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Recombinant haplotypes reflect sexual reproduction in symbiotic arbuscular

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mycorrhizal fungi

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22 **Abstract**

23 Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) are part of the most widespread fungal-plant symbiosis.
24 They colonize at least 80% of plant species, promote plant growth and plant diversity. These
25 fungi are multinucleated and display either one or two nucleus genotypes (monokaryon and
26 dikaryon) determined by a putative mating-type locus. This taxon has been considered as an
27 ancient asexual scandal because of the lack of observable sexual structures. Despite the
28 identification of a putative mating-type (MAT-type) locus and the functional activation of
29 genes related to mating when two isolates co-exist, it is still unknown if AMF display a sexual
30 or a parasexual life cycle.

31 To test if AMF genomes display signatures of a sexual life-cycle involving the putative MAT-
32 locus, we used publicly available genome sequences to test if recombining nucleotide-
33 specific haplotypes could be identified using short-read Illumina sequences. We identified
34 nucleus genotype-specific haplotypes within dikaryons and compared them to orthologous
35 gene sequences from related monokaryon isolates displaying similar putative MAT-types.
36 We show that haplotypes within a dikaryon isolate are more similar to homologue sequences
37 of isolates having the same MAT-type than among them. We demonstrate that these
38 genotype-specific haplotypes are recombinant, and are not consistently most similar to the
39 monokaryon isolate sharing the same mating-type allele.

40 These results are consistent with a sexual origin of the dikaryon rather than a parasexual
41 origin and provides an important step to understand the life cycle of these globally important
42 symbiotic fungi.

43

44 **Introduction**

45 Arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi are plant symbionts, forming symbioses with most plant
46 species, promoting plant growth (Harrison, 1997), plant community diversity (van der Heijden
47 *et al.*, 1998; Antunes *et al.*, 2011) and how plants cope with biotic (Thygesen *et al.*, 2004) or
48 abiotic stresses (Augé, 2001). As a consequence, they are widely used in agriculture (Smith
49 & Read, 2008). Within isolate genetic variability in AMF has been reported to result in
50 differential effects on plant growth (Angelard *et al.*, 2010). Understanding how genetic
51 variability is generated in AMF, is important because it could be harnessed to generate
52 genetic variants that could be beneficial for their plant hosts (Sanders, 2010).

53 AMF are part of the Glomeromycotina subphylum (Spatafora *et al.*, 2016), which fossil
54 records date to at least ~400 Million years ago (Remy *et al.*, 1994). They are coenocytic
55 (without septa separating otherwise adjacent compartments), their hyphae harbor hundreds
56 of nuclei within the same cytoplasm (Marleau *et al.*, 2011) and no single-nucleus state has
57 ever been recorded in these taxa. The nuclei of these fungi have been reported as haploid
58 (Ropars *et al.*, 2016; Kobayashi *et al.*, 2018; Morin *et al.*, 2019b). This group of fungi has
59 been previously considered as an ancient asexual scandal (Judson & Normark, 1996),
60 because of low morphological diversification and the absence of observable sexual
61 structures leading to the conclusion that they only reproduce asexually. However, evidence
62 suggests that sexual reproduction could be possible in AMF because these fungi contain a
63 complete meiosis machinery (Halary *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, a putative MAT-locus has
64 been proposed (Ropars *et al.*, 2016), population genetic data suggests the existence of
65 recombination in AMF populations (Croll & Sanders, 2009) and activation of genes related to
66 mating has been detected when different isolates of the same species co-exist in plant roots
67 (Mateus *et al.*, 2020). Inter-nucleus recombination has been reported (Chen *et al.*, 2018a),
68 although the robustness of the analysis has been questioned. The application of strict
69 filtering parameters such as removal of heterozygous sites in haploid nuclei, duplicated
70 regions of the genome, and low-coverage depths base calls results in an extreme loss of

71 recombination signal (Auxier & Bazzicalupo, 2019), calling the conclusions of the study into
72 question. Although some of these limitations, as coverage depth and filtering-out
73 heterozygous sites were addressed (Chen *et al.*, 2020), other limitations such as replicability
74 (recombination events shown in several nuclei sharing the same putative MAT-type) and
75 issues related to the whole-genome amplification step as the formation of chimeric
76 sequences (Yilmaz & Singh, 2012), allelic drop-out (Lauri *et al.*, 2013) and SNP miscalling
77 (Ning *et al.*, 2014) are inherent limitations of the analysis of single nucleus amplification data.

78 Like most fungi, AMF can undergo anastomosis, the fusion of hyphae. Through these
79 connections, bi-directional flow of cytoplasm has been observed between genetically
80 different AMF individuals (Giovannetti *et al.*, 1999). Via anastomosis, the transfer of genetic
81 material (parasexuality) has been suggested, as well, as a mechanism of maintenance of
82 genetic diversity in the absence of sexual recombination (Bever & Morton, 1999). However,
83 the existence and relevance of sexuality and/or parasexuality for the evolution of AMF
84 remains unknown (Yildirim *et al.*, 2020). It is still unknown whether a sexual event comprising
85 meiotic recombination, or a parasexual event, could influence the transition between
86 dikaryon and monokaryon isolates.

87 In the past, there was a debate about nuclei being identical (homokaryosis) or different
88 (heterokaryosis). Today, it is widely accepted that the model AMF species *Rhizophagus*
89 *irregularis* exists either as monokaryons (such as isolates DAOM197198, A1,B12,C2) or
90 dikaryons (such as isolates A4, A5, SL1, C3 and G1) (Ropars *et al.*, 2016; Chen *et al.*,
91 2018a; Masclaux *et al.*, 2018; Kokkoris *et al.*, 2021). Single-nuclei from dikaryons (isolates
92 A4, A5 and SL1) cluster into two genetically different nucleotypes (where nucleotype refers
93 to the genotype of a nucleus), based on the identity of their mating type locus (MAT-locus)
94 (Chen *et al.*, 2018a). This demonstrates that the presence of two copies of the MAT-locus is
95 a reliable marker of the dikaryon state. However, the claimed evidence of large inter-nuclei
96 recombination (Chen *et al.*, 2018a, 2020) does not fit the observations about a monokaryon
97 – dikaryons organization. The presence of repeated inter-nuclear recombination in dikaryons

98 without prior crossing with other isolates, as observed in the single-nucleus genotypes
99 shown in Chen et al. (2018, 2020) would result in heterokaryons with more than two types of
100 nuclei. But this does not appear to be the case for *R. irregularis* (Ropars et al., 2016; Chen
101 et al., 2018a; Masclaux et al., 2019; Auxier & Bazzicalupo, 2019).

102 In *R. irregularis*, a putative life cycle comprising the formation of dikaryons from
103 monokaryons containing compatible alleles at the MAT-locus has been proposed (Ropars et
104 al., 2016). A previous attempt to identify the origin of the dikaryon isolate A5 was made
105 based on the hypothesis that the monokaryon isolates A1 (MAT-type 3) and C2 (MAT-type
106 6) were the parents of the dikaryon isolate A5 (MAT-type 3/ MAT-type 6). Ropars et al., used
107 single-nucleus data and observed that several positions in the genome did not support their
108 hypothesis and concluded that these two isolates could not be the direct progenitors of
109 isolate A5 (Ropars et al., 2016). However, this analysis was limited by the analysis of only 10
110 single nucleus polymorphisms across 4 contigs, and included positions with more than one
111 allele in a haploid single-nucleus, and that also show different alleles at a given position
112 among single nuclei of monokaryon isolates. Consequently, we still do not know the origin of
113 dikaryon isolates, whether they originate from the fusion of two monokaryon isolates, as in
114 Basidiomycete fungi, and whether recombinant nucleotypes are detected in dikaryon
115 isolates. To move beyond single polymorphisms, haplotype analysis would allow to exclude
116 some of the limitations of previous methods. The haplotypes from dikaryon isolates can then
117 be compared to orthologous sequences of related monokaryon isolates and would allow the
118 identification of a sexual event, involving recombination, or a parasexual event in the
119 absence of recombination that could explain the transition between AMF monokaryon and
120 dikaryons.

