

Original Article

Interploidy gene flow does not prevent adaptive genetic differentiation in sympatric populations of *Epidendrum fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* (Orchidaceae)

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ABSTRACT

Polyploids often exhibit ecological divergence from diploid parents, but the relative importance of selection in speciation by polyploidy remains to be tested in most systems. Here we use transcriptome-derived single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) to test whether increased gene flow between the diploid *Epidendrum fulgens* and tetraploid *E. puniceoluteum* (Orchidaceae) in sympatry could prevent adaptation to contrasting habitats (sand dunes and swamps, respectively), and to infer genes probably under differential selection. Additionally, we used species distribution data to test for climatic niche divergence between species and a subset of synonymous SNPs to test for past demographic signatures. We found no evidence of introgression in the transcribed portion of their genomes. For the most differentiated loci between species, we annotated biological processes related to replication machineries and also to differential responses to habitat features. We also found that climatic niches slightly diverge due to increased tolerance to lower temperatures and wider amplitude of precipitation in *E. fulgens*, which probably explains the species' distinct signatures of past demographic changes. By combining ecological transcriptomics with climatic niche comparisons, we shed light on the potential role of adaptive processes in originating and maintaining plant biodiversity in Neotropical coastal environments.

Keywords: interploidy gene flow; hybridization; Orchidaceae; transcriptome-derived SNPs; speciation by polyploidy

INTRODUCTION

Hybridization is a pervasive evolutionary force influencing diversification of plants (Soltis and Soltis 2009, Mallet *et al.* 2016, Payseur and Rieseberg 2016). This process may lead to speciation by either introducing adaptive variation or by forming hybrid taxa through homoploid hybrid speciation or allopolyploidization (Abott *et al.* 2013, Seehausen *et al.* 2014). Although allopolyploidization is thought to confer strong and instantaneous reproductive isolation from diploid progenitors (postzygotic barriers; Levin 2002, Ramsey and Schemske 2002), studies have shown that gene flow across distinct ploidy levels sometimes persist (e.g. Pinheiro *et al.* 2010, Jørgensen *et al.* 2011, Zohren *et al.* 2016). Increasing evidence also supports that polyploids have relatively higher genetic diversity due to the prevalence of gene flow from conspecific diploids (Zohren *et al.* 2016)

and also from other closely related polyploids (Masburger *et al.* 2019). Therefore, despite the existence of genomic instabilities, polyploidy may increase the chance of adaptive introgression, thereby representing an important source of diversity in nature (Masburger *et al.* 2019, Novikova *et al.* 2020).

Ecological niche differentiation is increasingly well supported as being broadly important for establishment and long-time persistence of polyploids (Duchoslav *et al.* 2017, Schmickl and Yant 2021). Indeed, polyploids often exhibit ecological divergence from diploid parents (Soltis and Soltis 2000, Ramsey and Ramsey 2014), suggesting an additional role of prezygotic barriers for reproductive isolation or at least for the initial establishment of the polyploid lineage and further coexistence with diploid parents and their derived polyploids (Levin 2002, Pegoraro *et al.* 2016). Furthermore, polyploids are particularly

prone to occupy heterogeneous, stressful environmental conditions (Wei et al. 2019, Schmickl and Yant 2021). The timing and magnitude of interspecific gene flow are therefore important in the context of polyploid speciation, because it determines if gene flow can introduce adaptive mutations and therefore promote diversification (see Schmickl and Yant 2021) or, rather, be restricted to prevent adaptive differentiation across ploidy levels.

Ecologically divergent lineages forming hybrid zones have been examined to determine general mechanisms that reduce gene flow and promote diversification (Abbott et al. 2013, Gompert et al. 2017). For plants, sharp environmental changes may occur over short distances between hybridizing species due to differences in soil composition, temperature, moisture, and light regime. Although much can be learned from the available literature, the limited number of multiploidy hybridizing systems examined so far has prevented us from generalizing the process of adaptation and evolution of the relatively frequent plant polyploids. Indeed, most studies on patterns of interploidy gene flow have so far been concentrated on plants from temperate regions (e.g. Clark et al. 2015, Han et al. 2015, Zohren et al. 2016, Farhat et al. 2020), particularly from the model genus *Arabidopsis* (e.g. Arnold et al., 2015; Monnahan et al. 2019). Polyploid model systems from tropical regions are scarce and studies rarely consider ploidy levels (but see Mergeay et al. 2008, Lopes et al. 2020, Diallo et al. 2022), despite the putative importance on driving speciation in these regions.

Genomic analyses provide excellent opportunities to test the effects of selection on distinct habitats in multiploidy hybridizing systems. Reduced representation approaches, for instance, have been widely used to infer the hybridization dynamics and identify genes evolved under divergent selection within hybrid zones (e.g. Chapman et al. 2013, Rheindt et al. 2014, Tavares et al. 2022). Single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) genotyping from transcriptome sequencing, in particular, provides a cost-effective way to reduce the complexity of the genome while still retaining functionally relevant information, as the method directly targets genic regions (Wolf 2013, Alvarez et al. 2015, De Wit et al. 2015). It has also been claimed as a useful approach to study adaptation in species with no available reference genome (Andrews et al. 2016, Hoban et al. 2016). Indeed, when combined with gene annotation, such an approach can reveal loci with high levels of differentiation between species, and suggest candidate genes driving adaptation and reproductive isolation (Faria et al. 2014, Rajakaruna 2017). Furthermore, it allows for powerful testing of specific evolutionary histories (McCoy et al. 2014, Roux and Pannell 2015), given the high number of markers generally obtained. Nevertheless, investigating patterns of gene flow, drift, and selection across ploidy levels remains challenging for nonmodel species (Dufresne et al. 2014, Meirmans et al. 2018). Despite the many difficulties in modelling evolutionary forces in polyploids (such as determining allelic dosage or distinguishing paralogous sequences) and the lack of tools that allow for genetic analyses across different ploidy levels, recent effort has reshaped the field of polyploid population genetics and allowed new insights into their evolution (Meirmans et al. 2018, Schmickl and Yant 2021).

