Multi-omics data and analysis reveal the formation of key pathways of

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2 different colors in *Torenia fournieri* flowers Jiaxing Song¹, Haiming Kong¹, Jing Yang¹, Jiaxian Jing¹, Siyu Li¹, Nan Ma¹, Rongchen Yang¹, 3 Yuman Cao¹, Yafang Wang¹, Tianming Hu¹, Peizhi Yang^{1,*} 4 5 ¹ College of Grassland Agriculture, Northwest A&F University, Yangling, Shaanxi, 712100, China 6 * Author for correspondence: yangpeizhi@126.com 7 8 **Email addresses:** 9 sjx2020@ nwafu.edu.cn 10 konghaimingm@163.com yangjingcyxy@163.com 11 12 jxjing@126.com lsyuuuuu@163.com 13 mn1996@nwafu.edu.cn 14 15 yangrongchen@nwafu.edu.cn 16 yumancao@nwafu.edu.cn 17 yafang.wang@nwafu.edu.cn 18 hutianming@126.com 19 yangpeizhi@126.com 20 Highlight 21 22 The genome of Torenia fournieri was reported for the first time, and the formation 23 mechanism of different colors in *Torenia fournieri* flowers was analyzed by genomics, 24 transcriptomics and metabolomics. 25 26 27 28

Abstract: Torenia fournieri Lind. is an ornamental plant, popular for its numerous flowers and variety of colors. However, its genomic evolution, as well as the genetic and metabolic basis of flower color formation, remain poorly understood. Here we report a chromosome-level reference genome of T. fournieri comprising 164.4 Mb. Phylogenetic analysis revealed the phylogenetic placement of the species, and comparative genomics analysis indicated that T. fournieri shared a whole genome duplication (WGD) event with Antirrhinum majus. Through joint transcriptomics and metabolomics analyses, we characterized the differential genes and metabolites in the anthocyanin synthesis pathway in five T. fournieri varieties. We identified many metabolites related to pelargonidin, peonidin, and naringenin in Rose (R) color samples. On the other hand, the blue (B) and blue-violet (D) color samples contained many metabolites related to petunidin, cyanidin, quercetin, and malvidin. The formation of different flower colors in T. fournieri involves multiple genes and metabolites. We analyzed the results and obtained significantly different genes and metabolites related to the biosynthesis of flavonoids and anthocyanins, which are key metabolites in the formation of different flower colors. Our T. fournieri genome data provide a basis for studying the differentiation of this species and provide a valuable model genome enabling genetic studies and genomics-assisted breeding of *T. fournieri*. **Keywords:** Torenia fournieri; Genome; RNA-seq; Flavonoids; Anthocyanins; Flower color

Introduction

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Torenia fournieri Linden. ex Fourn. (also known as Wishbone flower) is an annual herb of the family Linderniaceae, suitable for warm and humid climates, grown mainly in tropical and subtropical regions (Chen et al., 2021; Nishihara et al., 2013). T. fournieri is a popular ornamental plant that comes in a wide variety of colors, from white and yellow to blue, violet, and lavender(Guan et al., 2021)3]. T. fournieri is also an experimental model plant(Aida, 2008). The semi-naked embryo sac structure of T. fournieri is conducive to the separation of egg cells and reduces the technical barriers in vitro fertilization operations, serving as a model plant in angiosperm flower organ development and fertilization biology research(Aida, 2008; Higashiyama et al., 2006; Higashiyama et al., 1998). In horticultural plants, flower traits, such as petal color and shape, are considered to be very important for their commercial value(Nishihara et al., 2013). Flower color is one of the key traits for T. fournieri genetic improvement to further increase the commercialization of its cultivars. Currently, no T. fournieri reference genome sequence T. fournieri has been published, which hinders its molecular design breeding. In recent years, much effort has been placed into understanding the molecular and biochemical mechanisms of pigment formation in T. fournieri flowers. Flavonoids are the main compounds responsible for the color of most plants. The genes involved in the flavonoid biosynthesis pathway play a crucial role in regulating plant color(Iwashina, 2015). The dihydroflavonol-4-reductase (DFR) is an enzyme in the flavonoid biosynthesis pathway with key roles in regulating flower color(Tian et al., 2017). It was reported that DFR gene inactivation T. fournieri resulted in flavonoid accumulation, resulting in a deeper blue flower color (Aida et al., 2000b). Chalcone synthase (CHS) is the first enzyme to act on the flavonoid pathway and is key for the biosynthesis of precursors to other flavonoids (Liu et al., 2021). TfCHS gene was overexpressed in T. fournieri by transgenic technology to alter the changes in its flower color, and obtained with new characters in flower color(Aida et al., 2000a; Suzuki et al., 2000). Flavonoid 3-hydroxylase (F3H) is a key enzyme for anthocyanin synthesis in T. fournieri flowers(Nishihara et al., 2014). The absence of TfF3H led to

87 reduced petal anthocyanin levels and resulted in a white petal color. Overexpression of the 88 F3H gene in Crown White (CrW, white-flowered cultivar of T. fournieri) resulted in pink 89 petals, a color arising from pelargonidin derivatives that lack B-ring hydroxylation(Nishihara 90 et al., 2014). In the entire anthocyanin biosynthesis pathway, anthocyanin synthase (ANS) 91 catalyzes the final step of color formation, involving the conversion of colorless 92 anthocyanins into colored anthocyanins(Shi et al., 2015). The ANS gene expression was 93 reduced by RNAi technology in summer T. fournieri, resulting in a white flower 94 color(Nakamura et al., 2006). These transgenic functional studies have contributed to our 95 understanding of the gene functions involved in T. fournieri flower color formation. 96 However, as the complete reference genome of T. fournieri has not yet been published, it 97 hinders the further study of the gene regulatory mechanism controlling flower color in T. fournieri. Therefore, assembling the reference genome of T. fournieri could provide the basis 98 99 for the establishment of genetic engineering and genomics-assisted breeding and improve 100 genotype to phenotype association studies. 101 Here, we obtained a chromosome-level assembly of the *T. fournieri* genome by combining 102 Illumina, PacBio, and Hi-C sequencing assembly. In addition, we performed a relatively 103 complete annotation using the assembled genome, constructed a phylogenetic tree including 104 the main species of Plantaginaceae, Linderniaceae, and Labiatae, and assessed the 105 evolutionary relationship between T. fournieri and whole-genome duplication (WGD) events. 106 We used comparative genomics to determine the phylogenetic position of *T. fournieri*, which 107 shared WGDs with A. majus. Through a multi-omics analysis combining genomics, 108 transcriptomics, and metabolomics, we analyzed the differences in the flavonoid and 109 anthocyanin metabolic pathways in different flower-colored genotypes. We obtained 110 differential genes and metabolites related to the color formation of *T. fournieri*. The results of 111 this study provide a valuable genomic basis for molecular genetic studies and the breeding of 112 T. fournieri.

