mating-type-specific (S2 Table). Alignment of all nine *STE3* receptors encoded in

the *matB* locus revealed notable variation in the C-terminal regions (S1C Fig),

consistent with their roles in mating signal recognition and allelic specificity. We further

identified genes that encode mating pheromone precursors (*PHB*) within the *matB* locus.

Across both alleles, we identified 11 *PHB* genes encoding peptides of 51 to 72 amino

acids in length with a canonical C-terminal CAAX motif (C = cysteine, A = aliphatic

residue, X = any residue) characteristic of mating pheromones (24). Protein sequence

alignment confirmed conservation of this motif among all *P. ostreatus* Phb peptides

(S1E Fig).

To explore the evolutionary divergence of mating-type genes across

basidiomycetes, we constructed maximum-likelihood phylogenetic trees of HD and

Ste3 protein from *P. ostreatus* and the model mushroom *Schizophyllum commune* (Fig

1B). Phylogenetic analysis of HD proteins revealed two distinct, well-supported clades

corresponding to HD1 and HD2 (bootstrap support = 100%). Within each clade,

sequences clustered by species, forming subgroups indicative of taxon-specific

diversification (Fig 1B). The clear separation between HD1 and HD2, along with their

internal species-level groupings, suggests long-term evolutionary maintenance and

potential functional specialization of these mating-type genes. In contrast, Ste3 proteins

grouped first by allele type and then further separated by species (Fig 1B). Within these,

Ste3.2 and Ste3.3 were highly similar to Ste3.8 and Ste3.9, respectively (S1D Fig). By

contrast, the protein sequences of Ste3.1 versus Ste3.7 and Ste3.4 versus Ste3.11 are

considerably more divergent, further supporting their roles as distinct mating-type

pheromone receptors (S1D Fig).

Multiallelic mating-type loci in *P. ostreatus*

In tetrapolar fungi, mating-type loci are often multiallelic rather than biallelic, resulting

in the presence of hundreds or even thousands of mating-types, as seen in *C. cinereus*

and *S. commune*, which have over 12,000 and 20,000 mating types, respectively (25).

P. ostreatus also follows a multiallelic tetrapolar mating system, though the exact

structure and diversity of its mating-type alleles remain poorly characterized. To

investigate its multiallelism, we compared the *matA* and *matB* loci across several *P.*

ostreatus genomes (Table 1). Our dataset comprised two monokaryotic strains, SS5 and

SS14, derived from strain TWF713, as well as additional publicly available *P. ostreatus*

genomes retrieved from NCBI and JGI databases. These include monokaryotic strains

CCMSSC00389 (389) (26), CCMSSC03989 (3989) (27), two haplotypes of the

dikaryotic strain gfPleOstr1.1 (gf and gfalt) (28), and the dikaryotic strains DSM11191

(DSM) and 595 (29). We then examined the *matA* and *matB* regions across all strains,

focusing on their organization, gene content, and allelic variation to better understand

the molecular basis of multiallelism in *P. ostreatus*.

Comparison of *HD* genes across ten *P. ostreatus* genomes revealed 17 *HD1* and

12 *HD2* alleles within these *matA* loci (Fig 2A and S3 Table). While at least 12 distinct

matA alleles have been reported previously (11), their structural organization and

sequence-level variation were not described. To avoid potential overlap with existing

allele designations, we named the characterized alleles in this study from A21-A29.

However, we cannot rule out the possibility that some of these may be identical in

sequence or in mating type to previously reported alleles. SS14 shares an identical *matA*

allele with PC9 (allele A2), while nine novel *matA* alleles were identified among the

remaining haplotypes (Fig 2A). Six haplotypes contained a single *HD1*/*HD2* gene pair

(Fig 2A), although duplication of *HD1* was observed in SS5 (*A21*), 389 (*A22*), and 595

(*A26*). Notably, SS5 (*A21*) carries three *HD1* genes, a configuration similar to that

recently reported for *P. ostreatus* strain PC80, derived from an artificially cultivated

strain HeiKang 650 (30). The gfalt haplotype (*A29*) exhibited duplication of both *HD1*

and *HD2*, consistent with our previous observations in PC15. Moreover, the *matA* locus

of gfalt (A29) expanded to 73 kb—substantially larger than the 6 kb locus in PC9—and

contained an insertion of five genes, including four hypothetical proteins and one

transposase (Fig 2A). Given the sequence variation and gene duplications we had

observed, we performed phylogenetic analysis to assess the divergence of HD1 and

HD2 proteins across strains. This analysis revealed two distinct clusters for HD1

(HD1.1 to HD1.17) and HD2 (HD2.1 to HD2.13), confirming the divergence of these

gene families (Fig 2B).

At the *matB* locus, we identified ten new alleles (B21-B30) that are absent in either

PC9 or PC15, with locus sizes ranging from 45 kb to 150 kb (Fig 2A). The locus is

flanked by *MFS* and *UbiA* genes, and most alleles contain three to five *STE3* and four

to six *PHB* genes. One to two *STE3*-like genes were also found immediately outside

the *UbiA* boundary in different strains; these receptors share high similarity and

therefore were considered non-mating-type-specific. The *matB* loci of SS5 (B21), SS14

(B22), and 595 (B28) were notably expanded—to 105 kb, 77 kb and 150 kb,

respectively—compared to the 54 kb locus in PC9. Several additional genes were

detected within these expanded regions, including an integrase, a retrotransposon Gag

protein, and hypothetical proteins, which are unlikely to be directly involved in mating

but may have contributed to the locus expansion. Phylogenetic analysis of Ste3 protein

sequences illustrates their diversity across *P. ostreatus* strains, aligning with the

multiallelic nature of the *matB* locus and with the locus's role in facilitating diverse

mating interactions (Fig 2B). In total, we identified distinct 12 *matB* distinct alleles

across strains containing 48 *STE3*-like pheromone receptor genes, confirming the

multiallelic configuration of both loci in *P. ostreatus*.

