Title

Assessment of an organ-specific *de novo* transcriptome

of the nematode trap-crop, *Solanum sisymbriifolium.*

Authors/Affiliations

Alexander Q Wixom[a], N. Carol Casavant[a], Joseph C Kuhl[a], Fangming Xiao[a], Louise-Marie

Dandurand[b], and Allan B Caplan[a*]

[a]Department of Plant Sciences, University of Idaho, Moscow, ID 83844-2333

[b]Department of Entomology, Plant Pathology, and Nematology, University of Idaho, Moscow, ID

83844-2329

Contact

*Corresponding author e-mail: acaplan@uidaho.edu

Running Title

Running title: A *de novo S. sisymbriifolium* transcriptome

Abstract

Solanum sisymbriifolium, also known as "Litchi Tomato" or "Sticky Nightshade," is an undomesticated and poorly researched plant related to potato and tomato. Unlike the latter species, *S. sisymbriifolium* induces eggs of the cyst nematode, *Globodera pallida*, to hatch and migrate into the roots, but then arrests further maturation. In order to provide researchers with a partial blueprint of its genetic make-up so that this response might be identified, we used single molecule real time (SMRT) sequencing to compile a high quality *de novo* transcriptome of 41,189 unigenes drawn from individually sequenced bud, root, stem, and leaf RNA populations. Functional annotation and BUSCO analysis showed that this transcriptome was surprisingly complete, even though it represented genes expressed at a single time point. By sequencing the 4 organ libraries separately, we found we could get a reliable snapshot of transcript distributions in each organ. Applying single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) analysis to the merged transcriptome indicated that this species has undergone a recent genome duplication and re-diploidization. Unexpectedly, the plant then retained a disproportionate number of genes associated with photosynthesis and amino acid metabolism in comparison to genes with characteristics of R-proteins or involved in secondary metabolism. The former processes may have given *S. sisymbriifolium* a bigger competitive advantage than the latter did.

Introduction

   Solanum sisymbriifolium (SSI), otherwise known as "litchi tomato", "*morelle de Balbis*", or "sticky nightshade", is an undomesticated relative of potato and tomato. For more than a decade, SSI has been investigated as a trap-crop (a plant that attracts nematodes but kills them before they can reproduce) for nematodes such as *Globodera pallida* that normally parasitize potatoes and tomatoes (Timmermans, 2005; Dandurand and Knudsen, 2016). It is also a potential source of anti-protozoan (Meyre-Silva *et al.,* 2013) and anti-molluscan (Bagalwa *et al.,* 2010) metabolites. If the genetic basis for these protective processes could be identified, it might be possible to transfer these traits, either through cross-breeding or through modern transgenic technologies, from this weed to its domesticated relatives. However, while the genomes of potato and tomato have been studied extensively, spiny solanums, like SSI, have not (Yang *et al.,* 2014). Only 54 SSI nucleotide sequences have been submitted to NCBI as of 2016. This ignorance about the biology and genetics of the spiny solanums could be masking a wealth of genetic resources that could be used to protect agriculturally important crops.

   Most bioinformatic analyses of a species begins with the assembly and annotation of a complete genome. Once assembled, these data can be searched for genes encoding a particular protein or RNA sequence. For those working on a species that has not been studied extensively in the past, and which is only being studied now in order to conduct a limited number of experiments, whole genome sequencing can be more expensive and time consuming than can be justified. In these instances, alternative methods using sequencing technologies, generally referred to as next-generation sequencing (NGS), have allowed researchers to by-pass whole genome sequencing in favor of generating a smaller database, one depleted of the silent regions of the genome and of genes that are not contributing to the phenotypes of interest. Most commonly, this is done using Illumina or 454 platforms that generate 10's and 100's of millions of short reads from cDNA copies of all of the mRNAs expressed during a given moment of time. Once obtained, these sequences can then be merged *in silico* into full length protein coding sequences. However, this *de novo* transcriptome can sometimes prove problematic. Short reads derived from highly conserved coding domains and repetitively organized genes can potentially be aligned and joined into chimeric assemblies that cannot be verified or removed because there is no independently

sequenced genome available to serve as an extended template or scaffold to ensure that the
merged sequences are indeed co-linear (Yang and Smith, 2013). A recent technical
improvement, Pacific Biosciences' single-molecule real-time (SMRT) "sequencing by
synthesis" strategy, has become sufficiently accurate and attainably priced to be utilized by
small research groups. The benefit of using SMRT sequencing is that it produces vastly
longer reads than previous methodologies, although with lower coverage (Eid *et al.,* 2009).
The longer reads allow researchers to establish a transcriptome consisting of nearly complete
open reading frames free of the kinds of errors possible when sequences must be assembled
in silico from short reads (Ocwieja *et al.,* 2012; Zhang *et al.,* 2014).

The specific goal of the current project was to establish a four organ (bud, leaf, stem
and root) *de novo* transcriptome of SSI. In doing so, we wanted to ensure that the final
sequences were high-quality and consisted of genes that were biologically relevant and not
artifacts of some *in silico* process. This transcriptome will provide a reference library to be
used in future RNA-seq experiments to identify genes for nematode and other pathogen
resistances in SSI.

Results

Establishing an Illumina and 454 Sequenced Transcriptome

Before any sequencing was attempted, the genome size of SSI was estimated using flow cytometry (Supplemental Figure 1). This showed that the genome mass of SSI was approximately 4.73 pg per 2C, or 2,315 mega-base pairs per 1C. By comparison, Arumuganathan and Earle, 1991) using the same technology estimated that the tomato genome massed between 1.88 to 2.07 pg per 2C and tetraploid potato between 3.31 to 3.86 pg per 2C. Therefore, SSI had a genome size greater than tetraploid potato. Despite their unusual length (Paul and Banerjee, 2015), SSI has 24 chromosomes, like diploid potatoes and many other Solanaceae (data not shown). Due to the size of this genome, and our interest in generating a database of protein-coding genes, we elected to sequence the SSI transcriptome rather than its genome.

The first attempt at generating an SSI transcriptome was done using a combination of Illumina and Roche 454 technologies. Each was used to compensate for the different types of mistakes inherent in the technology of the other, such as errors in sequence interpretation of homopolymer regions with 454, and in GGC motifs with Illumina (Loman *et al.,* 2012; Luo *et al.,* 2012). Plant material was harvested from leaves, roots, stems, and buds of uninfected plants growing in hydroponic solution, and RNA was extracted following protocols established in Casavant *et al.,* 2017). RNA from each organ was converted to cDNA and normalized. The normalized pools were then blended in equal amounts and sequenced in separate batches using Illumina MiSeq 2x300 and Roche 454 platforms. The 454 3' library consisted of 632,108 reads while the 454 5' library provided 326,451 reads. The Illumina library sequenced 31,310,146 reads (15,655,073 read pairs) which was digitally normalized to reduce redundant reads that could hinder efficient assembly. This normalization used a coverage cutoff of 30 and a kmer size of 20 to reduce the number of reads to 8,891,416 reads (4,446,708 read pairs). All remaining read pairs were then mapped to the chloroplast genome of *Solanum tuberosum*, and the unmapped reads that remained were used for assembly.

