Updated Genome Assembly and Annotation for 
*Metrosideros polymorpha*, an Emerging Model 
Tree Species of Ecological Divergence

Ayako Izuno,*,†,1 Thomas Wicker,§ Masao Hatakeyama,†,§,** Dario Copetti,†,†† and 
Kentaro K. Shimizu†,‡‡

*Department of Forest Molecular Genetics and Biotechnology, Forestry and Forest Products Research Institute, Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305-8687, Japan, †Department of Evolutionary Biology and Environmental Studies, University of Zurich, CH-8057 Zurich, Switzerland, ‡Department of Plant and Microbial Biology, University of Zurich, CH-8008 Zurich, Switzerland, §Functional Genomics Center Zurich, CH-8057 Zurich, Switzerland, **Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics, CH-1015 Lausanne, Switzerland, ††Institute of Agricultural Sciences, ETH Zurich, CH-8092 Zurich, Switzerland, and ‡‡Kihara Institute for Biological Research (KIBR), Yokohama City University, 641-12 Maioka, Totsuka-ward, Yokohama 244-0813, Japan

ORCID IDs: 0000-0002-9339-2845 (A.I.); 0000-0002-6777-7135 (T.W.); 0000-0002-6483-1781 (K.K.S.)

**ABSTRACT** Accurate feature annotation as well as assembly contiguity are important requisites of a modern genome assembly. They allow large-scale comparison of genomes across and within species and identification of polymorphisms, leading evolutionary and functional studies. We report an updated genome resource for *Metrosideros polymorpha*, the most dominant tree species in the Hawaiian native forests and a unique example of rapid and remarkable ecological diversification of woody species. Ninety-one percent of the bases in the sequence assembly (304 Mb) were organized into 11 pseudo-molecules, which would represent the chromosome structure of the species assuming the synteny to a close relative Eucalyptus. Our complementary approach using manual annotation and automated pipelines identified 11.30% of the assembly to be transposable elements, in contrast to 4.1% in previous automated annotation. By increasing transcript and protein sequence data, we predicted 27,620 gene models with high concordance from the supplied evidence. We believe that this assembly, improved for contiguity, and annotation will be valuable for future evolutionary studies of *M. polymorpha* and closely related species, facilitating the isolation of specific genes and the investigation of genome-wide polymorphisms associated with ecological divergence.

**KEYWORDS** Hawaii MAKER *Metrosideros polymorpha* reannotation transposable element

*Metrosideros polymorpha* Gaud. (Myrtaceae) represents a unique example of rapid and remarkable ecological diversification of woody species. This species has dominated the diverse habitats ranging over 2,000 m in altitude since the colonization on the Hawaiian Islands in 1–3.9 million years ago (Wright et al. 2000; Percy et al. 2008). As eight varieties are recognized (Dawson and Stemmermann 1990), plants from different environment or successional stages show distinct morphological (e.g., Stemmermann 1983; Joel et al. 1994; Tsujii et al. 2016), chemical (e.g., Vitousek et al. 1988, 1992), and physiological (e.g., Cordell et al. 1998; Cornwell et al. 2007) characteristics. Despite of the ecological differences, the reproductive isolation is incomplete (Stacy et al. 2016, 2017) and gene flow occurs between populations in different environments (DeBoer and Stacy 2013; Stacy et al. 2014; Izuno et al. 2017). Therefore, *M. polymorpha* can serve as a model to study the early stages of speciation of tree species.

The first genome assembly of *M. polymorpha* (version 1.0 hereon) was reported as 304 Mb sequences, half of which were composed of 19 scaffolds with >5 Mbp (Izuno et al. 2016). On the assembly,
RepeatMasker (Smit et al. 2013) identified 4.1% of the bases to be associated with repeated sequences and transposable elements (TEs), based on the homology with *Arabidopsis thaliana* repeat sequences. AUGUSTUS (Stanke et al. 2004) predicted 39,305 gene models based on a Hidden Markov model trained with RNA-seq data from one *M. polymorpha* plant. Although this genome resource was useful to obtain genomic insights of the ecological diversification in the species (Izuno et al. 2016, 2017), there was still room for improvement in the genome resource. Slightly more number of gene models (39,305) were identified compared to other tree genomes (approximately 33,000 genes on average; Neale et al. 2017), indicating that some gene models could be fragmented. The annotated portion of transposable elements was relatively low (4.1%), considering other tree genomes with similar genome size (300–350 Mb) contain transposable elements in 20–30% of the whole genomes (He et al. 2013; Verde et al. 2013; Wu et al. 2014). This suggests that *M. polymorpha* probably contained additional TE/repeat regions that escaped detection.