Here we use thousands of transcriptome-derived SNPs to assess the importance of adaptive processes in the origin and maintenance of multiploidy hybridizing systems, using two closely

related neotropical orchids, the diploid *Epidendrum fulgens* Brongn and tetraploid *E. puniceoluteum* F.Pinheiro & F.Barros, as a model. Both species belong to *Epidendrum* subg. *Amphyglottium* and diverged ~1.9 Mya (Cardoso-Gustavson et al. 2018). A hybrid origin for *E. puniceoluteum*, with *E. fulgens* as one of its parents, has been previously hypothesized due to shared chromosome sequences (Pinheiro et al. 2010, Moraes et al. 2013). Studies have confirmed that these species hybridize in the Atlantic coastal plains in southeast Brazil, a narrow vegetation physiognomy known as *restingas*, and form triploid hybrids able to backcross with *E. puniceoluteum* (Pinheiro et al., 2010; Moraes et al., 2013). In sympatric zones, *E. fulgens* is predominantly found in sandy dunes, while *E. puniceoluteum* is found in swampy areas further inland (Sujii et al. 2019). A previous study showed that edaphic conditions differ between species within sympatric areas, and that candidate genes underlying salt and waterlogging adaptation are differently expressed (Leal et al. 2020). Although not explicitly tested, previous studies have also suggested that reinforcement is unlikely to affect divergence in these species, once hybrids share both habitats with the parental species (Sujii et al. 2019) and many genes of ecological importance (Leal et al. 2020).

By using RNA sequencing data collected from sympatric and allopatric populations of the diploid *E. fulgens* and tetraploid *E. puniceoluteum* (Leal et al., 2020) and data on climatic niche divergence, we aim to (i) evaluate if previously detected introgression is less extensive in genic regions which are more subject to divergent selection, (ii) test whether increased gene flow in sympatry could prevent adaptation to contrasting habitats due to homogenization of part of the genes subject to selection, (iii) identify outlier variants potentially associated with selection to divergent habitats between species, and (iv) infer whether species are adapted to distinct climatic conditions and therefore show distinct signatures of past demographic changes using a subset of synonymous SNPs. We hypothesize that adaptive processes may have played an additional role in the origin and maintenance of the tetraploid *E. puniceoluteum*, and that between-species gene flow does not prevent selection for distinct habitats. Our results shed light on the potential role of selection during speciation by polyploidy and help to disentangle the drivers of plant speciation in the Neotropics.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Plant system

The diploid *E. fulgens* and tetraploid *E. puniceoluteum* are distributed in the *restingas* vegetation along the southeastern and southern Brazilian Atlantic coast, with a small area of geographical overlap located from southern São Paulo to Paraná state (Fig. 1). This ecosystem covers sandy soils of marine and fluvial-marine origin dated to the Quaternary (Scarano 2002). Although these species frequently hybridize forming triploid hybrids (Moraes et al. 2013), studies have documented ecological divergence between these species that probably results from the adaptation to different soil conditions and helps to maintain the reproductive isolation between them in the zone of overlap (Pinheiro et al. 2010, Sujii et al. 2019, Leal et al. 2020). Indeed, *E. fulgens* inhabits sand dunes not subject to flooding, while *E. puniceoluteum* is generally found in sedge swamps, i.e. depressions between successive beach ridges that are seasonally

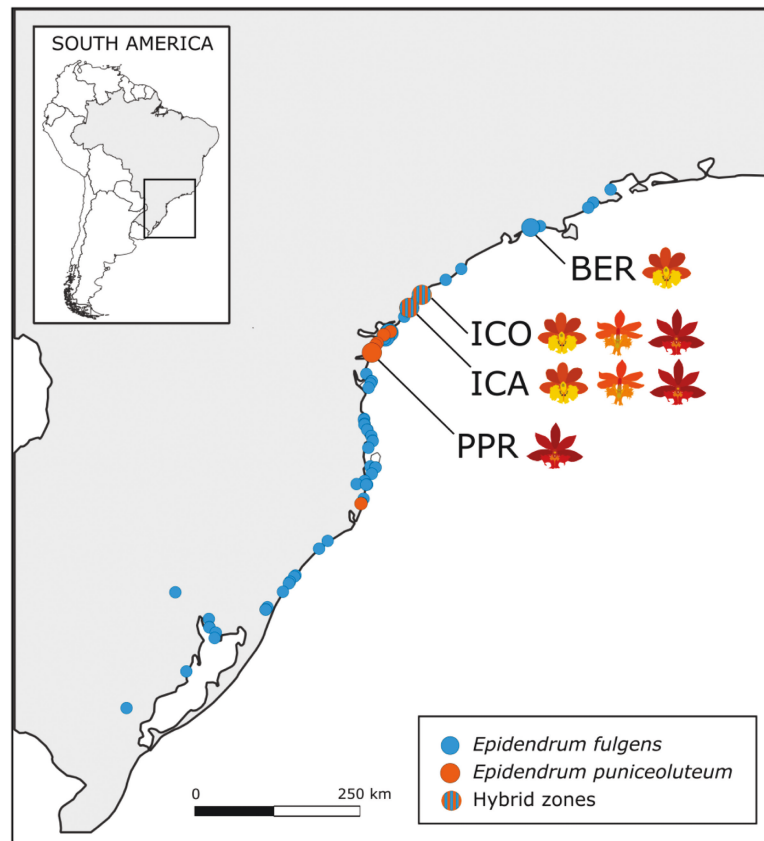


Figure 1. Distribution of occurrence records of the diploid *Epidendrum fulgens* and tetraploid *E. puniceoluteum* (Orchidaceae). Sampled sites are shown in the map as BER (Bertioga—SP) = *Epidendrum fulgens* in allopatry; ICO (Ilha Comprida—SP) and ICA (Ilha do Cardoso—SP) = *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* in sympatry; and PPR (Pontal do Paraná—PR) = *E. puniceoluteum* in allopatry.

flooded (Pinheiro *et al.* 2010). Other abiotic and biotic characteristics of their habitats, such as microclimate and symbiotic interactions (i.e. mycorrhiza), although not characterized, may also show contrasting patterns in dunes and swamps.

De novo assembly and functional annotation

For this study, we used previously generated RNA sequencing data (available at the NCBI SRA database, BioProject ID: PRJNA678229; Leal *et al.* 2020) obtained from root tissues of 31 individuals of *E. fulgens*, *E. puniceoluteum*, and their hybrids (three to five individuals per species per location) distributed in two hybrid zones (sympatric areas), named ICO and ICA, and one allopatric locality of each species, named BER and PPR (Fig. 1; Supporting Information, Table S1). Geographical distance between localities varied from 41.39 km (ICA and ICO, Fig. 1) to 327.53 km (PPR and BER, Fig. 1). As *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* occur in distinct microhabitats mostly delimited by soil variation (dunes versus swamps, respectively) but are similarly exposed to high solar radiation, we expected to capture more variants under divergent selection in root tissue than in leaves.

