Long title: Insights from the genomes of four diploid *Camelina* spp.

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Short title: Insights from diploid *Camelina* genomes

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Abstract

Plant evolution has been a complex process involving hybridization and polyploidization

making understanding the origin and evolution of a plant's genome challenging even once a

published genome is available. The oilseed crop, *Camelina sativa* (*Brassicaceae)*, has a fully

sequenced allohexaploid genome with three unknown ancestors. To better understand which

extant species best represent the ancestral genomes that contributed to *C. sativa*'s formation, we

sequenced and assembled chromosome level draft genomes for four diploid members of

Camelina: *C. neglecta C. hispida* var. *hispida*, *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora* and C. *laxa* using long

and short read data scaffolded with proximity data. We then conducted phylogenetic analyses on

regions of synteny and on genes described for *Arabidopsis thaliana,* from across each nuclear

genome and the chloroplasts to examine evolutionary relationships within *Camelina* and

Camelineae. We conclude that *C. neglecta* is closely related to *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 1 and that

C. hispida var. *hispida* and *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora* are most closely related to *C. sativa*'s

sub-genome 3. Further, the abundance and density of transposable elements, specifically

Helitrons, suggest that the progenitor genome that contributed *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 3 maybe

more similar to the genome of *C. hispida* var. *hispida* than that of *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora.*

These diploid genomes show few structural differences when compared to *C. sativa*'s genome

indicating little change to chromosome structure following allopolyploidization. This work also

indicates that *C. neglecta* and *C. hispida* are important resources for understanding the genetics

of *C. sativa* and potential resources for crop improvement.

Introduction

A key goal in evolutionary biology is understanding the evolution of genomes - how

changes in structure and content affects the rate of evolution (Otto and Whitton 2002). Three

linked processes shape genome structure: hybridization (Stebbins 1968; Rieseberg 1997; Soltis

and Soltis 2009; Abbott et al. 2013), polyploidization (de Wet 1971; Levin 1983; Soltis and

Soltis 1999; Husband et al. 2013) and chromosomal rearrangements (Rieseberg 2001; Rieseberg

and Willis 2007). Crop genomes such as maize, canola, soybean, sugarcane and wheat (Schmutz

et al. 2010; Schnable et al. 2011; Chalhoub et al. 2014; The International Wheat Genome

Sequencing Consortium 2014) have underscored the frequency of these processes. While less

effort has focused on diploid wild crop relatives (Michael and VanBuren 2015), sequencing the

extant representatives of crop progenitors can provide insight into the crop's origins and genomic

evolution (Marcussen et al. 2014; Latta et al. 2019).

The oil seed crop and allohexaploid *Camelina sativa* (L.) Crantz (2n = 40) has been

sequenced and well described (Kagale et al. 2014). It's three parental genomes are thought to

have diverged from each other recently between 2.5 Mya (Žerdoner Čalasan et al. 2019) and 5.4

Mya (Kagale et al. 2014) with the dates of the hybridizations contributing to *Camelina sativa*'s

formation estimated as 5-10,000 years ago (Kagale et al. 2014). The *Camelina* genus includes

four taxa with known diploid chromosome counts: *Camelina neglecta* (2n = 12, 1C = 265 Mb) J.

Brock, Mandáková, Lysak & Al-Shehbaz, *Camelina laxa* C. A. Mey. (2n = 12, 1C = 275 Mb),

Camelina hispida Boiss. var. *hispida* (2n = 14, 1C = 355 Mb) and *Camelina hispida* var.

grandiflora (Boiss.) Hedge (2n = 14, 1C = 315 Mb) (Al-Shehbaz 2012; Martin et al. 2017; Brock

et al. 2019). These species could be modern representatives of genomes involved in *C. sativa*'s

formation.

While determining the origin of a polyploid lineage is generally difficult (Kyriakidou et

al. 2018; Rothfels 2021), our knowledge of the ancestral chromosome structure of the

Camelineae provides an opportunity to investigate related diploid genomes. In the 2000's,

researchers defined 24 large conserved collinear regions or blocks (Ancestral Crucifer Karyotype

or ACK) among crucifer genomes (Schranz et al. 2006; Murat et al. 2015; Lysak et al. 2016) and

reconstructed an ancestral karyotype with 8 chromosomes similar to *Arabidopsis lyrata* (L.)

O'Kane & Al-Shehbaz (Koch and Kiefer 2005). These blocks were later grouped into 16

ancestral karyotype regions (ABK) corresponding to ancestral chromosome arms (Murat et al.

2015). *Camelina sativa*'s sub-genomes each show a conserved ACK structure, with 21 in-block

breaks that, most likely, occurred in its progenitors (Lysak et al. 2016). Here we extend our

understanding of the evolution of *C. sativa* by assembling draft genomes for *C. neglecta*, *C. laxa,*

C. hispida var. *hispida* and *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora.* Using this data and the ACK structure we

phase *C. sativa*'s sub-genomes and examine relationships within the Camelineae using a

phylogenetic analysis before delving further into *C. sativa's* potential paternal lineage using

transposable element abundance.

Materials and Methods

Plant Material and Nucleic Acid Isolation
96   *Camelina neglecta, C. hispida var. hispida, C. hispida var. grandiflora,* and *C. laxa* seed

were obtained from the North Central Regional Plant Introduction Station (NCRPIS) (PI650135,

PI650139, PI650133 and PI633185, respectively). Seeds obtained from NCRPIS were stratified

in petri dishes using filter paper that was moistened with 0.2% KNO_3, sealed with Parafilm

(Pechiney Plastic Packaging Company, Illinois, USA), and placed at 4°C in the dark for 2 weeks.

For seed germination, the plates were then placed at room temperature under growth lights with a

16 h/8 h day/night light cycle. Seedlings were then sown on soil (soil, peat, and sand; 1:2:1;

Promix, Rivière-du-Loup, Québec, Canada) with a photoperiod of 16 h 20°C days/8 h 18°C

nights. For the largely self-incompatible species, *C. hispida* and *C. laxa,* rosette leaves were

sampled using dry ice for DNA extractions and stored at -80. For the self-compatible, *C.*

neglecta, after 6 weeks, the plants were placed for another 6 weeks at 4°C with an 8 h/16 h

day/night photoperiod for vernalization. Plants were then transplanted to 5 in pots with the same

soil and allowed to self-pollinate and set seed in a 16 h/8 h day/night photoperiod with 20°C days

and 18°C nights. Following approximately 3 months, the mature seeds were collected and this

process was repeated to obtain a fifth-generation inbred line before sampling and storage.

Vouchers for each of the accessions used have been deposited in the DAO (Department of

Agriculture Ottawa) herbarium (*C. neglecta* DAO 902176; *C. laxa*: DAO 902754; *C. hispida*

var. *hispida*: DAO 902780; and *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora:* DAO 902768).

