A reference transcriptome for the early-branching fern *Botrychium lunaria* enables fine-grained resolution of population structure

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Running title: A reference transcriptome for *Botrychium lunaria*

Abstract

Ferns are the second most dominant group of land plants after angiosperms. Extant species occupy an extensive range of habitats and contribute significantly to ecosystem functioning. Despite the importance of ferns, most taxa are poorly covered by genomic resources. The genus *Botrychium* belongs to one of the earliest divergent lineages of vascular plants and has a global distribution with 35 species, half of which are polyploids. Here, we establish a reference transcriptome for *Botrychium lunaria,* a diploid species with an extremely large genome of 27.5 Gbp. We assembled 25,721 high-quality transcripts with an average length of 1,332 bp based on deep RNA-sequencing of a single individual. We sequenced an additional 11 transcriptomes of individuals from two populations in Switzerland, including the population of the reference individual. Based on read mapping to reference transcript sequences, we identified 374,510 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) segregating among individuals for an average density of 14 SNPs per kb. The transcriptome-wide markers provided unprecedented resolution of the population genetic structure revealing substantial variation in heterozygosity among individuals. We also constructed a phylogenomic tree of 73 taxa representing all fern orders to ascertain the placement of the genus *Botrychium*. The high-quality transcriptomic resources enable powerful population and phylogenomic studies in an important group of ferns.

Significance statement

Ferns pose substantial puzzles in terms of lifestyles, genome organization and population structure. Progress has been significantly hampered by the lack of genomic resources. Here, we present a reference transcriptome for *Botrychium lunaria,* a phylogenetically early-branching fern with an extremely large genome of 27.5 Gbp. We show that the new transcriptome improves phylogenetic resolution among early-branching ferns. Based on an additional 11 transcriptomes of the same species, we identify unexpected variation in population-level heterozygosity.

Introduction

Ferns (Polypodiopsida) constitute the oldest lineage of vascular plants along with lycophytes (Lycopodiopsida) (Kranz and Huss, 1996; Kenrick and Crane, 1997; PPG I, 2016). With 85% of the total species richness found in the tropics, ferns are present in most climates (Page, 2002; Ranker and Haufler, 2008). Habitats of ferns include deserts, grasslands, forest understory, mountainous regions, and aquatic environments (Klaus *et al.*, 2010) where they have diversified into a multitude of lifestyles. Ferns play key roles in ecosystem functioning including serving as a habitat for invertebrates (Ellwood and Foster, 2004), shaping plant recolonization of disturbed habitats (Walker, 1994) and influencing the tree species communities composition (George and Bazzaz, 1999a; George and Bazzaz, 1999b). Ferns have complex and idiosyncratic life cycles characterized by the growth of gametophytes dependent on endosymbiotic fungi. In contrast to other plants, many fern species are capable of versatile reproductive modes (Sessa *et al.*, 2012) including apomixes, sporophytic and gametophytic selfing, as well as outcrossing (Barker and Wolf, 2010; Haufler *et al.*, 2016). Yet, our understanding of the evolutionary origins and lifestyle diversification is limited.

Phylogenetic analyses resolved the position of ferns as the sister group to seed plants (Pryer *et al.*, 2001) and as the second earliest diverging lineage of vascular land plants (Raubeson and Jansen, 1992; Pryer *et al.*, 2004). The age of the fern clade was estimated to be ca. 364-420 million years underlining the deep divergence among ferns lineages (Pryer *et al.*, 2004; Schuettpelz and Pryer, 2007; Rai and Graham, 2010; Knie *et al.*, 2015). Fern phylogenies have been mainly established based on chloroplast markers (Schuettpelz and Pryer, 2007; Rai and Graham, 2010; Testo and Sundue, 2016) in combination with ribosomal (Pryer *et al.*, 2001; Pryer *et al.*, 2004) and mitochondrial markers (Knie *et al.*, 2015). However, plastid and mitochondrial markers often failed to resolve within-genus level differentiation and events of reticulate evolution. A further challenge to resolve fern phylogenies is that almost a third of speciation events were driven by polyploidization (Wood *et al.*, 2009). Hence, genome- or transcriptome-wide datasets are needed to accurately resolve the evolutionary relationships.

The first insights into the structure of fern genomes were provided by two complete genome sequences of *Azolla filiculoides* and *Salvinia cucullata* (Li *et al.*, 2018). These two species belong to the 1% heterosporous fern species in contrast to the dominant homosporous species. Heterosporous ferns exhibit the smallest known genomes as shown for the closely related species *A. microphylla* and *S. molesta* (0.77 Gbp and 2.28 Gbp, respectively; Obermayer *et al.*, 2002; Clark *et al.*, 2016). Conversely, homosporous fern genomes contain on average three times more chromosomes than heterosporous ferns and seeds plants (Barker and Wolf 2010). The recent release of a partial genome assembly for the heterosporous fern *Ceratopetris richardii* highlighted the challenge associated with

complex fern genomes (Marchant *et al.*, 2019). In contrast, a series of recent phylogenomic studies

highlighted the power of transcriptome-based approaches (Wickett *et al.*, 2014; Shen *et al.*, 2017;

Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019).

