Supplementary Information for

Convergent adaptation of the genomes of woody plants at the land-sea interface

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Supplementary Note

1. Whole-genome sequencing, assembly, and annotation

Material preparation

The three major mangrove taxa (*Avicennia*, *Sonneratia* and Rhizophoreae) together comprise 32 species, or 40 % of all mangroves in the world. We describe the collection of data from all species here since we occasionally use the whole data set to discern a trend. For example, genome size reduction is a general pattern among all mangroves we have analyzed. The genomes of species other than *Avicennia marina* (AM) and *Sonneratia alba* (SA) will be analyzed in more detail in a separate study in order to address issues that are beyond the scope of this report. These species exhibit special characteristics that are beneficial for adapting to the intertidal zone, such as vivipary, salt excretion, and special root systems [25]. Species of *Rhizophora* are typical mangroves with true viviparous seeds. *Avicennia* genus exhibit cryptovivipary, where the embryo does not break away from the fruit wall before the fruit falls off. Although *Sonneratia* are non-viviparous, their seeds germinate without dormancy unlike most other plants. *Avicennia* have the ability to secrete salt, whereas the other two genera exclude salt from entering root cells. *Avicennia* and *Sonneratia* develop pneumatophores, whereas stilt-roots occur in *Rhizophora* [25].

We randomly sampled a single mature *Avicennia marina* var. *marina* (AM), *Rhizophora apiculata* (RA), *Sonneratia alba* (SA) and *Bruguiera gymnorhiza* (BG) plant from Qinglan Harbor, Hainan, China (19°37'N, 110°48'E) for *de novo* genome sequencing and assembly. *S. caseolaris* and most other species were collected from the same place in Qinglan Harbor, Hainan. *A. marina* var. *australasica* was from New Zealand (36°52'S, 174°46'E). Genomic DNA was extracted from leaves using the CTAB method [60].

In a separate study, we obtained AM, RA, and SA samples from the Indo-Malayan coasts and southern China [2]. The samples from Hainan are usually lower in heterozygosity than those from the coasts of Thailand. The average number of nucleotide differences per Kb between two random sequences in Hainan were estimated as 0.316 in AM, 0.451 in RA, and 0.260 in SA. The respective values are 0.934, 0.586, and 0.435 in samples from Gulf of Thailand. Each data point is the average over 80 loci. We usually have 100 individuals from three to five sites in both regions.

The relevant question is whether the Hainan samples or the Thailand samples more accurately represent the diversity we are interested in. We suggest that the Hainan samples are indeed the right ones to use. In the previous study we found that all mangrove species have deep population subdivision separated by the Strait of Malacca [2]. As the sea levels rose and fell in the last 2 Myr, the Strait, being only 25 meter in depth, has been closed to gene flow most of the time. This isolation was punctuated repeatedly by gene flow when sea levels rose above -25 m. The higher diversity in samples collected near the Strait reflects gene flow from the coasts on the other side of the Strait of Malacca. Thailand samples reflect both the demographic history on one coast and the genetic input from the other coast.

The Hainan sample is also affected by this recent gene flow, but to a lesser extent since it is relatively far from the Strait. For that reason, the Hainan samples may more faithfully portray the adaptive history of the species with a fewer geographical complications of the region.

Whole-genome sequencing

In order to generate a better draft genome, we used a joint strategy of single-molecule real-time sequencing (SMRT; Pacific Biosciences, Menlo Park, CA, USA) and next-generation Illumina HiSeq 2000 sequencing (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). The whole-genome sequencing workflow is shown in Supplementary Figs. 1-3. SMRT sequencing was conducted on a PacBio RS II sequencing platform using the C4 sequencing chemistry and P6 polymerase with 20 Kb SMRT bell library and 25 SMRT cells. For the Illumina sequencing, we constructed 10-12 libraries with a variety of insert sizes (200 bp, 300 bp, 400 bp, 600 bp, 2 Kb, 5 Kb and 10 Kb). Raw reads were sequenced on the HiSeq 2000 platform for each species. The Illumina short reads were filtered via the following steps: (1) removing reads containing the Illumina TruSeq adaptor core sequence "GATCGGAAGA" with ≤ 1 mismatch in the 3' end; (2) removing duplicated reads from PCR amplification (if read 1 and read 2 of the two paired-end reads were identical in the first 30 bp); (3) removing reads shorter than 30 bp; and (4) removing single-end reads.

As a result, we obtained 15.7 Gb (N50 length at 14.2 Kb) and 28.4 Gb (N50 length at 17.7 Kb) of SMRT long-reads (Supplementary Figs. 4-5; Supplementary Table 1) and 79.6 Gb and 100.8 Gb of Illumina paired-end/mate-paired short reads for AM and SA (Supplementary Fig. 6; Supplementary Tables 2-3), respectively. We also generated 18-23 Gb data of RNA sequences (library insert size of 300 bp) for each species (Supplementary Table 8).

The RA and BG genomes were sequenced using the same strategy [1] (Li et al. unpublished data). For the *de novo* sequencing of the *S. caseolaris* genome, 72.3 Gb of whole-genome Illumina shortreads and 54 Gb of transcriptome data were generated. The information of data collection for other species is given in Table 1.

De novo genome assembly

We *de novo* assembled the genomes based on the SMRT long-reads using four pieces of software: falcon (https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/FALCON/), DBG2OLC [62], smartdenovo (https://github.com/ruanjue/smartdenovo), and wtdbg (https://github.com/ruanjue/wtdbg). We then chose the best result, generated by smartdenovo. Genome polishing was performed using Quiver [63] to further improve site-specific consensus accuracy. Clean reads from four Illumina short-read libraries (200 bp, 300 bp, 400 bp and 600 bp) were mapped to the genome assembly using BWA [64]. We next used samtools [65] and in-house scripts to call and correct SNPs and indels. Finally, we generated scaffolds and performed gap-filling with SSPACE 3.0 [66] with default parameter values using 10 Kb mate-pair sequencing data.

To improve the genome assembly of AM and BG, three-dimensional proximity information was obtained by high-throughput chromosome conformation capture sequencing (Hi-C) [67]. We used Juicer [68] and HiC-Pro pipeline for Hi-C data processing [69].