For Pacific Biosciences long read (PacBio; Pacific Biosciences, Menlo Park, CA, USA)

and Illumina short reads (Illumina Inc., San Diego, California, U.S) sequencing, total DNA was

extracted using a FastDNA Spin Kit (MP Biomedicals, Solon, OH), grinding was done in the

FastPrep (MP Biomedicals) at 4.0 for 20 s, with the addition of one ceramic bead. Two DNA

extractions were pooled for a total volume of 200 μl and precipitated with the addition of 20 μl 3

M NaOAc and 200 μl 100% ethanol. Following overnight incubation at -20°C, the DNA was

centrifuged at 13,000 rpm at 4°C for 30 min. The ethanol was decanted and the DNA pellet was

washed with cold 70% ethanol, dried at 37°C for approximately 20 min and re-suspended in 100

μl 5 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.5). The DNA concentration was determined by Qubit was 110 ng/μl.

DNA quality was determined by running 1.0 μl on a 0.8% E-gel (Invitrogen by ThermoFisher)

beside a 0.2 μg of 20kb ladder (GeneRuler 1kbPlus, ThermoFisher).

DNA was also extracted to generate sequence data using Oxford Nanopore Technologies

(ONT; Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Oxford Science Park, UK). High molecular weight DNA

extraction procedures were carried out as described in Workman et al. (Workman et al. 2018).

The Short Read Eliminator kit (Circulomics Inc) was used as per the directions.

Sequencing

Sequencing was conducted in five different locations. McGill University's Genome

Quebec Innovation Centre completed PacBio sequencing using P6-C4 chemistry for *C. laxa, C.*

hispida var. *hispida* and *C. neglecta*. A total of 7 Single Molecule Real-Time (SMRT) cells were

used for sequencing *C. neglecta* and 8 cells each were used for *C. laxa* and *C. hispida*. They also

generated paired end Illumina data for *C. laxa*, *C. hispida* var. *hispida* and *C. hispida* var.

grandiflora with runs of 2 x 150 bases. The sequencing facility at the Microbial Molecular

Technologies Laboratory (MMTL) in Ottawa (Ottawa Research and Development Centre,

Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada) was used for paired-end sequencing using Illumina MiSeq

v3 chemistry with runs of 2 x 300 bases with 500bp inserts. The Centre for Applied Genomics,

The Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, Canada prepared and sequenced four additional

libraries: one paired-end (PE) library with 550 bp inserts using a Nano kit (Illumina, San Diego,

CA, USA) and three mate-pair (MP) libraries: 3kb, 5kb and 10kb inserts using the Nextera mate-

pair kit (Illumina). All four libraries were sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq-2000 using v4

chemistry and flow cells with runs of 2×126 bases. ONT sequencing data was obtained using a

MinION with one FLO-MIN106 flow cell run for 48h for each taxon in the Martin Laboratory.

Base pair calling was completed with Guppy v. 3.2.2+9fe0a78 (Wick et al. 2019). Finally, library

preparation for chromosome conformation capture (Hi-C) analyses used the Proximo Hi-C 2.0

Kit from Phase Genomics Inc. (Seattle, WA, USA) and sequenced using Ilumina HiSeq 4000.

Quality Control and de novo *Genome Assembly*

Raw PacBio and ONT reads were self-corrected and assembled using Canu v1.8 (Koren

et al. 2016). The corrected error rate was set to 14.4% for both *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora*, where

we only had ONT data, and for *C. hispida* var. *hispida*. Draft assemblies were polished using

Illumina data filtered and trimmed with trimmomatic v 0.33 (Bolger et al. 2014) and up to three

iterations of Pilon v 1.23 (Walker et al. 2014) using bowtie2 v 2.3.4.3 (Langmead and Salzberg

2012) and Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (bwa) (Li 2013). For C. *hispida* and *C. laxa*, the program

Purge Haplotigs (Roach et al. 2018) was used to reduce redundancy resulting from the

heterozygosity.

The quality of the polished assemblies was evaluated with QUAST 5.0.2 (Gurevich et al.,

2013). The completion of the assembly's gene space was evaluated using BUSCO v3.0.2 (Simão

et al. 2015) using the embryophyta_odb10 database and the degree to which the assemblies had

been successfully collapsed was further assessed with HapPy (Guiglielmoni et al. 2021). Final

heterozygosity and error rates were calculated with samtools v 1.9 (Li et al. 2009) and SNP

detection and phasing was completed with Princess v0.01 (Mahmoud et al. 2021).

The chloroplast genome for each species was extracted from the draft assemblies by

aligning contigs with *C. sativa*'s chloroplast genome using nucmer v 4.0 from MUMmer v 4.0.

Chloroplast contigs were ordered and oriented based on *C. sativa*'s chloroplast and merged into a

consensus using a custom script written in R.

Genome Scaffolding

Phase genomics used their proprietary software, Proximo, to produce chromosome level

scaffolds (Oddes et al. 2018) for *C. neglecta*, *C. hispida* var. *hispida* and *C. laxa*. The scaffolding

tool, ntJoin 1.0.3-0 (Coombe et al. 2020), was used to scaffold the genome of *C. hispida* var.

grandiflora using the Hi-C scaffolded assembly of *C. hispida* var. *hispida*. A final round of

polishing by Pilon was completed following scaffolding.

All genomes are available from as part of Bioproject PRJNA750147.

Phylogenetic analysis of C. sativa *sub-genomes and Camelineae diploids*

We determined the phylogenetic relationships among genomes for 1) diploid members of

the Camelineae: *Arabidopsis lyrata* (Ensembl Genomes version 1.0), *Capsella rubella* (NCBI v.

ANNY00000000.1), *Neslia paniculata* (L.) Desvaux (S. Wright personal communication) 2) the

three sub-genomes of *C. sativa* (NCBI version JFZQ0000000.1) and 3) the four diploid

Camelina species sequenced here. We used three methods to extract regions of the genomes for

analysis. First we identified random fragments within homologous regions of the genomes,

second we used a reciprocal best hit method to identify shared genes from *Arabidopsis thaliana*

(TAIR version 10), and third we used Orthofinder 2.3.11 (Emms and Kelly 2017; Emms and

Kelly 2019).

For the first approach shared homologous regions within each ACK block as described in

the *A. lyrata* genome (Schranz et al. 2006) were isolated (Table S1). Each ACK region was cut

into 1000 bp fragments, aligned to *A. lyrata*'s genome using bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg

2012) and filtered. Pairwise collinearity between this set of filtered fragments and each taxon

was determined using nucmer from MUMmer (v4.0) then a custom R script determined which

fragments that overlapped between all genomes and were found in three copies within a

consistent set of *C. sativa*'s chromsomes (Table S2). Each set was aligned using msa 1.18.0

(Bodenhofer et al. 2015) and run in MrBayes v3.2.1 using a stepping stone model run for

6,000,000 generations to determine the appropriate model (Ronquist et al. 2012). We then ran the

preferred model for 5,000,000 generations checking convergence of each run with the r package

rwty (Warren et al. 2017). We then calculated seven metrics to exclude biased sequences or

sources of misleading phylogenetic signal using TreeCmp 2.0 (Bogdanowicz et al. 2012) and

TreSpEx 1.1 (Struck 2014). Specifically, following Nikolov et al. (2019) we calculated the

number of matching splits and the Robinson-Foulds tree distances using TreeCmp; the upper

quartile and standard deviation of the long-branch scores, average patristic differences, and R^2 of

the saturation score and slope with TreSpEx. Fragments were excluded from further

consideration if they failed the convergence checks or were outliers for one or more of the seven

phylogenetic metrics at the 99th percentile. For each set of trees belonging to ABKs located on

the same chromosome or chromosome arm, we estimated species trees with ASTRAL-III (5.1.1)

(Zhang et al. 2018).

