



Identification and Characterization of NBS Resistance Genes in *Akebia trifoliata*

Xiaojiao Yu^{1,2}, Shengfu Zhong^{1,2}, Huai Yang^{1,2}, Chen Chen², Wei Chen^{1,2,3}, Hao Yang^{1,2,3}, Ju Guan^{1,2}, Peng Fu^{1,2}, Feiquan Tan¹, Tianheng Ren^{1,2}, Jinliang Shen⁴, Min Zhang² and Peigao Luo^{1,2*}

¹ Provincial Key Laboratory for Plant Genetics and Breeding, Chengdu, China, ² College of Agronomy, Sichuan Agricultural University, Chengdu, China, ³ Sichuan Akebia trifoliata Biotechnology Co., Ltd., Chengdu, China, ⁴ College of Forestry, Sichuan Agricultural University, Chengdu, China

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*Correspondence:

Peigao Luo
lpglab@sicau.edu.cn

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Akebia trifoliata is an important multiuse perennial plant that often suffers attacks from various pathogens due to its long growth cycle, seriously affecting its commercial value. The absence of research on the resistance (*R*) genes of *A. trifoliata* has greatly limited progress in the breeding of resistant varieties. Genes encoding proteins containing nucleotide binding sites (NBSs) and C-terminal leucine-rich repeats (LRRs), the largest family of plant resistance (*R*) genes, are vital for plant disease resistance. A comprehensive genome-wide analysis showed that there were only 73 NBS genes in the *A. trifoliata* genome, including three main subfamilies (50 coiled coil (CC)-NBS-LRR (CNL), 19 Toll/interleukin-1 receptor (TIR)-NBS-LRR (TNL) and four resistance to powdery mildew8 (RPW8)-NBS-LRR (RNL) genes). Additionally, 64 mapped NBS candidates were unevenly distributed on 14 chromosomes, most of which were assigned to the chromosome ends; 41 of these genes were located in clusters, and the remaining 23 genes were singletons. Both the CNLs and TNLs were further divided into four subgroups, and the CNLs had fewer exons than the TNLs. Structurally, all eight previously reported conserved motifs were identified in the NBS domains, and both their order and their amino acid sequences exhibited high conservation. Evolutionarily, tandem and dispersed duplications were shown to be the two main forces responsible for NBS expansion, producing 33 and 29 genes, respectively. A transcriptome analysis of three fruit tissues at four developmental stages showed that NBS genes were generally expressed at low levels, while a few of these genes showed relatively high expression during later development in rind tissues. Overall, this research is the first to identify and characterize *A. trifoliata* NBS genes and is valuable for both the development of new resistant cultivars and the study of molecular mechanisms of resistance.

Keywords: *Akebia trifoliata*, NBS genes, gene duplication, pathogen, genome-wide analysis

INTRODUCTION

Akebia trifoliata (Thunb.) Koidz, belonging to the family Lardizabalaceae (Liu et al., 2007), presents great potential for use as a fruit and oil crop and a medicinal and ornamental plant (Li L. et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2017). After extensive artificial cultivation, wild plants will inevitably suffer from various diseases, such as kiwifruit bacterial canker (Scortichini et al., 2012), sweet potato root rot

disease (Ma et al., 2020) and apple fruit anthracnose (Zhou and Zhou, 2017); this is especially true for perennials, such as black cottonwood, which often suffer attacks from various pathogens or herbivores before reaching the reproductive stage because of their relatively long life cycle (Tuskan et al., 2006). Likewise, *A. trifoliata* is a typical perennial that is attacked by various pathogens, such as *Alternaria tenuissima*, causing leaf spot (Ye et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2015), *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides*, causing leaf anthracnose (Cheng et al., 2020; Pan et al., 2020), *Nigrospora sphaerica*, causing fruit shrinkage (Hong et al., 2021), and *Oidium subgenus Pseudoidium*, causing powdery mildew (Garibaldi et al., 2004), which has resulted in large yield losses and significantly reduced the economic value of the species.

During the arms race between hosts and their pathogens, great numbers of variations arise in pathogens due to their short growth cycle and simple genomic sequences, requiring plants (especially perennials) to evolve a set of sophisticated and effective defense systems to combat them (Tuskan et al., 2006). Beyond the first line of defense against pathogens imposed by the thickened cell wall, plants usually build the second defense system by producing resistance proteins, mainly encoded by *NBS* genes, to resist invading pathogens after the failure of the cell wall defense system (Andersen et al., 2018). By directly or indirectly recognizing pathogen-secreted effectors, these proteins confer resistance to various pathogens, including fungi, bacteria and viruses, by initiating a series of defense responses, such as hypersensitive responses, activating signaling pathways and consequently inhibiting the plant infection process (Andersen et al., 2018).

The *NBS* gene family, encoding proteins containing nucleotide binding sites (NBSs) and C-terminal leucine-rich repeats (LRRs), is the largest family of plant resistance (*R*) genes, accounting for over 60% of detected and cloned *R* genes in all plant species (Kourelis and van der Hoorn, 2018). The NBS domain can bind ATP/GTP, resulting in phosphorylation to transmit disease resistance signals downstream, which plays a key role in combating almost all pathogens (Bent, 1996). According to the N-terminal structure of *NBS* genes, scientists have commonly divided these genes into three subfamilies: (*TIR*)-*NBS*-*LRR* (*TNL*) genes, containing *TIR* domains with homology to Toll/interleukin-1 receptors, and (*CC*)-*NBS*-*LRR* (*CNL*) and (*RPW8*)-*NBS*-*LRR* (*RNL*), characterized by *CC* and *RPW8* domains, respectively (Xiao et al., 2001; Collier and Moffett, 2009; Wang et al., 2013). The *RNL* clade is composed of two different lineages: the *Nicotiana benthamiana* N-required gene 1 (*NRG1*) and *Arabidopsis* activated disease resistance gene 1 (*ADRI*) lineages. To clearly indicate the absence of the *TIR* domain compared with *TNLs*, we refer to *CNLs* and *RNLs* as the *non-TNL* (*nTNL*) subclass. Generally, *TNL* and *CNL* proteins are mainly responsible for recognizing specific pathogens, while *RNL* proteins may play an auxiliary role in downstream defense signal transduction.

With the completion of the sequencing of many plant genomes in succession, genome-wide analysis has increasingly become an important tool for studying the genetic diversity and evolution of *NBS* resistance genes (Meyers et al., 2003; Xue et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020). The number of *NBS* genes in a plant genome ranges from dozens to more than 2,000 (Shao et al., 2019;

Andersen et al., 2020), leading to the discussion of whether the *NBS* gene number is related to genome size and, if so, whether the relationship is positive or not (Liu et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016; Goyal et al., 2020). In addition, the composition of the three subclasses is usually not the same or is even highly lopsided. For instance, *Dioscorea rotundata* possesses 166 *CNLs*, only one *RNL* and no *TNLs* (Zhang et al., 2020), and *Brassica napus* contains 461 *TNLs*, 180 *CNLs* and no *RNLs* (Alamery et al., 2018), suggesting a major discrepancy between the different subclasses. The differences in the composition of *NBS* genes are considered to be responsible for the diversity and specificity of resistance to various pathogens (Jupe et al., 2012). *NBS* genes generally arise via various types of duplications, mainly including tandem and dispersed duplications, which have a critical influence on the different arrangements of *NBS* genes, such as the occurrence of singletons or clustered loci on chromosomes (Meyers et al., 2003; Leister, 2004).

