

Characteristics of the completed chloroplast genome sequence of *Xanthium spinosum*: Comparative analyses, identification of mutational hotspots and phylogenetic implications

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Abstract

Background: The invasive species *Xanthium spinosum* has been used as a traditional Chinese medicine for many years. Unfortunately, no extensive molecular studies of this plant have been conducted.

Results: Here, the complete chloroplast (cp) genome sequence of *X. spinosum* was assembled and analyzed. The cp genome of *X. spinosum* was 152,422 base pairs (bp) in length, with a quadripartite circular structure. The cp genome contained 115 unique genes, including 80 PCGs, 31 tRNA genes, and 4 rRNA genes. Comparative analyses revealed that *X. spinosum* contains a large number of repeats (999 repeats) and 701 SSRs in its cp genome. Fourteen divergences ($\Pi > 0.03$) were found in the intergenic spacer regions. Phylogenetic analyses revealed that *Parthenium* is a sister clade to both *Xanthium* and *Ambrosia* and an early-diverging lineage of subtribe Ambrosiinae, although this finding was supported with a very weak bootstrap value.

Conclusion: The identified hotspot regions could be used as molecular markers for resolving phylogenetic relationships and species identification in the genus *Xanthium*.

Background

The structure of the majority of the flowering plant chloroplast (cp) genome consists of a pair of inverted repeats (IRs), along with large single-copy (LSC) and small single-copy (SSC) regions, and cp genome size ranges from 107 kb to 280 kb [1, 2]. With the emergence of next-generation sequencing technology [3], complete cp genome sequences are being extensively used to improve phylogenetic resolution at the interspecific level [4]. In addition, cp genomes have been found to contain polymorphic regions generated through genomic expansion, contraction, inversion, or gene rearrangement, and such sequences have been widely used as an effective tool for plant phylogenomic analyses [5].

The invasive species *Xanthium spinosum* belongs to the family Asteraceae and is within the subtribe Ambrosiinae (Heliantheae), which includes annual and perennial herbaceous plants [6]. It is native to South America and has been introduced to Canada, the United States, Central and South America, parts of Africa, the Middle East, Russia, China, Australia, and the Korean Peninsula [7–10]. The genus *Xanthium* has been widely used for various traditional medicinal treatments in multiple countries [11]. Parts of the *X. spinosum* plant are used for the treatment of cancer and diarrhea [12, 13], intermittent fever related to hydrophobia and rabies [14], and rheumatoid arthritis [15], and have antibacterial [14] and antiviral properties [14, 16–18]. Although several antimicrobial substances and their functions have been studied in *X. spinosum* over the past five decades, no exclusive genetic or genomic studies have been conducted to date.

Universal molecular markers such as the plastid genes *rbcL* and *psbA* and nuclear internal transcribed spacer (ITS) have been widely used for the rapid and precise identification of plant species but have proved unsuccessful for distinguishing very closely related species [19–21]. The genus *Xanthium* is commonly known as cocklebur, and is a close relative of the genus *Ambrosia*. The number of species in

the genus *Xanthium* remains under debate, and this genus may include 5 to more than 20 species [22–25]. Phylogenetic analyses of several plastid and nuclear DNA markers have shown conflicting results for *Xanthium* and its relatives [11]. By contrast, Somaratne *et al.* (2019) used 46 cp protein-coding genes (PCGs) to resolve the phylogenetic positions of *Xanthium* and *Parthenium* and revealed that *Parthenium* is not an early-diverging lineage of the subtribe Ambrosiinae. However, most plant cp genomes contain highly conserved structures that are useful molecular markers for the identification of plant species in genome-wide evolutionary studies; such structures provide significant quantities of genetic information and can resolve taxonomic and phylogenetic relationships [26, 27].

In the present study, we examined both plastome evolution and the phylogenetic relationships within Heliantheae. For this purpose, we first sequenced and characterized the *X. spinosum* cp genome and compared it with the *X. sibiricum* cp genome as well as those of closely related species of Heliantheae. In addition, we identified hotspot regions of sequence variation and clarified the evolutionary dynamics among *Xanthium* species.

Results

General features of the cp genome and its organization

The complete cp genome of *X. spinosum* was 152,422 bp in length. The cp genome showed a typical quadripartite structure containing two short inverted repeats (IRa and IRb) (25,075 bp) separated by a small single-copy (SSC) region (18,083 bp) and a large single-copy (LSC) region (84,189 bp) (Fig. 1). The cp genome encodes 115 unique genes, including 80 PCGs, 31 transfer RNA (tRNA) genes, and 4 ribosomal RNA (rRNA) genes. Six protein-coding, six tRNA, and four rRNA genes were duplicated in the IR regions. The overall GC content of the cp genome was 37.4%, while those of LSC, SSC, and IR regions were 35.4%, 31.2%, and 43%, respectively (Table 1).

Table 1. Comparative analysis of chloroplast genome of *X.spinosum* and *X. sibiricum*

Characteristics		<i>X. spinosum</i>	<i>X. sibiricum</i>
Size (bp)		152,422	151,897
LSC length (bp)		84,189	83,847
SSC length (bp)		18,083	17,900
IR length (bp)		25,075	25,070
Total number of genes		132	132
Protein-coding genes		87	87
tRNA genes		37	37
rRNA genes		8	8
Duplicate genes		17	17
GC content	Total (%)	37.4	37.5
	LSC (%)	35.4	35.5
	SSC (%)	31.2	31.4
	IR (%)	43	43
	CDS (%)	37.9	37.9
	rRNA (%)	55.2	55.2
	tRNA (%)	53	52.9
	All genes (%)	39.5	39.5
Protein-coding genes (%bp)		51.65	51.74
All genes (%bp)		72.5	72.89
Non-coding regions (%)		27.5	27.11

