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This is the author's manuscript

Original Citation:

Availability:

This version is available <http://hdl.handle.net/2318/2028620> since 2024-10-28T11:50:43Z

Published version:

DOI:10.1093/botlinnean/boae050

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Original Article

Estimation of divergence time and comparative plastid genomics of *Orchis* species (Orchidaceae)

Jacopo Calevo^{1,2,3,*}, Juan Viruel², Martino Adamo¹, Leif Bersweden^{2,4}, Roberta Gargiulo², Robyn S. Cowan², Michael F. Fay^{2,5}

¹Department of Life Sciences and Systems Biology, University of Turin, Turin 10125, Italy

²Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, Richmond TW9 3DS, United Kingdom

³School of Molecular and Life Sciences, Curtin University, Bentley, Western Australia 6102, Australia

⁴Queen Mary University of London, London E1 4NS, United Kingdom

⁵University of Western Australia, Crawley, Western Australia 6009, Australia

*Corresponding author. Jodrell Laboratory, Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, Richmond TW9 3DS, United Kingdom. E-mail: j.calevo@kew.org

ABSTRACT

Low-coverage sequencing in plants allows whole plastomes to be obtained that can be used to investigate phylogenetic relationships among groups. The genus *Orchis* (c. 20 species), is usually divided into *Orchis* subgenera *Orchis* and *Masculae*. These subgenera are composed of three (*Anthropophorae*, *Italicae*, and *Orchis*) and four (*Masculae*, *Provinciales*, *Pusillae*, and *Robustocalcare*) sections, respectively. In this study, we used genome-skimming data to assemble the plastid genomes of 11 species (15 accessions) of *Orchis*, representing six out of the seven sections, from which we constructed a dated phylogenetic tree. Results suggest that the divergence between the subgenera occurred c. 10.53 Mya, whereas the main separation of the sections is dated between 6.53 and 3.48 Mya. Furthermore, we found 206 (in *O. anthropophora*) to 230 (in *O. provincialis*) microsatellite regions in the assembled plastomes, which could be used to design specific primers for further population genetics and phylogenetic studies and, ultimately, inform conservation efforts. The plastome data here presented represent a new contribution to the molecular systematics of the genus, and they can be used to further explore infrageneric and intraspecific molecular variation in *Orchis*.

Keywords: divergence time; orchids; phylogeny; plastomes

INTRODUCTION

During the first event of endosymbiosis between cyanobacteria and eukaryotes, believed to have occurred c. 1.5 billion years ago (Chan *et al.* 2011), bacterial genes were transferred to the host cell nucleus or lost (Keeling *et al.* 2004), resulting in the establishment of the primary plastid. Now the plastid genome (plastome), which is almost always circular, has a size of 100–200 kbp (120–160 kbp in land plants) and harbours 100–120 highly conserved genes with their own gene expression system (Olejniczak *et al.* 2016).

High-throughput sequencing technologies provide the opportunity to obtain plastome data as a byproduct of low-coverage sequencing of plant genomic DNA, not only allowing the study of biogeography and plastid evolution across groups (e.g. Yuan *et al.* 2018, Frankel *et al.* 2022), but also the investigation of phylogenetic relationships among taxa (Bedoya *et al.* 2019, Serna-Sánchez *et al.* 2021, Lee *et al.* 2022).

The genus *Orchis* Tourn. ex L., currently comprising c. 20 recognized species (POWO 2023), has been (and still is) a source of debate among taxonomists. *Orchis* spp. are spread among subtropical, temperate, and arctic-alpine climates, ranging from Macaronesia to Mongolia, across Europe, temperate Asia, North Africa, and the Middle East, with a centre of diversification in the Mediterranean Basin (POWO 2023). They form > 40 known hybrids, revealing low reproductive isolation.

Species are often divided into two subgenera (Kretzschmar *et al.* 2007): *Orchis* subgenus *Orchis* (which includes the ‘anthropomorphic’ species) and *Masculae* H.Kretzschmar, Eccarius & H.Dietr. (including the ‘non-anthropomorphic’ species). Together, these subgenera comprise seven sections: three in subgenus *Orchis* (*Anthropophorae* H.Kretzschmar, Eccarius & H.Dietr., *Italicae* H.Kretzschmar, Eccarius & H.Dietr., and *Orchis*) and four in subgenus *Masculae* (*Masculae* Lindl., *Provinciales* Parl., *Pusillae* Parl., and *Robustocalcare* Hautz.) (Kretzschmar *et al.* 2007). However, after the segregation of

Received 25 April 2023; revised 2 July 2024; accepted 3 July 2024

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several genera since the original description (e.g. *Anacamptis* Rich., *Dactylorhiza* Neck. ex Nevski, *Gymnadenia* R.Br., and *Neotinea* Rchb.f.), the genus has been the target of taxonomic revision by several authors, with some treating subgenus *Masculae* as a separate genus *Androrchis* Tyteca & Klein (e.g. [Foelsche and Jakely 2009](#), [Gamarra et al. 2012](#), [Tyteca et al. 2012](#)). However, this separation has not been accepted by most orchidologists (as summarized by [Bateman 2009, 2012](#); [Scopece et al. 2010](#)). In addition, the number of species varies depending on authors, with up to 36 species described in [Delforge \(2016\)](#). In this study we adopted the taxonomy proposed by [Kretzschmar et al. \(2007\)](#) with some modifications reported in [POWO \(2023\)](#), and resulting from more recent studies, particularly in section *Robustocalcare* (e.g. [Calevo et al. 2021, 2023](#)). We used genome-skimming data to assemble the plastid genomes of 11 species (15 accessions) representing six out of seven sections, with the aim of analysing our data in a comparative framework to investigate the evolution of the plastid genomes and divergence times of the species in the genus; also, we compared plastid phylogenetics with phylogenetic trees based on the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) of the ribosomal DNA, and described the abundance of plastid microsatellites (SSRs), which might be used as a resource by researchers interested in the molecular investigation of the species of *Orchis*.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Plant material, DNA extraction, and sequencing

