

Phylogeography of *Orinus* (Poaceae), a dominant grass genus on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau

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To better understand the responses of arid-adapted, alpine plants to Quaternary climatic oscillations, we investigated the genetic variation and phylogeographic history of *Orinus*, an endemic genus of Poaceae comprising three species from the dry grasslands of the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP) in China. We measured the genetic variation of 476 individuals from 88 populations using three maternally inherited plastid DNA markers (*matK*, *rbcL* and *psbA-trnH*), the biparentally inherited nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacer (nrITS) and amplified fragment length polymorphisms (AFLPs). We found that the plastid DNA, nrITS and AFLPs show considerable, recent differentiation among the species. We detected 14 plastid haplotypes (H1–H14), of which only three were shared among all species, and 30 nrITS ribotypes (S1–S30), of which one (S10) was shared between two species, *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius*, but absent in *O. thoroldii*. The nrITS types formed clades that were inconsistent with species boundaries. Based on these data, we propose and illustrate a complex hypothesis for the evolutionary history of *Orinus* involving lineage sorting and introgression, the latter of which may explain the shared S10 nrITS type. The AFLP results showed clades corresponding to current species delineation and suggest that lineage sorting in the genus is probably complete. We estimated the crown age of *Orinus* to be 2.85 (95% highest posterior density: 0.58–12.45) Mya (late Pliocene), and subsequent divergence occurred in the Quaternary. Early divergences were allopatric. More recently, *Orinus* probably underwent regional expansions corresponding to Quaternary climatic changes, especially glaciation, which is consistent with our divergence time estimates. These climatic changes could have facilitated the S10 event and other hybridization events. Our data also suggest that species of this small genus of grasses survived the Quaternary glacial period in the extremely adverse habitats of the QTP.

ADDITIONAL KEYWORDS: amplified fragment length polymorphism – internal transcribed spacer – phylogeography – plastid DNA – *Orinus* – Qinghai-Tibet Plateau.

INTRODUCTION

The Quaternary period began *c.* 2.58 Mya and has been characterized by climatic oscillations, especially glacial and interglacial cycles in the Northern

Hemisphere (Shackleton & Opdyke, 1973). The glacial cycles co-varied with and probably profoundly affected other aspects of the climate, including the intensity of the Asian monsoon, even in unglaciated regions (An *et al.*, 2001; Jiang *et al.*, 2011). The Quaternary climatic changes caused changes in geographical distributions and population demography of plant species and consequently left lasting, detectable genetic imprints

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within and among species (Abbott *et al.*, 2000; Avise, 2000; Hewitt, 2004, 2011; Qiu, Fu & Comes, 2011; Qiu *et al.*, 2013; Wen *et al.*, 2014, 2016).

In Europe and North America, the fossil records of plant species and phylogeographic analyses indicate that a common pattern of geographical range shift was to retreat southward and to lower elevations during glacial periods and then to rapidly recolonize the northern areas and higher elevations during the interglacial and postglacial periods (Nason, Hamrick & Fleming, 2002; Stewart *et al.*, 2010; Sakaguchi *et al.*, 2011; Li *et al.*, 2012; Segovia, Pérez & Hinojosa, 2012; Voss, Eckstein & Durka, 2012; Tzedakis, Emerson & Hewitt, 2013; de Lafontaine *et al.*, 2014). In comparison with Europe and North America, the genetic structure and variation in Quaternary phylogeographic histories of plant species are much more pronounced in topographically complex regions of China, such as the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP) (e.g. Zhang *et al.*, 2005; Meng *et al.*, 2007; Wang *et al.*, 2009a, 2014; Opgenoorth *et al.*, 2010; Xu *et al.*, 2010; Qiu *et al.*, 2011; Zou *et al.*, 2012; Wen *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2015; Wan *et al.*, 2016).

The QTP and adjacent mountain ranges, such as the Hengduan and the Hindu-Kush Mountains, (hereafter QTP) were formed by the collision of the Indian subcontinent with Eurasia and contain the world's tallest mountain (Mount Everest) and have an average elevation of > 4000 m (Zheng, 1996). The QTP is regarded as a hotspot for global biodiversity and supports many endemic genera and species (Wu, 1988; Mittermeier *et al.*, 2005). The exceptional biodiversity of the QTP has been attributed to Quaternary climatic oscillations and Miocene-Pliocene or Miocene-Quaternary phases of uplifts of the QTP (Liu *et al.*, 2002, 2006; Liu, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2009c; Mao *et al.*, 2010; Xu *et al.*, 2010; Jia *et al.*, 2012; Wen *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2015). Climatic oscillations and uplifts may lead to allopatric speciation, detectable as genetic imprints that date to the Miocene, Pliocene or Quaternary.

Recent studies have shown evidence for the importance of Quaternary climatic oscillations in explaining genetic variability, distributions and demographic patterns observed in modern populations of QTP species (Tang & Shen, 1996; Bawa *et al.*, 2010; Jia *et al.*, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2012, 2014b, 2015; Wan *et al.*, 2016). In particular, many alpine species retreated to eastern or south-eastern refugia during glacial periods and recolonized the central plateau platform during the interglacial or postglacial stages (e.g. Zhang *et al.*, 2005; Meng *et al.*, 2007; Chen *et al.*, 2008; Yang *et al.*, 2008; Wu *et al.*, 2010; Tian *et al.*, 2011; Jia *et al.*, 2012; Liu *et al.*, 2015; Wan *et al.*, 2016). In contrast, some other cold-tolerant alpine species were able to survive *in situ* through glacial periods in multiple ice-free refugia or

microrefugia (Wang *et al.*, 2009b; Opgenoorth *et al.*, 2010; Jia *et al.*, 2011; Ma *et al.*, 2014). These two major types of evolutionary hypotheses about phylogeographic relationships between plant species and Quaternary climatic oscillations have been developed and tested by previous studies on the QTP (Wu *et al.*, 2010; Jia *et al.*, 2011; Tian *et al.*, 2011; Ma *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2015). Results show that there was a close relationship between geographical distribution patterns of plant species from the QTP and Quaternary climatic oscillations, and independent genetic lineages appear in different plateau regions due to isolations among developed ice sheets. Given the probable impacts of ongoing climatic change on biodiversity, phylogeographic investigations of plant species in diverse regions, such as the QTP, are increasingly important. Although many phylogeographic studies of QTP plants have been performed, these have mostly focused on woody plants or herbaceous dicot lineages that occur in forested areas (e.g. Zhang *et al.*, 2005; Meng *et al.*, 2007; Chen *et al.*, 2008; Tian *et al.*, 2011; Jia *et al.*, 2012; Wan *et al.*, 2016). The grasslands comprise a significant portion of the QTP and are dominated by grasses (Poaceae). Therefore, disentangling the phylogeographic history of grasses is crucial to understanding the evolution of the QTP flora. In addition, these kind of grass-dominated landscapes are interesting since many of the vegetation types thus far studied are dominated by trees or shrubs. Grasses are cold-, warm- and arid-tolerant, making their study necessary to describe evolution in the QTP. Therefore, phylogeographic studies of grasses are needed to understand the past history of biogeographic and demographic change linked to past climatic oscillations and to make informed inferences about the future of the QTP grasslands (e.g. Qiu *et al.*, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2012, 2014b, 2015; Wen *et al.*, 2014).

Here, we studied the phylogeographic history of the perennial grass genus, *Orinus* Hitchc., that is endemic to alpine, dry grasslands of the QTP and occurs in unusually sandy habitats (Chen & Phillips, 2006; Su & Cai, 2009; Su *et al.*, 2015). *Orinus* comprises three morphologically and ecologically distinct species, *O. thoroldii* (Stapf ex Hemsl.) Bor, *O. kokonoricus* (K.S.Hao) Keng and *O. intermedius* X. Su & J. Quan Liu (Su *et al.*, 2015, 2017), that are distributed at elevations between 2200 and 4800 m. Recently, *Orinus* was placed in subtribe Orininae P.M.Peterson, Romasch. & Y.Herrera with *Cleistogenes* Keng (Peterson, Romaschenko & Arrieta, 2016; Soreng *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, *Orinus* reproduces mainly through clonal reproduction via root suckers. *Orinus* spp. are dominant in places where they occur and are an exceptional study system for understanding the effects of the Quaternary climatic oscillations on the demography of QTP grassland species. Specifically, we investigated the biogeographic and phylogeographic history in *Orinus*

using robust sampling of the three species throughout their geographical ranges using molecular markers, including plastid DNA, nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacer (nrITS) and amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) data sets. We address the following questions: (1) What is the phylogeographic pattern in *Orinus*? (2) Are the phylogeographic patterns in *Orinus* consistent with southern glacial refugia and with other demographic patterns observed among diverse alpine plants on the QTP?

MATERIAL AND METHODS

POPULATION SAMPLING

We sampled 476 individuals belonging to 88 populations from the distributional area of the genus including the type localities of all three species (Fig. 1A; see also Supporting Information, Table S1). From each population, we collected fresh leaf blades from three to 12 individuals and preserved them in silica gel. In each population, we selected individuals that were at least 20 m away from each other to avoid clones, and we recorded the latitude, longitude and elevation

of each population using an Etrex GIS (Garmin, Taiwan, China). We also prepared several voucher specimens from each population and deposited them at the Herbarium of the Northwest Plateau Institute of Biology (HNWP), the Chinese Academy of Science, Xining, Qinghai Province, China.

