

RESEARCH

Open Access



Chloroplast genome of four *Amorphophallus* species: genomic features, comparative analysis, and phylogenetic relationships among *Amorphophallus* species

Li-Fang Li¹, Min Yang¹, Ying Qi¹, Peng-Hua Gao¹, Shao-Wu Yang¹, Yong-Teng Zhao¹, Jian-Wei Guo¹, Huan-Yu Wei¹, Jia-Ni Liu¹, Jian-Rong Zhao¹, Fei-Yan Huang^{1*} and Lei Yu^{1*}

Abstract

Background The genus *Amorphophallus* (Araceae) contains approximately 250 species, most of which have high ecological and economic significance. The chloroplast genome data and the comprehensive analysis of the chloroplast genome structure of *Amorphophallus* is limited. In this study, four chloroplast genomes of *Amorphophallus* were sequenced and assembled. For the first time, comparative analyses of chloroplast genomes were conducted on the 13 *Amorphophallus* species in conjunction with nine published sequences.

Results The *Amorphophallus* chloroplast genomes exhibited typical quadripartite structures with lengths ranging from 164,417 to 177,076 bp. These structures consisted of a large single copy (LSC, 90,705–98,561 bp), a small single copy (SSC, 14,172–21,575 bp), and a pair of inverted repeats (IRs, 26,225–35,204 bp). The genomes contain 108–113 unique genes, including 76–79 protein-coding genes, 28–29 tRNA genes, and 4 rRNA genes. The molecular structure, gene order, content, codon usage, long repeats, and simple sequence repeats (SSRs) within *Amorphophallus* were generally conserved. However, several variations in intron loss and gene expansion on the IR-SSC boundary regions were found among these 13 genomes. Four mutational hotspot regions, including *trnM-atpE*, *atpB*, *atpB-rbcL* and *ycf1* were identified. They could identify and phylogeny future species in the genus *Amorphophallus*. Positive selection was found for *rpl36*, *ccsA*, *rpl16*, *rps4*, *rps8*, *rps11*, *rps12*, *rps14*, *clpP*, *rps3*, *ycf1*, *rpl20*, *rps2*, *rps18*, *rps19*, *atpA*, *atpF*, *rpl14*, *rpoA*, *rpoC1*, *rpoC2* and *rps15* based on the analyses of Ka/Ks ratios. Phylogenetic inferences based on the complete chloroplast genomes revealed a sister relationship between *Amorphophallus* and *Caladieae*. All *Amorphophallus* species formed a monophyletic evolutionary clade and were divided into three groups, including CA-II, SEA, and CA-I. *Amorphophallus albus*, *A. krausei*, *A. kachinensis* and *A. konjac* were clustered into the CA-II clade, *A. paeoniifolius* and *A. titanum* were clustered into the SEA clade, *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1', *Amorphophallus* sp., *A. coetaneus*, *A. tonkinensis* and *A. yunnanensis* were clustered into CA-I clade.

*Correspondence:

Fei-Yan Huang
125593879@qq.com
Lei Yu
yulei0425@163.com

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



© The Author(s) 2024. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License, which permits any non-commercial use, sharing, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if you modified the licensed material. You do not have permission under this licence to share adapted material derived from this article or parts of it. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>.

Conclusions The genome structure and gene content of *Amorphophallus* chloroplast genomes are consistent across various species. In this study, the structural variation and comparative genome of chloroplast genomes of *Amorphophallus* were comprehensively analyzed for the first time. The results provide important genetic information for species classification, identification, molecular breeding, and evolutionary exploration of the genus *Amorphophallus*.

Keywords *Amorphophallus*, Chloroplast genome, Genome comparison, Phylogenetic analysis

Background

The *Amorphophallus* genus Blume ex Decne. (Araceae) consists of approximately 200–250 species [1, 2], among which 242 species are accepted by POWO. These species are primarily distributed in tropical or subtropical areas of South Asia and West Africa, including China, Japan, Myanmar, Vietnam, and Indonesia [3]. Southwestern China has been recognized as one of the centers of origin, and there are currently over 21 species recorded for China [3]. Multiple *Amorphophallus* species have important medicinal, ornamental, edible, and economic values [4]. In China, nine of the 21 species that have been recorded are endemic [3]. *Amorphophallus* has been cultivated and consumed in China for over 2000 years as an agricultural crop due to its tuber's abundance of konjac glucomannan (KGM) and starch [5, 6]. KGM is a water-soluble polysaccharide (dietary fiber) that is not only used in the industrial field, food science, nutrition, biotechnology, and pharmacology but also has beneficial health impacts, including weight loss, intestinal health, and the reduction of blood lipids, blood pressure, and blood sugar levels [3, 6–11]. The medicinal properties of *Amorphophallus* species have been extensively investigated in recent years, including analgesic, neuroprotective, hepatoprotective, anti-inflammatory, anticonvulsant, antibacterial, antioxidant, anticancer, antiobesity, and immunomodulatory effects [7, 11]. Therefore, numerous *Amorphophallus* species have significant research value due to the combination of industrial, dietary, and medicinal properties. However, research on *Amorphophallus* primarily focuses on its medical value [11–13], properties of KGM [14, 15], karyotype analysis [5], genetic diversity [16, 17], phylogeny [1, 16, 18, 19], heat production [20, 21] and disease resistance [22–24]. For phylogeny, several chloroplast genome markers (*rbcL*, *matK*, *trnH*, and *psbA*) and nuclear DNA markers (ribosomal DNA intratranscriptional spacer, ITS) were used to determine relationships and evaluate genetic variation in *Amorphophallus* genus [1, 19]. However, the current knowledge of genetic relationships and evolution among *Amorphophallus* species offers merely baseline information [25]. Infrageneric classification and evolution based on intricate morphological traits still have some disagreements [25, 26]. Therefore, developing

more effective DNA barcodes is particularly important for *Amorphophallus* plants.

Chloroplasts are self-replicating organelles with their independent genetic material, playing pivotal roles in photosynthesis, transcription, and translation [27, 28]. The chloroplast genome typically spans a length of 107–218 kb [28]. It maintains a highly conserved quadripartite circular configuration featuring a pair of inverted repeats (IRs), flanking a large single-copy (LSC) region and a small single-copy (SSC) region [29, 30]. Despite the structural conservation of the chloroplast genome, multiple mutational events, including gene rearrangements, single-nucleotide substitutions (SNPs), gene losses, gene duplication, intron loss, and variations in the expansion/contraction of the IR, frequently occur across species and even within individual organisms [27, 29]. These variations can be used for species identification and analysis to improve the current understanding of plant phylogenetic and evolutionary relationships. Compared with variable markers, the complete chloroplast genome sequence is rich in genetic variations, which are valuable tools utilized for various purposes, including phylogenetic analyses, evolutionary studies, comparative genomics, and the development of molecular markers in higher plants [31, 32]. Limited studies are available on the chloroplast genomes of the *Amorphophallus*, up to now, only nine chloroplast genomes of *Amorphophallus* have been published [25, 33–41]. These studies indicate that the chloroplasts of *Amorphophallus* contain 126–131 genes. However, with one exception, Liu et al. suggested that the genus of *Amorphophallus* contains fewer genes [35]. They reported a loss of some important genes in four *Amorphophallus* species, including *yef1*, *accD*, *psbE*, *trnL-CAA*, and *trnG-GCC* genes. Deletion of *rpl23* and *rpl2* was limited to only one IR region [35]. Recent studies have reported the conservation of chloroplast genome structures in *Amorphophallus* and do not support the gene deletion mentioned above [36, 38]. Meanwhile, most studies on the chloroplast genome of *Amorphophallus* primarily focus on the basic information description, while comparative studies on the chloroplast genome of *Amorphophallus* are relatively limited. Additionally, although the chloroplast genome of *A. krausei* and *A. albus* have recently been published, there

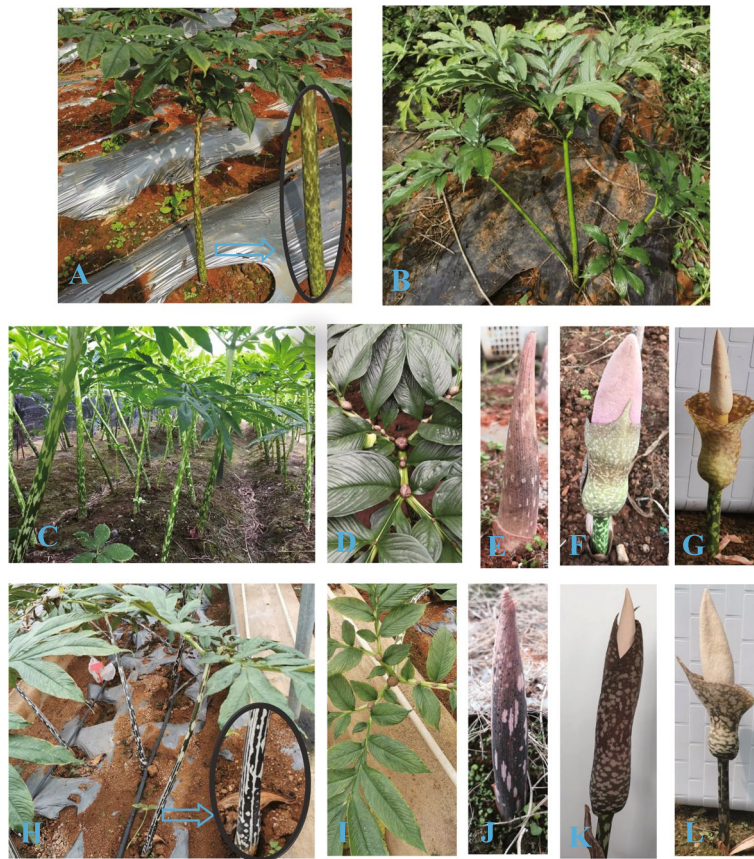


Fig. 1 Species reference image of *Amorphophallus*. **A** *A. krausei*; **B** *A. albus* Yunnan; **C–G** *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1'; **C** petiole detail, **D** leaf detail, **E** flower bud details before flowering, **F** and **G** inflorescence; **H–L** *Amorphophallus* sp, **H** petiole detail, **I** leaf detail, **J** flower bud details before flowering, **K** and **L** inflorescence

are many local varieties of *A. albus*. The *A. albus* in this study is the Xiluodu *A. albus*, which is the most representative local variety in Yunnan. In addition, *A. krausei* is a species with extremely rich intraspecific variation. It was collected in Wangya Village, Puer, China in 2019 and has been planted in the *Amorphophallus* germplasm resource nursery of Kunming University ever since. To develop and utilize local Xiluodu *A. albus* resources, and to compare the chloroplast of *A. albus* and *A. krausei* from different distributed regions, we also sequenced the complete chloroplast genomes of these two species.

In this study, we sequenced and assembled the chloroplast genomes of *A. albus* Yunnan, *A. krausei* Yunnan, *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1', and *Amorphophallus* sp (Fig. 1). Furthermore, we compared the chloroplast genome sequences of nine other published *Amorphophallus* species. Our primary objectives were to (1) compare the genome structures and gene organization of chloroplast genomes within the *Amorphophallus* genus; (2) identify variations of long repeats, simple sequence repeats

(SSRs), and codon usage patterns of these chloroplast genomes in *Amorphophallus*; (3) identify highly variable regions (hotspots) as potential chloroplast markers for future phylogenetic analyses of the *Amorphophallus* genus; (4) identify the protein-coding genes under positive selection within the seven plastomes of *Amorphophallus* and determine the phylogenetic relationships within the Araceae family. These findings can provide valuable genetic resources for further research on the phylogenetic position of *Amorphophallus* and contribute to the breeding improvement of *Amorphophallus*.