121 The recent development of methods for long-read sequencing can be used to identify
122 haplotypes and, consequently, nucleotide-specific haplotypes in fungal dikaryon isolates (Li
123 et al., 2019). An alternative exists from the reanalysis of short-read sequences to identify
124 genome wide copy number variation. These analyses consist in obtaining the read depth, or

125 coverage, after mapping the reads to a genome assembly and identifying changes in
126 coverage across the genome (Yoon *et al.*, 2009). The analysis of drop in coverage has
127 resulted in the identification of chromosome copy number variation and segmental
128 chromosome aneuploidies in several fungal species (Todd *et al.*, 2017). In AMF, a drop in
129 coverage analysis was used to originally identify the putative MAT-locus (Ropars *et al.*,
130 2016) highlighting the potential to identify nucleotide-specific haplotypes in dikaryons with
131 this technique.

132 Here, we demonstrated that AMF dikaryons display genetic recombination by analyzing
133 nucleotide-specific haplotypes in dikaryon and monokaryon isolates. In this study we used
134 publicly available whole genome and single-nucleus sequence data to identify nucleotide-
135 specific haplotypes in dikaryon isolates. We identified regions displaying drops in coverage
136 in whole genome sequence assemblies. In these regions we detected the presence of genes
137 that have two copies in the dikaryon isolates and one copy in monokaryons. We then
138 confirmed independently, with genome sequence data from single-nucleus, that in dikaryon
139 isolates, different nuclei have different alleles of the previously detected genes, showing that
140 the genes identified in this study are highly divergent alleles and are nucleotide-specific.
141 The identification of nucleotide-specific alleles allowed us to test whether monokaryon
142 isolates that share the same MAT-type could be the origin of dikaryon isolates and whether
143 recombination could be detected between the nucleotide-specific haplotypes.

144

145

146 **Materials and Methods**

147

148 **Source data**

149 We used public-available sequence reads, genome assemblies and annotations of isolates
150 A1, A4, A5, C2 of *R. irregularis* for this study, including data from whole-genome and single-
151 nucleus sequencing (Supplementary Table 1). We downloaded the sequence reads from the
152 sequence read archive (SRA) using the SRAToolkit software (Leinonen *et al.*, 2011). We
153 used for the different analysis sequence reads from whole-genome and single-nucleus
154 sequence data.

155

156 **Coverage analysis**

157 We first trimmed the sequence reads using Trimgalore (Krueger, 2015) with the default
158 parameters. We then used BWA (Li, 2013) to index the reference genome assemblies and
159 BWA mem -M (Li, 2013) to map the reads to the reference whole-genome assemblies. We
160 mapped the reads coming from a given isolate to the reference genome assembly of the
161 same isolate (i.e. reads A1 mapped to reference A1). We then kept the reads that display a
162 mapping quality of at least 30. We used the genomecov tool from bedtools (Quinlan & Hall,
163 2010) to calculate the coverage for each position. We then created a ready-to-use algorithm
164 that detects genome-wide drop in coverage analysis in whole-genome data (Supplementary
165 File 1). The algorithm divides the data in portions of 50000bp. Then, with a sliding window
166 approach consisting of windows of 400bp and steps of 100bp, the algorithm searches for
167 drops in coverage of 0.3-0.6 times lower than the median coverage of the entire genome
168 and that display a minimum length of 1000bp (Please refer to Supplementary File 1 for the
169 algorithm specifications). We then further filtered the drop in coverage regions by keeping

170 only the regions that display an average of 1.25 coverage difference between the
171 neighboring regions and the drop in coverage region.

172

173 **Gene detection in drops**

174 We identified all the genes located within genomic regions that presented a drop of
175 sequencing coverage. We used the 'intersect' command from the BEDTools suite with the
176 existing gene annotations corresponding to each *R. irregularis* isolate (GTF format) and their
177 query regions with drops in coverage (BED format) to find the overlapping genes (Quinlan &
178 Hall, 2010). Genes in scaffolds smaller than 1kb were not considered for further analyses.

179

180 ***de novo* single-nucleus assemblies**

181 We trimmed the raw reads by using TrimGalore-0.6.0 (Krueger, 2015) with default
182 parameters. After trimming, we performed single-nucleus *de novo* assemblies with SPAdes
183 v3.14 (Bankevich *et al.*, 2012) with the following parameters: -k 21,33,55,77 --sc --careful --
184 cov-cutoff auto. The resulted single-nucleus genome assemblies were used for further
185 analysis. The length, number of contigs and N50 value of the *de novo* assemblies was
186 evaluated with quast- 5.1.0rc1 with default parameters (Mikheenko *et al.*, 2018).

187

188 **Identification of genes in genome assemblies**

189 To identify the position of gene sequences on the different genome assemblies, we first
190 extracted a query sequence. We then used the console NCBI+ blast suite (Camacho *et al.*,
191 2009) to blast the query against the desired target. In the case of the putative MAT-locus, we
192 used the homeodomain genes HD2 and HD1-like as query (HD2:KT946661.1, HD1-like:

193 KU597387 from isolate A1). For further downstream analyses, we extracted the sequences
194 from the genome assemblies by using the blastdbcmd command from the NCBI+ suite. We
195 used a reciprocal blast approach to identify the gene sequences corresponding between the
196 whole genome sequence data and the single-nucleus data. We considered the bests hits by
197 evaluating the % identity, mismatches, e-value and bitscore.

198

199 **Orthology inference of genes present in drops in coverage regions**

200 We used Orthofinder 2.3.11 (Emms & Kelly, 2019) to identify orthologs of genes that were
201 found inside the drop in coverage regions within the same isolate. We used the orthogroups
202 output from Orthofinder for the different analyses.

203

204 **Synteny plots**

205 We compared genomic regions by performing synteny plots computed with EasyFig2.2.3
206 (Sullivan *et al.*, 2011). We provide full Genbank files to compare genomic regions to each
207 other. The software executes a blast comparison between the regions to determine their
208 homology.

209

210

211 **Genetic distance between nucleotypes**

212 Coding sequences for the 12 confirmed nucleotype-specific genes were extracted using the
213 Blast+ command line blastdbcmd tool (Camacho *et al.*, 2009). The sequences were then
214 aligned with MAFFT (Katoch *et al.*, 2017) using the --auto option. Then, the ape package
215 (Paradis *et al.*, 2004) of R was used to calculate the pairwise distance between the 4 alleles

216 (2 from A5, and 1 each from A1 and C2), and plot a distance tree of the 4 alleles from which
217 the quartet arrangement was determined. The mean distance was then calculated for the
218 combined set of the 12 confirmed nucleotide-specific genes.

219

220 **Recombination detection**

221 We compared the sequences from drop in coverage regions from both nucleotypes of isolate
222 A5 and isolates A1 and C2 to detect if isolate A5 display recombination events between the
223 two putative parental isolates. After identification of the syntenic region among the different
224 isolates, we aligned the sequences with MAFFT (Kato *et al.*, 2017) and evaluated whether
225 the sequence of one of the nucleotide of isolate A5 was similar to A1 and the other similar to
226 C2.

227

228 **Phylogenetic analyses**

229 We used MEGA-X (Kumar *et al.*, 2018) for the different phylogenetic reconstructions shown
230 in the study. We first aligned the data with ClustalW. We then find the best DNA models
231 describing the relation between the sequences. Finally, we used a maximum likelihood
232 phylogeny reconstruction with 100 bootstraps to infer the phylogenetic relation among the
233 samples. In several cases, we were not able to perform maximum likelihood phylogenies
234 because of the low number of samples to compare, so UPGMA trees were done instead.
235 Phylogenetic reconstructions of the different orthologous groups on Figure 4 were
236 produced by the Orthofinder software.

237

238

239 **Results**

240

241 **Drop in coverage analysis reveals potential nucleotide-specific haplotypes**

242 Previously, a drop in coverage analysis was used for the identification of a putative MAT-
243 locus in *R. irregularis* (Ropars *et al.*, 2016). Although the identification of drops in coverage
244 at other loci were detected in *R. Irregularis* (Ropars *et al.*, 2016), no further description was
245 made on those other regions. We developed a ready-to-use algorithm (Supplementary File
246 1) that allows us to identify genome-wide drop in coverage events (for the accessions of raw
247 data and genome assemblies used in this study see Supplementary Table 1).

