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The genome and transcriptome of the *Phalaenopsis* yield insights into floral organ development and flowering regulation

Jian-Zhi Huang, Chih-Peng Lin, Ting-Chi Cheng, Ya-Wen Huang, Yi-Jung Tsai, Shu-Yun Cheng, Yi-Wen Chen, Chueh-Pai Lee, Wan-Chia Chung, Bill Chia-Han Chang, Shih-Wen Chin, Chen-Yu Lee, Fure-Chyi Chen

Phalaenopsis orchid is an important potted flower with high economic value around the world. We report the 3.1 Gb draft genome assembly of an important winter flowering *Phalaenopsis* 'KHM190' cultivar. We generated 89.5 Gb RNA-seq and 113 million sRNA-seq reads to use these data to identify 41,153 protein-coding genes and 188 miRNA families. We also generated a draft genome for *Phalaenopsis pulcherrima* 'B8802', a summer flowering species, via resequencing. Comparison of genome data between the two *Phalaenopsis* cultivars allowed the identification of 691,532 single-nucleotide polymorphisms. In this study, we reveal the key role of *PhAGL6b* in the regulation of flower organ development involves alternative splicing. We also show gibberellin pathways that regulate the expression of genes control flowering time during the stage in reproductive phase change induced by cool temperature. Our work should contribute a valuable resource for the flowering control, flower architecture development, and breeding of the *Phalaenopsis* orchids.

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Abstract

Phalaenopsis orchid is an important potted flower with high economic value around the world. We report the 3.1 Gb draft genome assembly of an important winter flowering Phalaenopsis 'KHM190' cultivar. We generated 89.5 Gb RNA-seq and 113 million sRNA-seq reads to use these data to identify 41,153 protein-coding genes and 188 miRNA families. We also generated a draft genome for Phalaenopsis pulcherrima 'B8802', a summer flowering species, via resequencing. Comparison of genome data between the two **Phalaenopsis** cultivars allowed the identification of 691,532 single-nucleotide polymorphisms. In this study, we reveal the key role of *PhAGL6b* in the regulation of flower organ development involves alternative splicing. We also show gibberellin pathways that regulate the expression of genes control flowering time during the stage in reproductive phase change induced by cool temperature. Our work should contribute a valuable resource for the flowering control, flower architecture development, and breeding of the Phalaenopsis orchids.

Keywords: Phalaenopsis, draft genome, PhAGL6b, flower organ development, flowering time

72 INTRODUCTION

Phalaenopsis is a genus within the family Orchidaceae and comprises approximately 66 73 species distributed throughout tropical Asia (Christenson 2002). The predicted Phalaenopsis 74 genome size is approximately 1.5 gigabases (Gb), which is distributed across 19 chromosomes 75 (Lin et al. 2001). Phalaenopsis flowers have a zygomorphic floral structure, including three 76 77 sepals (in the first floral whorl), two petals and one of the petals develop into a labellum in early stage of development, which is a distinctive feature of a highly modified floral part in second 78 floral whorl unique to orchids. The gynostemium contains the male and female reproductive 79 organs in the center (Rudall & Bateman 2002). In the ABCDE model, B-class genes play 80 important role to perianth development in orchid species (Chang et al. 2010; Mondragon-81 Palomino & Theissen 2011; Tsai et al. 2004). In addition, PhAGL6a and PhAGL6b, which were 82 83 expressed specifically in the *Phalaenopsis* labellum, were implied to play as a positive regulator of labellum formation (Huang et al. 2015; Su et al. 2013). However, the relationship between the 84 function of genes involved in floral-organ development and morphological features remains 85 poorly understood. 86

