



Incomplete lineage sorting and secondary admixture results in the paraphyly of *Lecanorchis cerina*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. thalassica* (Orchidaceae) in Taiwan

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ABSTRACT: Inferring the evolutionary history of a group of closely related species can be challenging. Genetic diversity, structure, and multilocus phylogeny were studied to shed light on the evolutionary processes that shapes diversity in three closely related *Lecanorchis* species (*L. cerina*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. thalassica*). In this study, we surveyed nucleotide and genetic variation, respectively, using nuclear internal transcribed spacer 1 (nrITS1) and amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) in individuals of *Lecanorchis* species. Both nrITS1 parsimonious and AFLP neighbor-joining trees showed paraphyly indicated that lineage sorting for these species may be incomplete. ITS1 haplotype sharing was found within *L. cerina*, within *L. suginoana*, and between *L. suginoana* and *L. thalassica*. Higher AFLP diversity was observed in *L. cerina* than that in *L. suginoana* and in *L. thalassica*, indicating larger population size in *L. cerina*. Two contrasting patterns of AFLP genetic differentiation between geographic neighbors relative to geographic distant populations were observed. Two major AFLP genetic components were found in individuals of *Lecanorchis* species examined. Individuals of *L. cerina* and of *L. thalassica* were classified into either component with high probabilities. Most individuals of *L. suginoana* were classified into one of these components, but two individuals showed apparent admixture of these components. The evidence of paraphyly, haplotype sharing, higher *L. cerina* diversity, sharing and admixture of genetic components, and the contrasting patterns of genetic differentiation suggest that both incomplete lineage sorting and secondary gene flow could have occurred in these closely related species, though at different temporal scale.

KEY WORDS: AFLP, incomplete lineage sorting, *Lecanorchis*, nrITS1, secondary gene flow, Vanilloideae, Vanilloideae.

INTRODUCTION

The orchid genus *Lecanorchis* Blume (Orchidaceae) is mycoheterotrophic and comprises 31 accepted names (WCVP, 2022) widely distributed in the Southeast and Eastern Asia. Fourteen *Lecanorchis* species were recorded in Taiwan (Lin, 2019). Mainly growing in moist humus of primary forest, species of *Lecanorchis* in the field were often overlooked due to their small, leafless achlorophyllous habits, and flowers usually have a mixture of white, brown, and purple. The difficulty in precise identification of *Lecanorchis* species is often encountered because of the overall morphological similarity, brief flowering periods, and the lack of important diagnostic characteristics in herbarium specimens (Suetsugu *et al.*, 2020). Nonetheless, with the assistance of molecular analysis of nuclear internal transcribed spacer (nrITS) sequences, species-level phylogenetic studies can be more efficient (e.g., Suetsugu *et al.*, 2018; Suetsugu *et al.*, 2019; Takashima *et al.*, 2019; Suetsugu *et al.*, 2020; but see Álvarez and Wendel, 2003). Molecular analysis of nrITS clearly separate *L. nigricans* and *L. taiwaniana* even though they are considered synonymous (Suetsugu *et al.*, 2018) and did not support the placement of *L. suginoana* (Tuyama) Seriz. as a variety of *L. japonica* as previously interpreted (Takashima *et al.*, 2019). Additionally, a new species *L.*

moritae (Suetsugu *et al.*, 2019) and a new form of *L. japonica*, *L. japonica* f. *lutea* (Suetsugu *et al.*, 2020) were identified based on nrITS sequences.

Three *Lecanorchis* species, *L. cerina*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. thalassica*, having overlapping flowering seasons, can be found in the same mountainous area such as Hakanni mountain in northwestern Taiwan (Fig. 1). *L. cerina* (Fig. 2A, B), an endemic species, is the most widely occurred species throughout Taiwan at elevations of 400–1700 m. *L. thalassica* (Fig. 2E, F), an endemic, is restricted to central part of Taiwan and grows at elevations of 1400–2000 m. Whereas *L. suginoana* (Fig. 2C, D), a species also occur to Japan, is restricted to central part of Taiwan and found at elevations of 1200–2000 m. Occasionally, suspected hybrids between these species were observed. For example, the flower of one individual plant from Youlue mountain showed some features similar to *L. cerina* and some to *L. thalassica* (Fig. 3). Hybridization is often inferred from incongruence among gene trees from independent loci (Linder and Rieseberg, 2004) or from trees in which species are not monophyletic (Funk and Omland, 2003). However, incomplete lineage sorting (ILS) can also display these gene tree features. Because of the overall morphological similarity, relationships between *L. cerina*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. thalassica* can be genetically indistinguishable due to hybridization and/or ILS.

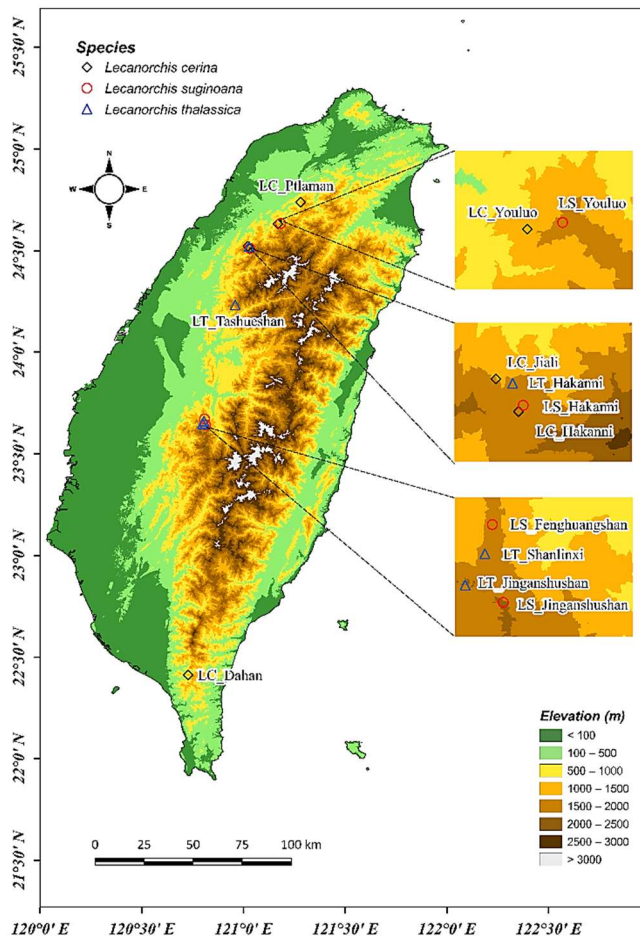


Fig. 1. Map of Taiwan with sample locations for *Lecanorchis* individuals collected in the present study

