GigaScience

The genome of common long-arm octopus Octopus minor

--Manuscript Draft--

Response: As the reviewer suggested, we have corrected the sentence.

7. Page 6, Line 130: "A statistical analysis of the changes in gene family sizes indicated significantly greater gene family expansion in O. minor (178 gene families) compared to other species"

> What is the statistical test? What is the P-value? What is considered significant (e.g. P <0.5)? How are gene families defined? Compared to which species? Does this mean that 178 gene families are expanded?

Response: Sorry for the confusion. All the results are describing about gene loss-gain analysis. To make it clear, we have corrected the sentence and have added p-value cut off used for CAFÉ analysis.

> Assemblies of PacBio sequence data (including those done by Falcon Unzip) suffer from the inclusion of multiple haplotigs per genomic locus. What tests have been done to be control for this? How do the authors know that the expansion of gene families is not artifactual due to haplotigs?

Response: We performed gene family analysis using only the primary assembly in assembly results generated by Falcon-unzip. Therefore, we do not expect any analysis error due to haplotigs interference.

Page 6, Line 148: "The larger gene size"

> I think the authors mean "larger number of genes." "Larger gene size" seems to refer to the number of nucleotides in genes.

Response: As the reviewer suggested, we have corrected the sentence.

Page 6, Line 142: "of repetitive sequences (44.43%)"—"Repeats accounted for 44%" > Remove one of these 44%s --- It's repetitive.

Response: As the reviewer suggested, we have removed that part.

Page 6, Line 142: "Repeats accounted for 44% (2.262 Gb) of the assembly, and were dominated by simple repeats (14.7%) and TEs"

> It's unclear whether 14.7% refers to the 14.7% of the genome or 14.7% of the repeats. Be explicit.

> Also, this paragraph would benefit by a side-by-side comparison of repeats and genes between the two Octopus. E.g. "O.minor genome is composed of 44% repeats and X% gene coding sequence, while O. maculoides genome consists of X% repeats and X% gene coding sequence." This could be helped by a table showing side-by-side values. As it is written it is difficult to get a feel for how the content of these genomes compare. I would also wait to talk about TEs, transposons, and LINEs until the next paragraph.

Response: We are sorry for not organized sentences. As the reviewer suggested, we have made clear the sentences describing brief differences of genome characteristics between O. minor and O. bimaculoides.

Page 6, Line 151: "TEs are crucial components" > I would argue that since TEs are absent from some animal genomes, they are not "crucial." I suggest removing "crucial". Minor point.

Response: As the reviewer suggested, we have corrected the sentence.

BUSCO: Busco scores should be reported in the paper rather than in the FTP site. This should include: Total number of core genes queried, Number of core genes detected—Complete, Number of core genes detected—Complete + Partial, Number of missing core genes, Average number of orthologs per core genes, % of detected core genes that have more than 1 ortholog

Response: Thank you for your suggestions. We have moved the supplementary table 2 describing BUSCO results to main table 1.

Reviewer #2: In the present manuscript, the authors provide the genome of the common long-arm octopus Octopus minor. It has been reported that the genome of the California two-spot octopus O. bimaculoides has a high amount of repeat content and several gene family expansions related to its morphological novelty. O. minor is closely related to O. bimaculoides, belonging to the same genus. The authors compared gene families and repetitive elements of these two octopus genomes with other lophotrochozoans and concluded that these two octopus genomes seem to be evolved independently.

Overall, this is a significant contribution to the field of cephalopod genomics. In order to support their hypothesis, the authors should address the issue of phylogenetic analyses of major gene families and repeats before publication.

Major comments:

1. The manuscript is well-written and straightforward. However, I find that there is a lack of evidence to show which events are related to Octopus genus-specific events or those of species-specific. Since one major conclusion from gene family and repeat analyses is that O. minor and O. bimaculoides evolved independently, the authors should provide evidence to test their hypothesis. For example, one major finding in the O. bimaculoides genome is that gene family expansions of protocadherins and the C2H2 superfamily of zinc-finger genes. Given that we have an additional genome from the same genus, the authors should provide gene trees to show that if these gene family expansions are general to the genus Octopus, or there was a convergent evolution in which these gene family expanded independently.