Phalaenopsis orchids are produced in large quantity annually and are traded as the most 87 important potted plants worldwide. During greenhouse production of young plants, the high 88 temperature >28°C was routinely used to promote vegetative growth and inhibit spike initiation 89 (Blanchard & Runkle 2006). Conversely, a lower ambient temperature (24/18°C day/night) is 90 used to induce spiking (Chen et al. 2008) to produce flowering plants. Spike induction in 91 Phalaenopsis orchid by this low temperature is the key to precisely control its flowering date. 92 93 Several studies have indicated that low temperatures during the night are necessary for Phalaenopsis orchids to flower (Blanchard & Runkle 2006; Chen et al. 1994; Chen et al. 2008; 94 Wang 1995). Despite a number of expressed sequence tags (ESTs), RNA-seqs and sRNA-seqs 95 from Phalaenopsis inflorescence, flowering buds and leaves with or without low temperature 96 treatment have been reported and deposited in GenBank or OrchidBase (An & Chan 2012; An et 97 98 al. 2011; Hsiao et al. 2011; Su et al. 2011), only a few flowering genes or miRNAs have been identified and characterized. Besides, the clues to the spike initiation during reproductive phase 99 change in the shorten stem, which may produce signals related to flowering during cool 100 temperature induction, have not been dealt with. So far, the molecular mechanisms leading to 101 spiking of *Phalaenopsis* has yet to be elucidated. 102

Here we report a high-quality genome and transcriptomes (mRNAs and small RNAs) of *Phalaenopsis* 'KHM190', a winter flowering hybrid with spike formation in response to low temperature. We also provide resequencing data for summer flowering species *P. pulcherrima* 'P8802'. Our comprehensive genomic and transcriptome analyses provide valuable insights into the molecular mechanisms of important biological processes such as floral organ development and flowering time regulation.

109 METHODS SUMMARY

The genome of the Phalaenopsis Brother Spring Dancer 'KHM190' cultivar was sequenced on 110 the Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform. The obtained data were used to assemble a draft genome 111 sequence using the Velvet software (Zerbino & Birney 2008). RNA-Seq and sRNA-Seq data 112 were generated on the same platform for genome annotation and transcriptome and small RNA 113 analyses. Repetitive elements were identified by combining information on sequence similarity at 114 the nucleotide and protein levels and by using de novo approaches. Gene models were predicted 115 by combining publically available *Phalaenopsis* RNA-Seq data and RNA-Seq data generated in 116 this project. RNA-Seq data were mapped to the repeat masked genome with Tophat (Trapnell et 117 al. 2009)and CuffLinks (Trapnell et al. 2012). The detailed methodology and associated 118 references are available in the SI Appendix. 119

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121 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Genome sequencing and assembly. We sequenced the genome of the *Phalaenopsis* orchid 122 cultivar 'KHM190' (SI Appendix, Fig. S1a) using the Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform and 123 assembled the genome with the Velvet assembler, using 300.5 Gb (90-fold coverage) of filtered 124 high-quality sequence data (SI Appendix, Table S1). This cultivar has an estimated genome size 125 of 3.45 Gb on the basis of a 17-mer depth distribution analysis of the sequenced reads (SI 126 Appendix, Fig. S2 and S3 and Table S2 and S3). *De novo* assembly of the Illumina reads resulted 127 in a sequence of 3.1 Gb, representing 89.9% of the *Phalaenopsis* orchid genome. Following gap 128 closure, the assembly consisted of 149,151 scaffolds (\geq 1000 bp), with N50 lengths of 100 kb and 129 1.5 kb for the contigs. Approximately 90% of the total sequence was covered by 6,804 scaffolds 130 of >100 kb, with the largest scaffold spanning 1.4 Mb (SI Appendix, Table S3-S5). The 131 sequencing depth of 92.5% of the assembly was more than 20 reads (SI Appendix, Fig. S3), 132 ensuring high accuracy at the nucleotide level. The GC content distribution in the Phalaenopsis 133 genome was comparable with that in the genomes of Arabidopsis (2000), Oryza (2005) and Vitis 134 135 (Jaillon et al. 2007) (SI Appendix, Fig. S4).

Gene prediction and annotation. Approximately 59.74% of the *Phalaenopsis* genome assembly 136 was identified as repetitive elements, including long terminal repeat retrotransposons (33.44%), 137 DNA transposons (2.91%) and unclassified repeats (21.99%) (SI Appendix, Fig. S5 and Table 138 S6). To facilitate gene annotation, we identified 41,153 high-confidence and medium-confidence 139 protein-coding regions with complete gene structures in the Phalaenopsis genome using RNA-140 Seq (114.1 Gb for a 157.6 Mb transcriptome assembly), based on 20 libraries representing four 141 tissues (young floral organs, leaves, shortened stems and protocorm-like bodies (PLBs)) (SI 142 Appendix, Table S7), and we used transcript assemblies of these regions in combination with 143 publically available expressed sequence tags (Su et al. 2011; Tsai et al. 2013) for gene model 144 145 prediction and validation (Dataset S1-S2). We predicted 41,153 genes with an average mRNA