Major progress in the establishment of genomic resources was made with the sequencing of 74 fern

transcriptomes (Matasci *et al.*, 2014; Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019). Such datasets were successfully

used to develop single copy nuclear markers to resolve deep evolutionary relationships among ferns

(Rothfels *et al.*, 2013; Rothfels *et al.*, 2015). In addition, transcriptomes can be used to develop

genotyping approaches to overcome challenges associated with large genome sizes in non-model

organisms. These approaches typically reduce genome complexity but still provide sufficient

polymorphic markers to conduct population genomics analyses (Seeb *et al.*, 2011). Major methods

include exome capture (Yeaman *et al.*, 2016), RNA-sequencing (Sloan *et al.*, 2012), double-digest

restriction-site associated DNA sequencing (Peterson *et al.*, 2012), and targeted re-sequencing

(Rellstab *et al.*, 2016). Establishing and expanding transcriptomic datasets for understudied fern clades

will bring about major new insights into fern diversification.

An important genus lacking transcriptomic resources is *Botrychium* belonging to the second most

early-branching fern subclass, the Ophioglossidae (PPG I, 2016). This subclass is characterized by a

subterranean gametophytic stage (Jeffrey, 1898; Winther and Friedman, 2007; Field *et al.*, 2015) and

extremely large and complex genomes (e.g. *Ophioglossum reticulatum* n=720 chromosomes)

(Khandelwal, 1990). *Botrychium* occurs in open habitats on nearly every continent across a broad

temperate and boreal distribution. This genus is divided into three monophyletic clades defined by

maternally inherited markers (Simplex-Campestre, Lanceolatum and Lunaria) (Dauphin *et al.*, 2017),

containing 35 recognized taxa (PPG I, 2016). The challenge of identifying *Botrychium* taxa based on

morphology is underlined by claims of cryptic species (Clausen, 1938; Hauk, 1995). Ambiguous

morphologies are sometimes caused by polyploidization which is a major driver of speciation as half

of the known *Botrychium* species are allopolyploids (Dauphin *et al.*, 2018). Nuclear markers resolved

the parental origins of these allopolyploid taxa and provided insights into the genus radiation

approximately 2 million years ago. Additional, the reconstruction of maternal lineages of *Botrychium*

revealed genetic diversity within the Lunaria clade highlighting the uncertainty of taxonomic

assignments (Dauphin *et al.*, 2014; Dauphin *et al.*, 2017). Previous population genetic studies based on

isozymes showed a lack of genetic differentiation among morphologically recognized types (Williams

et al., 2016). Poor resolution between *Botrychium* populations suggests pervasive self-fertilization

(Farrar, 1998; Hauk and Haufler, 1999). Genetic studies suggest that cross-fertilization may be

relatively frequent (Camacho and Liston, 2001; Swartz and Brunsfeld, 2002; Birkeland *et al.*, 2017).

However, the life histories of these early-branching ferns remain largely unresolved due to the lack of

genome-wide markers.

In this study, we assemble and curate the transcriptome of *B. lunaria* with a massive genome size of
27.5 Gbp (Dauphin *et al.*, 2016) filling an important gap in the fern phylogeny. By analyzing the
transcriptome of an additional 11 individuals, we show that individuals vary substantially in terms of
genotype and heterozygosity within and between populations. We further demonstrate the power of
transcriptome-wide markers to resolve phylogenetic relationships at the genus level and among deeply
divergent fern lineages.

Material and Methods

Sampling, library preparation and sequencing

Leaf material of *B. lunaria* was obtained from three locations in Switzerland: two in the Valais Alps in
Val d'Hérens, Mase and Forclaz within approximately. 30 km, and one in the Jura Mountains at
Chasseral (Suppl. Table S1). Leaves of six individuals from Val d'Hérens and from Chasseral were
collected in July 2015 and June 2017, respectively. Plant material was wrapped in aluminum foil and
frozen immediately in liquid nitrogen. Total RNA was extracted from trophophores (i.e. sterile part of
leaves) using the RNAeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen) and DNA was eliminated using DNase I digestion.
Total RNA was quantified using a Qubit fluorometer (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific) with the
RNA Broad-Range assay kit (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and quality-checked using an
Agilent 2200 Tape Station (AgilentTechnologies, Inc.). Samples were diluted to 100 ng/µl in RNase
free ultra-pure water before library preparation. The RNA-sequencing libraries were prepared
following a TruSeq RNA library preparation protocol (Illumina, Inc.) enriching for polyadenylated
RNAs. After quality assessment on an Agilent 2200 Tape Station, libraries were pooled and sequenced
in 150 bp single-end mode on one lane of an Illumina HiSeq 4000 sequencer.

