

# **Comparison of the Chloroplast Genomes and Phylogenomic Analysis of Elaeocarpaceae**

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## Abstract

Species of Elaeocarpaceae vary, but complete chloroplast genome data and systematic comparisons across the family are rarely reported. To understand the variation in chloroplast sequence size and structure in Elaeocarpaceae, the chloroplast genomes of 9 species were sequenced using the Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform and further assembled and annotated with *Elaeocarpus japonicus* and *Sloanea sinensis* (family Elaeocarpaceae) as references. A phylogenomic tree was constructed based on the complete chloroplast genomes of the 11 species representing 5 genera of Elaeocarpaceae. Chloroplast genome characteristics were examined by using Circoletto and IRscope software. The results revealed the following: (a) The 11 sequenced chloroplast genomes ranged in size from 157,546 bp to 159,400 bp. (b) The chloroplast genomes of *Elaeocarpus*, *Sloanea*, *Crinodendron* and *Vallea* lacked the *rpl32* gene in the small single-copy (SSC) region. The large single-copy (LSC) region of the chloroplast genomes lacked the *ndhK* gene in *Elaeocarpus*, *Vallea stipularis*, and *Aristotelia fruticosa*. The LSC region of the chloroplast genomes lacked the *infA* gene in *Elaeocarpus* and *Crinodendron patagua*.

(c) Through inverted repeat (IR) expansion and contraction analysis, a significant difference was found between the LSC/IRB and IRA/LSC boundaries among these species. *Rps3* was detected in the neighboring regions of the LSC and IRb regions in *Elaeocarpus*. (d) Phylogenomic analysis revealed that the genus *Elaeocarpus* is closely related to *Crinodendron patagua* on an independent branch and *Aristotelia fruticosa* is closely related to *Vallea stipularis*, forming a clade with the genus *Sloanea*. Structural comparisons showed that Elaeocarpaceae diverged at 60 Mya, the genus *Elaeocarpus* diverged 53 Mya and that the genus *Sloanea* diverged 0.44 Mya. These results provide new insight into the evolution of the Elaeocarpaceae.

**Key words:**

*Elaeocarpus*, Chloroplast, Genome, Divergence time

## 1. Introduction

In land plants, most chloroplast genomes are single-stranded, circular, or double-stranded DNA sequences. The genome is approximately 100-220 kbp in size and has a quadripartite structure, including one large single-copy (LSC) region, one small single-copy (SSC) region, and a pair of inverted repeat (IR) regions (Bock, 2007). These regions are involved in photosynthesis, transcription, and translation, among other functions (Gao et al., 2010). With the increase in complete chloroplast genome data, comparative analysis of chloroplast genomes has been widely applied (Wu, 2016). Some lineages, such as ferns (Roper et al., 2007; Karol et al., 2010), gnetophytes (McCoy et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2009), multiple angiosperm families (Goremykin et al., 2003a; Cai et al., 2006), and nonphotosynthetic plants (Wicke et al., 2016), have lost some genes. For example, *ycf1*, *ycf2* and *accD* have been lost in the family Poaceae (Guisinger et al., 2010), and *rpl22*, *infA* and *accD* have been lost in legumes, Lemnoideae, and Acoraceae, respectively (Wang and Messing, 2010; Goremykin et al., 2005; Doyle et al., 1995). In heterotrophic plants, pseudogenization and entire losses

73 of *ndh* genes were also detected (Wickett et al., 2008; Barrett et al.,  
74 2014; Wicke et al., 2016). However, *ndh* gene loss events have also  
75 occurred in autotrophic orchids, gnetophytes and Pinaceae (Braukmann  
76 et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2015; Wakasugi et al., 1994). In recent years,  
77 phylogenomics has shown great advantages in plant phylogenetic  
78 research based on chloroplast genomes, providing resolutions for the  
79 phylogenies of some taxonomically difficult groups of plants.

80 Elaeocarpaceae Juss. is a medium-sized family of angiosperms  
81 comprising 12 genera and 615 species of trees that grow in tropical and  
82 subtropical forests (Coode, 2004; Christenhusz, 2016). Recent studies  
83 suggest that Elaeocarpaceae is a sister group to Cephalotaceae and  
84 Brunellia (Heibl and Renner, 2012; Magallon et al., 2015; Harris and  
85 Davies, 2016). Moreover, the family can be divided into three  
86 monophyletic groups (*Sloanea* alliance, *Tremandraceous* genera and  
87 *Elaeocarpus* alliance) according to phylogenetic analysis of  
88 multfragment genes (Phoon, 2015). While as the taxonomy of  
89 Elaeocarpaceae belonged to Oxalidales was concerned (Savolainen et al.,  
90 2000; Soltis et al., 2000; Byng et al., 2016), the relationships within

Oxalidales need a further study for a quite different morphological character (the filaments are longer than the anthers in bud in Oxalidales but not in Elaeocarpaceae) (Matthews and Endress, 2002) and limited sampling in certificating the relationships within Oxalidales (Li et al., 2019). Furthermore, the age of genera within Elaeocarpaceae has a visible change based on multigene phylogenies of *trnL-trnF+trnV-ndhC* regions and *trnL-trnF+ITS* regions (Crayn et al., 2006; Phoon, 2015).

