

Conflicting phylogenetic signals in plastomes of the tribe Laureae (Lauraceae)

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Background. Gene tree discordance is common in phylogenetic analyses. Many phylogenetic studies have excluded non-coding regions of the plastome without evaluating their impact on tree topology. In general, plastid loci have often been treated as a single unit, and tree discordance among these loci has seldom been examined. Using samples of Laureae (Lauraceae) plastomes, we explored plastome variation among the tribe, examined the influence of non-coding regions on tree topology, and quantified intra-plastome conflict.

Results. We found that the plastomes of Laureae have low inter-specific variation and are highly similar in structure, size, and gene content. Laureae was divided into three groups, subclades I, II and III. The inclusion of non-coding regions changed the phylogenetic relationship among the three subclades. Topologies based on coding and non-coding regions were largely congruent except for the relationship among subclades I, II and III. By measuring the distribution of phylogenetic signal across loci that supported different topologies, we found that nine loci (two coding regions, two introns and five intergenic spacers) played a critical role at the contentious node.

Conclusions. Our results suggest that subclade III and subclade II are successively sister to subclade I. Conflicting phylogenetic signals exist between coding and non-coding regions of Laureae plastomes. Our study highlights the importance of evaluating the influence of non-coding regions on tree topology and emphasizes the necessity of examining discordance among different plastid loci in phylogenetic studies.

1 **Conflicting phylogenetic signals in plastomes of the tribe Laureae (Lauraceae)**

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16

17 **Abstract**

18 **Background.** Gene tree discordance is common in phylogenetic analyses. Many phylogenetic
19 studies have excluded non-coding regions of the plastome without evaluating their impact on tree
20 topology. In general, plastid loci have often been treated as a single unit, and tree discordance
21 among these loci has seldom been examined. Using samples of Laureae (Lauraceae) plastomes,
22 we explored plastome variation among the tribe, examined the influence of non-coding regions
23 on tree topology, and quantified intra-plastome conflict.

24 **Results.** We found that the plastomes of Laureae have low inter-specific variation and are highly
25 similar in structure, size, and gene content. Laureae was divided into three groups, subclades I, II
26 and III. The inclusion of non-coding regions changed the phylogenetic relationship among the
27 three subclades. Topologies based on coding and non-coding regions were largely congruent
28 except for the relationship among subclades I, II and III. By measuring the distribution of
29 phylogenetic signal across loci that supported different topologies, we found that nine loci (two
30 coding regions, two introns and five intergenic spacers) played a critical role at the contentious
31 node.

32 **Conclusions.** Our results suggest that subclade III and subclade II are successively sister to
33 subclade I. Conflicting phylogenetic signals exist between coding and non-coding regions of
34 Laureae plastomes. Our study highlights the importance of evaluating the influence of non-
35 coding regions on tree topology and emphasizes the necessity of examining discordance among
36 different plastid loci in phylogenetic studies.

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38

39 Introduction

40 Gene tree discordance is relatively common in phylogenomic studies. The conflicts can be
41 caused by biological factors like incomplete lineage sorting (ILS), hybridization, horizontal gene
42 transfer, gene loss, and gene duplication (*Maddison, 1997; Sun et al., 2015; Gonçalves et al.,*
43 *2019; Sato et al., 2019*). Most relevant studies have focused on incongruent tree topologies
44 among different genomic compartments (*Sun et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2016; Walker et al., 2019*)
45 because these genes have evolved independently and their gene tree topologies have been
46 influenced by biological processes. By contrast, relatively few studies have focused on tree
47 conflicts among plastid genes (e.g., *Foster, Henwood & Ho, 2018; Gonçalves et al., 2019;*
48 *Walker et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020*). Usually, plastomes are considered to be uniparentally
49 inherited and to have evolved as a single unit, free from such biological sources of conflict
50 (*Birky, 1995; Wicke et al., 2011*). However, the branched and linear structure of plastid DNA,
51 which arose from recombination-dependent replication, is indicative of recombination
52 (*Oldenburg & Bendich, 2016; Ruhlman et al., 2017*). In addition, biparental inheritance and
53 heteroplasmy (e.g., the presence of different plastomes within an individual or a cell) have been
54 reported in seed plants (*Szmidt, Aldén & Hällgren, 1987; Johnson & Palmer, 1989; Reboud &*
55 *Zeyl, 1994; Carbonell-Caballero et al., 2015*). Heteroplasmy may, in rare cases, give rise to
56 heteroplasmic recombination, which has been invoked to explain gene tree discordance
57 (*Marshall, Newton & Ritland, 2001; Sullivan et al., 2017; Sancho et al., 2018*). In addition to
58 recombination events, the transfer of genes among plastid, mitochondrial and nuclear genomes;
59 positive selection; tree length (gene evolutionary rate); and GC content may also generate

60 phylogenomic conflict (e.g., *Stegemann et al., 2003; Smith, 2014; Wysocki et al., 2015; Piot et*
61 *al., 2018; Saarela et al., 2018; Foster, Henwood & Ho, 2018*). Aside from biological factors,
62 non-biological factors (e.g., outlier genes, uninformative loci, and gaps) may cause conflict as
63 well. For example, *Duvall, Burke & Clark (2020)* found that alternative topologies arose from
64 alignment gaps. Given that most studies assume no conflict and treat the plastome as a single
65 unit, taking biological and non-biological factors into consideration and quantifying the extent of
66 conflict among different plastid loci is of great importance (*Wolfe & Randle, 2004*).

67 Owing to the rapid development of next-generation sequencing (NGS), more plastomes are
68 becoming available at a reasonable cost, driving advances in phylogenomics and promoting a
69 more comprehensive understanding of plant evolution (*Li et al., 2019*). Phylogenetic
70 relationships among Lauraceae (*Song et al., 2017*), as well as many other groups (e.g., *Eserman*
71 *et al., 2014; Barrett et al., 2016*), have been well resolved using plastome data. In phylogenomic
72 studies of plastomes (*Guo et al., 2017; Gonçalves et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019*),
73 plastome coding genes have generally been used, and non-coding regions have been excluded.
74 Only a few studies have noted the potential impact of non-coding regions on tree topology.
75 *Parks, Cronn & Liston (2009)* revealed that the phylogenetic position of *Pinus albicaulis*
76 Engelm. based on complete plastomes differed from that based on exon sequences. A similar
77 situation also occurred for phylogenetic relationships within Rubiaceae (*Wikström, Bremer &*
78 *Rydin, 2020*), suggesting that there were conflicting phylogenetic signals between coding- and
79 non-coding regions. Because tree topology is the foundation of comparative studies that infer
80 biogeographic history, phylogenetic diversity and other evolutionary patterns (*Walker et al.,*

81 2019), the influence of non-coding regions on phylogenetic inference should be evaluated.