Comparative analyses of *Xanthium* species

The borders of LSC-IRb and SSC-IRa in the cp genome of *X. spinosum* were compared to three other closely related species of Heliantheae, namely, *X. sibiricum*, *Ambrosia artemisiifolia*, and *Parthenium argentatum* [28, 29] (Fig. 2). An intact copy of the *rps19* gene was present in the LSC/IRb borders of *X. spinosum*, *A. artemisiifolia*, and *P. argentatum*, as well as a shared 95 bp to 119 bp sequence in the IRb region adjacent to the *rpl2* gene. By contrast, the *X. sibiricum* *rps19* gene was completely shifted to the LSC region, 71 bp away from the IRb region, despite the *rpl2* gene being present at the LSC/IRb border. In addition, 154–175 bp of the fragmented *rps19* gene in all four species was present at the IRa/LSC, LSC/IRa regions or its border. On the other hand, $\psi ycf1$ was present in the IRa/SSC border of *X. spinosum*, whereas it was located in the IRb or silenced in the SSC region of *X. sibiricum* and *A. artemisiifolia*, and was situated in the SSC region of the *P. argentatum* cp genome. The entire *ndhF* gene was present in the SSC region of all four cp genomes. Similarly, an intact *ycf1* gene was present in the SSC/IRa region of all of the cp genomes analyzed, except *P. argentatum*, which has a 565 to 583 bp

fragment of *ycf1* in the IRa region. However, *P. argentatum* encodes two copies of $\psi ycf1$ in its genome. The *trnH* gene sequences are located in the LSC region 0 to 118 bp from the IRa/LSC border in all cp genomes.

The cp genomic sequences of four Heliantheae species were analyzed using mVISTA software to detect variation among the sequences (Fig. 3). The sequence divergence differed markedly among regions. The data revealed that the non-coding region was more divergent than its coding counterparts. Relative to the LSC and SSC regions, IR regions of all cp genomes were less divergent.

Repeat structure and SSR analyses

The presence of repeat sequences in the *X. spinosum* and *X. sibiricum* cp genomes was analyzed and the species were compared. Repeats in the *X. spinosum* cp genome consist of 264 forward, 256 palindromic, 251 reverse, and 228 complement. By contrast, *X. sibiricum* contained 18 forward, 15 palindromic, 6 reverse, and 2 complement repeats (Fig. 4a). In total, *X. spinosum* and *X. sibiricum* contain 999 repeats and 41 repeats, respectively. Among the 999 repeats identified in *X. spinosum*, repeats of 30–39 bp in length (983) were predominant in the cp genome; the longest repeat was 115 bp and was a palindrome sequence. Similarly, in *X. sibiricum*, 34 repeats were 30–39 bp in length, and the longest was a palindromic sequence of 177 bp (Fig. 4b).

In total, 701 and 705 simple sequence repeats (SSRs) were identified in the *X. spinosum* and *X. sibiricum* cp genomes, respectively. The 701 SSRs in the *X. spinosum* cp genome included 247 (35.24%) mono-nucleotide repeats, 30 (4.3%) di-nucleotide repeats, 58 (8.3%) tri-nucleotide repeats, 67 (9.6%) tetra-nucleotide repeats, 80 (11.4%) penta-nucleotide repeats, 112 (15.98%) hexa-nucleotide repeats, 31 (4.42%) 7-nucleotide repeats, and 76 other repeats ranging from 8 nucleotides to 27 nucleotides (10.84%) (Fig. 5a). Similarly, the cp genome of *X. sibiricum* contained 250 (35.46%) mono-nucleotide repeats, 28 (3.97%) di-nucleotide repeats, 63 (8.94%) tri-nucleotide repeats, 74 (10.5%) tetra-nucleotide repeats, 81 (11.49%) penta-nucleotide repeats, 114 (16.18%) hexa-nucleotide repeats, 32 (4.54%) 7-nucleotide repeats, and 63 repeats with lengths from 8 nucleotides to 21 nucleotides (8.94%). Furthermore, the distributions of SSRs in the LSC, IR and SSC regions of *X. spinosum* and *X. sibiricum* indicated that the corresponding cp genomes contain 483 and 481 SSRs in the LSC, 91 and 93 in the IR, and 127 and 131 in the SSC regions (Fig. 5b). Likewise, SSRs were analyzed in the protein-coding (exon, protein-coding exon), intron and intergenic spacer (IGS) sequences of *X. spinosum* and *X. sibiricum*, which indicated that their cp genomes contain 244 and 252 SSRs in CDs, 69 and 69 in introns and 388 and 384 in IGS regions, respectively (Fig. 5c).

Nucleotide diversity analyses

The nucleotide diversity of 208 regions was analyzed using DnaSP software, including 79 PCGs and 129 intergenic and intron regions in the cp genomes of *X. spinosum* and *X. sibiricum*. The most variable region was *infA* (0.03) among PCGs (Fig. 6a), and high variability was observed for the *trnH-psbA* (0.05), *psbA-trnK* (0.06), *trnK* exon2-*matK* (0.09), *psbI-trnS* (0.05), *ycf3-trnS* (0.07), *trnF-ndhJ* (0.21), *ndhC-trnV*

(0.13), *trnV* intron (0.07), *petD-rpoA* (0.05), *infA-rps8* (0.18), *rpl14-rpl16* (0.05), *rpl16-rps3* (0.03), *psaC-ndhD* (0.09) and *trnL-rpl32* (0.08) genes in introns and intergenic regions (Fig. 6b; Table 2).

Table 2. Mutational hotspots between *X. spinosum* and *X. sibiricum*

S. No.	Region	Nucleotide diversity (Pi)	Total number of mutations	Region length (bp)
1	<i>trnH - psbA</i>	0.04774	19	398
2	<i>psbA - trnK</i>	0.05714	12	210
3	<i>trnK</i> exon 2 - <i>matK</i>	0.09286	26	280
4	<i>psbI - trnS</i>	0.04667	7	150
5	<i>ycf3 - trnS</i>	0.06838	56	819
6	<i>trnF - ndhI</i>	0.20940	49	234
7	<i>ndhC - trnV</i>	0.12551	123	980
8	<i>trnV</i> intron	0.07360	29	394
9	<i>petD - rpoA</i>	0.05181	10	193
10	<i>infA - rps8</i>	0.18189	22	121
11	<i>rpl14 - rpl16</i>	0.04673	5	107
12	<i>rpl16 - rps3</i>	0.03226	5	155
13	<i>psaC - ndhD</i>	0.08621	10	116
14	<i>trnL - rpl32</i>	0.08088	44	544

Synonymous (K_S) and nonsynonymous (K_A) substitution rate analyses

The synonymous and nonsynonymous substitution rates were evaluated for 79 PCGs in the *X. spinosum* and *X. sibiricum* cp genomes. The K_A/K_S ratios of nearly all genes were less than 1, except for the PCG *accD* (1.56) (Fig. 7).

