ISSRseq: an extensible method for reduced representation sequencing

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ABSTRACT

1. The capability to generate densely sampled single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) data is essential in diverse subdisciplines of biology, including crop breeding, pathology, forensics, forestry, ecology, evolution, and conservation. However, the wet-lab expertise and bioinformatics training required to conduct genome-scale variant discovery remain limiting factors for investigators with limited resources.

2. Here we present ISSRseq, a PCR-based method for reduced representation of genomic variation using simple sequence repeats as priming sites to sequence inter simple sequence repeat (ISSR) regions. Briefly, ISSR regions are amplified with single primers, pooled, used to construct sequencing libraries with a commercially-available kit, and sequenced on the Illumina platform. We also present a flexible bioinformatic pipeline that assembles ISSR loci, calls and hard filters variants, outputs data matrices in common formats, and conducts population analyses using R.

3. Using three angiosperm species as case studies, we demonstrate that ISSRseq is highly repeatable, necessitates only simple wet-lab skills and commonplace instrumentation, is flexible in terms of the number of single primers used, and can generate genomic-scale variant discovery on par with existing RRS methods which require more complex wet lab procedures.

4. ISSRseq represents a straightforward approach to SNP genotyping in any organism, and we predict that this method will be particularly useful for those studying population genomics and phylogeography of non-model organisms. Furthermore, the ease of ISSRseq relative to other RRS methods should prove useful to those lacking advanced expertise in wet lab methods or bioinformatics.

KEYWORDS

ISSRseq, reduced representation sequencing, *Corallorhiza*, population genomics

INTRODUCTION

Reduced representation sequencing methods (RRS), in concert with high-throughput sequencing technologies, have revolutionized research in agriculture, conservation, ecology, evolutionary biology, forestry, population genetics, and systematics (Altshuler et al., 2000; Van Tassell et al., 2008; Davey et al., 2011; Narum et al., 2013; Lemmon and Lemmon, 2013; Meek and Larson, 2019). These methods generate broad surveys of genomic diversity by sampling only a fraction of the genome, therefore allowing for multiple samples to be sequenced simultaneously which reduces sequencing costs (Peterson et al., 2012; Franchini et al., 2017). While there exists a bewildering array of RRS methods (Campbell et al., 2018), the most commonly employed are various forms of restriction-site associated DNA sequencing (RAD; Baird et al., 2008) and genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS; Elshire et al., 2011). Both involve fragmenting the genome with one or more restriction enzymes, ligating adapters and unique barcode sequences, pooling, optionally size-selecting the fragments for optimal sequencing length, amplifying resulting fragments, and sequencing typically with Illumina short-read technology (Davey et al., 2011). Flexibility in these methods lies principally in the selection of one or more restriction enzymes; e.g. one popular method, double-digest RAD sequencing, uses both a 'rare-cutting' and 'common-cutting' enzyme (Peterson et al., 2012).

While methods such as GBS and RAD are increasingly commonplace, they may be technically challenging and economically infeasible for researchers who lack specific expertise in molecular biology, bioinformatics, and/or have limited access to expensive computational resources or sophisticated and often dedicated instrumentation. Thus, the need remains for simple and extensible methods for generating genome-scale variation. An alternative class of methods focuses on amplicon-based sequencing (Campbell et al., 2018, Ericksson et al., 2020). One such method is multiplexed ISSR genotyping by sequencing (MIG-seq; Suyama and Matsuki, 2015), which generates amplicons using primers comprising simple sequence repeat (SSR) motifs in multiplex, and sequences the inter simple sequence repeat (ISSR) fragment ends. Briefly, ISSR involves the use of primers that match various microsatellite regions in the genome (Zietkiewicz et al., 1994); the primers often include 1-3 bp specific or degenerate anchors to preferentially bind to the ends of these repeat motifs (Gupta et al., 1994; Zietkiewicz et al., 1994) or consist entirely of an SSR motif (Bornet and Branchard, 2001). MIG-seq uses 'tailed,' barcoded, ISSR-

motif primers in a 2-step PCR protocol, first with the amplification of ISSR, and the second with

common primers matching the tails to enrich these amplicons, followed by size selection and

sequencing on the Illumina platform. This method has the advantage of not requiring more

conventional Illumina library preparation (i.e. fragmentation of genomic DNA and ligation of

barcoded sequencing adapters), as the adapters and barcodes are included in the tailed ISSR-

motif primers, thus reducing the cost and labor associated with conducting many library preps.

While MIG-seq has been cited by more than 90 studies to date (e.g. Tamaki et al., 2017; Park et

al., 2019; Gutiérrez-Ortega, 2018; Takata et al., 2019; Eguchi et al., 2020), many questions

remain with regard to its efficiency and reproducibility. First, the use of long, tailed, ISSR

primers raises the possibility of primer multimerization and unpredictability of binding

specificity (eight forward and eight reverse primers in multiplex, as has typically been

implemented). Second, as originally implemented, the protocol requires 96 unique forward-

indexed primers, each 61 bp in length. The cost of synthesizing such lengthy primers equates to

thousands of US dollars spent up-front, which may be prohibitive for many researchers, though

these costs could be mitigated somewhat via dual indexing and the use of shorter adapter

sequence tails. Third, MIG-seq only produces sequence data from the ISSR amplicon fragment

ends, e.g. as is done with ribosomal DNA metabarcoding, potentially missing significant levels

of variation by not sequencing the entire amplified fragments. The numbers of SNPs reported in

studies using MIG-seq range from a few hundred in intraspecific studies (e.g. Suyama and

Matsuki, 2015) to thousands in a species-level phylogenetic study (Eguchi et al., 2020), although

missing data comprised the majority (81.4%) of the SNP matrix generated via the latter study.

Data of this quantity and completeness can be useful for basic population genetics or

phylogeographic studies, but are inadequate for studies requiring densely sampled

polymorphisms across the genome (e.g. Quantitative Trait Locus mapping, genomic scans of

adaptive variation, pedigree analysis). Indeed, Suyama and Matsuki (2015) state: "...the number

of SNPs is fewer in our method [than in RAD-seq] (e.g. ~1,000 vs. ~100,000 SNPs), which

means low efficiency in terms of the cost per SNP and sequencing effort."

Here we present ISSRseq, a novel RRS method that is straightforward, extensible and uses

single-primer ISSR amplicons. Briefly, our approach is to: produce single-ISSR primer

amplicons (as opposed to using tailed, highly multiplexed primer pairs), pool amplicons from

multiple primers per sample (Fig. 1), conduct low-cost, fragmentase-based Illumina library

preparation, and sequence entire ISSR regions on the Illumina platform (Fig. 2). Further, we

provide a user-friendly set of UNIX BASH scripts that together comprise an analysis pipeline for

user-customized data quality control and analysis, output of SNP data in formats commonly used

for population genomics and phylogeography, and an easy to use script template for downstream

population genomic analyses in R. Our findings demonstrate that ISSRseq can generate

comparable levels of variation to RAD or GBS, and orders of magnitude more variation than

MIG-seq, while containing low levels of missing data. We present case studies of the utility of

this method in *Populus deltoides* W. Bartram ex Marshall, a species with a relatively small and

accessible reference genome, and two mycoheterotrophic orchid species with large,

uncharacterized genomes: *Corallorhiza bentleyi* Freudenst. and *C. striata* Lindl. All lab research

was carried out by undergraduate students, demonstrating that this method is amenable and

accessible to those with relatively limited experience in molecular biology.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Lab Methods

