

Organellar phylogenomics of an emerging model system: *Sphagnum* (peatmoss)

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• **Background and Aims** *Sphagnum*-dominated peatlands contain approx. 30 % of the terrestrial carbon pool in the form of partially decomposed plant material (peat), and, as a consequence, *Sphagnum* is currently a focus of studies on biogeochemistry and control of global climate. *Sphagnum* species differ in ecologically important traits that scale up to impact ecosystem function, and sequencing of the genome from selected *Sphagnum* species is currently underway. As an emerging model system, these resources for *Sphagnum* will facilitate linking nucleotide variation to plant functional traits, and through those traits to ecosystem processes. A solid phylogenetic framework for *Sphagnum* is crucial to comparative analyses of species-specific traits, but relationships among major clades within *Sphagnum* have been recalcitrant to resolution because the genus underwent a rapid radiation. Herein a well-supported hypothesis for phylogenetic relationships among major clades within *Sphagnum* based on organellar genome sequences (plastid, mitochondrial) is provided.

• **Methods** We obtained nucleotide sequences (273 753 nucleotides in total) from the two organellar genomes from 38 species (including three outgroups). Phylogenetic analyses were conducted using a variety of methods applied to nucleotide and amino acid sequences. The *Sphagnum* phylogeny was rooted with sequences from the related Sphagnopsida genera, *Eosphagnum* and *Flatbergium*.

• **Key Results** Phylogenetic analyses of the data converge on the following subgeneric relationships: (*Rigida* ((*Subsecunda*) (*Cuspidata*)) (*Sphagnum*) (*Acutifolia*)). All relationships were strongly supported. Species in the two major clades (i.e. *Subsecunda* + *Cuspidata* and *Sphagnum* + *Acutifolia*), which include >90 % of all *Sphagnum* species, differ in ecological niches and these differences correlate with other functional traits that impact biogeochemical cycling. Mitochondrial intron presence/absence are variable among species and genera of the Sphagnopsida. Two new nomenclatural combinations are made, in the genera *Eosphagnum* and *Flatbergium*.

• **Conclusions** Newly resolved relationships now permit phylogenetic analyses of morphological, biochemical and ecological traits among *Sphagnum* species. The results clarify long-standing disagreements about subgeneric relationships and intrageneric classification.

Key words: Bryophytes, mitochondrial genome, organellar genomes, peatmoss, phylogenomics, plastid genome, *Sphagnum*.

INTRODUCTION

Peatmosses (the genus *Sphagnum*) are unique plants in virtually every aspect of their morphology and ecology. Although *Sphagnum* species occur on every continent apart from Antarctica, they are especially prominent and diverse in the boreal zone where they are keystone species in the vegetation of peatlands that form on poorly drained substrates (Rydin and Jeglum, 2013), and are important ecosystem engineers in those communities (van Breeman, 1995). As many as 20 or more sympatric *Sphagnum* species can co-occur in boreal peatlands and are differentiated with respect to chemical and hydrological gradients of their microhabitat (Rydin and Jeglum, 2013; Johnson *et al.*, 2015). For these reasons, and because *Sphagnum*-dominated peatlands are relatively tractable low-diversity communities, they have long served as a model for studying community structure and interspecific interactions

(e.g. Vitt and Slack, 1975, 1984; Hajkova and Hajek, 2007; Robroek *et al.*, 2007).

More recently, *Sphagnum* has also been the focus of extensive microevolutionary research, including intraspecific phylogeography (e.g. Stenøien *et al.*, 2011a, b; Szövényi *et al.*, 2008, 2012; Shaw *et al.*, 2014a, b), polyploidy (Såstad *et al.*, 1999, 2000; Ricca and Shaw, 2010; Ricca *et al.*, 2011; Karlin *et al.*, 2014), phenotypic plasticity (Såstad, 1999) and reproductive biology (Cronberg, 1991; Sundberg and Rydin, 1998, 2002; Natcheva and Cronberg, 2007; Szövényi *et al.*, 2009; Johnson and Shaw, 2015). It is fair to say that more population genetic and molecular systematic work has been done on *Sphagnum* than on any other genus of bryophytes.

The biogeochemistry of *Sphagnum*-dominated peatlands is currently another focus for intensive research. Approximately 30 % (455–547 Gt) of the earth's organic carbon pool is stored in boreal peatlands (Gorham, 1991; Yu, 2012). Northern

peatlands currently function as a carbon sink and have done so for thousands of years, but they are also a significant source of atmospheric methane and release some 276 Tg of carbon annually as carbon dioxide and methane (Yu, 2012). Warmer temperatures, permafrost melting, increased fire frequency and changing plant–microbe interactions associated with global climate change may result in peatlands transitioning from carbon sinks to carbon sources (Zhuang *et al.*, 2006; McGuire *et al.*, 2009). Species of *Sphagnum* differ in functional traits that impact biogeochemical processes (e.g. Turetsky *et al.*, 2008), so changing community membership, and possibly changing intra-specific gene pools, will probably scale up to impact global climate further. There is consequently much interest in the biogeochemistry of peatlands and the *Sphagnum* traits that impact biogeochemical cycling.

Although species of *Sphagnum* are notoriously difficult to separate, the genus is readily distinguished from any other moss (see Fig. 1). The gametophytes are relatively large, typically with fascicles of lateral branches that are differentiated as so-called spreading and pendent types. Branches near the stem apex are clustered as a dense terminal capitulum; capitulum morphology affects the shape of the colony ‘canopy’ and therefore water relations and other ecological processes (Rice *et al.*, 2008). *Sphagnum* gametophytes lack roots (like all other mosses), and they also lack rhizoids, which anchor other mosses to their substrates. The leaves of *Sphagnum* gametophytes are unistratose and composed of dimorphic cells, with large, empty, hyaline cells enclosed in networks of narrow chlorophyllose cells. The hyaline cells store water, and also various microbes (Bragina *et al.*, 2014) including nitrogen fixers, methanogens and a variety of small eukaryotes (Hingley, 1993). Sporophytes of *Sphagnum* are raised on a pseudopodium of (maternal) gametophyte origin, and the sporophytes themselves consist of little more than a sporangium attached to the pseudopodium by a swollen foot. The subgenera of *Sphagnum* are generally well marked morphologically; traits for distinguishing subgenera include the shapes of chlorophyllose cells in transverse section, and the size, number and arrangement of hyaline cell pores. Several boreal species are known to be inter-subgeneric allopolyploids (Karlin *et al.*, 2010). Inter-subgeneric allopolyploids are also known from the Southern Hemisphere (Karlin *et al.*, 2009, 2014).