Positive selection analyses of the *accD* gene

Positive selection of the *accD* PCG in Heliantheae cp genome species was investigated using site-specific models with four comparisons (M0 vs. M3, M1 vs. M2a, M7 vs. M8, M8a vs. M8), using a likelihood ratio test (LRT) threshold of $p \leq 0.05$ in EasyCodeML software. Among these models, M2a was the positive selective model and p (p_0 , p_1 and p_2) are the proportions of negative or purifying, neutral, and positive selection, respectively. The ω_2 value of the *accD* gene was 3.70 in the M2a model. In addition, Bayes empirical Bayes (BEB) analyses were used to analyze the locations of consistent selective sites in the *accD* PCG using the M7 vs. M8 model comparison, and one site was found to potentially be under

positive selection, with posterior probabilities greater than 0.95, while another site had probabilities greater than 0.99 (Table 3); the $2\Delta\text{LnL}$ value was 25.91 and the p -value of LRT was 0 (Table 4).

Table 3. Comparison of site models, positive selective amino acid loci and estimation of parameters for *accD* protein-coding genes in the Heliantheae species.

Protein-coding gene	Model	np	Ln L	Estimates of parameters				Model compared	LRT P-value	Positive sites
<i>accD</i>	M3	45	- 1567.812	p:	0.05791	0.85997	0.08211	M0 vs. M3	0	[]
	M0	41	- 1597.602	ω:	0.22724	0.22724	3.70209			
	M2a	44	- 1567.812	ω0:	0.36846			M1a vs. M2a	0.000196255	Not Allowed
	M1a	42	- 1576.349	p:	0.91789	0	0.08211			
				ω:	0.22724	1	3.70208			
				p:	0.82957	0.17043		M7 vs. M8	0.000002362	35 S 0.936, 42 R 0.963*, 98 H 0.701, 129 Q 0.685, 177 S 0.616, 181 S 0.765, 184 N 0.519, 185 A 1.000**, 187 A 0.905
	M8	44	- 1567.829	ω:	0.11911	1				
				p0=0.91839 (p1= 0.08161)	p=29.41052 ω= 3.72034	q=99.00000				
	M7	42	- 1580.784	p=	0.07226	q=	0.08717	M8a vs. M8	0.000032257	Not Allowed
	M8a	43	- 1576.468	p0=0.82999 (p1= 0.17001)	p=13.67839 ω= 1.00000	q=99.00000				

Note:

[] – No data available

np represents the degree of freedom

Positively selected sites (* $p > 95\%$; ** $p > 99\%$)

Table 4. Comparison of likelihood ratio test (LRT) statistics of positive selection models against their null models ($2\Delta\text{LnL}$) for the *accD* gene.

Protein-coding genes	Comparison between models	$2\Delta\text{LnL}$	<i>d.f.</i>	<i>p</i> -value
<i>accD</i>	M0 vs M3	59.579136	4	0
	M1 vs M2A	17.07219	2	0.0001963
	M7 vs M8	25.91159	2	0.0000024
	M8a vs M8	17.27995	1	0.0000323

Phylogenetic analyses

In all, 71 PCGs from 21 cp genome sequences were selected for inferring phylogenetic relationships among closely related species of Heliantheae, and *Ligularia fischeri* (MG729822) was selected as an outgroup. A maximum likelihood tree was constructed using 71 concatenated PCGs in the cp genomes. The genus *Xanthium* was closely related to the genus *Ambrosia* (Fig. 8). Our analyses showed that *Parthenium* was a sister clade to both *Xanthium* and *Ambrosia*, and also an early-diverging lineage of the subtribe Ambrosiinae with a weak bootstrap value (57%).

Discussion

The single circular cp genome structure of *X. spinosum* was similar to that of *X. sibiricum* with a typical quadripartite structure and equal GC content (37.45%) unevenly distributed across the cp genome. Relative to the LSC and SSC regions, the GC content is greater in IR regions across both cp genomes, possibly due to the presence of four extremely conserved rRNA genes with high GC content in these regions. The expansion and contraction of IR regions was the main cause of variation in cp genome size, and assessing these differences could shed light on the evolution of related taxa [30, 31]. The cp IR boundary regions of *X. spinosum* were compared to those of closely related species, and little difference was found, except for position changes in *ψycf1*. The sizes of the four cp genomes (*X. spinosum*, *X. sibiricum*, *A. artemisiifolia*, and *P. argentatum*) were not affected. Moreover, the length of each region and the total genome size were similar to those of most plant cp genomes reported previously [32].

Repeat units, which are dispersed in cp genomes at high frequency, play a significant role in genome evolution [33–36]. Our comparative analyses of *X. spinosum* and *S. sibiricum* cp genomes showed a 24.4-fold higher level of repeats in *X. spinosum*. An earlier study reported that variation in the number and type of repeats may play a major role in plastome organization; however, we found no correlation between these large repeat regions and rearrangement endpoints [37]. SSRs, also known as microsatellite repeats [38, 39], are common in the cp genome, and these sequences display a high level of polymorphism, supporting their use as a genetic marker in previous investigations [40, 41]. The contents of different types of SSRs and their distributions among cp regions were similar in *X. spinosum* and *X. sibiricum*. Multiple definitions of repeat motifs and repeat number within motifs have been used in the literature; our SSR definition aligns with those of Bilgen *et al.* [42] and Karaca *et al.* [43].

The cp genomes of *Xanthium* showed less variation in non-coding regions than in their coding counterparts. The LSC region exhibited higher divergence levels than the IR and SSC regions (Fig. 6c). Specifically, the two IR regions were least divergent, perhaps due to the presence of four highly conserved rRNA sequences in those regions. The average nucleotide diversity (π) of intergenic regions was 0.0170, almost four times as high as that of PCGs ($\pi = 0.004195$), revealing that intergenic regions show greater divergence (Fig. 6D).

