

1 **Backcrossing to different parents produced two distinct hybrid species**

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11**Abstract** Repeated homoploid hybrid speciation (HHS) events with the same parental
12species have rarely been reported. In this study, we used population transcriptome
13data to test paraphyly and HHS events in one conifer *Picea brachytyla*. All analyses
14identified and supported non-sister relationships for the two lineages of *P. brachytyla*.
15The southern lineage was placed within the re-circumscribed *P. likiangensis* species
16complex (PLSC) while *P. brachytyla sensu stricto* (s.s.), comprising only the northern
17lineage, parallels both PLSC and the closely related *P. wilsonii*. In addition, both
18phylogenetic and coalescent analyses suggested that *P. brachytyla* s.s. arose from
19homoploid hybrid speciation between the ancestor of the PLSC before its
20diversification (into the current varieties or species), and *P. wilsonii*, through an
21intermediate hybrid lineage at an early stage and backcrossing to the ancestral PLSC.
22These two parental ancestors also produced another homoploid hybrid species, *P.*
23*purpurea*, in the same way but at a later stage, through the same extinct lineage but
24backcrossing to the other parent, *P. wilsonii*. We reveal the first case that
25backcrossing to different parents of the same extinct hybrid lineage produced two
26different hybrid species. Our results highlight the existence of more reticulate
27evolution during species diversification in the spruce genus and more complex
28homoploid hybrid events than have previously been identified.

29**Key words:** homoploid hybrid speciation, *Picea brachytyla*, population transcriptome
30data, polyphyly, extinct hybrid lineage

31Introduction

32Hybridization between two distinct species may generate a new species without any
33change in ploidy level (Rieseberg *et al.*, 2003; Nolte and Tautz 2010). This
34phenomenon, homoploid hybrid speciation (HHS), seems to occur more commonly
35than was previously assumed (e.g. Rieseberg 1997; Gross and Rieseberg 2005;
36Mavarez *et al.*, 2006; Hermansen *et al.*, 2011; Nieto Feliner *et al.*, 2017; Lamichhaney
37*et al.*, 2018), although only a few of these cases fulfill the strict criterion of Schumer
38*et al.*, (2014) that hybridization created reproductive isolation (RI) of the hybrid
39species from its parents. However, such RI may occur through inheriting parental
40genetic incompatibilities (Schumer *et al.*, 2015; Brennan *et al.*, 2019), although this is
41difficult to prove, especially in trees, by QTL or other methods. Revealing more
42candidate HHS cases is therefore very useful in increasing our understanding of
43reticulate species diversification even when there is no direct evidence of RI caused
44by hybridization (Nieto Feliner *et al.*, 2017).

45 Here we aim to examine the homoploid hybrid origin of *Picea brachytyla sensu*
46*stricto* (s.s.), from a genus in which all the recognized species or varieties are diploids
47(Wright 1955). The traditional circumscription of this species comprises two non-
48sister lineages, the southern lineage in Yunnan province and the northern one in
49Sichuan and Chongqing province (Ru *et al.*, 2016; Lyu *et al.*, 2020). The southern
50lineage (*P. brachytyla*-southern lineage) shares a recent ancestor with three varieties
51(vars. *likiangensis*, *rubescens* and *linzhiensis*) of *P. likiangensis* as a species complex
52(PLSC), and it may have originated from a common radiation with strong gene flow
53and historical hybridization (Sun *et al.*, 2018). The northern lineage, which contains
54the population where the type specimen was collected, comprises *P. brachytyla* s.s.,
55paralleling PLSC and *P. wilsonii* (Lyu *et al.*, 2020). However, phylogenetic analyses
56of a few individuals of *P. brachytyla* s.s. suggested that it is more closely related to *P.*
57*likiangensis* (species complex), based on nuclear loci, or to *P. wilsonii*, on the basis of
58chloroplast DNA sequences (Ran *et al.*, 2015; Shen *et al.*, 2019; Shao *et al.*, 2019).
59Further population genetic analyses based on more individuals supported these

60inferences (Lyu *et al.*, 2020). In addition, *P. brachytyla* combines morphological traits
61of *P. likiangensis* and *P. wilsonii* (Fu *et al.*, 1999; Lyu *et al.*, 2020). Taken together,
62the conflicting phylogenetic relationships and intermediate morphological traits
63suggest a likely hybrid origin of *P. brachytyla* s.s. from two other species (or species
64complexes) (Shen *et al.*, 2019; Shao *et al.*, 2019; Lyu *et al.*, 2020). *P. brachytyla* s.s.
65occurs in low-altitude humid valleys while the PLSC is distributed in high-altitude
66mountains and *P. wilsonii* is found in northern low-altitude but relatively dry
67mountains (Fu *et al.*, 1999; Lyu *et al.*, 2020). It should be noted that another species,
68*P. purpurea*, was shown to have also originated through hybridization between *P.*
69*likiangensis* and *P. wilsonii* (Sun *et al.*, 2014; Ru *et al.*, 2018). Thus, similar to HHS
70in sunflowers (Rieseberg *et al.*, 1997), more than one diploid hybrid species may have
71originated from the same parents in the group. In addition, var. *rubescens* of *P.*
72*likiangensis* was found to have species-specific nuclear ancestry from *P. purpurea*
73based on population genetic structure analyses (Ru *et al.*, 2018), large-scale shared
74genetic variations from introgression (Sun *et al.*, 2018) and inconsistent phylogenetic
75relationships based on different DNA sequences (Shen *et al.*, 2019; Shao *et al.*, 2019).
76This variety may be better excluded from the PLCS while the *P. brachytyla*-southern
77lineage should be added to the PLCS when modelling likely HHS events between
78PLSC and *P. wilsonii*. All these findings suggest that the hybridization history and
79circumscription of these lineages and their ancestors are more complex than expected
80and that further detailed studies are needed.

81 In the present study, we used population transcriptomic data to trace the
82evolutionary origin of *P. brachytyla* s.s. We present, for the first time, transcriptome
83data for 78 individuals of *P. brachytyla* and related species. We added previously
84published transcriptome data from more 114 individuals of all related species to carry
85out comprehensive analyses. We aimed to address the following questions: (1) Do
86population genomic data support polyphyly of *P. brachytyla*? How should the PLSC
87best be defined? (2) Did *P. brachytyla* s.s. originate through homoploid hybridization
88between the common ancestor of the PLCS and *P. wilsonii*, or bifurcate from one of

89these with further gene flow from the other? (3) If it originated through HHS, did *P.*
90*brachytyla* s.s. originate earlier or later than *P. purpurea* as a result of hybridization
91between the same parents?

92Material and methods

93Material and RNA sequencing

94We collected and re-sequenced transcriptomes of 78 individuals (Table S1) for both
95lineages of *P. brachytyla* and related species or taxa (*P. farreri*, *P. wilsonii*, and *P.*
96*purpurea*) following the methods of Ru *et al.*, (2018). We used an Illumina HiSeq
972500 platform to generate 150 bp paired-end raw reads and deposited data sets for all
98individuals in BioSample (average number of raw bases > 6 Gb; Table S1). We
99further downloaded transcriptomes of 108 individuals of this species and others
100published earlier (three varieties of *P. likiangensis*, vars. *likiangensis*, *linzhiensis* and
101*rubescens*, *P. wilsonii* and *P. purpurea*; Ru *et al.*, 2016, 2018; Feng *et al.*, 2019; Shen
102*et al.*, 2019; Shao *et al.*, 2019). A total of 186 individuals from the core distribution of
103each taxon were used for our subsequent analyses (Fig. 1 and Table 1). For population
104sampling, the individuals collected were spaced at least 500 m apart. Individuals from
105the regions of contact of any two taxa likely, according to the literature, to have
106undergone high levels of gene flow in the recent past were excluded. For all
107phylogenetic analyses, *P. breweriana* was used as outgroup.

108Read mapping and individual variant calling

109We used “mem” in Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (BWA) version 0.7.10 (Li and Durbin
1102009) with default parameters to align the high-quality reads to both the *P. abies*
111reference transcriptome and the chloroplast (cp) reference genome (Nystedt *et al.*,
1122013) following our previous methods (Ru *et al.*, 2018). For the cp genome, PCR
113duplicates in the alignments were marked and removed before calling variants using
114the program MarkDuplicates.jar from PICARD ver. 1.129
115(<http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/>), followed by local realignment around each
116indel using Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK) (Danecek *et al.*, 2011). Single
117nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were extracted using “mpileup” in SAMTOOLS
118ver. 1.8 (Li *et al.*, 2009) based on the uniquely mapped reads for all individuals. We
119set the minimum base quality (-Q) and mapping quality (-q) to 20 and 30 respectively.
120To obtain high quality variants for the two references, we filtered our raw SNPs with
121the following criteria using a custom Perl script: (1) SNPs located within a 5-bp
122window of an InDel; (2) SNPs with a phred-scaled quality score <20; (3) SNPs with
123>20% missing bases within each species. Additionally, bases with depth of coverage
124(DP) <10 were set to be missing for each individual (Chapman *et al.*, 2013; Li *et al.*,
1252013; Wang *et al.*, 2013; Li *et al.*, 2014). Finally we filtered variant sites with
126minimum allele frequency <0.01 (to ensure that at least 4 alleles were found in our

sample set) using VCFTOOLS ver. 0.1.14 (Danecek *et al.*, 2011) to reduce the false discovery rate. For convenience, we refer to the nuclear transcriptomic sequences and cpDNA sequences as the N-RNA-seq dataset and C-RNA-seq dataset respectively.

Nucleotide diversity and population Differentiation

The nucleotide diversity π (Nei and Li 1979) and the population differentiation index F_{ST} (Weir and Cockerham 1984) between populations were calculated using VCFTOOLS (Danecek *et al.*, 2011) on the N-RNA-seq dataset. For the calculation of mean genome-wide F_{ST} , the negative values were reassigned to zero. In addition, we calculated the d_{XY} value (Foote *et al.*, 2016) per locus, which is the average number of nucleotide substitutions, using a custom Perl script.

