

1 **The Gap-free Rice Genomes Provide Insights for**
2 **Centromere Structure and Function Exploration and**
3 **Graph-based Pan-genome Construction**

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31 **ABSTRACT**

32 **Asia rice (*Oryza sativa*) is divided into two subgroups, *indica/xian* and**
33 ***japonica/geng*, the former has greater intraspecific diversity than the latter. Here,**
34 **for the first time, we report the assemblies and analyses of two gap-free *xian* rice**
35 **varieties ‘Zhenshan 97 (ZS97)’ and ‘Minghui 63 (MH63)’. Genomic sequences of**
36 **these elite hybrid parents express extensive difference as the foundation for**
37 **studying heterosis. Furthermore, the gap-free rice genomes provide global**
38 **insights to investigate the structure and function of centromeres in different**
39 **chromosomes. All the rice centromeric regions share conserved**
40 **centromere-specific satellite motifs but with different copy numbers and**
41 **structures. Importantly, we show that there are >1,500 genes in centromere**
42 **regions and ~16% of them are actively expressed. Based on MH63 gap-free**
43 **reference genome, a graph-based rice pan-genome (Os-GPG) was constructed**
44 **containing presence/absence variations of 79 rice varieties. Compared with the**
45 **other rice varieties, MH63 contained the largest number of resistance genes. The**
46 **acquisition of ZS97 and MH63 gap-free genomes and graph-based pan-genome**
47 **of rice lays a solid foundation for the study of genome structure and function in**
48 **plants.**

49

50 **Key words:** gap-free genomes, ZS97, MH63, centromere structure, graph-based
51 pan-genome

52

53 **INTRODUCTION**

54 *Oryza sativa* ‘*indica/xian*’ and ‘*japonica/geng*’ groups (in place of subsp. *indica* and
55 subsp. *japonica* respectively) are two major groups of Asian cultivated rice (Wang et
56 al., 2018). *Xian* rice varieties are broadly studied as they contribute over 70% of rice
57 production worldwide and genetically more diverse than *japonica* rice. Over the past
58 30 years, two *xian* varieties Zhenshan 97 (ZS97) and Minghui 63 (MH63), combined
59 with their elite hybrid Shanyou 63 (SY63), have been used as a research model in a
60 series of fundamental studies due to three important facts: 1) ZS97 and MH63
61 represent two major varietal subgroups in *xian* rice, contain a number of important
62 agronomic traits; 2) SY63 has historically been the most widely cultivated hybrid rice
63 in China; 3) Understanding the biological mechanisms behind the elite combination of
64 ZS97 and MH63 to form the SY63 hybrid is foundational to help unravel the mystery
65 of heterosis which puzzled scientists for more than a century (Hua et al., 2002; Hua et
66 al., 2003; Huang et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2012). Although we previously generated
67 two reference genome assemblies ZS97RS1 and MH63RS1 in 2016, there are still
68 some unassembled regions which account ~10% of the whole genome missing in the
69 first version (RS1) (Zhang et al., 2016a). By taking further efforts, we then improved
70 both ZS97 and MH63 genome sequences to RS2 version which contained only several
71 gaps in each assembly and immediately shared to public in 2018
72 (<http://rice.hzau.edu.cn>).

73 With high-coverage and accurate long-reads integrated with multiple assembling
74 strategies in this study, we significantly improved our assemblies and successfully
75 generated two gap-free genome assemblies of *xian* rice ZS97 and MH63, which are
76 the first gap-free plant genome publicly available to date. Importantly, we had the first
77 opportunity to study and compare the full centromeres of all chromosomes side by
78 side in both rice varieties. More than one thousand genes were identified in rice
79 centromere regions and ~16% of them were actively expressed. In addition, a
80 graph-based rice pan-genome was built which contained presence/absence variations
81 of 79 rice varieties. The two gap-free assemblies we present here will give scientists a

82 clear picture of sequence divergence and how this impacts heterosis at the molecular
83 level.

84

85 **RESULTS**

86 **Generation and Annotation of ZS97 and MH63 Gap-free Genome Sequences**

87 In this project, 56.73 Gb (~150X) and 86.85 Gb (~230X coverage) of PacBio reads
88 (including both HiFi and CLR modes) were respectively generated for ZS97 and
89 MH63 on PacBio Sequel II platform ([Supplementary Figure 1](#); [Supplementary Table](#)
90 [1](#)). The PacBio HiFi and CLR reads were separately assembled with multiple *de novo*
91 assemblers including Canu ([Koren, Walenz et al. 2017](#)), FALCON ([Carvalho, Dupim](#)
92 [et al. 2016](#)), MECAT2 ([Xiao, Chen et al. 2017](#)) *etc*, and then the assembled contigs
93 were merged through GPM pipeline ([Zhang, Kudrna et al. 2016](#)) ([Supplementary Fig.](#)
94 [1](#); [Supplementary Table 2-3](#)). Finally, we built two gap-free reference genomes,
95 named as ZS97RS3 and MH63RS3, which contained 12 pseudomolecules with total
96 lengths of 391.56 Mb and 395.77 Mb, respectively ([Fig. 1a](#); [Table 1](#)). Compared with
97 the previous bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) based genomes RS1, the RS3
98 assemblies gained 36-44 Mb additional sequences by filling all gaps in both ZS97RS1
99 and MH63RS1 (223 and 167 gaps, respectively) ([Supplementary Table 4](#)). Meanwhile,
100 we corrected a few wrongly orientated or misassembled regions in RS1 sequences
101 (e.g. the 6 Mb inversion on Chr06) ([Supplementary Fig. 2a-c](#); [Supplementary Table 4](#)).
102 The increased sequence mainly consisted of transposable elements and centromeres
103 ([Supplementary Fig. 2d](#)). By detecting the 7-base telomeric repeat (CCCTAAA at 5'
104 end or TTTAGGG at 3' end), we identified 19 and 22 telomeres that conducted 7 and
105 10 gapless telomere-to-telomere (T-to-T) pseudomolecules in ZS97RS3 and
106 MH63RS3, respectively ([Fig. 1a](#); [Supplementary Table 5-6](#)). In addition, the data
107 obtained by different sequencing technologies have different coverage, both the
108 PacBio HiFi and CLR reads covered >99.9% of the ZS97RS3 and MH63RS3 gap-free
109 genomes, while BAC reads only covered 88.59% and 90.95%, respectively ([Fig. 1b](#)).
110 The accuracy and completeness of the RS3 assemblies were further validated by 1)