DNA EXTRACTION, AMPLIFICATION, SEQUENCING AND AFLP FINGERPRINTING

We extracted total DNA from silica gel-dried leaves using a modified 2× CTAB procedure (Doyle & Doyle, 1987). We used universal primers to amplify nuclear ITS and three plastid DNA regions: *matK*, *rbcl* and *psbA-trnH* (White *et al.*, 1990; Sang, Crawford & Stuessy, 1997; Feng *et al.*, 1998; Sun, McLewin & Fay, 2001). We performed the amplification using PCR in 25 µL reaction volumes, containing 1 µL plant template DNA, 0.2 mM MgCl₂, 0.25 mM dNTPs, 2 µM each primer, 2.50 µL 10× PCR buffer and 0.25 µL *Taq* DNA polymerase (5 U/µL; TakaRa, Dalian, China). Our PCR thermocycling protocol comprised an initial 5-min denaturation period at 94 °C, followed by 36 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 50 s, annealing

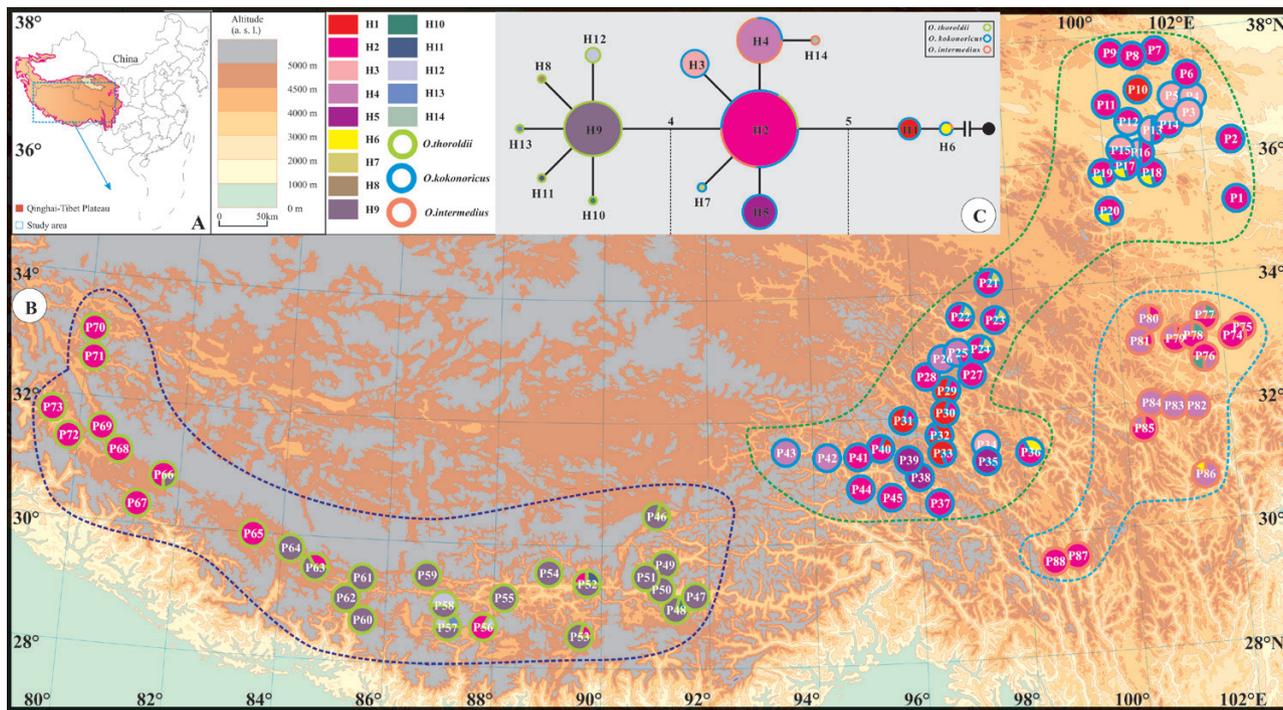


Figure 1. Sampling sites and geographical distribution of plastid DNA haplotypes observed in three *Orinus* spp. A, sampling region (dashed-line box). B, documented distribution range (dotted line), sampling sites and plastid DNA haplotype frequencies per population. Each pie graph represents a plastid DNA haplotype, and size of pie is proportional to the number of individuals bearing that haplotype. C, network for 14 plastid DNA haplotypes detected from three *Orinus* spp. *Dinebra viscida* was used as the outgroup. Sizes of network circles are proportional to haplotype frequencies. Numbers on the link lines between haplotypes represent the mutational sites. Colours for haplotypes are described in (B).

at 49–58 °C for 50 s and extension at 72 °C for 1 min, with a final extension at 72 °C for 10 min. We purified the PCR products with a TIAN-quick Midi Purification Kit (Tiangen, Beijing, China) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions, and we sequenced the purified products using an ABI 3130XL DNA Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). We aligned the sequences of the plastid DNA and nrITS separately in MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004) and refined the alignments manually in MEGA 5 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011). We combined the three plastid DNA regions because we did not detect phylogenetic incongruence among them using an incongruence length difference test under the parsimony criterion with 1000 replicates, Tree Bisection and Reconnection branch swapping and the number of trees retained for each replicate limited to 1000 (Farris *et al.*, 1995). All newly obtained sequences of *Orinus* have been submitted to GenBank under the accession numbers KP302391–KP303274.

We used a slightly modified protocol (Vos *et al.*, 1995) to examine the AFLP of all the sampled populations (Supporting Information, Table S1) and used fluorescent primers for selective amplification (Zuo *et al.*, 2015). DNA was digested with restriction enzymes *Pst*I and *Mse*I (40 U/μL, Beijing Dingguo Biotechnology Co., Ltd, China) for 5 h at 37 °C in a 20 μL volume, followed by ligation (40 units T4 DNA ligase, 4 h at 8 °C) to double-stranded *Pst*I and *Mse*I adapters. Two rounds of PCR amplification followed. Of 15 tested *Pst*I/*Mse*I primer combinations, eight were selected to produce the most repeatable and unambiguously scorable profiles. Selective fluorescence-labelled amplification products were separated and analysed on an ABI PRISM 377 DNA Sequencer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) using GeneScan ROX-500, with an internal size standard. We used GeneScan 3.1 (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) to score the bands of AFLP amplification products. We imported the raw data into Binthere (Garnhart, 2001) and MG (Zhou & Qian, 2003) to generate a 0/1 matrix for data analyses.

POPULATION DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

We calculated the haplotype diversity (H_E) of the plastid DNA for each population using DNASP 5.0 (Librado & Rozas, 2009), and we used PERMUT (Pons & Petit, 1996) to find the average genetic diversity within populations (H_S), total genetic diversity (H_T) and the coefficients of differentiation (G_{ST} , N_{ST}) for each species, separately and combined. For the plastid DNA, we used permutation of G_{ST} and N_{ST} with 1000 replicates to infer significant phylogeographic structure (Pons & Chaouche, 1995). To examine population genetic structure, we used an analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) with 1000 permutations (Excoffier, Smouse & Quattro, 1992) in ARLEQUIN 3.11 (Excoffier, Laval & Schneider, 2005). We

calculated plastid gene flow among populations ($N_e m$) based on the equation $N_e m = ([1/F_{ST}] - 1)/2$, where N_e was the effective population size of female individuals and m was the migration rate (Freeland, Kirk & Petersen, 2011). In nrITS, we assumed that a site was heterozygous if it had a double peak at the same position in both strands, and the weaker signal between base calls was at least 25% of the strength of the stronger (Fuertes-Aguilar, Rosselló & Nieto-Feliner, 1999; Fuertes-Aguilar & Nieto-Feliner, 2003). We also determined nrITS ribotypes with PHASE 1.0 for heterozygous individuals (Stephens, Smith & Donnelly, 2011).

We used the Bayesian implementation of the k -mean method in STRUCTURE 2.2 (Pritchard, Stephens & Donnelly, 2000) to estimate the most likely number of populations (K) in *Orinus* according to the plastid DNA and nrITS data sets. Specifically, we performed analyses for K values ranging from 2 to 7, with ten replicates for each value of K and a burn-in of 2×10^6 . We applied the 'no admixture model' and independent allele frequencies for these analyses. The most likely number of clusters was estimated according to the K resulting in the best improvement in the global likelihood (Evanno, Regnaut & Goudet, 2005).

NETWORK AND PHYLOGENETIC ANALYSES

We performed network and phylogenetic analyses to reconstruct relationships among populations and species. We first distinguished plastid DNA haplotypes and nrITS ribotypes with DNASP 5.0 software package (Librado & Rozas, 2009). We constructed a median-joining network of haplotypes of the plastid DNA and ribotypes of nrITS with NETWORK 4.5.0.0 (Weir, 1996). In NETWORK, we set both site mutations and indels to evolve with equal likelihood, and we assumed that each indel originated independently of all other indels. For reconstructing phylogenetic relationships, we applied maximum parsimony (MP) and maximum likelihood (ML) to the plastid DNA haplotypes and nrITS ribotypes, independently in PAUP*4.0b10 (Swofford, 2002). We also reconstructed phylogenetic relationships with Bayesian inference (BI) in MrBayes 3.1 (Ronquist & Huelsenbeck, 2003). For the ML analyses and BI, we used a general-time-reversible model (GTR) with a gamma distribution of rate variation among sites (+ G) based on results in PAUP*4.0b10 and jModelTest according to the Akaike information criterion (Posada, 1998; Swofford, 2002). We approximated the gamma distribution using four rate categories. For other parameters, we used default settings. For the MP analyses, we performed heuristic searches with 1000 random addition sequence replicates with ten trees retained at each step during the stepwise additions and with

tree-bisection-reconnection for branch swapping. We set PAUP*4.0b10 to treat all characters as unordered and equally weighted, gaps as missing and multistate data as uncertain in the MP analyses. For MP and ML, we calculated bootstrap values from 1000 replicates (Felsenstein, 1985). The BI consisted of two parallel runs with four incrementally heated chains and three million generations sampled every 1000 generations. The output was assessed for convergence using TRACER v.1.3 (Rambaut & Drummond, 2007), and summary statistics and trees were generated using the last two million generations. For network and phylogenetic analyses of plastid DNA and nrITS, we used *Dinebra viscida* (Scribn.) P.M.Peterson & N.Snow and four samples of *Cleistogenes* as outgroups, respectively (Peterson *et al.*, 2012, 2016). For the AFLP data, we analysed a rectangular binary 0/1 data matrix using the NTSYS-pc 2.1 (Rohlf, 2000) statistical package, and we generated a pairwise similarity matrix with simple matching coefficient according to the SIMQUAL procedure in NTSYS-pc. We performed cluster analysis of the binary matrix using the unweighted pair-group method to build a UPGMA dendrogram by means of SAHN package in NTSYS-pc. We performed bootstrap analysis of the UPGMA tree with 2000 replicates using the winboot computer program (Yap & Nelson, 1996). We also calculated a genetic similarity matrix using AFLP data according to the method of Nei & Li (1979).