To facilitate ecological and evolutionary research on peat-mosses and peatlands, we need to know much more about *Sphagnum* biochemistry and physiology, the genetic basis of differences among species and individual plants, and phylogenetic relationships among *Sphagnum* species. Toward that end, the Joint Genome Institute (JGI; US Department of Energy) recently approved a proposal to sequence the genomes and transcriptomes of representative *Sphagnum* species (Principal Investigators, A. J. Shaw and D. J. Weston). It is well known that phylogenetic relationships must be taken into account to distinguish traits inherited from a unique common ancestor vs. those acquired independently and correlated with environmental parameters (Felsenstein, 1985). Thus, resolution of phylogenetic relationships within *Sphagnum* is a critical component of establishing and empowering the genus as a model for ecological and climate research (Johnson *et al.*, 2015; Weston *et al.*, 2015).

A number of recent papers have focused on phylogenetic relationships among closely related *Sphagnum* species (e.g. Shaw *et al.*, 2004, 2008, 2012, 2015), but the genus seems to have diversified rapidly (Shaw *et al.*, 2010b) and, as a consequence, relationships among major clades (subgenera) have been recalcitrant to resolution because of short internal branches in phylogenetic reconstructions based on limited numbers of loci (Shaw *et al.*, 2003, 2010a). Here we analyse organellar genome sequences (plastid and mitochondrial) to resolve deep clades within *Sphagnum* based on nearly complete plastid and mitochondrial sequences (273 753 nucleotides in total). Whole organellar genome sequences have been used to resolve genome evolution and phylogenetic relationships in bryophytes (Li *et al.*, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2009; Forrest *et al.*, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2011, 2012a, 2014b; Xue *et al.*, 2010), within the angiosperms (e.g. Jansen *et al.*, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2012; Barrett *et al.*, 2014; Yang *et al.*, 2013) and across land plants (Liu *et al.*, 2012b, 2014a; Cox *et al.*, 2014) or seed plants (e.g. Xi *et al.*, 2013; Zhong *et al.*, 2013).

Our primary goal in the present study was to resolve deep relationships (i.e. among the major clades/subgenera) within *Sphagnum*. Although we did not obtain complete sequences for organellar genomes, we were also able to assess whether gene composition and order in the plastid and mitochondrial genomes of *Sphagnum* species conform to those documented in other bryophyte lineages. Finally, we used the phylogenetic reconstruction for *Sphagnum* to infer patterns of ecological evolution in the genus.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Accessions used for sequencing

Thirty-five *Sphagnum* species plus three outgroups were included in the analyses (Supplementary Data Table S1). Each of the five subgenera recognized by Shaw *et al.* (2010a) is represented by 2–11 species, and the three outgroups are *Eosphagnum rigescens*, *Flatbergium sericeum* and *F. novocaledoniae*. All three outgroup taxa had always been classified within *Sphagnum*, each in its own monospecific subgenus (or section) based on morphology (Warnstorf, 1911; Crum, 1990). However, multigene phylogenetic analyses (Shaw *et al.*, 2010a) showed that *Flatbergium* and *Eosphagnum* (as well as *Ambuchanania leucobryoides*, not included in the present study) are within the Sphagnopsida, but are highly divergent from all known *Sphagnum* species and are outside the *Sphagnum* clade. *Eosphagnum rigescens* is an earlier name for *E. inretortum* and we herein (below) make the new combination in *Eosphagnum*. We also below transfer *Sphagnum novocaledoniae* to *Flatbergium* based on phylogenetic analyses presented herein.

Sphagnum species were selected for the analyses to represent the subgenera recognized by Shaw *et al.* (2010a), as well as some enigmatic species that have in the past sometimes been included in their own subgenus [or section – most authors before Shaw *et al.* (2010a) used sections rather than subgenera for the major intrageneric *Sphagnum* clades]. *Sphagnum wulfianum* represents the monospecific sect. *Polyclada*, and *S. aongstroemii* is the sole member of sect. *Insulosa* (e.g. Crum, 1984). Shaw *et al.* (2010a) recognized the sections *Polyclada* and

