
Diverse trajectories of plastome degradation in holoparasitic *Cistanche* and the whereabouts of the lost plastid genes

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Highlight

Comparative plastome analysis of holoparasitic *Cistanche* and its relatives revealed the clade-specific pattern of plastome degradation in a single genus, and different genomic locations of the lost plastid genes.

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Abstract

The plastid genomes (plastomes) of non-photosynthetic plants generally undergoes gene loss and pseudogenization. Despite massive plastomes reported in different parasitism types of the broomrape family (Orobanchaceae), more plastomes representing different degradation patterns in a single genus are expected to be explored. Here, we sequenced and assembled the complete plastomes of three holoparasitic *Cistanche* species (*C. salsa*, *C. tubulosa* and *C. sinensis*) and compared them with the available plastomes of Orobanchaceae. We identified that the diverse degradation trajectories under purifying selection existed among three *Cistanche* clades, showing obvious size differences on entire plastome, long single copy region and non-coding region, and different patterns of the retention/loss of functional genes. With few exception of putatively functional genes, massive plastid fragments which have been lost and transferred into the mitochondrial or nuclear genomes are nonfunctional. In contrast with the equivalents of the *Orobanche* species, some plastid-derived genes with diverse genomic locations are found in *Cistanche*. The early and initially diverged clades in different genera such as *Cistanche* and *Aphyllon* possess obvious patterns of plastome degradation, suggesting that such key lineages should be considered prior to comparative analysis of plastome evolution, especially in the same genus.

Keywords: *Cistanche*, plastome, degradation, pseudogenization, gene loss, intracellular gene transfer

Abbreviations:

IGT, intracellular gene transfer; mipt, mitochondrial plastid insertion; nupt, nuclear plastid insertion; ORFs, open reading frames; MRCA, the most recent common ancestor; IR, inverted repeat; LSC, long single copy; SSC, short single copy.

Introduction

Despite the overall stability in architecture, gene content, and gene order of the plastid genomes across most angiosperms, parasitic plants are exceptions with plastid genomes that tend to degrade in comparison with non-parasitic plants (dePamphilis and Palmer, 1990; Jansen and Ruhlman, 2012). There are dramatic differences in genome size and gene content between parasitic and photosynthetic plants (Wicke *et al.*, 2013; Cusimano and Wicke, 2016). In parasitic plants, holoparasites generally possess extremely small plastomes with a functional and physical reduction, due to the pseudogenization and massive loss of photosynthesis-associated genes (Wolfe *et al.*, 1992a, 1992b; Delavault *et al.*, 1996; Funk *et al.*, 2007; McNeal *et al.*, 2007, 2009). Some holoparasites may have even lost their entire plastid genomes, e.g. *Rafflesia lagascae* (Molina *et al.*, 2014).

The broomrape family Orobanchaceae is the only family with species that span the full trophic spectrum of parasitism ranging from holoparasites to hemi-parasites and free-living nonparasites (Westwood *et al.*, 2010), providing us a good system to study the patterns of plastome degradation and to compare various plastomes size among different species (Li *et al.*, 2013; Wicke *et al.*, 2013; Cho *et al.*, 2015; Cusimano and Wicke, 2016; Fan *et al.*, 2016; Roquet *et al.*, 2016; Samigullin *et al.*, 2016; Schneider *et al.*, 2018). Wicke *et al.* (2013) studied the complete plastomes of ten photosynthetic and nonphotosynthetic parasites plus their nonparasitic sister group from Orobanchaceae and found that the plastomes of this family varied 3.5-fold in size. Among them, the plastome of *Conopholis americana* (45 kb) and *Phelipanche ramosa* (62 kb) had lost one inverted repeat (IR) region, while *P. purpurea* have a shortened IR region, extending only over the *ycf2* gene. Cusimano and Wicke (2016) analyzed the plastomes of several parasites, focusing predominantly on the genus *Orobanche*, and found that the physical plastome reductions are preceded by small deletions that accumulate over time. The IR region of *Orobanche gracilis* is the shortest among the *Orobanche* species reported, in spite of their other regions being similar (Wicke *et al.*, 2013; Cusimano and Wicke, 2016). The sequences of increasing plastomes in Orobanchaceae have been available, however, comparative studies on gene loss or

pseudogenization from plastomes of the same genus remain insufficient. It is unclear whether there are obvious differences in the evolution of plastomes among different clades of the other genera in Orobanchaceae, and whether their plastome degradation occurs in similar or different regions.

During the evolution of plastomes, massive genes or gene fragments have been lost or transferred into other genomes one or more times (Bock and Timmis, 2008; Lloyd *et al.*, 2012; Rice *et al.*, 2013; Bellot and Renner, 2015; Naumann *et al.*, 2015; Cusimano and Wicke, 2016; Su *et al.*, 2019). In Orobanchaceae, Cusimano and Wicke (2016) reported that some plastid genes transferred into its mitochondria and nuclei in the species of *Orobanche*. Here, we sequenced the plastomes of three holoparasitic *Cistanche* species: *Cistanche sinensis*, *Cistanche tubulosa*, and *Cistanche salsa*, and compared their plastome size and patterns of gene loss with those of other available species of holoparasitic Orobanchaceae (e.g. *Cistanche deserticola* and *Cistanche phelypaea*), and revealed the differences among the five *Cistanche* species in plastome size, structure and gene content, as well as the fate of lost plastid genes in the evolution of *Cistanche*. Our study aims to find out the similarity and difference of plastome degradation patterns in different lineages of the same genus of Orobanchaceae, and compare the evolutionary fates of different kinds of these lost genes.

Materials and Methods

Taxon sampling and DNA sequencing

The samples of three *Cistanche* species (*C. salsa*, *C. tubulosa* and *C. sinensis*) representing two sections within *Cistanche* were collected from Xinjiang and Ningxia of China. The voucher specimens were deposited in the Herbarium of Fudan University (FUS), Shanghai, China. Total genomic DNAs (gDNAs) were extracted from silica-gel dried tissue using the improved CTAB method (Doyle and Doyle, 1987) or the Plant Genomic DNA Kit (Tiangen Biotech Co., Beijing, China) following the manufacturer's instructions. For each *Cistanche* species, an Illumina library with the insert size of 350 ± 50 bp was prepared from 5 μ g of gDNA following

the protocol of Bentley *et al.* (2008). All libraries were sequenced on a HiSeq2000 platform for 150 bp paired-end (PE) sequencing.

Plastome assembly, annotation and repeat analysis of Cistanche species

Illumina reads from the three *Cistanche* species were assembled using two different approaches: a mapping approach and a reference-assisted *de novo* assembly approach (Hahn *et al.*, 2013; Westbury *et al.*, 2017). The mapping approach allows us to obtain a relatively correct gene order for the three *Cistanche* plastomes according to their closest relatives, and the reference-assisted assembly approach enables us to obtain accurate nucleotide sequences of the three *Cistanche* plastomes.

In the mapping approach, the plastome of *C. phelypaea* (GenBank accession no. HG515538) was used as reference for obtaining the plastomes of *C. tubulosa* and *C. sinensis*. For *C. salsa*, we used the plastome of *C. deserticola* (KC128846) as reference. Total clean reads of three *Cistanche* species were mapped to references using Bowtie2 v2.3.4.1 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012). After replacing all the single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and Insertions and Deletions (InDels) with our data at the corresponding sites, we obtained the plastome sequences of the three *Cistanche* species.

In the reference-assisted *de novo* assembly approach, SOAPdenovo2 v2.04 (Luo *et al.*, 2012) was used to assemble the plastomes of the three *Cistanche* species. First, the plastome sequences of six Orobanchaceae species (*C. phelypaea*, HG515538; *C. deserticola*, KC128846; *Aphyllon californicum*, HG515539; *Orobanche gracilis*, HG803179; *Schwalbea americana*, HG738866; *Phelipanche ramosa*, HG803180) were used as reference bait sequences for extracting plastid reads. Next, all candidate plastid reads were extracted and collected by Magic-BLAST v2.1 (<https://ncbi.github.io/magicblast/>, Splice = T; other parameters were set as default) and Seqtk v1.0.1 software (<https://github.com/lh3/seqtk.git>). After that, all the extracted plastid reads were respectively used to *de novo* assemble the plastomes of the three *Cistanche* species using SOAPdenovo2. The preliminary assemble results with maximum

scaffold N50 values were selected for further analysis. All contigs and scaffolds were sorted according to their collinearity with *C. deserticola* and *C. phelypaea* by Mummer v3.23 (Kurtz *et al.*, 2004) and the missing parts were regarded as gaps until the plastome sequences of the three *Cistanche* species were obtained. Gaps between contigs or scaffolds were closed with the total genomic data of each *Cistanche* species by GapCloser (a module of SOAPdenovo2, Luo *et al.*, 2012). The results from the two above approaches were combined. For the IR-single copy region connections and retained gaps in the intergenic spacers, primers were designed for polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification and sequence verification.

The reaction mixture included 6 μ l of 10 \times PCR buffer, 6.4 μ l of 2.5 mM deoxynucleoside triphosphates, 5 μ l of 2.5mM Mg²⁺, 2.5 U of TaqE, 3 μ l of 10 μ M forward and reverse primers, and about 1 μ g of template genomic DNA, with deionized water added to 50 μ l. Each PCR program had a 4 min hot start at 94 $^{\circ}$ C, followed by denaturing at 94 $^{\circ}$ C for 30~60 s, annealing at T_m for 1~2 min; and extension at 72 $^{\circ}$ C for 2~3 min, for 35 cycles; one cycle of denaturing at 72 $^{\circ}$ C for 10 min. The TAIL-PCR method (Liu and Whittier, 1995; Liu and Huang, 1998) was also used for amplification of the downstream flanking region of *ycf1* gene to obtain the complete short single copy (SSC) region of *C. sinensis*. Primers and programs for completing and verifying the plastomes of the three *Cistanche* species can be found in Supplementary Table S1-S4.