DATING THE DIVERGENCE BETWEEN LINEAGES

We obtained the nrITS data set of Chloridoideae from Peterson *et al.* (2016) and used it to estimate the divergence times of *Orinus*. We verified equal base frequencies among accessions in PAUP*4.0b10 and tested a strict molecular clock hypothesis in MEGA 5 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011). The strict clock was rejected ($2\ln LR = 434.458$, d.f. = 48, $P < 0.01$). We performed Bayesian divergence time estimation in BEAST 2.4.5 (Bouckaert *et al.*, 2014), which co-estimates topology and node ages. We prepared the nrITS data set for analysis in BEAST using Beauti and by directly editing the content of.xml files. We applied an HKY model of nucleotide substitutions because the more parameter-rich GTR model did not yield substantial gains according to the preliminary analyses. We approximated the gamma distribution of site-specific rates with ten rate categories and applied the 'birth death' tree prior process model with a standard, uniform prior. We set a 'relaxed lognormal clock' with a substitution rate prior of 6.85×10^{-9} based on Wolfe, Li & Sharp (1987). We calibrated the crown node age of Chloridoideae as 32.74 Mya, which was inferred in prior studies (Christin *et al.*, 2008; Vicentini *et al.*, 2008) and is reasonable because no isotopic surveys to-date provided evidence of an older date for C_4 grass

(Osborne & Beerling, 2006). Our calibration comprised a normal distribution with an SD of 1.0, yielding a 95% highest posterior density (HPD) of 28.09–37.19 Mya. We constrained the monophyly of the Chloridoideae after preliminary analyses revealed that long branches (i.e. high evolutionary rates) resulted in placement of *Sporobolus* R.Br. with the outgroups. *Sporobolus* clearly belongs in Chloridoideae based on strong evidence from prior molecular and morphological studies (Peterson *et al.*, 2016). We ran two independent analyses in BEAST with 5×10^8 Markov chain Monte Carlo generations. We compared the posterior and likelihood distributions from each run in TRACER 1.5.0 to ensure convergence, and we selected one of two runs for downstream analyses (Rambaut & Drummond, 2009). We performed a 10% burn-in and summarized trees by selecting the maximum clade credibility tree in TREEANNOTATOR 2.4.5, which is part of the BEAST 2.4.5 package, and using median heights for branch lengths. We visualized the maximum clade credibility tree and other summary statistics in FIGTREE 1.3.1 (Rambaut, 2009).

To calculate divergence times of species and populations in *Orinus*, we used nrITS and two methods: (1) a direct calculation from mutation rates using a strict molecular clock; and (2) a dating analysis in BEAST (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007). For the direct calculation, a strict molecular clock was appropriate, because it was not rejected by an analysis in MEGA 5 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011) ($2\ln LR = 54.524$, d.f. = 29, $P = 0.61$), and performed a coalescent Bayesian skyline tree process prior suitable for intraspecific data. The strict molecular clock comprised mutation rates of $5.8\text{--}8.1 \times 10^{-9}$ substitutions/site/year, which are well established as rates of evolution of nrITS in other perennial grass genera (Wolfe *et al.*, 1987). For the analyses in BEAST, we analysed 476 sequences of *Orinus*, and we used four samples of *Cleistogenes* as outgroups. We applied an age calibration to the *Orinus* crown node based on our results from the tree for Chloridoideae (above). Specifically, the calibration comprised a uniform prior with using the median date from the tree for Chloridoideae ± 1 Mya. All other parameters of this analysis were the same as for the analysis of Chloridoideae (Peterson *et al.*, 2016), except that we used a coalescent skyline model of diversification because it is appropriate for intraspecific taxa.

GLACIAL REFUGIA AND DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSES

We inferred putative glacial refugia of *Orinus* based on occurrences of comparatively high genetic diversity among intraspecific populations and for the genus with plastid DNA and nrITS data sets. Genetic diversity is expected to be higher in refugial areas compared with surrounding areas (Hewitt, 1996, 1999,

2000) due especially to founder effects (Mayr, 1942). Although associating high diversity areas with glacial refugia may be overly simplistic (Petit *et al.*, 2003), our intention is to generate a working hypothesis for future testing. To visualize putative refugia based on diversity across geographical areas, we generated surface plots of the number of unique haplotypes, ribotypes and combined haplotypes and ribotypes within populations using a triangulated irregular network (TIN) in ArcMap v.10 (ESRI, 2010). The from-end of link points are used as the TIN uses triangles nodes points, georeferenced populations in this case, and interpolate values, or number of genotypes in this case, between them. We trimmed the TINs according to the convex hulls of *O. thordii* and *O. intermedius* and for the geographically distinct northern and central metapopulations of *O. kokonoricus* (Fig. 6A). The resulting surfaces facilitate inference and visualization of geographical areas of high diversity, which we take as possible glacial refugia. We deposited all GIS data online with ESRI, and it is available at <https://www.arcgis.com/home/item.html?id=d2f9770771ec4de58a8373d85e3695ce>.

We used several methods to detect demographic expansions based on plastid DNA data sets, such as from refugia, in the history of *Orinus*. We sought to detect recent demographic expansion in *Orinus* and in each species using a mismatch distribution analysis in Arlequin 3.5. The mismatch distribution analysis applies a model of computes the pairwise *p*-distances (absolute distances) between sequences and organizes the results in a histogram. A distribution of pairwise frequencies that is multimodal is the equilibrium state, showing expected differentiation among species or populations. In contrast, a unimodal distribution represents geneflow and a trend towards panmixia (Slatkin & Hudson, 1991; Rogers & Harpending, 1992). We analysed the results of the mismatch distribution by comparing the sum of squared deviations observed distributions and those expected following a recent demographic expansion. We also quantified modality of the distribution using Harpending's raggedness index, where more ragged distributions are multimodal. We assessed recent demographic expansions using Tajima's *D* (Tajima, 1989) or Fu's F_s (Fu, 1997) in Arlequin 3.5, with 10 000 parametric bootstrap replicates. Positive values for these statistics typically indicate demographic contractions or a recent bottleneck event (Tajima, 1989; Fu, 1997; Hamilton, 2009). In addition, we estimated expansion times (*t*) using the relationship $\tau = 2ut$ (Rogers & Harpending, 1992), where *u* is the mutation rate per generation for all sequences analysed and *t* is the expansion time in number of generations. Here, $u = \mu kg$, where μ is the substitution rate, *k* is the average sequence length of the analysed DNA region and *g* is the generation

time in years. We assumed that *g* = 5 years based on data from the closely related genus *Triodia* R.Br. (Armstrong, 2011).

RESULTS

IDENTIFICATION OF PLASTID DNA HAPLOTYPES AND nrITS RIBOTYPES, AND DATING DIVERGENCE TIMES

Among the 476 individuals, the total alignment length of three plastid DNA sequences (*matK*, *rbcl* and *psbA-trnH*) was 2898 bp; for nrITS, it was 624 bp. Nucleotide substitutions occurred at 19 polymorphic sites in plastid DNA (0.66%), and 13 of these were potentially parsimony informative; there were no indels (see Supporting Information, Table S2). The aligned nrITS sequences had 46 variable sites, 45 of which were potentially parsimony informative (see Supporting Information, Table S3). We used sequence polymorphisms to identify haplotypes in plastid DNA and ribotypes in nrITS.

In plastid DNA, we identified 14 different haplotypes, H1–H14 (Fig. 1B; see Supporting Information, Table S1). Forty-nine populations (55.68%) were fixed for a single haplotype; the remaining 39 (44.32%) were polymorphic (Fig. 1B; see Supporting Information, Table S1). Two haplotypes, H4 and H6, were shared between *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius*, and only one, H2, was fixed among all three *Orinus* spp. Of these shared haplotypes, H2 and H4 occurred in 67.05 and 17.05% of all populations, respectively, whereas H6 was limited to six populations (6.82%). H2 was widely distributed across the QTP, and H4 was widely distributed throughout the eastern and south-eastern QTP. Six haplotypes were found only in *O. thordii*, four were specific to *O. kokonoricus* and one was specific to *O. intermedius* (Fig. 1C; see Supporting Information, Fig. S1).

In nrITS, we identified 30 different ribotypes, S1–S30. Of these, ten were each limited to a single population, and all but one were restricted to one species (Fig. 2; see Supporting Information, Fig. S2, Table S1). The S10 ribotype was shared between *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius*. Thirty-nine populations (44.32%) only possessed one haplotype; the remaining 49 (55.68%) were polymorphic (Fig. 2; see Supporting Information, Fig. S2, Table S1). Ribotypes S2, S19 and S26 were the most common nrITS sequences and were fixed or present in nearly all sampled populations from the three *Orinus* spp. Sequence S2 was discovered in 84.44% of all samples for *O. kokonoricus*, S19 was found in all populations from *O. thordii* and S26 also occurred in 86.67% of all sampled populations of *O. intermedius*. Ten ribotypes (S7–S9, S15–S18, S22, S23 and S25) were private to a single population (Fig. 2; see Supporting Information, Table S1).