Phylogenetic Tree Reconstruction

For the N-RNA-seq dataset, we constructed a neighbor-joining (NJ) tree using TreeBeST (<http://treesoft.sourceforge.net/treebest.shtml>) with 1,000 bootstrap replications performed to assess the branch reliability. For the C-RNA-seq dataset, we used only 69 individuals representing all taxa and their distributions for phylogenetic analyses in order to reduce the time required to identify cp genome (= plastome) variations. A maximum-likelihood (ML) tree was constructed using RAxML ver. 8.1.20 (Stamatakis 2014) with the GTRCAT model and 200 bootstrap replicates. The NJ and ML trees were viewed using TreeView ver. 1.6.6 and FigTree ver. 1.4.0 (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>) respectively.

Population Structure and Admixture Analyses

The N-RNA-seq dataset was thinned by LD values to reduce the linkage disequilibrium effect using PLINK ver.1.07 (Purcell *et al.*, 2007; Danecek *et al.*, 2011) with the parameter `--indep-pairwise 50 5 0.2`, resulting in a set of ~0.21 Mb SNPs for population structure and admixture analyses. A principal component analysis (PCA) was performed using the smartpca program from the EIGENSOFT package ver. 6.0.1 (Price *et al.*, 2006), while eigenvectors were generated with the R function `region`. A Tracy–Widom test was performed in R to determine the significance level of the eigenvectors. ADMIXTURE ver. 1.23 (Alexander and Lange 2011) was used to perform an unsupervised ancestry component analysis, with the K value (number of assumed ancestral components) ranging from 2 to 10. For each K , 200 bootstrap replicates were performed to calculate cross-errors (CV). The optimal K value was indicated by the lowest CV values among the numbers assumed.

Species-level transcriptome assembly

We obtained high quality reads for each sample by trimming adapter sequences, Poly-N, and low quality bases and discarding reads with fewer than 36 bases after trimming from the raw data using Trimmomatic (Bolger *et al.*, 2014) with the following

parameters: ILLUMINACLIP:adapter.fa:2:30:10 LEADING:3 TRAILING:3
SLIDINGWINDOW:4:20 MINLEN:36.

We assembled the species-level transcriptome of *P. brachytyla* s.s. using randomly selected individuals from each of the populations examined (marked with a dark green color in Table S1) using Trinity ver. 2.6.6 (Grabherr *et al.*, 2011) with default parameters based on pooled libraries to reduce the gene loss caused by random variation in expression as much as possible. Similarly, the species-level transcriptome of *P. wilsonii* was obtained by the same method as before (Ru *et al.*, 2018). For the *P. likiangensis* species complex (PLSC), we selected one individual from each of the sampled populations of two varieties of *P. likiangensis* (var. *linzhiensis* and var. *likiangensis*), the *P. brachytyla* southern lineage in Yunnan and *P. farreri* (marked with a light green color in Table S1). We excluded *P. likiangensis* var. *rubescens* from PLSC because our preliminary ADMIXTURE analyses suggested that this variety shared many species-specific nuclear elements from another hybrid species, *P. purpurea*, because of the second hybridization history. To obtain a high-quality transcriptome, the following analyses were performed: (1) A set of non-redundant, representative sequences for the assembled transcriptome was retained by CD-HIT ver. 4.6.1 (Huang *et al.*, 2010) with a threshold value of 0.95; (2) Coding and peptide sequences in the open reading frame were predicted by TransDecoder ver. 2.0.1 (Haas *et al.*, 2013) following the instructions described in the relevant wiki (<https://github.com/TransDecoder/TransDecoder/wiki>). This involved (1) extracting the long open reading frames, (2) identifying ORFs with homology to known proteins via Blast or Pfam (Finn *et al.*, 2016) searches, and (3) predicting the likely coding regions. In addition, the high-quality transcriptome generated from the above steps was further processed to remove bacterial contaminants using BLAST ver. 2.2.30+ (Camacho *et al.*, 2009) and the longest transcripts were extracted with a custom Perl script. The completeness of assembled transcriptome was assessed using BUSCO analyses with embryophyta database (<https://busco.ezlab.org/>).

Phylogenetic analyses of the orthologous sequences of four species or species complex

To identify orthologous genes for phylogenetic analyses, we used OrthoMCL (Li *et al.*, 2003) to delineate gene families and cluster all genes into paralogous and orthologous groups based on species-level transcriptomes of the four species or species complex. The results were used to generate a 1:1:1:1 orthologous gene dataset for *P. brachytyla* s.s., *P. wilsonii*, PLSC, and *P. breweriana* (outgroup) with a custom Perl script.

The amino acid sequences for each ortholog group (OG) were aligned with MAFFT ver. 7.313 (Katoh and Standley 2013), and trimmed to exclude poorly aligned regions using TrimAl v1.2 (Capella-Gutierrez *et al.*, 2009) with “-fasta -gappyout -colnumbering”. The protein-coding nucleotide sequences for each OG were aligned based on the corresponding amino acid alignments using PAL2NAL v14 (Suyama *et al.*, 2006) to ensure the correct reading frames.

205 We then constructed phylogenies per gene using RAxML's rapid bootstrap
206 algorithm under the GTRGAMMA model with 100 bootstrap replicates to find the
207 best-scoring ML tree. We restricted this analysis to those groups satisfying the
208 following criteria: sequence length great than 300 bp with '-' character excluded. The
209 gene trees obtained that had less than 70% bootstrap support were excluded from
210 further analysis. A custom R script was used to count the number of resulting
211 phylogenies showing different topologies.

212 The 3,305 orthologous gene trees with more than 70% bootstrap support for
213 branches were used to infer interspecific relationships with PhyloNet ver. 3.6.1 (Than
214 *et al.*, 2008; Yu *et al.*, 2014). Rooted trees were converted into the required input
215 format with a custom Perl script. Maximum likelihood with parametric bootstrap
216 networks (using the command InferNetwork_MPL) in a coalescent framework, with
217 both incomplete lineage sorting and gene flow taken into account, was inferred using
218 PhyloNet allowing 0, 1 and 2 reticulations in 100 runs to return the best network.

219 We applied a K_s -based method to estimate divergence between species pairs. K_s
220 values for each species pair were calculated using the ML method implemented in
221 codeml of the PAML package (Yang 1997) under the $F3 \times 4$ model (Goldman and
222 Yang 1994). All pairs with a K_s value of less than 0.001, which would include
223 transcript isoforms as well as recent tandem duplications, were discarded and not
224 considered in the time estimation.

225 Testing HHS using coalescent simulations based on population genomic data

226 To examine evolutionary relationships among PLSC, *P. brachytyla* s.s. and *P.*
227 *wilsonii*, we used fastsimcoal2 ver. 2.6.0.3 (Excoffier *et al.*, 2013) to compare
228 predefined demographic models using coalescent simulations based on the site
229 frequency spectrum of all sampled individuals of these species. We included only the
230 four-fold Degenerate Synonymous Sites (4DTV) when constructing two-dimensional
231 joint site frequency spectra (2D-SFS) for each pair of species with ngsTools
232 (Fumagalli *et al.*, 2014). As we did not have information about the ancestral state, we
233 treated the transcriptome of *P. abies* as both the reference and the ancestral state.
234 After that, we folded all the 2D-SFSs with the 'fold' function implemented in $\partial a \partial i$
235 ver. 1.7.0. (Gutenkunst *et al.*, 2009). In total, we used 16 different evolutionary
236 models (Fig. S3), of which 11 (model1-model11) represented dichotomous or
237 radiative topologies with or without gene flow after divergence, five (model12-
238 model14) represented classical models of homoploid hybrid speciation via a single
239 hybridization event with or without migration/size-change after divergence, and two
240 (model15-model16) represented models of hybrid speciation involving a ghost
241 intermediate hybrid lineage in the origin of *P. brachytyla* s.s.

242 For each model, we performed 100,000 coalescent simulations to estimate the
243 expected 2D-SFS and computed log-likelihoods based on simulated and observed 2D-
244 SFS matrixes. Global maximum likelihood estimates for each model were obtained
245 from 50 independent runs, with 30-50 conditional maximization algorithm cycles. The
246 relative fit of each of the different demographic models to the data was evaluated

247using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), and the model with the minimum AIC
248value was determined as the optimal. We assumed a mutation rate of 4.01×10^{-8} per
249site per generation and a generation time of 50 years (De La Torre *et al.*, 2017; Li *et*
250*al.*, 2010). A parametric bootstrapping approach was used to construct 95%
251confidence intervals with 50 independent runs for each bootstrap.

252 We used the reduced PLSC (with var. *rubescens* excluded) to examine the HHS
253origin of *P. brachytyla* s.s. because var. *rubescens* contains numerous introgressions
254from *P. purpurea*, which was assumed to originate from the same parents (Ru *et al.*,
2552018). This introgression, and/or the likely hybrid origin through *P. purpurea*, may
256complicate the modelling results. We further examined the diploid hybrid origin of *P.*
257*purpurea* from the reduced PLSC and *P. wilsonii*. We examined four alternative
258speciation models for the origin of *P. purpurea* because we had tested multiple
259models and all models suggested that this species originated through HHS (Ru *et al.*,
2602018) (Fig. S4). We tested which of four HHS models fit the reduced PLSC. Then we
261combined the origins of *P. brachytyla* s.s. and *P. purpurea* together to outline the
262evolutionary relationships among the reduced PLSC, *P. wilsonii*, *P. brachytyla* s.s.
263and *P. purpurea*.

