

Comparative cytogenomics reveals genome reshuffling and centromere repositioning in the legume tribe Phaseoleae

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SUMMARY

The tribe Phaseoleae (Leguminosae; Papilionoideae) includes several legume crops with assembled genomes. Comparative genomic studies indicated the preservation of large genomic blocks in legumes. However, the chromosome dynamics along its evolution was not investigated in the tribe. We conducted a comparative genomic analysis using CoGe Synmap platform to define a useful genomic block (GB) system and to reconstruct the ancestral Phaseoleae karyotype (APK). We defined the GBs based on orthologous genes between *Phaseolus vulgaris* and *Vigna unguiculata* genomes ($n = 11$), then searched for these GBs in different genome species belonging to the Phaseolinae (*P. lunatus*, $n = 11$) and Glycininae (*Amphicarpaea edgeworthii*, $n = 11$ and *Spatholobus suberectus*, $n = 9$) subtribes, and in the outgroup (*Medicago truncatula*, $n = 8$). To support our *in silico* analysis, we used oligo-FISH probes of *P. vulgaris* chromosomes 2 and 3 to paint the orthologous chromosomes of the non-sequenced Phaseolinae species (*Macroptilium atropurpureum* and *Lablab purpureus*, $n = 11$). We inferred the APK with $n = 11$, 22 GBs (A to V) and 60 sub-GBs. We hypothesized that the main rearrangements within Phaseolinae involved nine APK chromosomes, with extensive centromere repositioning resulting from evolutionary new centromeres (ENC) in the *Phaseolus* lineage. We demonstrated that the *A. edgeworthii* genome is more reshuffled than the dysploid *S. suberectus* genome, in which we could reconstruct the main events responsible for the chromosome number reduction. The development of the GB system and the proposed APK provide useful tools for future comparative genomic analyses of legume species.

Keywords: Genomic Blocks; Ancestral Karyotype; Leguminosae; Oligo-FISH; Dysploidy; Comparative genomics; Genome structure and evolution

Significance statement: We developed a genomic block system and proposed an Ancestral Phaseoleae Karyotype based on available genome assemblies of these legume crops. These tools enabled to reconstruct the main chromosomal rearrangements responsible for the genome reshuffling among the diploid investigated taxa. The analyses also revealed centromere repositioning for all chromosomes, despite conservation of chromosome number.

INTRODUCTION

Since the first plant genome was sequenced and assembled (The Arabidopsis Genome Initiative, 2000), genome sequencing technologies improved and became more accessible, increasing the genomic data available for economic and evolutionary important plant species (e.g., Li *et al.*, 2018; Chen *et al.*, 2018). Sequencing genomes is essential for functional and comparative genomics, playing a fundamental role in understanding the plant biology and chromosomal evolutionary dynamics, such as genome reshuffling (Pavy *et al.*, 2012; Cheng *et al.*, 2014), genome size variation (Wendel *et al.*, 2016; Pellicer *et al.*, 2018; Kreplak *et al.*, 2019; Zhang *et al.*, 2020), polyploidy (Jiao *et al.*, 2011; Soltis *et al.*, 2015; Geiser *et al.*, 2016; Ruprecht *et al.*, 2017; Wu *et al.*, 2020), dysploidy (Lysak *et al.*, 2006; Yang *et al.*, 2014; Mandáková and Lysak, 2018), and other mechanisms for genome and species diversification.

Cytogenomic comparisons of related species may provide important evolutionary insights. In Brassicaceae for instance, chromosome painting based on *A. thaliana* BACs (Bacterial Artificial Chromosomes) as FISH (Fluorescent *in situ* Hybridization) probes (Lysak *et al.*, 2001), together with a genomic block system (Schranz *et al.*, 2006), elucidated the karyotype evolution within this family. These studies allowed to infer the ancestral crucifer karyotype (ACK), revealing chromosomal rearrangements related to the decreasing dysploidy in *A. thaliana* (Lysak *et al.*, 2006), chromosomal reshuffling after whole genome triplication (WGT) in *Brassica* species (Cheng *et al.*, 2014), and centromere repositioning across the family (Willing *et al.*, 2015; Lysak *et al.*, 2016; Mandáková *et al.*, 2020). In *Cucumis* L., genomic blocks combined with FISH maps revealed mechanisms of genome reshuffling, centromere repositioning and decreasing dysploidy in cucumber (*C. sativus* L.) based on ancestral karyotype as reference (Yang *et al.*, 2014). However, due to the complex genome structure and the repetitive DNA content in most plant genomes, chromosome painting probes are available for inter-specific comparison only for a small number of species.

The tribe Phaseoleae (Leguminosae; Papilionoideae) comprises the most economically important legumes, including the paleopolyploid soybean ($2n = 4x = 40$, *Glycine max* L.), and the diploids common bean ($2n = 2x = 22$, *Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) and the cowpea [$2n = 2x = 22$, *Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp. (Moussa *et al.*, 2011; Brookes and Barfoot, 2014; Myers and Kmiecik, 2017)], with genome sizes of ~ 1.1 Gb, ~587 Mb and ~640 Mb, respectively (Schmutz *et al.*, 2010; 2014; Lonardi *et al.*, 2019). Analyses of soybean genome revealed a legume-common tetraploidization (LCT) around 60 million years ago (Mya), and a soybean-specific tetraploidization (SST) in the *Glycine* lineage ~12 Mya (Schmutz *et al.*, 2010). More recently, multi-alignment analyses for ten legume genomes [*Arachis duranensis* Krapov. & W. C. Greg, *A. ipaensis* Krapov. & W. C. Greg, *Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp., *Cicer arietium* L., *G. max*, *Lotus japonicus* (Regel) K. Larsen, *P. vulgaris*, *Vigna angularis* (Willd.) Ohwi & H. Ohashi and *V. radiata* (L.) R. Wilczek] revealed insights into the ancestral polyploidization of legumes and the specific autopolyploidization of *Glycine*, suggesting a tendency of gene loss after polyploidization and extensive chromosome reshuffling (Wang *et al.*, 2017). Nevertheless, the analyses also suggested high levels of synteny among these genomes, with large conserved genomic blocks (Wang *et al.*, 2017).