The total size of the assembled SA genome is 207.2 Mb, or 73% of the size estimated by flow cytometry (Supplementary Table 4 and Supplementary Fig. 7). The assembled SA genome consists of 108 scaffolds with N50 at 5.52 Mb (Supplementary Table 5). The 13 (or 42) longest scaffolds cover 50% (or 90%) of the genome, respectively. The assembled AM genome at 458.3 Mb is more than twice the size of SA and is also close (~90%) to the size estimated by flow cytometry (see Supplementary Tables 1, 4 and 5, Supplementary Fig. 7 for details). The assembly contains 421 scaffolds, with the 60 largest ones cover half of the genome. The longest and N50 are 8.9 Mb and 2.3 Mb, respectively. To improve the assembly of this larger genome, we utilize the 3D proximity information obtained by chromosome conformation capture sequencing (Hi-C) [67]. The final chromosome-scale assembly consists of 32 scaffolds (5.8 - 22.7 Mb) with N50 at 15.1 Mb (Supplementary Tables 5). The BG genome is also well assembled by SMRT and Hi-C, which N50 is 14.7 Mb in 18 chromosome-level scaffolds (Li et al. unpublished data). The assembled RA genome consists of 142 scaffolds with N50 at 5.4 Mb [1].

Assessment of genome completeness

To assess the quality of genome assembly and gene annotation, we calculated the matched fractions of the transcripts, core eukaryotic genes and randomly selected genes, which were standard methods [4,92] and widely used in genome completeness assessment. These assemblies show high accuracy and completeness and compare favorably with published plant genomes in assembly length and quality (Supplementary Note and Supplementary Tables 6 and 7).

We first used BLAT (v.34x12) [93] to align assembled transcripts (241,439 and 226,814 for AM and SA, respectively) to the scaffold of each species. We find that 99.91% of AM and 99.91% of SA transcripts are covered (Supplementary Table 6). Thus, most of the expressed genes have been sequenced and assembled. We then applied *BUSCO* (v3.1.0) to assess the completeness of the assemblies. Of the 2121 benchmarking universal single-copy orthologs, 2020 (95.2%) were found in AM and 2041 (96.2%) in SA (Supplementary Table 6).

We also aligned 96 AM and 71 SA randomly selected gene sequences from our previous work to our assembled genomes using *BLAT* (v. 34x12). We recovered 96 and 69 loci uniquely in the respective genomes (Supplementary Table 6).

The results indicate high continuity, completeness, and accuracy of the two mangrove assemblies, making them suitable and reliable for various genome-based downstream analyses.

We also compared various assembly statistics to the existing plant genomes. The comparison yielded comparable or better results for our mangrove assemblies. Scaffold N50 (a main indicator of general length of assembly), for example, was up to 5.52 Mb in *S. alba*, higher than N50 values of many other plant scaffolds and revealing good continuity of the *S. alba* assembly (Supplementary Table 7).

Repeat sequences and gene prediction

The repeat sequences were masked throughout the genome using RepeatMasker [71] and the RepBase library [72]. Working with the repeat-masked genomes, we combined homologous protein alignment, *ab initio* gene prediction, and transcriptome data to generate gene predictions. We used exonerate (version 1.1.1) [73] for homolog-based prediction through alignment of homologous proteins from six published genomes to our repeat-masked genomes. The six published genomes are *Oryza sativa*, *Mimulus guttatus*, *Sesamum indicum*, *Populus trichocarpa,* and *Eucalyptus grandis* (downloaded from Phytozome [http://www.phytozome.net] and Sinbase [http://ocrigenomics.org/Sinbase]). *Augustus* (version 3.2.2) [75] and *GeneMark-ET* (version 4.29) [76] were used for *ab initio* gene prediction.

Predicted genes were then verified using RNA-seq data. Assembled transcripts were mapped to genomes using Tophat (version v2.1.1) [77], and cufflinks (version 2.2.1) [78] was used to identify spliced transcripts. Finally, *EVidenceModeler* (EVM) [79] was used to integrate all gene models predicted from the above approaches into a weighted and non-redundant consensus gene structure set.

As a result, 35,168 AM and 31,886 SA protein-coding genes were predicted. The average gene lengths are 3,566 bp and 2,645 bp, and the average CDS lengths are 1,167 bp and 1,205 bp, respectively (Supplementary Table 9). The scaffold length, mRNA length, CDS length, exon length, exon number per gene, and intron length distributions are shown in Supplementary Fig. 8.

Gene function annotation

Functions of genes were annotated by searching against a series of protein databases, including SwissProt, TrEMBL [80], and the NCBI non-redundant (NR) protein database using *BLAST* (v2.2.6). Protein domains were annotated using InterProScan [94]. Gene ontology (GO) classification was performed by aligning genes to the Pfam database using *HMMER2GO* (https://github.com/sestaton/HMMER2GO). The annotation of Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) metabolic pathways was conducted by aligning to the KEGG database.

As a result, 32,817 AM and 30,360 SA genes were annotated, accounting for 93.31% and 95.21% of the gene sets respectively; 22,316 AM and 20,227 SA genes have KO (KEGG Orthology) information, while GO terms were assigned to 20,627 AM and 18,590 SA loci (Supplementary Fig. 9; Supplementary Table 10).

Transcription factor annotation

The program *iTAK* (v1.2; http://bioinfo.bti.cornell.edu/cgi-bin/itak/index.cgi) was used to identify and classify transcription factors (TFs) in the two mangrove genomes. 2,426 AM and 2,254 SA TFs belonging to 58 transcription families were identified. The most abundant transcription factor family for are MYB in AM and AP2-EREBP in SA (Supplementary Table 11).

Synteny construction

Syntenic blocks within each species were identified using McscanX [85] based on BLASTp selfalignments (e-value threshold of 1×10^{-5}). Each collinear block included at least five pairs of syntenic genes. Syntenic block visualizations produced by *Circos* (v0.65) [86] are shown in Supplementary Fig. 11.