Our second method used the information phasing the sub-genome structure of *C. sativa*

as determined by the fragments above, to identify reciprocal best hits (RBH) (Chen et al. 2017)

for *A. thaliana* genes in each genome and sub-genome. Specifically, sequences for genes

identified for *A. thaliana* in the TAIR 10 assembly (available from www.arabidopsis.org) were

used to extract similar sequences for each genome. Following recommendations by Chen et al.

(2017) BLAST 2.2.31 (Altschul et al. 1990) hits for *A. thaliana* genes were screened (e-value of

less or equal to 0.0001, 70% or more of the query length, 70% or greater identity with query, a

bit score ratio between the first and second BLAST hit of 1.2 or greater) extracted from each

target genome and BLASTed back to *A. thaliana*'s genome and filtered again with the additional

criteria of aligning to the gene's original location.

The phylogenetic analysis of these best hits was then completed as above using MrBayes

and ASTRAL-III by ABK. In addition, we randomly selected one sequence from each ACK 25

times to be a set of unlinked data and analyzed these using StarBEAST2 2.6.3 (Ogilvie et al.

2017; Suchard et al. 2018; Bouckaert et al. 2019), PhyloNet 3.8.2 (Than et al. 2008; Wen et al.

2018; Cao et al. 2019) and to generate a consensus tree with ASTRAL-III. StarBeast2 was run

for between 20 and 100 million generations as required to produce estimated sample sizes (ESS)

values above 200 with the GTR site model using a configuration file created by BEAUti 2.6.3

(Bouckaert et al. 2019), convergence was examined with Tracer (1.7.1) (Rambaut et al. 2018),

summarized with TreeAnnotator 2.6.3 (Bouckaert et al. 2019) and plotted with the densiTree

function in the R package phangorn 2.5.5 (Schliep 2011). PhyloNet's MCMC_Seq command

was run with chain lengths of between 20 and 80 million as required to produce ESS values

above 200 and the maximum number of reticulations set to 4. Networks and trees produced by

PhyloNet were visualized using plotTree function from the package phytools 0.7.20 (Revell

2012).

228   Finally, AUGUSTUS 3.3.2 (Stanke et al. 2006) was run on the final version of the

229   assembled genomes, reference genomes, and *Camelina sativa*'s phased sub-genomes to predict

230   genes *in silico* using *Arabidopsis*. Amino acid sequences were then provided to OrthoFinder

231   (Emms and Kelly 2019), which estimated the species tree.

232   Entire chloroplast genomes for *Arabis alpina*, *Arabidopsis thaliana*, *A. lyrata*, *Capsella*

bursa-pastoris, *C. grandiflora*, *C. rubella* and *Camelina sativa* were downloaded from the

Chloroplast Genome Database (https://rocaplab.ocean.washington.edu/old_website/tools/cpbase)

and aligned with the four *Camelina* chloroplasts using the msa function in R (see above). A

consensus tree was then estimated with MrBayes as above. Annotation of the chloroplast

genomes was completed with GeSeq 1.77 (Tillich et al. 2017) through CHLOROBOX website

(https://chlorobox.mpimp-golm.mpg.de/index.html), using *Camelina sativa*, *A. lyrata,* and

Capsella rubella's chloroplasts as reference sequences. The chloroplast genomes with their

annotations were then visualized with the website's OrganellarGenomeDRAW (OGDRAW)

1.3.1 (Greiner et al. 2019).

***Synteny between* Camelina *diploids and* C. sativa *and* A. lyrata**

243   To evaluate collinearity between the chromosome level draft genomes we used nucmer

with both *C. sativa* and *A. lyrata* as references for comparison and scripts written in R employing

the package circlize 0.4.11 (Gu et al. 2014) to order and visualize the alignments.

Transposable Element Annotation

Transposable elements (TEs) were located using the Extensive *de novo* TE Annotator

1.8.3 (EDTA; Ou et al., 2010), EAHelitron 1.5.1 (Hu et al. 2019),

LRT_FINDER/LTR_FINDER_parallel (Xu and Wang 2007; Ou and Jiang 2019) and

LTRharvest (Ellinghaus et al. 2008). Data from these last two programs was processed with

LRT_retreiver (Ou and Jiang 2018), which was used to calculate the LTR Assembly Index,

(LAI) (Ou et al. 2018). We determined whether *Helitrons* detected in *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 3

were also detected in syntenic regions of *C. hispida var. hispida* and *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora*

using a script written in R and output from EAHelitron and nucmer. Specifically, we examined

all regions of synteny (determined by nucmer), determined if a *Helitron* was detected in the

region (by EAHelitron using the presence of sequence CTAG and a GC rich hairpin), and

examined sequence similarity for 1000 bp upstream of the 3' end. We considered any pairs with

80% identity to represents the same *Helitron* insertion event.

Additional software used

The version of R used was 3.6.3 (2020-02-29) -- "Holding the Windsock." Sequence

handling, tree plotting and graphical display were facilitated by numerous R packages in addition

to those mentioned above including: ape 5.0 (Paradis and Schliep 2019), apex 1.0.4 (Schliep et

al. 2020), Biostrings 2.56.0 (Pagès et al. 2020), pals 1.7 (Wright 2021), pBrackets 1.0.1 (Schulz

2021), plotrix 3.7.8 (Lemon 2006), plyr 1.8.6 (Wickham 2011), ips 0.0.11 (Heibl 2008), IRanges

2.22.2 (Lawrence et al. 2013), outliers 0.14 (Komsta 2011), RIdeogram 0.2.2 (Hao et al. 2020),

Rsamtools 2.4.0 (Morgan et al. 2020), seqinr 3.6.1 (Bastolla et al. 2007), stringr 1.4.0 (Wickham

2019), treeio 1.10.0 (Wang et al. 2020), and VennDiagram.1.7.1 (Chen 2021).

The program FigTree 1.4.4 (Rambaut 2018) was used to convert trees including their

support values to a format easily readable in R.

Unless otherwise specified all tools were run using default settings.

Results

Genome Assemblies

Sequencing coverage of the genome differed for each species with *C. neglecta* receiving

the majority of our sequencing efforts (286x raw coverage) (Table 1). Following assembly with

Canu and polishing with Pilon, *C. neglecta* had the most contiguous assembly with 204 contigs

and an NG50 of 11,493,634 (Table 2). Scaffolding using Hi-C data and Phase Genomics'

Proximo resulted in chromosome level assemblies for *C. neglecta* (n = 6), *C. hispida* var. *hispida*

(n = 7) and *C. laxa* (n =6) with approximately 70% or more of their expected lengths and NG50s

of 29,279,412. 39,460,631, and 31,147,072 respectively. Following scaffolding by ntJoin, 70%

of the expected genome length for *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora* was incorporated into a

chromosome level assembly (n = 7). The completeness of gene space, as evaluated by estimating

the proportion of core conserved eukaryotic genes recovered by the Benchmarking Universal

Single Copy Orthologs (BUSCO) score, indicated that all assemblies had at least 90% of the

expected genes (Table 2). The small percentage of duplicated BUSCO genes indicated that the

assemblies have largely been collapsed. This was confirmed by haploidy scores from HapPy of

over 0.9. The genomes all rank as gold quality based the high level of intact LTR elements

detected in the genome (LIA > 20) (Table 2).