Within the genus *Phaseolus*, BAC-FISH using *P. vulgaris* probes demonstrated conserved synteny among three species of different clades (Bonifácio *et al.*, 2012; Fonsêca and Pedrosa-Harand, 2013). On the other hand, similar comparative cytogenetic mapping of two species of the Leptostachyus clade from the same genus showed extensive genome reshuffling associated with descending dysploidy involving a nested chromosome fusion between chromosomes 10 and 11 (Fonsêca *et al.*, 2016; Ferraz *et al.*, 2020). Furthermore, comparative cytogenetics and sequence alignment between *Vigna* species and *P. vulgaris* revealed a high degree of synteny with five chromosomes involved in synteny breaks (Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2015; Lonardi *et al.*, 2019; Oliveira *et al.*, 2020; do Vale Martins *et al.*, 2021). A detailed analysis of chromosomes 2 and 3 of *V. angularis*, *V. unguiculata* and *P. vulgaris* based on sequence alignment and oligo-FISH painting integrative approaches, identified additional macro- and micro inversions, translocations, and intergeneric centromere repositioning (do Vale Martins *et al.*, 2021). Centromere repositioning was also detected on chromosomes 5, 7, and 9 by oligo-FISH barcode combined with genome sequence data in *V. unguiculata* and *P. vulgaris* (Bustamante *et al.*, 2021). In addition, the authors detected the involvement of chromosome 5 in the translocation complex 1, 5 and 8, a paracentric inversion on chromosome 10, and detailed a pericentric inversion on chromosome 4. The direction and time of these rearrangements were, however, not determined.

To understand the dynamics of genome reshuffling among diploid Phaseoleae legumes, we constructed a genomic block (GB) system based on comparative cytogenomic data. We compared *P. vulgaris* and *V. unguiculata* genomes to define the GB system using *P. vulgaris* as reference and applied the GBs to four other species with genome assembled: *Phaseolus lunatus* L. ($2n = 2x = 22$), also from the Phaseolinae subtribe; *Spatholobus suberectus* Dunn ($2n = 2x = 18$) and *Amphicarpaea edgeworthii* Benth. ($2n = 2x = 22$), both belonging to the Glycininae subtribe; and *Medicago truncatula* Gaertn ($2n = 2x = 16$, tribe Trifolieae) as an outgroup. Moreover, we performed oligo-FISH using specific probes for *P. vulgaris* chromosomes 2 and 3 to visualize the orthologous chromosomes in two non-sequenced Phaseolinae species with intermediate phylogenetic positions, *Macroptilium atropurpureum* DC. Urb. ($2n = 2x = 22$) and *Lablab purpureus* L. ($2n = 2x = 22$). We hypothesized the Ancestral Phaseoleae Karyotype (APK) and inferred the main chromosomal rearrangements related to the evolution and diversification of these legumes. Our results indicate extensive genome reshuffling in particular lineages and centromere repositioning across the Phaseolinae and Glycininae subtribes at diploid level, with centromere repositioning for all 11 chromosomes of *P. vulgaris/V. unguiculata*, despite their conserved karyotypes. Our GB system and the proposed APK are promising tools for future comparative genomics analyses when further genome assemblies become available.

RESULTS

Genomic blocks and the inferred Ancestral Phaseoleae Karyotype

We aligned *P. vulgaris* (*Pv*) and *V. unguiculata* (*Vu*) genomes based on the collinear arrangement of orthologous genes in dotplots (Supplementary Table 1). Twenty-two genomic blocks (GBs) were defined based on the synteny breaks between both genomes. Using *P. vulgaris* as a reference

karyotype, these GBs were named (A to V), ordered and oriented according to their distribution in the 11 *P. vulgaris* chromosome pairs, with each chromosome containing at least one GB (Supplementary Table 2). Moreover, we divided the 22 GBs into sub-GBs, designed by letters followed by numbers, based on collinearity breaks within GBs. According to the position, orientation, and distribution of the sub-GBs, we performed comparative genomic analyses across the Phaseoleae tribe, detecting the GBs and sub-GBs in *V. unguiculata* (*Vu*), *P. lunatus* (*Pl*), *Spatholobus suberectus* (*Ss*), *Amphicarpaea edgeworthii* (*Ae*) and *M. truncatula* (*Mt*) genomes. In general, all the 22 generated GBs were found in all analysed species. However, due to rearrangements between *P. vulgaris* and other Phaseoleae species, different numbers of sub-GBs were found for each species, with subdivisions within the sub-GBs represented by lowercase letters after numbers (Supplementary Figures 1-5). When sub-GBs could not be detected by the standard SynMap analysis, we conducted a manual search using blastn on CoGe to find these sub-GBs (asterisks on Supplementary Table 2).

To establish the ancestral karyotype of Phaseoleae (APK) based on our GB comparisons, we selected the most frequent GB associations, particularly those also shared with *M. truncatula*, considering the phylogenetic relationships among species, as described by Li *et al.* (2013), and checking if they shared same or similar breaks points. We proposed the APK with $n = 11$ (most common chromosome number within the tribe), 22 GBs and 60 sub-GBs (Supplementary Table 2). The number of APK chromosomes was chosen to maximize the chromosome orthology within the Phaseolinae species (Figure 1A and Supplementary Table 2). The centromere positions in APK chromosomes were hypothesized based on the frequency of associations between GBs and centromeres in the analysed species. However, as the centromere of APK6 (in M2-R8a) was observed only in the Phaseolinae species, it might not represent the ancestral state.

Chromosomal rearrangements and centromere repositioning in Phaseolinae subtribe in relation to the APK

Six APK chromosomes displayed full synteny with at least one chromosome of the three analysed Phaseolinae species: APK2 (*Vu*2), APK3 (*Vu*3), APK4 (*Pv*4, *Pl*4, *Vu*4), APK5 (*Pv*5, *Pl*5), APK7 (*Vu*7, *Pv*7, *Pl*7) and APK8 (*Vu*8). We propose that the main chromosomal rearrangements common to all Phaseolinae species (Figure 1.B1) involved a complex translocation between APK1, 6 and 9, and a reciprocal translocation between APK10 and 11, resulting in the ancestral Phaseolinae karyotype (APnK) chromosomes 1, 6, 9, 10 and 11 (Figure 1.B1). Our data confirmed exclusive rearrangements for *Vigna unguiculata* and *Phaseolus* species (Figure 1.B2 and 1.B3, respectively). In *V. unguiculata* (*Vu*), we observed a reciprocal translocation between APnK1 and APK5, resulting in chromosomes *Vu*1 (K+B) and *Vu*5 (P+L), in addition to a large pericentric inversion comprising most of APK4 (I and J) generating *Vu*4 (Figure 1.B2). Furthermore, in the ancestral *Phaseolus* karyotype (APsK) two reciprocal translocations occurred: between APnK1 and 8, resulting in APsK1 (A+B) and APsK8 (P+Q); and between APK2 and 3, generating APsK2 (C+E+C+D+F) and APsK 3 (G+H), followed by inversions and intrachromosomal translocations on APsK2 (C and E) and APsK3 (H) (Figure 1.B3). We also detected previously described inversions between *P. vulgaris* and *P. lunatus* (Bonifácio *et al.*, 2012; Garcia *et al.*,

2021) in Chr1 (in B); Chr2 (C, D and E); Chr3 (within H4); Chr7 (in N and O); Chr9 (in R), and Chr10 (in S and T). The complex, multiple inversions in chromosome 2 and 7, also involving intrachromosomal translocations, occurred independently in *P. vulgaris* and *P. lunatus*, while the intrachromosomal translocations on chromosomes 1 and inversions on chromosomes 1, 3, 9 and 10 occurred in *P. lunatus* (*Pl1*) and *P. vulgaris* (*Pv1*, 3, 9 and 10) lineages, respectively (Figure 1.B4 and 1.B5).