The exploration of the characteristics of *NBS* genes usually involves phylogenetic and structural analyses in diverse plant species, which has greatly accelerated the identification and utilization of functional *R* genes. Although there has been no research progress on *A. trifoliata* *NBS* resistance genes to date, the available genome and transcriptome data of *A. trifoliata* not only enrich the genomic resources available for this species but also create favorable conditions for the systematic study of *NBS* genes at the genomic level. In this study, we comprehensively illustrated the *NBS* gene profile of *A. trifoliata* using multiple analysis tools. A collection of *R* gene resources valuable in production were screened, providing meaningful data for further identifying functional *R* genes and accelerating the future breeding of resistant cultivars of *A. trifoliata*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Data Used in This Study

The *A. trifoliata* genome sequence, annotation files and RNA-seq data (accession IDs: SAMN16551931–33, young stage of rind, flesh and seed; SAMN16551934–36, enlargement stage; SAMN16551937–39, coloring stage; SAMN16551940–42, mature stage) were downloaded from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database under BioProjectID PRJNA671772,¹ which was assembled and uploaded by our group. Reference genes with known resistance functions were also retrieved from NCBI protein database, accessions as listed in **Supplementary Table 4**.

Identification and Classification of *NBS* Genes

To identify *A. trifoliata* homologs of plant *NBS* genes, we first performed a BLASTP analysis in NCBI² to search *NBS* proteins with the NB-ARC domain query (accession: PF00931), and then the protein sequences were input to a hidden Markov model (HMM)³ for scanning using the HMM profile of the NB-ARC

¹<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/?term=PRJNA671772>

²<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>

³<https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/hmmer/>

domain as a query. Both of the *E*-values were set as 1.0. We further merged all of the candidate genes obtained from the above two databases and removed the redundant genes. Finally, we analyzed the non-redundant genes against the Pfam database⁴ to further verify the presence of the NBS domain according to an *E*-value of 10^{-4} and to eliminate the genes without a conserved NBS domain. To classify the NBS genes, all of the identified NBS sequences were further analyzed using the NCBI Conserved Domain Database⁵ to determine the existence of TIR (accession: PF01582), RPW8 (accession: PF05659) and LRR (accession: PF08191) domains, whereas CC domains were identified by using Coiledcoil⁶ with a threshold value of 0.5 because these domains cannot always be identified by Pfam searches (Lozano et al., 2015).

Gene Structure and Conserved Motif Analysis

The general feature format (GFF3) file of the *A. trifoliata* genomic annotation file was used to retrieve the NBS gene structure and exon information. For further analysis of the conserved domain composition of the NBS gene family, we predicted the conserved motifs in the NBS domains with the MEME Suite⁷. The motif count was set to 10 with motif width lengths ranging from 6 to 50 amino acids, and all other parameters were set to the defaults as previously described (Nepal et al., 2017). Then, TBtools⁸ was used to visualize the positions of motif and exon structures in NBS genes. The bivariate correlations between the characteristics and multiple comparisons thereof in the three subfamilies were performed using SPSS software (Dudley et al., 2004).

Chromosomal Distribution of NBS Genes

The *A. trifoliata* genome was assembled into 16 chromosomes, and the GFF3 file was used to investigate the chromosome-wide distribution of NBS candidates and to map chromosomal physical positions. To identify the numbers of NBS gene clusters on chromosomes, we utilized sliding window analysis assuming a window size of 250 kb (Ameline-Torregrosa et al., 2008).

Phylogenetic and Ka/Ks Analysis

To explore the underlying evolutionary history among NBS family members, ClustalW was used to perform multiple sequence alignments among all protein sequences with conserved NBS domains. Then, the result was manually corrected by removing gaps and sequences that were too short or less similar in MEGA X (Kumar et al., 2018) to reduce “noisy characters.” We constructed a phylogenetic tree using IQ-TREE with the maximum likelihood method (Nguyen et al., 2015), selected the best-fit model using ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017), and evaluated branch support values via UFBoot2 tests (Hoang et al., 2018). A TNL tree consisting of 19 identified TNLs of *A. trifoliata* and 19 reference TNLs from other species and a

CNL tree including 48 CNLs and four RNLs of *A. trifoliata* and 38 reference CNLs and two reference RNLs from other species (Supplementary Table 4) were reconstructed. All trees were rerooted using the NBS domain of human apoptotic protease-activating factor-1 (*APAF-1*), and the results were visualized with Figtree.⁹ To determine whether the *A. trifoliata* NBS genes were subject to selection pressure, the nucleotide coding sequences (CDSs) of each subfamily were aligned by using MEGA X. Then, KaKs_Calculator 2.0 was used to calculate the non-synonymous substitution to synonymous substitution (Ka/Ks) ratio for each orthologous NBS gene pair of *A. trifoliata* genome (Wang et al., 2010), and ratios of > 1 , $= 1$ and < 1 indicated positive selection, neutral evolution and purifying selection, respectively (Hurst, 2002).

Duplication Analysis of NBS Genes

For synteny analysis, pairwise all-against-all BLAST searches were applied to the *A. trifoliata* NBS proteins (Xue et al., 2019). The results and GFF3 files were then submitted to MCScanX for gene duplication type detection (Wang et al., 2012).

Expression Analysis of NBS Genes of *A. trifoliata* in Various Fruit Tissues

To analyze the expression pattern of *A. trifoliata* NBS genes in different tissues (flesh, rind and seeds) at different developmental stages (young, enlargement, coloring and maturity), BLAST in HISAT2 software was first used to align the RNA-seq data with the *A. trifoliata* genome under default settings. Then, we used SAMtools to compress the results into BAM format and extracted the FPKM values representing the expression of each gene in all samples according to previously described methods (Li et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2019). Finally, to display NBS gene expression levels, the transcriptome data were submitted to TBtools to generate a heatmap (Chen et al., 2020).

RESULTS

Identification and Classification of NBS Genes in the *A. trifoliata* Genome

A total of 73 non-redundant NBS genes, accounting for only 0.30% of the 24,138 annotated genes, were identified in the *A. trifoliata* genome (see details in “Materials and Methods”). The percentage of NBS genes in *A. trifoliata* was slightly higher than those reported in *Carica papaya* and *Setaria italica* (0.22 and 0.27%, respectively) (Porter et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2016), while it was obviously lower than those in most other plant species (Table 1). The 73 NBS protein sequences were classified into three groups (50 CNLs, 19 TNLs, and 4 RNLs) and nine subgroups according to the existence of CC, TIR and RPW8 domains, which are summarized in Table 2 and Supplementary Table 1. The CNL group was further divided into four subgroups: 31 CNLs containing a complete set of CC, NBS and LRR domains, 13 CN_{CC}s lacking the LRR domain, four NL_{CC}s lacking the CC

⁴<http://pfam.sanger.ac.uk/>

⁵<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/cdd/>

⁶<http://coiledcoils.chm.bris.ac.uk/Scorer/>

⁷<http://meme-suite.org/tools/meme>

⁸<https://github.com/CJ-Chen/TBtools>

⁹<https://github.com/rambaut/figtree/releases>

TABLE 1 | The numbers of predicted *NBS* genes in sequenced plant genomes.

Species	NBS gene types			Total NBS genes	Predicted proteins	Proportion of NBS genes	Genome size (Mb)
	CNL	TNL	RNL				
<i>Aquilegia caerulea</i>	231	1	1	233	41,063	0.57%	306
<i>Nymphaea colorata</i>	234	115	11	360	31,589	1.14%	409
<i>Akebia trifoliata</i>	50	19	4	73	24,138	0.30%	645
<i>Amborella trichopoda</i>	84	25	1	110	31,494	0.35%	706
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	55	94	—	149	38,311	0.39%	125
<i>Carica papaya</i>	33	20	1	54	24,742	0.22%	372
<i>Populus trichocarpa</i>	236	123	—	359	41,444	0.87%	410
<i>Vitis vinifera</i>	241	111	—	352	29,585	1.19%	505
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	222	31	2	255	34,727	0.73%	739
<i>Oryza sativa</i> L.	535	0	—	535	37,544	1.42%	389
<i>Dioscorea rotundata</i>	166	0	1	167	26,198	0.64%	594
<i>Setaria italica</i>	96	0	—	96	35,844	0.27%	406
<i>Triticum aestivum</i> L.	2148	5	3	2151	107,891	1.99%	15,770
Correlations between genome size and NBS gene number							0.96** ^a
							−0.14 ^b

The letter “a” represents a correlation in all 13 species, while “b” indicates a correlation in all species except for *Ta*. “***” indicates *P*-values < 0.01, the same below.

domain, and two *NCCs* lacking both CC and LRR domains. Likewise, the *TNL* group consisted of five *TNLs* with the complete set of TIR, NBS, and LRR domains, 10 *NLTIRs* lacking the TIR domain, one *TNTIR* lacking the LRR domain and three *NTIRs* lacking both TIR and LRR domains. In contrast, all four *RNLs* exhibited the complete set of RPW8, NBS and LRR domains and could not be further subdivided. The results showed that there were abundant variations in the domains of *A. trifoliata* *NBS* genes, although the number of *NBS* genes was lower than in many species, with exceptions including *C. papaya* and *S. italica*.