Here we used the whole chloroplast genome sequences to further explore in detail phylogenetic relationships within Elaeocarpaceae and other relative families. This study aims to (1) test genetic category between different genus within Elaeocarpaceae, (2) determine the relationships of Elaeocarpaceae within Oxalidales, (3) use the molecular data together with the data from the palaeobotanical literature to infer divergence dates and the biogeographic history of the major clades within Oxalidales and Elaeocarpaceae.

## **2. Materials and Methods**

### **2.1 Plant material and chloroplast genome sequencing**

Leaf materials were sampled from 9 species representing 5 genera of Elaeocarpaceae and collected from a field in China and the Royal Botanic Gardens (table 1). Voucher specimens of the collection were deposited at the Museum of Gannan Normal University, Nanling Herbarium (GNNU; Director: Yifei Xie, xie.yifei2018@gmail.com), Museum of Beijing Forestry University (BJFC) and The Royal Botanic Gardens (K). Total genomic DNA was extracted using the magnetic bead method and then sent to Sino Geno Max Company for next-generation sequencing using the Illumina HiSeq (TM) 2000 platform in Beijing, China. After removing the low-quality reads from the raw data, we obtained clean data and uploaded them to the NCBI SRA database in fastq format.

### **2.2 Genome annotation and comparison**

The paired-end reads were filtered using the GetOrganelle pipeline (<https://github.com/Kinggerm/GetOrganelle>) to obtain plastid-like reads, and then the filtered reads were assembled using SPAdes version 3.10

(Bankevich et al., 2012). To retain pure chloroplast contigs, the final “fastg” files were filtered using the “slim” script of GetOrganelle. The filtered De Bruijn graphs were viewed and edited using Bandage (Wick et al., 2015), and then a circular chloroplast genome was generated. We used Plastid Genome Annotator to annotate the published plastid genome of *Elaeocarpus japonicus* (MT985378) as a reference (Kearse et al., 2012). The annotated chloroplast genomes have been submitted to GenBank (table 1). Maps of all 9 chloroplast genomes were drawn by the Organellar Genome DRAW tool (Lohse et al., 2013), and a map of shared protein-coding genes was drawn by a Venn diagram viewer (<http://jvenn.toulouse.inra.fr/app/example.html>; Philippe et al., 2014). mVISTA online tools (<http://genome.lbl.gov/vista/mvista/>) were used to determine chloroplast genome similarity among Elaeocarpaceae (Frazer et al., 2004). The similarity, rearrangement and inversion of gene blocks were analyzed by Circoletto (<http://tools.bat.infospire.org/circoletto/>; Darzentas et al., 2010). IRscope (<https://irscope.shinyapps.io/irapp/>) can be useful for assessing IR expansion and contraction in the evolution of chloroplast genomes (Ali et al. 2018).



## 2.3 Phylogenomics and molecular clock dating analysis

To infer phylogenetic relationships within the Elaeocarpaceae and other related families, 20 species of 6 families including Elaeocarpaceae, Cephalotaceae, Brunelliaceae, Oxalidaceae and Connaraceae were compared. The genomes from the 6 families included 11 new chloroplast genomes and 9 published complete chloroplast genome (table 1), that of *Euonymus schensianus* (NC036019) and *Euonymus maackii* (MW771518), which was obtained from the NCBI database and treated as the outgroup (Baker et al., 2021; Li et al., 2021). For the species tree, Bayesian inference (BI) analyses were performed on data sets of 20 chloroplast genome sequences. The whole-genome matrix was aligned using MAFFT version 3.73 (Kato and Standley, 2013) and then manually edited using Geneious version 9.1.7 (Kearse et al. 2012). Bayesian inference (BI) was performed using MrBayes version 3.2.6 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003). The best-fitting DNA substitution model according to the Bayesian information criterion (BIC), GTR + F+ I, was identified by using jModelTest version 2.1.10 (Darriba et al., 2012;

**Guindon et al., 2003**). Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analyses were run in MrBayes for 10,000,000 generations. The BI analysis started with a random tree and sampled trees every 1,000 generations. The first 25% of the trees were discarded as burn-in, and the remaining trees were used to generate a majority-rule consensus tree. Besides, we also estimated a maximum likelihood phylogeny for the genera in RAxML v8.0.0 (**Stamatakis et al., 2008**), on the CIPRES web server (www.phylo.org). We used the default settings, including a TVM + R3 + F model of sequence evolution,