Materials and methods

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Plant materials and genomic sequencing

The plant materials used in this study were grown in the greenhouse of the college of

116 Grassland Agriculture, Northwest A&F University. The DNAsecure Plant Kit (TIANGEN) 117 was used to extract DNA from 7-week-old T. fournieri fresh leaves. DNA samples of 118 sufficient quality were prepared by a Covaris sonicator to complete the library preparation. 119 Next-generation sequencing (NGS) was performed using the Illumina NovaSeq 6000 120 platform. Furthermore, we obtained high-quality single molecular sequencing reads through 121 the PacBio Sequel platform. After the Hi-C library was constructed according to standard 122 procedures, it was sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 sequencer. We used Jellyfish 123 (2.1.4) to generate the 21-mer count distribution of NGS reads(Marçais and Kingsford, 2011) 124 and then estimated the genome size, heterozygosity, and repeat content according to the 125 analysis model provided by GenomeScope(Ranallo-Benavidez et al., 2020). The PacBio 126 reads were corrected using the falcon software (Chin et al., 2016), and were then assembled 127 to obtain the genome sequence. This sequence was then used for a second round of error 128 corrections using Pilon(Walker et al., 2014). We used BWA (0.7.10-r789) to align the Hi-C 129 sequencing paired-end reads with the contigs of the assembled genome(Li and Durbin, 2010). 130 We used the LACHESIS software to group, rank, and orient the genomic contigs 131 sequences(Burton et al., 2013). To evaluate the accuracy, continuity, connectivity, and 132 completeness of the T. fournieri genome assembly results, we used BUSCO software (Simão 133 et al., 2015). 134 Gene prediction and function annotation 135 The Maker software(Cantarel et al., 2008) was used to annotate the T. fournieri genome⁷, 136

The Maker software (Cantarel et al., 2008) was used to annotate the *T. fournieri* genome, and AUGUSTUS 3.3 was used for de novo gene prediction, and the complete annotation information was obtained (Stanke et al., 2006). To identify transposable elements, we used the RepeatMasker (Tarailo-Graovac and Chen, 2009) and RepeatModeler (Flynn et al., 2020) for the identification and classification of transposable elements (TEs) sequences in the *T. fournieri* genome. The BLASTN was used to map the *A. thaliana* protein sequences into the *T. fournieri* genome and then used GENEWISE 2.4.1 to predict accurate gene models (Li et al., 2015). Gene function annotation mainly included two steps: sequence similarity-based functional annotation information and HMM model-based protein domain annotation information. The diamond software (Buchfink et al., 2015) was used to compare the genes

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145 and proteins in the T. fournieri genome against databases such as the NCBI non-redundant 146 protein sequence (Nr), SwissProt(Bairoch and Apweiler, 2000), Gene Ontology 147 (GO)(Ashburner et al., 2000), Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG)(Qiu, 148 2013), KOG and Pfam(Nawrocki et al., 2014). 149 Comparative genome analysis between species and WGD analysis 150 We downloaded the genome data of 11 species from Phytozome 151 (https://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov/pz/portal. html) and selected Amborella trichopoda and Vitis 152 vinifera as the outgroups of T. fournieri for comparative genome analyses. Orthofinder was 153 run with default settings to identify homologous genes among the 12 species(Emms and 154 Kelly, 2019). According to the Orthofinder analysis results, the jvenn software was used to 155 map the homologous genes in S. bowleyana, S. cusia, O. majorana, L. philippensis, S. 156 baicalensis and T. fournieri(Bardou et al., 2014). We used the mcmctree tool in the PAML 157 software package to construct the 12-species phylogenetic tree together with fossil 158 time-calibrated phylogenetic trees, calibrated with the angiosperm A. trichopoda (~179.0 -159 199.1 MYA) and the labiata S. baicalensis-O. basilicum(~31.6 - 73.1 MYA)(Yang, 2007). 160 The assessment of gene family expansion and contraction was performed using CAFE v5 161 (default settings)(Mendes et al., 2020), and was based on gene family clustering statistics 162 and species phylogenetic trees at divergence time. Finally, an evolutionary tree was 163 constructed using the online iTOL software (Interactive Tree Of Life)(Letunic and Bork, 164 2016). 165 To obtained orthologous gene pairs using the WGDI software(Sun et al., 2022) and 166 calculated the synonymous substitution rate (Ks) for each synonymous gene pair, according 167 to the gene family phylogeny using the KaKs Calculator software(Wang et al., 2010). 168 Density maps of the Ks values distribution across species were plotted using the ggplot2 169 package for R to identify whole-genome duplication events (WGDs). Genome-wide blocks 170 of collinearity within T. fournieri were identified using MCScan(Wang et al., 2012). Genome 171 collinearity was finally visualized by the Python version of MCScan (Python version). To

Jiang, 2017) and the LTRharvest software (Ellinghaus et al., 2008).

analyze retrotransposons with long terminal repeats (LTR), we used LTR_finder(Ou and

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Transcription analysis

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We collected T. fournieri flowers of five varietal colors and performed transcriptome sequencing analysis. The five more common colors of the T. fournieri flowers are white (marked as W, the same below), Rose (R), lemon drop (Y), blue and white (B), and deep blue (D). Total RNA was extracted from corollas of the different flowers by the Trizol method(Rio et al., 2010), and the library was constructed and sequenced using the Illumina platform. The fastp software was uesd to perform quality control on raw reads to obtain Clean Reads(Chen et al., 2018), and used HISAT to align the Clean Reads with the T. fournieri genome to obtain position information on the reference genome or gene(Kim et al., 2015). StringTie(Shumate et al., 2022) was used to assemble reads into transcripts, GffCompare(Pertea and Pertea, 2020) was used to compare with the genome annotation information, and finally, new transcripts or new genes were obtained. The diamond(Buchfink et al., 2021) software was used to align all genes with the KEGG, GO, NR, Swiss-Prot, TrEMBL, and KOG database sequences to obtain annotation results, and the alignment cutoff was an E-value of 1e-5. The featurecounts v1.6.2 was used to calculate gene alignment and FPKM(Liao et al., 2013). Differential expression between the two groups was analyzed using DESeq2(Love et al., 2014), and P-values were corrected using the method of Benjamini & Hochberg(Love et al., 2014). The |log2foldchange| >1 was used as the threshold for the DEGs.