111 both Hi-C sequencing analysis and BioNano optical maps that showed high
112 consistency with all pseudomolecules ([Supplementary Fig. 3](#); [Supplementary Table 2](#));
113 2) high mapping rates with various sequences, such as paired-end short reads from 48
114 RNA-seq libraries, paired BAC-end sequences, raw HiFi/CLR/Illumina reads from
115 ZS97 and MH63 were obtained ([Supplementary Table 7-9](#)). 3) ZS97RS3 and
116 MH63RS3 both captured 99.88% of the BUSCO reference gene set ([Supplementary](#)
117 [Table 10](#)). 4) Long terminal repeat (LTR) annotation revealed the LTR assembly index
118 (LAI) of ZS97RS3 and MH63RS3 were 24.01 and 22.74, respectively, which meet the
119 standard of gold/platinum reference genomes ([Ou et al., 2018](#); [Mussurova et al. 2020](#))
120 ([Table 1](#)). 5) More than twenty hundred thousand rRNAs were identified in ZS97RS3
121 and MH63RS3 ([Supplementary Fig. 4](#)), which were rarely identified in RS1.
122 Furthermore, the evenly distributed breakpoints of aligned short and long reads
123 indicated all sequence connections are of high accuracy at the single-base level in our
124 final assemblies ([Supplementary Fig. 5](#)).

125 With the gap-free assemblies, we identified 465,242 transposable elements (TEs,
126 ~181.00 Mb in total length) in ZS97RS3 and 468,675 TEs (~182.26Mb) in MH63RS3
127 ([Supplementary Table 11-12](#)), which accounted ~46.16% and ~45.99% of each
128 genome and were higher than that in RS1 (~41.28% and ~41.58%). The increased
129 portion mostly due to that an updated TE library and the closed gaps are primarily in
130 TE-rich regions. TE contents in closed gap regions were 82.86% in ZS97RS3 and
131 84.17% in MH63RS3. We employed MAKER-P ([Campbell et al., 2014](#)) to annotate
132 ZS97RS3 and MH63RS3 with all the same EST, RNA-Seq, and protein evidence as
133 used in RS1 ([Supplementary Fig. 1](#)). In order to keep annotations consistent in
134 different assembly versions, 51,027 gene models in ZS97RS1 and 50,341 in
135 MH63RS1 were retained and migrated into RS3 version. Combining models
136 annotated with MAKER-P in the newly assembled regions, the final annotations in
137 ZS97RS3 and MH63RS3 contained 60,935 and 59,903 gene models, of which 39,258
138 and 39,406 were classified as non-TE gene loci ([Table 1](#)), which was 4,648 and 2,082
139 more than in RS1, respectively. More than 92% of annotated genes were supported by

140 homologies with known proteins or functional domains in other species
141 ([Supplementary Table 13-14](#)). The protein-coding non-TE genes were unevenly
142 distributed across each chromosome with gene density increasing toward the
143 chromosome ends ([Supplementary Fig. 6](#)). In addition, non-coding RNAs were
144 annotated, including 636 and 618 transfer RNAs (tRNAs), 267,347 and 232,845
145 ribosomal RNAs (5S, 5.8S, 18S and 28S rRNAs), 582 and 586 small nucleolar RNAs
146 (snRNAs), 1,550 and 1,568 microRNAs in ZS97RS3 and MH63RS3 ([Supplementary](#)
147 [Fig. 4](#)).

148 There were 1.35 million single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and 0.26 million
149 insertions/deletions (InDels) between ZS97 and MH63. This is relatively lower than
150 the 2.56 million (2.58 million) SNPs and 0.48 million (0.49 million) InDels between
151 ZS97 (MH63) and Nipponbare ([Supplementary Fig. 6](#); [Supplementary Table 15](#)),
152 confirming that intra-subspecies variations (*xian* vs. *xian*) were much less than
153 inter-subspecies (*xian* vs. *geng*) variation. About 39% of non-TE genes (*i.e.* 15,526
154 models) in ZS97RS3 and MH63RS3 had syntenic position and highly identical
155 sequences with synonymous SNPs. The remaining non-TE genes were categorized
156 into four types: (1) 3,830 gene-pairs had the same length and syntenic positions, but
157 contained nonsynonymous substitutions with identity $\geq 80\%$; (2) 10,886 gene-pairs
158 were conserved with syntenic chromosomal locations, and protein sequences identity
159 $\geq 80\%$ and coverage $> 50\%$; (3) 7,786 (ZS97RS3) and 7,704 (MH63RS3) non-TE
160 genes were classified as “divergent genes”, which resulted from structural variations
161 (SVs) between the two genomes; (4) 1,230 ZS97-specific genes and 1,460
162 MH63-specific genes were identified. The extensive gene structure difference
163 between ZS97 and MH63 likely forms the basis of heterosis in their hybrids
164 ([Supplementary Table 16](#)).