The plastomes of the three *Cistanche* species were preliminarily annotated using DOGMA (<http://dogma.ccbb.utexas.edu/>, Wyman *et al.*, 2004). The annotation results were further adjusted manually. To identify the initiation and termination sites of the protein-coding genes, open reading frames (ORFs) were identified by ORFfinder on the NCBI website (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/orffinder/>) and the corresponding sequences of closely related species of *Cistanche* were also applied as reference. Compared with the reference species, pseudogenes were determined by their short size and lack of start codons (Wicke *et al.*, 2013; Bellot and Renner, 2015). Protein-coding genes that were truncated at 5' end, lacking an unambiguously identifiable

translation start, and could not translated into amino acid sequences were annotated as pseudogenes. Considering the conservation of plastid genes and the inherent properties of the splice sites (Black, 2003; Matlin *et al.*, 2005), the splicing sites at the exon boundary of the plastid genes in the three *Cistanche* species were predicted according to their closest relatives. The plastomes of the three *Cistanche* species were further annotated with Sequin v15.10 (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Sequin/index.html). The validated complete plastome sequences were deposited in GenBank (*C. salsa*, MK386640; *C. sinensis*, MK386641; *C. tubulosa*, MK386642). Graphical genome maps of the three *Cistanche* species were drawn by OGDraw (<https://chlorobox.mpimp-golm.mpg.de/OGDraw.html>, Lohse *et al.*, 2013). The forward and palindromic repeats longer than 20 bp and a Hamming distance of 3 in the plastid genomes of the three *Cistanche* species were identified and located using the online REPuter software (<http://bibiserv.techfak.uni-bielefeld.de/reputer>, Kurtz *et al.*, 2001). Repeats with e-value > 0.1 were not considered. The same REPuter analyzing process was run to assess the repeat number of *Cistanche* and the members of other closely related genera.

Estimation of the relative divergence time of different lineages from Cistanche and its closely related genera

To estimate the divergence time of the three *Cistanche* clades relative to the species of other closely related genera, thirty-two retained housekeeping plastid genes were used to construct the phylogenetic tree of Orobanchaceae. The DNA sequence matrixes of these genes were combined and aligned by nucleotide with MEGA5 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011) and adjusted manually. All missing data were replaced with gaps. The phylogenetic tree was constructed using maximum likelihood (ML) method with RAxML v7.0.4 (Stamatakis, 2006), applying the GTRGAMMA model and 1,000 replications to evaluate the support of each branch. Divergence timing was analyzed by Bayesian Evolutionary Analysis by Sampling Trees (BEAST 1.8.2; Drummond *et al.*, 2012). Owing to lacking of a reliable fossil record within Orobanchaceae, we followed the methods of Fu *et al.* (2017) to set

two external fossil calibration points (the stem age of Solanaceae and the crown age of *Pedicularis* and *Olea*, Zanne *et al.*, 2014) and execute further analyses to generate the final maximum clade credibility tree. FigTree 1.3.1 (Rambaut, 2006) was used to visualize the topology and node height with 95% highest posterior density (HPD).

Comparisons of nucleotide substitution rates of plastid protein-coding genes of Cistanche species

Six functional protein-coding plastid genes (*matK*, *rps2*, *rpl16*, *rps4*, *rps7*, and *rps14*) available in all sampling species of Orobanchaceae were used to check whether the relative nucleotide substitution rates have elevated in *Cistanche* against other lineages in Orobanchaceae. Substitution rate analyses were carried out by the Codeml program of PAML v1.3.1 (Yang, 2007; Xu and Yang, 2013). The sequences of a non-parasitic plant (*Lindenbergia philippensis*), nine hemiparasites representing seven genera (*Buchnera*, *Castilleja*, *Neobartsia*, *Pedicularis*, *Schwalbea*, *Striga* and *Triphysaria*), and 23 holoparasites representing eight genera (*Aphyllon*, *Boulardia*, *Cistanche*, *Conopholis*, *Epifagus*, *Lathraea*, *Orobanche* and *Phelipanche*) in Orobanchaceae were downloaded from GenBank and included in this analysis. Considering potential rate differences in specific lineages, the branch model was used to estimate rates of synonymous and non-synonymous substitutions (dS and dN) and the ω ratio (dN/dS). Using a likelihood ratio test (LRT) (Yang and Nielsen, 1998; Yang, 1998), we further tested whether the *Cistanche* lineage possesses different ω ratios from other lineages. For pairwise dN/dS evaluations in *Cistanche* species, we referred the method of Schelkunov *et al.* (2015) to perform the PAML analysis in a pairwise mode (runmode= -2). The initial dN/dS and tS/tV ratios were set to 0.5 and 2.0, respectively, with a codon frequency model F3x4.

Identification of genomic location of the lost plastid genes or fragments

To identify the genomic location of plastid genes or fragments lost from plastomes, 29 mitochondrial genomes of 19 families representing 14 orders and 100

plastomes of 21 families representing four orders were taken as reference bait sequences (Supplementary Tables S5, S6). All of the mitochondrial and plastid reads of the three *Cistanche* species were extracted according to these references by Magic-BLAST v2.1 and Seqtk v1.0.1. All the extracted reads were then combined as a read pool to carry out *de novo* assemble using SOAPdenovo2.

All the contigs and scaffolds were annotated against all the available data in GenBank using BLASTN v2.2.23 with an e-value $\leq 10^{-5}$. The lost plastid genes or fragments from the assembled contigs or scaffolds of the three *Cistanche* species were searched. Contigs or scaffolds that were annotated as plastid genes or fragments with mitochondrial or nuclear flanking sequences were used to identify mitochondrial plastid insertions (mipts) or nuclear plastid insertions (nupts). Sequences of mipts and nupts for further phylogenetic analyses were deposited to NCBI under GenBank accession numbers (MK413701, MK413702, and MK413703). The lost plastid genes were also investigated through mapping the total genomic clean reads of the three *Cistanche* species to the corresponding genes of their closest relatives using Bowtie2 v2.3.4.1 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012). The average coverage of multiple plastid, mitochondrial and nuclear genes in *C. tubulosa* were calculated to infer the locations of the lost plastid genes in the three *Cistanche* species.

Results

Structure and physical features of Cistanche plastomes

The sequence quality of the three *Cistanche* species and total clean reads are shown in Supplementary Table S7. The average coverage of the plastomes of *C. salsa*, *C. tubulosa* and *C. sinensis* are 2,731.25x, 1,507.09x and 3,025.83x, respectively. Detailed characteristics of the five *Cistanche* plastomes are listed in Table 1, the physical maps of the five *Cistanche* plastomes are shown in Fig. 1, and the circular maps of the three newly sequenced plastid genomes can be found in Supplementary Fig. S1. Phylogenetic relationships among these *Cistanche* species and closely related taxa are shown in Supplementary Fig. S2. Similar to the vast majority of angiosperms, the plastomes of the three *Cistanche* species are

consisted of a long single copy (LSC) region, a SSC region and two IRs that separate the two single copy regions (Fig. 2). With a total length of 87,707 bp, *C. sinensis* possesses the smallest plastome of the five *Cistanche* species (Table 1). The plastid genomes of *C. salsa* and *C. tubulosa* are 101,776 bp and 94,123 bp, respectively. The GC content of *C. sinensis* is 37.95%, which is the highest among the five *Cistanche* species (Table 1).

In terms of the gene content in the plastomes of the five *Cistanche* species, there are 68 different types of genes in the plastome of *C. sinensis*, which is less than that of *C. salsa* (89 genes) and *C. tubulosa* (72 genes). There are 22 tRNA genes, four ribosomal RNA genes, 13 photosynthesis and energy production genes, 21 ribosomal protein and initiation factor genes, three RNA polymerase and intron maturase genes, and five other essential genes in *C. sinensis*. Twenty genes are duplicated by IRs in the plastome of *C. sinensis* (18 in the IRs of *C. salsa*, 22 in the IRs of *C. tubulosa*). Essential genes in the plastomes of the five *Cistanche* species including putatively functional gene with intact ORFs and structural RNAs (transfer and ribosomal RNAs) are shown in Table 2.

Three main clades of *Cistanche* has distinct gene status. The plastid coding gene *petG* is the most typical example that it is putatively functional in *C. sinensis* but lost in the *C. tubulosa*-*C. phelypaea* clade and pseudogenized in the *C. deserticola*-*C. salsa* clade. Besides *petG*, 16 genes including five degeneration types represented by *rp32*, *psbA*, *ycf1*, *ndhE*, and *rps3* can distinguish *C. sinensis* from other two clades. Four plastid genes (*atpA/B/E/F*) were consistently lost in the *C. tubulosa*-*C. phelypaea* clade but pseudogenized in other two clades, indicating that losses of these genes probably predated the differentiation of *C. tubulosa* and *C. phelypaea*, but postdated the differentiation of *C. sinensis* and *C. tubulosa*. Some plastid genes (*psaI*, *psbB/D/L*, *ycf3* and *trnV-UAC*) show the different situation that they exist in the *C. deserticola*-*C. salsa* clade (pseudogenization or putatively functional gene) but lost in the other *Cistanche* species, suggesting that these genes exist at least before MRCA of the five *Cistanche* species. Some photosynthesis- and energy production-related genes such as *atpH/I*, *cemA*, *ndhA/C/D/F/G/I/J/K*, *petA/B/D/N*, *psaC*, *psbH/N/T*, and

rpoC1 are consistently lost from the plastomes of all five *Cistanche* species. Furthermore, the species within same clade (*C. deserticola* vs. *C. salsa* and *C. tubulosa* vs. *C. phelypaea*) tend to have consistent patterns of pseudogenization and gene loss. The clade-specific patterns of gene degeneration in the five *Cistanche* plastomes are shown in Table 2.