Response: Thank you for the positive comment on our manuscript. Based on the reviewer's comment, we analyzed genomic expansions of protocadherins and C2H2 zinc finger gene family from the O. minor genome. In the case of squid, there is no genome information available yet. However, from the transcriptome data, only small numbers of protocadherins and C2H2 zinc finger gene family were identified in squid (Albertin et al., 2015). Moreover, Albertin et al. (2015) measured that octopus protocadherins appear to have expanded ~135 Mya after octopuses diverged from squid. In our study, we estimated that O. minor was diverged from O. bimaculoides. Thus, we assume that the extraordinary expansions of both gene families are Octopusspecific. Sentences incorporated in the revised manuscript are appended as follows;

Previously, 168 protocadherin (pcdhs) genes were annotated in the genome of O. bimaculoides, which is the largest number among sequenced metazoan genomes (Figure S8.3.2 in Albertin et al., 2015). In the case of C2H2 zinc finger gene family, approximately 1,800 C2H2 genes were annotated in the O. bimaculoides genome. The drastic expansions were also observed in the genome of O. minor, as 303 and 2,289 genes were annotated for pcdhs and C2H2 zinc finger gene family, respectively. We assume that the expansion patterns are unique to the genus Octopus, as the expansion pattern was not detected in squid and the pcdhs seem to have expanded after octopuses diverged from squid (\approx 135 Mya) (Albertin et al., 2015). Since we estimated that O. minor diverged from the genus Octopus, the extraordinary expansions of both gene families are presumably Octopus-specific.

2. Also, it is worth to check the genomic organization of these gene family expansions in two octopus genomes. Are they usually expanded in a tandemly duplicated manner

on the same scaffold? Or are they distributed among different scaffolds?

Response: Thank you so much for your informative comments. Unfortunately, we have needed to reduce biological analysis part to follow data note author guidelines. Following your valuable suggestions, we are going to analysis gene family organizations in our future study.

3. Similar situation for the repetitive elements, although the authors showed that the repeat landscape is different between two octopus genomes, there is no information about which repeat expansions have happened at the genus-level and which are at the species-level. The authors should at least examine some representative repetitive elements in details by providing their phylogenetic analysis with repeat trees.

Response: Similar with the previous response, we had to reduced the analysis part. Thank you so much for your suggestions.

4. In addition, the authors mentioned that they did RNA-seq of 13 tissues, but there is no description of this dataset. Are there some gene family expansions related to tissuespecific expression? The authors should provide some results from their RNA-seq data.

Response: Like previous response, we had to reduce the biological analysis part. In this manuscript, we have used RNA-seq data to annotate genes. We are going to analysis tissue-specific RNA expression patterns in the near future.

Minor comments:

1. Introduction: Given that octopuses are members of lophotrochozoans and the authors also used a lot of lophotrochozoan genomes for comparisons, the authors should properly describe previous work related to this topic. I would suggest the authors add some description about the relationship of molluscs and other lophotrochozoans and cite major papers to give an overview for the rationale of phylogenetic and gene analyses.

References:

Takeuchi et al. (2012) Draft genome of the pearl oyster Pinctada fucata: a platform for understanding bivalve biology. DNA Res 19, 117-30.

Zhang et al. (2012) The oyster genome reveals stress adaptation and complexity of shell formation. Nature 490, 49-54.

Simakov et al. (2013) Insights into bilaterian evolution from three spiralian genomes. Nature 493, 526-31.

Luo et al. (2015) The Lingula genome provides insights into brachiopod evolution and the origin of phosphate biomineralization. Nat Commun 6, 8301.

Response: Thank you so much for your suggestion and references. We have added introductory sentence about genome information scarcity of mollusk and their relationship with lophotrochozoans.

2. Line 12: "bilaterian animal species" -> "bilaterian species". Bilaterians are bilaterally symmetric animals, so using "bilaterian animal" would be redundant.

Response: As the reviewer suggested, we have corrected the sentence.

3. Line 40: Most O. minor habitats are "mud and sand"…

Response: As the reviewer suggested, we have corrected the sentence.

4. Line 42: The following sentence is unrelated to the scientific study, especially for the later part: "As an important economic cephalopod in South Korea, fishermen normally catch O. minor by digging a hole in the mudflat with shovels."

Response: As the reviewer suggested, we have corrected the sentence.

5. The Results section (or Analyses) "Genome sequencing and annotation" looks like

Powered by Editorial Manager® and ProduXion Manager® from Aries Systems Corporation

The genome of common long-arm octopus *Octopus minor*

Bo-Mi Kim a,†, Seunghyun Kang a,†, Do-Hwan Ahn a,† , Seung-Hyun Jung b,† , Hwanseok Rhee c,† , Jong Su Yoo ^b , Jong-Eun Lee ^c , SeungJae Lee ^c , Yong-Hee Han ^d , Kyoung-Bin Ryu ^d , Sung-Jin Cho d,*, Hyun Park a,e,*, Hye Suck An b,*

Affiliations

^a Unit of Polar Genomics, Korea Polar Research Institute(KOPRI), Incheon 21990, Korea

^b Department of Genetic Resources Research, National Marine Biodiversity Institute of Korea (MABIK), Janghang-eup, Seochun-gun, Chungchungnam-do 33662, Korea

^c Genomics Lab, Cluster Center, DNA Link, Inc., 150, Bugahyeon-ro, Seodaemun-gu, Seoul 03759, Korea

 d School of Biological Sciences, College of Natural Sciences, Chungbuk National University, Cheongju, Chungbuk 28644, Korea

^e Polar Sciences, University of Science & Technology, Yuseong-gu, Daejeon 34113, Korea

*Co-corresponding author:

School of Biological Sciences, College of Natural Sciences, Chungbuk National University, Cheongju, Chungbuk 28644, Korea; E-mail address: sjchobio@chungbuk.ac.kr (S. Cho)

Unit of Polar Genomics, Korea Polar Research Institute, Incheon 21990, Korea; E-mail address: hpark@kopri.re.kr (H. Park)

Department of Genetic Resources Research, National Marine Biodiversity Institute of Korea (MABIK), Janghang-eup, Seochun-gun, Chungchungnam-do 33662, Korea; E-mail address: mgran@mabik.re.kr H.S. An)

†These authors contributed equally to this work.

