1 Phylogeography of a gypsum endemic plant across its entire distribution

2 range in the western Mediterranean

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17 ABSTRACT

Premise of the study: Gypsum soils in the Mediterranean Basin house large numbers of edaphic specialists that are adapted to stressful environments. The evolutionary history and standing genetic variation of these taxa have been influenced by the geological and paleoclimatic complexity of this area and the long-standing effect of human activities. However, little is known about the origin of Mediterranean gypsophiles and the factors affecting their genetic diversity and population structure.

Methods: Using phylogenetic and phylogeographic approaches based on microsatellites and sequence data from nuclear and chloroplast regions, we evaluated the divergence time, genetic diversity and population structure of 27 different populations of the widespread Iberian gypsophile *Lepidium subulatum* throughout its entire geographic range.

Results: *Lepidium subulatum* diverged from its nearest relatives ~3 Mya, and the ITS and *psbA/matK* trees supported the monophyly of the species. These results suggest that both geological and climatic changes that occurred in the region around the Plio-Pleistocene promoted its origin, compared to other evolutionary processes. We found high genetic diversity in both nuclear and chloroplast markers, but a greater population structure in the chloroplast data. This suggests that while seed dispersal is limited, pollen flow may be favored by the presence of numerous habitat patches that enhance the movement of pollinators.

Conclusions: Despite being an edaphic endemic, *L. subulatum* possesses high genetic diversity
probably related to its relatively old age and high population sizes across its range, and
highlights the value of using different markers to fully understand the phylogeographic history
of plant species.

Keywords: Phylogeography, gypsophiles, genetic diversity, population structure, nuclear
microsatellites, cpDNA, pollen flow, seed dispersal, *Lepidium subulatum*

41 **INTRODUCTION**

42 The genetic diversity of plant populations and how it is distributed geographically across 43 species ranges depends on processes that operate at different spatial and temporal scales. The 44 Mediterranean Basin has experienced a highly complex geological and paleoclimatic history. 45 Past changes in its geological, climatic and ecological conditions, especially during the Pliocene 46 and Pleistocene (5.33-0.01 Mya), have been decisive in shaping the genetic composition of 47 Mediterranean plants (Blondel et al., 2010; Nieto Feliner, 2014). More recently, humans have 48 profoundly transformed Mediterranean ecosystems through long-standing, yet dynamic 49 activities (Blondel et al., 2010; Nieto Feliner, 2014), further contributing to modulate the 50 genetic diversity and structure of plant populations in this region (Thompson, 2005).

51 A particular example within Mediterranean taxa are gypsophiles, defined as plants that 52 are restricted to gypsum (calcium sulfate dihydrate) soils (Meyer, 1986). In the Mediterranean 53 Basin, these soils harbor rich plant communities with large proportions of endemic species 54 adapted to arid and semiarid conditions (Escudero et al., 2015). Iberian gypsum outcrops have 55 been dated to as old as the Cambrian, but more than two thirds of the gypsum soils in this area appeared in the Cenozoic, mostly during the Neogene (Escavy et al., 2012). Different events 56 57 that occurred in this period favored the formation of gypsum outcrops. First, geological events 58 like the Alpine Orogeny allowed the accumulation of salts and sediments in basins (Escavy et 59 al., 2012). Furthermore, the tectonic uplift of the Gibraltar arc reduced water flow from the 60 Atlantic Ocean to the Mediterranean Sea, resulting in the Messinian Salinity Crisis (~6 - 5.3 61 Mya). This, together with global changes in sea level, produced the desiccation of the 62 Mediterranean Sea by evaporation processes that favored gypsum precipitation (Garcia-63 Castellanos and Villaseñor, 2011). Second, changes in the paleoclimatic conditions of the Mediterranean region further accelerated evaporation by rainfall reduction and prevented the 64 loss of precipitated gypsum by leaching (Parsons, 1976). The progressive aridification and 65

seasonality of precipitation that started 9.5-8 Mya (van Dam, 2006) led to the appearance of the Mediterranean climate 3.2 Mya, characterized by high seasonality and marked summer drought (Suc, 1984). Although both the availability of gypsum soils and the increasingly drier climatic conditions of the late Miocene and Pliocene likely determined the origin of Iberian gypsophiles, it is yet not established whether these species originated in gypsum environments or, alternatively, in other stressful habitats from which they colonized gypsum soils (Escudero et al., 2015).

73 A remarkable feature of gypsum environments is their discontinuous spatial 74 configuration. Not only are gypsum soils naturally fragmented into island-like outcrops 75 surrounded by other substrates (Escudero et al., 2015), but also anthropogenic practices like 76 agriculture and livestock grazing have exacerbated the natural patchiness of these habitats in 77 the Mediterranean region for centuries (Puevo et al., 2008). Both natural and human-induced 78 fragmentation may affect the genetic diversity and structure of gypsophile populations due to 79 neutral processes such as genetic drift, demographic changes, inbreeding and reduced gene flow 80 (Aguilar et al., 2008). This unique spatial configuration may be even more critical in species 81 that lack effective seed dispersal mechanisms, as is the case in most widely-distributed 82 gypsophiles (Escudero et al., 2015). However, livestock practices like transhumance and 83 grazing could enhance gene flow between populations if they promote seed movement (Pueyo 84 et al., 2008; Azcárate et al., 2013). Consequently, genetic diversity and population structure of 85 gypsophiles may be determined by a complex interaction between landscape configuration and 86 land use, among others.

Phylogeography provides a useful framework to assess the origin and evolutionary history of species and closely related species groups (Avise, 2000). Combining markers with different mutation rates enables phylogeographic studies to elucidate how past and present processes have modulated the genetic diversity and structure of populations (Wang, 2011). Furthermore, the use of markers with different modes of transmission such as chloroplast DNA
(maternally inherited and dispersed only by seeds in most angiosperms) and nuclear DNA
(biparentally inherited and dispersed by both seeds and pollen) allows for the quantification of
the relative contribution of seed and pollen flow to the genetic structure of populations (Ennos
et al., 1999; Petit et al., 2005).

96 In this study, we used a phylogeographic approach based on nuclear microsatellite loci 97 and chloroplast and nuclear sequence data to assess the origin, genetic diversity and population 98 structure of the gypsophile Lepidium subulatum L. (Brassicaceae) throughout its entire 99 distribution range. Lepidium subulatum is a regionally dominant gypsophile endemic to the 100 Iberian Peninsula and North Africa and is the most geographically widespread gypsophile in 101 the western Mediterranean (Romão and Escudero, 2005). Because of its high substrate 102 specificity, dominance and life-history traits common to other gypsophiles, L. subulatum 103 provides a compelling study system to evaluate the genetic diversity, structure and date of origin 104 of gypsophiles. We studied 27 different populations that represent the current geographical and 105 climatic distribution of the species, to address the following questions: 1) When did the 106 evolutionary divergence of L. subulatum occur and how was it influenced by the complex 107 geological and paleoclimatic history of the Mediterranean Basin? 2) Do populations of the 108 species show different levels of genetic diversity? 3) Are populations genetically structured, 109 and if so, is this structure explained by their geographical location and/or by historic 110 demographic changes? and 4) Is genetic variation and population structure inferred by either microsatellites or chloroplast markers different, and if so, how does it relate to pollen and seed 111 112 flow? This is the first study to estimate the date of origin of this species and the distribution of 113 genetic diversity across its entire geographical and climatic range. We expect that the complex 114 historical events experienced by Mediterranean plants had a major role in the origin and 115 evolution of L. subulatum. We also hypothesize that L. subulatum populations show substantial genetic structure due to the spatial configuration of gypsum soils and the reproductive attributesof the species.

118

119 MATERIALS AND METHODS

120 Habitat and species description—

Gypsum plant communities in the Iberian Peninsula are mostly composed by chamaephytes and ephemeral annual plants, with a large proportion of endemic species. In these systems, plants form discrete patches immersed in a matrix of bare ground and biological soil crusts (BSC) formed by cyanobacteria, lichens and mosses (Escudero et al., 2015).

125 The genus Lepidium L. is one of the largest in the Brassicaceae, with approximately 175 126 widespread plant species. Most of them are edaphic generalists, but two species, Lepidium 127 subulatum and Lepidium cardamines, are restricted to the gypsum soils of the Iberian Peninsula. 128 Lepidium subulatum L. (Brassicaceae) is one of the most common and widely distributed 129 gypsophiles in Iberian gypsum habitats (Romão and Escudero, 2005). It is a non-clonal 130 perennial shrub (20-60-cm high) endemic to the Iberian Peninsula and North Africa. This 131 species is mainly outcrossing with partial self-compatibility, as supported by both field 132 experiments (Gómez et al., 1996) and low inbreeding coefficients inferred from molecular markers (Gómez-Fernández et al., 2016; Matesanz et al., 2018). It has entomophilous 133 134 pollination, being pollinated by a very rich community of generalist species from seven 135 different orders of insects (Santamaría et al., 2018). Seeds are released from very numerous 136 small fruits (silicles), lack obvious long-distance dispersal mechanisms and have a mucilage 137 that enhances seed adhesion to the soil (Romão and Escudero, 2005).