The assembly was performed using a Eurofins in-house script which included Velvet (v1.2.10) and Oases (v0.2.08). Further details of the assembly can be found in Materials and

Methods. This created a set of 351,982 contigs containing 148,324 transcripts with a GC

content of 39.1% which was then reduced at a 99% identity using CD-HIT-EST to produce

a final set of 102,226 unigenes that collectively had a GC content of 39.1% (Supplemental

Table 1). This GC content was slightly lower than expected when compared with other

Solanum species, such as potato (40.1%) and tomato (40.7%). This, added to the fact that

the number of unigene transcripts exceeded the expected number of genes for plants of this

family which has been estimated to range between 35,000−40,000 genes (Mueller *et al.,*

2009; Gálvez *et al.,* 2016) created a need to check the quality of the sequencing and assembly

processes.

Bioinformatic assessment of the SSI transcriptome

Our transcriptome represented a "snap-shot" of the metabolic pathways operating in

a single healthy plant growing in hydroponic medium. In order to judge whether the data we

obtained contained representatives of the sequences that have been found in other species,

we performed an annotation of it using Mercator (Lohse *et al.,* 2014). Mercator weights the

annotations in its database by the reliability of the source material. One of this program's

additional advantages is that it also bins the sequences based on the molecular pathway in

which they are most likely to participate (Supplemental Figure 2). In general, the percentage

of the SSI sequences binning to each functional class was similar to the percentages binned

using the much more intensively studied tomato and potato transcriptomes despite the fact

that we had sampled RNA from only 4 organs during a single phase of growth. Not only

were the percentages of "classifiable" genes in each of these species similar, but so too was

the percentage of "Not assigned" sequences as seen in Supplemental Figure 3. Finally, we

carried out one further commonly employed quality check using PfamScan (Finn *et al.,*

2008). PfamScan is a set of scripts that uses HMMer (Eddy, 1998) which is a domain

annotation program. This program in combination with protocols established by (Sarris

et al., 2016), allowed for the annotation of domains found in the amino acid sequences

translated from the assembled transcriptome. Here, too, all three species showed very similar

percentages of sequences without an annotated domain, as can be seen in Supplemental Table

2.

Evidence-based Quality Control of Illumina/454 Transcriptome

The conventional sequence assembly analyses that we performed left nearly 50% of the SSI sequences unannotated (Supplemental Figure 3). While this was not inconsistent with previous studies (Yang *et al.,* 2014), it was high, and could obstruct future searches for SSI genes. Thus, in addition to comparing our sequences with those of other species, we performed an internal quality check by sequencing 45 randomly chosen clones from a cDNA library using Sanger Dye Deoxy technology (ABI 3730, Applied Biosystems). Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) was then used to find the most likely equivalent of each clone in the Illumina/454 assembly. A manual comparison of the Sanger-sequenced clone and the assembled transcript was done using DNA Strider (Marck, 1988). This revealed that out of 45 randomly selected clones, only 35 were found in the Illumina/454 assembled transcripts (Figure 1A). Of these 35, only 19 of the clones were identical to at least 1 sequence in the transcriptome database. and more worryingly, 16 appeared to be chimeric (Figure 1B). After consideration of alternative explanations, we concluded these chimeras were generated through computational misassembly of short-read data.

Establishing a SMRT sequenced transcriptome

The chimericism found in many of the transcriptome sequences would unquestionably hinder future attempts to use this database as a reference library for gene identification. For this reason, we turned to a newer generation of sequencing, called Single-Molecule Real Time (SMRT) sequencing by PacBio Sciences (Eid *et al.,* 2009) that does not need to assemble short reads into one contiguous sequence. Rather than producing short reads of up to 500 bp, SMRT provides reads up to 60,000 bp along a single molecule. This allows the capture of entire genes with one read rather than chunking it into many small bits that have to be assembled later. This sequencing strategy gives higher coverage than Sanger-based reactions like those performed on Applied Biosystems™ gene analysis instruments, and longer reads than Illumina/454. With SMRT technology, bases are checked with the read coverage, and the sequence of entire genes can be obtained in single reads.

The Iso-Seq pipeline classifies the sequences as either full-length non-chimeric (FLNC), or non-full length reads. Full length reads are those containing both 5' and 3' adapters, in addition to the poly(A) tail. The reads containing these parts in the expected

order, i.e. 5' adapter–poly(A)–3' adapter, with no additional copies of these parts, are

classified as non- chimeric. The FLNC reads were corrected with the non-full length reads

using Iterative Cluster for Error correction and the Pacific Biosciences Quiver algorithm

(https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/SMRT-Analysis/wiki/ConsensusTools-v2.3.0-

Documentation).

In an attempt to improve our ability to detect differences in the suites of genes

expressed in different parts of the plant, we generated cDNA from 4 organs; leaves, stems,

roots, and unopened flower buds. We then independently carried out SMRT sequencing of

all 4 samples. Finally, all corrected FLNC reads were merged *in silico* and redundancy was

removed using CD-HIT-EST.

This SMRT sequencing strategy created 231,712 total corrected full-length non-

chimeric (FLNC) sequences (Table 1) using the aforementioned pipeline. These sequences

had a GC content of 41.2% which was slightly higher than the estimate of 40.9% that had

been based on Illumina/454 sequencing. CD-HIT-EST was used to reduce the redundant

sequences to sets with 100% identity. This lowered the number of sequences to 139,611 with

a GC content of 41.0%. The GC content continued to decrease further as the identity was

reduced using CD-HIT-EST. At 80% identity, there were 32,315 sequences, with an

estimated GC content of 39.7%. The decrease in GC content could be due to the methodology

of CD-HIT-EST that retains the longest sequence during the reduction process. Because of

this, reads that spanned untranslated regions of a transcript were expected to be favored over

those only consisting of coding regions.

In the end, we chose to work with a final SMRT dataset that had been reduced to 90%

identity and consisted of a set of 41,189 sequences with a GC content of 39.9%. We judged

that this estimate of the number of transcripts present in the 4 organs would most likely err

on the high side, yet still retain most splice variants within a gene, as well as many paralogs

and single nucleotide polymorphisms between alleles of this obligate outbreeder.

Evidence based Quality Control of the SMRT Transcriptome

We conducted the same quality checks on this provisional transcriptome that had

been performed on the previous Illumina/454 assembly. A search for *in silico* homologs of

the cDNA clones used previously revealed a much higher concordance then the assembled

short read sequences to which they had initially been compared. Firstly, all 45 cDNAs were found in the SMRT transcriptome (Figure 1C). Secondly, only two of these SMRT-derived sequences were chimeric (Figure 1D), and based on their short lengths, could have been transcribed from different members of the same gene family rather than been created by misassembly. During our analysis of the SMRT transcriptome, we did find entries that consisted of inverted repeats of entire gene sequences. These inverted repeats likely occurred during the preparation of the cDNA library prior to sequencing rather than during sequencing or subsequent computational processing.