835 AM and 706 SA syntenic blocks were identified. These blocks cover 79.52% of the AM and 90.90% of the SA assembly, and accounted for 47.93% and 49.83% of genes. These syntenic blocks cover high proportions of the genome and provide strong evidence for whole genome duplication (WGD). For example, in kiwifruit and potato genomes, WGD events were identified with only 46% and 25.74% of the genome sequences or genes covered by syntenic blocks [95,96].

Analysis of transcription profiles

To explore gene expression patterns in response to salt stress, we sequenced a series of transcriptomes AM and SA under salt treatments. Seedlings were collected from Hainan Island and cultivated with 1/2 Hoagland's nutrient solution [97] on clean sand for at least seven days. The seedlings were then divided into three groups and incubated under different NaCl concentrations (0 mM, 250 mM and 500 mM NaCl in 1/2 Hoagland's nutrient solution) for seven days. The total RNA of healthy young leaves and roots from each treatment (including two individuals each) were extracted using the Plant RNA Kit (OMEGA) and sequenced with the HiSeq 2000 platform. Two independent replicated biological samples were examined.

The short reads from each sample were aligned to its reference genome using *TopHat* [77] and assembled using *Cufflinks* [78]. Two programs, *Cuffmerge* and *Cuffdiff* from the *Cufflinks* package, were used to compare expression profiles among conditions. Benjamini-Hochberg correction [98] for multiple testing was used $(q$ -value < 0.05) in the analysis. Genes with significantly different expression levels and a fold change greater than two in both treatments were treated as differentially expressed genes (DEGs). DEGs were then mapped to KEGG pathways. Pathways with more than two differentially expressed genes were subjected to an enrichment test. Fisher's exact test with Benjamini–Hochberg correction was used to test for statistical significance.

Between 357 and 2,642 genes were identified as DEGs in roots or leaves of the two species (Supplementary Figs. 22-23), with between 10 and 36 pathways significantly enriched in differential expression. Particularly, we found that pathways related to flavonoid biosynthesis were enriched in leaves of both species when increasing salt concentration from 250 mM to 500 mM (Supplementary Table 28). Flavonoids play important roles in plant stress response. Stresses such as high salinity induce reactive oxygen species (ROS), which can alter normal cellular metabolism through oxidative damage to cellular components. Flavonoids help scavenge ROS [99]. It has been previously reported that flavonoid and total phenolic compound levels increase under salt treatment [100]. Other pathways, such as "Photosynthesis" and "Plant hormone signal transduction" were also enriched in salt-induced or repressed genes.

2. Divergence time and whole-genome duplication (WGD)

Estimation of species divergence time

To explored the origin and divergence time of the three mangrove lineages—*Avicennia,* Rhizophoreae and *Sonneratia*, we reconstructed phylogenetic trees and estimated the species divergence times in each lineage.

The data used in this analysis include five *de novo* genome assemblies (AM, RA, BG, SA and SC), one whole-genome resequencing data set (*A. marina* var. *australasica*), 10 transcriptomes of mangrove or non-mangrove relatives and five published genomes (Supplementary Table 14). The transcriptomes were first assembled using *Trinity* and the coding region sequences (CDS) were obtained by aligning to closely related mangrove reference genomes using *BLASTx* with an e-value threshold of 1×10^{-5} . The CDS of *A. marina* var. *australasica* were obtained by mapping the genome sequences to the *A. marina de novo* assembly. Protein sequences were translated from CDSs using a BioPerl script.

Gene clustering was performed using *OrthoMCL* [83] in each species group (Supplementary Fig. 12), yielding 26,384, 23,356, and 35,206 gene clusters. We picked gene families containing only one member of each species (single-copy ortholog groups) for downstream analyses. The putative orthologs were aligned using a combination of *PAL2NAL* [101] and *MUSCLE* [102]. Short (< 150 bp) or large-K^a (> 0.5 between *A. marina* & *S. indicum*, *R. apiculata* & *P. trichocarpa*, or *S. alba* & *E. grandis*) orthologs were removed. The filtered sets contain 1,421, 1,488, and 617 single-copy orthologous groups.

PhyML [84] was used to reconstruct phylogenetic trees within each group with 1000 bootstrap replicates. All nodes were 100% supported (Supplementary Fig. 16). The program *MCMCTREE* from the *PAML* 4.8 package [33] was used to calculate divergence times with the parameters "seq like (usedata = 1)," "HKY85+gamma (model = 4, alpha = 0.5)" and "independent rates (clock = 2)." *MCMCTREE* from the *PAML* package is one of the most popular approaches that implements a Bayesian phylogenetic framework to estimate divergence time. Bayesian methods are popular because they can readily incorporate complex models of molecular evolution [103]. Many recent studies used *MCMCTREE*, especially for genome papers, such as Yim et al. [104], Frantz et al. [105], and Ma et al. [4]. We set the parameters as suggested in the *PAML* Manual and we ran each analysis twice to make sure the results converged.

We used the following time calibrations in our analyses:

Avicennia group: The root constraint for *Mimulus guttatus* and the common ancestor of other species was set to 70-75 million years (Myr) ago [106] (Supplementary Fig. 13).

Rhizophoreae group: The time constraints are the same as in Xu et al. [1]. The Malpighiales root node, the common ancestor of Rhizophoraceae, Euphorbiaceae (*Ri. cimmunis*), and Salicaceae (*P.*

trichocarpa), was placed at 105-120 Myr before present [107,108] (Supplementary Fig. 14). An additional constraint (the red box 2 in Supplementary Fig. 14c) was between the *Rhizophora* lineage and the common ancestor of *Ka. obovata* and *Ce. tagal*, which was set earlier than 38 Myr ago since the earliest convincing fossils of *Rhizophora* have been dated to the late Eocene (33.9-38 Mya) [109,110].

Sonneratia group: The divergence time of the node between *E. grandis* and the other species was set to 100-110 Myr ago, equal to the divergence time between Myrtaceae and Lythraceae [111,112] (Supplementary Fig. 15). The earliest confirmed fossil of *Lagerstroemia* is a leaf impression dating to the late Paleocene/early Eocene. Therefore, we set another time constraint between *Lagerstroemia speciosa* and *Duabanga grandiflora* as 47.8-59.2 Myr ago [90,113].