Samples of *Orchis patens* Desf. subsp. *brevicornis* (Viv.) Asch. & Graeb. ([Calevo et al. 2023](#)) and *O. provincialis* Balb. ex Lam. & DC. were collected in north-western Italy, and the sample of *O. canariensis* Lindl. was collected in the Canary Islands, Spain. Samples of *O. anthropophora* All., *O. mascula* (L.) L., *O. militaris* L., *O. simia* Lam., *O. purpurea* Huds., *O. anatolica* Boiss., *O. spitzelii* Saut. ex W.D.J.Koch subsp. *nitidifolia* (W.P.Teschner) Soó, and *O. quadripunctata* Cirillo ex Ten. were obtained from the Kew DNA & Tissue Bank or the Kew Herbarium. Information on collection localities and voucher specimens is provided in [Table S1](#) in the Supporting Information. All species included are representative of the centre of speciation of the genus ([Eckert et al. 2008](#)) ranging from Macaronesia to the Middle East.

Total genomic DNA was extracted from silica-dried leaf tissue or herbarium specimens using a modified CTAB protocol and purified by isopropanol precipitation or silica columns (Epoch Life Science, Missouri City, TX, USA) from the aqueous supernatant after chloroform/isoamyl alcohol purification ([Neubig et al. 2014](#)). DNA was checked on a 1% agarose gel to assess DNA quality. DNA concentrations were measured with a Qubit fluorometer using the dsDNA BR Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Genomic libraries were prepared using NEBNext® Ultra™ II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina® (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA) with AMPure XP magnetic beads for purification and size selection (300–350 bp). NEBNext® Multiplex Oligos for Illumina® (Dual Index Primer Sets I and II) was used to add barcodes for multiplexed sequencing ([Viruel et al. 2019](#)). Library quality was evaluated using a Quantus™ fluorometer (Promega Corp., Madison, WI, USA) and an Agilent 4200 TapeStation (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Multiplexed libraries were

then sequenced at RBG Kew on an Illumina MiSeq (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) lane. Read quality was checked by FastQC v.0.11.7 ([Andrews 2010](#)), and Trimmomatic v.0.35 ([Bolger, Lohse and Usadel 2014](#)) was used with the default parameters to remove low-quality reads and adapter sequences, discarding sequences with an average Phred33 score < 20.

ITS detection and alignment

All the reads were mapped-to-reference ITS sequences (*O. mascula* GenBank accession number AY351379 for subgenus *Masculae*, and *O. simia* GenBank accession number KU697369 for subgenus *Orchis*) in Geneious v.8.1.9. and CAP3 ([Huang and Madan 1999](#)) to extract the ITS of our 15 accessions from the trimmed read libraries. Sequences were then aligned in MAFFT v.7031b ([Katoh and Standley 2013](#)) with the default parameters (specifically the default strategy L-INS-i, which performs iterative refinement incorporating local pairwise alignment information; the default gap open penalty is 1.53 and the default gap extension penalty is 0.0). Phylogenetic analysis (see below) was performed in CIPRES Science Gateway ([Miller et al. 2010](#)). To double check the presence/absence of ITS sequence variation in introgressed (or putatively introgressed) samples, ITS mapping was performed using bbMap from the bbTools suite (BBMap—Bushnell B.: sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/); mapped reads were assemble using SPADEs ([Bankevich et al. 2012](#)) and the obtained scaffolds were merged, when possible, using CAP3 ([Huang and Madan 1999](#)).

Plastid DNA assembly

A reference-guided assembly was performed on all the reads that were mapped to the plastid genome of *Habenaria radiata* (Thunb.) Spreng. [= *Pecteilis radiata* (Thunb.) Raf.] (GenBank Accession number KX1237.1), the closest relative of *Orchis* for which a fully annotated plastome was available at the time this step was executed, using Geneious v.8.1.9.

Mapped-to-reference plastomes were then used as references for a *de novo* assembly of the original reads in Geneious v.8.1.9. with default Medium-Low Sensitivity/Fast option. Gene annotation was exhaustively performed for all 15 accessions with GeSeq web version; annotations were checked, and tRNAs were further checked with tRNAscan-SE v.2.0 as implemented in GeSeq ([Tillich et al. 2017](#)). The diagrams for the circular genomes were obtained with the program OrganellarGenomeDRAW web version ([Lohse et al. 2013](#), [Greiner et al. 2019](#)).

Microsatellite detection

We used Imperfect Microsatellite Extractor ([Mudunuri and Nagarajaram 2007](#)), an online server tool for microsatellite (SSR) detection from genomic sequences. Minimum thresholds for the search were set at eight for mononucleotide repeats, five for dinucleotide repeats and four for tri-, tetra-, penta-, and hexanucleotide repeats.

Phylogenetic analyses

ITS sequences retrieved from raw reads were aligned with *Orchis* sequences available from GenBank and used to build an ITS-based maximum likelihood (ML) phylogenetic tree. Sequences were first aligned using MAFFT v.7031b ([Katoh and Standley 2013](#)) with default settings, and then trimmed with TrimAl

Table 1. Information of NGS sequencing and SSRs detection from 15 *Orchis* accessions.