Gene Structure and Conserved Motif Analysis

To outline the difference in gene structure between the different *NBS* subfamilies within *A. trifoliata*, the comparison analysis of exon number, gene length and both composition and order of the conserved motif was further executed. The results show that the exon number of the 73 *NBS* genes ranged from 1 to 15, with a total of 249 exons and a mean of 3.41 exons (**Figure 1** and **Supplementary Table 1**). Among these genes, 14 (9 *CNLs* and 5 *TNLs*) had only one exon, and the number of genes with more than eight exons was 5. Although *AtNBS25* (*coiled coil* (CC)-*NBS-LRR* (*CNL*)) had the most exons, with 15, 36 (72.0%) of the 50 *CNLs* had fewer than 3 exons, while 11 (57.9%) of the 19 *TNLs* had more than 3 exons. We found that both the mean exon numbers and gene length of the *RNLs* (4.50 and 8904.25 bp) were greater than those of the *CNLs* (3.24 and 6036.88 bp) and *TNLs* (3.63 and 7486.58 bp), although there was no significant relationship between exon number and gene length found in multiple comparisons among the three subfamilies at the *P* = 0.05 level (**Table 2**). Further analysis showed that the relationship between exon number and gene length was significant at the *P* = 0.05 level among the 73 *NBS* genes (*r* = 0.57), the 50 *CNLs* (*r* = 0.59) and the 19 *TNLs* (*r* = 0.55), while it was not

significant for the 4 *RNLs* (*r* = −0.12) (**Table 2**), which meant that the exon number per gene would be positively related to gene length to some degree.

MEME analysis showed that eight conserved motifs (P-loop, RNBS-A, Kinase-2, RNBS-B, RNBS-C, GLPL, RNBS-D, and MHDL, with the common arrangement order) that have been reported in other species, such as *Arabidopsis* (Meyers et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2004), existed in various *NBS* genes of the *A. trifoliata* genome (**Figure 1** and **Supplementary Table 2**), among which the P-loop (distributed in 66 genes), GLPL (in 68 genes) and kinase-2 (in 70 genes) were the most common motifs. While 57 of the 73 *NBS* genes showing the conserved order of the eight motifs, the remaining 16 genes showed a slight change in the motif order, among which 14 genes exhibited the conserved core motif order flanked by single or multiple repeated motifs on one or two sides and only 2 genes (*AtNBS19* and *AtNBS63*) showed a change in the actual core order (**Figure 1** and **Supplementary Table 2**). In addition, we found that the last residue of the kinase-2 motif was W (tryptophan) in 48 (88.9%) of the 54 *non-TNL* genes, while it was D (aspartate) in 13 (68.4%) of the 19 *TNLs* (**Supplementary Table 3**). Thus, it was inferred that the *NBS* gene type could be distinguished by the last conserved codon of the kinase-2 motif.

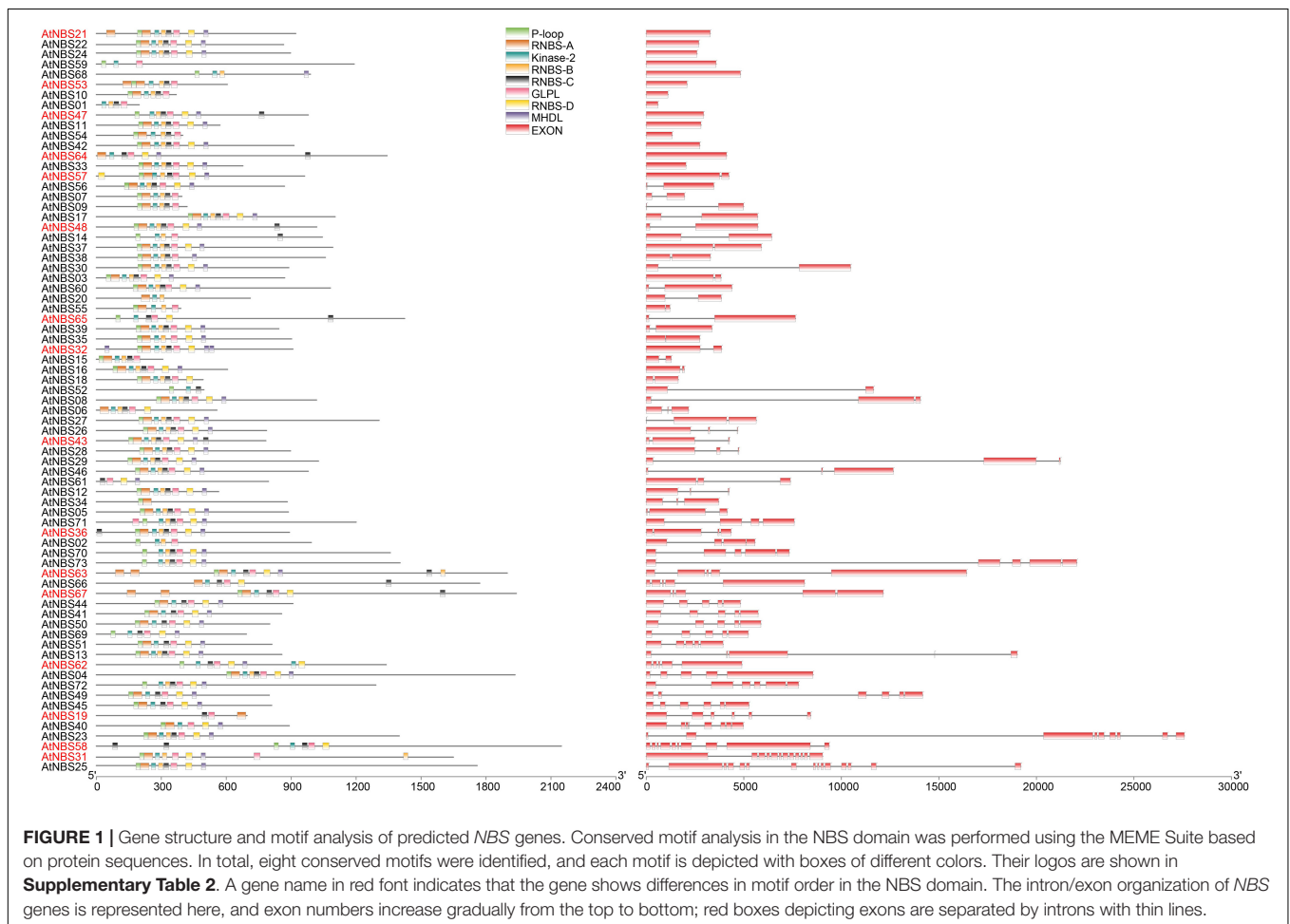
Chromosomal Distribution of NBS Genes in A. trifoliata