Sample Collection and DNA extraction

Our experimental design was chosen to evaluate the performance of ISSRseq at differing

taxonomic scales. We selected *C. bentleyi* to determine if our method was informative below the

level of species, *C. striata* to evaluate performance across putative species boundaries, and *P.*

deltoides to test ISSRseq within a single accession of a species with a well-characterized

genome. We collected 87 individuals from 28 *C. striata* localities, as in Fama et al. (2020,

unpublished data) and Barrett et al. (2011; 2018; Table 1), and 37 individuals from six *C.*

bentleyi localities. Samples of *C. striata* were collected from ten US states and two Canadian

provinces (British Columbia and Manitoba, Table 1). Sampling of *C. striata* was focused on the

western USA and in particular on California, where the taxonomic status of populations in this

complex is uncertain (Barrett et al., 2011; 2018). Samples of *C. bentleyi* were collected in

Allegheny, Bath, and Giles Counties, Virginia, USA; and from Monroe County, West Virginia,

USA (Table 1). For both species of *Corallorhiza*, approximately 0.2 g of perianth or ovary tissue

was removed with a sterile scalpel (so as not to include seed material) and DNA was extracted

using a CTAB DNA extraction protocol, modified to 1/10 volume (Doyle and Doyle, 1987). A

negative control reaction using ultrapure water and no template DNA was included for each set

of single-primer reactions. We collected leaf tissue of *P. deltoides* accession WV94 from a

plantation located at the West Virginia University Agronomy Farm (39.658889, -79.905278) in

Morgantown, West Virginia (Macaya-Sanz et al., 2017). Genomic DNA was extracted using a

DNeasy plant mini kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany; Cat. No. 69104).

ISSR Primers and PCR conditions

Twenty-one ISSR primers were selected from the UBC Primer Set #9 (University of British

Columbia, Canada; paper available on GitHub (www.github.com/btsinn/ISSRseq), with the

addition of five unanchored primers designed by the authors (Table 2). We used only eight of

these primers in our study of *C. striata* to test extensibility of our method with regard to the

number of ISSR primers used to generate amplicons for sequencing. After several rounds of

initial optimization, reactions were set up in 10 µl volumes with: 5 µl 2x Apex PCR Master Mix

(Genesee Scientific, San Diego, California, USA; Cat. No. 42-134), 0.5 µl 5M Betaine (Fisher

Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA; Cat. No. AAJ77507AB), 1.0 µl of each single primer

at 10 µM starting concentration (one primer per reaction; Integrated DNA Technologies,

Coralville, Iowa, USA), 2.5 µl nuclease-free ultrapure water, and 1.0 µl template DNA (diluted

to 20 ng/µl prior to PCR with Tris-EDTA pH 8.0). PCR reactions were set up as single master

mixes with individual ISSR primers and aliquoted to 96-well PCR plates. Conditions were as

follows for each primer: 5 min at 95°C; 30 cycles of 95°C (30s), 50°C (30s), and 72°C (1m); and

a final extension of 10m at 72°C. Caution was taken during PCR amplification to avoid human,

microbial, or plant-based contamination; all lab surfaces were disinfected with 10% sodium

hypochlorite solution prior to amplification. PCR products were visualized on 1% agarose gels to

verify reaction success (see Fig. S1 for an example gel image).

Library preparation and sequencing of ISSR amplicon pools

PCR products were pooled for individual accessions across all primer amplification reactions,

and the remaining volume of original reactions were stored in a -80°C freezer as backups. Pooled

PCR products were cleaned of excess PCR reagents via Axygen® AxyPrep FragmentSelect-I Kit

(Corning, Tewksbury, MA, USA, Cat. No. MAG-FRAG-I-50) and two 80% ethanol washes on a

magnetic plate. Cleaned PCR pools were quantified via Nanodrop spectrophotometry and diluted

with TE buffer to 5 ng/µl. Library preps were conducted with the QuantaBio sparQ DNA Frag

and Library Prep Kit (QuantaBio, Beverly, Massachusetts, USA, Cat. No. 95194-096), a

relatively inexpensive, rapid library kit that uses a fragmentase to shear genomic or amplified

DNA. The library preparation protocol is described in detail elsewhere

(www.github.com/btsinn/ISSRseq). Briefly, we scaled library preparation volumes by half (thus

a 96-reaction kit yields 192 preps). The sparQ Frag and Library Prep Kit allows fragmentation

and end repair in a single step followed by Y-yoke adapter ligation (Glenn et al. 2019). We then

performed a magnetic bead cleanup, total library amplification with barcoded Illumina iTru

primers (Glenn et al. 2019), and a final bead cleanup; the bead to sample ratio was 1:1 for both

cleanups. Fragmentase time was optimized in earlier trials, and consistently gave the best target

library sizes for Illumina sequencing at 3.5 minutes (by contrast, for high molecular weight

genomic DNA fragmentation is suggested to be set at 14 minutes). Three µl of each library was

run on a 1% agarose gel with GeneRuler 1 kb Plus DNA Ladder (ThermoFisher Scientific; Cat.

No. SM1331) followed by quantification via Qubit™ dsDNA BR Assay Kit (Invitrogen,

Carlsbad, California, USA; Cat. No. Q32850). Amplicons for each accession were pooled at

equimolar ratios. Size selection of an aliquot of the final pool was conducted using magnetic

beads at a bead to sample ratio of 1:1, but users could also conduct two selective bead cleanups

with different sample:bead ratios or gel excision. Fragment size range and intensity were

quantified on an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) and

final library quantification was conducted via quantitative PCR at the West Virginia University

Genomics Core Facility. The final library size ranged from 250-550 bp. Pooled, indexed ISSR

amplicons were sequenced using 2×150 bp Illumina MiSeq (reagent kit v2) for *C. bentleyi* and

P. deltoides. For *C. striata*, three sequencing runs were conducted: one lane each of 2×100 bp

and 2×50 bp on a HiSeq1500 at the WVU-Marshall Shared Sequencing Facility, and one run of

2×150 bp (reagent kit v2) Illumina MiSeq at the WVU Genomics Core Facility.

Bioinformatics and Downstream Analyses

Our bioinformatic analysis pipeline consists of five BASH scripts for use on UNIX-based

systems, each with customizable options, allowing simple but flexible parameter adjustment to

fit the needs of a particular dataset or project (Fig. S2). We also supply an R script template to

conduct various population genomic analyses. These scripts are not meant to dictate how

ISSRseq data are treated or analyzed by users, but rather they are meant to serve as an accessible

example of analysis potential for these data. Below, we detail the workflow iteratively and in the

order of script usage. One of the BASH scripts, ISSRseq_ReferenceBased.sh, is optional if the

user wishes to map to a reference genome, previously assembled contigs, or to a previously

assembled set of ISSRseq amplicons. BASH and R scripts are provided and a detailed wiki with

usage examples can be found via the ISSRseq GitHub repository wiki

(www.github.com/btsinn/ISSRseq/wiki).

1) ISSRseq_AssembleReference.sh

Read Pre-processing.