82 Both ILS and hybridization are at play in tree species, which generally have high rates of
83 outcrossing and large population sizes (*Petit & Hampe, 2006; Crowl et al., 2019*). Interspecific
84 hybrids have been described in *Persea* (tribe Perseeae, sister to tribe Cinnamomeae and tribe
85 Laureae), *Cinnamomum* and *Aiouea* (tribe Cinnamomeae) (*van der Werff, 1984; Rohwer et al.,*
86 *2019*). These processes are perhaps also problematic in Laureae. When combined, such
87 biological processes may make accurate inference of evolutionary relationships in Laureae
88 difficult. Unfortunately, previous phylogenomic studies of Laureae have ignored potential
89 conflicts among different plastid loci and the underlying processes that may have generated them
90 (*Zhao et al., 2018; Song et al., 2019; Tian, Ye & Song, 2019*). These characteristics make
91 Laureae an ideal group in which to explore intra-plastome conflict and its influence on
92 phylogenetic inference.

93 Tribe Laureae, a species-rich group in the family Lauraceae, is phylogenetically sister to tribe
94 Cinnamomeae (*Song et al., 2019*). It comprises approximately 500 species and 10 genera:
95 *Actinodaphne, Adenodaphne, Dodecadenia, Iteadaphne, Laurus, Lindera, Litsea, Neolitsea,*
96 *Parasassafras* and *Sinosassafras* (*van der Werff & Richter, 1996; Chanderbali, van der Werff &*
97 *Renner, 2001; Li et al., 2004; Li et al., 2008b*). Species of this tribe are evergreen or deciduous
98 and usually occur in the form of trees or shrubs (*Li et al., 2008a*). Their distribution ranges from
99 the Mediterranean region, Asia, and Oceania to North America (*Li et al., 2004*). Some members
100 of Laureae have great ecological and economic value. For example, *Neolitsea sericea* (Bl.)
101 Koidz. is a dominant species found in various evergreen and deciduous broadleaf mixed forests

102 and in evergreen broadleaf forests (*Wang et al., 2009*), and *Laurus nobilis* L. has been used in
103 remedies for centuries (*Nayak et al., 2006*).

104 Although Laureae is monophyletic, generic delimitation within this tribe remains unclear
105 (*Kostermans, 1957; Hutchinson, 1964; Li et al., 2008b*). *Adenodaphne*, endemic to New
106 Caledonia, is closely related to *Litsea* (*Chanderbali, van der Werff & Renner, 2001*). However,
107 morphological confusion still exists between this genus and *Litsea*, meaning that their
108 distinctiveness and the monophyly of *Adenodaphne* require further study (*Chanderbali, van der*
109 *Werff & Renner, 2001*). *Actinodaphne* is polyphyletic and closely related to the monophyletic
110 genus *Neolitsea* (*Li et al., 2007; Li et al., 2008b; Fijridiyanto & Murakami, 2009a, 2009b*).

111 Although *Fijridiyanto & Murakami (2009a, 2009b)* argued that *Actinodaphne* was
112 monophyletic, the species of *Actinodaphne* sampled in their analyses were totally different from
113 those sampled in *Li et al. (2007)* and *Li et al. (2008b)*. Furthermore, *Lindera* and *Litsea* have
114 been shown to be polyphyletic, with *Dodecadenia, Iteadaphne, Laurus, Parasassafras* and
115 *Sinosassafras* nested within them (*Li et al., 2004; Li et al., 2008b*). *Liu et al. (2017)* used three
116 plastid barcode loci combined with the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region for species
117 identification and found that the Laureae tree was polytomic. Despite these efforts, phylogenetic
118 relationships among and within these genera have been poorly resolved based on molecular
119 markers like the ITS, the external transcribed spacer (ETS), *matK*, *trnL-F* and *trnH-psbA*.
120 Compared with these molecular markers, complete plastomes have better performance at the
121 species level within Laureae, although generic delimitation still remains unclear due to limited
122 taxon sampling (*Zhao et al., 2018; Song et al., 2019; Tian, Ye & Song, 2019*).

123 Thirty-five plastomes representing 28 species and six genera of Laureae have been published
124 (Table S1). Compared with the vast diversity of Laureae, the published plastome data for this
125 group are relatively limited. Hence, we now report 12 newly sequenced plastomes (Table 1) and
126 combine them with existing plastomes to address three primary goals: (1) reinvestigation of
127 phylogenetic relationships within Laureae; (2) examination of conflict between coding and non-
128 coding regions; and (3) quantification of conflicts among different plastid loci.

129

130 **Methods**

131 **Plant materials, DNA extraction and genome sequencing**

132 Materials from 12 species in five genera (*Actinodaphne obovata* (Nees) Bl., *Iteadaphne caudata*
133 (Nees) H. W. Li, *Lindera erythrocarpa* Makino, *Litsea acutivena* Hay., *L. elongata* (Wall. ex
134 Nees) Benth. et Hook. f., *L. glutinosa* (Lour.) C. B. Rob., *L. dilleniifolia* P. Y. Pai et P. H.
135 Huang, *L. mollis* Hemsl., *L. monopetala* (Roxb.) Pers., *L. pungens* Hemsl., *L. szemaois* (H. Liu)
136 J. Li et H.W. Li, and *Neolitsea pallens* (D. Don) Momiy. et H. Hara) (tribe Laureae, Lauraceae)
137 were collected and identified by the authors (Table 1). Voucher specimens were deposited in the
138 herbarium of the South China Botanical Garden (IBSC) at the Chinese Academy of Sciences. No
139 specific permissions were required for the relevant locations and activities. Including the
140 plastomes downloaded from GenBank and the Lauraceae Chloroplast Genome Database
141 (LCGDB, <https://lcgdb.wordpress.com>) (Table S1), this study included 47 Laureae plastomes,
142 representing seven genera and all subclades identified by *Song et al. (2019)*. Twelve plastomes
143 from other tribes were also downloaded (Table S1).

144 Genomic DNA was extracted from silica-gel-dried leaf tissue using the cetyl trimethyl
145 ammonium bromide (CTAB) method (*Doyle & Doyle, 1987*). The yields of genomic DNA
146 extracts were quantified by fluorometric quantification on a Qubit instrument (Invitrogen,
147 Carlsbad, California, USA) using the dsDNA HS kit, and the DNA size distribution was assessed
148 visually on a 1% agarose gel. DNA libraries with an average insert size of 270 bp were prepared
149 by the Beijing Genomics Institute (BGI, Shenzhen, China). Paired-end reads of 2×151 bp were
150 generated on the Illumina X ten sequencing system (Illumina Inc.).

151

152 **Plastid genome assembly, annotation and comparison**

153 Low-quality reads and adaptors were removed using Trimmomatic v0.36 (*Bolger, Lohse &*
154 *Usadel, 2014*), generating approximately 3 Gb of high-quality clean reads per sample. The clean
155 reads were analyzed for quality control with FastQC (*Andrews, 2010*) and then used to assemble
156 plastomes with NOVOPlasty v2.7.2 (*Dierckxsens, Mardulyn & Smits, 2016*). To guarantee
157 assembly quality, clean reads were mapped to the assembled plastid genomes using the Burrows-
158 Wheeler Aligner (BWA 0.7.17-r1188 (*Li & Durbin, 2010*)) and samtools 1.9 (*Li et al., 2009*),
159 and were visually checked in Geneious Prime 2019.1.