When the SMRT transcriptome was analyzed using Mercator, there was an increase in annotated sequences compared to the Illumina/454 assembly. The SMRT transcriptome had 38.6% unannotated sequences. This was markedly fewer than the percent unannotated sequences of either potato (50.8%) or tomato (46.4%) transcriptomes processed in the same way via Mercator (Supplemental Figure 3). Other than that, the binned profile of SSI was very similar to the published transcriptomes (Supplemental Figure 2) of these plants. This led us to believe that our transcriptome was at least of comparable quality with the working transcriptomes of these two better studied species, and may have contained fewer chimeric sequences than transcriptomes assembled only from Illumina/454 data.

PfamScan was also used to annotate the domains of the SMRT transcriptome. This annotated 88.6% of the SMRT transcriptome with at least one recognizable domain. There were fewer unannotated sequences in the SSI SMRT transcriptome than in the original Illumina/454 version. Although the original number of unannotated sequences in the SMRT data compared to STU and SLY transcriptomes (Supplemental Table 2), we now believe many of those in the Illumina/454 database were chimeras. The reduced number of unannotated sequences found in the SMRT transcriptome, compared to STU and SLY, might reflect the fact that this set had undergone a conservative reduction to 90% identity. Alternatively, the reduced number of unannotated SSI sequences could have resulted from the fact that we had only sampled a "normally" growing plant, that is, plants manifesting a physiological state which has been extensively studied in numerous species, while the STU and SLY transcriptomes were compiled from plants sampled over a much broader range of life-history stages and growth conditions ranging from fruit and tuber development to exposure to biotic and abiotic stresses where the functions of many genes are still under

238 investigation.

239   To further test the quality and completeness of our transcriptome, BUSCO
benchmarking (Simão *et al.,* 2015) was performed. The BUSCO database was established to
allow researchers to assess the completeness of newly completed genome or transcriptomes
based on the detection of a set of universal, single-copy orthologs. We found 93% intact
BUSCO archetypes (889 genes) in the SSI SMRT transcriptome, 30.2% (289) of these were
found in multiple copies, while an additional 2.2% (21) of the BUSCO archetypes were
present in fragments, and 4.8% (46) were missing entirely (Table 2). These numbers
representing genes expressed during a single growth condition of SSI, were only somewhat
different than the numbers of BUSCO archetypes found in the entire SMRT sequenced
genome of *A. thaliana*.

249   SSI has the same number of chromosomes as most other Solanaceae, and does not
appear to be polyploid (data not shown), yet the BUSCO analysis showed that SSI had more
duplicate copy archetypes than diploid and tetraploid potato. This high number of similar
sequences could point to the fact that our transcriptome hasn't been reduced far enough, or
could be one line of evidence that SSI has undergone extensive genome duplication or
hybridization in the past. This latter hypothesis was evaluated by SNP analysis as has been
done with plants such as wheat (Krasileva *et al.,* 2013). When the program Freebayes
(Garrison and Marth, 2012) was run using a defined diploid setting, it output information
stating there were genes that had more than 2 alleles (or paralogues). We redid the analysis
using a defined tetraploid setting and found 44 genes with 4 alleles (Table 3). It is noteworthy
that no gene had more than 4 alleles. A simple explanation for these multiple alleles is that
SSI underwent a genome duplication followed by diploidization in the past and that over
time, some of the duplicated loci acquired additional mutations while other loci were lost.
To determine if this proposed duplication was restricted to one chromosome, or one
chromosomal arm, the 44 genes with 4 alleles were mapped onto SLY chromosomes
(Supplemental Table 3). There were 4–allele genes found on 11 of 12 SLY chromosomes
which indicated, assuming that genes dispersed in tomato did not become linked when the
two species diverged, that SSI has undergone a full genome duplication rather than a
segmental duplication within one chromosome.

268   Since SSI is not as well-known as other Solaneacae, we employed OrthoMCL v2.0.9

(Li *et al.,* 2003) to illustrate some of the common features its gene complement showed with

those of other plants. Protein sequences from our SSI transcriptome (translated using the

program ESTScan (Iseli *et al.,* 1999)), and protein sequences from tomato (SLY), potato

(STU), eggplant (SME), *Arabidopsis thaliana* (ATH), papaya (CPA), grapes (VVI), peaches

(PPE), black cottonwood (PTR), oranges (CSI), alfalfa (MTR), maize (ZMA) and rice (OSA)

were merged into 45,234 orthologous groups (gene families). In this set, 6097 orthologous

groups were shared by all 13 species, an overlap well within the range of previous studies

(Figure 2) (Yang *et al.,* 2014). Each species had many additional groups that were not shown

in this diagram because they were not shared with all members of this set of plants.

Interestingly, even closely related species like SSI, STU, SLY, and SME had hundreds of

groups not found in each other. When the annotations of the SSI unique set were compared

to the full transcriptome, several functional groups showed a disproportionate increase. It is

possible that these disproportionately expanded sets, that included photosynthetic genes, and

genes for amino acid and vitamin metabolism, diverged so much more than groups such as

those for cell wall composition, and hormone and secondary metabolism, was because

expansion of the former traits gave SSI a competitive edge over other species in their habitat

(Supplemental Figure 4). Overall, though, there were fewer groups of genes unique to SSI

than unique to STU and SME. As noted previously, this could merely reflect the fact that our

data came from a single-point snapshot of only 4 organs and so would have lacked those

transcripts specifically expressed during fruit and seed set, germination, senescence, abiotic

stress, pathogen attacks, and numerous other stages of a plant's lifecycle.

Using highly conserved orthologous genes, i.e. subunits of Rubisco, provisional

phylogenies were created for nuclear-encoded and chloroplast-encoded genes using the

aforementioned species (data not shown). In doing so, we concluded that nuclear SSI was

most closely related to eggplant, which has been noted previously (Särkinen *et al.,* 2015),

while chloroplast SSI was more closely related to tomato. This dichotomy has also been seen

by others (Miz *et al.,* 2008) and interpreted to indicate that SSI had undergone an ancient

hybridization and afterwards retained the chloroplast genome from one parent, and much of

the nuclear genome from another, however, many more SSI genes will have to be compared

with the genes of many more South American plants to confirm that this hybridization

occurred.

Building a snapshot of organ-associated gene expression

Since we had maintained separate cDNA pools from individual organs, it was possible to backtrack each sequence within the final transcriptome to obtain a provisional profile of gene expression throughout the plant (Figure 3A). This analysis showed that there were 8019 sequences expressed solely in buds, 4957 solely in roots, 5349 solely in leaves, 4198 solely in stems, and 7212 sequences expressed in all tissues. That left 11,538 sequences that were expressed in more than one organ but not in all 4.

This backtracking allowed us to construct an expression snapshot that showed how different genes were being expressed at the time the organs were harvested. Using several in-house Python scripts, we recorded the number of reads for genes that had common annotations for several different physiological processes.

