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Genomic insights into salt adaptation in a desert poplar

Tao Ma^{1,*}, Junyi Wang^{2,*}, Gongke Zhou^{3,*}, Zhen Yue², Quanjun Hu¹, Yan Chen², Bingbing Liu¹, Qiang Qiu¹, Zhuo Wang², Jian Zhang¹, Kun Wang¹, Dechun Jiang¹, Caiyun Gou², Lili Yu², Dongliang Zhan², Ran Zhou¹, Wenchun Luo¹, Hui Ma¹, Yongzhi Yang¹, Shengkai Pan², Dongming Fang², Yadan Luo², Xia Wang¹, Gaini Wang¹, Juan Wang¹, Qian Wang¹, Xu Lu¹, Zhe Chen², Jinchao Liu², Yao Lu², Ye Yin², Huanming Yang², Richard J. Abbott⁴, Yuxia Wu¹, Dongshi Wan¹, Jia Li¹, Tongming Yin⁵, Martin Lascoux⁶, Stephen P. DiFazio⁷, Gerald A. Tuskan⁸, Jun Wang^{2,9} & Jianquan Liu¹

Despite the high economic and ecological importance of forests, our knowledge of the genomic evolution of trees under salt stress remains very limited. Here we report the genome sequence of the desert poplar, *Populus euphratica*, which exhibits high tolerance to salt stress. Its genome is very similar and collinear to that of the closely related mesophytic congener, *P. trichocarpa*. However, we find that several gene families likely to be involved in tolerance to salt stress contain significantly more gene copies within the *P. euphratica* lineage. Furthermore, genes showing evidence of positive selection are significantly enriched in functional categories related to salt stress. Some of these genes, and others within the same categories, are significantly upregulated under salt stress relative to their expression in another salt-sensitive poplar. Our results provide an important background for understanding tree adaptation to salt stress and facilitating the genetic improvement of cultivated poplars for saline soils.

¹ State Key Laboratory of Grassland Agro-Ecosystem, School of Life Sciences, Lanzhou University, Lanzhou 730000, China. ² BGI-Shenzhen, Shenzhen 518083, China. ³ Key Laboratory of Biofuels and Shandong Provincial Key Laboratory of Energy Genetics, Qingdao Institute of Bioenergy and Bioprocess Technology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Qingdao 266101, China. ⁴ School of Biology, Mitchell Building, University of St Andrews, St Andrews, Fife KY16 9TH, UK. ⁵ The Key Lab of Forest Genetics and Gene Engineering, Nanjing Forestry University, Nanjing 210037, China. ⁶ Department of Ecology and Genetics, Evolutionary Biology Centre, Uppsala University, Norbyvägen, 18D 75326 Uppsala, Sweden. ⁷ Department of Biology, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia 26506-6057, USA. ⁸ BioSciences Division, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, Tennessee 37831, USA. ⁹ Department of Biology, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen 1017, Denmark. * These authors contributed equally to this work. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to J.L. (email: liujq@lzu.edu.cn) or to J.W. (email: wangj@genomics.org.cn).

orests dominate much of the terrestrial landscape¹. However, forest trees rarely occur on saline soils and little is known of the genetic basis of their tolerance to salt stress despite strong demand for their cultivation on highly saline soils in many parts of the world². Members of the genus *Populus* are used as a model forest species for diverse studies not only because of their amenability to experimental and genetic manipulation, but also because of their high economic and ecological importance as the most widely cultivated tree throughout the northern hemisphere^{3,4}. More than 30 wild *Populus* species occur across diverse habitats over a wide geographical range, thereby providing an excellent system for unravelling the genetic bases of adaptive divergence⁴. *Populus euphratica* Oliv., which is native to desert regions ranging from western China to North Africa, is characterized by extraordinary adaptation to salt stress⁵⁻⁸. Notably, at high salinity it maintains higher growth and photosynthetic rates than other poplar species^{9,Y0} and can survive concentrations of NaCl in nutrient solution up to

In this study, we examine genomic differences between a xeric desert poplar and its mesophytic congener, *P. trichocarpa*, for which a high-quality reference genome is available¹². We further examine gene expression differences following salt stress treatment in a comparison with another salt-sensitive congener, *P. tomentosa*. Our comparisons highlight the genetic bases of salt tolerance in the desert poplar.