While a previous study focused on differences at gene expression level, in this study we looked at genetic variation between these species. To do so, we *de novo* assembled a ‘mixed species transcriptome’ to be used as a new reference to map the raw RNA sequencing reads. We first examined quality metrics from the downloaded Illumina paired-end raw reads using FastQC v.0.11.9 (Andrews 2019). After removing erroneous k-mers from reads using Rcorrector v.1.0.4 (Song and Florea

2015) with default settings, we trimmed adaptors and low-quality bases using TrimGalore v.0.6.0 (<http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects>). We removed sequences from mycorrhiza contaminants by aligning reads against the genome of *Serendipita indica*, *Serendipita vermifera*, and *Tulasnella calospora* (NCBI BioProjects: PRJEA76339, PRJNA207844, and PRJNA207843) using Bowtie2 v.2.3.5.1 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012), followed by SAMtools v.1.10 (Danecek *et al.* 2021) and BEDTools (Quinlan and Hall 2010). We also removed rRNAs listed in the SILVA database (Quast *et al.* 2012) using the bbduk.sh script from the BBMap package v.38.90 (<https://jgi.doe.gov/data-and-tools/bbtools/>).

Filtered reads from a subset of four samples of each species (from BER and PPR allopatric populations, see Fig. 1) were further used for *de novo* assembly of the reference transcriptome using Trinity v.2.8.5 (Grabherr *et al.* 2011) following the protocol of Haas *et al.* (2013) with the following parameters: ‘–normalize_reads –CuffFly –min_glue 4’. General assembly statistics were obtained with the TrinityStats.pl script made available in the Trinity package. The quality of the resulting assembly was assessed by aligning reads from each library back to the assembled transcriptome using Bowtie2. We also accessed the completeness of the transcriptome by aligning assemblies against the Embryophyta database and tested for benchmarking universal single-copy orthologue content using BUSCO v.5.0.0 (Simão *et al.* 2015).

To prevent redundancy in the *de novo* assembled transcriptome, we first clustered transcripts using CD-HIT-EST v.4.8.1

(Li and Godzik 2006) with a sequence similarity cut-off of 0.95. We then clustered isoforms assembled for each gene into SuperTranscripts (Davidson et al. 2017) using the Trinity toolkit script `Trinity_gene_splice_modeler.py`, which implements Lace software v.1.0. In our final transcriptome, each gene is therefore represented by a single sequence. Although these SuperTranscripts do not represent a true biological molecule, they provide a good substitute for a reference genome and allow for the use of splice-aware tools to perform the alignment step for SNP calling (Davidson et al. 2017).

We annotated the *de novo* assembled transcriptome using the Trinotate v.3.2.1 pipeline (Bryant et al. 2017). The first step consisted of using TransDecoder v.5.5.0 (<https://github.com/TransDecoder>) to predict protein-coding regions within transcripts. We then conducted a BLASTP (Camacho et al. 2009) search (with $e \leq 1e-3$) using the predicted protein sequences against Swiss-Prot (Boeckmann et al. 2005) and UniRef90 (The UniProt Consortium 2014) protein databases. The Pfam databases (Finn et al. 2014) were also used to predict conserved protein domains using HMMER v.3.3.1 (Potter et al. 2018). We further used SignalP (Nielsen 2017) and TMHMM (Sonnhammer et al. 1998) tools to predict signal peptides (secretion signals) and transmembrane domains within these protein sequences. Similarities to known proteins were also detected by conducting BLASTX and BLASTP searches (Camacho et al. 2009) with the entire transcripts as queries against the same protein databases and using the same cutoff (i.e. $e \leq 1e-3$).

Variant calling

The filtered reads from 31 individuals of *E. fulgens*, *E. puniceoluteum*, and their hybrids were mapped to the reference transcriptome using STAR v.2.7.9 (Dobin and Gingeras 2015), which has been shown to have superior SNP sensitivity in a comparative study evaluating mapping tools (Engström et al. 2013). Duplicated reads were further marked and read groups were added using 'Picard' (<http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard>). We used the SplitNCigarReads tool of the Genome Analysis Toolkit v.4.2.0.0 (GATK; DePristo et al. 2011, Van der Auwera et al. 2013) to split reads into exon segments (removing Ns but maintaining grouping information) and hard-clip any sequences overhanging into the intronic regions. The GATK module 'HaplotypeCaller' was used to call genotypes by specifying the ploidy of each sample with the -ploidy argument, i.e. 'ploidy 2' for *E. fulgens*, 'ploidy 4' for *E. puniceoluteum*, and 'ploidy 3' for the hybrids. We further used the 'GenomicsDBImport' and 'GenotypeGVCFs' GATK modules to call variants among samples using two distinct approaches: first, we called variants common to all sampled individuals (full dataset), then to the subset of 24 samples belonging to the parental species, i.e. *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* (parentals dataset). To run the 'GenomicsDBImport' and 'GenotypeGVCFs' modules within a feasible time span, we concatenated the contigs into 50 artificial blocks/chromosomes with each contig apart from each other by 100 Ns and translated the joint variant locations back to the original using a custom python script. Following recommendations of the GATK workflow, we filtered out clusters of three or more SNPs within a window of 35 bp, and any variant with Fisher Strand values (FS) <30.0 and quality by depth values

(QD) <2.0 using the 'VariantFiltration' module. We further used the R-script filter-vcf.R of Blischak et al. (2018a) to retain a single biallelic SNP per contig with minimum read depth of five and maximum of 10% missing individuals. The pipeline used for transcriptome assembly and SNPs calling is summarized in Supporting Information, Fig. S1.

Genetic diversity and structure

To infer the genetic structure from the full and parentals datasets, we used a Bayesian approach implemented in the software Structure v.2.3.4 (Pritchard et al. 2021, Falush et al. 2021) which is suitable for mixed ploidy datasets. The software Structure was run under the admixture model allowing for correlated allele frequencies, using a burn-in of 20 000 followed by 100 000 Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) iterations. As Structure accepts only uniform ploidy as input, we added one or two rows of missing data for our triploid and diploid samples, respectively, making them pseudotetraploids. Ten replicate runs were performed with values of K ranging from 1 to 8. We inferred the most likely K as described by Evanno et al. (2005) using Structure Harvester v.0.6.94 (Earl and vonHoldt 2011) and extracted individual admixture proportions for the best K averaged across runs using the main pipeline of the CLUMPAK server (Kopelman et al. 2015). We also ran the admixture model from Entropy v.1.2 (Shastri et al. 2021) to obtain Bayesian estimates of genotypes for mixed ploidy data using the full dataset at $K = 2$. To do so, we used three replicated runs of 30 000 steps following 10 000 steps that were discarded as burn-in, sampled every 10th step. We then conducted a principal component analysis (PCA) using Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) on the genotype estimates matrix obtained from Entropy scaled by the ploidy (i.e. divided by 2, 3, or 4 in diploids, triploids, and tetraploids, respectively), as indicated in the software manual.