Our analyses indicated centromere repositioning for all centromeres of APK in at least one of the Phaseolinae species (Figure 2): centAPK1: P2 (*Vu*: P2-L); centAPK2: G (*Pl*: C4-D; *Pv*: C3); centAPK3: H1-H5 (*Vu*: F1-D; *Pl*, *Pv*: H3-H4); centAPK4: I4 (*Vu*: I3-I2); centAPK5: K (*Pl*, *Pv*: L1-L2), centAPK6: M2-R8a (*Pv*: M1-M2), centAPK7: O7 (*Vu*: O5-O3; *Pl*: N2-N1; *Pv*: O1-N2), centAPK8: A (*Pl*, *Pv*: B1), centAPK9: R8b (*Vu*, *Pl*: R8a-R7; *Pv*: R1), centAPK10: U (*Vu*: S1; *Pl*: S3; *Pv*: T2) and centAPK11: V (*Pl*, *Pv*: U1). Within *Phaseolus* species, centromeres of chromosomes 2, 6, 7, 9 and 10 were repositioned. Only the centromere of *Pl6* was maintained from APK (Figure 1.A4 and 2), while centromeric repositioning in Chrs. 2, 7, 9 and 10 may have occurred independently in both species. Centromeric repositioning was observed for chromosome 1, 3, 4, 7 and 10 in the *Vigna* lineage, while repositioning in Chr. 9 was shared with *P. lunatus* and probably occurred in the Phaseolinae ancestral (Figures 1.A2 and 2). Overall, we could hypothesize that the major events of centromere repositioning were derived from Evolutionary New Centromere (ENC) events (Figure 2).

The main rearrangements between Phaseolinae, Glycininae and *M. truncatula* as inferred from comparison with the APK

All the GBs were conserved in *S. suberectus*, *A. edgeworthii* (Glycininae) and *M. truncatula* (Figure 1A), with a possible exception of J in *S. suberectus*, which was detected in scaffolds not in the pseudomolecules. Three GB associations were shared between *S. suberectus* and *M. truncatula*: B3b+M3a (APK6: *Ss9*, *Mt3*), B3a+M3b+R8c (APK1: *Ss4*, *Mt7*) and M3c+R8b (APK9: *Ss1*, *Mt2*), R8b putatively centromeric. However, these associations were not observed within the Phaseolinae species. The N+O association (APK7: *Pv7*, *Pl7*, *Vu7*, *Ss7*, *Mt1*) and sub-GBs in Q (APK8: *Pv8*, *Pl8*, *Vu8*, *Ss6*, *Ae3*, *Mt5*) were highly syntenic between the subtribes, with the sub-GBs in Q highly collinear among the analysed species, with an exclusive inversion on Q2 in *Phaseolus* (Figure 1A). The N+O association was also maintained among species, except for *A. edgeworthii* (N: *Ae1* and O: *Ae8*), with O7 centromeric in *Ae8*, *Mt1* and *Ss7*. Furthermore, some centromeric GBs of APK were conserved between Phaseolinae and Glycininae and even in *M. truncatula*: A (APK8: *Ae6*, *Ss6*, *Vu8*), G (APK2: *Ae11*, *Mt5*, *Vu2*), I4 (APK4: *Pv4*, *Pl4* and *Ss9*), K (APK5: *Ae1*, *Ss8*, eventually *Vu1*), M2-R8a (APK6: *Ae10*, *Vu8* and *Ss1*), P2 (APK1: *Ae9*, *Ss4* and *Pv8*), and V (APK11: *Ae4*, *Mt8*, *Ss2* and *Vu11*) (Figure 2).

Comparison between Glycininae and Phaseolinae subtribes showed that almost all chromosomes were involved in breaks of synteny and/or collinearity, which led to a higher number of sub-GBs, especially in *A. edgeworthii*. Although this species maintained the ancestral chromosome number $n = 11$, several rearrangements lead to complex GB associations (Figure 1.A7). Nevertheless, we were able to find APK associations that helped to unveil the main translocations in this genome (Supplementary Figure 6). On the other hand, despite the descending dysploidy to $n = 9$, the *S. suberectus* genome showed fewer rearrangements compared to APK than the Phaseolinae species (Figure 1.A6). All the 22 GBs were

detected in *M. truncatula* genome (diverged from *P. vulgaris* ~50 Mya), with *Mt1* (N+O) and *Mt6* (I+J) highly syntenic to Phaseolinae chromosomes 7 and 4, respectively (Figure 1A).

Chromosome number reduction in *S. suberectus* compared to the APK

Based on the APK, we proposed the main chromosomal rearrangements leading to the descending dysploidy in *S. suberectus* ($n = 11$ to $n = 9$). They involved six APK chromosomes (APK2, APK4, APK5, APK6, APK9 and APK11), resulting in four *S. suberectus* chromosomes (*Ss1*, *Ss2*, *Ss8* and *Ss9*) (Figure 1.B6). APK 4, 5, 6 and 9 were involved in a complex translocation, originating *Ss1*, *Ss9* and *Ss8*. The whole APK2 and APK11 were combined by a translocation with terminal breakpoints, resulting in *Ss2*, followed by centromere loss in the G block. Additional reciprocal translocations have occurred between APK1 and APK10 generating *Ss3* and *Ss4*, and between APK3 and APK8, resulting in *Ss5* and *Ss6*. Only the APK7 is conserved in *S. suberectus*.

Oligo-FISH in the two non-sequenced species *M. atropurpureum* and *L. purpureus*

To further investigate chromosome evolution within the Phaseolinae subtribe, we selected *M. atropurpureum* (*Ma*) and *L. purpureus* (*Lp*), two species with no assembled genome. We hybridized two oligopaiting probes from *P. vulgaris* chromosomes, *Pv2* (green) and *Pv3* (red) to *M. atropurpureum* and *L. purpureus* metaphase cells. The oligo-FISH painting did not reflect the patterns that would be expected for APK (Figure 2). *Macroptilium atropurpureum* (Figure 2c) and *L. purpureus* (Figure 2d) showed oligo-FISH signals more similar to *V. unguiculata*, with translocations between chromosomes 2 and 3 (Figure 2b), corroborating APK predictions. *Macroptilium atropurpureum* ortholog chromosome 2 (*Ma2*) presented the short arm in red (as for *Pv3*) and almost the entire long arm in green (as for *Pv2*), except for an interstitial red region close to the pericentromere. However, *Ma3* presented the short arm and around half of the long arm in red (ortholog to *Pv3*). The distal long arm region was painted in green (ortholog to *Pv2*), while the *Vu3* short arm was painted in green, and almost the entire long arm red. In *L. purpureus* (Figure 2d), one arm of chromosome 2 (*Lp2*) showed small green (*Pv2*) signals intermingled with red (*Pv3*) signals, while the opposite arm was all painted in green (*Pv2*). On *Lp3*, the oligo-FISH signals were similar to *Vu3*, with small intermingled green signal in the long red arm (Figure 3b).