Phylogenetic relationships among **C. sativa** *and Camelineae diploids*

In total 1,444 fragments within the ACK blocks described for *A. lyrata* genome were

found to be shared among the eight core Camelineae taxa with three copies distributed across *C.*

sativa's genome. Fragments from each ancestral chromosome showed the same pattern of

localization in *C. sativa*'s genome in the majority of cases (Table 3). For example ACK blocks

A, B, and C from ancestral chromosome 1 all showed the highest number of hits on *C. sativa*'s

chromosomes 3, 14 and 17. Where differences occurred, there was consistency corresponding to

ancestral chromosome arms and, therefore, ABK group. The pattern of hits across the genomes

resulted in eleven groupings, corresponding to either ancestral chromosome arms or entire

chromosomes, that were used in further phylogenetic analyses (Table 4).

The species trees produced by coalescent modeling by ASTRAL-III from gene trees

produced from all fragments within the eleven groups indicated the phylogenetic relationship

between *C. sativa*'s chromosomes and the other taxa (Table 4; Table 5; Fig. 1). Trees were

largely congruent as indicated by the high normalized quartet scores (Table 4).

The consensus species trees estimated by StarBEAST2 using the reciprocal best hit

(RBH) sequences also most consistently recovered this topology (Fig. 2 and 3) as did the final

species tree predicted by OrthoFinder based 14,513 genes trees (Fig. 4). Further, all methods

indicated *Arabidopsis* is the basal genus in this group, while *Neslia* is closest genus to *Camelina*

among those studied.

The primary uncertainty in tree topology was the position of *C. laxa* - either basal to all

the *Camelina* spp. or in a clade with *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 3 and *C. hispida.* Specifically, of the

randomly chosen sets of sequences from across the genome, ASTRAL-III consensus trees

produced trees with *C. laxa* basal to the *Camelina* group just over half the time - 14 of 25 for the

fragments and 15 of 25 for the reciprocal best hit genes. The consensus trees produced by

StarBEAST2 showed greater disparity with 18 of 25 suggesting *C. laxa* is basal for the fragments

but only 6 of 25 for the RBH. A thin majority, 14 of 25, of the RBH suggested *C. laxa* in a clade

with *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 3. This topology, with *C. laxa* in the sub-genome 3 clade, was also

produced by Orthogene (Fig. 4). Density tree plots of trees generated by StarBEAST2 indicated

mixed signals for *C. laxa*'s position for sequence fragments (Fig. 2A) and for genes (Fig. 2B).

These plots also indicated that some trees differed in the timing of divergence in genes among *C.*

laxa, *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 3, and the varieties of *C. hispida* (Fig. 2C). Both ASTRAL-III and

StartBeast2 account for incomplete lineage sorting; however, given the propensity of

Brassicaceae taxa to hybridize, reticulate evolution between these taxa was investigated with

PhyloNet. However, for many of the sets of 24 unlinked fragments or genes, PhyloNet indicated

trees without reticulations were the most credible for the fragments (10 of 25) and the reciprocal

best hit genes (17 of 25). With other sets one reticulation was included in the credible networks,

but their placement was inconsistent (Fig. 3).

Results for Chloroplasts

The chloroplast (cp) assemblies produced for the four diploid *Camelina* species

sequenced here, based on the scaffolding of contigs using *C. sativa*'s cp, resulted in contigs

between 152,239 bp (*C. hispida var. grandiflora*) and 153,366 bp (*C. neglecta*) in comparison to

the 153,044 bp for *C. sativa's* cp assembly. Annotation by GeSeq indicated expected features

such as the large inverted repeat and that ARAGORN 1.2.38, invoked by GeSeq, found the same

39 genes in all four of the *Camelina* cp's assembled here and that of *C. sativa*. The cp assemblies

varied in the degree of fragmentation of the genes within the assembly with *C. hispida var.*

grandiflora showing the greatest number of fragmented features (89) and *C. neglecta* the fewest

(20) (Fig. S1). The resulting tree from entire chloroplast sequences of all eleven taxa included in

the analysis, showed the chloroplast sequence from *C. sativa* was most closely related to that of

C. neglecta and that these taxa were sister to a clade containing the varieties of *C. hispida* with

C. laxa basal. As with the analysis of nuclear genes, the chloroplast indicates *Capsella* as more

closely related to *Camelina* than *Arabidopsis* (Fig. 5).

Synteny between Camelina diploids and A. lyrata and C. sativa

The four diploid species sequenced here showed extensive synteny with both *A. lyrata*

and *C. sativa* genomes with conservation of the ACK and ABK blocks (Fig. 6). The analysis

indicates a high level of synteny between *A. lyrata* and *C. neglecta*, and to a greater degree,

between *C. neglecta* and *C. sativa* sub-genome 1 (Fig. 6). Similarly, there is strong synteny

between *A. lyrata* and *C. hispida* and, to a greater extent, between *C. hispida* and *C. sativa* sub-

genome 3 (Fig. 6). In contrast the genome of *C. laxa* has more extensive rearrangements and

breaks within ACK and ABK blocks (Fig. 7) including fragmentation of the E block, and

separation of parts of the F, J, U, and W blocks on to separate chromosomes. Further,

chromosome number reduction in this species involved portions of several of the ancestral

chromosomes have being incorporated into several different chromosomes such as the upper arm

of chromosome 6 - AK06 (FG) which has been split between chromosomes 3 and 5.

Transposable element annotation and comparison

Annotation of the transposable elements (TEs) by the Extensive *de novo* TE Annotator

(EDTA) indicated that TEs made up 34-35% of the diploid *Camelina* genomes, with the

exception of *C. hispida* var. *hispida* where TEs accounted for 50% of the genome (Fig. 8, Table

S2). The largest groups of TEs identified belonged to the *Helitron* (DHH) and *Gypsy*

superfamilies (RLC). EAHelitron identified fewer *Helitrons* than EDTA (Table 6). However, the

difference in the number of *Helitrons* in *C. neglecta* and *C. hispida* var. *hispida* was even more

divergent with *Helitron* densities of 9.6 and 20.4 per 1,000,000 bp respectively. The percentage

of *Camelina hispida* var. *grandiflora*'s genome (34%) and the *Helitron* density (11.8) was much

lower than that of *C. hispida* var. *hispida* (Table S2). The three sub-genomes of *C. sativa* also

showed differences in the number of TEs and specifically *Helitrons*, with sub-genome 1 and 2

showing similar percentages of TEs at 30.2% and 26.6% and similar *Helitron* densities at 6.1 and

5.8, but sub-genome 3 showing higher values at 40% and 14.7. In syntenic regions, *C.sativa*

shared more *Helitrons* with *C. hispida* var. *hispida* (258) than with *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora*

(178) (Table 7, Fig 9).

Discussion

Whole genome sequencing is allowing a deeper understanding of the processes that have

shaped plant evolution including polyploidization, hybridization and chromosomal

rearrangements. Allopolyploid crops have become excellent systems for understanding these

genomic changes because they have often received substantial sequencing effort (e.g. *Triticum*

aestivum L. (Appels et al. 2018), *Solanum lycopersicum* L. (Sato et al. 2012), *Zea mays* ssp.

mays L. (Schnable et al. 2009; Jiao et al. 2017), and *Arachis hypogaea* L. (Bertioli et al. 2019)).