Then, based on BEAST 1.10.4, a lognormal relaxed clock model was run by using the GTR + F+ I site model with four gamma categories, with a random starting tree and a Yule speciation process tree prior (**Suchard et al., 2018**). MCMC was performed with 500 million generations and sampling every 50,000 generation and the effective sample size (ESS) values was confirmed exceeded 200 for all parameters. Then we used the phyutility software to generate an all-compatible consensus tree (**Smith and Dunn, 2008**). Node ages were optimised onto this consensus phylogeny as the median value for a given node across all

trees in the posterior distribution that contained the node using the TreeAnnotator software (Drummond and Rambaut, 2007). Additionally, the phylogeny was calibrated using 4 fossils, fossil one from a related clade and by setting the split between *Sloanea* and *Vallea* to  $55 \pm 2$  Ma (Mayr 2000). We used the  $40 \pm 10$  Ma split between *Vallea* and *Aristotelia* as the calibration point (Heibl and Renner, 2012). fossil three is *Elaeocarpus* from the Tasmania in Australia that is about  $55 \pm 2$  Ma old (Hill 1984). The other fossil are leaves of *Rourea* (Connaraceae) from Panama, dated to 59 Ma (Graham 1988). The tree was viewed and edited with FigTree version 1.4.0 software (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>).

**Table 1.** Sampled species and their voucher specimens from the NCBI database.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1 Overall structure

The 11 sequenced Elaeocarpaceae chloroplast genomes showed a quadripartite structure, an LSC region, an SSC region, and a pair of IR regions, with lengths ranging from 157,546 bp (*Sloanea sinensis*) to 159,400 bp (*Crinodendron patagua*). The length of the LSC region ranged from 85,874 bp (*Elaeocarpus japonicus*) to 88,413 bp (*Sloanea sinensis*), that of the IR regions ranged from 25,984 bp (*Sloanea sinensis*) to 27,437 bp (*Elaeocarpus japonicus* and *Elaeocarpus japonicus* var. *yunnanensis*), and that of the SSC region ranged from 16,981 bp (*Elaeocarpus japonicus*) to 17,958 bp (*Crinodendron Patagua*). The total GC content of the 11 chloroplast genomes from 5 representative genera was approximately 37%, while the GC contents of the IR, LSC and SSC regions were approximately 43%, 35% and 31%, respectively. In contrast to the chloroplast genome of *Aristotelia fruticosa*, which had 133 genes, including 8 rRNA genes, 37 tRNA genes, and 88 protein-coding genes, the chloroplast genomes of the other 4 genera had 132 genes, including 8 rRNA genes, 37 tRNA genes, and 87 protein-coding genes. A total of 114

unique genes were detected in the chloroplast genome of *Aristotelia fruticosa*, while *Crinodendron patagua*, *Vallea stipularis* and the genus *Sloanea* had 113 unique genes, and genus *Elaeocarpus* had 111 unique genes (table 2).

### 3.2 Chloroplast genome comparisons

The 5 genera shared 111 protein-coding genes, but *rpl32* was detected in the SSC region of only the chloroplast genome of *Aristotelia fruticosa* (fig. 1). The LSC region of the chloroplast genomes lacked *ndhK* in the genus *Elaeocarpus*, *Vallea stipularis*, and *Aristotelia fruticosa* and lacked *infA* in the genus *Elaeocarpus* and *Crinodendron patagua*. *ycf68* was found in *Vallea stipularis*, *Aristotelia fruticosa* and *Crinodendron patagua*. In addition, synteny was detected in the 5 genera of Elaeocarpaceae (fig. 2). A significant degree of synteny was found between *Vallea stipularis* and *Aristotelia fruticosa*, *Elaeocarpus* and *Sloanea*. However, the synteny between *Crinodendron patagua* and the other 4 genera was low. Five genera of Elaeocarpaceae were compared, in addition to the species in *Elaeocarpus* and *Sloanea*. Two groups,

*Elaeocarpus angustifolius* and *Elaeocarpus hainanensis* as well as  
*Elaeocarpus japonicus* and *Elaeocarpus japonicus* var. *yunnanensis*, had  
more blocks of synteny in the genus *Elaeocarpus*. Several blocks of  
synteny were detected in the 4 chloroplast genomes of the genus *Sloanea*,  
suggesting that the 4 species are similar to each other.