Results

Chloroplast genome features of *Amorphophallus* species

The current study analyzed 13 chloroplast genomes of *Amorphophallus* species, including four newly sequenced genomes and nine published ones. The four sequenced samples yielded 4.0 to 5.6 GB of raw data (Table S1). After removing adapters and low-quality reads, these samples generated 3.3 to 4.7 GB of clean

Table 1 The basic chloroplast genome information of 13 *Amorphophallus* species

Name	Total length (bp)	IR length (bp)	LSC length (bp)	SSC length (bp)	Total GC%	Total Genes (unique)	Protein coding genes (unique)	rRNAs (unique)	tRNAs (unique)	Accession number	Locations
<i>A. krausei</i>	175,675	32,945	93,724	16,061	34.9	130 (111)	85 (78)	8 (4)	37 (29)	PP936071	Kunming, Yunnan
<i>Amorphophallus</i> sp	176,221	34,891	91,718	14,172	34.7	130 (111)	85 (78)	8 (4)	37 (29)	PP936070	Kunming, Yunnan
<i>A. muelleri zhuyajim1'</i>	177,076	35,204	91,947	14,721	34.5	130 (111)	85 (78)	8 (4)	37 (29)	OR995733	Kunming, Yunnan
<i>A. albus</i>	165,876	26,225	93,177	20,249	35.6	130 (113)	86 (79)	8 (4)	36 (30)	OR438676	Kunming, Yunnan
<i>A. konja</i>	167,470	26,226	93,443	21,575	35.4	130 (113)	86 (79)	8 (4)	36 (30)	OR438675	Kunming, Yunnan
<i>A. titanum</i>	176,835	32,708	95,475	15,944	34.5	130 (111)	85 (78)	8 (4)	37 (29)	MN046883	Sumatra, Indonesia
<i>A. coetaneus</i>	175,465	30,200	98,561	16,504	34.9	131 (111)	84 (78)	8 (4)	39 (29)	OQ404947	Xishuangbanna, Yunnan
<i>A. tonkinensis</i>	169,341	31,498	90,705	15,640	36	128 (110)	83 (77)	8 (4)	37 (29)	NC_086855	Hekou County, Yunnan
<i>A. yunnanensis</i>	164,417	28,543	92,149	15,182	36	126 (108)	81 (76)	8 (4)	37 (28)	NC_082906	Wangmo County, Guizhou
<i>A. paeoniifolius</i>	176,258	33,647	93,951	15,013	34.8	130 (111)	85 (78)	8 (4)	37 (29)	NC_086625	Kunming, Yunnan
<i>A. kachinensis</i>	173,330	33,091	92,030	15,118	35	130 (110)	85 (78)	8 (4)	37 (28)	PP072244	Xishuangbanna, Yunnan
<i>A. krausei</i>	172,418	32,422	91,983	15,591	35.23	130 (110)	85 (78)	8 (4)	37 (28)	OR416863	Xishuangbanna, Yunnan
<i>A. albus</i>	175,728	33,693	93,091	15,251	34.94	129 (111)	84 (77)	8 (4)	37 (29)	OM037675	-

Total genes (unique): total number of genes; Protein-coding genes (unique): number of protein encoding genes (unique); rRNAs(unique): Number of rRNA genes(unique); tRNAs: Number of tRNA genes(unique)

reads each. De novo assembled chloroplast genomes were deposited in GenBank with accession numbers (*A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1' OR995733, *A. albus* Kunming OR438676, *A. krausei* Kunming PP936071, and *Amorphophallus* sp. PP936070). Complete chloroplast genomes of 7 species ranged from 164,417 bp (*A. yunnanensis*) to 177,076 bp (*A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1') in length, with an overall length variance of approximately 12.66 kb (Table 1). All 13 *Amorphophallus* chloroplast genomes exhibited typical quadripartite structures with an LSC region (90,705–98,561 bp) and an SSC region (14,172–20,249 bp) separated by two inverted repeat (IR) regions (26,225–35,204 bp) (Fig. 2 and Table 1). The overall GC content in the *Amorphophallus* chloroplast genomes was 34.5%–36%. The complete chloroplast genomes of *Amorphophallus* consist of 126–131 genes, including 81–86 protein-coding genes, 36–39 tRNAs, and 8 rRNAs, which were classified into four categories based on their functions (Table 2, Table S2). After removing duplicates, 108–113 unique genes including 76–79 protein-coding, 28–29 tRNAs and 4 rRNAs genes were remained for each genome (Table 1 and Table S3). Specifically, there are 5–7 protein-coding genes, 7 tRNA genes (*trnL-CAA*, *trnV-GAC*, *trnI-GAU*, *trnA-UGC*, *trnR-ACG* and *trnN-GUU*) and 4 rRNA genes duplicate in the IR regions. In 13 of the species, except for *A. coetaneus*, *A. yunnanensis* and *A. tonkinensis*, there were 7 duplicated protein-coding genes (*rps12*, *ycf1*, *ndhB*, *rps7*, *ycf2*, *rpl2* and *rpl23*) in the IR region. *Amorphophallus coetaneus* had one copy of *rpl23*, and *A. albus*, *A. konja* and *A. yunnanensis* had one copy of *ycf1* each. Specifically, the *rpl23* was annotated within the IR (IRa and IRb) regions of the 10 chloroplast genomes. Nevertheless, in *A. coetaneus*, it was only detected in the IRb region and was missing in the IRa region. Additionally, the *rpl23* was lost in the chloroplast genomes of *A. yunnanensis* and *A. tonkinensis*. The *infA* gene was only present in *A. titanium* and was a non-functional gene. Furthermore, *A. coetaneus* contained three *trnQ-UUG* genes, while the remaining six genomes contained one *trnQ-UUG*.

Fourteen genes (*rps16*, *atpF*, *rpoC1*, *petB*, *petD*, *rpl2*, *ndhB*, *ndhA*, *rps12*, *trnG-UCC*, *trnL-UAA*, *trnV-UAC*, *trnI-GAU*, and *trnA-UGC*) contained one intron in all genomes except in *A. albus*, *A. konja* and *A. coetaneus* (Table 2). In addition to the 14 genes mentioned above, the *accD* gene had a single intron in three species (*A. albus*, *A. konja*, and *A. coetaneus*), *trnK-UUU* had no intron only in chloroplast genome of *A. tonkinensis*, *rpl16* had no intron only in chloroplast genome of *A. kachinensis*, while *ycf68* contained one in *A. albus* and *A. konja*. In all 13 species, two introns were found in *ycf3* and *clpP*. The *rps12* gene was identified as a trans-splicing

gene with 5' exon located in the LSC region and the 3' exon duplicated and located in the IR (IRa and IRb) regions in all species.

Codon usage

The codon usages of the protein-coding genes in the chloroplast genome from seven *Amorphophallus* species were analyzed. A total of 64 RSCU were presented in the *Amorphophallus* plastomes, and the number of codons ranged from 25,520 to 28,798 (Table S4). Within these codons, leucine (Leu) was the most abundant amino acid, comprising 10.01%–10.35% of the total occurrences, followed by isoleucine (Ile) with 8.50% (*A. albus*) and 8.84% (*Amorphophallus* sp.). However, cysteine (Cys) was the least prevalent amino acid, accounting for only 1.12% (*A. albus* OM037675) and 1.33% (*Amorphophallus* sp.) (Table S4). The codons ATG and TGG, which encode methionine (Met) and tryptophan (Trp), respectively, showed no codon bias with RSCU values of 1.00 in these *Amorphophallus* genomes (Fig. 3; Table S4). Thirty-three codons were identified with an RSCU value greater than 1. Among them, except for UUG (Leu), all codons ended with A or U(T) nucleotides (Fig. 3 and Table S4). This observation suggested a preference for A and T as the terminal bases in codons.

Repeat sequence and SSR analyses

In the chloroplast genomes of *Amorphophallus*, a comprehensive analysis revealed the presence of 4,446 tandem repeats (Table S5). *Amorphophallus yunnanensis* (252) had the lowest, and *A. coetaneus* (442) had the highest number of tandem repeats (Fig. 4A; Table S5). The length of tandem repeats varied among the 13 chloroplast genomes; however, most tandem repeats existed in the 30–39 bp (Fig. 4B). The 13 *Amorphophallus* chloroplast genomes had four categories of long repeats, including forward, reverse, complement, and palindromic repeats (Fig. 4A). The long repeats ranged from 48 (*A. tonkinensis*) to 599 (*A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1') (Table S6). The maximum number of long repeats were forward repeats, ranging from 21 (*A. tonkinensis*) to 262 (*A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1'), followed by palindromic repeats, varied from 17 (*A. albus*) to 233 (*A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1') (Fig. 4A). The reverse repeats and complement repeats ranged from 3 (*A. kachinensis*) to 61 (*A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1'), and 0 (*A. kachinensis*, *A. albus*, *A. konjac*) to 43 (*A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1'), respectively (Fig. 4A–D). The repeat sequence length was 30–204 bp and primarily 30–39 bp among *Amorphophallus* (Fig. 4B–D).

In the *Amorphophallus* chloroplast genomes, a total of 170–315 SSRs were identified, with numbers of mononucleotides, dinucleotides, trinucleotides, tetranucleotides, pentanucleotide, and hexanucleotide SSRs ranging from

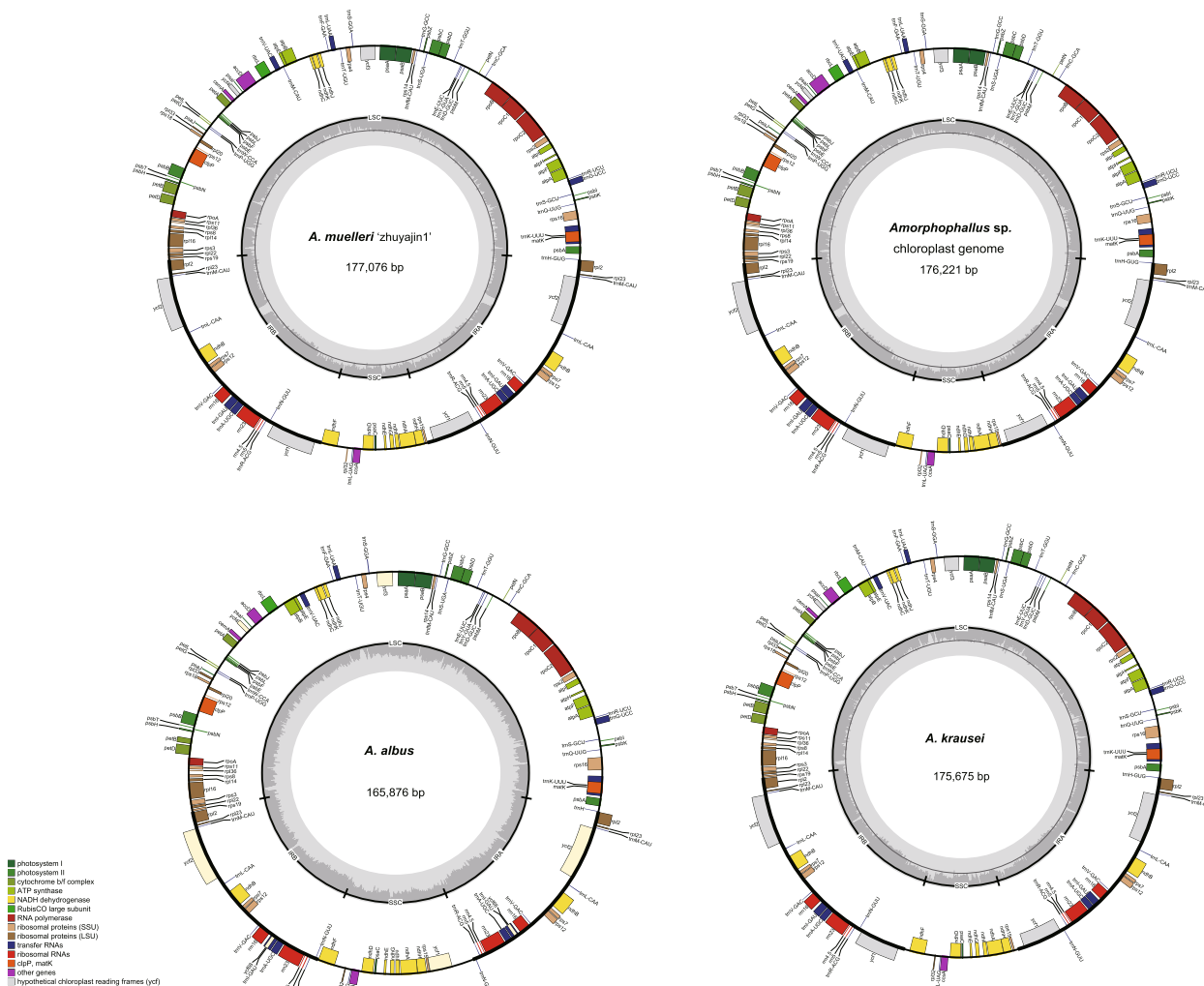


Fig. 2 Chloroplast genome maps of *Amorphophallus* with annotated genes. Genes within the circle are clockwise, while those beyond the circle are counterclockwise. Different colors indicate functional gene groups. The darker and lighter shades of gray in the inner circle represent the content of GC and AT, respectively

74–120, 30–103, 19–38, 8–73, 3–16, and 2–19, respectively (Fig. 4E; Table S7). It was observed that mononucleotide and dinucleotide SSRs were very common in all sequenced genomes. Most mononucleotide repeats consisted of A/T with minimal G/C content, and most of the dinucleotide repeats consisted of AT/TA sequences in all seven species (Table S7).