160 Plastome annotation was performed using the program GeSeq - Annotation of Organellar
161 Genomes (*Tillich et al., 2017*). Start and stop codons were inspected and manually adjusted in
162 Geneious Prime when necessary. Plastomes were submitted to GenBank (MN274947,
163 MN428456–MN428466). Maps of all 12 plastomes were drawn using the
164 OrganellarGenomeDRAW tool (OGDRAW) (*Lohse et al., 2013*). A summary of the newly

165 sequenced plastomes is presented in Table 2.

166 To illustrate interspecific sequence variation within Laureae, plastomes of *A. obovata*, *I.*
167 *caudata*, *Laurus nobilis* (KY085912), *Lindera erythrocarpa*, *Litsea acutivena*, *N. pallens* and
168 *Parasassafras confertiflorum* (Meisn.) D. G. Long (MH729378) were aligned using MAFFT
169 (*Katoh & Standley, 2013*) with default settings. Sequence identity was plotted with the mVISTA
170 program using the LAGAN mode (*Frazer et al., 2004*), with *Lindera glauca* (Siebold et Zucc.)
171 Bl. (MF188124) as a reference.

172

173 **Phylogenetic reconstruction and tests for selection**

174 To evaluate potential conflicts, phylogenetic trees were constructed using maximum likelihood
175 (ML) methods based on six datasets: (1) complete plastome (cp), (2) coding regions (CDS), (3)
176 non-coding regions (non-CDS), (4) large single copy region (LSC), (5) small single copy region
177 (SSC), and (6) one inverted repeat region (IR).

178 Sequences were aligned using MAFFT with default settings and manually edited with BioEdit
179 v7.2.5 (*Hall, 1999*) when necessary. The best-fitting DNA substitution models for the six
180 unpartitioned datasets were selected using ModelTest-NG (*Darriba et al., 2020*) under the
181 corrected Akaike Information Criterion (AICc). The aligned sequences and selected DNA
182 substitution models were used for ML analyses, and ML trees were constructed using RAxML-
183 NG (*Kozlov et al., 2019*). We also implemented a partitioning strategy on two datasets, the cp
184 with one IR region removed (cp-reduced) and CDS (configuration details shown in Supplemental
185 File 1). The best partition schemes were inferred with PartitionFinder 2 (*Lanfear et al., 2016*),

186 and the best partition schemes and models for each partition were used for ML analyses in
187 RAxML-NG.

188 Because gaps can affect tree topology (Duvall, Burke & Clark, 2020), we also performed the
189 following analysis based on the cp dataset. ‘Mask Alignment’ in Geneious Prime was used to
190 strip the gaps from the MAFFT alignment, with the threshold set to 0 (no gaps), 2%, 10%, 20%,
191 50% or 75%. The resulting alignments were used to infer ML trees in RAxML-NG.

192 Positive selection on plastid coding genes has the potential to bias phylogenies (e.g., Piot *et*
193 *al.*, 2018; Saarela *et al.*, 2018), and we therefore performed natural selection tests using
194 CODEML in PAML 4.9j (Yang, 2007). Coding genes were extracted and aligned in Geneious
195 Prime using MAFFT, stop codons were removed manually, and the aligned sequences were
196 converted to paml format. To statistically test for positive selection, we compared the
197 performance of two branch models (M0 and M2) for each gene. Three foreground branches were
198 labeled on the unpartitioned CDS ML tree. Likelihood ratio tests (LRT) were performed using
199 pchisq function in R 3.6.2 (R Core Team, 2018).

200

201 **Node support investigation and tree topology tests**

202 Because gene contents were not identical among Cryptocaryeae, *Cassytha*, *Caryodaphnopsis*,
203 *Neocinnamomum* and other clades, the following analyses were performed using a dataset from
204 which six plastomes had been removed (*Beilschmiedia pauciflora* H. W. Li, *Caryodaphnopsis*
205 *malipoensis* Bing Liu et Y. Yang, *Cassytha filiformis* L., *Cryptocarya chinensis* (Hance) Hemsl.
206 and *Eusideroxylon zwageri* Teijsm. et Binn.).

207 We extracted all loci (coding regions, introns, tRNA, rRNA and intergenic spacers) using a
208 python script (*Jin, 2019*) and aligned them using MAFFT with default settings. These alignments
209 were used to infer gene trees by rapid bootstrap analyses (option -f a) in RAxML (*Stamatakis,*
210 *2014*) with the GTRGAMMA model. The number of bootstrap replicates was set to 1000, as
211 *Simmons & Kessenich (2019)* have suggested that fewer replicates may be insufficient to find the
212 optimal gene tree topology. The best-scoring ML trees were used to estimate the species tree
213 with local posterior probability (LPP) (*Sayyari & Mirarab, 2016*) in ASTRAL III (*Zhang et al.,*
214 *2018*).

215 We performed constrained maximum likelihood analyses in IQ-TREE (*Nguyen et al., 2014*)
216 to obtain the ML trees that supported different topologies. To understand which loci supported
217 the alternative topologies, we calculated site-wise log-likelihood values for each topology in
218 RAxML using option “-f G”. After obtaining site-wise lnL differences, we converted site-wise
219 differences to locus-wise lnL differences ($\Delta\ln L$) in R 3.6.2. The lnL differences were plotted
220 against each locus using ggplot2 (*Wickham, 2016*). It has been suggested that loci with an
221 absolute $\Delta\ln L > 2$ are statistically significant (*Edwards, 1984*). Therefore, we conducted separate
222 ML analyses on datasets from which these loci (absolute $\Delta\ln L > 2$) had been removed to test
223 whether small subsets of sequence matrices determined tree topology (*Shen, Hittinger & Rokas,*
224 *2017*).

225 The Kishino–Hasegawa test (KH test) (*Kishino & Hasegawa, 1989*), Shimodaira-Hasegawa
226 test (SH test) (*Shimodaira & Hasegawa, 1999*) and Approximately-Unbiased test (AU test)
227 (*Shimodaira, 2002*) were used in IQ-TREE to assess the statistical significance of incongruence

228 based on complete plastomes (including only one copy of the IR regions). We specified 10,000
229 RELL (resampling of estimated log-likelihoods) replicates for the topological tests.