In the plastomes of the five *Cistanche* species, the repeat number of *C. sinensis* is the lowest, including 18 forward and 69 palindromic repeats, with at least 1,008 bp per repeat-unit with a sequence identity of more than 90%. As for the repeat density, *C. sinensis* is also the smallest (1/1008) among the five *Cistanche* species; *C. deserticola* is the biggest (1/446); and the rest three species range from low to high as follows: *C. tubulosa* (1/645), *C. salsa* (1/476), and *C. phelypaea* (1/465). Compared with the species of other closely related genera, the repeat density of *Cistanche sinensis* is smaller than that of *Orobanche* species, but it is larger than that of most *Aphyllon* species (excluding *A. californicum*). *Phelipanche* species possess the largest repeat density among these four genera.

Nucleotide substitution rate analyses of the retained plastid genes in Cistanche

As expected, analysis of relative nucleotide substitution rates based on a concatenated set of six plastid protein-coding genes (*matK*, *rps2*, *rp16*, *rps4*, *rps7*, and *rps14*) which shared in all sampling Orobanchaceae showed that there was no significant difference between the species of *Cistanche* and the members of *Aphyllon*, *Orobanche* and *Phelipanche*. Selectional strength was shifted towards a more neutral evolution in these genes of Orobanchaceae (ω between 0.0001 and 2.133), with all obligate parasites (including the hemi-parasitic *Schwalbea americana*) adopting a higher ω than the nonparasitic species, *Lindenbergia philippensis* as previous study of Cusimano and Wicke (2016). Detailed results are shown in Fig. 3 and Supplementary Table S8. Pairwise comparisons of these protein-coding genes of *Cistanche* and a photosynthetic *Lindenbergia philippensis* confirmed that the dN/dS value is lower than 1 (Fig. 4), strongly supporting the idea that these plastid genes are under purifying selection in the species of *Cistanche*.

Genomic location analysis of the lost plastid genes or fragments

In this study, we found that numerous lost plastid genes or fragments had been transferred into mitochondrion genome and nucleus through intracellular gene transfer (IGT) (Table 3). In *C. tubulosa*, the flanking regions of the plastid genes *petA/G* and *rpoC1* are mitochondrial sequences, supported by average coverage range of which ranged from 440.32x to 482.62x. *C. tubulosa* nested within Lamiales showing its vertical placement on the phylogenetic tree of these genes (Fig. 5). In addition, the plastid gene of *accD* in *C. salsa* was suggested to have been transferred into nucleus because of its flanking sequences of nuclear origin (*C. salsa*-C1185, MK413701). Distinct from horizontal gene transfer (HGT), it had a vertical placement on the phylogenetic tree close to *C. deserticola* (Fig. 5, Table 3).

The average coverage of multiple plastid, mitochondrion, and nuclear genes in *C. tubulosa* were investigated using the total clean genome data and were found to range from 1026.11x (*rps4*) to 1540.20x (*rbcL*) for plastid genes, 113.37x (*sdh4*) to 385.53x (*matR*) for mitochondrial genes, and usually less than 20x for nuclear genes (e.g. 0.95x, 7S globulin gene; 8.55x, alpha-tubulin gene). Based on the relatively clear ranges of different types of genes, genomic location of lost plastid genes of the three *Cistanche* species can be inferred (Table 3). The average coverage of the plastid gene *atpH* in *C. salsa* and *C. sinensis* is 1.63x and 14.27x, and it is inferred as being located in their nuclei; inferred from average coverage, the *atpI* gene were probably transferred into nucleus in *C. salsa* (13.28x), and mitochondrion in *C. tubulosa* (146.99x) and *C. sinensis* (428.14x); the average coverage of the *petA* gene in *C. salsa* and *C. tubulosa* is 85.47x and 475.85x, which is close to the mitochondrion range, suggesting that they are located in mitochondrial genome. This is consistent with the assembly result (*C. tubulosa*-scaffold190, MK413703), the flanking region of which is mitochondrial sequence. Similarly, the average coverage of *rpoC1* gene in *C. tubulosa* and *C. sinensis* is 107.23x and 44.60x, and is inferred to be located in the mitochondrial genome, one of which is also supported by the assembly result (*C. tubulosa*-scaffold133, MK413702).

Comparison of the relative divergence time of different lineages in Orobanchaceae

Molecular timing based on the plastid genomes can elucidate the relative occurrence order of different lineages in Orobanchaceae (Fig. 2). The *Cistanche* species are deeply diverged: the *C. sinensis* clade was the earliest-diverging lineage, followed by the *C. tubulosa*-*C. phelypaea* clade and the *C. salsa*-*C. deserticola* clade. Similarly, *Aphyllon californicum* was the basalmost clade of *Aphyllon*, followed by the *Aphyllon purpureum*-*Aphyllon fasciculatum* clade and the *Aphyllon epigalium*-*Aphyllon franciscanum* clade. The divergence time of *A. californicum* and other six *Aphyllon* species postdates that of *C. sinensis* and other four *Cistanche* species, but predates that of *C. salsa* and *C. tubulosa*. Similarly, the timing of the most recent common ancestor (MRCA) of *A. fasciculatum*-*A. franciscanum* are comparable to that of *C. salsa*-*C. tubulosa* and that of the *Orobanche* species, followed by the divergence of three *Phelipanche* species.

Discussion

The distinct plastome characteristics of three Cistanche clades

The plastome architecture is highly conserved in most flowering plants (Palmer, 1985). Generally, the plastome size and architecture are similar within the same genus, e.g. the photosynthetic and non-parasitic *Rehmannia* and holoparasitic *Phelipanche* (Wicke *et al.*, 2016; Zeng *et al.*, 2017). However, there are some exceptions in Orobanchaceae, e.g. the plastome sizes of *Orobanche gracilis* and *Aphyllon californicum* possessing extremely small and big plastome in their own genus, respectively (Cusimano and Wicke, 2016; Schneider *et al.*, 2018). Among the five *Cistanche* species, there are clear clade-specific differences in plastome size. The *C. salsa*-*C. deserticola* clade and *C. sinensis* possessed the largest plastome and the smallest plastome, respectively, while the *C. phelypaea*-*C. tubulosa* clade possesses medium-sized plastome. Inferred from phylogenetic timing, *C. sinensis* was the earliest diverging clade, followed by the *C. tubulosa*-*C.*

phelypaea clade and the *C. salsa*-*C. deserticola* clade. Our results suggest the difference in divergence time of the species of *Cistanche* may be contributed to diverse degrees of plastome degradation, affecting plastome size of different clades.

The differences of plastome size in the three *Cistanche* clades are associated with their gene content. The shortened IR region of *O. gracilis* result in its smallest plastome among *Orobanche* species, and the largest plastome size of *A. californicum* among *Aphyllon* species is attributed largely to the expansion of its single copy regions (LSC and SSC). The diversity in plastome sizes of the *Cistanche* species can be attributed to the length changes of their LSC regions. The LSC region of *C. sinensis* is the shortest among the five *Cistanche* species, while the *C. salsa*-*C. deserticola* clade possesses the longest LSC region.

The total length of noncoding regions including rRNAs, tRNAs and intergenic regions among three *Cistanche* clades also shows obvious differences (Table 1). Among three *Cistanche* clades, the size of noncoding region of *C. sinensis* is the shortest, whereas the *C. deserticola*-*C. salsa* clade and the *C. phelypaea*-*C. tubulosa* clade possesses the longest and medium-sized noncoding region, respectively.

Additionally, the extreme short intergenic region (Table 1) and the extreme small repeat number of *C. sinensis* are inferred to be attributed largely to its smallest plastome size among *Cistanche* species. Compared with other two *Cistanche* clades, *C. sinensis* possesses the largest GC content, as well as the smallest plastome with the shortest noncoding region, making it unique among the five *Cistanche* species.

In contrast to the complex gene contents among the closely related genera (Fig. 6), the plastid gene content of the three clades of *Cistanche* are distinctly different. The number of plastid genes vary from 60-80 in *Orobanche*, 61-68 in *Phelipanche* and 66-80 in *Aphyllon*. There is no obvious gene content pattern in different clades of these genera. In *Cistanche*, however, *C. sinensis* possesses the least number of plastid genes (68 genes) and *C. deserticola*-*C. salsa* clade possesses the most plastid genes (89 genes) (Table 1).

Diverse patterns of pseudogenization and gene loss in plastomes of Cistanche and its relatives

As far as the functional gene loss was concerned, both ancient and recent origins of gene loss or pseudogenization can be traced by the phylogenetic relationships among the *Cistanche* species and their relatives (Fig. 7). The loss of different genes happened in almost every clade, while pseudogenization occurred only in the specific clades.

Analyzed from gene status, there are two forms of gene loss. Some genes such as *psbH* and *ndhA* are missing in the known plastid genome of the whole Orobanchaceae, suggesting that gene losses occurred anciently and the molecular timing was estimated about 24.91 Ma; similarly, the timing of gene losses of *ndhJ*, *atpl/H*, and *rpoC1* was very ancient, dating back to 19.01 Ma. But in another case, genes such as *petG*, *psaJ* and *rpoA* are still retained in certain *Cistanche* species, while they are pseudogenes or completely lost in other *Cistanche* species, suggesting that these losses are recent. Phylogenetic analysis of single gene (e.g., *petG*) can reveal that the loss of these genes should be directly from the complete genes or via pseudogenes indirectly (Fig. 8).

As other Orobanchaceae genera, obvious plastome degeneration patterns within *Cistanche* could not be found if we didn't make a distinction between pseudogenization and gene loss. However, there are a clear difference among the three *Cistanche* clades when we consider pseudogenization and gene loss separately, especially when we analyze character evolution of putatively functional gene, pseudogene and lost gene of different *Cistanche* clades in the phylogenetic framework (Fig. 9, Supplementary Fig. S4). The clade-specific pattern is most evident between *C. sinensis* and the clade of the remaining *Cistanche* species. The plastome size of the early and initially diverged clade represented by *C. sinensis* has obviously different from that of the latter.