Analysis of the cytochromeP450 and R2R3-MYB gene families

The Hidden Markov Model (HMM) containing the p450 (PF00067) and MYB (PF00249) domains was obtained from the Pfam database. The domains were aligned with the HMMER software(Eddy and Eddy, 2015). We downloaded the sequences of the Arabidopsis P450 and R2R3-MYB proteins from the *A. thaliana* database (https://www.arabidopsis.org/index.jsp) and queried these sequences against the protein sequences of *T. fournieri* using BlastP software(Boratyn *et al.*, 2013) (E-value≤1e-5). The obtained alignment results were combined and deduplicated, and the obtained protein sequences were screened. The results were compared by the Muscle software(Edgar, 2004), and an evolutionary tree was constructed using the MFP mode of the iqtree software (UFBoot is 1000)(Nguyen *et al.*,

203 2014). Based on the taxonomic information of the A. thaliana P450 and R2R3-MYB 204 subfamilies, the taxonomic information of the respective subfamilies in T. fournieri was 205 determined, and they were named according to their cchromosome positions. The tandem 206 repeats of the P450 and R2R3-MYB gene family sequences in T. fournieri and A. thaliana 207 were analyzed using the MCScanX software(Wang et al., 2012). 208 Metabolites analysis 209 We selected T. fournieri flowers of five different colors to be freeze-dried in a vacuum 210 freeze dryer (Scientz-100F). The samples were pulverized with a mixing mill, dissolved in a 211 methanol solution, and centrifuged. The extracted supernatant was filtered (SCAA-104, pore 212 size 0.22 µm) before UPLC-MS/MS analysis. Flavonoid and anthocyanin metabolite 213 contents were detected by MetWare (http://www.metware.cn/) based on the AB Sciex OTRAP 6500 UPLC-MS/MS platform. Mass spectral data were processed using the Analyst 214 215 1.6.3 software. Comparative analysis of the two groups in the VIP (VIP \geq 1) and absolute 216 Log2FC (|Log2FC| ≥ 1.0) to determined differential metabolites. VIP values were extracted 217 from the OPLS-DA result and were generated using the R package MetaboAnalystR(Chong 218 et al., 2019). 219 Transcriptome and metabolome conjoint analysis 220 Combined with the metabolome and transcriptome analysis results, the DEGs and 221 differential metabolites of the same group of samples were co-mapped to the corresponding 222 KEGG pathways. The main pathways mapped to KEGG map were Flavonoid biosynthesis 223 (ko00941), Anthocyanin biosynthesis (ko00942), and Flavone and flavonol biosynthesis 224 (ko00944). To evaluate the differential genes and differential metabolite correlations, we 225 used the cor function in R to calculate the Pearson correlation coefficients of genes and 226 metabolites. The criterion of the results was correlation coefficients > 0.80 and a p-value < 227 0.05. 228 **RT-qPCR** Analysis 229 First-strand cDNA synthesis was performed with the FastPure Plant Total RNA Isolation 230 Kit (suitable for polysaccharide & polyphenolic rich tissues). The total RNA extracted was 231 also used for RNA-seq library construction. Gene-specific primers were designed using

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Primer Premier 5.0 (Table S23). Real-time qPCR was performed using the Roche LightCycler 480II Real-Time PCR System (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) with the SYBR Green PCR Master Mix. Relative transcript levels were calculated according to the 2^{-ΔΔCt} method(Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). **Results** Genome sequencing and assembly We generated 7.2 Gb Illumina 150 bp pairedend reads data(Table S1). The genome size was estimated to be approximately 187.0 Mb, using the software GenomeScope based on the kmer method (k = 21), with a heterozygosity rate of 0.81% (Fig. S2). Moreover, a total of 2.2 million reads larger than 500 bp were obtained by PacBio Sequel sequencing, with a coverage depth of approximately 79 X (Fig. S3). 149,029 reads (about 52% of the total) were larger than 5 kb in length, of which 81.57% had an average base length of 10 kb (Fig. S3). The Falcon software was used to assemble the PacBio sequencing reads, and the Pilon software was used for further genome polishing using the Illumina reads data. Finally, we obtained a genome size of 164.4Mb with a Contig N50 of 918.3kb (Table S2). The Hic data were aligned with the assembled genome sequence using BWA (Tables S3), and divided into 9 chromosomes using LACHESIS software (Fig. S4). After Hi-C linkage data analysis, a total of 158.29 Mb sequence length was assigned to chromosomes, accounting for 96.32% of the total sequence length (Table S4). The longest chromosome was 22.1Mb, and the shortest was 13.9Mb (Fig. 1; Table S4). To evaluate the assembled genome quality, 91.64% of the sequences obtained by the BUSCO software were fully present in the T. fournieri genome (total number of orthologous genes in the GenBank 1614), while 5.08% and 3.28% of the BUSCO genes were partially present or absent, respectively (Fig. S5; Table S5). The above results strongly support the reliability and integrity of the T. fournieri genome assembly.

The combination of homology and *ab initio* gene prediction was used to label protein-coding genes in the *T. fournieri* genome, and 33532 genes were obtained (Table S6). The protein sequences produced by the predicted genes had an average length of 290 bp and an average of 6.48 exons per gene (Table S6). Using the Repeatmasker software, retroelements (10.9 Mb) accounted for 7.21% of the total sequence length (Table S7). In this study, we characterized the distribution of TEs and SSRs on the chromosomes of the *T. fournieri* genome. The results are presented in Fig. 1. To obtain the functional annotation information on the *T. fournieri* genome, we annotated all genes through the KEGG, NR, Swissprot, Tremble, KOG, GO, and Pfam databases (Table S8). 28812 genes were annotated through the Nr database (86.54%), 25095 genes through the GO database (75.37%), and 20162 genes through the KEGG database (60.56%) (Table S8), indicating a high degree of confidence in gene annotation.

Comparative genomics analysis and evaluation

In order to study the genome evolution of the Linderniaceae family, where T. fournieri belongs, we studied and analyzed by comparative genomics four species of the Lamiaceae (Salvia bowleyana, Origanum majorana, Scutellaria baicalensis and Ocimum basilicum), two species of the Plantaginaceae (Antirrhinum majus, Antirrhinum hispanicum), one species of the Acanthaceae (Strobilanthes cusia), one species of the Phrymaceae (Mimulus guttatus), one species of the Amborellaceae (Amborella trichopoda), one species of the Vitaceae (Vitis vinifera), and two species of the Scrophulariaceae (Lindenbergia philippehsis) family, respectively, to a total of 12 species (Fig. 2A). The OrthoFinder software was used to obtain 34,150 homologous groups (Table S9), covering 424,454 genes (Table S10 and S11). Through the species evolutionary tree, T. fournieri was separated before the Plantaginaceae, Lamiaceae, Acanthaceae, and Scrophulariaceae during the Cretaceous period (103.38 Mya ago) (Fig. 2A). According to the gene family evolution calculations and analysis, 2423 gene families were expanded, and 3120 gene families were contracted (Fig. 2A, Table S12). Through Pfam annotation analysis on these expanded and contracted gene families, mainly gene families such as Hormone responsive protein, Ninja-family protein, Skp1 family, PA domain, LysM domain, C1 domain, and Transferase family were identified (Fig. S6). To

estimate the polyploidy history of *T. fournieri*, we performed a curve-fitting analysis using the Ks distributions of the paralogs and orthologs identifed from *A. majus*, *S. baicalensis*, and *V. vinifera* (Fig. 2B). We observe that the Ks distribution of *T. fournieri* and *A. majus* has a main peak near 0.74, which was younger than the two peaks identified in the paralog analysis of *S. baicalensis* (0.93) and *V. vinifera* (1.32). In Fig. 2C and Fig. S7, there were a small number of collineated fragments in the dot plots of homologous genes of *T. fournieri*, *A. majus* and *V. vinifera*, and we speculate that a shared WGD event occurred in the common ancestor of *A. majus*, *V. vinifera* and *T. fournieri*.