Moreover, as work on these species has shown, a greater understanding of the genomic changes

associated with allopolyploidization or autopolyploidization, the genomic consequences of

domestication, and the potential breeding resources can be achieved when related, extant diploid

species are also sequenced (e.g. Sato et al. 2012; Marcussen et al. 2014; Bertioli et al. 2016;

Ramos-Madrigal et al. 2016).

The genome of the allohexaploid *Camelina sativa* (L.) Crantz (camelina; 2n = 40) has

been sequenced (Kagale et al. 2014), but extant relatives of the three parental genomes have not.

Four diploid taxa are known within the genus: *Camelina neglecta*, *Camelina laxa*, *Camelina*

hispida var. *hispida* and *Camelina hispida* var. *grandiflora*. Here we sequenced the genomes of

these four diploids, assembled high quality chromosome level drafts, and examined their

phylogenetic relationship with *C. sativa's* sub-genomes. Each genome showed synteny with *A.*

lyrata with conservation of ACK and ABK blocks, with each region mapping once, confirming a

diploid structure (Fig. 6, 7). This conservation of ACK and ABK blocks allowed for further

dissection of the genomes and phylogenetic analysis.

Camelia sativa's Sub-genomes

Species trees produced by ASTRAL-III's multi-species coalescent model using trees

produced from sequence data from each ABK or ACK indicated the phylogenetic relationships

between these regions from *C. sativa*'s chromosomes and the other taxa included (Fig. 1). These

phylogenies indicate that the phasing of *C. sativa*'s chromosomes to sub-genomes required

reassessment compared to that originally suggested by Kagale et. al (2014). Given that

rearrangement and fractionation have not been predominant mechanisms of genome change in *C.*

sativa (Lysak et al. 2016)*,* limited visual information is available for this division. Phasing

polyploid genomes into their sub-genomes remains a challenging issue (Rothfels 2021) and the

majority of tools to aid in this are currently only able to handle tetraploids (e.g. AlloppNET)

(Jones 2013). Here, phasing was accomplished by using the distribution of ancestral syntenic

blocks and placing them in phylogenetic context with related diploids. This allowed us to define

sub-genome 1 as composed of the chromosomes with the closest phylogenetic relationship with

C. neglecta, sub-genome 2 as those chromosomes sister to the clade with *C. neglecta* and sub-

genome 1, and sub-genome 3 as chromosomes with the closest phylogenetic relationship to the

varieties of *C. hispida* (Table 4; Table 5; Fig. 1). This is a different nomenclature than our

previous work which defined sub-genome 2 as most closely related to *C. neglecta* (Lujan Toro

2017), but it is concordant with the revised sub-genome definition recently published for *C.*

sativa (Chaudhary et al. 2020).

In Chaudhary et al.'s analysis (2020), the authors characterized 193 accessions of

Camelina, including *C. neglecta*, *C. laxa*, *C. hispida*, *C. rumelica* Velen., tetraploid and

hexaploid *C. microcarpa* Andrz. ex DC., and *C. sativa*, using a genotyping by sequencing (GBS)

approach that mapped SNPs in sequences for these accessions to *C. sativa*'s genome. They

determined that sequences from *C. neglecta* aligned to six of *C. sativa*'s chromosomes and

tetraploid *C. microcarpa* aligned with 13 of the chromosomes. However, they determined that

alignment reads did not correspond to the sub-genome structure published in Kagale et. al (2014)

and refined the composition of the sub-genomes accordingly with *C. neglecta* sequences aligning

to sub-genome 1, the tetraploid *C. microcarpa* sequences aligning to sub-genomes 1 and 2, and

C. hispida partially aligning to sub-genome 3 (Chaudhary et al. 2020). As a result very different

approaches, an analysis based on SNPs and a phylogenetic analysis of whole genome sequences,

has resulted in the same conclusions about refinements to the sub-genome structure of *C. sativa*.

In all three sub-genomes, the majority of the changes in the genome structure in

comparison to *A. lyrata* are shared between the diploid genomes and the sub-genomes of *C.*

sativa (see below, Fig. 6, 7). This conservation of structure in these closely related genomes is in

line with Lysak et al.'s expectations that the majority of the changes in chromosome structure

seen in *C. sativa* compared to the ancestral chromosomes were likely present in the ancestral

diploid genomes (Lysak et al. 2016). While the formation of *C. sativa* was relatively recent

(Kagale et al. 2014), it is clear that allopolyploidization did not result in extensive structural

reorganization of the genome, but rather can be characterized by conservation of ancestral

chromosome structure and gene order.

Inter-genome recombination has been observed in some allopolyploids, including

resynthesized *Brassica napus* (Pires et al. 2004)*,* and if this has occurred in *C. sativa*'s genome it

could result in conflicting signals in some loci, as could historical gene flow and introgression.

Some genes appear to show a signal of hybridizations among *C. laxa*, *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 3

and the varieties of *C. hispida* (Fig 2., Fig 3.), and further evaluations of this possibility could be

completed with broader, population level sampling of the taxa and evaluation of the evidence of

introgression (Martin et al. 2015; Martin and Jiggins 2017; Crowl et al. 2020).

***Camelina neglecta* - an extant, maternal relative**

With the refinements to the phasing of the sub-genome structure of *C. sativa*, in addition

to the close phylogenetic relationship, there is strong synteny between the draft *C. neglecta* and

C. sativa's sub-genome 1 (Fig. 6) with similar conservation of the ancestral chromosome

structure. Specifically, only two large inversions are apparent when *C. neglecta*'s genome and *C.*

sativa's sub-genome 1 are compared: one at the start of *C. neglecta*'s chromosome 6 and end of

C. sativa's chromosome 8 and one within *C. neglecta*'s chromosome 2 and *C. sativa's*

chromosome 7, which is echoed in the homologous chromosome of *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 2.

Interestingly, the inversion in *C. neglecta*'s chromosome 6 is more similar *A. lyrata*'s

chromosome 6 suggesting this change may have occurred in *C. sativa*'s genome 1 following

allopolyploidization. This similarity and the chloroplast data, which suggests the maternal

lineage of *C. sativa* is most closely related to *C. neglecta,* indicates that *C. neglecta* is a close

extant, maternal relative of *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 1.

C. neglecta is also the closest relative of sub-genome 2 (Fig. 6) with the largest difference

in structure the lack of fusion in *C. sativa*'s chromosomes 10 and 18 compared to *C. neglecta*'s

chromosome 5 and several additional areas of inversions within *C. neglecta*'s chromosome 3.

This suggests that the taxon that contributed *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 2 is or was a close relative

of *C. neglecta* that retained the ancestral chromosome structure of n = 7 reconstructed for the

genus by Mandáková et al. (2019). This taxon is currently unknown, but given that *C. neglecta*

was only recently described as a distinct species because of its morphological similarity to *C.*

microcarpa, it is possible that the taxon has been collected, but is similarly cryptic and not yet

identified as distinct from accessions of *C. microcarpa*.

