Divergent lineages in a young species: the case of Datilillo (*Yucca valida*), a broadly distributed plant from the Baja California Peninsula

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Abstract

Globally, barriers triggered by geological and climatic events have produced

temporary and permanent environmental breaks, habitat fragmentation, and species

divergence. Notably, diverse plant species from the Baja California Peninsula, in western

North America, exhibit strong genetic structure and vicariant lineages along their range.

A representative taxon of the Peninsula is the genus *Yucca*, with *Yucca valida* having the

most extensive range. Although its presence is dominant, there is an extensive distribution

discontinuity between 26° N and 27° N, where any populations have been identified,

suggesting restricted gene flow among its populations; moreover, the potential distribution

models indicate a substantial reduction in their range during the Last Interglacial. We

examined the phylogeographic patterns of *Y. valida* across the species' range, expecting

to find vicariant lineages. Using nextRAD sequencing, we recovered 4,411 SNPs on 147

plants from 20 locations, identifying three allopatric lineages. The simulation of historical

scenarios supported the simultaneous divergence of these lineages. Finally, we retrieved

whole-chloroplast-genome sequences and estimated an age below a million years old for

the MRCA of *Y. valida* and its sister species, *Y. capensis*. Our results indicate that the

origin of the nuclear lineages can be the consequence of habitat loss during historical

climatic changes.

Subject areas: Genomics**,** Evolution, Phylogeography.

Keywords: Isolation, genetic differentiation, chloroplast-genome assembly, *Yucca*

phylogenetics, nextRAD sequencing.

1. Introduction

Genetic differentiation, the formation of two or more independent lineages from an ancestral one, can be described by two main frameworks: enforced divergence, in which demographic fluctuations or populations' extrinsic barriers lead to genetic isolation [1–3], and divergence in the face of gene flow, in which selection and local adaptation drive differentiation by restricting the genetic exchange of certain loci [4–6]. Understanding the mechanisms that lead to genetic differentiation is fundamental for reconstructing the evolutionary histories of species and permits relating these histories to a given region's climatic and geological history [7].

Globally, barriers triggered by geological and climatic events have caused temporary and permanent physical and environmental breaks, leading to habitats fragmentation and, consequently, populations enforced divergence [8]. One example of this are the Quaternary climatic fluctuations, which had an important role in the North American wildlife distributions [9]; correspondingly, diverse North American species' genetic divergence can be correlated to their Quaternary demographic histories [10, e.g., 11]. Besides, since climatic cyclic oscillations also produced habitats relinkages, in many instances, divergence followed by a secondary contact has been a common process for multiple species across the Northern Hemisphere [e.g., 12,13].

Broadly distributed plant species are valuable models for studying the causes and consequences of genetic differentiation [14]. Under wide geographic ranges, plant populations are expected to be particularly subject to demographic fluctuations related to genetic drift (e.g., habitat fragmentation) and gene flow (e.g., changes in their dispersal dynamics) [15]. Notably, diverse desert plant species from the Baja California Peninsula,

located in western North America, exhibit strong genetic structure and highly spatially

concordant differentiated lineages across their ranges. Populations of cacti, ocotillos,

palms, trees, and agaves from Baja California were isolated during the Last Interglacial

(LIG, ~120,000 years ago) and became genetically differentiated over time [16–22]; as,

while during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, ~20,000 years ago), the deserts in the

Northern Hemisphere increased their distribution when the climate was getting drier, the

Interglacial was highly humid, producing a significant fragmentation on arid ecosystems

[23,24].

A representative taxon of the Baja California Peninsula is the genus *Yucca*

(Asparagaceae), a monocotyledonous, long-lived, semi-evergreen tree with woody stems,

lanceolate succulent green leaves, and white rosette-shaped inflorescences. It is

characterised by a long-life cycle and slow growth and population recruitment rates [25].