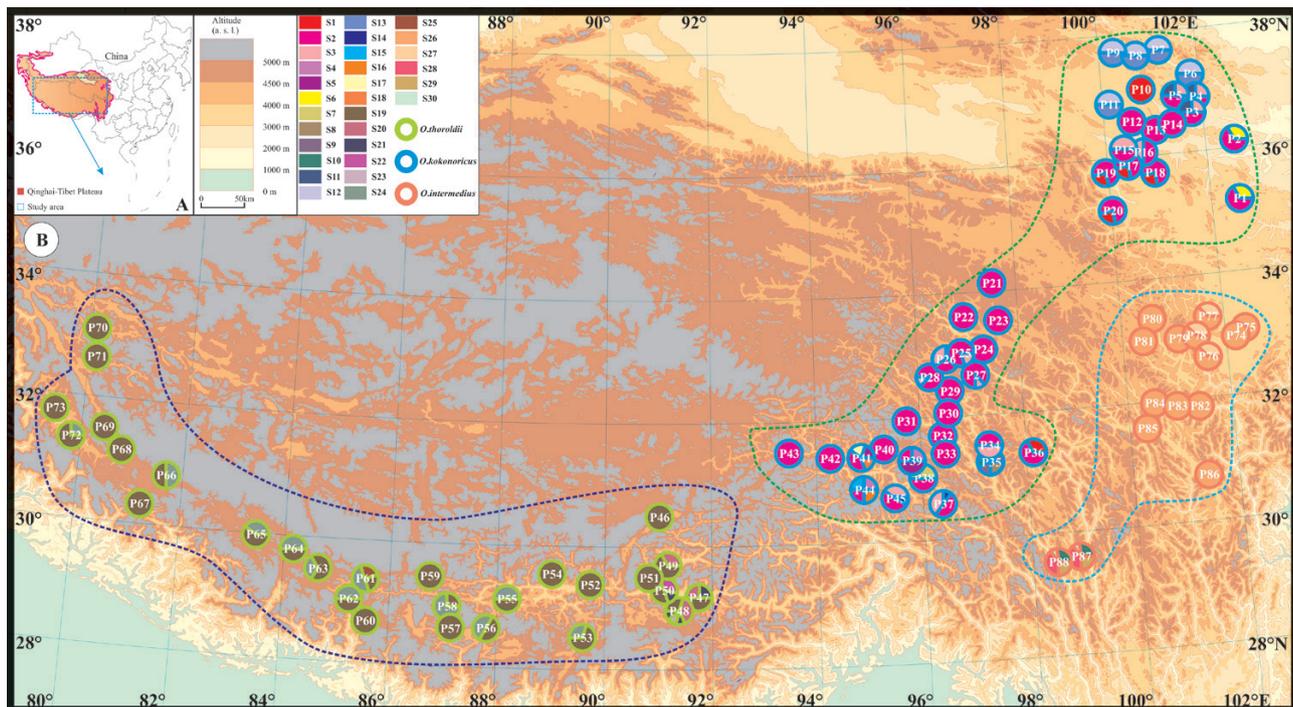


Figure 2. Sampling sites and geographical distribution of nrITS ribotypes observed in three *Orinus* species. A, sampling region (dashed-line box). B, documented distribution range (dotted line), sampling sites and nrITS ribotype frequencies per population. Each pie graph represents nrITS ribotypes; size of pie is proportional to number of individuals bearing that haplotype.

The divergence time estimation showed *Orinus* diverged from its closest relatives *c.* 12.06 Mya (95% HPD: 6.87–17.50) (Miocene) and diversified *c.* 2.85 Mya (node 1; 95% HPD: 0.78–5.05) in the Pliocene (Fig. 3; see Supporting Information, Table S4). In *Orinus*, modern ribotypes diversified in the Pleistocene, 0.31–1.71 Mya (nodes 2–9) (see Supporting Information, Fig. S2, Table S4), according to the analysis using BEAST. When the divergence time of ribotypes was calculated using mutation rates, we found the similar results as the above, also in the Pleistocene (see Supporting Information, Table S4).

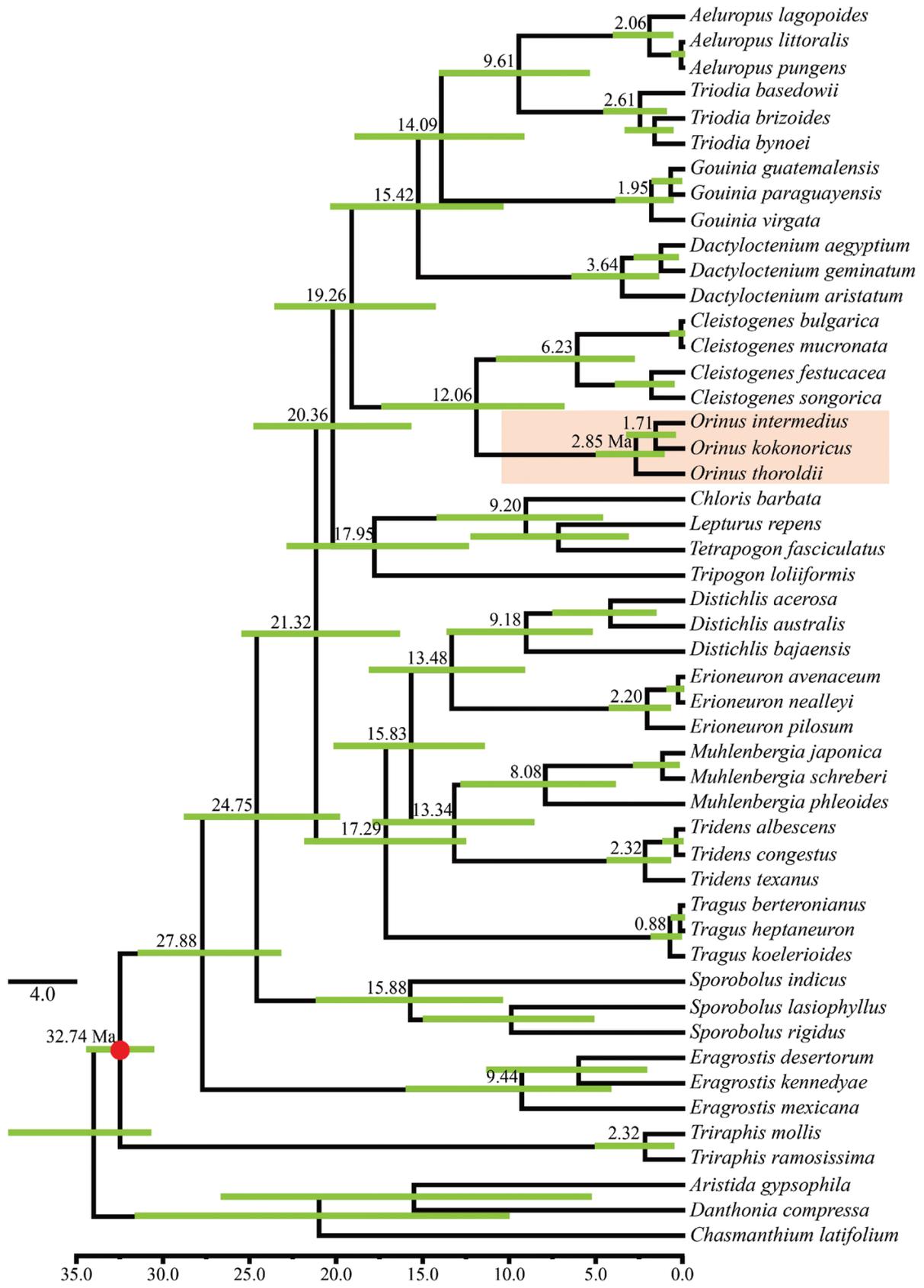
POPULATION VARIABILITY, GLACIAL REFUGIA AND DEMOGRAPHY

Haplotype diversity (H_E) from each population was calculated based on plastid DNA haplotype frequencies (see Supporting Information, Table S1). The average genetic diversity within populations (H_S) was relatively low for *O. thoroldii*, *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius* (0.16 ± 0.05 , 0.23 ± 0.07 and 0.31 ± 0.10), and the total genetic diversity H_T (0.74 ± 0.03) across the whole genus was much higher than H_S (0.21 ± 0.04) based on the observed plastid DNA variations (Table 1). A permutation test suggested that population differentiation across the sampling range was high

($N_{ST} = 0.83 \pm 0.04$) and was significantly higher than G_{ST} (0.72 ± 0.05) ($0.01 < P < 0.05$), indicating a strong phylogeographic structure across the entire sampling range (Table 1).

Hierarchical AMOVA based on the plastid DNA data set revealed that there was higher interspecific genetic differentiation across the whole distribution of this genus ($F_{ST} = 0.82$), and the interpopulation genetic differentiation in *O. thoroldii* and *O. kokonoricus* was much more pronounced ($F_{ST} = 0.72$, $F_{ST} = 0.73$), but there was a little interpopulation differentiation in *O. intermedius* ($F_{ST} = 0.34$) (Table 2). These results suggested that the grouping pattern of hierarchical AMOVA was basically consistent with relationships among plastid haplotypes and their geographical distribution (Fig. 1C, Table 2).

Our analyses revealed extensive gene flow among populations of *Orinus* across its geographical range. In the STRUCTURE analyses (Fig. 4A), the highest likelihood of the plastid DNA data was obtained when all samples were weakly clustered into three groups according to the recognized species ($K = 3$). However, this result did not correspond to separate geographical regions because there was strong gene flow across the range of *Orinus*. In addition, a $N_e m$ value of 0.61 also indicated extensive gene flow existed between groups based on plastid DNA data.