### 3.3 IR expansion and contraction

In the sequenced chloroplast genomes of Elaeocarpaceae, two  
complete or fragmented copies of *rps19* and *rpl2* were located at the  
boundaries between the LSC region and IRa or IRb region in *Vallea*  
*stipularis*, *Aristotelia fruticosa*, *Crinodendron patagua* and the genus  
*Sloanea* (fig. 3). In contrast, *rps3*, *rpl22* and *rpl16* were detected in the  
neighboring regions of the LSC or IRa or IRb region in the genus  
*Elaeocarpus*. The distance between the fragment of *ndhF* and the  
boundary of the SSC and IRb regions in *Elaeocarpus angustifolius* was  
370 bp, much greater than that in the chloroplast genomes of other  
species in the genus *Elaeocarpus*: *Elaeocarpus japonicus* var.  
*yunnanensis*, *Elaeocarpus japonicus* and *Elaeocarpus angustifolius*.

Moreover, the lengths of *ndhF* and *ycf1* in *Elaeocarpus angustifolius* were shorter than those in the other three species. For the genus *Sloanea*, the chloroplast genomes of 4 species, *Sloanea sinensis*, *Sloanea cordifolia*, *Sloanea dasycarpa* and *Sloanea longiaculeatae*, were generally the same in terms of IR expansion and contraction, with the exception that the length of *ycf1* in *Sloanea dasycarpa* and *Sloanea longiaculeatae* was greater than that in *Sloanea sinensis* and *Sloanea cordifolia*.

### 3.4 Phylogenomics and molecular clock dating analysis

The matrix of complete chloroplast genomes was used to reconstruct a phylogenomic tree of Oxalidales (fig. 4). The molecular tree showed that *Rourea microphylla* representing Connaraceae started to diversify at 119 Mya. *Averrhoa carambola*, *Oxalis drummondii* and *Oxalis corniculata* representing Oxalidaceae diverged from Oxalidales (ca. 122 Mya) at 73 Mya. Cephalotaceae (ca. 60 Mya) has the closest genetic relationship with Elaeocarpaceae (ca. 60 Mya) with that of Oxalidaceae (ca. 119 Mya). Brunelliaceae has a similar differentiation

time about 60 Mya from Oxalidaceae.

The molecular tree also showed the sister relationships of 11 chloroplast genomes from 5 representative genera of Elaeocarpaceae was highly supported. Clade I, containing the genus *Elaeocarpus*, was 100% supported and was dated to ca. 53 Mya, and the crown node age of clade II (*Crinodendron patagua*) was dated to ca. 55 Mya. Diversification of clade III, containing the *Sloanea* alliance (*Vallea stipularis*, *Aristotelia fruticosa* and the genus *Sloanea*), was dated to 53 Mya. Further differentiation of *Vallea stipularis* and *Aristotelia fruticosa* took place within the last 3 Mya. In addition, the genus *Sloanea* started to diversify during the late Miocene (ca. 0.4 Mya).

## **4. Discussion**

### **4.1 Complete chloroplast structure of Elaeocarpaceae**

This study included 11 complete chloroplast genomes for Elaeocarpaceae plants. All these complete chloroplast genomes had a total GC content of 37%, consistent with the low GC content in the chloroplast genomes of other angiosperms. The higher the content of GC



is, the higher the density of DNA and the more conserved the chloroplast genome (Do et al., 2013). Therefore, variation might occur in the SSC region rather than the IR regions. Comparisons of the 11 plastomes showed the loss of *infA* in *Crinodendron patagua* and the genus *Elaeocarpus*, and similar losses or pseudogenization was reported in the 309 complete chloroplast genomes of 24 species of angiosperms (Millen et al., 2001). *ndh* genes are frequently pseudogenized or lost in plant groups with a degree of heterotrophy due to evolutionary adaptation to excessive water in the environment, as observed in *Aneura*, *Cuscuta*, *Epifagus*, *Hydnora*, and nonphotosynthetic orchid species and some autotrophic gymnosperms and ferns (De Pamphilis and Palmer, 1990; Wicke et al., 2011; Wickett et al., 2008; McNeal et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2015; Naumann et al., 2016), and this study also revealed that *Aristotelia fruticosa*, *Vallea stipularis* and the genus *Elaeocarpus* of Elaeocarpaceae have lost the *ndhK* gene. The *rpl32* gene was detected in *Aristotelia fruticosa* but not in the other 4 genera (*Vallea stipularis*, *Crinodendron patagua*, the genus *Elaeocarpus* and the genus *Sloanea*), which is similar to previously published research about the losses of two

genes, *infA* and *rpl32*, in *Thalictrum coreanum* (Park and Jansen, 2015).

In summary, the 5 genera may have experienced different niche expansions.