230

231 **Results**

232 **Plastome features of Laureae**

233 The sizes of the 12 newly generated Laureae plastid genomes ranged from 152,132 bp (*Litsea*
234 *szemaois*) to 152,916 bp (*Lindera erythrocarpa*) (Table 2), similar to previously published
235 Laureae plastomes (152,211–153,011 bp, Table S1). All had a typical quadripartite structure and
236 were assembled into a single, circular and double-stranded DNA sequence (Fig. 1). The length of
237 the LSC, SSC and IR regions ranged from 93,119 bp (*Litsea szemaois*) to 93,921 bp (*Lindera*
238 *erythrocarpa*), 18,796 bp (*N. pallens*) to 18,936 bp (*Litsea mollis*), and 20,057 bp (*A. obovata*) to
239 20,144 bp (*I. caudata*), respectively, with little variation in size (Table 2). The overall GC
240 contents ranged from 39.1% to 39.2%. GC content was unequally distributed within the
241 plastomes; it was highest in IR regions (44.4–44.5%), moderate in LSC regions (37.9–38.1%),
242 and lowest in SSC regions (33.8–34.0%, Table 2).

243 The 12 newly sequenced plastomes contained 112 single-copy genes: 78 protein-coding
244 genes, 30 tRNA genes, and 4 rRNA genes (Table 2 and Table S2). Sixteen genes had one intron,
245 and two genes had two introns. There were 13 duplicated genes in the IR regions (Table S2), and
246 *rps12*, *ycf1*, and *ycf2* were partly duplicated in the IR regions (Fig. 1).

247

248 **Phylogenetic reconstruction and positive selection tests**

249 The GTR+I+G4 model was selected for the six unpartitioned datasets (cp, CDS, non-CDS, LSC,

250 SSC and IR). Perseeae was sister to Cinnamomeae and Laureae (Figs. 2 and S1-S5). All the ML
251 trees indicated the monophyly of Laureae with high bootstrap (BS) support values (99–100%,
252 Figs. 2 and S1-S4), except for the ML tree based on the IR region (71%, Fig. S5). This result was
253 caused by the low variability of the IR region (Fig. S6). In the five ML trees (Figs. 2 and S1-S4),
254 Laureae was divided into three groups. Subclade I included *Lindera communis* Hemsl., *L. glauca*
255 and *L. nacusua* (D. Don) Merr.; subclade II included *Laurus azorica* (Seub.) Franco, *L. nobilis*,
256 *Lindera megaphylla* Hemsl., *Litsea acutivena*, *L. glutinosa*, *L. monopetala* and *L. pungens*; and
257 subclade III included the other Laureae species used in the study. In subclade I, *Lindera glauca*
258 was sister to *L. communis* and *L. nacusua*. In subclade II, *Laurus* was sister to *Litsea acutivena*,
259 *L. glutinosa* and *Lindera megaphylla*, and the position of *Litsea pungens* was unstable (Figs. 2
260 and S1-S4). *Litsea monopetala* (LAU00063) was embedded within three samples of *Litsea*
261 *glutinosa* in subclade II, highlighting the necessity of re-identification for *L. monopetala*
262 (LAU00063). Topologies within subclade III based on different datasets were largely congruent
263 (Figs. 2 and S1-S4). In subclade III, samples of *Litsea*, together with *Lindera obtusiloba* Bl.,
264 were monophyletic. *Lindera erythrocarpa*, *L. latifolia* Hook. f., *L. metcalfiana* Allen and *L.*
265 *robusta* (Allen) Tsui were monophyletic as well. *Lindera aggregata*, *L. chunii* Merr., *L. fragrans*
266 Oliv., *L. limprichtii* H. Winkl., *L. pulcherrima* (Wall.) Benth., *L. supracostata* Lec., *L. thomsonii*
267 Allen and *L. thomsonii* var. *vernayana* (Allen) H.P. Tsui formed a well-supported clade.
268 *Neolitsea* was closer to *Actinodaphne* than to other Laureae species.

269 Subclade II was sister to subclade I based on four unpartitioned datasets (cp, non-CDS, LSC,
270 SSC; Figs. 2 and S2-S4, respectively). However, subclade II was sister to subclade III rather than

271 subclade I based on the unpartitioned CDS dataset (Fig. S1). Both topologies were strongly
272 supported.

273 The sister relationship of subclades I and II was confirmed in the ML tree based on
274 partitioned plastomes (one IR removed, cp-reduced dataset; Fig. S7), and subclade II was sister
275 to subclade III in the ML tree based on the partitioned CDS dataset (Fig. S8), indicating that
276 partitioning did not affect our tree topology.

277 The sister relationship of subclades I and II (BS values ranging from 80% to 92%) was
278 consistently revealed even as the percentage of gaps increased (Table S3), indicating that gaps
279 had no impact on our tree topology.

280 LRT showed that the dN/dS ratios of labeled lineages (subclades I, II and III) were not
281 significantly different from background ($p > 0.05$), of which dN/dS ratios were less than one (Table
282 S4), suggesting that there was no positive selection on the plastid genes.

283

284 **Investigating incongruent nodes and differences in tree topology**

285 The tree topology inferred from ASTRAL III (Fig. 3) was largely congruent with that of the ML
286 trees (Figs. 2 and S1–S4), except that the former showed a sister relationship of subclade I and
287 subclade III. We performed constrained maximum likelihood analyses in IQ-TREE and obtained
288 three suboptimal ML trees that supported the subclade II–subclade I (called T1 hereafter),
289 subclade II–subclade III (T2) and subclade I–subclade III (T3) affinities. We extracted 243 loci
290 and assessed how each locus supported one of the three topologies by examining the gene-wise
291 log-likelihoods (Fig. 4). T1 was strongly supported by six loci (*rpoC1* intron, *trnG-trnfM*, *ndhA*

292 intron, *psaJ-rpl33*, *rpl2-rpl23* and *petN-psbM*; absolute $\Delta\ln L > 2$); T2 was strongly supported by
293 three loci (*psaB*, *trnS-ycf3* and *ycf2*; absolute $\Delta\ln L > 2$); and T3 was moderately supported by
294 one locus (*clpP* intron1; absolute $\Delta\ln L > 1$ and < 2) (Table S5). The sum of absolute $\Delta\ln L$ of T1
295 was higher than that of T2 and T3 (Fig. 4), suggesting that our data support the topology of T1
296 rather than T2 or T3. After the removal of six loci (*rpoC1* intron, *trnG-trnfM*, *ndhA* intron, *psaJ-*
297 *rpl33*, *rpl2-rpl23* and *petN-psbM*), a sister relationship of subclade II and subclade III was
298 revealed (Fig. S9). After the removal of three loci (*psaB*, *trnS-ycf3*, and *ycf2*), subclade II was
299 sister to subclade I (Fig. S10). These results underscore the decisive role played by small subsets
300 of loci in phylogenetic inference.

301 The topological tests showed that T2 did not differ significantly from T1 ($p > 0.05$, Table S6).
302 T3 was statistically rejected by the KH and AU tests ($p < 0.05$) but not by the Shimodaira-
303 Hasegawa (SH) test ($p = 0.0505$). That T3 was rejected according to the KH and AU tests
304 suggests that the sister relationship between subclades I and III may be misleading.