length of 1,014 bp and a mean number of 3.83 exons per gene (Table 1 and Dataset S3). In 146 addition to protein coding genes, we identified a total of 562 ribosomal RNAs, 655 transfer 147 RNAs, 290 small nucleolar RNAs and 263 small nuclear RNAs in the Phalaenopsis genome (SI 148 Appendix, Table S8). We also obtained 92,811,417 small RNA (sRNA) reads (18-27 bp), 149 representing 6,976,375 unique sRNA tags (SI Appendix, Fig. S6 and Dataset S6-S7). A total of 150 650 miRNAs distributed in 188 families were identified (Dataset S8), and a total of 1,644 151 152 miRNA-targeted genes were predicted through the alignment of conserved miRNAs to our gene models (SI Appendix, Fig. S7 and Dataset S9-S10). 153

The *Phalaenopsis* gene families were compared with those of *Arabidopsis* (2000), Oryza 154 (2005), and Vitis (Jaillon et al. 2007) using OrthoMCL (Li et al. 2003). We identified 41,153 155 Phalaenopsis genes in 15,855 families, with 8,532 gene families being shared with Arabidopsis, 156 157 Oryza and Vitis. Another 5,143 families, containing 12,520 genes, were specific to Phalaenopsis (figure. 1). In comparison with the 29,431 protein-coding genes estimated for the Phalaenopsis 158 equestris genome (Cai et al. 2015), our gene set for Phalaenopsis 'KHM190' contained 11,722 159 more members, suggesting a more wider representation of genes in this work. This difference in 160 gene number may be due to different approaches between *Phalaenopsis* 'KHM190' and 161 Phalaenopsis equestris. To better annotate the Phalaenopsis genome for protein-coding genes, 162 we generated RNA-seq reads obtained from four tissues as well as publically available expressed 163 sequence tags for cross reference. Besides, *Phalaenopsis* 'KHM190' is a hybrid and 164 Phalaenopsis equestris a species, which may also show gene number difference due to different 165 genetic background. 166

We defined the function of members of these families using Gene ontology (2008), the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (Kanehisa et al. 2012) and Pfam protein motifs (Finn et al. 2014) (SI Appendix, Fig. S8 and Dataset S3-S5). Furthermore, conserved domains could be identified in 50.17% of the predicted protein sequences based on comparison against Pfam databases. In addition, we identified 2,610 transcription factors (6.34% of the total genes) and transcriptional regulators in 55 gene families (SI Appendix, Fig. S9-S11 and Dataset S11-S12).

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Regulation of *Phalaenopsis* floral organ development. The relative expression of all 175 Phalaenopsis genes was compared through RNA-Seq analysis of shoot tip tissues from shortened 176 stems, leaf, floral organs and PLB samples, in addition to vegetative tissues, reproductive tissues, 177 and germinating seeds from P. aphrodite (Su et al. 2011; Tsai et al. 2013) (SI Appendix, Fig. S12 178 and Dataset S1). Phalaenopsis orchids exhibit a unique flower morphology involving outer 179 tepals, lateral inner tepals and a particularly conspicuous labellum (lip) (Rudall & Bateman 180 2002). However, our understanding of the regulation of the floral organ development of these 181 182 species is still in its infancy. To comprehensively characterize the genes involved in the

