

First assembly of the genespace of Lolium multiflorum and comparison to other Poaceae genomes

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Abstract

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28 Italian ryegrass (Lolium multiflorum Lam.) is one of the most important forage grasses of 29 temperate regions. It is characterized by a high level of within cultivar diversity, making 30 the fixation of traits in breeding programs difficult. The aim of this study was to develop 31 a functional resource for L. multiflorum that will greatly assist the development of 32 genomics-assisted breeding strategies. 33 The genome of a diploid, heterozygous genotype was sequenced and assembled into 34 130k scaffolds with a total assembly size of 574 Mb. 61k gene models were annotated 35 and 80.5% of BUSCOs were complete, indicating a good representation of the gene 36 content. Simple sequence repeat (SSR) mining identified 29,840 SSR loci for L. 37 multiflorum, with 4,601 being shared with L. perenne. Proteome comparison with other 38 Poaceae revealed several protein clusters including the SAUR-like auxin-responsive 39 protein family, glutathione S-transferases, BTB-POZ and the photosystem II light 40 harvesting complex gene B1B2 to be enriched in Lolium spp., while 86 clusters were 41 more and 293 less abundant in *L. multiflorum* than in *L. perenne*. Here we present the first sequence, assembly, and annotation of the gene-space of L. 42 43 multiflorum, providing a valuable resource for marker identification for breeding 44 programs, genome-wide association studies or evolutionary studies.

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Keywords

47 Gene space; Lolium multiflorum; ryegrasses

Introduction

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50 The ever-growing world population increasingly demands for meat and dairy products. 51 Efficient and sustainable ways to produce these products are therefore required. Grassland-based livestock production offers a promising alternative to high-input 52 53 confined feed-lot operations (O'Mara 2012). However, in order to meet the demand for 54 high quality roughage from grassland, high yielding, persistent and disease resistant 55 forage grasses are needed. 56 Italian ryegrass (Lolium multiflorum, Lam.) is one of the most important forage grasses. 57 widely grown in temperate regions worldwide. It is particularly valued for a number of 58 agronomic traits including fast establishment, good palatability and high yields 59 (Humphreys et al. 2010). In addition, L. multiflorum may be used for phytoremediation or 60 to monitor contaminations, due to its association with endophytic bacteria such as 61 Pseudomonas and Rhodococcus spp. that are able to degrade alkanes (e.g. diesel; 62 Andria et al. 2009, Yousaf et al. 2010). 63 L. multiflorum belongs to the tribe Poeae in the Poaceae grass family, which contains 64 major crop species such as wheat (Triticum aestivum), rice (Oryza sativa) and maize 65 (Zea mays), as well as the model grass Brachypodium distachyon (Soreng et al. 2015). 66 It is a diploid (2n=2x=14), allogamous species. The genome size is expected to be 67 comparable to the one of its close relative L. perenne (~2.5E+09 base pairs [bp]) and 68 also to contain a large amount of repetitive sequences (Byrne et al. 2015). As is 69 characteristic for allogamous species, Lolium spp. display a very high level of 70 heterozygosity (Byrne et al. 2015). 71 The genus *Lolium* contains different species with contrasting flowering patterns. While 72 L. perenne is a perennial and only flowers once per growing season, L. multiflorum has 73 the ability to produce flowers repeatedly throughout the season (i.e. after each cut). L. 74 multiflorum can be further divided into the subspecies Westerwolds ryegrasses (L. 75 multiflorum ssp. westerwoldicum), which is an annual species with high yield potential