138

139 **Population sampling**—

140 We sampled 27 populations in the Iberian Peninsula and North Africa, spanning the worldwide 141 geographic and climatic distribution of *L. subulatum* (Table 1 and Fig. 1). Each population was 142 assigned to one of five different geographic zones that roughly match different river basins in 143 the Iberian Peninsula (Fig. 1) and are related to the main gypsum vegetation habitats described 144 in the region (Mota et al., 2011). Elevations of sampled populations varied from 219 (ALF) to 145 1157 m asl (TOP). The closest sampled populations (SMV and CHI) were 15 km apart and the 146 furthest populations (ARGL and BAL) were separated by 972 km. At each population, fresh 147 leaves of 20 individuals were collected and stored in paper bags, except for the Moroccan 148 population (MAR, 10 individuals), and the Peralta population (PER, 14 individuals). Leaves 149 were air-dried and stored until DNA extraction. Voucher specimens (one per sampled 150 population) were deposited at the herbarium of the Universidad Rey Juan Carlos (Móstoles, 151 Spain; Appendix S1, see Supplemental Data with this article). Additionally, 14 samples from 152 the same locality in Algeria (Chott Ech Chergui region) dating from 1884 to 1952 were obtained 153 from herbarium specimens (Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, France; Appendix 154 S1). A total of 508 samples were included in the study. At each site, sampled individuals were 155 collected in a $\approx 20 \times 20$ m area at S – SE aspect to homogenize microenvironmental conditions 156 experienced by individuals. The south-oriented slopes of gypsum hills in the study region 157 receive more insolation and have lower water availability compared to north-oriented slopes. 158 Furthermore, gypsophiles are dominant and more abundant on slopes with S-SE aspects. All 159 populations had moderate to large size, from several hundred to several thousand individuals. 160 Individuals within populations were separated at least one meter from each other, to avoid 161 sampling closely-related individuals.

162 Climatic information of each population was extracted from CHELSA Bioclim layers
163 (Karger et al., 2017) using ArcMap 10.2.2 (ArcGIS Desktop, ESRI, Redlands, California,
164 USA). A 2 km buffer around each population was created to account for the within-site climatic

heterogeneity. Sampled populations spanned a wide climatic range: mean annual temperature
ranged from 11.4 to 16.9 °C and mean annual precipitation ranged from 254.7 to 647.8 mm
(Table 1).

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169 DNA extraction, microsatellite markers, cpDNA markers and PCR conditions—

170 Genomic DNA was extracted from 30 mg of air-dried leaf tissue, using a commercial kit 171 (DNeasy Plant Minikit; QIAGEN, California, USA) with minor changes to the manufacturer's 172 extraction protocol to improve the process. DNA extraction success was checked using 1% 173 agarose gels stained with GreenSafe Premium (NZYTech, Lisbon, Portugal). Ten species-174 specific, nuclear polymorphic microsatellite markers previously described in Martínez-Nieto, 175 Merlo, Mota, Salmerón-Sánchez, & Segarra-Moragues (2012) were used to assess neutral 176 genetic diversity. Detailed information concerning microsatellite markers used and PCR 177 reactions is found in Appendix S2 and Appendix S3, respectively. Amplified DNA was 178 analyzed using an ABI 3730 (Applied Biosystems, Madrid, Spain) at "Unidad de Genómica y 179 Proteómica" of Universidad Complutense (Madrid, Spain), employing the GS500 size standard. 180 For phylogeographic analyses, we performed a preliminary screening with ten nuclear,

181 chloroplast, and mitochondrial loci widely used in phylogeographic studies (Appendix S4). 182 From this screening we selected the chloroplast *matK* gene and the *psbA-trnH* intergenic spacer 183 region because they showed relatively high variability at the population level. We sequenced 184 matK and psbA-trnH (henceforth referred to simply as psbA) from 8-10 individuals of each 185 study population. Additionally, we also sequenced the same regions in four individuals from 186 two different populations (Orusco de Tajuña and Portalrubio de Guadamejud, in the center of 187 the Iberian Peninsula) of *Lepidium cardamines* L., an Iberian gypsophile species that is a close relative of L. subulatum (Mummenhoff et al., 2009), to evaluate whether the two species share 188 189 haplotypes indicative of processes like hybridization, chloroplast capture, and/or incomplete

190 lineage sorting that might confound interpretation of phylogeographic data (Schaal et al., 1998). 191 Finally, to test the monophyly and to date the origin of *L. subulatum*, we sequenced the nuclear 192 internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region and the chloroplast trnT-trnL, trnL intron and trnL-trnF 193 regions (Appendix S4), respectively, of one individual from four different L. subulatum 194 populations (BAL, ECZ, TDL, SMV) and one individual from one population (Orusco de 195 Tajuña) of L. cardamines. Detailed information concerning PCR conditions is found in 196 Appendix S3. Amplified DNA was sequenced at Macrogen DNA Sequencing Service (Madrid, 197 Spain).

198

199 Microsatellite genotyping and alignment of chloroplast sequences—

200 Microsatellite scoring was performed using GeneMarker v2.2.0 (SoftGenetics, State College, 201 Pennsylvania, USA). Each sample was manually checked by three different researchers to 202 guarantee a robust scoring process. Different sizes of the amplified DNA fragments were 203 considered as different alleles. Every microsatellite locus exhibited polymorphic patterns, 204 yielding one (homozygous) or two alleles (heterozygous) per individual at each locus, 205 consistent with the ploidy level of the species. We repeated five percent of the samples to ensure 206 the repeatability of the scoring process. For population ARGL, only four individuals were 207 successfully genotyped. Therefore, this population was excluded from analyses of 208 microsatellite genetic diversity and population structure. We only considered in our analyses 209 the individuals for which at least 9 of 10 loci were successfully genotyped, representing 98.6% 210 of all individuals.

DNA sequences were manually trimmed, edited and cleaned using SEQUENCHER 5.4.6 (Gene Codes Corporation, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA). A total of 207 individuals were successfully sequenced for *matK* and 219 for *psbA*. We were able to concatenate *matK* and

psbA regions from 204 individuals, which were used in all downstream analyses. Sequence
alignment was performed in AliView (Larsson, 2014), with manual adjustments.

216

217 Statistical analyses—

218 Phylogenetic analyses—

219 To assess the evolutionary relationships between L. subulatum and other species of Lepidium 220 and to test the monophyly of L. subulatum (see other phylogenies in Beilstein, Nagalingum, 221 Clements, Manchester, & Mathews, 2010; Mummenhoff et al., 2009), we estimated 222 phylogenies of Lepidium using newly generated sequences of L. subulatum and L. cardamines 223 as well as publicly available sequences of other species of *Lepidium*, for the nuclear ITS region 224 and the chloroplast matK gene and psbA spacer region. For ITS, we included one individual 225 each from 4 populations of L. subulatum (BAL, ECZ, TDL, SMV) that covered the entire 226 geographic range of the species. We also included one individual from one population (Orusco 227 de Tajuña) of L. cardamines. We added these to all Lepidium ITS sequences available on 228 GenBank (Clark et al., 2016), which yielded 90 species from the genus in total (including L. 229 subulatum and L. cardamines). As outgroups, we downloaded GenBank ITS sequences for 230 seven Arabidopsis species and three Cardaria species. The total data set included 408 231 accessions, with 1-59 individuals per species (Appendix 1). Sequences were aligned as 232 described above, excluding the ambiguous regions for downstream analyses. Maximum 233 Likelihood (ML) analyses were conducted in RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014) using the CIPRES 234 Science Gateway v. 3.3 (Miller et al., 2010), selecting 1000 replicates, the GTRCAT model, 235 and rapid bootstrapping. We undertook similar ML analyses on the matK and psbA data 236 generated for phylogeographic analyses (described above). However, sequences of other taxa 237 of Lepidium beyond L. subulatum and L. cardamines were not available for inclusion.