To test whether allelic variation affects mating compatibility, we performed

reciprocal crosses among SS5 (*A21B21*), SS14 (*A2B22*), PC9 (*A2B1*) and PC15 (*A1B2*).

SS5 is compatible with both PC9 and PC15, as evidenced by the presence of clamp

connections—hallmark structures of dikaryotic hyphae in basidiomycetes—and

successful fruiting body development (Fig 2C). The SS14 x PC9 cross produced neither

clamp connections nor fruiting bodies, as expected from their both harbor the *A2* allele

of the *matA* locus (Fig 2C). In contrast, the SS14 x PC15 cross yielded clamp

connections and fruiting bodies (Fig 2C). These results support that *P. ostreatus* follows

a tetrapolar mating system, in which successful mating requires compatibility at both

matA and *matB* loci.

Table 1. *P. ostreatus* genomes used in the present study.

Strain (haplotype)	Genome size	BUSCO (%)	Source	Citation
PC9	35.0 Mb	98.6% [S:97.3%, D:1.3%]	NCBI	(18)
PC15	34.3 Mb	99.3% [S:98.0%, D:1.2%]	NCBI	(19-21)
SS5	41.4 Mb	99.4% [S:95.9%, D:3.5%]	this study	this study
SS14	43.6 Mb	99.4% [S:91.2%, D:8.2%]	this study	this study
CCMSSC00389	35.1 Mb	98.8% [S:97.4%, D:1.4%]	NCBI	(26)
CCMSSC03989	34.4 Mb	98.9% [S:97.8%, D:1.1%]	NCBI	(27)
gfPleOstr1.1	40.6 Mb	99.4% [S:98.2%, D:1.2%]	NCBI	(28)
gfPleOstr1.1 alternate haplotype	40.8 Mb	99.1% [S:97.4%, D:1.7%]	NCBI	(28)
DSM11191	65.9 Mb	99.5% [S:6.6%, D:92.9%]	JGI	
595	79.7 Mb	99.7% [S:25.7%, D:74.0%]	NCBI	(29)

Construction of the congenic strain PC9.15 via genetic backcrossing

PC9 and PC15 are monokaryotic strains derived from the dikaryotic strain N001, but only ~94% of their genomes are aligned with high similarity (~97%). This high genetic diversity likely contributes to the significant growth differences observed between the two strains. Given the robust growth and well-annotated genome of PC9, we selected the PC9 genetic background for introgression of the PC15 mating-type loci to generate a congenic strain (Fig 3A). To construct a congenic strain with PC9 background, we first crossed PC9 and PC15 and isolated meiotic progeny by dissecting individual basidiospores. Randomly selected progeny carrying the *A1B2* mating type as determined by PCR was then backcrossed with PC9 (*A2B1*). After nine additional rounds of backcrossing, we obtained a congenic strain that we designated PC9.15, which carries the *A1B2* mating-type loci from PC15 (Fig 3B and S2A Fig). We found that PC9.15 exhibited growth behavior comparable to PC9 on nutrient-rich medium (YMG) and readily formed fruiting bodies when crossed with PC9 (Fig 3A and 3C). Overall, phenotypic characterization of PC9.15 showed that it retains growth and reproductive traits of PC9 while carrying the *A1B2* mating-type loci from PC15.

High-quality genome assembly and analysis of the congenic

strain PC9.15

To confirm the genome similarity of PC9.15 to PC9 and to characterize its chromosomal architecture, we generated a high-quality, near-chromosome-level genome assembly of the *P. ostreatus* congenic strain PC9.15. Using Nanopore sequencing, we achieved 128x coverage and assembled a contiguous genome of ~35.3 Mb (Table 2), comparable to the genome sizes of PC9 (35.0 Mb) and PC15 (34.3 Mb) (18-21). The PC9.15 genome is distributed across 14 scaffolds, ranging from 38.7 kb to 5.36 Mb, including one scaffold representing the mitochondrial genome. Among the 11 main scaffolds analyzed, nine exhibit telomere-to-telomere assembly, one possesses telomeric repeats at a single end, and one lacks telomeric sequences. Although *P. ostreatus* is known to contain 11 chromosomes (14), our assembly of PC9.15 includes 13 scaffolds. The two additional scaffolds, representing only 1.4% of the total genome size, likely representing unresolved gaps or unplaced regions, such as centromeric or telomeric sequences. For example, scaffold 12 (468,928 bp) contains telomeric repeats and may correspond to a terminal chromosome region, while scaffold 13 (38,780 bp) shows high coverage depth but without gene density, a characteristic associated with centromeres (31), suggesting it may represent a misplaced centromeric fragment. Collectively, these results indicate that the PC9.15 genome assembly reaches near-chromosome-level resolution, with 11 chromosome-like scaffolds.

To assess genome completeness and structural features of the PC9.15 assembly,

we analyzed gene density, sequence coverage, and BUSCO scores. Gene density is

consistent across 11 scaffolds, averaging approximately 41 genes per 100 kb, with an

average sequencing depth of 71.8 reads per 10 kb (Fig 4A). Coverage is generally

uniform across chromosomes, with localized increases on chromosomes 2 and 6 (Fig

4A), possibly due to repetitive sequences, such as transposable elements (TEs).