Results

Genome sequencing and assembly. Because of the limitations of next-generation sequencing for complex genome assembly 13 and the high levels of polymorphism found in this non-domesticated and open-pollinated species (Supplementary Fig. S1), we employed a newly developed fosmid-pooling strategy14 to sequence and assemble the P. euphratica genome (Table 1 and Supplementary Methods). Hierarchical assembly using 67.1 Gb ($\sim 112 \times$) wholegenome shotgun reads (Supplementary Table S1), combined with more than 200 × high-quality reads from 66,240 fosmid clones (Supplementary Table S2), yielded a final assembly with a total length of 496.5 Mb (Supplementary Table S3), representing 83.7% of the P. euphratica nucleotide space (Supplementary Tables S4 and S5). The contig N50 of the assembled sequence was 40.4 Kb (longest, 728.4 Kb) and scaffold N50 was 482 Kb (longest, 8.8 Mb; Table 1), which were comparable to those of other plant genome assemblies generated by next-generation sequencing technology (Supplementary Table S6). Sequencing depth distribution showed that over 92.5% of the assembly was covered by more than $20 \times$ (Supplementary Figs S2 and S3), ensuring a high single-base accuracy. The heterozygosity level in P. euphratica was $\sim 0.5\%$ (Supplementary Tables S7 and S8, and Supplementary Fig. S4), which is almost twice that in P. trichocarpa $(0.26\%)^{12}$. The assembly covered 97.3% of the 516,712 Populus expressed sequence tags (Supplementary Table S9) and 97.7% of the 7 complete fosmids sequenced by Sanger sequencing (Supplementary Table S10 and Supplementary Fig. S5), without any obvious misassembly occurring. The coverage of the core eukaryotic genes was estimated

to be 94.35% for the *P. euphratica* assembly (Supplementary Table S11), which is comparable to the estimate for *P. trichocarpa* (93.95%). All of these statistics supported that our draft genome sequence has high contiguity, coverage and accuracy, further demonstrating the feasibility of this hierarchical approach for *de novo* sequencing and assembly of a complex genome with high heterozygosity¹⁴.

Genome annotation. Using a combination of homology-based searches and *de novo* annotation, we found that ~44% of the *P. euphratica* genome is composed of repetitive elements (Supplementary Table S12), similar to that of the *P. trichocarpa* genome (47%; Fig. 1). Long-terminal repeats (LTRs) were the most abundant repeat class, representing 36.7% and 33.1% of the *P. euphratica* and *P. trichocarpa* genomes, respectively (Supplementary Table S13). The distribution of repeat divergence rates revealed a peak of gypsy LTR at 11% in *P. euphratica* (Supplementary Fig. S6), which is likely to reflect a relatively recent expansion of this LTR family in the *P. euphratica* lineage.

A total of 34,279 protein-coding genes were predicted to be present in the P. euphratica genome (Supplementary Table S14 and Supplementary Fig. S7), 96.6% of which were supported by expressed sequence tags and/or homology-based searching with only 3.4% derived solely from de novo gene predictions (Supplementary Fig. S8). Functional annotation confirmed that 94.3% of the predicted genes had known homologues in protein databases (Supplementary Table S15). Small RNA sequencing data supported the occurrence of 152 conserved and 114 candidate novel microRNAs predicted from the P. euphratica genome (Supplementary Table S16, Supplementary Data 1 and 2, and Supplementary Figs S9-S11), most of which were extensively up/downregulated in response to salt stress (Supplementary Table S17 and Supplementary Fig. S12). In addition, we also identified 764 transfer RNAs, 706 ribosomal RNAs and 4,826 small nuclear RNAs (Supplementary Table S18).