238 To understand the temporal divergence of L. subulatum, we performed a molecular 239 dating analysis using the *trnT-trnL*, *trnL* intron and *trnL-trnF* regions for 68 different species 240 of Lepidium and 12 outgroup species (Brassica napus, Cochlearia pyrenaica, and ten species 241 of Arabidopsis; see Appendix 1). Sequence alignment was performed in Aliview, excluding the 242 ambiguous regions for further analysis. The dating analysis was performed in BEAST v1.10.4 243 (Suchard et al., 2018) using the CIPRES Science Gateway v. 3.3 (Miller et al., 2010). We 244 selected three different unlinked partitions with the HKY substitution model (Hasegawa et al., 245 1985) for each partition. We used an uncorrelated lognormal relaxed clock model, which allows 246 uncorrelated rates of molecular evolution across the tree, and a birth-death process as tree prior 247 (Gernhard, 2008). We calibrated the tree at the basal node (the split point Lepidium-248 Arabidopsis), using the date obtained by Guo et al., (2017) for the crown clade "A": 16.9-20.3-249 24 Mya, constraining the calibration point with a normal distribution with mean = 20.3 and 250 standard deviation = 2.0. Then, we ran a relaxed log-normal clock with default priors to estimate 251 prior distributions to be used in a second analysis that was used to estimate priors for the final 252 analysis. BEAST analyses were run for 40 million generations, logging parameters and trees 253 every 1000 generations. Convergence, mixing, and effective sample sizes (ESS) of parameters 254 were checked using Tracer v1.5.0 (Rambaut and Drummond, 2009). A burn-in of 1000 trees 255 was removed from each analysis. The remaining trees were used to generate a maximum clade 256 credibility tree with TreeAnnotator v1.8.2 (Rambaut and Drummond, 2014).

257

258 Phylogeographic analyses—

To evaluate phylogeographic patterns within *L. subulatum*, a haplotype network using the concatenated *psbA* and *matK* sequences of each individual was estimated using PopART (Leigh and Bryant, 2015) and employing the TCS method, which is appropriate to estimate genealogies among populations (Clement et al., 2002). We also performed a ML phylogeny estimated from 263 RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014), using 10000 replicates, the GTRCAT model, and rapid
264 bootstrapping (Appendix S5).

To test the existence of historical demographic changes, Tajima's D (Tajima, 1989), Fu 265 and Li's F^* (Fu and Li, 1993) and Fu's F_S (Fu, 1997) statistics were calculated for each 266 population using DnaSP6 (Rozas et al., 2017). These tests were originally designed to assess 267 268 the neutrality of markers, but their combination is also useful to test departures from population 269 equilibrium due to historical demographic changes, bottlenecks or genetic hitchhiking (Fu, 270 1997). Thus, these tests allow for distinguishing the relative role of demographic changes or 271 other processes (like gene flow or mutation) in shaping the allele frequencies of populations. 272 While significant and positive Tajima's D values can inform us about the admixture of two 273 different populations, significant and negative Tajima's D values indicate a recent bottleneck 274 in a population (Tajima, 1989; Aris-Brosou and Excoffier, 1996). Fu's F_S is also used to test 275 for demographic expansion and it is described as more sensitive to the growth of the populations 276 than Tajima's D (Chávez-Pesqueira and Núñez-Farfán, 2016). These tests may be performed only if the populations possess more than one haplotype. 277

278

279 Intrapopulation genetic diversity—

280 We checked the presence of null alleles and genotyping errors such as allele dropouts or false 281 positive alleles due to stuttering in the nuclear microsatellites dataset, using Micro-Checker 282 2.2.3 (Van Oosterhout et al., 2004). No genotyping errors or null alleles were detected. For each 283 population, we calculated the following genetic diversity indices: P, proportion of polymorphic 284 loci; A, allele richness (mean number of alleles per locus); Arare, mean number of rarefied alleles per locus; A_e , mean number of effective alleles; H_o , observed heterozygosity ($H_o = 1 -$ 285 $\sum_{k} \sum_{i} Pkii/np$, Nei, 1987); H_e , expected heterozygosity $(H_e = \tilde{n}/(\tilde{n}-1)[1-\sum_{i} \bar{p}_i^2 - 1])$ 286 $H_{0}/2\tilde{n}$], Nei, 1987); F_{IS}, inbreeding coefficient; β , neutral genetic differentiation between 287

288 populations (from 0 to 1; Weir & Hill, 2002); the number of private alleles and the number of 289 multilocus genotypes. A, A_{rare} , H_o , H_e , F_{IS} (and their confidence intervals) and β were calculated 290 using the functions *nb.alleles*, *allelic.richness*, *basic.stats*, *boot.ppfis* and *betas*, respectively, 291 from the package hierfstat (Goudet and Jombart, 2015) as implemented in R (R Core Team, 292 2018). Rarefaction allowed for calculating the mean number of alleles per locus (A_{rare}) 293 considering equal sample sizes in all populations (note that MAR only had 10 individuals 294 sampled). A_e was calculated using the function genetic_diversity (package gstudio; Dyer, 2016), 295 the number of private alleles was calculated using the function *private alleles* and the number 296 of multilocus genotypes was calculated using function poppr, both in package poppr (Kamvar et al., 2014). 297

Genetic diversity of chloroplast markers was assessed using DnaSP6 (Rozas et al., 2017). For each population, we calculated the number of segregating sites, the number of haplotypes, haplotype diversity (Hd) and nucleotide diversity (π).

301

302 Population structure—

To assess population differentiation we calculated a pairwise F_{ST} matrix based on microsatellite markers using the *genet.dist* function (package hierfstat, Goudet & Jombart, 2015). The matrix of pairwise Nei's (D) differences between populations from chloroplast markers was calculated using the *pairnei* function (package haplotypes; Aktas, 2015). We also calculated a Euclidean geographical distance matrix between populations, performed with ecodist package (Goslee and Urban, 2007), using the UTM coordinates of each population.

To assess the distribution of genetic variation of microsatellite and chloroplast markers across regions and populations, we used Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA, Excoffier, Smouse, & Quattro, 1992). AMOVAs were performed using the *poppr.amova* function (package poppr, Kamvar et al., 2014), with 99999 permutations and excluding within-

individual variation. We performed two different AMOVAs: 1) Non-hierarchical AMOVA,
considering all populations within the same region; 2) Hierarchical AMOVA, assigning each
population to each of five geographical zones (Fig. 1).

316 To assess whether closer populations are more genetically similar, we tested for 317 isolation by distance (IBD). We performed two different Mantel correlograms (Legendre and 318 Legendre, 2012), using the pairwise genetic distance matrix calculated from microsatellite 319 markers and from chloroplast markers and the pairwise geographical distance matrix between 320 populations. While Mantel tests show the overall relationship between the genetic and the 321 geographic matrix, a Mantel correlogram compares the pairwise genetic distance matrix (F_{ST} in 322 our case) and the pairwise geographical distance matrix (Euclidean distance), which allow for 323 finding significant correlations between them at different distance classes. Each distance class 324 includes all pairs of points that are included within a specific distance. A correlation index 325 (Mantel statistic, rM) between genetic and geographical distance matrices is calculated for each 326 distance class. The size and number of distance classes was set using Sturge's rule (Legendre 327 and Legendre, 2012). Significance was tested using 99999 permutations. Mantel correlograms 328 were generated using the *mantel.correlog* function (package vegan, Oksanen et al., 2019).

329 Population genetic structure from microsatellite markers was further evaluated using the 330 Bayesian clustering algorithm in STRUCTURE v. 2.3. (Pritchard et al., 2000). This method 331 evaluates the membership of each individual to a specific genetic cluster (K). We performed 10 independent runs for each K (from K = 1 to K = 30), with a burn-in period of 10^5 iterations and 332 333 10⁶ MCMC iterations after the burn-in period, using the admixture model, where individuals 334 from different K values could have a common ancestry (Falush et al., 2003), as recommended 335 for microsatellites. We ran STRUCTURE assuming correlated and independent allele frequencies (Pritchard et al., 2000; Falush et al., 2003) and both methods provided very similar 336 337 clustering results. STRUCTURE results were extracted using Structure Harvester (Earl and vonHoldt, 2012), which were then used to generate CLUMPP input files. Then, using CLUMPP
1.1.2 (Jakobsson and Rosenberg, 2007), results from 10 runs of each *K* were combined, using
the Greedy algorithm. Membership of each individual to a specific genetic cluster was
visualized using DISTRUCT 1.1 (Rosenberg, 2004). To ensure the assignment performed by
STRUCTURE, we repeated the clustering assignment with rMavericK (Verity and Nichols,
2016), obtaining virtually the same assignment results.

344 Some recent work has drawn attention to the problems related to determining the 345 appropriate number of genetic clusters (K) (Meirmans, 2015; Janes et al., 2017). To determine 346 this, we first considered the average log probability (L_K) of the data for each K, and determined 347 the value of K for which this probability is maximized (Pritchard et al., 2000). We also 348 calculated the optimum value of K using the Evanno method (Evanno et al., 2005) implemented 349 in Structure Harvester (Earl and vonHoldt, 2012). This ad hoc method is based on changes in 350 the mean values of log probability of data at successive K values. The Evanno method and L_K 351 simplify model assumptions because these methods obtain the value of K for each assignment 352 model, so estimating the optimum value of K requires comparison between models, which is 353 not straightforward (Verity and Nichols, 2016). Thus, we also calculated K using rMavericK. 354 This software uses generalized thermodynamic integration (GTI), which has been hypothesized 355 to be more accurate and precise (Verity and Nichols, 2016). Therefore, K was calculated using 356 rMavericK, although L_K and Evanno methods provided similar results (Appendix S6).