165

166 **Location and Analyses of Centromeres in *Xian* Rice**

167 Centromeres are essential for maintaining the integrity of the chromosome during cell
168 division, and it ensures the fidelity of the chromosomes during inheritance.

169 Nevertheless, centromeres remain under-explored, especially in larger genomes
170 (Perumal, Koh, et al. 2020). We identified the centromere regions of ZS97RS3 and
171 MH63RS3 by ChIP-seq using rice CENH3 antibody (Fig. 2a-b). FISH analysis using
172 ChIPed DNA revealed bright hybridization signal in the metaphase chromosomes
173 indicating the presence of centromeric DNA sequences (Fig. 2b). Using MH63RS3 as
174 the reference, for the first time, we determined that the lengths of rice centromeres are
175 varied between 0.8-1.8 Mb (Supplementary Fig. 6-7; Supplementary Table 17-18).
176 Rice centromeres consist of abundant repetitive sequences (78-80%), with
177 representative LTR retrotransposons such as LTR/Gypsy (Supplementary Table
178 19-20). We classified rice centromeres into core and shell regions. Core centromere
179 regions (CCRs) were identified by sequence homology to the 155-165 bp
180 centromere-specific (*CentO*) satellite repeats (Cheng Z, et al. 2002), while shell
181 regions were determined with the ChIP-seq signals. The length of CCRs ranged from
182 76 kb to 726 kb in different chromosomes with a total length 3.47 Mb in MH63RS3
183 (Supplementary Fig. 7, Supplementary Table 17). We manually checked the entire
184 centromere regions (especially the boundary regions) of MH63RS3 and ZS97RS3 and
185 found that the HiFi/CLR reads were evenly mapped with no ambiguous breakpoints
186 (Fig. 2c, Supplementary Fig. 8), which evidences the high integrity and correctness of
187 all assembled centromeres.

188 Comparative analysis showed that CCRs contain a few non-TE genes but a large
189 amount of *CentO* satellite sequences (Fig. 2d; Supplementary Fig. 9). While shell
190 regions contained >1,400 genes (~16% expressed), which include many
191 centromere-specific retrotransposon sequences (Fig. 2d; Supplementary Table 21-23).
192 For example, the Chr01 centromere of MH63RS3 is 1.6 Mb, and its CCR is ~726 kb
193 containing 3,228 *CentO* sequences and 47 genes. The shell region on both sides of the
194 CCR contained 114 *CentO* sequences and 61 none-TE genes (Fig. 2d; Supplementary
195 Table 18; Supplementary Table 21). Only a very small number of genes located in the
196 CCR can be transcribed and expressed, however, many genes in the shell regions are
197 actively expressed (Fig. 2d). We also found that the methylation level of CG and CHG

198 in the centromeric region was two-fold higher than that of the whole genome
199 ([Supplementary Table 24](#)). This phenomenon is particularly prominent in *CentO*
200 clustered regions.

201 Based on the complete centromere location, we counted the length and depth of
202 the reads in both centromere and non-centromere regions. Although the centromere
203 regions had slightly lower depth of reads than non-centromere regions
204 ([Supplementary Fig. 9b](#)), which may be caused by highly repetitive elements. Overall,
205 the average read length and coverage in centromere regions were broadly in line with
206 non-centromere regions ([Supplementary Fig. 9b](#)). In addition, the proportion of
207 LTR/gypsy accounting for over 90% of TEs in the centromere region is extremely
208 higher than that of other types ([Supplementary Fig. 9c](#)), which is an obvious barrier to
209 fully assembled.

210 To assess the conservation of rice centromeres, we identified centromeres and
211 their core regions in 15 rice accessions with high-quality genomes ([Zhou et al. 2020](#))
212 ([Supplementary Table 25](#)). We observed that the lengths of CCRs in different
213 chromosomes were significantly different, even for the same chromosome, the CCR
214 lengths are also varied widely in different rice varieties ([Supplementary Table 26](#)).
215 This reflected that the length and copy number of *CentO* repeats were not consistent
216 in rice centromeres. For ZS97 and MH63, 72% conserved gene families were
217 identified in centromere regions ([Supplementary Fig. 9d](#)). GO analysis showed that
218 genes in ZS97 and MH63 centromere regions had similar functions ([Supplementary](#)
219 [Fig. 10b, c; Supplementary Table 27-28](#)), which were significantly enriched in the GO
220 term of ‘transcription from RNA polymerase III promoter’, ‘nucleic acid binding’ and
221 ‘nucleoplasm part’, indicating the conservation of centromere function
222 ([Supplementary Fig. 10a](#)). To better understand the long-range organization and
223 evolution of the CCRs, we generated a heat map showing pairwise sequence identity
224 of 1 kb along the centromeres ([Supplementary Fig. 11a](#)), and observed that the *CentO*
225 sequences had the highest similarity in the middle and declined to both sides
226 ([Supplementary Fig. 11a](#)). Furthermore, the profile of *CentO* sequences

227 (Supplementary Fig. 11b) illustrated the conservation of rice centromeres on the
228 genomic level.