264Ecological niche modelling

265Current potential distributions of the standard PLSC (including var. *rubescens*), *P.*
266*brachytyla* s.s. and *P. wilsonii* were used to examine niche divergences between them
267using the maximum entropy method in MAXENT version 3.4.1 (Phillips, Anderson
268and Schapire 2006; Phillips, Dudík and Schapire 2018) based on 105, 42, and 63
269locations obtained from field observation and herbarium records of, respectively, the
270PLSC, *P. brachytyla* s.s. and *P. wilsonii* (Table S11). The parameters were set as: 20
271replicates, a maximum of 5,000 iterations, 25% random test points, a threshold rule of
27210 percentile training presence applied and a convergence threshold of 0.00001.
273Climate data at a 2.5 arc minute resolution were downloaded from the WorldClim
274database (version 1.4, <http://www.worldclim.org>). Altitude data were downloaded
275from the SRTM elevation database (<https://www2.jpl.nasa.gov/srtm/>) and then
276projected to the same resolution as the climate data with ARCGIS. In total, 20
277variables were collected and pairwise Pearson's correlation coefficients (*r*) (Dormann,
278*et al.*, 2013) were calculated with ENMTools version 1.4.4 (Warren *et al.*, 2008;
2792010). Over-correlated variables (Pearson's correlation ≥ 0.7) were excluded to avoid
280adverse effects (e.g. bias fitting) on the results.

281 Niche differences between each pair of species were calculated based on
282Schoener's D (Schoener 1968) and Warren's I statistics (Warren *et al.*, 2008), where a
283value of 0 indicates no niche overlap and 1 identical niches.

284Results

285Sampling, Sequencing and Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP) Calling

In total, we generated transcriptomes for 78 individuals of *P. brachytyla* and related species and downloaded the previously published transcriptomes of 108 individuals (Table S1, sample IDs starting with SRR) for the present analyses. After quality control, we retained an average of 46.37 million (M) reads (50.50 M raw reads) with 6.18 billion (G) clean bases per individual (Table S1). The *de novo* transcriptome assemblies for *P. brachytyla* s.s. and PLSC produced, respectively, 222,203 and 231,370 transcripts with N50 values of 549 and 667 after redundancy reduction and open reading frame (ORF) prediction. The numbers of total assembled bases, total Trinity transcripts, and genes, and the average contig length, contig N50, and percent GC, are similar to those for transcriptomes of *P. likiangensis*, *P. purpurea* and *P. wilsonii* from previous work (Ru *et al.*, 2018) (Table S2). These assembled transcriptomes all with more than 80% BUSCO completeness (Table 2), but they have a larger number of contigs with lower N50 than the transcriptome of *P. abies* (Table S2) have a larger number of contigs with lower N50 than the transcriptome of *P. abies*, and we therefore mapped the quality-filtered reads to the revised transcriptome of *P. abies* as we did previously (Ru *et al.*, 2016) and called SNPs for each individual. The average mapping rate for all individuals was 56.6%, with the average coverage of the reference transcriptome assembly being 73.9% and a 48.50-fold average effective depth (Table S1).

A total of 10,237 contigs with 339,165 SNPs were retained using our strict criteria after SAMTools calling. *P. likiangensis* (including all of the varieties), *P. brachytyla* s.s., *P. wilsonii*, *P. farreri*, *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage and *P. purpurea* contained 160,394, 180,329, 160,224, 99,459, 116,558, 140,250 SNPs respectively (Table S3). Among *P. likiangensis*, *P. brachytyla* s.s. and *P. wilsonii*, 31,319 SNPs were specific to *P. brachytyla* s.s., 35,314 SNPs to *P. wilsonii* and 30,505 SNPs to *P. likiangensis* (Fig. S1A). The number of SNPs shared between *P. brachytyla* s.s. and either *P. likiangensis* (119,636) or *P. wilsonii* (114,657) was higher than that between *P. likiangensis* and *P. wilsonii* (95,536) (Fig. S1A). Among *P. likiangensis*, *P. farreri* and *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage, 41,626 SNPs were specific to *P. likiangensis*, 2,545 to *P. farreri* and 3,898 to *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage (Fig. S1B). About 88.51% SNPs (88,028 of 99,459) of *P. farreri* were shared between *P. farreri* and *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage but *P. farreri* still shared more with *P. likiangensis* (94,136 of 99,459) (Fig. S1B).

Nucleotide Diversity and interspecific Differentiation

Nucleotide diversities (π) of *P. likiangensis*, *P. brachytyla* s.s., *P. wilsonii*, *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage, *P. farreri* and *P. purpurea*, were all similar (Table S4). Mean genome-wide differentiations (F_{ST}) between every pair out of the six taxa were greater than 0.05, except for that between *P. farreri* and *P. likiangensis* (0.043 ± 0.052). The F_{ST} value between *P. likiangensis* and *P. wilsonii* (0.116 ± 0.093) was higher than that between *P. brachytyla* s.s. and either *P. likiangensis* (0.089 ± 0.082) or *P. wilsonii* (0.105 ± 0.092) (Table S5 and Fig. 2B and D). Similarly, absolute genetic divergence estimated by d_{XY} showed greater divergence between *P.*

likiangensis and *P. wilsonii* than between *P. brachytyla* s.s. and either *P. likiangensis* or *P. wilsonii* (Table S5 and Fig. 2A and C). Both F_{ST} and d_{XY} indicated that *P. wilsonii* and *P. farreri* have the greatest divergence among all comparisons, and *P. wilsonii* and *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage take second place, while *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage is very close to *P. farreri* (F_{ST} : 0.064 ± 0.080 ; d_{XY} : 0.0099 ± 0.013) (Table S5 and Fig. 2A and B). These divergences suggested a close relationship among *P. likiangensis*, *P. farreri* and *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage and we tentatively treated them as the *P. likiangensis* species complex (PLSC) for convenience.

With the transcriptome of *P. breweriana* used as outgroup, we reconstructed genealogies for all 186 individuals using NJ and ML methods based on N-RNA-seq and C-RNA-seq respectively. From the NJ tree based on N-RNA-seq, seven lineage-specific clusters were identified and the samples of each taxon clustered together with the exception of *P. brachytyla*, for which two clusters, *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage and *P. brachytyla* s.s. were recovered (Fig. 3A). *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage was closely related to var. *likiangensis* and *P. farreri*, and together they were related to var. *linzhiensis* and var. *rubescens*. These lineages comprise a monophyletic PLSC clade, paralleling *P. brachytyla* s.s., *P. purpurea* and *P. wilsonii*. *P. purpurea* was more closely related to *P. wilsonii* than to the others while *P. brachytyla* s.s. was sister to the PLSC.

ML phylogenetic analyses based on cpDNA variations, however, recovered only three well-supported clades: PLSC, *P. brachytyla* s.s. and *P. wilsonii* - *P. purpurea*. The latter two clades were sister to each other while no clear delimitation was found between *P. wilsonii* and *P. purpurea* or between different taxa of the PLSC. These delimitations and phylogenetic relationships are consistent with previous results (Lookwood *et al.*, 2013; Sun *et al.*, 2014; Ru *et al.* 2018; Lyu *et al.*, 2020) (Fig. 3B). It was clearly noticeable that the phylogenetic relationships of *P. brachytyla* s.s. were discordant between nuclear genomic and plastome trees.

Population Structure and ADMIXTURE Analyses

Analyses using ADMIXTURE and PCA clustering revealed similar results to the N-RNA-seq phylogenetic trees apart from var. *rubescens*. For all individuals, in the ADMIXTURE analysis, as the K value increased from 2 to 4, four taxa of the PLSC, var. *likiangensis*, var. *linzhiensis*, *P. farreri* and *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage, shared the same genetic composition (Fig. 3C) while var. *rubescens* shared genetic ancestry with the reduced PLSC, *P. wilsonii* and *P. purpurea* when $K = 2$ to 4. *P. brachytyla* s.s. comprised a separate cluster when $K = 3$ while it exhibited mixed ancestry from the reduced PLSC and *P. wilsonii* when $K = 2$. Only when $K = 4$ did *P. purpurea* stand as a separate cluster, while it exhibited mixed genetic ancestry from both the reduced PLSC and *P. wilsonii* when $K = 2$ and 3. If both *P. brachytyla* s.s. and *P. purpurea* originated from the same parents, the reduced PLSC and *P. wilsonii*, these ADMIXTURE analyses suggested that *P. purpurea* originated later than *P. brachytyla* s.s.. Within the reduced PLSC, var. *linzhiensis* separated from the other three early while *P. farreri* contained a mixture of genetic elements from var.

370 *linzhiensis* and var. *likiangensis* + *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage. Both var.
371 *likiangensis* + *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage always belonged to the same genetic
372 pool without clear separation when $K = 5$ or 6, even when var. *rubescens* had
373 separated as an independent cluster. Further ADMIXTURE analyses of the PLSC
374 individuals produced similar results (Fig. S2).

375 In the PCA analysis, the first two components (PC1 and PC2) explained 12.43%
376 and 9.10% of the total variance respectively (Fig. 3D and Table S6), and distinguished
377 four clear clusters, *P. brachytyla* s.s., *P. wilsonii*, *P. purpurea* and the PLSC. Within
378 the PLSC, all individuals of var. *rubescens* comprised a separate cluster from the
379 other three.

380 **PhyloNet test of HHS**

381 A total of 6,471 orthologous gene groups across four taxa were identified, and after
382 filtering, 6,226 of these were used to generate gene trees. A total of 3,305 gene trees
383 with $\geq 70\%$ bootstrap support for all branches were subjected to PhyloNet testing. Of
384 these trees, 1,129 (34.16%) clustered the reduced PLSC with *P. brachytyla* s.s.
385 (topo1), 959 (29.02%) showed *P. brachytyla* s.s. as an isolated clade with *P. wilsonii*
386 and the reduced PLSC clustered together (topo2), and 1,217 (36.82%) clustered *P.*
387 *wilsonii* and *P. brachytyla* s.s. together (topo3) (Fig. 4A and B). The resulting
388 phylogenetic network inferred by PhyloNet with an assumption of one past
389 hybridization event (Fig. 4C) indicated a hybrid origin for *P. brachytyla* s.s.. The
390 contributions from the reduced PLSC ($\sim 80\%$) were more than those from *P. wilsonii*
391 ($\sim 20\%$) (Fig. 4C).