357

358 **RESULTS**

359 Analyses of sequence data—

Information on lengths and sequence variation for all sequence alignments is provided in
 Appendix S7. In both the ITS (Appendix S8) and chloroplast (*trnT-trnL*, *trnL* intron and *trnL- trnF*; Fig. 2) trees, *Lepidium subulatum* was sister to the Iberian gypsophile *L. cardamines* (ITS)

bootstrap support = 97%; chloroplast Bayesian posterior probability = 95%). In the ITS tree, all sequences of *L. subulatum* formed a clade with high support (bootstrap support = 98%). In the *matK/psbA* tree (Appendix S5), haplotypes of *L. subulatum* and *L. cardamines* were relatively distant from each other and none were shared between the two species. The molecular dating analysis based on the chloroplast loci dated the evolutionary divergence of *L. subulatum* from 5.08 - 1.33 Mya (mean = 3.01 Mya; Fig. 2). Furthermore, the divergence of the gypsophile clade of *L. subulatum* and *L. cardamines* was dated to 5.96 - 2.05 Mya (mean = 3.86 Mya).

370 Haplotype analyses recovered 22 different haplotypes and 19 segregating sites (S). Total 371 nucleotide (π) and total haplotype diversity (Hd) across populations was 0.0038 and 0.747, 372 respectively. Twelve populations possessed more than one haplotype, while 15 populations 373 possessed one fixed haplotype for all sampled individuals (Table 2).

374 The haplotype network showed that L. subulatum was connected to its closest relative 375 L. cardamines by three mutation steps, with no shared haplotypes between the two species (Fig. 376 3). The network was complex, with one loop and three extinct or unsampled haplotypes. Despite 377 the complexity of the network, we identified four common haplotypes. The most frequent 378 haplotype (haplotype A, in blue), was found in 16 populations (in nine of them it was the only 379 haplotype present) and was distributed broadly across the Iberian Peninsula (in the north-west, 380 the center and the south). The second most common haplotype (haplotype B, in red) was 381 separated from haplotype A by one mutational step and was found mainly in 4 populations of 382 the eastern Iberian Peninsula: CAB, PDG, VAL and YEB, and one individual from VY 383 population. The third most common haplotype was haplotype C (in purple), which was 384 restricted to the Ebro River Valley. This haplotype was the most divergent, being separated by 385 many mutational steps from all other main haplotypes. The fourth most common haplotype was 386 haplotype D (in yellow), which was restricted to North Africa (ARGL and MAR) and was the 387 only haplotype found in this region. Overall, the center of the Iberian Peninsula showed the388 highest haplotype diversity.

We obtained very similar results from the phylogenetic tree based on *psbA* and *matK*. Although some of the groups were identical between the tree and the network, the low support values of some branches in the tree showed the uncertainty of relationships among some haplotypes (*e.g.*, see green haplotypes in Fig. 3 and Appendix S5).

The Mantel Correlogram based on the chloroplast markers showed that the closest populations (first distance class, 62.15 km) were significantly similar (Fig. 4a; $R_M = 0.181$, pvalue = 0.010), and populations separated by ~350 km were statistically different (Fig. 4a; R_M = -0.176, p-value = 0.041), confirming the presence of isolation by distance.

The non-hierarchical AMOVA of chloroplast loci performed with all individuals and populations showed a variation of 46.08% among populations and 53.92% within them (p-value < 0.001; Table 3). In the hierarchical AMOVA with populations grouped by their geographic location, 32.82% of the variation was explained by the geographic region (p-value < 0.001; Table 3).

In the populations with more than one haplotype, overall Tajima's *D*, Fu and Li's F^* and Fu's F_s were not statistically different from 0 (p-value > 0.05), except for SMV, which showed a significantly positive Tajima's *D* value (i.e., a higher average pairwise differences observed than expected; Table 2). Therefore, our results suggest the admixture of two distant populations in SMV population; and we did not detect demographic changes in the other populations.

407

408 Microsatellite analyses—

We found 145 different alleles among the 504 individuals, for an average of 14.5 alleles per
locus. The number of alleles per locus ranged from six (Locus 10 and 11) to 24 (Locus 4).
Microsatellite genetic diversity was high for all populations (Table 4). Most populations

412 possessed 100% polymorphic loci, except for AGR, SMV, SPP and YEB, with 90% 413 polymorphic loci. Expected heterozygosity ranged from 0.452 (SEG) to 0.681 (BAZ; Table 4). 414 Observed heterozygosity varied from 0.415 (SPP) to 0.718 (PER; Table 4). The fixation index 415 F_{IS} was low for all populations, ranging from -0.193 (PER, showing a heterozygote excess) to 416 0.237 (BAZ) and none of the populations had a F_{IS} statistically different from 0. Population-417 specific F_{ST} (β) varied from 0.064 (BAZ) to 0.379 (SEG; Table 4). The average number of 418 alleles per locus (A) ranged from 3.3 (SEG) to 7.1 (BAZ), with an overall average of 5.15 alleles 419 per locus. The rarefied mean number of alleles per locus (A_{rare}) ranged from 2.62 (CAB 420 population) to 5.65 (BAZ population), with an overall average of 4.40 alleles per locus. The 421 mean number of effective alleles per locus (Ae) varied from 1.93 (SEG) to 3.89 (BEL), with an 422 overall average of 3.06 effective alleles per locus. The number of multilocus genotypes matched 423 the number of individuals sampled in each population, except for ARA and SPP, where there 424 were two individuals with the same genotype. We found a total of 23 private alleles in 15 of the 425 26 populations, ranging from one to three per population.

426

427 Microsatellite population structure—

428 Pairwise F_{ST} values were generally low, ranging from very low (0.030) between populations 429 CHI and SMV to high (0.440) between populations SEG and SPP (Appendix S9). Results from 430 rMavericK clearly supported the presence of three different genetic clusters (K=3). L_K and the 431 Evanno method supported K=2 but also K=3 (Appendix S6). Thus, we selected K=3 that 432 allowed a clearer interpretation of the data. Based on the K=3 solution, most of the populations 433 included admixed individuals assigned to more than one genetic cluster. Four populations from 434 the Tajo river basin (ARA, BEL, SPP and YEB) and one from the Guadalquivir-Júcar-Segura 435 basins (CAB) contained individuals that were mostly assigned to one genetic cluster (blue, Fig. 5). Individuals from AGR, BAL, ECZ, PDG, TDL, TOR and VAL were mostly assigned to a 436

different genetic cluster (yellow, Fig. 5). Individuals from APG, BAZ, PER, TOP and VY were
mostly assigned to the magenta genetic cluster (Fig. 5). Finally, individuals from ALF, AZQ,
CHI, GEL, MAR, PEÑ, SEG, SMV and TER belonged to two or even three different genetic
clusters (frequently a mixture of the magenta and yellow genetic clusters; Fig. 5).

The non-hierarchical AMOVA with all individuals and populations showed that 81.37%
of variation was found within populations and 18.63% between populations (p-value < 0.001;
Table 3). There was a small but significant population structure explained by the geographical
location of the populations. In the geographic AMOVA, 2.95% of the variation was explained
by the geographic region (p-value < 0.001; Table 3).

446 The Mantel correlogram based on microsatellites did not show evidence of isolation by 447 distance (IBD). Only the closest populations (first distance class, 58.55 km) were significantly 448 similar (Fig. 4b; $R_M = 0.151$, p-value = 0.023).