BBDUK (38.51, available from: https://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/files/) is used to remove

adapters and priming sequences from reads, quality trim, and exclude GC-rich or poor reads for

each sample. Additionally, we used the kmer trimming feature of BBDUK to remove ISSR

motifs used as primer sequences from the ends of reads. Kmer length was set to 18 and the

'mink' flag set to 8. The use of the 'mink' flag allowed for the removal of matched kmers down

to a length of 8 bp from that of the supplied priming sequences (Table 2). We also enabled trim

by overlap ('tbo') and 'tpe,' which in tandem allowed for adapter trimming by leveraging read

overlap and in such an event trimmed both read pairs to the same length to ensure adapter

removal. Trimmed reads for which the average quality score was below 10 or length was less

than 50 bp were excluded, with the exception of the HiSeq 50bp reads. Hard trimming of read

ends was not conducted when combining MiSeq 100 & 150 bp, and HiSeq 50 bp data generated

for *C. striata*.

Reference Assembly. We then used ABySS-pe (version 2.2.4, Jackman et al., 2017) to assemble

the trimmed reads from the user-specified reference sample using a kmer length of 91. Kmer

choice was guided by our desire to minimize potential assembly errors due to the presence of

low-complexity repeats (SSR motifs). BBDUK was then used to trim the assembled contigs in

the same fashion as was used for read trimming, but with the GC content filter set to 35% and

65% and with the entropy filter enabled and set at 0.85. A reference index and sequence

dictionary were created by SAMtools 'faidx' (version 1.7-13-g8dee2a2, Li et al., 2009) and the

Picard tool 'CreateSequenceDictionary' (version 2.22.8; Broad Institute), respectively.

Contaminant Filtering. Next, we used the trimmed and filtered reference contigs as queries in

BLASTn (version 2.6.0, Camacho et al., 2009) to identify putative contaminant loci by using the

human genome, and those of 153 genomes of organisms that could be expected as common

contaminants of plant samples (see supplementary materials), as subjects with an e-value cutoff

of 0.00001. Contigs with e-values below this cutoff are excluded from the final reference. The

user also specifies a plastid genome, and/or any other genome of interest, to be used as a

negative reference. Contigs that can be mapped to the negative reference by BBMap (version

38.51, available from: https://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/files/) were also excluded from the

reference assembly. Contigs identified as putative contaminants or representing the negative

reference are written to a FASTA file.

2) ISSRseq_CreateBams.sh

Read Mapping and BAM Creation. BBMap (version 38.51) was used to map trimmed reads from

each sample to the assembled contigs using default mapping settings and killbadpairs enabled.

SAMtools was used to sort and index the BAM (Cock et al., 2015) files of each sample. We then

used the Picard tools MarkDuplicates (version 2.22.8; Broad Institute), to mark PCR and optical

duplicate reads, and BuildBamIndex (version 2.22.8; Broad Institute) to re-index these final

BAM files.

3) ISSRseq_AnalyzeBAMs.sh

Variant Calling and Filtering. We used the state-of-the-art variant calling pipeline GATK4

(version 4.1.8, McKenna et al., 2010) to call, filter, and jointly score variants amongst all

samples simultaneously. HaplotypeCaller (Poplin et al., 2017) identified potential variant sites

and called variants from locally-reassembled portions of each BAM, with --linked-de-bruijn-

graph, --native-pair-hmm-use-double-precision, and -ERC GVCF modes enabled. GVCF files

from each sample were then combined into a single VCF file with CombineGVCFs.

GenotypeGVCFs was then used to perform joint variant scoring on the combined VCF file.

Scored variants for downstream analysis were restricted to biallelic SNPs and INDELs, which

were then hard-filtered guided by GATK Best Practices hard filtering recommendations

(DePristo et al., 2011): "AF > 0.01 && AF < 0.99 && QD > 2.0 && MQ > 40.0 && FS < 60.0

&& SOR < 3.0 && ReadPosRankSum > -8.0 && MQRankSum > -12.5 && QUAL > 30.0".

Since the workflow exists as a BASH script, users can customize any of the variant filtering

parameters to suit their needs.

4) ISSRseq_CreateMatrices.sh

Matrix Creation. VCF2PHYLIP (version 2.0; Ortiz, 2019) was used to coerce the minor allele

and hard-filtered SNP variants into nexus, phylip, and binary SNP formats with varying matrix

inclusion thresholds corresponding to the minimum number of samples in which a variant was

identified.

5) ISSRseq_ReferenceBased.sh [Optional]

This script processes input reads and prepares the necessary file structure for the use of the

pipeline with a pre-existing reference, for example, if the user has a sequenced genome or

previously generated *de novo* assembly of contaminant-filtered ISSR amplicons at their disposal.

Unlike ISSRseq_AssembleReference.sh, this script does not conduct contaminant filtering or

trim both ends of the sequence reads since the input reads are not used for *de novo* assembly of

the reference. Users should remove organellar and other non-target contigs from the reference

prior to using this script. The output directory can then be used for steps 2 - 4 outlined above.

Reference, coverage, and missing data comparisons for* C. striata *datasets

In order to test the effects of using different Illumina sequencing strategies (i.e. sequencing effort

and read length), we collected three datasets for the same 87 accessions of *C. striata*: Illumina

MiSeq 2 × 150 bp, HiSeq 2 × 50bp, and HiSeq 2 × 100 bp (see above). We were specifically

interested in the total number of SNPs, mean coverage depth, and percent missing data for each

of the three individual datasets plus a 'combined' dataset using all three. We mapped reads as

above to a common reference based on the combined dataset, with the goal of producing the

most complete reference for mapping reads from individual datasets.

Population Genetic Analyses in R

All population genetic analyses were carried out using packages in the R software environment

(R Core Team 2019). We describe each of the analyses and the prerequisite data preparation and

population strata used in the subsections below. An example R script is provided in the ISSRseq

GitHub repository (www.github.com/btsinn/ISSRseq) and a walkthrough of these analyses is

provided via the wiki (https://github.com/btsinn/ISSRseq/wiki/ISSRseq-R-Analyses).

Data preparation

Prior to population genetic analyses, we thinned our hard-filtered VCF files to retain one variant

per locus by setting the *thin* flag of VCFtools (0.1.15; Danecek et al. 2011) to the maximum

contig length, and then used the *max-missing* flag to remove variants for which missing data

exceeded 90% and 80% for *C. bentleyi* and *C. striata*, respectively.

Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA) and F-statistic Estimation

We used AMOVA to assess population structure by partitioning the genetic variation based on

predefined population categories using the Poppr package (Kamvar et al. 2015; '*poppr.amova*'

function). We performed a permutation test for 1,000 iterations to test phi statistics for

significance ('*randtest*' function). We also estimated commonly used population statistics

including observed heterozygosity (H_o), observed gene diversities (H_s), inbreeding coefficient

(F_{is}), and fixation index (F_{st}) across all loci using the hierfstat package (Goudet 2005;

'*basic.stats*' function) for both species. The hierfstat package was also used to estimate pairwise

F_{st} ('*genet.dist*' function) among population categories.

Principal Components Analysis (PCA)

We used the adegenet package (Jombart & Ahmed 2011) to perform a principal components

analysis (PCA) and discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC) to assign sub-

population membership probabilities to individual plants ('*dapc*' function).