Here, we report the updated version of the *M. polymorpha* genome sequences (version 2.0 hereon). It was obtained by assigning the ver. 1.0 assembly (36,375 scaffolds) to 11 pseudo-chromosomes by means of the presumed collinearity with the closely related *Eucalyptus grandis*. To improve the quality of gene prediction, we used an increased number of evidence data, such as RNA-Seq and protein sequences data, to train gene prediction programs. We manually annotated repeat regions in addition to using automatic pipelines to gather repeat sequences that were not identified in the ver. 1.0 annotation. The resulting ver. 2.0 annotation contained more complete gene models that were well supported by supplied evidence data and showed that an increased, but still small, fraction of the genomes is composed by TEs and repeated sequences.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Pseudo-molecule assembly**

*Metrosideros polymorpha* pseudo-molecules were constructed based on the *Eucalyptus grandis* genome (ver. 2.0; Bartholomé et al. 2014), which is composed of 11 pseudo-chromosomes and 4,932 scaffolds. We assumed chromosome structure be mostly conserved between the two species because the basic chromosome number for Myrtaceae is $x = 11$ (Atchison 1947) and *M. polymorpha* also has 11 chromosomes ($2n = 22$; Carr 1978). We identified the positions of 32,152 *E. grandis* coding DNA sequences (CDSs) on the 36,376 *M. polymorpha* scaffolds (ver. 1.0) by NCBI BLASTN (ver. 2.2.31+) with the threshold cutoff of 1.0E-3. *Metrosideros polymorpha* scaffolds with more than 10 CDSs were used for anchoring to *E. grandis* pseudo-chromosomes. For all CDSs on these scaffolds, it was first determined to which *E. grandis* chromosome they map. Then, we removed CDSs that map to different *E. grandis* chromosomes than the majority of CDS on the scaffold or to very distant regions of the same *E. grandis* chromosome. This step removed approximately 12% of the CDS (a low value due to good collinearity between *E. grandis* and *M. polymorpha*). To determine a single anchor point for each scaffold, the average position of the central five CDSs on the scaffolds was used.

**Figure 1** Workflow for re-annotation of the *Metrosideros polymorpha* genome using the MAKER2 pipeline.

--

**Table 1** Summary of *Metrosideros polymorpha* pseudo-molecules. Sequences were assigned to 11 chromosomes based on the collinearity with *Eucalyptus* genes, assuming a complete synteny between the two species.

| Pseudo-molecule ID | Size, bp | Gaps, % |
|--------------------|----------|---------|
| Mpol_Chr01         | 26,760,463 | 2.5     |
| Mpol_Chr02         | 25,476,500 | 2.9     |
| Mpol_Chr03         | 27,763,088 | 3.8     |
| Mpol_Chr04         | 21,740,955 | 2.7     |
| Mpol_Chr05         | 19,091,012 | 4.9     |
| Mpol_Chr06         | 32,945,760 | 2.8     |
| Mpol_Chr07         | 14,555,926 | 3.4     |
| Mpol_Chr08         | 40,261,496 | 3.4     |
| Mpol_Chr09         | 21,463,090 | 3.8     |
| Mpol_Chr10         | 27,804,677 | 2.4     |
| Mpol_Chr11         | 25,789,799 | 3.5     |
| Total              | 283,653,566 | 3.6     |
The corresponding *E. grandis* chromosome was used. These anchor points were then used to determine the linear order of *M. polymorpha* scaffolds in the pseudo-chromosomes. Finally, *M. polymorpha* scaffolds were oriented based on the gene order in *E. grandis* pseudo-chromosomes.