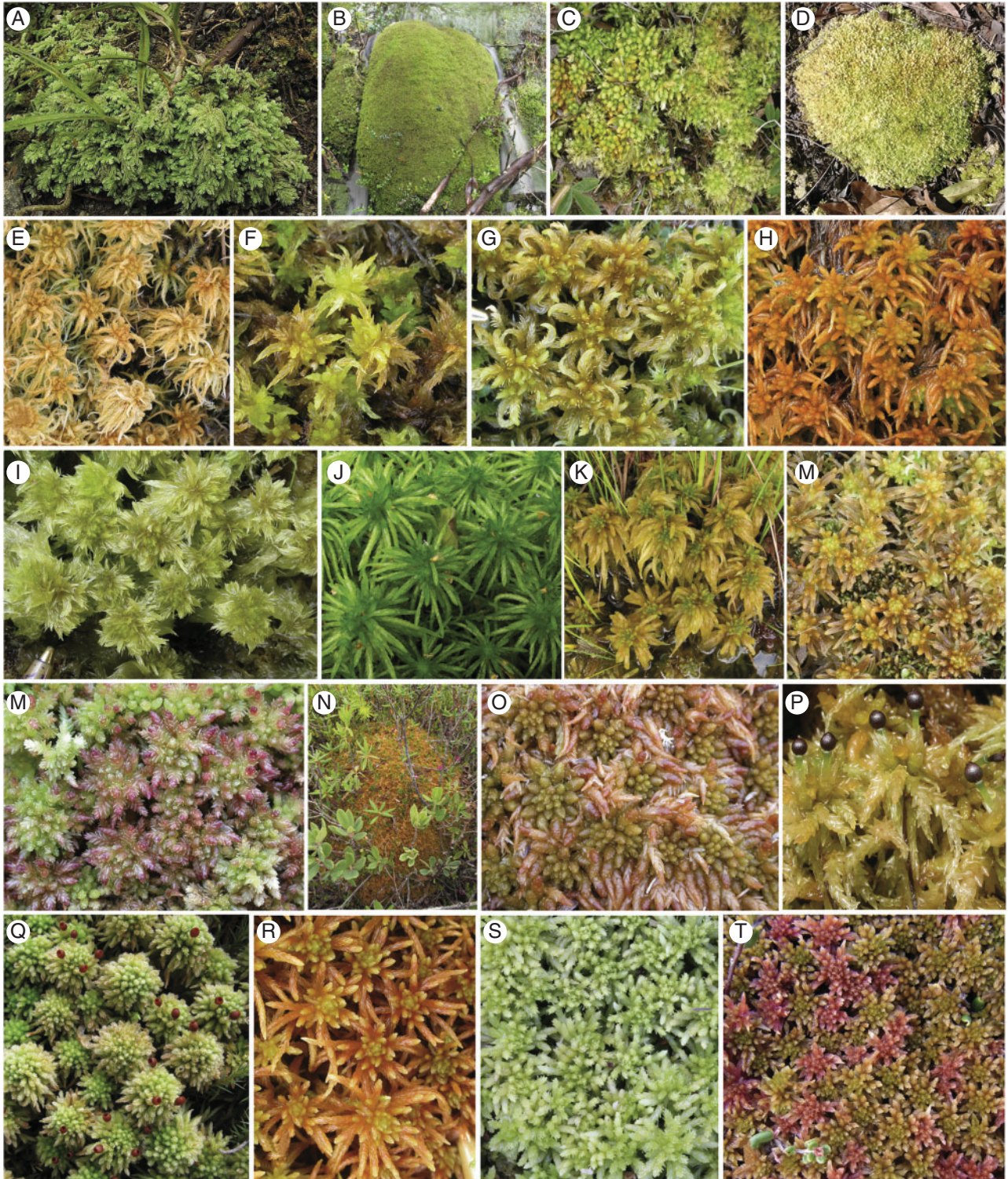


FIG. 1. Morphological diversity among species of Bryophyta, class Sphagnopsida. Subgeneric classification of each *Sphagnum* species in parentheses. (A) *Flatbergium novo-caledoniae*; (B) *Eosphagnum rigescens*; (C) *S. strictum* and *S. compactum* (*Rigida*); (D) *S. compactum* (*Rigida*); (E) *S. microporum* (*Subsecunda*); (F) *S. lescurii* (*Subsecunda*); (G) *S. contortum* (*Subsecunda*); (H) *S. luzonense* (*Subsecunda*); (I) *S. cuspidatum* (*Cuspidata*); (J) *S. riparium* (*Cuspidata*); (K) *S. obtusum* (*Cuspidata*); (L) *S. balticum* (*Cuspidata*); (M) *S. magellanicum* (*Sphagnum*); (N) *S. austinii* (*Sphagnum*); (O) *S. alaskense* (*Sphagnum*); (P) *S. papillosum* (*Sphagnum*); (Q) *S. wulfianum* (*Acutifolia*); (R) *S. teres* (*Acutifolia*); (S) *S. aongstroemii* (*Acutifolia*); (T) *S. fuscum* (brown) and *S. rubellum* (red) (*Acutifolia*). All photos by B. Shaw.

Squarrosa (the latter with about four species worldwide and represented here by *S. squarrosus* and *S. teres*) as sections within the subg. *Acutifolia*. One other monospecific section, *Mollusca* (for *S. tenellum*), has been resolved with strong support within the subg. *Cuspidata*; *S. tenellum* is not included in the present analyses. Also not included in the present analyses are *S. macrophyllum* and *S. cribrosum*, which were separated in the genus *Isocladus* (Lindberg, 1862), or section *Isocladus* by Crum (1984) and McQueen and Andrus (2007), but were shown to be nested within the subgenus *Subsecunda* by Shaw et al. (2004). Voucher specimen information for all specimens included in the analyses are provided as Table S1.

Of the 35 *Sphagnum* species included in this study, 28 have haploid gametophytes and six are allodiploids based on heterozygosity at multiple microsatellite loci (Såstad et al., 1999, 2000, 2001; Ricca and Shaw, 2010). *Sphagnum australe* and *S. falcatulum* include both allodiploid and allotriploid populations (Karlin et al., 2009). One gametophytically haploid species, *S. contortum*, was previously hypothesized to be a homoploid hybrid based on incongruence between plastid and nuclear DNA sequences (Shaw et al., 2008). Our results below indicate that *S. contortum* has the organellar genomes of subg. *Cuspidata*, although the species is resolved with species in the subg. *Subsecunda* based on nuclear genes and is classified in that subgenus based on morphology.

DNA extraction and next-generation sequencing

Approximately 0.5 g of dried gametophytic tissue was harvested from each of the 38 samples. The plant material was ground in liquid nitrogen and total genomic DNA was extracted using Macherey-Nagel's NucleoSpin plant II Midi kit (Macherey-Nagel, Germany). After extraction, DNA concentrations were quantified using the Qubit fluorometer system with a Quant-iT™ ds-DNA BR Assay (Invitrogen, San Diego, CA, USA). For each sample, 100 ng of genomic DNA was used for Illumina library preparation using the TrueSeq Nano DNA kit (<http://www.illumina.com/science/education/tru-seq.html>). Paired-end libraries were generated for each sample, and libraries were indexed to allow multiplexing of samples. Twenty-four samples were pooled in equimolar concentrations before sequencing on one HiSeq2500 rapid flow cell, while the remaining 14 samples were pooled and sequenced on one lane of an Illumina HiSeq2000 flow cell. All Illumina sequencing was done at The Duke Center for Genomic and Computational Biology and generated 100 bp paired-end sequences. All assembled plastid and mitochondrial genomes were deposited in GenBank (see Table S1 for GenBank accession numbers).

De novo assembly and mapping to reference plastid and mitochondrial genomes

The 3-prime end of each read was trimmed based on quality using the FASTQ Quality Trimmer (FASTX-Toolkit, http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit/) with a quality score threshold of 25 (Sanger/Illumina 1.9 encoding). Illumina sequencing adaptors, when present, were clipped off using FASTQ/A Clipper (FASTX-Toolkit, http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit/) and

only paired-end reads for which both sequences were longer than 40 bp after trimming and clipping were kept for *de novo* assembly or mapping to the reference. To produce a reference sequence for both the plastid and mitochondrial genomes to which raw reads could be mapped, raw sequences from sample ND2735 (*S. palustre*) were assembled *de novo* into contigs using CLC Genomic Workbench (vers. 6.5; CLCbio www.clcbio.com) and default parameters. The *de novo* assembled plastid and mitochondrial genomes were subsequently annotated using Geneious (vers. 5.4.4; <http://www.geneious.com>; Biomatters Ltd, Auckland, New Zealand) and used as reference for mapping raw reads from the remaining 37 samples/species. Raw reads were mapped against the plastid and mitochondrial reference genomes using the mapping algorithm in CLC Genomic Workbench. The consensus plastid and mitochondrial sequences resulting from the mapping of the raw reads were exported for each sample with 'N' inserted where the coverage of the reference sequence was under a threshold of four reads.

Sequence alignment and phylogenetic reconstruction

Six data sets were constructed, each with 38 taxa including the three outgroups: (1) plastid genome sequences (130 953 nucleotides); (2) 86 plastid proteins (24 741 amino acids); (3) mitochondrial genome sequences (142 800 nucleotides); (4) 37 mitochondrial proteins (10 315 amino acids); (5) combined plastid and mitochondrial genome sequences (273 753 nucleotides); and (6) combined plastid and mitochondrial proteins (123 proteins, 35 056 amino acids).