Although coalescent-based frameworks have been proposed to distinguish secondary gene flow from ILS (e.g., Nielsen and Wakeley, 2001; Hey, 2010; Csilléry *et al.*, 2010; Sunnåker *et al.*, 2013), these methods require information regarding to the true phylogenetic relationships among the species examined. Nonetheless, secondary gene flow and ILS can also be disentangled by comparing patterns of genetic differentiation between pairs of neighboring and distantly located populations of different species (Muir and Schlötterer, 2005). Under the secondary gene flow scenario, among geographic neighboring populations of different species, gene flow is expected to be higher resulting in lower levels of interspecific genetic differentiation than between distantly located populations (Petit and Excoffier, 2009). In contrast, the retention of shared ancestral polymorphism due to ILS may result in the low levels of among population divergence across wide geographic distributions of species (Muir and Schlötterer, 2005; Szövényi *et al.*, 2008; Stenoien *et al.*, 2011; Meleshko *et al.*, 2021) and that geographic distant populations are expected to be no more differentiated than neighboring populations. Moreover, it is likely that ILS can be inferred

for tangled species relationships if one species harbored significantly higher genetic diversity than that of the others. In this study, we collected floral samples of *L. cerina*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. thalassica* in the same and different mountainous areas in Taiwan. We obtained ITS1 sequences and surveyed the genetic variation using amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) (Vos *et al.*, 1995). The aims of this study were to investigate (1) genetic relationships between the three closely related *Lecanorchis* species at individual level, (2) genetic differentiation at species and population level, and (3) sharing and admixture of ITS1 haplotypes and AFLP genetic components between species. Results of this study can be used to gain an insight into whether secondary gene flow and/or ILS played roles in the evolution of the three closely related *Lecanorchis* species.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling and total DNA extraction

Thirty-nine floral samples of *L. cerina* ($n = 17$), *L. suginoana* ($n = 12$), and *L. thalassica* ($n = 10$) were collected by Tsan-Piao Lin during 2020 and 2021 flowering season. Map of sampling sites (Fig. 1) was created using Quantum Geographic Information System (QGIS version 3.10; <http://qgis.osgeo.org>) based on the 20 m digital elevation model (DEM) provided by the Taiwan Ministry of Interior (<https://data.moi.gov.tw/MoiOD/default/Index.aspx>). The color-ramp of DEM was rendered at a 500 m interval for height visualization in the basemap generation. The locations of sampling site were saved as a vector layer assigned to the wgs84 geographic coordinate system. QGIS map composer was used to overlap the vector layer upon the basemap.

Flowers were silica gel dried and ground with liquid nitrogen for genomic DNA extraction based on a modified CTAB (cetyltrimethyl ammonium bromide) procedure (Doyle and Doyle, 1987). DNA was precipitated with ethanol and dissolved in 200 μ l TE buffer, pH 8.0 after washing with 70% ethanol. DNA concentration was quantified using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technology, Wilmington, DE, USA) and DNA samples were stored at -20°C .

DNA sequencing, sequence alignment, and phylogeny assessment of internal transcribed spacer

Double-stranded DNA templates for direct sequencing were amplified by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR). PCR amplification for ITS1 was achieved using ITS1-F (5'-GGAGAAGTCGTAACAAGGTTTCCG-3') and ITS1-R (5'-ATCCTGCAATTCACACCAAGTATCG-3') primers. Reactions of PCR amplification were conducted on a DNA Programmable Thermal Cycler (DNAEngine PTC-0200 Thermal Cycler, Bio-Rad, Foster City, CA, USA). The PCR mixture (20 μ l) contained 60 ng of template DNA, 10 μ M ITS1-F primer, 10 μ M ITS1-R primer, 2.5 mM dNTPs,