RESULTS

Sequencing and Reference Assemblies

C. striata complex

PCR using eight SSR primers (Table 2) successfully generated amplicons from 81 of the 87

accessions. The total combined sequencing read pool comprised 310,379,211 read pairs, of

which 239,142,938 remained after trimming and filtering (Table 3). We selected accession

253e_CA as the reference individual since it is the sample for which we recovered the greatest

number of reads (28,935,452 read pairs). *De novo* assembly resulted in 17,143 contigs longer

than 100 bp, comprising a reference assembly totaling 3,628,930 bp with an N50 of 212 bp and

GC content of 47.24%. Putative contaminant filtering excluded 555 contigs that either mapped to

a genome of a putative contaminant or to any plastome sequenced from the *C. striata* complex

(JX087681.1, NC_040981.1, MG874039.1, NC_040978.1) or that of *C. bentleyi* (NC_040979.1).

The reference assembly comprised 14,164 contigs shorter than 250 bp, 450 contigs longer than

500 bp, and 34 contigs longer than 1 kb; the longest contig was 2,032 bp. Contigs of putative

contaminant or plastid loci totaled 144,068 bp with an N50 of 230 bp, GC content of 44.17%,

and a maximum contig length of 1,399 bp. This reference assembly was used for all comparisons

of variant scoring for *C. striata*, below. For sample 253e_CA, the average insert size was 290 bp,

65.6% of reads mapped to the final reference assembly, and 24.1% of reads mapped to the

putative contaminant assembly. The mean coverage depth of filtered variants scored in accession

253e_CA using this reference was 123.29x.

C. bentleyi

Amplicons were successfully generated from 37 *C. bentleyi* accessions using 26 primers shown

in Table 2. The total combined sequencing read pool comprised 40,949,418 read pairs, of which

25,523,858 survived trimming and filtering. Accession B8 was chosen as the reference

individual, as it was the accession for which we recovered the greatest number of reads (913,462

read pairs). *De novo* assembly recovered 16,813 contigs longer than 100 bp, comprising a

reference assembly totaling 3,928,602 bp in length with an N50 of 234 bp and GC content of

46.43%, excluding 686 contigs that either mapped to a genome of a putative contaminant or to

the plastome of *C. bentleyi* (NC_040979.1). The majority of reference contigs were less than 250

bp in length (11,894), while 3,748 were longer than 250 bp, 1,003 were longer than 500 bp, and

168 were longer than 1 kb; the longest contig was 2,390 bp. Putative plastid or contaminant

contigs totaled 259,774 bp with an N50 of 463 bp, GC content of 43.24%, and a maximum

contig length of 2,436 bp. For sample B8, the average insert size was 421 bp, with 37.5% of

reads mapped to the final reference assembly and 13.3% mapped to the putative contaminant

assembly. The mean coverage depth of filtered variants scored in accession B8 using this *de*

novo reference was 16.42x.

***Populus deltoides* WV94**

We used all 26 SSR primers used in *C. bentleyi* to conduct PCR amplification of one *P. deltoides*

clone (WV94), which was multiplexed along with *C. bentleyi* accessions. The raw sequencing

pool comprised 589,403 read pairs, of which 390,992 survived trimming. Kmer trimming of

adapter and/or SSR primer sequences occurred on 51.84% of reads. The chromosome-level

assembly of *P. deltoides* (445, version 2.0; https://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov) comprises

403,296,128 bp. Trimmed reads covered 4,376,825 bp or 1.09% of the genome (55.96% of

trimmed reads), covering a median of 1.04% (range = 0.62% to 1.85%; SD = 0.34) of each

chromosome (Table S1). Visual observation of BAM files qualitatively suggested that SSRs

were amplified relatively evenly throughout the genome (Fig. S3). A positive correlation

between chromosome length and percent of each chromosome covered by mapped trimmed

reads was recovered by linear regression (r^2 = 0.412, p-value = 0.003; Fig. S4), congruent with

our visual assessment of SSR amplification. Contrary to this positive correlation was read

mapping to Chromosome 8, where 53,666 reads covered 1.85% of its total length, the largest of

such values, despite its standing as the eighth longest chromosome. Mean coverage depth of

filtered variants across all chromosomes was 36.71x.

Read Mapping and Variant Calling Results

C. striata

Analysis of individual MiSeq and HiSeq sequencing runs of PCR amplicon pools and their

combination resulted in variable numbers of raw variants, variant quality scores, variant

coverage depth, and number and missingness of final filtered variants (Table 3). Exclusion of six

samples, for which sequencing produced few reads, increased filtered variant depth for the

MiSeq 150 run to 4.09 and that of the combined read pool to 15.88. Higher variant quality,

coverage, and concomitant reduction in missingness of data guided our decision to use the

analysis of the combined read pool for downstream analyses. 24,078 SNPs remained after

VCFtools missingness filtering, and thinning to 1 variant per locus left 6,589 variants in the final

C. striata matrix for analysis in R.

C. bentleyi

HaplotypeCaller identified 236,694 total variants. SNPs comprised 47,851 of filtered variants or

76.11 bp/SNP. The mean coverage and quality score of filtered variants across all samples were

9.75 and 314.13, respectively. Although the mean SNP quality score among the *C. bentleyi*

samples was lower than that of SNPs scored from *C. striata*, missing data comprised only 10%

of total filtered SNPs, 8.6% scored from at least 10 accessions, 7.0% scored from a minimum of

20 accessions, and 4.5% scored from 30 of the 37 accessions. After filtering with VCFtools,

51,132 variants remained in the *C. bentleyi* matrix and 3,536 variants remained after thinning for

analysis in R.

P. deltoides WV94

Of the 8,134 variants called by HaplotypeCaller in the *P. deltoides* WV94 clone we sequenced,

1,040 SNPs passed hard filtering. Variants were identified on all chromosomes (Fig. S5), and all

filtered variants were heterozygous.

AMOVA and population statistics

For the *C. bentleyi* dataset, which contained 3,536 variants, we found that 92.2% of genetic

variation was explained within individuals which was significantly less than expected by chance

(phi = 0.079, sigma = 23.1, p-value < 0.001), while 4.45% was explained among sampling

localities within county which was significantly greater than expected by chance (phi = 0.046,

sigma = 1.11, p-value < 0.002), and 3.44% of variation was explained among county (phi =

0.034, sigma = 0.860, p-value = 0.314) (Table 4). Average observed heterozygosity and observed

gene diversity was 0.066 and 0.078, respectively (Table 5). The F-statistic coefficients for the *C.*

bentleyi sampling locality grouped populations that had low inbreeding coefficients and genetic

distances (Fig. 3a).

For *C. striata,* we found that 42.5% of genetic variation was explained within individuals which

was significantly less than expected by chance (phi = 0.575, sigma = 28.2, p-value < 0.001),

while 8.24% was explained among sampling localities (phi = 0.162, sigma = 5.46, p-value <

0.001), and 49.2% of variation was explained among regions (phi = 0.492, sigma = 32.6, p-value

< 0.001) which were both significantly greater than expected by chance (Table 4). Average

observed heterozygosity and observed gene diversity was 0.077 and 0.096, respectively. The F-

statistic coefficient values were moderately high for the *C. striata* when treating geographic

region at the level of subpopulation (Table 5, Fig. 3b).

PCA results

We retained 3 PC axes for the *C. bentleyi* analysis which explained a total of 14.1% of the

variation in the genetic dataset (Fig. 4a). Discriminant analysis of principal components revealed

the number of clusters appropriate for assigning membership probability based on principal

components was 2 for *C. bentleyi* (Fig. 4b). In the *C. striata* analysis we retained 4 PC axes

which explained 32.0% of the total genetic variation (Fig. 4c). *C. striata* sample membership was

best explained by four clusters (Fig. 4d).