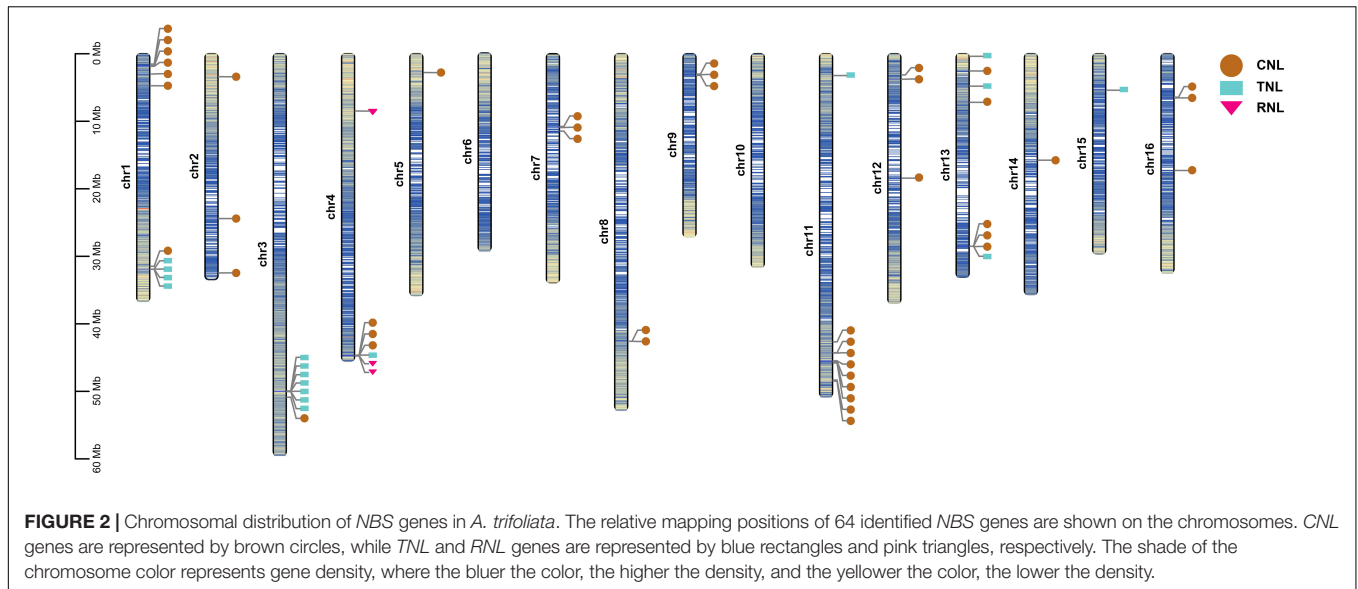
The physical locations of the 73 identified *NBS* genes were mapped on the 16 assembled chromosomes of the *A. trifoliata* genome by using TBtools. A total of 64 mapped genes (44 *CNLs*, 17 *TNLs*, and 3 *RNLs*) were unevenly distributed on 14 of the 16 chromosomes and mostly mapped to the regions near chromosome ends (**Figure 2**), whereas the remaining nine genes were excluded due to their locations in unassembled contigs. Chromosomes 1, 3, 11, and 13 contained more than seven *NBS* genes, while chromosomes 5, 14, 15, and 16 contained only one

TABLE 2 | Groups of NBS resistance genes in the *A. trifoliata* genome.

Type	Predicted protein domain	Num.	Gene length (exon number)			
			Min	Max	Mean	Bivariate correlations
CNL subgroup		50	596 (1)	27583 (15)	6036.88 ^a (3.24) ^a	0.59**
CC-NBS-LRR (CNL)	CC, NBS, LRR	31				
CC-NBS (CN)	CC, NBS	13				
NBS-LRR (NL)	NBS, LRR	4				
NBS (N)	NBS	2				
TNL subgroup		19	1211 (1)	22071 (10)	7486.58 ^a (3.63) ^a	0.55*
TIR-NBS-LRR (TNL)	TIR, NBS, LRR	5				
TIR-NBS (TN)	TIR, NBS	1				
NBS-LRR(NL)	NBS, LRR	10				
NBS (N)	NBS	3				
RNL subgroup		4	3932 (2)	14166 (6)	8904.25 ^a (4.50) ^a	-0.12
RPW8-NBS-LRR (RNL)	RPW8, NBS, LRR	4				
Total		73			6571.32 (3.41)	0.57**

The letter "a" indicates no significant difference in multiple comparisons. Num., number; Min, minimum; Max, maximum. ** indicates P-values < 0.05 and > 0.01, and **** indicates P-values < 0.01, the same below.





NBS gene (Figure 2). In addition, *CNL*s were widely distributed on 14 chromosomes, *TNL*s were distributed on six chromosomes, and all three *RNL*s were located on chromosome 4. There was obviously no significant correlation between *NBS* gene number and chromosome length.

According to the definition of gene clusters, the genes on the chromosomes were divided into 35 loci, including 23 singletons and 12 gene clusters (Supplementary Table 1), and 41 (64.1%) of 64 mapped *NBS* genes were distributed into 12 clusters, with a mean of 3.42 genes per cluster. The 12 defined gene clusters were assigned to 9 chromosomes: five clusters of loci had only two adjacent genes, 14 (on chromosome 7), 16 (on chromosome 8), 20 and 23 (on chromosome 11), and 34 (on chromosome 16); two clusters of loci included three genes, 17 and 21 (on chromosomes 9 and 11, respectively); three clusters of loci contained four genes, 1 and 5 (on chromosome 1) and 30 (on chromosome 13); one cluster of loci included six genes, 12 (on chromosome 4); and the remaining cluster of loci included seven genes (the greatest number), 9 (on chromosome 3).

Ka/Ks and Phylogenetic Analysis

To differentiate both the type and the strength of natural selection between different *NBS* types, the *Ka/Ks* values of all orthologous *A. trifoliata* *NBS* genes were also calculated because it is usually as an informative indicator of natural selection during evolution progress. The results showed that all *RNL*s were excluded according to the lower limit for orthologs, and the ratios of all orthologous *NBS* genes were far less than 1 (Supplementary Table 5), which indicated that the *A. trifoliata* *NBS* genes have mainly experienced purifying selection during evolution (i.e., removing harmful mutations and maintaining protein conservation). The average *Ka/Ks* ratio of the *CNL*s was 0.31, which was significantly lower than that (0.42) of the *TNL*s at the $p = 0.01$ level.

The evolutionary relationships among all the identified *NBS* candidates were inferred from the phylogenetic tree by using

the NB-ARC domains, except for *AtNBS19*, *AtNBS34* (*CNL*), and *AtNBS61* (*TNL*) because of their shorter or less similar sequences. They were divided into two broad branches, the *TNL*s and *CNL*s (Figure 3). The *TNL* branch included three subgroups, *TNL*-1, *TNL*-2, and *TNL*-3, with 18 *TNL* genes, while the *CNL* branch contained four main subgroups, *CNL*-1, *CNL*-2, *CNL*-3, and *CNL*-4, with 52 genes, consisting of 48 *CNL*s and 4 *RNL*s. In addition, all 4 *RNL*s were clustered into the *CNL*-2 subgroup.

To identify close functional homologs for each *NBS* candidate, *TNL* and *CNL* trees were separately reconstructed by adding some clearly functional *NBS* genes: 19 *TNL*s, such as *RPS2* (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) (Bent et al., 1994; Figure 4), 38 *CNL*s, such as *Pi-ta* (*Oryza. sativa*) (Huang et al., 2008), and two *RNL*s, including *ADR1* (*A. thaliana*) (Collier et al., 2011; Figure 5), as references. The *TNL* tree was redivided into two subgroups: *TNL*-A and *TNL*-B (Figure 4). Four *TNL*s of *A. trifoliata* and 14 well-known functional *TNL*s that mainly confer resistance to fungal rust and spot diseases in species such as *Nicotiana tabacum* (*N*) and *Solanum lycopersicum* (*E*) were clustered into *TNL*-A, while *TNL*-B contained 14 *TNL*s of the *A. trifoliata* genome and five *TNL* reference genes that confer resistance to bacterial (*RPS5/2*, *RFL1* and *UNI* of *A. thaliana*) or fungal (*SUMM2* of *Cocos nucifera*) root rot diseases.