Genome sequences, both plastid and mitochondrial, were aligned using CLC Genomic Workbench and adjusted by eye. Protein-coding genes were aligned using TranslatorX (Abascal et al., 2010) and combined using ad-hoc Python scripts using P4 (vers. 0.89.r234; Foster, 2004) and Biopython (vers. 1.59; Cock et al., 2009) libraries. Optimal substitution models were determined using ModelGenerator (Keane et al., 2006) applying the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC1) as the selection criterion. Additional empirical protein models specific to streptophytes, namely gcpREV (Cox and Foster, 2013) and stmREV (Liu et al., 2014a), were also employed for the analysis of the plastid and mitochondrial proteins respectively. Maximum likelihood (ML) analyses were performed with RAXML (vers. 7.0.4 MPI; Stamatakis, 2006) with 400 bootstrap replicates, each with two search replicates. Bayesian inference was performed with MrBayes (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003), Phylobayes (Lartillot and Philippe, 2004) and P4. Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) chains were run in duplicate for 5 million generations in MrBayes and 2 million generations in P4, and until convergence diagnostics (maximum clade difference between runs of < 0.3) were met. Convergence between independent runs of MrBayes and P4 was determined by calculating an average standard deviation of split support (ASDOSS): a value < 0.01 was considered sufficiently low to signify convergence between separate runs and the results were combined. Auxiliary model parameters in addition to the substitution rates included a proportion of invariant sites (I) and among-site rate variation modelled with a gamma distribution approximated by four discrete rates (Γ_4). MCMC analyses using P4 employed a polytomy prior (PP; Lewis et al., 2005), and a relative rate

parameter (RR) was used in combined chloroplast and mitochondrial data analyses. Model composition was either estimated (Fest) by maximum likelihood, or fixed to model specifications (Fmod). Tree-heterogeneous composition analyses were performed in P4 using the NDCH model (Cox *et al.*, 2008) by including addition composition vectors (CVs), and goodness-of-fit of the NDCH model to the data was determined by a posterior predictive probability test using the χ^2 statistic of composition homogeneity (Foster, 2004). The NDCH analyses allow a pre-defined number of analytically determined compositions to evolve across the tree, thereby modelling lineage-specific composition heterogeneity. Marginal likelihoods of all MCMC chains were calculated using the harmonic mean estimator of Newton and Raftery (1994: equation 16). Details of the model and change characteristics for individual analyses are presented in the legends of [Supplementary Data Figs S2–S33](#).

Given the long outgroup branch lengths and comparatively short ingroup branches, we considered it possible that alternative rootings on the ingroup might be statistically indistinguishable from the optimal rooting (to sect. *Rigida*) that was resolved in the combined genome analyses. Alternative topologies were assessed using Consel (vers. 1.20; Shimodaira and Hasegawa, 2001), aided by methods present in P4, based on the combined plastid and mitochondrial genome data set (data set 5 above) and the topology resulting from the ML bootstrap analysis of the same data ([Supplementary Data Fig. S27](#)). The topologies representing the rooting points of each alternative ingroup were assessed using all default *P*-value estimators of Consel, namely the Approximately Unbiased test, bootstrap probability, Bayesian posterior probability, unweighted and weighted Kishino–Hasegawa tests, and unweighted and weighted Shimodaira–Hasegawa tests.

Abiotic microhabitat niche data were compiled for selected species representing the two major clades within *Sphagnum* resolved by phylogenetic analyses. The data are derived from the studies of Gignac *et al.* (2004); Pouliot *et al.* (2011) and Tahvanainen *et al.* (2002), and were utilized by Johnson *et al.* (2015) in their phylogenetic analyses of niche evolution in *Sphagnum*. See Johnson *et al.* (2015) for formal analyses of the ecological data relative to phylogeny; they are included here for heuristic purposes to help briefly summarize ecological correlates of subgeneric relationships.

RESULTS

Genome architecture

Our sequencing effort yielded sufficiently large contigs to recover all genes for all taxa and most of the genomes, but did not allow the assemblies of complete organellar chromosomes. However, the coverage is sufficient to address exon and intron content of the plastid and mitochondrial genomes. Plastid genomes are uniform in *Sphagnum* (and outgroups) in terms of both gene and intron content, with as far as can be estimated from the contigs no gene relocation compared with other mosses (e.g. Bell *et al.*, 2014; Lewis *et al.*, 2016). They all contain 37 tRNA genes, eight rRNA genes and 87 protein-coding genes, of which 20 harbour a total of 22 introns. All 38 mitochondrial genomes include 24 tRNA genes, three rRNA genes and 40 protein-coding genes, with the gene order in the contigs

matching the known sequence of genes in mosses (Liu *et al.*, 2014b). The mitochondrial genomes of the 35 *Sphagnum* species have 30 introns distributed among 17 genes. The mitochondrial genomes of the three outgroup taxa, however, carry fewer introns in two genes. *Eosphagnum* lacks *rrn18i839*, a group I intron in the ribosomal small subunit gene (*rrn18*), present in all other Sphagnopsida. *Flatbergium novo-caledoniae* contains only one, and *F. sericeum* four of the six introns present in *cox1* of *Sphagnum* and *Eosphagnum* (Table 1).

Subgeneric phylogenetic relationships: separate plastid and mitochondrial genome analyses

We conducted a series of analyses using different software, optimality criteria and substitution parameters – marginal likelihoods, chain diagnostics and tree lengths of each analysis can be found in the legends of [Supplementary Data Figs S2–S31](#). Alternative analytical approaches for nucleotide sequences from the plastid genome alone provide highly resolved, well-supported, and congruent estimates of phylogenetic relationships (Figs S2–S6). Mitochondrial sequences alone provide less resolution (Figs S12–S17). ML analyses resolve groups of species that correspond to groups resolved by plastid sequences, but several clades with one or two species are not included in the larger clades (Fig. S14). Bayesian reconstructions (Figs S13–S17) yield some relationships that appear to conflict with those resolved by the plastid genome, but these are supported by low posterior probability values. The Bayesian MCMC analysis using Phylobayes, on the other hand, resolved relationships fully congruent with those from the plastid genome, though less completely resolved (Fig. S16).

Plastid ([Supplementary Data Figs S7–S11](#)) and mitochondrial protein (Figs S18–S24) sequences provide results that were largely congruent with those based on nucleotide sequences, though less resolved with regard to some relationships, and with lower support. Apparent conflicts, for instance with both *S. contortum* and *S. australe* seemingly well supported as early-diverging lineages in some Bayesian analyses of the mitochondrial proteins (Figs S19–S23), were not supported by the better fitting (higher marginal likelihood) Phylobayes CAT model analyses (Fig. S24).