IR expansion and contraction

We compared the expansion and contraction of IRs regions at the LSC/IRs/SSC boundaries among seven *Amorphophallus* species (Fig. 5). The complete chloroplast genome structure of seven *Amorphophallus* species was different and classified into five types based on gene positions at the LSC/IRs/SSC boundaries. Type I

consisted of *A. krausei*, *Amorphophallus* sp., *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1', *A. titanum*, *A. albus* OM037675, *A. kachinensis*, *A. krausei* PPO72244 and *A. tonkinensis*. In this type, the JLA (IRA/LSC) and JLB (LSC/IRb) junctions were highly conserved. These boundaries were between *rps19* and *rpl2* (JLA) or within *rpl2* and *trnH-GUG* (JLB), with varying distances from the border in all species (Fig. 5). The distances between the ends of *rpl2* and IRA/LSC borders ranged from 41–46 bp. *trnH* expanded into the IRA regions with distances ranging from 1–8 bp from the IRA/LSC borders (Fig. 5). At the junction of JLB (LSC/IRb) regions, *rps19* was justly located within the LSC region, and a total of 29–162 bp were found between the ends of *rps19* and the LSC/IRb borders. *rpl2* was present completely in the IR regions with distances ranging from

Table 2 Gene contents of chloroplast genome in 13 *Amorphophallus* species

Function	Gene group	Name of genes
Photosynthesis	Subunits of ATP synthase	<i>atpA, atpB, atpE, atpF*, atpH, atpI</i>
	Subunits of NADH-dehydrogenase	<i>ndhA*, ndhB*(x2), ndhC, ndhD, ndhE, ndhF, ndhG, ndhH, ndhI, ndhJ, ndhK</i>
	Subunits of cytochrome b/f complex	<i>petA, petB*, petD*, petG, petN, petL</i>
	Subunits of photosystem I	<i>psaA, psab, psac, psal, psaj</i>
	Subunits of photosystem II	<i>psbA, psbB, psbC, psbD, psbE, psbF, psbH, psbI, psbJ, psbK, psbL, psbM, psbN, psbT, psbZ</i>
	Subunits of rubisco	<i>rbcL</i>
Self-replication	Small subunit of ribosome	<i>rps11, rps12*(x2), rps14, rps15, rps16*, rps18, rps19, rps2, rps3, rps4, rps7(x2), rps8</i>
	Large subunit of ribosome	<i>rpl2* (x2), rpl14, rpl16*, rpl20, rpl22, rpl23(x2), rpl32, rpl33, rpl36</i>
	DNA-dependent RNA polymerase	<i>rpoA, rpoB, rpoC1*, rpoC2</i>
	Ribosomal RNA genes	<i>rrn16(x2), rrn23(x2), rrn4.5(x2), rrn5(x2)</i>
	Transfer RNA genes	<i>trnA-UGC(2)*, trnC-GCA, trnD-GUC, trnE-UUC, trnF-GAA, trnG-GCC, trnG-UCC*, trnH, trnI-GAU(x2)*, trnM-CAU(x3), trnK-UUU*, trnL-UAA*, trnL-CAA(x2), trnL-UAG, trnN-GUU(x2), trnP-UGG, trnQ-UUG (x3), trnR-UCU, trnR-ACG(x2), trnS-GCU, trnS-UGA, trnS-GGA, trnT-UGU, trnT-GGU, trnV-UAC*, trnV-GAC(x2), trnW-CCA, trnY-GUA, trnM-CAU</i>
	other genes	Maturase Protease Envelope membrane protein Acetyl-CoA carboxylase c-type cytochrome synthesis translation initiation factor
Genes of unknown function	Conserved open reading frames	<i>ycf1^{b(cx2)}, ycf2(x2), ycf3**, ycf4, ycf68*(x2)^a</i>

* genes containing one intron

** genes containing two introns; (x2) genes with two copies; (x3) genes with three copies

^a *ycf68* is only present in two chloroplast genomes of *A. albus* Kunming and *A. konja*

^b gene was one in *A. albus* Kunming, *A. konja* and *A. yunnanensis*

^c genes are two copies four chloroplast genomes of *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1', *Amorphophallus* SP., *A. titanum* and *A. Krause* Kunming; ①: *ndhA* has no intron in two chloroplast genomes of *A. albus* Kunming and *A. konja*; ②: *rpl23* has only one copy in chloroplast genome of *A. coetaneus*, and this gene is absent in the chloroplast genomes of *A. yunnanensis* and *A. tonkinensis*; ③: *trnA-UGC* has no intron in two chloroplast genomes of *A. albus* Kunming and *A. konja*; ④: *trnK-UUU* has no intron in chloroplast genome of *A. tonkinensis*; ⑤: *trnL-UAA* has no intron in chloroplast genome of *A. coetaneus*; ⑥: *rpl16* has no intron in chloroplast genome of *A. krausei*; ⑦: *trnQ-UUG* has three copies only in chloroplast genome of *A. coetaneus*; ⑧: *infA* is only present in chloroplast genome of *A. titanum*. ⑨: *accD* has one intron only in three chloroplast genomes of *A. albus*, *A. konja* and *A. coetaneus*

43–46 bp from the IRb/LSC borders. Regarding the SSC/IRa boundaries regions, the *rps15* and *ycf1* genes were found in the SSC and IRa regions, respectively. The *rps15* expanded into the IRa regions ranging from 1–9 bp in *Amorphophallus* sp., *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1', *A. titanum*, *A. kachinensis* and *A. albus* OM037675 five genomes (Fig. 5). In contrast, the end of the *rps15* gene was present completely in SSC region in *A. krausei* and *A. tonkinensis* genomes. *ycf1* was located in the SSC region in these four genomes, with the lengths ranging from 501–1718 bp from the SSC/IRa boundaries. For IRb/SSC boundaries,

the *ycf1* and *ndhF* genes were located at the boundaries in these eight genomes, respectively. The start of *ycf1* and the SSC/IRa boundaries ranged from 256–1275 bp (Fig. 5). The *ndhF* expanded into the IRb regions 2 bp in *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1' and *Amorphophallus* sp. genomes. However, in the remaining species, the *ndhF* gene was justly located within the IRb/SSC boundaries, with the length ranging from 14–665 bp (Fig. 5). Type II, comprising *A. albus* (OR438676) Yunnan and *A. konjac*, was characterized by the presence of *ycf1* and *trnN* at JSA, *trnN* and *ndhF* at JSB, and the complete existence

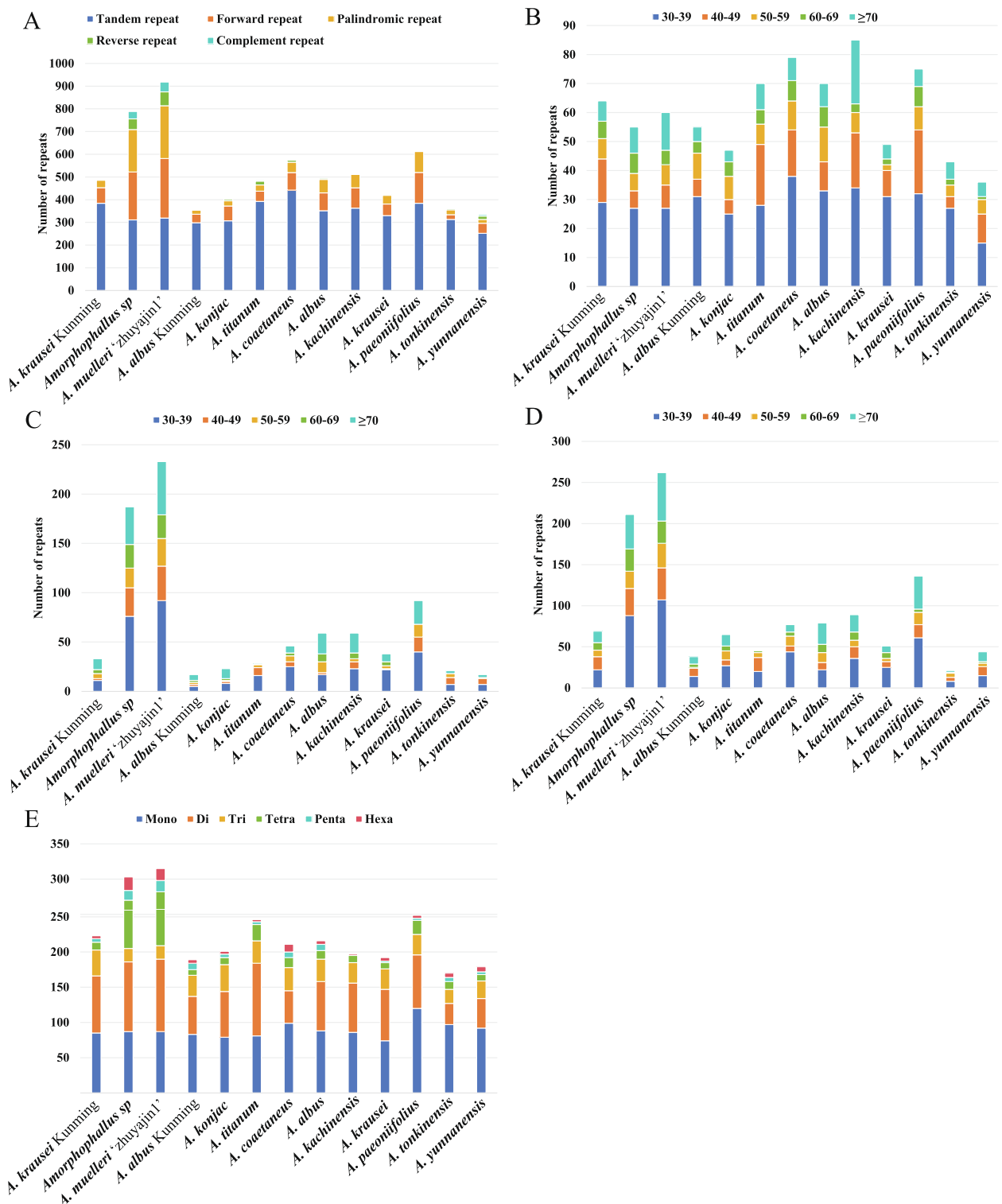


Fig. 4 Analysis of repeats and SRRs in seven complete chloroplast genomes of the *Amorphophallus*. **A** Different types of repeats in each chloroplast genome. **B** Numbers of tandem repeats more than 30 bp long in each chloroplast genome. **C** Numbers of palindromic repeats more than 30 bp long in each chloroplast genome. **D** Numbers of forward repeats more than 30 bp long in each chloroplast genome. **E** Total numbers and different types of SRRs detected in each chloroplast genome. Mono: mononucleotide, Di: dinucleotide, Tri: trinucleotides, Tetra: tetranucleotide, Penta: pentanucleotide, Hexa: hexanucleotide. The species in bold are sequenced in this study