The branches in the *CNL* tree were classified into the *CNL*-2a/b, *CNL*-3a/b, and *CNL*-4 clades (Figure 5). Four *CNL*s and four *RNL*s from *A. trifoliata* and two *RNL* reference genes (*ADR1* and *NRG1*) clustered into clade *CNL*-2a (*RNL*). Clade *CNL*-2b contained five identified *CNL*s and one reference gene, *Dm3*, conferring resistance to downy mildew in *Lactuca sativa* L. In *CNL*-3a among 11 candidates and 11 reference genes, the reference genes preferentially clustered separately from *CNL* candidates. Although the powdery mildew resistance gene *PM3b* and the late blight resistance gene *RGA2* clustered with *A. trifoliata* genes, the bootstrap support was rather low. Although 20 candidates and 24 reference genes were included the same large *CNL*-3b clade, they still exhibited two relatively

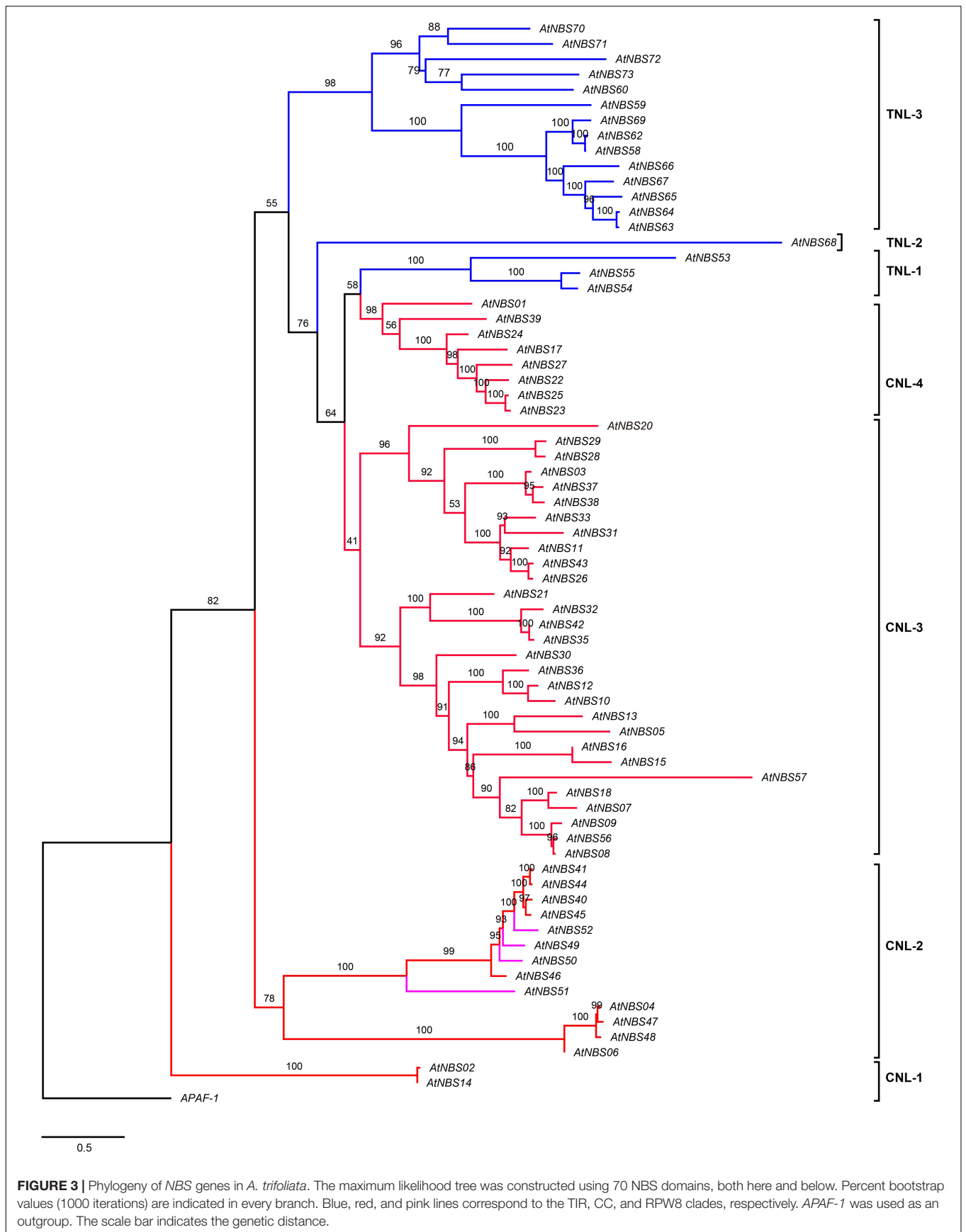
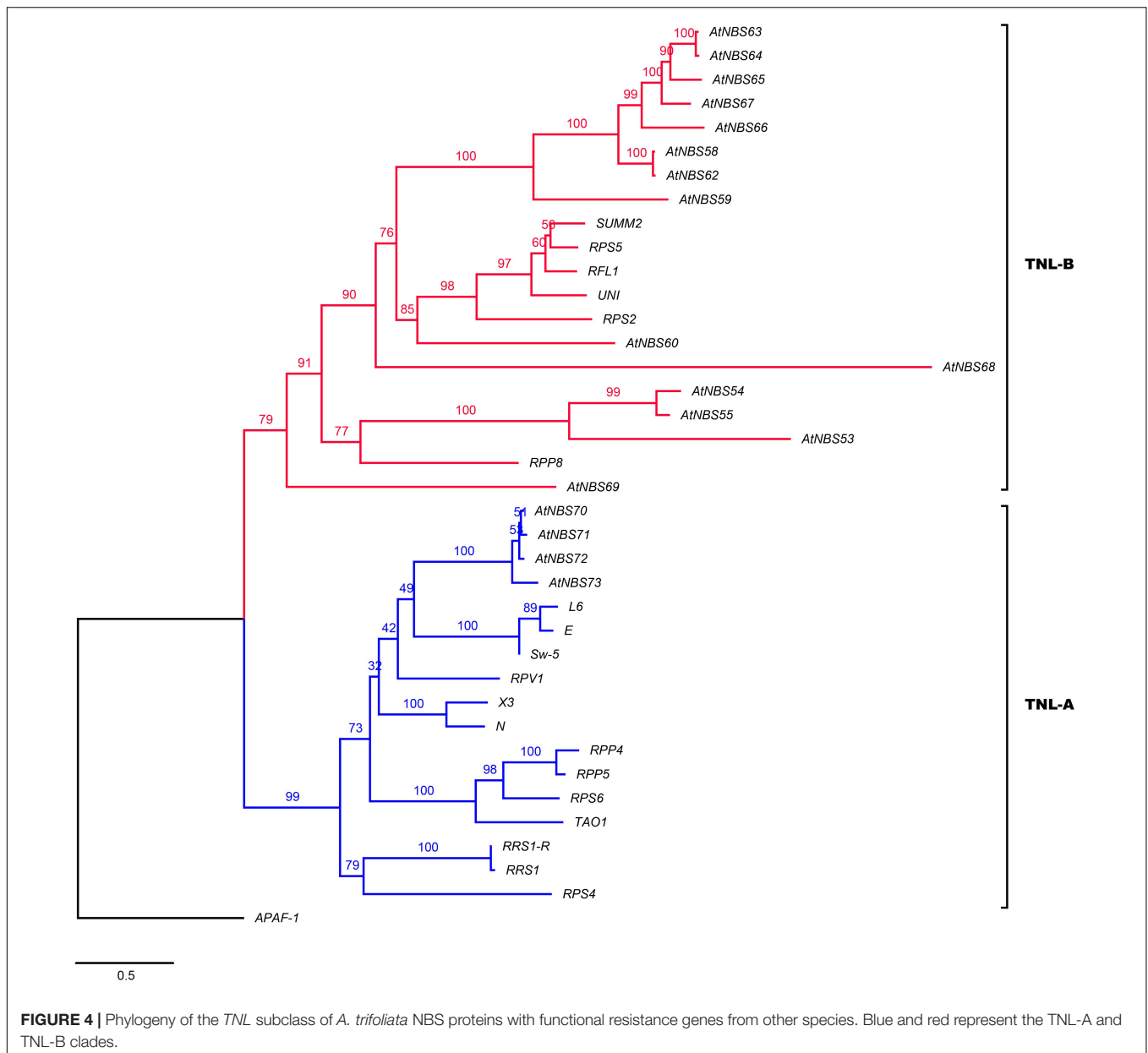


FIGURE 3 | Phylogeny of *NBS* genes in *A. trifoliata*. The maximum likelihood tree was constructed using 70 *NBS* domains, both here and below. Percent bootstrap values (1000 iterations) are indicated in every branch. Blue, red, and pink lines correspond to the TIR, CC, and RPW8 clades, respectively. *APAF-1* was used as an outgroup. The scale bar indicates the genetic distance.



distinct branches because of many reference genes from grass families (Figure 5 and Supplementary Figure 1), which could be explained in terms of the more versatile reference *CNL* genes after the loss of *TNLs* in monocots (Li J. et al., 2010). Interestingly, only *A. trifoliata* genes clustered in *CNL*-4, as shown in Figure 3.