Subgeneric phylogenetic relationships: combined plastid and mitochondrial genome analyses

Conflicts between plastid and mitochondrial analyses when using the best-fitting models were not statistically significant – no conflicting inter-subgeneric clades >70% bootstrap proportions or >0.95 posterior probability – and hence data from the two organellar genomes were combined ([Supplementary Data Figs S25–S31](#)). As with the single genome analyses, reconstructions based on concatenated plastid and mitochondrial protein sequences are congruent with those resolved by nucleotide sequences, except among a few poorly supported nodes.

Because of the absence of well-supported conflicts among data sets and analytical approaches, we present an ML tree based on concatenated plastid and mitochondrial nucleotide sequences to illustrate the consensus reconstruction (Fig. 2).

TABLE 1. Mitochondrial *cox1* introns in *Sphagnaceae* and other selected land plants

Intron/species	<i>Tr. la.</i>	<i>Ma. po.</i>	<i>Pl. pu.</i>	<i>Eo. di.</i>	<i>Fl. se.</i>	<i>Fl. no.</i>	<i>Sp. po.</i>	<i>Ph. pa.</i>	<i>An. ru.</i>	<i>Ph. la.</i>	<i>Me. ae.</i>	<i>Hu. sq.</i>	<i>Is. en.</i>	<i>Se. mo.</i>
<i>cox1i44g2</i>	+	+	+							+	+			
<i>cox1i150g2</i>										+	+			
<i>cox1i178g2</i>	+	+	+											
<i>cox1i227g2</i>													+	+
<i>cox1i266g2</i>													+	+
<i>cox1i323g2</i>				+	+		+					+	+	
<i>cox1i375g1</i>	+	+	+											
<i>cox1i395g1</i>	+	+	+										+	
<i>cox1i511g2</i>	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+					+
<i>cox1i624g1</i>	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+					
<i>cox1i729g1</i>	+	+	+											
<i>cox1i732g2</i>				+			+	+						
<i>cox1i876g1</i>														+
<i>cox1i995g2</i>												+	+	+
<i>cox1i1064g2</i>				+	+	+	+	+	+					
<i>cox1i1116g1</i>	+	+	+											
<i>cox1i1149g2</i>													+	+
<i>cox1i1200g2</i>				+	+		+							
<i>cox1i1298g2</i>										+	+			
<i>cox1i1305g1</i>	+	+	+										<i>trans</i>	<i>trans</i>

Species names are as follows (in the order in which they appear): *Treubia lacunosa*, *Marchantia polymorpha*, *Pleurozia purpurea*, *Eosphagnum rigescens*, *Flatbergium sericeum*, *F. novo-caledoniae*, *Sphagnum portoricense*, *Physcomitrella patens*, *Anomodon rugelii*, *Phaeoceros laevis*, *Megaceros aenigmaticus*, *Huperzia squarrosa*, *Isoetes engelmannii* and *Selaginella moellendorffii*.

‘+’ indicates the presence of an intron, and ‘*trans*’ denotes a *trans*-spliced intron. Intron nomenclature follows Dombrovskaya and Qiu (2004) and Knoop (2004).

Using *Flatbergium* and *Eosphagnum* as outgroups, the reconstruction resolves subg. *Rigida* as sister to the remaining species of *Sphagnum*. Within the rest of the genus, two major clades are resolved with maximum support by three alternative analyses: using ML (RAxML) and Bayesian MCMC [both MrBayes and P4 (CV2)]. One clade includes subg. *Cuspidata* and *Subsecunda* and the other, subg. *Sphagnum* and *Acutifolia* (Fig. 2). All except four nodes across the tree are supported with 100% bootstrap percentages and maximum posterior probabilities. Only one node is truly ambiguous, namely the uniquely shared ancestry of *S. pylaesii*, *S. orientale* and *S. lenense* within subg. *Subsecunda*.

Phylogenetic reconstructions based on concatenated nucleotide sequences (Fig. 2; Supplementary Data Figs S27–S31) consistently resolve subg. *Rigida* as sister to the rest of the genus, but we further tested this rooting using Consel. Six alternative roots (Supplementary Data Fig. S32) were compared with the optimal ML reconstruction and rejected by all statistical measures except the Shimodaira–Hasegawa test; the latter was unable to reject any of the alternative rooting points. Statistics comparing alternative rooting schemes with the ML tree are provided in Fig. S33.

Phylogenetic placement of reticulating taxa

Sphagnum falcatulum, *S. majus*, *S. australe*, *S. papillosum* and *S. palustre* are known from previous genetic and cytological analyses to be gametophytic allodiploids. *Sphagnum lenense* has never been recognized as an allodiploid, but heterozygous microsatellite profiles suggest that it too is an allodiploid (A. J. Shaw, unpubl. res.). *Sphagnum falcatulum* and *S. lenense* are generally classified in subg. *Cuspidata*, but they both have the

organellar genomes of subg. *Subsecunda* (Fig. 2). *Sphagnum australe* includes both allodiploid and allotriploid populations, but the species is part of a strongly supported subg. *Sphagnum*, albeit sister to the remaining species included in our analyses. Two other species, *S. palustre* and *S. papillosum*, are allodiploids whose organellar genomes match their typical classification in subg. *Sphagnum*. One haploid species, *S. contortum*, is resolved as part of the subg. *Cuspidata*, although it is universally classified in subg. *Subsecunda*.

DISCUSSION

Shotgun sequencing of total genomic extracts allowed for the recovery of nearly complete organellar genomes for all Sphagnopsida. Although the reads obtained did not cover 100% of either the mitochondrial or chloroplast genome, the coverage is sufficient to reveal (1) that the genic composition of these genomes is identical to that of other mosses (e.g. Liu *et al.*, 2014b; Lewis *et al.*, 2016); and (2) that these genes are aligned, at least within the recovered contigs, in both chromosomes in the same order as in other mosses (Wicke *et al.*, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2014b). We have indeed recovered all genes known from both the plastid and mitochondrial genomes of mosses and did not find any evidence of gene gains. The perfect alignment of the chromosomes to the plastid genomes of another early diverging moss, *Tetraphis pellucida* (Bell *et al.*, 2014), or to the mitochondrial genomes of other mosses (Liu *et al.*, 2014a, b) confirms the stability and conservation of both genomes in the Bryophyta not only throughout their long evolutionary history and but also following rapid diversifications, such as that of the genus *Sphagnum* in the late Tertiary (Shaw *et al.*, 2010b). This stability contrasts with patterns found in some other plant clades (e.g. Wu and Chaw, 2014).

