Chromosome Level Genome Assembly Reveals Cassia Tora May Be an Ancient Species in Leguminosae

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Abstract

Background: Cassia tora L. is an annual leguminous plant. Its seeds had wide utility in herbal medicine in Asian, but is usually regard as a potent, invasive weed which even helps farmers eliminate other parasitic weed species. However, compared with other important legume crops, C. tora is far from fully developed and the genetic basis is greatly lacking. A reference genome sequence will be great valuable resource for its genome evolution, genetic breeding and development.

Results: Here, we de novo assembled a chromosome-scale genome for C. tora by combining PacBio sequencing technology with chromatin interaction mapping, resulting in 621-Mb genome with a contig N50 of 2.5 Mb, of which 77.44% was ordered and oriented on 13 pseudochromosomes. The genome contained 32,361 protein-coding genes with a repetitive DNA content of approximately 58.15%. Gypsy-type LTRs constituted the largest subfamily. LTR insertion events seldom occurred in this genome over the past 10 million years. Comparative genomic analyses showed that C. tora diverged ~95 million years ago (MYA), which revealed it has the most distant genetic relationship with 11 other legumes. Compared with other legume crops, Cassia tora is maybe an ancient species in Leguminosae.

Conclusions: The high-quality reference genome sequence reported here furnishes unprecedented insights into genome dynamics and provides an important basis for future research on legume genome evolution.

Background

Cassia tora L. (syn. Senna tora Roxb.) is an annual leguminous weed in the subfamily Caesalpinioideae [1]. It was originally introduced from the tropical Americas and is now extensively distributed throughout China, Korea, India, Southeast Asia, and the Southwest Pacific [2]. C. tora grows easily and rapidly, is very stress tolerant, and thrives in dry soil from elevations of sea level to 1,800 m. It interferes with the growth of agriculturally important crops and economically useful plants and depletes soil fertility [3]. C. tora disperses widely and occupies substantial tracts of farmland that could otherwise be allocated towards the cultivation of various types of valuable vegetation.

However, C. tora may actually be beneficial to farmers in certain ways. As it starts to grow, C. tora occupies all adjacent spaces and prevents other weeds from establishing there. Natural green grass seldom grows in areas overtaken by C. tora. Thus, it naturally removes and replaces weeds. Parthenium hysterophorus has disastrous effects on agricultural fields and may trigger skin and respiratory ailments. Though it has been difficult to eradicate, P. hysterophorus is effectively inhibited by C. tora. Aqueous extracts of C. tora may contain allelochemicals that suppress the germination of seeds produced by other varieties of weeds[4]. Moreover, the application of C. tora seed gum as a natural coagulant of raw and undiluted pulp and paper mill effluent (PPME) has been investigated [5].

C. tora also contains anthraquinones and has been used in traditional Chinese and Ayurvedic medicine. The dry and ripe seeds of C. tora are known as ‘Juemingzi’ and considered traditional Chinese medicine.
(TCM). Their use was recorded in ‘Shennong Ben Cao Jing’ and they have been administered to treat headache, dizziness, dysentery, and eye disease for > 2,000 y. Modern pharmacology has demonstrated that Juemingzi extracts have antioxidant, hypolipidemic, neuroprotective, and other physiological efficacy [6]. Thus, Juemingzi has become a very popular TCM for the treatment of mutagenicity, genotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, and acute inflammatory diseases [7–10]. Various pharmacologically active chemical constituents have been detected and identified in *C. tora* seeds including anthraquinones, terpenoids, flavonoids, lipids, phenolic compounds, amino acids, and polysaccharides [11, 12]. *C. tora* seeds are also used as an ingredient in functional and popular herbal beverages in Asia. Purified *C. tora* endosperm flour has been used as a food thickener (E-427) [13].

As a widely distributed legume plant, compared with other legumes, its use is far from being developed, the genetic basis is greatly lacking, and the breeding of varieties has not been reported. The genome evolution of leguminous plants has aroused widespread concern [14–19], but the genome evolution of *C. tora* is still unclear.

High-quality genomes are the foundations of genetic and genome-wide studies [20–23]. Here, we assembled a high-quality, chromosome-scale genome sequence for *C. tora* using a combination of single-molecule real-time (SMRT), and Hi-C sequencing. This genome sequence will facilitate genomic research, metabolic engineering, and cultivar improvement in *C. tora*.