	Species ID	SSRs	Input read pairs	Both surviving	Forward only	Reverse only	Dropped
1	<i>O_anthropophora</i>	204	2 741 985	2 020 488 (73.69%)	709 300 (25.87%)	4550 (0.17%)	7647 (0.28%)
2	<i>O_militaris1</i>	222	2 375 559	1 525 332 (64.21%)	839 568 (35.34%)	3764 (0.16%)	6895 (0.29%)
3	<i>O_militaris2</i>	219	1 222 508	718 594 (58.78%)	497 994 (40.74%)	1738 (0.14%)	4182 (0.34%)
4	<i>O_simia1</i>	215	1 080 436	409 061 (37.86%)	667 104 (61.74%)	1046 (0.10%)	3225 (0.30%)
5	<i>O_simia3</i>	216	2 514 567	1 398 427 (55.61%)	1 104 923 (43.94%)	3408 (0.14%)	7809 (0.31%)
6	<i>O_purpurea1_1</i>	215	2 041 466	781 922 (38.30%)	1 247 124 (61.09%)	2081 (0.10%)	10 339 (0.51%)
7	<i>O_purpurea1_2</i>	220	1 731 400	908 366 (52.46%)	815 060 (47.08%)	2323 (0.13%)	5651 (0.33%)
8	<i>O_purpurea2_2</i>	210	2 933 739	2 140 468 (72.96%)	781 557 (26.64%)	4479 (0.15%)	7235 (0.25%)
9	<i>O_mascula</i>	207	1 532 285	1 037 742 (67.73%)	487 143 (31.79%)	3078 (0.20%)	4322 (0.28%)
10	<i>O_pauciflora</i>	210	2 146 960	797 857 (37.16%)	173 740 (8.09%)	2108 (0.13%)	1 173 255 (54.65%)
11	<i>O_canariensis</i>	214	1 682 867	1 007 618 (59.88%)	667 438 (39.66%)	2618 (0.16%)	5193 (0.31%)
12	<i>O_patens</i> subsp. <i>brevicornis</i>	226	2 315 342	1 477 939 (63.83%)	827 750 (35.75%)	3474 (0.15%)	6179 (0.27%)
13	<i>O_prisca</i> (<i>O.spitzelii</i> subsp. <i>nitidifolia</i>)	227	1 820 619	789 822 (43.38%)	222 441 (12.22%)	1576 (0.09%)	806 780 (44.31%)
14	<i>O_quadripunctata</i>	225	1 263 760	443 067 (35.06%)	85 388 (6.76%)	2041 (0.16%)	733 264 (58.02%)
15	<i>O_provincialis</i>	230	1 675 330	660 673 (39.44%)	1 008 145 (60.18%)	2025 (0.12%)	4487 (0.27%)

v.1.2.59 (Capella-Gutierrez et al. 2009) using automated selection on ‘gappyout’ mode. ML estimation was performed on the final dataset with randomized accelerated maximum likelihood (RAxML) v.8.2.12 (Stamatakis 2014) through 1000 bootstrap replicates using the GTR + GAMMA algorithm. Alignment, trimming and ML estimation were performed on CIPRES Science Gateway (Miller et al. 2010).

Plastomes from our 15 *Orchis* samples were aligned by using MAFFT v.7031b (Katoh and Standley 2013). The dataset was then cleaned by removing poorly aligned regions with TrimAl v.1.3 (Capella-Gutierrez et al. 2009) on the webserver Phylemon v.2.0 (Sánchez et al. 2011) using the option automated1, that uses a heuristic selection of the automatic method based on similarity statistics. Poorly aligned positions and divergent regions were trimmed using GBlock v.0.9.1b (Talavera and Castresana 2007). The final aligned dataset was used to fit the substitution model using JModelTest2 (Darriba et al. 2012), which was applied to build a ML phylogenetic tree with RAxML v.8.2.12 (Stamatakis 2014), and 5000 bootstrap replications were performed.

Estimating divergence time

We estimated divergence times among species based on Bayesian inference in BEAST2 v.2.6.6 (Bouckaert et al. 2019). *Habenaria radiata* (GenBank accession NC_035834), *Ophrys fusca* Link subsp. *iricolor* (Desf.) K.Richt. (GenBank accession AP018716), and *Ophrys sphegodes* Mill. (GenBank accession AP018717) plastid genomes were used as outgroups.

A TimeTree was inferred by applying the BEAST2 method on plastid sequences. Absolute age estimation analysis relied on one calibration point, a TIM + I + G substitution model, an optimized relaxed molecular clock, and a calibrated Yule speciation model. The best substitution model was selected with the BEAUti package cModelTest v.1.3.3, and the best molecular clock model was selected using a nested sampling approach (Russel et al. 2018) and based on marginal likelihood, using the NS package v.1.2.1, and following the suggestions of the BEAST2 community (Barido-Sottani et al. 2018), see Supporting Information,

Table S2 for details. Priors were estimated where not available as recommended by Drummond and Bouckaert (2015). We imposed a calibration point at the *Ophrys-Orchis* MRCA node at 16.8 Mya (sigma = 3.68 Mya). Calibrations were extracted from the TimeTree database (Hedges et al. 2006, Hedges et al. 2015), using three studies as reference (Inda et al. 2012, Sramkó et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2022). We conducted an MCMC analysis with 100 million generations, sampling each 1000th tree generated. Convergence of the chains and effective sample size (ESS) values were evaluated in TRACER v.1.6.0 (Rambaut et al. 2014), and all parameters showed ESS values > 200. A maximum clade credibility tree was generated with TreeAnnotator v.1.8, burn-in 10% of the initial states and edited using FigTree v.1.4.4.