De novo assembly, filtering and quality assessment

Sequencing reads were quality-checked using FastQC v. 0.11.7 (Andrews, 2010) and trimmed using
Trimmomatic v. 0.38 (Bolger *et al.*, 2014). Reads were retained if the leading and trailing bases > 5, a
4-bp sliding window > 15, and a minimum read length of 36 bp. Trimmed transcript sequences were
then *de novo* assembled using Trinity v. 2.8.3 (Haas *et al.*, 2013) from a single reference individual).
We used the pseudo-alignment percentage calculated by Kallisto v. 0.45.0 (Bray *et al.*, 2016) to assess
the representativeness of the raw assembly across the twelve sequenced individuals in total. Candidate
coding regions were identified using TransDecoder v. 5.3.0 (Haas *et al.*, 2013). Only transcripts with
an open reading frame (ORF) of at least 100 amino acids were kept. We also retained only the longest
isoform per transcript using the Trinity v. 2.8.3 toolkit. We used Diamond v. 0.9.24 (Buchfink *et al.*,

2015) to screen the transcript assembly against the NCBI non-redundant protein database (nr) to

identify potential foreign RNA contaminants. The best hit for each transcript was assigned at the

phylum-level using the R package *taxise* v. 0.9.7 (Chamberlain and Szöcs, 2013) in RStudio

v.1.2.1335 (RStudio Team, 2015; R Development Core Team, 2020). We excluded all transcripts with

a best hit outside of the plant kingdom. The completeness of the transcriptome assembly was assessed

using BUSCO v. 3 with the embryophyta_odb10 database (Simão *et al.*, 2015). Data were visualized

using the R package *ggplot2* v. 3.1.0 (Wickham, 2016).

Variant calling

We generated alignment BAM files for each individual against the reference transcriptome using the

short read aligner Bowtie2 v. 2.3.5 (Langmead, 2010) and SAMtools v. 1.9 (Li *et al.*, 2009). Depth

coverage of the reference individual was extracted using SAMtools idxstats. Alignments were

processed with HaplotypeCaller implemented in the Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK) v. 4.1.0.0

(DePristo *et al.*, 2011; McKenna *et al.*, 2010; Van der Auwera *et al.*, 2013) for single nucleotide

polymorphism (SNP) calling. The resulting gvcf files were combined and genotyped using the GATK

CombineGVCF and GenotypeGVCF tools, respectively. We excluded monomorphic sites from further

analysis. We filtered SNPs for the number of genotyped chromosomes (AN $\geq$ 20) out of a maximum

of 24 (12 diploid individuals). Quality criteria QUAL > 100, QualByDepth > 5.0,

RMSMappingQuality > 20.0, MappingQualityRankSumTest retained values > -2.0 and < 2.0, and

ReadPosRankSumTest and BaseQualityRankSumTest retained values > -2.0 and < 2.0 were defined

following the best practices and were applied to flag low-quality loci (Suppl. Figure S1). We removed

SNPs failing the above filters using VCFtools v. 0.1.16 (Danecek *et al.*, 2011) and added a filter to

retain only bi-allelic SNPs. These analyses were performed using the R packages *vcfR* v. 1.8.0 (Knaus

and Grünwald, 2017) and the SNP statistics among transcripts were visualized using *ggplot2* v. 3.1.0.

Population genetics analyses

To avoid biases introduced by highly polymorphic transcripts and to reduce the computational time of

population genetic analysis, we subsampled the number of SNPs by selecting one SNP every 1,000 bp

of transcriptomic sequence using VCFtools v. 0.1.16. We performed principal component analyses

(PCA) and calculated the pairwise F_{ST} and the mean heterozygosity (H_e) per location and per

individual. These analyses were performed using the R packages *vcfR* v. 1.8.0, *adegenet* v. 2.1.1

(Jombart and Ahmed, 2011) and *hierfstat* v. 0.04-22 (Goudet, 2005) and data were visualized using

ggplot2 v. 3.1.0.

Functional annotation

We functionally characterized encoded protein sequences based on gene ontology (GO) terms. We

summarized GO terms by selecting the least redundant annotations among the 30 most frequent terms

per ontology (cellular component CC, molecular function MF, and biological process BP). Analyses

were performed using the Bioconductor packages *AnnotationDbi* v. 1.46.0 (Pagès *et al.*, 2020), *GO.db*

v. 3.8.2 (Carlson, 2020), *GSEABase* v. 1.34.0 (Morgan *et al.*, 2020), *annotate* v. 1.62.0 (Gentleman,

2020), and data were visualized using the R packages *ggplot2* v. 3.1.0.