392 **Relative divergence time and K_s test of HHS**

393 We tested whether the divergence times between *P. brachytyla* s.s. and its two
394 expected parents (*P. wilsonii* and PLSC) were close to each other based on a K_s -based
395 method, as the hybrid species separated from the parents at almost the same time. As
396 expected, the K_s value between *P. brachytyla* s.s. and PLSC was similar to the value
397 between *P. brachytyla* s.s. and *P. wilsonii*, while all these values were smaller than
398 that between PLSC and *P. wilsonii* (Fig. 4D).

399 **Coalescent analysis of alternative speciation patterns**

400 The best-fitting model for the origin of *P. brachytyla* s.s. (with the lowest AIC value,
401 Table S7) was one involving hybridization and backcrossing (model 15) rather than
402 bifurcation followed by introgression. The model indicates that *P. brachytyla* s.s.
403 originated through backcrossing between the reduced PLSC and a hybrid extinct
404 'ghost' lineage which was initially formed through hybridization between PLSC
405 and *P. wilsonii* (Fig. 5A). We further estimated the effective population size of each
406 lineage, divergence of the two assumed parents and the timescale of the homoploid
407 hybridization events (Table 3 and Fig. 5A). Similarly, we found that *P. purpurea*
408 originated through backcrossing, but between *P. wilsonii* and a hybrid 'ghost' lineage

409which was initially also formed through hybridization between the reduced PLSC
410and *P. wilsonii* because this model (model4) had the lowest AIC value (Fig. 5B and
411Fig. S4 and Table S8). The estimated effective population sizes for both parents and
412the timescale of the origin of the extinct hybrid lineage were similar to those for an
413HHS origin of *P. brachytyla* s.s. (Table 3 and Table S9).

414 We therefore assumed that two homoploid hybrid species, *P. brachytyla* s.s. and
415*P. purpurea*, originated through the same extinct intermediate hybrid lineage but by
416backcrossing to different parents. We combined four taxa together to examine their
417evolution by estimating parental contributions and hybrid speciation event timescales.
418We found that the extinct hybrid lineage from the reduced
419PLCS and *P. wilsonii* originated ~9.3 Ma (95%HPDI: 5.5-12.3 Ma) while *P.*
420*brachytyla* s.s. and *P. purpurea* originated ~1.1 Ma (95%HPDI: 0.8-5.2 Ma) and
421~0.50 Ma (95%HPDI: 0.4-3.4 Ma) through further backcrossing to the reduced PLSC
422or *P. wilsonii* (Fig. 5C). The current effective population sizes (N_e) of the reduced
423PLSC, *P. wilsonii* and *P. brachytyla* s.s. were estimated to be 15016 (95%HPDI:
42411106-51868), 27194 (95%HPDI: 18162-89603) and 16340 (95%HPDI: 11700-
42557543) respectively, and gene flow from *P. brachytyla* s.s. to PLSC was estimated to
426be greater than that in the opposite direction, while gene flow from *P. brachytyla* s.s.
427to *P. wilsonii* was estimated to be less than that in the opposite direction, and both
428values were greater than that between PLSC and *P. wilsonii* (Table 3 and Table S10).

429 The estimated timescale of the extinct hybrid lineage was a little earlier (9.3 Ma
430versus 7.3 Ma or 7.9 Ma) than that when only one hybrid species was involved in
431calculations. However, the hybrid origin times for both hybrid species were estimated
432to be later than those estimated when only one hybrid species was involved (for *P.*
433*brachytyla* s.s., 1 Ma versus 1.2 Ma while for *P. purpurea*, the estimates were 0.58
434versus 0.49 Ma). This may be a consequence of the changes in the effective
435population sizes of the four lineages when all of them were involved in the
436estimations.

437Ecological niche differences between species

438Environmental niche modeling was carried out to predict the current potential
439distributions of the PLSC, *P. brachytyla* s.s. and *P. wilsonii* groups (Fig. S5A). Eight
440bioclimatic variables (alt: altitude, bio2: mean diurnal range, bio4: temperature
441seasonality, bio8: mean temperature of wettest quarter, bio12: annual precipitation,
442bio14: precipitation of driest month, bio15: precipitation seasonality, bio19:
443precipitation of coldest quarter) were retained in our analysis. Mean area under the
444receiver operator curve (AUC) values were 0.989 for the PLSC, 0.984 for *P.*
445*brachytyla* s.s. and 0.998 for *P. wilsonii*, indicating that all models had high predictive
446ability. Identity tests (D and I) for the comparison between *P. brachytyla* s.s. and
447either PLSC or *P. wilsonii* all rejected the null hypothesis, indicating that *P.*
448*brachytyla* s.s. has extinct niche differentiation from both the PLSC and *P. wilsonii* (P
449< 0.001) (Fig. S5B).

450 Discussion

451 Our population genomic analyses confirmed the polyphyly of the previously
452 circumscribed *P. brachytyla* (Ru *et al.*, 2016; Lyu *et al.*, 2020) and two non-sister
453 lineages were identified: the *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage and *P. brachytyla* s.s.. Our
454 further multiple analyses of population genomic data suggested an HHS origin for *P.*
455 *brachytyla* s.s. through an extinct intermediate hybrid lineage and backcrossing to one
456 parent. Interestingly, we found that the same parents may have given rise to another
457 homoploid hybrid species, *P. purpurea*, through the same extinct hybrid lineage, but
458 backcrossing to the other parent. To our knowledge, this is the first case illustrating
459 that backcrossing to two parents produced two different homoploid species. Our
460 findings recovered the high HHS complexity in *Picea*.

461 Polyphyly of *P. brachytyla*

462 Our population genomic data clearly suggest the polyphyly of the previously
463 circumscribed *P. brachytyla*, consistent with previous studies based on a few
464 individuals (Lockwood *et al.*, 2013; Zou *et al.*, 2016; Ru *et al.*, 2016; Shao *et al.*,
465 2019; Shen *et al.*, 2019) or population genetic data from a few loci (Lyu *et al.*, 2020).
466 Phylogenetic and population genetic analyses (PCA and ADMIXTURE structure)
467 identified two groups: one of them (Fig. 3), the *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage, is
468 closely related to var. *likiangensis* and *P. farreri* while the other, *P. brachytyla* s.s.,
469 comprises a separate lineage that is independent of all taxa sampled. The *P.*
470 *brachytyla*-southern lineage comprises the PLSC together with another three or four
471 taxa. Admixture analyses suggested that *P. brachytyla* s.s. originated as a separate
472 lineage earlier ($K = 3$) than the *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage because it could not be
473 distinguished from var. *likiangensis* even when $K = 7$. The two lineages of *P.*
474 *brachytyla* have distinct distributional disjunction in northern and southern regions. In
475 addition, the stomatal line is almost absent from the abaxial surface of the leaf in the
476 *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage while one or more lines are found for *P. brachytyla*
477 s.s., similar to *P. likiangensis*. It remains unknown why both *P. brachytyla*-southern

478 lineage and *P. brachytyla* s.s. have two white or pale bands of stomatal lines on the
479 flat adaxial leaf surface (Ru *et al.*, 2016).

480 Species distinctness and homoploid hybrid origin of *P. brachytyla* s.s.

481 *P. brachytyla* s.s. is genetically and ecologically delimited from both *P. wilsonii* and
482 the PLSC. Niche modelling showed that *P. brachytyla* s.s. occupies an ecological
483 niche distinct from those of both the PLSC and *P. wilsonii* (Fig. S5). It should be
484 noted that our niche modelling added var. *rubescens* to the PLSC. This taxon, whose
485 evolutionary origin is unclear, occurs in a distribution close to that of *P. brachytyla*
486 s.s.. Exclusion of this taxon would increase the ecological niche differentiation
487 between *P. brachytyla* s.s. and the PLSC. In our population genomic studies, PCA,
488 ADMIXTURE and phylogenetic analysis results are highly consistent with one
489 another and with the niche modelling results, all of which suggests that *P. brachytyla*
490 s.s. comprises a distinct genetic group (Fig. 3) with around 31,319 species-specific
491 SNPs (Fig. S1).

492 However, the phylogenetic relationships of *P. brachytyla* s.s. with the PLSC and
493 *P. wilsonii* remain inconsistent. For example, although phylogenetic analyses based on
494 nuclear-genome SNPs suggested a close relationship to the PLSC, plastome
495 phylogeny clustered all plastome haplotypes of *P. brachytyla* s.s. together with those
496 of *P. wilsonii* as a separate clade from that of the PLSC. Phylogenetic analyses based
497 on orthologous genes showed a similar pattern: ~63% of the gene trees showed a
498 close relationship between *P. brachytyla* s.s. and PLSC while ~37% indicated that it
499 was closer to *P. wilsonii* (Fig. 4). In fact, such an inconsistency has also been
500 previously reported based on sequencing a few loci from a few individuals or
501 populations (Lockwood *et al.*, 2013; Ran *et al.*, 2015; Shen *et al.*, 2019; Zou *et al.*,
502 2016; Shao *et al.*, 2019; Lyu *et al.*, 2020). In addition, the specific morphological
503 traits of the PLSC and *P. wilsonii* could be seen together in *P. brachytyla* s.s. (Fu
504 *et al.*, 1999; Lyu *et al.*, 2020). All of these analyses suggested that *P. brachytyla* s.s.
505 might have originated from one or more than one hybridization event between PLSC
506 and *P. wilsonii*. We further examined this possibility by means of three analyses. First,
507 K_s analysis based on the shared orthologous genes revealed a similar divergence time
508 between *P. brachytyla* s.s. and either *P. likiangensis* or *P. wilsonii* while this
509 divergence is more recent than that between PLSC and *P. wilsonii* (Fig. 2). Second,
510 PhyloNet analysis based on the orthologous gene trees revealed a hybrid origin for *P.*
511 *brachytyla* s.s. as expected, with ~81.19% of its nuclear composition derived from
512 PLSC and ~19.81% from *P. wilsonii* (Fig. 4). Finally, we modeled alternative
513 speciation events and the coalescent simulation analyses strongly supported a hybrid
514 origin for *P. brachytyla* s.s. (Fig. 5A). According to the best-fitting model, *P.*
515 *brachytyla* s.s. originated in two steps with the first intermediate hybrid lineage being
516 formed between the reduced PLSC and *P. wilsonii* followed by backcrossing of this
517 extinct intermediate lineage with the PLSC (Table 3). This two-step HHS is very
518 similar to that found for another closely related species, *P. purpurea* (Ru *et al.*, 2018).