229

230 **Graph-based Pan-genome and Pan-NLRome of Rice**

231 Although several linear rice pan-genome had been constructed, the sequence was
232 mainly based on *de novo* assembly of short-read re-sequencing data (Wang et al.,
233 2018). In addition to 66 short-reads assembled genomes (Zhao et al., 2018), 13
234 genomes assembled by long-reads were selected to construct pan-genome
235 (Supplementary Table 29). The above 79 rice varieties (7 *O. sativa aus*, 27
236 *indica/xian*, 25 *temperate japonica/geng*, 6 *tropical japonica/geng*, 1 *O. sativa*
237 *aromatic* and 13 *O. rufipogon*) represent the major of *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon*
238 groups (Supplementary Table 29). Phylogenetic tree was constructed by using jaccard
239 similarity between long-kmer datasets to determine the similarity between different
240 genomes. From the phylogenetic relationship, it was obvious that the same subgroups
241 of Asian cultivated rice were clustered together, including *temperate japonica/geng*,
242 *tropical japonica/geng*, *indica/xian* and *aus* (Fig 3a). It can also be observed that *xian*
243 and *geng* were close to different subgroups of wild rice (Wing et al., 2018a; Xie et al.,
244 2020). ZS97 and MH63 were in different branches in the *O. sativa xian* subgroup (Fig
245 3a). Previous studies had divided them into the *indica/xian II* and *indica/xian I*
246 subgroups respectively, which represented different *O. sativa indica* population and
247 showed a large genetic difference (Xie et al., 2015). We used the gap-free genome
248 MH63RS3 as the reference to identify presence/absence variations (PAVs) in other
249 rice varieties to construct graph-based pan-genome of *O. sativa* (Os-GPG), which can
250 not only identify complex SVs, but also improve the accuracy of variation calls
251 around SVs (Rakocevic et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2020). After filtering redundancy and
252 decontamination, the pan-PAVs of Asian cultivated rice is ~320 Mb, of which *xian* is
253 169 Mb and *geng* is 145 Mb (Fig. 3a; Supplementary Table 30). Affected by the
254 diversity of *xian* rice, the PAV of *xian* rice was greater, even when the *xian* genome
255 was used as the reference. 17,365 protein-coding genes were annotated in pan-PAVs

256 of Asian cultivated rice that were not present in reference genome ([Supplementary](#)
257 [Table 30](#)). We merged 454,187 PAVs from all genomes into a set of 278,567
258 nonredundant PAVs. Further, vg toolkit ([Garrison et al., 2018](#)) was used to construct a
259 graph-based pan-genome of rice, which can be directly used for read mapping and
260 GWAS analysis ([Fig. 3b](#)). It is the first graph-based pan-genome obtained from a
261 gap-free reference genome in rice. The pan-PAVs sequence had a lower gene density
262 than reference, but contained abundant resistance genes (NLRs). We identified 557
263 NLRs in pan-PAVs, and this number is similar to the reference genomes (MH63:509;
264 Nip: 473 ([Wang et al., 2019](#))) ([Supplementary Table 31](#)). Therefore, when a single
265 reference genome was used to study the adaptability of rice, almost half of the NLR
266 genes are missed. A large number of NLRs were imbalanced in ‘*xian*’ and ‘*geng*’
267 subgroups, and some NLRs only existed in a few wild rice varieties ([Supplementary](#)
268 [Fig. 12b](#)). The Os-PGP provides valuable resources and should promote rice studies in
269 the post-genomic era. The distribution of PAVs and NLRs of ZS97 and MH63 were
270 similar in other chromosomes, while highly different in the end of chromosome 11
271 ([Fig. 3c](#), [Supplementary Fig. 12a](#)). In this region, we found two large SVs, named
272 MH-Ex1 and MH-INS1, between ZS97 and MH63 ([Supplementary Fig. 13a](#)).
273 Through mapping the PacBio HiFi reads of ZS97 and MH63 to the end of
274 chromosome 11 of MH63RS3 genome, we clearly observed the two large SVs. The
275 reads of MH63 can continuously span these two regions, while ZS97 reads cannot
276 cover these regions ([Fig. S11b](#)). For MH-Ex1, most of the resistance genes in ZS97
277 amplified 2-10 times in MH63 ([Fig. 3d](#); [Supplementary Table 32](#)), resulting a large
278 genomic sequence expansion (from 0.18 Mb in ZS97 to 0.82 Mb in MH63). It is very
279 interesting that most of the expanded resistance genes are not expressed or lowly
280 expressed in most tissues except root ([Fig. 3d](#); [Supplementary Fig. 13c](#);
281 [Supplementary Table 32](#)). For MH-INS1, MH63RS3 genome had an 857 kb insertion
282 compared with ZS97RS3 genome, including eleven resistance genes with low
283 expression levels in most tissues except root ([Supplementary Table 33](#)). We further
284 scanned the two SVs (MH-Ex1 and MH-INS1) in the remaining 25 rice genomes

285 assembled based on PacBio long-read sequencing, and observed that MH-Ex1 and
286 MH-INS1 were incomplete in all the other rice varieties compared with MH63
287 genome (Zhou et al. 2020) (Fig. 3d, Supplementary Fig. 14; Supplementary Table 34).
288 The above example indicated the genetic advantage of MH63 a donor of resistance
289 genes. This was an illustration that Os-PGP will provide the full range of short to
290 long-range SVs that exist across the *O. sativa*.