Genus-level phylogenetic analyses

We analysed published sequences of four nuclear regions from diploid and polyploid *Botrychium* taxa:

ApPEFP_C, CRY2cA, CRY2cB, and *transducin* (Dauphin *et al.*, 2018). We searched homologous

sequences in the transcriptome assembly using BLAST v. 2.9.0 (Altschul *et al.*, 1990). If the

associated transcript was found in the assembly, we used BCFtools v. 1.9 (Li, 2011) to retrieve the

corresponding transcript from the 11 remaining individuals using the VCF file information. Sequence

alignments were performed using MAFFT v. 7.407 using the L-INS-i strategy and default parameters

(Katoh *et al.*, 2002; Katoh and Standley, 2013). Multiple alignments were visually inspected and

cleaned by removing any potentially misaligned segments using Geneious v. 8.1.9 (Kearse *et al.*,

2012). Phylogenetic trees were inferred using maximum likelihood (ML) in RAxML-NG v. 0.9.0

(Kozlov *et al.*, 2019). We ran tree inferences with a fixed random seed of 2 under the HKY+GAMMA

model based on model settings by Dauphin *et al.* (2018) to ensure reproducibility. The tree search was

performed using 25 random- and 25 parsimony-based starting trees. The branch support was estimated

using 1,000 bootstrap replicates and then depicted on the best-scoring ML tree. Final gene trees were

edited with FigTree v. 1.4.4 (Rambaud, 2009).

Phylogenomic analyses

We performed phylogenomic analyses across ferns by including the newly established *B. lunaria*

transcriptome and 79 additional transcriptomes, including 73 fern species (10 Eusporangiates, 63

Leptosporangiates), and 5 outgroups (Lycopodiopsida) (Suppl. Table S2) (Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019).

We first performed an ortholog search using OrthoFinder v. 2.3.3 (Emms and Kelly, 2015) including

the newly established *B. lunaria* transcriptome and protein sequences of the 1000 Plants Project. We

retained only orthogroups with members found in at least 67 species (>90% of total), with a minimum

of 59 species (>80%) carrying a single copy of the orthogroup. Species represented in less than 50% of

the orthogroups were removed from the dataset. Then, we randomly selected one orthologous copy for

each remaining species having multiple gene copies. Sequences of the orthogroups subset were

subsequently aligned with MAFFT v. 7.407 under the L-INS-i strategy and default parameters. The

optimal substitution model was assessed for each orthogroup gene using the AIC- and BIC-based

model test implemented in RAxML-NG v. 0.9.0. Finally, gene trees were built using maximum

likelihood (ML) in RAxML-NG v. 0.9.0. We ran tree inferences under the LG4M (Le and Gascuel,

2008) model with a fixed random seed of 2. The tree search was performed on 25 random and 25

parsimony-based starting trees and branch support was estimated over 100 bootstrap replicates. The

inferred gene trees were used to estimate a species tree with Astral v. 5.5.6 (Mirarab *et al.*, 2014;

Zhang *et al.*, 2018). Branch support was calculated using multi-locus bootstrapping (Seo, 2008) and

local posterior probabilities (Sayyari and Mirarab, 2016). The species tree was edited with FigTree v.

1.4.4 (Rambaud, 2009).

Results

Sample collection and reference transcriptome assembly

In total, twelve *B. lunaria* individuals were sampled from Val d'Hérens and Chasseral located in the

Valais Alps and the Jura Mountains, respectively. The two sites are approximately 120 km apart and

the alpine population was sampled on meadows on an altitudinal range of 1,500 to 2,400 meters

(Suppl. Table S1). The transcriptome sequencing produced 14.6-50.1 million reads per individual.

After quality trimming, we retained 97.0-99.2% of the reads (Figure 1A, Suppl. Table S3). The highest

number of high-quality reads (49.5 million) were obtained for the Chasseral individual CHA_I_1.

Hence, we selected this individual to produce a reference transcriptome. The raw assembly for the

reference individual (CHA_I_1) contained 167,306 transcripts for a total of 87,537 candidate genes.

Mapping reads from individuals to the raw transcriptome assembly showed an alignment rate between

74.2-82.5% regardless of the population of origin (Figure 1A, Suppl. Table S3). We analyzed all

transcripts for the presence of high-confidence open reading frames (ORF; ≥100 amino acids). We

retained 69,280 transcripts (41.4%) covering 26,139 predicted genes (Figure 1B). Next, we selected

the longest transcript for each gene (Figure 1D). We performed a screen of each gene against the

complete non-redundant protein database of NCBI and found evidence for contamination in 418

transcripts. Most contaminant sequences were associated with viruses, fungi and bacteria (Figure 1C).

The final assembly consisted of 25,721 unique transcripts spanning a total of 34.25 Mb. The average

and median transcript length were 1,332 and 965 bp, respectively (Figure 1D). The N50 of the final

transcriptome was 1,995 bp with an average GC content of 44.3% (Figure Table 1). GO terms were

assigned to 12,154 (47.2%) transcripts (Figure 2).

Completeness of the B. lunaria transcriptome

We assessed the completeness of the assembled *B. lunaria* reference transcriptome using BUSCO.