76 but low persistency, and Italian ryegrass (L. multiflorum ssp. italicum), which is a bi- to 77 pluriannual species with increased persistence (Humphreys et al. 2010). 78 Focused on its primary use in hay or silage production for ruminant nutrition, breeding 79 targets for L. multiflorum include high dry matter yield (DMY), high nutritive value and 80 high seed yield as well as resistance against diseases such as crown rust caused by 81 Puccinia coronata f.sp. lolii and bacterial wilt caused by Xanthomonas translucens pv. 82 graminis (Humphreys et al. 2010). Breeding of forage grasses mainly builds on recurrent 83 phenotypic selection, based on either population improvement or the production of 84 synthetic progeny using intercrosses of a limited number of parental plants (Posselt 85 2010). Consequently, L. multiflorum cultivars usually consist of many different genotypes 86 and are characterized by a high level of within cultivar diversity. This may be 87 advantageous in terms of adaptability across a broad range of environments, but may 88 also impair breeding progress, as fixation of desired traits is often difficult. 89 Molecular genetic and genomic tools have been shown to valuably complement 90 phenotypic selection, allowing for developing highly efficient and targeted breeding 91 strategies (Xu et al. 2017). Although forage grasses have not received as much attention 92 as major crops such as rice and wheat, where high quality reference genomes have 93 become available, a number of genomic resources have been developed for L. 94 multiflorum. For example, a number of high quality linkage maps have been constructed 95 using predominantly AFLP (Studer et al. 2006), SSR (Hirata et al. 2006) or DArT (Bartoš 96 et al. 2011) markers. Traits for which linked genetic markers have been identified in L. 97 multiflorum and closely related species include disease resistance (Studer et al. 2007, 98 Studer et al. 2006), lodging tolerance (Inoue et al. 2004), seed yield (Studer et al. 2008) 99 or drought tolerance (Humphreys et al. 2005). In addition, genomic resources for L. 100 perenne include chloroplast sequences (Diekmann et al. 2009), mitochondrial 101 sequences (Islam et al. 2013), a transcriptional map (Studer et al. 2012) and a draft

102 genome sequence consisting of 1,128 Mb and 48,415 scaffolds with a minimum size of 103 1 kb with a total of 28,455 genes encoding 40,068 proteins (Byrne et al. 2015). 104 Genomic research in Lolium spp. has substantially profited from genetic resources of 105 wheat (Brenchley et al. 2012), maize (Schnable et al. 2009), rice (Goff et al. 2002) or 106 Brachypodium (International Brachypodium Initiative 2010), based on the high synteny 107 and collinearity of Poaceae genomes (Jones et al. 2002). For example, using the 108 GenomeZipper (Pfeifer et al. 2013), candidate genes for map-based cloning of QTL can 109 be identified in Lolium spp. based on synteny to the available reference genomes. 110 However, the availability of a high quality reference genome for the species under study 111 is indispensable for the efficient development and implementation of genomics-assisted 112 breeding strategies. This is particularly true for genome wide association mapping (Kole 113 et al. 2015) or genomic prediction (Grinberg et al. 2016), which no longer rely on the 114 correlation between single markers and traits but on a large number of genetic loci 115 covering the entire genome. Genome sequences can also facilitate SNP mapping in 116 genotyping by sequencing (GBS) studies (Poland and Rife 2012), provide information of 117 candidate genes when targeting induced local lesions in genomes (TILLING; Till et al. 118 2003) or enable the identification of a large number of genetic markers such as SSRs 119 (Perez-de-Castro et al. 2012). Moreover, genome editing methods like the 120 CRISPR/Cas9 system are dependent on sequence information provided by reference 121 genomes (Cong et al. 2013). 122 Therefore, the aims of this study were to sequence, assemble, and annotate the gene-123 space of L. multiflorum. This will assist the development of both marker and genome-124 wide assisted breeding strategies.

Materials and Methods

DNA preparation and sequencing

For establishing the first draft genome sequence of L. multiflorum, we selected a highly heterozygous genotype from advanced breeding germplasm, which was also used as a parental plant in a mapping population segregating for disease resistance (M2289; Studer et al. 2006). DNA was extracted from freeze-dried leave material using the Qiagen DNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and quality and quantity were assessed by spectrophotometry (Nanodrop; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) and through gel electrophoresis. The Illumina HiSeq2000 platform (Illumina Inc., San Diego, USA) was used for sequencing. Two Illumina paired-end libraries with mean fragment lengths of 300bp and 800 bp were prepared from genomic DNA, using the NEBNext DNA sample preparation kit (New England Biolabs, https://www.neb.com/) with Illumina adaptors according to the NEBnext instructions. The genomic DNA was sequenced on two lanes.

Genome assembly

For the genome assembly, the program ABySS (Version: 1.3.5; Simpson *et al.* 2009) was used with a *k*-mer size of 55 bp, raw data from sequencing both libraries (300 and 800 bp), a minimum base quality of 30 and a minimum contig size of 300bp to build a scaffold. BUSCO V3 was used to generate a quantitative measure of genome completeness (Simão *et al.* 2015) with the Embryophyta odb9 lineage (creation date 2016-02-13, number of species 30, number of BUSCOS: 1440). Since organelle DNA was not removed prior to library construction, organelle sequences were assembled into contiguous blocks which did not interfere with downstream analysis.