Not all PCGs are phylogenetically useful for determining taxonomic discrepancies [44]. In previous studies, several plastid and nuclear DNA markers from non-coding regions have been used to resolve the phylogenetic position of *Xanthium* species, leading to inconsistent results [11]. Hence, the use of the additional markers and broader taxonomic sampling are required to achieve greater phylogenetic resolution at low taxonomic levels [11, 45]. Therefore, in the present study, we proposed a set of 14 divergent regions between *X. spinosum* and *X. sibiricum* to resolve taxonomic discrepancies and provide a genetic barcode for the genus *Xanthium*. All of these regions are intergenic spacer regions, which might be useful for the development of molecular markers to use in phylogenetic and phylogeographic studies. The 14 sequences identified in the present study are extremely polymorphic compared to the sequences used in previous studies [6, 11, 45]. Based on our data, molecular markers can be developed for these intergenic regions that may be used for phylogenetic, phylogeographic, and barcoding studies of *Xanthium*. Moreover, this is the first report of the development of genetic markers based on these regions

and their use to distinguish among *Xanthium* species. In addition, the nucleotide substitution rate and BEB analyses revealed that the *accD* gene may be under positive selection, and other positively selected sites detected in the present study may drive the *accD* PCG, supporting the occupation of various habitats [46, 47]. The earlier studies indicated that the gene *accD* encoded plastid beta carboxyl transferase subunit of acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACCase) which is important for the proper chloroplast and as all stages of leaf growth [48], leaf longevity [49], fatty acid biosynthesis [50,51] and embryo development [52]. Hence, the *accD* gene may have been involved in adaptation to specific ecological niches during the radiation of dicotyledonous plants [53].

Over the past few years, numerous plastid genome databases have been reported, offering an important foundation for resolving evolutionary, taxonomic, and phylogenetic questions in plants [54-60]. Our phylogenetic analyses showed that the genus *Xanthium* is most closely related to the genus *Ambrosia*. Several previous studies have used various methods including cladistic analyses [61, 62], cp restriction site variation assessments [63], and sequence analyses [11, 64] to understand the position of *Xanthium*, and these have shown that it is most closely related to *Ambrosia* species. Previous phylogenetic studies have shown that the genus *Parthenium* is an early-diverging lineage of the subtribe Ambrosiinae based on three plastid and two nuclear markers. We obtained consistent results, but with weak bootstrap support (57%). Somaratne *et al.* [6] suggested that *Parthenium* is not an early-diverging lineage of the subtribe Ambrosiinae, however, their phylogenetic analysis included only 46 cp PCGs. By contrast, we analyzed 71 PCGs in the present study, and the results suggest that *Parthenium* is an early-diverging lineage of subtribe Ambrosiinae.

Conclusion

We aimed to expand the molecular genetic resources available for the species *X. spinosum* through high-throughput sequencing and cp genome assembly. The structural characteristics of the *X. spinosum* cp genome is similar to other angiosperms. However, fourteen highly variable regions were detected and suggested as potential markers for future barcoding and phylogenetic studies of *Xanthium* species. Hence, the sequence data for the complete *X. spinosum* cp genome could be used as to distinguish among *Xanthium* species and resolve the phylogenetic relationships within the Ambrosiinae lineage.

Methods

DNA extraction and sequencing of *Xanthium spinosum*

Leaf material of *Xanthium spinosum* was obtained from Dr. George A Yatskievych, Curator, Plant Resources Center, University of Texas Herbarium (19–056), Austin, Texas, USA. Total genomic DNA was extracted using a modified cetyltrimethylammonium bromide method [65]. Illumina sequencing was carried out by LabGenomics, Seongnam, South Korea, using the Illumina HiSeq 2500 sequencing system. A paired-end library (150x2) was constructed with an insert size of 350 base pairs (bp). Read quality was analyzed with FastQC v0.11.9 [66] and low-quality reads were removed with Trimmomatic 0.39 [67]. The

resultant clean reads were filtered using the GetOrganelle v1.6.0 pipeline (<https://github.com/Kinggerm/GetOrganelle>) to obtain plastid-like reads, and then the filtered reads were assembled *de novo* using SPAdes v3.12.0 [68]. The complete cp genome sequence of *X. spinosum* and its gene annotation were submitted to GenBank (MT668935).

Annotation of *X. spinosum* cp genome

The online program Dual Organellar GenoMe Annotator (DOGMA) was used to annotate the cp genome sequence of *X. spinosum* [69]. The initial annotation, putative starts, stops, and intron positions were fine-tuned through comparison with homologous genes in the closely related species *X. sibiricum* [6]. Transfer RNA genes were validated using tRNAscan-SE v1.21 with the default settings [70]. The program OGDRAW v1.3.1 was employed to draw a circular map of the *X. spinosum* cp genome [71].

Comparative cp genome analyses

The mVISTA program, which uses the Shuffle-LAGAN model, was employed to compare the cp genome of *X. spinosum* with three closely related cp genomes from *X. sibiricum*, *Ambrosia artemisiifolia*, and *Parthenium argentatum* using the *X. spinosum* annotation as a reference [72]. The boundaries between IR and SC regions of these species were also compared and investigated.

Repeat sequence and simple sequence repeats (SSRs) analyses

The program REPuter was used to predict the presence of repeat sequences in the *X. spinosum* and *X. sibiricum* cp genomes, including forward, reverse, palindromic, and complementary repeats [73]. The following parameters were used to identify repeats with REPuter: Hamming distance 3, minimum sequence identity of 90%, and repeat size > 30 bp. Phobos software v1.0.6 was employed to identify SSRs in the *X. spinosum* and *X. sibiricum* cp genomes; the match, mismatch, gap, and N positions parameters were set to 1, -5, -5, and 0, respectively [74]. For repeat and SSR marker analyses, only one IR region was used.

Analyses of genetic divergence

To analyze genetic divergence, the PCGs, intergenic, and intron-containing regions of the *X. spinosum* and *X. sibiricum* cp genomes were extracted and aligned independently using Geneious Prime v2020.1.2 (Biomatters, New Zealand). Genetic divergence between these *Xanthium* species was calculated based on nucleotide diversity (π) and the total number of polymorphic sites using DnaSP v5.10.01 [75]. For this analysis, gaps and missing data were excluded.

Characterization of substitution rates

To calculate the synonymous (K_S) and nonsynonymous (K_A) substitution rates, the cp genome of *X. spinosum* was compared to that of *X. sibiricum*. Corresponding single-functional PCG exons were extracted from both genomes and aligned independently using Geneious Prime v2020.1.2 (Biomatters,

New Zealand). The aligned sequences were translated into protein sequences and analyzed using DnaSP v5.10.01 to obtain K_A and K_S substitution rates without stop codons.