Some studies suggest that IR expansion and contraction are associated with the evolution of plants. Large expansions and contractions may be related to double-strand breakage and repair, while the small expansions and contractions may be related to gene conversions (Khakhlova et al., 2006; Liang, 2018; Hansen et al., 2007; Kim and Lee, 2004; Wang et al., 2008; Ma et al., 2013). We found large IR expansions in the 5 genera. The genus *Elaeocarpus* is different from the other 4 genera at the IR/SC boundary, which may reflect that the genus *Sloanea* has an older origin and experienced a different evolution event. In addition, *rps19* was located across the LSC/IRB regions in 4 genera, while the boundary of the LSC and IRb regions in the genus *Elaeocarpus* included *rps3*. Research shows that the locations of *rps19* and *rps3* differ between the chloroplasts of monocotyledons and dicotyledons. In some dicotyledons, *rps19* only partially exists in the IR region, while the *rps3* gene is only found in *Paris* and Melanthiaceae (Lin et al., 2012; Sarah

et al., 2013). Compared with the other 4 genera, the genus *Sloanea*

experienced different complex evolutionary events.

Homologous fragments have been found via collinearity analysis in

various plants, including Capparaceae (Alzahrani et al., 2021),

Ranunculaceae (Park and Park, 2021), and *Passiflora* (Cauz-Santos et

al., 2020). The length of homologous fragments is related to the time of

divergence between species. The shorter the time of species

differentiation is, the more homologous fragments there are (Cheng et al.,

2013). According to the similarity of the 11 chloroplast genomes of

Elaeocarpaceae, we detected several blocks of synteny between *Vallea*

*stipularis* and *Aristotelia fruticosa*, the genus *Elaeocarpus* and the genus

*Sloanea*, meaning that the times of divergence between the genus *Sloanea*

and the genus *Elaeocarpus*, *Vallea stipularis* and *Aristotelia fruticosa*

were similar. Interestingly, there were no blocks of synteny in

*Crinodendron patagua* with the other 4 genera, meaning that the

evolution of *Crinodendron patagua* was different from that of the other 4

genera. In the genus *Elaeocarpus* and genus *Sloanea*, it is worth noting

that the differentiation time of *Elaeocarpus japonicus* was similar to that

of *Elaeocarpus japonicus* var. *yunnanensis* and that of *Elaeocarpus angustifolius* was similar to that of *Elaeocarpus hainanensis*. In addition, the times of divergence among species in the genus *Sloanea* were similar.

## 4.2 Phylogenomic relationships and historical biogeography in Oxalidales

Based on the 20 species of 6 families with available complete chloroplast genomes, a phylogenomic tree of Oxalidales was reconstructed, consistent with the recent phylogeny (Byng et al., 2016; Baker et al., 2021; Li et al., 2021). The 5 genera of Elaeocarpaceae were clarified as sister to Cephalotaceae and Brunelliaceae; In addition, the family Connaraceae and Oxalidaceae are far from Elaeocarpaceae, which was recognized by Heibl and Renner (2012).

Pillon's (2021) phylogeny of Oxalidales based on DNA Molecular fragments has been used as data for event-based biogeographic analysis of the world. In that study the possibly ancestral area for the Oxalidales is Australia/New Guinea + New Caledonia in Cretaceous (102 Mya), which was consistent with our result (120 Mya). That also can be verified by the

greatest number of extant species and genera in Oceania, and particularly in eastern Australia, New Guinea, and New Caledonia (Kershaw et al., 1976; Kershaw et al., 2007; Sniderman, 2011).

The age of Connaraceae clade with *Rourea microphylla* was much older than the age estimated by Heibl and Renner (2012, 74 Mya). The recent discovery of *Connarus*-like wood from the Paleocene of India, outside the modern range of the family, suggests a possible origin in India during the Cretaceous, when India was an island continent, and subsequent spread throughout the Old-World tropics as India docked with Asia (Baas et al., 2017).

The differentiation time of Oxalidaceae is consistent as that of Heibl and Renner (2012), which is about 68 Mya. Geographical distribution patterns suggest the origin of the family in the southern hemisphere, prior to the separation of South America and Africa (Raven and Axelrod, 1974).

The split from Cephalotaceae and Brunelliaceae was estimated at 60 Mya, more recent than Heibl and Renner's (2012) research (78 Mya). Brunellia is exclusively distributed in the continent of America, and most

of the species distribute in North America, but with only 6 of the known species (61 species) occurring in north of Panama. The presence of *Brunellia* may have been represented north of Panama before the closing of the central American land bridge (Montes et al., 2012, 15Mya), which was consistent with our result (Coode, 2004).