SSR mining

SSRs were identified in the L. multiflorum genome and in the L. perenne genome of Byrne et al. (2015) using the MIcroSAtellite (MISA) software tool (Thiel et al. 2003) and considering SSR loci with repeat motifs of 2bp or more. Conserved SSRs between both species were identified by selecting 200 bp regions up- and downstream of the SSR motif. A BLAST database was then created from the L. multiflorum SSR loci (as this species contained fewer SSRs than L. perenne), which the L. perenne SSR loci were searched against using BLASTN. Based on BLASTN, loci with < 299 bp alignment were rejected, and only SSR loci with a single significant BLAST match were retained. The data from MISA were then merged with the remaining BLASTN pairs. Using the BLASTN results (start and end values) the orientation of the sequence was then corrected and the SSR motif was reverse complemented, if applicable. Additionally we observed that two SSR motifs might differ but potentially be the same (for example TC and CT), for this reason, we moved the last base to the first position. From these data, we then considered pairs of SSR loci to be informative if the SSR motif matched (exactly with either the original or the re-positioned last base) and the number of repeats differed. For these analyses, custom Perl and R scripts were used.

Genome annotation

To identify transcribed regions of the genome and corresponding functional coding DNA sequences (CDS), the following RNA-seq datasets were used: (i) data from six different tissues from *L. perenne* (Bioproject: PRJNA222646; Farrell *et al.* 2014); (ii) five *L. multiflorum* datasets from meristem samples (SRR3100250-4; Stoces *et al.* 2016); (iii) data from pollen and stigma samples from *L. perenne* (Manzanares *et al.* 2016); and (iv) an in-house data set of 48 *L. perenne* meristem samples, taken at three time-points (data unpublished). The reads were aligned to the transcriptome using Tophat (version 2.0.11) and Bowtie2 (version: 2.1.0; Trapnell *et al.* 2012, Langmead 2010) for all samples. Isoforms of genes were identified using Cufflinks (version: 2.2.0; Trapnell *et al.* 2012)

producing a genomic feature format file (GFF). The individual GFF files were then merged using the cuffmerge command, default settings.

Coding sequence identification

To identify coding sequences (CDS), the spliced exons for each GFF transcript were retrieved using gffread (part of the Tuxedo tool suite). To identify the correct open reading frames (ORF) for protein sequences the program ORFpredictor (version: 3.0; Min *et al.* 2005) was used. For frame selection, the transcripts were first BLASTX (Altschul *et al.* 1990) searched against a protein database consisting of the proteomes from *Arabidopsis thaliana* (TAIR version 10; Swarbreck *et al.* 2008), *O. sativa* (downloaded from Ensembl; Kersey *et al.* 2016), *Glycine max* (Ensembl), *Populus trichocarpa* (Ensembl) and *Manihot esculenta* (cassava, v4.1; Prochnik *et al.* 2012). This database, although not exhaustive, provided a broad basis of existing plant proteins. ORFpredictor was then used to identify CDS by use of the best BLAST hits frame selection. In the absence of a homologous BLAST hit, ORFpredictor selected the longest ORF. These results were then used to annotate the GFF file created by Cufflinks for CDS using scripts kindly provided by Palmieri *et al.* (2012).

Gene annotation

For functional annotation of genes, three synergistic methods were employed, based on protein sequences. First, the protein sequences were search against the *A. thaliana* TAIR10 proteome using BLASTP. Second, the proteins were search against the Swiss-Prot non-redundant protein database (http://www.uniprot.org/downloads; downloaded 14/03/2016), again using BLASTP. In both cases, the functional annotation of the best BLAST hit (based on E-value, maximum 1e-15) protein was used to assign annotations for functional description and gene ontology (GO); from Swiss-Prot an InterPro domain was also assigned where possible. In the third step, the protein sequences were scanned

against InterPro's signatures using InterProScan (version: 5.16-55; Jones *et al.* 2014). From this, a number of assignments could be made including HAMAP (High-quality Automated and Manual Annotation of Proteins; Pedruzzi *et al.* 2015), Pfam (Finn *et al.* 2016) and PIRSF (Protein Information Resource Super Family; Nikolskaya *et al.* 2007). For the aforementioned, the corresponding GO annotation was also retrieved from http://geneontology.org/external2go/ (downloaded 27/06/2016). The three sources of annotation were then combined into a single table and the GO terms from each were concatenated into a non-redundant list.