Our data support the exclusivity of the translocation event between APK2 and APK3 for the genus *Phaseolus* since *Lablab* and *Macroptilium* chromosomes 2 and 3 resemble those of *Vigna* and are closer to the APK. However, gaps in the pericentromeric regions of *M. atropurpureum* and *L. purpureus* orthologous chromosomes 2 and 3, different chromosome arm sizes in *Ma3* and intermingled oligo-FISH signals (represented by green and red arrows in Figure 3), may indicate independent rearrangements and small breaks of collinearity, possibly related to inversions.

DISCUSSION

Here we established a GB/sub-GB system for comparative chromosome analyses of Phaseoleae legumes. Our system detected several chromosome rearrangements, most of them described for the first time, as well as frequent centromere repositioning, especially in the *Phaseolus* lineage. The GB system was also applicable for *Medicago*, from distantly related tribe, suggesting its use to unveil chromosome evolution in a wide range of legumes with sequenced genomes. The sub-GBs revealed further rearrangements inside the GBs as independent events during evolution. In Brassicaceae, the identification of independent rearrangements inside the GBs were essential for understanding phylogenetic relationships in different taxa, such as *Aethionema arabicum* (L.) Andr. ex DC. (Walden *et al.*, 2020), *Arabis alpina* L. (Willing *et al.*, 2015) and *Brassica oleracea* L. (Parkin *et al.*, 2014). The proposed GB system might be useful in future phylogenetic analyses in the Leguminosae family.

Based on the GBs analyses, we reconstructed an ancestral Phaseoleae karyotype (APK) with $2n = 22$ chromosomes. Despite the chromosome number variation inside the tribe ($2n = 18$ to $2n = 84$; Rice *et al.*, 2015), genomic, cytogenetic and phylogenetic evidence suggest as ancestral chromosome number $n = 11$ (Li *et al.*, 2013; Rice *et al.*, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2017). Reconstruction of ancestral karyotypes are essential for comparative genomic analyses. For grasses, cucurbits, crucifers and other flowering plants, ancestral karyotype models contributed greatly to discuss chromosome number variation, genome reshuffling and recombination hotspots (Murat *et al.*, 2010; Lysak *et al.*, 2016; Murat *et al.*, 2017; Xie *et al.*, 2019). More recently, an ancestral karyotype of *Cucumis* was inferred by comparative oligo-painting (COP) in different species of African and Asian clades, indicating constant genome reshuffling caused by large-scale inversions, centromere repositioning, and other rearrangements (Zhao *et al.*, 2021). Our analyses showed similar results, with highly conserved macrosynteny in Phaseoleae tribe, and particular rearrangements in each clade.

Five APK chromosomes (APK2, APK3, APK4, APK5 and APK7) showed high conservation of synteny within the tribe, as observed in previous studies (Schmutz *et al.*, 2010; McConnell *et al.*, 2010; Wang *et al.*, 2017; Ho *et al.*, 2017; Lonardi *et al.*, 2019). Overall, APK7 is the most conserved chromosome. Its “N+O” GB association was conserved in most analysed genomes, with only intrachromosomal rearrangements, except for *A. edgeworthii*, which displayed, in general, a higher number of rearrangements. Chromosome 7 also showed high conservation of synteny when compared to non-Phaseoleae species, such as *Mt1*, *Ah9* (*Arachis hypogaea* L. chromosome 9) and *Lj5* [*Lotus japonicus* (Regel) K.Larsen chromosome 5] (Bertioli *et al.*, 2009), as well as to soybean *Gm10* and *Gm20* chromosomes (Schmutz *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2017). The meaning of this conservation is not yet clear.

Few translocations and a large number of inversions were detected within Phaseolinae, some of which were previously identified by BAC-FISH, oligo-FISH and comparative genomics in *P. vulgaris*, *P. lunatus* and *V. unguiculata* (Bonifácio *et al.*, 2012; Vasconcelos *et al.*, 2015; Lonardi *et al.*, 2019; Oliveira *et al.*, 2020; do Vale Martins *et al.*, 2021; Garcia *et al.*, 2021; Bustamante *et al.*, 2021). Based on our APK and oligo-FISH approaches, we can propose the direction of these rearrangements in a

phylogenetic context. The reciprocal translocation between chromosomes 1 and 8, 2 and 3, and inversions on chromosomes 2 and 3 were exclusive events of *Phaseolus* genus, while the translocation between chromosomes 1 and 5, and the inversions on chromosome 4 were exclusive of *Vigna*. Independent intrachromosomal translocations and inversions in *P. vulgaris* (Pv1, 2, 3, 7, 9 and 10) and *P. lunatus* (P11, 2 and 7) were also detected. Translocations and inversions are important drivers of speciation, reducing meiotic recombination (Noor *et al.*, 2001; Rieseberg, 2001; Faria and Navarro, 2010; Feulner and De-Kayne, 2017), and observed as the main chromosomal rearrangement during *Musa* spp. evolution (Martin *et al.*, 2020). Chromosomal inversions in *Drosophila persimilis* and *D. pseudoobscura*, for instance, were associated with reproductive isolation (Fuller *et al.*, 2018).

Several translocations and inversions were detected in the Glycininae subtribe. Although the ancestral chromosome number was conserved in *A. edgeworthii*, its karyotype was the most rearranged among the analysed species. Whole genome analysis indicated large-scale ectopic recombination and reduction of Long Terminal Repeats (LTR) retrotransposons during evolution, compacting the genome but preserving important genes (Liu *et al.*, 2020). The genomic analysis also indicated that remarkable genome reshuffling was not a consequence of polyploidy (Liu *et al.*, 2020). Indeed, none of the GBs were duplicated, but multiple GBs were subdivided due to the extensive rearrangements. On the other hand, the dysploid *S. suberectus* species presented the most conserved karyotype. We proposed two major translocations events combining APK6 and 9 into Ss1, and APK2 and APK11 into Ss2, leading to the descending dysploidy in *S. suberectus* (from $n = 11$ to $n = 9$). Centromeres of APK6 and 9 were probably fused in a Robertsonian translocation, while the centromere of APK2 was probably eliminated. Descending dysploidy events were also unveiled by ancestral karyotype models in Brassicaceae (Lysak *et al.*, 2006; Schranz *et al.*, 2006; Lysak *et al.*, 2016) and in the wild *C. sativus* var. *hardwickii*, from $n = 12$ to $n = 7$ (Yang *et al.*, 2014).