A set of light-harvesting complex genes (LHC-I) were predictably found in aerial organs with few exceptions (Figure 3B), demonstrating that the backtracking program could extract biologically useful information about sequences with specified characteristics from the merged transcriptome. In order to determine if this kind of analysis of SMRT sequences could categorize the expression of very different sets of genes, we constructed an inter-organ expression profile of genes that encoded both a leucine-rich repeat (LRR) domain together and a nucleotide binding (NB-ARC) domain (Figure 3C), a pairing frequently found in pathogen resistance genes (R-genes). A profile of R-gene prevalence in SSI, potato, and tomato indicates there is a reduction of these genes in the SMRT transcriptome compared to the other two species (Table 4). Three of these potential R-genes were then assayed by semi-quantitative PCR (primers found in Supplemental Table 4) and quantified using a sample of cDNA from the same pool that had been sequenced, and a sample from an independently-prepared, unsequenced cDNA pool (Figure 4). In order to assess whether a SMRT data set could be a reliable indicator of gene expression, both the *in silico* and PCR measurements of gene expression were normalized in kind to an actin sequence (*ssAct7)*. The physical measurements of expression of two of the three genes matched the expression snapshot extremely well, but the third gene (Ssi038051) was more abundant in stems and buds than expected based on its SMRT expression snapshot. This confirms that whole transcriptome snapshots can provide a provisional picture of organ differences in gene expression, but

331   further shows that the expression of each gene of interest needs to be verified by independent

332   tests.

Discussion

The creation of a *de novo* transcriptome necessitates massive amounts of follow-up

analyses, both *in silico* and biologically, to estimate its reliability.

We initially employed both Illumina and 454 sequencing in order to compensate for

the different kinds of errors to which each method was prone (Luo *et al.,* 2012). Our raw

data using these methods had an average coverage of 30, but after it was assembled *de novo*

using Velvet and Oases, many of the products were unexpectedly long, some being more

than 24.5 kb in length. We were concerned that such unusually long sequences were artifacts

of the assembly process. Further examination revealed that a number of randomly chosen

sequences lacked full-length open reading frames, and seemed to be chimeras consisting of

functionally disparate domains. More tellingly, 40% of the genes randomly selected from an

SSI cDNA library failed to match any of the assembled sequences in our short-read database

(Figure 1B). We do not know whether all *de novo* transcriptomes are prone to misassembly,

but the presence of misassembled sequences in a database is certainly not unique to the

current study (Yang and Smith, 2013). A number of factors are known to exasperate

misassembly including the presence of large gene families and of repeatedly occurring kmers

in the dataset (Moreton *et al.,* 2015). Even though we did not sequence the SSI genome, we

found 4 lines of evidence indicating that it might be complex enough to pre-dispose our

transcriptome to these kinds of mistakes. First, the nuclear DNA content of SSI was larger

than most diploid Solanaceae, roughly the same size as a tetraploid potato (Supplemental

Figure 1).   Second, SNP analysis indicated that the SSI transcriptome was highly

heterologous and contained 3 and 4 distinguishable alleles for many genes (Table 3). Third,

putative R-genes, which contain a nucleotide binding domain (NB-ARC) and a leucine-rich

repeat domain (LRR), amounted to only 67 genes in the SMRT sequenced dataset compared

to the 301 genes appearing in the Illumina/454 (Table 4). Finally, an unusually high

percentage of the BUSCO gene set were present in multiple copies in SSI even though our

transcriptome could only consist of a portion of all the genes that are likely to be encoded in

its DNA (Table 2). One model consistent with these 4 facts was that SSI had, sometime in

the past, undergone a partial or complete genome duplication. Over time, as diploidy was re-

established, some of the duplicated alleles or paralogues diverged, while others were lost.

Nevertheless, enough of the expanded gene families remained to confound the alignment

programs that tried to differentiate between their members. While these kinds of errors might be correctable with the use of other assembly programs, we chose, instead to create an assembly-independent transcriptome using SMRT technology.

At the moment, SMRT technology does not provide the sequence coverage that can be obtained with Illumina/454 sequencing. In order to increase our chances of sampling uncommon organ-specific transcripts, we prepared independent cDNA pools from 4 parts of the plant. Using an in-house script (https://github.com/AlexWixom/Transcriptome_scripts), we were able to increase the value of the final library by generating expression snapshots for genes of interest in each organ. These expression snapshots are no substitute for a more thorough RNA-seq study, but they do provide a preliminary assessment of a plant's biology at the time of harvest. Using these snapshots, we recognized different patterns of expression of individual LHC-1 genes (Figure 3B) within the photosynthetic parts of the plant. We also saw that 2 of the 3 R-genes re-examined by PCR showed the same expression pattern in two independent RNA and cDNA preparations as found in the transcriptome itself (Figure 4). Thus, in the absence of RNA-seq studies or experimental evidence for the role of a specific locus, this kind of library assembly could be used to direct researchers to the subset of R-genes most likely responsible for the resistance in a given organ.

R-genes coding for recognition proteins are commonly perceived as sentinels that would be awaiting activation by molecules introduced during infection (Jones and Dangl, 2006). Therefore, the reduced number of R-genes found in SSI (67), compared to both potato (309), or tomato (137) was unexpected based on the seemingly enriched protective responses in SSI. This discrepancy could be explained in any one of several ways. First, SSI might be using proteins with novel domain structures in place of classic R-genes. Second, sequencing depth might simply have been inadequate to capture all R-genes that were actually being expressed at low levels. Finally, SSI could be relying on rapidly inducing transcription of R-genes after an infection has occurred. Any one of these hypotheses is worthy of continuing analysis.

With this transcriptome as an example, we have established a protocol that opens the door to further genetic mining of previously uncharacterized species. The completeness of our database indicates that *de novo* transcriptomes not only provide an economical and time-saving way to study a new species, but can also provide expression data that could not be

395   gleaned from a genomic sequence.

Materials and Methods

Plant and Culture Conditions

S. sisymbriifolium (SSI) seeds obtained from C. Brown (USDA-ARS, Prosser WA) were germinated in soil. Nodes from a single plant were sterilized for 20 min using 10% NaClO with 0.05% Tween20. Plant material was then washed 3x with sterile distilled H2O and put into 120 mL baby food jars containing standard Murashige and Skoog salts, pH 5.6, 3% sucrose, 0.7% agar, 100 µg mL^{-1} myo-inositol, 2.0 µg mL^{-1} glycine, 1 µg mL^{-1} thiamine, 0.5 µg mL^{-1} pyridoxine, and 0.5 µg mL^{-1} nicotinic acid. A single plant was chosen as the progenitor of all of the plants used in this study. All of its descendants were maintained at 25˚C in 16 h light, and subcultured vegetatively every 4 wk. Over the course of the project, rooted clones with at least 4-6 leaves were put into 2 L of hydroponic medium (Yoshida *et al.,* 1976), referred to here as Fake Field. Each container was diffusely aerated through an aquarium stone, maintained at constant volume by the addition of distilled water, and emptied and refilled with fresh hydroponic medium every 7 d. Hydroponic containers were maintained at 22˚C, 16 h light with an irradiance level of 0.0006 W m^{-2}. Illumination was provided by GE Lighting Fluorescent lamps (13781, F96T12/CW/1500). After a 2 wk lag-time, plants began producing 1-3 new leaves each wk, and flowered continuously afterwards. All experiments were performed on plants that had not been infected or wounded in any way previously.