Genome evolution. In accordance with previous research 12,15, the distribution of the fourfold degenerate synonymous sites of the third codons (4DTv) value between duplicated genes showed similar peaks (~ 0.09 and ~ 0.59) in both P. euphratica and P. trichocarpa genomes, suggesting that two ancient wholegenome duplication (WGD) events had occurred in the Populus lineage (Supplementary Table S19, Supplementary Figs S13 and S14). These shared WGDs were also confirmed by the extensive collinearity between the genomes of both species (Fig. 1). A total of 1,214 collinear blocks >10 kb in length, corresponding to 323 Mb (65% of the assembly) and 332 Mb (76%) in the P. euphratica and P. trichocarpa genomes, respectively, were identified (Supplementary Table S20). Assuming that the recent WGD occurred around 65 million years ago (Mya)¹², divergence between P. euphratica and P. trichocarpa can be placed to ~ 14 Mya (4DTv, ~ 0.02), which approximates to that estimated from phylogenetic analysis (~8 Mya; Supplementary Fig. S15).

We identified and designed a total of 18,938 universal pairs of simple sequence repeat primers in the collinear regions, which

Table 1 Statistics for the assembly of the <i>Populus euphratica</i> genome.				
Assembly	Contig N50 [*] (bp)	Longest contig (bp)	Scaffold N50* (bp)	Longest scaffold (bp)
Normal whole-genome shotgun reads only	5,209	97,386	40,276	744,683
Fosmid reads only	6,519	46,382	10,282	69,305
Combined	40,438	728,449	482,055	8,759,900

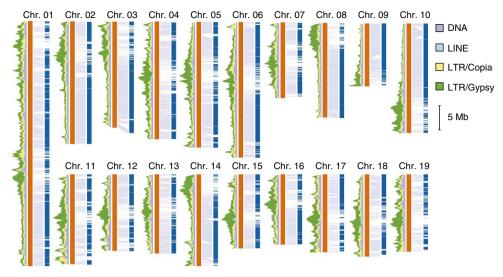


Figure 1 | Collinearity between the *P. euphratica* **and** *P. trichocarpa* **genomes.** The *P. euphratica* scaffolds (blue) inferred to be collinear are linked (grey lines) to *P. trichocarpa* chromosomes (orange). The proportion of the repeat elements (left) across the chromosomes is indicated for 400 kb sliding windows at 50 kb steps. DNA transposable elements are shown in purple, long interspersed elements (LINE) are shown in light blue, Copia and Gypsy elements of LTR retrotransposons are shown in yellow and green, respectively.

can be converted into genetic markers across most poplar species (Supplementary Data 3 and Supplementary Table S21). These simple sequence repeat markers, as well as the intraspecific or interspecific nucleotide variation in collinear regions, will facilitate genetic dissection of agronomically important traits and accelerate the genetic improvement of cultivated poplars, particularly for growth on saline soils.

Adaptation to a saline environment. Copy number within gene families has been reported to vary greatly between closely related, divergent species ^{16,17}. Both gene family and InterProScan domain analysis revealed that several gene families related to salt stress were substantially expanded in P. euphratica compared with other plant species (Fig. 2a, Supplementary Tables S22-S24, and Supplementary Figs S16 and S17). For example, the HKT1 (highaffinity K⁺ transporter 1) gene family, which encodes Na⁺/K⁺ transporters that have important roles in affecting or determining salt tolerance in plants¹⁸, expanded from one member in the P. trichocarpa genome to four in the P. euphratica genome. Three of these genes occurred as tandem duplicates in P. euphratica, which together corresponded to a HKT1-like pseudogene in P. trichocarpa (Fig. 2b). HKT1 transporters have a key role in limiting Na+ transport from roots to shoots in Arabidopsis 19, and may account for the lower rate of ion uptake and transport recorded in *P. euphratica*^{9,20,21}. The gene family encoding P-type H⁺-ATPases also had more copies in the *P. euphratica* genome than in the P. trichocarpa genome (Fig. 2c). These P-type ATPases provide the basic energy for Na+/H+ antiporters by sustaining an electrochemical H '+ gradient across the plasma membrane, thus making an important contribution to maintenance of low Na⁺ concentrations in *P. euphratica*^{22,23}. Other expanded gene families include those encoding antioxidative enzymes²⁴, such as CAT (catalase) and GR1 (glutathione reductase), and genes involved in abscisic acid (ABA) signalling regulation²⁵, such as GCR2 (G-protein-coupled receptor 2) and PLD (phospholipase D). Heat-shock proteins usually protect cells against salinity by controlling the proper folding and conformation of proteins²⁶. Several of these families (for example, HSP20, HSP70 and HSP90) were expanded in the P. euphratica genome. In addition, the P. euphratica genome has

more copies of *BADH* (betaine aldehyde dehydrogenase) and *GolS4* (galactinol synthase 4), which encode key enzymes involved in biosynthesis of critical solutes that have roles in osmotic adjustment pathways under salt stress^{27,28}.