Although not all genera exhibit clear clade specificity, we have still found similar clade-specific patterns in *Aphyllon* (Fig. 9, Supplementary Fig. S4). *Aphyllon*

represents another example that associates divergence time with extreme plastome size: as the earliest diverging species in *Aphyllon*, *A. californicum*, which divergent time separated from other species within a single genus is similar to that of *C. sinensis* (Fig. 2), possesses larger plastome size than the other reported *Aphyllon* species (Schneider *et al.*, 2018).

Similar phenomena should exist in other taxa. Our study exemplifies that the well-differentiated parasitic lineages exhibit obvious differences of plastome degeneration among diverse clades within the same genus, indicating that exploring gene loss, pseudogenization and gene retention within the phylogenetic framework will help us understand the evolutionary process of plastome degeneration.

The fate of the lost plastid genes

Examples of lost plastid genes being integrated to mitochondrial and nuclear genome through IGT have been reported in some parasitic genera, e.g., *Pilostyles* (Apodanthaceae), and *Orobanche* (Orobanchaceae) (Bellot and Renner, 2015; Cusimano and Wicke, 2016). Incorporation of exogenous chloroplast-derived sequences of host into the mitochondrial genomes of parasitic plants through HGT is not rare, e.g. *Rafflesia* and *Sapria* (Rafflesiaceae) (Xi *et al.*, 2013; Molina *et al.*, 2014), and *Aphyllon* (Schneider *et al.*, 2018), and the inverse mitochondrion-to-mitochondrion HGT from parasitic plant to host has been found in *atpl* (Mower *et al.*, 2004). However, no transfer of plastid-derived genes from the parasitic plant level to the host has been found. In Orobanchaceae, IGTs of only five *Orobanche* species (*O. austrohispanica*, *O. crenata*, *O. densiflora*, *O. gracilis*, and *O. rapumgenstae*) were studied (Cusimano and Wicke, 2016) and massive mipts and nupts were found in this genus. Similarly, we found 16 mipts and 19 nupts in three *Cistanche* species through investigating the average coverage of lost plastid genes and the assembly results.

Diverse IGT patterns can also be found in three *Cistanche* species, e.g. for *psbC* and *psbD* which transferred into their nucleus in *Orobanche* species, they had diverse genomic locations in *Cistanche* species: the IGT copies of *psbC* were

located in the mitochondrial genome of *C. sinensis* and *C. salsa*, while it was found in the nuclear genome of *C. tubulosa*, the IGT copy of *psbD* was found located in the nucleus of *C. salsa*, mitochondrion of *C. tubulosa*, while no IGT copy was found in *C. sinensis*; *petA* and *petG* were located in the mitochondrial genome of *C. tubulosa* and *C. salsa*, while they were lost and transferred into the nucleus of *C. sinensis*, respectively; *rpoC1* were located in the mitochondrion of *C. sinensis* and *C. tubulosa*, whereas it was lost or transferred into nucleus of *C. salsa*. It has been uncertain whether the different whereabouts of lost plastid genes in these species represents clade specificity. However, the intracellular transfer patterns of mipts and nupts show obvious differences between the species of *Cistanche* and *Orobanche*, e.g. the *psaB* copies were transferred into mitochondrion or nucleus of the *Orobanche* species, but no IGT copy of *psaB* was found in *Cistanche* species; the *rpl23* copies had been transferred into nucleus in *Orobanche* species, but no IGT copy of *rpl23* occurred in the plastomes of *Cistanche* species.

To investigate the function of these transferred genes above, we referred the standard of Bellot and Renner (2015) to analyze their gene length and internal stop codons. Two mipts (*petA* and *rpoA*) and one nupt (*accD*) were classified as pseudogenes for their truncated length compared with their functional ones in flowering plants (Fig. 5). In *C. tubulosa*, one mitochondrial scaffold contains possibly functional plastid gene-*petG*, as inferred from its intact ORF which can be translated into complete amino acid sequence (Fig. 5) and its length is same as that of *Lindenbergia philippensis*. The plastid gene *atpl* of *C. sinensis* probably has function judged from the coverage reads but it needs further verification. Other mipts and nupts, mostly in the form of fragments, mean that they have lost their function in *Cistanche*, almost in line with previous studies on parasitic plants (Bellot and Renner, 2015; Cusimano and Wicke, 2016). This may also be a common phenomenon in angiosperms (Notsu *et al.*, 2002; Goremykin *et al.*, 2009; Alverson *et al.*, 2010; Rice *et al.*, 2013).

At present, only few available genomic data can be used for specific comparison of the obvious differences of interspecific IGTs. From these data, however, it is

difficult to order the movements into the nucleus or mitochondrion accurately in most cases for the poor phylogenetic resolution. Nevertheless, the movements shared with a clade should be judged as ancient IGTs. For instance, *atpl* has been transferred into the nucleus or mitochondrion in three species of *Cistanche*. Interestingly, this gene has been lost at the MRCA of the clade of (*Cistanche*, (*Conopholis*, *Epifagus*)). Similar intracellular transfer of this gene may also occur in the latter two genera. We would like to see that more species will be added to the comparative analysis in the future to better understand the regularity of gene loss during the process of plastome reduction.

In sum, we revealed that the infrageneric clades of *Cistanche* with different divergence time possess distinct plastome size and gene content, leading to diverse trajectories of plastome degradation. As for plastome size and gene content, a similar phenomenon can be found among different clades of a heterotrophic orchid complex (even the same species) with different divergence times (Barrett *et al.*, 2018). The clade-specific pattern similar to *Cistanche* were also found in the species of *Aphyllon*, suggesting that this pattern should also occur in the other taxa. As more genomic data accumulate for different lineages involving parasitic, heterotrophic and other plants (e.g. *Pilosyles*, Bellot and Renner, 2015; *Hydnora*, Naumann *et al.*, 2015; *Epipogium*, Schelkunov *et al.*, 2015; *Monotropa*, *Hypopitys* and *Pyrola*, Logacheva *et al.*, 2016; *Cytinus*, Roquet *et al.*, 2016; *Balanophora*, Su *et al.*, 2019), such phenomena of plastid genes that were lost from plastomes and had been transferred into mitochondrion or nucleus may not be limited to the known taxa, additional cases of mipts and nupts in the closely related genera will continue to be discovered. Our comparative plastome analyses enlighten that if different divergent clades of the same genus were sampled densely in other lineages, more new findings will be undertaken to improve our understanding on plant plastome evolution and the fate of the lost plastid genes.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interests.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. Physical maps of the plastid genomes of five *Cistanche* species. All genes were colored according to functional complexes. Functional genes and structural RNAs were shown in solid blocks. Pseudogenes were indicated by ψ , shown in dashed blocks.

Fig. 2. Comparison of boundary positions between single copy (large, LSC or small, SSC) and inverted repeat (IR) regions among the plastomes of five *Cistanche* species and other Orobanchaceae species. The location of inverted repeat region (IRa and IRb) was referred to Fig. 1. Numbers in red are obviously different from those of other species in the same genus. Maximum likelihood tree is analyzed based on 32 housekeeping genes available in these Orobanchaceae species. The expanded phylogenetic tree with bootstrap support values is shown in Supplementary Fig. S2.

Fig. 3. Nucleotide substitution rates and selectional regimes in *Cistanche* and their relatives. The proportion of sites under purifying selection ($\omega < 1$), neutral evolution ($\omega = 1$, but not significant), positive selection are shown by different colors (blue, grey and red); red branch means $\omega > 1$ (p -value $< 5e-02$), but no further discussion in this study. Different mean ω values according to LRT test are illustrated as branch width, with thick(er) branches indicating a higher mean ω . Branch length reflects the number of substitution per site.

Fig. 4. dN/dS between the species of *Cistanche* and *Lindenbergia philippensis*. Whiskers show standard errors estimated by PAML.

Fig. 5. Gene maps (A) and phylogenetic relationships (B) of three mipts (*petA*, *petG* and *rpoC1*) and one nupt (*accD*). The gene maps show the genome location of the transgenes. The orange box represents the mitochondrial sequence, indicating that the transgene is located in the mitochondrion genome; the green box represents the plastid-origin transgenes; and the red box represents the nuclei

sequence, indicating that the transgene is located in the nucleus. The transfer length of *petA*, *petG*, *rpoC1*, and *accD* is 539 bp, 156 bp, 525 bp, and 279 bp, respectively.

Fig. 6. Gene content and annotation of plastomes of 25 Orobanchae species. The matrix shows the physically lost gene (black), pseudogenized gene (gray) or putatively functional gene with intact ORFs (white). An asterisk (*) indicates the gene was pseudogenized and putatively functional in different IR region, respectively.

Fig. 7. Inferred gene losses and pseudogenization in *Cistanche* and its relatives. In the maximum likelihood tree, the unambiguous gene loss and pseudogenization are shown below and above branches, respectively. Different colors represent different types of genes. Branch lengths of the tree are proportional to the maximum number of the lost genes or the pseudogenes, whose names are given along the branches. Triangles at the tip of each terminal branch simplifies the internal structure of three genera (*Aphyllon*, *Phelipanche* and *Orobanche*).

Fig. 8. Clade-specific degeneration pattern of *petG* gene in *Cistanche* and related species. The box above the branches indicates different gene status. Gene possess intact ORF is white, pseudogene is gray and lost gene is black.

Fig. 9. The simplified clade-specific degeneration patterns of protein-coding genes in the species of *Cistanche* and *Aphyllon*. Three different degeneration patterns were found in *Cistanche* clade based on phylogenetic trees. The expended trees of different genes are presented in Fig. 8 and Supplementary Fig. S4. Among these genes, *psbD* and *trnV-UAC* show the *C. deserticola*-*C. salsa* clade specific pattern; *ndhE*, *psbA*, *ycf1*, *ycf2* and *trnT-UGU* show the *C. sinensis* clade specific degeneration/existence pattern; *atpB* shows the *C. phelypaea*-*C. tubulosa* clade-specific degeneration pattern. In *Aphyllon*, *atpF*, *rpoA*, *rps12* and *trnG-GCC* show the *A. californicum* clade-specific degeneration/existence pattern; *psbl* shows the

A. epigalium-*A. franciscanum* clade-specific degeneration pattern; *psbM* shows diverse gene status in different branches. Black, gray and white box indicates the lost gene, pseudogene and putatively functional gene with intact ORFs, respectively.