RNA extraction

RNA was extracted from SSI bud, stem, leaf, and root and infected root organs adapted from the protocol in Casavant *et al.,* 2017). Adaptions included use of a coffee grinder to homogenize tissue with the addition of dry ice to maintain RNA integrity.

Genome size estimation by Flow Cytometry

Healthy green leaf tissues were collected from SSI plantlets growing *in vitro*. Roughly 1cm^2 (0.01g or less) of leaf was chopped in 1mL ice cold LB01 buffer for 1.5-2 min (Doležel *et al.,* 1989). The LB01 buffer contained 50µg mL^{-1} RNase stock and 50µg mL^{-1} propidium iodide (25% PI stock in DMSO) per mL of LB01. Each sample was chopped

with a fresh razor blade in a clean Pyrex petri plate. The finely chopped suspension was then

filtered through a 50µm nylon mesh filter (Partec 04-0042-2317). This filtered suspension

was kept in the dark at 4˚C for between 15-90 min before it was analyzed.

Genome size estimations were made using a BD FACSARIA Flow Cytometer

(IBEST Imaging Core, University of Idaho, Moscow, ID, USA). A green laser at 488nm was

used to excite the propidium iodide stained cells and was then collected in the PE-A channel.

Thresholds for PE-A were set at 1,000 and FSC at 500. The voltages were set so the major

peak (2C) of the SSI samples were near 50,000 on the linear scale. Four suspensions were

made from separate donor plants once a day for three consecutive days. Two replicates of

two external standards were also used daily in addition to the 4 SSI samples. External

standards included *Solanum lycopersicum cv.* Stupicke polni tyckove rane (2C= 1.96 pg

DNA) and *Glycine max* cv. Polanka (2C= 2.50 pg DNA) (Doležel *et al.,* 1992; Doležel *et al.,*

1994) which were chosen because their genome sizes were in the expected range of SSI. One

repetition of internal standards was run using tomato and soybean. DNA content was

estimated using the equation described by Doležel *et al.,* 2007).

Illumina and 454 Sequencing and *de novo* Transcriptome Assembly

Extracted total RNA from each previously stated organ was sent to Eurofins

Genomics (Ebersberg, Germany) for library preparation and sequencing. Prior to library

preparation, quality control (QC) was performed on individual tubes of RNA and equal

aliquots of each preparation were blended into one pool. The Illumina library cDNA was

prepared using randomly-primed first and second strand synthesis, followed by gel sizing

and PCR amplification. The library was then physically normalized and found to have insert

sizes of 250-450 bp.

Two libraries were prepared for 454 sequencing. The 3'-fragment cDNA library was

pre- pared using polydT and synthesis, followed by gel sizing, PCR amplification, library

purification and QC. The 5'-fragment library for 454 was prepared by dephosphorylating the

mRNA, cleaving the 5'-cap structure and ligating a 5'-synthetic RNA adaptor. This was

followed by randomly-primed first strand synthesis, library purification, and QC.

Illumina sequencing was performed on a MiSeq v3 2x300. The read sequences were

clipped using Trimmomatic, version 0.32 (Bolger *et al.,* 2014), and bases with a Phred score

< 20 were removed. Trimmed reads shorter than 150 bp were removed; this step could

remove none, one, or both mates of a read-pair. Prior to assembly, digital normalization was

applied to the Illumina reads in order to reduce redundant information present in these large

datasets. A coverage cutoff of 30 and a kmer size of 20 decreased the data to 28% of the

initial 31,310,146 reads. BWA (Li and Durbin, 2009) was used to map read pairs to the

Solanum tuberosum cultivar Desiree chloroplast genome (GenBank accession DQ38616.2).

Only unmapped reads were retained for assembly. The 454 3' and 5' fragment cDNA libraries

were sequenced in 2x 1/2 segment of a full FLX++ run. These reads were converted to

FASTQ format using the software convert project (http://mira-assembler.sourceforge.net).

These datasets were assembled using a Eurofins in-house pipeline which included

Velvet (v1.2.10) and Oases (v0.2.08) (Zerbino and Birney, 2008; Schulz *et al.,* 2012). A

multi-kmer approach was applied using assemblies of 59, 69, 79, and 89 kmers that were

finally merged into a single assembly using a kmer 29. This assembly was then clustered at

an identity threshold of 0.99, corresponding to 1 mismatch in 100 bases, using the software

CD-HIT- EST v4.6 (Li and Godzik, 2006).

Library Preparation for Iso-Seq

SMRT library preparation and sequencing were performed by the National Center for

Genome Resources (Santa Fe, New Mexico). The Iso-Seq libraries for four organs, root,

stem, leaf and bud, were prepared for Isoform Sequencing (Iso-Seq) using the Clontech

SMARTer PCR cDNA Synthesis Kit and the BluePippin Size Selection System protocol as

described by Pacific Biosciences (https://goo.gl/ij71Hh) with the following modifications.

For cDNA conversion, 3 μg of total RNA was put into each Clonetech SMARTer reaction.

From the PCR optimization procedure specified in the protocol, it was determined that 14

cycles of PCR would be sufficient for amplification of each organ's cDNA. Amplification

was followed by size selection on each sample to obtain three size bins (0.5-2 kb, 1.5-3 kb

and 2.5-6 kb) using the Blue Pippin (Sage Science, Beverly, Massachusetts) instrument. The

amplified and size selected cDNA products were made into SMRTbell Template libraries per

the Isoform Sequencing protocol referenced above. Libraries were prepared for sequencing

by annealing a sequencing primer (component of the SMRTbell Template Prep Kit 1.0) and

then binding polymerase to this primer-annealed template. The polymerase-bound template

was bound to MagBeads (P/N 100-125-900) (https://goo.gl/wdZErU) and sequencing was

performed on a PacBio RS II instrument. 12 v3 SMRTcells were run for the root tissues, 14

for the leaf tissues, 9 for the stem tissues, and 12 for the bud tissues for a total of 47

SMRTcells (Pacific Biosciences, P/N 100-171-800). The libraries from each organ were

separately sequenced using P6C4 polymerase and chemistry and 240-minute movie times

(Pacific Biosciences, P/N 100-372-700, P/N 100-356-200).

Single Molecule Real Time Sequencing

All SMRTcells for a given organ were run through the Iso-Seq pipeline included in

the SMRT Analysis software package. First, reads of insert (ROIs, previously known as

circular consensus sequences, CCS) were generated using the minimum filtering

requirement of 0 or greater passes of the insert and a minimum read quality of 75. This

allowed for the high yields going into subsequent steps, while providing high accuracy

consensus sequences where possible. The pipeline then classified the ROI in terms of full-

length, nonchimeric and non-full length reads. This was done by identifying the 5' and 3'

adapters used in the library preparation as well as the poly(A) tail. Only reads that contained

all three in the expected arrangement and did not contain any additional copies of the adapter

sequence within the DNA fragment were classified as full-length non-chimeric copies.

Finally, all full-length non-chimeric reads were run through the Iterative Clustering for Error

correction algorithm then further corrected by the Pacific Biosciences Quiver algorithm

(https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/cDNA_primer/wiki/Understanding-PacBio-

transcriptome-data). Once the Iso-Seq pipeline result was available for each organ, the results

were combined into a single data set and redundant sequences were removed using CD-HIT-

EST (Li and Godzik, 2006).