Adaptive divergence at the molecular level may also be reflected by an increased rate of non-synonymous changes within genes involved in adaptation²⁹. In collinear regions, we identified 18,262 high-confidence 1:1 orthologous genes between P. euphratica and P. trichocarpa, with a mean protein similarity close to 98.94% (Supplementary Fig. S18). The genes with elevated pairwise genetic differentiation were primarily enriched in 'photosynthetic electron transport chain', 'heat acclimation', 'oxidoreductase activity' and 'cation channel activity' (Supplementary Table S25), indicating rapid evolution and/or adaptive divergence in these functions between P. euphratica and P. trichocarpa. Of the 6,545 high-confidence orthologues identified among 10 plant species (Supplementary Fig. S16), we detected 57 positively selected genes (PSGs) in the P. euphratica lineage (Supplementary Table S26), which is significantly greater than the number (35 PSGs) in the P. trichocarpa lineage (P-value = 0.014 by the Fisher's exact test). Compared with P. trichocarpa PSGs, P. euphratica PSGs were significantly enriched (P-value ≤ 0.05 by the Fisher's exact test) in 'response to stimulus', 'cation binding' and 'oxidoreductase activity' (Fig. 2d). They included ENH1 (enhancer of sos3-1), which encodes a chloroplast-localized rubredoxin-like protein and has an important role in mediation of both ion homeostasis and reactive oxygen species detoxification³⁰; CIPK1 (CBL-interacting protein kinase 1), a protein kinase interacting strongly with the calcium sensors CBL1 and CBL9, and alternatively controlling ABA-dependent and ABA-independent stress responses in Arabidopsis³¹; and PSD1 (phosphatidylserine decarboxylase 1) encoding a crucial enzyme catalysing production of phosphatidylethanolamine and therefore raising stress tolerance by increasing the flexibility of cell membranes³² (Fig. 2c). Several genes encoding transcription factors such as HB40, bHLH87 and AP2/ERF, and oxidoreductases such as peroxidase, 2-oxoglutarate and Fe(II)-dependent oxygenase, also showed signs of positive selection.

To examine the genome-wide responses to salt stress of this desert poplar, we performed a series of deep transcriptome

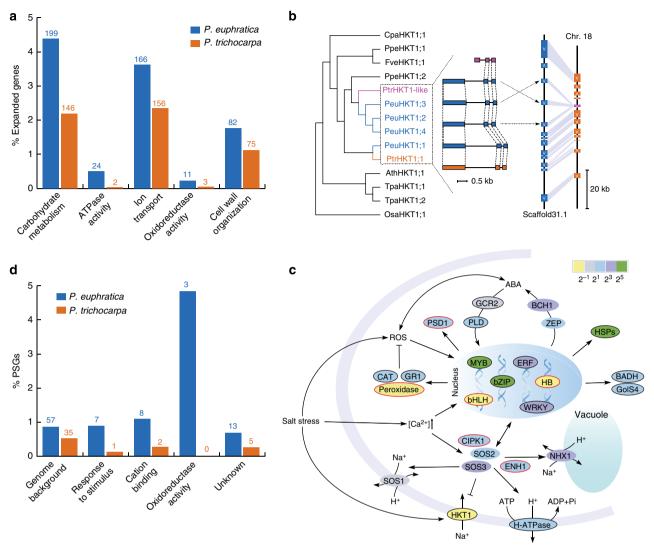


Figure 2 | Adaptation of *P. euphratica* **to salt stress. (a)** Comparison of the proportions of expanded genes in the *P. euphratica* and *P. trichocarpa* lineages relative to their common ancestor. The number of expanded genes of each class is indicated above each bar. (b) Tandem duplications of *HKT1* genes. Note that the *PtrHKT1*-like gene is pseudogenized in *P. trichocarpa*. (c) PSGs and expanded key genes in salt-stress response pathways of *P. euphratica*. Boxes with borders indicate PSGs (red) and expanded (black) *P. euphratica* genes, and the filled colors correspond to their degree of regulation in FPKM_{treatment}/ FPKM_{control} in response to salt stress. (d) Comparison of the proportions of PSGs in the *P. euphratica* and *P. trichocarpa* lineages. The number of PSGs of each class is indicated above each bar. FPKM, fragments per kilobase of exon per million fragments mapped.