development of *Phalaenopsis* floral organs, we obtained RNA-Seq data for the sepals, petals and 183 labella of both the wild-type and peloric mutant of Phalaenopsis 'KHM190' at the 0.2-cm floral 184 bud stage, which shows early sign of differentiation. This cultivar presented an early peloric fate 185 in its lateral inner tepals. In a peloric flower, the lateral inner tepals are converted into a lip-like 186 morphology at this bud stage (SI Appendix, Fig. S12a and 12b). We identified 3,743 genes that 187 were differentially expressed in the floral organs of the wild-type and peloric mutant plants. Gene 188 Ontology analysis of the differentially expressed genes in Phalaenopsis floral organs revealed 189 functions related to biological regulation, developmental processes and nucleotide binding, which 190 191 were significantly altered in both genotypes (Huang et al. 2015). Transcription factors (TFs) play a role in floral organ development. Of the 3,309 putative TF genes identified in the Phalaenopsis 192 genome showed differences in expression between the wild-type and peloric mutant plants 193 194 (Dataset S11). Notably, the *PhAGL6b* gene was upregulated in the peloric lateral inner tepals (liplike petals) and lip organs (Huang et al. 2015). We therefore cloned the full-length sequence of 195 *PhAGL6b* from lip organ cDNA libraries for the wild-type, peloric mutant and big lip mutant. 196 The big lip mutant developed a petaloid labellum instead of the regular lip observed in the wild-197 type flower (figure 2b). Interestingly, we identified four alternatively spliced forms of *PhAGL6b* 198 that were specifically expressed only in the petaloid labellum of the big lip mutant (figure 2c and 199 2d and SI Appendix, Fig. S13-S15). The four isoforms of the encoded PhAGL6b products differ 200 in the length of their C-terminus region (figure 2d). C-domain is important for the activation of 201 202 transcription of target genes (Honma & Goto 2001) and may affect the nature of the interactions with other MADS-box proteins in multimeric complexes (Geuten et al. 2006; Gramzow & 203 Theissen 2010). In Oncidium, L (lip) complex (OAP3-2/OAGL6-2/OAGL6-2/OPI) is required 204 for lip formation (Hsu et al. 2015). The Phalaenopsis PhAGL6b is an orthologue of OAGL6-2. In 205 our study, the PhAGL6b and its different spliced forms may each other compete the 206 Phalaenopsis L-like complex to affect labellum development as reported in Oncidium (Hsu et al. 207 2015). This provides a novel clue further supporting the notion that *PhAGL6b* may function as a 208 209 key floral organ regulator in *Phalaenopsis* orchids, with broad impacts on petal, sepal and labellum development (figure 2e). 210

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Control of flowering time in *Phalaenopsis*. The flowering of *Phalaenopsis* orchids is a response 212 to cues related to seasonal changes in light (Wang 1995), temperature (Blanchard & Runkle 213 2006) and other external influences (Chen et al. 1994). A cool night time temperature of 18-20°C 214 for approximately 4 weeks will generally induce spiking in most *Phalaenopsis* hybrids, while 215 high temperature inhibits it. To compare gene expression between a constant high-temperature 216 (30/27°C; day/night) and inducing cool temperatures (22/18°C), we collected shoot tip tissues 217 from shortened stems of mature P. aphrodite plants after treatment at a constant high temperature 218 219 (BH) and a cool temperature (BL) (1 to 4 weeks) for RNA-Seq data analysis (SI Appendix,

Fig.S12g-i). More than 7,500 *Phalaenopsis* genes were found to be highly expressed in the floral 220 meristems during 4 cool temperature periods (showing at least a 2-fold difference in the 221 expression level in the BL condition relative to BH) (Dataset S13). The identified flowering-222 related genes correspond to transcription factors and genes involved in signal transduction, 223 development and metabolism (figure 3 and Dataset S14). The classification of these genes 224 include the following categories: photoperiod, gibberellins (GAs), ambient temperature, light-225 quality pathways, autonomous pathways and floral pathway integrators (Fornara et al. 2010; 226 Mouradov et al. 2002). However, the genes involved in the photoperiod, ambient temperature, 227 light quality and autonomous pathways did not show significant changes in the floral meristems 228 during the cool temperature treatments (SI Appendix, Fig. S16 and Dataset S14). By contrast, the 229 expression patterns of genes involved in pathways that regulate flowering, comprising a total of 230 231 22 GA pathway-related genes, were related to biosynthesis, signal transduction and responsiveness. The GA pathway-related genes and the floral pathway integrator genes have been 232 revealed as representative key players in the link between flowering promotion pathways and the 233 floral transition regulation network in several plant species (Mutasa-Gottgens & Hedden 2009). 234 In contrast to the expression patterns observed in BL and BH, the GA biosynthetic pathway and 235 positively acting regulator genes showed high expression levels in BL. Furthermore, the 236 expression levels of negatively acting regulator genes were suppressed by the cool temperature 237 treatment. The genes included in the flowering promotion pathways and floral pathway 238 239 integrators were generally upregulated in BL (figure 3 and SI Appendix, Fig. S16 and Dataset S11). These findings suggest that the GA pathway may play a crucial role in the regulation of 240 flowering time in *Phalaenopsis* orchid during cool temperature. 241