Its pollination depends on an obligate mutualism with moths belonging to the genera

Tegeticula and *Parategeticula*, which disperse pollen over short distances [26]. Seed

dispersal has been related to the extinct North American megafauna and is currently

mediated by rodents, birds, and ruminants [27]. Across the Peninsula, there are three

species of the genus: *Yucca schidigera*, *Yucca capensis,* and *Yucca valida*, the latter two

considered sister and endemic species [28], in addition to being pollinated by a single

moth species, *Tegeticula baja* [29]. Among the *Yuccas* of the Peninsula, *Y. valida* has the

most extensive range, from ~29.8° N to ~25.6° N, across the Central and Vizcaino

Deserts, and the Magdalena Plains [25,30]. Although its presence is dominant and

continuous across its northern distribution, there is an extensive discontinuity between the

26° N and 27° N (our personal observation), where any individuals have been identified,

suggesting restricted gene flow rates among its populations. Furthermore, while *Y. valida*

is currently a dominant species in the Baja California desert, the historical distribution

models indicate a substantial reduction in its geographic range during the LIG [31]. As a

result, this species is an interesting model for studying genetic differentiation across the

Baja California Peninsula.

We examined the phylogeographic patterns of *Y. valida* throughout the species'

geographic range. We hypothesised that past climatic fluctuations caused populations

isolation, and since the species has a short-distance dispersal [32], we expected to find

divergent lineages across its distribution. We genotyped 160 plants from 20 locations by

NextRAD sequencing and aimed to i) identify the number of genetic lineages of *Y. valida*

across its range, ii) reconstruct its populations' demographic history and iii) estimate the

species' age. This information will contribute to the understanding of the evolutionary

processes shaping species' genetic differentiation in North America and the Baja

California Peninsula.

2. Materials and methods

(a) Sampling, DNA extraction and sequencing

Fresh leaf tissue samples of 160 plants were collected from 20 locations across the species' range (Figure 1a, Supplementary Table S1). All samples were dried in desiccant silicate gel. We used 100 mg of each dried sample for DNA extraction following the Qiagen DNeasy Plant Mini Kit protocol (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). The extractions' quality and concentration were evaluated using GelRed 1.5% agarose gels and a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Each DNA sample was prepared for high-throughput sequencing libraries by enzymatic fragmentation followed by ligation of short adapter sequences with Nextera reagent (SNPsaurus, LLC) [33]. The reaction was scaled to fragment 20 ng of DNA, and 50 ng of DNA were used to compensate for the amount of degradation DNA in the samples and to increase the fragments' size. The fragmented DNA was amplified for 27 cycles at 74°C. The libraries were sequenced on a HiSeq4000 150 bp single-end line (University of Oregon).

(b) Raw data processing and SNP–calling

The quality of the demultiplexed raw sequences was evaluated in FastQC 0.11.9 [34] and MultiQC 1.14 [35]. Adapter removal was carried out with custom scripts (SNPsaurus, LLC) using the *bbduk* module of BBTools 1.0 [36]. Clean reads were forced to 110 bp in length. A *de novo* loci assembly was performed through Stacks 2.6 (*denovo_map.pl*) [37]. The parameter optimisation was based on [38] and [39], and 13 samples with less than one million raw reads were removed as a quality control filter before the assembly. We established a minimum stack depth equal to eight (*-m* 8), a

maximum of three mismatches between stacks (-*M* 3), and a maximum of four

mismatches between catalogue loci (-*n* 4). In the module *populations*, we called all the

SNPs present across the remaining 147 samples with a minimum genotyping rate of 0.5

and a minor allele frequency of 0.05 (-*r 0.5 --maf 0.05*), producing a variant call format file.

When a 110 bp locus showed more than one SNP, only one variant was chosen, following

the priorities in [40] to ensure the SNPs were mostly unlinked [41].

(c) Population structure and genetic diversity

We first used nuclear SNPs to assess the most likely number of genetic clusters

across all samples and the membership of each plant to these clusters with three

complementary approaches. ADMIXTURE 1.3.0 [42] was run (K = 1-20), and the optimal

number of clusters was chosen via the cross-validation procedure. A neighbour-joining

tree from the samples' pairwise genetic distance matrix (transformed on the R 4.2.2

package ape [43,44]) and a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) without an *a priori*

assumption were produced in Plink 1.90 [45]. To avoid over- or underestimating

population genetic structure [46], we verified and conciliated the assignment of samples

to genetic clusters for the three approaches. Once the samples were allocated into

discrete genetic clusters (corresponding to three lineages, see *Results*), the genetic

diversity descriptors (H_E, H.O., and F_{IS}) for each lineage and the mean pairwise Weir and

Cockerham's weighted values of genetic differentiation (*standardised F_{ST}*; [47]) were

calculated with GENODIVE 3.0 [48]. To assess the isolation by distance null hypothesis,

i.e., the correlation between the geographical and genetic distance between samples [49],

a Mantel test was carried out correlating the individuals' Euclidean genetic distance and

the pairwise distance between sampling locations (in kilometres, produced with [50]),

introducing a random jitter ($\pm$ 0.05°) to samples belonging to shared sampling locations.