**Results**

*Genome size estimate*

We selected a landrace line JMZ1 for genome size estimate. The highest peak provided a peak depth of 74 for genome size estimation. As the total number of k-mers was 45,035,768,647, the genome size was calculated to be ~ 601.44 Mb. Therefore, the sequenced Illumina reads (56.18 Gb) provided ~ 93× coverage. The estimated repetitive sequence content was ~ 58.61% based on a peak depth of 142. As no heterozygosity peak was found, the estimated heterozygosity was ~ 0.02% based on a half-depth of 74. The GC content of the genome of this species was ~ 37.30% (Supplementary Fig. S1; Supplementary Table S1).

*Genome sequencing and assembly*

*De novo* DSS3 genome assembly was performed using a combination of PacBio single-molecule, real-time (SMRT) sequencing and chromatin interaction mapping (Hi-C). We obtained 56.40 Gb raw data by PacBio SMRT sequencing (Supplementary Table S2). After filtering out low-quality data, we generated 55.23 Gb of high-quality subreads with an average contig length of 8.85 kb and N50 = 13.42 kb. This large dataset covered ~ 93-fold of the predicted genome size. We optimized the genome with Quickmerge and generated a preliminary genome assembly capturing 621.06 Mb with contig N50 = 4.16 Mb and 4,320 contigs (Supplementary Table S3).
A total of 119 Mb of read pairs was collected via Illumina sequencing and 35.94 Gb of clean Hi-C reads were generated with 57-fold coverage. The scaffolds were broken into 50-kb fragments of equal length and reassembled by Hi-C data analysis. The low- and middle Hi-C coverage depths in this region were localized and identified as the error points. The aforementioned genome assembly was corrected and a final genome was generated that captured 621.06 Mb with contig N50 = 2.5 Mb, 4,473 contigs, and scaffold N50 = 29.35 Mb (Table 1).

Table 1
*C. tora* genome assembly information.

| Chromosome number (n) | 13 |
|-----------------------|----|
| Genome size (Mb)      | 568.59 |
| Contig number         | 4473 |
| **Contig N50 (kb)**   | **2,500** |
| Contig N90 (kb)       | 43 |
| **Contig max (kb)**   | **17,300** |
| Scaffold number       | 4,229 |
| **Scaffold N50 (kb)** | **29,349** |
| Scaffold N90 (bp)     | 43,629 |
| Scaffold max (bp)     | 44,760,356 |
| GC content (%)        | 35.96 |

Note: Scaffolds, including unplaced contigs, are defined as input contigs not placed by the optical map.

The Hi-C data reads mapping to the assembly genome consisted of 212 Mb pairs corresponding to 88.38% of the genome pairs. There were 63 Mb of unique mapped read pairs accounting for 52.90% and meeting the requirements of the subsequent analysis (Supplementary Table S4). For the unique mapped read pairs, we evaluated the library data, deleted invalid dangling end-, religation-, self-cycle-, and dumped pairs, and identified 52.85 Mb of valid interaction pairs to anchor the aforementioned genome sequences to pseudochromosomes. A total of 568.59 Mb of sequences were mapped to 13 pseudochromosomes accounting for 91.55% of the whole-genome sequence. Of these, 440.34 Mb was ordered and oriented with pseudochromosomes in the size range of 26.33–55.29 Mb (Table 2). The Hi-C assembly heatmap of the chromosomes displayed 13 distinct groups which denoted high-quality assembly (Fig. 1).
Table 2
Clustered sequence data of each pseudochromosome.

| Group               | Sequence Number | Sequence Length (bp) |
|---------------------|-----------------|----------------------|
| Lachesis Group 0    | 281             | 57,814,068           |
| Lachesis Group 1    | 138             | 53,811,674           |
| Lachesis Group 2    | 231             | 55,297,032           |
| Lachesis Group 3    | 234             | 51,878,843           |
| Lachesis Group 4    | 161             | 45,427,400           |
| Lachesis Group 5    | 294             | 48,951,038           |
| Lachesis Group 6    | 144             | 39,736,525           |
| Lachesis Group 7    | 191             | 41,298,315           |
| Lachesis Group 8    | 137             | 35,748,794           |
| Lachesis Group 9    | 135             | 35,033,854           |
| Lachesis Group 10   | 227             | 38,596,663           |
| Lachesis Group 11   | 61              | 26,337,058           |
| Lachesis Group 12   | 71              | 38,666,604           |
| Total Sequences Clustered | 2,305     | 568,597,868        |
| Total Sequences Ordered and Oriented | 257   | 440,341,984     |

Note: Ratio% of first two items shows % of clustered sequence number or length compared to contig number or genome size. Ratio% of next two items shows % of ordered and oriented sequence number or length compared to cluster sequence number or sequence.

