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A chromosomal genomics approach to assess and validate the desi and kabuli draft chickpea genome assemblies

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Summary

With the expansion of next-generation sequencing technology and advanced bioinformatics, there has been a rapid growth of genome sequencing projects. However, while this technology enables the rapid and cost-effective assembly of draft genomes, the quality of these assemblies usually falls short of gold standard genome assemblies produced using the more traditional BAC by BAC and Sanger sequencing approaches. Assembly validation is often performed by the physical anchoring of genetically mapped markers, but this is prone to errors and the resolution is usually low, especially towards centromeric regions where recombination is limited. New approaches are required to validate reference genome assemblies. The ability to isolate individual chromosomes combined with next-generation sequencing permits the validation of genome assemblies at the chromosome level. We demonstrate this approach by the assessment of the recently published chickpea kabuli and desi genomes. While previous genetic analysis suggests that these genomes should be very similar, a comparison of their chromosome sizes and published assemblies highlights significant differences. Our chromosomal genomics analysis highlights short defined regions that appear to have been misassembled in the kabuli genome and identifies large-scale misassembly in the draft desi genome. The integration of chromosomal genomics tools within genome sequencing projects has the potential to significantly improve the construction and validation of genome assemblies. The approach could be applied both for new genome assemblies as well as published assemblies, and complements currently applied genome assembly strategies.

Keywords: chickpea, genome assembly, cytogenetics, cicer.

Introduction

Efforts to sequence and characterize crop genomes have been boosted in recent years by unprecedented developments in next-generation DNA sequencing (NGS). These technologies have dramatically reduced the cost of generating genome sequence data and present exciting new opportunities for crop genetics and breeding (Edwards and Batley, 2010; Varshney et al., 2009). NGS technologies, currently dominated by the Illumina sequencing platforms, have seen a steady increase in read length, data quality and data quantity since their introduction less than a decade ago. The bioinformatics analysis of this data has been a challenge (Batley and Edwards, 2009);

however, an increasing number of tools are now available to interrogate and analyse these data (Lai et al., 2012b; Lee et al., 2012; Marshall et al., 2010).

One consequence of the growth of genome sequencing projects is a general decrease in accepted genome quality. The aim of any genome sequencing project should be to produce a genome that is fit for purpose, and often rough drafts are all that are required to answer important biological questions. Basic assemblies that produce the sequence of all genes, promoters and low copy or unique regions are relatively inexpensive and provide valuable biological insights, while more robust pseudomolecule assemblies have greater utility in the identification of gene variation underlying traits, and for use in genomics-assisted

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breeding (Duran et al., 2010; Varshney et al., 2005). However, the production of valid pseudomolecules representing individual chromosomes is the ultimate aim of many genome projects and remains a significant challenge, even in the age of NGS (Imelfort and Edwards, 2009).

Since the sequencing of the first plant genome, Arabidopsis thaliana (Arabidopsis_Genome_Initiative, 2000), and the first crop genome, rice (Yu et al., 2002), genome sequencing methods have advanced significantly (Berkman et al., 2012a; Edwards and Batley, 2010; Edwards and Wang, 2012; Edwards et al., 2013). Maize was the first large crop genome to be published (Schnable et al., 2011), and maize genome resequencing has demonstrated a huge diversity in the genome structure between different varieties. Other less complex crop genomes have been sequenced, including the 1.1 Gbp soybean genome (Schmutz et al., 2010) and the 844 Mbp autotetraploid genome of potato (Xu et al., 2011). The soybean genome was sequenced using a whole-genome shotgun approach, while the relatively small potato genome was resolved by sequencing a homozygous doubled-monoploid potato clone using data from the Illumina and Roche 454 platforms.