Transcription and metabolism in *T. fournieri* flowers of different colors

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The *T. fournieri* flowers are mainly composed of symmetrical petal lobes, a conical tube, and a flower neck. The flowers of different colors have in common that the flower neck is connected to the conical tube by the constriction area, both are yellow (Fig. S1), and all the mandibular petals have a macular patch (Fig. 3A). We sequenced the transcriptomes of these five differently colored *T. fournieri* flowers. The cleaned bases generated from each sample were about 6.5 G (15 samples sequenced in total), and the GC content was about 45% (Table S14). Through the Hisat software, the RNA-Seq data of the 15 samples were compared to the genome. The comparison efficiency was approximately 80%, indicating that the genome data and transcriptome data met the analysis requirements. 7308 Differently Expressed Genes (DEGs) were obtained using the DESeq2 software. By comparing White (W) with Deep blue (D), 2720 DEGs were obtained, among which 1136 DEGs were down-regulated, and 1584 DEGs were up-regulated (Fig. 3B). By comparing the White(W) with the Rose colored flowers, 1976 DEGs were obtained, among which 832 DEGs were down-regulated, and 1144 DEGs were up-regulated. By comparing White (W) with Blue and white (B), 1118 DEGs were obtained, with 510 DEGs down-regulated and 608 DEGs up-regulated. Comparing White(W) and Lemon drop(Y), 2431 DEGs were obtained, with 1149 DEGs down-regulated and 1282 DEGs up-regulated (Fig. 3B). Comparing W vs. Y, R, B, and D revealed a total of 155 DEGs, while 1177 specific DEGs were obtained when comparing W vs. Y (Fig. 3C). There were 1124 DEGs unique to the comparison of W vs. D. These DEGs were enriched in plant hormone signal transduction, anthocyanin biosynthesis, flavonoid biosynthesis,

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phenylalanine metabolism, and other metabolic pathways (Fig. S8A). There were 1177 DEGs unique to the W vs. Y comparison (Fig. 3C). These DEGs were mainly enriched in the MAPK signaling pathway, plant hormone signal transduction, flavonoid biosynthesis, phenylpropanoid biosynthesis, and other metabolic pathways (Fig. S8B). 199 DEGs were obtained by comparing the W vs. B flowers (Fig. 3C), enriched in metabolic pathways such as plant hormone signal transduction, flavonoid biosynthesis, and phenylpropanoid biosynthesis (Fig. S8C). 776 DEGs were obtained by comparing the W vs. R flowers (Fig. 3C) and were enriched in metabolic pathways such as plant hormone signal transduction, phenylpropanoid biosynthesis, and anthocyanin biosynthesis (Fig. S8D). These DEGs has affected a series of molecular response pathways in the plant, leading to different colors and morphological changes in the corolla of *T. fournieri*. We detected 375 flavonoid-related metabolites in the corolla of the five differentially colored T. fournieri flowers using UPLC-MS/MS (Table S15). By performing principal component analysis on the samples (including quality control samples), the results showed that the samples were almost clustered together. Indicating that the overall metabolite differences between the groups and the variability within the groups were small (Fig. S9A). By comparing Y with W, 82 significantly different metabolites were obtained, 44 were decreased, and 38 were increased in concentration. By comparing D with W, 214 significantly different metabolites were obtained, among which 52 decreased and 162 increased in concentration. By comparing R with W, 146 significantly different metabolites were obtained, of which 25 were decreased and 121 increased in concentration. By comparing B with W, 235 significantly different metabolites were obtained, among which 62 were decreased and 173 increased (Table S16). Finally, the comparison of Y, B, D, and R with W, revealed 12, 43, 12, and 25 unique metabolites with significant differences and 16 shared metabolites with significant differences (Fig. 3D, Table S16). Significantly different metabolites between the groups were obtained by orthogonal partial least squares discriminant analysis (OPLS-DA). Through the dynamic distribution diagram of the metabolite content differences between the W and D flower colors, we found that Quercetin-3-O-(2"-O-malonyl)-sophoroside-7-O-arabinoside, Pelargonidin-3-O-rutinoside,

348 and Cyanidin-3, 5-O-diglucoside (VIP>1) were significantly increased (Fig. 3E, Fig. S9B). 349 When comparing R with W. Pelargonidin-3-O-rutinoside (VIP>1)and Luteolin-7-O-(6"-malonyl)-glucoside-5-O-rhamnoside were significantly increased in 350 351 concentration (Fig. 3F, Fig. S9E). Comparing W with Y, Pelargonidin-3-O-rutinoside 352 Quercetin-3-O-(2"-O-malonyl)-sophoroside-7-O-arabinoside (VIP>1),and 353 Quercetin-3-O-apiosyl (1 \rightarrow 2)-galactoside was signific-antly accumulated in W (Fig. 3G, 354 Fig. S9C). Similarly, when B was compared with W. we 355 Isorhamnetin-3-O-rutinoside-7-O-(2"-O-glucosyl)-glucuronate, Pelargonidin-3-O-rutinoside, 356 Cyanidin-3,5-O-diglucoside, Malvidin -3,5-di-O-glucoside and Peonidin-3,5-O-diglucoside 357 were significantly increased in concentration (Fig. 3H, Fig. S9D). 358 We detected a total of 108 anthocyanin-related metabolites in the five differently colored 359 T. fournieri corollas by using UPLC-MS/MS, of which 58 anthocyanins were detected (Table 360 S17). We performed UV (unit variance scaling) processing on those 58 metabolites and drew 361 a cluster heat map. Two additional Pelargonidin metabolites were identified in sample W, while sample R contained multiple Pelargonidin and Peonidin related metabolites, and 362 363 samples B and D mainly contained Malvidin, Cyanidin, and Peonidin related metabolites 364 (Fig. 4A). Through a metabolite content histogram, we found that sample B contained a high 365 concentration of Cyanidin-3-O-(6-O-p-coumaroyl)-glucoside (Fig. S11), and sample D 366 contained a high concentration of Cyanidin-3-O-(6 -O-malonyl-beta-D-glucoside), 367 Cyanidin-3-O-glucoside and Cyanidin-3,5-O-diglucoside (Fig. 4A, Fig. S11). However, 368 R. Β, samples and D contained high concentration of Delphinidin-3,-O-(6-O-p-coumaroyl)-glucoside and Delphinidin-3,5-O-diglucoside relative 369 370 to W, Y (Fig. 4A, Fig. S12). In terms of peonidin metabolites, we found that samples B and 371 D contained a high concentration of Peonidin-3-O-(6-O-p-coumaroyl)-glucoside, 372 Peonidin-3,5-O-diglucoside and Peonidin-3-O-glucoside (Fig. 4A, Fig. S13). Similarly, 373 samples B and D also contained small amounts of petunidin-related metabolites, such as 374 Petunidin-3-O-glucoside, Petunidin-3-O-galactoside, Petunidin-3-O-sambubioside-5-O-glucoside, 375 and Petunidin -3-O-(6-O-malonyl-beta-D-glucoside) (Fig. 4A, Fig. S14). In the rose-colored R sample, a 376