Abstract

 Background: The common long-arm octopus (*Octopus minor*) is found in mudflats of subtidal zones and faces numerous environmental challenges. The ability to adapt its morphology and behavioural repertoire to diverse environmental conditions makes the species a promising model to understand genomic adaptation and evolution in cephalopods. **Findings**: The final genome assembly of *O. minor* is 5.09 Gb, with a contig N50 size of 197 kb and longest size of 3.027 Mb, from a total of 419 Gb raw reads generated using PacBio RS II platform. We identified 30,010 genes and 44.43% of the genome is composed of repeat elements. The genome-widw phylogenetic tree indicated the divergence time between *O. minor* and *O. bimaculoides* was estimated to be 43 million years ago (Mya) based on single-copy orthologous genes. In total, 178 gene families are expanded in *O*. *minor* in the 14 bilaterian species. **Conclusion**: We found that the *O. minor* genome was larger than that of closely related *O. bimaculoides,* and this difference could be explained by enlarged introns and recently diversified transposable elements. The high-quality *O*. *minor* genome assembly provides a valuable resource for understanding octopus genome evolution and the molecular basis of adaptations to mudflats.

Key words:

Octopus genome, Cephalopods, adaptation and evolution, long-read sequencing

Background

 Cephalopods (*e.g.* cuttlefish, nautilus, octopus, and squid) belong to the phylum Mollusca, which is one of the most diverse phylum within Lophotrochozoa. Regardless of their evolutionary, biological and economic significance, their genome information is still limited to a few species[1,2,3,4].

 Cephalopods have interesting biological characteristics, such as an extraordinary life- history plasticity, rapid growth, short lifespan, large brain, and sophisticated sense organs with a complex nervous system[5]. The ability to adapt their morphology and behavioural repertoire to diverse environmental conditions and capacity for learning and memory are common traits in cephalopods, but have rarely been observed in other invertebrates[6]. Many cephalopod species have been considered for fisheries and are promising candidates for aquaculture. There are an estimated 1,000 cephalopod species (~700 known marine-living species), and octopods are among the most well-known representatives of the class, including over 150 species worldwide[7]. Studies have evaluated the biological machinery underlying the fundamental nervous system functions, strong behavioural plasticity, and learning ability in octopods[8, 9].

 Octopus minor (Sasaki, 1920), also known as the common long-arm octopus, is a benthic littoral species, and is a major commercial fishery product with a high annual yield[10]. *O*. *minor* is relatively small and possesses a shorter life cycle (approximately 1 year), thinner arms, and a lower ratio between head size and arm length compared to those of other octopus species (**Fig. 1a and 1b**). The species is widely distributed in Northeast Asia, particularly in coastal regions of South Korea, China, and Japan (**Fig. 1c**). Most *O*. *minor* habitats are mud and mud-43 sand in well-developed mudflats of coastal regions; they spawn in holes on the mudflat by digging with the whole body. Thus, they are subjected to the harsh environmental conditions of mudflats, including diurnal temperature changes, steep salinity and pH gradients, desiccation, wave action and tides, oxygen availability, and interrupted feeding. Owing to the ability of *O*. *minor* to tolerate environmental fluctuations, it is a promising organism for studies of the molecular basis of plasticity and mechanisms underlying adaptation to harsh environmental conditions, although relevant information is scarce. To make full use of this emerging cephalopod model system and to understand the interesting features of *O*. *minor*, including its plasticity in mudflats and genetic evolution, a high-quality reference genome is required.

 The published genome and multiple transcriptomes of the California two-spot octopus *Octopus bimaculoides* have provided valuable information on genomic traits (*e.g.* gene family

 expansion, genome rearrangements, and transposable element activity) related to the evolution of neural complexity and morphological innovations[3]. In this study, we report a high-quality genome assembly and annotation for *O*. *minor*. We compare the genomes of *O*. *minor* and *O*. *bimaculoides* and provide evidence that the expansion of genes and/or gene families is related to adaptation to the harsh environmental conditions of mudflats.