RESULTS

Illumina paired-end sequencing produced from 1 080 436 (*O. simia1*) to 2 933 739 (*O. purpurea2_2*) raw reads. Cleaned and high-quality reads (Table 1) were used to assemble and annotate the 15 plastomes (e.g. Plastome scheme Fig. 1). Plastome sizes were comparable among all the examined taxa, ranging between 150 041 for *O. spitzelii* subsp. *nitidifolia* to 154 958 for *O. anthropophora*. IMEx analysis for the detection of microsatellites from our 15 new plastid sequences identified 204 (*O. anthropophora*) to 230 (*O. provincialis*) SSRs (Table 1).

The plastid phylogenetic tree topology (Fig. 2) and the ITS-based phylogenetic tree topology (Fig. 3), divided ‘anthropomorphic’ from ‘non-anthropomorphic’ species, namely subgenera *Orchis* and *Masculae*, with branches being supported by high bootstrap values. *Orchis canariensis* clustered, as expected, with *O. patens*. Some anthropomorphic accessions of the same species (*O. purpurea* and *O. simia*) did not form clades (some accessions of *O. purpurea* clustering closer to *O. simia* and *O. militaris*).

However, in both the ITS tree (Fig. 3) and the plastid DNA tree (Fig. 2), the specimen labelled as *O. anatolica* clustered with *O. pauciflora* Ten. in section *Masculae* (to which *O. pauciflora*

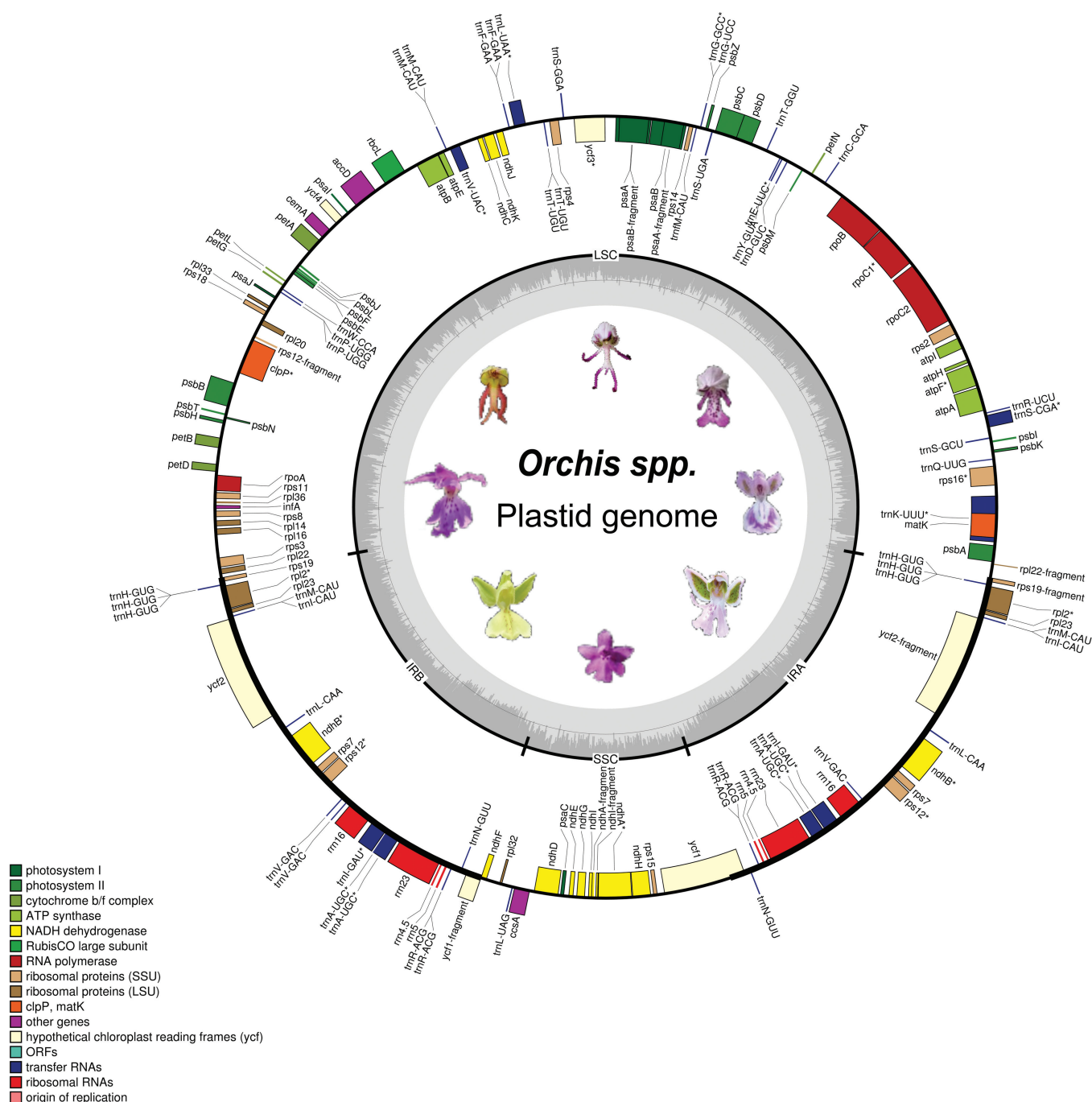


Figure 1. Gene map of the plastome of *Orchis* spp. Genes are indicated by boxes on the inside (clockwise transcription) and outside (counterclockwise transcription) of the outermost circle. The inner circle identifies the major structural components of the plastome (LSC, IR, and SSC). Genes belonging to different functional groups are colour coded. The dashed area in the inner circle indicates the GC content of the plastome.

belongs), and visual inspection of the herbarium voucher confirmed this identification. Therefore, it will be treated as *O. pauciflora* from hereon. Phylogenetic trees based on plastid DNA place *O. quadripunctata* (which belongs to section *Pusillae*) between accessions belonging to section *Robustocalcare* (Figs 1, 2).