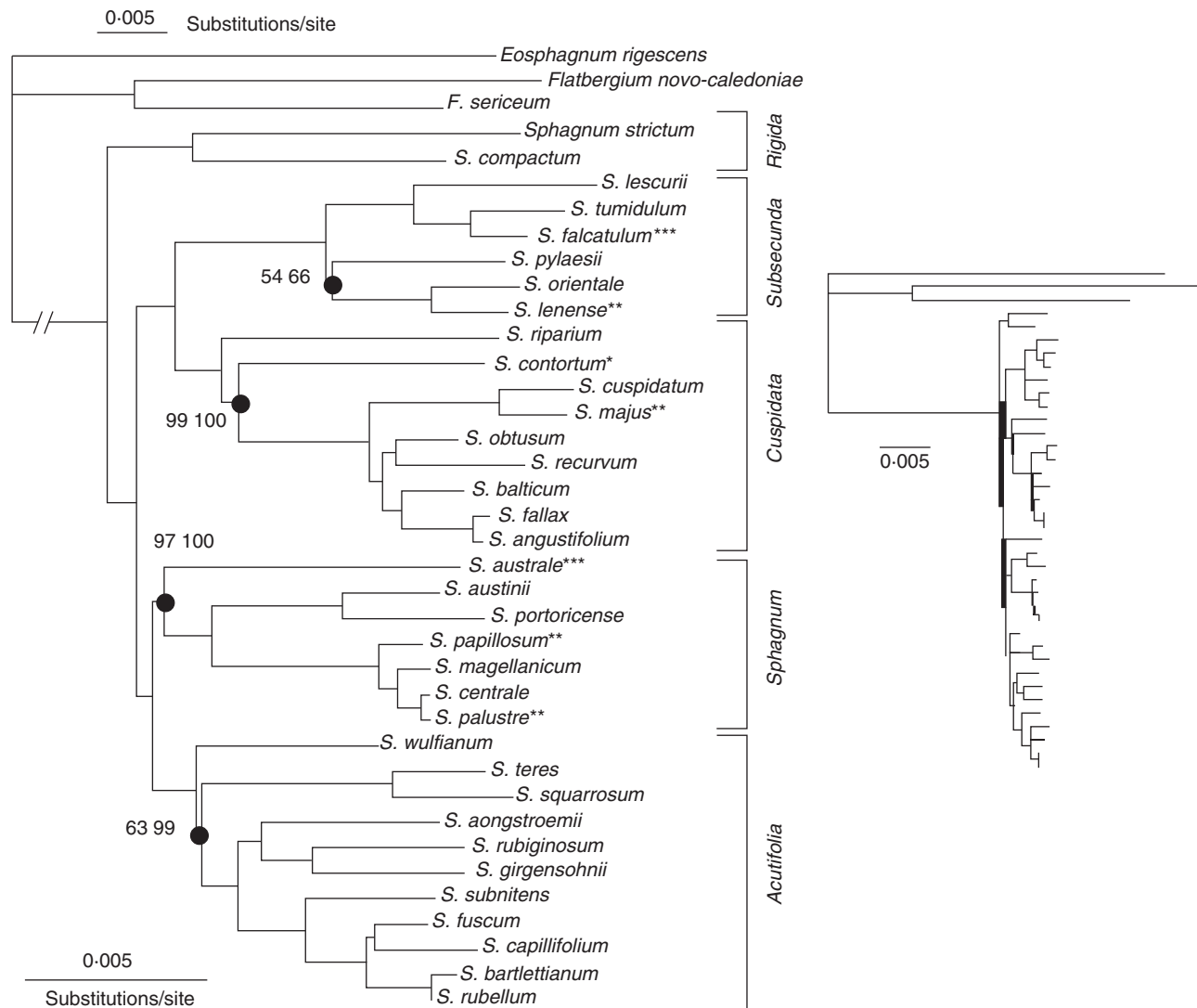


FIG. 2. Maximum likelihood (ML) reconstruction for *Sphagnum* (rooted with *Eosphagnum* and *Flatbergium* as outgroups). All nodes other than those marked by dots are supported by 100 % ML bootstraps and 100 % posterior probabilities. For the three nodes marked, the left value is the ML bootstrap percentage (RAxML; see Supplementary Dat Fig. S25) and the right value is the posterior probability (MrBayes; see Fig. S26). On the left figure, note that branch lengths are scaled differently before and after the node marking the origin of *Sphagnum*. The smaller figure on the right shows how divergent the outgroups are from *Sphagnum*, as well as the relatively high divergence among species of *Eosphagnum* and *Flatbergium*. *, homoploid hybrid; **, allopolyploid (diploid gametophytes); ***, allopolyploid (diploid and triploid gametophytes).

The intron content is constant within the chloroplast genome but variable within the mitochondrial genome among the Sphagnopsida. All species of *Sphagnum* have 30 introns distributed among 17 mitochondrial genes. *Eosphagnum* is the only Sphagnopsida lacking *rrn18i839*, a group I intron in the *rrn18* gene, and *Flatbergium novo-caledoniae* and *F. sericeum* lack five and two introns, respectively, in the *cox1* gene compared with *Sphagnum* and *Eosphagnum*, which have six introns (Table 1). The *cox1i511g2*, *cox1i624g1*, *cox1i732g2* and *cox1i1064g2* introns also occur in all other mosses (Liu et al., 2014b). The first and second of these introns are shared by liverworts and mosses, but are lacking in *F. novo-caledoniae* or both species of *Flatbergium*, respectively (Table 1). The latter two introns are unique to mosses, with the *cox1i732g2* intron absent in both species of *Flatbergium*. Only *cox1i1064g2* may be unique to and shared by all mosses (Liu et al., 2014b).

Intron *cox1i1200g2* is unique to the Sphagnopsida although it is absent in *F. novo-caledoniae*, and finally *cox1i323g2* has an identical distribution among mosses but is not unique as it is also present in *Huperzia* (Liu et al., 2012b) and *Isoetes* (Grewe et al., 2009). Intron distributions in the mitochondrial genomes of mosses is thus homoplastic and the phylogenetic utility of introns within these lineages is ambiguous.