Data description

Genome sequencing and annotation

 O. *minor* genomic DNA was extracted from leg muscle tissues. The average coverage of SMRT sequences was ~76-fold using P6-C4 sequence chemistry from genomic DNA libraries which was sequenced by PacBio RS II. The average subread length was 9.2 kb (Supplementary Table S1). For genome size estimation, a k-mer analysis was performed using Jellyfish ver. 2.1.3[11] with paired-end sequences of the genomic DNA libraries. The *O*. *minor* genome was estimated to be 5.1 Gb (Supplementary Figs. S1 and S2). The *de novo* assembly generated using FALCON-Unzip assembler ver. 0.4 was 5.09 Gb with 41,584 contigs[12]. Finally, evaluation of the genome completeness was checked using BUSCO ver. 1.22[13] (Table 1).

 Total RNA was extracted from 13 tissues (brain, branchial heart, buccal mass, eye, heart, kidney, liver, ovary, poison gland, siphon, skin, and suckers) using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA quality was confirmed using an Agilent Bioanalyzer. Isoform sequencing was performed using pooled RNA from thirteen organs. Library construction and sequencing were performed using PacBio RS II (Supplementary Table S2). The SMRTbell library for Iso-seq was sequenced using 16 SMRT cells (1–2 kb, three cells; 2–3 kb, six cells; and 3–6 kb, seven cells). Reads were identified using the SMRT Analysis ver. 2.3 RS_IsoSeq.1 classification protocol. All full- length reads derived from the same isoform were clustered and consensus sequences were polished using the TOFU pipeline (isoseq-tofu)[14]. Additionally, chimeras of consensus sequences generated during experiments and TOFU pipeline were removed using in-house script.

 MAKER ver. 2.28 was used for genome annotation[15]. First, repetitive elements were identified using RepeatMasker ver. 4.0.7[16]. A *de novo* repeat library was constructed using 85 RepeatModeler ver. 1.0.3[17], including RECON ver. 1.08[18] and RepeatScout ver. 1.0.5[19], with default parameters. Consensus sequences and classification information for each repeat family were generated, and tandem repeats, including simple repeats, satellites, and low-

 complexity repeats, were predicted using Tandem Repeats Finder[14]. This masked genome sequence was used for *ab initio* gene prediction with SNAP software[20]; subsequently, alignments of expressed sequence tags with BLASTn ver. 2.2.28+ and protein information from tBLASTx ver. 2.2.28+ were included. The *de novo* repeat library of *O*. *minor* from RepeatModeler was used for RepeatMasker; proteins from sequenced molluscs (*L. gigantea*, *C. gigas*, and *Aplysia californica*) and an octopus species (*O*. *bimaculoides*) were included in the analysis. Transcriptome assembly results were used for expressed sequence tags. Next, MAKER polished the alignments using Exonerate, which provided integrated information for SNAP annotation. Using MAKER, the final gene model was selected and revised considering all information. A total of 30,010 *O*. *minor* genes were predicted using MAKER. The Infernal software package (ver. 1.1)[21] and covariance models from the Rfam[22] database were used to identify other non-coding RNAs in the *O*. *minor* scaffold. Putative tRNA genes were identified using tRNAscan-SE ver. 1.4[23]. tRNAscan-SE uses a covariance model that scores candidates based on their sequence and predicted secondary structures.

 The mean size of *O*. *minor* genes was 23.6 kb, with an average intron length of 5.4 kb (4.2 introns per gene) (Supplementary Table S3). The *O*. *minor* genome contained 30,010 protein- coding genes (Table 2), of which 96% were annotated based on known proteins in public databases, and 79% were similar to *O*. *bimaculoides* genes (Supplementary Table S4).

Comparative genomic analyses and duplicate genes

 To resolve gene family evolution in the *O*. *minor* genome, we classified orthologous gene clusters (Supplementary Table S5) from 14 species and found evidence for the recent expansion of low-copy gene duplicates and the expansion of large gene families. Orthologous groups were 111 identified using both OrthoMCL ver. 2.0.9 [24] and Pfam^[25] domain assignments. OrthoMCL generated a graphical representation of sequence relationships, which was then divided into subgraphs using the Markov Clustering Algorithm (MCL) from multiple eukaryotic genomes[24]. The default parameters and options of OrthoMCL were used for all steps, together with the genomes of 14 species (Supplementary Table S5). For *O*. *minor*, the coding sequence from the MAKER annotation pipeline was used. To construct a phylogenetic tree and estimate the divergence time, 202 1:1 single-copy orthologous genes were used. Using the Probabilistic Alignment Kit (PRANK) ver.140603 [26], protein-coding genes were aligned with the codon alignment option, and poorly aligned regions with gaps were eliminated using Gblocks ver. 0.91b [27] with a codon model. A maximum-likelihood tree was built using

 RAxML ver. 8.2.4[28] with 1,000 bootstrap replicates, and the divergence time was calibrated using TimeTree[29]. The average gene gain-loss was identified using CAFÉ ver. 4.0[30] with 123 *p*-value < 0.05 . 124 Sequence divergence was estimated by calculating d_S values using the yn00 program from 125 the PAML package ver. 4.7a[31]. The Jukes–Cantor distances were adjusted using the Jukes– 126 Cantor formula $d_{XY} = -(3/4) \ln(1-4/3D)$, where D is the proportion of nucleotide differences 127 between the sequences. The time estimation was calibrated by assuming d_S of \sim 1 is 135 million years[7].