We calculated F_{ST} (Weir and Cockerham 2006) between *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* within each sympatric zone and between species from allopatric populations for each of the 18 772 filtered contigs of the parentals dataset (excluding hybrids) using the R package 'StAMPP' v.1.6.3 (Pebleton et al. 2013). This package allows for differentiation estimates based on SNPs datasets from mixed ploidy levels. We further compared patterns of distribution of F_{ST} values across loci between sympatric and allopatric conditions to test whether differences between species would be accentuated in a few regions under strong selection in sympatric zones, while being more homogeneously distributed in allopatry.

Detection of outlier SNPs

As traditional methods for detection of outlier SNPs do not allow the entry of polyploid data (Meirmans et al. 2018), we identified highly differentiated outlier SNPs that may result from divergent selection by contrasting the F_{ST} of individual SNPs to the empirical genome-wide distribution of F_{ST} as calculated by 'StAMPP' (Pebleton et al. 2013). Loci that showed F_{ST} values greater than the upper 98% quantile calculated upon the entire empirical distribution in all *E. fulgens* versus *E. puniceoluteum* comparisons were retained as outliers. We extracted Gene Ontology (GO) terms from the Trinotate output for the set of loci identified as outliers in all comparisons between species and

summarized them with REVIGO (Supek *et al.* 2011), using the simRel score and the Uniprot database.

Demographic patterns

To prevent bias in demographic analysis, we filtered out nonsynonymous SNPs (i.e. any variant that resulted in a different amino acid being incorporated into the protein) to generate a subset of synonymous SNPs from the parental species dataset. For this, we used the GFF3 file generated by TransDecoder during the annotation procedure, converted the GFF3 file to a GTF file using the R package 'rtracklayer' (Lawrence *et al.* 2009) and then used SNPdat 1.0.5 (Doran and Creevey 2013) to annotate variants from the parents dataset as synonymous or nonsynonymous.

The folded site frequency spectrum (SFS) was built using the SNPs that SNPdat unambiguously called as synonymous for each population from *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* using the down-projection method implemented in easySFS (<https://github.com/isaacovercast/easySFS>). The software Stairway Plot v.2 (Liu and Fu 2020) was then used to infer effective population size (N_e) changes through time based on the inferred SFS. For this, we applied the approximate mutation rate of 10^{-9} for plants (see Lynch 2010) and considered the generation time of both species as 5 years, in accordance with previous studies of *Epidendrum* subg. *Amphyglottium* (Devadas *et al.* 2010; Pessoa *et al.* 2022).

Climatic niche differentiation

We used a spatially explicit analysis to estimate the climatic niche overlap between hybridizing *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum*. For this, we obtained occurrence records of *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* from previous field expeditions and from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF 2019a, 2019b) and speciesLink platform (CRIA—Centro de Referência e Informação Ambiental). We further filtered 65 and nine spatially unique records with precise coordinates and reliable identification for each species, respectively (Fig. 1).

We calculated uncorrected and corrected environmental niche overlap based on the climatic data from the filtered occurrence records of each species using a kernel smoother method implemented in the R package 'ecospat' v.3.5.1 (Di Cola *et al.* 2017). Climatic variables were downloaded from the Paleoclim database (Brown *et al.* 2018) for the current period with 30" resolution ($\sim 1 \text{ km}^2$) and then cut for the area spanning from -15 to -36° of latitude and -38 to -58° of longitude. To avoid multicollinearity, we retained seven low-correlation ($<.7$) variables as detected by the vifcor function using the 'usdm' R package (Naimi 2023): maximum temperature of warmest month (Bio 5), minimum temperature of coldest month (Bio 6), mean temperature of warmest quarter (Bio 10), mean temperature of coldest quarter (Bio 11), annual precipitation (Bio 12), precipitation of wettest month (Bio 13), and precipitation of warmest quarter (Bio 18).

Using the 'ecospat' package, we applied a background based on randomly sampled points within a buffer radius of 90 km using the ENMTools R package (Warren *et al.* 2021). A PCA was then used to reduce the set of seven bioclimatic variables to two principal component axes defining the gridded environmental space for each species. We further tested if niches of *E.*

fulgens and *E. puniceoluteum* are more divergent ($P < .05$) than expected by chance using the niche equivalency and the niche similarity functions based on these same occurrence grids and backgrounds. The niche equivalency test is considered more conservative as it tests whether the species' niches diverge by only considering occurrences (Warren *et al.* 2008). The niche similarity test, in turn, also accounts for the differences in the surrounding environmental conditions (background) to test for niche divergence (Broennimann *et al.* 2012). Simulations for both niche similarity and equivalency tests were performed in 10 000 replicates each.

RESULTS

Transcriptome assembly and SNP datasets

We assembled 445 707 332 trimmed reads into a combined *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* transcriptome assembly containing a total of 500 116 contigs. This new assembled reference transcriptome had a contig N50 of 899 bp and an average contig length of 617 bp. BUSCO indicates a well-assembled transcriptome with 94.9% complete genes (92.3% single-copy plus 2.6% duplicated), 2.5% fragmented genes, and 2.6% missing genes. Such a high percentage of complete BUSCOs indicates that our reference transcriptome contains most of the highly conserved, single-copy orthologous genes expected to be present in all Embryophytes.

The average read mapping across libraries was 97.35%, ranging from 96.85 to 98% for *E. fulgens* individuals and from 96.2 to 97.76% for *E. puniceoluteum* individuals. After calling and filtering SNPs among samples, we retained 686 836 SNPs distributed in 21 031 contigs (full dataset) and 244 512 distributed in 18 772 contigs (parentals dataset). The additional filtering step used to retain only variants unambiguously called as synonymous for demographic analyses yielded a total of 115 221 synonymous variants from 14 514 contigs (parentals dataset subset synonymous).

Genetic structure patterns

We retrieved $K = 2$ as the best K for the Structure analysis using the parentals dataset. Structure showed no pattern of admixture in the codifying part of the genome of the parental species *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* (Fig. 2A). When adding the hybrids to such analysis (full dataset), we also retrieved $K = 2$ as the best K , with a clear separation between species and admixed hybrids, except for a single individual from ICA (Fig. 2B). Results from the PCA (first two components) executed from genotype estimates of parental species and hybrids mirrored those from Structure, showing all but one putative hybrid as intermediate individuals (Fig. 2C).