We used the raw Illumina HiSeq paired-end reads to validate the genome assembly. Of these, 85% could be properly mapped to the assembly (Supplementary Table S5). Thus, the genome assembly contained comprehensive genome information. The Core Eukaryotic Genes Mapping Approach (CEGMA) and Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs (BUSCO) methods were used to assess genome assembly accuracy and completeness. The CEGMA v. 2.5 alignment showed that 448 CEG proteins (97.82%) with high-confidence hits and 229 (92.34%) highly conserved full-length sequences were contained in the genome assembly. A BUSCO analysis revealed that we obtained > 93.89% (1,352/1,440 BUSCOs) genome coverage.

**Annotation of the C. tora genome sequence**
Using homology-based and de novo approaches, we identified 361.17 Mb of repetitive elements accounting for 58.15% of the genome. The main repetitive sequences were transposable elements (TEs) of which the most abundant were long terminal repeats (LTRs) (Supplementary Table S6). Among the Class I elements (retrotransposons), the Gypsy-, LARD, and Copia-type LTRs represented the three largest subfamilies (19.88%, 7.12%, and 6.81%, respectively). Among the Class II elements (DNA transposons), the CACTA repeats and Helitron-type elements occupied 1.68% and 1.39% of the genome, respectively. The remaining genome consisted of putative host genes (1.74%) and simple sequence repeats (SSRs; 6.82%). Most of these TEs were distributed in the central parts of the chromosomes. Most of the repeat sequence types were unequally distributed along the chromosomes. Their densities were higher in the centromeric than the telomeric regions on all pseudomolecules with similar patterns (Fig. 2). Overall, the centromeric regions were enriched in various repeat elements.

We identified 11.64% unclassified repeats in the genome. Thus, many new LTR types could be discovered in plants. We hypothesize that these TEs are different from those of the ancestral legume species and may have contributed to diversification and speciation in these plants.

A combination of homology-based, de novo, and RNA-seq approaches predicted 32,361 protein-coding genes that covered 20.37% of the genomic sequence length (126.52 Mb) (Supplementary Table S7). In total, 87.76% of the predicted genes were supported by homology-based- and RNA-seq data derived from a mixture of leaf, stem, flower, and pod tissues (Supplementary Fig. S2). The average gene size and exon number per gene were 3,875 bp and 5.09, respectively (Supplementary Table S8). The average exon and intron lengths were 239.09 bp and 528.87 bp, respectively. Of the predicted genes, 29,163 (90.12%) were functionally annotated in the NR, TrEMBL, GO, KOG, and KEGG databases (Supplementary Table S9). Most of the protein-coding genes were concentrated at the distal chromosome regions and were relatively sparse in the proximal regions on pseudochromosomes with similar distribution patterns (Fig. 2). Thus, the gene distribution was non-random and resembled that for other plant species reported [23, 24].

We predicted 3,948 non-coding genes including 632 transfer RNAs, 446 ribosomal RNAs, 88 microRNAs, and 2,782 pseudogenes with evidence of transcription but no consistent coding sequence. We also detected 2,980 motifs and 34,761 domains (Supplementary Table S10).

**Comparative analysis of the genomes of C. tora and other plant species**

A gene family cluster analysis of the complete gene sets was performed on C. tora and certain sequenced legume species such as Arachis duranensis, Arachis ipaensis, Cajanus cajan, Cicer arietinum, Glycine max, Glycyrrhiza uralensis, Lotus japonicus, Medicago truncatula, Phaseolus vulgaris, Vigna angularis, Vigna radiata, and the non-legume Vitis vinifera.

The 26,757 predicted genes were classified into 15,619 gene families with unique gene family number of 780 to C. tora (Supplementary Table S11). Four hundred and six gene families expanded and 5,363 gene families contracted in C. tora. The expanded gene families were enriched mainly in the GO (gene ontology) categories ‘metabolic process’, ‘cellular process in biological process’, ‘membrane in cellular
component’, and ‘catalytic activity and binding in molecular function’ (Supplementary Fig. S3). The contracted gene families in *C. tora* were enriched in ‘biological death process’, ‘antioxidant activity’, and ‘nutrient reservoir activity’.