248 We identified drops in coverage in 4 different isolates of *R. irregularis* which are reported to
249 be dikaryons (A4 and A5) and monokaryons (A1 and C2) (Figure 1a, Supplementary Table
250 2). However, the number of coverage drops was different between dikaryons (A4-A5) and
251 monokaryons (A1-C2). Isolates A4 and A5 displayed 1145 and 1032 drops in coverage,
252 respectively, at different loci while isolates A1 and C2 displayed 129 and 121, respectively
253 (Figure1b). In the regions where a drop in coverage region was observed, in total we
254 identified 499, 444,16 and 24 genes in isolates A4, A5, A1 and C2 respectively (Figure 1c,
255 Supplementary Table 3). These results confirmed that dikaryon isolates displayed more
256 heterozygous regions than the monokaryons. This suggests that the genes present within
257 the regions showing a drop in coverage are potential candidates for nucleotide-specific
258 alleles in dikaryons.

259

260

261 The total length of the regions where a drop in coverage occurred covered 2.37 % of isolate
262 A4, 2.21 % of isolate A5 and 0.01% of isolate A1 and isolate C2. We identified that 9.1 %

263 and 6.6% of the contigs of isolates A4 and A5 contained regions where a drop in coverage
264 was observed, while they were very rare (1%) in genome assemblies of isolates A1 and C2
265 (Figure 1d). These results suggest that the events detected in monokaryon isolates could
266 represent *de novo* mutations but the most likely explanation is that they could be residual
267 technical artifacts. The length of the majority of drops in coverage regions was between 1-
268 2kb and very few spanned more than 10kb (Figure 1d). Confirming the reliability of our
269 approach, we detected the expected drop in coverage in the MAT-locus region in isolates A4
270 and A5 but not in isolates A1 and C2 (Figure 1d).

271 One cause for a drop in coverage could be copy number variation between the nucleotides
272 in a dikaryon. To test for this, we inferred orthologous gene families among the different
273 isolates to identify if the genes present in the drop in coverage regions displayed more than
274 one copy in their own genome. We used the gene annotation available for each isolate and
275 performed the orthology inference on all the genes present in each genome. The
276 orthologous inference resulted in many orthologous groups displaying more than one copy
277 within each isolate (A4: 20%, A5: 18%, A1: 17% and C2: 19%; Supplementary figure 1,
278 Supplementary Table 4) confirming the high incidence of paralogs in these fungi (Morin *et*
279 *al.*, 2019a). We further identified orthologous gene families of genes detected in drop in
280 coverage in isolates A4 and A5 independently. Under the assumption of a monokaryon-
281 dikaryon genome organization in *R. irregularis*, to avoid the confounding effect of
282 duplications and reduce the complexity of the dataset, we kept only the orthologous groups
283 that are present in the drop in coverage regions and that display two copies in the dikaryon
284 isolates (A4, A5) and a single copy in the monokaryons (A1, C2) (Figure 2a, Supplementary
285 Table 5). We identified 32 orthologous groups that are present with two copies in isolate A4
286 and only a single copy in isolates A1 and C2. We also identified 27 orthologous groups in
287 isolate A5 that display two copies. Only two orthologous groups were common between the
288 two isolates: namely, HD2 and HD1-like which are part of the putative MAT-locus in *R.*
289 *irregularis* (Figure 2b).

290

291 As reported in Ropars *et al.*, we observed that the two copies of the putative MAT-locus in
292 the dikaryons were located in different contigs. One copy of HD2 and HD1-like genes were
293 present in a long contig of the genome assembly, while the second copy was present in a
294 much shorter contig (Figure 2c). We observed the same pattern for the other orthologous
295 groups, where the second copy was always present in a second shorter contig (for several
296 examples see Figure 2d). We then tested if the orthologous genes from the different isolates
297 are orthologs and not paralogs. We performed a synteny analysis to compare the genomic
298 location among isolates of the orthologous genes. We identified that 12 out of 32 predicted
299 orthologs in A4 and 16 out of 27 predicted orthologs in A5, were located in the same
300 genomic location on the different isolates, suggesting that they could be considered as
301 orthologs (Supplementary Table 5, for examples of inferred orthologs and paralogs see
302 Supplementary Figure 2).

303 Taken together, this shows that in the whole genome assemblies of dikaryon isolates, two
304 divergent alleles were assembled into different scaffolds; one longer scaffold containing
305 neighboring regions and a shorter scaffold without the neighboring regions. Given the
306 haploid nuclei of the dikaryon isolates, two possibilities are consistent with this previous fact:
307 The two copies could be present within the same nucleus or in different nuclei.

308

309 **Drop in coverage signatures represent nucleotide-specific haplotypes**

310 To confirm that genes found inside drop in coverage regions are nucleotide-specific, we
311 used raw reads generated from whole genome sequencing of individual nuclei of dikaryon
312 isolates A4 and A5 (Chen *et al.*, 2018a) to produce *de novo* single-nucleus assemblies. The
313 *de novo* assemblies were very fragmented and incomplete (Supplementary table 6) and their
314 utilization was highly limited. This limitation resulted in the inability to identify some genes

315 and some complete gene sequences. However, a reciprocal blast approach between the
316 whole genome assembly and the single-nucleus assemblies allowed us to detect sequences
317 in the single-nucleus assemblies corresponding to the genes detected in the whole genome
318 assemblies.

319 We tested in the dikaryons if the genes identified in the drop in coverage regions were
320 present in the form of different alleles in different single nuclei by using a reciprocal blast
321 approach (Supplementary Table 7). We confirmed 9 orthologous genes to be nucleotide-
322 specific in isolate A4 and 12 orthologous genes in isolate A5 (Table 1). We found that the
323 population of nuclei clustered in two groups that corresponded to the identity of the MAT-
324 locus contained in each nucleus (Figure 3). This result confirms that nucleotide-specific
325 alleles in dikaryon isolates can be identified based on genes found in drop in coverage
326 regions and that are represented by a duplication within the genome assembly.

327

328 **Nucleotide-specific alleles from A5 share a more recent evolutionary origin with**
329 **monokaryon isolates A1 and C2 than among them**

330 The origin of dikaryon isolates could be investigated through comparisons of monokaryon
331 isolates that display the same putative MAT-locus as those found in the dikaryons (Isolates
332 A5:MAT-3/MAT-6; A1:MAT-3; C2: MAT-6). A phylogenetic reconstruction of the putative
333 MAT-locus suggests that MAT-3 from isolates A1 and A5 are more closely related than
334 MAT-6 from isolates C2 and A5 (Ropars *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, genome-wide reduced
335 genome representation phylogenetic reconstructions of several *R. irregularis* isolates
336 indicated that isolate A5 is more closely related to isolate A1 than to isolate C2 (Wyss *et al.*,
337 2016; Savary *et al.*, 2018)

338 To confirm the previous findings, for each previously defined nucleotide-specific gene, we
339 compared the phylogenetic relationship of the two nucleotide-specific alleles in isolate A5

340 isolate and in isolates A1, C2 and A4. We observed that for several nucleotide-specific
341 genes, genes from isolate A1 clustered with one of the alleles of isolate A5, but it was not
342 always the case in isolate C2 (Figure 4a).

343

344 We then analyzed the genetic distance of each of the 12 nucleotide-specific genes
345 independently between the two alleles of isolate A5 and the homologous allele in isolates A1
346 and C2. The mean nucleotide distance between the two A5 alleles was 0.147. The mean
347 distance between A1 and C2 was 0.132. In contrast, the mean of the minimum distance
348 between an allele of isolate A5 and isolate A1 was 0.013 and between A5 and C2 was
349 0.043. If we randomly select one allele for each gene, into a set "a", the mean distance for
350 the 12 nucleotide-specific alleles for one allele from A5 (allele "a") to A1 was 0.031, and
351 0.122 for the second allele (allele "b"). The distance of the same allele "a" from isolate A5 to
352 C2 was 0.136, and the distance of the second allele "b" to C2 was 0.062 (Figure 4b). We did
353 not observe any case where the two A5 alleles clustered together, instead we observed that
354 for all 12 nucleotide-specific gene the two A5 alleles were more similar to the allele from
355 isolate A1 or C2 (Figure 4c). The mean distances calculated between alleles in this study are
356 much higher than average distances calculated on the whole genome between different
357 isolates (Chen *et al.*, 2018b), reflecting our selection criteria for nucleotide-specific regions.
358 As each of the A5 alleles was closer to A1 or C2, instead of the two A5 alleles being most
359 similar, this indicates that the alleles of A5 share a more recent evolutionary origin with these
360 monokaryons than the two alleles within A5.