Despite the uncertain centromere position of *S. suberectus* pseudomolecules in the genome assembly, several GB-centromeric associations were preserved among Phaseoleae and in other legume species as observed for the GBs A (APK8), G (APK2), I4 (APK4), K (APK5), M2-R8a (APK6), P2 (APK1) and V (APK11). Nevertheless, our GBs system revealed that centromere repositioning was not associated with other rearrangements or chromosome number reduction, especially in Phaseolinae. We confirmed previously inferred centromere repositioning for five chromosome pairs between *P. vulgaris* and *V. unguiculata*: chromosomes 2, 3, 5, 7 and 9 (do Vale Martins *et al.*, 2021; Bustamante *et al.*, 2021). Additionally, we identified centromere repositioning for the remaining six chromosome pairs. Thus, our results indicated repositioning for all centromeres between these two closely related species, separated by ~10 Mya (Li *et al.*, 2013). Apart from the one putative event in the ancestral of both genera (in Chr. 9), nine repositioning events occurred after *P. vulgaris* separation, and five in the *Vigna unguiculata* lineage.

P. vulgaris and *V. unguiculata* have different centromeric satDNA families and more than one centromeric tandem repeat sequence in each species (Iwata *et al.*, 2013; Iwata-Otsubo *et al.*, 2016). In addition, repetitive sequences showed different amplification dynamics within *Phaseolus* and between *Phaseolus*, *Vigna* and *Cajanus*, indicating fast evolution of centromere repeats in Phaseoleae (Iwata *et al.*, 2013; Iwata-Otsubo *et al.*, 2016; Ribeiro *et al.*, 2017; Ribeiro *et al.*, 2020). As demonstrated by our GB

analyses, repositioned centromeres were not associated to changes in macro-collinearity. These changes may have occurred via invasion of retroelements and tandem repeats and recruitment of the centromeric protein CENH3 to a new position, forming a functional ‘Evolutionary New Centromere’ - ENC (Schubert, 2018; Talbert and Henikoff, 2020), as observed in *Solanum* L. (Gong *et al.*, 2012; Zhang *et al.*, 2014), *Oryza* L. (Liao *et al.*, 2018), *Aubrieta* Adans. and *Draba* L. (Mandáková *et al.*, 2020). In maize (*Zea mays* L.), for example, centromere repositioning occurred after DBS in centromeric satellite sequences that led to loss of *CentC*, and resulted in neocentromere formation at linked genes (selected during domestication), which facilitate the emergence of ENC (Schneider *et al.*, 2016; Zhao *et al.*, 2017).

While centromere repositioning in Phaseoleae (especially in Phaseolinae) seems to result from ENC events, chromosome rearrangements, such as inversions and translocations, might have resulted in centromere repositioning within same GB (Schubert, 2018; Talbert and Henikoff, 2020). In *S. suberectus*, two ancestral centromeres seemed involved in the dysploidy event through a Robertsonian translocation (Figure 1). The association of chromosome rearrangements and centromere repositioning was observed in *Arabis alpina* (Willing *et al.*, 2015), which preserved some associations of centromere-GBs from ACK chromosomes. Altogether, our findings suggest that *de novo* centromere formation is the main mechanism responsible for the frequent centromere repositioning between GBs observed in Phaseoleae legumes. Assembly of whole centromeres after long read sequencing will be necessary to confirm the additional role of chromosome rearrangements within GBs and/or repetitive sequence dynamics in explaining small differences not considered in the present analysis.

Our GB system enabled us to reconstruct the ancestral karyotype of the Phaseoleae tribe and to determine the direction of the main chromosomal evolutionary events related to diversification and speciation of closely and distantly related legume species. We identified genome reshuffling in legumes not associated to polyploidy. Moreover, we observed frequent centromere repositioning in this group, especially in *Phaseolus* genus, despite its karyotype stability. These repositioning likely involved the emergence of ENC. Altogether, our results open a bright perspective for future genomic analysis within the Phaseoleae tribe and other legume species. With an increasing number in legume genome sequencing, this genomic tool provides new perspectives for understanding the events that shaped the actual legume genomes, as well as the role of centromere repositioning for plant chromosome evolution.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Genomic data sets

For genomic analysis, we selected the reference genomes of *P. vulgaris* ‘G19833’ (GenBank ID: 8715468, Schmutz *et al.*, 2014), *P. lunatus* ‘G27455’ (GenBank ID: 20288068, Garcia *et al.*, 2021), *V. unguiculata* ‘IT97K-499-35’ (GenBank ID: 8372728, Lonardi *et al.*, 2019), *S. suberectus* ‘SS-2018’ (GenBank ID: 8715468, Qin *et al.*, 2019) and *A. edgeworthii* ‘Qianfo Mountain’ (GenBank ID: 22470258, Liu *et al.*, 2020). Moreover, we used the *M. truncatula* ‘Jemalong A17’ (GenBank ID: 7445598, Pecrix *et al.*, 2018) genome as an outgroup.

Genomic blocks definition based on *P. vulgaris* and *V. unguiculata* genome comparison

To find the syntenic blocks between the *P. vulgaris* and *V. unguiculata* genomes, we used the CoGe SynMap platform (<https://genomevolution.org/coge/SynMap.pl>) (Lyons *et al.*, 2008), following the steps and parameters described by Walden *et al.* (2020): 1) the orthologs genes were identified by using BlastZ tool; 2) synteny analysis was performed by using DAGChainer, with 25 genes as the maximum distance between two matches (-D), and 20 genes as the minimum number of aligned pairs (-A); 3) Quota Align Merge was used to merge the syntenic blocks, with 50 genes as the maximum distance between them; and 4) the ortholog and paralog blocks were differentiated based on the synonymous substitution rate (Ks) by CodeML (where 2 was the maximum value of log10) and different dotplot colours.

The syntenic blocks were defined using the 'Final syntenic gene-set output with GEvo link' (Supplementary Table 1), with start and end of the blocks represented by the gene IDs of each species. Each generated genomic block (GB) contained at least 20 genes, and one of the two following main criteria were used to separate adjacent blocks: 1) presence of translocations break points; and/or 2) genic regions on the same chromosome separated by at least 10 Mb away.

Based on the gene orthology between *P. vulgaris* and *V. unguiculata*, we compared the *P. vulgaris* genome with *P. lunatus*, *S. suberecutus*, *A. edgeworthii*, and *M. truncatula* genomes following the parameters described above. These further comparisons generated sub-genomic blocks (sub-GBs) based on the following criteria: 1) segments of the same block split at least 3 Mb apart; 2) breaks of collinearity inside the GBs (inversions); and 3) breaks of collinearity or synteny involving association to other GB (inter and intra-chromosomal translocations). Some sub-GBs were not found with standard dotplot settings. In these cases, we used CoGe blastn for finding these blocks (<https://genomevolution.org/CoGe/CoGeBlast.pl>), with default parameters: 1e-5 for E-value and 1, -2 for nucleotides Match/Mismatch scores.