 Gene family analyses of specific genes of interest were manually curated using manual gene search methods. Gene or gene family targets identified in the genomes of *O. bimaculoides*, *Crassostrea gigas*, *Lottia gigantea*, *Capitella teleta*, and *Homo sapiens* were directly mapped to the *O*. *minor* genome database by a local BLAST analysis. Alignments were generated using Clustal Omega (ClustalO) ver. 1.2.4[32] and Multiple Sequence Comparison by Log- Expectation (MUSCLE) ver. 3.8.31[33], and phylogenetic trees were built using FastTree[34] or RAxML with 1,000 bootstrap replicates.

 Gene gain-loss analysis indicated significantly greater gene family expansion in *O*. *minor* (178 gene families) compared to other species, *e.g.* interleukin-17, G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) proteins, Zinc-finger of C2H2 type, heat shock protein (HSP) 70 proteins, and cadherin-like domains (Supplementary Tables S6–S8). The divergence time between *O*. *minor* and *O*. *bimaculoides* was estimated to be 43 million years ago (Mya) based on single-copy orthologous genes (Fig. 2a) Further, Pfam domain and EggNOG metazoan database searches consistently showed the expansion of gene families, including the cadherin and protocadherin domains and interleukin-17 (Fig. 2b and Supplementary Tables S9 and S10).

 Previously, 168 protocadherin (*pcdhs*) genes were annotated in the genome of *O. bimaculoides*, which is the largest number among sequenced metazoan genomes[3]. In the case of C2H2 zinc finger gene family, approximately 1,800 C2H2 genes were annotated in the *O. bimaculoides* genome. The drastic expansions were also observed in the genome of *O. minor*, as 303 and 2,289 genes were annotated for *pcdhs* and C2H2 zinc finger gene family, respectively. We assume that the expansion patterns are unique to the genus *Octopus*, as the expansion pattern was not detected in squid and the *pcdhs* seem to have expanded after octopuses diverged from squid (≈ 135 Mya)[3]. Since we estimated that *O. minor* diverged from the genus *Octopus*, the extraordinary expansions of both gene families are presumably *Octopus*-specific.

Transposable element annotation and expansions

 The *O*. *minor* genome (5.1 Gb) is composed of 44 % repetitive sequences and 0.68 % coding sequences, while *O*. *bimaculoides* genome (2.7 Gb) made up of 35% repetitive sequences and 1.08 % coding sequences. Repeats were dominated by simple repeats (14.7% of genome) and TEs, especially DNA transposons and long interspersed elements (LINEs), which were more abundant in the *O*. *minor* genome than in the *O*. *bimaculoides* genome (Supplementary Tables S11–S13). In an analysis of genes (i.e. exons and introns) and intergenic sequences, TEs were highly distributed in the intergenic sequence regions in both species (Supplementary Fig. S4). In particular, TE accumulation in intergenic sequence regions was significantly greater in *O. minor* than in O. *bimaculoides*. The larger number of gene size and higher repeat content may explain the larger genome of *O*. *minor* compared with *O*. *bimaculoides*.

 TEs are components of animal genomes, with major roles in genome rearrangements and evolution. Based on the mechanism of transposition, TEs are grouped into two main classes, class I retrotransposons, which are subdivided into long terminal repeats (LTRs) and non-LTR retrotransposons [*e.g.* LINEs and short interspersed elements (SINEs)], and class II DNA transposons[35]. We detected more TEs in the larger genome of *O*. *minor* than in the smaller genome of *O*. *bimaculoides*. Approximately half of the *O*. *minor* genome was composed of TEs (11,547,325 TEs; 44% of the genome), while one-third of the *O*. *bimaculoides* genome was composed of TEs (3,887,025 TEs; 35%) (Supplementary Table S11). The majority of class I retrotransposons in the *O*. *minor* genome were LINEs (10%), as was also the case in *O*. *bimaculoides* (9%), and the proportion of DNA transposons in *O*. *minor* (13%) was comparable to that in *O*. *bimaculoides* (12%). Interestingly, the *O*. *minor* genome had fewer SINEs (1,540 copies; 0.01%) and more rolling-circle (RC)-Helitrons (121,101 copies; 3.7%) than the *O*. *bimaculoides* genome (SINEs: 115,169 copies, 1.8%; RC-Helitron: 43,735 copies, 0.7%). A Kimura distance analysis revealed that the most frequent TE sequence divergence relative to 181 the TE consensus sequence was \sim 7–10%, with an additional peak at 3% (Fig. 3a), compared to 16–17% in the *O*. *bimaculoides* genome (Fig. 3b and Supplementary Table S11).