**Manual annotation for transposable elements (TEs)**

We produced a hand-curated reference TE library for *M. polymorpha*. For Gypsy, Copia, CACTA, hAT and Helitron superfamilies, we used predicted protein sequences from TEs previously identified in other plant species to search putative TE regions in the *M. polymorpha* pseudo-molecules using TBLASTN (ver. 2.2.31+). Predicted TE proteins were obtained from the TREP database (botinst.uzh.ch/en/research/genetics/thomasWicker/trep-db.html). Regions that showed homology to TE proteins were then extracted with 5000–9000 bp of flanking regions using an in-house script. This search produced a library of gene-bearing TEs. Subsequent BLASTN searches for

---

**Figure 2** Circos plots for the comparison between *Metrosideros polymorpha* pseudo-molecules (ver. 2.0; red labels) and *Eucalyptus grandis* genome (Bartholomé et al. 2014; black labels). To make the plot clearer, only every 5th gene is shown. (a) genome wide comparison. (b) an example of chromosome 1 which shows almost perfect conservation in gene order. (c), (d) translocations (or assembly errors) occurred between chromosomes 7 and 8.
sequences with DNA homology were used to identify non-autonomous deletion derivatives (i.e., insertions that lack parts or all of the coding regions). Multiple sequences from individual families were used to generate a consensus sequence, which was added to the reference TE library. We further de novo identified DNA transposons by searching terminal inverted repeats (TIRs). Candidate TIR elements were then used in BLASTN searches against the whole genome. Those that occurred in multiple copies were considered novel DNA transposon families. For TE annotation, the identified reference TE families were mapped back to the genome using an in-house TE annotation pipeline.

**Genome annotation**

We used the MAKER genome annotation pipeline (ver. 2.31.8; Holt and Yandell 2011) to identify gene models on the M. polymorpha genome ver. 2.0 (Figure 1). MAKER was initially run to make crude gene models based on transcript and protein evidence. RNA-Seq evidence, consisted of leaf bud samples from 19 different M. polymorpha trees at the Volcano Agriculture Station, University of Hawaii (DDB accession DRA00791). After trimming adapter sequences and bases with low quality using Trimmomatic (ver. 0.33; Bolger et al. 2014), the reads were mapped on the reference genome ver. 2.0 using STAR (ver. 2.5.1b; Dobin et al. 2013). The alignments were converted to transcript models into GFF format using StringTie (ver. 1.3.3; Pertea et al. 2015). Protein evidence was supplied from 46,280 isoform sequences of E. grandis (ver. 2.0; http://genome.jgi.doe.gov/pages/dynamicOrganismDownload.jsf?organism=Egrandis) and 35,386 isoform sequences of A. thaliana (TAIR10; http://genome.jgi.doe.gov/pages/dynamicOrganismDownload.jsf?organism=Athaliana). In the first run, EST and protein evidence were used for the gene prediction, i.e., ‘est2genome’ and ‘protein2genome’ were set to 1 in the MAKER configuration. At the same time, we identified repeat regions using RepeatMasker (ver. 4.0.5; Smit et al. 2013) and RepeatRunner (Smith et al. 2007) with the RepBase database for ‘all species’. The TE regions manually identified (see above) were supplied as external annotations and masked during the run.

Of the 22,960 gene models generated in the initial MAKER run, 4,224 unique gene models with less than 0.2 of annotation edit distance (AED; Eliebeck et al. 2009) were used to train the Hidden Markov model (HMM) for SNAP (ver. 2014-02-16, Korf 2004) and AUGUSTUS (Stanke et al. 2004) following Campbell et al. (2014) and Bowman et al. (2017). MAKER was run again to conduct SNAP- and AUGUSTUS-based gene prediction with the trained HMMs. In the second run, we allowed predicted genes with more than 50 amino acids, and ‘keep_preds’ and ‘always_complete’ were set to 1.

To compare annotation quality between the current and previous genome annotations, we added MAKER’s quality-control metrics to the ver. 1.0 annotation. Using MAKER, we calculated AED scores for 41,874 mRNAs in the ver. 1.0 annotation against the evidence data used for the current annotation (obtained with the 19 RNA-seq data and protein sequences of E. grandis and A. thaliana).