Annotation of Sequences

Mercator sequence annotation was performed using the TAIR, PPAP, KOG, CDD,

IPR, BLAST CUTOFF of 80, and ANNOTATE options (Lohse *et al.,* 2014).

Annotating Protein Domains of Translated Sequences

PfamScan (Finn *et al.,* 2009) was run on the SSI transcriptomes following protocols

set forth by Sarris *et al.,* 2016).

Biological Quality Check of *in silico* Sequences

523   45 clones from a cDNA library (Express Genomics, Average insert size=1 kb, Vector= pExpress 1) were randomly selected and sequenced via Sanger Dye-Deoxy DNA Sequencing (ABI 3730). These sequences were then aligned to the transcriptomes using Bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) set for local alignment and best hit only. These aligned sequences were then manually compared for possible chimeric features.

Evolutionary Comparison of SSI to 13 Other Species

The evolutionary clustering and comparison protocols were adapted from those set out in Yang *et al.,* 2014). See Supplementary Table 5 for species used and online download sources.

Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP) Analysis to determine Ploidy

534   Phasing of the SMRT transcriptome was completed using the unassembled Illumina sequences adapted from protocols established by Krasileva *et al.,* 2013), with the addition of an in-house Python script to quantify SNPs present per sequence (https://github.com/AlexWixom/Transcriptome_scripts/freePloidy.py).

Creation of Expression Snapshots Using only SMRT Sequences

540   In-house Python scripts were used to backtrack final transcriptome sequences to each organ using CD-HIT-EST cluster files (https://github.com/AlexWixom/Transcriptome_scripts).

Expression Snapshot Validation

545   Sequence specific oligonucleotides were designed for several genes that were then used to obtain semi-quantitative PCR expression snapshots on the same cDNA used to obtain our SSI transcriptome (referred to as the "Sequenced" sample), as well as on a second cDNA pool prepared from an independent RNA collection (referred to as the "Unsequenced" sample). PCR fragment bands were quantified with a local background subtracted and normalized to actin (following the procedure established by Casavant *et al.,* 2017)). The

primers for these genes can be found in Supplementary Table 4 with the proposed gene

description.

Accession Numbers

The SMRT sequenced transcriptome has been deposited at DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank under

the accession GGFC00000000. The version described in this paper is the first version,

GGFC01000000.

Author Contributions

NCC prepared many of the RNA samples, and all of the PCR analyses. AQW performed all

remaining research, statistical analysis, and figure assemblies. AQW and ABC contributed

to the experimental design. AQW wrote the manuscript with assistance from ABC. JCK, FX,

and L-MD provided equipment and facilities, bacterial clones and plant material, and

assisted in data interpretation. All authors have read and approved the manuscript.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank Dr. R. Tripepi for providing us with vegetatively propagated *S. sisymbriifolium*. We are also extremely grateful to Faye Schilkey, Thiru Ramaraj, and Nico Devitt of the National Center for Genomics Research for preparation and sequencing of the SMRT libraries. This research was funded by the Idaho Potato Commission, the Northwest Potato Research Consortium, and USDA-APHIS Farm Bill 10201, 10007.

Arumuganathan, K. and Earle, E. (1991). Nuclear dna content of some important plant species. *Plant molecular biology reporter*, 9(3):208–218.

Bagalwa, J.-J. M., Voutquenne-Nazabadioko, L., Sayagh, C., and Bashwira, A. S. (2010). Evaluation of the biological activity of the molluscicidal fraction of solanum sisymbriifolium against non target organisms. *Fitoterapia*, 81(7):767–771.

Bolger, A., Lohse, M., and Usadel, B. (2014). Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for illumina sequence data. *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)*, 30(15):2114–2120.

Casavant, N. C., Kuhl, J. C., Xiao, F., Caplan, A. B., and Dandurand, L.-M. (2017). Assessment of globodera pallida rna extracted from solanum roots. *Journal of nematology*, 49(1):12.

Dandurand, L.-M. and Knudsen, G. (2016). Effect of the trap crop *Solanum sisymbriifolium* and two biocontrol fungi on reproduction of the potato cyst nematode, *Globodera pallida*. *Annals of Applied Biology*, 169(2):180–189.

Doležel, J., Binarová, P., and Lcretti, S. (1989). Analysis of nuclear dna content in plant cells by flow cytometry. *Biologia plantarum*, 31(2):113–120.

Doležel, J., Doleželová, M., and Novák, F. (1994). Flow cytometric estimation of nuclear dna amount in diploid bananas (musa acuminata andm. balbisiana). *Biologia plantarum*, 36(3):351–357.

Doležel, J., Greilhuber, J., and Suda, J. (2007). Estimation of nuclear dna content in plants using flow cytometry. *Nature protocols*, 2(9):2233–2244.

Doležel, J., Sgorbati, S., and Lucretti, S. (1992). Comparison of three dna fluorochromes for flow cytometric estimation of nuclear dna content in plants. *Physiologia plantarum*, 85(4):625–631.

Eddy, S. R. (1998). Profile hidden markov models. *Bioinformatics*, 14(9):755.

Eid, J., Fehr, A., Gray, J., Luong, K., Lyle, J., Otto, G., Peluso, P., Rank, D., Baybayan, P., Bettman, B., *et al.* (2009). Real-time dna sequencing from single polymerase molecules. *Science*, 323(5910):133–138.

Finn, R. D., Mistry, J., Tate, J., Coggill, P., Heger, A., Pollington, J. E., Gavin, O. L., Gunasekaran, P., Ceric, G., Forslund, K., *et al.* (2009). The pfam protein families database. *Nucleic acids research*, 38(suppl_1):D211–D222.

Finn, R. D., Tate, J., Mistry, J., Coggill, P. C., Sammut, S. J., Hotz, H.-R., Ceric, G.,

Forslund, K., Eddy, S. R., Sonnhammer, E. L., *et al.* (2008). The pfam protein families database. *Nucleic acids research*, 36(suppl 1):D281–D288.

Gálvez, J. H., Tai, H. H., Barkley, N. A., Gardner, K., Ellis, D., and Strömvik, M. V. (2016). Understanding potato with the help of genomics.

Garrison, E. and Marth, G. (2012). Haplotype-based variant detection from short-read sequencing. https://arxiv.org/abs/1207.3907v2.

Iseli, C., Jongeneel, C. V., and Bucher, P. (1999). Estscan: a program for detecting, evaluating, and reconstructing potential coding regions in est sequences. In *ISMB*, volume 99, pages 138–148.

Jones, J. D. and Dangl, J. L. (2006). The plant immune system. *Nature*, 444(7117):323–329.

Krasileva, K. V., Buffalo, V., Bailey, P., Pearce, S., Ayling, S., Tabbita, F., Soria, M., Wang, S., Akhunov, E., Uauy, C., *et al.* (2013). Separating homeologs by phasing in the tetraploid wheat transcriptome. *Genome Biology*, 14(6):R66.