305

306 Discussion

307 Plastome features

308 It has been noted that most plastid genomes of land plants and algae range from 120 to 160
309 kilobase pairs (kb) in length (*Palmer, 1985*). In this study, the plastid genome sizes of 12 species
310 from five Laureae genera ranged from 152,132 bp to 152,916 bp, indicating that plastid genome
311 size was conserved within Laureae. GC content was highest in the IR region rather than in the
312 single copy regions, owing to the presence of a ribosomal RNA gene cluster in the IR region,

313 consistent with a previous study (Huotari & Korpelainen, 2012). GC contents of the IR, LSC and
314 SSC regions of the newly sequenced plastomes were identical to those of nine *Lindera* species
315 studied earlier (Zhao *et al.*, 2018). In contrast to the gene losses recognized in several Lauraceae
316 lineages (Song *et al.*, 2017), our analysis revealed that gene content among Laureae was highly
317 conserved. Song *et al.* (2017) suggested that plastome contraction in Lauraceae was largely
318 driven by fragment loss events in the IR regions. In our study, we found no gene loss among
319 Laureae plastomes.

320

321 **Phylogenetic relationships within Laureae**

322 Previous phylogenetic studies (Song *et al.*, 2017; Zhao *et al.*, 2018) based on complete plastomes
323 suggested that Laureae was sister to Cinnamomeae and that together they were sister to Perseeae.
324 The same phylogenetic relationships among these groups were recognized in our study (Figs. 2
325 and 3). In previous work, *Actinodaphne* and *Neolitsea* were resolved as monophyletic groups
326 based on *matK*, ITS and *rpb2* (Fijridiyanto & Murakami, 2009a, 2009b), but *Actinodaphne* was
327 not a monophyletic group based on complete plastid genomes (Song *et al.*, 2019). In this study,
328 the non-monophyletic status of *Actinodaphne* was supported. The conclusion of *Actinodaphne*
329 monophyly may have been caused by sampling bias in previous studies (Fijridiyanto &
330 Murakami, 2009b, 2009a). The monophyly of *Neolitsea* can be neither rejected nor supported in
331 the present study. *Actinodaphne cupularis* (Hemsl.) Gamble was grouped with *Neolitsea*
332 *oblongifolia* Merr. et Chun, *N. pallens* and *N. chui* Merr. with low bootstrap support (54%; Fig.
333 2), and sampling of *Neolitsea* and related genera was limited. *Lindera* and *Litsea* were

334 polyphyletic in our analysis, consistent with previous studies (*Li et al., 2008b; Fijridiyanto &*
335 *Murakami, 2009b*). The phylogenetic position of *P. confertiflorum* was unresolved based on ETS
336 and ITS (*Li et al., 2008b*), and the ambiguity of its position still remains, despite the integration
337 of complete plastid genomes in our analysis and a previous study (*Liao, Ye & Song, 2018*).

338 Subclade III was sister to subclade I and II in our study, consistent with previous analyses
339 (*Zhao et al., 2018; Song et al., 2019; Tian, Ye & Song, 2019*). The three *Lindera* species in
340 subclade I share common morphological traits, such as alternate and pinninerved leaves, a
341 persistent involucre, vegetative terminal buds in inflorescences and 3-merous flowers (*Li et al.,*
342 *2008a*). However, these characters also occur in several members of the other two subclades
343 (e.g., *Lindera benzoin* (L.) Bl. and *Laurus nobilis*), perhaps resulting from convergent and/or
344 parallel evolution (*Li et al., 2008b*). These traits are not good indicators for delimiting the three
345 subclades of Laureae. In subclade III, the trinerved or triplinerved species of *Lindera* (*Lindera*
346 *aggregata, L. chunii, L. fragrans, L. limprichtii, L. pulcherrima, L. supracostata, L. thomsonii*
347 and *L. thomsonii* var. *vernayana*) formed a well-supported clade in both our study and that of
348 *Tian, Ye & Song (2019)*. However, triplinerved leaves also exist in most species of *Neolitsea* (*Li*
349 *et al., 2008b; Li et al., 2008a*). Therefore, traditional morphological traits are of limited use in
350 taxon delimitation, even within subclades of Laureae. Given the limited samples and data in our
351 analyses, more sampling and DNA sequences are needed to further elucidate the relationships
352 within Laureae.

353

354 **Phylogenetic incongruence in the plastome**

355 Although many studies have treated plastid protein-coding genes or the complete plastome as a
356 single unit (e.g., *Song et al., 2019; Tian, Ye & Song, 2019*), potential conflicts among sequence
357 types (i.e., coding vs. non-coding regions) have been reported in several studies. By comparing
358 phylogenies based on complete plastomes and coding regions (*Yu et al., 2017*), it was inferred
359 that non-coding regions did not significantly influence the tree topology of Theaceae. By
360 contrast, non-coding regions had an impact on the phylogenetic relationships of several tribes in
361 Rubiaceae (*Wikström, Bremer & Rydin, 2020*) and subtribes in Poaceae (*Saarela et al., 2018*). A
362 conflicting signal between coding and non-coding regions was also reported in Leguminosae
363 (*Zhang et al., 2020*). In this study, inclusion of non-coding regions altered tree topology in the
364 tribe Laureae, suggesting the existence of a conflicting signal between coding and non-coding
365 regions. Non-coding regions are often discarded for being uninformative, or for being misleading
366 due to saturation at deep time scales (*Foster, Henwood & Ho, 2018*). In our study, tree
367 topologies based on coding and non-coding regions were largely congruent, except for the
368 relationships among the three subclades (Figs. S1–S2), indicating that non-coding regions are as
369 informative as coding regions in Laureae. Thus, it is imperative to evaluate the influence of non-
370 coding regions on tree topology rather than treating the whole plastome as a single unit or simply
371 excluding non-coding regions from phylogenetic analysis.

372 To accommodate the conflicts among different plastid regions, a species tree was inferred
373 through summary coalescent analysis. It has been suggested that the coalescent method is more
374 robust than the concatenation method when the level of ILS is high (*Liu, Xi & Davis, 2014;*
375 *Mirarab, Bayzid & Warnow, 2014*). High ILS tends to occur when the time interval between

376 consecutive speciation events is short (*Sun et al., 2015; Sato et al., 2019*), and the core
377 Lauraceae group (Perseeae, Cinnamomeae and Laureae) is thought to have undergone a rapid
378 radiation (*Chanderbali, van der Werff & Renner, 2001; Rohwer & Rudolph, 2005; Nie, Wen &*
379 *Sun, 2007*). We therefore chose to implement the coalescent method. Nonetheless, it should be
380 noted that, with this method, short and uninformative loci may lead to problematic gene trees and
381 therefore result in a less accurate species tree (*Xi, Liu & Davis, 2015; Springer & Gatesy, 2016*).
382 In our study, only nine of 243 loci (*rpoC1* intron, *trnG-trnfM*, *ndhA* intron, *psaJ-rpl33*, *rpl2-*
383 *rpl23*, *petN-psbM*, *psaB*, *trnS-ycf3*, and *ycf2*) had a strong phylogenetic signal at the contentious
384 node. The other 234 loci with weak phylogenetic signals may have resulted in gene trees with
385 uncertainties and led to inaccurate topology at this node.