As a result, the origin of the *Avicennia* mangroves is placed between 53 and 38 Myr ago (Supplementary Fig. 13). The origin of *Acanthus ilicifolius*, occurred during the last 16.6 Myr and is the only possible example of recent origin for mangroves in our collection. Rhizophoreae has the largest number of genera (*Rhizophora, Bruguiera, Ceriops*, and *Kandelia*), and its origin can be dated between U3 (at 54.1 Myr ago) and L3 (at 47.8-56 Myr ago) [89] (Supplementary Fig. 14). The last group includes the mangrove genus *Sonneratia* and the freshwater genus *Trapa*. Their most recent common ancestor is marked U4 in Fig. 1, with several mangrove fossils also indicated [90] along the branches. Given that the common ancestor U4 was aquatic and the *Sonneratia*-like fossil appeared early, the origin of *Sonneratia* is likely close to the U4 time at 42.5 Myr ago. L4 is placed at the lower boundary of the dating of the fossils suspected to be the ancestral *Sonneratia* (Supplementary Fig. 15). Divergence times estimated using by varying datasets and methods were consistent with those presented above (Supplementary Tables 15-20, Supplementary Fig. 16).

Comparisons of divergence times estimated using different datasets / methods

To assess the robustness of the results, we calculated divergence times using several datasets and methods. We first compared the divergence time calculated with two sets of data: all three nucleotides of codons, and only the 1st and 2nd positions. The results positions are consistent (Supplementary Tables 15-17).

We then used *r8s* [114] to date the divergence time. Using *r8s*, the phylogeny with branch length and nodes constraints are necessary. Therefore, we built phylogenetic trees with branch lengths using two different nucleotide substitution models: HKY85+G and GTR+I+G. In r8s software, there are three divergence time calculation methods: LF (Langley-Fitch), PL (Penalized likelihood), and NPRS (nonparametric rate smoothing) and three algorithms: TN, Powell, and Quewt for these methods. As per recommendations in the user's manual, we conducted our calculation using the TN algorithm for the LF and PL method, and the Powell algorithm for the NPRS method. The dataset including all orthologs described in the previous section was used in the *r8s* analysis.

The comparisons of the two approaches show that the outputs generally converge well (Supplementary Tables 18-20). The largest discrepancy is the dating of U1 and U2 in Fig. 1, which are 66.5 and 53.1 Myr based on *MCMCTREE* and 47 and 39 Myr from *r8s* (Node 2 and 3 in Supplementary Fig. 16). One of the possible explanations is that *r8s* only used phylogenetic branch lengths and time constrains of some nodes to estimate time. The node time is influenced mostly by the branch length and might lose important information provided by sequence data (*r8s*, version 1.70 user's manual, page 22). In addition, *MCMCTREE* provided 95% confidence intervals of each node unlike *r8s*. Hence, the results from the *MCMCTREE* analyses are shown in the main text.

Dating whole-genome duplication (WGD) events

In addition to the circular diagrams provided in Supplementary Fig. 17 to illustrate intra-species synteny, we tested other important aspects of WGD. A classical approach of WGD detection is through the distribution of synonymous substitution rates (Ks), an indication of the relative duplication age. This method has been widely used in studies of the same type [115,116]. Based on the genome-wide syntenic blocks identified, we calculated the Ks values for all paralogous gene pairs. A large peak was observed in each mangrove genome, indicating WGD events (Supplementary Figs. 13-15).

To date the mangrove WGDs, we first compared Ks distributions of syntenic gene pairs within mangrove genomes to Ks calculated between orthologous genes from mangrove-relative pairs. The comparison was used to infer the phylogenetic branch where the WGD events occurred. Then, we approximately dated the WGD events on branches using the following steps. First, we calculated the branch length (nucleotide substitution) distribution of syntenic gene pairs in each genome and found the distribution peaks (L_peak). We then calculated branch lengths between the WGD event and the closest node. Therefore, the time t_1 between the WGD and the node is $((L_p, p e a k - L_p)$ node)/u). L_node is the branch length between the node and the present. u is the average mutation rate on this branch and was estimated from previous analyses of divergence time. We estimated WGD age by adding t_1 and the divergence time of the closest node t_2 .

The Ks distribution of *A. marina* syntenic genes and that of other orthologs showed that the WGD event occurred near their divergence node within a narrow time range. The peak of branch length distribution of syntenic genes for *A. marina* and *S. indicum* is 0.29 and 0.25, and the WGD event happened at about 68 and 69 Myr ago, respectively (Supplementary Fig. 13).

The peak of Ks among *R. apiculata* syntenic genes is smaller than that of orthologs between *R. apiculata* and *P. trichocarpa,* but exceeds other Ks pairs, indicating the whole-genome duplication event occurred before the divergence of the common ancestor of *Carallia brachiata* and *Pellacalyx yunnanensis* and other species. The peak of branch length distribution of syntenic *R. apiculata* genes is 0.17, yielding estimated WGD time of about 67 Myr ago (Supplementary Fig. 14).

The Ks peaks for *S. alba* and *S. caseolaris* syntenic genes from the *Sonneratia* group is smaller than that for *S. alba* and *E. grandis* orthologs but larger than other Ks pairs, indicating the wholegenome duplication event occurred before the divergence of the common ancestor of *L. speciosa* and *D. grandiflora* and other species. The peaks of syntenic gene branch length distributions for *S. alba* and *S. caseolaris* are all 0.21. Hence, we calculated the age of WGD event occurred approximately 68 Myr ago (Supplementary Fig. 15).

There are reasons to believe that our methods and results are reliable. First, we estimated the time of a relatively recent WGD in *Sesamum indicum* using the same methods as in our study. As a result, this WGD was dated to about 69 Myr ago, corresponded almost exactly with the previous research, which dated the WGD to around 71 Myr [27]. Moreover, our dating of the WGDs in three lineages placed these events at 67-69 Myr ago, coinciding with the Cretaceous-Tertiary boundary and similar to that observed in many other angiosperms [117].