The significance of the Mantel test was evaluated with 99,999 permutations. Any required

genetic data conversion was completed in PGDSpider 2.1.1.5 [51]

(d) Outlier SNPs and signatures of differentiation by local adaptation

First, we scanned for outlier SNPs in PCAdapt 4.0.1 [52], using K = 3, and α = 0.1

for the false discovery rate boundary. Then, to evaluate if the genetic differentiation was

a consequence of local adaptation, we used the Latent Factor Mixed-effect Model [53] to

characterise the presence of SNPs with a strong association with environmental variables.

The optimal number of latent factors (K) was determined using the cross-entropy criterion

for K = 1-20, and LFMM was run ten times with K = 3 with the R package LEA 3.2.0 [54].

A total of 20 environmental variables obtained from WorldClim v1.4 [55] were tested for

each sampling location. The Gibbs sampler algorithm was used for 10,000 cycles (burn-

in of 5,000 cycles), and the median of the correlation scores (z-score) was calculated

across all runs, recalibrating the p-values frequency distribution with lambda. We avoided

any complimentary correction procedures for the false discovery rate in both analyses to

increase the probability of detecting outliers and SNPs correlated with local adaptation.

LFMM and PCAdapt results were compared to search for overlaps on outlier loci and

SNPs with environmental associations as a signature of selection and local adaptation.

The SNPs detected by any procedure were removed from the dataset to produce a

catalogue of neutral SNPs for the demographic history analyses.

(e) Demographic history

To understand the succession of events that could originate the observed nuclear

genetic lineages, the reconstruction of the demographic history of *Y. valida* was executed

through the diffusion approximation method in δαδι [56]. Simulations included the four

possible three-populations simple models of i) simultaneous, ii) admixed, and consecutive

divergence from iii) North to South and iv) South to North, without gene flow or changes

in populations' sizes, as developed by [57]. The site frequency spectrum was computed

as folded, and the best model was selected using the maximum likelihood values and the

Akaike information criterion (AIC).

(f) Putative whole chloroplast genome sequences recovery

Following [58], we implemented a reference-guided workflow to reconstruct whole-

chloroplast-genome sequences (as a by-product of the enzymatic fragmentation for the

high-throughput sequencing libraries preparation without isolating cpDNA). The clean

reads of *Y. valida* and 40 clean reads of *Y. capensis* from [31] were mapped to the

chloroplast reference genome of *Y. schidigera* (GenBank: NC_032714.1) in bowtie 2.2.6

under the very-sensitive-local parameter set [59]. Mapping statistics were evaluated with

the samtools 1.15.1 flagstat and coverage modules [60]. Nucleotide calling was performed

individually for each of the 200 samples in ANGSD [61] using the reads that mapped to

the chloroplast genome reference, requiring minimum mapping and base qualities of 20,

and using Ns as missing data *(-dofasta 2 -minMapQ 20 -minQ 20 -doCounts 1)*.

(g) Phylogenetic relationships and molecular clock analyses

The intraspecific phylogenetic relationships of *Y. valida* were reconstructed using

the sequences with a breadth of coverage >0.5 (130 samples) through RAxML 8.2.12 [62],

with *Y. schidigera* as the outgroup. A general time reversible model was established,

assuming gamma-distributed rates with four substitution categories and estimating the

proportion of invariant sites (GTR + G + I), letting RaxML halt automatic bootstrapping.

The best-scoring maximum likelihood tree was plotted with iTOL 6 [63].