361

362 **Recombination between nucleotide-specific haplotypes in isolate A5**

363 Knowledge about nucleotide-specific haplotypes of dikaryon isolate A5 and their orthologs
364 in isolates A1 and C2 allowed us to test whether recombination occurred in nucleotide-

365 specific haplotypes of dikaryon isolate A5 (Figure 5a). We scanned the different nucleotype-
366 specific-haplotypes for the detection of recombination events within the two haplotypes of
367 isolate A5. Comparison of haplotypes from isolates A1, C2 and the two haplotypes of A5
368 showed that each nucleotype-specific sequence from isolate A5 was highly similar to either
369 isolate A1 or C2, but we did not identify any recombination events within haplotypes (Figure
370 5b).

371 To further assess the potential for clonal relationships between the two nucleotypes within
372 A5 and isolates A1 and C2, we compared the nucleotype-specific haplotypes on the single-
373 nucleus assemblies from isolate A5 and their orthologs on the single-nucleus assemblies of
374 isolates A1 and C2 (Supplementary Table 8). The difference with the previous analysis is
375 that with the single-nucleus data, we are able to identify the putative MAT-type of the A5
376 haplotypes. We found that for several nucleotype-specific genes (i.e. OG 2995, OG3981 and
377 OG4715), the nuclei from isolates A5 (MAT-3 type) and A1 (MAT-3 type) clustered together
378 (Figure 5c). However, we found that for other nucleotype-specific genes (OG4925, OG4492
379 and OG4493), the nuclei from isolate A5 (MAT-3 type) clustered with nuclei from isolate C2
380 which has a MAT-6 type (Figure 5d). The alignments on these nucleotype-specific genes
381 show that A5 nuclei with MAT-3 have similar, but not identical alleles as C2 nuclei (MAT-6
382 type). In the same way, A5 nuclei with MAT-6 type harbor alleles similar to those of A1 nuclei
383 (MAT-3 type). These results demonstrate that the A5 isolate harbors nucleotypes with
384 regions highly similar to isolates A1 and C2, but that the A1-like alleles are not always found
385 in the same nucleus. The presence of recombinant nucleotypes in isolate A5, involving
386 isolates sharing the same MAT-type, strongly suggest that isolate A5 results from a
387 recombination event between isolates similar to A1 and C2.

388

389 **Discussion**

390 We identified regions that display drops in coverage in genome assemblies. Within these
391 regions, we identified genes that only displayed a second ortholog in dikaryon isolates and
392 not in monokaryon isolates. We then confirmed with an independent dataset, consisting of a
393 population of individual nuclei, that in dikaryon isolates, genes observed in the regions that
394 displayed a drop in coverage are nucleotide-specific. With the information of nucleotide-
395 specific haplotypes, we found that nucleotypes of isolate A5 were as little 1% diverged from
396 isolate A1 and 4% diverged from isolate C2, suggesting that isolates sharing the same MAT-
397 type as the monokaryon isolates A1 and C2 are closely related ancestors (specially for A1)
398 from which the dikaryon A5 arose. Finally, we identified recombination between nucleotide-
399 specific haplotypes of isolate A5 suggesting that a sexual process involving meiotic-like large
400 scale recombination at some stage is likely at the origin of this isolate.

401 Our approach allowed us to identify divergent nucleotide-specific idiomorphs in dikaryon
402 isolates situated in different contigs of the short-read whole genome assemblies. This
403 approach differs from previous approaches of global intra-isolate divergence assessment
404 that measured the number of SNPs (Chen *et al.*, 2020) or poly-allelic sites (Wyss *et al.*,
405 2016). Although the comparison of both types of measurements gave similar information
406 (intra-isolate divergence), their comparison should be carefully addressed as their
407 methodology and the types of sequences compared are different. While SNPs are best
408 identified in low divergence regions, where reads can be confidently mapped to the same
409 contig, these idiomorphic sequences are highly divergent to the point that they are
410 assembled in different contigs in the same genome assembly. Consequently, genetic
411 divergence should be higher in idiomorphs than when the two alleles are collapsed in the
412 genome assembly, resulting in sequences displaying several SNPs.

413

414 The approach used in this study allowed us to identify nucleotide specific idiomorphs,
415 including the already known HD2 and HD1-like contained in the putative MAT-locus (Ropars
416 *et al.*, 2016). The majority of the nucleotide-specific genes are annotated as hypothetical
417 proteins, with the exception of two galactose oxidases (OG4529, OG4667), a S-adenosyl-L-
418 methionine-dependent methyltransferase (OG1886) and a prephenate dehydrogenase
419 (OG4386). Interestingly, the MAT-locus genes are the only genes identified as assembled
420 into two nucleotide-specific alleles in this study that are common to the two dikaryons. A
421 likely reason why we recovered very few nucleotide-specific genes reflects the choice of
422 filters (syntenic as well as confirmed with single-nucleus data) and the reduction of the
423 complexity of the dataset by keeping only genes with a single copy in the monokaryon
424 isolates A1 and C2. In addition, our methodology did not allow us to identify
425 presence/absence nucleotide-specific haplotypes where a gene is present in one
426 nucleotide and absent in the other nucleotide. Consequently, the count of nucleotide-
427 specific genes represents a lower estimate and we would expect a significantly higher
428 number of actual nucleotide-specific genes between the nuclei in a dikaryon.

429 In AMF, signatures of inter-nucleus recombination in dikaryon isolates have been claimed
430 (Chen *et al.*, 2018a, 2020). Although not specified, the reported large recombination blocks
431 would be consistent with meiotic-type recombination. However, the experimental design on
432 which these results were based did not include any prior crossing of parental isolates or
433 comparison to sequences from putative originating isolates. In the absence of a recent
434 parental mixing, these results could also be the result of processes like mitotic recombination
435 or gene conversion. Furthermore, increased scrutiny revealed technical artifacts suggesting
436 that the method used had limited utility to evaluate inter-nuclear recombination (Auxier &
437 Bazzicalupo, 2019). In this study, we tested for the detection of recombination signatures
438 between homologous regions that could have originated from isolates sharing the same
439 MAT-type. We identified recombinant nucleotypes between different regions of single-
440 nucleus genome assemblies not apparent from the genome assemblies of the dikaryon. The

441 reason for this is that a dikaryon genome assembly lacks phasing information for the
442 haplotypes, contrary to the single-nucleus data where phasing information is immediately
443 apparent (each nucleus has an assigned MAT-type). Integrating the phasing of the
444 haplotypes with the information of the MAT-type, we were able to identify recombination
445 patterns in the single-nucleus data. We did not identify recombination breakpoints, because
446 of the short length of the haplotype sequences. In addition, we did not identify recombination
447 within genes, which is not surprising, as the haplotypes we identified are relatively small, as
448 well as that recombination within genes could disrupt the gene architecture and function.

449 We observed that the A5 MAT-3 nuclei contained three genes more similar to a MAT-6
450 monokaryon, while the A5 MAT-6 nuclei contained three genes more similar to a MAT-3
451 monokaryon. Consequently, the recombination pattern observed is consistent with sexual
452 reproduction because the sequence changes are reciprocal between the two putative
453 parental isolates, although we limited our comparison to only two monokaryon genome
454 assemblies. In contrast, in parasexual recombination, we would expect non-symmetrical
455 recombination patterns leading to loss of heterogeneity between the two different
456 nucleotypes (Forche *et al.*, 2008). This result, coupled with the experimental evidence of
457 molecular activation of genes related to mating in AMF (Mateus *et al.*, 2020), further
458 suggests sexual reproduction in AMF.