***Camelina hispida* - an extant, paternal relative**

The varieties of *C. hispida* show a close phylogenetic relationship with *C. sativa's* sub-

genome 3 (Fig 7). There is extensive synteny among these genomes indicating strong

preservation of chromosome structure and gene order (e.g. Fig. 7). As in the comparisons

between *C. neglecta* and *C. sativa*'s genomes 1 and 2, three chromosomes appear to have

inversions, one of which is shared in comparisons with *A. lyrata* and potentially represents a

change since *C. sativa's* formation. While the phylogenies indicate that both varieties of *C.*

hispida share a common ancestor with *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 3, the frequency of TE elements

differs strongly between the two varieties and is responsible for the 12% larger 2C DNA content

of in *C. hispida* var. *hispida* (Martin et al. 2017).

The frequency of TEs and, in particular, shared *Helitrons* suggest *C. hispida* var.

hispida's genome may more closely resembles the genome that contributed *C. sativa's* sub-

genome 3. The frequency of TEs varies across *C. sativa*'s sub-genome's with sub-genome 3

having the highest number of these elements, at 40% of the sub-genome, compared to 30% in the

other two (Fig. 8., Table 6, SI Table 2). Among the diploids sequenced here this percentage is

closest to the percentage observed for *C. hispida* var. *hispida* (50%)*.* The largest portion of these

TEs by count, *Helitrons*, make up 15% of *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 3 and 16% of *C. hispida* var.

hispida's genome. *Helitrons* were first discovered in the genomes of *Arabidopsis thaliana*, *Oryza*

sativa L. and *Caenorhabditis elegans* Maupas (Kapitonov and Jurka 2001) and are the most

abundant TEs in *A. thaliana*'s genome. They make up the second largest TE portion of the

genome after the less numerous, but longer retro-elements such as *Copia* and *Gypsy* (Quesneville

2020). Hu et al. (2019) have suggested that, because *Helitron* density is highly evolutionarily

labile they could be used for species identification. In this case, we investigated whether they

may provide clues to which genome was more similar to that which contributed to the formation

of *C. sativa*. We used the software developed by Hu et al. (2019), EAHelitron, to determine

whether *Helitrons* detected in *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 3 were more often shared with *C. hispida*

var. *hispida* or *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora*. This indicated that 7.5% of the *Helitrons* in *C.*

sativa's sub-genome 3 are shared with *C. hispida* var. *hispida,* while 5.2% are shared with *C.*

hispida var. *grandiflora's* (Table 7, Fig. 9). This suggests that the genome that contributed *C.*

sativa's sub-genome 3 may have been was more similar to the genome of *C. hispida* var. *hispida*

with its higher TE content. However, it is also possible that with the large expansion of TEs in *C.*

hispida var. *hispida's* genome, shared *Helitrons* were more likely to be retained.

Here we see reduced TEs abundance and *Helitron* density in sub-genome 3 from levels

observed in *C. hispida* var. *hispida* and in sub-genome 1 compared to *C. neglecta*. However, one

expectation is that genomic shock and relaxed selection pressure following allopolyploidization

allows an increase in TE abundance (Parisod and Senerchia 2012; Vicient and Casacuberta

2017). For example, proliferation of TEs has been observed in allotetraploid *Coffea arabica* L..

Specifically, *copia* elements have increased the size of sub-genome C compared to that observed

in the diploid representative, *C. canephora* L., a representative of the progenitor genome (Yu et

al. 2011). Similarly, the transposon *Sunfish*, was observed to be released from repression in the

early generations of synthetic autopolyploids of *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *A. arenosa* (L.)

Lawalrée as well as their allopolyploid derivative *A. suecica* (Fries.) Norrlin. However, the same

was not true for other TE families in *A. suecica* (Madlung et al. 2005) and more recent work by

Burns et al. (2021) concluded there was no upregulation in transposon activity in *A. suecica*

compared to its ancestral species. Ågren et al. (2016) also determined that the allotetraploid

Capsella bursa-pastoris did not show genome wide TE proliferation compared to its progenitors,

though did note a higher abundance in retrotransposons in gene rich regions, and Sarilar et al.

(2013) determined that early generations of synthetic allotetraploid *Brassica napus,* did not show

increased activity in three groups of TEs. Interestingly, similar to our observation, Hu et al.

(2019) observed that *Helitron* density was also lower in the sub-genomes of the allotetraploid

Brassica napus L. compared to the extant representatives of the parental genomes *B. rapa* L. and

B. oleraceae L.. Here, the repeatome of *C. sativa* is less complete than that of the diploid

genomes assembled with long reads and this may mean that the *Helitrons* in *C. sativa*'s genome

are underrepresented. Alternatively, the diploid lineages may have seen proliferation of TEs

since *C. sativa's* formation. As in the systems explored above, resynthesis of *C. sativa,* could

determine whether the apparent changes are repeatable. Further, the variation in TE abundance

between *C. hispida* varieties and the presence of extant G1G3, *C. rumelica,* and G1G2, "*C.*

microcarpa 4x", tetraploids (Mandáková et al. 2019; Chaudhary et al. 2020) in addition to the

G1G2G3 hexaploid *C. sativa* provides an intriguing opportunity to use resynthesis to study TE

dynamics after allopolyploidization and investigate how if TE abundance contributes to sub-

genome dominance (Bird et al. 2018; Alger and Edger 2020).

The results presented by Žerdoner Čalasan et al. (Žerdoner Čalasan et al. 2019) suggest

that *C. anomala*, a taxon with unknown chromosome number, is sister to *C. hispida* raising the

possibility that this species could also be a close relative of *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 3. However,

the species has not been collected since the 1800s and remains largely a mystery.

Camelina laxa

Camelina laxa is morphologically distinct from the other taxa studied here with its

flexuous or zig-zagging stems and also has the most diverged genome from the ancestral

karyotype. It is clear from the phylogenetic evidence here and cytological evidence presented by

Mandáková et al. (2019) that *C. laxa* and *C. neglecta* represent separate transitions from n = 7 to

n = 6. In *C. laxa,* extensive chromosomal rearrangements occurred, resulting from chromosome

shattering, while in *C. neglecta* chromosome reduction resulted from the fusion of two

chromosomes (Mandáková et al. 2019). However, the position of *C. laxa* in the phylogenetic tree

was the least stable element across all analyses with two main alternatives, either as basal to all

other *Camelina* species sampled or as basal to the clade containing the varieties of *C. hispida* and

C. sativa's sub-genome 3. While Mandáková et al.'s (2019) analysis of 48 single copy genes

using ASTRAL placed *C. laxa* in a clade with *C. hispida*, the consensus from previous work is

that *C. laxa* should be considered basal to the other species of *Camelina*. For example, Brock et.

al. (2018)'s maximum likelihood consensus phylogeny constructed from ddRADseq for 48

specimens from gene bank material and field collections of *C. sativa*, *C. microcarpa* hexaploids,

C. rumelica, *C. laxa* and *C. hispida* placed *C. laxa* was basal to the other species. Similarly, a

neighbor joining tree produced using GBS data indicated *C. laxa* was basal except the G1G3

tetraploid *C. rumelica* (Chaudhary et al. 2020). Finally, in a more comprehensive analysis of the

Camelineae, which included *C. alyssum* (Mill.) Thell. and *C. anomala* Boiss. & Hausskn. ex

Boiss. as well as representatives from many other genera included in the tribe *Nelisa, Capsella,*

Arabidopsis, Catolobus, Pseudoarabidopsis, and *Chrysochamela*, Žerdoner Čalasan et al. (2019)

also placed *C. laxa* as basal to *Camelina*. As a result, the preponderance of evidence currently

suggests that this, more diverged lineage, is basal to the *Camelina*.

