

Chloroplast genome-based genetic resources for Japan's threatened subalpine forests via genome skimming

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51 **Abstract**

52 The Japanese subalpine zone is dominated by a distinct and ecologically important conifer
53 rich forest biome, subalpine coniferous forests, that are an outlier of the extensive boreal
54 forests of Eurasia. While being relatively intact compared to other forest biomes in Japan,
55 subalpine coniferous forests are under significant threat from deer browsing, global
56 warming and small populations size effects. However, there is a severe lack of genetic
57 resources available for the study of this biome's major constituent plant species. This
58 study aims to develop chloroplast genome-based genetic resources for 12 widespread
59 subalpine tree and shrub species via genome skimming of whole genomic DNA using
60 short reads (100-150 bp in length). For 10 species, whole chloroplast genomes were
61 assembled via *de novo*-based methods from 4-10 individuals per species sampled from
62 across their ranges in Japan and, for non-Japanese endemic species, elsewhere in
63 northeast Asia. A total of 566 single nucleotide polymorphisms for Japanese samples and
64 768 for all samples (varying from 2 to 202 per species) were identified which were
65 distributed in geographically restricted lineages in most species. In addition, between 9
66 to 58 polymorphic simple sequence repeat regions were identified per species. For two
67 Ericaceae species (*Rhododendron brachycarpum* and *Vaccinium vitis-idaea*)
68 characterized by large chloroplast genomes, *de novo* assembly failed, but single
69 nucleotide polymorphisms could be identified using reference mapping. This data will be
70 useful for genetic studies of the taxonomic relationship of populations within Japan and
71 to other parts of northeast Asia, investigating phylogeographic patterns within species,
72 conservation genetics and has potential application for studies of environmental and
73 ancient DNA.

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75 **Keywords:** Angiosperms, boreal forests, chloroplast, conifers, genome skimming,
76 mutational hotspots, ultra-barcode

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80 **Introduction**

81 Genome skimming is the shallow sequencing of genomic DNA enabling the accurate
82 sequencing of genomic components such as the chloroplast, mitochondria and high copy
83 nuclear regions. In the last decade genome skimming has revolutionised the ease with
84 which genomic data can be obtained for both model and non-model species (Dodsworth,
85 2015). For example, the ability to cost effectively and reliably assemble the relatively
86 small mitochondria of animals and chloroplast genome of plants using *de novo* or
87 reference mapping methods from low coverage genome skimming data has accelerated
88 our understanding of the variation in size, gene content and arrangement of these genomes
89 (Li *et al.*, 2020) with thousands of whole organelle genomes now available on Genbank.
90 Whole mitochondria (De Mandal *et al.*, 2014) and chloroplast (Song *et al.*, 2023)
91 genomes are now being incorporated into barcode libraries (called ultra barcodes)
92 providing greater power to understand the phylogenetic affinity of taxa and increase the
93 ability to identify the small fragments of organelle DNA derived from ancient or
94 environmental samples. The relative low cost of genome skimming means that the whole
95 organelle genome of multiple samples can feasibly be obtained, facilitating the discovery
96 of potentially phylogenetically informative characters and mutational hotspots for the
97 taxonomic level of interest (e.g. genus or species level). In plants, such studies have
98 increased in recent years identifying informative chloroplast DNA variation for
99 phylogenetic (Malé *et al.*, 2014; Fu *et al.*, 2022), phylogeographic (Migliore, Lézine and
100 Hardy, 2020) and conservation genetic (Worth *et al.*, 2023) studies.