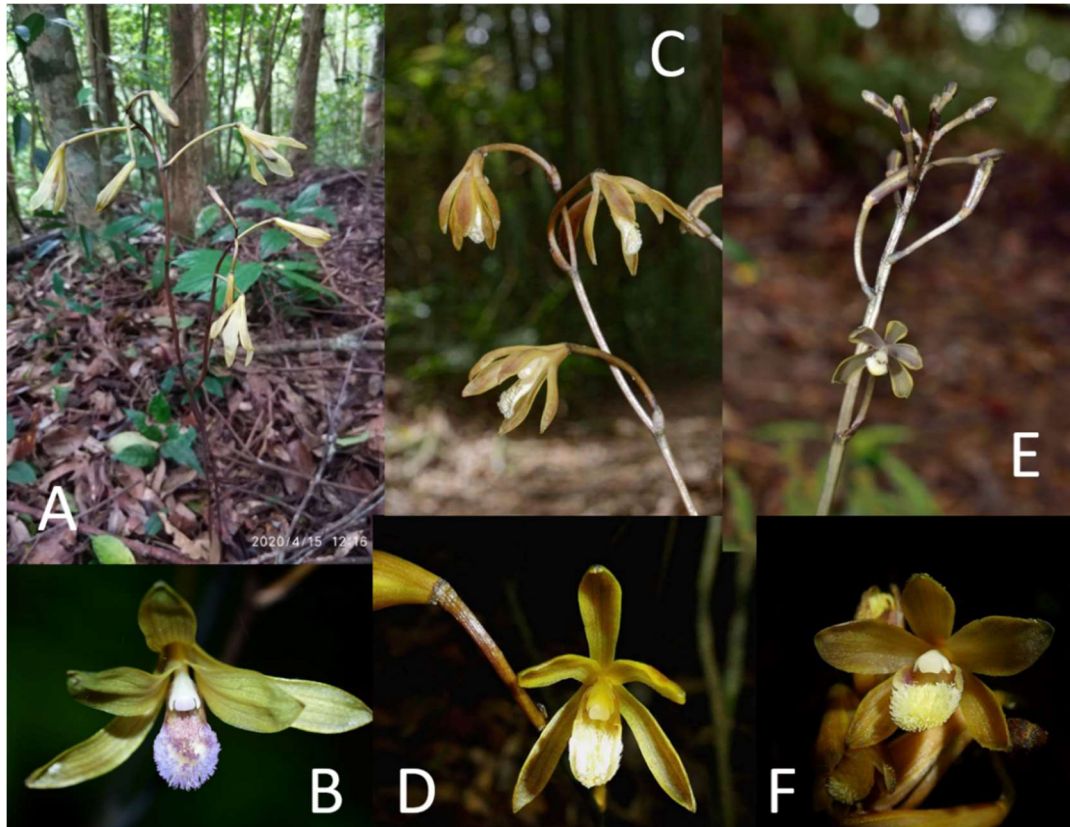


Fig. 2. Photos of *Lecanorchis cerina* (A, B), *L. suginoana* (C, D) and *L. thalassica* (E, F). B, taken by Ching-Huang Liu; A and F, taken by Da-Ming Huang; C, D and E, taken by Kuo-Chu Yeh

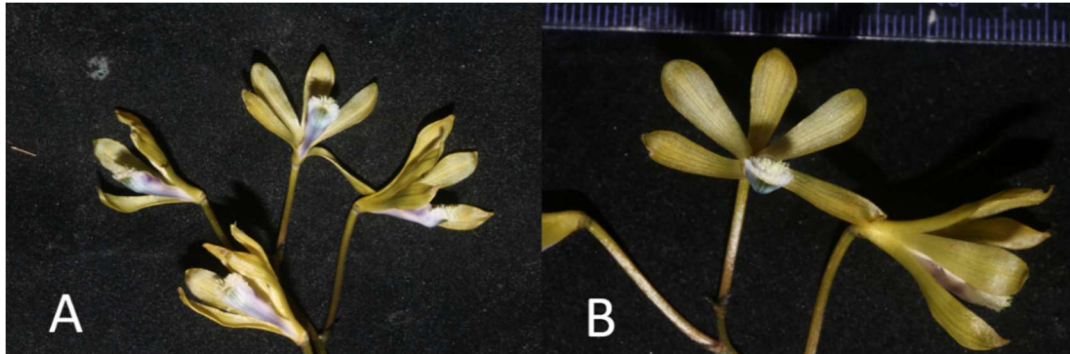


Fig. 3. Photos (A–B) of one suspected hybrid between *Lecanorchis* species investigated. Photos were taken by Da-Ming Huang from Youlue mountain at 1400 m during *Lecanorchis* flowering season in 2019.

10 U *Taq* DNA polymerase (Zymeset Biotech, Taipei, Taiwan), and 10X PCR buffer (Zymeset). The cycle of the PCR reaction consisted of 3 min at 94°C for pre-denaturation, followed by 10 cycles of 45 s at 94°C for denaturation, 20 s at 62°C for annealing, and 1 min at 72°C for extension. Amplification products were run on 2% agarose gels, purified with a QiaGen purification kit (Thermo Fisher, Taipei, Taiwan), and sequenced using both forward and reverse reactions with a *Taq* BigDye Terminator Cycle Sequencing Kit and a model ABI373XL automated sequencer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA).

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We performed multiple sequence alignment using the *msa* function of the R *msa* package (Bodenhofer, 2015) based on the ClustalW algorithm (Thompson *et al.*, 1994) in the R environment (R Development Core team, 2020). Maximum parsimony analysis was performed using the *pratchet* function of the R *phangorn* package (Schliep, 2011) based on the *fitch* algorithm and heuristic-search-based subtree pruning and regrafting rearrangement. The amount of support for monophyletic groups was evaluated using 100 bootstrap replicates (Felsenstein, 1985). Gaps were treated as missing data and all characters were accorded equal weight. The consistency



Table 1. Sampling sites, species, population codes, population ITS1 haplotypes, and ITS1 nucleotide diversity at species level of three closely related *Lecanorchis* species.

	N	Aligned length (bp)	Haplotype	Nucleotide diversity (θ_{π})	Nucleotide diversity (θ_S)
<i>Lecanorchis cerina</i>	17	298		0.01387	0.01020
Dahan (LCD)	1		F (1)		
Hakanni (LCH)	1		F (1)		
Jiali (LCJ)	5		F (4), G (1)		
Ptlaman (LCP)	3		A (1), D (1), F (1)		
Youluo (LCY)	7		A (1), B (1), F (4), H (1)		
<i>Lecanorchis suginoana</i>	12	301		0.01563	0.01385
Fenghuangshan (LSF)	2		N (1)		
Hakanni (LSH)	6		E (1), K (1), N (2), O (1), U (1)		
Jinganshushan (LSJ)	2		J (1), N (1), T (1)		
Youluo (LSY)	2		K (1), N (1)		
<i>Lecanorchis thalassica</i>	10	301		0.01307	0.01495
Hakanni (LTH)	3		K (1), P (1), Q (1)		
Jinganshushan (LTJ)	2		I (2)		
Shanlinxi (LTS)	2		L (1), S (1)		
Tashueshan (LTT)	3		C (1), M (1), R (1)		
Total	39	301		0.01526	0.01006

N, number of samples

index (CI, Kluge and Farris, 1969) and the retention index (RI, Farris, 1989) were computed using the *CI* and the *RI* function of the R phangorn package, respectively. ITS1 sequences of Japanese *L. japonica* and *L. hokurikuensis* (GenBank number MN221410 and LC504448, respectively) were used as outgroups. ITS1 sequences of Japanese *L. suginoana* and *L. moritae* (GenBank number LC457494 and LC457487, respectively) were also included in the analysis. The ITS1 sequences of *Lecanorchis* examined in this study were deposited in GenBank under the accession numbers ON212619–ON212639 (haplotypes A–U; Table 1). A TCS haplotype network (Clement *et al.*, 2002) was depicted using PopART software (Leigh and Bryant, 2015). Nucleotide diversity measures (θ_{π} and θ_S) were estimated using DnaSP v.6 (Rozas *et al.*, 2017). θ_{π} and θ_S were calculated based on the average pairwise number of differences between sequences and the number of segregating sites per sequence, respectively.