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Table 1. Characteristics of five *Cistanche* plastomes

	<i>C. sinensis</i>	<i>C. phelypaea</i>	<i>C. tubulosa</i>	<i>C. salsa</i>	<i>C. deserticola</i>
Total size (bp)	87,707	94,380	94,123	101,776	102,657
LSC size (bp)	26,435	31,196	31,017	46,579	48,350
SSC size (bp)	11,865	8,019	8,547	8,468	8,800
IR length (bp)	49,407	55,165	54,559	46,729	45,507
Size of coding regions (bp)	50,648	48,019	48,957	52,293	53,259
Size of protein-coding regions (bp)	15,347	28,438	29,538	22,806	29,303
Size of rRNA (bp)	9,049	9,048	9,048	9,940	9,044
Size of tRNA (bp)	4,884	5,095	3,999	7,763	7,185
Size in intergenic regions (bp)	23,517	32,228	32,249	31,931	33,166
No. of different genes	68	77	72	89	89
No. of different pseudogenes	22	19	20	35	28
No. of different protein-coding genes	23	24	22	20	27
No. of different tRNA genes	22	29	26	30	30
No. of different rRNA genes	4	4	4	4	4
No. of different genes duplicated by IR	20	21	22	18	18
Overall GC content (%)	37.95	36.56	36.53	37.26	36.78
GC content in protein-coding regions (%)	33.67	36.05	34.49	36.51	36.70
GC content in IGSSs (%)	34.02	31.20	31.60	31.45	31.10
GC content in rRNA (%)	54.64	54.89	54.87	54.90	54.97
GC content in tRNA (%)	51.37	49.07	48.99	47.89	48.20

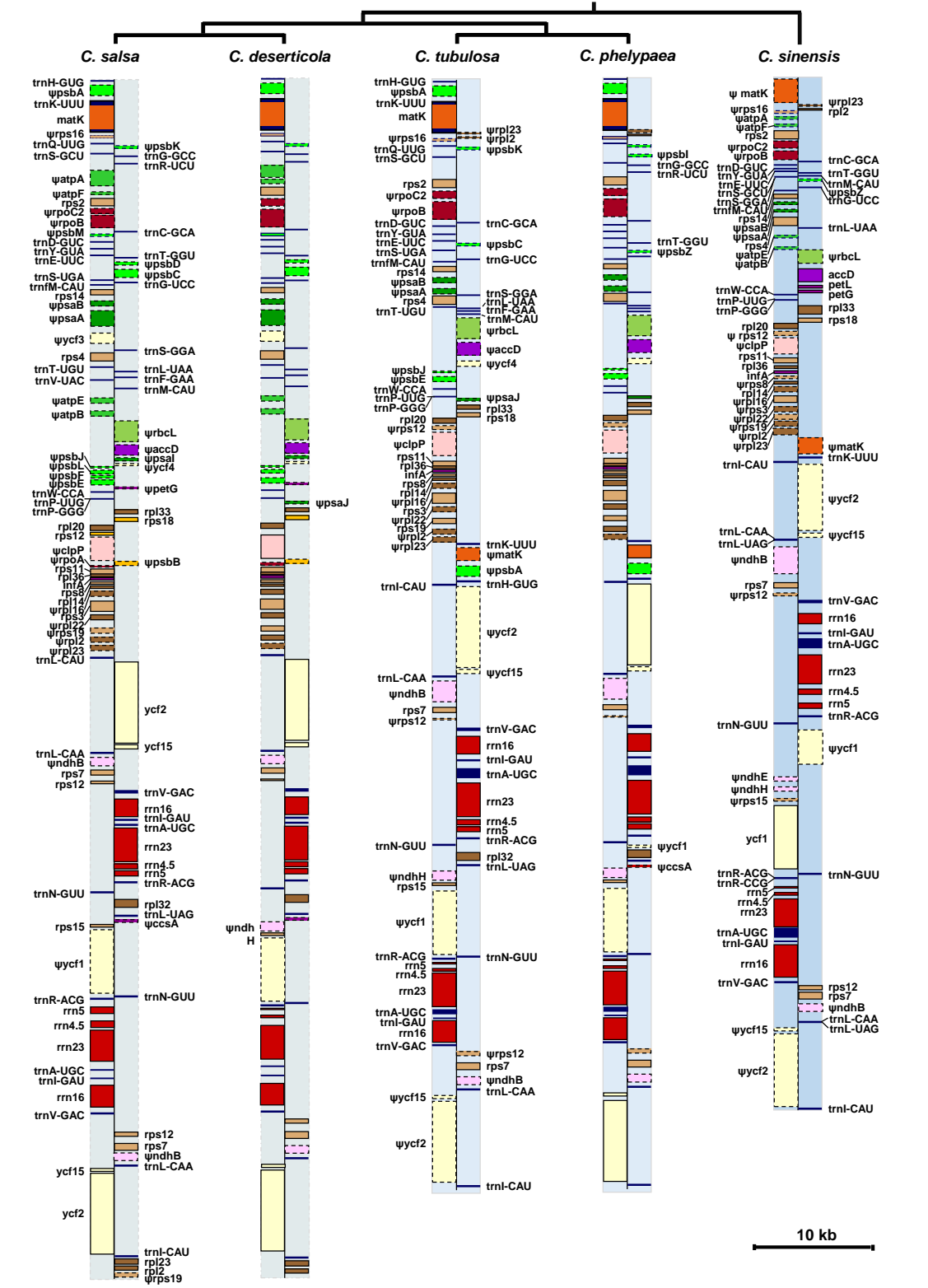
Table 2. Statistics of the degenerate and putatively functional plastid genes in the five *Cistanche* species

Gene Classes	Gene IDs
Putatively functional gene with intact ORFs in the five <i>Cistanche</i> species	<i>matK, infA, rpl14, rpl20, rpl33, rps11, rps18, rps2/4/7/8</i>
Structural RNAs (transfer and ribosomal RNAs) in the five <i>Cistanche</i> species	<i>trnA-UGC, trnC-GCA, trnD-GUC, trnE-UUC, trnF-M-CAU, trnM-CAU, trnG-UCC, trnI-CAU, trnI-GAU, trnK-UUU, trnL-CAA, trnL-UAG, trnN-GUU, trnP-UGG, trnR-ACG, trnS-GCU, trnS-GGA, trnV-GAC, trnW-CCA, trnY-GUA, rrn16/23/4.5/5</i>
Lost genes in the five <i>Cistanche</i> species	<i>atpH1, cemA, ndhA/C/D/F/G/I/J/K, petA/B/D/N, psaC, psbH/N/T, rpoC1, ndhB/H, psaA/B, rbcL, rpoB, rpoC2, rpl23</i>
Pseudogenized genes in the five <i>Cistanche</i> species	<i>rpl32, trnF-GAA, trnH-GUG, trnQ-UUG, trnS-UGA, trnT-UGU</i>
Lost genes in <i>C. sinensis</i> which exist in the other <i>Cistanche</i> species	<i>ndhE, petL</i>
Pseudogenized genes in <i>C. sinensis</i> but lost in the other <i>Cistanche</i> species	
Lost genes in <i>C. sinensis</i> but pseudogenized in the other <i>Cistanche</i> species	<i>psbA/E/J/K, ycf4</i>
Putatively functional gene in <i>C. sinensis</i> but pseudogenized in the other <i>Cistanche</i> species	<i>ycf1</i>
Pseudogenized genes in <i>C. sinensis</i> but exist with putative function in the other <i>Cistanche</i> species	<i>rps3, ycf2</i>
Lost genes in the <i>C. tubulosa-C. phelypaea</i> clade but pseudogenized in the other <i>Cistanche</i> species	<i>atpA/B/E/F</i>
Pseudogenized genes in the <i>C. deserticola-C. salsa</i> clade but lost in the other <i>Cistanche</i> species	<i>psaI, psbB/D/L, ycf3</i>
Gene exists in the <i>C. deserticola-C. salsa</i> clade but lost in the other <i>Cistanche</i> species	<i>trnV-UAC</i>
Putatively functional gene exists in <i>C. sinensis</i> but lost in the <i>C. tubulosa-C. phelypaea</i> clade and pseudogenized in the <i>C. deserticola-C. salsa</i> clade	<i>petG</i>

Table 3. Statistics of mipts and nupts in the species of *Orobanche* and *Cistanche*

	<i>O_ aus</i>	<i>O_ cre</i>	<i>O_ den</i>	<i>O_ gra</i>	<i>O_ rap</i>	<i>C_ sin</i>	<i>C_ tub</i>	<i>C_ sal</i>
<i>atpA</i>	-	n	-	n	-	-	n	-
<i>atpB</i>	-	n	-	n	m	-	m	-
<i>atpE</i>	-	-	-	n	m, n	-	n	-
<i>atpF</i>	-	n	-	n	m	-	n	-
<i>atpH</i>	-	n	n	n	n	n	-	n
<i>atpI</i>	n	n	-	n	n	m	m	n
<i>psbA</i>	m, n	n	n	n	n	-	-	n
<i>psbB</i>	-	-	-	-	-	n	-	n
<i>psbC</i>	n	n	n	n	n	m	n	m
<i>psbD</i>	n	n	n	n	n	-	m	n
<i>psbE</i>	-	n	-	n	n	-	-	-
<i>psbF</i>	-	-	-	-	-	n	n	-
<i>psbK</i>	-	-	-	-	n	-	-	-
<i>psbZ</i>	n	n	-	n	n	m	-	-
<i>petA</i>	-	n	-	-	n	-	m	m
<i>petG</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	m	m
<i>petN</i>	n	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>psaA</i>	-	n	n	n	-	-	-	-
<i>psaB</i>	m, n	n	m	n	n	-	-	-
<i>psaC</i>	-	-	-	n	-	-	-	-
<i>ndhA</i>	-	-	-	n	-	-	-	-
<i>ndhB</i>	-	n	-	n	-	-	-	-
<i>ndhC</i>	-	-	-	n	-	-	-	-
<i>ndhG</i>	-	-	-	n	-	-	-	n
<i>ndhH</i>	n	n	n	-	-	-	-	-
<i>ndhI</i>	-	n	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>ndhJ</i>	n	n	n	n	-	m	-	-
<i>ndhK</i>	-	-	-	n	-	-	-	-
<i>rpoA</i>	-	n	-	n	-	-	n	-
<i>rpoA</i>	-	n	-	n	n	-	-	-
<i>rpoC1</i>	-	n	n	n	n	m	m	-
<i>rpoC2</i>	-	n	-	n	-	-	-	m
<i>rpl23</i>	n	n	n	n	n	-	-	-
<i>rpl32</i>	-	-	-	-	-	n	-	-
<i>ycf3</i>	m	n	n	n	-	-	n	-
<i>ycf4</i>	-	n	n	n	n	-	-	-
<i>cemA</i>	-	-	-	n	-	-	-	-
<i>ccsA</i>	-	-	-	n	-	-	-	-
<i>accD</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	n	-
<i>rbcl</i>	-	-	n	n	-	-	m	-