Positive selection analyses

Positive selection (M2a and M8) and control (M1a, M7, and M8a) models provided in EasyCodeML software v1.21 [76] were used to identify the occurrence of positive selection ($\omega > 1$) on the *accD* locus in Heliantheae cp genomes. The sequence of the *accD* gene was aligned using the program MAFFT v1.4.0 [77], and the maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree was constructed using RAxML v7.2.6 [78]. The site-specific model was used to calculate nonsynonymous (K_A) and synonymous substitution (K_S) rates using EasyCodeML. The codon substitution models M0, M1a, M2a, M3, M7, M8, and M8a were analyzed. The likelihood ratio test was used to identify positively selected sites in comparisons of M0 (one-ratio) vs. M3 (discrete), M1a (neutral) vs. M2a (positive selection), M7 (β) vs. M8 (β and $\omega > 1$) and M8a (β and $\omega = 1$) vs. M8 using a site-specific model [76]. The likelihood ratio test (LRT) for these comparisons was used to evaluate the selection strength and p -values of less than 0.05 from the chi-square (χ^2) test were considered significant. If the LRT p -values were significant (<0.05), the Bayes Empirical Bayes (BEB) method was implemented to identify codons under positive selection. BEB values higher than 0.95 and 0.99 indicate sites that are potentially under positive selection and highly positive selection, respectively.

Phylogenetic tree analyses

A phylogenetic tree was constructed using 71 PCGs from 21 Asteroideae cp genomes, with *L. fischeri* as the outgroup. A total of 20 complete cp genome sequences were downloaded from the NCBI Organelle Genome Resource database. The aligned PCG sequences were saved in PHYLIP format using Clustal X v2.1 [79], and phylogenetic analyses were conducted based on the maximum likelihood (ML) method and the GTR model using RAxML v7.2.6 with 1000 bootstrap replications [78].

Declarations

Acknowledgments

Not applicable.

Author contributions

SJP, JHK, and GR conceived and designed the experiments. KP performed the experiments. GR analyzed the data and prepared a draft of the manuscript and figures. SJP, JHK, and GR modified the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Availability of data and materials

The dataset generated and or analysed during the current study is deposited in the genebank with accession number: MT668935. The phylogenetic genome datasets used and analysed in this study were retrieved from the National Center for Biotechnology Information Organelle Genome Resource Database.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The plant was obtained from Dr. George A Yatskievych, Curator, Plant Resources Center, University of Texas Herbarium (19–056), Austin, Texas, USA with Institutional guidelines.

Consent to publish

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Abbreviations

cp, chloroplast; LSC, large single-copy; SSC, small single-copy; IR, inverted-repeats; tRNA, transfer RNA; rRNA, ribosomal RNA; K_S , synonymous substitution; K_A , nonsynonymous substitution; ω , nonsynonymous vs. synonymous ratio; SSR, simple sequence repeats; LRT, likelihood ratio test; π , nucleotide diversity.