The centromeric regions were defined based on the centromeric data available in the genome assemblies (Schmutz *et al.*, 2014; Pecrix *et al.*, 2018; Lonardi *et al.*, 2019; Liu *et al.*, 2020; Garcia *et al.*, 2021). Because the centromere positions for *S. suberecutus* were not indicated in the genome assembly, we hypothesized the centromere region according to the peaks of TE accumulations along the chromosomes (Qin *et al.*, 2019). Finally, we standardize the centromere regions using the mid-point of each centromeric region, and considering that each centromere represents ~ 2Mb.

Plant material and chromosome preparation

For cytogenetics analyses, we used *P. vulgaris* 'BAT 93' (Embrapa Recursos Genéticos e Biotecnologia - Cenargen, Brasília, Distrito Federal, Brazil), *V. unguiculata* 'BR14 Mulato' (Embrapa Meio-Norte, Teresina, Piauí, Brazil), *M. atropurpureum* (International Center for Tropical Agriculture, CIAT 4413) and *L. purpureus* (UFP87699). Root tips from germinated seeds were collected and pre-treated with 2 mM 8-hydroxyquinoline for 5 h at 18° C, fixed in methanol or ethanol: acetic acid (3:1 v/v)

for 2-24 h at room temperature and stored at -20 °C until use. For chromosome preparation, the roots were washed twice with distilled water, digested with an enzymatic solution containing 2% pectolyase (Sigma-Aldrich), 4% cellulase (Onozuka or Sigma-Aldrich) and 20% pectinase (Sigma-Aldrich) for 1-2 h at 37°C (humid chamber). Slides were prepared following the air dry protocol (Carvalho and Saraiva, 1993) with minor modifications.

Oligo-FISH, image acquisition and data processing

The design, synthesis and labelling of the *Pv2* and *Pv3* oligo probes was described by do Vale Martins *et al.* (2021). Oligo-FISH was carried out according to Han *et al.* (2015), with minor changes. The hybridization mixture consisted of 50% formamide, 10% dextran sulphate, 2× saline sodium citrate (SSC), 350 ng of the biotin-labelled probe (*Pv2*, green) and 300 ng of the digoxigenin-labelled probe (*Pv3*, red), in a total volume of 10 µL per slide. The hybridization mix was applied to the slides for 5 min at 75°C and hybridized for 2-3 days at 37°C. *Pv2* and *Pv3* oligo probes were detected with anti-biotin fluorescein (Vector Laboratories) and anti-digoxigenin rhodamine (Roche), respectively, both diluted in 1× TNB (1M Tris HCl pH 7.5, 3 M NaCl-blocking reagent, Sigma-Aldrich) with posterior incubation for 1 h at 37°C. Chromosomes were counterstained with 2 µg/mL DAPI in Vectashield antifade solution (Vector Laboratories). Oligo-FISH images were captured with a Hamamatsu CCD camera attached to an Olympus BX51 epifluorescence microscope or with Leica DM5500B fluorescence microscope. The images were uniformly adjusted and optimized for brightness and contrast using Adobe Photoshop CC (2019). *Phaseolus vulgaris* and *V. unguiculata* idiograms were assembled based on Vasconcelos *et al.* (2015).

ACCESSION NUMBERS

Phaseolus vulgaris ‘G19833’ (GenBank ID: 8715468, Schmutz *et al.*, 2014)

Phaseolus lunatus ‘G27455’ (GenBank ID: 20288068, Garcia *et al.*, 2021),

Vigna unguiculata ‘IT97K-499-35’ (GenBank ID: 8372728, Lonardi *et al.*, 2019),

Spatholobus suberectus ‘SS-2018’ (GenBank ID: 8715468, Qin *et al.*, 2019)

Amphicarpaea edgeworthii ‘Qianfo Mountain’ (GenBank ID: 22470258, Liu *et al.*, 2020)

Medicago truncatula ‘Jemalong A17’ (GenBank ID: 7445598, Pecrix *et al.*, 2018)

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

C.M.: conducted the comparison between genomes, defined the blocks, conducted the oligo-FISH painting experiments in *M. atropurpureum* and *L. purpureus*, prepared the images and wrote the original draft of the manuscript. L.V.M: synthesized the oligo painting probes, conducted the oligo-FISH in *P. vulgaris* and *V. unguiculata* and constructed the oligo-FISH image. F.O.B: provided the resources for this research and discussed the data. A.C.B.V: co-supervised the experiments and contributed with data analyses and discussion. A.P.H: conceptualized and supervised the experiments and provided resources for this research. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

ETHICS APPROVAL

Not applicable

DATA AVAILABILITY

All data generated or analysed during this study are included as supplementary materials.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Supplementary Figure 1. Dotplot of genome comparison between *P. vulgaris* and *V. unguiculata* with the indication of each GB coloured based on the APK.

Supplementary Figure 2. Dotplot of genome comparison between *P. vulgaris* and *P. lunatus* with the indication of each GB coloured based on the APK.

Supplementary Figure 3. Dotplot of genome comparison between *P. vulgaris* and *S. subectrus* with the indication of each GB coloured based on the APK.

Supplementary Figure 4. Dotplot of genome comparison between *P. vulgaris* and *A. edgeworthii* with the indication of each GB coloured based on the APK.

Supplementary Figure 5. Dotplot of genome comparison between *P. vulgaris* and *M. truncatula* with the indication of each GB coloured based on the APK.

Supplementary figure 6. Schematic representation of the most conserved GBs associations of *A. edgeworthii* karyotype as inferred from comparison with the APK. Despite extensive genome reshuffling,

the main GB associations involved in the formation of each *Ae* chromosome are indicated by dotted lines in the corresponding APK chromosome colours.

Supplementary Table 1. CoGe SynMap pipeline output of final syntenic gene set (paralogous and orthologous) with GEvo links.