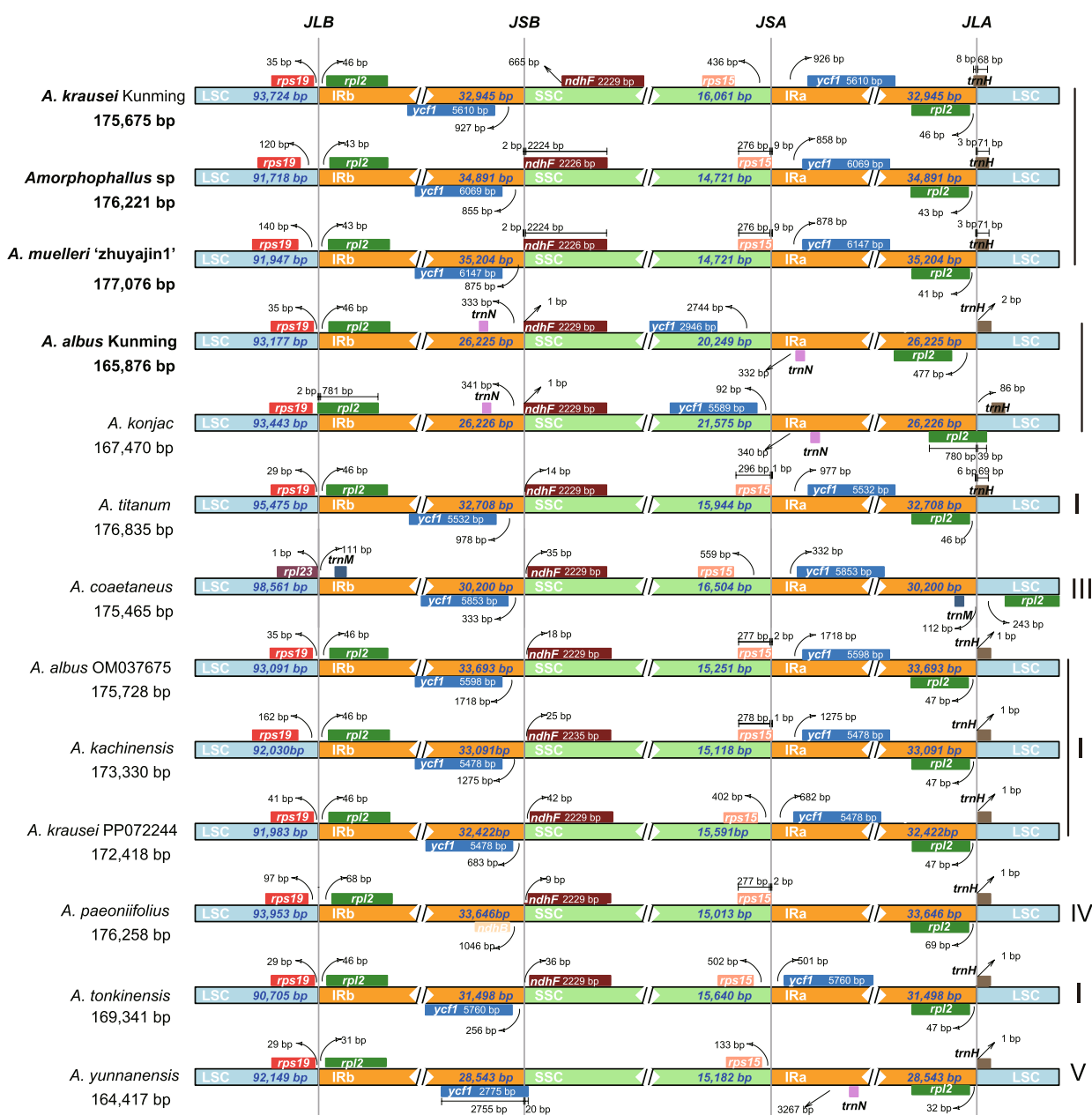


Fig. 5 Comparison of the LSC, SSC, and IR boundaries among 13 chloroplast genomes. The light blue, orange, and light green blocks indicate the LSC, IR, and SSC regions. JLB: junction of the LSC and the IRb; JSB: junction of the IRb and the SSC; JSA: connection of the IRa and the SSC; JLA: connection of the SSC and the IRb. The species in bold are sequenced in this study

highest variables among the LSC region (Fig. 7). The *ycf1* (0.147) were the most variables in the IR regions. They could be used as specific molecular markers for identifying *Amorphophallus* species.

Selective pressure analyses

The non-synonymous (Ka)/synonymous (Ka) ratio (Ka/Ks) was calculated for 13 *Amorphophallus* species

(Fig. 8), using the genome of *A. krausei* as a reference. We found most genes with Ka/Ks < 1 that were supposed to be negatively-selected genes (Table S9). The highest Ka/Ks value was 12.3 for the *rps3* gene in *Amorphophallus* sp. and *A. muelleri* ‘zhuyajin1’. Furthermore, four genes (*rpl36*, *rps4*, *rps7*, and *rps14*) with Ka/Ks > 1.00 were identified only in *Amorphophallus* sp. and *A. muelleri* ‘zhuyajin1’. The Ka/Ks ratios of

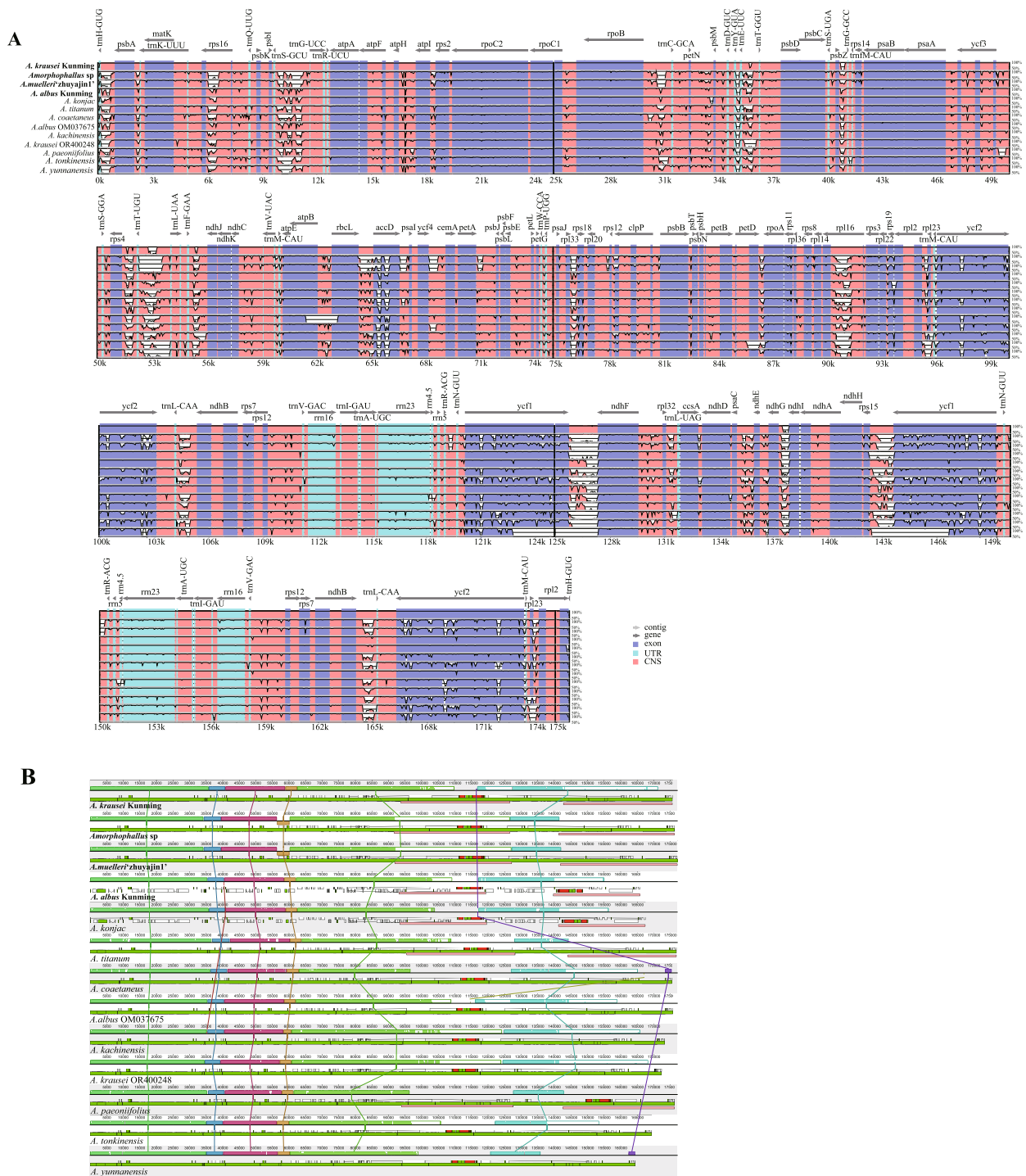


Fig. 6 Comparison of the chloroplast genome sequences of 13 *Amorphophallus* species. **A** Sequence variation analysis generated with mVISTA. Gray arrows indicated the position and direction of each gene. Purple, blue, pink, and gray bars represent exons, untranslated regions (UTRs), non-coding sequences (CNS), and mRNA, respectively. The scales on the Y-axis represent the average percent identity of sequence similarity ranging from 50 to 100%. **B** Collinear block analyses of *Amorphophallus* genome. The white, black, green and colours blue represent protein-coding genes, tRNA genes, intron containing tRNA genes, and rRNA genes, respectively. The species in bold are sequenced in this study

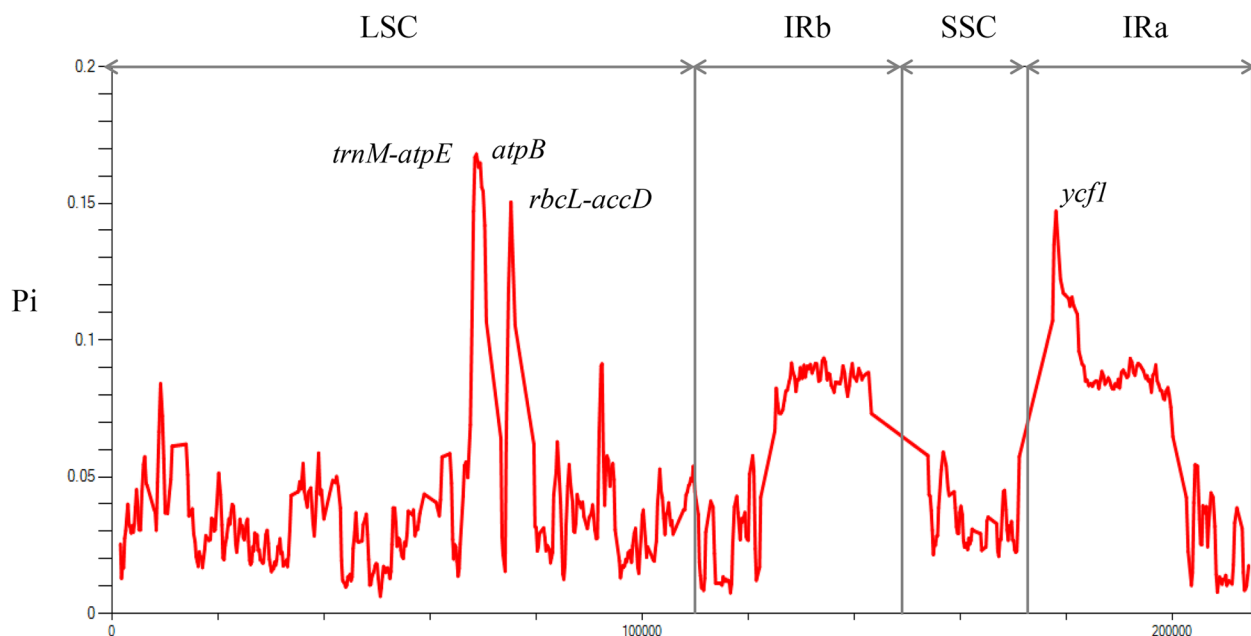


Fig. 7 Sliding window analysis for the nucleotide diversity (Pi) of the whole chloroplast genomes for *Amorphophallus* species. Window length and step size are 600 bp and 200 bp, respectively. The y-axis represents the nucleotide diversity of each window; the X-axis represents the position of the window's midpoint. The species in bold are sequenced in this study

ycf1 in *Amorphophallus* sp, *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1', *A. titanium*, *A. coetaneus*, *A. krausei*, *A. paeoniifolius*, *A. tonkinensis*, and *A. yunnanensis*, *rpl20* in *Amorphophallus* sp, *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1', *A. titanium*, *A. paeoniifolius* and *A. tonkinensis*, *rps2*, *rps11*, and *rps19* in *Amorphophallus* sp, *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1', *A. coetaneus*, *A. tonkinensis*, *ccsA* in *A. kachinensis* and *A. yunnanensis*, and *rps12* in *Amorphophallus* sp, *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1' and *A. tonkinensis* were all > 1.00, indicating that these genes underwent positive selection in different species. Additionally, we also observed *accD*, *atpA*, *atpF*, *clpP*, *rpl14*, *rpl16*, *rpl20*, *rpl22*, *rpoA*, *rpoC1*, *rpoC2*, *rps8*, *rps15*, *rps16*, *rps18* and *ycf4* exhibit Ka/Ks greater than 1 in some species. Overall, there was a more positive selection of genes in triploid *Amorphophallus* (*Amorphophallus* sp. and *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1').

Additionally, using the codon models for estimating gene selection pressure, a small number (34) of protein-coding genes were under positive selection with a posterior probability greater than 0.9 using the BUSTED (Table S10), which was similar to the Ka/Ks method. All the positive—selection genes screened out by the Ka/Ks method were also detected in the codon models, except *rpl22*, *ycf4*, *rps16* and *accD*, indicating that these shared genes underwent positive selection. Subsequently, we used FUBAR to detect rare sites that might be under positive selection. The results revealed

that the gene *ycf1* possesses most positive selective sites, followed by *clpP* (4) *rpoC2* (3), *rps11* (8), *rps3* (8), *rps12* (6) and *rps18* (6), whereas one positive selective site was observed in the *atpA*, *atpF*, *ccsA*, *rpl36* and *rpoA* (Table S10).