Duplication Analysis of *NBS* Genes

The different duplication types were detected by MCscanX, and the output results showed that 33 (45.2%) of the 73 *NBS* genes were duplicated by tandem duplication. These genes were mainly distributed in clusters on chromosomes 1, 3, 4, 11, and 13. A total of 29 genes (39.7%) resulted from the dispersal of duplications of individual or small groups of genes to unlinked loci; 9 (12.3%) were produced by proximal duplication; and

only 2 (2.7%) arose through whole-genome duplication (WGD) (Supplementary Table 1). In the *CNL* subfamily, 74.0% of the genes were derived from tandem and dispersed duplications; similarly, among the *TNLs* and *RNLs*, 84.2 and 50.0% of the genes, respectively, arose from the above two types of duplications.

Differential Expression Analysis of *NBS* Genes of *A. trifoliata* in Various Fruit Tissues

To test the general function of the 73 *NBS* genes by expressing analysis, the RNA data of different tissues (flesh, rind and seeds) at four developmental stages (young, enlargement, coloring and

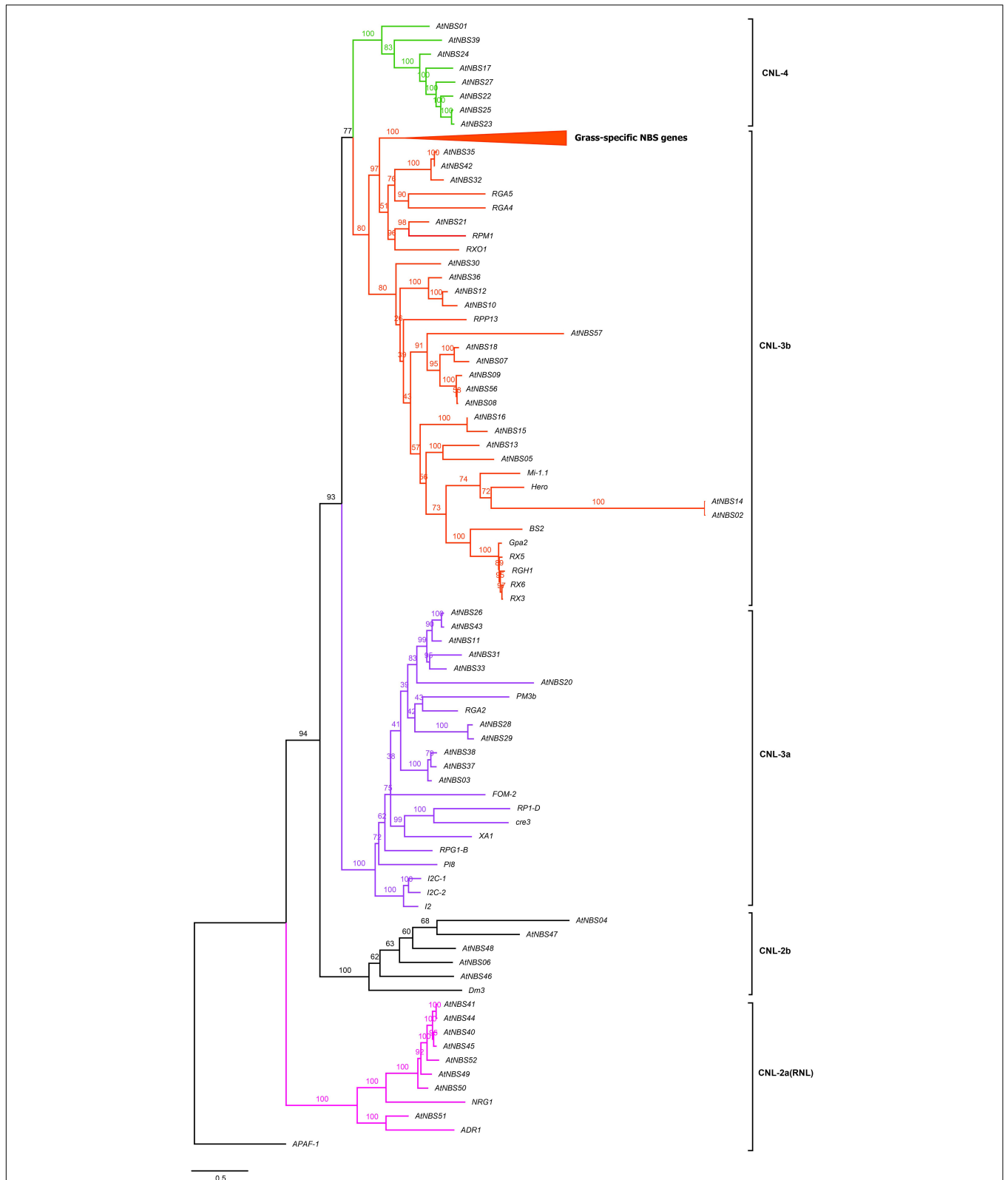


FIGURE 5 | Reconstructed tree of the CNL subclass of *A. trifoliata* NBS proteins. Pink, black, purple, red and green represent the CNL-2a (RNL), CNL-2b, CNL-3a, CNL-3b, and CNL-4 clades, respectively. The top clade in the CNL-3b clade is compressed, and the complete tree is shown in **Supplementary Figure 1** because it clusters *R* genes that are specific to grasses and do not group together with any *A. trifoliata* NBS candidates. Members of this clade include *Pi-ta* and *Pik-1/2* from *O. sativa* L. and *Mla1*, *MLA12* and *RPG5* from *Hordeum vulgare* L.

maturity) were downloaded from NCBI BioSample¹⁰. The results of expression analysis showed that there were 66 genes expressed at detectable levels, most of which showed a very low expression level in all three fruits tissues at all four stages of development (Figure 6A). Only *AtNBS51*, with an FPKM value of more than 30, was identified as showing intermediate or high expression, while there were 27 genes with expression levels ranging from 3 to 30 FPKM categorized as genes with low expression. Interestingly, 26 of the 28 genes (16 *CNL*, 9 *TNL*, 3 *RNL*) were mainly expressed in rind, and 10 of them were increasingly expressed in the later stages of rind development (enlargement, coloring and maturity). Moreover, among the 28 genes, the percent expression of the most conserved *RNL* was the highest (75%), while that of the most relaxed *CNL* was lowest (32%). In addition, we found that the mean expression levels of the identified *NBS* genes at four different stages were 1.4, 1.5 and 2.2 FPKM in the seeds, flesh and rind, respectively (Figure 6B). Among the 66 expressed *NBS* genes, four genes were mainly expressed in the flesh, 16 in the seeds, and 46 in the rind (Figure 6C).

DISCUSSION

NBS genes are the largest disease *R* gene family that exists in all plants, and broad genome-wide analyses of this family have been carried out in recent years (Jones et al., 2016). Despite the existence of recent publications on the *A. trifoliata* genome (Huang et al., 2021), the corresponding genomic data files are still unavailable online. Therefore, a high quality *A. trifoliata* genome assembled and submitted by our group to NCBI was employed to identify and characterize *NBS* candidates (see detailed data in section “Materials and Methods”), including analyses of their numbers, structures, distribution, duplications and gene expression profiles.