BEAST2 analysis revealed that subgenera *Orchis* and *Masculae* diverged c. 10.53 Mya. The divergence between the anthropomorphic sections *Anthropophorae* (*O. anthropophora*) and *Orchis* (*O. militaris*, *O. purpurea*, and *O. simia*) occurred 5.88 Mya,

and the divergence between non-anthropomorphic sections *Provinciales* (*O. provincialis*) and *Masculae* (*O. mascula*) and between *Masculae* and *Robustocalcare* (*O. canariensis*, *O. patens*, and *O. spitzelii* subsp. *nitidifolia*) occurred 6.30 and 6.53 Mya, respectively (Fig. 4).

The mVISTA-based identity plot (Fig. S1 in the Supporting Information) revealed DNA sequence and gene synteny conservation across the 15 plastomes. Generally, the number, order and orientation of genes were relatively conserved, but distinct

Tree scale: 0.001

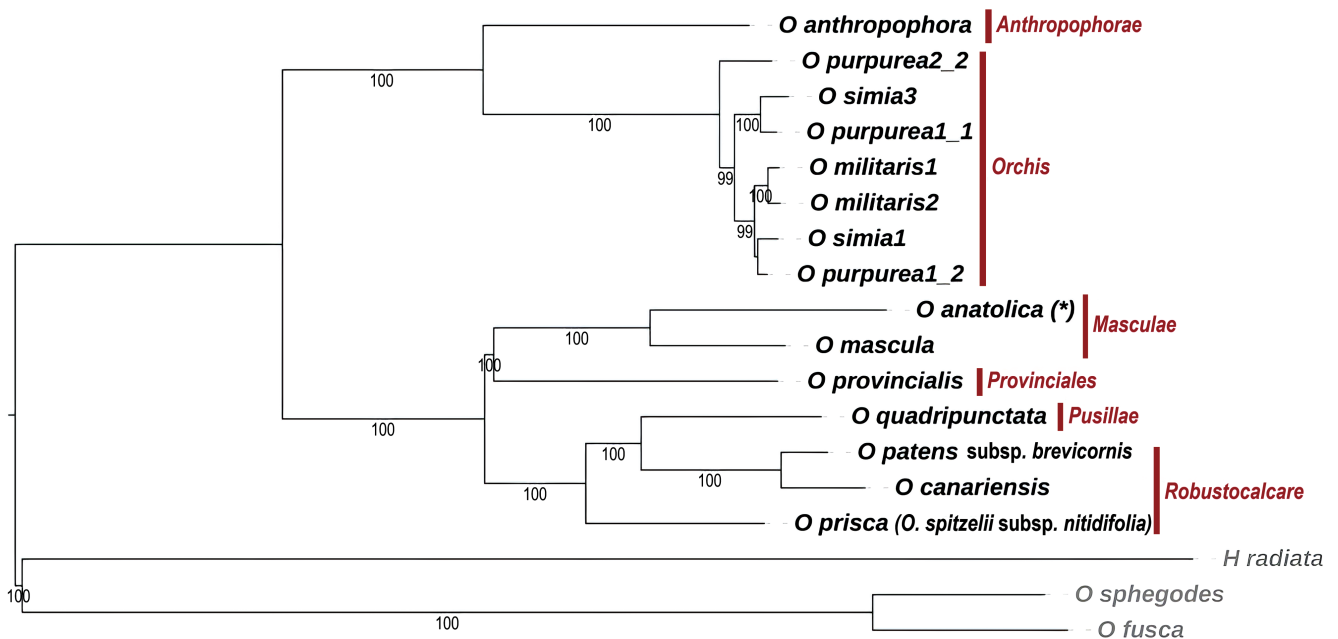


Figure 2. Phylogenetic tree based on total aligned and trimmed plastid sequences. The RAxML tree was built in CIPRES Science Gateway. The sample of *Orchis anatolica* (*) collected from Kew Herbarium clustered with *O. mascula* in section *Masculae* instead of *Pusillae*. *Habenaria radiata*, *Ophrys fusca* subsp. *iricolor*, and *O. sphegodes* were used as the outgroups.

sequence variations were recorded in several regions, e.g. *accD*, *rps3*, *rps3-rps2-2*, *rp4-ndhK*, *rps11-rps8*, *ycf2*, and *ycf2-2*.

DISCUSSION

Strongly supported phylogenetic trees are crucial for understanding evolution, phylogenetic classification, conservation, and drivers of clad diversification (Li *et al.* 2019). Advances in next-generation sequencing, providing opportunities for inferring phylogenies using numerous loci, decrease potential incongruences resulting from stochastic error (Salamin *et al.* 2005, Philippe *et al.* 2011).