Transcriptome-wide differentiation between the two species was high in both allopatric and sympatric conditions (mean $F_{ST} = 0.382 \pm 0.154$ and 0.378 ± 0.153 , respectively; Fig. 3A). We also found similar patterns of distribution of F_{ST} values between species in allopatry and sympatry, as both F_{ST} density curves have similar means and variances (Fig. 3A).

Detection of outlier SNPs

We recovered a total of 428 outlier SNPs from the parentals dataset using the 98% F_{ST} cut-off approach for each *E. fulgens*

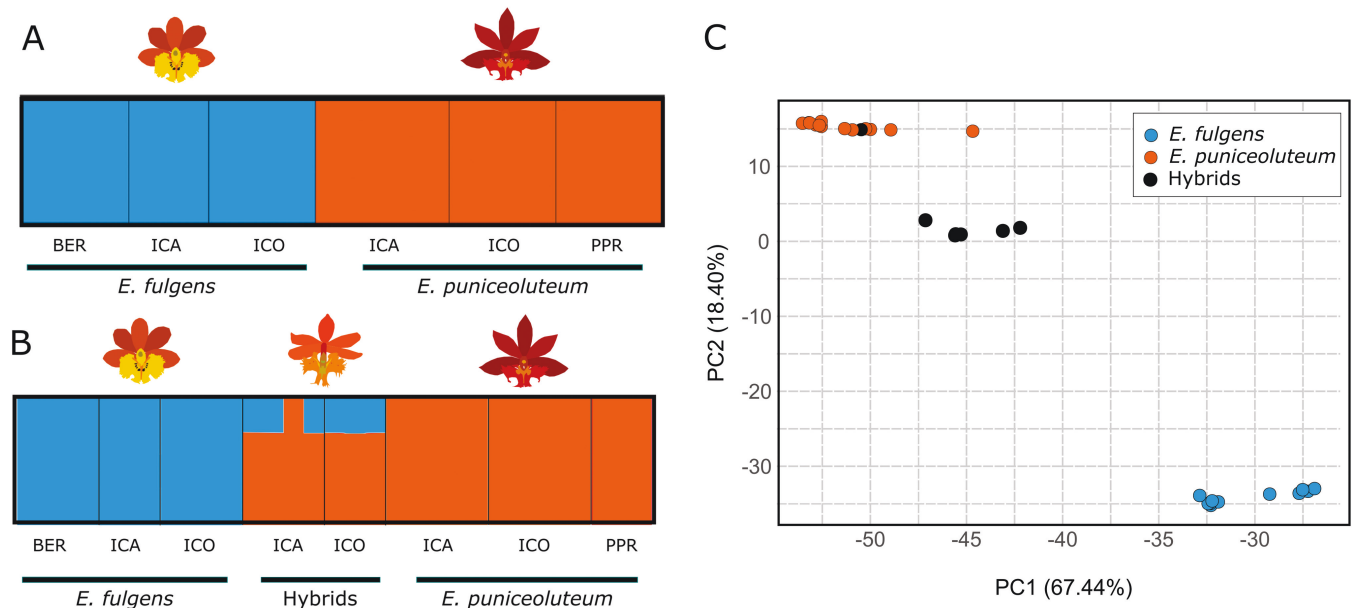


Figure 2. Genetic structure between diploid *Epidendrum fulgens* and tetraploid *E. puniceoluteum* (A) and among these parental species and their hybrids (B and C) using 18 772 (parentals dataset) or 21 031 (full dataset) transcriptome-derived SNPs, respectively, as indicated by the Bayesian analysis executed in Structure (A and B) and the first two axes of a principal component analysis (PCA, C). *Epidendrum fulgens* is shown in blue, while *E. puniceoluteum* is shown in orange. Hybrids are shown as the admixed individuals in Structure plots (B) and black points in the PCA plot (C).

versus *E. puniceoluteum* comparison. We focused our interpretation on a total 183 loci that showed consistent signatures of high genetic divergence ($F_{ST} \geq 0.72$) between parental species across the three comparisons (see Venn diagram; Fig. 3B). From these, we assigned GO terms for 84 genes and obtained a final list of 63 nonredundant terms (dispensability < 0.5). Some outlier SNPs are associated with nucleus activities such as chromatin organization (GO:0006325; $F_{ST} = 0.960$) and karyogamy (GO:0000741; $F_{ST} = 0.899$) (Supporting Information, Table S2), but also responses to environmental conditions, such as responses to abscisic acid (GO:0009737, $F_{ST} = 0.969$), wounding (GO:0009611; $F_{ST} = 0.969$), fungus (GO:0050832, $F_{ST} = 0.898$), and heat (GO:0009408, $F_{ST} = 0.859$) (Fig. 3C; Table S2). Notably, the two fixed loci (i.e. $F_{ST} = 1$) between species are responsible for vesicle-mediated transport and RNA modification (GO:0016192 and GO:0009451) (Fig. 3C; Table S2).

Demographic patterns

Stairwayplot 2 analysis evidenced contrasting signatures of changes in N_e through time in *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* (Fig. 4). Such analysis showed that populations of *E. fulgens* had a slight increase (two-fold) of N_e from ~70 000 years ago (Fig. 4A-B). However, populations of *E. puniceoluteum* have probably passed by drastic reductions in N_e over time and today correspond to ~1/1000th of the ancestral population size (Fig. 4A, B).

Climatic niche divergence

The divergence tests using climatic data derived from current records of species revealed that the climatic niches of *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* are not equivalent (Schoener's

$D = 0.171$, $P = .0089$; Warren's $I = 0.408$, $P = .012$), despite being more similar than expected by chance ($P > .05$, Fig. 5B). Within the climatic space, differences between species' niche are more closely correlated with the minimum temperature of coldest month (Bio 6) and precipitation of wettest month (Bio 13, Fig. 5A). The realized climatic niche of *E. fulgens* is ~12 times larger than that of *E. puniceoluteum* (Fig. 5B).

DISCUSSION

Inferring the causes of speciation and the consequences of hybridization is one of the central goals of evolutionary biology (Seehausen et al. 2014), though it presents particular challenges when examining polyploid systems (Meirmans et al. 2018). In our study, we refined previous knowledge on the speciation and hybridization between *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum*, two neotropical orchids exhibiting varying ploidy (diploid and tetraploid, respectively) and occurring in contrasting microhabitats in restingas (sand dunes and sedge swamps, respectively). By combining a population genetics approach using thousands of transcriptome-derived SNPs and climatic niche analysis, we show that gene flow might not be sufficient to prevent adaptive genetic differentiation between sympatric populations of *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum*, and that these species differ in several genes potentially linked to habitat divergence and maintain distinct climatic niches despite their large geographical distribution overlap. Below, we discuss the significance of our findings in improving our understanding of the general implications of interploidy gene flow in plants and providing insights into the role of adaptive genetic variation during speciation by polyploidization.