For the functional annotations, the predicted protein sequences were searched among 16,712 protein domains in the Pfam (ver. 31.0; Finn et al. 2016) using InterProScan (ver. 5.26-65.0; Jones et al. 2014) as well as 44,240 protein isoform sequences for plants in the SwissProt (downloaded on January 18, 2018; The UniProt Consortium 2017) using NCBI BLASTP (ver. 2.2.31+). After removing genes with TE-related annotations, we selected gene models that were supported by transcript evidence or Pfam protein domains (i.e., the ‘standard build’ in the MAKER pipeline was adopted) according to the criteria in Holt & Yandell (2011) and Campbell et al. (2014). The completeness of the obtained transcript isoforms among transcripts of the 1,440 single-copy orthologs universally found in plants was assessed with BUSCO (ver. 2.1; Simão et al. 2015) on gVolante (ver. 1.1.8; Nishimura et al. 2017). As a comparison, the 43,894 isoforms located in the 11 chromosomes of the E. grandis (ver. 2.0) were run on BUSCO as well.

---

**Table 2 Summary of transposable elements in the Metrosideros polymorpha pseudo-molecules identified with manual annotation and RepeatMasker**

| Class (retrotransposons) | Manual annotation | RepeatMasker |
|--------------------------|-------------------|--------------|
|                          | Nr. families | Nr. elements | TE space, bp | TE space, % | Nr. elements | TE space, bp | TE space, % |
| LTR                      | 45          | 30516        | 15896123 | 5.60          | 14095        | 6370191      | 2.25          |
| Gypsy                    | 19          | 15563        | 6978439 | 2.46          | 3769         | 1439715      | 0.51          |
| Copia                    | 24          | 8733         | 6258363 | 2.21          | 7799         | 4228467      | 1.49          |
| Pao                      |              |              |         |              | 185          | 21334        | 0.01          |
| SINE                     |              |              |         |              | 196          | 17591        | 0.01          |
| LINE                     |              |              |         |              | 2901         | 701030       | 0.25          |
| L1                       |              |              |         |              | 2020         | 583118       | 0.21          |
| RTE                      |              |              |         |              | 327          | 66310        | 0.02          |
| R1/LOA/Jockey            |              |              |         |              | 153          | 19698        | 0.01          |
| L2/CR1/Rex               |              |              |         |              | 175          | 14276        | 0.01          |
| Class II (DNA transposons) Subclass 1 |         |              |         |              |              |              |              |
| TIR                      | 16          | 40813        | 6643207 | 2.34          | 5686         | 820749       | 0.29          |
| Mutator                  | 4           | 22608        | 3564813 | 1.26          | 1312         | 199320       | 0.07          |
| CACTA                    | 1           | 348          | 369394  | 0.13          | 823          | 178858       | 0.06          |
| hAT                      | 2           | 1396         | 370560  | 0.13          | 113          | 7463         | <0.01         |
| PIF-Harbinger            |              |              |         |              |              |              |              |
| TcMar                    |              |              |         |              |              |              |              |
| Class II (DNA transposons) Subclass 2 |         |              |         |              |              |              |              |
| Heilitron                | 3           | 2344         | 238737  | 0.08          | 971          | 237019       | 0.08          |
| Unclassified             |              |              |         |              | 109          | 10297        | <0.01         |
| Total TEs                |              |              |         |              | 109          | 10297        | <0.01         |
Data availability
The genome assembly (ver. 2.0) was deposited at DDBJ (BCNH02000001–BCNH02000011). The genome annotation (GFF format) is available in File S1, which is deposited at Figshare. Supplemental material available at FigShare: https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.9876644 and https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.9876659.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Pseudo-molecule assembly
Of the 32,152 E. grandis genes, 28,974 had significant homology on 424 M. polymorpha scaffolds. By anchoring the 102 scaffolds with more than 10 CDSs to the 11 E. grandis pseudo-chromosomes, we obtained 11 M. polymorpha pseudo-molecules ranging in size from 14.5 to 40.2 Mbp (Table 1; Figure 2; DDBJ accession BCNH02000001–BCNH02000011), which constitute 91.1% of the entire M. polymorpha genome assembly. This result indicated 90% of the ver. 1.0 assembly represented non-redundant regions of the genome, against our previous speculation that the relatively high heterozygosity could split the assembly. Long read sequencing technologies could align the remaining 10% of the scaffolds, which were short (an average of 571 bp in length) and repeat-rich (data not shown), and clarify how the complexity of genome affects de novo assembly.