3. Gene family analyses

Orthologous and paralogous groups were inferred using *OrthoMCL* [83]. In addition to the three mangrove species sequenced in this study (AM, RA, and SA), protein-coding genes from four land species: *O. sativa*, *E. grandis*, *P. trichocarpa* (http://www.phytozome.net), and *S. indicum* (http://ocrigenomics.org/Sinbase) were used for clustering. For genes with alternative splicing, the longest transcripts were selected. The proteins from these seven species were combined to perform an all-vs. all comparison using *BLASTp* with an e-value cutoff of 1×10^{-10} . The results were fed into a standalone *OrthoMCL* program with the default MCL inflation parameter set to 2.0.

35,168 protein-coding *A. marina* genes were classified into 13,850 families, with 544 clusters comprising 1,710 genes specific to that species. 26,640 protein-coding *R. apiculata* genes were classified into 13,151 families, with 469 clusters comprising 1,360 species-specific genes. 31,886 *S. alba* genes were classified into 13,064 families, with 782 clusters comprising 2,045 species-specific genes (Supplementary Table 13 and Supplementary Fig. 12). 6,904 families are shared by all seven species and 9,507 families are shared by AM, RA, and SA.

After gene family clustering, CAFE [87] was used to analyze gene family expansion and contraction in the context of the phylogeny of the seven species. The phylogenetic tree topology and branch lengths were considered to infer the significance of change in gene family size for each branch. The patterns in the three mangrove species were compared to other genomes. In mangroves, 95/192, 23/303 and 29/288 gene families have expanded/contracted while the trend is reversed in the nonmangrove relatives (165/135, 266/40 and 284/36). The differences are highly significant by the G-test and, by a stringent likelihood model implemented in CAFE ($P < 0.05$).

In total, 58 gene families have contracted in all three lineages - AM, RA and SA (Supplementary Table 26). Gene families pertaining to disease resistance represent the most conspicuous contractions (9 out of 58) including the putative receptor serine/threonine kinase genes (PR5K). In addition, 51 disease-related gene families have contracted in at least one of the mangrove genera. They include the TIR-NBS-LRR class and the NB-ARC domain-containing proteins, both of which belong in the largest class of plant disease resistance genes (Supplementary Table 27).

The diversity of pathogens in the intertidal habitats has been reported to be low in some taxa (e.g., fungi) [118] but high in others [119]. The shedding of disease resistance genes could be due to the diminished needs to defend against certain pathogens and/or the increasing demands to cope with other aspects of a novel physical environment. For pathogen resistance, mangroves appear to rely on secondary compounds [120], among which tannins are particularly common in the three genera [121]. The high content of tannins has earned mangroves the nickname of "red trees".

4. Amino acid composition analyses

We first compared amino acid (AA) compositions of three mangroves with 54 inland dicotyledon plants (Fig. 3a). We then focused on the comparison of AA usage of AM, RA, and SA with their inland relatives (*S. indicum*, *P. trichocarpa*, and *E. grandis*, respectively). We found that 13 of 20 AAs' frequencies increased or decreased in the same way in all three mangrove genomes, and 11 of which changed significantly (P value < 0.01 , chi-square test). Other mangroves in the three genera show a similar pattern (Supplementary Fig. 18).

Amino acid composition is also influenced by genomic GC content as presented in the main text and tabulated in Supplementary Table 24. To conform that the high GC content of coding regions is indeed correlated with amino acid usage rather than codon usage bias, we removed four-fold degenerate sites and calculated the "adjusted" GC content presented in Supplementary Table 25. The adjusted GC content of mangrove species is still higher than in their inland relatives. We also compared the GC content between mangroves and their inland relatives at intron regions. And we found the intron regions of mangroves didn't have the same trends of GC content increase (Supplementary Table 24). These results indicate that the increased GC content observed in mangrove species is attributable to skewed amino acid usage rather than codon usage bias.

In the main text, we suggest that physiological conditions in mangrove cytosol likely differ from terrestrial plants at least in some tissues especially in the period after salt concentration changes. Below is additional information from the literature on this issue. While some (but not all) studies have reported that mangroves can keep the cytosol salt concentration at a low level when the concentration reaches an equilibrium, the issue is how fast this equilibrium is approached. It is known that mangroves and other halophytes compartment salt into the vacuole to avoid osmotic imbalance and Na⁺ toxicity to the cell. Tonoplast-located ion exchangers transfer Na⁺ and Cl⁻ from cytosol to the vacuole and the salt concentration in this organelle is much higher than that in cytosol.

Previous studies have found that, under salt treatment, the concentration of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ in both the vacuole and the cytosol increases. Li et al. $[44]$ found the Na⁺ and Cl⁻ concentration in the cytoplasm increased after salt treatment in two mangrove species, *K. candel* and *B. gymnorhiza*. Kura-Hotta et al. [43] found an increase of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ in both the cytoplasm and vacuole of *B. gymnorhiza* after 150 mM NaCl treatment. Although the concentration of $Na⁺$ and Cl⁻ returned to a low level after a rapid increase, this took time. The Na⁺ levels need about two weeks to recover, and Cl⁻ takes even longer. In the natural environment, most salt is stored in the vacuole but the salt concentration in the cytosol of mangroves would still fluctuate much more than in glycophyte. The high concentration of salt in the cytosol is harmful to the cell, especially to protein activities. Hence, amino acid composition may change as a response to this selection pressure.

Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Figure 1. Workflow of genome assembly and annotation.

Supplementary Figure 2. Workflow of PacBio SMRT library preparation.

Supplementary Figure 3. Workflow of Illumina short reads library preparation.

Supplementary Figure 4. Histogram of PacBio SMRT P6-C4 subread lengths from *A. marina***.** Subreads are generated when adapters located within a read are removed. The x-axis is subread length. The green histogram shows the number of reads in bins of length intervals, while the black line shows total number of subreads (Mb) with length larger than x bp.

Supplementary Figure 5. Histogram of PacBio SMRT P6-C4 subread lengths from *S. alba***.** Subreads are generated when adapters located within a read are removed. The x-axis is subread length. The green histogram shows the number of reads in bins of length intervals, while the black line shows total number of subreads (Mb) with length larger than x bp.

Supplementary Figure 6. Sequencing depth distribution of two mangrove genomes. Reads from small-insert-size libraries were mapped to the genomes using *Bowtie2* [122].