519All of these analyses consistently support a HHS origin for *P. brachytyla* s.s. from the
520PLSC (before its further diversification) and *P. wilsonii*.

521**Two homoploid hybrid species originated from the same parents through a**
522**‘ghost’ hybrid lineage to backcross different parents**

523In our previous HHS study of *P. purpurea*, we used three varieties of *P. likiangensis* to
524represent the PLSC (Sun *et al.*, 2014; Ru *et al.*, 2018). Later studies (Sun *et al.*, 2018;
525Lyu *et al.*, 2020) and our present analyses suggested that both *P. farreri* and *P.*
526*brachytyla*-southern lineage should be included in the PLSC. In addition, var.
527*rubescens* contained genetic introgression from *P. purpurea*, according to our
528population structure analyses (Fig. 3C) and previous studies (Sun *et al.*, 2018; Shen *et*
529*al.*, 2019; Shao *et al.*, 2019). This introgression may complicate the modelling of
530hypotheses for the alternative speciation events that may have produced *P. purpurea*.
531We therefore excluded var. *rubescens* from the PLSC and used the reduced PLSC and
532*P. wilsonii* to model HHS versus an alternative, bifurcating, origin for *P. purpurea*.
533Similar to previous findings (Ru *et al.*, 2018), *P. purpurea* originated through HHS
534between the reduced PLSC and *P. wilsonii* by a two-step process that formed an
535intermediate hybrid lineage, which further backcrossed with *P. wilsonii* to produce *P.*
536*purpurea* (Fig. 5B and Fig. S4 and Table S8). Thus both *P. purpurea* and *P. brachytyla*
537s.s.. originated by HHS from the same parents, PLSC and *P. wilsonii*. However, *P.*
538*purpurea* originated later than *P. brachytyla* s.s., accumulating fewer species-specific
539mutations and retaining more parental ancestry. The mosaic of parental ancestry in *P.*
540*purpurea* was always obvious when ADMIXTURE structure analyses were applied to
541population genomic data (Fig. 3C). However, for *P. brachytyla* s.s., more species-
542specific mutations blurred the evidence of a mixed ancestry, although inconsistent
543phylogenies (Fig. 3A and B), PhyloNet suggestions (Fig. 4) and coalescent tests (Fig.
5445) together support a HHS origin for this species.

545 In addition, we assumed that the two homoploid hybrid species originated
546through the same extinct intermediate hybrid lineage but that it backcrossed with
547different parents for two reasons. First, this is the most parsimonious hypothesis.

548 Although it is likely that two ancient hybrid lineages may have originated between
549 PLSC and *P. wilsonii*, it is less likely that both of them became extinct. Second, the
550 time of origin of the extinct hybrid lineage was estimated to be similar (7.3 Ma or 7.9
551 Ma) when only two parents and one assumed hybrid species, *P. brachytyla* s.s. or *P.*
552 *purpurea*, was involved (Fig. 5). When all four taxa were involved, the origin of the
553 extinct hybrid lineage was estimated to be earlier, around 9.3 Ma (Fig. 5), while the
554 two hybrid species, *P. purpurea* and *P. brachytyla* s.s., originated 1 Ma or 0.49 Ma
555 (Fig. 5). These speciation events occurred from the late Miocene to the Quaternary
556 when the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau (QTP), where the four taxa focused on in this study
557 mainly occur, experienced extensive geological and climatic oscillations (Deng and
558 Ding 2015; Mulch and Chamberlain 2006). During these oscillations numerous new
559 species originated and interspecific hybridizations occurred (Liu *et al.*, 2013; Du *et*
560 *al.*, 2017; Ma *et al.*, 2019). These extensive changes may therefore have helped the
561 two ancestral parents come into direct contact, resulting in inter-lineage hybridizations
562 and backcrosses, which led to the origin of the intermediate hybrid lineage and the
563 two extant hybrid species. It remains unknown how the intermediate hybrid lineage
564 was extinguished. It is likely that environmental changes or adaptive advantages of
565 the newly formed hybrid species resulted in the extinction or replacement of the
566 intermediate hybrid lineage (Ru *et al.*, 2018).

567 To our knowledge, this is the second reported case in which two parents produced
568 more than one homoploid hybrid species. Two sunflower species hybridized to give
569 rise to three homoploid hybrid species occurring in different extreme habitats
570 (Rieseberg *et al.*, 1997, 2003). In our case, one extinct ‘ghost’ hybrid lineage
571 underwent backcrossing events with each of its parents to produce the two extant
572 hybrid species (Fig. 5). This finding supports the hypothesis that in the spruce genus,
573 reticulate species diversification through hybridization rather than non-bifurcating
574 divergence seems to be more frequent than was previously assumed (Feng *et al.*,
575 2019).

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583

584**AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

585J.L. and D.R. planned and designed the research. D.W. and D.R. conducted fieldwork,
586performed experiments and analysed data etc. D. R., J.L., and D.W. wrote the
587manuscript.

588**DATA ACCESSIBILITY**

589The sequencing data have been deposited in National Genomics Data Center under
590the **BioProject ID**: PRJCA003239.

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Figure legends

791

792 Figure 1. Distributional ranges of *P. wilsonii*, *P. purpurea*, *P. farreri* and *P. likiangensis* var.
793 *rubescens*, *P. likiangensis* var. *linzhiensis*, *P. likiangensis* var. *likiangensis*, *P. brachytyla* sensu
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804 as the outgroup. (B) Maximum Likelihood (ML) tree based on 69 transcriptome sequences with *P.*
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812 gene sequences identified by OrthoMCL as having a ratio of 1:1:1:1. (B) The proportion of each
813 topology is based on the ortholog groups. (C) ML-bootstrap network for 3,305 orthologous gene
814 trees generated by PhyloNet after runs allowing 0, 1 or 2 reticulations. Reticulations are shown in
815 blue with inheritance probabilities. Note: Only trees with branch bootstrap values >70% were
816 analysed. (D) K_S age distributions for one-to-one orthologs between PLSC and *P. brachytyla* s.s.
817 and *P. wilsonii*.

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822 summary of the best-fitting demographic model inferred by fastsimcoal2 for the reduced PLSC, *P.*
823 *purpurea*, and *P. wilsonii*. (C) Simplified graphical summary of the best-fitting demographic
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825 *wilsonii*. The percentages indicate nuclear genomic compositions contributed from parents to the
826 hybrid offspring. The right-hand axis indicates the timescale in years before the present.

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832**Table legends**

833

834Table 1 Locations of *Picea* individuals sampled for this study

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836

837Table 2 BUSCO results for assembly completeness of four spruce transcriptomes

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839

840Table 3 Inferred demographic parameters of the best-fitting demographic model in Fig. S3

841Supporting Information

842Figure S1. Venn diagram summarizing the number of shared and exclusive nuclear SNPs called
843across (A) *P. likiangensis*, *P. brachytyla* s.s. and *P. wilsonii* and (B) *P. likiangensis*, *P. farreri* and
844*P. brachytyla*-southern lineage.

845

846Figure S2. ADMIXTURE analysis of *P. likiangensis* var. *rubescens*, *P. likiangensis* var.
847*linzhiensis*, *P. likiangensis* var. *likiangensis*, *P. brachytyla* s.s., *P. brachytyla*-southern lineage and
848*P. farreri*.

849

850Figure S3. Schematic of 16 different demographic models analysed using fastsimcoal2. Note: the
851gray bars indicate the joint past population and arrows indicate asymmetric gene flow. The red,
852green, dark blue and khaki bars represent PLSC, *P. wilsonii*, *P. brachytyla* s.s. and the ghost
853lineage respectively. Models 1-2, radiative divergences of three species without/with gene flow
854with T as the radiative time from a common ancestor; Models 3-11: stepwise bifurcating models of
855three species without/with gene flow with T1 and T2 as the divergence times; models 12-14,
856hybrid origin of *P. brachytyla* s.s. between the other two without/with gene flow with T1 as the
857time of divergence between PLSC and *P. wilsonii*, and T2 as the time of origin of *P. brachytyla*
858s.s.; models 15-16, hybrid origin of *P. brachytyla* s.s. between the other two with an additional
859ghost lineage (in khaki) and asymmetric gene flow and T1 as the time of divergence between
860PLSC and *P. wilsonii*, T2 as the time of origin of the ghost lineage and T3 as the time of origin of
861*P. brachytyla* s.s..

862

863Figure S4. Schematic of 4 different demographic models analysed using fastsimcoal2. Note: the
864gray bars indicate the joint past population and arrows indicate asymmetric gene flow. The red,
865green, pink and khaki bars represent PLSC, *P. wilsonii*, *P. purpurea* and ghost lineage respectively.
866Models 1-2, stepwise bifurcating models of three species with gene flow with T1 and T2 as the
867divergence times; Model 3, hybrid origin of *P. purpurea* between the other two with gene flow
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869*purpurea*; Model 4, hybrid origin of *P. purpurea* between the other two with an additional ghost
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872*purpurea*.