A recent study by Li *et al.* (2019) indicated that, after the early rapid divergence of the first three small subfamilies in Orchidaceae between 90 and 81 Mya, there might have been a period of stasis. Then another 14 Myr passed before the divergence of the two largest subfamilies, Orchidoideae (to which *Orchis* belongs) and Epidendroideae.

In our study, we assembled and used plastid genomes for 15 samples representing 11 *Orchis* spp. in a comparative phylogenomic analysis to estimate divergence times among taxa. Plastome genome sizes for Orchidaceae published to date range from 14 015 bp in *Pogoniopsis schenckii* Cogn. (Klimpert *et al.* 2022) to 178 131 bp in *Cypripedium formosanum* Hayata (Kim *et al.* 2020), a discrepancy explained by the different life forms; heterotrophic plants like *P. schenckii* usually having lost at least some of the photosynthesis-related genes, resulting in smaller plastid genomes (Barrett *et al.* 2019). The plastome sizes of the species we studied were all > 150 000 bp, which is congruent with the size of plastomes in other photosynthetic orchids (Kim *et al.* 2020).

Phylogenetic results were consistent with phylogenetic trees published previously (e.g. Bateman *et al.* 2003) but show some ambiguities. In the ML trees (Figs 2 and 3), we obtained some mixed clusters, with, e.g. *O. purpurea* accessions clustering with *O. simia* or *O. militaris* rather than with accessions of the same species. This might be explained by hybridization and genetic introgression that often occur among these species (Bateman 2009; Jacquemyn *et al.* 2012, Bersweden *et al.* 2021). Our samples of *Orchis purpurea* (*O. purpurea1_1* and *O. purpurea1_2*), were collected as ‘morphologically different’ individuals in hybrid zones (Bersweden *et al.* 2021) and exhibit an identical ITS sequence (Fig. 3). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first published case in which a hybrid or introgressed orchid displays the plastid DNA sequences identical to one parental species and ITS sequences identical to the other. Even though we might have expected two different sequences of ITS in these samples, one from each of the parental species, we detected some sequence variation but were unable to obtain a second consensus ITS copy. This phenomenon can be explained with concerted evolution that has been reported to eliminate all but one copy relatively rapidly during introgression in orchids (Pillon *et al.* 2007) and in the genus *Orchis* [Sanger sequencing of ITS from introgressed individuals in *Orchis* revealed only one ITS copy, the second copy presumably having been lost by concerted evolution (Fay *et al.*, unpublished data)]. Similarly, *O. quadripunctata* in the ITS-based tree clustered correctly with other GenBank accession in section *Pusillae* (Fig. 3), but was intermingled with specimens included in the section *Robustocalcare* when considering plastome analyses (Figs 2–4). This may be explained by genetic introgression in the specimen analysed; alternatively, it could raise questions about the robustness of section *Pusillae*. The specimen of