Subgeneric classification and phylogenetic relationships

Sphagnum is one of the larger genera of mosses, and a variety of intrageneric classification schemes have been proposed over the last 150 years for its approx. 250–400 species. Linnaeus (1753 – the starting point for *Sphagnum* nomenclature, though not for other mosses) recognized a single species

in the genus, *S. palustre* (subg. *Sphagnum*). An early attempt to sub-divide *Sphagnum* by Lindberg (1882) distinguished three groups: *Eusphagnum* with almost all species of the genus, *Isocladus* for *S. macrophyllum* only (including *S. cribrosum*) and *Hemitheca* for *S. pylaisii* and *S. cyclophyllum*. Russow (1887) proposed a primary division of the genus into two groups, *Inophloea* and *Litophloea*. The former is equivalent to subg. *Sphagnum* but Russow (1887) further divided the *Litophloea* into several sub-groups and these correspond more or less to sections or subgenera distinguished by later authors. In the only worldwide monograph of *Sphagnum* to date, Warnstorf (1911) recognized the *Inophloea* and *Litophloea* groups as sections and divided the *Litophloea* into nine subsections. Crum (1990) added the section *Inretorta* when he described *S. inretortum* as a new species from Bolivia. Based on molecular data, Shaw et al. (2010a) separated this species as the genus *Eosphagnum*.

Phylogenetic inferences presented here are the first to yield a well-supported hypothesis for relationships among major intra-generic clades within *Sphagnum*. Shaw et al. (2003) provided a reconstruction based on 15 nuclear and organellar genes that resolved relationships among some of the major *Sphagnum* clades with strong support, but that conflict with the present results. We do not have an explanation for that incongruence, but consider the present results to be more reliable as they are based on a much larger data set from (presumably) non-recombining organellar genomes. Our current hypothesis agrees with previous ideas in some regards and also proposes some novel relationships. The hypothesis that subg. *Rigida* is sister to the rest of the genus does not seem to have been proposed previously. The assertion by Andrews (1911), like Russow (1887), that the subg. *Sphagnum* is so distinct from all other subgenera that the two groups, *Inophloea* and *Litophloea*, might deserve generic status is not supported by our analyses. Andrews (1911) argued that separating the subg. *Cuspidata* and *Subsecunda* is 'arbitrary' because of the intermediate morphology of *S. mendocinum* from the Pacific coast of North America. However, Karlin et al. (2010) showed that *S. mendocinum* is an allopolyploid hybrid between the two subgenera, and our results indicate that *Cuspidata* and *Subsecunda* are reciprocally monophyletic. While some authors (e.g. Andrews, 1911; Eddy, 1977) have suggested that distinctions between these subgenera break down in tropical regions, phylogenetic analyses based on a worldwide sampling of species (A. J. Shaw, unpubl. res.) suggest otherwise, notwithstanding scattered inter-subgeneric allopolyploids. In a subjectively constructed diagram illustrating their concepts of relationships in *Sphagnum*, Daniels and Eddy (1990) considered *S. wulfianum* (sect. *Polyclada* here) sister to a clade including subg. *Sphagnum*, *Acutifolia* and *Squarrosa*, whereas our results indicate that *S. wulfianum* is sister to the rest of subg. *Acutifolia* including species generally separated as sect. *Squarrosa*, and this inclusive clade is sister to subg. *Sphagnum*.

Allopolyploidy in *Sphagnum*

Seven species included in the present study were resolved in clades (subgenera) that conflict with their traditional classification based on morphology. Five were known allopolyploids and

their placement agrees with previous hypotheses about parentage.

Sphagnum falcatulum and *S. australe* have complex allopolyploid histories and both comprise (gametophytically) allodiploid and allotriploid cytotypes (Karlin et al., 2009). Karlin (2014) suggested that allodiploids of *S. australe* originated at least twice, and one of the allodiploids was one parent of allotriploid plants. Sequences from the plastid *trnG* locus resolved four samples of *S. australe* in a well-supported clade but, because the phylogeny was unresolved at deeper levels, monophyly with any other subgenus could not be excluded. Karlin (2014) hypothesized that a haploid species of subg. *Rigida* crossed with a species that represents an unsampled lineage, and the resulting allodiploid crossed with *S. fimbriatum* (subg. *Acutifolia*) to form allotriploid *S. australe*. Plastid and mitochondrial genome sequences provide strong evidence that Karlin's (2014 'Cryptosphagnum') mystery lineage was a species of subg. *Sphagnum*. *Sphagnum australe* is characterized by a mosaic of morphological traits that include features typical of subg. *Sphagnum*, *Rigida* and possibly *Acutifolia* (Karlin, 2014). It lacks fibrils in the stem and branch cortical cells, a synapomorphy for subg. *Sphagnum*.

Sphagnum majus and *S. jensenii* are known to be polyploid hybrids between species of subg. *Cuspidata* (Såstad et al., 2000) and we confirm that *S. majus* has the organellar genomes of that subgenus. (*S. jensenii* was not included in our analyses.) Our resolution of the arctic species, *S. lenense*, in subg. *Subsecunda* was not expected because this species has not been recognized as a hybrid and is classified in subg. *Cuspidata*. However, *S. lenense* is heterozygous at two of four microsatellite loci (A. J. Shaw, unpubl. res.), consistent with the interpretation that it is an allopolyploid. Our results suggest that it represents a hybrid between parents in the subg. *Cuspidata* and *Subsecunda*. The known allopolyploid, *S. palustre*, was resolved in our analyses within the subg. *Sphagnum* (where it is classified based on morphology), consistent with the interpretation that it represents an intra-subgeneric hybrid. The most surprising case is *S. contortum*, a haploid species. Shaw et al. (2008) suggested that this species may have hybridity in its ancestry, but assumed that the reticulating parents belong to subg. *Subsecunda*, where this species is classified. Our results show that the (presumed) maternal parent of *S. contortum* belongs to subg. *Cuspidata*. Its subg. *Cuspidata* organellar genomes could reflect hybridization and introgression subsequent to the origin of *S. contortum* by divergent speciation, or *S. contortum* could represent the first case of homoploid (without change in chromosome number) hybrid speciation known in mosses. We also cannot eliminate the possibility that *S. contortum* is an allopolyploid with subsequent genome reduction. In contrast to most species of subg. *Subsecunda*, the branch leaves of *S. contortum* have relatively few pores, a feature characteristic of subg. *Cuspidata*, possibly reflecting its hybrid ancestry.

Ecological correlates

Sphagnum-dominated peatlands do not appear in the fossil record until the late Tertiary (Greb et al., 2006), matching Miocene estimates for the timing of peatmoss diversification from molecular phylogenetic analyses (Shaw et al., 2010b).