A. marina

Supplementary Figure 7. Genome size estimation of mangroves species. Genome sizes were estimated by counting the number of particles in suspension using flow cytometry. Either *Oryza sativa* subsp. *japonica* cv. Nipponbare (1*C* = 442 Mb) or *Lycopersicon esculentum* cv. Stupicke polni (1*C*=958Mb) were used as internal standards. The relative positions of the two bars on the x-axis were used to estimate the genome sizes. See Supplementary Table 4.

Supplementary Figure 8. Comparison of mRNA length, CDS length, exon length, exon number per gene, and intron length of *A. marina* **and** *S. alba***.**

Supplementary Figure 9. GO annotation of AM and SA genes. The number of genes in each category was generated using WEGO (http://wego.genomics.org.cn/cgi-bin/wego/index.pl).

Supplementary Figure 10. GC content distribution in the genomes of AM, SA and their inland relatives. The distribution was estimated using 500 bp non-overlapping sliding windows.

Supplementary Figure 11. AM and SA genomic features. *(a) A. marina*. *(b) S. alba*. The tracks are, from the outer to the inner ring, scaffolds (>5 Mb), percentage of repeats (15-91 % per 200 Kb for AM and 3-99 % per 200 Kb for SA,), gene density (0-36 per 200 Kb for AM and 0-57 per 200 Kb for SA), and GC content (31.05 – 40.11 % per 200 Kb for AM and 36.68 – 54.09 % per 200 Kb for SA).

R. apiculata

P. trichocarpa

Supplementary Figure 12. Unique and shared gene families from three mangroves (*A. marina***,** *R. apiculata***, and** *S. alba***) and their inland relatives.**

Supplementary Figure 13. Divergence time and whole-genome duplication dating of the *Avicennia* **group.** *(a)* Phylogenetic tree of the *Avicennia* group: the numbers above the branches represent nucleotide substitution rates from the HKY85+gamma model and 1000 bootstraps. All nodes are 100% supported. Red branches and names indicate mangrove species. *(b)* Ks distributions in the *Avicennia* group: *Av. marina* paralogs, the Ks distribution of syntenic genes from *Av. marina*; *Av. marina–M. guttatus*, the Ks distribution of orthologs between *Av. marina* and *M. guttatus*; *Av. marina– S. indicum*, the Ks distribution of orthologs between *Av. marina* and *S. indicum*; *Av. marina–Ac. ilicifolius*, the Ks distribution of orthologs between *Av. marina* and *Ac. ilicifolius. (c) Avicennia* group divergence time. Red branches and names represent mangrove species. The blue bars show 95% confidence intervals. The blue star and the number under it mark the whole-genome duplication event. Red rectangle marks the earliest and most confirmed fossil record from the *Avicennia* lineage, which is from Spain and dated to Middle Bartonia (38-41.3Myr ago) [34]. *(d)* The branch length (nucleotide substitution) distribution of syntenic gene pairs from *Av. marina* and *S. indicum*. The peaks are at 0.29 and 0.25, respectively.

Supplementary Figure 14. Divergence time and whole-genome duplication dating of the Rhizophoreae group. *(a)* Phylogenetic tree of the Rhizophoreae group: the numbers above each branch represent the nucleotide substitution rate from the HKY85+gamma model and 1000 bootstraps. All nodes are 100% supported. Red branches and names indicate mangrove species. *(b)* Ks distribution of the Rhizophoreae *g*roup: *R. apiculata* paralogs*,* the Ks distribution of syntenic *R. apiculata* genes; *R. apiculata–P. trichocarpa,* the Ks distribution of orthologs between *R. apiculata* and *P. trichocarpa*; *R. apiculata–C. brachiata,* the Ks distribution of orthologs between *R. apiculata* and *C. brachiata*; *R. apiculata–P. yunnanensis,* the Ks distribution of orthologs between *R. apiculata* and *P. yunnanensis*; and *R. apiculata–B. gymnorhiza,* the Ks distribution of orthologs between *R. apiculata* and *B. gymnorhiza*. *(c)* The Rhizophoreae group divergence time. The blue bars show 95% confidence intervals. Red branches and names represent mangrove species. The blue star and the number under it mark the whole-genome duplication event. Red rectangles with numbers represent the earliest fossil records of mangrove lineages: 1) Hypocotyls resembling *Bruguiera* are known from the London Clay and are identified as *Palaeobruguiera* in early Eocene (47.8-56 Myr ago) [89]; 2) the oldest records of *Rhizophora* were dated to the upper Eocene (33.9-38 Myr ago) [109]. *(d)* The branch length distribution of syntenic gene pairs for *R. apiculata*. The peak is at 0.17.

Supplementary Figure 15. Divergence time and whole-genome duplication dating of the *Sonneratia* **group.** *(a)* Phylogenetic tree of the *Sonneratia* group: the numbers above the branch represent the nucleotide substitution rates from the HKY85+gamma model and 1000 bootstraps. All nodes are 100% supported. Red branches and names indicate mangrove species. Magenta branches and names indicate the freshwater genus *Trapa*. *(b)* Ks distributions of *Sonneratia* group: *S. alba* paralogs, the Ks distribution of syntenic genes from *S. alba*; *S. caseolaris* paralogs, the Ks distribution of syntenic genes from *S. caseolaris*; *S. alba–E. grandis*, the Ks distribution of orthologs between *S. alba* and *E. grandis*; *S. alba–L. speciosa*, the Ks distribution of orthologs between *S. alba* and *L. speciosa*; and *S. alba–T. bispinosa*, the Ks distribution of orthologs between *S. alba* and *T. bispinosa*. *(c)* The *Sonneratia* group divergence time. Red branches and names represent mangrove species. The blue bars show 95% confidence intervals. The blue star and the number under it mark the wholegenome duplication event. Gray, red, magenta and purple rectangles represent fossil records of inland relatives, mangroves, freshwater genus *Trapa*, and uncertain fossils of *Sonneratia*, respectively. The time ranges of fossils are as follows: 1) earliest confirmed fossils of *D. grandiflora* were wood fossils found in India and Myanmar dating to the middle Miocene [90]; 2) unquestioned modern *Trapa* fruit forms also began in the middle Miocene in Europe, Russia, and Japan [90]; 3) earliest pollen directly related to living species was *S. caseolaris* (*F. levipoli*) from the base of the early Miocene in Borneo (ca. 19 Myr ago) [90,123,124], followed by *S. alba* pollen (*F. meridionalis*) from the middle Miocene in Borneo; 4) wood of *Sonneratioxylon* was from the middle Eocene of Libya (40.4-48.6 Myr ago) [90]; 5) *Sonneratia*-like pollen of *Florshuetzia* sp. was from the late Paleocene of France (Thanetian, 55.8-58.7 Myr ago) [90]; 6) wood of *Sonneratioxylon* was from the early Paleocene of India (Danian, 63.8-67.3 Myr ago) [90]. *(d)* The branch length distribution of syntenic gene pairs from *S. alba* and *S. caseolaris*. The peaks are all at 0.21.