291 In summary, we assembled two gap-free genomes of *xian* rice ZS97 and MH63,
292 which are the first report of gapless plant genomes up to now. Based on these
293 genomes, we analyzed and compared the complete centromeres of all chromosomes in
294 both rice varieties, and observed that >1,500 genes were existed in centromere regions
295 and ~16% of them were actively expressed. Based on the gap-free MH63RS3 genome,
296 a graph-based rice pan-reference-genome was constructed containing
297 presence/absence variations of 79 rice varieties, which can be used as a solid
298 foundation for further genome wide association studies.

299 **METHODS**

300 **Plant Materials and Sequencing**

301 Fresh young leaf tissue was collected from *O. sativa* ZS97 and MH63 plants. We
302 constructed SMRTbell libraries as described in previous study (Pendleton, M. et al.
303 2015). The genomes of MH63 and ZS97 were sequenced using PacBio Sequel II
304 platform (Pacific Biosciences), including 8.34 Gb HiFi reads (~23x coverage) and
305 48.39Gb CLR reads (~131x coverage) for ZS97, and 37.88 Gb HiFi reads (~103x
306 coverage) and 48.97 Gb CLR reads (~132x coverage) for MH63 genomes. Plant
307 tissues were extracted using the BioNano plant tissue extraction protocol. We
308 embedded the extracted DNA in BioRad LE agarose for subsequent washes of TE,
309 proteinase K (0.8mg/ml), and RNase A (20 μ L/mL) treatments in lysis buffer. The
310 Agarose plugs were then melted using agarase (0.1 U/ μ L, New England Biolabs) and
311 dialyzed on millipore membranes (0.1 μ m) with TE to equilibrate ion concentrations.
312 We then nicked the DNA with a nickase restriction enzyme BssSI (2U/ μ L) with a 6 bp

313 sequence recognition motif. Labeled nucleotides were incorporated at breakpoints and
314 the DNA was counterstained. Each sample was loaded onto 2 nanochannel flow cells
315 of an Irys machine for DNA imaging. Truseq Nano DNA HT Sample preparation Kit
316 following manufacturer's standard protocol (Illumina) was used to generate the
317 libraries for Illumina paired-end genome sequencing. These libraries were sequenced
318 to generate 150 bp paired-end reads by Illumina HiSeq X Ten platform with 350 bp
319 insert size.

320

321 **Genome Assembly and Assessment**

322 In this work, seven tools based on different algorithms were performed to assemble
323 the genomes of ZS97 and MH63. (1) Canu v1.8 (Koren S et al., 2017) was used to
324 assemble the genomes with default parameters; (2) FALCON toolkit v0.30 (Carvalho
325 et al., 2016) was applied for assembly with the parameters: pa_DBsplit_option =
326 -s200 -x500, ovlp_DBsplit_option = -s200 -x500, pa_REPmask_code =
327 0,300;0,300;0,300, genome_size = 400000000, seed_coverage = 30, length_cutoff =
328 -1, pa_HPCdaligner_option =-v -B128 -M24, pa_daligner_option=-k18 -w8 -h480
329 -e.80 -l5000 -s100, falcon_sense_option=-output-multi --min-idx 0.70 --min- cov 3
330 --max-n-read 400, falcon_sense_greedy=False, ovlp_HPCdaligner_option=-v -M24
331 -l500, ovlp_daligner_option=-h60 -e0.96 -s1000, overlap_filtering_setting=-max-diff
332 100 --max-cov 100- -min-cov 2, length_cutoff_pr=1000; (3) MECAT2 (Xiao et al.,
333 2017) was utilized to assemble with the parameters: "GENOME_SIZE=400000000,
334 MIN_READ_LENGTH=2000, CNS_OVLP_OPTIONS="", CNS_OPTIONS="-r 0.6
335 -a 1000 -c 4 -l 2000", CNS_OUTPUT_COVERAGE =30,
336 TRIM_OVLP_OPTIONS="-B", ASM_OVLP_OPTIONS="-n 100 -z 10 -b 2000 -e
337 0.5 -j 1 -u 0 -a 400", FSA_OL_FILTER_OPTIONS = "--max_overhang = -1
338 --min_identity = - 1", FSA_ASSEMBLE_OPTIONS = "", GRID_NODE = 0,
339 CLEANUP = 0, USE_GRID = false "; (4) Flye 2.6-release (Kolmogorov et al., 2019)
340 was set with "--genome-size 400m"; (5) Wtdbg2 2.5 (Ruan et al., 2020) was used to
341 assemble with parameters "--x sq, -g 400m", and then Minimap2 (Li 2018) was