Conclusion

As domestication has decreased genetic variability in *C. sativa* accessions (Manca et al.

2013) other members of the genus might be of value for the improvement of *C. sativa*. Here our

results indicate that *C. neglecta* and *C. hispida* var. *hispida* could be useful species to investigate

variation in traits such as seed size, disease resistance and oil profiles. However, the collections

available for these species are limited and international efforts to collect and preserve a broader

selection of germplasm for the genus should be considered as we look to these species as sources

of desirable traits for the improvement of the crop species (Ford-Lloyd et al. 2011).

Data Availability

All assembled genomes are available from the National Center for Biotechnology

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relationships within the Brassicaceae: Focus on *Camelina*" (J-001029).

Table 1. Genome sizes (1C) as estimated from flow cytometry and the fold coverage (x) for the four genomes

sequenced here provided by long read data (PacBio and ONT) and short read data including Illumina paired-end

reads (PE) and Illumina mate pairs (MP) with upper limits of estimates of heterozygosity (H) and error rates (ER)

calculated by GenomeScope from the Illumina data.

SPECIES	GENOME SIZE (MB)	PACBIO	ONT	ILLUMINA		RAW COVERAGE	GENOMESCOPE	
				PE	MP		H	ER
Camelina neglecta	265	38	60	92	96	286	0.17%	0.08%
Camelina hispida var. *hispida*	355	38	53	52	-	143	1.09%	0.15%
Camelina hispida var. *grandiflora*	315	-	32	64	-	96	2.14%	0.15%
Camelina laxa	275	57	74	47	-	177	1.36%	0.24%

Table 2. Statistics on genome assemblies for *C. neglecta*, *C. hispida* var. *hispida*, *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora,* and *C. laxa* generated by QUAST and BUSCO based on the embryophyta_odb10 database before and after scaffolding. The initial assembly values for *C. hispida* and *C. laxa* are for assemblies following assembly by Canu and reduction in the number of alternative contigs resulting from the heterozygosity of these genomes by Purge Haplotigs. All assemblies were polished with Pilon. Addition metrics are 1) the haploidy score (HapPy) with 1 indicating perfect collapse, 2) the LTR Assembly Index (LAI) (LTR_retriever) with scores > 20 indicating gold quality, 3) final error rate (samtools), 4) number of SNPs (PRINCESS) and 5) final heterozygosity (PRINCESS).

	Camelina neglecta		*Camelina hispida* var. *hispida*		*Camelina hispida* var. *grandiflora*		*Camelina laxa*	
ASSEMBLY STRATEGY	CANU	HI-C	CANU & PURGE HAPLOTIGS	HI-C	CANU & PURGE HAPLOTIGS	NTJOIN	CANU & PURGE HAPLOTIGS	HI-C
contigs (>= 0 bp)	204	6	747	7	1,072	7	900	6
contigs (>= 10000 bp)	157	6	703	7	896	7	785	6
contigs (>= 50000 bp)	139	6	552	7	748	7	530	6
Total length (>= 0 bp)	210,252,877	194,776,448	305,512,316	283,171,403	247,512,955	247,668,533	223,800,267	199,991,310
Total length (>= 10000 bp)	210,014,359	194,776,448	305,328,622	283,171,403	247,070,138	247,668,533	223,546,568	199,991,310
Total length (>= 50000 bp)	209,462,969	194,776,448	301,174,771	283,171,403	242,642,354	247,668,533	217,296,729	199,991,310
Largest contig	19,486,679	48,079,882	6,147,326	45,593,769	3,518,166	41,100,942	4,931,297	39,604,730
Total length	210,252,877	194,726,046	305512316	283,171,403	247,512,955	247,668,533	223,800,267	199,991,310
Estimated genome size	265,000,000	265,000,000	360,000,000	360,000,000	320,000,000	320,000,000	275,000,000	275,000,000
Percent of Expected	79%	74%	85%	79%	77%	77%	81%	73%
N50	13,701,387	30,499,177	1053466	41,586,011	477,640	37,976,760	651,797	31,824,321
NG50	11,493,634	29,279,412	843316	39,460,631	346,627	30,680,265	477,199	31,147,072
N's per 100 kbp	-	1	-	16	-	32,233	-	20
BUSCO	2,121	2,121	2,121	2,121	2,121	2,121	2,121	2,121
Complete (%)	2,082 (98)	2,084 (98)	2055 (97)	2,025 (96)	2,063 (97)	1,901 (90)	2,079 (98)	2032 (96)
Complete Single Copy (%)	2,051 (97)	2,055 (97)	1938 (91)	1,971 (93)	1,863 (88)	1,853 (88)	1,939 (91)	1,978 (93)
Complete Duplicated (%)	31 (1)	29 (1)	117 (6)	54 (3)	200 (9)	48 (2)	140 (7)	54 (3)
Fragmented (%)	14 (<1)	14 (<1)	28 (1)	43 (2)	18 (<1)	65 (3)	14 (<1)	18 (<1)
Missing (%)	25 (1)	23 (1)	38 (2)	53 (3)	40 (2)	155 (7)	28 (1)	71 (3)
Haploidy Score		0.99		0.97		0.96		0.94
LAI		21.1		25.7		27.6		22.0
Error Rate		0.004		0.007		0.02		0.007
SNPs		420,396		1,564,682		1,813,558		1,488,895
Heterozygosity		0.002		0.006		0.007		0.008

582   **Table 3**. Distribution of the top three chromosomes with successful alignments of fragments from each of

583   *Arabidopsis lyrata*'s ACKs across the genome of *Camelina sativa* as determined by bowtie2 ordered by number of

584   hits.

ACK	ABK	*Camelina sativa* TOP CHROMOSOME	*Camelina sativa* 2nd CHROMOSOME	*Camelina sativa* 3rd CHROMOSOME
A	AK2	3	14	17
B	AK2	14	3	17
C	AK1	3	14	17
D	AK3	7	16	9
E	AK4	7	16	9
F	AK6	1	15	19
G	AK6	1	15	19
H	AK5	15	1	19
I	AK7	7	16	9
J	AK8	5	6	4
K	AK9	4	6	9
L	AK9	4	6	9
M	AK10	9	6	4
N	AK10	4	6	9
O	AK11	2	13	8
P	AK11	13	2	8
Q	AK12	8	13	20
R	AK12	8	13	20
S	AK13	10	11	12
T	AK14	10	11	12
U	AK14	11	12	10
V	AK15	11	20	18
W	AK16	18	11	2
X	AK16	11	2	18

Table 4. Summary of ACK and ABK groups across *Camelina sativa*'s chromosomes based on bowtie hits showing

preservation of ancestral genome structure across ABK regions, but movement of some regions across

chromosomes. Chromosomes were assigned to sub-genomes based on summary trees constructed by MrBayes

from the ACK fragments grouped by ABK using ASTRAL III. The normalized quartet score, indicating the similarity of

trees from individual fragments (out of one), produced by ASTRAL-III is presented. Sub-genome 1 was defined as

the genome with closest relationship to *C. neglecta* while sub-genome 3 was defined as that with the closest

relationship to the *C. hispida* varieties.