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Protein clustering

To identify orthologous clusters of proteins in the *Lolium* genus and in wheat (*T.aestivum*, TGACv1), maize, (Z. mays, AGPv4), Brachypodium (B. distachyon, v1.0) and rice (O. sativa, IRGSP-1.0) the proteomes of these grasses were compared. First, both Lolium proteomes were merged in silico to produce a single representative proteome of the Lolium genus. Additionally, the longest amino acid sequence (aa) per gene locus was retained using an in-house Perl script. For the other grasses, the proteomes were downloaded from Plant Ensembl FTP (ftp://ftp.ensemblgenomes.org/) and the longest protein per gene loci was retained. To cluster the protein sequences into orthologous clusters, the offline version of OrthoMCL (Li et al. 2003) was used, as described by Sykes et al. (2017). Briefly, the protein names within a fasta file (per species) were first adapted for consistency and to eliminate problems arising from special characters and name similarities. The resulting fasta file was then formatted to make it compliant with the OrthoMCL algorithm (a short species-specific prefix was added to each name for subsequent species identification). The sequences were then filtered for low quality, based on sequence length (>30 aa) and percentage of stop codons (<10%). From these high quality proteins, an all-vs-all BLASTP was run where all proteins were searched against all proteins (maximum E-

value 1e-5). The results of the BLASTP were collated and then parsed before loading into a local MySQL orthoMCL database. In the next step, pairs of proteins that are potentially orthologs, in-paralogs or co-orthologs were identified using the OrthoMCL algorithm (Li et al. 2003), where protein pairwise connections were normalised for ortholog pairs between and within species. The resulting potential pairs were then organized in clusters using the MCL algorithm (Enright et al. 2002) and the names were reverted to their original values for subsequent work. Protein clusters were counted for L. perenne and L. multiflorum separately, and protein clusters were defined as enriched for one species if they were not present in the other species or if the cluster had a +/-2.5x occurrence after log2 transformation. To identify protein clusters unique to the Lolium genus, we then selected orthologous clusters from OrthoMCL, which only included Lolium proteins. Furthermore, we selected only clusters, which contained both L. perenne and L. multiflorum proteins. For each cluster, we then extracted the protein names within it and looked for enriched groups by using the GO information previously described. For this, the annotations of L. perenne and L. multiflorum were concatenated into a single file. To identify enriched groups of proteins, based on function, gene ontology (GO) analysis was implemented using TopGO (Alexa and Rahnenfuhrer 2016) in R (R Core Team 2016). A one-sided Fisher's exact test was used to identify enriched GO terms with a minimum P < 0.05 and a minimum of five genes found with the GO term. Go terms were then summarized using a cluster algorithm relying on semantic similarity and visualized using the Revigo online

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Results and Discussion

tool (Supek et al. 2011).

Italian ryegrass genome assembly

The raw data consisted of 6.89E+08 100 base pair (bp) reads. Assuming a genome size of approximately 2.5E+09 bp (as it was observed for the close relative L. perenne; Byrne et al. 2015), this corresponds to a 28x genome coverage by the raw reads. The reads were quality filtered and assembled into 129,579 scaffolds of a minimum length of 2kb. A total of 574 Mb were included in this assembly with an N50 scaffold length of 4,949 bp. Although this represents a draft genome suitable for many downstream applications, the overall quality of the draft genome was lower when compared to the L. perenne assembly, where a 1.13 Gb assembly was produced consisting of 48,415 scaffolds with an N50 of 70'062 bp. However, this was generated using a considerably larger sequencing effort including multiple paired-end and mate-pair libraries in addition to PacBio sequencing (Byrne et al. 2015). In addition, the L. perenne genome assembly was based on a highly homozygous genotype derived from multiple generations of inbreeding. We chose a highly heterozygous L. multiflorum for our assembly for two reasons: first, L. multiflorum suffers from severe inbreeding depression and advanced inbred lines are not available for the species. Second, the plant was used as resistance donor in a bi-parental cross used extensively for the characterization of disease resistance in L. multiflorum (Rechsteiner et al. 2006, Studer et al. 2006, Wichmann et al. 2011, Studer et al. 2007). Thus, the draft assembly presented here will greatly facilitate the discovery of candidate resistance genes in L. multiflorum. The assembly provides a good representation of the gene space. This was demonstrated by the BUSCO analysis using the Embyrophyta lineage, which provides a quantitative assessment of the completeness of the genome in terms of the expected gene content. Out of 1,440 BUSCO groups searched, 80.5% were complete (59.7% single-copy BUSCOs, 20.8% duplicated BUSCOs), 8.5% were fragmented and 11% were missing.