Langmead, B. and Salzberg, S. L. (2012). Fast gapped-read alignment with bowtie 2. *Nature methods*, 9(4):357–359.

Li, H. and Durbin, R. (2009). Fast and accurate short read alignment with burrows–wheeler transform. *Bioinformatics*, 25(14):1754–1760.

Li, L., Stoeckert, C. J., and Roos, D. S. (2003). Orthomcl: identification of ortholog groups for eukaryotic genomes. *Genome research*, 13(9):2178–2189.

Li, W. and Godzik, A. (2006). Cd-hit: a fast program for clustering and comparing large sets of protein or nucleotide sequences. *Bioinformatics*, 22(13):1658–1659.

Lohse, M., Nagel, A., Herter, T., May, P., Schroda, M., Zrenner, R., Tohge, T., Fernie, A. R., Stitt, M., and Usadel, B. (2014). Mercator: a fast and simple web server for genome scale functional annotation of plant sequence data. *Plant, cell & environment*, 37(5):1250–1258.

Loman, N. J., Misra, R. V., Dallman, T. J., Constantinidou, C., Gharbia, S. E., Wain, J., and Pallen, M. J. (2012). Performance comparison of benchtop high-throughput sequencing platforms. *Nature biotechnology*, 30(5):434–439.

Luo, C., Tsementzi, D., Kyrpides, N., Read, T., and Konstantinidis, K. T. (2012). Direct comparisons of illumina vs. roche 454 sequencing technologies on the same microbial community dna sample. *PloS one*, 7(2):e30087.

Marck, C. (1988). 'dna strider': a 'c'program for the fast analysis of dna and protein

sequences on the apple macintosh family of computers. *Nucleic acids research*, 16(5):1829–1836.

Meyre-Silva, C., Niero, R., Bolda Mariano, L. N., Gomes do Nascimento, F., Vicente Farias, I., Gazoni, V. F., dos Santos Silva, B., Giménez, A., Gutierrez-Yapu, D., Salamanca, E., *et al.* (2013). Evaluation of antileishmanial activity of selected brazilian plants and identification of the active principles. *Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine*, 2013.

Miz, R. B., Mentz, L. A., and Souza-Chies, T. T. (2008). Overview of the phylogenetic relationships of some southern brazilian species from section torva and related sections of "spiny solanum"(solanum subgenus leptostemonum, solanaceae). *Genetica*, 132(2):143–158.

Moreton, J., Izquierdo, A., and Emes, R. D. (2015). Assembly, assessment, and availability of de novo generated eukaryotic transcriptomes. *Frontiers in genetics*, 6.

Mueller, L. A., Lankhorst, R. K., Tanksley, S. D., Giovannoni, J. J., White, R., Vrebalov, J., Fei, Z., van Eck, J., Buels, R., Mills, A. A., *et al.* (2009). A snapshot of the emerging tomato genome sequence. *The Plant Genome*, 2(1):78–92.

Ocwieja, K. E., Sherrill-Mix, S., Mukherjee, R., Custers-Allen, R., David, P., Brown, M., Wang, S., Link, D. R., Olson, J., Travers, K., *et al.* (2012). Dynamic regulation of hiv-1 mrna populations analyzed by single-molecule enrichment and long-read sequencing. *Nucleic acids research*, 40(20):10345–10355.

Särkinen, T., Barboza, G. E., and Knapp, S. (2015). True black nightshades: Phylogeny and delimitation of the morelloid clade of solanum. *Taxon*, 64(5):945–958.

Sarris, P. F., Cevik, V., Dagdas, G., Jones, J. D., and Krasileva, K. V. (2016). Comparative analysis of plant immune receptor architectures uncovers host proteins likely targeted by pathogens. *BMC biology*, 14(1):8.

Schulz, M. H., Zerbino, D. R., Vingron, M., and Birney, E. (2012). Oases: Robust *de novo* rna-seq assembly across the dynamic range of expression levels. *Bioinformatics*, 28(8):1086–1092.

Simão, F. A., Waterhouse, R. M., Ioannidis, P., Kriventseva, E. V., and Zdobnov, E. M. (2015). Busco: assessing genome assembly and annotation completeness with single-copy orthologs. *Bioinformatics*, 31(19):3210.

Timmermans, B. G. (2005). *Solanum sisymbriifolium (Lam.): a trap crop for potato cyst*

nematodes.

Yang, X., Cheng, Y.-F., Deng, C., Ma, Y., Wang, Z.-W., Chen, X.-H., and Xue, L.-B. (2014).

Comparative transcriptome analysis of eggplant (solanum melongena l.) and turkey berry

(solanum torvum sw.): phylogenomics and disease resistance analysis. *BMC genomics*,

15(1):412.

Yang, Y. and Smith, S. A. (2013). Optimizing de novo assembly of short-read rna-seq data

for phylogenomics. *BMC genomics*, 14(1):328.

Yoshida, S., Douglas, A. F., James, H. C., and Kwanchai, A. G. (1976). Laboratory manual

for physiological studies of rice. *Manila: IRRI*, 56:69–77.

Zerbino, D. R. and Birney, E. (2008). Velvet: algorithms for *de novo* short read assembly

using de bruijn graphs. *Genome research*, 18(5):821–829.

Zhang, W., Ciclitira, P., and Messing, J. (2014). Pacbio sequencing of gene families-a case

study with wheat gluten genes. *Gene*, 533(2):541–546.

Figure Legends

Figure 1: Correspondence between 45 randomly selected Sanger-sequenced SSI cDNAs
with Illumina/ 454 and SMRT transcriptomes. A) Bowtie2 was used to determine the
presence of 45 cDNA clones in the Illumina/454 transcriptome. B) Alignment of matched
sequences to Illumina/454 SSI transcriptome was performed using DNA Strider and manual
evaluation of alignments yielded equivalent or chimeric assignments. C) Bowtie2 was used
to determine the presence of 45 cDNA clones in the SMRT SSI transcriptome. D) Alignment
of matched sequences to SMRT SSI transcriptome was performed using DNA Strider and
manually evaluated as either equivalent or chimeric. More Sanger sequenced clones were
found in the SMRT dataset and a lower percentage were found to be chimeric than in the
Illumina/454 assembled dataset.

Figure 2: Shared and restricted orthologous genes among 13 species. All species shown
here shared 6067 core orthologs. Each petal shows the number of gene groups unique to each
species. Not shown are groups shared by only 2–12 species. *Solanum sisymbriifolium*, SSI;
Solanum tuberosum, STU; *Solanum lycopersicum*, SLY; *Solanum melongena*, SME;
Arabidopsis thaliana, ATH; *Carica papaya*, CPA; *Vitis vinifera*, VVI; *Prunus persica*, PPE;
Populus trichocarpa, PTR; *Citrus sinensis*, CSI; *Medicago truncatula*, MTR; *Zea mays*,
ZMA; and *Oryza sativa*, OSA. See Supplemental Figure 4 for gene ontology bins for the SSI
unique groups.