Supplementary Table 2. Genomic blocks in APK, *P. vulgaris*, *P. lunatus*, *V. unguiculata*, *S. suberectus*, *A. edgeworthii* and *M. truncatula*. **Chr:** Chromosome; **GB:** Genomic Block; **SGB:** Sub Genomic Block; **GP:** Genome Position in Mbp; **CP:** Centromere position in Mpb; **CB:** Centromere block; **↑:** Inverted orientation based on APK; *****: GBs detected by CoGe BLAST

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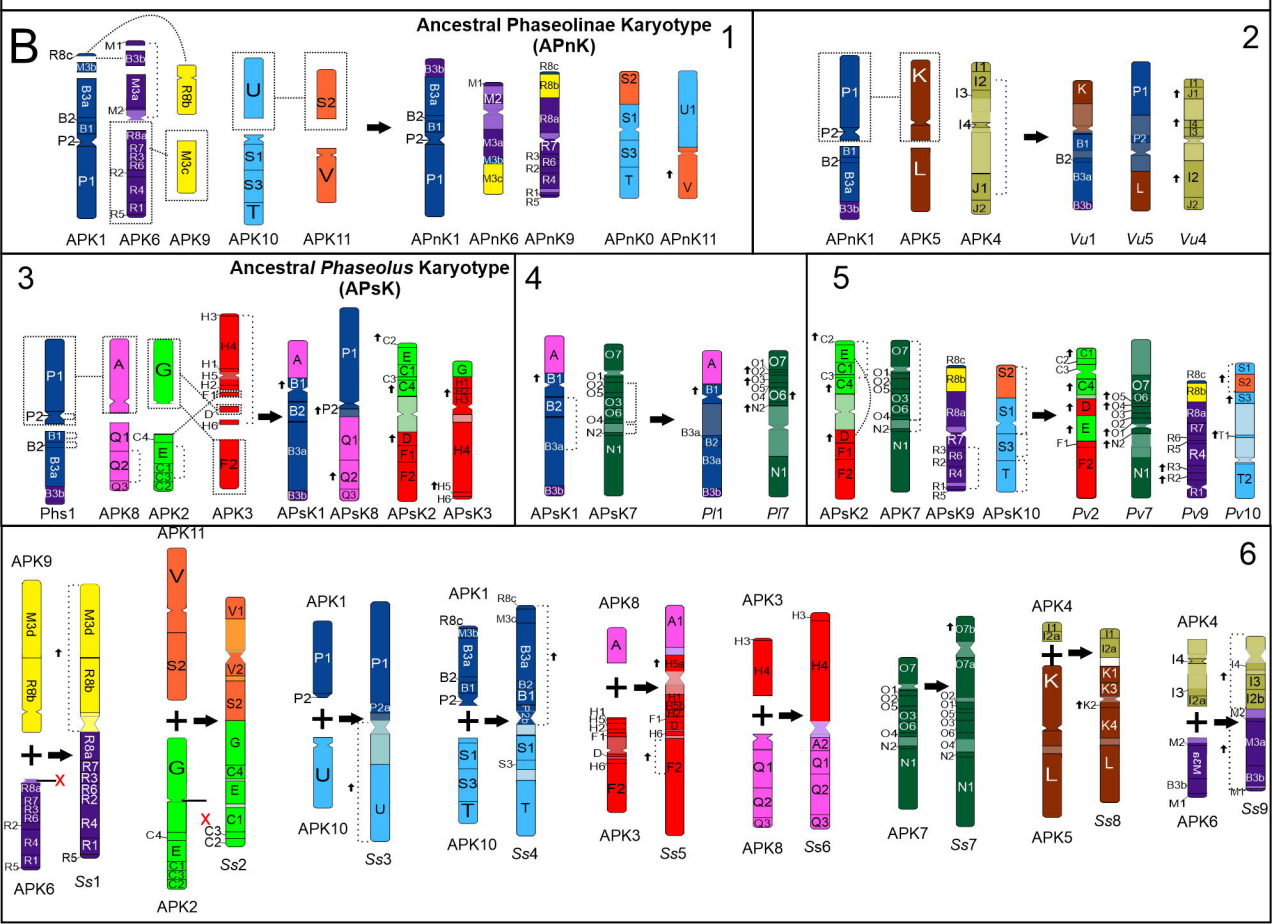
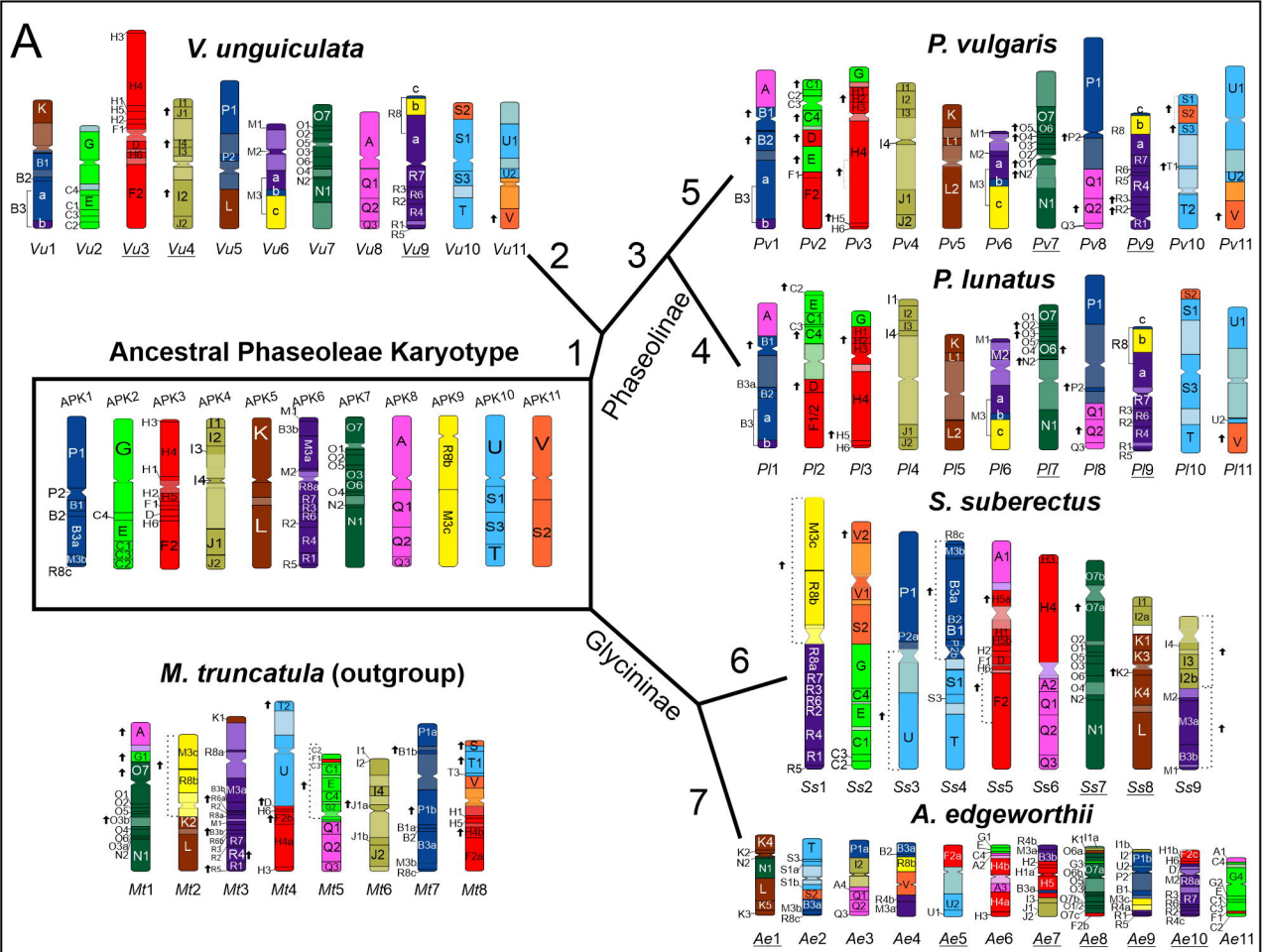
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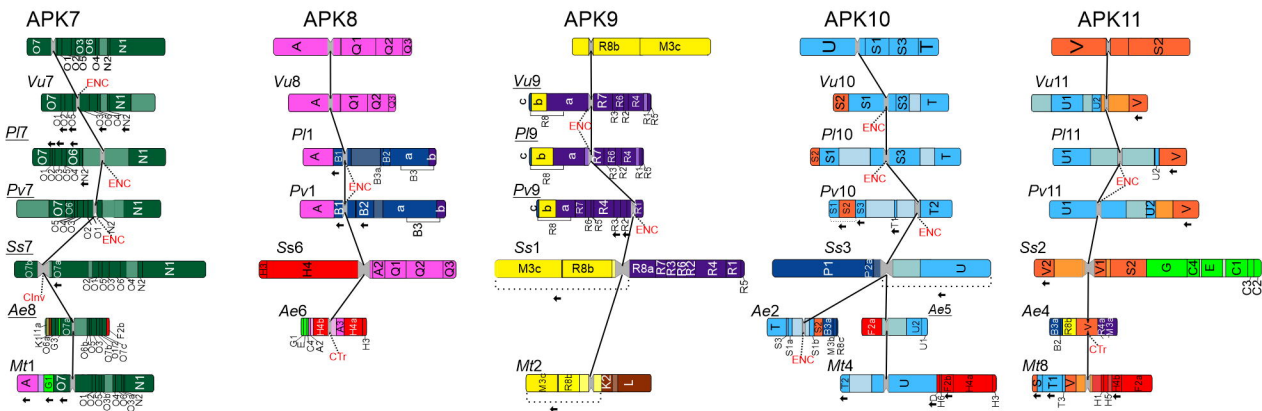
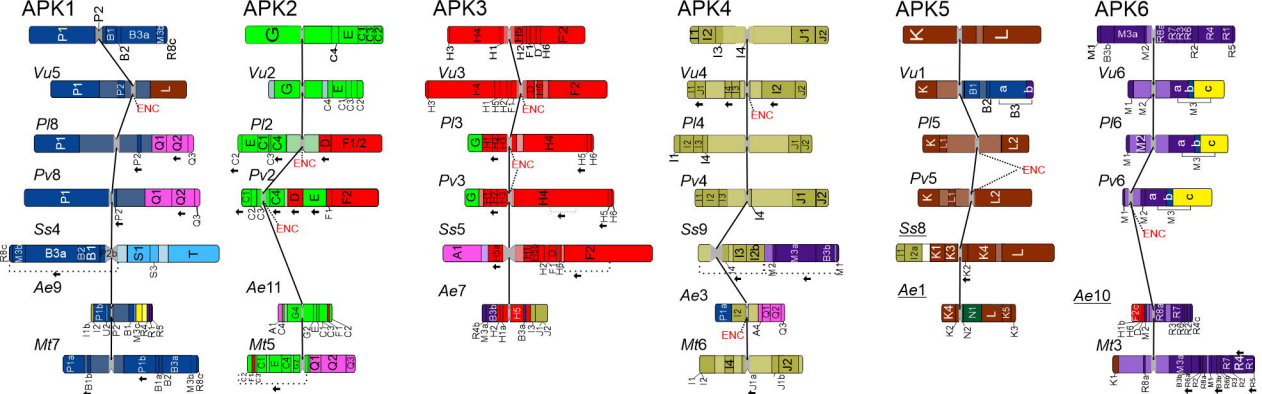
Figure legends