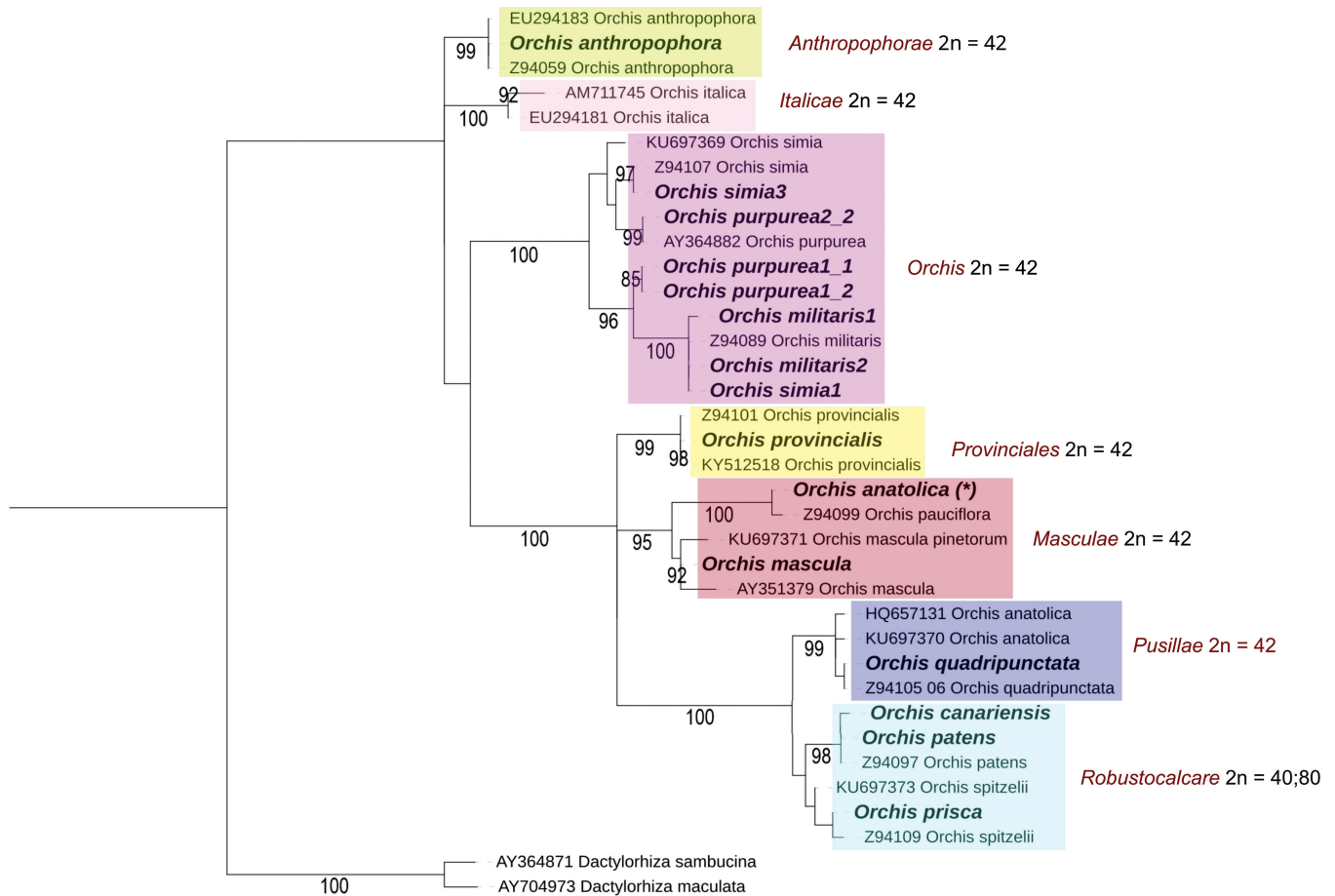


Figure 3. Phylogenetic tree based on ITS sequences retrieved from high-throughput sequencing with accessions downloaded from GenBank (accession numbers are reported). The sample of *Orchis anatolica* (*) collected from Kew Herbarium failed to cluster together with other accessions available from GenBank. The RAxML tree was built in CIPRES Science Gateway. *Dactylorhiza maculata* and *D. sambucina* were used as the outgroups. Sections and ploidy levels are reported.

O. anatolica did not cluster with other specimens of the same species in the ITS tree (Fig. 3) and it clustered with section *Masculae* instead of *Pusillae* when considering plastid sequences. However, our data and a subsequent herbarium inspection clarified the identity of this individual, which was re-identified as *O. pauciflora*, and its plastome is deposited under that name.

Orchis canariensis and *O. patens* clustered together with strong bootstrap values, in accordance with ITS-based analyses (Bateman et al. 2003; Fig. 3). However, plastid genome analysis provided no further evidence than nuclear microsatellites (Calevo et al. 2021). This might also be due to the relatively recent divergence of *O. canariensis* and *O. patens*, although Bateman et al. (2021) also observed a relatively poor resolution of the phylogenetic relationships based on whole-plastome data in the closely related genus *Ophrys* L. Estimation of divergence times showed that the clade of tetraploid species (specifically *O. patens* and *O. canariensis*) diverged from the other *Orchis* spp. more recently (c. 3.48 Mya) than the other groups, with a further diversification between *O. patens* and *O. canariensis* occurring c. 1.22 Mya. As previously hypothesized (Calevo et al. 2021), it seems that this group of taxa is still undergoing diversification and speciation, resulting in low genetic differentiation. Furthermore, an independent evolution of the two species as allotetraploids

deriving from different subspecies of the same parental species, members of the *O. mascula* group and *O. spitzelii* group (to which *O. spitzelii* subsp. *nitidifolia* belongs) would also result in low differentiation.

Estimation of divergence times among species performed in BEAST2 was consistent with other previously published estimates (e.g. Inda et al. 2012, Sramkó et al. 2014, Hoffmann et al. 2015). The analysis indicated a recent divergence occurred predominantly during the early Pliocene to late Pleistocene (Fig. 4). In particular, after the divergence between subgenera *Orchis* and *Masculae* during the Miocene (10.53 Mya), the main divergence of what we recognize today as sections occurred between 6.53 and 3.48 Mya. This result is in agreement with the evolution of other Mediterranean plant lineages (e.g. González-Martínez et al. 2010, Tremetsberger et al. 2016, Benítez-Benítez et al. 2018) and the geological and climatic history of the Mediterranean Basin. The Messinian Salinity Crisis that occurred 5.96–5.30 Mya (Pliocene) was a crucial period that contributed to extinction of the subtropical flora and diversification of Mediterranean lineages adapted to aridity (Rodríguez-Sánchez et al. 2008, Fiz-Palacios and Valcárcel 2013). This local aridification and global cooling began in the late Miocene and culminated with the commencement of the Mediterranean climatic regime in the