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Mining for SSR markers characteristic for Lolium ssp.

The development of high-throughput genotyping techniques based on next generation sequencing such as genotyping by sequencing (GBS; Elshire et al. 2011) now allows to easily generate a large number of data points in a short time and with moderate effort. However, sequence specific multiallelic markers such as SSRs still represent the markers of choice for specific applications such as routine screening of a limited number of loci in large germplasm collections or diversity analyses in diverse genetic backgrounds. Therefore, we scanned the L. multiflorum and the L. perenne (Byrne et al. 2015) genomes for SSR motifs. In total, 29,840 and 46,780 SSRs (with repeat motifs of 2 bp or larger) in both the L. multiflorum and the L. perenne genomes were found, respectively (Table 1). Of these, 88 to 92 % were di- and tri-nucleotide repeats. Based on BLAST homology, we found 4076 SSRs common in both species (Table 1). Among these, 1,171 and 818 repeats were di- or tri-nucleotide repeats, respectively, which differed in repeat number between the two species. The relatively low number of common SSRs identified was mainly due to the conservative approach used for identification. The common loci provide valuable tools to study common characteristics of the two species, while the remaining SSRs build a resource to develop species specific SSRs for species identification.

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Annotation of the *L. multiflorum* draft genome

For annotation of gene models we chose to identify transcribed regions, using experimental data derived from existing mRNA sequencing projects (for details see material and methods). In total, 61k gene models were identified using the Tuxedo suite of tools (Table 2).

Of the 61k gene models, 60k had an open reading frame and a total of 80k splice variants (minimum length10 amino acids [aa]), with a mean length of 176 aa were identified. We then annotated the gene models for functional description using the predicted coding sequences using BLASTP based methods against the TAIR10 proteome and the Swiss-

Prot non-redundant protein database. In addition, we used motif scanning based on InterPro signatures. From these data, a functional description was assigned to 35K transcripts, of which 30K were assigned at least one Gene Ontology (GO) term. To compare the results found for L. multiflorum with L. perenne, we implemented the same protocol to annotate the L. perenne genome of Byrne et al. (Byrne et al. 2015). In L. perenne, we found 55k gene models with 102k splice variants, with mean length of 1,577bp, N50 values of 2,082bp. Using the methods described above for open reading frame identification, we found a corresponding open reading frame in 54k gene models and in 101k splice variants; with mean and N50 of 247 and 273, respectively. A similar number of gene models was found in both species: 61k for L. multiflorum and 55k for L. perenne. From this, we conclude that most of the gene models from L. perenne were present in the L. multiflorum draft assembly, although their length, on average, was shorter. Despite the clearly larger number of scaffolds and a lower N50 value for the L. multiflorum draft genome assembly, we were able to identify a large number of the L. perenne genes in L. multiflorum. Thus, the dataset will be valuable for downstream applications like identification of candidate genes or development of markers for marker-assisted

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Protein clusters enriched in the genus *Lolium*

breeding programs.

The two *Lolium* proteomes (from *L. perenne* and *L. multiflorum*) generated in the previous step were merged *in silico* to produce a single representative proteome of the *Lolium* genus. This dataset was compared to the proteomes of wheat, maize, *Brachypodium* and rice to identify orthologous protein clusters enriched in the genus *Lolium*.

In total, 315,182 proteins of these five genomes were used for clustering with the OrthoMCL algorithm to identify orthologous protein clusters. Of these, 223,756 proteins