sequencings (Supplementary Table S27) that identified 6,727, 3,954 and 3,733 genes that were differentially expressed in saltstressed calluses, leaves and roots of seedlings, respectively (Supplementary Data 4-6 and Supplementary Fig. S19). These differentially expressed genes (DEGs), which included those comprising expanded gene families and also those bearing the signature of positive selection (Fig. 2c, Supplementary Table S28, and Supplementary Figs S20 and S21), were similarly enriched in functional categories, such as 'oxidoreductase activity', 'transcription factor activity' and 'ion transport' (Fig. 3a). Several expanded gene families in the P. euphratica genome comprised transcription factors (Supplementary Table S24), for example, Myb, ERF, bZIP and WRKY, having a role in the regulation of gene expression in response to abiotic stress³³. Some of these were extensively upregulated in response to salt stress (Fig. 2c; Supplementary Tables S28 and S29). Furthermore, the key genes regulating Na⁺/H⁺ antiporters and controlling ion homeostasis³⁴ (Supplementary Table S30), for example, NHX1 (Na +/H + exchanger 1), SOS2 (salt overly sensitive 2) and SOS3,

and those involved in the biosynthesis of ABA 35,36 , for example, *BCH1* (β -carotene hydroxylase 1) and *ZEP* (zeaxanthin epoxidase), were upregulated in salt-stressed samples, which is consistent with previous research 37 .

We further compared the expression profiles of the *P. euphratica* calluses in response to salt stress with those of the *P. tomentosa* (a salt-sensitive poplar²¹) calluses (Supplementary Table S31, Supplementary Figs S22 and S23). The results showed that many of the DEGs (2,278) were specific to *P. euphratica* (Fig 3b), and that more genes involved in 'cation transporter', 'oxidoreductase activity' and 'response to abiotic stimulus' were induced in *P. euphratica* than in *P. tomentosa* (Fig. 3c). Clustering analysis suggested that many of the DEGs exhibited different regulatory patterns in response to salinity between these two species (Fig. 3d). For example, the K⁺ uptake transporter *KUP3* was extensively upregulated after 24h of salt stress in *P. euphratica*, but was maintained at control levels in *P. tomentosa* (Fig. 3e), indicating a critical role of this gene in controlling K⁺ homeostasis in *P. euphratica*. Transcript levels of this gene are

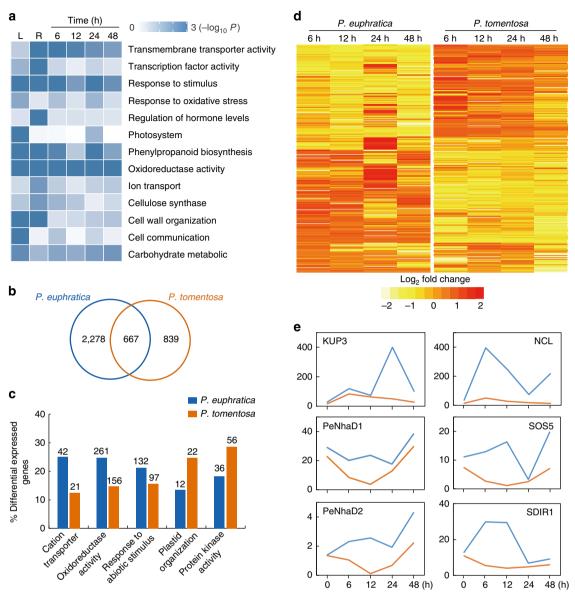


Figure 3 | Comparative transcriptomics of *P. euphratica* and *P. tomentosa* under salt stress. (a) Functional category enrichment (*P*-value ≤ 0.05 by the Fisher's exact test) of DEGs in *P. euphratica* leaves (L), roots (R) and time-course profiles. (b) Venn diagram of the number of DEGs in *P. euphratica* and *P. tomentosa* under salt stress (Supplementary Methods). (c) DEGs proportions in *P. euphratica* and *P. tomentosa*. The number of DEGs of each class is indicated above each bar. (d) Expression of the DEGs identified in *P. euphratica* and/or *P. tomentosa*. The heatmap was generated from hierarchical cluster analysis of genes. (e) Transcript levels of the genes showing different expression patterns between *P. euphratica* (blue) and *P. tomentosa* (orange). The transcript levels were determined by fragments per kilobase of exon per million fragments mapped (FPKM).