101 Here we use genome skimming of genomic DNA to develop chloroplast genome genetic
102 resources for an important but threatened forest biome in Japan, subalpine coniferous
103 forests. These forests, classified in the Abieti-Piceetalia jesoensis order (Krestov and
104 Omelko, 2010), are an outlier of the extensive boreal forests of Eurasia. In Japan, they
105 have a wide but fragmented distribution from northern Hokkaido (45.4° N) to the highest
106 peaks of the Kii Peninsula (34.1° N) and Shikoku Island (33.7° N) in western Japan
107 (Figure 1). The fossil record shows that subalpine forests were more widespread during
108 glacial periods, occurring more than a thousand metres below their current elevational
109 limit to near sea level in Honshu, but contracted their ranges during warm interglacials
110 involving significant range losses, especially in western Japan (e.g. the loss of *Tsuga*

111 *diversifolia* (Maxim.) Mast.) from Chugoku (Takahara, Tanida and Miyoshi, 2001), *Pinus*
112 *koraiensis* Siebold et Zucc from most of western Japan (Aizawa, Kim and Yoshimaru,
113 2012) and *Picea maximowiczii* Regel ex Mast. from Kyushu and Chugoku (Magri *et al.*,
114 2020)). Japan's subalpine coniferous forests are of immense value for biodiversity,
115 harbouring many endemic species, and for the ecosystem services they provide, for
116 example, via their role as the headwater forests of Japan's major watersheds. Although
117 significant areas of subalpine forests have been replaced by Japanese larch (*Larix*
118 *kaempferi* (Lamb.) Carrière) plantations (Franklin *et al.*, 1979), the biome is one of the
119 comparatively least disturbed by humans. However, despite this these forests face
120 significant threats including severe browsing by increasing populations of deer, small
121 population size effects and rising global temperatures (Oishi and Doe, 2015; Tsuyama *et*
122 *al.*, 2015). Subalpine coniferous forests are considered most at risk of decline in western
123 Japan where they have little available higher ground to migrate to already being restricted
124 to near the tops (Hämet-Ahti, Ahti and Koponen, 1974) of relatively low mountain ranges.
125 Indeed, populations of many species of subalpine trees and shrubs in western Japan are
126 endangered (Japanese Red Data Book online: <http://jpnrb.com/>) especially in Shikoku
127 and the Kii Peninsula.

128 Genetic markers can inform conservation management of plants by resolving taxonomic
129 uncertainty of species, identify populations which should be prioritised for conservation
130 based on their genetic distinctiveness (Shibabayashi *et al.*, 2023) and reveal areas with
131 significantly high or low genetic diversity. However, there are limited genetic markers
132 available for the component species of Japan's subalpine forests. The existing range-wide
133 organelle-based genetic studies (*Abies veitchii* (Uchiyama *et al.*, 2023), *Picea jezoensis*
134 (Aizawa *et al.*, 2007), *Pinus koraiensis* (Aizawa, Kim and Yoshimaru, 2012) and
135 *Vaccinium vitis-idea* (Ikeda *et al.*, 2015)) all are based on Sanger sequencing of a few
136 chloroplast fragments. In this study we develop genetic resources based on whole
137 chloroplast genome sequencing via genome skimming for 12 trees and shrubs (Table 1)
138 that are key components of Japan's subalpine forests occurring either as canopy
139 dominants or important in the understory (Yamanaka, 1959; Franklin *et al.*, 1979; Sugita,
140 1992) and have ranges extending from northern to western Japan. The 12 species include
141 five conifers (*Abies veitchii* Lind., *Picea jezoensis* (Siebold et Zucc.) Carrière, *Pinus*