The current assembly (pseudo-molecules) highlighted highly conserved gene content between the two species. After diverging from a common ancestor in the Paleocene (66–55 million years ago), Eucalyptus diversified in Oligocene (38–24 million years ago) on the Australia continent whereas Metrosideros spread throughout the Pacific islands in the Miocene (23.3–5.2 million years ago) (Thornhill et al. 2015; Wright et al. 2000). The independent evolution of the two species after split could have led to the accumulation of TEs in Eucalyptus, explaining the different genome size between E. grandis (640 Mb; Myburg et al. 2014) and M. polymorpha (~330 Mb).

TE annotation
Our manual annotation identified 8.03% of the M. polymorpha genome (ver. 2.0) to be comprised of TEs (Table 2). Most of them were derived from Gypsy (2.46%) and Copia (2.21%) long terminal repeat retrotansposons (LTR-RTs) (Figure 3), of which 19 and 24 families were identified, respectively. DNA transposons constituted 2.43% of the genome (Table 2). We identified between one and 4 families of Mutator, CACTA, hAT and Helitron based on the homology search approach and 9 families based on the features of TIRs (Table 2). Different TE families were enriched in different regions on pseudo-molecules (Figures S1–S4), suggesting different proliferation strategies among TE families. RepeatMasker annotated 2.88% of the genome to be TEs (Table 2) and RepeatRunner identified 1,469 additional TEs spanning 0.28% of the genome. Gene annotation with MAKER further found 147 genes (spanning 0.20% of the genome) bearing TEs. With only 0.09% of the bases being identified by two or more of the annotations above, 11.30% of the assembly was characterized as TE related.

The three annotation approaches, i.e., manual annotation, RepeatMasker and RepeatRunner, complementary identified TEs in
the *M. polymorpha* genome. Our manual annotation identified DNA transposons occupying 2.43% of the *M. polymorpha* genome, whereas RepeatMasker suggested much lower levels (0.37%; Table 2). While our manual annotation exhaustively identified the distributions of frequent TE superfamilies (>1% in TE space), RepeatMasker could be effective to identify rare TEs, which were not handled in our manual annotation because of the insufficient number of sequences to generate representative elements. RepeatRunner identified completely different TE features from those by RepeatMasker or our manual annotation except for one TE feature. These findings indicate that TE annotation in a novel genome, for which no useful libraries of close relatives are available, can profit from complementary approaches, such as manual identification of TE families and automated annotation using software (e.g., RepeatMasker).

In some cases, the uneven distribution of TE superfamilies along chromosomes was diagnostic to infer the location of the centromeres. In most small plant genomes, LTR-RTs are enriched in centromeric and paracentromeric regions, while non-LTR RTs and DNA transposons (more often associated with genes) are found mostly in distal chromosomal regions (Bennetzen and Wang 2014). Thus, we analyzed the abundance of DNA transposons and LTR-RTs in the *M. polymorpha* pseudomolecules. We found that LTR-RTs are indeed enriched in distinct regions (Figures S1–S4). In particular, the Gypsy family *RLG_V* has very narrow distributions (i.e., it is found only in very narrow windows of 1–3 Mb in size) while it is practically absent from all other chromosomal regions; Figures S1–S4). This distribution is reminiscent of that of *RLG_Cereba* in wheat (Wicker et al. 2018) and CRG retroelement in cotton (Luo et al. 2012), which are found almost exclusively in centromeric regions. Interestingly, some of the pseudomolecules (1, 7, 8 and 10) contain two regions that are enriched in *RLG_V* elements and other LTR-RTs (Figures S1–S4). Aware of the caveat that *M. polymorpha* pseudomolecules were built based on collinearity with *E. grandis* chromosomes, the presence of multiple regions enriched in potential centromeric LTR-RTs may highlight orientation issues or suggest that the ver. 1.0 assembly included redundant scaffolds due to heterozygosity. Alternatively, one of the two regions may be a non-functional centromere (either being recently inactivated or gaining function). Additional sequencing with long reads or DNA physical/optical mapping techniques will be necessary to build more reliable pseudomolecules.