Importantly, none of the 30 species constituting the BUSCO embryophyta_odb10 database belongs to

ferns *lato sensu*. We found 73.9% complete single-copy, 1.4% complete duplicates, 12% fragmented
and 12.7% missing genes for the *B. lunaria* transcriptome (Figure 1E, Table 2). This is comparable to
the only two complete genome assemblies of ferns that include *A. filiculoides* with 72.5% complete
single-copy and *S. cucullata* with 79.7% complete single-copy (Figure 1E, Table 2). The two
Salviniaceae genomes and the *B. lunaria* transcriptome exhibited a comparable number of missing
BUSCO genes (12.5%, 13.7% and 12.6%, respectively; Figure 1E, Table 2). The *B. lunaria*
transcriptome showed a higher percentage of fragmented BUSCO genes compared to genome
assemblies of *A. filiculoides* and *S. cucullata*, (12.0%, 5.6% and 2.5%, respectively; Figure 1E, Table
2). The mapped reads coverage depth of the reference individual to the assembled transcripts is on
average 1,648 with a range of 4 to 514,622. Most of the transcripts exhibited a moderate coverage
(Figure 3A) whereas few (6.9%) showed a coverage > 4004. The read coverage increased with
transcript length (Figure 3B).

Identification of within-species transcriptomic polymorphism
We mapped reads from the twelve sequenced transcriptomes to the newly established reference
transcriptome to identify segregating variants within the species (Figure 3C). The mapping rate of
each individual varied between 82.1-86.7%. We found no meaningful difference in mapping rates
among populations and individuals. The highest mapping rate was found for the individual IIT1_H5
(86.7%), which was slightly higher than the mapping rate of the reference individual used to establish
the transcriptome (CHA_I_1, 85.5%; Suppl. Table S3). Based on reads aligned against reference
transcripts, we called SNPs and genotyped each individual as a diploid. We recovered a total of
374,510 high-quality bi-allelic SNPs after filtering. The average number of SNPs per transcript was 17
and the maximum number was 249 (Figure 4A). The SNP density per transcript had a mean of 14, a
median of 10.2, and a maximum of 160 SNPs per kb (Figure 4B). The mean and median SNP density
increased with transcript length (Figure 4C).

Population structure and heterozygosity
We used the SNP genotyping data from the twelve individuals to assess the degree of population
differentiation between the sampling locations (Figure 5A). The first principal component (PC1, 17%)
of the principal component analysis (PCA) identified a divergent genotype in the Chasseral population
(CHA_I_7, Figure 5B). The second principal component (PC2, 12%) separated the two populations
Chasseral and Val d'Hérens (Figure 5B). We performed a second PCA excluding the CHA_I_7
individual and found the Chasseral population to be more diverse than Val d'Hérens (Figure 5C). We
found no apparent differentiation between the two locations sampled in Val d'Hérens (Forclaz and
Mase) and the pairwise F_{ST} (0.079) was low. The mean heterozygosity was slightly higher in Val
d'Hérens (0.20) than in the Chasseral population (0.17; Figure 5D). We found similar levels of

variation in individual heterozygosity among populations ranging from 0.16 to 0.21, except for
CHA_I_7, which was an outlier on the PCA (Figure 5E). CHA_I_7 showed less than half the
heterozygosity (0.05) compared to other members of the same population.
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Phylogenetic inference among Botrychium species
We analyzed available multi-locus sequence data to place the twelve individuals analyzed at the
transcriptome level. Among the four nuclear loci previously sequenced in a broad sample of
Botrychium species, three loci are known to display sequence variation nearly exclusively in intronic
sequences (Dauphin *et al.*, 2018). Hence, no comparisons with our transcriptomic sequences were
possible. We focused on the locus CRY2cA carrying enough informative sites in the coding regions to
produce a well-supported phylogeny. The combined dataset for CRY2cA included 67 individuals
representing 38 *Botrychium* taxa and 2 outgroups (Dauphin *et al.*, 2018) (Suppl. Table S4). The
multiple sequence alignment contained a total of 812 sites, of which 64 were variable. The main clades
Lanceolatum, Lunaria, and Simplex-Campestre were resolved as being monophyletic (Figure 6).
Lanceolatum and Simplex-Campestre were resolved as sister groups. All individuals from the
Chasseral and Val d'Hérens grouped with *B. lunaria* var. *lunaria* and formed a well-supported clade.
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Transcriptome-wide phylogenomic tree of ferns
We retrieved complete transcriptomes of 78 species covering the phylogenetic breadth of ferns
(Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019) in order to robustly place the *B. lunaria* transcriptome. We identified
13,358 orthogroups in total of which we retained 864 orthogroups and 74 species to construct a
phylogenomic tree. The species tree topology was congruent with recent fern phylogenies (PPG I,
2016; Shen *et al.*, 2017; Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019). We identified Equisetales as the sister clade to all
other ferns and Marattiales as the sister clade to Psilotales and Ophioglossales. The *B. lunaria*
transcriptome clustered with the sister genus *Sceptridium* and the closely related genus *Botrypus*. The
species tree nodes were well supported both by the multi-locus bootstrap and the local posterior
probabilities. However, the relationship between Hymenophyllales and Gleichenales was ambiguous
and we found similar support for sister species and alternative scenarios. Similarly, the relationship
between Salviniales and Cyatheales differed between the local posterior probability and multi-locus
bootstrap trees. We found equal support for Cyatheales or Salviniales, respectively, being the sister
group to Polypodiales (Figure 7, Suppl. Figure S2).
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336 **Discussion**
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We established a high-quality transcriptome for the genus *Botrychium* filling an important gap in the

coverage of early-branching ferns. The completeness of the transcriptomic gene space was comparable

to well-assembled fern genomes. Using twelve individuals of the same species sampled in two

locations, we were able to generate the first dense SNP dataset for *B. lunaria* and early-branching

ferns in general. We were also able to anchor the sequenced individuals in the phylogeny of other

Botrychium species using a nuclear locus. A phylogenomic tree based on 864 orthologous genes

confirmed the phylogenetic position of the genus among other ferns.