Phylogenetic relationship analysis

The gene content within chloroplast DNA exhibited high conservation across most land plants. To identify the phylogenetic positions of the *A. krausei*, *Amorphophallus* sp, *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1', and *A. albus* within the subfamily Aroideae, we utilized the complete chloroplast genome of 49 species from the seven subfamilies within Araceae, including Aroideae, Lasioideae, Lemnoideae, Monsteroideae, Orontioideae, Pothoideae, and Zamioculcadoideae (Table S11). We constructed a phylogenetic tree using *Zea mays* as the outgroup. Within the subfamily Aroideae, *Amorphophallus* species formed a distinct clade with robust bootstrapping values of 100%, constituting a well-supported monophyletic evolutionary branch. The phylogenetic tree indicated that these *Amorphophallus* species were divided into three clades, including continental Asia II (CA-II), continental Asia I (CA-I), and Southeast Asia clade (SEA) clade (Fig. 9). Within the CA-II clade, *A. krausei*, *A. kachinensis*, *A. albus*, and *A. konjac* clustered together, with a bootstrap value of 100%, indicating that these species had a close relationship. In terms of CA-I clade, *Amorphophallus*

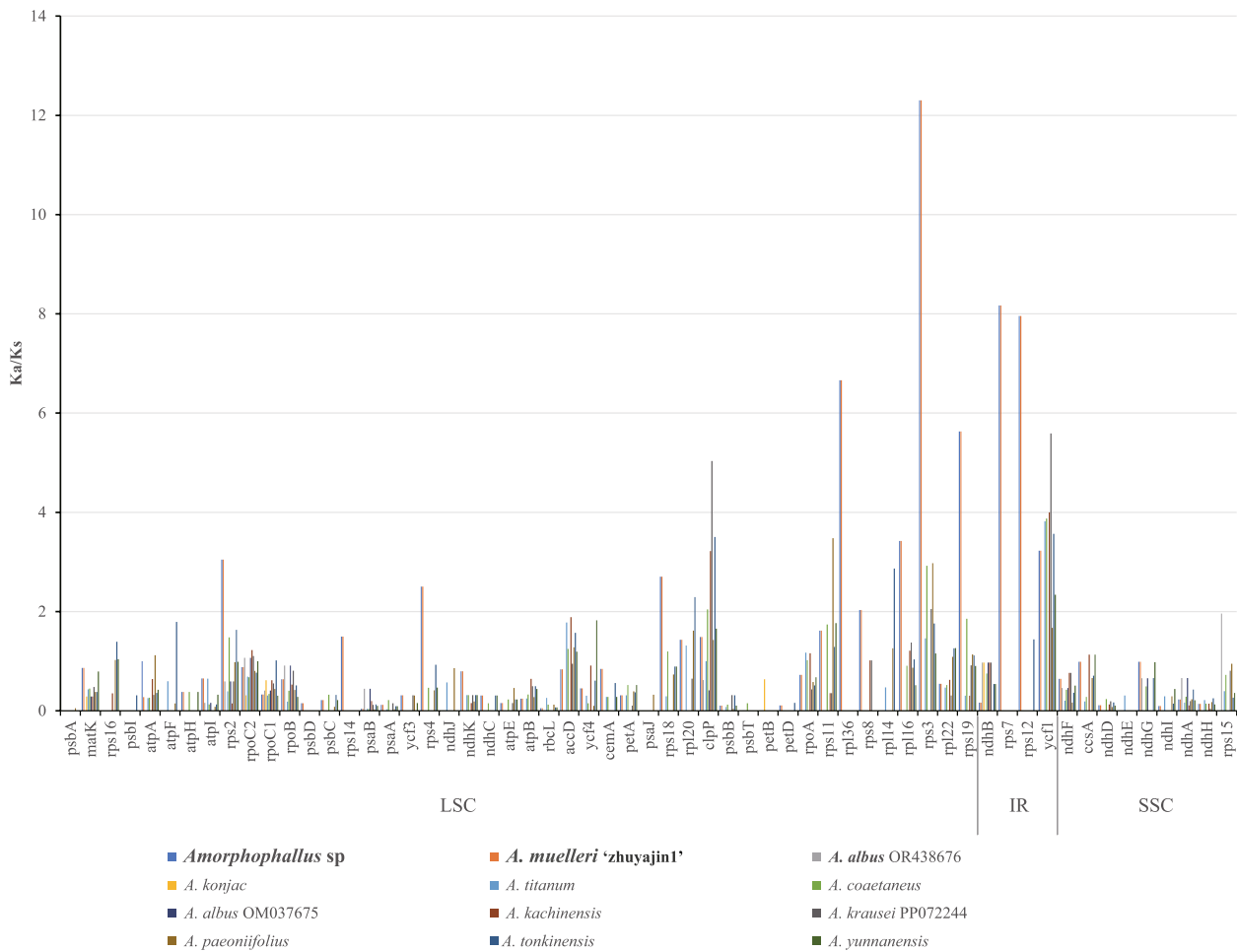


Fig. 8 Comparison of non-synonymous (Ka)/synonymous (Ks) substitution ratios among 13 species of *Amorphophallus*. The species in bold are sequenced in this study

sp exhibited a particularly close relationship with *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1', both members of the same branch, with a bootstrap value of 100%, indicating that *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1' and *Amorphophallus* sp are the most closely related species. Nevertheless, *A. coetaneus* and *A. tonkinensis* cluster into a subclade and form a sister relationship with the subclade of *A. yunnanensis*, suggesting that they are more closely related. The SEA clade contains two species, *A. paeoniifolius* and *A. titanum*. Furthermore, the genus *Amorphophallus* was found to be a sister to the genera *Caladium*, *Zomicarpella*, *Xanthosoma*, and *Syngonium* (Fig. 9). The subfamily Aroideae was the crown group, exhibiting a sister relationship with the subfamily Zamioculcadoideae. The subfamily Monsteroideae revealed a sister relationship with the subfamily Pothoideae. The subfamily Orontioideae was the basal group, followed by Lemnoideae.

Discussion

In this study, we characterized the complete chloroplast genomes of four *Amorphophallus* species and compared them with those of nine available species within this genus. The results showed that the chloroplast genome structure in *Amorphophallus* is highly conserved, comprising IRa and IRb, which separate LSC and SSC regions. Interestingly, these seven species exhibited variation in chloroplast genome size (Table 1), with the largest chloroplast genome size in *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1' and the smallest in *A. yunnanensis*, with a difference of 12,659 bp. This phenomenon may be due to IR expansion, contraction, and recombination of the chloroplast genome among these *Amorphophallus* species [42]. In addition, they shared similar GC content (34.5%–36%), rRNAs, most of the protein-coding genes, and tRNAs, which also had been found in other plants [42, 43]. Our study identified 126–131 functional genes, comprising 81–86 protein-coding genes, 36–39 tRNA genes, and 8 rRNA

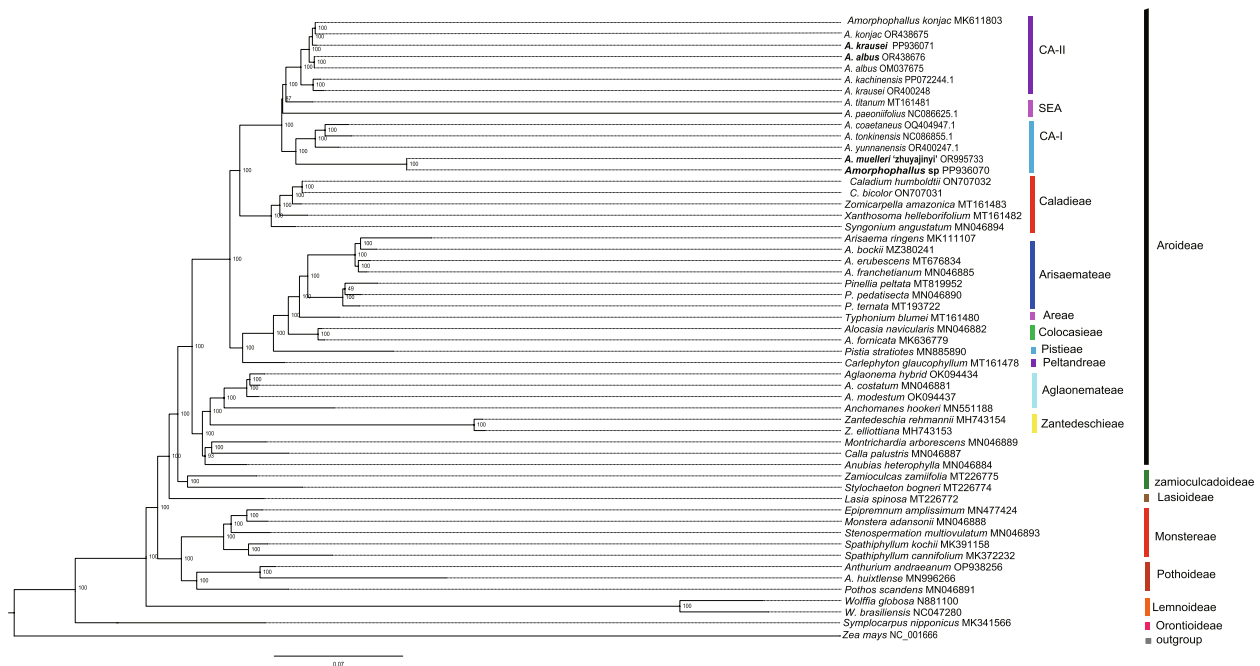


Fig. 9 Phylogenetic trees were constructed using the maximum likelihood (ML) based on the complete chloroplast genomes of 54 Araceae species. The numbers above the nodes indicate support values. The species in bold are sequenced in this study

genes, which are in agreement with previous reports of the species in Araceae, including *A. konjac* [33, 38], *Alocasia fornicate* [36], *Colocasia gigantea*, *Caladium bicolor* and *Xanthosoma sagittifolium* [42]. However, a recent study reported reduced gene content in four species of the genus *Amorphophallus* [35], which is an exception. In particular, *A. albus*, *A. bulbifer*, *A. konjac*, and *A. muelleri* were found to possess 113 (79 protein-coding genes, 30 tRNAs, and 4 rRNAs), 111 (78 protein-coding genes, 29 tRNAs, and 4 rRNAs), 111 (78 protein-coding genes, 29 tRNAs, and four rRNAs), and 113 (80 protein-coding genes, 29 tRNAs, and 4 rRNAs) genes, respectively [35]. Although these 13 chloroplast genomes were highly conserved, intron loss, gene duplication, and gene loss were observed in this study. For example, the chloroplast genomes of all *Amorphophallus* species except *A. coetaneus*, *A. yunnanensis* and *A. tonkinensis* had two copies of *rpl23*. *Amorphophallus coetaneus* had one copy of *rpl23*, while *A. yunnanensis* and *A. tonkinensis* lost *rpl23*. Moreover, *accD* had no intron in the genomes of *A. krausei*, *A. muelleri* ‘zhuyajin1’, *Amorphophallus* sp, and *A. titanum*, while the other three genomes exhibited one intron in this protein-coding gene, indicating that intron loss had occurred during the evolutionary history of *A. krausei*, *A. muelleri* ‘zhuyajin1’, *Amorphophallus* sp and *A. titanum*. In contrast, Liu et al. [35] reported the deletion of *rpl23*, *rpl2*, *trnL-CCA*, *trnG-GCC*, *accD*, and *psbE* in the genus *Amorphophallus*. In this study, we sequenced

and de novo assembled the chloroplast genomes of *A. krausei*, *A. muelleri* ‘zhuyajin1’, *Amorphophallus* sp, and *A. albus*. The gene content of these genomes is similar to that of previous reports in aroids, as well as *A. titanum* [36], *A. konjac* [38] and other Monsteroideae (Araceae), including *Spathiphyllum patulinervum*, *Stenospermation multiovulatum*, *Monstera adansonii*, and *Rhaphidophora amplissima* [43]. Nevertheless, the gene deletion mentioned above was not supported. Furthermore, certain events of intron loss, gene duplication, and gene loss were reported within other plants, including *Aglaonema* cultivars [44], Zingiberoideae species [45], Costaceae species [46]. The gene loss events involved *ycf68*, *trnS-CGA*, *trnS-GGA*, and *trnT-GGU*, and intron loss events involved *trnG-UCC* in the *Aglaonema* cultivars [44].