377 large number of pelargonidin metabolites were identified. such as 378 Pelargonidin-3-O-rutinoside, Pelargonidin-3-O-glucoside, Pelargonidin-3,5-O-diglucoside, 379 Pelargonidin-3-O-galactoside, Pelargonidin -3-O-sambubioside, 380 Pelargonidin-3-O-(6-O-malonyl-beta-D-glucoside) and Pelargonidin-3-O-sophoroside (Fig. 381 4A, Fig. S15). There were numerous mallow pigment-related metabolites in the blue-colored 382 В and D samples, such as Malvidin-3-O-sambubioside-5-O-glucoside, 383 Malvidin-3,5-O-diglucoside, Malvidin-3-O-(6-O-p-coumaroyl) -glucoside and 384 Malvidin-3,5-O-diglucoside (Fig. 4A, Fig. S16). In terms of flavonoid metabolites in 385 different samples, sample B contained a high concentration of Rutin (Fig. 4A, Fig. S17) and 386 Kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside (Fig. 3G, Fig. S19 C). Sample R contained a high concentration 387 of Dihydrokaempferol (Fig. 3G, Fig. 19B), Naringenin (Fig. 3G, Fig. S19D), and 388 Naringenin-7-O-glucoside (Fig. 3G, Fig. S19E). The above results indicated that different 389 concentrations of anthocyanin glycosides were the main contributors to the different 390 coloration of *T. fournieri* flowers.

Phylogenetic analysis of gene families

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The plant cytochrome (CYP) P450 gene family plays important regulatory and catalytic roles in plant growth, development, and secondary metabolite biosynthesis(Hansen *et al.*, 2021). In this study, we downloaded the protein sequences from all the members of the *A. thaliana* cytochrome P450 gene family and used blastp to make a global alignment with the corresponding *T. fournieri* protein sequences. Through sequence alignment analysis, we initially obtained 216 cytochrome P450 protein sequences, and a total of 193 P450 protein sequences were obtained based on the annotation information and the removal of redundant sequences. According to the classification based on the *A. thaliana* subfamily information, the P450 gene family can be divided into 39 subfamilies (Table S18). The developmental tree of the P450 gene family was constructed using the iQtree software. The CYP71 subfamily had the largest subfamily branch, containing 23 genes (Fig. 4B). According to the gene FPKM values from the transcriptome of the differently colored flowers, we obtained the expression information of all P450 gene families in *T. fournieri* (Fig. S18). By using the llog2Fold Changel >= 1 cutoff, we screened genes with significant expression differences,

which have been marked with different colors in Fig. 4B. Similarly, the multimember Myb gene family plays important roles in regulating plant growth, development, and anthocyanin biosynthesis(Yang *et al.*, 2022). In this study, we downloaded the *A. thaliana* R2R3-Myb gene family information and obtained 62 *T. fournieri* R2R3-Myb genes through sequence alignment (Table S19). Using the *A. thaliana* and *T. fournieri* Myb protein sequences, the Myb transcription factor family phylogenetic tree was constructed (Fig. S19). The S32 branch was the largest subfamily branch with 16 genes. Genes in different subfamilies were expressed differently in the flowers with different colors, and they might play an important role in regulating anthocyanin biosynthesis, which is responsible for the formation of different flower colors.

Biosynthetic pathways of flavonoids and anthocyanins in T. fournieri

Flavonoids and anthocyanins play key roles in plant growth, development, and organ coloration(Zhao *et al.*, 2022). In this study, we identified all the key genes involved in the flavonoid synthesis pathway to reveal their functions in the formation of different flower colors. We identified 37 *4CLs*, 2 *ANRs*, 1 *ANS*, 13 *CHIs*, 6 *CHSs*, 3 *CYP73As*, 6 *DFRs*, 1 *F3'5'H*, 7 *UFGTs*, 4 *F3Hs*, 4 *F3'Hs*, 4 *FLSs*, 8 *HCTs*, 2 *LARs* and 6 *PALs* (Table S20). We screened the genes in the pathway with significant differences and drew a flavonoid regulatory network map (Fig. 5). By comparing the FPKM values of different genes involved in flower color formation (Fig. 5), we clearly found that the ANR enzyme gene *Tf014160* was differentially expressed in each group, with low expression in R and D samples and high expression in W, Y and B samples.

The *F3H* is one of the key enzymes in the flavonoid metabolic pathway, significantly impacting the biosynthesis of flavonoids(Li *et al.*, 2020). The combined transcriptome and metabolome analysis revealed that the F3H enzyme gene *Tf024076* was significantly differentially expressed between the groups (Fig. S20). The FPKM value of *Tf024076* in R was 2866.32, 974.94-fold higher compared to that of W, and 184.92-fold higher compared to that of Y. We speculate that the F3H enzyme gene *Tf024076* plays an important role in regulating the coloration of the *T. fournieri* flower. Anthocyanin synthase (ANS) is the most critical enzyme in the process of anthocyanin synthesis and transformation(Sharma *et al.*,

435 2022). In this study, we found that the FPKM values of the ANS enzyme Tf011780 gene in 436 the W, Y, and R samples were 1961.70, 2709.95, and 1834.65, and in the B and D samples 437 were 883.65 and 894.48. Tf011780 positively regulates the anthocyanin biosynthesis 438 pathway of T. fournieri. In this study, we identified the genes involved in the anthocyanin 439 synthesis pathway and found 11 3ATs, 16 BZ1s, 1 FG3, 2 GT1s, 8 HIDHs, 14 PTSs, and 1 440 UGT75C1 (Table S21). In this study, we screened 2 GTIs, and we speculated that the 441 differential expression of this gene in each group affected Cyanidin-3,5-O-diglucoside 442 synthesis. The Cyanidin-3,5-O-diglucoside content in each sample was significantly different. 443 W, Y, and R samples had a significantly lower content than B and D (P<0.001). Similarly, 444 the differential expression of BZ1 and UGT75C1 genes across the flower color types 445 eventually led to significant differences in the contents of Delphinidin-3,5-O-diglucoside, 446 Cyanidin-3-O-(6-O-p-coumaroyl)-glucoside, Pelargonidin-3,5-O-diglucoside, and 447 Pelargonidin-3-O-glucoside. Due to their significant differential expression, we speculate 448 that these genes have a positive role in the anthocyanin glycoside synthesis pathway. 449 Through the joint transcriptome and metabolome analysis, we evaluated the genes 450 involved in the synthesis of anthocyanin glycosides. Firstly, correlation analysis was 451 performed on the quantitative values of all samples in each groups. Data with a correlation 452 coefficient greater than 0.85 and a p-value less than 0.5 were selected (Table S22). The 453 screened data were used to draw a correlation clustering heat map (Fig. S20) using the Pretty 454 Heatmaps package of R. We found that the Tf024076 was positively correlated with 455 Pelargonidin, and Pelargonidin-3-O-glucoside was significantly positively correlated with 456 Tf024076 (P<0.0001) (Table S22). Therefore, Tf024076 potentially plays an active role in 457 the synthesis of Pelargonidin-related metabolites. Based on the DEGs that are part of the 458 anthocyanin synthesis pathway, we screened 23 related genes and measured the expression 459 fold change by real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR). We compared the log2(RT-qPCR) 460 values of these 23 genes with the RNA-Seq data, which showed that the expression of these 461 selected genes in our transcriptome dataset was highly consistent with the qRT-PCR results 462 (Fig. S23).