**Table 3 Summary of the ver. 1.0 and ver. 2.0 *Metrosideros polymorpha* genome annotations**

|                       | ver. 1.0 | ver. 2.0 |
|-----------------------|----------|----------|
| Nr. protein-coding genes | 39305    | 27620    |
| Total gene space, Mb   | 132.5    | 136.5    |
| Gene space, %          | 38.2     | 39.3     |
| Mean gene size, bp     | 3371.9   | 4942.7   |
| Nr. exons per gene     | 5.7      | 6.1      |
| Mean exon size, bp     | 280.2    | 287.5    |
| Mean intron size, bp   | 420.3    | 683.4    |
| Total Nr. transcript isoforms | 41874 | 40206 |
| Average Nr. transcript isoforms per gene | 1.1 | 1.5 |
| Mean coding sequence length, bp | 3514.2 | 6860.8 |
| Transcript isoforms with Pfam domain, % | 60.8 | 72.0 |
| Transcript isoforms with BLASTP hit, % | 55.5 | 69.8 |
| Transcript isoforms with AED < 0.5, % | 66.5 | 88.4 |
| Transcript isoforms with AED = 1.0, % | 20.9 | 3.4 |
| BUSCO complete, %      | 92.9     | 90.3     |
| BUSCO partial, %       | 3.1      | 4.0      |
| BUSCO missing, %       | 4.0      | 5.7      |

**Figure 4** Cumulative fraction of transcript isoforms in the ver. 1.0 and ver. 2.0 *Metrosideros polymorpha* genome annotation with evidence support represented by the annotation edit distance (AED) metric. Lower AED scores indicate greater concordance with available evidence data (Elbeek et al. 2009).

Compared to other tree genomes sequenced (reviewed in Neale et al. 2017), the *M. polymorpha* genome is small and contains only a small fraction of TEs. Interestingly, other plants that are adapted to extreme conditions such as mangrove trees (Lyu et al. 2018), a carnivorous plant (Ibarra-Laclette et al. 2013) or the Antarctic midge (Kelley et al. 2014) were reported to have small genomes with low TE content. Thus, the small genome of *M. polymorpha* could also be the result of convergent evolution due to similar selective constraints that act on *M. polymorpha* plants when they populate their extreme and diverse environments.

**Improved gene annotation**

The final MAKER run, in which SNAP and AUGUSTUS were run with custom-trained HMMs, predicted 27,620 gene models putatively coding 40,206 different transcript isoforms (Table 3; File S1). While the assembly fraction occupied by coding regions was almost the same between ver. 1.0 and ver. 2.0, the number of gene models decreased and intron sizes increased in ver. 2.0 (Table 3), suggesting fragmented gene models in ver. 1.0 were concatenated. A sharp increase in mean gene size (3.37 Kb vs. 4.94 Kb in ver. 1.0 and ver. 2.0, respectively) accompanied to a negligible increase in total size of the coding regions (132 and 136 Mb, respectively) validate this observation. This may be due to genes that were split in two ver. 1.0 scaffolds or to the increased supplies of evidence data.

The concordance of the input evidence into the current gene annotation was improved: 66.5% and 88.4% transcript isoforms showed AED < 0.5 and 20.9% and 3.4% isoforms showed AED = 1 in ver. 1.0 and ver. 2.0, respectively (Figure 4). Higher proportion of isoforms in ver. 2.0 was supported by the Pfam protein domains and SwissProt proteins in comparison with ver. 1.0, possibly due to the increased length of isoforms in ver. 2.0 (Table 3). The 40,206 transcript isoforms represented ~90% of the core transcripts from the 1,440 single-copy conserved orthologs in plants (Table 3). Although this was comparable to the completeness of the 43,894 isoforms in the 11 *E. grandis* chromosomes, which covered 92.1% of the core
genes, increased evidence data from other plant tissues besides leaf buds may predict more comprehensive gene models. Overall, with increased effort on manual annotation of TEs and the increased number of evidence data, we considerably improved the quality of the *Metrosideros* gene models. This will enable more sound and complete evolutionary studies on functional genes relevant to the environmental adaptation of woody species.

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

We thank Eri Yamasaki and Rie Shimizu-Insagisi for their help for RNA extraction. This work was supported by University Research Priority Program of Evolution in Action of the University of Zurich, JSPP Overseas Research Fellowship, JSPP KAKENHI 16H06469, and the Japan Science and Technology Agency grant number JPMJCR1603, Japan.