342 employed to map the PacBio CLR data to the assembly results, and wtpoa was
343 utilized polish and correct the wtdbg2 assembly results; (6) NextDenovo v2.1-beta.0
344 (<https://github.com/Nextomics/NextDenovo>) was applied for assembly with
345 parameters “task = all, rewrite = yes, deltmp = yes, rerun = 3, input_type = raw,
346 read_cutoff = 1k, seed_cutoff = 44382, blocksize = 2g, pa_correction = 20,
347 seed_cutfiles = 20, sort_options = -m 20g -t 10 -k 40, minimap2_options_raw = -x
348 ava-ont -t 8, correction_options = -p 10, random_round = 20, minimap2_options_cns
349 = -x ava-pb -t 8 -k17- w17, nextgraph_options = -a 1”; (7) Miniasm-0.3-r179 ([Heng](#)
350 [Li 2016](#)) with default parameters. Based on these seven software, Genome Puzzle
351 Master GPM ([Zhang et al., 2016](#)) was performed to integrate and optimize the
352 assembled contigs, and visualize the complete chromosomes. Based on the HiFi and
353 CLR sequencing data, we used GenomicConsensus package of
354 SMRTLink/7.0.1.66975 (<https://www.pacb.com/support/>) to polish the assembled
355 genome twice with Arrow algorithm, the parameters are: --algorithm=arrow. Pilon
356 ([Walker et al., 2014](#)) was used for polishing the genomes based on Illumina data with
357 the parameters: --fix snps, indels. This process repeated twice. Molecules were then
358 assembled using Bionano IrysSolve pipeline
359 (<https://bionanogenomics.com/support-page/>) to create optical maps. Images were
360 interpreted quantitatively using Bionano AutoDetect 2.1.4.9159 and data was
361 visualized using IrysView v2.5.1. These assemblies were used with draft genome
362 assemblies to validate and scaffold the sequences. Bionano map data was aligned to
363 the merged contigs using RefAlignerAssembler in IrysView software to do the
364 verification.

365 ZS97RS3 and MH63RS3 genome completeness assessment using BUSCO v4.0.6
366 ([Felipe A et al., 2015](#)). Besides, we mapped the PacBio HiFi reads and PacBio CLR
367 reads (using Minimap2 ([Li 2018](#))), Illumina reads (using BWA-0.7.17 ([Jo H et al.,](#)
368 [2015](#))), BES/BAC reads (using BLASTN v2.7.1 ([Altschul et al., 1990](#))), Hi-C reads
369 (using HiC-Pro v2.11.1 ([Servant et al., 2015](#))), RNA-Seq reads (using Hisat2 v2.1.0
370 ([Kim et al., 2015](#))) to both genome assemblies find both assemblies performed well.

371

372 **Gene and Repeat Annotations**

373 MAKER-P ([Campbell et al., 2014](#)) version 3 was used to annotate the ZS97RS3 and
374 MH63RS3 genomes. All the evidences are the same as that used for RS1 genomes. To
375 ensure the consistency of RS1 version, genes can completely map to RS3 genome
376 were retained. The new genes in gap regions were obtained from MAKER-P
377 ([Campbell et al., 2014](#)). Genes encoding transposable elements were identified and
378 transitively annotated by searching against the MIPS-REdat Poaceae version 9.3p
379 ([Nussbaumer et al., 2013](#)) database using TBLASTN ([Altschul et al., 1990](#)) with
380 E-value 1e-10. tRNAs were identified with tRNAscan-SE ([Lowe, T. M. & Eddy, S. R.
381 1997](#)) using default parameters; rRNA genes were identified by searching the
382 genome assembly against the rRNA sequences of Nipponbare using BLASTN v2.7.1
383 ([Altschul et al., 1990](#)); miRNAs and snRNAs were predicted using INFERNAL of
384 Rfam ([Griffiths-Jones, S. et al., 2005](#)) (v14.1). Repeats in the genome were annotated
385 using RepeatMasker ([Smit et al. 2015](#)) with RepBase ([Bao et al., 2015](#)), TIGR Oryza
386 Repeats (v3.3) with RMBlast search engine. For the overlapping repeats in different
387 classes, LTR retrotransposons were kept first, next TIR, and then SINE and LINE,
388 finally helitrons. This priority order was based on stronger structural signatures.
389 Besides, the known nested insertions models (LTR into helitron, helitron into LTR,
390 TIR into LTR, LTR into TIR) were retained. The identified repetitive elements were
391 further characterized and classified using PGSB repeat classification schema.
392 LTR_FINDER ([Xu Z, Wang H 2007](#)) was used to identify complete LTR-RTs with
393 target site duplications (TSDs), primer binding sites (PBS) and polypurine tract
394 (PPT).

395

396 **Chromatin Immunoprecipitation (ChIP) and ChIP-seq**

397 The procedures for chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) were adopted from [Nagaki
398 et al. \(2003\)](#) and [Walkowiak et al. \(2020\)](#). The nuclei were isolated from 4-week-old
399 seedlings. The nuclei were digested with micrococcal nuclease (Sigma-Aldrich, St.

400 Louis, MO) to liberate nucleosomes. The digested mixture was incubated overnight
401 with 3 µg of rice CENH3 antibody at 4°C. The target antibodies were captured from the
402 mixture using Dynabeads Protein G (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). ChIP-seq libraries
403 were constructed using TruSeq ChIP Library Preparation Kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA)
404 following the manufacturer's instructions and the libraries were sequenced on Illumina
405 HiSeqX10 with 2x150 bp sequencing run.