459 Our results indicated that if we have different nucleotide-specific haplotypes which are
460 polymorphic in isolate A5 (ie: A/a, B/b) and if there is no recombination, these should be
461 separated into two nucleotypes: MAT-3 (AB) and MAT-6 (ab). However, in contrast, we
462 observed that the dikaryon A5 MAT-3 nucleotype contains a recombinant genotype (Ab), and
463 that the A5 MAT-6 nucleotype has a recombinant genotype (aB). If we compare the A5 MAT-
464 3 (Ab) and A5 MAT-6 (aB) nucleotypes to A1 MAT-3 (AB) and C2 MAT-6 (ab), the results
465 suggest that A1 and C2-like isolates could be MAT-3 and MAT-6 progenitors of isolate A5,
466 separated by at least one recombinant sexual event. The increased genetic distance (~4%)
467 for C2-like alleles from A5 make it less likely that the actual C2 isolate represent the

468 progenitor of A5. However, we cannot discount that future sequencing of additional isolates
469 will identify other isolates that could be more closely related to the A5 nucleotypes.

470 Maintaining monokaryon and dikaryon isolates within the same natural population suggests
471 that both forms are stable over time. Rather than a promiscuous mixing between isolates via
472 anastomosis, a mechanism of recognition that involves the MAT-locus seems to regulate
473 which isolates can form a dikaryon (Corradi & Brachmann, 2017). The fact that nucleotype-
474 specific haplotypes from isolate A5 are more closely related to isolates A1 and C2, and that
475 A5 nucleotypes display recombination, suggests that an isolate similar to A1 and an isolate
476 sharing the same MAT-type as C2 could be the origin of a recombining dikaryon isolate.
477 However, we cannot discard that these findings could apply to another step of the AMF life
478 cycle. It could also be possible that a stable A5 isolate could segregate producing
479 recombined monokaryons highly similar to A1 and that share the same MAT-type as C2, that
480 can disperse and then fuse again to form stable dikaryons and complete a life cycle which
481 involves recombination. It then becomes crucial to experimentally confirm if monokaryon
482 isolates having different MAT-types could generate a dikaryon-like form and if a dikaryon
483 isolate could segregate into recombining monokaryon isolates.

484 Understanding the life cycle of AMF could have an enormous impact in the generation of
485 AMF genetic variability. The generation of diverse AMF monokaryons or dikaryons could be
486 used to generate variants that enhance plant growth and have an enormous potential in
487 agriculture (Sanders, 2010).

488

489

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495

496 **Author contributions**

497 IDM designed and supervised all the analyses. MMSN developed the drop in coverage
498 detection algorithm. JC identified the genes present in the regions displaying drop in
499 coverage. BA developed the genetic relatedness analysis on the nucleotide-specific
500 haplotypes. SL provided valuable comments during all the process. IDM, performed all the
501 bioinformatic analyses, identified the nucleotide-specific genes, performed the phylogenetic
502 analysis, gene-retrieval from genome assemblies and the recombination detection. IDM and
503 IRS wrote the manuscript. All the authors provided valuable contributions and modifications
504 of the manuscript.

505

506 **Data availability**

507 All data analyzed in this manuscript its available in the NCBI repository and the respective
508 accession identifiers could be found in Supplementary table 1. The custom code developed
509 for the identification of drop in coverage regions could be found in Supplementary file 1.

510

511

512

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- 651
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654

655 **Figure legends**

656

657 **Figure 1. Drop in coverage events in isolates A4, A5, A1 and C2.** **a**, Examples of drop in
658 coverage events. We plotted the normalized coverage (y) per position (x). Grey rectangles
659 represent the region detected by the algorithm. The horizontal dashed line represents the
660 normalized coverage. **b**, Number of regions showing a drop in coverage that were detected
661 in each isolate. **c**, Number of genes found in the regions showing a drop in coverage in each
662 isolate. **d**, Summary statistics of regions showing a drop in coverage: i, proportion of total
663 length of regions showing a drop in coverage and proportion of contigs that contain regions
664 with a drop in coverage. ii, Histogram representing the lengths of identified regions where a
665 drop in coverage was detected. iii, Coverage plot on the MAT-locus. Drop in coverage was
666 detected in isolates A4 and A5 but not in A1 and C2.

667

668

669 **Figure 2. Identification of orthologs of genes present in regions showing a drop in**
670 **coverage.** **a**, Orthologous groups that display two or more genes in dikaryons and only a
671 single gene in monokaryons. This analysis was performed independently on isolate A4 and
672 isolate A5. * orthologous genes containing HD2 and HD1-like genes respectively. **b**, Venn
673 diagram representing the number of shared orthologous groups within drop in coverage
674 regions between isolates A4 and A5. Only two orthologous groups were shared between the
675 isolates, they contain the MAT-locus genes HD2 and HD1-like. **c**, Synteny plot between the
676 two contigs containing the different alleles of the MAT-locus of isolates A4 and A5. **d**,
677 Synteny plot between the two contigs containing different alleles of other orthologous genes.
678 Please note that the synteny figures are made from the public available annotations of each

679 genome assembly. Differences in size of open-reading frames (ORF) among isolates are
680 due to differences in detection of ORF on each isolate and likely could be the result of the
681 annotation process.

682

683 **Figure 3. Single-nucleus sequence data confirms that genes contained in regions**
684 **where a drop in coverage was observed are nucleotide-specific.** Phylogenetic
685 reconstruction of single-nucleus for genes found in regions where a drop in coverage was
686 detected in A4 and A5 isolates. The genes are named by their membership to the
687 orthologous groups previously defined. Branch support consisting of 100 bootstraps is
688 shown. When only sequences from three nuclei were included, we performed an UPGMA
689 hierarchical clustering. **a**, data for nuclei from A4 isolate. **b**, data for nuclei from A5 isolate.

690

691 **Figure 4. Nucleotypes from isolate A5 share a more recent evolutionary origin to**
692 **isolates A1 and C2 than among them.** **a**, Phylogenetic reconstruction of nucleotype-
693 specific alleles in isolate A5 and its orthologs in isolates A1, C2 and A4. **c**, Average genetic
694 distances between the different nucleotide-specific alleles from two alleles from isolates A5
695 and their homologs in isolates A1 and C2. We show histograms representing the genetic
696 distance between the two nucleotide-specific alleles of isolate A5 and their homologues in
697 isolates A1 and C2. For comparisons between A5 and C1 or A1 we used the minimum
698 distance of the two alleles from A5. **d**, Scenarios of genetic similarity between the two A5
699 alleles and alleles from A1 and C2.

700

701 **Figure 5. Recombination events in nucleotide-specific haplotypes in A5 isolate.** **a**,
702 Schematic representation of possible outcomes after fusion of two different isolates. Please
703 note the schema illustrates different contigs, separated by blank lines and no different

704 chromosomes. **b**, Multiple sequence alignment of sequences identified in nucleotide-specific
705 haplotypes from whole genome sequence data. We show only a part of the alignment
706 representative of all the aligned sequences. We observe that in all the nucleotide-specific
707 haplotypes, the A5 nucleotypes display only similarity to one of the potential parental
708 isolates. No evidence of recombination is detected within the alignments. **c**, Phylogenetic
709 relationship and multiple sequence alignment on different nucleotide-specific alleles
710 between different nuclei from A1, A5 and C2 isolates. Cases where no recombination was
711 detected. Nuclei having the same MAT-type clustered together. **d**, Phylogenetic relationship
712 and multiple sequence alignment on different nucleotide-specific alleles between different
713 nuclei from A1, A5 and C2 isolates. Cases where recombination was detected. Nuclei having
714 the same MAT-type did not clustered together. We performed 100 bootstraps for the branch
715 support.

716

717 **Table legends**

718

719 **Table 1. Summary of genes contained in regions displaying a drop in coverage that**
720 **were validated as nucleotide-specific.** We show the number of genes that were found in
721 drop in coverage regions that displayed two copies in the dikaryons and a single copy in the
722 monokaryons. We then filtered out the genes that were present in the same contig. After that
723 we only kept the genes that were present in syntenic regions among the different isolates.
724 Finally, we only kept the genes that displayed at least two types in the single-nucleus
725 genome assemblies. The final number of genes defined as nucleotide-specific was
726 validated during the previous sequential steps.