Previous studies have shown that the number of *NBS* genes varies greatly among different species and usually reaches hundreds in a single plant species, to confer protection against diverse and rapidly evolving pathogens. There are over 2,000 *NBS* genes in the extremely large wheat genome, but these genes are extremely scarce in *C. papaya*, *Thellungiella salsuginea* and some orchids (Shao et al., 2016; Xue et al., 2019; Andersen et al., 2020). Here, we identified 73 *NBS* genes, accounting for only 0.3% of the 24,138 annotated genes of *A. trifoliata* (Table 2), which suggested that the number of *NBS* genes in its genome was small. In previous studies, some authors have suggested that a positive correlation exists between *NBS* gene number and genome size within five samples, where the number increases with increasing genome size (Goyal et al., 2020), while the others have inferred that there is no significant correlation between them also in five samples (Zhang et al., 2016). In this study, total 13 representative species including four basal eudicots, four core eudicots and five monocots (listed in Table 1), were employed to address this issue mainly because of the evolutionary relationship with *A. trifoliata*, available knowledge about *NBS* genes, and economic importance. The results showed a significant correlation coefficient (0.96)

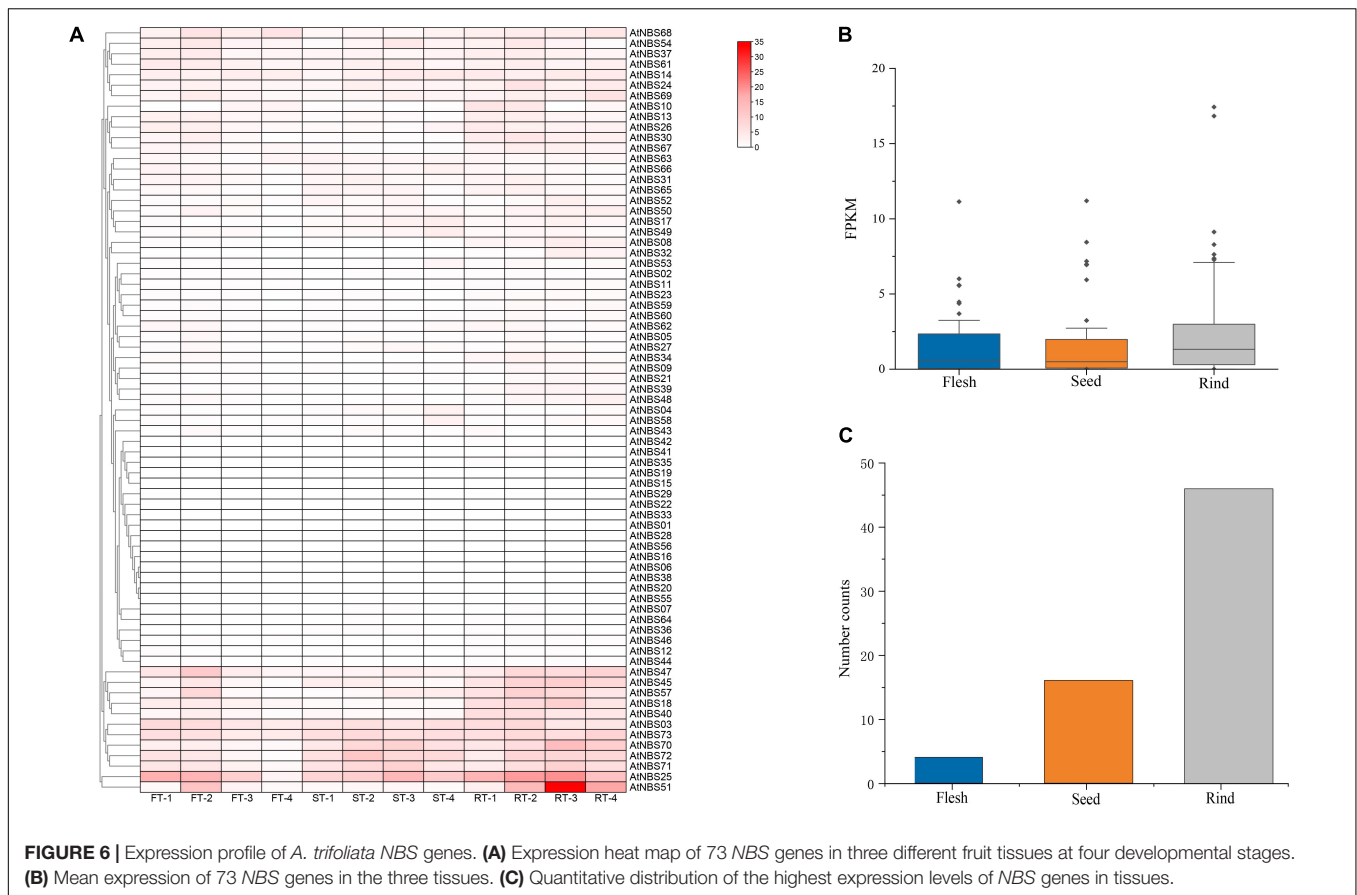
between *NBS* gene number and genome size among the 13 species; however, the value decreased to -0.14 after we removed wheat as the out-group (Table 1). Therefore, the correlation between *NBS* gene number and genome size could depend on both the size and components of the genome sample employed.

Despite the small number of *NBS* genes in *A. trifoliata*, the types of these genes are diverse, including 9 subclasses within 3 classes (Table 2), and these classes are distinct in composition (a 3:1 ratio of *nTNL*:*TNL*). Previous studies have shown that the *nTNL*:*TNL* ratio varies widely, ranging from 1:3 in *B. oleracea* (Liu et al., 2019) to an extremely high ratio of 18:1 in *Capsicum annuum* (Qian et al., 2017) among dicots, while monocots only contain the *nTNL* subclass because of the loss of the *TNL* subclass after the divergence of dicots and monocots (Qian et al., 2017). These large disparities in composition not only indicate that distinct *NBS* subgroups have experienced different evolutionary events, such as different types of genomic duplication and magnitudes of natural selection, but also provide key clues for establishing the relationships between speciation and the growth environment.

We found that there were markedly more *CNL* genes (68.5%) in *A. trifoliata* than *TNL* (26.0%) and *RNL* (5.5%) genes, which showed conserved evolution without large-scale expansion (Table 1). Moreover, the four *RNLs* formed an extremely conserved branch that did not deviate from the *CNLs* in Figure 5, and similarly low proportions of *RNLs* have been reported in some orchids (Xue et al., 2019) and *D. rotundata* (Zhang et al., 2020), in distinct contrast to the large numbers of *CNLs* and *TNLs*. A reasonable explanation for this phenomenon is that *RNLs* only assist other functional *NBS* genes as downstream genes with conserved functions, as reported for “Helper *NBS*-*LRRs*” (Bonardi et al., 2011; Collier et al., 2011). In fact, the number of *NBS* subfamilies retained in the genome usually depends on the genomic duplication type and the selection pressure exerted during evolutionary history (Mun et al., 2009). The analysis of the *Ka/Ks* ratio to explore the evolutionary difference between *CNL* and *TNL* showed that both *CNLs* and *TNLs* have experienced purifying selection, and the significantly lower *Ka/Ks* value of *CNLs* than *TNLs* at the $p = 0.01$ level (Supplementary Table 5) demonstrated that greater selective constraints and purifying selection in the *CNL* group and relaxation of purifying selection in the *TNL* group might have resulted in ancient diversification of *NBS* genes (Mun et al., 2009).

As the primary source of raw genetic material, WGD is widely involved in plant evolutionary processes and is especially common in angiosperms (Akoz and Nordborg, 2019), but only two *NBS* genes from the ancestral WGD event survived in *A. trifoliata* (Supplementary Table 1). This was probably because the synteny of *NBS* genes resulting from WGD was destroyed in the process of long-term evolution or because the number of *NBS* genes might have been reduced after WGD via rapid species-specific gene loss (Die et al., 2018a; Song et al., 2019). Recently, some studies have suggested that tandem and dispersed duplication events could be a major driving force of *NBS* gene expansion (Baumgarten et al., 2003; Qian et al., 2017); however, the main duplications in each subclass of *NBS* are still unclear. In the present study, we found that in the *A. trifoliata* genome,

¹⁰<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/biosample>



CNLs were mainly expanded by the dispersal of individual or small groups of duplicated genes to unlinked loci, while TNLs were mainly expanded by tandem duplication, which produced closely related genes in the same family that clustered together (Supplementary Table 1; Leister, 2004). Additionally, the chromosomal distribution of NBS genes in the *A. trifoliata* genome (Figure 2) agreed well with the differences in gene expansion, which could also explain the greater number of CNLs relative to TNLs.