386 Exploration of the factors that underlie conflicts in phylogenetic signals is of great
387 importance—but it is also challenging. Previous studies have examined whether biological and
388 non-biological factors contribute to such conflicts (e.g., *Duvall, Burke & Clark, 2020; Zhang et*
389 *al., 2020*). For example, gaps have been found to cause alternate, but conflicting topologies in
390 Poaceae (*Duvall, Burke & Clark, 2020*). However, the inclusion of alignment gaps did not alter
391 our tree topology (Table S3). Although previous studies indicated that partitioning improves
392 phylogenetic inference (*Xi et al., 2012*), ML tree topologies based on partitioned and
393 unpartitioned datasets did not differ significantly in our study. It has been suggested that plastid
394 genes under positive selection may bias phylogenies (e.g., *Piot et al., 2018; Saarela et al., 2018*).
395 Although *psaB* and *ycf2* were shown to influence topology, neither gene evolved under positive
396 selection, suggesting that natural selection is not the cause of the conflict. In this study, the low

397 support values and short branch lengths of the estimated species tree (Fig. 3) suggested that each
398 locus had a significantly incongruent topology and may indicate the existence of ILS. High
399 levels of ILS are thought to yield similar numbers of loci supporting alternative topologies
400 (*Huson et al., 2005*). In our study, the numbers of loci supporting each topology were different
401 (six for T1, three for T2, and zero for T3 after exclusion of loci with absolute $\Delta\ln L \leq 2$),
402 suggesting that ILS may not be the primary cause of the discordance among loci. Another
403 plausible explanation for the conflict is heteroplasmic recombination, which can occur in species
404 with biparental plastome inheritance (*Walker et al., 2019*). Although heteroplasmic
405 recombination has been reported with clear evidence in *Brachypodium* and *Picea* (*Sullivan et al.,*
406 *2017; Sancho et al., 2018*), to our knowledge it has never been documented in Lauraceae. Based
407 on the data reported here, it is too early to draw a firm conclusion about the causes of the conflict
408 in phylogenetic signals. Although fully resolved phylogenies may still remain elusive based on
409 different genomic compartments (i.e., nuclear, mitochondrial and plastid), phylogenomic studies
410 that incorporate these compartments can provide new insights into tree discordance and its
411 underlying causes (*Koenen et al., 2020*). Therefore, more genetic information (e.g., nuclear
412 genes) will be required to solve this problem in future work.

413

414 **Conclusion**

415 In summary, this study revealed that Laureae plastomes are conserved in structure, size and gene
416 content. A conflicting phylogenetic signal was detected between coding and non-coding regions,
417 suggesting that the plastid genome should not be treated as a single unit. ML trees based on

418 coding and non-coding regions were largely congruent except at the contentious node, indicating
419 that coding regions are as informative as non-coding regions and that the influence of non-coding
420 regions on tree inference should be evaluated. We also found that small subsets of plastome loci
421 determined the topology at specific nodes, consistent with the results of a previous study (*Shen,*
422 *Hittinger & Rokas, 2017*). Through quantification and analysis of intra-plastome conflicts, the
423 sister relationship of subclade I (including *Lindera communis*, *L. glauca* and *L. nacusua*) and II
424 (including *Laurus azorica*, *L. nobilis*, *Lindera megaphylla*, *Litsea acutivena*, *L. glutinosa*, *L.*
425 *monopetala* and *L. pungens*) was supported by our study. Biological factors may contribute to
426 the conflicts among plastid loci; however, more information is needed to determine the
427 underlying mechanism(s).

428

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- 669

Table 1 (on next page)

Sampled species and voucher specimens of Laureae in this study.

1

| Taxon | Herbarium | Voucher | Geographic origin | GenBank Accession number |
|--|------------------|----------------|--|---|
| <i>Actinodaphne obovata</i> (Nees) Bl. | IBSC | XTBGLQM0236 | Xishuangbanna, Yunnan, China | MN274947 |
| <i>Iteadaphne caudata</i> (Nees) H. W. Li | IBSC | XTBGLQM0582 | Xishuangbanna, Yunnan, China | MN428456 |
| <i>Lindera erythrocarpa</i> Makino | IBSC | 180923 | Baishanzu Mountain, Zhejiang, China | MN428457 |
| <i>Litsea acutivena</i> Hay. | \ | \ | Chebaling, Guangdong, China | MN428458 |
| <i>Litsea dilleniifolia</i> P. Y. Pai et P. H. Huang | IBSC | XTBGLQM0095 | Xishuangbanna, Yunnan, China | MN428459 |
| <i>Litsea elongata</i> (Wall. ex Nees) Benth. et Hook. f. | IBSC | WBGQXJ001 | Badagong Mountain, Hunan, China | MN428460 |
| <i>Litsea glutinosa</i> (Lour.) C. B. Rob. | IBSC | XTBGLQM0653 | Xishuangbanna, Yunnan, China | MN428461 |
| <i>Litsea mollis</i> Hemsl. | IBSC | CFL2678 | Libo county, Guizhou, China | MN428462 |
| <i>Litsea monopetala</i> (Roxb.) Pers. | IBSC | XTBGLQM0687 | Xishuangbanna, Yunnan, China | MN428463 |
| <i>Litsea pungens</i> Hemsl. | IBSC | WBGQXJ124 | Badagong Mountain, Hunan, China | MN428464 |
| <i>Litsea szemaonis</i> (H. Liu) J. Li et H.W. Li | IBSC | XTBGLQM0692 | Xishuangbanna, Yunnan, China | MN428465 |
| <i>Neolitsea pallens</i> (D. Don) Momiy. et H. Hara | IBSC | 18371 | Dinghu Mountain, Guangdong, China | MN428466 |

2

Table 2 (on next page)

Summary of 12 complete plastomes of Laureae.

1

| | <i>Actinodaphne obovata</i> | <i>Iteadaphne caudata</i> | <i>Lindera erythrocarpa</i> | <i>Litsea acutivena</i> | <i>Litsea elongata</i> | <i>Litsea glutinosa</i> |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Total cpDNA size (bp) | 152579 | 152863 | 152916 | 152718 | 152793 | 152748 |
| Length of LSC region (bp) | 93655 | 93761 | 93921 | 93677 | 93827 | 93698 |
| Length of IR region (bp) | 20057 | 20144 | 20071 | 20066 | 20066 | 20062 |
| Length of SSC region (bp) | 18810 | 18814 | 18853 | 18909 | 18844 | 18926 |
| Total GC content (%) | 39.1 | 39.1 | 39.1 | 39.2 | 39.1 | 39.2 |
| LSC GC content (%) | 37.9 | 38.0 | 37.9 | 38.0 | 37.9 | 38.0 |
| IR GC content (%) | 44.4 | 44.4 | 44.4 | 44.4 | 44.4 | 44.5 |
| SSC GC content (%) | 33.9 | 33.8 | 34.0 | 33.9 | 33.9 | 33.8 |
| Total number of genes (unique) | 127 (112) | 127 (112) | 127 (112) | 127 (112) | 127 (112) | 127 (112) |
| Protein-coding genes (unique) | 84 (78) | 84 (78) | 84 (78) | 84 (78) | 84 (78) | 84 (78) |
| Total number of tRNA | 36 (30) | 36 (30) | 36 (30) | 36 (30) | 36 (30) | 36 (30) |
| Total number of rRNA | 8 (4) | 8 (4) | 8 (4) | 8 (4) | 8 (4) | 8 (4) |