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Table 1. Estimates of genetic diversity for plastid DNA in three *Orinus* spp. on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau

Groups	H_S	H_T	G_{ST}	N_{ST}
<i>O. kokonoricus</i> (P1–45)	0.23 (0.07)	0.74 (0.06)	0.69 (0.10)	0.60 (0.12)
<i>O. thoroldii</i> (P46–73)	0.16 (0.05)	0.56 (0.04)	0.72 (0.08)	0.81 (0.07)*
<i>O. intermedius</i> (P74–88)	0.31 (0.10)	0.59 (0.05)	0.48 (0.18)	0.33 (0.15)
All populations	0.21 (0.04)	0.74 (0.03)	0.72 (0.05)	0.83 (0.04)*

H_S , estimate of average genetic diversity within populations; H_T , total genetic diversity; G_{ST} , coefficient of genetic variation over all populations; N_{ST} , coefficient of genetic variation influenced by both haplotype frequencies and genetic distance between haplotypes.

* $P < 0.05$.

Table 2. Results of analysis of molecular variance for plastid DNA and nrITS sequence data from populations of *Orinus* on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau

Groups	Source of variation	d.f.	SS	VC	Variation (%)	Fixation index
All samples	Plastid DNA					
	Among groups	2	121.90	0.74 Va	44.78	$F_{ST} = 0.82^*$
	Among populations within groups	53	152.13	0.62 Vb	37.72	$F_{SC} = 0.68^*$
	Within populations	420	52.46	0.29 Vc	17.50	$F_{CT} = 0.45^*$
<i>O. kokonoricus</i>	Total	475	326.49	1.65		
	Among populations	20	50.09	0.54 Va	72.69	$F_{ST} = 0.73^*$
	Within populations	161	14.17	0.20 Vb	27.31	
<i>O. thoroldii</i>	Total	181	64.26	0.74		
	Among populations	26	92.52	0.92 Va	71.90	$F_{ST} = 0.72^*$
	Within populations	161	24.18	0.36 Vb	28.10	
<i>O. intermedius</i>	Total	187	116.70	1.28		
	Among populations	7	9.52	0.16 Va	34.27	$F_{ST} = 0.34^*$
	Within populations	98	14.10	0.32 Vb	65.73	
All samples	nrITS					
	Among groups	2	1977.08	6.32 Va	81.90	$F_{ST} = 0.96^*$
	Among populations within groups	53	491.63	1.08 Vb	13.96	$F_{SC} = 0.77^*$
	Within populations	420	134.40	0.32 Vc	4.15	$F_{CT} = 0.82^*$
<i>O. kokonoricus</i>	Total	475	2603.11	7.72		
	Among populations	20	204.28	1.13 Va	67.89	$F_{ST} = 0.68^*$
	Within populations	161	86.25	0.54 Vb	32.11	
<i>O. thoroldii</i>	Total	181	290.53	1.67		
	Among populations	26	21.58	0.09 Va	30.17	$F_{ST} = 0.30^*$
	Within populations	161	33.48	0.21 Vb	69.83	
<i>O. intermedius</i>	Total	187	55.06	0.30		
	Among populations	7	265.77	2.95 Va	95.17	$F_{ST} = 0.95^*$
	Within populations	98	14.67	0.15 Vb	4.83	
All samples	Total	105	280.43	3.10		

d.f., degrees of freedom; SS, sum of squares; VC, variance components; F_{CT} , correlation within populations relative to groups; F_{SC} , correlation of haplotypes within groups relative to the total; F_{ST} , correlation within populations relative to the total.

* $P < 0.001$ (10 000 permutations).

Figure 3. Bayesian divergence time estimate of *Orinus* (shaded) based on the nrITS data set of Chloridoideae from Peterson et al. (2016). Clade constraint is marked by the black circle. Numbers in parentheses indicate 95% highest posterior density intervals.

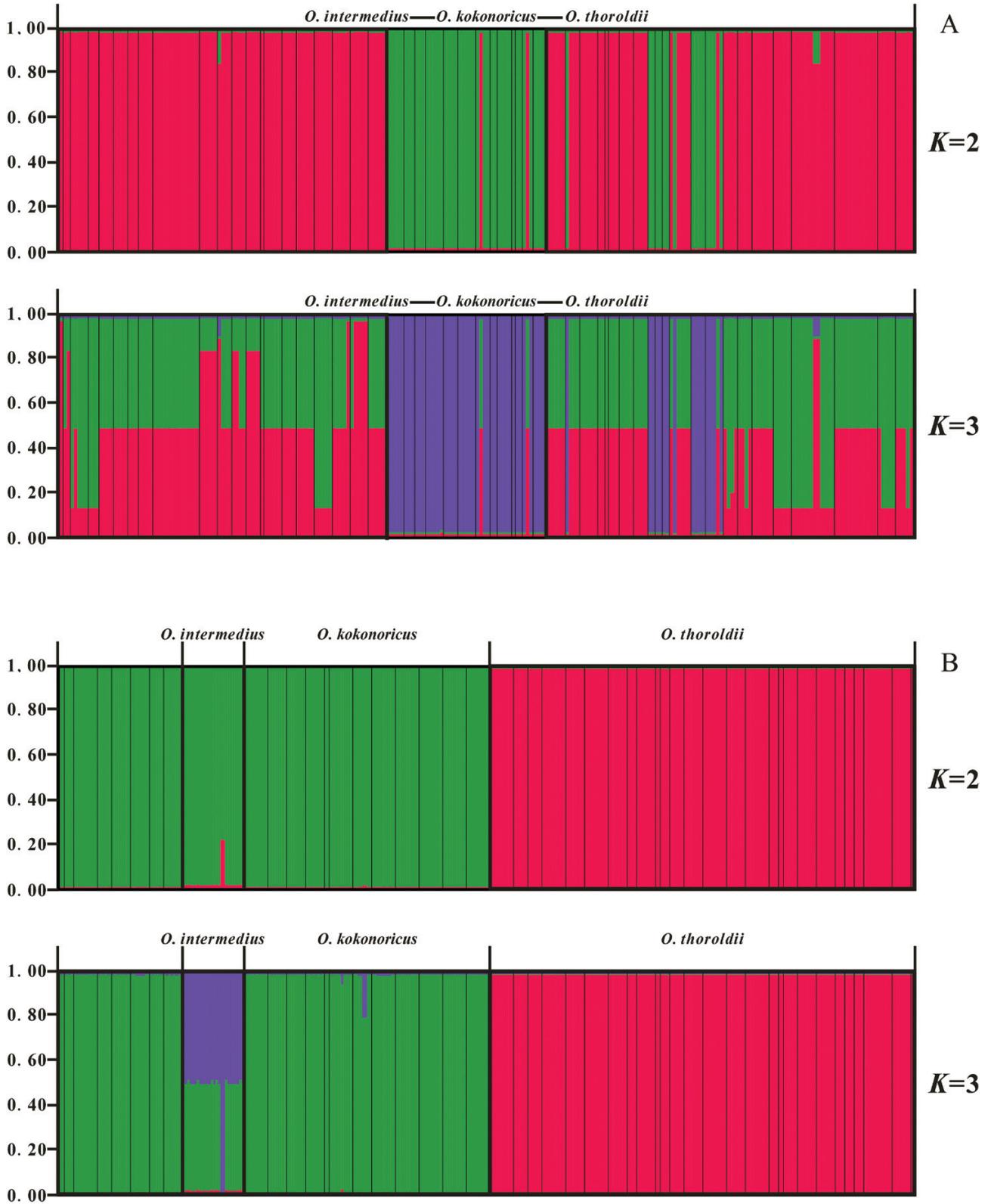


Figure 4. Estimated genetic structure for $K = 2-3$ obtained with the program STRUCTURE (Pritchard *et al.*, 2000) for 56 populations of *Orinus* based on plastid DNA (A) and nrITS (B) sequence variations. Each vertical bar represents an individual and its assignment proportion (not shown). Red, *Orinus thoroldii*; Green, *O. kokonoricus*; Blue-purple, *O. intermedius*.

For nrITS, we found that 81.90% of the total genetic variation occurred between groups, 13.96% occurred among populations within groups and only 4.15% occurred within populations. The pairwise F_{ST} value between three groups was 0.96 (Table 2). It suggested that there was high interspecific differentiation among three species, and interpopulation differentiation of *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius* was also extremely high ($F_{ST} = 0.68$, $F_{ST} = 0.95$). In contrast, *O. thordii* exhibited lower interpopulation variation ($F_{ST} = 0.30$). The grouping pattern of hierarchical AMOVA based on nrITS data was in accordance with relationships of ribotypes and their geographical distribution (Fig. 5, Table 2). Similarly, the STRUCTURE analyses indicated that almost all samples of *O. intermedius* and *O. kokonoricus* were clustered into a lineage, and there was only obscure gene flow between them and *O. thordii* ($K = 2$) (Fig. 4B). However, all samples of this genus were clustered into three independent lineages when the highest likelihood of the data was obtained ($K = 3$), and there was prominent introgression between *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius* (Fig. 4B). In addition, the gene flow between the three groups was low according to the $N_e m$ value was 0.11.

Our surface analysis in ArcMap revealed four centres of diversity for haplotypes, ribotypes and the combined diversity of haplotypes and ribotypes (Fig. 6). For *O. thordii*, the haplotype and ribotype data are congruent in showing a centre of diversity in the eastern part of the range (Fig. 6B, C). The haplotype and ribotype data also agree that the northern metapopulation of *O. kokonoricus* has a centre of diversity at the southern portion of its range (Fig. 6B, C). In contrast, the haplotypes show centres of diversity at the northern ends of the ranges of *O. intermedius* and the central metapopulation of *O. kokonoricus*, whereas the ribotypes show centres of diversity at the southern ends of these ranges (Fig. 6B, C). Overall, greater diversity among ribotypes than haplotypes (Figs 1, 2) yielded a geographical pattern in the combined analysis of genotypes (Fig. 6E) consistent with ribotypes alone.