strongly induced by K⁺ starvation in Arabidopsis³⁸. Previous research suggested that PeNhaD1, encoding a NhaD-type Na+/ H⁺ antiporter, has a role in mediating sodium tolerance in P. euphratica³⁹. Consistent with this, we identified two gene members encoding NhaD-type antiporters, both of which maintained transcript levels in P. euphratica, but which significantly reduced transcript levels under salt stress after 12 h in *P. tomentosa* before regaining control levels after 24 h (Fig. 3e). Another transporter encoding gene, NCL (Na+/Ca2+ exchanger-like protein), involved in the maintenance of Ca²⁺ homeostasis under salt stress in Arabidopsis⁴⁰, was strongly upregulated in P. euphratica relative to its expression in saltsensitive P. tomentosa. In addition, SOS5, a gene encoding a putative cell surface adhesion protein for the maintenance of cell wall integrity and architecture under salt stress in Arabidopsis⁴¹, was downregulated in *P. tomentosa* after 12h of salt stress, in

contrast to maintenance of transcript levels recorded in *P. euphratica*. We further found that the gene *SDIR1* (salt-and drought-induced ring finger 1), whose overexpression improves drought tolerance in transgenic rice⁴², was specifically upregulated after 6 h and maintained high transcript levels until 12 h after salt stress in *P. euphratica*. Finally, transcription factors, such as *ERF3* and *NAC042*, and the oxidoreductases *AOX1D* (alternative oxidase 1D) and *NDA2* (alternative NAD(P)H dehydrogenase 2), exhibited different expression patterns under salt stress in *P. euphratica* relative to those recorded in *P. tomentosa* (Supplementary Fig. S24).

Discussion

Abiotic stress factors, especially salinity and drought, restrict plant biomass production and pose an increasing threat to sustainable agriculture and forestry worldwide. Numerous studies have been conducted on the genetic and molecular mechanisms underlying salt tolerance in plants^{18,19,30,31}, and have included genomic analyses of the extremophiles *Thellungiella parvula*¹⁶ and *T. salsuginea*⁴³. However, our current understanding of these aspects of salt tolerance remains limited, especially for woody plants^{22,27}. *Populus euphratica* is an excellent candidate for the analysis of salt tolerance²², as it displays apoplastic sodium accumulation and develops leaf succulence after prolonged salt exposure⁸. Consequently, in the last decade it has become a model for elucidating both physiological and molecular mechanisms of salt tolerance in tree species^{5–11}. Using a newly developed fosmid-pooling strategy¹⁴, we sequenced and assembled the complex genome of *P. euphratica* with high heterozygosity and compared it with the closely related salt-sensitive model plant, *P. trichocarpa*.

We found that P. euphratica diverged from P. trichocarpa within the last 8 to 14 million years (Supplementary Fig. S15). Although both species shared at least two WGDs and exhibited extensive collinearity across the gene space (Fig. 1 and Supplementary Fig. S13), species-specific genes involved in stress tolerance, such as 'ion transport', 'ATPase activity', 'transcript factor activity' and 'oxidoreductase activity', were selectively expanded and/or positively selected in the P. euphratica genome (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Tables S23-S26). In this regard, the Na^+/K^+ transporter *HKT1* is of particular interest, because it is similarly expanded as tandem duplicated copies in both T. parvula¹⁶ and T. salsuginea⁴³. Further functional analysis of this gene family is needed to understand its critical role in salt tolerance in plants. In addition, other genes involved in ion transport and homeostasis, such as NhaD1, KUP3 and NCL, were distinctly upregulated under salt stress when compared with another salt-sensitive poplar, P. tomentosa. Our analyses taken together suggest that P. euphratica may have increased its salt tolerance through duplication and/or upregulation of multiple genes involved in ion transport and homeostasis. These findings are important for an improved understanding of tree adaptation to salt stress and for accelerating the genetic improvement of cultivated poplars for growth on saline soils.