Generating draft genome sequence assemblies of the simpler crop genomes, such as pigeonpea, are feasible and almost routine using whole-genome shotgun sequencing and Illumina sequencing technology (Varshney et al., 2012). For complex genomes such as bread wheat, the complexity and size of the 17 Gbp genome, comprising three homoeologous subgenomes, necessitates alternative approaches to whole-genome de novo sequencing. These include the isolation of individual chromosome arms using flow cytometry and a two-stage sequencing approach which aims to initially generate draft shotgun assemblies of individual isolated chromosome arms (Berkman et al., 2011, 2012b, 2013; Hernandez et al., 2012), followed by the sequencing of BAC tiling paths representing each of these arms (Lai et al., 2012a). The highly complex canola genome, which combines polyploidy with recent triplication in the diploid progenitors, presents a significant challenge for assembly. A public assembly of one diploid progenitor genome was published in 2011 (Wang et al., 2011), while the second is near completion (http://www.brassica.info/). An initial draft genome for canola was produced in 2009, although this remains proprietary and efforts are currently underway to produce a public canola genome sequence (http://www.brassica.info/).

Chickpea (Cicer arietinum) is the second most important grain legume crop in the world, grown on about 12 million hectares in Asia, Latin America and Australia. This crop is represented by two main market types: large seeded kabuli and small seeded desi. These two types share a common ancestry, with kabuli evolving from *desi* in the Mediterranean basin, with subsequent selection for traits such as flower colour and seed tannins (Jana and Singh, 1993; Maesen, 1972; Moreno and Cubero, 1978). Genome assemblies have recently become available for both kabuli (Varshney et al., 2013) and desi (Jain et al., 2013) types. Surprisingly, these genome assemblies appear to be significantly different. To resolve these differences, we have developed and applied a chromosomal genomics approach for genome assembly validation. Using flow cytometry, we isolated individual chromosomes of chickpea for the generation of Illumina NGS sequence data. Mapping the resulting sequence reads from isolated kabuli and desi chickpea chromosomes to the reference genome assemblies allowed us to assess the quality of assembly of the two published genome sequences.

Results and discussion

Estimation of nuclear genome size

Knowledge of genome size is critical to estimate the quality of a genome sequence assembly. To estimate the genome size of both desi and kabuli chickpea types, we used DNA flow cytometry, which is currently considered the most reliable method (Doležel and Bartos, 2005). This analysis revealed that chickpea has a medium-sized genome of less than 900 Mbp and that both types of chickpea do not differ significantly in genome size (Table 1). Our estimates are similar to the 1.9 pg DNA/2C (929 Mbp/1C) reported by Bennett and Smith (Bennett and Smith, 1976), greater than the kmer-based estimate of CDC Frontier (Varshney et al., 2013), but significantly lower than the average 2C value of 3.41 pg DNA as predicted by Ohri and Pal (Ohri and Pal, 1991). This difference may be attributed to different methods (Feulgen microdensitometry was used in the older study) and to different reference standards (Doležel and Bartoš, 2005). Nevertheless, it is worth noting that Ohri and Pal (Ohri and Pal, 1991) did not observe significant differences in genome size between kabuli and desi.

Comparison of the published kabuli and desi chickpea draft genomes

An initial comparison of assembly statistics for the two draft chickpea genomes suggests differences in assembly quality. Both draft genomes were assembled from NGS data. The kabuli assembly was constructed mostly from Illumina data (Varshney et al., 2013) supported by BAC-end sequences generated using Sanger-based methods, while the desi assembly applied a hybrid approach, combining Roche/454 and Illumina data. The kabuli assembly captured 532 Mbp (60.3% of the estimated genome size) in scaffolds greater than 1000 bp compared to 519 Mbp for desi (59.8% of the estimated genome size) in scaffolds greater than 200 bp. Thus, both assemblies represented similar genome fractions. However, the desi genome assembly was far more fragmented, with a total of 32 935 scaffolds greater than 1000 bp and an N50 of 106 Kbp, compared to 7163 scaffolds and an N50 of 39 989 Kbp for kabuli (Table 2). The method applied to place the scaffolds into pseudomolecules was similar for both genomes, although genotyping by sequencing (GBS) markers were included to validate the kabuli assembly.

Pairwise comparison of each of the pseudomolecules from the two assemblies revealed numerous structural variations (Figure 1). These differences include both long and short regions where the orientations of the sequence differed, for example the region from 9.33 Mb to 24.96 Mb on kabuli pseudomolecule

*Genotypes used for chromosome sorting and sequencing.