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Figures

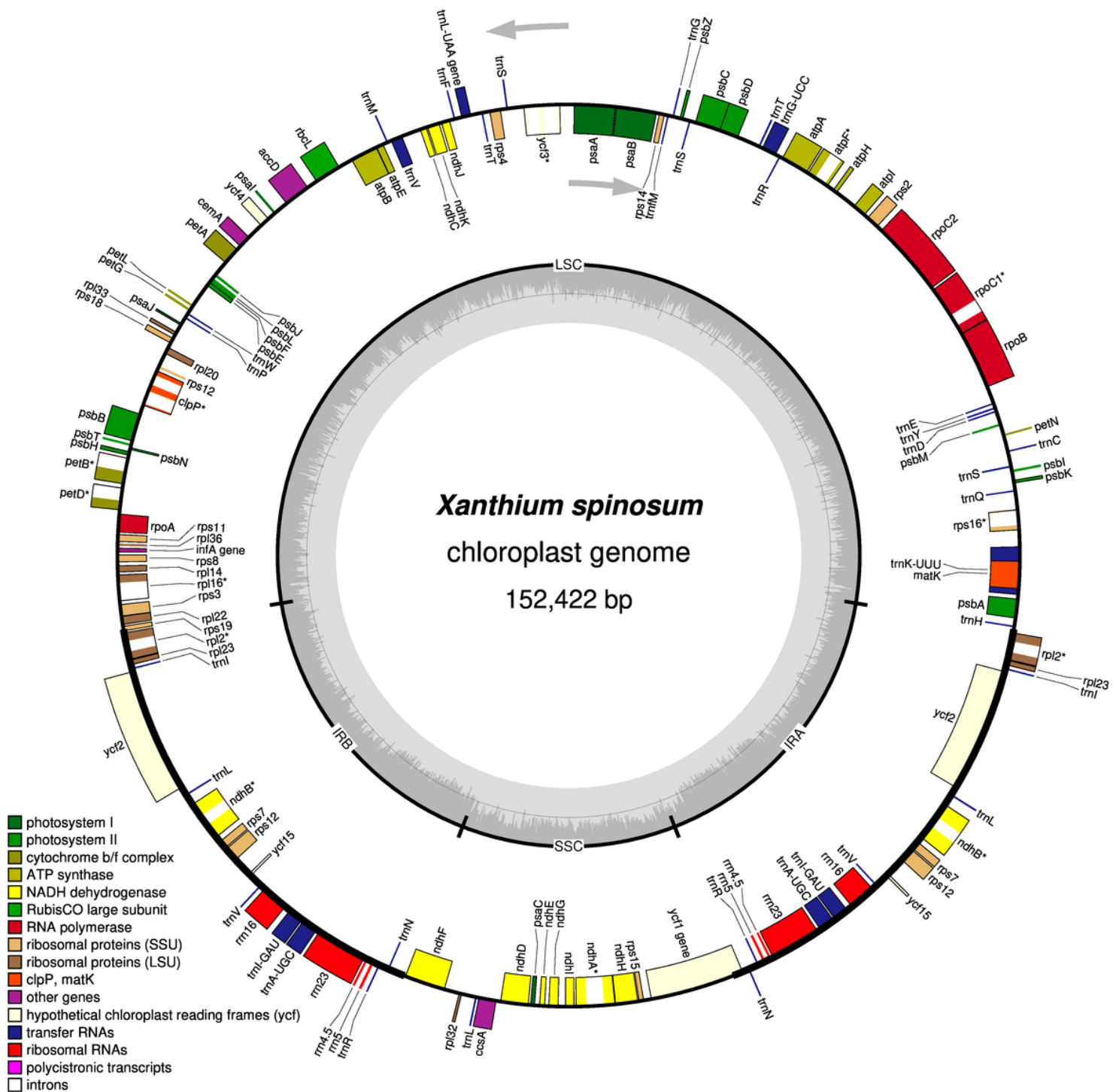


Fig. 1

Figure 1

Gene map of *Xanthium spinosum*. Genes lying outside the outer circle are transcribed in a counter-clockwise direction, and genes inside this circle are transcribed in a clockwise direction. The coloured bars indicate known protein-coding genes, transfer RNA genes, and ribosomal RNA genes. The dashed, dark grey area in the inner circle denotes GC content, and the light grey area indicates genome AT content. LSC, large single-copy; SSC, small single-copy; IR, inverted repeat.



Fig. 2

Figure 2

Comparison of the large single-copy (LSC), small single-copy (SSC) and inverted repeat (IR) border regions of four Heliantheae (*Xanthium spinosum*, *X. sibiricum*, *Ambrosia artemisiifolia* and *Parthenium argentatum*) chloroplast genomes. Ψ indicates a pseudogene. The figure is not drawn to scale.

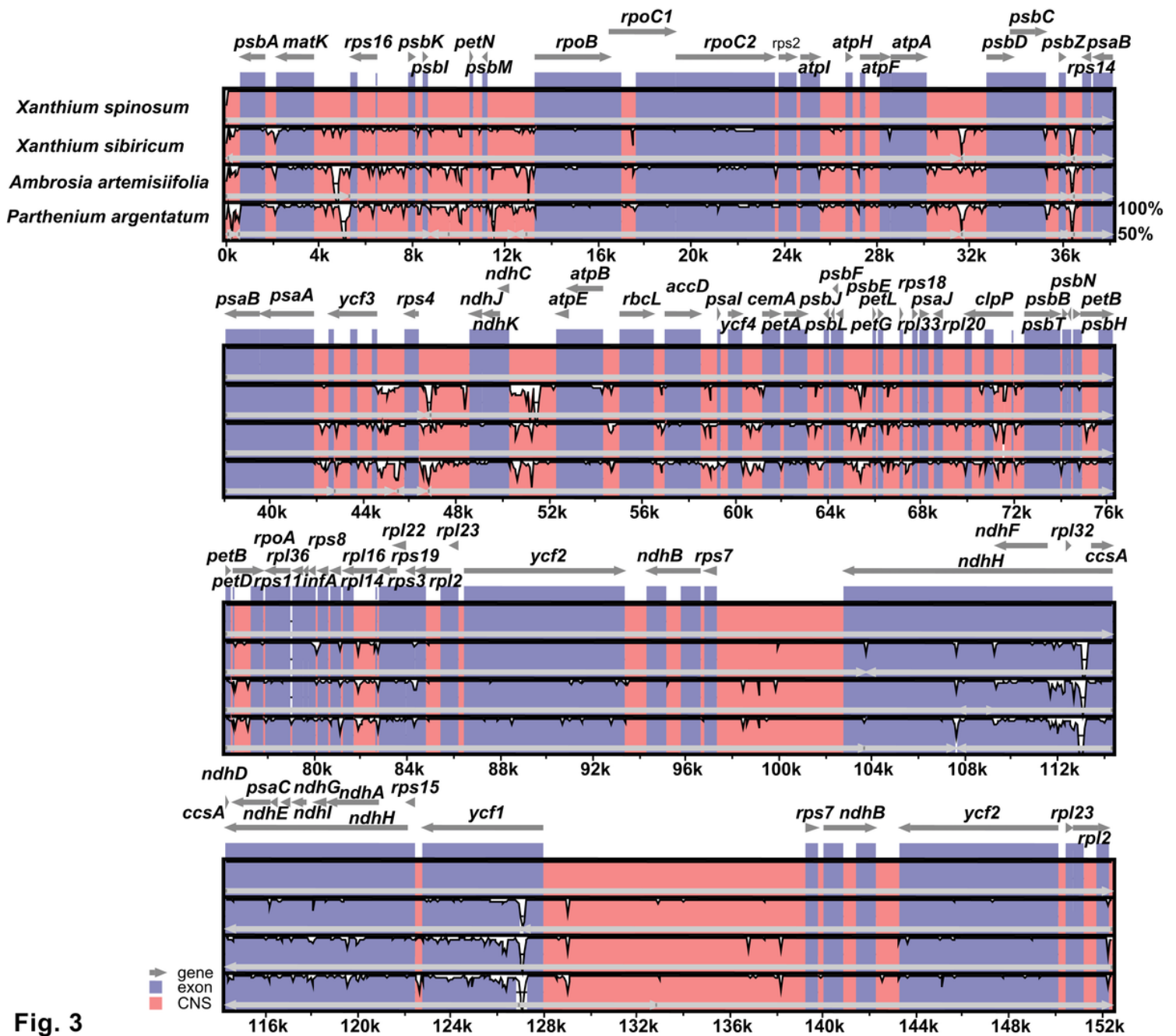


Fig. 3

Figure 3

Sequence alignment of four Heliantheae chloroplast genomes performed using the mVISTA program with *Xanthium spinosum* as a reference. The top grey arrow shows genes in order (transcriptional direction) and the position of each gene. A 70% cut-off was used for the plots. The y-axis indicates a percent identity of between 50 and 100%, and the red and blue areas indicate intergenic and genic regions, respectively.