DISCUSSION

C. striata

Population genetic analyses of ISSRseq-generated SNPs correspond well to previously published

phylogeographic patterns recovered using targeted sequence capture of plastid loci (Barrett et al.,

2018) and population genetic estimates using nuclear markers (Barrett and Freudenstein, 2011).

For example, on the basis of three nuclear introns Barrett and Freudenstein (2011) estimated

mean Φ_{CT} as 0.450, using some of same accessions used in the present study, and we estimated

the same parameter at 0.492 using 6,589 variants generated by ISSRseq. Furthermore, F-

coefficients and the results of AMOVA and DAPC suggest the presence of population

subdivision and geographic partitioning of genetic variation in like fashion with that found using

previous AMOVA, STRUCTURE analyses (Barrett and Freudenstein, 2011) and phylogenomic

inference (Barrett et al., 2018). The congruence of the results of independent analyses using

thousands of SNPs identified using ISSRseq with those of previous studies suggests that these

data found using our novel method: 1) are appropriate for commonly used analyses; 2) contain

reliable population genomic signal; and 3) are preferable since ISSRseq generates genome-scale

data without prior knowledge of the genome.

C. bentleyi

ISSRseq corroborated results of a traditional ISSR investigation study of *C. bentleyi* conducted

previously by our group. Fama et al. (2021) scored ISSR bands visually for two primers used in

this study and found that 89% of molecular variance occurred within populations. Using

ISSRseq, we likewise found that the majority of genetic variation was explained within sampling

localities, with only 4.45% of the genetic variation explained by sampling locality. Additional

evidence of the recovery of population genomic signal in these data was our identification of

fixed homozygous sites exclusive to cleistogamous individuals. We find the general congruence

of visually-scored ISSR banding patterns in Fama et al. (2021) with the more sensitive,

sequence-based nature of ISSRseq to be additional corroboration of our new method.

Populus deltoides WV94

Our analysis of a *Populus deltoides* WV94 clone demonstrated that the loci sequenced and

variants identified by ISSRseq are located throughout the genome, and variants were not

obviously clustered in particular chromosomes or their centromeres or telomeres (Figs S3 & S5).

As expected, we observed that the depth of final filtered SNPs was greater (36.71x) than the

median depth of coverage for each chromosome (1.04 x), which is to be expected with any

reduced representation sequencing method.

ISSRseq is straightforward and extensible

ISSRseq generates genomic variants on a scale that is comparable to other established RRS

methods, while minimizing time and wet-lab complexity. Assuming the availability of two PCR

machines and familiarity with basic wet laboratory techniques, users can go from extracted DNA

to an Illumina sequencing library for 48 samples and 4 primer sets within an eight-hour workday.

This timeframe and capacity can be greatly increased for users who use 96 or 384 well plates to

conduct PCR.

ISSRseq is suitable for users with minimal lab experience or resources, since only a

thermocycler and commonplace equipment such as a DNA quantitation device and affordable

neodymium magnets used for PCR cleanup with magnetic beads are necessary prior to

sequencing. Indeed, the ISSRseq data analyzed here were generated by undergraduates, and

ISSRseq projects have been conducted in an undergraduate course at West Virginia University.

Additionally, the use of a commercially-available, fragmentase-based sequencing library

preparation kit means that users can receive support directly from a company, rather than relying

on personal communications with authors. While alternative library preparation protocols can be

used with ISSRseq, we found the efficiency and reliability of a commercially-available kit that

can prepare a library in about 2.5 hours to be fitting for our purposes. A sizable fraction of the

cost of ISSRseq, as currently implemented, is the use of a library preparation kit. Our publication

of this method stands as a proof of concept, rather than a prescription, and we expect that

advanced users of ISSRseq will modify the protocol and analysis pipeline described herein.

The recovery of loci generated amongst samples sequenced using RAD-like RRS approaches is

impacted by mutations to restriction sites, DNA sample impurities and degradation, and user

error or random variation during size selection (Andrews et al., 2016). ISSRseq generates loci for

downstream analysis via PCR rather than careful size selection of restriction-fragmented DNA

via gel excision or Pulsed-Field electrophoresis, and we expect that locus dropout due to user

error or DNA quality will prove to be minimal relative to RRS methods such as ddRAD. In line

with this expectation, missing data accounted for only 10% of the 47,851 SNP data matrix we

generated for *C. bentleyi* and only 4.5% missing data when we required a SNP to be called in 30

of 37 individuals. As a point of reference, Tripp et al. (2017) used RADseq to identify 302,987

SNPs in *Petalidium* spp. (Acanthaceae), however the number of SNPs included in their data

matrices (1,568 to 53,792, depending on parameter choice) was only greater than that recovered

using ISSRseq when the missingness cutoff was greater than 60%. While variable SNP recovery

may be relatively less of a concern for phylogenetic applications (Eaton et al., 2017; Tripp et al.,

2017; Piwczyński et al., 2020), they are known to negatively impact estimation of population

genetic parameters. For example, missing data are known to bias estimation of effective

population size (N_e) and the inbreeding coefficient (F_{is}; Marandel et al., 2020). The use of PCR

for the generation of loci analyzed using ISSRseq may mean that locus dropout will be

minimized across DNA samples of relatively lower concentration and/or molecular weight than

is preferable when using many existing RRS methods.

Methodological Considerations, Suggestions, and Caveats

Not surprisingly, sequencing depth is an important consideration when using ISSRseq just as

with using other RRS methods. Conducting fewer ISSR PCRs using diverse SSR motifs is one

option to maximize the efficiency of sequencing depth and number of samples that can be

multiplexed during sequencing. For example, we recovered similar cumulative assembled

amplicon length in *C. striata* as *C. bentleyi* despite using eight PCRs and 26 PCRs for each,

respectively. This is likely due to the fact that many of the primers used for *C. bentleyi*

comprised similar SSR motifs but had different anchors, whereas we used fewer primers of

differing SSR motifs in *C. striata*, which together reflect the diversity of SSR motifs amplified

from the latter species. We also found that 100 bp, paired-end sequencing of the same library on

a single HiSeq 2500 nearly tripled the mean sequencing depth per locus (4.09x vs 11.44x) and

more than quadrupled the number of variants scored (8,177 vs 28,401) over a single lane of

paired-end 150 bp sequencing on the MiSeq. Given these results, we suggest that users select

primers representing diverse and dissimilar SSR motifs that produce the most amplicons and

prioritize read number over read length. Furthermore, we recommend bead-based exclusion of

the shortest PCR amplicons prior to library preparation to reduce sequencing of short amplicons

likely comprising mostly low complexity sequence. Following these recommendations should

also save on PCR reagent cost and worker time.

Although joint variant calling should be able to minimize false positives, we do recommend that

future researchers consider conducting more stringent variant filtering that incorporates a control

sequence to empirically determine variant filtering parameters. For example, GATK is able to

leverage machine learning of known variants to recalibrate variant quality scores and determine

appropriate filtering parameters for genomes that are already well characterized (DePristo et al.,

2011). The implementation of more sophisticated variant filtration techniques will no doubt

reduce noise in ISSRseq data.