873

874Figure S5. Environmental niche models for three species, and results of identity tests between
875paired groups. (A) Current potential distributions of PLSC, *P. brachytyla* s.s. and *P. wilsonii*
876groups, predicted by Maxent. (B) Results of identity tests for three comparisons (PLSC vs. *P.*
877*brachytyla* s.s., *P. brachytyla* s.s. vs. *P. wilsonii*, PLSC vs. *P. wilsonii*). The pink bars indicate the
878null distributions of I, while the light blue bars indicate D. Arrows indicate values of I (pink) and
879D (light blue) in actual Maxent runs.

880

881Table S1 Summary statistics of Illumina transcriptome data for each sample.

882

883Table S2 Transcriptome assembly statistics for the *Picea* species including revised *P. abies*.

884Table S3 SNPs information for six *Picea* species.

885

886Table S4 $\pi \pm \text{SD}$ with *P. abies* as the reference.

887

888Table S5 Summary statistics for F_{ST} and d_{XY} with *P. abies* as the reference.

889

890Table S6 Tracy-Widom statistics for the first four eigenvalues in PCA analysis.

891

892Table S7 Relative likelihoods of the different demographic models shown in Fig. S3.

893

894Table S8 Relative likelihoods of the different demographic models shown in Fig. S4.

895

896Table S9 Inferred demographic parameters of the best-fitting demographic model in Fig. S4.

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898Table S10 Inferred demographic parameters with PLSC, *P. wilsonii*, *P. brachytyla* s.s. and *P.*

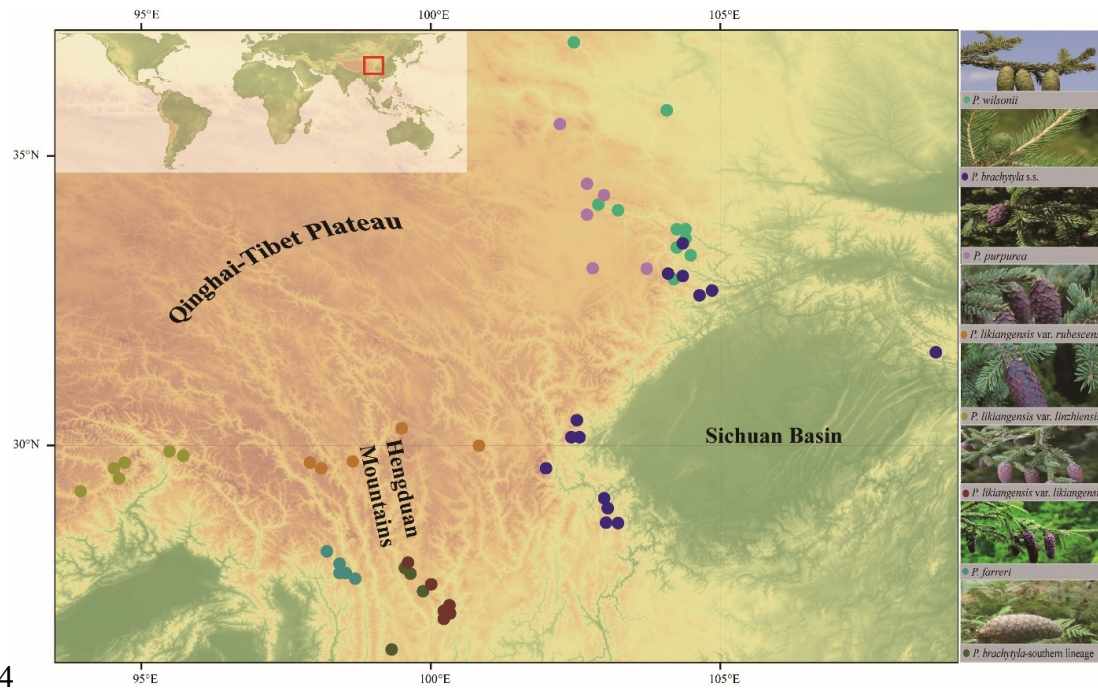
899*purpurea* included in the analysis.

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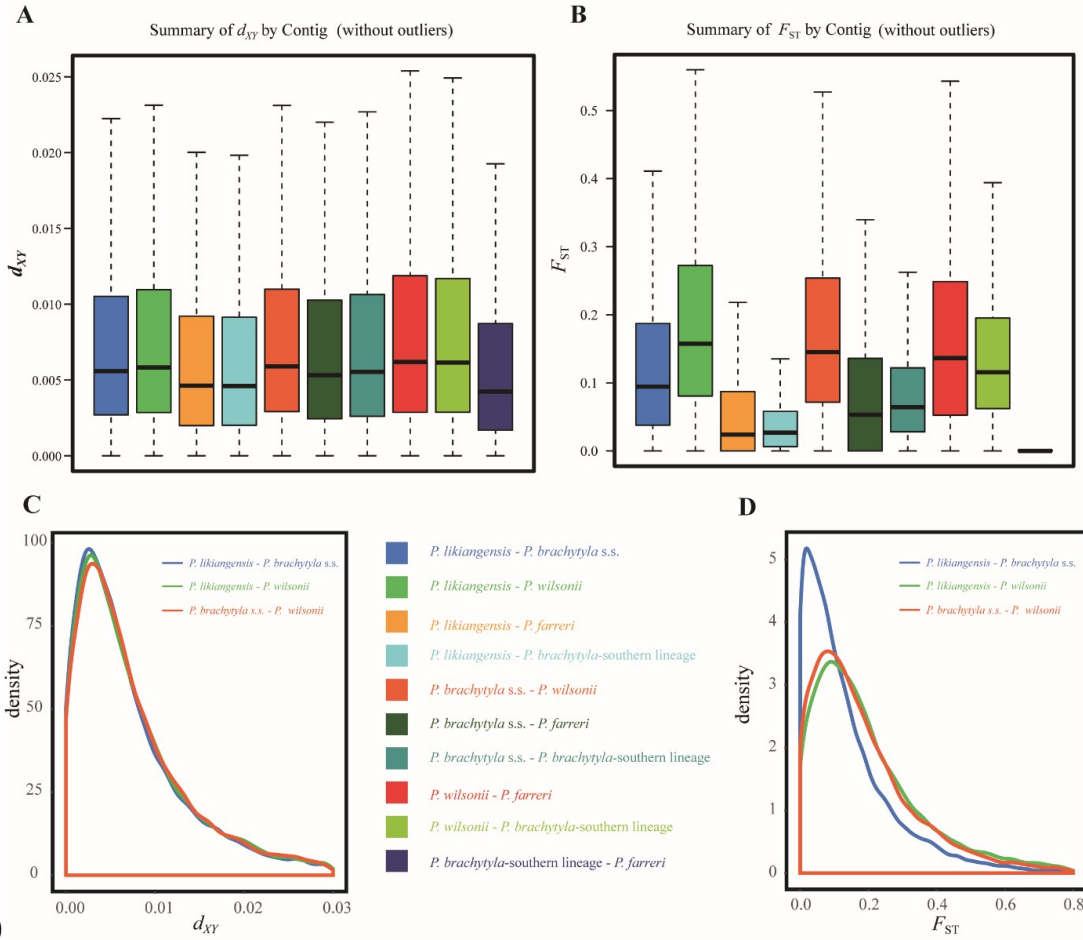
901Table S11 Species occurrences collected for ecological niche modeling analysis.

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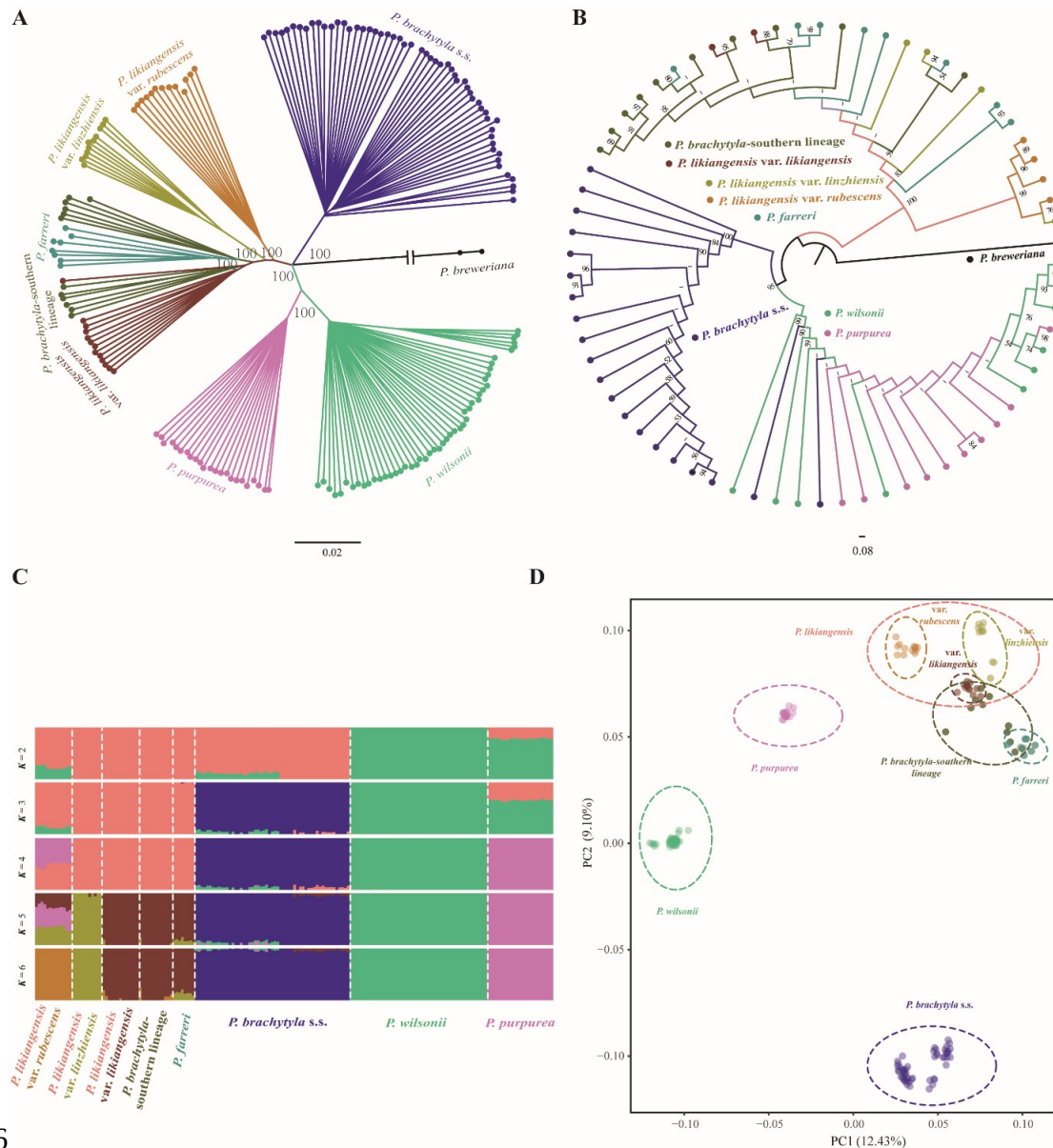