Discussion

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T. fournieri is an ornamental plant with high economic value. It has many flowers and rich colors and is a model plant for studying angiosperm fertilization and development (Kikuchi et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2020). In this study, we reported the generation of a 164.4Mb T. fournieri genome (Table S4.3), including its abundant repetitive elements and annotated information (Table S6). Our phylogenetic analysis clearly reveals the early evolutionary relationships of T. fournieri. Specifically, its relationship with Lamiaceae (S. bowleyana, O. majorana, et al.), Plantaginaceae (A. majus, A. hispanicum), Acanthaceae (S. cusia), Scrophulariaceae (L. philippehsis), Phrymaceae (M. guttatus), Amborellaceae (A. trichopoda), and Vitaceae (V. vinifera) (Fig. 2A). Through the phylogenetic 1 tree analysis, it was found that T. fournieri diverged earlier than Lamiaceae and Plantaginaceae. By comparing the T. fournieri chloroplast genomes, it was also found that T. fournieri was significantly differentiated from Plantaginaceae, Acanthaceae, and Scrophulariaceae(Chen et al., 2021). According to the evolutionary relationship analyses, T. fournieri belongs to the genus Torenia of the family Linderniaceae rather than the genus Torenia of the family Scrophulariaceae, as currently listed in the Angiosperm Phylogeny Group (APG) III classification system. By combining Ks and phylogenetic analysis, we concluded that the WGD events in *T. fournieri* occurred at the same time as that of *A. majus* (Fig. 2C, Fig. S7A). Therefore, our assembled *T. fournieri* genome provides new insights and resources for the comparative study of Linderniaceae. In this study, we analyzed the differences underlying the five different flower color types of T. fournieri japonica through transcriptomics and metabonomics. RNA-Seq analysis revealed that many DEGs were differentially expressed in samples of different flower colors. These DEGs were involved in various metabolic pathways (such as flavonoid and anthocyanin pathways) (Fig. S8). Plant cytochrome P450 genes and R2R3-MYB transcription factors participate in various biochemical pathways and produce a variety of metabolites (such as phenylpropanoids, terpenes, cyanogenic glycosides, and glucosinolates, etc.), which play an important role in flavonoid biosynthesis and their colored compounds anthocyanins(Distefano et al., 2021; Ma and Constabel, 2019; Nguyen and Dang, 2021). The F3'H and F3'5'H genes belong to the CYP75 gene subfamily (Tanaka and Brugliera, 2013).

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The inhibition of the F3'5'H gene leads to the increase of anthocyanins(He et al., 2013; Tanaka and Brugliera, 2013). In contrast, the increased expression of the F3'H gene in T. fournieri increases the anthocyanin content and leads to a pink flower color(Tanaka and Brugliera, 2013). We thoroughly assessed the P450 gene family by analyzing the T. fournieri genome and identified a total of 39 P450 subfamilies (Fig. S18, Table S18), among which the CYP75 subfamily contains eight genes. These genes include 4 F3'H genes (Table S20), which were differentially expressed in different samples and potentially positively regulate the formation of color in *T. fournieri* flowers. We found that the CYP87 subfamily *Tf028855* gene was significantly highly expressed in the R flowers compared to the other flower types (Table S18). Moreover, the content of Pelargonidin-3-O-rutinoside in the R flowers was also significantly higher than that in W, Y, B, and D flower types (Fig. S15A). A joint analysis revealed that the Tf028855 gene was significantly positively correlated with Pelargonidin-3-O-rutinosid accumulation (P<0.001). Therefore, Tf028855 is potentially a key gene that regulates the synthesis pathway of Pelargonidin-3-O-rutinosid, resulting in the rose color in R flowers. Several genes belonging to these gene families are differentially expressed in the different flower types, directly or indirectly affecting the metabolism of T. fournieri flavonoids or anthocyanins, playing an important regulatory role in T. fournieri corolla coloring. The purple and blue flowers mainly contain anthocyanidins, delphinidin, and its methylated derivatives, petunidin, and malvidin(Mekapogu et al., 2020). The anthocyanins of the magenta, red, scarlet, and pink-colored flowers are mainly Pelargonidin, Cyanidin, Delphinidin, Peonidin, Petunidin, and Malvidin(Fu et al., 2021; Iwashina, 2015). Similarly, our study found no significant difference in cyanidin content in the rose-colored R flower types (Fig. S11). However, the content of Delphinidin, Pelargonidin, Peonidin, Petunidin, Malvidin, Naringenin, and Dihydrokaempferol-related glycosides was significantly higher than that of anthocyanins in other samples (Fig. 4A, Fig. S12A, Fig. S15A, Fig. S15B, Fig. S15G -K, Fig. S17B, Fig. S17D, and E; Table S17). We found that the B and D flower types mainly contained Quercetin, Cyanidin, Delphinidin, petunidin, malvidin, Pelargonidin, and Peonidin related glycosides. We also found that the Rutin and Kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside

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contents in the B-colored flowers were also significantly higher than those in the other flower colors (Fig. S17A and Fig. S17C). In the yellow-colored Y flowers, we found that mainly contained Afzelin, Pelargonidin-3-O-(6"-ferulylsambubioside)-5-O-(malonyl)-glucoside, and Petunidin-3,5-O-diglucoside (Fig. 4A, Table S17). The differences in anthocyanin metabolites indirectly revealed the mechanisms underlying the different flower colors of T. fournieri. Anthocyanin glycoside is an important water-soluble flavonoid compound in plants, mainly present in tissues such as flowers, fruits, and leaves, resulting in the different color appearance of these tissues (Mizuno et al., 2021; Park et al., 2018). The MBW complex (R2R3-MYB, bHLH, and WD40) proteins play an important regulatory role in the plant anthocyanin synthesis regulatory pathway, and the R2R3-MYB transcription factors are critical regulators of plant anthocyanin synthesis(Li, 2014; Ma and Constabel, 2019). In the Petunia R2R3-MYB gene family, anthocyanin synthesis regulators (ASR) can participate in the WMBW (WRKY, MYB, B-HLH, and WDR) anthocyanin regulatory complex by interacting with the AN1 and AN11 transcription factors, thus regulating the different flower color formation in Petunia(Zhang et al., 2019). Similarly, the NnMYB5 transcription factor of the lotus R2R3-MYB gene family is a transcriptional activator of anthocyanin synthesis, playing an important role in regulating flower color(Sun et al., 2016). Therefore, in this study, we identified the R2R3-MYB transcription factors present in the *T. fournieri* genome and obtained 62 related genes, of which 11 belong to the S32 R2R3-MYB subfamily (Fig. S19, Table S19). Among these transcription factors, we found that Tf023331 had the highest expression in the D flower type, which also exhibited a significantly higher content of Malvidin-3-O-glucoside compared to other samples (Fig. S16E). Thus, Tf023331 may be a the Malvidin-3-O-glucoside synthesis involved in pathway, Malvidin-3-O-glucoside may be responsible for the darker color of the D flowers compared with the other flower colors. Anthocyanin glycoside synthesis is mainly catalyzed by a series of enzymes and transported to the vacuole for storage through various modifications (Tanaka et al., 2008).