The mismatch distributions of pairwise differences for all samples from the identified haplotypes of *Orinus* and *O. thordii* were close to bimodal, whereas those of *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius* were close to be unimodal (see Supporting Information, Fig. S3), indicating that the former should experience recent bottlenecks and the latter should experience recent and rapid population expansion. However, further analyses using the non-significant variance and raggedness index tests indicated that none of the observed distributions differed significantly from those expected under a sudden expansion model (Table 3). Moreover, the significant negative calculated values for Tajima's D ($P < 0.01$) and non-significant positive calculated

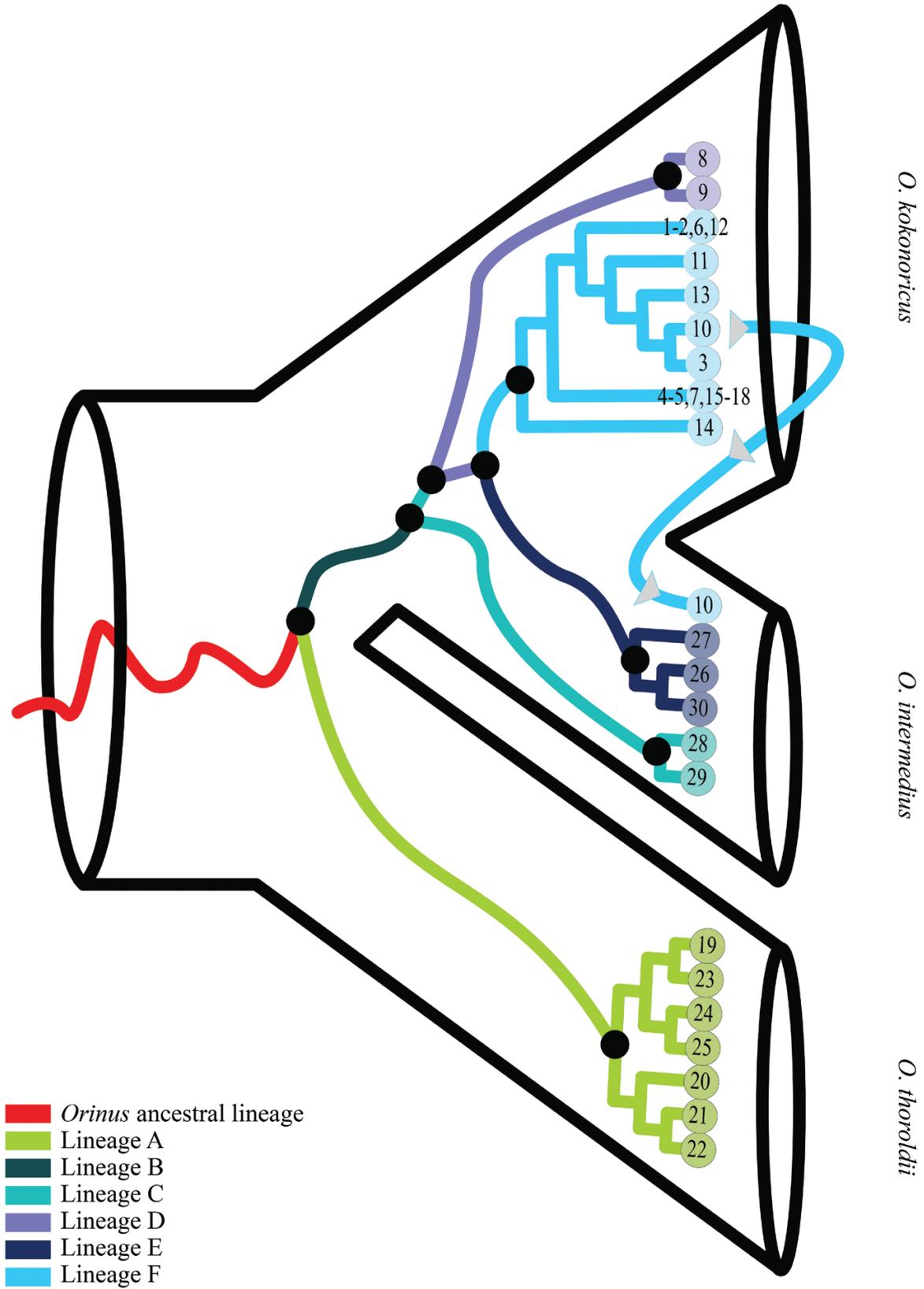
values for Fu's F_s ($P > 0.05$) were also supported this earlier, rapid demographic or geographical expansion and subsequent population growth (Table 3). Besides, the mean expansion times were estimated to be *c.* 25, 29, 40 and 53 kya for *O. intermedius*, *O. kokonoricus*, *O. thordii* and *Orinus*, respectively (Table 3). These results support a recent and rapid demographic population growth in the genus and each of the three species, and all expansions occurred before the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM; *c.* 20 kya). Possibly, *Orinus* and *O. thordii* have experienced recent bottlenecks.

DISCUSSION

PHYLOGEOGRAPHIC PATTERNS IN *ORINUS*

In recent years, many studies have focused on the early stages of speciation (Abbott *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2014b). Some of these have shown that divergence among species can occur even in the presence of gene flow and that species boundaries are maintained by divergent selection (Hewitt, 1996; Petit & Excoffier, 2009; Schluter, 2009; Nosil, 2012; Sousa & Hey, 2013). Our plastid DNA, nrITS and AFLP data suggest that *Orinus* may be at an advanced stage of speciation in which gene flow is limited, by geographical isolation or divergent selection, and fixation is underway so that most sequences form clades comprising only one species, but these species are paraphyletic (Fig. 5) (Funk & Omland, 2003). Population bottlenecks have also played a role in promoting divergence among closely related taxa but has rarely been studied (Butlin *et al.*, 2012; Bi *et al.*, 2016).

Our results suggest a subtle but complex geographical pattern in the genetic diversity of *Orinus*. High levels of interspecific genetic variation occurred among samples of plastid DNA (44.78%) and nrITS (81.90%) (Table 2). In addition, the differentiation among species was high overall evidenced by significant F_{ST} of 0.86 and 0.96 for plastid DNA and nrITS (Table 2), indicating nearly complete genetic isolation (Rieseberg, Church & Morjan, 2004; Hauquier *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, only one plastid DNA haplotype and no nrITS types were shared among all populations (Figs 1, 2). However, the pattern is more complex than isolation by species; the eastern and south-eastern species, *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius*, clearly have more gene flow between them than either does with the western species, *O. thordii*. *Orinus kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius* share two additional plastid DNA haplotypes in common (Fig. 1), exclusive of *O. thordii*, and one nrITS type (Fig. 2), strongly suggestive of recent or ongoing gene flow (Parchman, Benkman & Britch, 2006). Moreover, the phylogenetic reconstruction of nrITS sequences in *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius* shows that the haplotypes unique



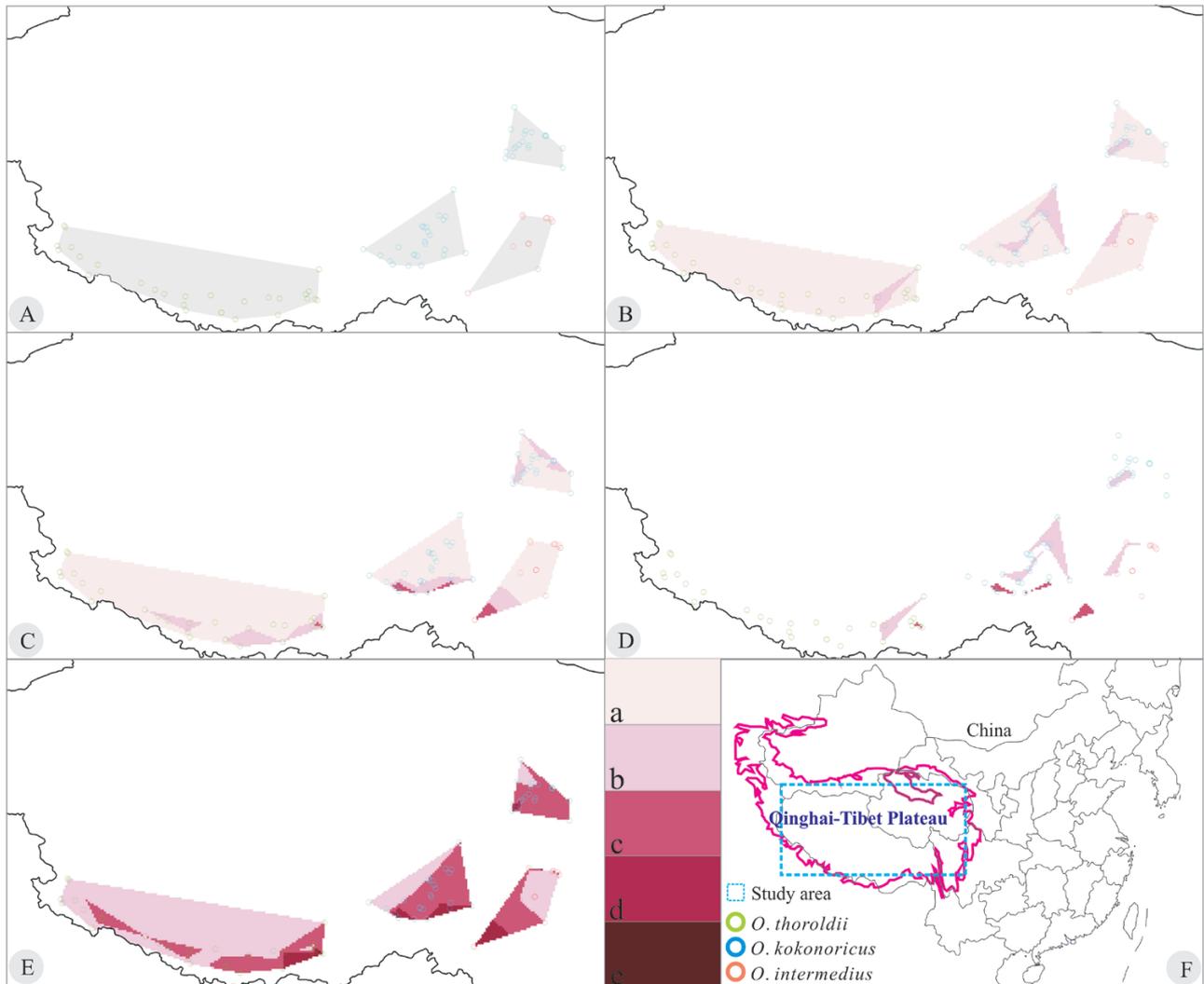


Figure 6. The sampled populations and interpolated distribution of genetic diversity of plastid DNA and nrITS in three *Orinus* spp. A, the sampled populations and convex hulls drawn around them. B, the interpolated distribution of genetic diversity of plastid DNA. C, the interpolated distribution of genetic diversity of nrITS. D, the highest genetic diversity regions of plastid DNA and nrITS. E, the interpolated distribution of genetic diversity of plastid DNA and nrITS. F, the legend of the study area in China to provide the geographical context, and a–e correspond to the number of genotypes 1–5, respectively.