Establishment of a reference transcriptome for the Botrychium genus

Generating a representative transcriptome assembly is challenging because not all genes are expressed

in all tissues and life cycle stages. Across the life cycle of ferns gene expression patterns are largely

overlapping (Sigel *et al.*, 2018), but the covered gene space is usually increased by including multiple

target tissues. For *Botrychium*, only the trophophore was an adequate candidate for the extraction of

RNA since underground tissues are colonized by arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) leading to

numerous contaminants. In contrast, the sporophore carries spores and each spore contains an

individual progeny genotype. Despite these challenges, our *B. lunaria* transcriptome has a fairly

complete gene space in comparison to a wide range of assembled transcriptomes (Der *et al.*, 2011;

Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019). It is important to note that database-dependent tools such as BUSCO

consistently underestimate transcriptome completeness if the database was compiled without closely

related species. The challenge in using BUSCO is exemplified by the absence of the earliest divergent

vascular plants in the embryophyta dataset. The gene space of assembled fern genomes tends to show

slightly less fragmented BUSCO genes compared to the *B. lunaria* transcriptome (Li *et al.*, 2018).

However, the *B. lunaria* transcriptome is consistent with other high-quality fern transcriptomes

(Leebens-Mack *et al.*, 2019). Missing gene segments in assembled transcriptomes are often caused by

uneven read depth among genes or alternative splicing complicating gene recovery. The completeness

of the *B. lunaria* transcriptome compared to other fern genomes and transcriptomes provides a

powerful tool for phylogenetic and population analyses.

Fine-grained resolution of population structure

The transcriptome-wide SNPs revealed clear population structure between two *B. lunaria* populations

sampled from Switzerland. The differentiation was apparent even when subsampling SNPs to contain

a maximum of 1 SNP per kb to avoid biases by highly polymorphic transcripts. It was generally

assumed *Botrychium* species populations show no genetic differentiation (Farrar, 1998; Hauk and

Haufler, 1999) or low genetic differentiation (Camacho and Liston, 2001; Swartz and Brunsfeld, 2002;

Birkeland *et al.*, 2017). The failure to resolve population differentiation in previous studies may well

stem from the low resolution of allozyme markers. The transcriptome-wide markers showed every

individual was clearly distinct, and populations showed marked differentiation. The Chasseral and Val

d'Hérens populations were collected in the Jura Mountains and Valais Alps, respectively. The two
sites are 120 km apart and separated by habitats unsuitable for *B. lunaria*. Hence, reduced gene flow
and genetic differentiation among populations is expected. We found no indication of genetic
substructure among the two locations Mase and Forclaz within the Val d'Hérens valley. This suggests
sufficient gene flow at the local scale or recent recolonization at the upper front of the valley, which is
consistent with restriction-site associated DNA sequencing-based analyses of the same field sites
(Dauphin, 2017).
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Population-level genetic diversity is indicative of the reproductive mode of *Botrychium* species
populations. Self-fertilization is common and includes sporophytic and gametophytic selfing. In
sporophytic selfing, zygotes are produced by gametes from two distinct gametophytes but originate
from a single sporophyte. In contrast, in gametophytic selfing, zygotes are produced from gametes of
the same gametophyte. Gametophytic selfing is thought to be the main reproductive mode for the
Botrychium genus and can lead to completely homozygous plants in one generation (Haufler *et al.*,
2016). In a population undergoing largely gametophytic selfing, very low genetic variation would be
expected among individuals. Hence, the unique genotypes found in the Chasseral and Val d'Hérens
populations suggest populations undergo either sporophytic selfing or outcrossing. Interestingly, one
of the six Chasseral individuals exhibited less than half the heterozygosity observed in other
individuals indicative of recent gametophytic selfing. The genetic diversity of *B. lunaria* populations
and the clear structure among sites suggest that sporophytic selfing or outcrossing was dominant with
a likely recent gametophytic selfing event. These findings contrast with the general assumption that
gametophytic selfing is the dominant reproductive mode in the genus.
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A refined phylogenetic placement of the Botrychium genus
The *B. lunaria* transcriptome enables strong phylogenetic inference at different taxonomic levels
overcoming challenges associated with the small number of nuclear and chloroplast markers.
Botrychium taxa cannot be easily delineated by morphological characteristics, hence taxonomy relies
largely on phylogenetics (Dauphin *et al.*, 2014; Maccagni *et al.*, 2017; Dauphin *et al.*, 2017). We have
placed the individual *B. lunaria* transcriptomes among other closely related taxa by retrieving
orthologous genes, which were previously used for phylogenetic analyses. Despite challenges of low
polymorphism in coding sequences of the loci, we were able to recapitulate the phylogenetic position
of the reference individual used for transcriptome assembly and the 11 other *B. lunaria*. The newly
established transcriptome will enable powerful genome-wide studies across the *Botrychium* genus.
Importantly, markers developed using the transcriptome assembly will help to retrace the evolution of
the extensive ploidy variation among *Botrychium*.
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As an expansion of the phylogenetic analyses within *Botrychium*, we analyzed orthologous genes
across all ferns and lycopods. The genus *Botrychium* was placed within the Ophioglossales with strong
support. Furthermore, the phylogenomic tree supports the placement of the Marattiidae as a sister
clade of the Ophioglossidae, which is consistent with Shen *et al.* (2017). The position of Marattiidae
among the early divergent ferns remains poorly resolved. Leebens-Mack *et al.* (2019) showed an equal
probability for Marattiidae being a sister clade to Psilotales and Ophioglossales and being a sister
clade to the leptosporangiate ferns. Given that we largely based our phylogenomic tree on
transcriptomes published by Leebens-Mack *et al.* (2019), the Marattiidae placement as a sister group
to the Ophioglossidae is unexpected. A possible explanation for this difference is the addition of the *B.
lunaria* transcriptome. The *Botrychium* genus constitutes one of the earliest diverging ferns and may
improve the resolution of basal nodes.