It has long been postulated that Elaeocarpaceae originated in the southern hemisphere, of which only *Elaeocarpus* and *Sloanea* reach the northern hemisphere (Raven and Axelrod, 1974). The ages of Elaeocarpaceae (60Mya) estimated in this study were younger than early results estimated at 79.62-85.2 Mya (Magallón et al., 2015; Phoon, 2015), 64-66 Mya (Wikström et al., 2001), 67 Mya (Heibl and Renner, 2012) and 100 Mya (Crayn et al., 2006), but older than 38 Mya (Harris and Davies, 2016). These differences may be due to the choice of DNA markers and the accuracy of the fossil calibrations of molecular evolutionary rates. The earliest divergence within the Elaeocarpaceae appears to have occurred in the late Cretaceous based on our data, which is broadly coincident with the time when the western (Africa and South America) and eastern (Australia, Antarctica, Madagascar, and India) parts

of Gondwana were separating (Ali and Aitchison, 2008).

### 4.3 Phylogenomic relationships and historical biogeography in Elaeocarpaceae

Within Elaeocarpaceae, the 11 taxa were separated into the following groups in our study: the *Sloanea* alliance (*Vallea stipularis*, *Aristotelia fruticosa* and *Sloanea*), *Elaeocarpus* alliance and *Crinodendron patagua* alliance. The phylogenomic placements are consistent with those in Phoon's research (Phoon, 2015). One major challenge in previous studies of the phylogenetic relationships between and within Elaeocarpaceae was the focus on DNA markers (*trnL-trnF* + *trnV-ndhC* region) rather than complete chloroplast genomes (Maynard, 2004; Baba, 2013; Phoon, 2015). Furthermore, the DNA markers exhibited low sequence variability, leading to insufficiently resolved phylogenies within *Elaeocarpus*, and there no phylogenetic tree was constructed for *Sloanea*. The clades identified in the phylogenomic analyses strongly confirmed the preliminary results of earlier studies, and the results of the analysis improved the posterior probabilities of all

clades (Maynard, 2004; Baba, 2013; Phoon, 2015).

Compared with the differentiation of *Vallea stipularis* and *Aristotelia fruticosa* in Phoon's (2015) study, the age of the split between *Vallea stipularis* and *Aristotelia fruticosa* was much younger than the age estimated at 37 Mya. The results of the present study agreed with Coode's phylogenetic reconstruction in which *Vallea* and *Aristotelia* were sister group and the ancestors may have dispersed between western and eastern Gondwana (Coode, 2004; Phoon, 2015). The minimum estimates of divergence times between *Vallea stipularis* and *Aristotelia fruticosa* because the divergence of the South American and New Zealand lineages at 24–27 and 3 Mya respectively, postdates the isolation of their respective landmasses (McLoughlin, 2001).

*Crinodendron* was resolved in this study as an independent branch. The split from Elaeocarpaceae was estimated at 55 Mya, more recent than Phoon's estimate (59 Mya). The divergence of *Crinodendron* is estimated to have occurred during the Paleo-Eocene, but the origin of the genus is almost certainly older given the position of *Dubouzetia brasiliense* (from dwarf cloud forest near the Atlantic coast of Brazil) as sister to the rest of



the genus, based on morphological data (Coode, 2004).

*Elaeocarpus* represents a widespread lineage in Elaeocarpaceae that diverged 53 Mya, which was more older than Phoon's estimate (40 Mya). Divergence time analysis suggests that *Elaeocarpus* split in the Eocene and migrated out of Australia to the surrounding regions mostly in the Oligocene and the Miocene should be doubted as sampling without species from Southeast Asian (Crayn et al., 2006; Heibl and Renner, 2012; Phoon, 2015).

Divergence time analysis using BEAST suggests that *Sloanea* diverged from its sister species *Vallea stipularis* and *Aristotelia fruticosa* at 0.4 Mya, more recent than 29 Mya (Phoon, 2015), obviously a deviation caused by the sample represents the *Sloanea* in East Asia.

Overall, the divergence times of all genera in Elaeocarpaceae inferred using the complete chloroplast genomes was more accurate than those inferred using DNA markers (*trnL-trnF* region and *trnV-ndhC* region).

**Table 2.** Summary of 11 complete chloroplast genomes of

Elaeocarpaceae

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**Conflict Of Interest**

The authors declare no conflicts of interest regarding publication of this paper.

**CRedit authorship contribution statement**

**Yihui Wang:** Formal analysis (Lead), Data curation (Lead), Writing - original draft(Lead), Methodology (Lead), Resources (Equal), Software (Lead), Visualization (Lead).

**Yifei Xie:** Conceptualization (Lead), Project administration (Lead),  
Writing - review & editing (Lead), Funding acquisition (Lead).