As the intraspecific phylogenetic analysis revealed no signals of divergence among

the chloroplast genomes of *Y. valida* (see *Results*), the divergence time of *Y. valida* and

Y. capensis within the genus was estimated as an approximation to the age of *Y. valida*.

The phylogenetic relationships of the Agavoideae subfamily were reconstructed based on

a relaxed molecular clock replicating [64] with BEAST 1.8.4 [65]. Based on [66] and [67],

we produced consensus sequences for *Y. valida* and *Y. capensis*, using all the available

sequences for each species. The consensus sequences were aligned to the chloroplast

reference genomes of 16 species of the Agavoideae (*Agave attenuata*, *Beschorneria*

septentrionalis,   *Camassia*   *scilloides*,   *Chlorogalum*   *pomeridianum*,   *Hesperaloe*

campanulata, *Hesperaloe parviflora*, *Hesperocallis undulata*, *Hesperoyucca whipplei*,

Hosta ventricosa, *Manfreda virginica*, *Schoenolirion croceum*, *Yucca brevifolia*, *Yucca*

filamentosa,   *Yucca*   *queretaroensis*,   *Yucca*   *treculeana*   and   *Yucca*   *schidigera*)

(Supplementary Table S2) following [64] by applying MAFFT 7 default settings [68], with

the flag *--nzero*. A general time reversible model estimating the proportion of invariant

sites (GTR + I) was employed. Gamma-distributed priors for the five substitution types

and uniform priors (0-1) for the base frequencies and the proportion of invariant sites were

established. An uncorrelated relaxed clock model with log-normal distributed rates was

set up (mean = 1, standard deviation = 0.33), assuming a Yule process for the tree prior,

starting from a random tree, establishing *Hosta ventricosa* as the outgroup, and forcing

the ingroup's monophyly [65]. A log-normal prior distribution on the age of the ingroup was

specified to 14.5 million years (offset, mean = 1 standard deviation = 1.4), based on the

minimum age of the fossil *Protoyucca shadesii* [69,70], completing two independent runs

of 60 million steps long with a sample every 6,000,000 generations. The runs were joined

in LogCombiner 1.8.4, considering a 10% burn-in for each input. A maximum credibility

tree was produced in TreeAnnotator 1.8.4, and each node's means, medians, and 95%

confidence intervals were outputted.

Results

Population structure, genetic diversity and demographic history

Using 4,411 SNPs, the nuclear genetic structure analyses established the most likely number of genetic lineages as three ($K = 3$) (Figure 2). The lineages were named after their geographic location as Northern, Central, and Southern. The three lineages were significantly different ($p = 0.001$), with the F_{ST} between North and South being the greatest (North-South: 0.11; North-Central: 0.05; Central-South: 0.09). The overall observed heterozygosity was lower than the expected (H.O. = 0.26, H_E = 0.30), and a mean coefficient of inbreeding (F_{IS}) of 0.17 (Table 1) was observed. The Mantel test detected a positive and significant association between the genetic distance and the geographic differentiation; however, the correlation and slope values were neglectable (p = >0.0000, r = 0.25, y = 0.01x + 33, r^2 = 0.062); thus the isolation by distance hypothesis was rejected.

LFMM identified 63 (1%) unique SNPs potentially associated with adaptation to multiple environmental variables, and PCAdapt detected 20 (0.5%) putative outlier SNPs. Most SNPs associated with environmental adaptation were related to annual precipitation. PCAdapt detected none of the SNPs detected by LFMM.

The maximum likelihood results and the AIC indicated that the optimal demographic model was the simultaneous divergence of the three nuclear genetic lineages from a common ancestral population.

Phylogenetic relationships and molecular clock analyses

The intraspecific phylogenetic analysis grouped the *Y. valida* chloroplast sequences (mean depth = 30×) into a single monophyletic clade without intraspecific lineages. Low support nodes were observed, revealing no differentiation within the chloroplast genomes.

The interspecific phylogenetic relationships and age estimates for the Agavoideae subfamily results mirrored [64], and all interspecific nodes were represented with high support values (100%). The molecular clock calculated an age below a million years old for the MRCA of *Y. valida* and *Y. capensis* (mean ≈ 731,000; median ≈ 650,000; 95% C.I. ≈ 310,000 – 1,445,000).