Our study establishes a high-quality transcriptome for the early diverging fern genus *Botrychium.* With
genome sizes estimated at 27.5 Gbp for *B. lunaria* (Dauphin *et al.*, 2016), the assembly of
transcriptomes provides the only currently feasible approach to generate extensive genome-wide
marker information. The transcriptomic markers will be powerful tools to investigate mating systems
of ferns and polyploidization events. Furthermore, the transcriptome enables fine-grained demographic
history analyses helping to dissect evidence for local adaptation across the diverse habitats of ferns.

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Figure 1: De novo assembly of the *Botrychium lunaria* transcriptome. (A) Distribution of the raw, trimmed, and pseudo-aligned read numbers per individual. (B) Transcripts and gene assembly content at each filtering stage of the reference transcriptome. (C) Contaminant transcript sequences detected by phylum. Retained phyla are indicated in bold. (D) Distribution of the transcript lengths for the reference transcriptome. (E) BUSCO genes detected at each filtering stage of the *B. lunaria* transcriptome and for two genome assemblies of ferns (*Azolla filliculoides* and *Salvinia cucullata*) (Li *et al.*, 2018).

685
Figure 2: Characterizations of predicted functions encoded by the transcriptome. Gene ontology
(GO) term annotations are shown for the 30 most frequent terms per ontology (BP, CC, and MF). GO
terms with highly similar functions are excluded from the representation.

692 **Figure 3: Analyses of the assembly coverage**. (A) Number of aligned reads per assembled transcript

693 for the reference individual. (B) Aligned reads of the reference individual according to the assembled

694 transcript length. (C) Mapping rate of all 12 individuals from the Chasseral and Val d'Hérens

695 populations (including the subpopulations Forclaz and Mase). The reference individual used to

696 assemble the transcriptome was CHA_I_1.

697
698 **Figure 4: Analyses of population-level transcriptomic polymorphism**. (A) Number of SNPs per
699 transcript. (B) Density of SNPs per transcript (number of SNPs per kb). (C) SNP density according to
700 bins of transcript length. The mean density is shown by an orange rectangle.

701
702
703 **Figure 5: Population genetic structure and observed heterozygosity**. (A) Principal component
704 analysis (PCA) of the populations Chasseral and Val d'Hérens (sites Mase and Forclaz). (B) PCA of
705 both populations excluding the CHA_I_7 outlier. Both PCA were analyzed using a reduced SNP
706 dataset of a maximum of 1 SNP per kb of transcript. (C) Mean observed heterozygosity per location
707 grouped by population. (D) Mean observed heterozygosity per individual grouped by population.

Figure 6: Phylogenetic positions of the *Botrychium lunaria* samples from Chasseral and Val d'Hérens within *Botrychium* genus. Rooted maximum likelihood (ML) tree of the CRY2cA locus. ML bootstrap support values are shown above branches. Thicker branch lines, larger node sizes and nodes colored in green further indicate higher bootstrap values. Diploid taxa are shown in black and polyploids are shown in grey. For polyploids, the subgenome is shown individually on the tree and specified by a letter after the species name: "A" for maternal subgenome, "B" for paternal subgenome, and "C" for additional subgenome for the hexaploid (modified from Dauphin *et al.*, 2018). The three *Botrychium* main clades were delimited by black lines. Individuals from Chasseral and Val d'Hérens populations are highlighted by a pink rectangle.