Assembly completeness, assessed using the basidiomycota_odb10 database (32),

yielded a BUSCO score of 99.4%, comparable to that of PC9 (98.6%) and PC15 (99.3%)

(18), confirming the high quality of the PC9.15 assembly. Overall, these results confirm

that the PC9.15 genome is well-assembled, complete, and suitable for further genomics

analysis.

To evaluate genomic similarity and structural variation, we compared the PC9.15

genome to its parental strains, PC9 and PC15. Annotation of the PC9.15 genome using

funannotate (v1.8.14) (33) identified 14,118 genes (S5 Table), higher than in PC9

(11,875 genes) (18) or PC15 (12,330 genes) (19-21). To control for annotation

inconsistencies arising from version differences, we re-annotated the PC9 genome

using the same version of *funannotate* (v1.8.14), which yielded 12,003 genes. Therefore,

the higher gene count observed in PC9.15 likely reflects a combination of improved

assembly contiguity and enhanced performance of newer *funannotate* versions. To

assess genome-wide similarity, we used D-Genies to generate dot-plot alignments

between PC9.15 and its parental strains, PC9 and PC15 (34). The comparison revealed

~99.47% sequence similarity between PC9 and PC9.15 genomes (defined by >75%

identity) (Fig 4B), whereas PC9.15 and PC15 shared ~56.31% similarity under the same

threshold. This demonstrates that PC9.15 is genetically closer to PC9, consistent with

its congenic background. Comparative analysis revealed several chromosomal

rearrangements in PC9.15 relative to PC9. Circos plot alignment showed that a segment

from PC9 chromosome 4 had been translocated to PC9.15 chromosome 2, and a region

from PC9 chromosome 7 translocated to and became inverted on PC9.15 chromosome

4 (Fig 4C). Additionally, we observed a unique region (segment A) on chromosome 4

of PC9.15 that did not align with the PC9 genome (Fig 4C), but partially matched

chromosome 4 of PC15 (Fig 4D), indicating that this region retains PC15-derived

sequence. The persistence of this segment may reflect suppressed recombination,

potentially caused by repetitive sequences, structural rearrangements, or local

chromosomal features that reduce crossover frequency, as observed in analogous

recombination-suppressed regions (35).

 Table 2. Genomic features of three *P. ostreatus* genome assemblies: PC9, PC9.15,

 and PC15. nt, nucleotides.

General features	PC9	PC9.15	PC15
Total nt	35,032,978	35,378,061	34,342,730
Number of chromosome-like scaffolds	11	11	11
N50 scaffold size, nt	3,500,734	3,339,398	3,270,165
N90 scaffold size, nt	2,134,864	1,697,083	1,880,400
Scaffold max. nt	4,859,873	5,366,244	4,830,258
Scaffold min. nt	9,086	38,780	280,724
Number of scaffolds	17	14	13
N50 contig size, nt	3,500,734	3,339,398	3,270,165
N90 contig size, nt	2,134,864	1,697,083	1,571,664
GC content, %	50.79	50.90	50.95
Genes	11,875	14,118	12,330
BUSCO completeness v6.0.0 (basidiomycota_odb10), %	98.6	99.4	99.3

Analysis of mating-type loci in the congenic strain PC9.15

To confirm the mating-type configuration of the congenic strain PC9.15, we analyzed

the structure of its *matA* and *matB* loci and compared them to those of PC9 and PC15.

As in parental strains, the *matA* and *matB* loci of PC9.15 are located on chromosome 2

and 9, respectively. The *matA* locus contains four *HD* genes (*HD1.2*, *HD1.3*, *HD2.2*,

and *HD2.3*), and the *matB* locus includes five *STE3* genes (*STE3.7* to *STE3.11*) and six

pheromone precursor genes (*PHB6* to *PHB11*), identical to PC15 (Fig 5A and 5B).

These results confirm that PC9.15 carries the *A1B2* mating-type loci inherited from

PC15.

To further identify the recombination sites around the mating-type loci, we

expanded the sequence alignment to ~3 Mb for the *matA* locus and ~600 kb for the

matB locus (Fig 5C and 5D). PC9.15 retained segments of the PC15 genomic

background near both loci, with approximately 1.13 Mb around *matA* and 300 kb

around *matB*. These retained regions suggest suppression of recombination during

backcrossing in flanking regions of the two *mat* loci. Despite these regions of difference,

the remainder of the PC9.15 genome is largely derived from PC9. Together, these data

confirm the successful construction of a congenic strain that harbors the PC15 mating-

type loci (*A1B2*) within the PC9 genetic background.

Annotation of the PC9 mitochondrial genome in *P. ostreatus*

We annotated the PC9 mitochondrial genome, revealing a 65 kb circular molecule

similar to the mitochondrial genomes of *Neurospora crassa* (~65 kb) and

Saccharomyces cerevisiae (~79 kb). The mitochondrial genome of PC9 encodes 18

protein-coding genes, two rRNA genes (*rrnS* and *rrnL*), and 25 tRNA genes (Fig 6).

The protein-coding genes comprise three cytochrome c oxidase subunits (*COX1*, *COX2*,

COX3) from respiratory complex IV, seven NADH dehydrogenase subunits (*NAD1*,

NAD2, *NAD3*, *NAD4*, *NAD4L*, *NAD5*, *NAD6*) from complex I, three ATP synthase

subunits (*ATP6*, *ATP8*, *ATP9*) from complex V, as well as apocytochrome b (*COB*),

DNA-directed RNA polymerase (*RPO*), ribosomal protein (*RPS3*), and two DNA

polymerase (*DPO1* and *DPO2*). Given that PC9 and PC15 are descended from the

strain N001, we expected their mitochondrial genomes to be identical. Indeed, our

comparison showed 99.9% similarity between the mitochondrial genomes of PC9,

PC15, and PC9.15 (S3 Fig and S6 Table).