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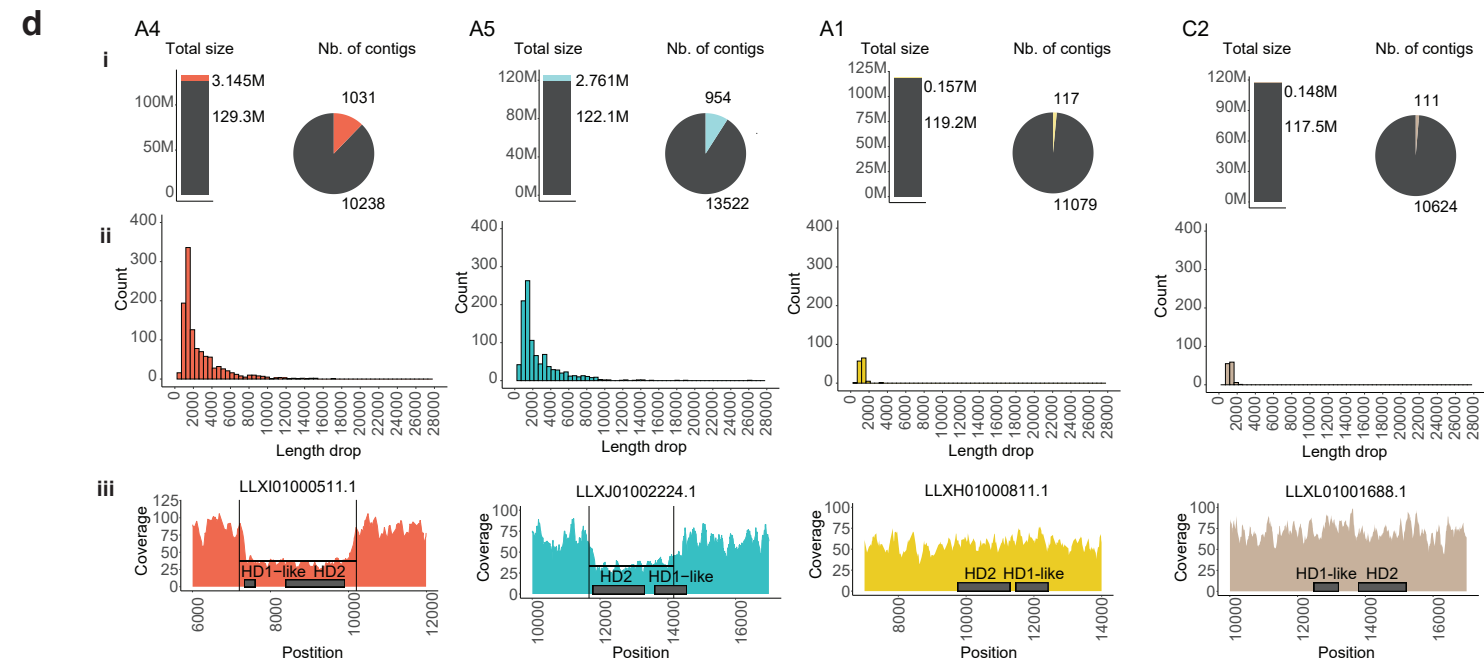
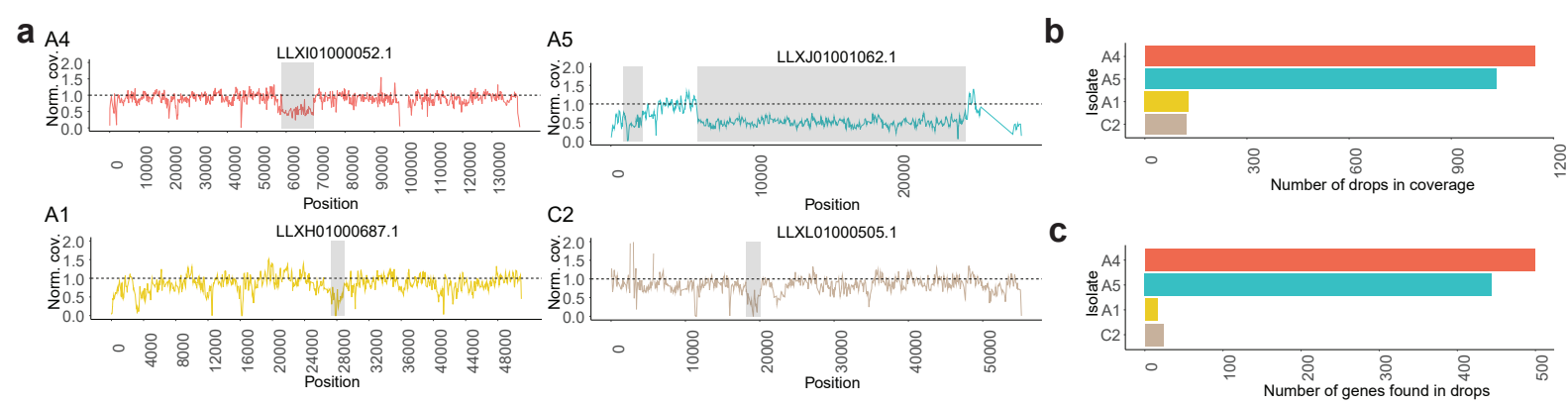
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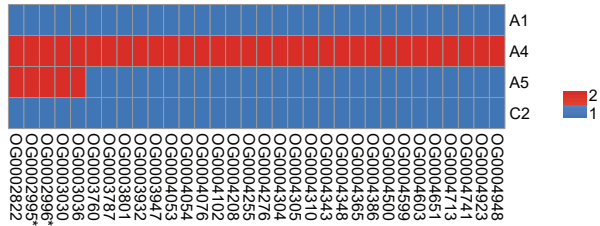
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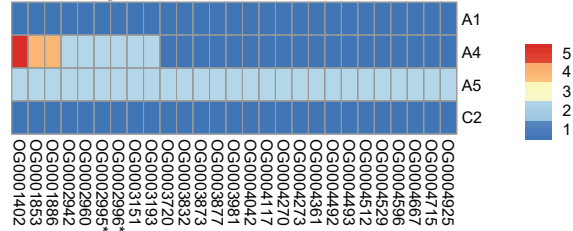