Figure 7 Phylogenomic relationships among ferns including *Botrychium lunaria* . A consensus
tree of 864 orthologous genes including 74 taxa was built using ASTRAL. The branch support is
indicated by local posterior probability values on node sides. Thicker branch lines, larger node sizes
and nodes colored in green further indicate higher local posterior probability values. The delimitation
between outgroups (Lycopodiopsida) and ferns (Polypodiopsida) is shown by black lines. Fern
subclasses (Equisetidae, Ophioglossidae, Marattiidae and Polypodiidae) are denoted by colored
rectangles or a black line on the clade side. Polypodiidae orders (Osmundales, Hymenophyllales,
Gleicheniales, Schizaeales Salviniales, Cyatheales and Polypodiales) are designated by colored
rectangles.

731 **Tables**

733 **Table 1: Overview of assembly statistics over the different transcript filtering stages.**

Filtering stage	Assembled bases	Transcripts	Genes	N50-longest isoform	N50-all	GC%
Raw assembly	56,273,802	167,306	87,537	1,689	1,089	43.68
ORF-encoding	34,588,465	69,280	26,139	2,152	1,988	44.00
Longest isoform only	34,588,465	26,139	26,139	1,988	1,988	44.31
Contaminants screening	34,255,139	25,721	25,721	1,995	1,995	44.30

736 **Table 2: Analyses of assembly completeness using Busco genes**. The *B. lunaria* transcriptome is
737 compare to two genome assemblies of ferns (*Azolla filliculoides* and *Salvinia cucullata*).

Species name	Filtering stage	C[1]	CS[2]	CD[3]	F[4]	M[5]	n[6]	dataset
Azolla filliculoides	-	1,108	997	111	78	189	1,375	embryophyta_odb10
Salvinia cucullata	-	1,167	1097	70	35	173	1,375	embryophyta_odb10
B. lunaria	Raw assembly	1,182	527	655	81	112	1,375	embryophyta_odb10
B. lunaria	ORF-encoding	1,180	527	653	80	115	1,375	embryophyta_odb10
B. lunaria	Longest isoform only	1,038	1,018	20	165	172	1,375	embryophyta_odb10
B. lunaria	Contaminants screening	1,036	1,017	19	165	174	1,375	embryophyta_odb10

738 Note: [1]Complete genes, [2]Complete and single copy genes, [3]Complete and duplicated genes, [4]Fragmented genes, [5]Missing
739 genes, [6]Total number of BUSCO genes in the dataset.

A

B

C

A

B

C

D

E

Local posterior probability

0.46

Polypodiales

Leucostegia immersa
Didymochlaena truncatula
Polystichum acrostichoides
Bolbitis repanda
Nephrolepis exaltata
Davallia fejeensis
Phymatosorus grossus
Pleopeltis polypodioides
Polypodium plectolens
Polypodium amorphum
Polypodium hesperium-A type
Polypodium glycyrrhiza
Polypodium hesperium-B type
Asplenium platyneuron
Asplenium nidus
Gymnocarpium dryopteris
Cystopteris utahensis
Cystopteris reevesiana
Cystopteris fragilis
Cystopteris protrusa
Homalosorus pycnocarpos
Thelypteris acuminata
Blechnum spicant
Onoclea sensibilis
Deparia lobato-crenata
Athyrium filix-femina
Diplazium wichurae
Woodsia ilvensis
Woodsia scopulina
Dennstaedtia
Ceratopteris thalictroides
Pityrogramma trifoliata
Pteris vittata
Pteris ensigormis
Cryptogramma acrostichoides
Argyrochosma nivea
Myriopteris eatonii
Notholaena montieliae
Cheilanthes arizonica
Hemionitis arifolia
Adiantum tenerum
Adiantum aleuticum
Vittaria lineata
Vittaria appalachiana
Lonchitis hirsuta
Lindsaea linearis
Lindsaea microphylla

Cyatheales
Cyathea spinulosa
Thyrsopteris elegans
Culcita macrocarpa
Plagiogyria japonica

Salviniales
Pilularia globulifera
Azolla cf. caroliniana

Schizaeales
Lygodium japonicum
Anemia tomentosa

Gleicheniales
Dipteris conjugata

Hymenophyllales
Hymenophyllum bivalve

Osmundales
Osmundastrum cinnamomeum
Osmunda javanica

Marattiidae
Marattia attenuata
Danaea nodosa

Ophioglossidae
Psilotum nudum
Tmesipteris parva
Ophioglossum vulgatum
Ophioglossum petiolatum
Botrypus virginianus
Sceptridium dissectum
Botrychium lunaria

Equisetidae
Equisetum diffusum
Equisetum hymale

Isoetes tegetiformans
Selaginella apoda
Selaginella lepidophylla
Lycopodium deuterodensum
Pseudolycopodiella caroliniana

Polypodiidae (Leptosporangiate)

Polypodiospida

Lycopodiopsida

3.0