2

| | <i>Litsea dillenifolia</i> | <i>Litsea mollis</i> | <i>Litsea monopetala</i> | <i>Litsea pungens</i> | <i>Litsea szemaois</i> | <i>Neolitsea pallens</i> |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| Total cpDNA size (bp) | 152298 | 152736 | 152705 | 152655 | 152132 | 152699 |
| Length of LSC region (bp) | 93218 | 93655 | 93758 | 93520 | 93119 | 93761 |
| Length of IR region (bp) | 20094 | 20063 | 20074 | 20131 | 20090 | 20071 |
| Length of SSC region (bp) | 18892 | 18936 | 18799 | 18873 | 18843 | 18796 |
| Total GC content (%) | 39.2 | 39.2 | 39.2 | 39.2 | 39.2 | 39.1 |
| LSC GC content (%) | 38.0 | 38.0 | 38.0 | 37.9 | 38.1 | 37.9 |
| IR GC content (%) | 44.4 | 44.4 | 44.4 | 44.4 | 44.4 | 44.4 |
| SSC GC content (%) | 34.0 | 33.9 | 33.9 | 34.0 | 34.0 | 33.9 |
| Total number of genes (unique) | 127 (112) | 127 (112) | 127 (112) | 127 (112) | 127 (112) | 127 (112) |
| Protein-coding genes (unique) | 84 (78) | 84 (78) | 84 (78) | 84 (78) | 84 (78) | 84 (78) |
| Total number of tRNA | 36 (30) | 36 (30) | 36 (30) | 36 (30) | 36 (30) | 36 (30) |
| Total number of rRNA | 8 (4) | 8 (4) | 8 (4) | 8 (4) | 8 (4) | 8 (4) |

3

Figure 1

Complete plastid genome map of *Laureae*.

Different functional genes are color coded. Genes outside the circle are transcribed counterclockwise, genes inside the circle are transcribed clockwise. GC content is indicated by darker gray in the inner circle.

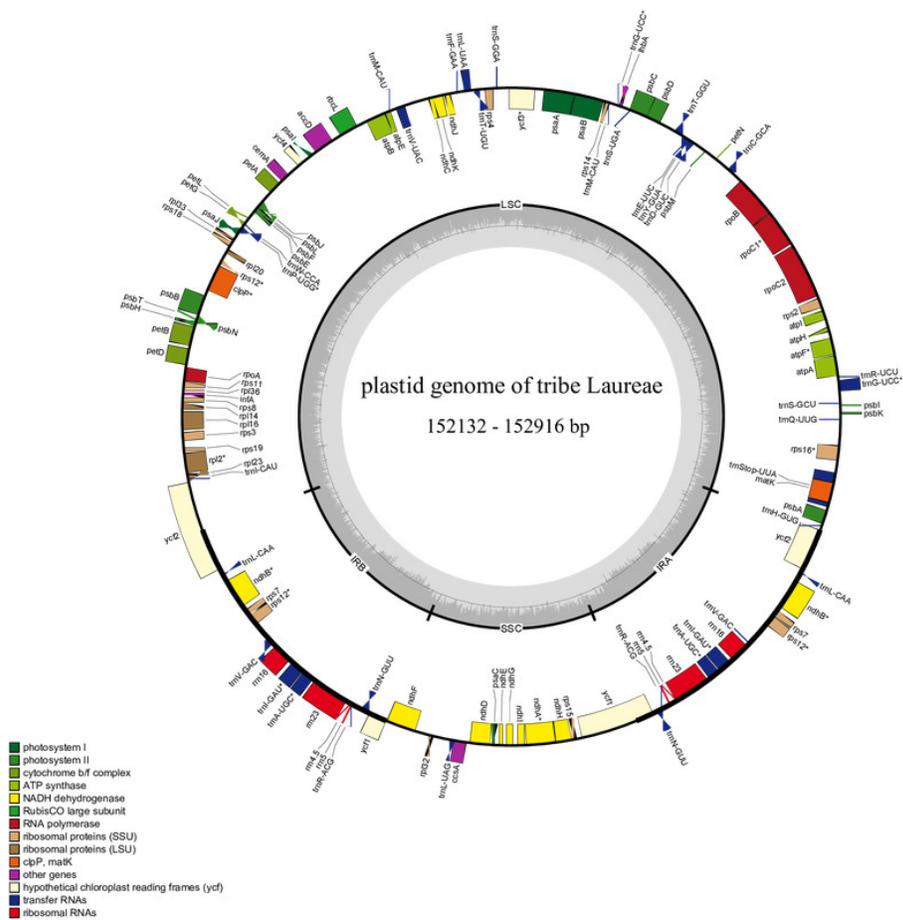


Figure 2

Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree of Laureae inferred with RAxML-NG based on complete plastomes.

Bootstrap values are indicated on branches. Subclades I, II and III are colored in red, green and blue, respectively.