AFLP genotyping

Of the 39 samples collected, one sample of *L. suginoana* was excluded for AFLP genotyping due to the scarce of total DNA left after ITS1 amplification experiment. Restriction digestion was performed using 200 ng of total genomic DNA incubated with 10 U *EcoRI* and 10 U *MseI* in a 10X CutSmart buffer (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA) at 37°C for 1.5 h. The reaction was then placed at 65 °C for 15 min to deactivate restriction enzyme activity. The digested DNA products were mixed with 5 μ M *EcoRI* adaptor, 50 μ M *MseI* adaptor, 5 U T4 DNA ligase (Thermo Scientific, Vilnius, Lithuania), and 5X ligation buffer (Thermo Scientific) in a 10- μ l ligation reaction mixture at 22°C for 1 h.

Pre-selective amplification was performed using 3 μ l

diluted digested samples (1:9 dilution with ddH₂O) as a template in a 20- μ l volume containing 12 μ M *EcoRI* (E00: 5'-GACTGCGTACCAATTC-3') primer, 12 μ M *MseI* (M00: 5'-GATGAGTCCTGAGTAA-3') primer, 2.5 mM dNTPs, 1 U *Taq* DNA polymerase (Zymeset), and 10X PCR buffer (Zymeset). The pre-selective amplification was performed with an initial holding at 72°C for 2 min and pre-denaturation at 94°C for 3 min, followed by 25 cycles of 30 s at 94°C, 30 s at 56°C, and 1 min at 72°C, with a final 5-min holding at 72°C. Eight *EcoRI-MseI* (E00 and M00) primer combinations with additional nucleotide bases added at the ends (Table S1) were used for AFLP selective amplification. *EcoRI* primer was labeled with fluorescent dye (6-carboxyfluorescein or hexachloro-fluorescein) and amplification was performed in a 20- μ l volume containing 10 μ M *EcoRI* and *MseI* primers, 2.5 mM dNTPs (2.5 mM), 2 U *Taq* DNA polymerase (Zymeset), 10X PCR buffer (Zymeset), and 1 μ l of each diluted pre-selective amplified product (1:19 dilution with ddH₂O). PCR conditions were initial holding at 94°C for 3 min, followed by 13 cycles of 30 s at 94°C, 30 s at 65–56°C (decreasing the temperature by 0.7°C each cycle), 1 min at 72°C, then 23 cycles of 30 s at 94°C, 30 s at 56°C, and 1 min at 72°C, with a final 5-min holding at 72°C.

PCR products of selective amplification were electrophoresed on an ABI 3730XL DNA analyzer and scored with Peak Scanner v.1.0 (Applied Biosystem). We scored AFLP fragments using a fluorescent threshold set at 150 units. Amplified fragments peaked by less than one nucleotide in a ± 0.8 base pair window were scored as the same fragment in the range of 100–500 bp. We removed amplified fragments that scored higher than 99% or less than 1% of individuals. Error rate per locus of each AFLP primer combination was calculated based on



amplification replicates obtained from randomly chosen five samples from each species. Loci with an error rate per locus greater than 5% were removed (Bonin *et al.*, 2004). The mean error rate for AFLP was 4.51% (Table S1). AFLP data is available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Genetic diversity, differentiation, clustering, and relationships based on AFLP variation

The proportion of polymorphic loci (%*P*, 95% criterion) and population and species level unbiased expected heterozygosity (*uH_E*) (Nei, 1987) were estimated based on allele frequencies assuming Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium with non-uniform prior distribution (Zhivotovsky, 1999) using AFLP-SURV v.1.0 (Vekemans *et al.*, 2002). The number of private alleles for each species was calculated using the *private_alleles* function of the R package poppr (Kamvar *et al.*, 2015). *uH_E* per locus was estimated using ARLEQUIN v.6.0 (Excoffier and Lischer, 2010). Linear mixed effect model (LMM), considering population as a fixed factor and locus as a random factor, was used to test the difference of mean *uH_E* per locus among species. The *lmer* function of the R package lme4 (Bates *et al.*, 2015) was used in the LMM analysis based on reduced maximum likelihood estimation, and significance tested using the *Anova* function of the R package car based on type II Wald χ^2 statistic (Fox and Weisberg, 2011). Tukey's multiple comparison test was applied for pairwise species comparisons using the *lsmeans* function of the R package emmeans (Lenth, 2018). Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) was used to estimate the level of genetic differentiation between species (Φ_{CT}) and between populations (Φ_{ST}) of the three *Lecanorchis* species using the *poppr.amova* function of the R package poppr, and significance tested using the *randtest* function of the R package ade4 (Dray and Dufour, 2007) with 9,999 permutations. Pairwise *F_{ST}* between species and between populations were estimated using ARLEQUIN and significance tested with 10,000 permutations.

Assignment of *Lecanorchis* individuals into genetic homogeneous groups was assessed using sNMF algorithm of landscape and ecological association (LEA; Fricot and Francois, 2015) and STRUCTURE v.2.3 (Pritchard *et al.*, 2000) based on AFLP variation. Individual assignments with *K* = 1–4 based on least-squares optimization were assessed using the *snmf* function of the R package LEA (Fricot and Francois, 2015). The regularization parameter, iterations, and repetitions in *snmf* were set to 100, 200, and 10, respectively, and other arguments set to defaults. The mean minimal cross-entropy (CE) was used to determine the best *K* in LEA. Bayesian clustering was also used for individual assignment to different population clusters (*K* = 1–4) using STRUCTURE v.2.3 (Pritchard *et al.*, 2000). STRUCTURE identifies distinct genetic populations and

assigns individuals probabilistically to populations. We applied no admixture model with allele frequencies correlated among populations assuming that the genotypes of individuals within a population are derived completely from that population. Prior population information was not incorporated in calculating the posterior probability for individuals belonging to different clusters. For each clustering scenario (*K* = 1–4), we performed 20 complete analyses each with a 50,000 burn-in period and a sampling period of 5×10^5 iterations. Different clustering scenarios were evaluated using the mean log probability, *LnP(D)* (Pritchard *et al.*, 2000) and the change in log probability, $\Delta L(K)$ (Evanno *et al.*, 2005).