Supplementary Figure 16. The phylogenetic trees of three species groups. *(a) Avicennia* group. *(b)* Rhizophoreae group. *(c) Sonneratia* group. The numbers of each node were used in the Supplementary Tables 15-20.

Supplementary Figure 17. Intra-species syntenic blocks in AM and SA. *(a)* Syntenic relationship among the 18 scaffolds containing largest syntenic blocks in *A. marina*. *(b)* Syntenic relationship among the 20 scaffolds containing largest syntenic blocks in *S. alba*. Each line represents a pair of genes in a pair of syntenic blocks.

Supplementary Figure 18. **Changes in amino acid frequencies of six mangroves compared to their inland relatives.** Red and blue colors indicate over- and under-representation in the mangrove species.

Supplementary Figure 19. Frequency of amino acids with large hydrophobic residues. The frequency of amino acids with large hydrophobic residues (phenylalanine, leucine, isoleucine, and methionine) significantly decreased in *A. marina*, *R. apiculata*, and *S. alba* genomes (P value < 1×10- ⁸⁶, chi-square test).

Supplementary Figure 20. Amino acid HEB score. a, Average HEB score of six under-represented AAs and five over-represented AAs. **b**, Average HEB score of three mangroves and their nonmangrove relatives.

Supplementary Figure 21. Gene family contraction in mangroves. **a**, Gene family expansion and contraction in mangroves (red) and their inland relatives (black). The expanded or contracted gene families was detected by a stochastic birth and death process of software CAFE [87] with p-values < 0.05. The computed numbers for the expanded and contracted gene families are shown above each branch, with rice as the out-group. The split between expansion/contraction along each branch is shown in the pie chart to the right. **b**, Numbers of contracted gene families, shared and unshared, among AM, RA and SA.

Supplementary Figure 22. Volcano plots of gene expression level changes from 0 to 250 mM NaCl in two mangrove species. Red dots show genes with significant differential expression (q-vaule < 0.05 with fold change greater than 2. Expression pattern in leaves and roots are shown on separate plots.

Supplementary Figure 23. Volcano plot of gene expression level changes from 250 to 500 mM NaCl in two mangrove species. Red dots show genes with significant differential expression (q-vaule < 0.05 with fold change greater than 2. Expression pattern in leaves and roots are shown on separate plots.

Supplementary Figure 24. Flowchart of CCS+ model in detection of genomic convergence.

Supplementary Tables

Supplementary Table 1. Summary of SMRT sequencing data for *A. marina* **and** *S. alba***.**
Libraries	Insert size	Library	Read length	Total data
(bp)	(bp)	number	(bp)	(Gb)
200	180-220	$\mathbf{1}$	100	8.6
300	280-320	$\mathbf{1}$	100	7.3
400	380-420	1	100	7.3
600	580-620	$\mathbf{1}$	100	6.4
2,000	500-3,000	2	100	20
5,000	2,000-8,000	2	100	20
10,000	8,000-15,000	$\overline{2}$	100	10
Total		10		79.6

Supplementary Table 2. Summary of DNA libraries and sequencing data for *A. marina***.**

Libraries	Insert size	Library	Read length	Total data
(bp)	(bp)	number	(bp)	(Gb)
200	180-220	1	100	8.3
300	280-320	1	100	7.2
400	380-420	1	100	7.4
600	580-620	1	100	9.9
2,000	500-3,000	3	100	21
5,000	2,000-8,000	3	100	33
10,000	5,000-15,000	$\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{L}}$	100	14
Total		12		100.8

Supplementary Table 3. Summary of DNA libraries and sequencing data for *S. alba***.**

Supplementary Table 4. Genome sizes of mangroves estimated by flow cytometry.

Supplementary Table 5. Statistics of the final AM and SA genome assemblies.

Supplementary Table 6. Summary of genome completeness assessment.

Supplementary Table 7. Assembly statistics from published plant genomes.

Supplementary Table 8. Summary of RNA sequencing and assembly.

Supplementary Table 9. Properties of predicted protein-coding genes in AM and SA.

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Supplementary Table 10. Protein-coding gene annotation statistics.

AA, amino acid.

Supplementary Table 11. Transcription factors in AM and SA.

Supplementary Table 12. AM and SA repeat element statistics.

			Species-specific	Genes of species-	Genes per
Species	Total genes	Families	families	specific families	family
A. marina	35,168	13,850	544	1,710	2.54
R. apiculata	26,640	13,151	469	1,360	2.03
S. alba	31,886	13,064	782	2,045	2.44
S. <i>indicum</i>	27,148	13,422	525	3,440	2.02
P. trichocarpa	41,335	14,986	1,170	4,043	2.76
E. grandis	36,374	13,846	916	3,652	2.63
O. sativa	39,046	12,325	2,489	8,312	3.17

Supplementary Table 13. Summary of gene family clustering.

Supplementary Table 14. Datasets used in the divergence time estimation and whole-genome duplication dating.