449

450 **DISCUSSION**

451 Our molecular dating results suggest that the Iberian gypsophilic clade composed by Lepidium 452 subulatum and L. cardamines originated ~ 3.86 Mya (5.96-2.05 Mya) and the stem lineage of 453 L. subulatum diverged ~3.01 Mya (5.08-1.33 Mya). Thus, it is likely that the specialization to 454 gypsum soils (gypsophily) in this group appeared at some point from the latest Miocene to the 455 early Pleistocene, in the ancestor of both species. Furthermore, these dates for the divergence 456 of the study species in the Plio-Pleistocene also suggest that the paleoclimatic and geological 457 events that occurred in the Mediterranean Basin around this period could be associated with the 458 origin and further expansion of this gypsophile. First, the massive emergence at the surface of 459 gypsum soils during the Neogene consequence of evaporitic processes in the region (Escavy et 460 al., 2012) increased the probability of colonizing a novel edaphic habitat by chance (chance 461 dispersal sensu Rajakaruna, 2017; Escudero et al., 2015; Moore & Jansen, 2007), likely 462 facilitating the evolution of gypsum-restricted taxa. Second, the progressive aridification of the 463 Mediterranean basin before and during the Messinian salinity crisis (~6-5 Mya) not only 464 favored the creation of gypsum soils, but also probably acted as an evolutionary force 465 promoting the evolution of *L. subulatum* and other gypsophiles in the new climatic conditions 466 (Thompson, 2005). It has been hypothesized that certain gypsophiles may have been preadapted 467 to the global aridification that started in the mid-Miocene that subsequently colonized gypsum 468 soils (Escudero et al., 2015 and references therein). However, the availability of gypsum soils 469 in the Iberian Peninsula prior to our estimated date of origin (Escavy et al., 2012) suggests that 470 this is not the case for L. subulatum. The relatively old date of origin of the species would 471 provide enough time to colonize isolated gypsum patches and is congruent with its widespread 472 distribution in the Iberian Peninsula, even moreso when its inefficient dispersal ability is 473 considered (Escudero, Iriondo, Olano, Rubio, & Somolinos, 2000; see Moore & Jansen 2007 474 for similar patterns). Our results also agree with the estimated age of other Iberian and non-475 Iberian gypsophiles. The clade that includes Helianthemum squamatum (L.) Dum. Cours. started its diversification 4.37 Mya (8.57 - 1.65 Mya; Aparicio et al., 2017) and the clade 476 477 formed by Ferula loscosii (Lange) Willk. and its sister species diverged from their common 478 ancestor 4 Mya (6.4 – 1.6 Mya; Pérez-Collazos et al., 2009). Other North American gypsophiles 479 such as *Tiquilia hispidissima* (Torr. & A. Gray) A.T. Richardson split from its nearest relatives 480 in the early/mid-Pliocene (5 - 3.5 Mya; Moore and Jansen, 2007).

The evolutionary distinctiveness of *Lepidium subulatum* and *L. cardamines* in both the haplotype network and the ITS phylogeny is important because it reinforces the idea that past edaphic and climatic changes could be important in the origin of *L. subulatum*, compared to other evolutionary processes. The two species did not share haplotypes, which is consistent with a lack of hybridization between both species that could have resulted in chloroplast capture (Schaal et al., 1998). Nevertheless, it is important to note that existing population sampling of 487 *L. cardamines* is limited and additional sampling may reveal shared haplotypes between the 488 two species. Some authors have noted the importance of hybridization in the origin of edaphic 489 specialists (Rajakaruna, 2017 and references therein), but Ellstrand, Whitkus, & Rieseberg, 490 (1996) reported that Brassicaceae taxa are not particularly prone to natural hybridization. 491 Several aspects, including differences in their reproductive phenology (Hernández Bermejo and 492 Clemente, 1993) may have served to minimize potential hybridization between them.

493 Based on the haplotype analysis, L. subulatum may have originated in the center of the 494 Iberian Peninsula. This region shows the highest haplotype diversity (see also individual *psbA* 495 and *matK* haplotype networks in Appendix S10), suggesting that populations in this region have 496 had enough time to reach such high diversity. Furthermore, gypsum outcrops of the Tajo Valley 497 present the greatest climatic variation of the entire distribution range, which could also explain 498 the high genetic diversity found in this region. The populations of the Ebro Valley (purple 499 shades in Fig. 3) possessed the most distantly related haplotypes, which indicates that gene flow 500 via seeds between the Ebro Valley and the rest of the Iberian Peninsula has likely been limited 501 during the evolutionary history of *L. subulatum* (see Fig. 1 and Appendix S10).

502 Interestingly, North Africa populations (MAR and ARGL) are fixed for a single 503 haplotype that is closely related to the most common one. It is thus likely that the colonization 504 of North Africa occurred via a recent, long-distance dispersal event from the Iberian Peninsula. 505 Several pieces of evidence support this claim. First, our analysis estimated the mean date of 506 origin of the species after the Messinian Salinity Crisis, when the Iberian Peninsula and North 507 Africa were disconnected again by the Mediterranean Sea. Second, if L. subulatum had been 508 isolated in North Africa for at least 6-5 My (during the Messinian Salinity Crisis, when the 509 Mediterranean Sea was desiccated) we would expect a greater haplotype diversity in North 510 Africa or, alternatively, only one, much more divergent haplotype. Our results match those of 511 other studies that have found that populations from both sides of the Mediterranean Sea were

closely related as a consequence of long-distance dispersal events between the Iberian Peninsula
and North Africa (Terrab et al., 2008), suggesting that these events have not been rare within
the Mediterranean region (see Nieto Feliner, 2014 and references therein).

515 In our analyses, we did not detect significant demographic changes at the species level, 516 although 15 populations showed a fixed haplotype. These fixed populations likely experienced 517 bottlenecks caused by founder effects, likely reflecting the poor seed dispersal ability of the 518 species. However, L. subulatum showed high chloroplast genetic diversity at the species level. 519 This high haplotype diversity observed across populations in the chloroplast markers was also 520 coupled with high overall genetic diversity in microsatellite markers. Furthermore, L. 521 subulatum also exhibited high microsatellite intrapopulation diversity in all populations. These 522 high values of genetic diversity are congruent with the current high number of individuals at 523 each population, which may reach up to several thousand plants (personal observation). The 524 effective population size of organelle genes is lower than that of nuclear genes (Petit et al., 525 2005), which could explain the slightly higher values of genetic diversity found in 526 microsatellites markers in some populations. Some authors have reported that edaphic 527 specialists may be composed of genetically depauperate populations due to the specialization 528 to the substrate (see Rajakaruna, 2017 for a deeper discussion), and as such, they may constitute 529 evolutionary dead-ends. However, our results for this species show that this is not necessarily 530 the case, and agree with other studies that also found high levels of genetic diversity at the 531 landscape level in both Iberian (Matesanz et al., 2019) and non-Iberian gypsophiles (Aguirre-532 Liguori et al., 2014).

Even though genetic variation was high regardless of the type of marker, we found contrasting results for the population genetic structure inferred by microsatellites and chloroplast markers. We observed significant genetic structure in both markers, but greater geographic structure in chloroplast loci. We are aware that comparing markers with different

537 number of alleles and/or different mutation rates (e.g. nuclear microsatellites and chloroplast 538 sequence data) could bias the comparison of genetic differentiation among populations 539 (Meirmans, 2006; Jost, 2008; Verity & Nichols 2014). Jost (2008) proposed D_{est} as a nearly 540 unbiased estimator to assess genetic differentiation between populations accounting for 541 different allele numbers. The calculated Dest values of nuclear and chloroplast markers for our 542 populations are virtually identical to the computed F_{ST} values (see Appendix S11), suggesting 543 that the large difference in population structure is not an artifact due to the choice of markers, 544 but rather, it is due to eco-evolutionary processes. Because chloroplast DNA is maternally 545 inherited and nuclear DNA is biparentally inherited in our species, it is likely that the greater 546 genetic structure observed in the chloroplast data indicates that gene flow via pollen is higher 547 than via seeds in L. subulatum. Indeed, using the indices of population differentiation (F_{ST} and G_{ST}) calculated for both markers types, and applying Ennos' equation (see Appendix S12), we 548 549 estimated an effective gene flow via pollen between ~2-10 times higher than via seeds, agreeing 550 with studies reporting that pollen flow is usually higher than seed flow (Petit et al., 2005).

551 However, we did not expect such large restrictions to the movement of seeds among 552 populations in this system. In a field study assessing the role of grazing in gypsum plant 553 communities, Pueyo et al., (2008) found that livestock act as effective seed dispersal agents 554 between fragments. Accordingly, livestock practices, which often involve the movement of 555 cattle across different geographical regions in the Iberian Peninsula (Azcárate et al., 2013), 556 could have favored the movement of seeds between different L. subulatum populations, 557 reducing the high genetic structure found in chloroplast markers. However, our results show 558 limited seed dispersal, particularly between geographical regions. Specifically, the populations 559 from the Ebro Valley and North Africa were strongly different from all other populations, as 560 shown by the isolation by distance among different regions, suggesting that animals are likely 561 not playing a key role in the movement of seeds in our system, at least when long distances are

562 considered. Despite the importance of transhumance in the Iberian Peninsula, drove roads of 563 the Ebro Valley never have been connected to all others main drove roads (see Fig. 1 in 564 Manzano & Casas, 2010), which could have increased the differences between this region and 565 the rest of the Iberian Peninsula. Furthermore, several nearby populations in the same 566 geographic region did not share haplotypes (see Tajo Valley in Fig. 3), which shows limited 567 seed dispersal even across short distances. These results may also be explained by the fact that, 568 similar to other gypsophiles, seeds of L. subulatum lack obvious long-distance dispersal 569 mechanisms (Escudero et al., 2000; Moore and Jansen, 2007). Therefore, our results also 570 suggest that seed movement between distant areas may only be possible by chance long-571 distance dispersal events. The Iberian Mountain Range, which separates the Ebro Basin 572 populations from all others, could restrict seed movement between the populations from the 573 Ebro Basin and all the other populations, accounting for the high genetic differences observed 574 between this region and the rest. Similarly, the presence of the Mediterranean Sea may also 575 block seed dispersal from the Iberian Peninsula to North Africa, explaining the distinctive 576 haplotype in these populations.