A phylogenetic tree was constructed based on the single-copy orthologous genes shared by *C. tora* and 11 other legumes (Fig. 3). The legumes differentiated from grapes over 116 MYA. *Cassia tora* differentiated from 11 other legumes ~ 95 MYA. Therefore, *C. tora* is only distantly related to other legumes. After ~ 20 MYA, peanut differentiated from the other nine legumes. The latter then evolved into two clusters. Five vegetable legume species grouped into one cluster and differentiated only ~ 33–4.7 MYA. The other cluster included four legumes (alfalfa for leaf use, licorice for root use, lobelia for leaf use, and chickpea for bean use) that differentiated as early as 56–34 MYA.

LTR family expansion number and time were analyzed for the genomes of *C. tora* and 11 other plant species (Fig. 4). Using *C. cajan* as a reference, no distinct peak LTR amplification activity was observed in *C. tora* over 10 MYA. Thus, the *C. tora* genome was stable and inactive compared to the other 11 species.

**Collinearity analysis between *C. tora* and *A. ipaensis***

*Cassia tora* and *A. ipaensis* (subfamily Faboideae) diverged ~ 95 MYA. A synteny analysis between *C. tora* and *A. ipaensis* revealed that 33.79% of their genes were collinear in 490 blocks (Fig. 5). The genes on one peanut chromosome were dispersed over four *C. tora* chromosomes. This finding reflected poor collinearity and demonstrated substantial differences between genomes.

The 4DTv (fourfold degenerate transversion) distribution of the homologous gene pairs within these syntenic blocks suggested that *C. tora* has not undergone any recent lineage-specific whole-genome duplication (WGD) event. Rather, it experienced the paleohexaploidy event (*γ*) common to all eudicots (Fig. 6).

**Discussion**

Compared with other legumes, the genetic research of *C. tora* is still in its infancy. Although its nutritive and pharmacological properties of the active metabolites have been investigated [7–10] and their biosynthetic pathways have been preliminarily characterized [25], to the best of our knowledge, the *C. tora* genetic basic research is very limited.

Single-molecule sequencing technology combined with Hi-C assembly technology [26, 27] has been widely used in the construction of a chromosome level high-quality genome [28–31]. A high quality genome at chromosome level lays a very important foundation for the further research and development of a species [19, 24, 32, 33]. With the dividend of the decreasing cost of sequencing, we were able to sequence the species with Single-molecule sequencing technology and assemble it with Hi-C technology to form a high-quality genome. The ancestral legume karyotype was predicted consisting of a minimum
of 19 proto-chromosomes [19]. In the study, the Hi-C assembly displayed 13 distinct groups. We propose the *C. tora* genome maybe have been massively rearranged during evolution.

Genome expansion in plants is primarily driven by polyploidization (whole-genome duplication events) and the proliferation of TEs [34]. Based on the single-copy orthologous genes shared by *C. tora* and 11 other legumes (Fig. 3), these legume species differentiated from grapes on about 116 MYA. *C. tora* differentiated from 11 other legumes ~ 95 MYA which revealed *C. tora* has the most distant relationship with other legumes. After ~ 20 MYA, peanut differentiated from the other nine legumes. Other legume species differentiated in 75–80 MY, which was consistent with recent report about pea genome [19]. Among the other 11 legumes, *A. ipaensis* has the closest relationship with it. Analysis of genome sequences of different legumes indicated that whole genome duplication has played an important role in evolution of legume genome [17]. The 4DTv distribution of the homologous gene pairs within these syntenic blocks suggested that *C. tora* has not undergone any recent lineage-specific whole-genome duplication (WGD) event except for the paleohexaploidy event (γ) common to all eudicots. A synteny analysis between *C. tora* and *A. ipaensis* reflected poor collinearity.