142 *koraiensis*. *Thuja standishii* (Gordon) Carrière and *Tsuga diversifolia*) and seven
143 angiosperms (*Acer ukurunduense* Trautv. et C.A.Mey., *Berberis amurensis* Rupr., *Betula*
144 *ermanii* Cham., *Ilex rugosa* F.Schmidt, *Oplopanax japonicus* Nakai, *Rhododendron*
145 *brachycarpum* D.Don ex G.Don and *Vaccinium vitis-idaea* L.). Four (*A. veitchii*, *O.*
146 *japonicus*, *T. diversifolia* and *T. standishii*) are endemic to Japan while the remaining
147 eight species occur in other parts of Eurasia including Korea, northeast China and Far
148 East Russia (Song, 1991; Krestov and Nakamura, 2002). For 8 of 12 species the whole
149 chloroplast genome is available but these consist of single samples collected from their
150 ranges outside Japan (e.g. in China, *B. ermanii*, *A. ukurunduense*, and South Korea *B.*
151 *amurensis*, *V. vitis-idaea*, *P. koraiensis*, *P. jezoensis* or in Japan, *T. diversifolia* and *T.*
152 *standishii*). No whole chloroplast genome is available for *O. japonicus*, *R. brachycarpum*,
153 *I. rugosa* or *A. veitchii*. Here we report intraspecific chloroplast genome diversity (single
154 nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and indels including simple sequence repeats (SSRs))
155 based on whole chloroplast genome sequencing of these species for the first time, identify
156 how this intraspecific diversity is geographically distributed and, lastly, assess how the
157 diversity identified in this study is related to already published genomes of the same
158 species.

159 **Materials and Methods**

160 *Sampling and DNA extraction*

161 Leaf samples from four to twelve individuals of each of the twelve study species were
162 collected from across their ranges in Japan and where possible where they occur outside
163 Japan in N.E. China, South Korea and Far East Russia (for a list of all samples see Table
164 S1 in Supplementary Materials). In Japan the sampling included areas where the species
165 are widespread in central Honshu but also the most northern populations in Hokkaido/
166 Tohoku and most southern parts of the species ranges in western Japan. DNA was
167 extracted using either the DNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen) or a modified CTAB protocol.
168 DNA concentration and quality were assessed by agarose gel electrophoresis and a Qubit
169 2.0 fluorometer (Life Technologies).

170 *Chloroplast genome assembly*

171 Whole genomic DNA was sent to the Beijing Genomic Institute where short-size libraries

172 were constructed and paired-end sequencing (2 x 150 bp except for *T. diversifolia* which
173 were 2 x 100 bp) was performed on an Illumina HiSeq2000 Genome Analyser.
174 Chloroplast genomes were assembled using GetOrganelle v1.7.7.0 (Jin *et al.*, 2020) and
175 its dependencies including SPAdes (Bankevich *et al.*, 2012) and Bowtie2 (Langmead and
176 Salzberg, 2012), using default setting, or, in the case of *Abies veitchii*, Novoplasty 4.3.1
177 (Dierckxsens, Mardulyn and Smits, 2016) was used as it was found to perform more
178 reliably for this species. The previously published whole chloroplast genome of *Tsuga*
179 *diversifolia* (Genbank accession: MH171102) was re-assembled using GetOrganelle. The
180 chloroplast genomes were annotated using GeSeq (Tillich *et al.*, 2017) with annotations
181 checked by aligning to reference genomes and prepared for submission to Genbank using
182 GB2sequin (Lehwark and Greiner, 2019).

183 The chloroplast genomes of *R. brachycarpum* and *V. vitis-idaea* (both Ericaceae) could
184 not be assembled using GetOrganelle or Novoplasty despite trying a range of settings.
185 This was likely caused by an unsolvable tangled graph due to long repeats (Fu *et al.*,
186 2022) with Ericaceae chloroplast genomes being characterized by gene rearrangement,
187 repetitive regions and IR expansion (Li *et al.*, 2020) making them difficult to assemble
188 using short Illumina reads alone. Instead reads were mapped to reference chloroplast
189 genomes with ‘bwa mem’ (Li, 2013). *Vaccinium vitis-idaea* reads were mapped to a *V.*
190 *vitis-idaea* whole chloroplast genome (sourced from a plant cultivated in Canada)
191 assembled from Oxford Nanopore (SRR25468450) and Illumina NovaSeq reads
192 (SRR25477290) (Hirabayashi, Debnath and Owens, 2023) using the ptGAUL pipeline
193 (Zhou *et al.*, 2023) (<https://github.com/Bean061/ptgaul>). Before chloroplast genome
194 assembly, Nanopore reads were filtered by Filtlong (<https://github.com/rrwick/Filtlong>)
195 with parameters of ‘--min_length 1000 --keep_percent 90,’ while Illumina reads (1 Gbp
196 for each pair) were down-sampled by the ‘sample’ subcommand of seqtk
197 (<https://github.com/lh3/seqtk>) ver. 1.4-r122 with the parameter of ‘-s 0’. A chloroplast
198 genome of the same species from Korea (Genbank accession: LC521968) was not used
199 because it was found to be missing approximately 5,000 bp of sequence. For *R.*
200 *brachycarpum*, no reference of the same species, or raw data including long nanopore
201 reads suitable to assemble a reference genome, were available. Therefore, the reads were
202 mapped to the closest available whole chloroplast genome on Genbank as determined by