*Considering $1C = 868$ Mbp (Table 1).

**Considering $1C = 882$ Mbp (Table 1).

Ca1 is inverted compared to the equivalent region on the desi assembly. There were differences in the position of regions within a pseudomolecule, for example the first half of desi pseudomolecule Ca5 is inverted and matches the centre of kabuli pseudomolecule Ca5. Of particular interest, we observed several large regions of similarity between unrelated pseudomolecules. These include desi pseudomolecule Ca8 matching a region at the start of kabuli pseudomolecule Ca7, while kabuli pseudomolecule Ca8 matches the last third of desi pseudomolecule Ca3. A large portion of kabuli pseudomolecule Ca6 matched the second half of desi pseudomolecule Ca2. These differences suggest misassembly of one or both draft genome assemblies.

Isolation and sequencing of chickpea chromosomes

To assess and validate the assembled pseudomolecules from the two genome assemblies, we isolated and sequenced individual chromosomes from both kabuli and desi varieties of chickpea and mapped the resulting sequence reads to the published reference assemblies. For shotgun sequencing, all chromosomes were flow

sorted from the sequenced reference kabuli 'CDC Frontier', with chromosomes D and E sorted together as a group, while chromosomes A, B and H were flow sorted from the sequenced reference desi 'ICC 4958', (See Appendix 1 for details). DNA from these isolated chromosomes was amplified to produce samples suitable for sequencing using Illumina technology. All chromosome isolates could be sorted at high purity from both genotypes as determined by microscopic observation.

Estimation of molecular sizes of chickpea chromosomes

We estimated the molecular size of individual chromosomes based on relative chromosome lengths at mitotic metaphase. The results indicate differences in size between desi and kabuli chromosomes as large as 10 Mbp for chromosomes A and B and as small as several hundred Kbp for chromosome F (Table 3). Although the differences between the two types of chickpea may be ascribed in part to differences in chromatin condensation, they correspond well to differences between flow karyotypes of desi and kabuli and differences in chromosome peak positions (Figure 2). For example, chromosomes F and G of desi 'ICC 4958' differ by about 7 Mbp (7%), and their peaks cannot be discriminated based on flow karyotype. In kabuli 'CDC Frontier', the two chromosomes differ by about 10 Mbp (11%) and can be discriminated.

Comparison of pseudomolecule assemblies

A much greater portion of the kabuli assembly could be placed into pseudomolecules (347 247 Kbp) compared with desi (124 386 Kbp). The length of each of the pseudomolecules for kabuli was higher than for desi, and the pseudomolecules represented 39.37% and 14.33% of the estimated genome size in kabuli and desi, respectively (Table 2). Individual pseudomolecules differed in size and their representation of their predicted chromosome size (Table 4). Striking discrepancies were observed for kabuli chromosomes A, B and H, whose pseudomolecules represented on average only about 26% of their predicted size, compared to an average 50%. The smaller than expected pseudomolecule size of these three chromosomes could be explained by the presence of satellite CaRep2 on chromosomes A and B, satellite CaSat2 on chromosomes A and H, and the 45S rDNA locus on chromosome A (Zatloukalová et al., 2011). These highly repetitive regions are likely to collapse into shorter representative regions during de Bruijn graph-based wholegenome assembly.

Figure 1 Dot plot matrix of a comparison of the kabuli and desi and kabuli draft chromosome assemblies.

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Table 3 Chickpea desi and kabuli chromosome nomenclature, their assignment to peak on flow karyotypes, linkage groups, corresponding pseudomolecules and molecular chromosome sizes as determined cytologically

Cicer arietinum								
Desi 'ICC 4958'		Kabuli 'CDC Frontier'			Relative chromosome length [%]		Molecular chromosome size [Mbp]*	
Peak	Chromosome	Peak	Chromosome	Pseudomolecule	Desi '4958'	Kabuli 'Frontier'	Desi '4958'	Kabuli 'Frontier'
	Н		Н	Ca8	7.2	7.8	62.5	68.80
\parallel	G	\mathbb{I}	G	Ca ₁	9.9	9.4	85.93	82.91
		\mathbb{H}	F	Ca2	10.7	10.5	92.88	92.61
\mathbb{H}		IV	E	Ca4	11.5	11.1	99.82	97.90
IV.	D		D	Ca7	12.6	11.8	109.37	104.01
		V	$\sqrt{2}$	Ca ₆	13.2	12.8	114.58	112.90
V	B	V _l	B	Ca ₃	15.8	16.7	137.14	147.29
VI	А	VII	A	Ca ₅	19.0	19.8	164.92	174.64

*Calculated based on nuclear genome size and relative chromosome length.