Previous studies have shown that IR contraction and expansion of the chloroplast genomes were considered significant evolutionary events. These events can result in chloroplast genome size variations, production of pseudogenes, gene duplication, and reduced duplicate genes to one copy [47]. Our results also indicated that genome lengths and boundaries of IR expansion exhibited variations among these 13 genomes. *Amorphophallus* species in type I and type III showed two functional copies of *ycf1* gene due to duplication in IR regions, one each in IRa and IRb, while *ycf1* is present completely in the SSC region and hence exists as single copy with in type II. The same phenomenon exists in some species of the family

Araceae. For example, *A. simorrhinum*, *C. glaucophyllum*, and *T. blumei* in the *Dracunculus* clade (Araceae) contained two functional copies of the *ycf1* gene, one each in IRa and IRb [36]. In *Colocasia gigantean* [42], *Anthurium huixtlense*, *Pothos scandens* [47], *P. pedatisecta*, *C. esculenta*, *A. franchetianum*, *Alocasia fornicate*, and *Stuednera colocasiifolia* [36], this gene existed completely as one functional copy in SSC regions. Moreover, in *Caladium bicolor* and *Xanthosoma sagittifolium*, this gene extended into IRa from SSC and existed as a single copy in the plastom genome [42]. However, in some Araceae species, including *Anubias heterophylla*, *Aglaonema costatum*, *Syngonium angustatum*, *Xanthosoma helleborifolium*, and *Zomicarpella amazonica*, the functional copy of the *ycf1* gene extended into IRa from SSC; however, a truncated copy also existed in IRb [36, 48]. Previous studies of angiosperm chloroplast genomes revealed the complete existence of *trnH-GUG* in the LSC region or integration of *trnH-GUG* into the IRa region [42, 44, 48]. In this study, *trnH-GUG* was found to be at JLA in all 12 *Amorphophallus* except *A. coaetaneus* (type II), either starting inside the IRa (6–8 bp) in *A. krausei*, *Amorphophallus* sp, *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1' and *A. titanum* or starting up to 1 bp (*A. albus*) and 86 bp (*A. konjac*) after the start of LSC region. In *A. coaetaneus*, at the junction of the JLA region, *rpl2* exists in the LSC instead of *trnH-GUG*. In *Anchomanes hookeri*, at the junction of JLA, *psbK* exists in the LSC instead of *trnH-GUG* [48]. As reported by Abdullah et al. the duplication events of *ycf1* and/or other genes that present at the junction of single copy and inverted repeats in chloroplast genome are species-specific rather than cladistic synapomorphies [36]. Further genomic resources may provide a better understanding of the phylogenetic level of IR contraction and amplification in the *Amorphophallus* genus as well as Araceae family.

Chloroplast genomes are rich in SSRs, long repeats, and highly divergent regions, widely used to determine phylogenetic relationships between organisms and identify species and cultivars. Our study indicated that most SSRs were mononucleotide repeats and were short A/T repeats consistent with previous studies [42]. In current study, repeats detection results were the same as most other Araceae plants; for example, four types of oligonucleotide repeats were identified, and forward repeats were the most abundant types of repeats [42, 47]. Previous studies have shown that these repeats may be associated with generating substitutions and InDels [49]. Furthermore, divergent analyses implemented by mVISTA revealed that the non-coding regions were more divergent and variable than the coding regions, indicating that non-coding regions are suitable for molecular marker identification in *Amorphophallus*,

consistent with previous studies in Araceae chloroplast genomes [42, 50]. Twenty-two regions (*trnH-GUG-psbA*, *trnS-GCU-trnG-UCC*, *rpoB-trnC-GCA*, *trnY-GUA-trnT-GGU*, *psbZ-trnG-GCC*, *rps4-trnT-UGU*, *trnT-GGU-trnL-UAA*, *trnF-GAA-ndhJ*, *rbcL-accD*, *trnL-CAA-ndhB*, *ycf1-ndhF*, *ndhF-rpl32*, *psaC-ndhE*, *ndhG-ndhI*, *rps15-ycf1*, *ndhB-trnL-CAA*, *atpB-rbcL*, *rbcL-accD*, *rps16*, *rpl16*, *ycf1*, *ycf2*, and *accD*) with high variation were identified from *Amorphophallus* based on the mVISTA analysis. Similarly, *trnH-psbA*, *rps4-trnT-UGU*, *trnL-ndhB*, *psaC-ndhE*, *rps15-ycf1*, *rpl16*, *ycf1*, and *ycf2* showed divergence in four *Zantedeschia* (Araceae) [51]. Additionally, divergent analyses implemented by nucleotide diversity revealed 4 highly divergent regions among 13 *Amorphophallus* chloroplast genomes, including *trnM-atpE*, *atpB*, *atpB-rbcL* and *ycf1*. In previous studies, 12 regions (*trnH-GUG-CDS1*, *trnH-GUG-CDS1-psbA*, *trnS-GCU-trnS-CGA-CDS1*, *psbC-trnS-UGA*, *rps4-trnT-UGU*, *trnF-GAA-ndhJ*, *psbF-psbE*, *petD-CDS2-rpoA*, *ycf1-ndhF*, *rps15-ycf1-D2*, *ccsA-ndhD*, and *trnY-GUA-trnE-UUC*) showed significantly higher Pi values in seven *Aglaonema* species [44]. Besides, 8 highly divergent regions (*rps16-trnQ-UUG*, *trnS-GCU-trnG-UCC*, *atpH-atpI*, *petA-psbJ*, *psbE-petL*, *ndhF*, *rpl32*, and *ndhE*) were identified in seven *Lemnoideae* species [52]. Similarly, 14 highly divergent regions (*trnS-trnA*, *psbI-trnS*, *ndhF*, *ycf1*, *trnQ-psbK*, *rpl32-trnL*, *trnC-petN*, *trnT-trnL*, *rps16-trnQ*, *trnT-psbD*, *rpoB-trnC*, *trnL-ccsA*, *psbK-psbI*, and *petA-psbJ*) were found in *Symplocarpus* [50]. Furthermore, 16 regions (*trnN-ndhF*, *trnS-trnG*, *rpl32-trnL*, *psaC-ndhE*, *ndhG-ndhI*, *accD-psaI*, *ccsA-ndhD*, *rps15-ycf1*, *trnL-ccsA*, *psbI-trnS*, *petD-rpoA*, *rps19-rpl2*, *atpH-atpI*, *ccsA*, *ndhF*, and *ndhD*) with high nucleotide diversity were identified in Aroideae [42]. Six highly divergent regions (*trnH-GUG-psbA*, *rps4-trnT-UGU*, *trnF-GAA-ndhJ*, *rps15-ycf1*, *ccsA-ndhD*, and *petD-rpoA*) were used as DNA barcodes in Araceae species or were in the marker development of DNA barcodes [42, 44, 48]. When these hotspot regions based on the representative lineages within the family Araceae were compared to those from seven congeneric species of *Amorphophallus*, we found that highly variable regions on the family level were not the same as those within the genus *Amorphophallus*. However, *trnH-GUG-psbA*, *ndhB-trnL*, *psaC-ndhE*, *trnS-trnG*, and *rps4-trnT* regions were consistent and highly variable in most Araceae species. The absence of hotspot regions in other Araceae species in the remaining regions of *Amorphophallus* suggested that there was no universal "best" region. Additionally, these regions may evolve rapidly within the genus *Amorphophallus* and can be used as special DNA barcodes for *Amorphophallus* species. Claudel et al. reported that the *rbcL*

gene had significant potential as a DNA barcoding tool for specific *Amorphophallu* species [1]. Our results also support the high variability of the *atpB-rbcL* and *rbcL-accD* regions in 13 *Amorphophall* chloroplast genomes. In summary, we identified several highly variable plastid regions in the *Amorphophall* genus, which may help determine phylogenetic relationships and can serve as markers for barcoding and phylogenetic studies at higher taxonomic levels.

The Ka/Ks ratio is a vital tool for determining genome evolution. In this study, most genes displayed ratios of less than 1.00, which aligns with observations in other high plant chloroplast genomes [53]. However, certain Araceae species have reported higher Ka/Ks values, signifying a positive selection of genes [42, 47]. Our preliminary results indicated the presence of 23 genes (*atpA*, *atpF*, *rpl14*, *rpoA*, *rpoC1*, *rpoC2*, *rpl36*, *ccsA*, *rpl16*, *rps4*, *rps7*, *rps8*, *rps11*, *rps12*, *rps14*, *clpP*, *rps3*, *ycf1*, *rpl20*, *rps2*, *rps18*, *rps19* and *rps15*) undergoing positive selection in the chloroplast genomes of *Amorphophallus*. Among them, four genes (*rpl36*, *rps4*, *rps7*, *rps8* and *rps14*) exhibited positive selection in *Amorphophallus* sp and *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1'. *atpF* and *rpoC1* only showed positive selection in *A. tonkinensis*, *atpA* in *A. paeoniifolius*, and *ycf4* only in *A. yunnanensis*. The remaining genes showed positive selection in more than one species of *Amorphophallus* species, indicating that these genes underwent adaptive evolution in different environments. Previous studies have shown that positive selection of *rps3*, *ycf1*, and *ycf2* in angiosperms may be very common [44]. *rps3*, *ycf1* and *ycf2* showed positive selection in 16 *Aglaonema* species [44] and four *Zingiber* species [45]. In addition, *ycf* exhibited positive selection in *Alocasia fornicata*, *Colocasia esculenta*, *Steudnera colcasiiifolia*, *Arisaema franchetianum*, *Arisarum simorrhinum*, and *Carlephyton Glaucophyllum* [36], and *ycf1* in four *Pinellia* [42]. Furthermore, other genes experiencing positive selection have been identified, including *rpl2* in *Epipremnum aureum* [52], *rps2* in 16 Araceae species [44] and *ndhF*, *ndhK*, *rbcL*, *rpoC1*, *rpoC2*, and *matK* in *Colocasia gigantea*, *Caladium bicolor*, and *Xanthosoma sagittifolium* [42], *ccsA*, *matK*, and *ndhF* in four *Anubias* (Araceae) [54], *rpl33* in *Typhonium blumei*, *rps8* in *Xanthosoma helleborifolium*, *rps16* in *Zomicarpella amazonica* [36], and *clpP* and *rpl36* in *Stylochaeton bogneri* [55]. Aroideae species inhabit diverse habitats, including swamps, river margins, and damp sites [56]. Therefore, various types of positively selected genes in these species may be associated with distinct ecological pressures of their respective niches [47].

Chloroplast genomes containing sufficient variable loci are valuable for determining evolutionary and phylogenetic relationships [57]. In our study, we analyzed the

chloroplast genomes of 54 species from seven subfamilies of Araceae, including Aroideae, Lasioideae, Lemnoideae, Monsteroideae, Orontioideae, Pothoideae, and Zamio-culcadoideae to gain insights into their evolutionary relationships. The maximum likelihood (ML) phylogeny confirmed the phylogenetic position of *Amorphophallus* within the subfamily Aroideae, with the *Amorphophallus* species forming a single monophyletic group with a bootstrap value of 100. Previously, the genus *Amorphophallus* was also identified as monophyletic. The phylogenetic tree also indicated that these *Amorphophallus* species were divided into three clades. *Amorphophallus albus*, *A. krausei*, *A. kachinensis* and *A. konjac* were clustered into the continental Asia II (CA-II) clade, *A. coaetaneus*, *A. tonkinensis*, *A. yunnanensis*, *A. muelleri* 'zhuyajin1' and *Amorphophallus* sp were clustered into continental Asia I (CA- I) clade, and *A. titanium* belongs to the Southeast Asia clade (SEA), which was in line with the previous study with nuclear (ITS1) and plastid (*rbcL* and *matK*) regions [1]. Moreover, the genus *Amorphophallus* was most closely related to *Caladium*, *Zomicarpell*, *Xanthosoma*, and *Syngonium*, consistent with previous studies on the Araceae family [36]. Generally, the phylogenetic inference among the species of seven subfamilies of Araceae was in agreement with previous findings [42, 44]. The subfamily Aroideae showed a sister relationship with the subfamily zamio-culcadoideae, and the subfamily Pothoideae was closer to the subfamily Monsteroideae. The subfamily Orontioideae was the basal group, while the subfamily Aroideae was the crown group.

Conclusions

In the current study, we sequenced the chloroplast genomes of four *Amorphophallus* and compared them with three previously published chloroplast genomes. These seven genomes exhibited a typical quadripartite structure, similar GC content, rRNAs, codon usage, long repeats, and SSRs. However, there were variations in genome lengths, tRNA gene contents, protein-coding genes introns, and IR borders. A previous study reported that *ycf1*, *accD*, *psbE*, *trnL-CAA*, and *trnG-GCC* genes were absent in four *Amorphophallus* species; however, our study does not support the aforementioned gene loss. Comparative analyses of these chloroplast genomes identified 4 divergent hotspots (*trnM-atpE*, *atpB*, *atpB-rbcL* and *ycf1*) with potential application as molecular markers for future population genetic studies within the *Amorphophallus*. The Ka/Ks, BUSTED and FUBAR analyses of 13 *Amorphophallus* species showed that *atpA*, *atpF*, *rpl14*, *rpoA*, *rpoC1*, *rpoC2*, *rpl36*, *ccsA*, *rpl16*, *rps4*, *rps7*, *rps8*, *rps11*, *rps12*, *rps14*, *clpP*, *rps3*, *ycf1*, *rpl20*, *rps2*, *rps18*, *rps19*, and *rps15* were under positive selection, which can be due to adaptation to the environment.