Polymorphisms for *Phalaenopsis* orchids. The *Phalaenopsis* genome assembly also provides 242 the basis for the development of molecular marker-assisted breeding. Analysis of the 243 Phalaenopsis genome revealed a total of 532,285 simple sequence repeats (SSRs) (SI Appendix, 244 Fig. S17 and Table S9 and Dataset S15). To enable the identification of single nucleotide 245 246 polymorphisms (SNPs), we re-sequenced the genome of a summer flowering species, P. pulcherrima 'B8802', with about tenfold coverage. Comparison of the genome data from the two 247 Phalaenopsis accessions (KHM190 and B8802) allowed the discovery of 691,532 SNPs, which 248 should be valuable for future development of SNP markers for *Phalaenopsis* marker-assisted 249 selection. (SI Appendix, Fig. S18 and Table S10 and Dataset S16). 250

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252 CONCLUSION

In this study, we sequenced, de novo assembled, and extensively annotated the genome of one of the most important *Phalaenopsis* hybrid. We also annotated the genome with a wealth of RNAseq and sRNA-seq from different tissues, and many genes and miRNAs related to floral organ development, flowering time and protocorm (embryo) development were identified. Importantly,

this RNA-Seq and sRNA-seq data allowed us to further improve the genome annotation quality. 257 In addition, mining of SSR and SNP molecular markers from the genome and transcriptomes is 258 currently being adopted in advanced breeding programs and comparative genetic studies, which 259 should contribute to efficient *Phalaenopsis* cultivar development. Despite the *P. equestris* 260 genome has been reported recently (Cai et al. 2015), focus on floral organ development and 261 flowering time regulation has not been dealt with. In our study, we obtained transcriptomes from 262 shortened stems, which initiate spikes in response to low ambient temperature, and floral organs 263 and generated valuable data of potentially regulate flowering time key genes and floral organ 264 development. The genome and transcriptome informations of our work should provide a 265 constructive reference resource to upgrade the efficiency of cultivation and genetic improvement 266 of Phalaenopsis orchids. 267 268

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277 Acknowledgements

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282 Author Contributions

283 J.-Z.H., S.-W.C., C.-Y.L. and F.-C.C. conceived the project and the strategy. C.-P.Lin, C.-P.Lee, W.-C.C. and B.-C.H.C. conducted sequencing, assembly and annotation. C.-P.Lin were involved 284 in genome resequencing analysis. J.-Z.H., C.-P.Lin, T.-C.C., Y.-W. H., Y.-J. T., S.-Y. C. and W.-285 C.C. performed RNA-Seq analysis. J.-Z.H., and C.-P.Lee performed sRNA-Seq analysis. C.-P.Lin 286 and C.-P.Lee performed gene GC content analyses. C.-P.Lin and W.-C.C. transposable-element 287 analysis. C.-P.Lin, and C.-P.Lee performed transfer RNA and microRNA analyses. J.-Z.H., C.-288 P.Lin, C.-P.Lee, B.-C.H.C. S.-W.C., C.-Y.L. and F.-C.C. performed SSR and SNP markers 289 development. J.-Z.H. and C.-P.Lin performed gene evolutionary analyses. J.-Z.H., C.-P.Lin and 290 W.-C.C. performed gene family analyses. J.-Z.H. and T.-C.C. performed RT-PCR and real-time 291 292 PCR analyses. J.-Z.H., T.-C.C., Y.-W. H., Y.-J. T., S.-Y., S.-W.C., C.-Y.L. and F.-C.C. performed 293 plant material development, DNA or RNA extraction and phenotyping. J.-Z.H., C.-P.Lin, S.-

294 W.C., C.-Y.L. and F.-C.C. wrote the manuscript .

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296 Data deposition:

The Phalaenopsis genome assembly, transcriptomic and sRNA-seq data were deposited in 297 Genbank with BioProject ID PRJNA271641. The version described in this paper is the first 298 299 version, JXCR00000000. All short-read data are available via Sequence Read Archive: SRR1747138, SRR1753944, SRR1753945, SRR1753946, SRR1753947, 300 SRR1753943, SRR1753949, SRR1753948, SRR1753950, SRR1752971, SRR1753106, SRR1753165, 301 (Phalaenopsis 302 SRR1753166 'KHM190' genomic DNA); SRR1762751, SRR1762752, SRR1762753 (Phalaenopsis 'B8802' SRR1760428, SRR1760429, genomic DNA); 303 SRR1760430, SRR1760432, SRR1760433, SRR1760435, SRR1760436, SRR1760438, 304 SRR1760439, SRX396172, SRX396784, SRX396785, SRX396786, SRX396787, SRX396788 305 SRR1760091, SRR1760211, SRR1760212, SRR1760213, SRR1760270, 306 (RNA-seq); SRR1760271. SRR1760523, SRR1760524, SRR1760525. SRR1760526, SRR1760527, 307 SRR1760528, SRR1760530, SRR1760531, SRR1760532 (small RNA) 308

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312 Figure Legends

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Figure 1. Venn diagram showing unique and shared gene families between and among
 Phalaenopsis, Oryza, Arabidopsis and *Vitis.*

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Figure 2. Possible evolutionary relationship of *PhAGL6b* in the regulation of lip formation in *Phalaenopsis* orchid.

(a) Wild-type flower. (b) A big lip mutant of *Phalaenopsis* World Class 'Big Foot'. (c) 319 320 Representative RT-PCR result showing the mRNA splicing pattern of *PhAGL6b* in wild-type (W) and big lip mutant (M). (d) Alignment of the amino acid sequences of alternatively spliced forms 321 of PhAGL6b. (e) Model of PhAGL6b spatial expression for controlling Phalaenopsis floral 322 323 symmetry. *PhAGL6b* ectopic expression in the distal domain (petal; pink), petal converts into a lip-like structure that leads to radial symmetry. Ectopic expression in proximal domain, (sepal; 324 blue) sepal converts into a lip-like structure that leads to bilateral symmetry¹⁵. The alternative 325 processing of *PhAGL6b* transcripts produced in proximal domain (labellum; pink), labellum 326 converts into a petal-like structure that leads to radial symmetry. *PhAGL6b* expression patterns in 327 Phalaenopsis floral organs are either an expansion or a reduction across labellum. This implies 328 that *PhAGL6b* be a key regulator to the bilateral or radially symmetrical evolvements. Pink color: 329 2nd whorl of the flower; blue color: 1st whorl of the flower; fan-shaped symbol: petal or petal-330 331 like structure; triangle symbol: labellum or lip-like structure; Curved symbol: sepal.

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Figure 3. Predicted pathway in the regulation of spike induction in

334 *Phalaenopsis*.

Red color indicates that the involved genes are more highly expressed in the GA biosynthesis 335 pathway; whereas pink color of gene names indicates their differential expression in the GA 336 response pathway. Blue colors of gene names represent the activation of flower 337 338 architecture genes. Red arrows show the steps of the GA signaling stage; Pink arrows direct the steps of inflorescence evocation stage; Blue arrows reveal the steps of flower stalk initiation 339 Black 2Xindicate the downregulated 340 stage. arrows genes over. GA20ox, GA3ox, GAMYB, FT, SOC1, LFY and AP1 are upregulated 2X over. 341

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347 Supplementary files

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349	SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION APPENDIX
350	Dataset 1-14
351	Dataset 13
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385	Table 1 Statistics of the <i>Phalaenopsis</i> draft genome		
386	Estimate of genome size	3.45 Gb	
387	Chromosome number (2n)	38	
388	Total size of assembled contigs	3.1 Gb	
389	Number of contigs (≥1kp)	630,316	
390	Largest contig	50,944	
391	N50 length (contig)	1,489	
392	Number of scaffolds (≥1kp)	149,151	
393	Total size of assembled scaffolds	3,104,268,398	
394	N50 length (scaffolds)	100,943	
395	Longest scaffold	1,402,447	
396	GC content	30.7	
397	Number of gene models	41,153	
398	Mean coding sequence length	1,014 bp	
399	Mean exon length/ number	264 bp / 3.83	
400	Mean intron length/ number	3,099 bp / 2.83	
401	Exon GC (%)	41.9	
402	Intron GC (%)	16.1	
403	Number of predicted miRNA genes	650	
404	Total size of transposable elements	1,598,926,178	
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Figure 1(on next page)

Figure 1

Figure 1. Venn diagram showing unique and shared gene families between and among *Phalaenopsis*, *Oryza*, *Arabidopsis* and *Vitis*.