Repetitive elements were major drivers in the evolution of these large genomes such as Pea genome (~ 4.45 Gb) [19]. In the Fabae tribe of Leguminosae, genome dynamics are dominated by a single lineage of Gypsy elements that account for 57% of the variation in genome size in this clade [34, 35]. In *C. tora* genome, Fifty-eight percent of the genomic sequences belongs to repetitive. The main repetitive sequences were TEs, of which the most abundant were long terminal repeats (LTRs) and the Gyps -type LTRs represented the three largest subfamilies, which was consistent with previous reports [34, 35]. Compared to the other 11 species, LTR amplification activity peak in *C. tora* was not observed in over 10 MYA, which reflected a feature of genome formation which is not active. Another possible explanation is that the LTR-TEs in *C. tora* had undergone lower artificial selection than those in the other species. Moreover, as *C. tora* naturally self-pollinates, it has low heterozygosity (0.02%). The foregoing genomic analysis indicated that the *Cassia tora* genome is ancient and stable.

In addition to comparative genomic research, this genome also will provide an important foundation for the later research, such as characterizing and amplifying the genes encoding the anthraquinones in *C. tora*, or identifying the genes responsible for its virulence against other plants (beneficial or detrimental).

**Conclusion**

Here, we produced a high-quality genome sequence for *C. tora* that may serve as a vital tool to analysis features of the *C. tora* genome and help to characterize legume family and establish deep syntenic relationships among different taxa of legumes. The foregoing analysis indicated that the *C. tora* was a relatively stable and relatively old genome. The valuable genome sequence will also facilitate the characterization of its many excellent traits, enhance genetic improvement and allow more efficient use of the genus.
Methods

Materials

A landrace line JMZ1 was originated from Tai Mountain and was identified as *Cassia tora* by Dr. Jianhua Wang, then collected and planted in medicinal plant garden of Shandong Agricultural University in Shandong Province, China. We have acquired permission to collect plant samples of JMZ1 from Dr. Jianhua Wang. Seeds of the landrace line were harvested and deposited in Germplasm Bank of Medicinal Botanical Garden in Shandong Agricultural University (Deposition number SDAUMD101). JMZ1 was selected for genome and Hi-C sequencing. RNA sequencing for the prediction of gene structures was carried out in mixed DNA samples with the same amount of DNA from four tissues, including the roots, stem, leaves and flowers.

Illumina sequencing and estimation of *C. tora* genome size

Genomic DNA was extracted from the leaf tissues of *C. tora* by the cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) method. The experiments were performed according to the standard DNA library preparation and sequencing protocols provided by Illumina (San Diego, CA, USA). Two 270-bp libraries were constructed using genomic DNA from JMZ1 (Supplementary Table 1a). All of the ∼ 56.18 Gb of clean reads obtained from the Illumina platforms were subjected to 19-mer frequency distribution analysis. The K-mer distribution can be used to infer the estimated genome size using the following formula: genome size = k-mer number/peak depth.

Genome sequencing, assembly, and scaffolding

The libraries for SMRT sequencing were constructed using DNA isolated from leaf tissue according to the standard protocol provided by Pacific Biosciences (Menlo Park, CA, USA). This protocol comprised library construction and sequencing as well as library and sample quality detection.

*De novo* assembly of the PacBio reads was initially conducted with the Canu pipeline (v1.5) and Falcon ([https://github.com/ruanjue/wtdbg](https://github.com/ruanjue/wtdbg)) assemblers. Their parameters were set for high consistency and continuity. The sequence assembled by Canu was then used to assemble the genome in Wtbdg (v1.2.8) ([https://github.com/ruanjue/wtdbg](https://github.com/ruanjue/wtdbg)). Illumina paired-end reads were then used in assembly polishing with Pilon v. 1.17 to correct the assembly [36]. Statistical information is shown in Supplementary Table 2.

Hi-C sequencing, assembly, scaffolding, and evaluation

Hi-C experiments were performed as previously reported [37]. Both valid and non-valid interaction pairs were identified by HiC-Pro [27]. Hi-C data were aligned with the initially assembled genome (v. 1.1) by BWA v. 0.7.10-r789 to obtain mapped data [38]. The paired-end reads were mapped onto v. 1.2 PacBio contigs which were then grouped into 13 chromosome clusters and scaffolded using Lachesis software [37].
Genome quality evaluation

Illumina reads were used to map and confirm deciphered sequence coverage (Supplementary Table 5). The completeness of the final genome assembly was evaluated by CEGMA v.2.3 [32] and Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs (BUSCO v2.0) [39].

Transposable element annotation

Homology-based- and de novo strategies were applied to identify repetitive sequences in the genome. De novo prediction programs including LTR-Finder (v1.0.2) [40], MITE [41], RepeatScout (v1.0.5) [42], and PILER (v1.0) [43] were used. The repetitive sequences were segregated into various categories with PASTEClassifier [44].