The other interesting characteristic involved the relationship between exon number and gene length in the *A. trifoliata* genome, where a significant positive relationship existed between exon number and gene length among the 73 NBS genes (Table 2). We further found that TNLs showed larger values than CNLs for both exon number and gene length in all other six dicots on our list (Supplementary Table 7), including *Raphanus sativus* (Ma et al., 2021), *A. thaliana*, *B. oleraceas*, *B. rapa* (Mun et al., 2009), *B. napus* (Alamery et al., 2018), *Helianthus annuus* (Neupane et al., 2018), and *Manihot esculenta* (Lozano et al., 2015). All results from the above species indicated that independent gains or losses of exons occurred in distinct NBS subclasses, and the greater exon number and longer gene lengths of TNLs could result from a more ancient evolutionary history than CNLs, which evolved more recently (Meyers et al., 2003).

Structurally, the NBS domains of the characterized *R* genes shared eight common conserved motifs (Meyers et al., 2003).

Through MEME analysis, we found that 45.2% of the identified genes contained all eight motifs, and P-loop (66), GLPL (68) and kinase-2 (70) motifs were the most common ones (Supplementary Table 3). Both the P-loop and kinase-2 motifs function in ATP/GTP binding (Traut, 1994; Meyers et al., 2003), and the existence of these typically conserved NBS motifs in *R* proteins is essential for protein function. Although the specific function of GLPL is still poorly understood, its importance in disease resistance has been demonstrated by site mutation analysis in the context of flax rust (Dodds et al., 2001). Thus, the higher the frequency distribution of a motif is, the more conserved it is. In addition, the order of these eight motifs was shown to be relatively inflexible, and only two (*AtNBS19* and *AtNBS63*) of the 73 identified NBS genes in *A. trifoliata* actually showed an order change (Figure 1 and Supplementary Table 2). We inferred that the conserved order of these motifs could be more important than the sequences themselves.

We further observed that the last residue of the kinase-2 motif exhibited the main difference between TNL and nTNL: 88.9% of nTNLs contained W as the last residue of the kinase-2 motif, while it was replaced with D in 68.4% of TNLs (Supplementary Table 3), which was consistent with previous works (Meyers et al., 2003; Die et al., 2018b). Initial reports suggested that the conserved aspartate of kinase-2 is indispensable for the concentration-dependent binding of Mg^{2+} to ATP, which is essential for its function in plant defense

signaling (Tameling et al., 2002). Thus, we inferred that the TNL proteins with more conserved aspartate residues may be more functional ATP-binding proteins with ATPase activity.

Homologous proteins with sequence similarity usually retain similar functions in evolution, and consequently we aimed to select some key and well known NBS resistance genes from other species, which was conducive to the identification of close functional homologs in *A. trifoliata* (Lozano et al., 2015). Then, the TNL (Figure 4) and CNL (Figure 5) trees were separately reconstructed by adding reference TNLs and CNLs/RNLs. Many TNL candidates clustered with functional genes for resistance to bacterial or fungal root rot diseases in TNL-B, and five CNL candidates clustered with the *Dm3* gene for resistance to downy mildew in clade CNL-2b under 100% bootstrap support, while only CNL candidates were included in clade CNL-4, indicating that these genes might provide resistance to unknown *A. trifoliata* pathogens or play a role in non-host resistance responses. The widespread *A. trifoliata* NBS genes in the phylogenetic trees suggested that the different NBS subclasses could provide broad resistance to various pathogen species, while a few NBS genes would confer resistance to diverse races of the same pathogen. Furthermore, CNLs showed a higher level of topological complexity than TNLs in Figure 3, which might be helpful for broadening the resistance spectrum to achieve a broadly suitable distribution and could explain the long evolutionary history of this basal eudicot (Sun et al., 2016; Qian et al., 2017).

Comparative transcriptomic analysis can provide important insight into gene structures, functions and application prospects (Lowe et al., 2017). In the present study, we found that 90.4% of NBS genes were expressed in various fruit tissues at different developmental stages, and most of them were expressed at low levels (Figure 6A), which indicated that they have broad functions under field conditions. The relatively large number of NBS genes (46 of 66) that were mainly expressed in the rind at higher expression levels, especially in later stages, also indicated that most of these genes functionally conferred broad horizontal resistance to various pathogens in the field because only the rind tissue of *A. trifoliata* is exposed to pathogens. In addition, rind is usually considered the first barrier to pathogen infection, and hence the higher NBS gene expression compared with both flesh and seed in the later stages is reasonable. Only *AtNBS51* (RNL) was identified as a gene with intermediate or high expression, and 27 NBS genes were identified as genes with low expression (Supplementary Table 6), which indicates that no pathogen can escape the defense exerted by a few NBS genes under a given condition. In addition, the high proportion (75%) of stably expressed RNLs despite the small proportion (5.5%) of RNLs among all 73 genes further demonstrated that with the help of RNLs, many CNLs and TNLs of *A. trifoliata* can confer broad resistance to various pathogen species and/or different races of the same species. Together, all evidence suggests that the small number of NBSs with structural diversification in *A. trifoliata* can provide defense against attacks by all types of pathogens that may be encountered. From the perspective of plant pathology, this provides a reasonable explanation for the wide distribution of wild *A. trifoliata* in

various geographical and ecological regions and its continued healthy growth over many years.

In conclusion, only 73 non-redundant NBS genes were identified in the *A. trifoliata* genome in this work, but they showed high diversity, including three classes (CNL, TNL and RNL) with nine subclasses. Evolutionarily, although almost all NBS genes were retained by purifying selection, the duplication style was different: CNLs were mainly expanded by dispersed duplication, while TNLs were mainly expanded by tandem duplication. Structurally, the order of the eight conserved motifs in the NBS domain was more conserved than their amino acid sequences. Functionally, differential expression analysis showed that many of NBS genes could play an actual role in fighting pathogens by conferring broad-spectrum resistance, which may have contributed to the genetic basis favoring adaptation to various environments during the evolutionary of *A. trifoliata*. Therefore, this study paves the way for improving disease resistance during the domestication of *A. trifoliata* and further enriches the available information about NBS genes, especially in basal eudicots.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The datasets presented in this study can be found in online repositories. The names of the repository/repositories and accession number(s) can be found in the article/Supplementary Material.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

XY and PL conceived and designed the project. SZ obtained the data. XY analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. CC, WC, HuY, HaY, JG, FT, TR, JS, MZ, and PF participated in the data analysis and discussion. PL revised the manuscript. All authors contributed to the discussion of the results, reviewed the manuscript and approved the final article.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpls.2021.758559/full#supplementary-material>

Supplementary Figure 1 | The complete tree of CNL subclass of *A. trifoliata* NBS proteins.

Supplementary Table 1 | Detailed features of identified NBS genes in *A. trifoliata*.

Supplementary Table 2 | Differential arrangement of conserved motifs in NBS domain.

Supplementary Table 3 | Discovered Motifs Statistics of NBS domain in *A. trifoliata* NBS genes.

Supplementary Table 4 | Reference NBS genes identified from other species for reconstructed phylogenetic trees.

Supplementary Table 5 | Ka Ks and Ka/Ks values of *A. trifoliata* NBS gene pairs.

Supplementary Table 6 | NBS genes Expression profile of the three *A. trifoliata* tissues and four development stages.

Supplementary Table 7 | *TNLs* and *CNLs* for both exon number and gene length in 7 dicots.

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Conflict of Interest: WC and HaY were employed by the company Sichuan Akebiatrifoliata Biotechnology Co., Ltd.

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