Discussion

Diversity and genomic organization of mating-type loci in *P. ostreatus*

In this study, we investigated the structure and diversity of *matA* and *matB* alleles in *P. ostreatus*. Given the diversity of mating-type loci across basidiomycetes, we compared our findings to other well-characterized systems. In *C. cinereus*, the *matB* locus is organized into three distinct gene groups, each containing a single pheromone receptor gene (*RCB*) and multiple pheromone genes (*PHB*) (36). Similarly, phylogenetic analysis of Ste3 proteins in *P. ostreatus* revealed five distinct groups (Fig 2B). In most *P. ostreatus* strains, *PHB* genes are located near *STE3* genes, and the number of *PHB* genes is typically equal to or greater than the number of *STE3* genes. The frequent proximity of *PHB* and *STE3* gene, and the higher number of *PHB* genes relative to *STE3*, suggest a more flexible system of mating regulation. This organization may allow *P. ostreatus* to fine-tune mating recognition through multiple pheromone-receptor combinations. Unlike the tightly clustered arrangement seen in *C. cinereus*, this dispersed structure likely reflects a different evolutionary path for generating mating-type diversity. In *P. ostreatus*, genes encoding the MAP kinase signaling cascade (e.g., *STE20*, *STE11*, *STE12*) are dispersed across multiple chromosomes rather than residing within a *MAT* locus as in *C. neoformans* (10). Instead, the *matB* includes several

reductases, transporters, and hypothetical proteins whose functions remain unclear but

may still play a role in mating.

The tetrapolar mating-type system, with multiallelic *matA* and *matB* loci, promotes

outcrossing in basidiomycetes (37). For example, in *C. cinerea*, over 200 alleles per

MAT locus yield a 99.5% outcrossing probability, whereas *Ustilago maydis*, with over

25 *b* alleles and only two *a* mating types, exhibits a lower outcrossing probability of

50% (38). The diversity of mating-type alleles in *P. ostreatus* likely enhances

outcrossing in natural populations. Our analysis identified 11 alleles at the *matA* locus

and 12 alleles at the *matB* locus across 12 *P. ostreatus* haplotypes, suggesting the

existence of at least 132 distinct mating types. These findings not only validate the

multiallelic structure of *P. ostreatus* mating-type loci but also provide a detailed

molecular characterization of allele diversity. Given this extensive allelic variation,

additional *matA* and *matB* alleles likely remain unidentified in natural populations.

Future studies on wild-isolated *P. ostreatus* strains will further enhance our

understanding of the diversity and complexity of these loci and provide deeper insights

into the evolution and regulation of the mating-type system in *P. ostreatus*.

396 **Expansion and allelic diversity of *MAT* loci across strains**

Across twelve *P. ostreatus* haplotypes, we identified 11 *matA* alleles and 12 *matB* alleles,

confirming extensive multiallelism at both *MAT* loci. We also observed significant

expansion in the physical size of these loci, including one expanded *matA* locus (73 kb

in the gfalt haplotype versus 6 kb in PC9) and three expanded *matB* loci (77-150 kb

versus 50 kb in PC9). The expanded regions contain additional genes, notably a

transposase, a intergrase/recombinase-like protein, and a retrotransposon Gag protein,

suggesting that transposable elements (TEs) and retrotransposon activity may has

contributed to the structural expansion. Similar TE-associated expansion of the *MAT*

locus has been reported in *Cryptococcus*, where accumulation of transposons within the

MAT region ha contributed to its expansion (39). Moreover, the transition from an

ancestral tetrapolar to a bipolar mating system in *Cryptococcus* involved fusion of the

previously unlinked *P/R* and *HD* loci via chromosomal translocations, resulting in an

expanded contiguous *MAT* locus (40). Together, these findings support the hypothesis

that TE insertions, together with integrase/recombinase activity, create a genomic

environment that promotes structural rearrangements while preserving mating-type

diversity in *P. ostreatus*.

Genomic rearrangement and recombination at the *MAT* loci

415 We identified recombination-suppressed regions surrounding both *MAT* loci, spanning

416 ~1.13 Mb around *matA* and ~300 kb around *matB*. The suppressed interval flanking

matA is significantly larger than the 10 kb *matA* locus itself, suggesting that additional,

yet unidentified, factors within this genomic region may contribute to reduced

recombination frequencies. Recombination suppression at *MAT* loci has been studied

in other fungi; for example, in *Neurospora*, recombination within the *MAT* region is

inhibited, preventing second-division segregation of mating type and thereby avoiding

the production of self-sterile ascospores (41). Similarly, a recent study in *Cryptococcus*

showed that recombination is suppressed not only at the *MAT* locus but also across large

centromere-linked domains enriched in repetitive elements and heterochromatin, and

that intercentromeric recombination can generate chromosomal translocations that

further increase suppression in these regions (42). Therefore, recombination

suppression at the *P. ostreatus MAT* loci may similarly result from centromere-linked

heterochromatin and repetitive DNA.

Comparative analysis revealed several chromosomal rearrangements in the

PC9.15 genome relative to PC9 and PC15. Chromosome translocations have been

previously documented between PC9 and PC15 (18), so it is not surprising that the

congenic strain also underwent large-scale rearrangements. For example, a portion of

PC9 chromosome 4 (C4) has translocated to chromosome 11 (C11) in PC15 (18), and

the same sequence (segment B) has translocated to chromosome 2 (C2) in PC9.15 (S4A

and C Fig). Initially, we hypothesized that segment B originated from the centromeric

region, which is often enriched in transposons and repetitive elements prone to

recombination errors, as observed in *C. neoformans* (10). However, further analysis

revealed that segment B is present on both chromosome 2 (C2) and chromosome 4 (C4)

in the PC9 genome, indicating that duplication events had occurred before the

translocation was observed (S4B and D Fig). These findings suggest that the

translocation of segment B likely resulted from recombination errors due to sequence

similarity between duplicated segments.