577 Conversely, pollen movement does not appear to have been strongly limited between 578 populations or geographical regions, as shown by the assignment of individuals from 579 populations from different geographical regions to the same genetic cluster in microsatellite 580 analyses (Fig. 5). High pollen flow among populations and regions could be favored by the 581 presence of numerous patches of gypsum habitat among populations that would increase their 582 connectivity, allowing an efficient movement of different pollinators between populations 583 (Santamaría et al., 2018; Matesanz et al., 2019). Lepidium subulatum presents an advanced 584 phenology compared to other species of gypsum ecosystems (Hernández Bermejo and 585 Clemente, 1993; Matesanz et al., 2018) and it is possible that pollinators could actively seek the flowering plants at this early season, facilitating pollen flow to further distances. 586

Interestingly, in a few instances populations within the same region (sometimes located less than 50 km apart) possessed individuals that were assigned to different genetic clusters (Fig. 5). Although we cannot pinpoint the exact processes that modulate this complex pattern, several factors, including uneven pollen flow between populations, differential barriers to pollen flow at small scales, differences in connectivity among populations and population size could be responsible for this pattern (Aguilar et al., 2008).

593

594 **CONCLUSIONS**

595 Our results show how paleoclimatic and geological changes in Plio-Pleistocene could be 596 important in the origin and evolution of L. subulatum. The contrasting pattern of genetic 597 structure found in the nuclear and chloroplast markers, suggesting lower seed flow among 598 populations compared to pollen flow, also highlight the importance of using both maternally 599 and biparentally inherited markers to fully understand the phylogeography of plant species. 600 Furthermore, the species exhibited high values of genetic diversity in both markers, especially in microsatellites. Our results suggest that regionally dominant gypsophiles like L. subulatum 601 602 have had broad distributions and maintained high effective population sizes during their 603 evolutionary history, suggesting that these gypsophilic taxa are relatively old. Although the 604 markers used in this study inform us about the neutral genetic diversity of the populations, if 605 neutral genetic diversity and quantitative genetic diversity were correlated in populations of L. 606 subulatum, our results would suggest the existence of adaptive potential to cope with changing conditions. In this context, further studies should focus on the levels of quantitative genetic 607 608 variation of populations and whether it is influenced by the geographical location or the 609 evolutionary history of the populations.

610

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624

625 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

M.B.-S., A.E., and S.M. conceived and designed the study; M.B.-S., M.R.-M., B.P., A.G.-F.
and S.M. collected leaf samples; M.B.-S., M.R.-M., L.P. and I.I. performed the laboratory work.
M.B.-S., M.J.M., A.G.-F., M.P. and S.M. performed the statistical analysis and contributed to
the interpretation of the results; M.B.-S. led the writing of the manuscript with input from all
other authors.

631

632 DATA AVAILABILITY

Raw DNA data, microsatellite scoring, final chloroplast DNA sequence assembly and climatic
data are available on Figshare (<u>https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.c.5132882</u>). New generated
DNA sequences of *L. subulatum* and *L. cardamines* from different markers used in this study
have been submitted to GenBank (*psbA L. subulatum*: MW044696 – MW044914; *psbA L.*

- 637 *cardamines*: MW048746 MW048748; *matK L. subulatum*: MW119359 MW119565; *matK*
- 638 L. cardamines: MW048759 MW048761; ITS L. subulatum: MW067154 MW067157; ITS
- 639 L. cardamines: MW058062; trnL intron L. subulatum: MW048753 MW048755; trnL intron
- 640 *L. cardamines*: MW048749 MW048750; *trnL-trnF L. subulatum*: MW048756 MW048758;
- 641 *trnL-trnF L. cardamines*: MW048751 MW048752).
- 642

643 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

- 644 Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the supporting information section
- 645 at the end of the article.
- 646 APPENDIX S1. Voucher accessions of used specimens.
- 647 APPENDIX S2. Detailed information of microsatellite loci used.
- 648 APPENDIX S3. Detailed information of PCR reactions.
- APPENDIX S4. Molecular markers used in the preliminary screening and selected for ourstudy.
- APPENDIX S5. Maximum Likelihood phylogenetic tree based on concatenated *matK* and *psbA*
- 652 sequences.
- 653 APPENDIX S6. Graphics of the tests used to select the appropriate number of genetic clusters.
- APPENDIX S7. Final length of the alignments used in this study.
- 655 APPENDIX S8. Maximum Likelihood phylogenetic tree of *Lepidium* based on ITS sequences.
- 656 APPENDIX S9. Pairwise F_{ST} matrix from nuclear microsatellites for all sampled populations.
- 657 APPENDIX S10. Haplotype networks individually performed for *psbA* and *matK* loci.
- 658 APPENDIX S11. D_{est} values of nuclear and chloroplast markers and their comparison with F_{ST} 659 values.
- 660 APPENDIX S12. Population differentiation indices of chloroplast and nuclear markers and
- 661 ratio pollen flow-seeds flow.

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Table 1: Population code, location, geographical coordinates, elevation, and geographical region of the 27 populations of *Lepidium subulatum* L. used in this
 study.

Geographic	Population	Population	Geographical	Altitude	T. mean	T. min.	T. max.	Prec.
region	code	location	coordinates	(m asl)	(°C)	(°C)	(°C)	(mm)
	BAL	Los Balbases (Burgos, Spain)	42° 13' 20.3" N 4° 4' 30.9	"W 851	11.4	4.2	19.8	467.7
Duero Basin	PEÑ	Peñafiel (Valladolid, Spain)	41° 35' 25.0" N 4° 6' 30.1	"W 815	12.6	4.5	22.0	432.3
(DB)	SEG	Vallelado (Segovia, Spain)	41° 24' 48.5" N 4° 25' 30.3	" W 818	12.7	4.7	22.2	510.7
	TOR	Torquemada (Palencia, Spain)	42° 2' 26.6" N 4° 20' 49.3	" W 833	12.1	4.6	20.8	443.6
Ebro Posin	ALF	Alfajarín (Zaragoza, Spain)	41° 37' 25.5" N 0° 41' 52.3	" W 219	15.7	7.7	25.2	363.2
	GEL	Gelsa (Zaragoza, Spain)	41° 27' 5.3" N 0° 22' 24.6	5" W 254	15.7	7.6	25.3	367.3
EDFO Basin (FB)	PER	Peralta (Navarra, Spain)	42° 23' 22.5" N 1° 48' 38.5	5" W 385	13.6	6.1	21.9	589.9
(ED)	TDL	Tamarite de Litera (Huesca, Spain)	41° 53' 9.5" N 0° 24' 58.	5" E 418	13.8	6.0	23.0	490.0
	TER	Villalba Baja (Teruel, Spain)	40° 25' 9.7" N 1° 4' 48.2	"W 954	12.0	4.2	21.5	339.7
	AGR	Agramón (Albacete, Spain)	38º 24' 51.2" N 1º 37' 56.1	"W 388	16.9	8.9	26.4	300.6
	APG	Altiplano granadino (Granada, Spain)	37° 33' 23.5" N 3° 2' 47.9	"W 738	15.7	6.8	25.9	523.5
Guadalquivir	BAZ	Hoya de Baza (Granada, Spain)	37° 38' 0.8" N 2° 34' 37.1	"W 903	14.4	6.0	24.2	459.9
and Júcar-	CAB	Cabezo Redondo (Alicante, Spain)	38° 38' 32.9" N 0° 53' 33.5	533 W	15.7	8.2	24.4	370.7
Segura Basins	ECZ	Escúzar (Granada, Spain)	37° 3' 20.2" N 3° 44' 41.5	5" W 927	14.2	6.0	23.7	520.3
(GJSB)	TOP	Topares (Almería, Spain)	37º 52' 18.4" N 2º 11' 22.0	"W 1157	12.4	4.4	21.9	395.1
	VAL	Valdeganga (Albacete, Spain)	39° 8' 10.4" N 1° 44' 26.7	"'W 632	15.2	7.1	25.1	346.7
	VY	Venta de Yesos (Almería, Spain)	37° 5' 2.3" N 2° 17' 7.3	"W 539	16.3	9.4	24.7	254.7
	ARA	Aranjuez (Madrid, Spain)	40° 1' 51.5" N 3° 32' 54.4	" W 595	15.8	6.4	26.8	406.9
	AZQ	Aranzueque (Guadalajara, Spain)	40° 30' 23.7" N 3° 6' 47.1	"W 742	13.6	5.3	24.2	414.9
	BEL	Belinchón (Cuenca, Spain)	40° 4' 43.5" N 3° 4' 3.7"	W 706	15.1	5.8	26.0	419.2
Tajo Basin	CHI	Chinchón (Madrid, Spain)	40° 10' 13.2" N 3° 25' 59.4	"W 676	15.1	5.9	26.0	465.3
(TB)	PDG	Portalrubio de Guadamejud (Cuenca, Spain)	40° 16' 15.8" N 2° 35' 14.7	''' W 794	13.9	5.2	24.5	508.6
	SMV	San Martín de la Vega (Madrid, Spain)	40° 13' 19.2" N 3° 35' 3.3	"W 551	15.6	6.4	26.6	376.3
	SPP	San Pedro Palmiches (Cuenca, Spain)	40° 25' 51.9" N 2° 23' 51.1	"W 850	13.6	5.0	24.0	647.8
	YEB	Yebra (Guadalajara , Spain)	40° 20' 43.0" N 2° 56' 27.2	"W 718	14.3	5.6	25.1	419.8
North Africa	ARGL	Chott Ech Chergui (Algeria)	34° 17' 59.3" N 0° 40' 33.	5" E 989	16.4	6.8	27.9	257.3
(NA)	MAR	Yerada (Morocco)	34º 13' 29.4" N 2º 7' 21.2	"W 944	16.5	8.1	26.5	282.2