“m” and “n” represent mipt and nupt, respectively. The symbol “-” means that neither mipt nor nupt is found in genomic data. The abbreviations of species name are as follows: *O_ aus*, *Orobanche austrohispanica*; *O_ cre*, *Orobanche crenata*; *O_ den*, *Orobanche densiflora*; *O_ gra*, *Orobanche gracilis*; *O_ rap*, *Orobanche rapum-genistae*; *C_ sin*, *Cistanche sinensis*; *C_ tub*, *Cistanche tubulosa*; *C_ sal*, *Cistanche salsa*.



- Ribosomal RNAs
- Photosystem I
- Hypothetical chloroplast reading frames (ycf)
- RNA-polymerase
- Photosystem II
- NADH dehydrogenase gene
- Ribosomal proteins (SSU)
- ATP synthase gene
- ATP-dependent protease subunit P
- Ribosomal proteins (LSU)
- Gene for RuBisCO
- RNA maturase K gene
- Transfer RNAs
- Acetyl-CoA carboxylase beta subunit
- Other genes

Fig. 1

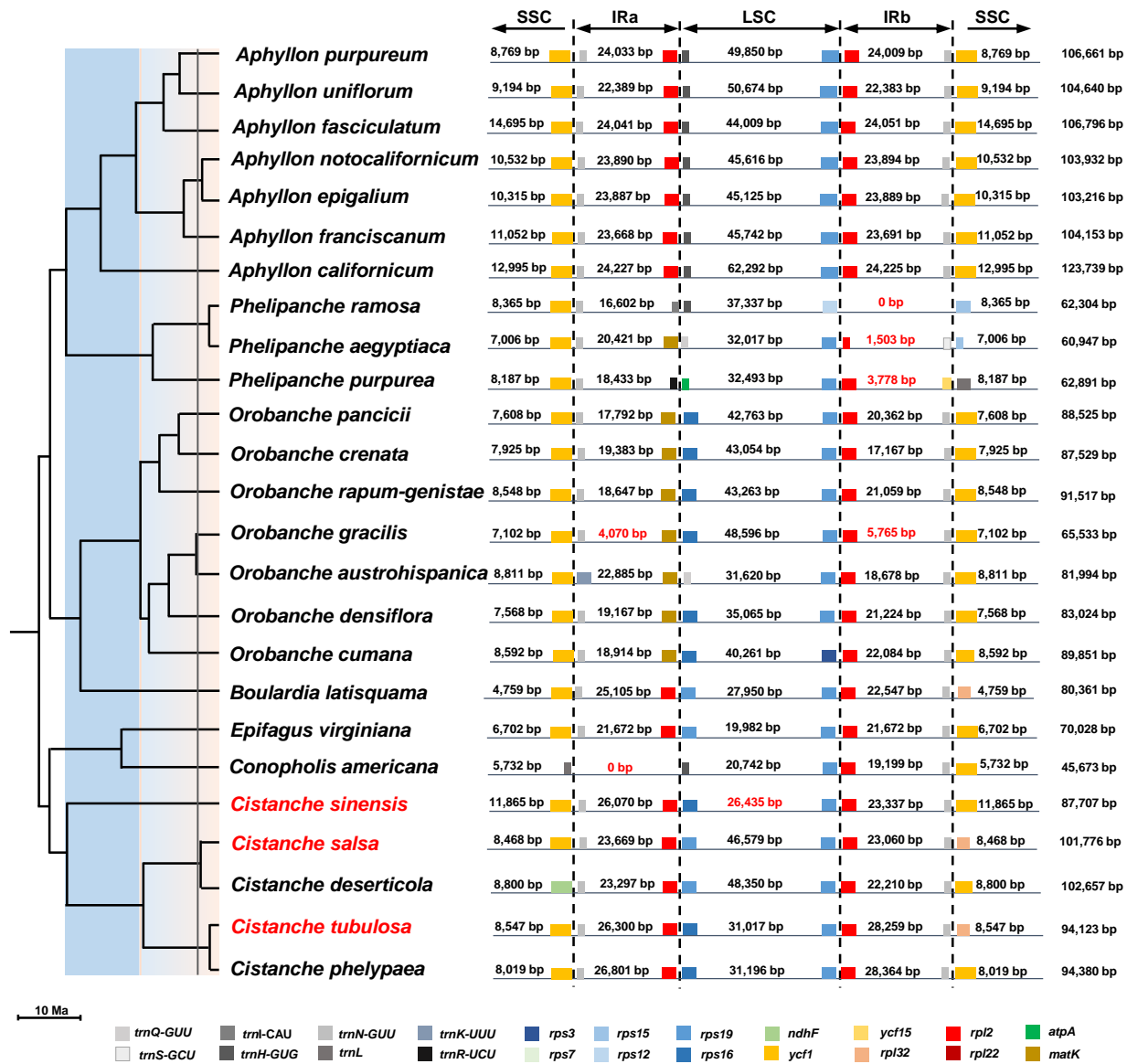


Fig. 2

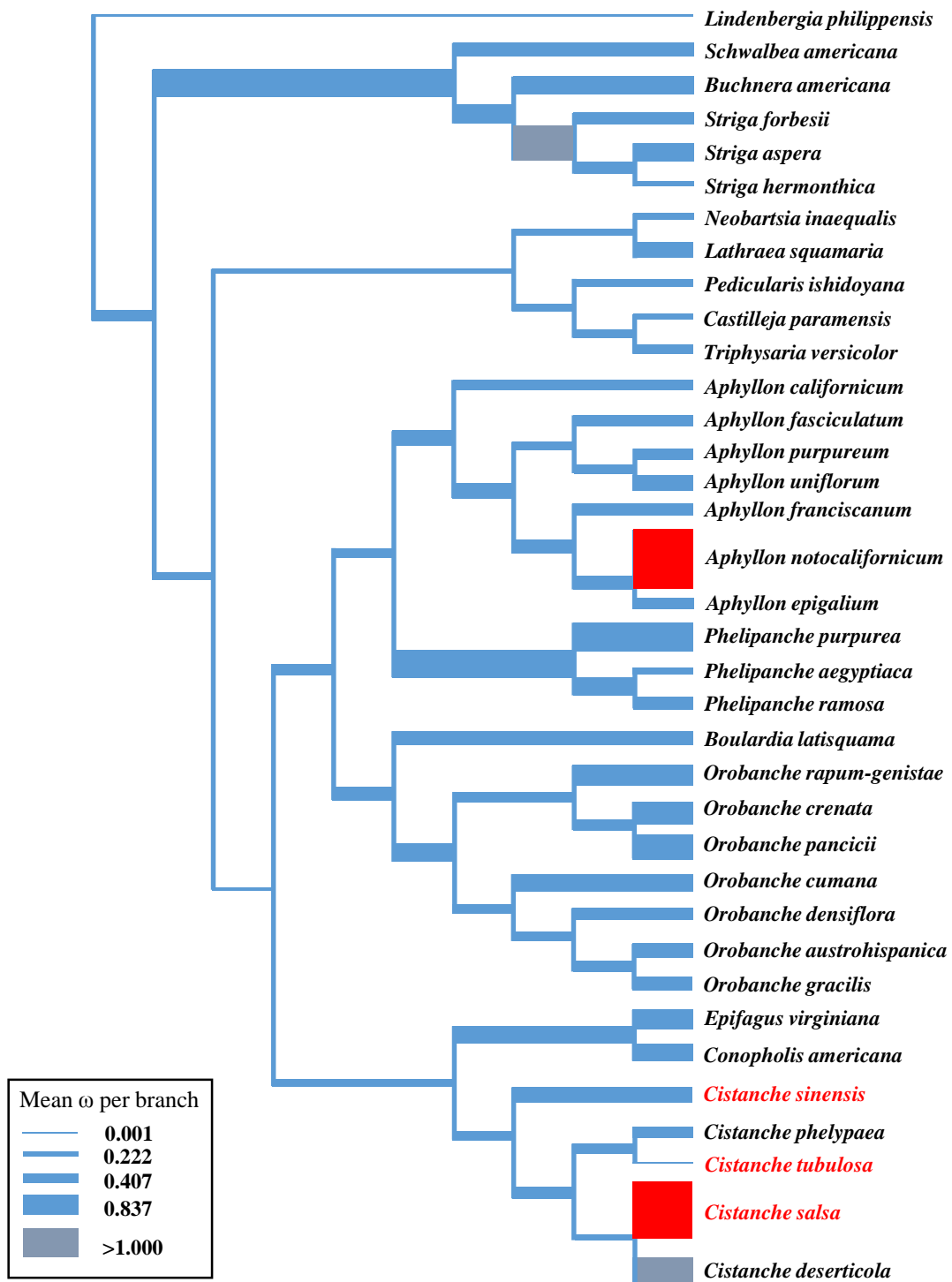


Fig. 3

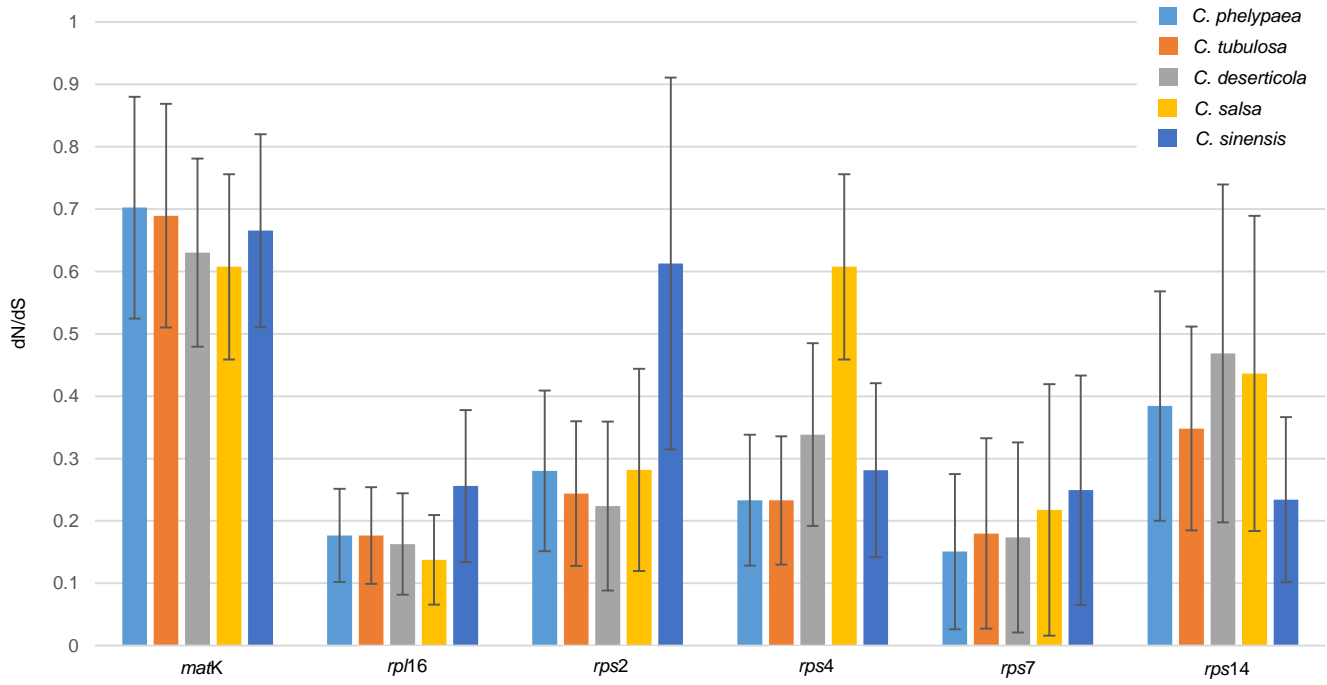


Fig. 4

A



B

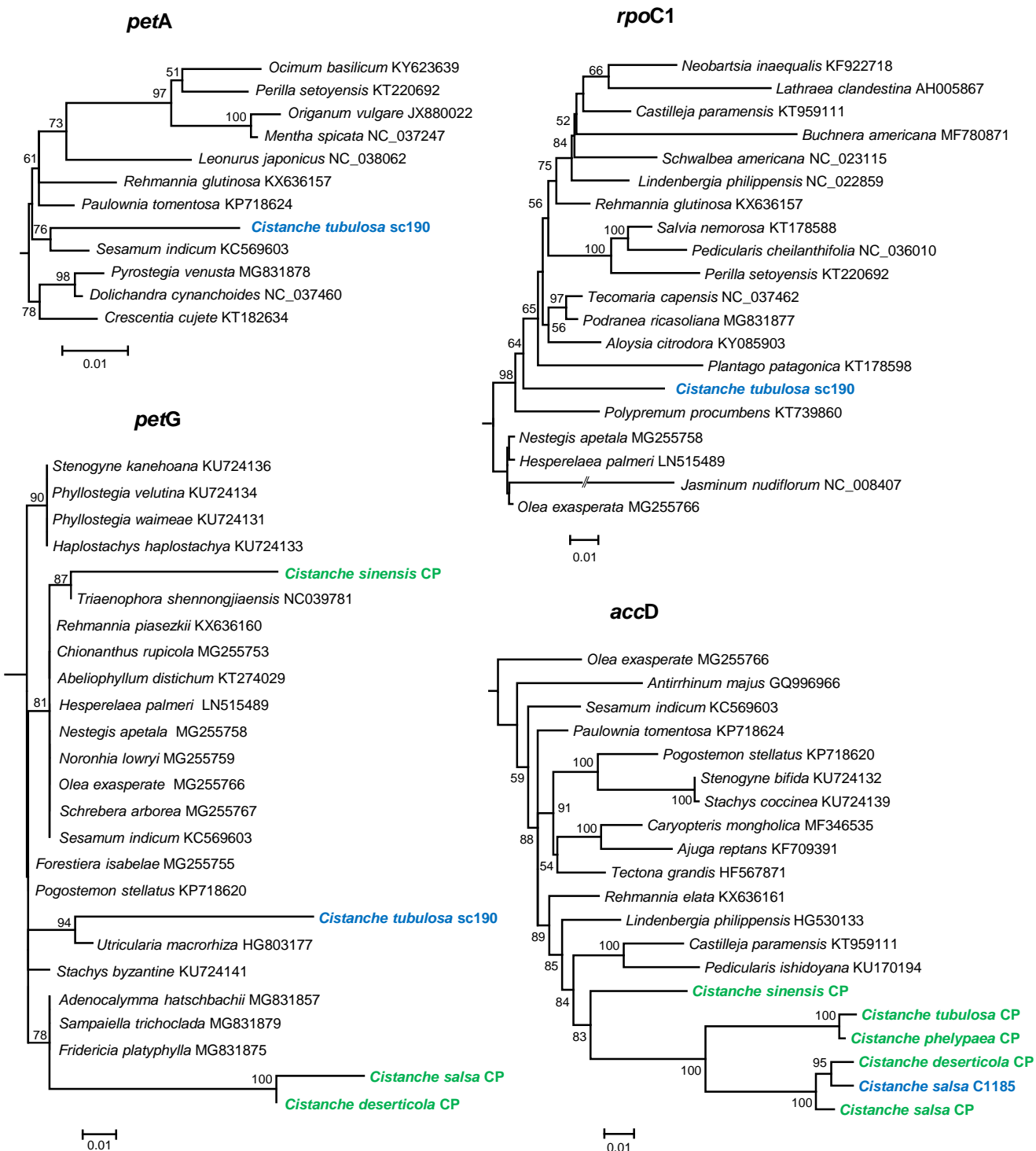


Fig. 5

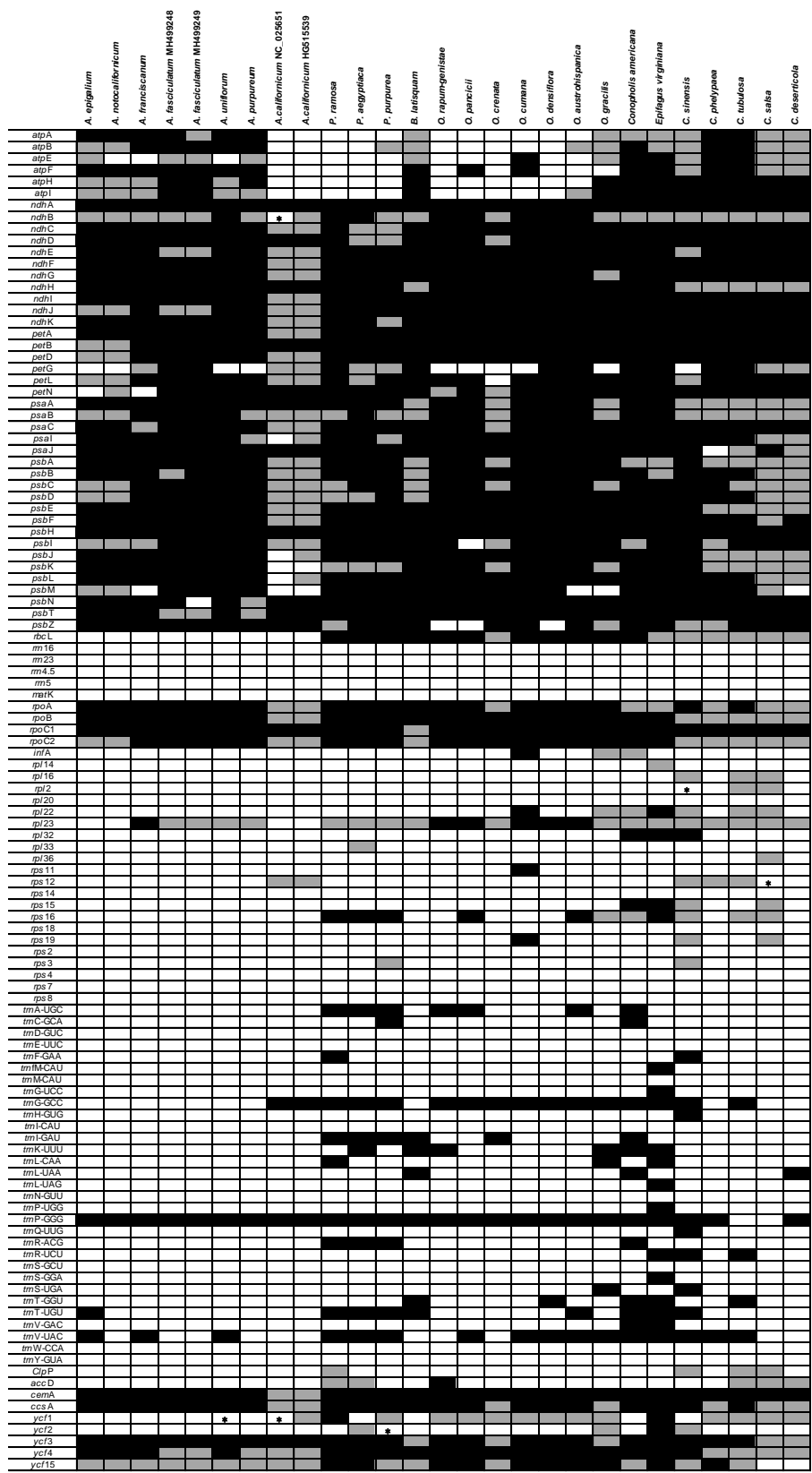


Fig. 6

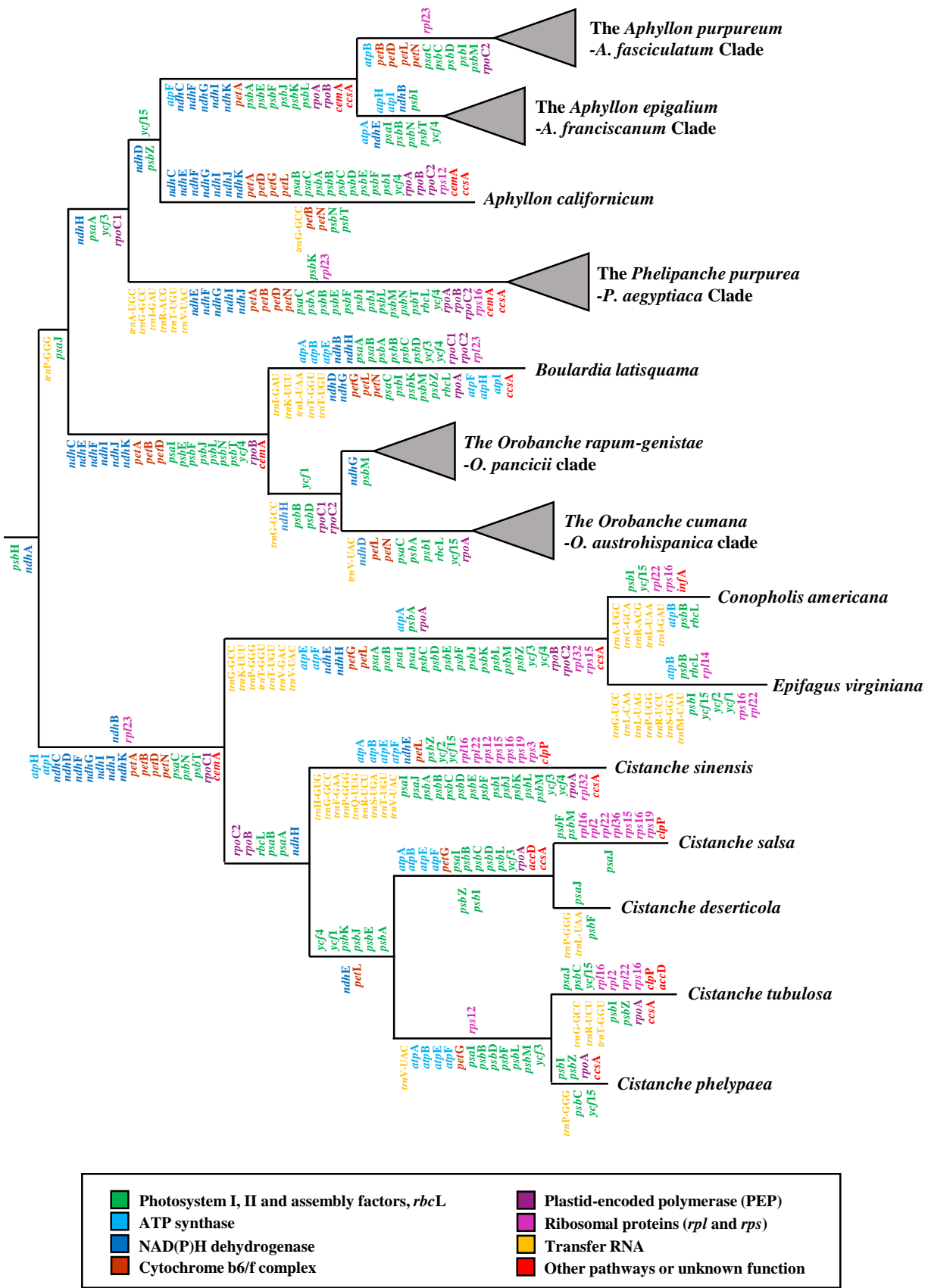


Fig. 7

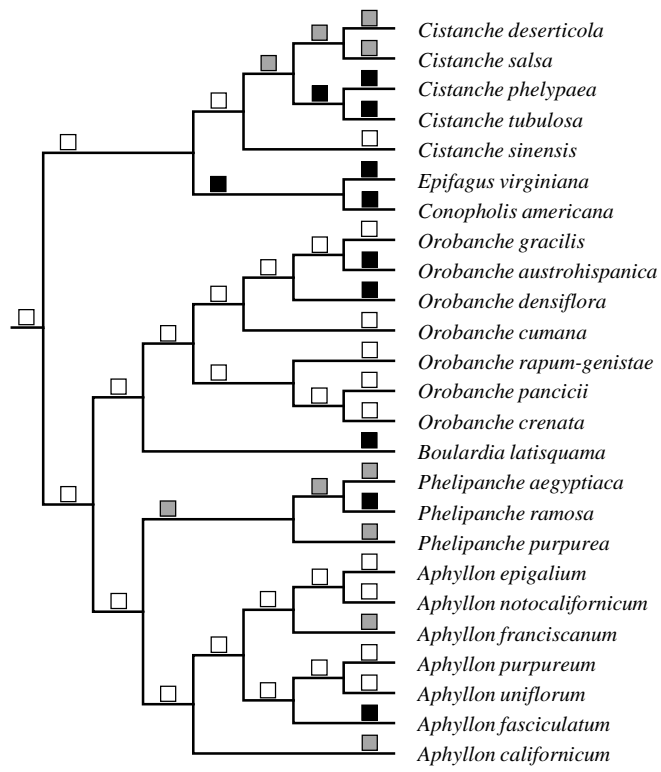


Fig. 8

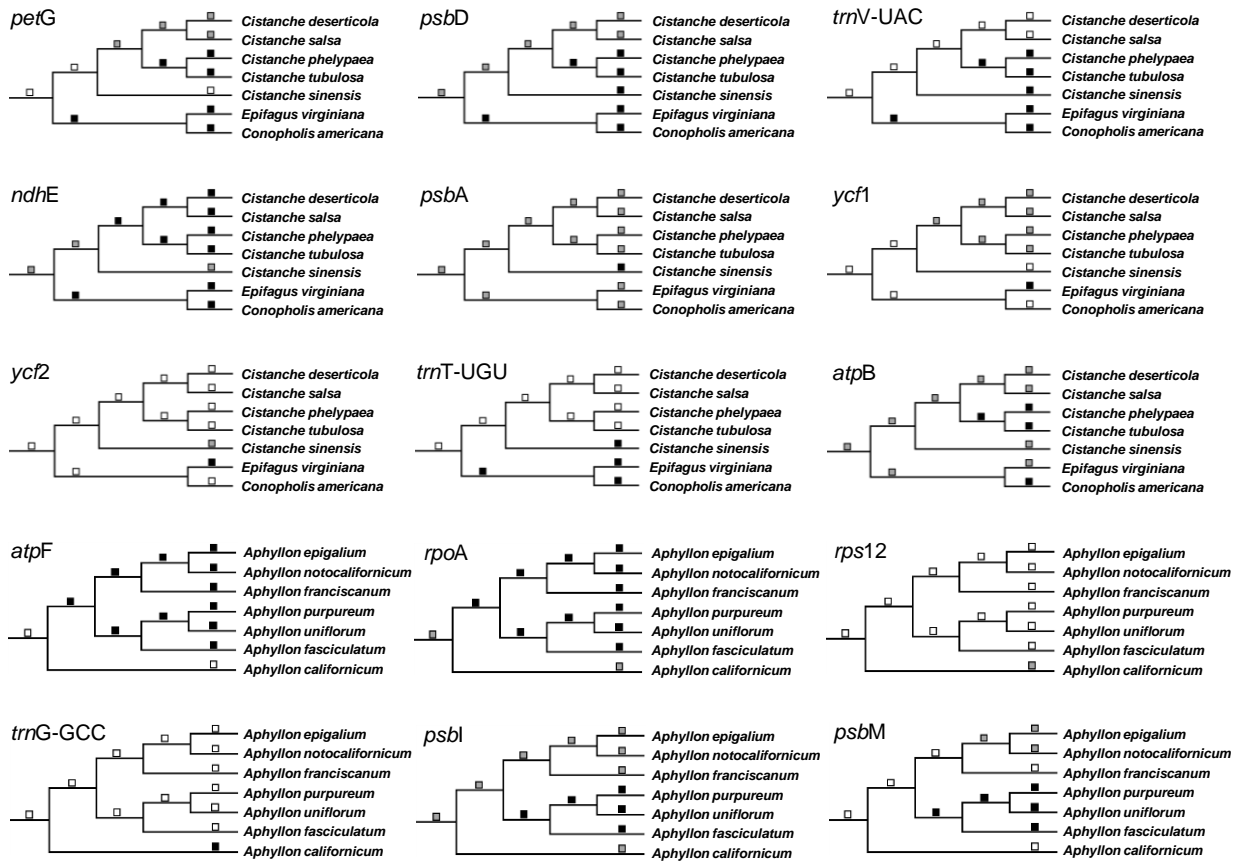


Fig. 9