Collectively, this study provides a detailed characterization of the *P. ostreatus MAT*

loci in strains PC9 and PC15 and established PC9.15 as a congenic strain and a new

genetic resource for precise genetic studies. We identified a multiallelic mating-type

system with 11 *matA* and 12 *matB* alleles across twelve haplotypes. The PC9.15

congenic strain established here offers a versatile tool for probing the genetic and

evolutionary dynamics of mating-type loci and for conducting future functional studies

in this species.

Materials and Methods

Strains and culture conditions

Pleurotus ostreatus strains PC9 and PC15 differentiated from dikaryotic strain N001

(11), were used as the starting parental strains for genetic crosses. Spores were collected

from a fruiting body of TWF713. Two monokaryon strains, SS5 and SS14, each

originating from a single basidiospore, were established in the laboratory for analysis.

Strains were maintained on yeast and malt extract with glucose (YMG) medium

solidified with 1.5% (w/v) agar and incubated at 25℃.

Crossing, fruiting conditions and isolation of meiotic progeny

To induce dikaryon formation, the mating-compatible monokaryotic strains PC9 and

PC15 were co-cultured on YMG agar medium for two weeks. Agar blocks from the

mating interface were then transferred into sterile bottles containing sawdust medium

(100 g of sawdust, 30 g wheat bran, tap water to 150 mL). These bottles were then

incubated at 25℃ in darkness for ten days. To induce fruiting body formation and obtain

F1 progeny, cultures were shifted to 15℃ under a 12 hr light/12 hr dark cycle. Fruiting

bodies appeared after approximately seven days and matured within 3-4 days. Spores

(F1 progeny) were harvested in Millipore water and micromanipulated using a

dissecting microscope, with each plate containing 18 basidiospores. To assess

reproductive performance, we recorded the number of germinated progeny per plate.

469   Individual progeny were cultured, and their mating types were determined by PCR

470   using mating-type-specific primers (S4 Table).

Congenic strain construction

472   PC9 was crossed with PC15, and single basidiospores were isolated. Three progeny

473   carrying the PC15 mating type were selected and backcrossed to PC9. This process was

474   repeated for a total of ten backcrosses to produce PC9.15, a congenic strain with mating

475   loci derived from PC15 in the PC9 genetic background.

Genome sequencing and assembly comparison

The congenic strain PC9.15 and the monokaryotic strains SS5, and SS14 were cultured

on YMG agar at 25℃ for 7 days. Mycelia were then transferred to 50 mL of YMG

liquid medium and incubated at 25℃ and shaken at 200 rpm for 4 days. Genomic DNA

was extracted using the cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) method and

purified by extraction with chloroform and phenol-chloroform and precipitation with

isopropanol and ethanol, followed by an AMPure XP (Beckman Coulter) purification

step. Libraries were prepared using the genomic DNA by Ligation kit (SQK-LSK109),

and Nanopore long-read sequencing was performed using a FLO-MIN106 R9 flow cell

(Oxford Nanopore) for PC9.15 and a R10 version flow cell (Oxford Nanopore) for SS5

and SS14. This approach yielded ~0.6 M reads for PC9.15, with a mean length of 7,400

bp, resulting in ~128X genome coverage. For SS5 and SS14, sequencing produced

~0.76 M and ~0.65M reads, with mean read lengths of 11,981 bp and 10,348 bp,

corresponding to ~202X and ~142X coverage, respectively. *De novo* assembly of

Nanopore long reads was performed using NECAT (43).

For comparison of the PC9, PC15, and PC9.15 genomes, we used the dnadiff program

from the MUMmer package (44), which computed sequence identity and generates

alignment statistics between them.

Genome annotation

Genome annotation for PC9.15, SS5, and SS14 was performed using *funannotate*

(v1.8.1)   (33)   and   the   pipeline   described   at

https://funannotate.readthedocs.io/en/latest/index.html. For PC9.15, we then used

funannotate train with RNA-seq data and masked genome to generate preliminary gene

models. RNA was extracted from the PC9.15 strain and sequenced on an Illumina

NextSeq 500 Mid Output 300 cycles using a paired-end 150 bp configuration (PE150).

For strains SS5, SS14, CCMSSC00389 (26), CCMSSC03989 (27), gfPleOstr1.1

(haplotypes gf and gfalt) (28), and 595 (29), gene prediction was performed directly

with *funannotate predict* after masking, without RNA-seq-based training. Functional

annotation was performed using the *funannotate remote* option, which incorporated

InterProScan and antiSMASH to identify InterPro domains and secondary metabolite

clusters, respectively. Finally, *funannotate annotate* was used to integrate functional

annotations, including Pfam domains, clusters of orthologous groups (COGs), and

EggNOG classifications. The full annotation of PC9.15 is provided in S5 Table.

The accession numbers of BioSample: SAMN05327826 (CCMSSC00389),

SAMN09434509 (CCMSSC03989), SAMN23459969 (595), SAMEA8562045

(gfPleOstr1.1), and SAMEA8562045 (gfPleOstr1 alternate haplotype).