 A more recent expansion of LINEs, without an increase in SINEs, was detected in the *O*. *minor* genome, while ancient copies of all four types of TEs and an ancient transposition burst of DNA transposons were observed in *O*. *bimaculoides*. Using the recent TE expansion in the *O. minor* genome, we correlated Jukes–Cantor distance measures with d_S and identified two

unique expansion waves at 0.04 and 0.09 compared to the distribution of *O*. *bimaculoides* TEs (Supplementary Figs. S5 and S6). This suggests that a major expansion of TEs in the *O*. *minor* genome occurred 11 to 25 Mya, which is after the divergence of *O*. *minor* and *O*. *bimaculoides*.

Conclusions

> *O. minor* has developed morphological and physiological adaptations to match their unique mudflat habitats. In summary, we generated a high-quality sequence assembly for *O. minor* to elucidate the molecular mechanisms underlying their adaptations. In a direct comparison between the genomes of *O. minor* and *O*. *bimaculoides*, we discovered that they evolved recently and independently from the octopus lineage during the successful transition from an aquatic habitat to mudflats. We also found evidence suggesting that speciation in the genus *Octopus* is closely related to the gene family expansion associated with environmental adaptation. Finally, in addition to providing insights into the genome size increase via gene family expansion, the *O. minor* genome sequence also provides an essential resource for studies of Cephalopoda evolution.

Availability of supporting data

 The octopus (*O. minor*) genome project was deposited at NCBI under BioProject number PRJNA421033. The whole-genome sequence was deposited in the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database under accession number SRX3462978, and isoform sequence from PacBio sequencing data were deposited in the SRA database under accession numbers SRX3478495 and SRX3478496. Other supporting data, including annotations, alignments, and BUSCO results, are available in the GigaScience repository, GigaDB [---].

Ethics Statement

 No specific permits were required for the described field studies, no specific permissions were required for these locations/activities and the field studies did not involve endangered or protected species.

Additional files

 Fig. S1. Estimation of genome size of *O. minor* based on distribution of 17 k-mer frequency in raw sequencing reads.

 Fig. S2. Genome size determination by flow cytometry. The flow cytometry analysis provides as estimation of Propidium iodide (PI) staining. Accepting a haploid genome size estimate of 2.81 Gb for Mouse (Assembly; GRCm38.p6), we estimate the genome size of O. minor to be 5.38 Gb. Fig. S3. Blast top hit distribution. Fig. S4. Composition of transposable elements in the regions of gene and intergenic sequence. Fig. S5. Transposable elements Juke-cantor distance distribution. Fig. S6. Transposable elements Juke-cantor distance distribution of *O. minor*. Table S1. Statistics for SMRT sequencing for the *O. minor* genome sequencing. Table S2. Isoform sequencing summary of transcriptome analysis of *O. minor* using PacBio RSII. Table S3. Brief summary of gene statistics. Table S4. Functional annotation statistics of transcriptome assembly. Table S5. Summary of orthologous gene clusters analyzed in 14 species. Table S6. CAFÉ gene family analysis results. Table S7. Example of top 30 CAFÉ significantly expanded gene families. Table S8. Example of top 30 CAFÉ significantly shrinked gene families. Table S9. Top 30 expanded Pfam domains. Table S10. Top 30 expanded EggNOG domains. Table S11. Statistics of repeat analysis of the *O. minor* genome. Table S12. Classifications and frequencies of transposable elements and other repeats. Table S13. Classifications and frequencies of simple repeats. Supplementary text commands **Acknowledgements** We thank Jong Won Han and Ha Yeun Song of the National Marine Biodiversity Institute of Korea (MABIK) for the sampling of 18 tissues used for transcriptome assembly, as well as Keekwang Kim of Chungnam National University and Kun-Hee Kim of Chonnam National University for their devotion to estimate the genome size of *O. minor* by flow cytometry. We also thank Jeollanam-Do Oceans & Fisheries Science Institute for providing octopus embryos. **Funding**

This work was supported by grants (2018M00900) from MABIK.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Author contributions

 H.S.A., H.P., and J.L. conceived the study. H.P., B.K., S.K., D.A., S.J., J.L., H.R., and S.L. performed genome sequencing, assembly, and annotation. S.J., Y.H., K.R., and S.C. performed experiments. J.S.Y., H.S.A., H.P., S.J., and J.L. advised and coordinated the study. B.K., S.K., D.A., and H.P. mainly wrote the paper. All authors contributed to writing and editing the manuscript and supplementary information and producing the figures.

References

1. Takeuchi T, Kawashima T, Koyanagi R, Gyoja F, Tanaka M, Ikuta T, et al. Draft genome of the pearl oyster *Pinctada fucata*: a platform for understanding bivalve biology. DNA research. 2012:dss005.