The impact of phylogenetic distance or reference choice on locus recovery and variant calling

was not tested in the current study. For example, phylogenetic distance between samples and a

given reference genome has been shown to differentially impact variant scoring depending on

the chosen genotype caller (Duchen and Salamin, 2020), a finding that certainly warrants

additional study. In future applications of ISSRseq, users are encouraged to explore alternative

SNP calling software or approaches for generating data matrices to be used in phylogenomic

inference. Regardless, researchers are encouraged to use the BASH scripts provided as a

template to guide them in designing a workflow that fits the needs of their particular study.

Potential Applications

In addition to studies of local adaption, population genomics, and phylogenetic inference,

ISSRseq could prove a useful technique to those interested in RRS using longer loci, agricultural

crop or livestock authentication, forensics, and microbiome studies. For example, the use of PCR

to amplify loci for sequencing means that the theoretical maximum of locus length is limited

only by the DNA polymerase used during the PCR step. By modifying the PCR conditions and

reagents, users could conduct long range amplifications to recover loci that are thousands of base

pairs in length. These long loci could facilitate robust estimates of linkage disequilibrium and

allele phasing in species without pre-existing genomic resources, and for the construction of gene

trees for phylogenomic studies, allowing the use of many multilocus coalescent analyses

(ASTRAL, Bayesian species delimitation, etc.). Furthermore, due to the ubiquity of SSRs in

genomes, ISSRseq could be used to conduct RRS for the investigation of microbiomes,

symbioses, and even simultaneous sequencing of hosts and one or more pathogens.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors are not aware of any conflicts of interest.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

CFB conceived ISSRseq. BTS, SJS, CFB, and SPD designed the laboratory and bioinformatic

methodology and protocols. BTS, SJS, MVS, and NMF conducted laboratory work. CFB

conducted all field work. BTS, SJS, CFB, and SPD analyzed the data. BTS, SJS, and CFB led

the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed to manuscript drafts and provided their

consent for publication.

DATA AVAILABILITY

Raw sequencing reads for all samples are available via NCBI BioProject PRJNA771539. Data

matrices, scripts used and their usage instructions in wiki format, as well as the wet lab protocol,

are available via GitHub (www.github.com/btsinn/ISSRseq) or Sinn et al. (2021).

Supplementary Documents

Document of supplementary tables and figures

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Figure Captions

Figure 1. Critical steps of ISSRseq polymerase chain reaction (PCR), including the approximate

time projected for library preparation of 48 samples with four primer sets. The optional gel

verification step depicts three different ISSR primers for a single individual. PCR pool aliquot in

Step 3 dependent on number of primer sets chosen to create library.

Figure 2. Critical steps of ISSRseq library preparation, including the approximate time projected

for library preparation of 48 samples with four ISSR primers.

Figure 3. Pairwise F_{st} values comparing **a**. *C. bentleyi* sampling localities and **b**. *C. striata*

regions. Red indicates high relative differentiation.

Figure 4. Population structure analyses of *Corallorhiza bentleyi* (n = 37 accessions) and the *C.*

striata complex (n = 81 accessions). **a**. adegenet Principal Components analysis (PCA) dotplot

and **b**. DAPC membership probability barplot for *C. bentleyi* inferred from 51,132 variants. **c**.

PCA dotplot and **d**. DAPC membership probability barplot for the *C. striata* complex inferred

from 24,078 variants.

Table 1. Sampling regions and localities for *C. striata* individuals and sampling counties and

localities for *C. bentleyi* individuals. United States and Canadian provinces are abbreviated.

Region/County	Sampling locality	Number of individuals
C. striata		
Coast Ranges Cascades	Ashland County, OR	2
	Lane County, OR	2
	Marin County, CA	5
	Santa County, Cruz, CA (1)	3
	Santa County, Cruz, CA (2)	4
	Sonoma County, CA (1)	2
	Sonoma County, CA (2)	1
Sierra Nevada	Fresno County, CA	7
	Mariposa County, CA	3
	Nevada County, CA	1
	Placer County, CA	5
var. *striata* N USA	Cache County, UT	5
	Idaho County, ID	4
	Lewis and Clark County, MT	5
	Lewis County, WA	2
	Natrona County, WY	4
	Skamania County, WA	2
	Thompson-Nicola Regional District, BC	2
	Winnipeg Region, MAN	2
var. *vreelandii* SW USA	Graham County, AZ	4
	Otero County, NM	4
	Ouray County, CO	5
	Tooele County, UT	5
	Utah County, UT	4
C. bentleyi		
RG	Alleghany County, VA	5
CG	Bath County, VA	14
BS	Giles County, VA	3
OR	Giles County, VA	5
WR	Giles County, VA	5
PM	Monroe County, WV	5

740 Table 2. List of ISSR primers used in this study for the three test species. Numbers listed under

741 'ISSR primer' correspond to the UBC Primer Set 9 names (paper available on GitHub

742 www.github.com/btsinn/ISSRseq).

ISSR primer	Motif	*P. deltoides*	*C. bentleyi*	*C. striata*
813	(CT)8T	X	X	
814	(CT)8A	X	X	
815	(CT)8G	X	X	
817	(CA)8A	X	X	
820	(GT)8T	X	X	
824	(TC)8G	X	X	
826	(AC)8C	X	X	X
834	(AG)8YT	X	X	X
836	(AG)8YA	X	X	X
840	(GA)8YT	X	X	X
843	(CT)8RA	X	X	
845	(CT)8RG	X	X	
848	(CA)8RG	X	X	
855	(AC)8YT	X	X	
856	(AC)8YA	X	X	X
857	(AC)8YG	X	X	
858	(AC)8RT	X	X	
859	(TG)8RC	X	X	
860	(TG)8RA	X	X	
868	(GAA)6	X	X	X
873	(GACA)4	X	X	
caa5	(CAA)5	X	X	X
cag5	(CAG)5	X	X	X
gtt5	(GTT)5	X	X	
gat5	(GAT)5	X	X	
cat5	(CAT)5	X	X	

Table 3. Comparison of the analysis of Illumina MiSeq 150 bp PE, and Illumina HiSeq 50 bp

and 100 bp PE reads analyzed singly and in combination using the same de novo reference

assembly for the *C. striata* complex. An asterisk denotes statistics which were calculated after

the removal of six samples which produced few sequences. SNP = single nucleotide

polymorphism; bp/SNP = Total base pairs of reference sequence per SNP; SD = standard

deviation; # min = the minimum number of samples within which a SNP was scored to be

included in the data matrix. Variant implies both INDELS and biallelic SNPs.

	MiSeq 2 x 150	HiSeq 2 x 50	HiSeq 2 x 100	Combined
# raw read pairs / # post-trim	9899895 / 13435422	151025536 / 97981594	149453780 / 138080666	310379211 / 239142938
Total HaplotypeCaller Variants	249697	328726	560669	641667
Filtered SNPs	8177	12694	28401	25904
Mean filtered variant QUAL score	1636.36	499.96	2982.01	4685.16
bp/SNP (total filtered SNPs)	410.42	280.03	122.10	140.10
Mean coverage depth/locus/ accession	3.81	5.55	10.67	14.82
SD coverage depth	3.48	7.30	12.42	16.71
Mean coverage depth/locus /accession*	4.09	5.94	11.44	15.88
SD coverage depth*	3.44	7.41	12.52	16.82
SNPs/%missing data (min 1)*	8177/54.8%	12694/51.1%	28401/42.7%	25904/40.0%
SNPs/%missing data (min 10)*	7219/49.5%	11808/47.9%	26506/38.9%	24168/35.9%
SNPs/%missing data (min 50)*	2412/20.7%	3991/19.7%	13387/18.2%	13762/17.7%
SNPs/%missing data (min 80)*	261/3.1%	627/2.3%	3209/2.1%	3503/2.1%

Table 4. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) output with fixation index for *Corallorhiza*

populations. # loci = number of variants analyzed; columns 3-5 are percent variation explained

by each hierarchical level; 'a/m regions-county' = among regions (C. striata) or county (C.

bentleyi); 'a/m loc' = among sampling localities within region or county; and 'w/in ind' =

within individuals. Columns 6-8 are values of fixation index (Φ) and their significance: * P <

0.005, ** P < 0.001. "ΦCT" = among regions or county; "ΦSC" = among sampling localities

within regions or county, and "ΦIT" = within individuals.