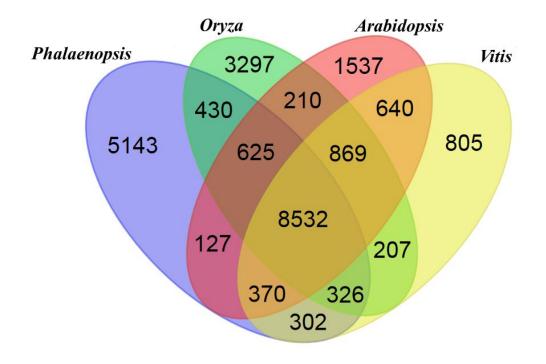


Figure 2(on next page)

Figure 2

Figure 2. Possible evolutionary relationship of *PhAGL6b* in the regulation of lip formation in *Phalaenopsis* orchid. (a) Wild-type flower. (b) A big lip mutant of *Phalaenopsis* World Class 'Big Foot'. (c) Representative RT-PCR result showing the mRNA splicing pattern of *PhAGL6b* in wild-type (W) and big lip mutant (M). (d) Alignment of the amino acid sequences of alternatively spliced forms of *PhAGL6b*. (e)Model of*PhAGL6b* spatial expression for controlling *Phalaenopsis* floral symmetry. *PhAGL6b* ectopic expression in the distal domain (petal; pink), petal converts into a lip-like structure that leads to radial symmetry. Ectopic expression in proximal domain, (sepal; blue) sepal converts into a lip-like structure that leads to bilateral symmetry¹⁵. The alternative processing of *PhAGL6b* transcripts produced in proximal domain (labellum; pink), labellum converts into a petal-like structure that leads to radial symmetry. *PhAGL6b* expression patterns in *Phalaenopsis* floral organs are either an expansion or a reduction across labellum. This implies that *PhAGL6b* be a key regulator to the bilateral or radially symmetrical evolvements. Pink color: 2nd whorl of the flower; blue color: 1st whorl of the flower; fan-shaped symbol: petal or petal-like structure; triangle symbol: labellum or lip-like structure; Curved symbol: sepal.

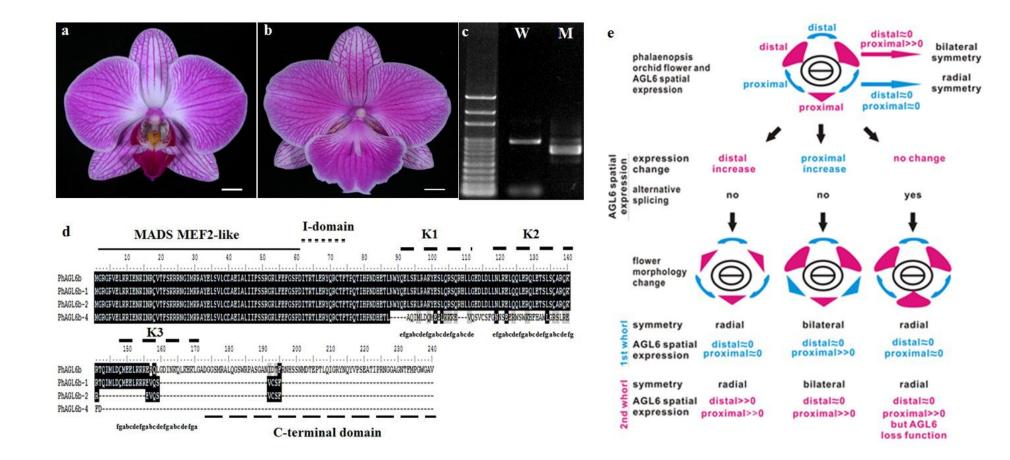


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Figure 3

Figure 3. Predicted pathway in the regulation of spikeinduction in *Phalaenopsis*.

Red color indicates that the involved genes are more highly expressed in the GA biosynthesis pathway; whereas pink color of gene names indicates their differential expression in the GA response pathway. Blue colors of gene names represent the activation of flower architecturegenes. Red arrows show the steps of the GA signaling stage; Pink arrows direct the steps of inflorescence evocation stage; Blue arrowsrevealthe steps offlower stalk initiation stage. Black arrows indicate the genes downregulated 2X over.GA20ox,GA3ox,GAMYB,FT,SOC1, LFYandAP1are upregulated 2X over.