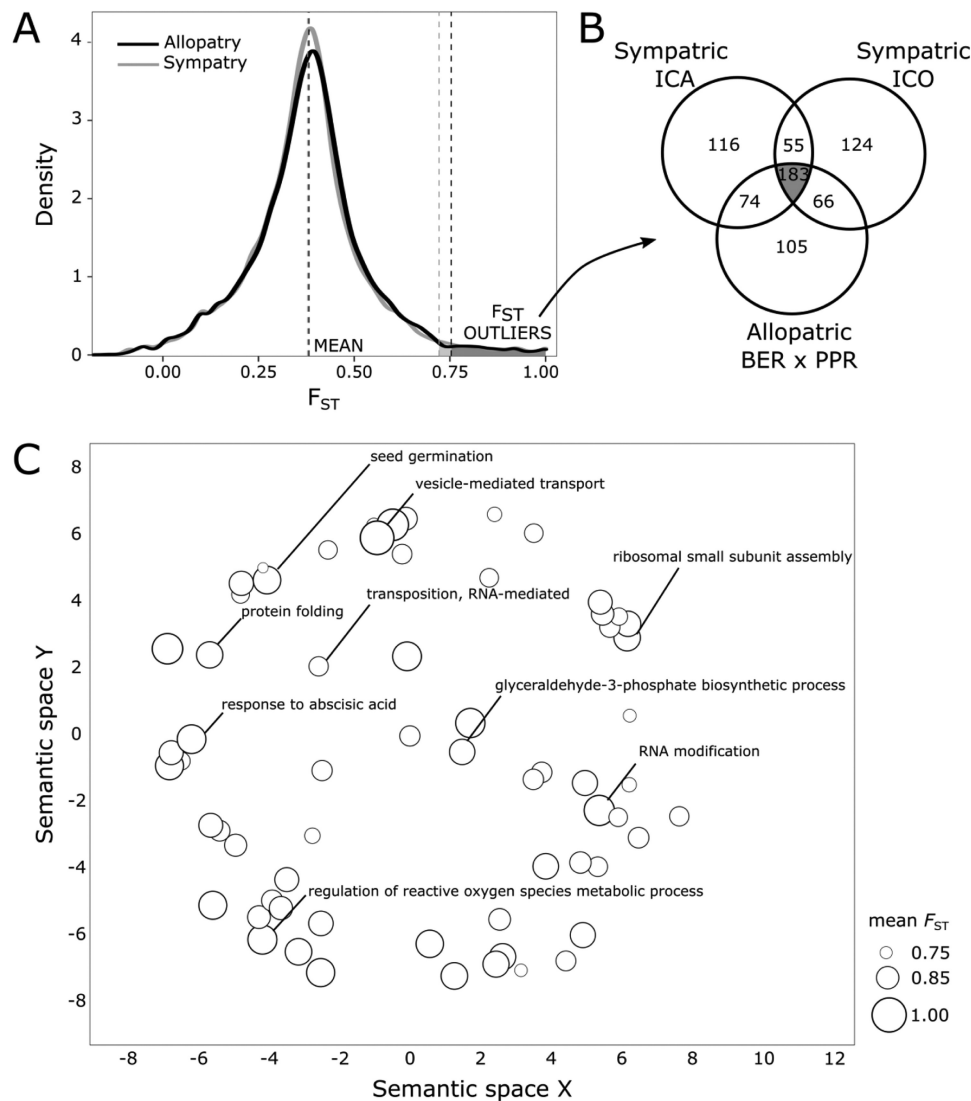


Figure 3. Patterns of genomic differentiation between diploid *Epidendrum fulgens* and tetraploid *E. puniceoluteum* across 18 772 transcriptome-derived SNPs in allopatric versus sympatric conditions. **A**, loci with F_{ST} values greater than the upper 98% quantile were retained as outliers. **B**, Venn diagram highlighting the subset of outliers commonly retrieved in comparisons between species in sympatry (ICA and ICO) and allopatry (ALO). **C**, semantic plot obtained in REVIGO summarizing the Gene Ontology (GO) terms for the subset of 84 out of 183 annotated loci. The more general GO terms associated with higher mean F_{ST} values (circle size) are shown in the plot.

Our results show a strong genetic divergence between hybridizing orchids *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum*, with no evidence of introgression in the transcribed portion of their genomes. It contrasts with previous evidence from neutral microsatellite markers and experimental crosses showing that the tetraploid *E. puniceoluteum* experienced gene flow from diploid *E. fulgens*, but not the reverse (Pinheiro *et al.* 2010, Moraes *et al.* 2013), which resulted in clear signatures of introgression (Pinheiro *et al.* 2010). This discrepancy could be attributed, in part, to the notable variance in mutation rates between SNPs and microsatellites. However, we propose that the varying scenarios of reproductive isolation observed in these hybridizing species, contingent upon the molecular markers utilized (i.e. microsatellites often found in nongenic regions versus SNPs derived from genic regions), can be explained primarily by the disproportionate effects of divergent selection in genic versus nongenic

regions. So far, the accumulated evidence suggests that reproductive isolation between *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* is probably of adaptive nature since introgression is more extensive at nongenic regions (Pinheiro *et al.* 2010). Despite growing evidence that introgression represents a source of novel variation that transfers traits of adaptive value in multiploidy lineages (e.g. Monnahan *et al.* 2019, Novikova *et al.* 2020), the implications of hybridization probably depend on the involved species (Sutherland and Galloway 2017). Introgression between *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* might be limited by selection for distinct habitats, particularly if F2 hybrids and introgressed individuals experience a fitness decline compared to parental species, which demands further investigation.