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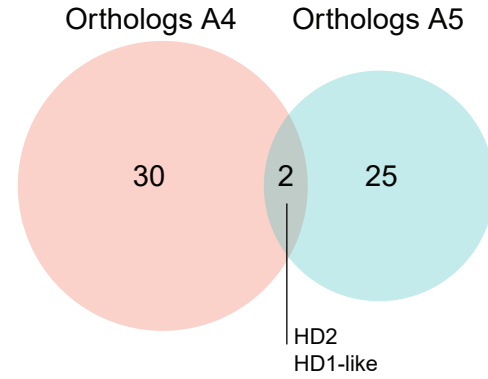
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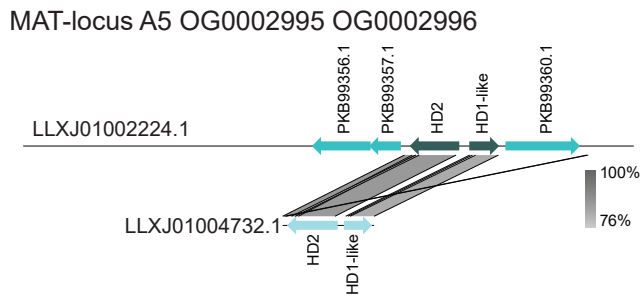
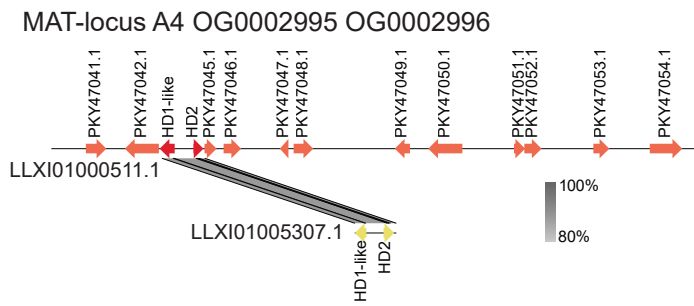
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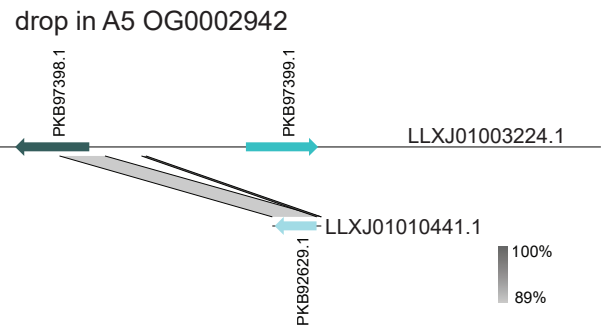
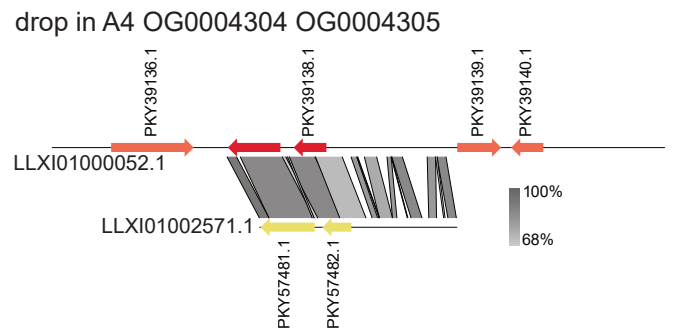
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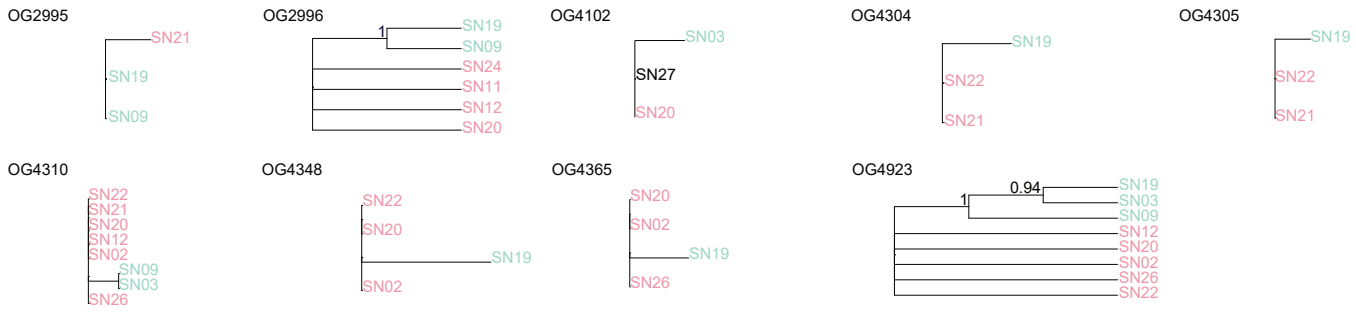
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a

Single nuclei confirmation A4

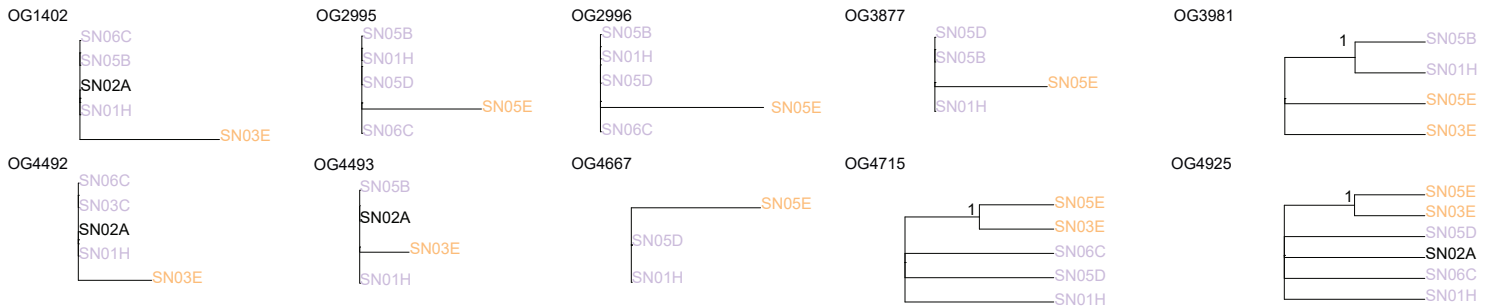
■ MAT-1 ■ MAT-2 ■ undetermined



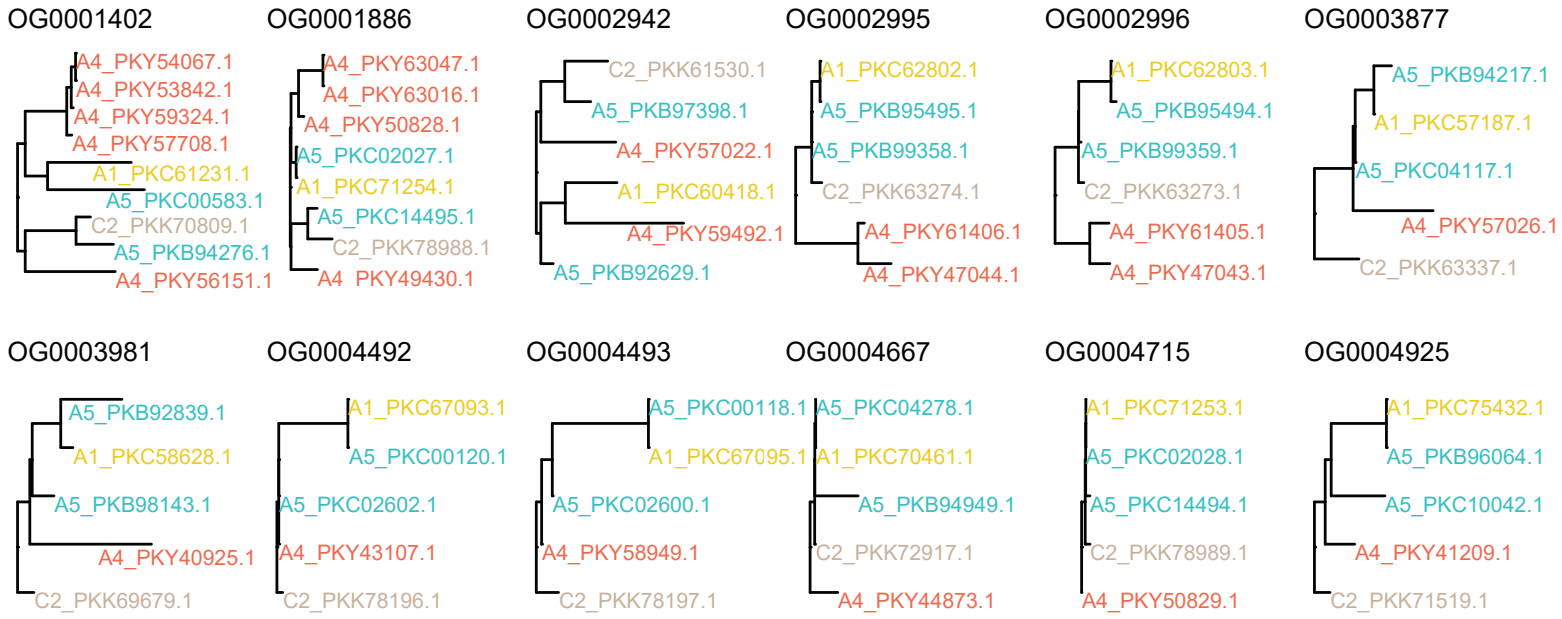
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Single nuclei confirmation A5