Node	codon123	codon12	
1	72.6 [70.0,75.0]	72.5 [70.0,75.0]	
2	66.5 [57.8,73.4]	66.3 [55.4,73.4]	
3	53.1 [45.7,60.3]	52.9 [42.8,60.4]	
4	6.7 [4.9,9.1]	7.6 [5.5,10.0]	
5	1.9 [1.3,2.5]	2.1 [1.5,2.9]	
6	16.6 [12.5,21.8]	17.4 [12.5,22.4]	

Supplementary Table 15. Divergence times and confidence intervals of *Avicennia* **group nodes using** *MCMCTREE***.**

Divergence time and 95% confidence interval of each node was shown. Time unit: million years. Nodes were marked in Supplementary Fig. 16.

Codon123, the datasets include all three codon positions. Codon12, the dataset includes the first and second codon positions.

Node	codon123	codon12
1	117.2 [109.1,120.7]	116.0 [106.5,120.5]
2	54.1 [49.1,60.7]	54.5 [48.7,64.5]
3	41.7 [36.4,48.3]	42.5 [36.2,51.3]
4	38.5 [36.0,42.2]	39.4 [36.4,45.9]

Supplementary Table 16. Divergence time and confidence intervals of Rhizophoreae group nodes using *MCMCTREE***.**

Divergence time and 95% confidence interval of each node was shown. Time unit: million years. Nodes were marked in Supplementary Fig. 16.

Codon123, the datasets include all three codon positions. Codon12, the dataset includes the first and second codon positions.

Divergence time and 95% confidence interval of each node was shown. Time unit: million years. Nodes were marked in Supplementary Fig. 16.

Codon123, the datasets include all three codon positions. Codon12, the datasets include the first and second codon positions.

	Results of	$HKY85+G$ in r8s				$GTR+I+G$ in $r8s$		
Node	MCMCTREE	PL	LF	NPRS	PL	LF	NPRS	
1	72.6 [70.0,75.0]	75.00	75.00	75.00	75.00	75.00	75.00	
2	66.5 [57.8,73.4]	46.93	46.99	45.43	47.06	47.09	45.48	
3	53.1 [45.7,60.3]	39.10	39.17	36.38	39.32	39.36	36.53	
$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$	6.7 [4.9,9.1]	5.16	5.17	5.66	5.23	5.23	5.71	
5	1.9 [1.3,2.5]	1.34	1.35	1.53	1.36	1.36	1.55	
6	16.6 [12.5,21.8]	10.86	10.90	8.46	10.99	11.02	8.56	

Supplementary Table 18. Divergence time of *Avicennia* **group nodes using** *r8s***.**

Nodes were marked in Supplementary Fig. 16. Time unit: million years.

PL, LF and NPRS, methods used in *r8s*.

Node	Results of		$HKY85+G$ in r8s			$GTR+I+G$ in r8s		
	MCMCTREE	PL	LF	NPRS	PL	LF	NPRS	
	117.2		120.0	120.0	120.0	120.0	120.0	
1	[109.1, 120.7]	120.00	$\boldsymbol{0}$	θ	θ	$\overline{0}$	$\mathbf{0}$	
$\boldsymbol{2}$	54.1 [49.1,60.7]	45.55	44.47	51.23	45.57	45.50	51.27	
3	41.7 [36.4,48.3]	32.56	32.40	41.48	32.57	32.44	41.53	
4	38.5 [36.0,42.2]	38.00	38.00	38.00	38.00	38.00	38.00	

Supplementary Table 19. Divergence time of Rhizophoreae group nodes using *r8s***.**

Nodes were marked in Supplementary Fig. 16. Time unit: million years.

PL, LF and NPRS, methods used in *r8s*.

	Results of		$HKY85+G$ in r8s			$GTR+I+G$ in r8s		
Node	MCMCTREE	PL	LF	NPRS	PL	LF	NPRS	
	107.0	110.00	110.00	110.00	110.00	110.00	110.00	
$\mathbf{1}$	[100.8, 110.3]							
$\boldsymbol{2}$	57.5	50.87	50.69	53.64	50.86	50.71	53.65	
	[53.1, 64.5]							
$\mathbf{3}$	49.7	47.80	47.80	47.80	47.80	47.80	47.80	
	[47.2, 55.0]							
$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$	42.5	37.37	36.69	43.90	37.32	36.74	43.89	
	[36.4, 49.4]							
5	8.9 [7.0,11.1]	6.09	5.78	13.93	6.06	5.80	13.87	
6	7.2 [5.6,9.2]	4.60	4.35	11.60	4.58	4.37	11.55	
7	5.3 [3.8,7.1]	2.99	2.82	8.31	2.97	2.83	8.27	

Supplementary Table 20. Divergence time of *Sonneratia* **group nodes using** *r8s***.**

Nodes were marked in Supplementary Fig. 16. Time unit: million years.

PL, LF and NPRS, methods used in *r8s*.

Supplementary Table 21. Functional categorization of 73 candidate mangrove-convergent genes.

Supplementary Table 22. KEGG pathway annotation of 73 candidate mangrove-convergent genes.

Supplementary Table 23. Four of the 73 candidate mangrove-convergent genes that were assigned to the "ubiquitin mediated proteolysis" pathway.

Supplementary Table 24. Comparison of GC content of introns and coding regions between mangrove species and their inland relatives.

Mangrove	Adjusted GC	Related non-	Adjusted GC	GC content
species	content of	mangrove	content of	increase in
	CDS(%)		CDS(%)	mangroves $(\%)$
A. marina	47.67	S. <i>indicum</i>	47.02	0.65
R. apiculata	46.80	P. trichocarpa	45.27	1.53
S. alba	50.36	E. grandis	48.45	1.91

Supplementary Table 25. Adjusted CDS GC content in mangroves and related non-mangroves.

Supplementary Table 26. The 58 gene families contracted in the *A. marina***,** *R. apiculata* **and** *S. alba***.**

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Sal, *S. alba*; Egr, *E. grandis*; Rap, *R. apiculata*; Ptr, *P. trichocarpa*; Ama, *A. marina*; Sin, *S. indicum*; Osa, *O. sativa*.

* Gene families pertaining to disease resistance are contracted in *A. marina*, *R. apiculata* and *S. alba*.

Supplementary Table 28. Pathways significantly enriched in genes differentially expressed under salt treatment (DEGs).

S. alba **leaves, from 0 mM to 250 mM**

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