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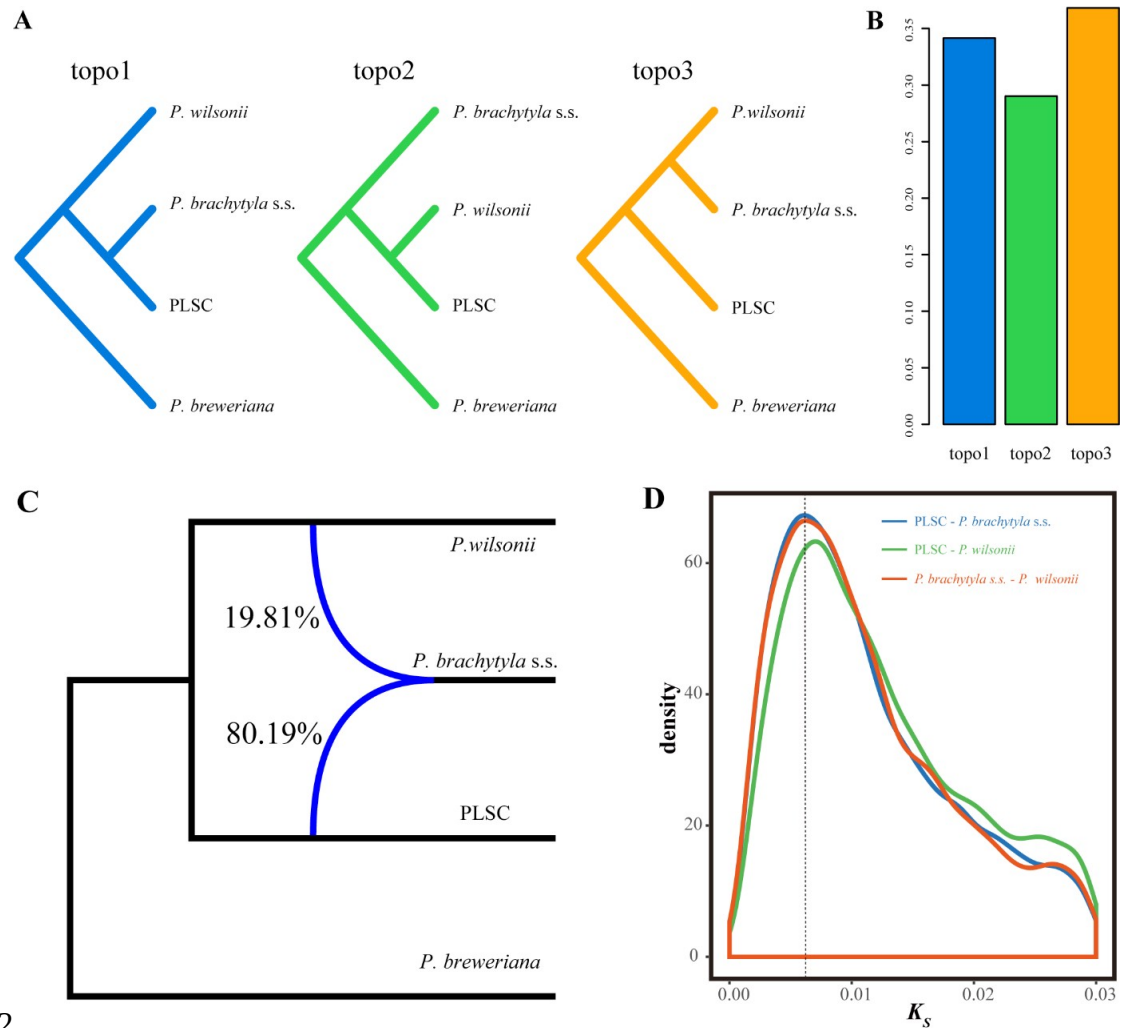
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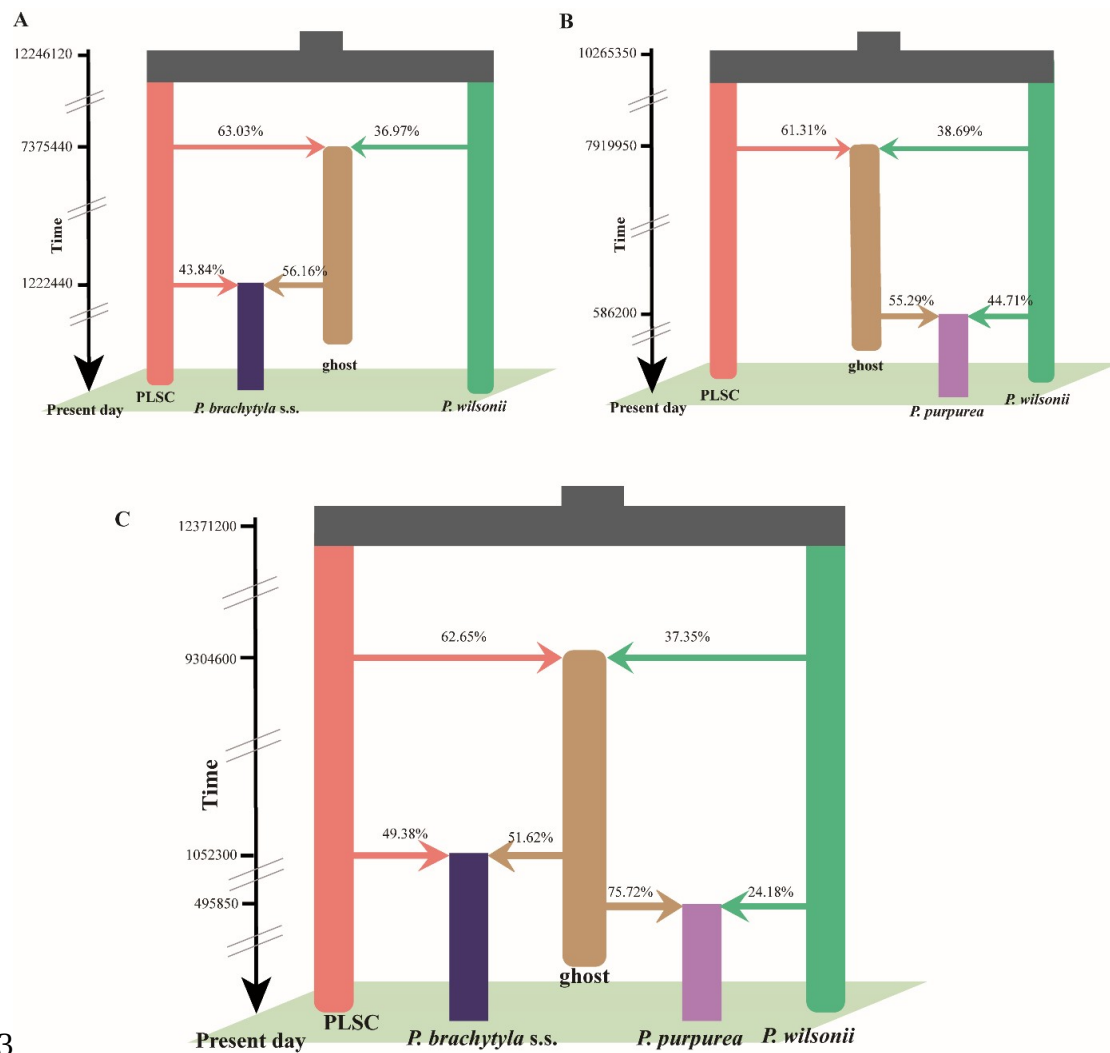


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 940hybrid offspring. The right-hand axis indicates the timescale in years before the present.