Annotation of the PC9 mitochondrial genome

A putative large duplication in PC9 scaffold_14 was identified through self-alignment

of the sequence and is suspected to be an artifact resulting from the circular nature of

the mitochondrial DNA and overlapping regions in the assembled Nanopore reads. This

hypothesis was confirmed by aligning the contig with the mitochondria genome of *P.*

ostreatus P51 (45). The duplicated region was manually removed, resulting in an

assembled mitochondrial genome of PC9 that closely matched the size of the P51

mitochondria genome. Annotation was performed using MITOS2 (46).

Genome and mating-type loci comparison

General genome assembly statistics, including scaffold length and N50, were calculated

using the count_fasta_residues.pl script (*https://github.com/SchwarzEM/ems_perl/*

blob/master/fasta/count_fasta_residues.pl). Assembly completeness was assessed with

BUSCO v6.0.0 using the basidiomycota_odb10 database (32, 47). Repetitive elements

were identified using a custom repeat library generated using a previously described

pipeline (48), and analyzed with RepeatMasker (49), TransposonPSI (50), and

LTRharvest (51). The results were further analyzed using the

one_code_to_find_them_all script (52). Telomeric repeats were identified by scanning

for the motif (TTAGGG)n in scaffold sequences (53).

Genome comparison between PC9 and PC9.15 was performed using Circos (v0.69.0)

(54) and D-genies (Minimap v2.24) (34) to visualize synteny and structural differences.

Mating-type loci from both genomes were aligned using Easyfig (55) or clinker (56),

and protein-level comparison of HD1, HD2, Ste3, and Phb were performed with

needleall (57). Multiple sequence alignments of HD, Ste3, and Phb proteins were

generated using MEGA11 with the MUSCLE algorithm (58). A phylogenetic tree was

constructed by using IQ-TREE v3.0.1 (59) and further visualized using iTOL v7 (60).

The HD1/HD2 and receptor protein sequences used for phylogenetic tree construction

were obtained from *Schizophyllum commune*. The corresponding sequences were

retrieved from NCBI GenBank. The GenBank accession numbers can be found in S7

Table.

Multiple sequence alignments of HD1, HD2, Ste3, and Phb proteins were generated

with the T-coffee program (61), and alignment results were visualized with Jalview

v2.11.5.0 (62).

Cell wall Staining and imaging

545 The fungal cultures were stained with SCRI Renaissance 2200 (SR2200), which labels

546 fungal cell walls without affecting growth, and imaged using a LSM980 Airyscan 2

547 confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss).

Statistics

549 Two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-test was performed to determine the statistical

550 difference between control and experimental samples in GraphPad Prism 9. $P < 0.05$

551 was considered significant; asterisks demonstrate statistical significance, as calculated

552 by two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-test (*$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$, and ****P

553 < 0.0001).

Data availability

The genomic data has been deposited to National Center for Biotechnology Information

GenBank under the accession numbers JAQZRA000000000.1 (PC9.15), OR030114

(PC9 mitochondrial genome), JBQVBD000000000 (SS5), and JBQVBE000000000

(SS14). The accession numbers of BioProject: PRJNA1098946 (SS5) and

PRJNA1098945 (SS14). The raw Nanopore reads of *P. ostreatus* PC9.15, SS5, and

SS14 have been uploaded to the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) and are available under

the accession numbers SRR23581323, SRR28975996, and SRR28975997, respectively.

Acknowledgments

563 We thank the Genomic Core of Institute of Molecular Biology, Academia Sinica, for

564   Nanopore sequencing and the Bioinformatics Core of Institute of Molecular Biology,

565   Academia Sinica, for genome assembly. We also thank Hillel Schwartz for comments

566   and suggestions about this work.

Funding

568   This work was supported by the Max Planck Society, Academia Sinica Investigator

569   Award AS-IA-111-L02, and the NSTC grant 110-2311-B-001-047-MY3 to Y. -P. H.

Author Contributions

571   Conceived and designed the experiments: Y.-Y.L. and Y.-P.H. Performed the

572   experiments: Y.-Y.L. Analyzed the data: Y.-Y.L., G.V.-D.U., and Y.-P.H. Writing –

573   original draft: Y.-Y.L. Writing – review & editing: G.V.-D.U., R. J.T., and Y.-P.H.

Figures and tables

Fig 1. Characterization of mating-type loci and associated genes in *P. ostreatus*.

(A) *MAT* locus alignments (amino acid-based) of strains PC9 and PC15 (clinker v0.0.31). Genes encoding proteins having more than 90% identical amino acid residues are linked. The color code for links and genes highlights sequence homology and grey genes have no similarity to other genes in the alignment. In the *matA* locus on chromosome 2 (Chr2), homeodomain genes *HD1* and *HD2* are shown in green and pink, respectively; the conserved mitochondrial intermediate peptidase (*MIP*) and beta flanking gene (*βFG*) are shown in teal and purple, respectively. In the *matB* locus on chromosome 9 (Chr9), mating-type specific pheromone receptor genes (*STE3*) are shown in orange (within *matB*) and blue (outside *matB*); pheromone genes (*PHB*) are in green; the conserved MFS general substrate transporter (*MFS*) and UbiA family prenyltransferase (*UbiA*) are shown in teal and purple, respectively; other genes are shown in grey. Scale bars indicate 2.5 kb. (B) Phylogenetic trees of HD and Ste3 proteins from *P. ostreatus* (PC9 in red underline; PC15 in yellow underline) and *S. commune* by the maximum-likelihood method using IQ-TREE.

A *matA* HD locus

B

Tree scale: 0.5 ⊢———⊣

bootstrap
- ∘ 50
- ∘ 62.5
- ○ 75
- ○ 87.5
- ○ 100

Fig 2. Comparative analysis of *matA* and *matB* loci across *P. ostreatus* strains.