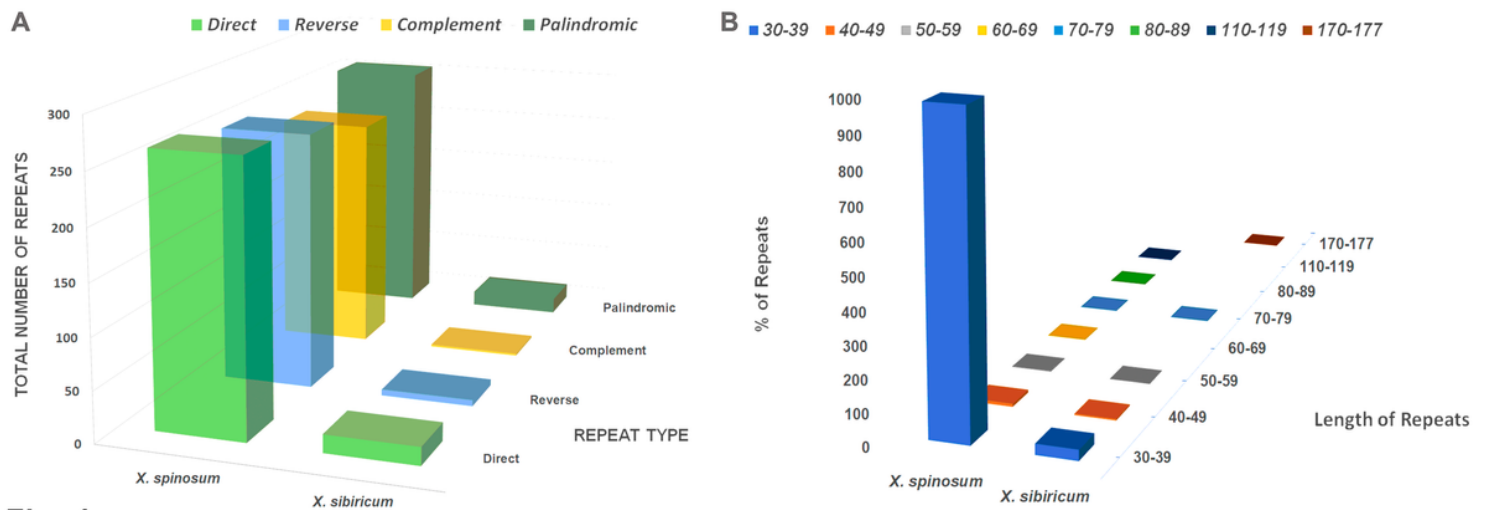


Fig. 4

Figure 4

Comparison he distribution of different repeat types in the Xanthium spinosum vs. X. sibiricum cp genomes. (A) The number of different types of repeats. F – forward repeats; R – Reverse repeats; P – palindromic repeats; C – complement repeats. (B) The length and the total number of repeat sequences present in their respective cp genomes.

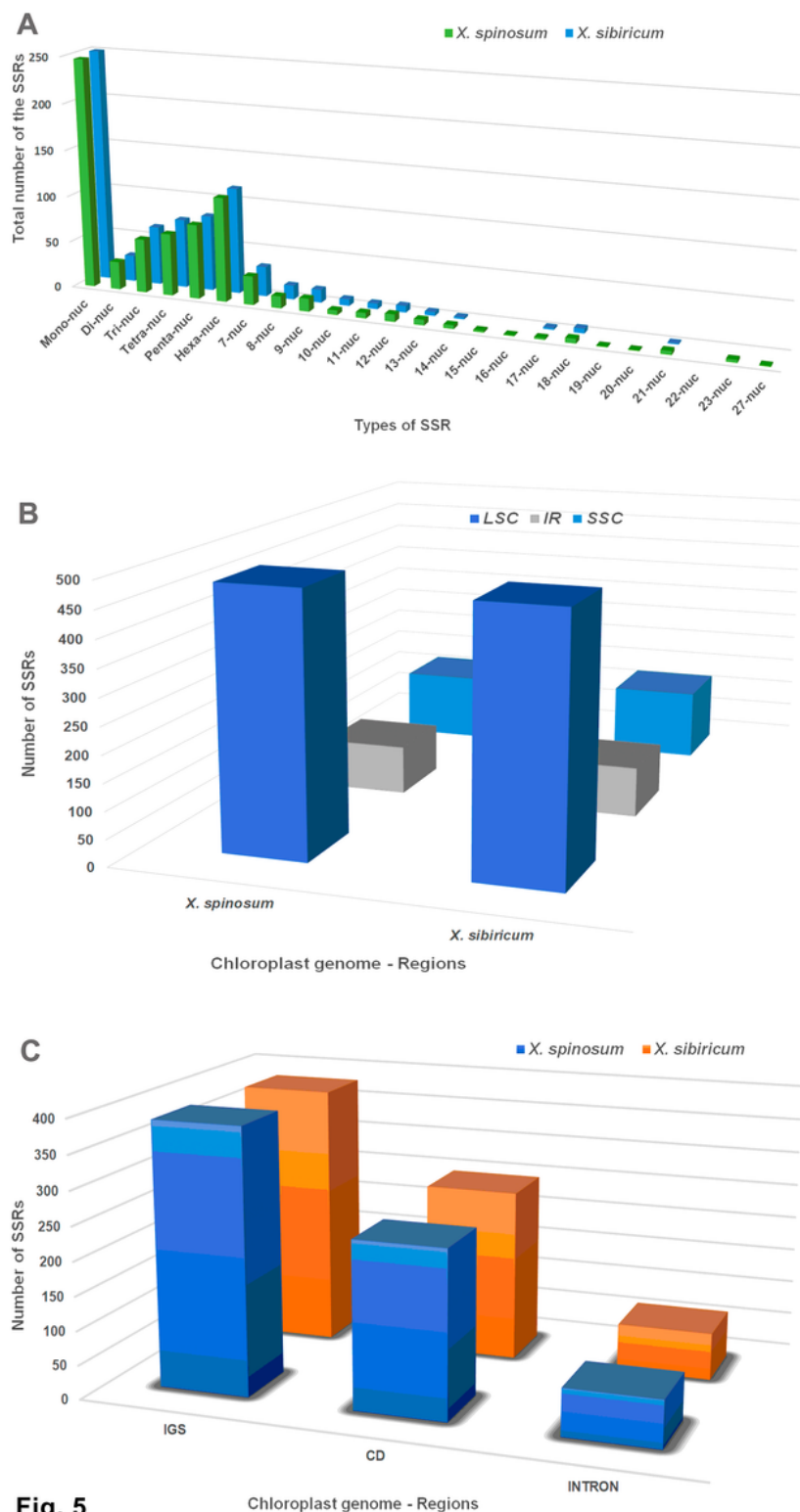


Fig. 5

Figure 5

Comparison the presence of simple sequence repeats (SSRs) in the *Xanthium spinosum* vs. *X. sibiricum* cp genomes. (A) Distribution of different types of SSRs. (B) Presence of SSRs in the LSC, SSC, and IR regions. (C) Presence of SSRs in intergenic spacers, protein-coding regions, and intron regions.