**Jiayi Jin:** Methodology (Equal).

**Jinyue Li:** Software (Equal).

**Xiangdong Qiu:** Resources (Supporting).

**Yang Tong:** Resources (Supporting).

**Zhongyang Li:** Funding acquisition (Equal), Resources (Equal).

**Zhixiang Zhang:** Resources (Supporting), Funding acquisition  
(Equal).

**Wenling Lai:** Resources (Supporting), Funding acquisition  
(Supporting).

## **Data Availability Statement**

The original sequencing data have been submitted to the NCBI  
data base and received GenBank accession numbers MT982368  
(*Aristotelia fruticosa*), MT982369 (*Crinodendron patagua*), MT982370  
(*Vallea stipularis*), MW242787 (*Elaeocarpus angustifolius*), MW602804

(*Elaeocarpus hainanensis*), MT683335 (*Elaeocarpus japonicus*),  
MW242788 (*Elaeocarpus japonicus* var. *yunnanensis*), MW004670  
(*Sloanea sinensis*), MW242789 (*Sloanea cordifolia*), MW242790  
(*Sloanea dasycarpa*), MW242791 (*Sloanea longiaculeatae*). The data  
used to support the findings of this study are included in Table 1.

**Fig. 1** - Shared protein-coding genes in Elaeocarpaceae chloroplast  
genomes.

(**A** - Shared protein-coding genes in Elaeocarpaceae chloroplast  
genomes. The Venn diagram illustrates the number of genes shared  
between the chloroplast genomes of *Aristotelia fruticosa*, *Crinodendron*  
*patagua*, *Vallea stipularis*, *Elaeocarpus japonicus* and *Sloanea sinensis*.

**B** - Chloroplast genome map of *Aristotelia fruticosa*, *Crinodendron*  
*patagua*, *Vallea stipularis*, *Elaeocarpus japonicus* and *Sloanea sinensis*.

The green block represents shared protein-coding genes. The red block  
represents the genes unique to *Aristotelia fruticosa*. The blue block  
represents the genes unique to *Sloanea sinensis* and *Crinodendron*  
*patagua*. The pink block represents the genes unique to *Sloanea sinensis*,

*Aristotelia fruticosa* and *Vallea stipularis*. The brown block represents the genes unique to *Aristotelia fruticosa*, *Crinodendron patagua* and *Vallea stipularis*.)

**Fig. 2** - Synteny detected in Elaeocarpaceae using Circoletto.

(**A** - Synteny detected between the chloroplast genomes of the Elaeocarpaceae species *Aristotelia fruticosa*, *Crinodendron patagua*, *Vallea stipularis*, *Elaeocarpus japonicus* and *Sloanea sinensis* using Circoletto. **B** - Synteny detected between the chloroplast genomes of the Elaeocarpaceae species *Elaeocarpus angustifolius*, *Elaeocarpus japonicus*, *Elaeocarpus japonicus* var. *yunnanensis* and *Elaeocarpus hainanensis* using Circoletto. **C** - Synteny detected between the chloroplast genomes of the Elaeocarpaceae species *Sloanea cordifolia*, *Sloanea dasycarpa*, *Sloanea longiaculeatae* and *Sloanea sinensis* using Circoletto.)

**Fig. 3** - Comparisons of IR expansion and contraction in Elaeocarpaceae.

(**A** - The chloroplast genome boundaries of *Aristotelia fruticosa*,

*Crinodendron patagua*, *Vallea stipularis*, *Elaeocarpus japonicus* and  
*Sloanea sinensis* of Elaeocarpaceae. **B** - The chloroplast genome  
boundaries of *Elaeocarpus angustifolius*, *Elaeocarpus japonicus*,  
*Elaeocarpus japonicus* var. *yunnanensis* and *Elaeocarpus hainanensis*. **C**  
- The chloroplast genome boundaries of *Sloanea cordifolia*, *Sloanea*  
*dasycarpa*, *Sloanea longiaculeatae* and *Sloanea sinensis*.)

**Fig. 4** - Molecular phylogenomic tree of 20 species of Oxalidales.  
(Molecular phylogenomic tree of 20 species of Oxalidales based on  
complete chloroplast genome sequences constructed using Bayesian  
inference (BI) and Maximum Likelihood (ML). Numbers at each node  
are bootstrap support values and posterior probability.)