were clustered into 35,739 orthologous clusters. Unsurprisingly, most of the genes (54%: 121,349) were common between the five species, within 11,694 orthologous clusters (Figure 1). The investigated species shared a core set of 121,349 genes related to a number of common characteristics and general metabolic processes, which is in line with previous studies (Davidson et al. 2012). In this core set, genes for photosynthesis or general metabolic processes were included. The Lolium genus was characterized by the highest number of unique proteins (19,335), clustered into 7611 orthologous protein clusters. Brachypodium was characterized by the lowest number of only 600 unique orthologous protein clusters (Figure 1). On the other hand, Brachypodium, rice wheat and maize shared 12,076 genes, which were absent in the combined proteome of the two Lolium spp. This may be partially explained by the inferior quality of the genome assemblies of the two Lolium spp. when compared to the other species. More complete Lolium spp. genomes and multiple reference assemblies would be required for more detailed comparison of gene contents among the different species. Moreover, while the other crops are annual species primarily selected for grain yield, Lolium spp. are annual, bi-annual or perennial species primarily grown and selected for biomass production. This could have favoured the selection of different gene families. From the 7611 orthologous clusters specific to the Lolium genus, only those present in both species (i.e. L. perenne and L. multiflorum) were retained, resulting in 5171 orthologous clusters. Gene ontology (GO) enrichment in these clusters was tested using Fisher's exact test and the complexity of the data was reduced using semantic word space and the Revigo webtool (Figure 2). Eleven GO terms were found to be significantly enriched in Lolium ssp. and to contain at least five protein families. Four protein families seem to have expanded in the Lolium genus in comparison to the other four Poaceae genomes, including BTB-POZ, the SAUR-like auxin-responsive protein family, glutathione S-transferases, and the photosystem II light harvesting complex gene B1B2.

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The BTB-POZ protein cluster contains proteins, which are part of zinc-finger proteins. These proteins serve a variety of functions by interacting with DNA. For example, the disease resistance protein NPR1 of Arabidopsis contains a BTB/POZ domain, which interacts with the repression domain of TGA2 (Boyle et al. 2009). SAUR-like auxin responsive genes may be involved in disease resistance against X. arboricola pv. pruni in peach (Socquet-Juglard et al. 2013), but they have also been shown to be involved in root development in Arabidopsis (Markakis et al. 2013). Species-specific pathogens, together with a particular root development in perennial species may partly explain the enrichment of these gene clusters in *Lolium* spp. Glutathione S-transferases have been shown to confer resistance against herbicides in L. multiflorum and L. rigidum (Del Buono and Ioli 2011, Cummins et al. 2013). The enrichment of this protein cluster may partly explain the high level of herbicide resistance often observed in Lolium spp. (Mahmood et al. 2016, Han et al. 2016). Finally, the photosystem II light harvesting complex B1B2 proteins are a central part of the chloroplast membrane and serve in harvesting energy from sunlight and transferring it to downstream proteins (Kuhlbrandt et al. 1994). Lolium spp. are mostly grown as perennial plants in temperate regions and therefore more heavily exposed to varying day lengths than crop species such as wheat, maize or rice, which are only grown for one growing season. Lolium spp. may therefore depend more heavily on an efficient light harvesting system to make use of short days in early spring and late autumn.

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Unique properties of the *L. multiflorum* and *L. perenne* proteome

To identify unique properties of the *L. multiflorum* and the *L. perenne* proteome, the number of gene models in each protein cluster were compared. Only 86 protein clusters were found to be larger in *L. multiflorum* when compared to *L. perenne*, and 293 were larger in *L. perenne* when compared to *L. multiflorum*. Most of the corresponding gene models contained no functional annotation and these were omitted from further analysis.

In L. multiflorum, 31 gene models did contain annotation and for about half of these, gene models were assigned a corresponding TAIR 10 based annotation (Supplementary Table 1). In L. perenne, 125 gene models could be identified and 84 of those contained an annotation (Supplementary Table. 2). These annotations were grouped according to the assigned functional groups based on the TAIR10 database (Tab. 3). The list was summarized into nine categories. The category with the most entries was "general biological processes" where no specific function could be assigned. Second was "stress response", which included all proteins involved in disease resistance and abiotic stress response. The group "protein modification" mainly contained proteins related to protein phosphorylation. The groups "hormones" and "reproduction" showed the lowest level of enrichment. Both genomes show significant gene expansion. For half of those genes an annotation was available because they showed homologies to know proteins. Several disease resistance proteins found to be enriched in L. perenne, such as OC_22035 (CC-NBS-LRR class), OC_258 (CC-NBS-LRR class), OC_369 (PR5-like receptor kinase) or OC_9754 (dirigent-like protein). The proteins found were described as proteins generally involved in disease resistance (Tan et al. 2007, Wang et al. 1996, Ralph et al. 2007). Interestingly, a high number of enriched clusters contain genes involved in metal ion binding like OC_1089 in L. perenne that is annotated as "copper transport protein family" or OC_1619 in *L. multiflorum* annotated as "heavy metal transport/detoxification" superfamily protein". These may be particularly important for the phytoremediation capacities shown for *L. multiflorum* is (Mugica-Alvarez et al. 2015). Among the proteins enriched in L. perenne, one cluster contained genes annotated as an AGAMOUS-like gene (Supplementary table 2). The protein AGAMOUS-like 19 (AGL19) is a transcription factor shown to be involved in flowering in Arabidopsis, especially in the Flowering Locus C (FLC)-independent vernalisation pathway which does not require VRN2 (Schonrock et al. 2006). In L. perenne, a number of AGAMOUS-