Phylogenetic trees based on whole chloroplast genomes revealed that *Amorphophallus* was a sister to *Caladieae* and had significant support. All *Amorphophallus* species formed a monophyletic evolutionary clade and were divided into three groups: CA-II, SEA, and CA-I. These findings provide a valuable reference for studying the phylogeny and conservation of *Amorphophallus* and lay a solid foundation for conducting phylogenetic analyses, classification efforts, and the exploration of genetic diversity within the broader Araceae family.

Methods

Plant material sampling, DNA extraction, and sequencing

The samples of cultivated plants, including *A. albus*, *A. krausei* and *A. muelleri* ‘zhuyajin1’ were collected from Konjac Genetic Resources Garden of Kunming University, Yunnan Province (24.97406°N, 102.79605°E). The sample of wild plant *Amorphophallus* sp was collected by Li Yu on July 16, 2018, from Mansai Village (22.131258981521°N, 101.31695415018°E), Xiangming Township, Mengla County, Xishuangbanna, Yunnan province, China. The taxonomic identification is authenticated by Professor Lei Yu (the head of Yunnan Key Laboratory of Konjac Biology, Kunming University), the author of the study of areas of the genus *Amorphophallus*. Now, *Amorphophallus* sp has been introduced in the konjac germplasm resource garden of Kunming University, China and is growing well. Because the *Amorphophallus* species we collected from field were currently not protected species, no permission was required during the sampling process. Voucher specimens were placed in the deposited in the Herbarium of Yunnan Urban Agricultural Engineering and Technological Research Center, Kunming University under voucher specimens numbers BMY001(*A. albus*), *A. krausei* (XMY001), *A. muelleri* ‘zhuyajin1’(ZYJ01b) and *Amorphophallus* sp (ZY010). Total genomic DNA was extracted from each fresh leaf using the Qiagen DNeasy Plant Mini kit (Qiagen Co., Hilden, Germany). Subsequently, DNA quality and quantity were determined using a Nanodrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and 1% (w/v) agarose gel (Fig. S1), respectively. Paired-end libraries were constructed using the NEB-Next Ultra™ DNA library prep kit and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform, resulting in 2×150 bp paired-end reads. In addition, nine published plastids of *Amorphophallus* (Table 1) were also added to determine their inter—generic variation.

Chloroplast genome assembly and annotation

The quality of the raw paired-end reads was assessed using FastQC [58] and trimmed using Trimmomatic software [59]. Then, the trimmed reads were de novo

assembled into contigs using SOAPdenovo v.2.04 with the default parameters [60] and GetOrganelle v1.7.8 [49]. To validate the contigs, they were aligned against a reference chloroplast genome of *A. konjac* (NC_046702) using the Blast program. The aligned contigs were then oriented according to the reference chloroplast genome. Complete chloroplast genomes with the default parameters were annotated using CPGAVAS2 [61] and GeSeq [62]. Subsequently, tRNAs were identified using tRNAscan-SE with the default parameters [63]. The circular map of the genomes was constructed using Organellar Genome DRAW (OGDRAW) version 1.3.1 [64].

Sequence analysis

The relative synonymous codon usage (RSCU) analysis in protein-coding genes was performed using Geneious R8.1 [65]. SSR was predicted using MISA [66] with minimum repeat thresholds set at ten for mononucleotide repeats, five for dinucleotide repeats, four for trinucleotide repeats, three for tetranucleotide repeats, three for pentanucleotide repeats, and three for hexanucleotide repeats. Tandem repeats with default parameters were determined using the tandem repeat finder (<http://tandem.bu.edu/trf/trf.submit.options.html>).

Comparative genome and sequence divergence analyses

The mVISTA software [67] in Shuffle-LAGAN mode was used to compare the seven complete chloroplast genomes of *Amorphophallus*, using the *A. krausei* sequence as the reference. To visualize the contraction and expansion of the IR junction sites, IRScope [68] was used. For inter-specific comparisons, MAFFT v.7 [69] was used to align the complete chloroplast genomes of the seven species. Subsequently, DnaSP version 6.0 [70] was employed to perform a sliding window analysis with a window length of 600 bp and a step size of 200 bp to determine the nucleotide diversity (π) of the plastome based on the alignment results.

Analysis of synonymous (Ks) and non-synonymous (Ka) substitution rate

We used synonymous substitution rates (Ks) and non-synonymous substitution rates (Ka), along with their ratio Ka/Ks, to determine the role of natural selection in shaping the molecular evolution of the *A. albus* chloroplast genome. All protein-coding genes were aligned using MAFFT. The Ks, Ka, and Ka/Ks values were calculated using the KaKs_Calculator 2.0 software [71]. Values of Ka/Ks > 1, Ka/Ks = 1, and Ka/Ks < 1 indicate positive, neutral, and purifying selection, respectively.

Phylogenetic analysis

To determine the phylogenetic relationships and verify the phylogenetic placement of *Amorphophallus*, 49 aroid taxa were considered, including 54 species obtained from NCBI (Table S11) and four species introduced in this study. All chloroplast genome sequences were aligned using MAFFT V7, with *Zea mays* serving as outgroup. The phylogenetic tree was constructed using IQ-TREE v. 1.4.2 [68]. A bootstrap test was performed with 1000 iterations to calculate the maximum likelihood (ML) bootstrap value. The best-fit model used for this analysis was TVM + F + R9.

Abbreviations

IR	Inverted repeat regions
LSC	Large single copy region
SSC	Small single copy region
SSR	Simple sequence repeats
Ka	Non-synonymous
Ks	Synonymous
ML	Maximum Likelihood

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12864-024-11053-z>.

Supplementary Material 1.
Supplementary Material 2.

Acknowledgements

Thank all those who have helped us.

Authors' contributions

L.F.L. conceived and designed the experiments, generated and analyzed the data, wrote the draft of the manuscript and revised it. M.Y., Y.Q., P.H.G. and S.W.Y. conceived the study. Y.T.Z. and J.W.G. collected plant materials. H.Y.W., J.N.L. and J.R.Z. analyzed the data and help to revise the manuscript. F.Y.H. and L.Y. planned and directed the study and revised the manuscript. All authors contributed to the experiments and approved the final draft of the manuscript.

Funding

This study was funded by Yunnan Provincial Science and Technology Department (grant no. 202401AU070020, 202201AU070043, 202101BA070001-174, 202201AT070113, 202101AO070075), Yunnan Education Department Research Project (grant no. 2024J0771), Kunming University Talent Program (grant no. YJL23026, YJL23010, YJL23005, YJL23007). Yunnan Province Yu Lei Expert Grassroots Research Workstation, Yunnan Province Youth Talent Support Program (Grant No. YNWR-QNBJ-2018–324). Yunnan Provincial Science and Technology Department (grant no. 202449CE340009).

Data availability

The genome raw reads have been deposited in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI, <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>) under a Project accession: PRJNA1126114. The four newly sequenced complete chloroplast genomes in this study have been submitted to GenBank (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>) with accession numbers OR995733, OR438676, PP936070 and PP936071, and available in NCBI (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>) (see Table S1). The materials are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request after the publication of the work.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The materials involved in the article does not an endangered or protected species; therefore, permission is not required to collect this species. Research on these species, including the collection of plant materials has been carried out in accordance with guidelines provided by Kunming University.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Author details

¹Yunnan Key Laboratory of Konjac Biology, College of Agronomy, Yunnan Urban Agricultural Engineering and Technological Research Center, Kunming University, Kunming, China.

Received: 1 July 2024 Accepted: 14 November 2024

Published online: 21 November 2024

References

- Claudel C, Buerki S, Chatro LW, Antonelli A, Alvarez N, Hettterscheid WLA. Large-scale phylogenetic analysis of *Amorphophallus* (Araceae) derived from nuclear and plastid sequences reveals new subgeneric delineation. *J Linn Soc Bot.* 2017;184:32–45.
- Promprom W, Chatan W, Pasorn P, Prasertsri N, Angkahad T. A new species of *Amorphophallus* (Araceae) from northeastern Thailand. *PhytoKeys.* 2023;229:131–8.
- Shi HD, Zhang WQ, Lu HY, Zhang WQ, Ye H, Liu DD. Functional characterization of a starch synthesis-related gene *AmAGP* in *Amorphophallus muelleri*. *Plant Signal Behav.* 2020;15(11):1805903.
- Islam F, Labib RK, Zehravi M, Lami MS, Das R, Singh LP, Mandhadi JR, Balan P, Khan J, Khan SL, Nainu F, Nafady MH, Rab SO, Emran TB, Wilairatana P. Genus *Amorphophallus*: a comprehensive overview on phytochemistry, ethnomedicinal uses, and pharmacological activities. *Plants (Basel).* 2023;12(23):3945.
- Zhao C, She X, Liu E, et al. A mixed ploidy natural population of *Amorphophallus muelleri* provides an opportunity to trace the evolution of *Amorphophallus* karyotype. *J Genet.* 2021;100:10.
- Zhao C, Harijati N, Liu E, Jin S, Diao Y, Hu Z. First report on DNA content of three species of *Amorphophallus*. *J Genet.* 2020;99:36.
- Dai J, Chen J, Qi J, Ding M, Liu W, Shao T, Han J, Wang G. Konjac Glucomannan from *Amorphophallus konjac* enhances immunocompetence of the cyclophosphamide-induced immunosuppressed mice. *Food Sci Nutr.* 2020;9(2):728–35.
- Zalewski BM, Chmielewska A, Szajewska H. The effect of glucomannan on body weight in overweight or obese children and adults: a systematic review of randomized controlled trials. *Nutrition.* 2015;31(3):437–42.e2.
- Harmayani E, Aprilia V, Marsono Y. Characterization of glucomannan from *Amorphophallus oncophyllus* and its prebiotic activity in vivo. *Carbohydr Polym.* 2014;112:475–9.
- Cui H, Zhu X, Wang Z, Fang J, Yuan T. A purified glucomannan oligosaccharide from *Amorphophallus konjac* improves colonic mucosal barrier function via enhancing butyrate production and histone protein H3 and H4 acetylation. *J Nat Prod.* 2021;84(2):427–35.
- Devaraj RD, Reddy CK, Xu B. Health-promoting effects of konjac glucomannan and its practical applications: a critical review. *Int J Biol Macromol.* 2019;126:273–81.
- Majumder M, Sharma M, Maiti S, Mukhopadhyay R. Edible Tuber *Amorphophallus paeoniifolius* (Dennst.) Extract induces apoptosis and suppresses migration of breast cancer cells. *Nutr Cancer.* 2021;73(11–12):2477–90.
- Dwiputri E, Lestari KD, Tan GHK, Sulijaya B, Soeroro Y, Masulili SLC, Takahashi N, Tabeta K, Tadjoedin FM. Osteoclastogenesis inhibitor and antioxidant properties of Konjac Glucomannan in a periodontitis mice model: an in vivo study. *Int J Dent.* 2023;2023:7400421.