Twenty or more *Sphagnum* species sometimes occur sympatrically at local scales and sort themselves relative to abiotic environmental gradients (Rydin and Jeglum, 2013). Important gradients include substrate pH, ionic concentrations and height above the water table (HWT). The latter is especially prominent, even over centimetre scales, and hummock–hollow microtopography is characteristic of most boreal peatlands. The subgenera *Acutifolia* and *Sphagnum* are characteristically hummock-forming species, whereas the *Subsecunda* and *Cuspidata* typically grow in hollows (Johnson et al., 2015) and divergence between these two major clades occurred relatively early in the diversification of *Sphagnum* (Fig. 2). Based on the same data as utilized by Johnson et al. (2015), species in the *Acutifolia* + *Sphagnum* clade typically occur more than twice as high above the water table than those in the *Cuspidata* + *Subsecunda* clade, 10.0 ± 7.5 vs. 25.2 ± 13.2 cm, respectively. Nevertheless, more recent evolutionary niche shifts have also occurred within the two clades and interspecific divergence relative to HWT has occurred at a faster rate in hummock species than among hollow species (Johnson et al., 2015).

Hummock-forming vs. hollow-inhabiting *Sphagnum* species differ in a number of other ecologically important traits. For example, hummock species appear generally to decompose more slowly (under common-garden conditions) (Clymo and Hayward, 1982) and appear to differ in other morphological and chemical traits (see summary table in Rydin et al., 2006). The importance of *Sphagnum*-dominated peatlands for global biogeochemical cycling hinges on the relationship between production of new biomass and decomposition, so the evolution of these traits during *Sphagnum* phylogeny is critical to understanding the evolution and genetic basis of the traits that underlie peat formation and accumulation.

The phylogenetic reconstruction resolved in this study also implies a qualitative scenario of peatmoss niche evolution (Bryophyta class Sphagnopsida). The outgroup taxa, *Eosphagnum* and *Flatbergium*, do not occur in peatlands and do not accumulate significant peat. Species of subg. *Rigida*, here resolved as sister to the rest of the genus, do sometimes occur in temperate to boreal peatlands in addition to other sites (e.g. wet soil or rocks), but are never significant components of peatland communities. The major peat-formers within *Sphagnum* belong to the two major clades (with two subgenera each) that are crown groups in peatmoss diversification. This study is consistent with the view that *Sphagnum* diversified rapidly, as late Tertiary cooling prompted the formation of new types of cold-environment communities (notwithstanding much earlier global cold intervals before extant *Sphagnum* diversified). Early diversification of peatmosses appears to have emphasized niche differentiation relative to abiotic gradients within wetlands.

Nomenclature

Eosphagnum rigescens (Warnst.) A. J. Shaw & Flatberg, comb. nov. Basionym: *Sphagnum rigescens* Warnst., *Botanisches Centralblatt* 76: 387. 1898. Type: ‘Südamerika. Feuerländische Inselgruppe, Puerto Angusto im März 1896 leg. P. Dusén no. 273’ (lectotype nov.: S-B231605!). Syn: *Sphagnum inretortum* H. A. Crum, *Bryologist* 93: 283, f.

1–8. 1990 (holotype: MICH!). *Sphagnum lapazense* H. A. Crum, *Contributions from the University of Michigan Herbarium* 23: 107. f. 1: a–d. 2001 (holotype: MICH!). Warnstorf’s protocol of *S. rigescens* designates only one type collection, and is thus a holotype (ICN, Melbourne code; Art. 61). The holotype is missing, but we have traced and confirmed the taxonomic conspecificity of two isotype specimens, one in herb. H, the other in herb. S. Since Dusén’s primary bryophyte collections are at the Stockholm herbarium, we select this isotype specimen (S-B231605) as the lectotype of the name *Sphagnum rigescens*.

Flatbergium novo-caledoniae (Paris & Warnst. in Warnst.) A. J. Shaw & Flatberg, comb. nov. Basionym: *Sphagnum novo-caledoniae* Paris & Warnst. in Warnstorf, *Sphagnologia Universalis* 297. 1911. ‘Monsungebiet: Araucarien-Provinz: Neu-Kaledonien, Plateau de Dogny 1100 m ü. d. M. (Louise Le Rat; Herb Paris!; nördl. Neu-Kaledonien 100–600 m ü. d. M. (Franc – 1. 1910; Herb Thériot!)’. ‘Nov. Caledon. [Nouvelle-Caledoniae]. in jugo Dogny. 1072 m, Julio 09 [July 1909]. Leg. L. Le Rat.’ Lectotype nov.: PC 0167758.

The ICN (Melbourne code; Art. 61) states that confusingly similar names based on the same type are to be treated as orthographical variants. *Sphagnum Novae Caledoniae* Paris & Warnst., *sensu* Brotherus (1911: 1) and *Sphagnum novo-caledoniae* Paris & Warnst. (1911: 297) are based on the same original material and are orthographic variants of the same name. Brotherus’s name is a *nomen nudum*, and Brotherus’s publication was not cited by Warnstorf. The ICN (Art. 61) allows that a later author can publish a valid scientific name based on a *nomen nudum*. Warnstorf’s description of *S. novo-caledoniae* (1911) fulfils all requirements for valid publication. We therefore consider *Sphagnum novo-caledoniae* Paris & Warnst. in Warnstorf (1911: 297) to be the correct basionym of this species. Brotherus (1911: 1) gave the following information about the new species from New Caledonia: ‘*Sphagnum Novae Caledoniae* Par. et Warnst. n. sp. In jugo Dogny, alt. 1072 m (L. Le Rat)’. Warnstorf (1911: 299) cited two localities for *S. novo-caledoniae* (see above). The Paris herbarium (PC) contains three original specimens of *S. novo-caledoniae* from Plateau de Dogny [in jugo Dogny] collected [Leg.] by Louise Le Rat; three of the labels list an altitude of 1072 m and the collecting date as July 1909 [Julio 09], the fourth is without altitude and collecting date. Warnstorf (1911) failed to give a collecting date. There are no specimens located from northern parts of New Caledonia in herb. PA. We select the Paris specimen PC0167758 from Plateau de Dogny as the lectotype of the name *Sphagnum novo-caledoniae*.

Conclusions

Sphagnum (and more broadly, the Sphagnopsida) represents a unique model for linking genome evolution, phenotypic traits and ecosystem function, and its value is enhanced by the wealth of ecological data currently available, and newly developing genomic resources. Peatmosses have particular value for two areas linking ecological genomics and phylogenetics: the evolution of niche differences, and the genomic architecture of phenotypic traits that scale up to impact global biogeochemistry. Previous studies that have attempted to resolve genus-wide

evolutionary history have been hindered by ambiguity at the level of subgeneric sister-group relationships. This study has yielded a high resolution, highly supported hypothesis of phylogenetic relationships across major *Sphagnum* clades.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data are available online at www.aob.oxfordjournals.org and consist of the following. Table S1: list of samples used in this study with voucher information. Figs S2–S33: phylogenetic analyses of plastid and mitochondrial sequences, translated protein sequences from each genome, combined plastid and mitochondrial genome sequences and proteins, and rooting analyses using ConSel.

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