Discussion

The genetic differentiation patterns of taxa from the Baja California Peninsula

desert suggest that the distribution of the genetic diversity of the species in this region has

been influenced by the geological processes that gave rise to the Peninsula, as well as

by the climatic oscillations that occurred throughout the last glacial cycles [71]. Here, we

identified three monophyletic nuclear lineages throughout the range of *Y. valida*, with a

single chloroplast lineage, whose MRCA with its sister species' estimated age (below one

million years) suggests that the nuclear differentiation in *Y. valida* is a consequence of a

recent event. While the time of origin of the three nuclear lineages is uncertain, ecological

niche model projections predicted that during the Last Interglacial, the area with suitable

conditions for the species suffered a substantial reduction and started growing back since

the LGM [31]. These climatic oscillations could act as a vicariant event, which, coupled

with a limited dispersal capacity and an extensive geographical range gap impeding the

secondary contact of populations, led to populations' differentiation [72].

Subtle values of genetic differentiation were detected among the three nuclear

lineages, the highest being between bordering lineages (paired F_{ST} North-South = 0.11).

This value is greater than what was reported in microsatellites for *Y. valida* (F_{ST} = 0.059;

[32]), *Y. brevifolia* (F_{ST} = 0.061; [73]), *Y. schidigera* (F_{ST} = 0.067; [74]), and its sister

species, *Y. capensis* (F_{ST} = 0.022; [75]). The levels of genetic differentiation between the

Central and the Southern lineages (F_{ST} = 0.09) support our idea that the absence of

populations between the 26° N and 27° N has influenced the differentiation of these

lineages. The overall observed subtle differentiation can be explained by potentially large

historical effective population sizes [31] and reflects limited gene flow between the

neighbouring lineages. Previous estimates of the dispersal rates indicate that pollen

movement in *Y. valida* is approximately 50 m [32], and seed-mediated dispersal seems to

also occur at short distances [76]. In this sense, the genetic differentiation patterns

suggest that the historical fragmentation and the accumulation of restricted dispersal over

long distances have been the major drivers of genetic isolation in this species.

The estimated genetic diversity seems to be equally distributed among the three

lineages since we found similar levels of observed heterozygosity. The genetic diversity

estimates (H.O. = 0.26, H_E = 0.31) were higher than those previously described for this

species (H.O. = 0.11, H_E = 0.17; [31]) with the same kind of molecular markers. The

disparity among these values reiterates the need for additional discussions to ascertain

the accuracy of SNP discovery in population genomics [77]. *De novo* assemblies seek to

maximise the number of SNPs shared by a representative number of individuals [37]. [31]

assembled loci from samples of three taxa (*Y. valida*, *Y. capensis*, and their hybrid).

Creating an SNP catalogue with samples of a single species modifies the matrix of

recovered sites, thus, the measurements of genetic diversity [78]. Performing SNP-calling

among differentiated taxa or structured samples implies retrieving loci fixed for a species

or a population that are polymorphic for all the samples as a whole (e.g., species-specific

SNPs, that are loci with alternative SNPs fixed between two taxa) or that are variable only

within a structured lineage. This untrivial catalogue-size bias highlights that diversity

estimations based on SNPs should be carefully exposed. Correspondingly, the inbreeding

coefficient had lower levels (F_{IS} = 0.17) than those previously registered ([31] F_{IS} = 0.35).

The estimates of relatively high genetic diversity and low inbreeding detected in this work

are congruent with the hypothetical high historical population sizes and the *Yuccas*

reproductive system, which supports interbreeding and limits self-pollination [79].

The historical demographic models' simulations indicate that the nuclear lineages'

divergence is associated with a single vicariant. The divergence time estimate from

chloroplast genome sequences between *Y. valida* and *Y. capensis*, under one million

years ago, and the lack of intraspecific differentiation within the chloroplast genome

indicate that the drivers of genetic differentiation in *Y. valida* happened long enough to be

recorded in the nucleus, and so recently to not be registered in the chloroplast; supporting

the role of a young event, as the Quaternary climatic changes, which have shaped the

distribution of the genetic variation of other plant species across the Peninsula [16–22],

by reducing population sizes during the last Interglacial. Additionally, the overall

comparable high genetic diversity suggests that the species was already distributed

before this divergent phenomenon occurred; thus, the history of the nuclear lineages does

not correspond to a colonisation, but a divergent process.