Genetic clustering of *Lecanorchis* individuals was further assessed using discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC; Jombart *et al.*, 2010). The *find.clusters* and *dapc* functions of the R package adegenet (Jombart and Ahmed, 2011) were used in DAPC analysis. Bayesian information criterion (BIC) was used to determine the best *K* in DAPC.

Genetic relationships among individuals of the three *Lecanorchis* species were assessed using neighbor-joining (NJ) tree based on AFLP variation. The pairwise Nei's genetic distances (Nei, 1978) were calculated using the *nei.dist* function of the R package poppr and used in generating an unrooted NJ tree using the *nj* function of the R package ape (Paradis and Schliep, 2019). The bootstrap support values were calculated based on 1,000 replicates using the *aboot* function of the R package poppr.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We obtained double stranded ITS1 sequences for all samples studied. The length of ITS1 ranged from 291 to 299 bp before alignment and 301 bp after alignment. Excluding the outgroup, ITS1 had 12 polymorphic sites, 6 of which were parsimony informative and 1 was singleton, yielding 21 haplotypes (Table 1). Similar nucleotide diversity estimated using θ_π and θ_s , based on the ITS1 sequences, were found for the three *Lecanorchis* species examined (Table 1).

Parsimony analysis produced a most parsimonious tree (Fig. 4) with 99 steps. Low CI (0.525) and RI (0.779) values were obtained. Essentially low bootstrap support values (< 50%) were found and the phylogeny can completely collapse into one single lineage. Hence, the short ITS1 length obtained may have low power to resolve phylogenetic relationships of the three *Lecanorchis* species studied, at individual level. Nonetheless, several *L. cerina* individuals were most closely related to the outgroups, *L. japonica* and *L. hokurikuensis*. *L. suginoana* and *L. thalassica* individuals were nested within *L. cerina* individuals and no reciprocal monophyly was observed for *L. suginoana* and *L. thalassica*. ITS1 sequences of Japanese *L. suginoana* and

**Table 2.** Species and population genetic diversity estimates of *Lecanorchis cerina*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. thalassica* based on AFLP variation.

Species	Longitude /latitude	Number of samples	Number of private alleles (N_P)	Percent polymorphism (%P)	uH_E (SE)
<i>Lecanorchis cerina</i>		17	126	81.9	0.220 (0.007)
Dahan (LCD)	120.72/22.41	1		-	-
Hakanni (LCH)	121.03/24.50	1		-	-
Jiali (LCJ)	121.02/24.52	5		61.9	0.223 (0.009)
Ptlaman (LCP)	121.28/24.73	3		51.4	0.256 (0.010)
Youlue (LCY)	121.19/24.64	7		78.4	0.245 (0.007)
<i>Lecanorchis suginoana</i>		11	7	72.1	0.166 (0.007)
Fenghuangshan (LSF)	120.80/23.67	1		-	-
Hakanni (LSH)	121.03/24.51	6		50.5	0.154 (0.008)
Jinganshushan (LSJ)	120.81/23.64	2		32.7	0.202 (0.012)
Youlue (LSY)	121.19/24.65	2		27.3	0.170 (0.012)
<i>Lecanorchis thalassica</i>		10	10	75.9	0.190 (0.007)
Hakanni (LTH)	121.03/24.50	3		34.6	0.157 (0.009)
Jinganshushan (LTJ)	120.79/23.64	2		38.7	0.239 (0.012)
Shanlinxi (LTS)	120.80/23.66	2		36.8	0.226 (0.012)
Tashueshan (LTT)	120.95/24.23	3		35.2	0.172 (0.010)

uH_E , unbiased expected heterozygosity

L. moritae were closely related to Taiwanese *L. suginoana*. Further large scale phylogeographic study may be helpful in resolving the genealogical and phylogenetic relationships of Taiwanese *Lecanorchis* species. Tangled phylogenetic relationships for taxa that have undergone recent, rapid radiation are commonly observed (Rokas and Carroll, 2006). The ITS1 parsimonious and AFLP NJ (Fig. 5) trees reflected paraphyly of individuals of *Lecanorchis* species examined, suggestive of a possibility of rapid radiation of ancestral polymorphism (Pease *et al.*, 2016; Ebersbach *et al.*, 2017) despite the need for more evidence. Nonetheless, rapid evolutionary transitions in floral characters of orchids are common, including species occurring in Taiwan (e.g., Pérez-Excoibar *et al.*, 2017; Hu *et al.*, 2020; Farminhão *et al.*, 2021).

As shown in Fig. S1, most ITS1 haplotypes grouped in cluster 1 contained haplotypes belonged to *L. cerina*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. thalassica*. Cluster 2 contained only the haplotypes belonged to *L. suginoana* and *L. thalassica*. Haplotype A specific to *L. cerina* was found in Youlue and Ptlaman mountains (Table 1, Fig. S1). Haplotype F (the most frequent haplotype in cluster 1) specific to *L. cerina* was found in Youlue, Hakanni, Ptlaman, Jiali, and Dahan mountains. Haplotype N (the most frequent haplotype in cluster 2) specific to *L. suginoana* was found in Hakanni, Jinganshushan, Youlue, and Fenghuangshan mountains. These widespread haplotypes could be parsimoniously explained by ILS (Muir and Schlötterer, 2005) within *L. cerina* and within *L. suginoana*. In cluster 1, mutations of haplotypes found in the Youlue and Ptlaman mountains specific to *L. cerina* may have generated haplotypes of *L. suginoana* and *L. thalassica* occurred in the same and different mountainous areas (Fig. S1). Moreover, haplotype K (cluster 1) was shared between *L. suginoana* (populations LSY and LSH) and *L. thalassica* (population LTH) (Table 1). Although both ILS and secondary gene

flow can produce the pattern of haplotype sharing, recent secondary gene flow could be the main cause for the rare, unevenly distributed haplotype K sharing event. Additionally, the finding of only one rare, recent secondary admixture event may due in part to the small sample size collected in every mountainous area.