Table 4 Pseudomolecule size and percentage of predicted chromosome size

The kabuli reference contains short defined misassembled regions

Mapping each of the kabuli isolated chromosome sequence data sets to the kabuli reference genome assembly demonstrated that the majority of the reads matched to their respective pseudomolecule with the exception that chromosome F and G reads map to pseudomolecules Ca2 and Ca1, respectively, the inverse of the earlier assignments to genetic linkage experiments (Millan et al., 2010; Thudi et al., 2011; Zatloukalová et al., 2011). Inspection of the read mapping density (Figure 3) suggested that chromosome F data included sequences specific for pseudomolecule G and vice versa. Chromosome C and the chromosome D/E group also shared contamination, while chromosomes A, B and H

Figure 2 Histograms of relative fluorescence intensity obtained after flow cytometric analysis of DAPI-stained liquid suspensions of mitotic metaphase chromosomes prepared from chickpea desi 'ICC 4958' (a) and kabuli 'CDC Frontier' (b). For chromosome assignment of peaks on flow karyotypes, please see Table 3.

Figure 3 Circos heat map of the kabuli reference pseudomolecules demonstrating density of mapped Illumina paired sequence reads (red colour) from isolated kabuli chromosomes G, F, B, (E,D), A, C and H.

demonstrated a greater purity. The proportion of contamination of chromosome isolates with other chromosomes matched what was expected from the isolation method, with contamination between chromosomes from adjacent flow-sorted peaks.

In addition to the cross-mapping of reads due to chromosomal contamination, we observed regions in the reference pseudomolecules where few reads mapped from the respective chromosome sequence data (Figure 3). For example, a region from 40 141 642 to 40 436 753 bp on pseudomolecule Ca1 had very few reads mapping from the corresponding isolated chromosome G. Interestingly, this region had high mapped read coverage from isolated chromosome C (Ca6). A similar pattern was observed for other gaps across the pseudomolecules and suggests that there are numerous small regions across the kabuli pseudomolecule assembly which were misplaced. In total, we observed 46 regions ranging in size from 57 to 1371 Kbp and representing 16 164 Kbp (3.0%) of the pseudomolecule assemblies that were placed into the wrong pseudomolecule (Table 5). Pseudomolecule Ca8 appears to be the most accurate assembly with only a single region of 341 Kbp which should be located on pseudomolecule Ca6 (Figure 4). In contrast, pseudomolecule Ca6 contains 11 blocks of sequence which should be relocated onto other pseudomolecules.

Some misassembled regions appeared to be contigs misplaced during the scaffolding process, while others appeared within contigs suggesting chimeric contig assembly. Many of the misassembled regions were also flanked by highly repetitive retrotransposon sequences, although there was no clear correlation between the presence of these sequences and the type of misassembly.

An advantage of applying chromosomal genomics approaches to identify genome misassembles is the exceptional resolution provided by NGS read mapping. This resolution will greatly facilitate the relocation of these regions into their correct pseudomolecule. One of the limitations of this approach, however, is the inability to identify intrachromosomal misassembly or misassembles between chromosomes which cannot be separated physically by flow sorting. In this case, chromosomes D and E could only be isolated as a pool, and while we identified several regions on these chromosomes which should be placed on other chromosomes, we could not identify chromosome E (Ca4) regions which were misplaced onto pseudomolecule Ca7 (D) and vice versa.