Our data indicate that interspecific gene flow might not prevent adaptation to contrasting habitats in sympatric locations. We found similar patterns of distribution of F_{ST} values between

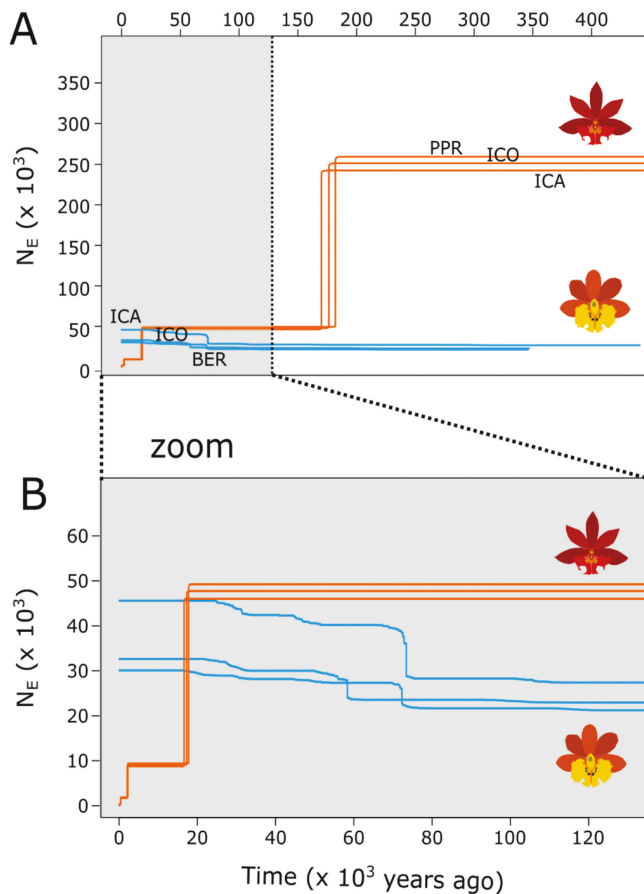


Figure 4. Changes in effective population sizes (N_e) through time for diploid *Epidendrum fulgens* (in blue) and tetraploid *E. puniceoluteum* (in orange) during the last 400 000 years (A) and 120 000 years (B) as estimated from the site frequency spectrum (SFS) based on the subset of 14 514 synonymous SNPs using StairwayPlot 2.

species across the genome in sympatry and allopatry. We also found that a significant proportion of the more highly differentiated loci ($F_{ST} > 0.72$) are commonly identified as outliers in comparisons between these species in allopatric or sympatric conditions. Some of these loci are responsible, for instance, for the transcriptional and replication machineries (i.e. GO:0009451: RNA modification, GO:0006325: chromatin organization, GO:0006357: regulation of transcription by RNA polymerase II, GO:0000741: karyogamy, GO:0031120: snRNA pseudouridine synthesis) that might be important for the physical chromosome reorganization following polyploidization (see Zhang et al. 2019, Concia et al. 2020, Garcia-Lozano et al. 2021). Recent evidence has indeed indicated that multiple genes are involved in the stabilization of replication following whole genome duplication in *Arabidopsis* (Yant et al., 2013; Bohutínská et al., 2021), but the identification of targets of divergent selection that result in reproductive isolation across ploidy levels remains sparse to characterize the generality of the process in plants. Furthermore, we cannot disregard alternative explanations for the presence of F_{ST} outliers, such as the association of these loci with islands of reduced linkage and low diversity within species (Cruickshank and Hahn 2014). A more

comprehensive understanding of the genetic basis of speciation by polyploidy in this system includes contrasting neutral versus selection scenarios (see Clo et al. 2022) using data-informed simulations. Testing whether divergent selection has acted on the same suite of genes in other pairs of species in *Epidendrum* or, more probably, in distinct genes affecting the same core pathways would also bring robust evidence in favour of selection (see Bohutínská et al. 2021).

Our analysis also revealed some enriched processes that might be linked to responses to several habitat features (e.g. GO:0009737, GO:0009611 and GO:0009408: responses to abscisic acid, wounding, and heat, respectively, and GO:0050832: defence response to fungus) among the most differentiated loci between *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum*. Niche differentiation plays an important role in species' divergence due to its impact on both pre- and postmating isolation (Sobel et al. 2019) and is increasingly supported as important for polyploid establishment (Ramsey 2011, Marchant et al. 2016) mitigating the so-called minority cytotype exclusion (Levin 1975). A recent study has indeed shown that habitat preferences is an important component for reproductive isolation between two closely related *Epidendrum* species with distinct ploidy (Arida et al. 2021). Nevertheless, it is unclear whether habitat differences between the studied species have been achieved immediately following the raising of the tetraploid *E. puniceoluteum* or have been shaped for long periods of time after polyploidization. By phasing the subgenomes of the putative allopolyploid *E. puniceoluteum*, it would be possible to estimate divergence time and infer timing of gene flow between such species (see Kryvokhyzha et al. 2019), allowing further insights into the dynamics of speciation between these hybridizing taxa.

In agreement with divergent selection potentially affecting genes linked to the habitat features we have observed, we demonstrated in this study that the realized climatic niches of *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* diverge slightly in environmental space due to increased tolerance to lower temperature and wider amplitude of precipitation in *E. fulgens*. In addition to previous evidence linking divergence to soil features (see Leal et al. 2020), our study has provided useful insights into ecological divergence driven by climate conditions between these closely related diploid and allotetraploid species, which is consistent with evidence from other plant lineages (e.g. Marchant et al. 2016, Baniaga et al. 2020). Nevertheless, our data do not support previous evidence showing expanded niches in tetraploids compared to their diploid progenitors (e.g. López-Jurado et al. 2019, Molina-Henao and Hopkins 2019, Kiedrzyński et al. 2021), since *E. puniceoluteum* is geographically restricted and its niche is climatically limited when compared to *E. fulgens*. When accounting for microhabitat features, however, *E. puniceoluteum* shows wider tolerance to flooding, which is responsible for determining some ecological differentiation between species (Pinheiro et al. 2010, Leal et al. 2020). The literature indeed shows that polyploidization usually increases stress tolerance in both plants and animals (e.g. Chao et al. 2013, Arnold et al. 2016, Novikova et al. 2020), but the extent to which genome duplication itself and the combination of two divergent genomes via hybridization facilitates the evolution of ecological novelty in allopolyploids needs further investigation (see Fort et al. 2016).