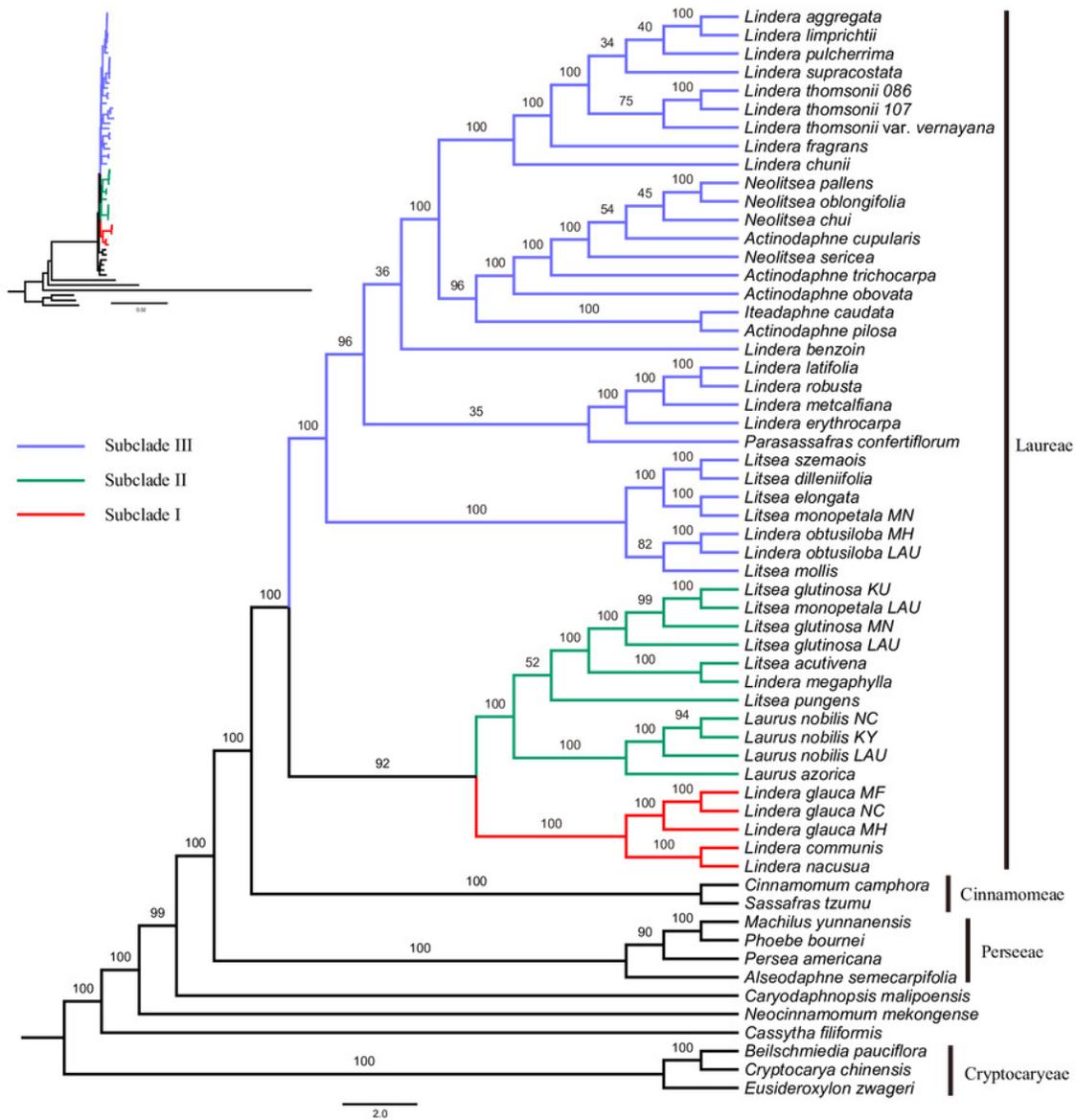


Figure 3

Tree of Laureae inferred with ASTRAL III using a multispecies coalescent approach.

Local posterior probabilities (LPP) are indicated on branches. Subclades I, II and III are colored in red, green and blue, respectively.

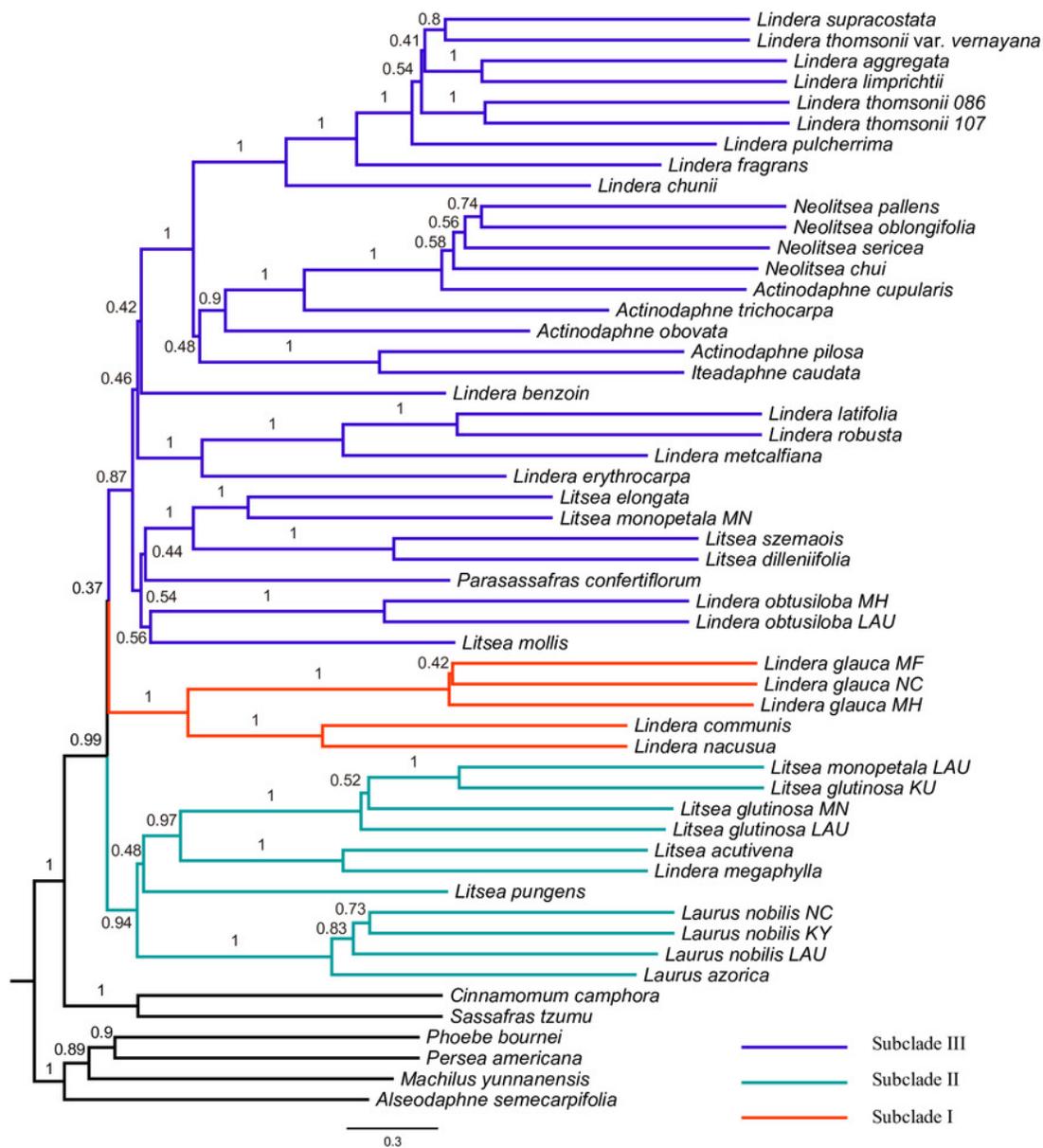


Figure 4

Difference in the log-likelihood (lnL) of each plastid locus between two alternative topologies.

The x axis indicates each locus, and the y axis indicates lnL difference. (A) Positive and negative values support the topology showing subclades I-II (T1) and subclades II-III (T2), respectively. (B) Positive and negative values support the topology showing subclades I-II (T1) and subclades I-III (T3), respectively. (C) Positive and negative values support the topology showing subclades II-III (T2) and subclades I-III (T3), respectively. Values starting with + or - indicate the sum of positive and negative values, respectively, and the number of supporting loci is shown in the parenthesis. Note that the order of loci on x axis are different among A, B and C.