Population	N. of	N. of segregating	N. of	Haplotype	Nucleotide	Tajima's D	Fu and I i's F*	Fu's Fa
code	sequences	sites	haplotypes	diversity (Hd)	diversity (π)	Tajina SD		rusrs
AGR	7	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
ALF	7	1	2	0.571	0.00080	1.342	1.102	0.856
APG	8	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
ARA	8	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
ARGL	2	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
AZQ	7	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
BAL	7	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
BAZ	7	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
BEL	8	2	2	0.250	0.00070	-1.310	-1.514	0.762
CAB	8	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
CHI	7	1	2	0.286	0.00040	-1.237	-1.374	0.856
ECZ	8	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
GEL	8	6	4	0.750	0.00334	0.215	0.881	0.869
MAR	10	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
PDG	8	3	3	0.607	0.00185	0.585	0.401	0.723
PEÑ	8	2	2	0.536	0.00150	1.449	1.297	2.083
PER	8	2	2	0.571	0.00160	1.794	1.384	2.216
SEG	8	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
SMV	8	3	2	0.571	0.00239	1.982	1.541	3.149
SPP	7	1	2	0.286	0.00040	-1.237	-1.374	0.856
TDL	8	1	2	0.250	0.00035	-1.310	-1.514	0.762
TER	8	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
TOP	7	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
TOR	8	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
VAL	8	0	1	0	0	-	-	-
VY	8	2	3	0.464	0.00070	-1.310	-1.514	-0.999
YEB	8	2	2	0.250	0.00070	-1.310	-1.514	0.762
Overall	204	19	22	0.747	0.00382	-0.399	-1.640	-5.931

Table 2: Genetic diversity indices based on concatenated chloroplast *matK* and *psbA* regions for the 27 populations of *Lepidium subulatum*. Significant866values for Tajima's D, Fu and Li's F^* and Fu's F_S tests are in bold.

- **Table 3**: Results of two different AMOVA tests for microsatellite and chloroplast markers: 1) non-hierarchical AMOVA; 2) hierarchical AMOVA considering
- 868 the geographic location (regions) of the populations; df = degrees of freedom.

		Nuclear DNA				Chloroplast DNA					
AMOVA type	Source of variation	df	Sum of	Variance	Percentage	p-value	df	Sum of	Variance	Percentage	p-value
			squares		of variation			squares		of variation	
1) Non – hierarchical	Among populations	25	1544.746	1.419	18.627 %	< 0.001	26	1389.277	6.129	46.080 %	< 0.001
AMOVA											
	Within populations	982	6074.267	6.201	81.373 %		177	1269.484	7.172	53.920 %	
	Total	1007	7619.012	7.621	100 %		203	2658.760	13.302	100 %	
2) Populations grouped	Among regions	4	368.845	0.227	2.955 %	< 0.001	4	831.532	4.691	32.815 %	< 0.001
by geographic location											
	Among populations within regions	21	1175.901	1.245	16.230 %		22	557.745	2.432	17.015 %	
	Within populations	982	6074 267	6 201	80.815.%		177	1269 /8/	7 172	50 170 %	
	within populations	982	0074.207	0.201	00.013 70		1//	1209.404	1.1/2	50.170 70	
	Total	1007	7619.012	7.673	100 %		203	2658.760	14.296	100 %	

Table 4: Genetic diversity indices of the 26 populations (excluding ARGL) of *Lepidium subulatum* using 10 microsatellite loci. *N*: Number of individuals

871 sampled; *N eff*.: Effective number of individuals sampled; *P*: percentage of polymorphic loci; *A*: Mean number of alleles per locus; *A_{rare}*: Rarefied number

of alleles per locus (10 individuals, 20 genes); Ae: Mean number of effective alleles per locus; Ho: Observed heterozygosity; He: Expected heterozygosity;

 F_{IS} : Inbreeding coefficient; β : Population-specific F_{ST} coefficient.

Population	N	N eff.	Р	A	Arare	A_e	H_o	H_e	F_{IS}	β	Nb. of private	Nb. of
code											alleles	genotypes
AGR	20	18.9	90.0%	3.8	3.47	2.54	0.528	0.548	0.060	0.245	0	20
ALF	20	19.7	100.0%	5.4	4.68	3.35	0.587	0.605	0.065	0.169	0	20
APG	20	19.9	100.0%	6.1	4.87	3.50	0.574	0.580	0.024	0.203	2	20
ARA	20	19.8	100.0%	5.9	4.91	3.29	0.621	0.618	-0.002	0.150	2	19
AZQ	20	19.9	100.0%	6.0	5.11	3.80	0.669	0.662	-0.009	0.090	2	20
BAL	20	19.5	100.0%	4.8	4.11	2.56	0.463	0.515	0.171	0.292	0	20
BAZ	20	19.8	100.0%	7.1	5.65	3.86	0.520	0.681	0.270	0.064	1	20
BEL	20	19.9	100.0%	7.0	5.57	3.89	0.538	0.647	0.178	0.111	1	20
CAB	20	19.6	100.0%	3.4	2.92	2.08	0.500	0.497	0.026	0.317	0	20
CHI	20	19.9	100.0%	6.8	5.54	3.71	0.557	0.627	0.111	0.138	1	20
ECZ	20	19.1	100.0%	4.5	3.76	2.32	0.470	0.505	0.074	0.306	0	20
GEL	20	19.9	100.0%	5.6	4.78	3.41	0.594	0.608	0.049	0.165	0	20
MAR	10	9.7	100.0%	4.5	4.50	3.05	0.479	0.602	0.258	0.149	1	10
PDG	20	19.6	100.0%	5.5	4.61	3.32	0.572	0.631	0.145	0.132	0	20
PEÑ	20	20	100.0%	6.0	5.10	3.53	0.570	0.667	0.144	0.084	1	20
PER	14	13.8	100.0%	4.0	3.79	2.79	0.718	0.601	-0.093	0.164	2	14
SEG	20	19.7	100.0%	3.3	3.01	1.93	0.471	0.452	0.000	0.379	0	20
SMV	20	19.3	90.0%	5.5	4.78	3.38	0.514	0.599	0.204	0.176	1	20
SPP	20	19.7	90.0%	4.1	3.49	2.49	0.415	0.483	0.153	0.335	1	19
TDL	20	20	100.0%	5.1	4.15	2.47	0.485	0.493	0.019	0.323	3	20
TER	20	19.5	100.0%	5.3	4.41	3.07	0.561	0.602	0.066	0.172	1	20
TOP	20	19.8	100.0%	4.8	4.17	2.89	0.548	0.594	0.134	0.184	0	20
TOR	20	20	100.0%	5.6	4.83	3.38	0.640	0.635	0.008	0.127	0	20
VAL	20	19.9	100.0%	4.4	4.03	3.14	0.663	0.619	-0.043	0.150	0	20
VY	20	19.8	100.0%	5.1	4.39	3.15	0.479	0.585	0.194	0.196	2	20
YEB	20	19.8	90.0%	4.2	3.75	2.64	0.479	0.521	0.094	0.283	2	20
Overall	504	19.096	98.5%	5.15	4.40	3.06	0.547	0.584	0.089	0.196	23	502

875 APPENDIX 1

876 List of: a) GenBank accession numbers for ITS sequences used in this study (individuals with

877 only one accession number included sequence for both ITS regions). b) GenBank accession

878 numbers for *trnT-trnL*, *trnL* intron and *trnL-trnF* regions used in this study (hyphens indicate

879 missing sequences).