Figure 1. Overview of genomic comparisons between Phaseoleae species using *Medicago truncatula* as outgroup. The genomic block system and the hypothetical Ancestral Phaseoleae Karyotype (APK) are indicated. Arrows in **A** indicate change in the block orientation. Some entire chromosome orientations were inverted (underlined chromosomes) to better demonstrate the orthology between APK and other karyotypes. **A)** Species are grouped according to the phylogenetic relationships proposed by Li *et al.* (2013). **1 to 5)** Phaseolinae subtribe species: *Vigna unguiculata*, *Phaseolus lunatus* and *P. vulgaris*; **6 and 7)** Glycininae subtribe species: *Spatholobus suberectus* and *Amphicarpea edgeworthii*. **B)** Main chromosomal rearrangements: **1)** Translocations and pericentric inversion resulting in the Ancestral Phaseolinae Karyotype (APnK) chromosomes 1, 6, 9, 10 and 11; **2)** Reciprocal translocation and pericentric inversions resulting in *V. unguiculata* (*Vu*) chromosomes 1, 4 and 5; **3)** Reciprocal translocation and inversions resulting in the Ancestral *Phaseolus* Karyotype (APsK) chromosomes 1, 2, 3 and 8; **4)** Inversions and intrachromosomal translocations resulting in *P. lunatus* (*Pl*) chromosomes 1 and 7; **5)** Inversions and intrachromosomal translocation resulting in *P. vulgaris* (*Pv*) chromosomes 2, 7, 9 and 10; **6)** Descending dysploidy and genome reorganization scenario for *S. suberectus* (*Ss*) karyotype.

Figure 2. Centromere repositioning in Phaseoleae tribe and *M. truncatula* based on the Ancestral Phaseoleae Karyotype (APK) established. ENC – Evolutionary New Centromere.

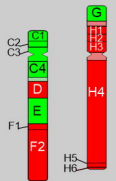
Figure 3. Oligo-FISH using *Phaseolus vulgaris* chromosomes-specific 2 (green) and 3 (red) probes hybridized to other Phaseolinae species. In the left, differences between the APK and oligo-FISH painting signals of chromosomes 2 and 3. In the right, the painted mitotic metaphases of *P. vulgaris* (**a**), *Vigna unguiculata* (**b**), *Macroptilium atropurpureum* (**c**) and *Lablab purpureus* (**d**). Green and red arrows indicate small differences in the painting patterns, corresponding to specific regions of *Pv*2 (green) or *Pv*3 (red) probes, respectively. For each species, orthologous chromosomes of *P. vulgaris* chromosomes 2 and 3 are detailed in the insets (right) of each metaphase cell and represented in the lateral of each inset. Vertical bar = 5 μ m.





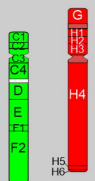
P. vulgaris

APK
pattern



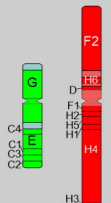
Pv2 Pv3

Painting
pattern

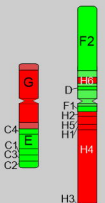


Pv2 Pv3

V. unguiculata



Vu2 Vu3



Vu2 Vu3