MAT locus alignments (amino acid-based) of 12 haplotypes PC9, PC15, SS5, SS14,

CCMSSC00389 (389), CCMSSC03989 (3989), gfPleOstr1.1 (haplotypes gf and gfalt),

and two dikaryotic strains: DSM11191 (DSM) and 595 (clinker v0.0.31). Genes

encoding proteins having more than 90% identical amino acid residues are linked. The

color code for links and genes highlights sequence homology and grey genes have no

similarity to other genes in the alignment. Homeodomain genes *HD1* and *HD2* are

shown in green and pink, respectively; the conserved *MIP* and *βFG* are shown in teal

and purple, respectively. Pheromone receptor genes (*STE3*) are shown in orange (within

matB) and blue (outside *matB*); pheromone genes (*PHB*) are in green; the conserved

MFS and *UbiA* are shown in teal and purple, respectively; other genes are shown in

grey. (B) Phylogenetic trees of 30 HD proteins and 48 Ste3 proteins from 12 *P. ostreatus*

haplotypes by the maximum-likelihood method using IQ-TREE. (C) Clamp connection

and fruiting body formation in interstrain crosses of *P. ostreatus*. Representative crosses

of SS5 (*A21B21*) x PC9 (*A2B1*), SS5 (*A21B21*) x PC15 (*A1B2*), SS14 (*A2B22*) x PC9

(*A2B1*), and SS14 (*A2B22*) x PC15 (*A1B2*) display hallmark features of successful

mating in a tetrapolar system, including clamp connections (arrows) and the fruiting

body formation. Scale bar = and 1 cm (upper panels) and 10 µm (lower panels).

Fig 3. Construction of the congenic strain PC9.15 with a PC9 genetic background

and PC15 mating-type loci.

(A) PC9, PC15, and PC9.15 were grown on YMG agar media in 5.5-cm diameter Petri

plates for 10 days. Scale bar = 1 cm. (B) Crossing strategy used to generate the PC9.15

congenic strain: Monokaryotic "Bc1#" progeny were obtained from a PC9 x PC15 cross.

Progeny carrying the PC15 (*A1B2*) mating type were backcrossed to PC9 (*A2B1*) to

generate monokaryotic "Bc2" progeny. This process was repeated for ten crosses to

produce PC9.15. (C) Fruiting body development from a PC9.15 x PC9 cross at days 1,

3, and 5. Scale bars = 1 cm.

PC9.15 vs PC9

PC9.15 vs PC15

Fig 4. Genome architecture of *P. ostreatus* congenic strain PC9.15 and comparative analysis of assembled genomes of PC9.15, PC9, and PC15.

(A) Tracks (outer to inner) represent the distribution of genomic features in our PC9.15 assembly: (1) size (in Mb) of PC9.15 scaffolds, with numbers prefixed by the letter "C" indicating the chromosome and "sc" indicating the scaffold; (2) gene density (along 100-kb sliding windows, ranging between 0 and 50 protein-coding genes); (3) distribution of TEs along the genome; (4) telomere repeat frequency (along 1-kb sliding windows, ranging between 10 and 30 repeats); and (5) depth of sequencing coverage (along 10-kb sliding windows, ranging between 0 and 150 depth). (B) Dot-plot alignment of PC9.15 (query) against PC9 (reference). (C) Circos plot showing regions of similarity shared by the PC9.15 (C1-C11) and PC9 (C1-C11) (identity > 95%, length > 10kb). (D) Circos plot showing regions of similarity shared by the PC9.15 (C1-C12) and PC15 (C1-C12) strains (identity > 95%, length > 10kb). The grey box represents segment A. Tracks (outer to inner) represent the distribution of genomic features in each assembly: (1) chromosome sizes (in Mb) of chromosomes, with numbers prefixed by the letter "C" indicating the chromosome and "sc" indicating the scaffold; (2) distribution of telomere repeats with 1-kb sliding windows, ranging between 10-30 repeats.

Fig 5. Characterization of mating-type loci and associated genes in PC9.15.

Structures of the *matA* and *matB* loci (A) and the large-scale chromosomal (B) *matA*

and *matB* loci compared across the PC9, PC9.15, and PC15 strains.

(A) *MAT* locus alignments (amino acid-based) of strains PC9, PC9.15, and PC15

(clinker v0.0.31). Genes encoding proteins having more than 90% identical amino acid

residues are linked. The color code for links and genes highlights sequence homology

and grey genes have no similarity to other genes in the alignment. In the *matA* locus,

homeodomain genes *HD1* and *HD2* are shown in green and pink, respectively; the

conserved *MIP* and *βFG* are shown in teal and purple, respectively. In the *matB* locus,

mating-type specific pheromone receptor genes (*STE3*) are shown in orange (within

matB) and blue (outside *matB*); pheromone genes (*PHB*) are in green; the conserved

MFS and UbiA are shown in teal and purple, respectively; other genes are shown in

grey. (B) Large-scale alignment of the *matA* and *matB* loci between PC9, PC9.15, and

PC15. The *matA* and *matB* loci of PC9 is shown as red line; those of PC9.15 and PC15

are shown as pink lines. The shades of grey show nucleotide sequence identity. The

figures were generated by Easyfig v2.2.2.

Fig 6. Circular map of the mitochondrial genome of *P. ostreatus* PC9. Tracks (outer

to inner) show: (1) annotation of mitochondrial DNA-encoded genes: subunits of

cytochrome c oxidase/complex IV (red), NADH dehydrogenase/complex I (yellow),

ATP synthase/complex V (blue), apocytochrome b *cob* (green), ribosomal small subunit

protein *rps3* (pink), DNA polymerase *dpo* (salmon) and DNA-directed RNA

polymerase *rpo* (brown); (2) annotation of RNA genes: ribosomal RNA genes *rrnS* and

rrnL (orange) and 25 transfer RNA (green).