With 38 individuals of *L. cerina*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. thalassica*, eight selective primer combinations generated a total of 315 AFLP loci (Table S1). The proportion of polymorphic loci ranged from 72.1% (*L. thalassica*) to 81.9% (*L. cerina*) (Table 2). The species level uH_E was ranged from 0.166 (*L. suginoana*) to 0.222 (*L. cerina*). Interestingly, a much larger number of private alleles was found for *L. cerina* ($N_P = 126$) compared to that of *L. suginoana* ($N_P = 7$) and of *L. thalassica* ($N_P = 6$). Analysis with LMM showed overall uH_E significant difference when compared among species (Wald $\chi^2 = 34.41$, $p < 0.0001$). Pairwise significant differences were also found and *L. cerina* had significantly higher genetic diversity than that of *L. suginoana* and of *L. thalassica* (Table 3). Spearman's rank correlation test found no significant relationship between population sample size and population uH_E ($S = 169.18$, $\rho = -0.025$, $p = 0.945$) and between population sample size and the level of polymorphism ($S = 76$, $\rho = 0.367$, $p = 0.336$), indicating that there is no correlation of the number of samples examined with the level of AFLP variation estimated. Nonetheless, population uH_E estimated may be biased due to the small and unequal sample sizes (Isabel *et al.*, 1999; Mariette *et al.*, 2002). Owing to shared ancestral variation in homologous regions, closely related *Lecanorchis* species may show similar levels of nucleotide diversity based on the ITS1 sequences. However, genetic diversity is not a constant entity across the genome and hence we found significant differences in the levels of AFLP diversity in these closely related species.

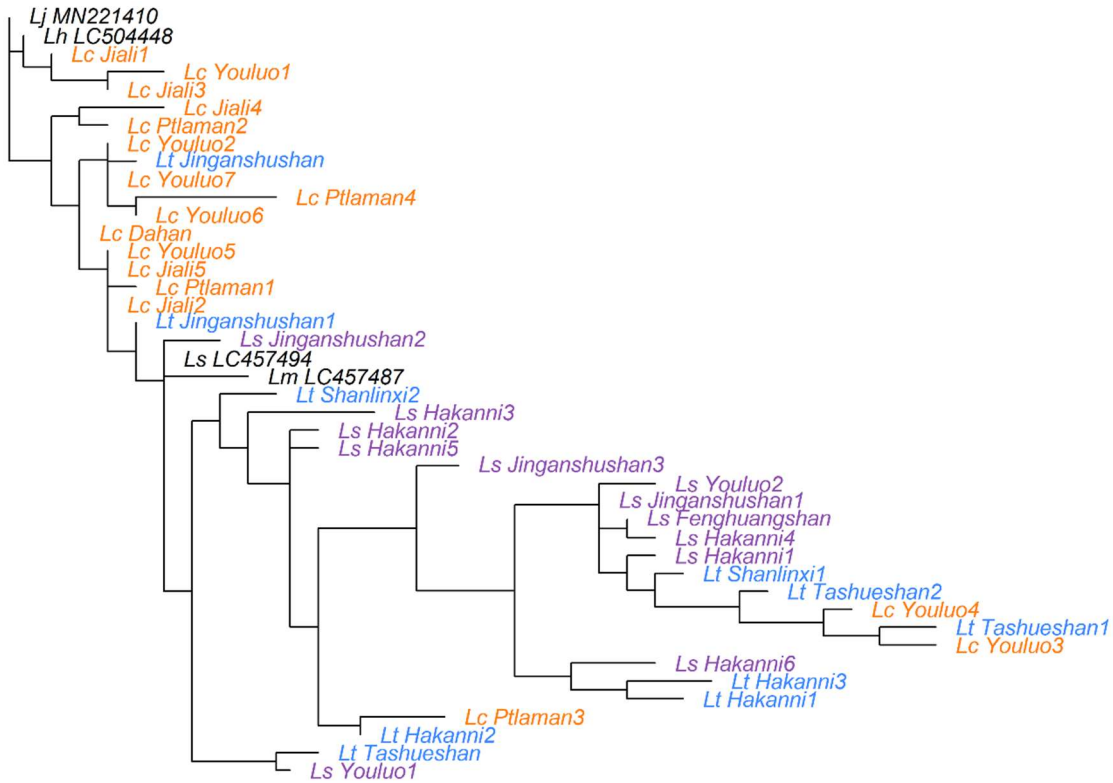


Fig. 4. The maximum parsimonious tree of individuals of three *Lecanorchis* species (*L. cerina*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. thalassica*) based on ITS1 DNA sequences. Tip labels for Taiwanese *Lecanorchis* individuals are colored: *L. cerina* (orange), *L. suginoana* (purple), and *L. thalassica* (blue). Japanese *Lecanorchis* species including *L. japonica*, *L. hokurikuensis*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. moritae* included in the analysis are colored in black. Low bootstrap support values (< 50%) were estimated and hence they are not displayed