880 a) Arabidopsis arenicola, GQ922906; Arabidopsis arenosa 1, AAU52182; Arabidopsis arenosa 2, 881 AAU43231; Arabidopsis arenosa 3, AAU43230; Arabidopsis arenosa 4, AAU43232; Arabidopsis arenosa 882 5, AAU43233; Arabidopsis arenosa 6, AAU43229; Arabidopsis arenosa 7, AAU52181; Arabidopsis 883 croatica 1, DQ528930; Arabidopsis croatica 2, DQ528949; Arabidopsis croatica 3, DQ528826; 884 Arabidopsis croatica 4, DQ528825; Arabidopsis halleri 1, DQ528887; Arabidopsis halleri 2, DQ528882; 885 Arabidopsis halleri 3, DQ528881; Arabidopsis halleri 4, DQ528884; Arabidopsis halleri 5, DQ528883; 886 Arabidopsis halleri 6, DQ528885; Arabidopsis halleri 7, DQ528886; Arabidopsis lyrata 1, DQ528819; 887 Arabidopsis lyrata 2, DQ528815; Arabidopsis lyrata 3, DQ528820; Arabidopsis lyrata 4, DQ528814; 888 Arabidopsis lyrata 5, DQ528817; Arabidopsis lyrata 6, DQ528816; Arabidopsis lyrata 7, DQ528821; 889 Arabidopsis lyrata 8, DO528818; Arabidopsis pedemontana, DO914842; Arabidopsis thaliana 1, 890 KM892649; Arabidopsis thaliana 2, DQ528813; Cardaria chalepensis, AJ628275, AJ628276; Cardaria 891 draba, AJ628277, AJ628278; Cardaria pubescens, AJ628279, AJ628280; Lepidium affghanum, 892 DQ780948; Lepidium africanum, AJ582441, AJ582498; Lepidium aletes, FM178548, FM178549; 893 Lepidium alluaudii, AJ582436, AJ582493; Lepidium alyssoides 1, KX646435; Lepidium alyssoides 2, 894 KF022714; Lepidium angustissimum, KC174369; Lepidium apetalum 1, AJ582466, AJ582514; Lepidium 895 apetalum 2, JF976762; Lepidium apetalum 3, JF976761; Lepidium apetalum 4, JF976760; Lepidium 896 apetalum 5, JF976759; Lepidium apetalum 6, JF976758; Lepidium apetalum 7, JF976757; Lepidium 897 apetalum 8, JF976756; Lepidium apetalum 9, JF976755; Lepidium apetalum 10, JF976770; Lepidium 898 apetalum 11, JF976767; Lepidium apetalum 12, MF785672; Lepidium apetalum 13, FJ980405; Lepidium 899 apetalum 14, JF976769; Lepidium apetalum 15, JF976754; Lepidium apetalum 16, DQ310525; Lepidium 900 apetalum 17, KM892613; Lepidium apetalum 18, JF976768; Lepidium apetalum 19, JF976766; Lepidium 901 apetalum 20, JF976765; Lepidium apetalum 21, JF976764; Lepidium apetalum 22, JF976763; Lepidium 902 arbuscula, AJ582451, AJ582517; Lepidium armoracia, AJ582454, AJ582502; Lepidium aschersonii, 903 AJ582426, AJ582483; Lepidium aucheri 1, AJ582443, AJ582525; Lepidium aucheri 2, KF850569; 904 Lepidium austrinum, AJ582467, AJ582515; Lepidium banksii 1, AJ582433, AJ582490; Lepidium banksii 905 2, KC109332; Lepidium banksii 3, KC109331; Lepidium bidendatum, AJ582468, AJ582516; Lepidium 906 bipinnatifidum, AJ582446, AJ582522; Lepidium biplicatum, FM178550, FM178551; Lepidium 907 bonariense 1, AJ582458, AJ582506; Lepidium bonariense 2, HM134831; Lepidium campestre 1, 908 AJ582412, AJ582469; Lepidium campestre 2, AF055197; Lepidium capense, AJ582452, AJ582500; 909 Lepidium capitatum, FM178552, FM178553; Lepidium cardamines 1, FM178554, FM178555; Lepidium 910 cardamines 2, MW058062; Lepidium chalepense, KX646446; Lepidium crenatum, KX646437; Lepidium 911 davisii 1, KX774365; Lepidium davisii 2, FJ541491; Lepidium davisii 3, FJ541492; Lepidium davisii 4, 912 FJ541493; Lepidium davisii 5, FJ541494; Lepidium densiflorum, KX646438; Lepidium desertorum, 913 AJ582453, AJ582501; Lepidium desvauxii 1, AJ582429, AJ582486; Lepidium desvauxii 2, KC109334; 914 Lepidium dictyotum, AJ582415, AJ582472; Lepidium didymum 1, KM892610; Lepidium didymum 2, 915 KM892632; Lepidium didymum 3, KM892647; Lepidium divaricatum, AJ582437, AJ582494; Lepidium 916 draba 1, KJ623487; Lepidium draba 2, FM164554, FM164555; Lepidium draba 3, EF367913; Lepidium 917 draba 4, KU746329; Lepidium draba 5, KX774361; Lepidium draba 6, KX646439; Lepidium draba 7, 918 KX646440; Lepidium draba 8, KX646441; Lepidium draba 9, KX646444; Lepidium draba 10, 919 KX646445; Lepidium draba 11, KF022715; Lepidium fasciculatum, AJ582428, AJ582485; Lepidium 920 ferganense 1, AJ582449, AJ582519; Lepidium ferganense 2, KM892614; Lepidium flavum, AJ582444, 921 AJ582524; Lepidium flexicaule 1, AJ582430, AJ582487; Lepidium flexicaule 2, AF100685; Lepidium 922 flexicaule 3, KC109335; Lepidium flexicaule 4, KC109337; Lepidium flexicaule 5, KC109336; Lepidium 923 foliosum 1, KC109339; Lepidium foliosum 2, KC109338; Lepidium fremontii, AJ582456, AJ582504; 924 Lepidium fremontii subsp. fremontii, KX646447; Lepidium graminifolium, FN821616; Lepidium 925 heterophyllum, KX646448; Lepidium hirtum subsp. hirtum, AJ582413, AJ582470; Lepidium huberi,

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1078 Figure captions

Figure 1: a) Map of the Iberian Peninsula and North Africa showing all sampled populations
and their assignment to regions for analyses of population structure (these regions are related
to the main gypsum vegetation habitats described; Mota, Sánchez-Gómez, & Guirado, 2011);
b), c) and d) Gypsum environments at ARA, SPP and TOP, respectively; e) Individual of

Lepidium subulatum at the end of its fruiting period (mid-June); f) Flowers of L. subulatum.

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Figure 2: Maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree obtained from the BEAST analysis based on concatenated *trnT-trnL*, *trnL* intron and *trnL-trnF* sequences. Blue bars show highest posterior densities (HPD) credibility intervals and numbers above branches show mean estimated divergence time (Mya). HPD and dates for *L. subulatum* are in bold and dark blue (Bayesian posterior probability of this node= 95%).

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Figure 3: Haplotype network for 27 populations of *Lepidium subulatum*, based on concatenated *matK* and *psbA* sequences of 204 individuals. The main groups (A, B, C and D) are shown in the haplotype network. Three missing haplotypes (extinct or unsampled) are represented by small black dots in the haplotype network. The size of the different haplotypes in the network is proportional to the number of individuals with each haplotype. The size of the pie charts in the map is proportional to the number of samples in each population. Note that the location of the ARGL population is approximate. See Appendix S10 for haplotype networks for each locus.

1099 Figure 4: Mantel Correlograms calculated from a) microsatellite and b) chloroplast markers.1100 In both cases, solid squares indicate that the Mantel statistic is different from zero at the 95%

1101 confidence level. Distance classes were calculated using Sturge's rule (Legendre & Legendre,1102 2012).

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1104	Figure 5: Population structure	(K=3) inferred by Bay	yesian cluster analyses	(STRUCTURE) for
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1105 504 *L. subulatum* individuals from 26 populations. Each individual is represented by a vertical

bar in each population. The size of the boxes is proportional to the number of individualssampled in each population.