406

407 **Fluorescence *in situ* Hybridization (FISH)**

408 *Slide Preparation*

409 Mitotic chromosomes were prepared as described by Koo and Jiang (2009) with
410 minor modifications. Root tips were collected from plants and treated in a nitrous oxide
411 gas chamber for 1.5 h. The root tips were fixed overnight in ethanol:glacial acetic acid
412 (3:1) and then squashed in a drop of 45% acetic acid.

413 *Probe Labeling and Detection*

414 The ChIPed DNAs were labeled with digoxigenin-16-dUTP using a nick translation
415 reaction. The clone, maize 45S rDNA (Koo and Jiang 2009) was labeled with
416 biotin-11-dUTP (Roche, Indianapolis, IN). Biotin- and digoxigenin-labeled probes
417 were detected with Alexa Fluor 488 streptavidin antibody (Invitrogen) and
418 rhodamine-conjugated anti-digoxigenin antibody (Roche), respectively.
419 Chromosomes were counterstained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) in
420 Vectashield antifade solution (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA). The images
421 were captured with a Zeiss Axioplan 2 microscope (Carl Zeiss Microscopy LLC,
422 Thornwood, NY) using a cooled CCD camera CoolSNAP HQ2 (Photometrics,
423 Tucson, AZ) and AxioVision 4.8 software. The final contrast of the images was
424 processed using Adobe Photoshop CS5 software.

425

426 **The Completeness of Centromeres on MH63RS3 and ZS97RS3 Chromosomes**

427 Based on the final RS3 genomes, we use BLAST (Altschul et al., 1990) to align the c
428 *CentO* satellite repeats in rice to the reference genome with E-value 1e-5, then use

429 BEDtools (Quinlan et al., 2014) to merge the result with the parameter -d 50000. Then,
430 from the outside to the inside, if the number of consecutive *CentO* is less than 5, it is
431 classified as core region if the number of consecutive *CentO* is greater than 5 but less
432 than 10, and the distance between two *CentO* clusters a less than 10kb, it is classified
433 as core region; if the number of consecutive *CentO* is more than 10, it is directly
434 classified as core region.

435 For the identification of the whole centromere region, we use BWA-0.7.17 (Jo H
436 et al., 2015) to align the CENH3 ChIP-Seq reads to MH63RS3 and ZS97RS3
437 genomes, and use SAMtools (Li H et al., 2009) to filter the results with mapQ value
438 above 30; then we use MACS2 (Zhang Y et al., 2008) to call the peaks of CENH3.
439 Finally, we combined the distribution of CENH3 histone, CentOS, repeats and genes
440 to jointly define all the centromeric region of MH63RS3 and ZS97RS3 genomes. It
441 should be noted that when determining the peaks of CENH3 histones, the standard is
442 that if three consecutive peaks value > 30 and no cluster interference, the last peak
443 position is defined as the centromeric boundary position; if three consecutive peaks
444 value > 30 but there has cluster interference, reduce the peak value standard to 20, and
445 then define the centromere boundary; combined with manual adjustment of the
446 position.

447 To compare of *CentO* sequence similarity, first we use BEDtools (Quinlan et al.,
448 2014) to obtain sequences of centromere core regions, and divide them into 1 kb
449 continuous sequences; then we use Minimap2 (Li 2018) to align the sequences, the
450 parameters are: -f 0.00001 -t 8 -X --eqx -ax ava -pb; finally, we use a custom python
451 script to filter the result file, and use R to generate a heat map showing pairwise
452 sequence identity (Logsdon, Vollger et al. 2020).

453

454 **Telomere Sequence Identification**

455 The telomere sequence 5'-CCCTAAA-3' and the reverse complement of the seven
456 bases were searched directly. In addition, we used BLAT (Kent WJ 2002) to search

457 telomere-associated tandem repeats sequence (TAS) from TIGR Oryza Repeat
458 database ([Ouyang et al., 2004](#)) in whole genome.

459

460 **Identification of PAVs**

461 We selected 79 rice varieties to construct phylogenetic tree, 66 were from previous
462 studies ([Zhao et al., 2018](#)) and 11 were downloaded from NCBI (as of 1-30-2020).
463 Sourmash was used to compute hash sketches from genome sequences (k-mer = 301)
464 and calculate jaccard similarity of 79 rice genomes to generate phylogenetic tree
465 ([Pierce et al., 2019](#)). The rice genomes were aligned to reference genome MH63 using
466 Mummer(4.0.0beta2) ([Marçais et al., 2018](#)) with parameters settings ‘-c 90 -l 40’.
467 Then used “show-diff” to select for unaligned regions. Further we merged all *O.*
468 *sativa indica* and *O. sativa japonica* unaligned sequences and then used
469 CD-HIT(v4.8.1) ([Fu et al., 2012](#)) to remove redundant sequences. Finally, we used
470 blastn to remove contaminate sequences with parameters settings ‘-evalue 1e-5
471 -best_hit_overhang 0.25 -perc_identity 0.5 -max_target_seqs 10’ and the rest is PAVs
472 sequences.

473

474 **Prediction of NLR Genes**

475 We first predicted domains of genes with InterProScan ([Jones et al., 2014](#)), which can
476 analyze peptide sequences against InterPro member databases, including ProDom,
477 PROSITE, PRINTS, Pfam, PANTHER, SMART and Coils. Pfam and Coils were used
478 to prediction NLRs. NLRs were defined to contain at least NB, a TIR, or a
479 CCR(RPW8) domain and we classified NLRs based on above structural features.
480 NLRs domain contain only NB (Pfam accession PF00931), TIR (PF01582), RPW8
481 (PF05659), LRR (PF00560, PF07725, PF13306, PF13855) domains, or CC motifs
482 ([Van de Weyer et al., 2019](#)).