Figure 3: Final SMRT transcriptome sequences were backtracked through the de-
redundification process to the organ sub-transcriptomes. A) Flower plot of genes
expressed in all, or in only one, organ. Each petal shows the number of genes only expressed
in one organ. In the center are the number of genes expressed in all 4 organs. Not shown are
genes expressed in 2 or 3 organs. B) Green-tissue specificity of sequences annotated as genes
involved in the light harvesting complex-I pathway via Mercator. C) Sequences annotated as
putative resistance genes because they contained nucleotide binding (NB-ARC) and leucine
rich repeat (LRR) domains showed varied expression patterns. As shown on the scales on
the right of (B) and (C), the darker the color, the more times the sequence was found in that

organ.

Figure 4: Comparison of expression of 3 putative R-gene sequences in the SMRT

database to semi-quantitative PCR from 2 cDNA preparations. A) The expression of

three genes with LRR and NB-ARC domains characteristic of the R-genes and an actin

isoform is shown in the heat map at the left and compared on the right to semi-quantitative

PCR of those same genes in two independently prepared cDNA pools, one from the pool

used to generate the transcriptome (Sequenced) and one prepared independently, and not

used to make the transcriptome (Unsequenced). B) The expression of each PCR product from

each pool was quantified and then normalized to the expression of an actin isoform

(Ssi032526). Data (biological replicates, n=2) are represented as mean ± STD. See

Supplemental Table 4 for primers used.

Tables

Table 1: Summary of the SSI transcriptome derived using SMRT technology. Organ sub-

transcriptomes were sequenced and combined from 33,170 root, 99,924 bud, 50,825 leaf,

and 47,793 stem reads. See Supplemental Figure 2 and Supplemental Figure 3 for gene

ontology bins of this transcriptome.

SMRT Assembly		SSI
Total raw reads		231,712
Read lengths		300-7883
Total raw reads size (bp)		362,086,346
GC content		41.17
	Number	139,611
	Total length	237,865,670
Transcripts	N50	2,050
	Max length	7,883
	GC content	40.97
	Number	41,189
	Total length	74,642,518
Unigenes	N50	2,158
	Max length	7,883
	GC content	39.90

730 Table 2: BUSCO assessment for completeness of 3 transcriptomes and one genome. The SSI

731 transcriptome appears to be nearly complete, but contains a disproportion number of duplicated

732 sequences. See Supplementary Table 5 for sources of datasets.

	Transcriptome			Genome 733
	SSI (%)	Tomato (%)	Potato (%)	ATH (%)
Complete BUSCOs	93	96.2	86.7	97.7
Complete Single-copy BUSCOs	62.8	94.2	64.1	N/A
Complete Duplicated BUSCOs	30.2	2.0	22.6	N/A
Fragmented BUSCOs	2.0	0.8	4.7	0.6
Missing BUSCOs	4.1	3.0	8.6	1.7

735   Table 3: SNP assessment of allele and/or paralog number in the SSI transcriptome. 4-allele genes

736   were mapped to tomato chromosomes, see Supplemental Table 3.

Allele or Paralog	# of genes
Homozygous	17,773
2	22,098
3	1,358
4	44

739   Table 4: R-gene profile of potato (STU), tomato (SLY), and both provisional SSI transcriptomes.

740   The SSI (SMRT) database had fewer assigned R genes (based on the presence of nucleotide-

741   binding domains and leucine-rich repeats within the same open reading frame) than either SLY or

742   STU genomes. Refer to Supplementary Table 2 for full domain annotation statistics.

	R-genes
SSI (SMRT)	67
SSI (Illumina/454)	301
STU	309
SLY	137

745   **Figures**

(A)

(B)

(C)

(D)

Figure 1: Correspondence between 45 randomly selected Sanger-sequenced SSI cDNAs with

Illumina/ 454 and SMRT transcriptomes. A) Bowtie2 was used to determine the presence of 45

cDNA clones in the Illumina/454 transcriptome. B) Alignment of matched sequences to

Illumina/454 SSI transcriptome was performed using DNA Strider and manual evaluation of

alignments yielded equivalent or chimeric assignments. C) Bowtie2 was used to determine the

presence of 45 cDNA clones in the SMRT SSI transcriptome. D) Alignment of matched sequences

to SMRT SSI transcriptome was performed using DNA Strider and manual evaluated as either

equivalent or chimeric. More Sanger sequenced clones were found in the SMRT dataset and a

lower percentage were found to be chimeric than in the Illumina/454 assembled dataset.

Figure 2: Shared and restricted orthologous genes among 13 species. All species shown here shared 6067 core orthologs. Each petal shows the number of gene groups unique to each species. Not shown are groups shared by only 2–12 species. *Solanum sisymbriifolium*, SSI; *Solanum tuberosum*, STU; *Solanum lycopersicum*, SLY; *Solanum melongena*, SME; *Arabidopsis thaliana*, ATH; *Carica papaya*, CPA; *Vitis vinifera*, VVI; *Prunus persica*, PPE; *Populus trichocarpa*, PTR; *Citrus sinensis*, CSI; *Medicago truncatula*, MTR; *Zea mays*, ZMA; and *Oryza sativa*, OSA. See Supplemental Figure 4 for gene ontology bins for the SSI unique groups, and Supplementary Table 5 for sources of datasets.

Figure 3: Final SMRT transcriptome sequences were backtracked through the de-redundification process to the organ sub-transcriptomes. A) Flower plot of genes expressed in all, or in only one, organ. Each petal shows the number of genes only expressed in one organ. In the center are the number of genes expressed in all 4 organs. Not shown are genes expressed in 2 or 3 organs. B) Green-tissue specificity of sequences annotated as genes involved in the light harvesting complex-I pathway via Mercator. C) Sequences annotated as putative resistance genes because they contained a nucleotide binding domain (NB-ARC) and leucine rich repeat (LRR) domains show varied expression patterns. As shown on the scales on the right of (B) and (C), the darker the color, the more times the sequence was found in that organ.

(A)

SSI sequence ID	*A. thaliana* homologue	Leaf	Root	Stem	Bud
Ssi035516	ADR1-L1 (at4g33300)	0.64 ± 0.22	0.99 ± 0.13	0.20 ± 0.02	0.39 ± 0.00
Ssi038051	NB-ARC domain-containing disease resistance protein (at1g50180)	0.88 ± 0.40	0.43 ± 0.24	0.69 ± 0.06	0.64 ± 0.13
Ssi036337	RPM1 (at3g07040)	0.22 ± 0.02	1.56 ± 0.56	0.19 ± 0.05	0.36 ± 0.10

(B)

Figure 4: Comparison of expression of 3 putative R-gene sequences in the SMRT database to semi-quantitative PCR from 2 cDNA preparations. A) The expression of three genes with LRR and NB-ARC domains characteristic of the R-genes and an actin isoform is shown in the heat map at the left and compared on the right to semi-quantitative PCR of those same genes in two independently prepared cDNA pools, one from the pool used to generate the transcriptome (Sequenced) and one prepared independently, and not used to make the transcriptome (Unsequenced). B) The expression of each PCR product from each pool was quantified and then normalized to the expression of an actin isoform (Ssi032526). Data (biological replicates, n=2) are represented as mean ± STD. See Supplemental Table 4 for primers used.