While the contribution of selection in the demographic history of *Y. valida* was

unrevealed in this study, the consequences of this force on the genetic diversity of this

species should not be ruled out [80]. The geographic extent where each of the genetic

lineages is distributed coincides with three different ecoregions: the Central Desert

(Northern lineage), the Vizcaino Desert (Central lineage) and the Magdalena Plains

(Southern lineage) [81]. Further studies should address the contribution of these

environments' ecological differences on *Y. valida*. Furthermore, generating a high-quality

nuclear reference genome could provide an essential resource for future genomic

analyses to deepen our understanding of this evolutionarily dynamic genus.

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Data Accessibility Statement

579   The raw reads, SNPs, chloroplast sequences and the related metadata supporting

580   this study's findings will be deposited into online databases upon publication. In addition,

581   all the scripts used will be available, providing unique sample identifier tags that can be

582   matched to the deposited data.

Tables and Figures

Table 1. Global genetic diversity of *Y. valida* and its lineages using 4,411 nuclear SNPs.
Number of individuals per lineage (n) and descriptors of genetic diversity (H.O.,
observed heterozygosity; H_E, expected heterozygosity; F_{IS}, inbreeding coefficient).

Lineage	N	H_O	H_E	F_{IS}
Northern	55	0.25	0.30	0.17
Central	72	0.26	0.30	0.17
Southern	21	0.26	0.32	0.17
Total	148	0.26	0.31	0.17

Figure 1. Genetic structure results of 4,411 nuclear SNPs obtained for 147 *Y. valida*
samples (a) Sampling locations (20) in this study, colours and shapes represent genetic
lineages (b) Principal Component Analysis for PC1 and 2. Shapes represent individuals,
and colours represent genetic lineages, (c) ADMIXTURE analysis for K = 3. Horizontal
bars represent individuals, and the genetic components are coded with different colours.
Colour and shape code as box in b: Northern (green squares), Central (yellow circles),
Southern (pink triangles). a-b plotted in ggplot2 [82] and d plotted in R.

Figure 3. Chloroplast phylogeny and divergence times estimated by BEAST 1.8.4 from
wide-chloroplast-genome sequences of 18 Agavoideae species. The tree was produced
with *Hosta ventricosa* at the root. The numbers on the scale represent millions of years
from the present. Numbers in brackets are 95% confidence intervals. Plotted in FigTree
[83].

Supplementary Table S1. Coordinates of the sampling locations and sample sizes (n)
collected throughout the distribution of *Y. valida* for this study.
605

Location ID	n	Latitude	Longitude
100	3	29.36467	-114.36412
16	6	29.25202	-114.16822
15	6	29.11758	-114.14969
26	5	29.05869	-114.00852
105	10	28.83702	-114.12524
104	4	28.65867	-114.03167
103	10	28.40771	-113.99003
14	12	28.20819	-114.00066
1	12	27.73669	-113.38708
13	7	27.31694	-112.79994
7	9	27.31363	-113.12936
8	7	27.30480	-113.07413
9	5	27.2925	-112.98147
4	12	27.29052	-113.15716
6	8	27.24591	-113.21036
10	2	27.23780	-112.86741
102	8	27.15399	-112.88222
101	12	27.06119	-112.96024
90	7	26.000366	-112.17968
91	15	25.936442	-112.09022

607 **Supplementary Table S2**. Outgroup Taxa and GenBank accessions used to analyse
608 the phylogenetic relationships and time of origin of *Y. valida* for this study.

Taxon	Accession No.	Reference
Agave attenuata	NC_032696.1	
Beschorneria septentrionalis	NC_032699.1	
Camassia scilloides	NC_032700.1	
Chlorogalum pomeridianum	NC_032701.1	
Hesperaloe campanulata	NC_032702.1	
Hesperaloe parviflora	NC_032703.1	
Hesperocallis undulata	NC_032704.1	[84]
Hesperoyucca whipplei	NC_032705.1	
Hosta ventricosa	NC_032706.1	
Manfreda virginica	NC_032707.1	
Schoenolirion croceum	NC_032710.1	
Y. brevifolia	NC_032711.1	
Y. filamentosa	NC_032712.1	
Y. queretaroensis	NC_032713.1	
Y. schidigera	NC_032714.1	
Y. treculeana	NC_061319.1	Wang, F., 2021

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