551 These enzymes mainly include CHS, CHI, F3H, F3H, FLS, FNS, DFR, ANS, ANR, and 552 GT1. In the T. fournieri genome, we identified 37 4CLs, 2 ANRs, 1 ANS, 13 CHIs, 6 CHSs, 3 553 CYP73As, 6 DFRs, 1 F3'5'H, 7 UFGTs, 4 F3Hs, 5 F3'Hs, 4 FLSs, 8 HCTs, 2 LARs, 6 PALs, 554 11 3ATs, 16 BZIs, 1 FG3, 2 GTIs, 8 HIDHs, 14 PTSs and 1 UGT75CI genes (Table S20 and 555 S21). ANS was shown to be a key enzyme in the anthocyanin biosynthesis pathway, 556 catalyzing the conversion of colorless anthocyanins into colored anthocyanins (Sharma et al., 557 2022). SmANS is an anthocyanin synthase gene in the downstream anthocyanin biosynthesis 558 pathway. Low expression of the SmANS leads to the production of white flowers from purple 559 flowers in Salvia miltiorrhiza(Lin et al., 2022). SmANS overexpression of promoted 560 anthocyanin accumulation in S. miltiorrhiza and restored the purple flower phenotype(Li et 561 al., 2019). In the Dendrobium officinale anthocyanin biosynthesis pathway, DoANS and 562 *DoUFGT* encoding an anthocyanin synthase and UDP-glucose 563 flavonoid-3-O-glucosyltransferase, respectively, are key regulatory genes associated with 564 anthocyanin differential accumulation(Yu et al., 2018). We combined the metabolome and 565 transcriptome data analysis and found that TfANS may be the key gene that determines the 566 color of the perianth segments of T. fournieri. Flavanone 3-hydroxylase (F3H) plays an 567 important role in the flavonoid biosynthetic pathway. The expression of TfF3H in a white T. 568 fournieri perianth is lower than that in a purple perianth. When TORE1 (Torenia 569 retrotransposon 1) was inserted into the 5' upstream region of the TfF3H gene in white 570 perianth flowers, it activated the expression of TfF3H, which resulted in the white flowers 571 turning pink(Nishihara et al., 2014). In this study, we found that Tf024076 was expressed 572 very lowly in the white W and yellow Y flower types, but was highly expressed in the rose R, 573 blue B and D flower types. We also combined the Tf024076 transcript expression 574 information with the metabolome data, and observed that Tf024076, 575 3,4,2',4',6'-Pentahydroxychalcone-4'-O-glucoside, Naringenin-7-O-glucoside and 576 Pelargonidin-3-O-glucoside were significantly positively correlated (Fig. S20). However, the 577 Naringenin-7-O-glucoside and Pelargonidin-3-O-glucoside contents in the R flower types 578 were significantly higher compared to the other flower types (Fig. 4A, Fig. 15B, Fig. S17E). 579 Therefore, Tf024076 has a positive regulatory effect in the biosynthesis of

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Naringenin-7-O-glucoside and Pelargonidin-3-O-glucoside, and these two anthocyanin metabolites are also responsible for the rose color of the R flower type. In conclusion, the assembled T. fournieri sequence provides a reference genome for the Linderniaceae, serving as a valuable resource for future genome editing research and molecular marker-assisted breeding. It also provides insights into the evolution of the genus Torenia in the Linderniaceae. The RNA-Seq data from flowers of different colors of T. fournieri revealed differences at the molecular level, and the metabolome data revealed differences at the biochemical level. The integrated analysis shed light on the mechanisms underlying the corolla colors in T. fournieri. Importantly, the genes and metabolites identified in this study further provide a multi-omics resource for understanding the growth, coloration, and antioxidant properties of *T. fournieri* corolla. Acknowledgements We acknowledge Drs. Shuo Li, Cai Gao and Zhongxing Li for their help and advice during the experiment. We gratefully thank Professor Qian Li (Xinjiang Agriculture University) for the helpful advice and discussion of this manuscript. **Funding** This study was funded by China Agriculture Research System of MOF and MARA(CARS-34) and the Wetland and Grassland Research Center of Shaanxi Academyof Forestry(SXLK-ZX-2021-06). **Author Contributions** TH and PY planted and designed the study; JS analysed data and wrote the manuscript; JJ,

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SL and HK data collection and performed experiments; JY, NM and RY analyzed data and planned the experiments; YC and YW edited and revised the manuscript. **Declarations** The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest associated with this work. **Data Availability Statement** The transcriptome and genome sequencing data of T. fournieri have been deposited in NCBI under the bioproject Accession PRJNA928569 and PRJNA928860. References Aida R. 2008. Torenia fournieri (torenia) as a model plant for transgenic studies. Plant Biotechnology **25** 541-545. Aida R, Kishimoto S, Tanaka Y, Shibata M. 2000a. Modification of flower color in torenia (Torenia fournieri Lind.) by genetic transformation. Plant Science 153, 33-42. Aida R, Yoshida K, Kondo T, Kishimoto S, Shibata M. 2000b. Copigmentation gives bluer flowers on transgenic torenia plants with the antisense dihydroflavonol-4-reductase gene. Plant Science 160, 49-56 Ashburner M, Ball CA, Blake JA, Botstein D, Butler H, Cherry JM, Davis AP, Dolinski K, Dwight SS, Eppig JT, Harris MA, Hill DP, Issel-Tarver L, Kasarskis A, Lewis S, Matese JC, Richardson JE, Ringwald M, Rubin GM, Sherlock G. 2000. Gene Ontology: tool for the unification of biology. Nature Genetics 25, 25-29. Bairoch A, Apweiler R. 2000. The SWISS-PROT protein sequence database and its supplement TrEMBL in 2000. Nucleic Acids Research 28, 45-48. Bardou P, Mariette J, Escudié F, Djemiel C, Klopp C. 2014. jvenn: an interactive Venn diagram viewer.

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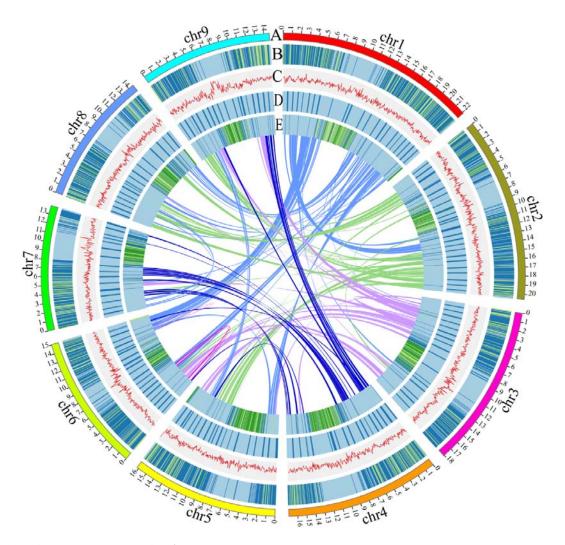
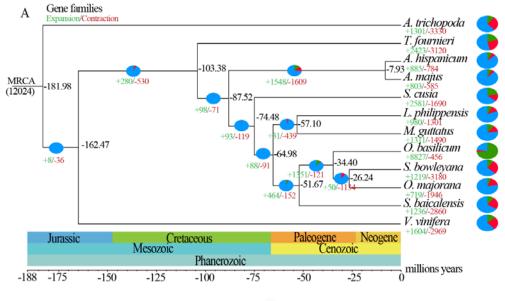


Fig. 1 Genome landscape of *T. fournieri*.