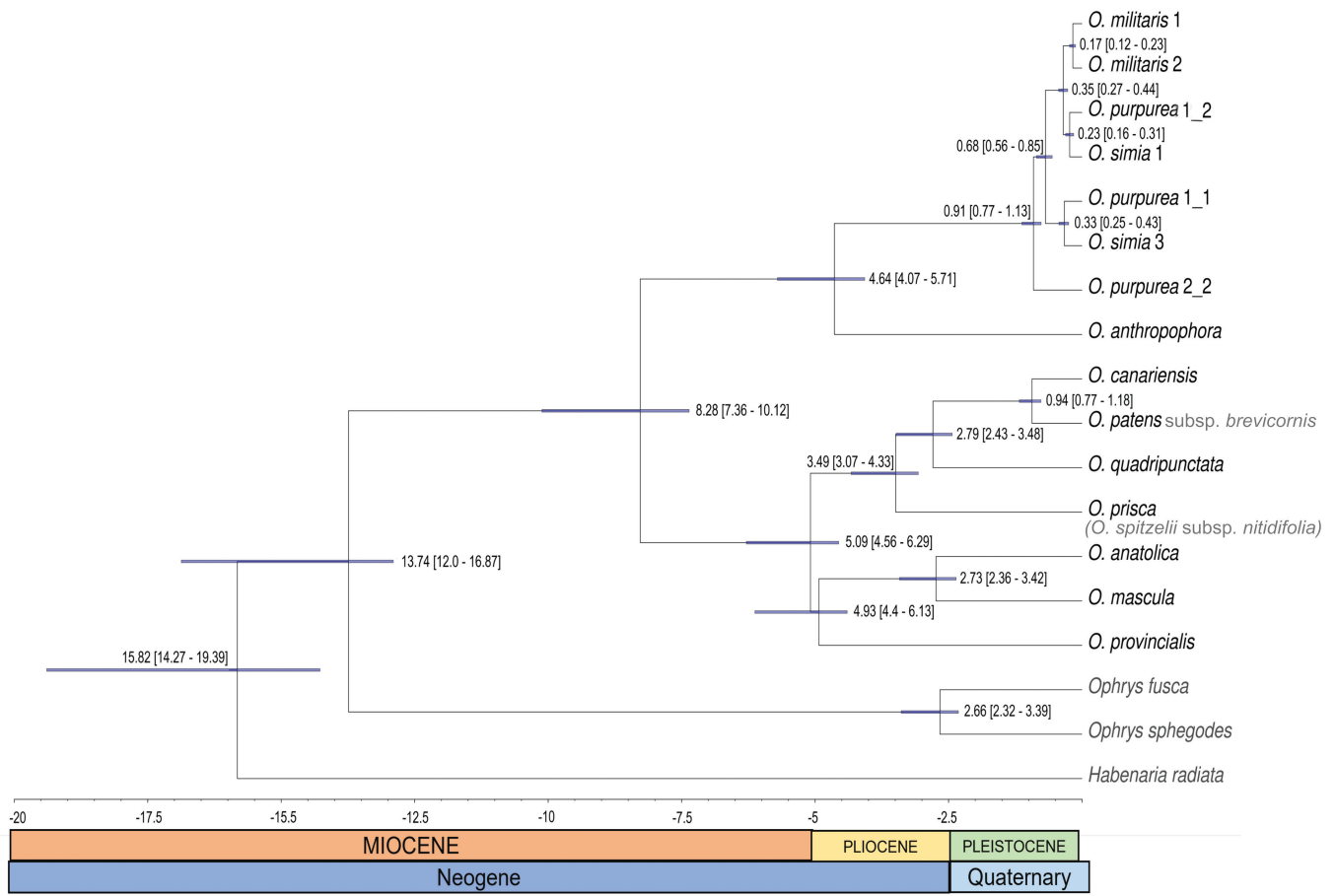


Figure 4. BEAST2 analysis of 15 *Orchis* spp. plastid genomes and divergence time estimates. *Ophrys sphegodes*, *O. fusca* subsp. *iricolor* (*O. fusca*), and *Habenaria radiata* were used as outgroups. The sample of *Orchis anatolica* (*), after molecular analysis and herbarium inspection, has been re-identified as *O. pauciflora*.

late Pliocene (3.4–2.8 Mya) and greatly modified the composition and structure of the Mediterranean flora (e.g. Milne and Abbott 2002, Thompson 2005). Later climate variability (from c. 2.5 Mya), characterized by alternation of cold (glacial) and warm (interglacial) periods, had a strong impact on the genetic structure of plants (e.g. Mansion et al. 2008, Gentili et al. 2015, Adamo et al. 2023); during this period, the Mediterranean Basin and Macaronesia played a central role as refugia for glacial relicts (Vargas 2007, Médail and Diadema 2009, Gentili et al. 2015, Mairal et al. 2017), many of which resulted in the formation of new allopatric lineages (Wiens 2004).

The Canary Islands originated from a volcanic hotspot localized at the continental–oceanic boundary west of Fuerteventura (that first emerged c. 22–23 Mya) and then progressed along the boundary and westwards induced by the displacement of the African plate, causing the later emergence of the other islands, Gran Canaria emerging c. 14.5–15.0 Mya and El Hierro 1.1–1.2 Mya (Carracedo et al. 1998, van den Bogaard 2013), the oldest and the youngest of the islands hosting *O. canariensis*, respectively. Although Gran Canaria, Tenerife and La Gomera emerged > 10 Mya (Carracedo et al. 1998, van den Bogaard 2013), catastrophic volcanic events, such as the Roque Nublo period (c. 5.3–3.7 Mya) for Gran Canaria, are thought to have caused the extinction, random survival on ridge-top refugia, and habitat fragmentation for existing flora

(Emerson 2003, Anderson et al. 2009). However, the divergence date between *O. patens* and *O. canariensis* suggests that the colonization of Canary Islands happened during the late Pleistocene, and that *O. canariensis* possibly became endemic to the islands during the glaciations from a broader distribution that included western Africa (where neither of the two species can now be found), as suggested by genetic data (Calevo et al. 2021); this hypothesis is in line with the conception that most of the non-endemic Canary Island flora from the pre-glacial period became endemic due to the extinction of conspecific populations on the mainland (Caujapé-Castells et al. 2022). However, it is important to note that multiple loci should be incorporated in future analyses to reduce the effects of gene tree incongruence that can bias age estimation of branches (Carruthers et al. 2022).

CONCLUSIONS

Our results demonstrated a recent evolutionary history for most of the sections of *Orchis*, in agreement with the geo-climatic evolution of the Mediterranean Basin and Macaronesia, with the tetraploid species *O. patens* and *O. canariensis* diverging in the late Pleistocene. Our 15 plastid genomes are the first for *Orchis* and set the basis for further in-depth biogeographical, evolutionary, and population-level studies.

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