Large-scale misassemblies in desi reference genome

To determine whether the differences between the two draft genome sequences reflect true structural genome variation or pseudomolecule misassembly, we isolated and sequenced chromosomes A, B and H from desi type chickpea and mapped these reads, together with the related kabuli chromosome-specific reads to the desi reference pseudomolecules (Figure 5) as well as the kabuli pseudomolecules (Figure S1). Sequence reads from both desi and kabuli isolated chromosomes demonstrated almost identical mapping patterns on the pseudomolecules suggesting that the physical genomes, at least for these three chromosomes, are highly similar between *desi* and *kabuli*. In contrast to the results from mapping kabuli chromosome reads to the kabuli pseudomolecules, we observed that the chromosome B (Ca3) reads from kabuli and desi only matched the first portion of desi pseudomolecule Ca3. Sequence reads from isolated chromosome H (Ca8) preferably mapped to the remaining portion of pseudomolecule Ca3 and not to pseudomolecule Ca8. This analysis suggested that the observed differences between the desi and kabuli reference genome assemblies are not due to structural genome differences but are due to misassembly of the desi reference genome.

Table 5 Positions and sizes of misassembled genome blocks on the pseudomolecules of kabuli chickpea CDC Frontier, together with their correct chromosome (pseudomolecule) location

Pseudo-				Chromosome
molecule	Start	End	Length (bp)	(pseudomolecule)
Ca1	17 709 355	17 768 444	59 089	H (Ca8)
Ca ₁	39 419 875	39 639 265	219 390	F(Ca2)
Ca1	39 875 495	40 137 184	261 689	F(Ca2)
Ca1	40 141 642	40 436 753	295 111	C (Ca6)
Ca1	40 737 888	41 342 099	604 211	B(Ca3)
Ca2	1	1 370 632	1 370 631	B(Ca3)
Ca2	4 000 604	4 701 466	700 862	B(Ca3)
Ca ₂	5 875 970	5 981 305	105 335	G (Ca1)
Ca ₂	6 978 984	7 977 546	998 562	H (Ca8)
Ca2	8 329 465	8 839 803	510 338	D/E (Ca7/Ca4)
Ca2	9 713 165	10 056 176	343 011	A (Ca5)
Ca3	2 147 981	2 291 454	143 473	D/E (Ca7/Ca4)
Ca3	5 222 428	5 315 148	92 720	G (Ca1)
Ca3	5 817 530	5 985 956	168 426	D/E (Ca7/Ca4)
Ca3	16 652 391	16 736 790	84 399	C (Ca6)
Ca4	33 548 471	34 015 816	467 345	A (Ca5)
Ca4	39 258 943	40 092 009	833 066	A (Ca5)
Ca5	1	475 756	475 755	D/E (Ca7/Ca4)
Ca5	479 469	967 381	487 912	B(Ca3)
Ca5	1 056 592	1 302 990	246 398	D/E (Ca7/Ca4)
Ca5	1 443 073	1 575 871	132 798	B(Ca3)
Ca5	3 057 844	3 436 790	378 946	B(Ca3)
Ca5	4 300 510	4 897 203	596 693	B(Ca3)
Ca5	5 459 276	5 583 037	123 761	H (Ca8)
Ca5	14 570 063	14 984 575	414 512	H (Ca8)
Ca6	1	95 085	95 084	F(Ca2)
Ca6	1 273 532	1 471 783	198 251	F(Ca2)
Ca6	8 091 437	8 171 394	79 957	H (Ca8)
Ca6	10 834 481	11 048 871	214 390	F(Ca2)
Ca6	11 049 103	11 286 027	236 924	D/E (Ca7/Ca4)
Ca6	22 607 989	23 187 652	579 663	F(Ca2)
Ca6	23 191 730	23 605 994	414 264	A (Ca5)
Ca6	23 607 585	23 929 615	322 030	F(Ca2)
Ca6	29 686 973	30 164 801	477 828	H (Ca8)
Ca6	40 809 786	41 720 980	911 194	A (Ca5)
Ca6	50 526 024	51 189 107	663 083	F(Ca2)
Ca7	259 820	579 136	319 316	G (Ca1)
Ca7	10 581 321	10 638 294	56 973	G(Ga1)
Ca7	19 431 822	19 639 120	207 298	H (Ca8)
Ca7	24 424 554	24 528 692	104 138	F(Ca2)
Ca7	31 258 312	31 438 623	180 311	B(Ca3)
Ca7	34 418 700	34 570 247	151 547	A (Ca5)
Ca7	37 738 053	37 860 082	122 029	G (Ca1)
Ca7	37 864 185	37 939 907	75 722	A (Ca5)
Ca7	44 316 766	44 615 144	298 378	A (Ca5)
Ca8	11 734 308	12 075 396	341 088	C (Ca6)