(A) The nine assembled chromosomes of *T. fournieri*. The distribution of (B) genes, (C) GC content, (D) SSRs, and (E) transposable elements (TEs). Darker colors correspond to higher gene density. Each linking line in the center of the Circos plot indicates a pair of homologous genes.



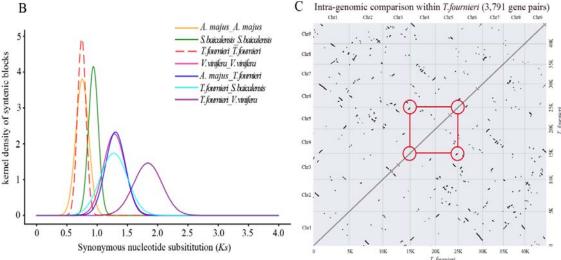


Fig. 2 Comparative genomic and evolutionary analysis of T. fournieri.

(A) Phylogenetic relationship between *T. fournieri* and 11 plant species. Green and red indicate the number of gene families that have expanded or contracted, respectively. The pie charts show the percentage of expanded (green), contracted (red), and conserved (blue) gene families among all gene families. Estimated divergence times (in millions of years) are shown in different colored sections below the phylogenetic tree. (B) The density distribution of homologous gene Ks values in *T. fournieri* and 11 plant species. (C) Dot plots of paralogs in the *T. fournieri* genome.

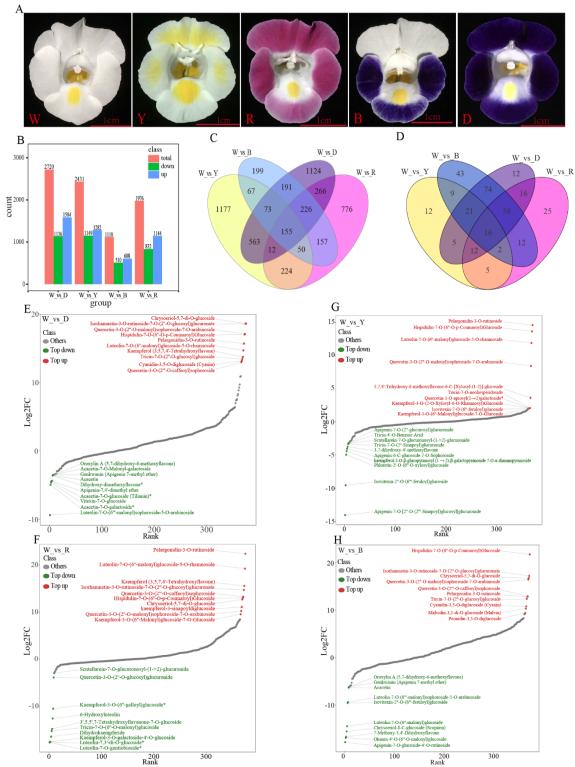


Fig. 3 Transcriptome and metabolome results of *T. fournieri*.

(A) Flowers of five different colors of *T. fournieri*. W, R, Y, B, and D represent white, rose, lemon drop, blue and white, and deep blue. (B) The number of up- and down-regulated genes between different groups was obtained by RNA-Seq analysis. (C) Venn diagram of differentially expressed genes between the different groups. Different colored dots represent different grouped samples. (D) Venn diagram of

differentially accumulated metabolites between the different *T. fournieri* flower groups. The distribution of metabolite content differences in W_vs_D (E), W_vs_R (F), W_vs_Y (G), and W_vs_B (H) groups. Each dot represents an individual metabolite, green dots represent the top 10 down-regulated metabolites, and red dots represent the top 10 up-regulated metabolites.

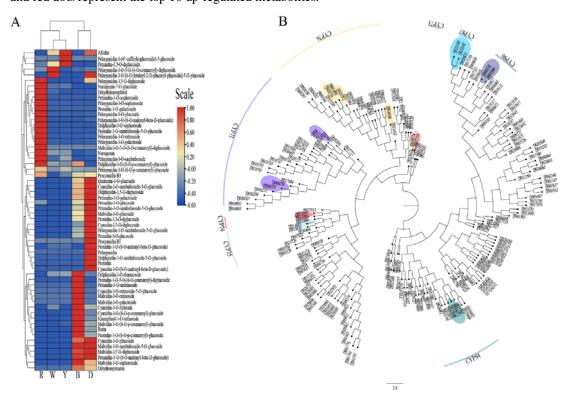


Fig. 4 Analysis of anthocyanin content and the cytochrome P450 gene family in *T. fournieri*.

(A) Heatmap of anthocyanin metabolite content between different sample groups. The anthocyanin metabolite data were processed by UV (unit variance scaling). Cluster heatmaps were drawn using the R program heatmap package. (B) Evolutionary tree of genes encoding cytochrome P450 proteins in *T. fournieri*. The outermost circle of the phylogenetic tree indicates the subfamilies corresponding to the different tree branches. The genes highlighted with different colors correspond to DEGs. The cytochrome P450 family members were clustered by neighbor ligation using the igtree software (-bb:1000; MFP).

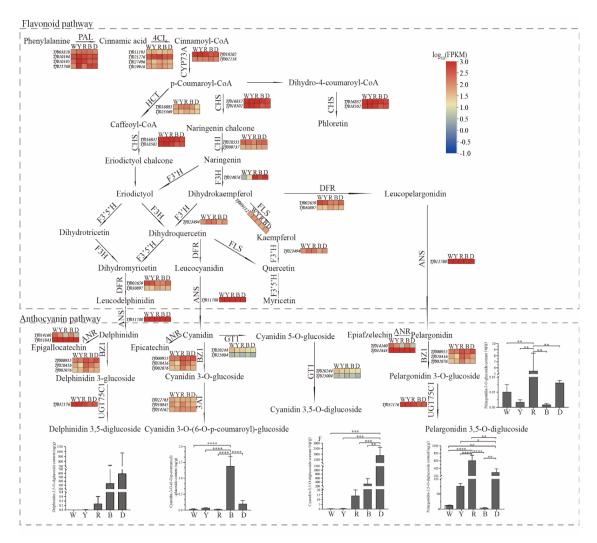


Fig. 5 Key pathways for flavonoid accumulation and anthocyanin synthesis in *T. fournieri*.

Heatmap of flavonoid accumulation and expression levels of candidate genes involved in anthocyanin synthesis in different flower color tissues of *T. fournieri*. Red and blue correspond to high and low expression levels of the related genes in the pathway, respectively(log₁₀(FPKM)). Histograms illustrate the content of related anthocyanin metabolites in the different flower color tissues of *T. fournieri*, prepared by GraphPad Prism 8. (*<0.05, **<0.01, ***<0.001, ****<0.0001)