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943**Tables**

944**Table 1** Locations of *Picea* individuals sampled for this study

Species	Latitude	Longitude	Altitude(m)	Collection site	Source	n
<i>P. breweriana</i>						1
brew	35.93306	104.15008	1774	Common garden, Gansu	Ru et al., 2018	1
<i>P. likiangensis</i>						30
MSZ-04	29.99958	100.87139	4178.94	Jianziwan mountain, Sichuan	Ru et al., 2018	1
MSZ-05	30.28694	99.519222	4252	Heni, Sichuan	Ru et al., 2018	3
MSZ-06	29.72983	98.62975	4026.58	Zongla mountain, Sichuan	Ru et al., 2018	3
MSZ-07	29.61128	98.156944	4104.2	Rumei, Tibet	Ru et al., 2018	2
MSZ-08	29.68322	97.931917	4122.95	Zuogong, Tibet	Ru et al., 2018	2
MSZ-15	29.18475	93.978556	2988.12	Milin, Linzhi, Tibet	Ru et al., 2018	1
MSZ-25	29.46339	94.61775	2913.14	Milin, Linzhi, Tibet	Ru et al., 2018	1
MSZ-30	29.56961	94.557972	3421.91	Sejila mountain, Linzhi, Tibet	Ru et al., 2018	1
MSZ-31	29.67392	94.720028	3663.2	Sejila mountain, Linzhi, Tibet	Ru et al., 2018	3
MSZ-33	29.8905	95.523278	2698.53	Bomi, Tibet	Ru et al., 2018	1
MSZ-34	29.82383	95.711528	3262.82	Bomi, Tibet	Ru et al., 2018	2
MSZ-40	27.93083	99.616472	3511.8	Napahai, Yunnan	Ru et al., 2018	1
MSZ-42	27.569	100.02383	3025.85	Pudacuo, Yunnan	Ru et al., 2018	1
MSZ-46	27.19836	100.27886	3260.41	Daju mountain, Yunnan	Ru et al., 2018	1
MSZ-47	27.13161	100.23303	2947.51	Yulongxue mountain, Yunnan	Ru et al., 2018	3
MSZ-48	27.14214	100.2335	3197.45	Yulongxue mountain, Yunnan	Ru et al., 2018	2
MSZ-50	27.02508	100.20897	2845.13	Yuhu village, Yunnan	Ru et al., 2018	2
<i>P. purpurea</i>						20

22-WDL-17	33.07804	102.85164	3568	Hongyuan, Sichuan	The present study	5
ZR_08	34.02296	102.73741	3526	Rierlang mountain, Ruoergai, Sichuan	Ru et al., 2018	3
ZR_10	34.27802	103.00059	3556	Niba, Gansu	Ru et al., 2018	3
ZR_11	34.45132	102.69788	3132	Duosongben mountain, Gansu	Ru et al., 2018	3
ZR_14	35.53111	102.24462	3085	Tongren, Qinghai	Ru et al., 2018	3
ZR_25	33.0443	103.72414	3497	Songpan, Sichuan	Ru et al., 2018	3
<i>P. wilsonii</i>						46
01-WDL-17	33.621871	104.365875	2380	Wuping, Gansu	The present study	1
02-WDL-17	33.617646	104.368253	2360	Wuping, Gansu	The present study	3
07-WDL-17	33.549964	104.336308	2142	Majiazhuang, Gansu	The present study	3
10-WDL-17	33.576466	104.37523	1745	Jue'er Mountain, Gansu	The present study	1
18_WDL-17	32.913075	104.154777	2450	Pingwu, Sichuan	The present study	6
ZR_09	34.04897	103.2207	2390	Diebu, Gansu	Ru et al., 2018	5
ZR_15	36.95562	102.46394	2306	Huzhu, Qinghai	Ru et al., 2018	6
ZR_16	35.78197	104.05484	2304	Yuzhong, Gansu	Ru et al., 2018	7
ZR_24	33.29427	104.47862	2389	Longnan, Gansu	Ru et al., 2018	7
ZR_26	34.1588	102.90655	2769	Ruoergai, Sichuan	Ru et al., 2018	7
<i>P. brachytyla s.s.</i>						54
06-WDL-17	33.552535	104.336832	2120	Heilingou, Gansu	The present study	6
12-WDL-17	32.92212	104.3258	2250	Lianghekou, Gansu	The present study	4
14-WDL-17	32.641667	104.819167	2290	Tangjiahe, Sichuan	The present study	6
15-WDL-17	32.603561	104.662272	1997	Huangjiawan, Sichuan	The present study	5
21-WDL-17	32.952329	104.127202	2536	Pingwu, Sichuan	The present study	5
WDL-17-CQ	31.63194	108.71	2243	Congziping, Chongqing	The present study	4
23-WDL-17	30.440295	102.558357	2323	Dongla grand canyon, Sichuan	The present study	3
26-WDL-17	30.183056	102.475278	2020	Tianquan, Sichuan	The present study	1

WDL-17-HLG	29.580833	102.0175	2780	Hailuogou, Sichuan	The present study	6
28-WDL-17	30.1765	102.47528	2010	Tianquan, Sichuan	The present study	1
W17-01	29.03865	102.98435	2062	Heizhugou, Sichuan	The present study	1
W17-02	28.90082	102.99892	2287	Kejuenapa mountain, Sichuan	The present study	3
W17-03	28.73573	103.05202	2461	Shengliping, Sichuan	The present study	6
YS-1	28.71222	103.21398	2370	Meigu, Sichuan	The present study	3
<i>P. brachytyla</i>-southern lineage						10
NPH	27.927778	99.614222	3506	Napahai, Yunnan	Ru et al., 2018	1
XGLL	27.8	99.65	3329	Xianggelila, Yunnan	Ru et al., 2018	2
XSQ	26.457167	99.313833	2925	Xinshengqiao, Yunnan	Ru et al., 2018	4
Zhong	27.45665	99.893133	3128	Xiaozhongdian, Yunnan	Ru et al., 2018	3
<i>P. farreri</i>						5
ML2019350-1	27.7871	98.51	3070	Bingzhongluo, Yunnan	The present study	1
ML2019350-2	27.7841	98.5101	3060	Bingzhongluo, Yunnan	The present study	1
ML2019351	27.8484	98.4662	2880	Bingzhongluo, Yunnan	The present study	1
ML2019382	28.16275	98.2556	2210	Bingzhongluo, Yunnan	The present study	1
ML2019408	27.7567	98.59003	2750	Bingzhongluo, Yunnan	The present study	1

946**Table 2 BUSCO results for assembly completeness of four spruce transcriptomes**

Species	Classification	BUSCO results
PLSC	Spermatophytes	C: 84.4% [S: 47.1%, D: 37.3%], F: 2.7%, M:12.9%, n: 1440
<i>P. brachytyla</i> s.s.	Spermatophytes	C: 81.2% [S: 71.7%, D: 9.5%], F: 3.0%, M: 15.8%, n: 1440
<i>P. wilsonii</i>	Spermatophytes	C: 86.1% [S: 15.5%, D: 70.6%], F: 2.3%, M:11.6%, n: 1440
<i>P. breweriana</i>	Spermatophytes	C: 85.1% [S: 10.1%, D: 75.0%], F: 2.4%, M:12.5%, n: 1440

947

Table 3 Inferred demographic parameters of the best-fitting demographic model in Fig. S3

Parameters	Point estimation	95% CI Lower bound	95% CI Upper bound
N_{e-PLSC}	16614	11301	22342
$N_{e-P. wilsonii}$	32321	21375	36121
$N_{e-P. brachytyla \text{ s.s.}}$	18111	13031	21685
$N_{e-ghost}$	78107	10442	172368
$m^1_{PLSC \rightarrow P. wilsonii}$	2.48e-06	1.29e-08	9.83e-04
$m^1_{P. wilsonii \rightarrow PLSC}$	3.37e-06	2.22e-08	9.25e-04
$m^2_{PLSC \rightarrow P. wilsonii}$	2.63e-03	6.85e-04	4.84e-02
$m^2_{P. wilsonii \rightarrow PLSC}$	1.36e-07	6.99e-09	2.58e-02
$m_{PLSC \rightarrow P. brachytyla \text{ s.s.}}$	4.84e-05	2.65e-05	9.42e-05
$m_{P. brachytyla \text{ s.s.} \rightarrow PLSC}$	6.09e-05	1.59e-05	1.31e-04
$m_{P. wilsonii \rightarrow P. brachytyla \text{ s.s.}}$	7.70e-05	3.22e-05	1.21e-04
$m_{P. brachytyla \text{ s.s.} \rightarrow P. wilsonii}$	1.27e-05	9.32e-07	2.87e-05
$m_{P. wilsonii \rightarrow PLSC}$	2.94e-05	7.73e-06	2.31e-02
$m_{PLSC \rightarrow P. wilsonii}$	1.42e-05	2.34e-07	6.82e-05
T_{ADM1}	1222440	1005800	5478200
T_{ADM2}	7375440	5817900	13122100
T_{DIV}	12246120	10157600	16086500

N_{e-PLSC} , $N_{e-P. brachytyla \text{ s.s.}}$, $N_{e-P. wilsonii}$, $N_{e-ghost}$ indicate the effective population sizes of the reduced *P. likiangensis* species complex (PLSC), *P. brachytyla* s.s., *P. wilsonii*, the ghost intermediate lineage and ancestral population respectively. $m^1_{PLSC \rightarrow P. wilsonii}$, $m^1_{P. wilsonii \rightarrow PLSC}$, $m^2_{PLSC \rightarrow P. wilsonii}$, $m^2_{P. wilsonii \rightarrow PLSC}$ indicate migration per generation before and after hybridization between PLSC and *P. wilsonii*; $m_{PLSC \rightarrow ghost}$: migration per generation from PLSC to the ghost lineage and $m_{ghost \rightarrow PLSC}$ migration per generation from ghost lineage to PLSC. $m_{PLSC \rightarrow P. brachytyla \text{ s.s.}}$, $m_{P. brachytyla \text{ s.s.} \rightarrow PLSC}$, $m_{P. wilsonii \rightarrow P. brachytyla \text{ s.s.}}$ and $m_{P. brachytyla \text{ s.s.} \rightarrow P. wilsonii}$ indicate, respectively, migration per generation between *P. brachytyla* s.s. and PLSC or *P. wilsonii* in both directions. T_{ADM1} indicates time (years) of backcrossing of the ghost lineage to *P. wilsonii* that gave rise to *P. brachytyla* s.s., while T_{ADM2} indicates time (years) of formation of the ghost lineage between PLSC and *P. wilsonii*. T_{DIV} indicates the estimated divergence time (years) between PLSC and *P. wilsonii* obtained from fastsimcoal2.