Interestingly, there were regions of the desi reference pseudomolecules where no reads mapped. We investigated these regions further by mapping desi whole-genome sequence data to the desi pseudomolecules (Figure 5). Surprisingly, again no reads mapped to these regions. To assess whether these regions reflect highly rearranged misassembled chickpea sequence data, for example due to concatenation of reads from the Roche 454

Figure 4 Circos heat map plot of the kabuli reference pseudomolecules demonstrating a high density of sequence reads (red colour) from kabuli chromosome H mapping to pseudomolecule Ca8. A small region on pseudomolecule Ca8 which lacks chromosome H reads is covered by chromosome C reads.

Figure 5 Circos heat map plot of the desi reference pseudomolecules demonstrating a high density of sequence reads (red colour) from kabuli and *desi* (D=desi, K=kabuli) chromosomes B, A, H and whole-genome sequence (WGS) reads of desi.

sequencing platform used in the assembly of the draft desi genome, we remapped the Illumina desi whole-genome data and isolated chromosome data to the desi pseudomolecules at a low stringency. This again failed to produce specific read mapping, and we therefore concluded that these regions of the desi reference pseudomolecules do not reflect the physical content of the desi genome. Extraction of the sequence for these regions and comparison with the swissprot gene database failed to identify a significant number of genes (data not shown), again suggesting that these regions are not true genome sequences.

Conclusions

The expansion of genome sequencing projects and variable quality of published genomes highlights the need for additional approaches to validate and finish high-quality genome assemblies. We have established and assessed a chromosomal genomics approach to validate and compare reference genome assemblies. Overall, the assembly quality of the kabuli genome is high, with relatively few regions in the reference pseudomolecules which appear to have been misassembled into scaffolds on the wrong pseudomolecule. The high-resolution identification of these misplaced regions will aid their relocation on their correct pseudomolecule and the production of an improved reference genome assembly. Observed differences between the kabuli and desi published reference sequences contrast with our previous understanding of the similarity between the genomes. Our chromosomal genomics analysis suggests that the physical genomes of kabuli and desi chickpea types are in fact very similar and the observed differences in the sequence assemblies are due to major errors in the desi genome assembly, including the misplacement of whole chromosomes, portions of chromosomes and the inclusion of a large portion of sequence assembly which does not appear to be from the genome of chickpea. In addition to validating and assessing the genomes of chickpea, chromosomal genomics can be applied to validate and assist in the accurate assembly of other genome references where chromosomes can be isolated using flow sorting and thereby provide more robust genome assemblies that can provide a higher level of value for the many end-users of a particular genome assembly.

Experimental procedures

Estimation of genome size

Nuclear genome size was estimated using flow cytometry according to Doležel et al. (2007) (Doležel et al., 2007). Approximately 30 mg of young chickpea leaf and 10 mg of leaf of soybean (Glycine max L. cv. Polanka, $2C = 2.5$ pg DNA), which served as internal standard (Doležel et al., 1994), were used for sample preparation. Suspensions of cell nuclei were prepared by simultaneous chopping of leaf tissues of chickpea and soybean in a glass Petri dish containing 500 µL Otto I solution (0.1 M citric acid, 0.5% v/v Tween 20). Crude homogenate was filtered through a 50- $µm$ nylon mesh. Nuclei were then pelleted (300 g, 5 min) and resuspended in 300 µL Otto I solution. After 30-min incubation at room temperature, 900 µL Otto II solution (0.4 M Na₂HPO₄) (Otto, 1990) supplemented with 50 μ g/mL RNase and 50 μ g/mL propidium iodide was added. Samples were analysed using a Partec PAS flow cytometer (Partec GmbH, Münster, Germany) equipped with a 488-nm argon laser. At least 5000 nuclei were analysed per sample. Three individuals were analysed for each chickpea accession, and each individual was measured three times on three different days. Nuclear DNA content was then calculated from individual measurements following the formula: 2C nuclear DNA content [pg] = 2.5 \times G₁ peak mean of chickpea / G₁ peak mean of soybean. Mean nuclear DNA content was then calculated for each plant. Genome size (1C value) was then determined considering 1 pg DNA is equal to 0.978×10^9 bp (Doležel et al., 2003).