- 2. Zhang G, Fang X, Guo X, Li L, Luo R, Xu F, et al. The oyster genome reveals stress adaptation and complexity of shell formation. Nature. 2012;490 7418:49.
- 3. Albertin CB, Simakov O, Mitros T, Wang ZY, Pungor JR, Edsinger-Gonzales E, et al. The octopus genome and the evolution of cephalopod neural and morphological novelties. Nature. 2015;524 7564:220-4.
- 4. Luo Y-J, Takeuchi T, Koyanagi R, Yamada L, Kanda M, Khalturina M, et al. The Lingula genome provides insights into brachiopod evolution and the origin of phosphate biomineralization. Nature communications. 2015;6:8301.
- 5. Boyle P and Rodhouse P. Cephalopods: ecology and fisheries. Oxford: Blackwe ll Science Ltd; 2005.
- 6. Hanlon RT and Messenger JB. Cephalopod behaviour. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 1998.
- 7. Guzik MT, Norman MD and Crozier RH. Molecular phylogeny of the benthic shallow-water octopuses (Cephalopoda: Octopodinae). Mol Phylogen Evol. 2005; 37 1:235-48.
- 8. Hochner B, Shomrat T and Fiorito G. The octopus: a model for a comparative analysis of the evolution of learning and memory mechanisms. Biol Bull. 200 6;210 3:308-17.
- 9. Mather JA. Cephalopod consciousness: behavioural evidence. Conscious Cogn. 2008;17 1:37-48.
- 10. MIFAFF. Food, Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries statistical yearbook. Seoul: Forestry and Fisheries (MIFAFF) Press; 2012.
- 11. Marçais G and Kingsford C. A fast, lock-free approach for efficient parallel co unting of occurrences of k-mers. Bioinformatics. 2011;27 6:764-70.
- 12. Chin C-S, Peluso P, Sedlazeck FJ, Nattestad M, Concepcion GT, Clum A, et a l. Phased diploid genome assembly with single molecule real-time sequencing. Nat Methods. 2016;13 12:1050.
- 13. Simão FA, Waterhouse RM, Ioannidis P, Kriventseva EV and Zdobnov EM. B USCO: assessing genome assembly and annotation completeness with single-cop y orthologs. Bioinformatics. 2015;31 19:3210-2.
- 14. Gordon SP, Tseng E, Salamov A, Zhang J, Meng X, Zhao Z, et al. Widesprea d polycistronic transcripts in fungi revealed by single-molecule mRNA sequenci ng. PLoS ONE. 2015;10 7:e0132628.
- 15. Holt C and Yandell M. MAKER2: an annotation pipeline and genome-database management tool for second-generation genome projects. BMC bioinformatics. 2 011;12 1:491.
- 16. Smit AFA HR, Green, P. RepeatMasker Open-3.0. 1996-2004 (http://www.Repe atMakser.org).
- 17. Bao Z and Eddy SR. Automated de novo identification of repeat sequence fam ilies in sequenced genomes. Genome research. 2002;12 8:1269-76.
- 18. Price AL, Jones NC and Pevzner PA. De novo identification of repeat families in large genomes. Bioinformatics. 2005;21 suppl_1:i351-i8.
- 19. Benson G. Tandem repeats finder: a program to analyze DNA sequences. Nucl eic acids research. 1999;27 2:573.
- 20. Korf I. Gene finding in novel genomes. BMC bioinformatics. 2004;5 1:59.
- 21. Nawrocki EP, Kolbe DL and Eddy SR. Infernal 1.0: inference of RNA alignm ents. Bioinformatics. 2009;25 10:1335-7.
- 22. Gardner PP, Daub J, Tate J, Moore BL, Osuch IH, Griffiths-Jones S, et al. Rf

- am: Wikipedia, clans and the "decimal" release. Nucleic Acids Res. 2010;39 su ppl_1:D141-D5.
- 23. Lowe TM and Eddy SR. tRNAscan-SE: a program for improved detection of t ransfer RNA genes in genomic sequence. Nucleic acids research. 1997;25 5:955 .
- 24. Li L, Stoeckert CJ, Jr. and Roos DS. OrthoMCL: identification of ortholog gro ups for eukaryotic genomes. Genome Res. 2003;13 9:2178-89.
- 25. Finn RD, Bateman A, Clements J, Coggill P, Eberhardt RY, Eddy SR, et al. Pfam: the protein families database. Nucleic Acids Res. 2013;42 D1:D222-D30. 26. Löytynoja A and Goldman N. An algorithm for progressive multiple alignment of sequences with insertions. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America. 2005;102 30:10557-62.
- 27. Castresana J. Selection of conserved blocks from multiple alignments for their use in phylogenetic analysis. Molecular biology and evolution. 2000;17 4:540-5 2.
- 28. Stamatakis A. RAxML version 8: a tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-ana lysis of large phylogenies. Bioinformatics. 2014;30 9:1312-3.
- 29. Hedges SB, Dudley J and Kumar S. TimeTree: a public knowledge-base of div ergence times among organisms. Bioinformatics. 2006;22 23:2971-2.
- 30. Han MV, Thomas GW, Lugo-Martinez J and Hahn MW. Estimating gene gain and loss rates in the presence of error in genome assembly and annotation usi ng CAFE 3. Molecular biology and evolution. 2013;30 8:1987-97.
- 31. Yang Z. PAML 4: phylogenetic analysis by maximum likelihood. Molecular bi ology and evolution. 2007;24 8:1586-91.
- 32. Sievers F, Wilm A, Dineen D, Gibson TJ, Karplus K, Li W, et al. Fast, scala ble generation of high‐quality protein multiple sequence alignments using Clusta l Omega. Molecular systems biology. 2011;7 1:539.
- 33. Edgar RC. MUSCLE: multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and hig h throughput. Nucleic Acids Res. 2004;32 doi:10.1093/nar/gkh340.
- 34. Price MN, Dehal PS and Arkin AP. FastTree 2–approximately maximum-likelih ood trees for large alignments. PloS one. 2010;5 3:e9490.
- 35. Wicker T, Sabot F, Hua-Van A, Bennetzen JL, Capy P, Chalhoub B, et al. A unified classification system for eukaryotic transposable elements. Nature Revie