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like genes such as AGL24 were reported to be involved in flowering (Ciannamea *et al.* 2006), but their role and interaction with other *L. perenne* flowering genes such as VRN1 or VRN2 (Andersen *et al.* 2006) is not well established. A main difference between *L. multiflorum* and *L. perenne* is their flowering behaviour with *L. multiflorum* being able to flower throughout the season while *L. perenne* only flowers once. Therefore, the AGAMOUS-like genes could play a role in the particular flowering pattern of *L. perenne*. Interestingly, in *L. perenne* the two protein clusters OC_5274 (BTB-POZ) and OC_5278 (glutathione s-transferase) were found to be enriched as they were already found in the comparison of the *Lolium* proteomes with other Poaceae proteomes. Most differences observed concern protein clusters involved in basic processes and may concern general adaptation rather than specific evolutionary responses to particular selection pressures through biotic or abiotic factors. However, in general the differences observed concerned only relatively few gene clusters, which emphasizes the close relationship between the two species.

Conclusion

Here we present the first draft assembly of the gene space of the forage grass *L. multiflorum*. This is a valuable resource for the development of molecular genetic tools to be used in breeding programs, as a basis for extended comparative genome studies in the important family of Poaceae.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1: Shared gene models between *Lolium* and cereal species. Five way Venn diagram showing the distribution of shared gene models between the grasses wheat (yellow: Tae, *Triticum aestivum*, TGACv1), maize, (purple: Zma, *Zea mays*, AGPv4), *Brachypodium* (blue: Bdi, *Brachypodium distachyon*, v1.0), rice (red: Osa, *Oryza sativa*, IRGSP-1.0) and the merged proteomes of the two *Lolium* species (green: Lol, *L. multiflorum* and *L. perenne*). First are the numbers of orthologous groups and in brackets the number of genes.

Figure 2: Protein clusters enriched in the combined proteome of *Lolium multiflorum* and *L. perenne*. Enriched clusters were identified using gene ontology analysis and graphed using the Revigo webtool based on semantic word space (Supek *et al.* 2011). Log10_p_values are based on a Fisher's exact test. Colours indicate levels of enrichment from high (blue) to low (red).

Tables

Table 1: Number of SSR loci identified in the genomes of *L. multiflorum* and *L. perenne*. Common SSR loci were identified by comparing 200 bp regions up- and downstream of the SSR locus.

Genome	Number of SSR loci		
	Di-nucleotide repeats	Tri-nucleotide repeats	Total
L. multiflorum	13,946	13,539	29,840
L. perenne	20,855	20,202	46,780
Common in both	2,013	1,943	4,076

 Table 2: Summary annotation statistics of the L. multiflorum draft genome

	Gene models	Splice variants
Total number	61,153	81,244
Mean length	951 bp	1,175 bp
Length N50	1,558 bp	1,862 bp

Table 3: Number of gene models enriched in protein clusters of *L. perenne* or *L. multiflorum* when compared to each other. Clusters were grouped according to their functions assigned in the TAIR database and summarized according to functional processes.

Functional processes	L. perenne	L. multiflorum
General biological processes	22	2
Stress response	15	3
Protein modification	11	1
Regulation of transcription and translation	11	1
Metabolism	11	3
Metal ion binding	7	1
Oxidaten-reduction process	7	0
Hormones	4	2
Reproduction	2	1

Data Availability

The *L. multiflorum* genome assembly, as well as SSR sequences, genomic feature files, annotation data, canonical proteins and canonical transcripts for *L. multiflorum* and *L. perenne* as well as a list of orthologous clusters used for clustering are available on zenodo.org (doi:10.5281/zenodo.832654).

Supporting Information

Supplementary Tables.pdf (Protein clusters enriched in L. multiflorum [Supplementary Table 1] and L. perenne [Supplementary Table 2])