Methods

Genome sequencing and assembly. Genomic DNA was extracted from callus induced from *P. euphratica* shoots. Paired-end and mate-pair Illumina libraries were constructed with multiple insert sizes (138–40 kb) according to the manufacturer's instructions. In addition, 66,240 fosmid clones with 40 kb in length were randomly selected and two small insert (250 and 500 bp) libraries were constructed for each clone. All libraries were sequenced on the Illumina Genome Analyzer and HiSeq 2000 sequencing system. The raw reads were processed by removing low-quality reads, adapter sequences and possible contaminated reads. Then a hierarchical strategy¹⁴ was used for genome assembly (Supplementary Methods).

Gene prediction. We used the homology-based and *de novo* methods, as well as RNA-seq data, to predict genes in the *P. euphratica* genome. For homology-based gene prediction, protein sequences from five plants (*P. trichocarpa, Ricimus communis, Prunus persica, Cucumis sativus* and *Glycine max*) were initially mapped onto the *P. euphratica* genome using TBLASTN and the homologous genome sequences were aligned against the matching proteins using GeneWise⁴⁴ for accurate spliced alignments. Next, we used the *de novo* gene prediction methods Augustus⁴⁵ and GenScan⁴⁶ to predict protein-coding genes, using parameters trained for *P. euphratica* and *A. thaliana*. We then integrated the homologues and those from *de novo* approaches using GLEAN⁴⁷ to produce a consensus gene set. In addition, we aligned all the RNA-seq reads to the reference genome by TopHat⁴⁸, assembled the transcripts using Cufflinks⁴⁹ and predicted the open reading frames from the resultant data. Finally, we combined the GLEAN set with the gene models produced from RNA-seq to generate a more confident gene set.

Collinear block and genome duplication identification. Pairwise whole-genome alignment between *P. euphratica* and *P. trichocarpa* was constructed using the BLAST algorithm, and the scaffolds of *P. euphratica* were anchored to the *P. trichocarpa* corresponding chromosomes based on the consensus order of

matched regions. To detect the signature of genome duplication, the programme MCSCAN⁵⁰ was used to define a duplicated block. At least five genes are required to call synteny. For each duplicated block, the 4DTv values were calculated and distributions were plotted.

Gene family clusters. The protein-coding genes from nine plant species (*P. trichocarpa, Ricinus communis, Arabidopsis thaliana, Thellungiella parvula, Carica papaya, Fragaria vesca, Prunus persica, Vitis vinifera and Oryza sativa) were downloaded. The longest translation form was chosen to represent each gene, and stretches of genes encoding fewer than 50 amino acids were filtered out. The OrthoMCL⁵¹ method was then used to cluster all the genes into paralogous and orthologous groups. The 1,776 single-copy gene families obtained from this analysis were used to reconstruct phylogenies and estimate divergence time using MrBayes⁵² and the MCMCtree programme implemented in the Phylogenetic Analysis by Maximum Likelihood⁵³. Calibration times were obtained from the TimeTree database (http://www.timetree.org/).*

Identification of PSGs. Using the orthologues identified by OrthoMCL as a raw data set, we first masked sites with low quality (phred-like quality score < 20) and that were detected as single nucleotide variants in *P. euphratica* coding sequences. We then aligned them using the codon option in the Probabilistic Alignment Kit⁵⁴ programme for the detection of positive selection. Alignments shorter than 150 bp after removing sites with ambiguous data were discarded. Finally, we obtained 6,545 high-confidence orthologues within the two poplar species and at least three of the other eight species (R. communis, A. thaliana, T. parvula, C. papaya, F. vesca, P. persica, V. vinifera and O. sativa), averaging ~7.7 species per gene. These alignments together with an unrooted phylogenetic tree (constructed as described above) were used for subsequent molecular evolutionary analysis. For the estimation of the lineage-specific evolutionary rate, the values of K_a , K_s and K_a/K_s were calculated for 10,000 concatenated alignments constructed from 150 randomly chosen genes using the Codeml programme with the free-ratio model in the Phylogenetic Analysis by Maximum Likelihood⁵³ package. To detect PSGs in either P. euphratica or P. trichocarpa lineage, the lineage was specified in turn as the foreground branch. We then used the optimized branch-site model⁵⁵ in which likelihood ratio test P-values were computed, assuming that the null distribution was a 50:50 mixture of a χ^2 -distribution with one degree of freedom and a point mass at zero. To minimize the false discovery rate, we manually filtered all PSGs with potential errors in their alignments.