Figure legends

 Figure 1: Common long-arm octopus (*Octopus minor*). **a** Photograph of *O. minor.* **b** Habitat structure of mudflats and phenotypic differences between *O. minor* and *O*. *bimaculoides*. *O*. *minor* has a smaller body size and possesses longer, thinner arms than those of *O*. *bimaculoides*. **c** The distribution of *O*. *minor* is shown in dark red. The distribution map was updated from Roper *et al*. (1984).

 Figure 2: Gene family analysis for 14 bilaterian species. **a** Divergence times estimated from genome sequences of 14 bilaterian species. **b** Heat map of expanded Pfam domains in the *O*. *minor* genome. OM, *Octopus minor*; OB, *Octopus bimaculoides*; LG, *Lottia gigantea*; CG, *Crassostrea gigas*; PF, *Pinctada fucata*; LA, *Lingula anatina*; CT, *Capitella teleta*; HR, *Helobdella robusta*; CE, *Caenorhabditis elegans*; DM, *Drosophila melanogaster*; DP, *Daphnia pulex*; SP, *Strongylocentrotus purpuratus*; MM, *Mus musculus*; HS, *Homo sapiens.*

 Figure 3: Transposable element (TE) accumulation history in the *Octopus* genomes. Kimura distance-based copy divergence analysis of TEs for **a**, *O*. *minor* and **b**, *O*. *bimaculoides*. *x*-axis, K-value; *y*-axis, genome coverage for each type of TE.

	Eukaryote		Metazoa	
	Count	%	Count	$\%$
Complete BUSCOs (C)	224	73.9	745	76.2
Complete and single-copy BUSCOs (S)	193	63.7	628	64.2
Complete and duplicated BUSCOs (D)	31	10.2	117	12
Fragmented BUSCOs (F)	26	8.6	82	8.4
Missing BUSCOs (M)	53	17.5	151	15.4
Total BUSCO groups searched	303		978	

Table 1 Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs (BUSCO) evaluated for the completeness of the *O. minor* **genome assembly.**

Table 2 Overview of the assembly and annotation of the *Octopus minor* genome.

a

Cadherin domain
Domain of unknown function (DUF4371) Transposase IS4 Cysteine-rich secretory protein family
Interleukin-17 Glutamate-cysteine ligase
Chondrollin N-acelyligalactosaminyltransferase
C-terminus of historie H2A Transposase: Lipoxygenase N-acelylmuramoyl-L-alanine amidase
Domain of unknown function (DUF4805) Domain of unknown function (DUF4805)
Thyroglobulin type: Trepsat
Back-kebalcyl symmase. N-terminal domain
Backerial protein of unknown function (Httl_YibB)
Beckerial protein of pertinsial domain
Brinker DNA-binding domain DHHA1 domain SMC proteins Flexible Hinge Domain NASH dehydrogenase
Conserved hypothetical ATP binding protein
Stanniocalcin family Sarcoglycan complex subunit protein
Sarcoglycan complex subunit protein
Flagellar C1a complex subunit C1a-32
EAP30/Vps36 family SOCE-associated regulatory factor of calcium homoeostasis
Peptidase family C78 Enolase, C-terminal TIM barrel domain

Supplementary tables

Click here to access/download Supplementary Material [Supplementary text_commands.docx](http://www.editorialmanager.com/giga/download.aspx?id=46668&guid=0f47853c-8f90-4368-bd0d-4bb702386a7f&scheme=1) Supplementary text commands

Click here to access/download Supplementary Material [GIGA_Additional file 1_Table.docx](http://www.editorialmanager.com/giga/download.aspx?id=46669&guid=42248f6f-93de-4d83-a085-0639f3dfe0c8&scheme=1)