to each species do not form clades; they are intermixed in their phylogenetic positions, and this is highly consistent with genetic connectivity and subsequent isolation and fixation. In contrast, *O. thoroldii* does not share any additional haplotypes or nrITS ribotypes in common with *O. kokonoricus* or *O. intermedius*. Overall, the demographic pattern suggests greater and/or more

frequent connectivity between the eastern and southeastern species than with the western one.

It is noteworthy that *Orinus* spp. are largely differentiated and possess few shared ribotypes or haplotypes, but the ribotypes or haplotypes do not form the same clades as the species (Fig. 5; see Supporting Information, Figs S1, S2). At least two, non-mutually

Figure 5. Hypothesis of incomplete lineage sorting and recombination in nrITS of *Orinus* shown within a species tree of the genus. Lineage A is fixed in *O. thoroldii*, whereas descendent types from lineage B are incompletely sorted in *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius*. nrITS type S10 evolved in lineage F of *O. kokonoricus* and was later shared with *O. intermedius* during a secondary contact event. Black nodes indicate divergence events among types that we can infer from our data, and extant types sampled in this study are numbered 1–30 at terminal nodes. Two particularly large clades of nrITS types in lineage 4 are collapsed into single terminal nodes, and all types represented by those nodes are listed numerically.

Table 3. Results of mismatch distribution analyses and neutrality tests (Tajima's D and Fu's F_s) based on cpDNA data

Groups	Mismatch distribution				Neutrality tests			
	τ (95% CI)	SSD (P value)	RAG (P value)	t_{\min} – t_{\max} (kya)	t_{ave} (kya)	Tajima's D (P value)	Fu's F_s (P value)	
<i>O. thoroldii</i>	0.772 (0.046–6.021)	0.057 (0.079)	0.160 (0.208)	26.639–88.797	40.983	–0.239 (0.001)	0.393 (0.000)	
<i>O. kokonoricus</i>	0.554 (0.050–1.261)	0.050 (0.099)	0.170 (0.217)	19.117–63.722	29.410	–0.197 (0.004)	0.342 (0.006)	
<i>O. intermedius</i>	0.480 (0.047–1.331)	0.025 (0.357)	0.196 (0.513)	16.563–55.210	25.482	–0.247 (0.006)	0.465 (0.014)	
Total	0.994 (0.050–3.577)	0.050 (0.128)	0.169 (0.254)	34.300–114.332	52.768	–0.224 (0.001)	0.384 (0.002)	

τ , time in number of generations elapsed since the sudden expansion episode; SSD, sum of squared deviations; RAG, Harpending's raggedness index; t_{\min} , absolute expansion time estimated with a high substitution rate, 1.0×10^{-8} substitutions/site/year (s/s/year); t_{\max} , absolute expansion time estimated with a low substitution rate, 0.3×10^{-8} s/s/year; t_{ave} , mean expansion time; kya, thousand years ago; CI, confidence interval.

exclusive hypotheses may explain this phylogeographic pattern: (1) somewhat recent species divergence with incomplete lineage sorting (Choleva *et al.*, 2014; Zhou *et al.*, 2017) or (2) recent and/or repeated secondary contact and introgression (Avise, 2000; Sardell & Uy, 2016). In *Orinus*, both mechanisms are needed to explain our results (Figs 1, 2, 4). Based on our nrITS data, we propose nrITS split into two lineages, A and B before or after the divergence of *O. thoroldii* from the rest of *Orinus* (Fig. 5). Lineage A became fixed in *O. thoroldii*, in which lineage sorting is complete (Fig. 5). Lineage B diversified into lineages C, D, E and F in an ancestor of *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius* (Fig. 5). Lineages C and E are limited to *O. intermedius*, whereas D and F occur only in *O. kokonoricus* (Fig. 5). Thus, sorting of the descendent genotypes of lineage B is incomplete between *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius*. The S10 nrITS type is shared by both *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius*, but is clearly derived in lineage F (Fig. 5). Therefore, it seems probable that the S10 type was shared by *O. kokonoricus* with *O. intermedius* during a secondary contact and hybridization event (Sardell & Uy, 2016; Zhou *et al.*, 2017). The plastid DNA data and the AFLPs are not in conflict with this hypothesis. Plastid DNA loci sort and become fixed more slowly than nuclear markers (Wolfe *et al.*, 1987; de Villiers *et al.*, 2013; Shaw *et al.*, 2017), such as nrITS, and the shared haplotypes among all three species and between *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius* may represent incomplete lineage sorting (Choleva *et al.*, 2014; Yasuda *et al.*, 2015; Kuritzin *et al.*, 2016). Alternatively, the haplotype shared among all three species may represent an older secondary contact (Miraldo *et al.*, 2011; Sardell & Uy, 2016), predating the S10 event and too old to be preserved in nrITS data. AFLPs revealed that species and populations within species comprise clades. Therefore, most but not all lineage sorting among species is complete (Choleva *et al.*, 2014; Yasuda *et al.*, 2015; Kuritzin *et al.*, 2016).

The demographic pattern that we observed in *Orinus* seems highly consistent with the history of geomorphism in the QTP and adjacent areas. The evidence for QTP uplifts comes primarily from detecting its effects on regional aridity and the monsoon climatic using dust sedimentation and indicator fossils of marine foraminifera (e.g. An *et al.*, 2001; Sun & An, 2001; Guo *et al.*, 2002; Zheng *et al.*, 2004). Although the exact timing of uplift events remains somewhat in question, the QTP probably underwent early orogenesis *c.* 40 Mya along its western margin as the Indian subcontinent collided with Eurasia and more extensive, rapid uplift 20–7 Mya (Harrison *et al.*, 1992; Ruddiman, 1998). In addition, many geological and historical biogeographic studies infer that that additional uplifts occurred east of the QTP around *c.* 4.0–2.5 Mya in adjacent mountain

ranges, especially the Hengduan Mountains (Chen, 1992, 1996; Zheng *et al.*, 2004; Gao *et al.*, 2013; Favre *et al.*, 2015). Thus, the Hengduan Mountains and other adjacent ranges have experienced more recent, Pliocene geological changes and associated climatic perturbations than the QTP proper (Xing & Ree, 2017). Contemporaneously, glacial cycling also impacted the area, and its effects can be difficult to distinguish from the genetic signature of geomorphism (Shackleton & Opdyke, 1973; Liu *et al.*, 2014b). Nevertheless, it is possible that regional geomorphism to the east of the QTP facilitated the dynamic history of recent allopatric speciation and secondary contact suggested by our nrITS data for *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius*. Similarly, the relatively recent geomorphism to the east of the QTP by comparison to the QTP may also be reflected in the evolutionary and demographic histories of other diverse plant groups. For example, Yang *et al.* (2012) found that species of *Meconopsis* Vig. (Papaveraceae) occurring in the QTP diverged earlier than species occurring in adjacent eastern areas.

ALLOPATRIC DIVERGENCE, GLACIAL REFUGIA AND HISTORICAL DEMOGRAPHY

The role of climatic oscillations in shaping the regional biota is important and should not be ruled out as a driver of evolutionary events in *Orinus*. Other species in the region have histories affected by climatic change. For example, *Anisodus tanguticus* Pascher (Solanaceae) has western and eastern clades that diverged during the Pleistocene, probably a result of genetic isolation in glacial refugia, rather than a geological event (Wan *et al.*, 2016). Similar patterns of intraspecific divergence due to Quaternary climatic change have also been found in other plant species in the QTP and adjacent regions, such as *Aconitum gymnandrum* Maxim. (Ranunculaceae) (Wang *et al.*, 2009a), *Sophora davidii* (Franch.) Skeels (Fabaceae) (Fan *et al.*, 2013) and *Oxyria sinensis* Hemsl. (Polygonaceae) (Meng *et al.*, 2015).