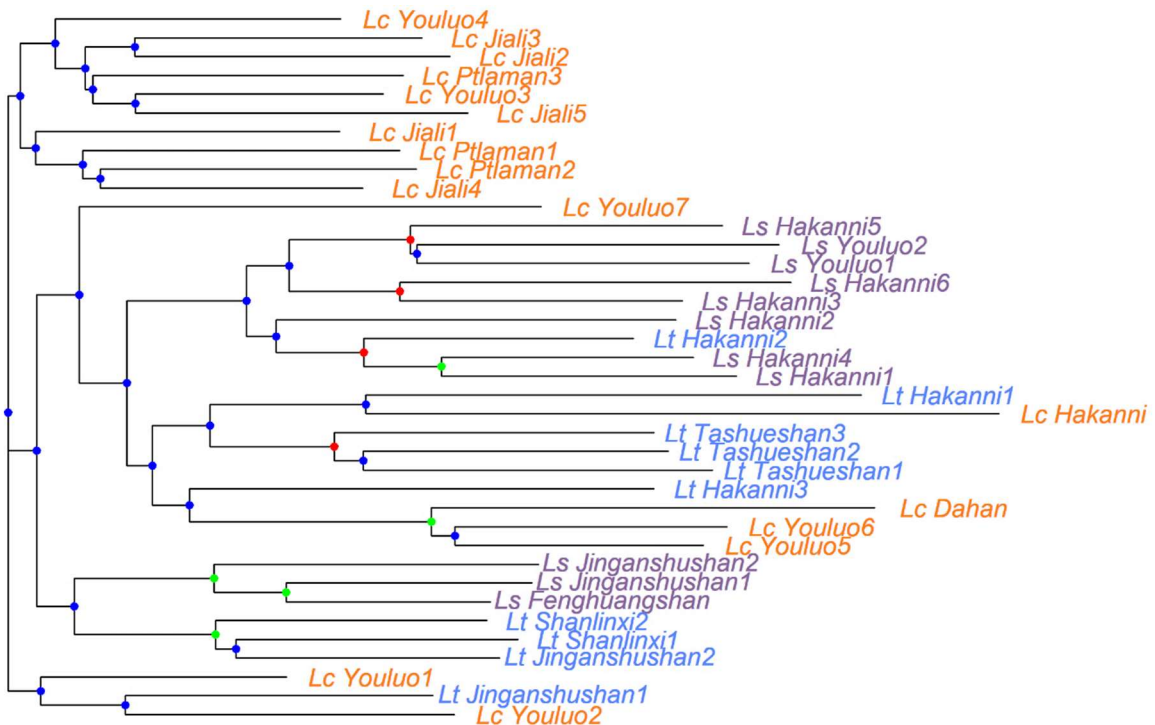


Fig. 5. Individual unrooted neighbor-joining tree generated based on AFLP variation. Tip labels for individuals are colored: *L. cerina* (orange), *L. suginoana* (purple), and *L. thalassica* (blue). Bootstrap values < 50% (blue), > 70% (green), and those range between 50% and 70% (red).



Table 3. Summary of Tukey's post-hoc pairwise population comparisons of the mean unbiased expected heterozygosity (uH_E) per locus using a linear mixed effect model. In linear mixed effect model, species was treated as a fixed factor and locus as a random factor based on AFLP variation of the three *Lecanorchis* species investigated.

Contrast	Estimate	SE	t	p
LC - LS	0.0758	0.0129	5.866	< 0.0001
LC - LT	0.0376	0.0129	2.912	0.0104
LS - LT	-0.0382	0.0129	-2.954	0.0091

LC, *Lecanorchis cerina*; LS, *Lecanorchis suginoana*; LT, *Lecanorchis thalassica*; SE, standard error; t, t statistic

Table 4. Genetic differentiation between three *Lecanorchis* species (*Lecanorchis cerina*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. thalassica*) and between populations of these three species based on AFLP variation using analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA).

Source of variation	df	Sum of square	Percent variation	Φ Statistics (p)
Between species	2	182.33	8.10	$\Phi_{CT} = 0.081$ (0.0001)
Within species	35	1531.93	91.90	
Total	37	1714.26	100	
Between populations	9	568.79	13.96	$\Phi_{ST} = 0.140$ (0.0001)
Within populations	25	1017.96	86.04	
Total	34	1586.74	100	

Neutral theory predicts that genetic diversity will increase with a larger effective population size (Kimura, 1983) and positive relationship between population size and genetic diversity have been found in many wild plant species, including orchid species (e.g., Leimu *et al.*, 2006; George *et al.*, 2009; Jacquemyn *et al.*, 2009; Szczecińska *et al.*, 2016). A significantly larger AFLP diversity found in *L. cerina* suggests a larger historical population size in *L. cerina* than in *L. suginoana* and in *L. thalassica*.

AMOVA based on AFLP revealed low, but significant species differentiation ($\Phi_{CT} = 0.081$, $p < 0.001$; Table 4). Significantly moderate level of differentiation was found between populations ($\Phi_{ST} = 0.140$, $p < 0.001$). Pairwise species comparisons showed low levels of F_{ST} between species (average $F_{ST} = 0.079$; Table 5) and moderate level of population differentiation ($F_{ST} = 0.166$). Although sample size may influence the estimation of genetic diversity, large number of loci compensate the biased estimation of population differentiation from small sample size (Isabel *et al.*, 1999; Mariette *et al.*, 2002). Nevertheless, we found contrasting pair F_{ST} within and between species. F_{ST} for neighboring population pair LCY and LSY was 0.122, higher than the F_{ST} between population LCY and geographic distant populations of different species including populations LSJ ($F_{ST} = 0.070$), LTJ ($F_{ST} = 0.068$), and LTS ($F_{ST} = 0.106$). However, comparison between population LSH and population LTH located in Hakanni mountain had an $F_{ST} = 0.043$, which is smaller than the comparisons of the population LSH with geographic distant populations such as LSJ ($F_{ST} = 0.227$), LTJ ($F_{ST} = 0.287$), LTS ($F_{ST} = 0.301$), and LTT ($F_{ST} = 0.208$). Gene f

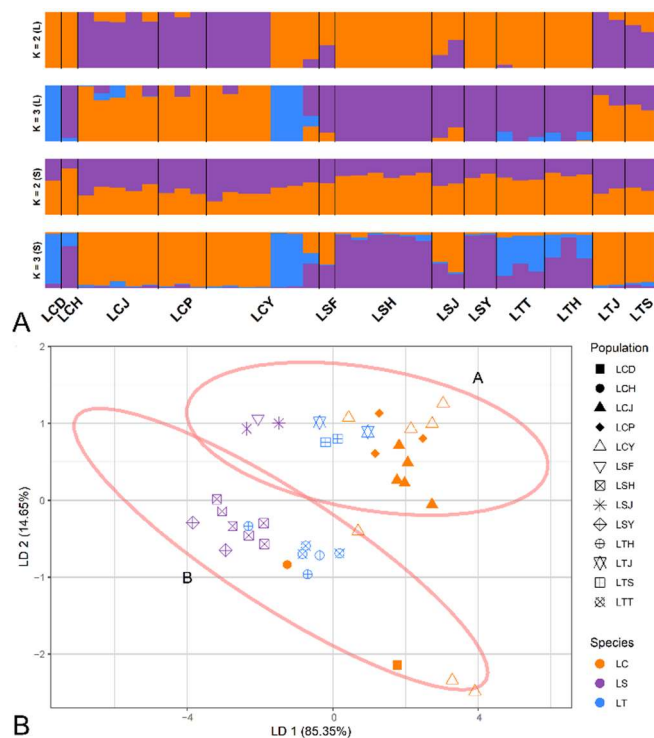


Fig. 6. Analysis of genetic homogeneous groups of 38 individuals of three closely related *Lecanorchis* species (*L. cerina*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. thalassica*) based on AFLP variation. **A.** Bar plots of LEA (L) and STRUCTURE (S) analyses. The clustering scenarios for $K = 2-3$ were displayed. **B.** Scatterplot of the first two linear discriminants (LDs) from discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC). See Table 1 for population codes