Molecular sizes of chickpea chromosomes

We determined the relative chromosome lengths in chickpea desi 'ICC 4958' and kabuli 'CDC Frontier'. Mitotic metaphase plates were prepared using synchronized root tip meristems (Vláčilová et al., 2002). Root tips were fixed in 3:1 fixative (absolute ethanol: glacial acetic acid) for a week at 37°C and stained in 2% acetocarmine solution. Chromosome preparations were made according to Masoudi-Nejad et al. (Masoudi-Nejad et al., 2002). The preparations were counterstained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) in Vectashield (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame) and observed under a fluorescence microscope (Olympus AX70, Tokyo, Japan). Chromosome lengths were estimated using the MicroImage software (Olympus) in 15 complete metaphase plates in each genotype, and average values were determined for each chromosome. Molecular chromosome sizes were determined considering relative chromosome lengths and 1C nuclear genome sizes as shown in Table 3.

Flow cytometric chromosome sorting and sequencing

Actively growing roots were used for cell cycle synchronization and preparation of liquid chromosome suspensions according to Vláčilová et al. (Vláčilová et al., 2002). Chromosomes in suspension were stained with $2 \mu q/mL$ DAPI and sorted using a FACSAria flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, San Jose). The identification of the sorted chromosomes A and B was performed using fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) following the protocol of Vláčilová et al. (Vláčilová et al., 2002), using tandem repeat probe CaSat1. The purity of the chromosome H fraction was determined based on chromosome morphology without a specific probe. The chromosomal fractions were sorted with the following purities: A: 93.75% (88.8%), B: 93.50% (91%) and H: 96% (92%) for desi (and kabuli), respectively. For whole-genome amplification, aliquots of 100 000–180 000 chromosomes (corresponding to \sim 20 ng DNA) were sorted into PCR tubes containing 10 µL of deionized water. Chromosomal DNA was purified as described in Šimková et al. (Šimková et al., 2008) using increased proteinase K concentration (300 ng/uL). The purified DNA was amplified using the Illustra GenomiPhi V2 DNA amplification kit (GE Healthcare, New York).

A total of 1 μ g of amplified DNA was used to prepare an Illumina TruSeq DNA HT library for each isolated chromosome, according to the manufacturer's instructions, and sequenced on the Illumina Hiseq2000 platform using standard protocols (Table S1). Chromosomes D and E from kabuli were isolated and sequenced as a group.

Desi and kabuli genome comparison

A pairwise comparison of all desi pseudomolecules with all kabuli pseudomolecules (Figure 1) was produced using the synteny block and anchor filtering algorithms in SyMap v4.0 (Soderlund et al., 2011). SOAP2.21 was applied to map Illumina sequence data to the draft reference genome assemblies. For highconfidence mapping, only paired reads mapping uniquely to the reference was considered. For low stringency mapping, single and nonunique mappings were permitted. Circos v0.56 (Krzywinski et al., 2009) was used to produce circular heatmaps using modified reference genomes with all 'N' nucleotides removed. Custom perl scripts soap2nc.pl and nc2circos.pl were used to convert SOAP output to Circos format. The boundaries of misassembled regions were determined manually by visual examination of the BAM file of mapped reads.

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Supporting information

Additional Supporting information may be found in the online version of this article:

Figure S1 Circos heat map plot of the kabuli reference pseudomolecules demonstrating a high density of sequence reads (red colour) from kabuli and desi (D=desi, K=kabuli) chromosomes B, A and H.

Table S1 Chromosome sequence data generated.

Appendix S1 Detailed analysis of chickpea chromosome sorting.