Figure 6

The genetic diversity based on Kimura’s two-parameter model. (A) The P-distance value of protein-coding genes (B) the P-distance value of intron and intergenic regions (C) Boxplots of P-distance value difference among LSC, IR and SSC regions (D) Boxplots of P-distance value differences between protein-coding genes and intron and intergenic regions.

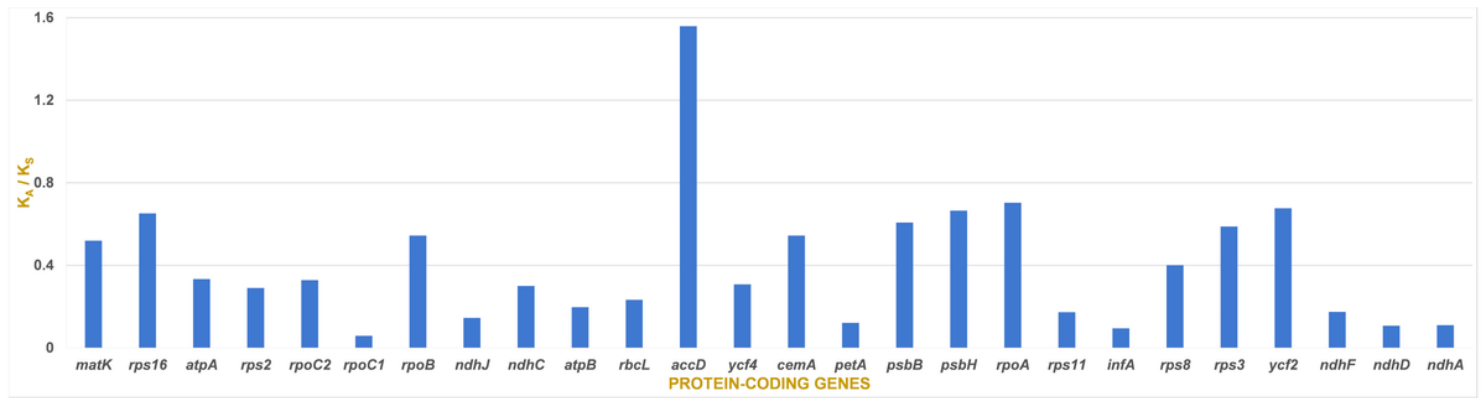


Fig. 7

Figure 7

Comparison the ratio of non-synonymous (KA) to synonymous (KS) substitutions of 79 protein-coding genes of Xanthium spinosum vs. X. sibiricum cp genomes

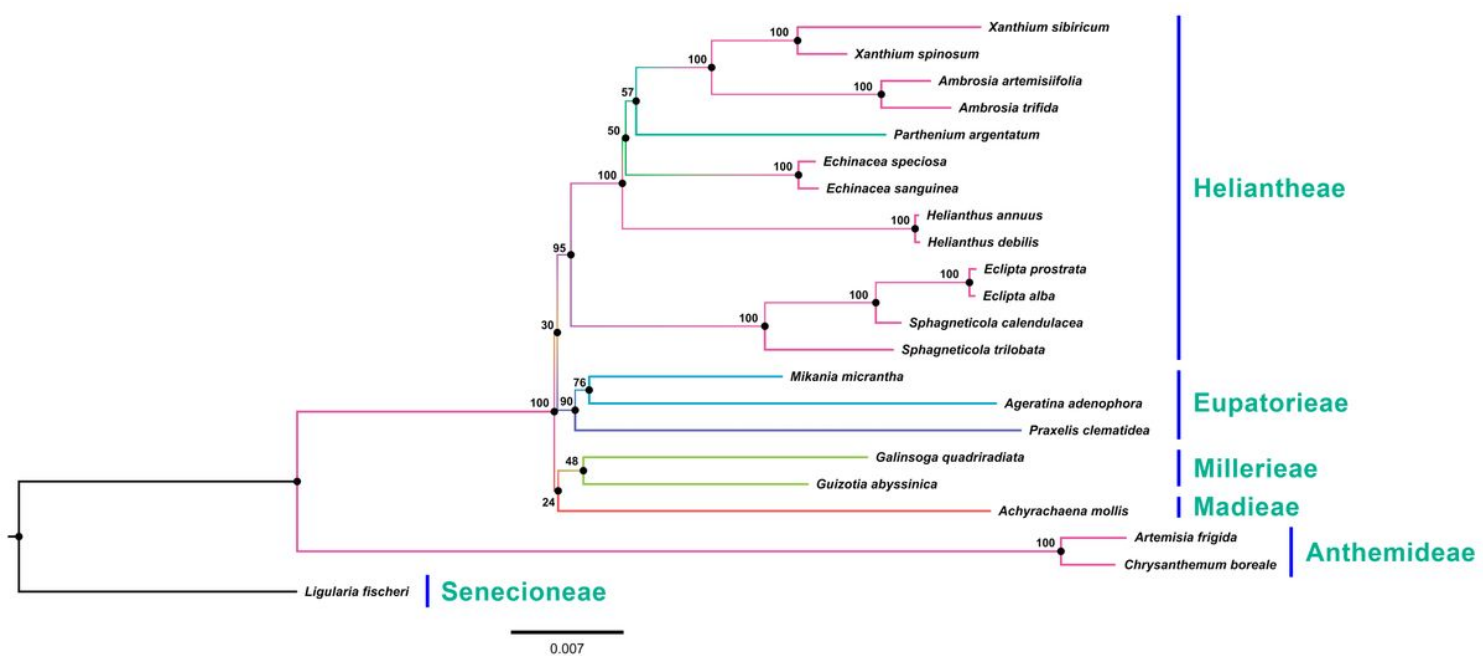


Figure 8

Molecular phylogenetic tree based on 79 protein-coding genes of 21 Asteraceae chloroplast genomes. Achyrachaena mollis set as the outgroup. The tree was constructed by maximum likelihood analysis of the conserved regions using the RAxML program and the GTRI nucleotide model. The stability of each

tree node was tested by bootstrap analysis with 1,000 replicates. Bootstrap values are indicated on the branches, and the branch length reflects the estimated number of substitutions per 1,000 sites.