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**Table 1. Sampled species and their voucher specimens from the NCBI database**

No.	Species	Herbarium Code	Voucher	Location	Collector	Accession Number in GenBank
1	<i>*Aristotelia fruticosa</i> Hook.f.	K	781	The Royal Botanic Gardens	Stevens	MT982368
2	<i>*Crinodendron patagua</i> Molina	K	652	The Royal Botanic Gardens	Coode	MT982369
3	<i>*Vallea stipularis</i> L.f.	K	654	The Royal Botanic Gardens	Merello	MT982370
4	<i>*Elaeocarpus angustifolius</i> Blume	BJFC	140942	Guangxi Academy of Forestry	Xie YF	MW242787
5	<i>*Elaeocarpus hainanensis</i> Oliver	GNNU	PVHJX014291	Diaoluo Mountain, Hainan	Wang YH	MW602804
6	<i>*Elaeocarpus japonicus</i> Sieb. et Zucc.	BJFC	160730004	Wugong Mountain, Jiangxi	Xie YF	MT683335
7	<i>*Elaeocarpus japonicus</i> var. <i>yunnanensis</i> C. Chen & Y. Tang	BJFC	XW1746	Wenshan, Yunnan	Xie YF	MW242788
8	<i>*Sloanea sinensis</i> (Hance) Hemsl.	BJFC	XW1956	Wenshan, Yunnan	Xie YF	MW004670
9	<i>*Sloanea cordifolia</i> K. M. Feng ex H. T. Chang	BJFC	XW1958	Wenshan, Yunnan	Xie YF	MW242789
10	<i>*Sloanea dasycarpa</i> (Benth.) Hemsl.	BJFC	XZ581	Wenshan, Yunnan	Xie YF	MW242790
11	<i>*Sloanea longiaculeatae</i> Y. F. Xie & Z. X. Zhang	BJFC	XW1986	Wenshan, Yunnan	Xie YF	MW242791
12	<i>Cephalotus follicularis</i> Labill.			CZ Plants Nursery		NC042597
13	<i>Brunellia trianae</i> Cuatrec.	COL	4015	Cerro del Padre Amaya, Colombia		MN585217
14	<i>Brunellia antioquiensis</i> (Cuatrec.) Cuatrec.	COL	4001	Cerro del Padre Amaya, Colombia		MN615725
15	<i>Oxalis corniculata</i> L.	HUTB		Hainan University		NC051971
16	<i>Oxalis drummondii</i> A. Gray		TEX-DJPG722			NC043802

17	<i>Averrhoa carambola</i> L.	KUS	2014-0241	Thailand		KX364202
18	<i>Rourea microphylla</i> (Hook. & Arn.) Planch.	FJFC	FAFU201909(Li)	Zhangzhou, Fujian	Li XP	MT537171
19	<i>Euonymus schensianus</i> Maxim.	WUK	ZXZ16005	Shaanxi		NC036019
20	<i>Euonymus maackii</i> Rupr.					MW771518

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\*: Newly published species sequences

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903     **Table 2. Summary of 11 complete chloroplast genomes of Elaeocarpaceae**

	<i>Aristotelia</i>	<i>Crinodendron</i>	<i>Vallea</i>	<i>Elaeocarpus</i>	<i>Elaeocarpus</i>	<i>Elaeocarpus</i>	<i>Elaeocarpus</i> <i>japonicus</i> var. <i>yunnanensis</i>	<i>Sloanea</i>	<i>Sloanea</i>	<i>Sloanea</i>	<i>Sloanea</i>
	<i>fruticosa</i>	<i>patagua</i>	<i>stipularis</i>	<i>angustifolius</i>	<i>hainanensis</i>	<i>japonicus</i>		<i>sinensis</i>	<i>cordifolia</i>	<i>dasycarpa</i>	<i>longiaculeatae</i>
Total cpDNA size (bp)	158,085	159,400	158,456	158,315	157,562	157,639	158,124	157,546	158,059	157,966	157,918
Length of the LSC region (bp)	87,427	88,036	87,495	86,465	85,967	85,784	85,928	87,903	88,413	88,297	88,284
Length of the IR regions (bp)	26,477	26,703	26,615	27,038	27,135	27,437	27,437	25,984	25,985	26,011	25,985
Length of the SSC region (bp)	17,704	17,958	17,731	17,774	17,325	16,981	17,322	17,675	17,676	17,647	17,664
Total GC content	37.0%	37.0%	37.0%	36.9%	37.1%	37.1%	37.1%	37.3%	37.2%	37.2%	37.2%
GC content of the IR regions/%	42.5%	42.7%	42.4%	42.3%	42.3%	42.2%	42.2%	42.9%	42.9%	42.9%	42.9%

GC content of the LSC region/%	34.9%	34.7%	34.9%	34.8%	34.9%	35.0%	34.9%	35.1%	35.0%	35.1%	35.0%
GC content of the SSC region/%	30.9%	30.8%	30.9%	31.0%	31.2%	31.3%	31.2%	31.4%	31.3%	31.4%	31.3%
Total number of genes (unique)	133(114)	132(113)	132(113)	132(111)	132(111)	132(111)	132(111)	132(113)	132(113)	132(113)	132(113)
Protein-encoding genes	88	87	87	87	87	87	87	87	87	87	87
tRNAs	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37
rRNAs	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8