**LITERATURE CITED**

Atchison, E., 1947  Chromosome numbers in the Myrtaceae. Am. J. Bot. 34: 159–164. https://doi.org/10.1002/ajb.1710340307

Bartholomé, J., E. Mandrou, A. Mabiala, J. Jenkins, I. Nabihoudine et al., 2014  High-resolution genetic maps of *Eucalyptus* improve *Eucalyptus grandis* genome assembly. New Phytol. 206: 1283–1296. https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.13150

Bennetzen, J. L., and H. Wang, 2014  The contributions of transposable elements to the structure, function, and evolution of plant genomes. Annu. Rev. Plant Biol. 65: 505–530. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-arplant-052013-035811

Bolger, A. M., M. Lohse, and B. Usadel, 2014  Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence data. Bioinformatics 30: 2114–2120. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btu170

Bowman, M. J., J. A. Pulman, T. L. Liu, and K. L. Childs, 2017  A modified GC-specific MAKER gene annotation method reveals improved and novel gene predictions of high and low GC content in *Oryza sativa*. BMC Bioinformatics 18: 522. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12859-017-0822-3

Carr, G. D., 1978  Chromosome numbers of Hawaiian flowering plants and the significance of cytology in selected taxa. Am. J. Bot. 65: 236–242. https://doi.org/10.1002/ajb.1710650216

Campbell, N. R., S. E. LaPatra, and K. Overturf, 2014  Association Mapping Program of Evolution in Action of the University of Zurich, JSPS Overseas Research Fellowship, JSPP KAKENHI 16H06469, and the Japan Science and Technology Agency grant number JPMJCR1603, Japan.

DeBoer, N., and E. A. Stacy, 2013  Divergence within and among 3 varieties of the endemic tree, *Ohia Lehua* (*Metrosideros polymorpha*) on the eastern slope of Hawai‘i Island. J. Hered. 104: 449–458. https://doi.org/10.1038/jhered.2014.1

Dobin, A., C. A. Davis, F. Schlesinger, J. Drenkow, C. Zaleski et al., 2013  STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. Bioinformatics 29: 15–21. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bts635

Eilbeck, K., B. Moore, C. Holt, and M. Yandell, 2009  Quantitative measures for the management and comparison of annotated genomes. BMC Bioinformatics 10: 67. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2105-10-67

Finn, R. D., P. Coggill, R. Y. Eberhardt, S. R. Eddy, J. Mistry et al., 2016  The Pfam protein families database: towards a more sustainable future. Nucleic Acids Res. 44: D279–D285. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkv1344

He, N., C. Zhang, X. Qi, S. Zhao, Y. Tao et al., 2013  Draft genome sequence of the mulberry tree *Morus notabilis*. Nat. Commun. 4: 2445. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms3445

Holt, C., and M. Yandell, 2011  MAKER2: an annotation pipeline and genome-database management tool for second-generation genome projects. BMC Bioinformatics 12: 491. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2105-12-491

Ibarra-Laclette, E., E. Lyons, G. Hernández-Guzmán, C. A. Pérez-Torres, L. Carretero-Paulet et al., 2013  Architecture and evolution of a minute plant genome. Nature 498: 94–98. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature12132

Izuno, A., M. Hatakeyama, T. Nishiyama, I. Tamaki, R. Shimizu-Insagisi et al., 2016  Genome sequencing of *Metrosideros polymorpha* (Myrtaceae), a dominant species in various habitats in the Hawaiian Islands with remarkable phenotypic variations. J. Plant Res. 129: 727–736. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10265-016-0822-3

Izuno, A., K. Kitayama, Y. Onoda, Y. Tsuji, M. Hatakeyama et al., 2017  The population genomic signature of environmental association and gene flow in an ecologically divergent tree species *Metrosideros polymorpha* (Myrtaceae). Mol. Ecol. 26: 1515–1532. https://doi.org/10.1111/mec.14016

Joel, G., G. Aplet, and P. M. Vitousek, 1994  Leaf morphology along environmental gradients in Hawaiian *Metrosideros polymorpha*. Biotropica 26: 17–22. https://doi.org/10.2307/2389106

Jones, P., D. Biins, H. Y. Chang, M. Fraser, W. Li et al., 2014  InterProScan 5: genome-scale protein function classification. Bioinformatics 30: 1236–1240. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btu031