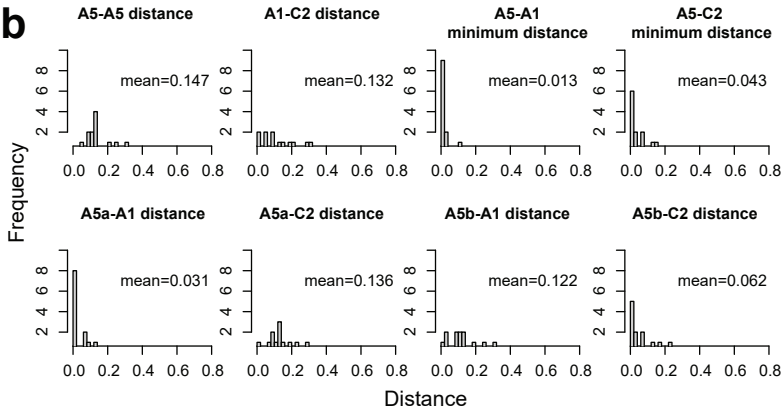
■ MAT-3 ■ MAT-6 ■ undetermined



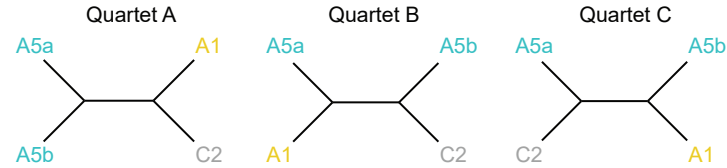
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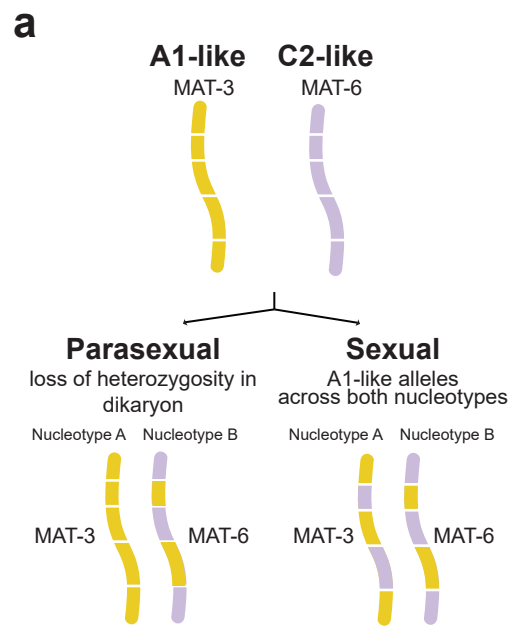
b



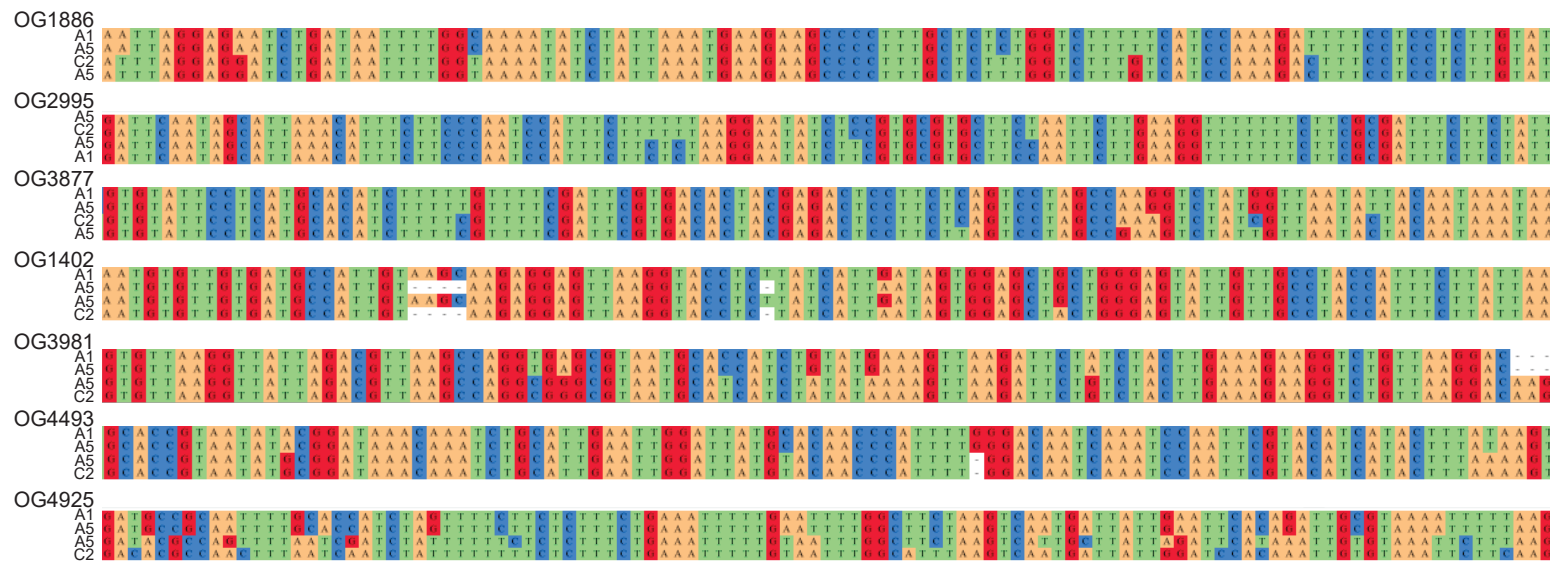
c



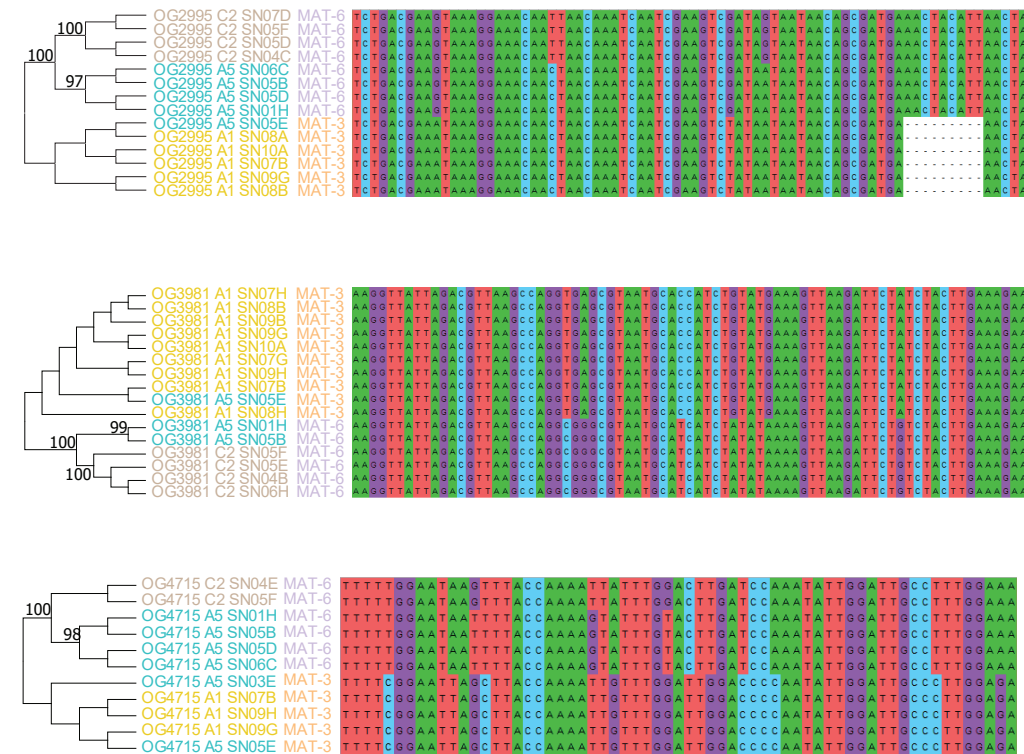
Scenario	Quartet	Count
A5 alleles more closely related	A	0
A5 alleles more distantly related	B or C	12



b Whole-genome assemblies comparison



c Single-nuclei comparison
no recombination between locus and mating type



d Single-nuclei comparison
recombination between locus and mating type