ACK	ABK	SUB-GENOME 1	SUB-GENOME 2	SUB-GENOME 3	FRAGMENTS IN GROUP	NORMALIZED QUARTET SCORE
ABC	AK1/2	14	3	17	262	0.78
DE	AK3/4	7	16	9	98	0.80
FGH	AK5/6	19	1	15	269	0.79
I	AK7	7	16	9	28	0.82
J	AK8	4	6	5	104	0.77
KLMN	AK9/10	4	6	9	115	0.79
OP	AK11	8	13	2	37	0.80
QR	AK12	8	13	20	180	0.79
STU	AK13/14	11	10	12	202	0.78
V	AK15	11	18	20	19	0.80
WX	AK16	11	18	2	130	0.78

594 **Table 5.** Sub-genome structure of *C. sativa* based on phylogenetic relationships of AKB regions and diploid
595 genomes determined here in comparison to the original structure proposed by Kagale et al. 2014.

	This Paper	**Kagale et al 2014.**
Sub-genome 1	Cs 14 Cs 07 Cs 19 Cs 04 Cs 08 Cs 11	Cs 17 Cs 16 Cs 15 Cs 04 Cs 13 Cs 11
Sub-genome 2	Cs 03 Cs 16 Cs 01 Cs 06 Cs 13 Cs 10 Cs 18	Cs 14 Cs 07 Cs 19 Cs 06 Cs 08 Cs 10 Cs 18
Sub-genome 3	Cs 17 Cs 15 Cs 09 Cs 05 Cs 02 Cs 20 Cs 12	Cs 03 Cs 05 Cs 01 Cs 09 Cs 20 Cs 02 Cs 12

597 **Table 6.** Results of *Helitron* (DHH) annotation by EAHelitron. *Helitron* density is calculated as the number of

598 *Helitrons* detected in the genome for each 1,000,000 bp.

SPECIES	HELITRONS	HELITRON DENSITY
Camelina neglecta	1877	9.6
Camelina hispida var. *hispida*	5776	20.4
Camelina hispida var. *grandiflora*	2933	11.8
Camelina laxa	937	4.6
Camelina sativa sub-genome 1	1220	6.1
Camelina sativa sub-genome 2	1024	5.8
Camelina sativa sub-genome 3	3395	14.7
Arabidopsis lyrata	3242	16.7
Arabidopsis thaliana	665	5.6
Capsella rubella	1826	14.1
Capsella grandiflora	226	2.1
Capsella bursa-pastoris	2576	9.6
Neslia paniculata	1003	8.9

600 **Table 7.** The number of shared *Helitrons* detected by EAHelitron in *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 3 within regions of

601 synteny among *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 3, *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora,* and *C. hispida* var. *hispida* chromosome.

C. sativa CHROMOSOME	*C. sativa* *HELITRON* COUNT	*HELITRONS* SHARED WITH		COMMON *HELITRONS*
		C. hispida var. *grandiflora*	*C. hispida* var. *hispida*	
Cs 17	516	24	31	9
Cs 09	518	29	41	17
Cs 15	456	27	38	7
Cs 05	513	27	59	14
Cs 12	505	21	35	12
Cs 02	496	27	29	9
Cs 20	391	23	25	7
Total	3395	178	258	75

Fig 1. Species Trees. These species trees were produced by ASTRAL-III using a multi-species coalescent model and trees produced by MrBayes for each fragment identified by bowtie 2's alignment of sequence fragments from *A. lyrata*. These are grouped within eleven ABK groups that correspond to either whole ancestral chromosomes or chromosome arms, that have been largely conserved. The ACK(s) included in each tree are indicated in the box to the left of each tree and the ancestral chromosome structure with division into ACK and ABK is shown in the lower right.

Fig. 2. Density tree plots. Density tree plots of 1,000 randomly chosen tree estimated by StarBEAST2 for a set of A) fragment sequences, and B) genes, C) two sets of reciprocal gene sequences.

Fig. 3. Consensus networks. The consensus networks generated with PhyloNet using one set of reciprocal gene sequences (A) and the three most credible networks contributing to this consensus (B-D) with the percentage of credible networks represented.

Fig 4. Trees from OrthoFinder. Phylogenetic trees generated by OrthoFinder based on *in silico* predictions of amino acids produced by AUGUSTUS A) a consensus of 14,513 gene trees with an inferred root and B) a concatenated multiple sequence alignment of 7,401 shared, single-copy genes. Node labels indicate support values for each bipartition with the higher levels of support for the concatenated data expected for the type of analysis.

Fig. 5. Chloroplast Based Phylogeny. Phylogeny constructed from whole chloroplast alignment using MrBayes. Node labels indicate posterior probabilities.

Fig. 6. Synteny Plots with *C. neglecta* and *C. sativa*'s sub-genomes 1 and 2. Plots indicating regions of synteny as indicated by nucmer between *C. neglecta*, with *A. lyrata* (A), *C. sativa*'s sub-genomes (B, C, E) and between *A. lyrata and C. sativa's sub-genomes* (D, F). Plot B is coloured by alignment with *A. lyrata's* chromosomes, analogs for the ancestral chromosomes.

Fig. 7. Synteny Plots with *C. hispida* var. *hispida*, *C. laxa* and *C. sativa* sub-genome 3. Plots indicating regions of synteny as indicated by nucmer among the diploid *Camelina* species *C. hispida* var. *hispida* and *C. laxa* with *C. sativa*'s sub-genomes (A, D, G, H) and with *A. lyrata* (B, E , I). Synteny between *C. sativa* sub-genomes and *A. lyrata* are shown for comparison (C, F). Plot B and F are coloured by alignment with *A. lyrata's* chromosomes, analogs for the ancestral chromosomes.

Fig. 8. Transposable Element Types and Abundance. Types of transposable elements (TE) in A) *Camelina neglecta*, B) *C. laxa*, C) *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora*, D) *C. hispida* var. *hispida*, E) *Arabidopsis lyrata*, F) *C. sativa* sub-genome 1, G) *C. sativa* sub-genome 2, and H) *C. sativa* sub-genome 3, as annotated by Extensive De novo Transposable Element (EDTA). Pie graphs are scaled by the percentage of the genome attributed to TEs which at highest is 49.6% for *C. hispida* var. *hispida* (D). Classification of transposable element type follows the unified classification system for eukaryotic transposable elements that uses a three letter code indicating class, order and superfamily (34). Here these are divided into three groups: DNA transposons (DNA), which includes *Helitrons* (DHH); long terminal repeats (LTR), which includes retrotransposons RLC (*Copia*) and RLG (*Gypsy*); and miniature inverted transposable elements (MITES).

Fig. 9. *Helitron* Ideogram and Abundance. A) Density of *Helitrons* identified by EAHelitron across the sub-genome 3 of *C. sativa* with the locations of *Helitrons* shared by *C. hispida* var. *hispida*, *C. hispida* var. *grandiflora* or both indicated and B) Venn diagram of the number of *Helitrons* shared among *C. hispida* var. *hispida, C. hispida* var. *grandiflora* , and *C. sativa*'s sub-genome 3.

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