Kelley, J. L., J. T. Peyton, A.-S. Fiston-Lavier, N. M. Teets, M.-C. Yee et al., 2014  Compact genome of the Antarctic midge is likely an adaptation to an extreme environment. Nat. Commun. 5: 4611. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms6611

Korf, I., 2004  Gene finding in novel genomes. BMC Bioinformatics 5: 59. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2105-5-59

Luo, S., J. Mach, B. Abramson, R. Ramirez, R. Schurr et al., 2012  The cotton centromere Contains a Ty3-gypsy-like LTR retroelement. PLoS ONE 7: e35261. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0035261

Lyu, H., Z. He, C.-I. Wu, and S. Shi, 2018  Convergent adaptive evolution in marginal environments: unloading transposable elements as a common strategy among mangrove genomes. New Phytol. 217: 428–438. https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.14784

Myburg, A. A., D. Grattapaglia, G. A. Tuskan, U. Hellsten, R. D. Hayes et al., 2014  The genome of *Eucalyptus grandis*. Nature 510: 356–362. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature13308

Neale, D. B., P. J. Martinez-García, A. R. De La Torre, S. Montanari, and X.-X. Wei, 2017  Novel insights into tree biology and genome evolution as revealed through genomics. Annu. Rev. Plant Biol. 68: 457–483. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-plant-042916-010409

Nishimura, O., Y. Hara, and S. Kuraku, 2017  gVolante for standardizing completeness assessment of genome and transcriptome assemblies. Bioinformatics 33: 3635–3637. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btx445

Percy, D. M., A. M. Garver, W. L. Wagner, H. F. James, C. W. Cunningham et al., 2008  Progressive island colonization and ancient origin of Hawaiian *Metrosideros* (Myrtaceae). Proc. Biol. Sci. 275: 1479–1490. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2008.0191

Pertea, M., G. M. Pertea, C. M. Antonescu, T.-C. Chang, J. T. Mendell et al., 2015  StringTie enables improved reconstruction of a transcriptome from RNA-seq reads. Nat. Biotechnol. 33: 290–295. https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.3122

Simão, F. A., R. M. Waterhouse, P. Ioannidis, E. V. Kriventseva, and E. M. Zdobnov, 2015  BUSCO: assessing genome assembly and annotation completeness with single-copy orthologs. Bioinformatics 31: 3210–3212. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btv351

Smit, A., R. Hubley, and P. Green, 2013  RepeatMasker Open-4.0. <http://www.repeatmasker.org>

Smith, C. D., R. C. Edgar, M. D. Yandell, D. R. Smith, S. E. Celniker et al., 2007  Improved repeat identification and masking in Diptera. Gene 389: 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gene.2006.09.011
Stacy, E. A., J. B. Johansen, T. Sakishima, and D. K. Price, 2016 Genetic analysis of an ephemeral intraspecific hybrid zone in the hypervariable tree, *Metrosideros polymorpha*, on Hawaii Island. Heredity 117: 173–183. https://doi.org/10.1038/hdy.2016.40

Stacy, E. A., J. B. Johansen, T. Sakishima, D. K. Price, and Y. Pillon, 2014 Incipient radiation within the dominant Hawaiian tree *Metrosideros polymorpha*. Heredity 113: 334–342. https://doi.org/10.1038/hdy.2014.47

Stacy, E. A., B. Paritosh, M. A. Johnson, and D. K. Price, 2017 Incipient ecological speciation between successional varieties of a dominant tree involves intrinsic postzygotic isolating barriers. Ecol. Evol. 7: 2501–2512. https://doi.org/10.1002/ece3.2867

Stanke, M., R. Steinkamp, S. Waack, and B. Morgenstern, 2004 AUGUSTUS: a web server for gene finding in eukaryotes. Nucleic Acids Res. 32: W309–W312. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkh379

The UniProt Consortium, 2017 UniProt: the universal protein knowledgebase. Nucleic Acids Res. 45: D158–D169. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkw1099

Wicker, T., H. Gundlach, M. Spannagl, C. Uauy, P. Borrill et al., 2018 Impact of transposable elements on genome structure and evolution in bread wheat. Genome Biol. 19: 103. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-018-1479-0