14. Jian W, Siu KC, Wu JY. Effects of pH and temperature on colloidal properties and molecular characteristics of Konjac glucomannan. *Carbohydr Polym.* 2015;134:285–92.
15. Zhu F. Modifications of konjac glucomannan for diverse applications. *Food Chem.* 2018;256:419–26.
16. Gao Y, Yin S, Yang H, Wu L, Yan Y. Genetic diversity and phylogenetic relationships of seven *Amorphophallus* species in southwestern China revealed by chloroplast DNA sequences. *Mitochondrial DNA A DNA Mapp Seq Anal.* 2018;29(5):679–86.
17. Tang R, Liu E, Zhang Y, Schinnerl J, Sun W, Chen G. Genetic diversity and population structure of *Amorphophallus albus*, a plant species with extremely small populations (PSESP) endemic to dry-hot valley of Jinsha River. *BMC Genet.* 2020;21(1):102.
18. Gholave AR, Pawar KD, Yadav SR, Bapat VA, Jadhav JP. Reconstruction of molecular phylogeny of closely related *Amorphophallus* species of India using plastid DNA marker and fingerprinting approaches. *Physiol Mol Biol Plants.* 2017;23(1):155–67.
19. Grob GB, Gravendeel B, Eurlings MC. Potential phylogenetic utility of the nuclear FLORICAULA/LEAFY second intron: comparison with three chloroplast DNA regions in *Amorphophallus* (Araceae). *Mol Phylogenet Evol.* 2004;30(1):13–23.
20. Kirschner GK. A hot topic: thermogenesis in *Amorphophallus*. *Plant J.* 2023;115(4):872–3.
21. Claudel C, Loiseau O, Silvestro D, Lev-Yadun S, Antonelli A. Patterns and drivers of heat production in the plant genus *Amorphophallus*. *Plant J.* 2023;115(4):874–94.
22. Gao P, Qi Y, Li L, Yang S, Guo J, Liu J, Wei H, Huang F, Yu L. Phenylpropane biosynthesis and alkaloid metabolism pathways involved in resistance of *Amorphophallus* spp. against soft rot disease. *Front Plant Sci.* 2024;15:1334996.
23. Gao P, Qi Y, Li L, Yang S, Liu J, Wei H, Huang F, Yu L. *Amorphophallus muelleri* activates ferulic acid and phenylpropane biosynthesis pathways to defend against *Fusarium solani* infection. *Front Plant Sci.* 2023;14:1207970.
24. Yang M, Qi Y, Liu J, Gao P, Huang F, Yu L, Chen H. Different response mechanisms of rhizosphere microbial communities in two species of *Amorphophallus* to *Pectobacterium carotovorum* subsp. *carotovorum* infection. *Plant Pathol J.* 2023;39(2):207–19.
25. Yin S, Chen H, Wu W, Gao Y. The complete chloroplast genome assembly of *Amorphophallus tonkinensis* Engler and Gehrman 1911 from southwestern China. *Mitochondrial DNA B Resour.* 2024;9(5):592–6.
26. Szrednicki G, Borompichaichartkul C. Konjac glucomannan-production, processing, and functional applications. Boca Raton: CRC Press; 2020.
27. Chen Y, Hu N, Wu H. Analyzing and characterizing the chloroplast genome of *Salix wilsonii*. *BioMed Res Int.* 2019;2019:5190425.
28. Daniell H, Lin CS, Yu M, Chang WJ. Chloroplast genomes: diversity, evolution, and applications in genetic engineering. *Genome Biol.* 2016;17(1):134.
29. Song Y, Zhao W, Xu J, Li M, Zhang Y. Chloroplast genome evolution and species identification of *Styrax* (Styracaceae). *BioMed Res Int.* 2022;2022:5364094.
30. Zhao Y, Qu D, Ma Y. Characterization of the chloroplast genome of *Argyranthemum frutescens* and a comparison with other species in Anthemideae. *Genes.* 2022;13(10):1720.
31. Wang Y, Wang S, Liu Y, Yuan Q, Sun J, Guo L. Chloroplast genome variation and phylogenetic relationships of *Atractylodes* species. *BMC Genomics.* 2021;22(1):103.
32. Cui N, Chen W, Li X, Wang P. Comparative chloroplast genomes and phylogenetic analyses of *Pinellia*. *Mol Biol Rep.* 2022;49(8):7873–85.
33. Hu H, Liua J, Wang B, An J, Wang Q. Characterization of the complete chloroplast genome of *Amorphophallus konjac* (Araceae) and its phylogenetic analysis. *Mitochondrial DNA Part B Resour.* 2019;4:1658–9.
34. Yin S, Gao Y. Characterization of the complete chloroplast genome assembly of *Amorphophallus yunnanensis* Engler, Pflanzenr (Araceae) from southwestern China. *Mitochondrial DNA B Resour.* 2023;8(12):1445–9.
35. Liu E, Yang C, Liu J, Jin S, Harijati N, Hu Z, Diao Y, Zhao L. Comparative analysis of complete chloroplast genome sequences of four major *Amorphophallus* species. *Sci Rep.* 2019;9(1):809.
36. Abdullah Henriquez CL, Mehmood F, Hayat A, Sammad A, Waseem S, Waheed MT, Matthews PJ, Croat TB, Poczai P, Ahmed I. Chloroplast genome evolution in the *Dracunculus* clade (Aroideae, Araceae). *Genomics.* 2021;113(1 Pt 1):183–92.
37. Gao Y, Dong K, Xiao P, Wu W, Yin S. Complete assembly of the chloroplast genome of *Amorphophallus coetaneus* SY Liu & SJ Wei 1986 (Araceae) from southwestern China. *Mitochondrial DNA B Resour.* 2023;8(7):766–70.
38. Li L, Qi Y, Gao P, Yang S, Zhao Y, Guo J, Liu J, Huang F, Yu L. The complete chloroplast genome sequence of *Amorphophallus konjac* (Araceae) from Yunnan, China and its phylogenetic analysis in the family Araceae. *Mitochondrial DNA B Resour.* 2024;9(1):41–5.
39. Gao Y, Yin S. The complete chloroplast genome assembly of *Amorphophallus kiusianus* Makino 1913 (Araceae) from Southern China. *Mitochondrial DNA B Resour.* 2024;9(4):522–6.
40. Gao Y, Yin S. Assembly and analysis of the chloroplast genome of *Amorphophallus kachinensis* Engler & Gehrman (Araceae) from Southwestern China: implications for conservation and utilization. *Mitochondrial DNA B Resour.* 2024;9(4):452–6.
41. Yin S, Gao Y. The complete chloroplast genome assembly of *Amorphophallus krausei* Engler, Pflanzenr 1911 (Araceae) from southwestern China. *Mitochondrial DNA B Resour.* 2023;8(12):1339–42.
42. Li B, Liu T, Ali A, Xiao Y, Shan N, Sun J, Huang Y, Zhou Q, Zhu Q. Complete chloroplast genome sequences of three aroideae species (Araceae): lights into selective pressure, marker development and phylogenetic relationships. *BMC Genomics.* 2022;23(1):218.
43. Henriquez CL, Abdullah, Ahmed I, Carlsen MM, Zuluaga A, Croat TB, McKain MR. Molecular evolution of chloroplast genomes in Monsteroideae (Araceae). *Planta.* 2020;251(3):72.
44. Li DM, Zhu GF, Yu B, Huang D. Comparative chloroplast genomes and phylogenetic relationships of *Aglaonema modestum* and five variegated cultivars of *Aglaonema*. *PLoS One.* 2022;17(9):e0274067.
45. Li DM, Ye YJ, Xu YC, Liu JM, Zhu GF. Complete chloroplast genomes of *Zingiber montanum* and *Zingiber zerumbet*: genome structure, comparative and phylogenetic analyses. *PLoS One.* 2020;15:e0236590.
46. Li DM, Pan YG, Liu HL, Yu B, Huang D, Zhu GF. Thirteen complete chloroplast genomes of the costaceae family: insights into genome structure, selective pressure and phylogenetic relationships. *BMC Genomics.* 2024;25(1):68.
47. Abdullah, Henriquez CL, Mehmood F, Carlsen MM, Islam M, Waheed MT, Poczai P, Croat TB, Ahmed I. Complete Chloroplast Genomes of *Anthurium huixtlense* and *Pothos scandens* (Pothoideae, Araceae): unique inverted repeat expansion and contraction affect rate of evolution. *J Mol Evol.* 2020;88(7):562–74.
48. Henriquez CL, Abdullah, Ahmed I, Carlsen MM, Zuluaga A, Croat TB, McKain MR. Evolutionary dynamics of chloroplast genomes in subfamily Aroideae (Araceae). *Genomics.* 2020;112(3):2349–60.
49. Abdullah, Henriquez CL, Croat TB, Poczai P, Ahmed I. Mutational dynamics of aroid chloroplast genomes II. *Front Genet.* 2021;11:610838.
50. Kim SH, Yang J, Park J, Yamada T, Maki M, Kim SK. Comparison of whole plastome sequences between thermogenic skunk cabbage *Symplocarpus renifolius* and nonthermogenic *S. nipponicus* (Orontioideae; Araceae) in East Asia. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2019;20(19):4678.
51. He S, Yang Y, Li Z, Wang X, Guo Y, Wu H. Comparative analysis of four *Zantedeschia* chloroplast genomes: expansion and contraction of the IR region, phylogenetic analyses and SSR genetic diversity assessment. *PeerJ.* 2020;8:e9132.
52. Park H, Park JH, Kang YJ. Characterization of the complete chloroplast genome of *Wolffia arrhiza* and comparative genomic analysis with relative *Wolffia* species. *Sci Rep.* 2024;14(1):5873.
53. Tian N, Han L, Chen C, Wang Z. The complete chloroplast genome sequence of *Epipremnum aureum* and its comparative analysis among eight Araceae species. *PLoS One.* 2018;13(3):e0192956.
54. Li L, Liu C, Hou K, Liu W. Comparative analyses of plastomes of four anubias (Araceae) taxa, tropical aquatic plants endemic to Africa. *Genes (Basel).* 2022;13(11):2043.
55. Abdullah, Henriquez CL, Mehmood F, Shahzadi I, Ali Z, Waheed MT, Croat TB, Poczai P, Ahmed I. Comparison of chloroplast genomes among species of unisexual and bisexual clades of the monocot family Araceae. *Plants (Basel).* 2020;9(6):737.
56. Tomlinson P, Mayo S, Bogner J, Boyce P, Catherine E. The Genera of Araceae, 199; vol. 53
57. Peng JY, Zhang XS, Zhang DG, Wang Y, Deng T, Huang XH, Kuang TH, Zhou Q. Newly reported chloroplast genome of *Sinosenecio albonervus*

- Y Liu & QE Yang and comparative analyses with other *Sinosenecio* species. *BMC Genomics*. 2022;23(1):639.
58. de Sena Brandine G, Smith AD. Falco: high-speed FastQC emulation for quality control of sequencing data. *F1000Res*. 2019;8:1874.
 59. Bolger AM, Lohse M, Usadel B. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence data. *Bioinformatics*. 2014;30:2114.
 60. Luo R, Liu B, Xie Y, Li Z, Huang W, Yuan J, He G, Chen Y, Pan Q, Liu Y, Tang J, Wu G, Zhang H, Shi Y, Liu Y, Yu C, Wang B, Lu Y, Han C, Cheung DW, Yiu SM, Peng S, Xiaoqian Z, Liu G, Liao X, Li Y, Yang H, Wang J, Lam TW, Wang J. SOAPdenovo2: an empirically improved memory-efficient short-read de novo assembler. *Gigascience*. 2012;1(1):18.
 61. Shi L, Chen H, Jiang M, Wang L, Wu X, Huang L, Liu C. CPGAVAS2, an integrated plastome sequence annotator and analyzer. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2019;47(W1):W65–73.
 62. Tillich M, Lehwark P, Pellizzer T, Ulbricht-Jones ES, Fischer A, Bock R, Greiner S. GeSeq - versatile and accurate annotation of organelle genomes. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2017;45(W1):W6–11.
 63. Chan PP, Lin BY, Mak AJ, Lowe TM. tRNAscan-SE 2.0: improved detection and functional classification of transfer RNA genes. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2021;49(16):9077–96.
 64. Lohse M, Drechsel O, Bock R. OrganellarGenomeDRAW (OGDRAW): a tool for the easy generation of high-quality custom graphical maps of plastid and mitochondrial genomes. *Curr Genet*. 2007;52(5–6):267–74.
 65. Kearse M, Moir R, Wilson A, Stones-Havas S, Cheung M, Sturrock S, Buxton S, Cooper A, Markowitz S, Duran C, Thierer T, Ashton B, Meintjes P, Drummond A. Geneious Basic: an integrated and extendable desktop software platform for the organization and analysis of sequence data. *Bioinformatics*. 2012;28(12):1647–9.
 66. Beier S, Thiel T, Münch T, Scholz U, Mascher M. MISA-web: a web server for microsatellite prediction. *Bioinformatics*. 2017;33(16):2583–5.
 67. Frazer KA, Pachter L, Poliakov A, Rubin EM, Dubchak I. VISTA: computational tools for comparative genomics. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2004;32(Web Server issue):W273–9.
 68. Amiryousefi A, Hyvönen J, Poccai P. IRscope: an online program to visualize the junction sites of chloroplast genomes. *Bioinformatics*. 2018;34(17):3030–1.
 69. Katoh K, Standley DM. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7: improvements in performance and usability. *Mol Biol Evol*. 2013;30(4):772–80.
 70. Rozas J, Ferrer-Mata A, Sánchez-DelBarrio JC, Guirao-Rico S, Librado P, Ramos-Onsins SE, Sánchez-Gracia A. DnaSP 6: DNA sequence polymorphism analysis of large data sets. *Mol Biol Evol*. 2017;34(12):3299–302.
 71. Zhang Z, Li J, Zhao XQ, Wang J, Wong GK, Yu J. KaKs_Calculator: calculating Ka and Ks through model selection and model averaging. *Genomics Proteomics Bioinformatics*. 2006;4(4):259–63.
 72. Nguyen LT, Schmidt HA, von Haeseler A, Minh BQ. IQ-TREE: a fast and effective stochastic algorithm for estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies. *Mol Biol Evol*. 2015;32(1):268–74.

Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.