Species	# variants	b/w region-county	b/w loc	w/in ind	Φ_{CT}	Φ_{SC}	Φ_{IT}
C. bentleyi	3,536	3.44	4.45	92.2	0.034	0.046[***]	0.079[**]
C. striata	6,589	49.2	8.24	42.5	0.492[***]	0.162[***]	0.575[***]

760 Table 5. *Corallorhiza* population statistics table for *C. bentleyi* sampling locality and *C. striata*

761 region. # loci = number of variants analyzed, H_o = observed heterozygosity, H_s = observed gene

762 diversities, F_{is} = inbreeding coefficient, F_{st} = fixation index.

Species	# loci	H_o	H_s	F_{is}	F_{st}
C. bentleyi	3,536	0.066	0.078	0.149	0.000
C. striata	6,589	0.077	0.096	0.199	0.198

SUPPLEMENTAL TABLES & FIGURES

Supplementary Table 1. Descriptive statistics of *P. deltoides* WV94 and mapping of trimmed reads.

Chromosome	Length (bp)	Reads Mapped	bp covered	% bp covered	
1	53086243	52775	534218	1.006321	
2	26748850	27372	166950	0.624139	
3	22915696	16653	144066	0.6286783	
4	24223889	24175	256558	1.0591115	
5	26443402	28379	366857	1.3873291	
6	28326727	41552	295106	1.0417935	
7	16146797	5441	144415	0.8943879	
8	21710561	53666	402354	1.8532639	
9	13407431	30241	188690	1.4073539	
10	21864811	16827	240152	1.0983493	
11	18311809	9054	172726	0.9432492	
12	15564500	19837	152948	0.9826721	
13	17534440	22999	208538	1.1893052	
14	17670024	11811	110966	0.6279901	
15	15256731	20625	152503	0.9995785	
16	14755466	12147	261082	1.7693918	
17	16616056	3820	143324	0.8625633	
18	17191025	31245	231940	1.3491924	
19	15521670	9041	203432	1.3106322	
totals	403296128	437660	4376825	1.0852633	Avg. % covered
				1.0417935	Median % covered
				0.3354717	SD

768   Figure S1. Gel electrophoresis (1% agarose) of PCRs conduced on A) 27 March and B) 31 May

769   2018 using ISSR Primer 868 on C. bentleyi samples: 64a, 64b, 65a, 66a, 67a, 68a (lanes labeled.)

770   PCR products were allowed to separate differently by running gel A over a longer time period.

773　　Figure S2. Flowchart for bioinformatic analysis pipeline with dependencies indicated in

774　　parentheses.

Figure S3. Mapping of trimmed reads to *P. deltoides* WV94 genome. Log-transformed coverage

is shown above each chromosome, with regions of greater than 50x coverage depth denoted in

yellow below the coverage histogram.

Figure S3 (cont.). Mapping of trimmed reads to *P. deltoides* WV94 genome. Log-transformed

coverage is shown above each chromosome, with regions of greater than 50x coverage depth

denoted in yellow below the coverage histogram.

Figure S4. Trimmed reads mapped vs *P. deltoides* WV94 chromosome length. The dotted line

represents the linear best fit ($R^2 = 0.4107$; p-value = 0.003).

Figure S5. SNP variants annotated on the genome of *Populus deltoides* WV94. Variant positions

are denoted with a green box below their position on each chromosome.

Supplementary File: Sources and identifiers of genomes used to filter putative contaminant loci.

Mycorrhizal Fungi (one from each genus available)

https://genome.jgi.doe.gov/portal/pages/dynamicOrganismDownload.jsf?organism=Mycorrhizal
_fungi