A

HD1.1 Homeodomain

HD2.1 Homeodomain

C

D

S1 Fig. Protein sequence alignment of mating type-related proteins in *P. ostreatus*.

Alignment of (A) HD1, (B) HD2, (C and D) Ste3, and (E) Phb proteins from strains

PC9 and PC15. Three levels of shading indicate degrees of sequence similarity: dark

blue background with an asterisk (*) indicates identical amino acids, intermediate blue

background with a colon (:) indicates conserved amino acids, and light blue with a dot

(.) indicates semi-conserved amino acids. Grey and red shading indicate the

homeodomain regions in HD proteins and the transmembrane (TM) helix regions in

Ste3 proteins, respectively.

S2 Fig. Confirmation of mating-type loci and germination rates in congenic strain

PC9.15.

(A) PCR amplification of the *matA* and *matB* loci in PC9, PC15, and the congenic strain

PC9.15 using mating-type specific primers: PC9-*matA*-F/R, PC9-*matB*-F/R, PC15-

matA-F/R, and PC15-*matB*-F/R. (B) Germination rates of PC9 x PC15 and PC9 x

PC9.15. Statistical significance was calculated using a two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-

test.

S3 Fig. Comparative analysis of mitochondrial genomes of PC9, PC9.15, and PC15.

Dot-plot alignment generated by D-Genies minimap v2.24 showing the mitochondrial

genomes of *P. ostreatus* strains: (A) PC9 (target) vs. PC15 (query), (B) PC9 (target) vs.

PC9.15 (query), and (C) PC9.15 (target) vs. PC15 (query).

S4 Fig. Translocation sites between the PC9 and PC9.15 genomes.

(A) Partial sequence alignment of PC9 chromosome 4 (PC9_C4), PC9.15 chromosome

2 (PC9.15_C2), and PC15 chromosome 11 (PC15_C11). (B) Partial sequence alignment

714 of PC9 chromosome 4 (PC9_C4) and PC9 chromosome 2 (PC9_C2). (C and D) Circos

715 plots showing regions of high similarity (identity > 95%, length > 10kb) between PC9

716 chromosome 4 (PC9_C4) and PC9.15 chromosome 2 (PC9.15_C2) (C) and PC9

717 chromosome 4 (PC9_C4) and PC9 chromosome 2 (PC9_C2) (D). Red boxes represent

718 centromere region and yellow boxes represent segment B. The letter "C" indicates the

719 chromosome.

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Supporting information

S1 Fig. Protein sequence alignment of mating type-related proteins in *P. ostreatus*.

Alignment of (A) HD1, (B) HD2, (C and D) Ste3, and (E) Phb proteins from strains PC9 and PC15. Three levels of shading indicate degrees of sequence similarity: dark blue background with an asterisk (*) indicates identical amino acids, intermediate blue background with a colon (:) indicates conserved amino acids, and light blue with a dot (.) indicates semi-conserved amino acids. Grey and red shading indicate the homeodomain regions in HD proteins and the transmembrane (TM) helix regions in Ste3 proteins, respectively.

S2 Fig. Confirmation of mating-type loci and germination rates in congenic strain PC9.15.

(A) PCR amplification of the *matA* and *matB* loci in PC9, PC15, and the congenic strain PC9.15 using mating-type specific primers: PC9-*matA*-F/R, PC9-*matB*-F/R, PC15-*matA*-F/R, and PC15-*matB*-F/R. (B) Germination rates of PC9 x PC15 and PC9 x PC9.15. Statistical significance was calculated using a two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-test.

S3 Fig. Comparative analysis of mitochondrial genomes of PC9, PC9.15, and PC15.

Dot-plot alignment generated by D-Genies minimap v2.24 showing the mitochondrial genomes of *P. ostreatus* strains: (A) PC9 (target) vs. PC15 (query), (B) PC9 (target) vs.

PC9.15 (query), and (C) PC9.15 (target) vs. PC15 (query).

S4 Fig. Translocation sites between the PC9 and PC9.15 genomes.

(A) Partial sequence alignment of PC9 chromosome 4 (PC9_C4), PC9.15 chromosome

2 (PC9.15_C2), and PC15 chromosome 11 (PC15_C11). (B) Partial sequence alignment

of PC9 chromosome 4 (PC9_C4) and PC9 chromosome 2 (PC9_C2). (C and D) Circos

plots showing regions of high similarity (identity > 95%, length > 10kb) between PC9

chromosome 4 (PC9_C4) and PC9.15 chromosome 2 (PC9.15_C2) (C) and PC9

chromosome 4 (PC9_C4) and PC9 chromosome 2 (PC9_C2) (D). Red boxes represent

centromere region and yellow boxes represent segment B. The letter "C" indicates the

chromosome.

S1 Table. *SET3* genes and pheromone genes in PC9, PC15, and PC9.15 genomes.

S2 Table. Ste3 proteins similarity used by needleall analysis.

S3 Table. *matA* and *matB* genes in SS5, SS14, CCMSSC00389, CCMSSC03989,

gfPleOstr1.1, gfPleOstr1.1 alternate haplotype, DSM11191, and 595 genomes.

S4 Table. Primer sets for mating type detection.

S5 Table. PC9.15 genome annotation table.

S6 Table. The similarity of PC9, PC15, and PC9.15 mitochondrial genome.

S7 Table. GenBank accession numbers of HD1/HD2 and pheromone receptors

for phylogenetic analysis.