483

484 **Identification of Collinear Orthologues**

485 MCscan (python version) ([Tang et al., 2008](#)) was used to identify collinear

486 orthologues between chromosome 11 of ZS97RS3 and MH63RS3 genomes with
487 default parameters.

488

489 **Construction of Graph-based Pan-genome**

490 MH63RS3 was set as a reference and the pan-PAVs sequences were saved in variant
491 call format (VCF). The graph-based pan-genome was construct via the vg
492 (<https://github.com/vgteam/vg>, version v1.29.0) toolkit (Garrison et al., 2018) with
493 default parameters.

494

495 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

496 All the raw sequencing data generated for this project are achieved at NCBI under
497 accession numbers SRR13280200, SRR13280199 and SRR13288213 for ZS97,
498 SRX6957825, SRX6908794, SRX6716809 and SRR13285939 for MH63. The
499 genome assemblies are available at NCBI (CP056052-CP056064 for ZS97RS3,
500 CP054676-CP054688 for MH63RS3) and annotations are visualized with Gbrowse at
501 <http://rice.hzau.edu.cn>. All the materials in this study including introgression lines are
502 available upon request.

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509 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

510 L.-L.C., J.Z., R.W. and Q.Z. designed studies and contributed to the original concept
511 of the project. J.P. and D.-H.K. performed the CHIP-seq and FISH experiments. D.K.,
512 E.L., S.L., J.T., D.Y., J.U. and R.W. performed the genome and BioNano sequencing.

513 J.-M.S., W.-Z.X., S.W., Y.-X.G., Y.H. J.-W.F., W.Z., R.Z. and X.T.Z. performed
514 genome assembling and annotation, comparative genomics analysis and other data
515 analysis. J.-M.S., W.-Z.X., S.W., J.P., D.-H.K., L.-L.C. and J.Z. wrote the paper.
516 W.X., R.W. and Q.Z. contributed to revisions.

517

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523

524 **ONLINE CONTENT**

525 Any methods, additional references, Research reporting summaries, source data,
526 statements of code and data availability and associated accession codes are available
527 online.

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668

669 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

670 **Fig. 1 | Two gap-free genomes of rice.**

671 a). Collinearity analysis between ZS97RS3 and MH63RS3. The collinear regions

672 between ZS97RS3 and MH63RS3 were linked as the gray lines. All the RS1 gap
673 regions were closed in RS3 and showed in the yellow block. The black triangle
674 indicated the telomere, there are 7 T-to-T chromosomes in ZS97RS3 (Chr01, Chr02,
675 Chr03, Chr04, Chr06, Chr07, Chr11) and 10 T-to-T chromosomes in MH63RS3
676 (Chr01, Chr02, Chr03, Chr04, Chr05, Chr06, Chr07, Chr09, Chr10, Chr12). All the
677 centromeres are complete and repeat length distribution diagrams were plotted
678 above/under each chromosome; b). Histogram showed the reads coverage for different
679 libraries in MH63RS3 and ZS97RS3, including BAC, CCS and CLR reads.

680 **Fig. 2 | Complete rice centromeres.**

681 **a**, The definition of MH63RS3 centromere. the first to fourth layers indicate the
682 histone CENH3 Chip-seq distribution, the *CentO* satellite distribution, t genes
683 distribution, and of TE distribution, respectively. The dotted frame represents the final
684 centromere area. **b**, FISH signals detected in metaphase of meiosis for MH63RS3 and
685 ZS97RS3, white arrows indicate DNA elements in the centromeric region. **c**,
686 Coverage of HiFi, CLR, Illumina reads and distribution of TEs in the centromere on
687 Chr01 (extended 500 kb left and right) of MH63RS3. **d**, Characteristics of the
688 centromere on Chr01 of MH63RS3. The first layer is histone CENH3 distribution, the
689 second layer is the CentOS distribution, the third layer is the Genes distribution, the
690 fourth to sixth levels are gene expression, the seventh to ninth levels are methylation
691 distribution, the tenth layer is CentOS sequence similarity.

692 **Fig. 3 | The graph-based pan-genome and pan-NLRome of rice.**

693 **Figure 3. a**, Phylogenetic tree of the 79 rice varieties. 79 rice varieties phylogenetic
694 tree (left), black represents wild rice varieties, orange represents *O. sativa aus*, Orange
695 shadow represents *O. sativa indica*, blue shadow represents *O. sativa japonica*, heat
696 map represents the jaccard similarity of pairwise rice (middle), and bar graph
697 represents the number of PV per rice (right). **b**, The schematic diagram of rice
698 graph-based pan-genome. **c**, Distribution of the difference regions between ZS97RS3

699 and MH63RS3 on the chromosome. **d**, The expansion structural variation of
700 MH63RS3. The expansion structural variation at the end of chromosome 11 of
701 MH63RS3, from top to bottom are the gene collinearity of ZS97RS3 and MH63RS3,
702 the TE distribution, the gene expression in this region and coverage ratio of two
703 structural variations in 25 rice varieties.