Acephala macrosclerotiorum EW76-UTF0540 v1.0: Project: 1034881, Acema1

Amanita muscaria Koide v1.0: Project: 403202, Amamu1

Boletus coccyginus 2016PMI039 v1.0: Project: 1234182, Bolcoc1

Cantharellus anzutake C23 v1.0: Project: 1006245, Cananz1

Cenococcum geophilum 1.58 v2.0: Project: 402530, Cenge3

Ceratobasidium sp. anastomosis group I; DN8442 v1.0: Project: 1019533, CerAGI

Choiromyces venosus 120613-1 v1.0: Project: 1016739, Chove1

Clavulina sp. PMI_390 v1.0: Project: 1021554, ClaPMI390

Cortinarius austrovenetus TL2843-KIS7R v1.0: Project: 1193804, Coraus1

Gautieria morchelliformis GMNE.BST v1.0: Project: 1019425, Gaumor1

Geopyxis carbonaria DOB1671 v1.0: Project: 1127117, Geocar1

Gigaspora rosea v1.0: Gigro1

Gyrodon lividus BX v1.0: Project: 1016731, Gyrli1

Hebeloma cylindrosporum h7 v2.0: Project: 402607, Hebcy2

Hyaloscypha finlandica PMI_746 v1.0: Project: 1113379, Hyafin1

Hydnum rufescens UP504 v2.0: Project: 1019557, Hydru2

Hysterangium stoloniferum HS.BST v1.0: Project: 1019429, Hyssto1

Kalaharituber pfeilii F3 v1.0: Project: 1060175, Kalpfe1

Kurtia argillacea OMC1749 v1.0: Project: 1231371, Kurarg1

Laccaria amethystina LaAM-08-1 v2.0: Project: 1006253, Lacam2

Lactarius akahatsu QP v1.0: Project: 1177532, Lacaka1

Lactifluus cf. subvellereus BPL653 v1.0: Project: 1108981, Lacsub1

Leucangium carthusianum GMNB180 Co-culture: Project: 1191024, Leuca1

Melanogaster broomeianus MBLB.BST v1.0: Project: 1019457, Melbro1

Meliniomyces bicolor E v2.0: Project: 1008686, Melbi2

Morchella importuna CCBAS932 v1.0: Project: 1024000, Morco1

Multifurca ochricompacta BPL690 v1.0: Project: 1106235, Muloch1

Oidiodendron maius Zn v1.0: Project: 403613, Oidma1

Paxillus adelphus Ve08.2h10 v2.0: Project: 1006419, Paxru2

Piloderma croceum F 1598 v1.0: Project: 402979, Pilcr1

Pisolithus albus SI12 v1.0: Project: 1133208, Pisalb1

Rhizophagus cerebriforme DAOM 227022 v1.0: Rhice1

Rhizopogon salebrosus TDB-379 v1.0: Project: 1039526, Rhisa1

Rhizoscyphus ericae UAMH 7357 v1.0: Project: 1006265, Rhier1

Russula brevipes BPL707 v1.0: Project: 1106237, Rusbre1

Scleroderma citrinum Foug A v1.0: Project: 404724, Sclci1

Sebacina vermifera MAFF 305830 v1.0: Project: 403638, Sebve1

Serendipita vermifera ssp. bescii NFPB0129 v1.0: Project: 1053109, Sebvebe1

Sphaerosporella brunnea Sb_GMNB300 v2.0: Project: 1108957, Sphbr2

Suillus americanus EM31 v1.0: Project: 1052751, Suiame1

Terfezia boudieri ATCC MYA-4762 v1.1: Project: 1018931, Terbo2

Thelephora ganbajun P2 v1.0: Project: 1050999, Thega1

Tirmania nivea G3 v1.0: Project: 1108979, Tirniv1

Tricholoma matsutake 945 v3.0: Project: 404726, Trima3

Tuber aestivum var. urcinatum v1.0: Tubae1

Tulasnella calospora AL13/4D v1.0: Project: 404728, Tulca1

Wilcoxina mikolae CBS 423.85 v1.0: Project: 1016515, Wilmi1

Xerocomus badius 84.06 v1.0: Project: 1019549, Xerba1

Plant Pathogenic Fungi

https://genome.jgi.doe.gov/portal/Plant_pathogens/Plant_pathogens.download.html

Alternaria alternata ATCC11680: Alalt1

Ascochyta rabiei ArDII: Ascra1

Atropellis piniphila CBS 197.64 v1.0: Project: 1134530, Atrpi1

Blumeria graminis f. sp. hordei 5874 v1.0: Project: 1145186, Bgh5874

Botryosphaeria dothidea: Botdo1

Botrytis cinerea v1.0: Botci1

Cercospora zeae-maydis v1.0: Project: 401984, Cerzm1

Choanephora cucurbitarum NRRL2744 (50) v1.0: Project: 1099013, Chocucu1

Cladosporium fulvum v1.0: Clafu1

Cochliobolus carbonum 26-R-13 v1.0: Project: 403760, Cocca1

Colletotrichum abscissum IMI 504890: Colab1

Corynespora cassiicola CCP v1.0: Project: 1019537, Corca1

Cronartium quercuum f. sp. fusiforme G11 v1.0: Project: 401997, Croqu1

Cryphonectria parasitica EP155 v2.0: Project: 16952, Cryphonectria

Cytospora chrysosperma CFL2056 v1.0: Project: 1110761, Cytch1

Dactylonectria estremocensis MPI-CAGE-AT-0021 v1.0: Project: 1103627, Daces1

Diaporthe ampelina UCDDA912: Diaam1

Didymella zeae-maydis 3018: Didma1

Diplodia seriata DS831: Dipse1

Dothidotthia symphoricarpi v1.0: Project: 1011345, Dotsy1

Elsinoe ampelina CECT 20119 v1.0: Project: 1064684, Elsamp1

Elytroderma deformans CBS183.68 v1.0: Project: 1166950, Elyde1

Entoleuca mammata CFL468 v1.0: Project: 1117716, Entma1

Erysiphe pisi Palampur-1 v2.0: Project: 1176372, Erypi2

Eutypa lata UCREL1: Eutla1

Exobasidium vaccinii MPITM v1.0: Project: 1016319, Exova1

Fomitiporia mediterranea v1.0: Project: 402518, Fomme1

Fusarium fujikuroi IMI 58289: Fusfu1

Gaeumannomyces graminis var. tritici R3-111a-1: Gaegr1

Golovinomyces cichoracearum UCSC1 v1.0: Project: 1055992, Golci1

Gremmeniella abietina DAOM 170408 v1.0: Project: 1104310, Greab1

Grosmannia clavigera kw1407: Grocl1

Heterobasidion annosum v2.0: Project: 16080

Leptosphaeria maculans: Lepmu1

Macrophomina phaseolina MPI-SDFR-AT-0080 v1.0: Project: 1103647, Macpha1

Magnaporthe oryzae 70-15 v3.0: Magor1

Magnaporthiopsis poae ATCC 64411: Magpo1

Melampsora allii-populina 12AY07 v1.0: Project: 1026279, Melap1finSC

Microbotryum lychnidis-dioicae p1A1 Lamole: Micld1

Microthyrium microscopicum CBS 115976 v1.0: Project: 1011369, Micmi1

Mixia osmundae IAM 14324 v1.0: Project: 404192, Mixos1

Moniliophthora perniciosa FA553: Monpe1

Mycosphaerella graminicola v2.0: Project: 16205

Nectria haematococca v2.0: Project: 16208, Necha2

Neocosmospora boninensis NRRL 22470 v1.0: Project: 1034400, Neobo1

Neofusicoccum parvum UCRNP2: Neopa1

Neonectria ditissima R09/05: Neodi1

Oliveonia pauxilla MPI-PUGE-AT-0066 v1.0: Project: 1103641, Olipa1

Ophiostoma piceae UAMH 11346: Ophpic1

Paraconiothyrium sporulosum AP3s5-JAC2a v1.0: Project: 1029422, Parsp1

Phaeoacremonium aleophilum UCRPA7: Phaal1

Phaeomoniella chlamydospora UCRPC4: Phach1

Phakopsora pachyrhizi MG2006 v1.0: Project: 1097278, Phapa1

Phellinus igniarius CCBS 575 v1.0: Project: 1108911, Pheign1_1

Phoma multirostrata 7a v1.0: Project: 1150440, Phomu1

Phyllosticta citriasiana CBS 120486 v1.0: Project: 1011301, Phycit1

Pseudocercospora (Mycosphaerella) fijiensis v2.0: Project: 16189

Pseudoidium neolycopersici MF1 Metagenome Minimal Draft: Project: 1145388, Psene1

Puccinia coronata avenae 12NC29: PuccoNC29_1

Pyrenophora teres f. teres: Pyrtt1

Rhizoctonia solani AG-1 IB: Rhiso1

Saccharata proteae CBS 121410 v1.0: Project: 1011317, Sacpr1

Sclerotinia sclerotiorum v1.0: Sclsc1

Septobasidium sp. PNB30-8B v1.0: Project: 1047727, Sepsp1

Septoria musiva SO2202 v1.0: Project: 401987, Sepmu1

Setomelanomma holmii CBS 110217 v1.0: Project: 1019737, Setho1

Setosphaeria turcica Et28A v2.0: Project: 401988, Settu3

Sporisorium reilianum SRZ2: Spore1

Stemphylium lycopersici CIDEFI-216: Stely1

Taphrina populi-salicis CBS419.54 v1.0: Project: 1166952, Tappo1

Teratosphaeria nubilosa CBS 116005 v1.0: Project: 1019765, Ternu1

Testicularia cyperi MCA 3645 v1.0: Project: 1040186, Tescy1

Urocystis occulta CBS 102.71 v1.0: Project: 1185590, Uroocc1

Ustilago maydis 521 v2.0: Ustma2_2

Venturia inaequalis: Venin1

Verticillium alfalfae VaMs.102: Veral1

Zopfia rhizophila v1.0: Project: 1011325, Zoprh1

Zymoseptoria ardabiliae STIR04_1.1.1: Zymar1

Human Genome

ftp://ftp.ensembl.org/pub/release-100/fasta/homo_sapiens/dna/

Homo_sapiens.GRCh38.dna_rm.primary_assembly.fa.gz