low is expected to be higher resulting in lower levels of interspecific genetic differentiation between geographic neighbor populations than between distantly located populations (Petit and Excoffier, 2009). However, geographically distant populations may show lower genetic differentiation than geographically neighboring populations because of ILS (Muir and Schlötterer, 2005; Szövényi *et al.* 2008; Stenøien *et al.* 2011; Meleshko *et al.*, 2021). The finding of two contrasting patterns of AFLP genetic differentiation between geographic neighbors relative to geographic distant populations suggest that both ILS and secondary gene flow may have occurred in these closely related species.

Both CE and BIC were minimized at $K = 3$ (Fig. S2) in the LEA and DAPC analyses based on AFLP variation (Fig. 6). However, DAPC revealed only two genetic clusters (Fig. 6B). Therefore, we interpreted the results based on $K = 2$. Both DAPC clusters comprised individuals of all three *Lecanorchis* species under investigation (Fig. 6B). Essentially, all individuals of *L. cerina*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. thalassica* shared genetic variation of orange and purple components based on the result of STRUCTURE (Fig. 6A). *L. cerina* comprised two genetic components (orange and purple components) and the population LCY contained individuals belonged to either component based on the



Table 5. Pairwise F_{ST} (below diagonal) and P values (above diagonal) between three *Lecanorchis* species (*L. cerina*, *L. suginoana*, and *L. thalassica*) and between populations of these three *Lecanorchis* species based on AFLP variation using ARLEQUIN with 10,000 permutations. See Table 1 for population code. Populations with only one individual were excluded from between population comparisons.

Between species										
	LC	LS	LT							
		0.004	0.000							
LS	0.107		0.008							
LT	0.057	0.073								

Between populations										
	LCJ	LCP	LCY	LSH	LSJ	LSY	LTH	LTJ	LTS	LTT
LCJ		0.384	0.296	0.002	0.046	0.048	0.018	0.050	0.045	0.018
LCP	0.007		0.183	0.011	0.096	0.102	0.106	0.094	0.098	0.102
LCY	0.013	0.025		0.001	0.137	0.029	0.163	0.111	0.052	0.049
LSH	0.186	0.213	0.144		0.041	0.180	0.055	0.036	0.026	0.012
LSJ	0.174	0.122	0.070	0.227		0.335	0.102	0.334	0.332	0.097
LSY	0.207	0.235	0.122	0.040	0.222		0.096	0.322	0.329	0.099
LTH	0.115	0.156	0.036	0.043	0.165	0.089		0.111	0.099	0.097
LTJ	0.141	0.123	0.068	0.287	0.188	0.270	0.220		0.340	0.096
LTS	0.168	0.169	0.106	0.301	0.250	0.303	0.230	0.086		0.100
LTT	0.211	0.234	0.103	0.208	0.247	0.256	0.113	0.250	0.307	

result of LEA (Fig. 6A). The LEA result showed that *L. suginoana* individuals were mostly belonged to orange component. However, admixture of purple and orange components was observed in the only individual of the population LSF and one individual of the population LSJ. However, *L. thalassica* individuals can be distinguished into those belonging to orange (populations LTT and LTH) and those with high probability estimates belonging to purple component (populations LTJ and LTS) based on the LEA analysis.

Considering the widespread distribution of *L. cerina*, the higher AFLP diversity in *L. cerina*, and individuals of *L. suginoana* and *L. thalassica* nested within the *L. cerina* individuals in both the ITS1 parsimonious and the AFLP NJ trees (Figs. 4 and 5), *L. suginoana* and *L. thalassica* may have been derived from *L. cerina* in the same and different mountainous regions. Moreover, we observed ITS1 haplotype sharing within *L. cerina*, within *L. suginoana*, and between *L. suginoana* and *L. thalassica* (Table 1 and Fig. S1) as well as the contrasting patterns of higher or lower population divergence in geographic neighbors than in distantly located populations based on AFLP variation (Table 5). In addition to these results, the sharing and admixture of two AFLP genetic components observed in individuals of the three closely related *Lecanorchis* species (Fig. 6) also suggest that both ILS and secondary gene flow did occur in the *Lecanorchis* species examined. Disentangling of ILS from secondary gene flow in the interpretation of phylogenetic relationships between species is problematic if these species are diverged recently evolutionarily (Qu *et al.*, 2011). Complex evolutionary history of plant evolution caused by secondary gene flow, radiation, and ILS are commonly seen (e.g., Muir and Schlöterer, 2005; Koopman *et al.*, 2008; Szövényi *et al.*, 2008; Goetze *et*

al., 2017; Zhou *et al.*, 2017). Descendant lineages are expected to share polymorphic alleles with the ancestral population for some time (i.e. incomplete lineage sorting). In contrast, lineages that have diverged completely may also share genetic polymorphism in parts of the genome due to secondary admixture (Gow *et al.*, 2006). Incomplete sorting and secondary admixture produce similar genetic patterns, and the sharing of alleles in two lineages may thus be the result of either process, or both. Our results suggest that both ILS and secondary gene flow may have occurred in the *Lecanorchis* species examined. However, these evolutionary events may have occurred at different temporal scale with the ILS process occurred due to a possibility of rapid radiation and followed by secondary admixture at a later time. Nonetheless, further study using larger sample size, low-copy nuclear genes, and even next generation sequencing such as restriction site-associated sequencing is required in order to gain more insights into the evolution of the three closely related species investigated. Although we observed suspected morphological hybrid between the three *Lecanorchis* species examined, future investigation of the association of genotype with morphology can be helpful for a better understanding of the evolution of these species.

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