Based on the divergence time of 32.74 Mya for Chloridoideae, the crown age was dated to be 2.85 (95% HPD: 0.58–12.45) Mya, with interspecific divergences occurred in the range of 0.31–1.70 Mya (see Supporting Information, Fig. S2, Table S4). This relatively recent interspecific diversification atop an unbranched stem lineage is sometimes regarded as reflecting ancient extinctions (Harvey, May & Nee, 1994). Deep divergence in *Orinus* apparently began in the mid-Pleistocene (see Supporting Information, Fig. S2, Table S4). Although these estimated timescales for deep divergence must be interpreted with caution, they (the major nodes) correspond relatively well with recent QTP uplifts (0.01–1.80 Mya) (Li, Shi & Li, 1995; Shi, Li & Li, 1998;

Zheng, Xu & Shen, 2002). Development of aridification in the QTP was a response to climatic change at the time, such as long-term cooling and drying trends. By the early Pleistocene, the QTP dramatically uplifted to present heights (Wu *et al.*, 2008), which made the climate of this area become extremely cool and dry. Especially, strong episodic cooling resulted in sharp increases in aridity of the QTP regions (Fang *et al.*, 2002). Aridification played a significant role in the increase of genetic diversity, and even species divergence and speciation of alpine plants. Habitat fragmentation, vicariance and population isolation on the QTP provided opportunities for allopatric speciation through the action of selection and/or genetic drift (Wang *et al.*, 2013; Meng *et al.*, 2014; Wen *et al.*, 2014). Thus, deep intraspecific divergence in *Orinus* may be a result of adaptation to arid habitats, with the mechanisms probably being similar to those in other arid/desert species (Wang *et al.*, 2013; Yu *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2014b; Meng *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, it is likely that the deep divergence in *Orinus* was caused by allopatric differentiation and reduction in gene flow following plateau uplifts and climatic oscillation.

Plant populations in refugia generally have high genetic divergence (Petit *et al.*, 2003). Our surface analysis in ArcMap revealed four centres of diversity for haplotypes, ribotypes and the combined diversity of haplotypes and ribotypes, which were consistent with the result of glacial refugia based on both plastid DNA and nrITS data sets (Figs 1B, 2B, 6B–E). Among them, there were three areas with relatively high plastid DNA and nrITS genetic diversity and one region with unique plastid DNA haplotypes and high nrITS genotypes (Figs 1B, 2B, 6B–E). One region with plastid DNA haplotype uniqueness and high nrITS genetic diversity (*O. intermedius*) is located on the southern edge of the QTP, an area well known as an important refugium for other alpine plant species (Figs 1B, 2B, 6E) (Zhang *et al.*, 2005; Meng *et al.*, 2007; Chen *et al.*, 2008; Yang *et al.*, 2008; Wang *et al.*, 2009a; Gao *et al.*, 2012; Liu *et al.*, 2012, 2014b; Ma *et al.*, 2014), which was further supported by the result of surface analysis in ArcMap (Fig. 6C–E). Furthermore, three (S28–S30) of four (S10, S28–S30) nrITS ribotypes from this region were endemic, indicating a divergence centre for *Orinus*. Plastid and nrITS genetic diversities are higher in two regions (*O. kokonoricus*) in the north-eastern and eastern plateau (Figs 1B, 2B, 6E), which may represent two important refugia throughout the Quaternary. Our surface analysis in ArcMap also indicated the northern metapopulation of *O. kokonoricus* has a centre of diversity at the southern portion of its range (Fig. 6B, C), and the southern metapopulation of *O. kokonoricus* has another centre of diversity at the southern portion of its range (Fig. 6E). We have two alternative biogeographic hypotheses regarding high levels of genetic diversity

in *O. kokonoricus*. A glacial refugium allowed *O. kokonoricus* to survive climatic oscillations and to accumulate genetic diversity (Tzedakis *et al.*, 2002) or this region was composed of a mixture of individuals with different origins, resulting in higher genetic diversity than the original source (Petit *et al.*, 2003). If the latter hypothesis is true, then haplotypes detected in this region should form a subset of haplotypes of the multiple original sources, although four (H1, H3, H5 and H7) out of the seven plastid DNA haplotypes in these populations of *O. kokonoricus* are endemic. Furthermore, the majority of nrITS ribotypes (S1–S9 and S11–S18) were restricted to this area, indicating other divergence centres of *O. kokonoricus*. In addition, widespread haplotypes (H2 and H4) and ribotypes (S2 and S3) coexisting among the great number of plastid DNA haplotypes and nrITS ribotypes also occurred in these two regions. Thus, the most-parsimonious explanation is consequently the presence of glacial refugia for *O. kokonoricus*. A similar result was found in previous studies of endemics species from the QTP (e.g. Gao *et al.*, 2012; Ma *et al.*, 2014). In addition, the western region of the QTP was only occupied by *O. thordii* probably represent the fourth separate refugia during the large glaciation stage (Figs 1, 2, 6B–E). The populations of *O. thordii* in eastern part of the range had relatively high plastid DNA and nrITS genetic diversity (Figs 1, 2), which were congruent in showing a centre of diversity according to the surface analysis in ArcMap (Fig. 6B–E). Therefore, we thought greater diversity among ribotypes than haplotypes yielded a geographical pattern in the combined analysis of genotypes consistent with ribotypes alone.

Based on the plastid DNA data set, the three *Orinus* spp. might have experienced recent and repeated population expansion after allopatric divergence (e.g. Avise, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2009b; Gao *et al.*, 2012; Ma *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2015), and *O. thordii* might also have experienced recent bottlenecks due to its bimodal mismatch distribution (Fig. S3B). A star-like phylogeny pattern for *O. thordii* and *O. kokonoricus* is shown in the haplotype network (Fig. 1C), suggesting the haplotypes might have originated from a sudden expansion event (Hudson, 1990). This is supported by significantly negative Tajima's *D* values (Table 3), as well as unimodal mismatch distributions for *O. kokonoricus* and *O. intermedius* (see Supporting Information, Fig. S3C, D). Overall, these findings support expansions of *Orinus* in western, eastern and north-eastern regions, perhaps between 25.48 and 52.77 kya, prior to the LGM (18–24 kya) (Shi *et al.*, 1998) (Table 3), but later than other previously reported QTP endemic genera (Ma *et al.*, 2014) and species (e.g. Yang *et al.*, 2008; Jia *et al.*, 2011; Li *et al.*, 2012). Early expansion of *Orinus* would have yielded all haplotypes in the QTP region. However, some haplotypes are

fixed in specific populations. For example, H3, H4 and H6 correspond to populations 3–5, 42–43 and 17–20, respectively. Thus, the existence of multiple high-elevation refugia that would have facilitated survival during the LGM (Wang *et al.*, 2009c; Opgenoorth *et al.*, 2010; Jia *et al.*, 2011; Gao *et al.*, 2012; Liu *et al.*, 2012; Ma *et al.*, 2014). Perhaps, only small and isolated populations, such as P87 and P88, survived in restricted ice-free regions, and range expansion in the refugia appears to be restricted during glacial and interglacial periods. However, another distinct genetic signature via large-scale range expansions, that is wide distribution of a single haplotype (Avise, 1987; Comes & Kadereit, 1998; Hewitt, 2000). In the present study, two widely distributed haplotypes (H2, H9) were found in *Orinus*. For instance, H2 was found as a single haplotype in 59 of the 88 populations of the QTP and fixed in 25 of them, whereas H9 was fixed in 11 of the 28 populations in *O. thordii* from the western QTP (e.g. Jia *et al.*, 2011; Li *et al.*, 2012; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, *Orinus* might have experienced a second recent range expansion, probably after the LGM, which led to the wide distribution of the two haplotypes in the QTP region.

Orinus intermedius is a newly described species (Su *et al.*, 2017) and is sister to *O. kokonoricus* (Figs 1C, 3, 5). The morphological characters of *O. intermedius* are intermediate between its two congeners (Su *et al.*, 2017). We initially hypothesized that *O. intermedius* may have formed via hybrid speciation on the QTP and its adjacent areas (Su *et al.*, 2015, 2017) in a similar manner to *Ostryopsis intermedia* B.Tian & J.Q.Liu (Betulaceae) (Liu *et al.*, 2014a), *Picea purpurea* Masters (Pinaceae) (Sun *et al.*, 2014), *Roscoea humeana* Balf.f. & W.W.Sm. and *R. cautleoides* Gagnep. (Zingiberaceae) (Zhao *et al.*, 2016). However, our plastid and nrITS data support recent divergences between *O. intermedius* and *O. kokonoricus*, which may explain their morphological similarities. In addition, the AFLP data suggest that the three *Orinus* spp. each form a separate clade indicating phylogenetic distinctiveness (Supporting Information, Fig. S4). As the next steps, we plan to use more rapidly evolving markers, such as single- or low-copy nuclear genes, or even next-generation sequencing approaches in *Orinus* (Zimmer & Wen, 2012, 2015) to unravel the genetic structure and phylogeographic patterns and to explore speciation mechanisms (Abbott, 2017; Crawford & Archibald, 2017).

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article at the publisher's web-site:

Figure S1. Strict MP consensus tree of 14 plastid DNA haplotypes of three *Orinus* spp. Each tree is topologically congruent with ML tree and Bayesian consensus tree based on same data set. Bootstrap support values from Bayesian and MP analyses, and corresponding posterior probabilities from MP analyses, are given above branches (values > 50%). *Dinebra viscida* was used as an outgroup.

Figure S2. Strict MP consensus tree of 30 nrITS ribotypes of three *Orinus* species. Each tree is topologically congruent with ML tree and Bayesian consensus tree based on same data set. Bootstrap support values from Bayesian and ML analyses, and corresponding posterior probabilities from MP analyses, are given above branches (values > 50%). Four *Cleistogenes* spp. (*C. bulgarica*, *C. festucacea*, *C. mucronata* and *C. songorica*) were used as outgroups.

Figure S3. Mismatch distributions for plastid DNA data in genus *Orinus* (A), *O. thoroldii* (B), *O. kokonoricus* (C) and *O. intermedius* (D). The thin line represents the expected (Exp) values, and the dashed line represents the observed (Obs) values.

Figure S4. UPGMA dendrograms for three *Orinus* spp. generated by cluster analysis based on AFLP data set.

Table S1. Sampling data, estimates of haplotype diversity (H_E), and haplotype composition for plastid DNA and nrITS data sets from 88 populations of *Orinus*.

Table S2. Variable sites for 14 plastid DNA haplotypes of three *Orinus* spp. on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP).

Table S3. Variable sites for 30 nrITS ribotypes of three *Orinus* spp. on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP).

Table S4. Estimates of divergence times in *Orinus* for the major nodes based on nrITS data set.