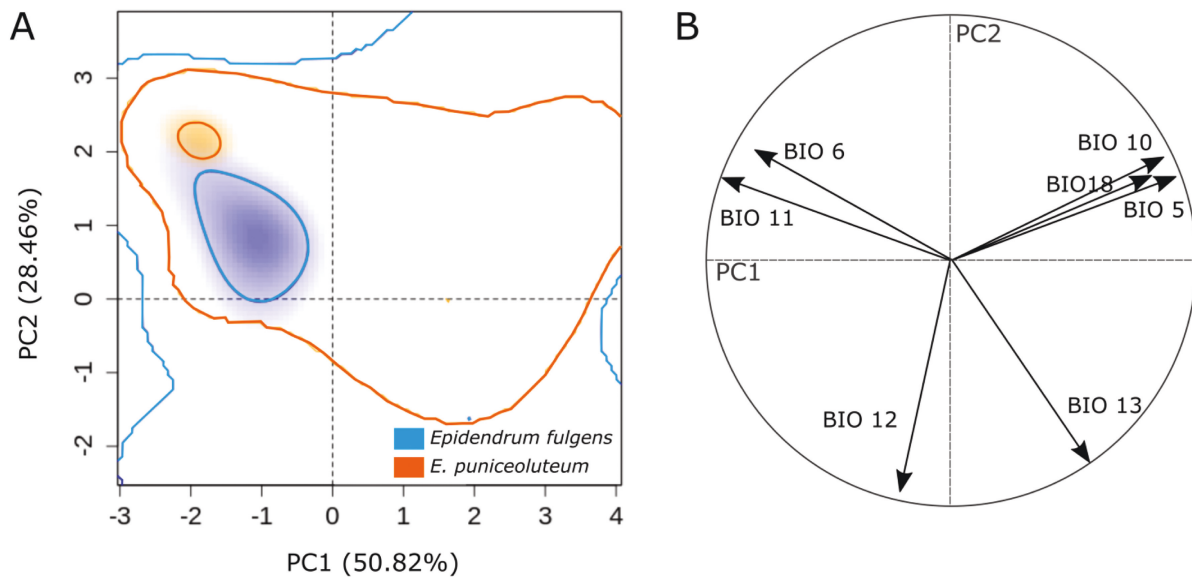


Figure 5. Current climatic niches of diploid *E. fulgens* (in blue) and tetraploid *E. puniceoluteum* (in orange) in the environmental space spanned by two PCA axes. A, overlap between background environments and realized climatic niches of *E. fulgens* (blue) and *E. puniceoluteum* (orange). Shading represents the density of the occurrences by cell, with darker shading indicating higher density of occurrences. Solid contour lines visualize 100% of the available environment. B, correlation circle showing the contribution of the seven bioclimatic variables—maximum temperature of warmest month (Bio 5), minimum temperature of coldest month (Bio 6), mean temperature of warmest quarter (Bio 10), mean temperature of coldest quarter (Bio 11), annual precipitation (Bio 12), precipitation of wettest month (Bio 13), and precipitation of warmest quarter (Bio 18), on the two first PCA axes (PC1 and PC2).

Future work that builds on the spatial and temporal distribution of diploids and allopolyploids in the subgenus to which *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* belong (i.e. subg. *Amphylottium*, Pinheiro *et al.*, 2009) will probably help to uncover the importance of polyploidization for climate adaptation (see Blischak *et al.* 2018b) and occupancy of harsh and disturbed habitats by these species (Pinheiro and Cazzolino 2013).

Finally, our data indicate distinct signatures of demographic changes across time between species, with *E. puniceoluteum* showing population declines following the last glacial maximum (LGM, 21 kya) and *E. fulgens* exhibiting a slight increase in population sizes from ~70 kya followed by stability since the LGM. This analysis also recovered an older event (170–180 kya) of population size decline in *E. puniceoluteum*, but the interpretation requires caution since SFS-based analysis, such as the one used in our study, performs more poorly when estimating ancient than recent population size history (Liu and Fu 2015, Baharian and Gravel 2018, Patton *et al.* 2019). In addition, demographic inference from genic regions even using a subset of synonymous variants can be skewed by the effects of selection at linked loci (Ewing and Jensen 2016, Schrider *et al.* 2016). Taking into account these putative caveats, we assume that the distinct recent demographic history of *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* might result from adaptation to distinct flooding regimes, which has been shown to be the leading factor in how plant species are distributed over the southern Brazilian Atlantic coast (Spier *et al.* 2016). According to our results, *E. puniceoluteum* might have been more affected by sea level increase since the LGM than *E. fulgens*, probably due to the loss of waterlogged sandy areas despite the wetter climatic conditions during the Holocene (last 6 kya) compared to the LGM (Behling and Negrelle 2001, Garcia *et al.* 2004, Pessenda *et al.* 2004). Besides being more

widely distributed along the Brazilian Atlantic coast, *E. fulgens* also occurs inland on granitic and arenitic rocky outcrops at its extreme southern distribution. The variability of habitat occupied by this species can indeed underlie the higher resilience to past climate and sea level changes. Although *E. fulgens* and *E. puniceoluteum* become established in sites that are ecologically dissimilar (nonflooded and periodically flooded, respectively), their distinct demographic histories and current coexistence in parapatry/sympatry may also have resulted from displacement of the tetraploid due to expansion of the diploid species (see Buggs and Pannell 2007).

CONCLUSION

Taken together, our results suggest that hybridization may have a limited impact on the genetic integrity of parental species when restricted to nongenic regions. As one of the first studies to examine the genetic background of hybridizing species with different ploidy levels in the Neotropics, our results contribute to further elucidating the role of adaptation to different environments as a driver of variation in heterogeneous habitats, even in the presence of interspecific gene exchange. Here, we identify candidate loci possibly associated with distinct ecological preferences of parental species, but controlled experiments are still needed to confirm their adaptive role due to the possibility of alternative explanations for the observed high divergence. Our study also shows that the parental species has different demographic trends, which are in agreement with the levels of abundance and niche amplitude occupied by each taxon. For example, the population increase of *E. fulgens* may be coupled to its ability to thrive in different extreme environments, such as on rock outcrops and sand dunes. In contrast, *E. puniceoluteum*

is found only in patchy populations that are seasonally flooded, environments that have probably become rarer since the end of the LGM. To date, considering the scenario of demographic decline, habitat adaptation may have ensured the genomic integrity of *E. puniceoluteum*, which has a patchy distribution and populations with fewer individuals. Future studies should take advantage of the genomic data already available for these nonmodel species to understand which functional traits are associated with divergent selection in each specific habitat. The use of reciprocal transplant experiments coupled with common garden studies may also reveal the intensity of local adaptation and the levels of plasticity contributing to species coexistence. Furthermore, biotic interactions, such as mycorrhizal associations and pollinator-mediated selection, provide essential data in studies seeking to understand patterns of adaptation at small geographical scales. Considering all of these contributing factors jointly will give us a more comprehensive understanding of the genetic architecture of local adaptation in hyperdiverse regions, such as the Neotropics.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data are available at *Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society* online.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

We have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

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DATA AVAILABILITY

The data underlying this article (i.e. assembled reference transcriptome and annotation file, as well as the final SNP datasets) are available in the FigShare repository (doi: 10.6084/m9.figshare.27183336).

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