Genetic model prediction, evaluation, and annotation

Homology-based, de novo, and RNA-seq genetic model prediction methods were used in the present study. For the homology-based gene prediction model, geMoMa v1.3.1 [45] to predict gene structures. Genscan [46], Augustus v2.4 [47], GlimmerHMM v3.0.4 [48], GeneID v1.4 [49], and SNAP [50] were used for de novo prediction, for the transcriptome-based prediction with PASA v. 2.0.2 [45].

All of the predicted gene structures were integrated into a consensus set with EVidenceModeler [51]. Finally, 32,361 genes were obtained and annotated with BLAST (E value ≤ 1 × 10^{-5}) according to their homology alignments against the annotation databases NR [52], KOG [53], KEGG [54], GO [55]. InterProScan v5.8-49.0 [56] was used to predict motif annotation information by alignment with databases such as the PROSITE [57], HAMAP [58], Pfam [59], PRINTS [60], ProDom [61], SMART [62], TIGRFAM [63], PIRSF [64], SUPERFAMILY [65], CATH-Gene3D [66].

Comparative genome analysis

OrthoMCL (v2.0) [67] was used to analyze the family classification of protein sequences. PHYML [68] software was used to construct the phylogenetic tree. CAFE (v4.2) [69] was used to analyze gene family contraction and expansion. LTR_FINDER (v1.0.2) [40] were used to search the LTR sequences. The molecular clock was selected as 7.3 × 10^{-9}. The 4DTv distances of the orthologous gene pairs in C. tora and A. ipaensis were calculated with the HKY (Hasegawa, Kishino, and Yano) substitution model based on the codon alignment.

Abbreviations

MYA: Million years ago

TCM: traditional Chinese medicine

SMRT: single-molecule real-time

Hi-C: chromatin interaction mapping
CEGMA: Core Eukaryotic Genes Mapping Approach

BUSCO: Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs

TEs: transposable elements

LTRs: long terminal repeats

KEGG: Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes

FPKM: Fragments per kilobase of transcript per million fragments

GO: Gene ontology

CC: Cellular component

MF: Molecular function

BP: Biological process

4DTv: four-fold degenerate transversion

WGD: whole-genome duplication

Declarations

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Not applicable.

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Availability of data and materials

The assembly and annotation data of *C. tora* in the GenomeWarehouse in BIG Data Center under Project numbers PRJCA003150, which are accessible at https://bigd.big.ac.cn/gwh.

Ethics approval

This article does not contain any studies with human participants or animals performed by any of the authors.

Consent for publication
Not applicable.

**Competing interests**

The authors declare no competing interests.

**Author contributions**

Z.S. and X.L. conceived and designed the research, coordinated the study, and wrote the manuscript. Z.S. and C.L. performed the long-read sequencing and genome assembly. C.L., P.X. and Z.S. designed the Hi-C experiments, produced assembly scaffolds from the data, and polished the final reference assembly. Z.S. and P.X. performed the genome annotation and evaluation analysis and assisted with downstream analysis. C.L. sowed plant samples for sequencing. C.Z. assisted with the generation of additional files for the manuscript and contributed to data analysis. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

**Declaration**

This manuscript has not been published or presented elsewhere in part or in entirety and is not under consideration by another journal.

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Figures
Figure 3

Neighbor-joining (NJ) tree for C. tora and 11 other legume species. Phylogenetic analysis and divergence time estimation for 13 plant species and gene family dynamics for each branch. Divergence times are indicated by black numbers next to branching nodes (right). Blue and red numbers below each species name (left) indicate numbers of gene family contraction and expansion events, respectively.
Figure 4

Analysis of LTR retrotransposon number and insertion time in C. tora. Curves represent accumulated total number of LTRs throughout evolution. Cto, Cassia tora; Van, Vigna angularis; Vra, Vigna radiata; Pvu, Phaseolus vulgaris; Gur, Glycyrrhiza uralensis; Gly, Glycine max; Lco, Lotus japonicus; Mtr, Medicago truncatula; Car, Cicer arietinum; Cca, Cajanus cajan; Adu, Arachis duranensis and Aip, Arachis ipaensis (both diploid ancestors of cultivated peanut); Vvi, Vitis vinifera (non-legume species).