Transcriptome sequencing and analysis. Total RNAs were extracted and strandspecific RNA-seq libraries were generated from samples using a cetyl trimethy-lammonium bromide procedure⁵⁶ for transcriptome sequencing. The analysis was conducted on pooled samples of roots, leaves, flower buds, flowers, xylem and phloem from two mature male P. euphratica trees and one mature female tree from the Talim Basin desert, Xinjiang, on control samples and also on salt-stressed samples (200 mM NaCl for 6, 12, 24 and 48 h) generated from the same calluses used in genome sequencing. RNA-seq libraries were sequenced on an Illumina Genome Analyzer platform. In addition, salt-stressed leaves and roots were collected and RNA samples were isolated for Illumina short-read sequencing. Three independent biological replicate samples were examined. The resulting reads were aligned to the P. euphratica genome sequences using TopHat⁴⁸. After alignment, the count of mapped reads from each sample was derived and normalized to fragments per kilobase of exon per million fragments mapped for each predicted transcript using the Cufflinks⁴⁹ package. DEGs were identified using the programme Cuffdiff in the Cufflinks package. We had tried to induce the calluses from P. trichocarpa, but they grew too slowly. We therefore sequenced transcriptomes of P. tomentosa calluses that had been subjected to salt-stress treatment (200 mM NaCl for 0, 6, 12, 24 and 48 h) and identified DEGs in this saltsensitive species. In addition to the analysis as described for P. euphratica, we further assembled and annotated all reads from P. tomentosa using Trinity 57 package (Supplementary Methods). We used the InParanoid⁵⁸ software to identify 1:1 orthologues between P. euphratica and P. tomentosa, and aligned the coding sequences of the orthologues using Threaded Blockset Aligner 59 to extract perfectly aligned consensus blocks. Finally, we counted the reads aligned to the consensus blocks for each sample and performed edgeR⁶⁰ in R package to identify DEGs.

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Author contributions

Jianquan Liu designed and managed the project. Jun Wang led the genome sequencing. Juan Wang and Q.W. prepared the *P. euphratica* nucleic acid samples. Junyi Wang, Z.Y., G.Z., D.J., S.P., D.F., Yadan Luo, X.L. and H.Y. performed the DNA sequencing, Z.Y., Y.C., Z.W., C.G., L.Y., D.Z. and Jinchao Liu performed the genome assembly. Junyi Wang, Y.C., Z.W., X.W., G.W., Z.C., Yao Lu and Ye Yin performed the genome annotation. T.M., Q.H. and Q.Q. designed evolutionary analyses. T.M., G.Z., Y.C., J.Z., Q.Q., K.W., D.J., R.Z. and W.L. performed evolutionary analyses. Q.H., T.M., J.Z., K.W. and W.L. performed the synteny analyses. K.W., T.M., B.L. and H.M. performed the transcriptome analyses. Q.H., B.L. and Yongzhi Yang carried out data submission and

database construction. T.M. and Jianquan Liu wrote the paper. G.A.T., S.P.D., R.J.A., Jun Wang, M.L., T.Y., Jia Li, D.W. and Y.W. revised the paper.

Additional information

Accession codes: The whole-genome shotgun project has been deposited in DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank nucleotide core database under the accession code AOFL00000000. The version described in this paper is the first version, AOFL01000000. All short-read data have been deposited in the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under accession SRA061340. Raw sequence data of the transcriptomes have been deposited in the SRA under accession codes SRP028829 and SRP028830.

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The original version of this Article contained an error in the order in which the first and last name of the author Jianquan Liu were displayed. This has now been corrected in both the PDF and HTML versions of the Article.