203 blasting the longest chloroplast contigs produced by GetOrganelle. This resulted in the
204 chloroplast genome of *R. calophytum* Franch. (OM373082.1 (Ma *et al.*, 2022)) and *R.*
205 *shanii* W.P. Fang (MW374796 (Yu *et al.*, 2022)) being the closest. bcftools ver. 1.17 (Li,
206 2011) was used to create consensus sequences of each mapping incorporating both SNPs
207 and indel sites whereby the mapping consensus had the reference sequence in regions
208 where SNPs/indels were not called for all samples or the minimum read depth of one of
209 the samples was < 20 or above an average depth + one standard deviation. The read
210 mapping-based assemblies were not annotated or submitted to Genbank due to the
211 relatively high number of ambiguous sites compared to the *de novo* method and the
212 incorporation of reference sequence in regions with minimum/maximum read depths over
213 the designated thresholds. Rather they were used primarily for uncovering SNPs and
214 discovery of the main lineages in these species.

215 *Phylogenetic analyses*

216 For the ten species where whole chloroplast *de novo* assembly was successful, the
217 intraspecific phylogenetic relationships of the chloroplast genomes were investigated
218 using maximum likelihood implemented in RAxML v.8.2.10 (Stamatakis, 2014). The
219 input files were prepared in Geneious 9.15 (Biomatters, New Zealand) where the whole
220 chloroplast genomes were aligned using MAFFT multiple aligner Version: 1.3.6 (Katoh
221 *et al.*, 2002). For use as outgroups, complete published chloroplast genomes of the same
222 species (if available) and up to three complete genomes of different species within the
223 same genus as determined by Blastn (Altschul *et al.*, 1990) (i.e. the three with the closest
224 percentage identity) were used. This was done due to the fact that in some cases the
225 chloroplast genomes of the most closely related species were unavailable and, for the
226 angiosperms, the fact that chloroplast relationships do not necessarily follow species
227 relationships (e.g. for *Betula* (Palme *et al.*, 2004), *Acer* (Saeki *et al.*, 2011)). Before
228 alignment one inverted repeat region was removed for all angiosperms and poorly aligned
229 regions excluded using Gblocks 0.91b (Castresana, 2000) ran with default setting except
230 with gaps allowed. The same method as above was used for phylogenetic tree
231 construction for species assembled by reference mapping, *R. brachycarpum* and *V. vitis-*
232 *idaea*, except that no outgroups of congeneric species were used.

233 The accuracy of the whole chloroplast genome sequencing was checked using Sanger

234 sequencing of variations identified in six species (3 angiosperms and 3 conifers) five of
235 whose chloroplast genome was obtained via GetOrganelle *de novo* method and *R.*
236 *brachycarpum* obtained using reference mapping. A total of 25 primer pairs in six species
237 were designed around variable sites identified in the genome skimming based whole
238 chloroplast genome data using the Primer3 2.3.4. plugin (Untergasser *et al.*, 2012) in
239 Geneious and Sanger sequenced using Supredye (MS Techno Systems) following the
240 manufacturer's instructions for two samples per species. Sequences were determined via
241 capillary electrophoresis on an ABI3130 Genetic Analyzer (Life Technologies, Waltham,
242 MA, USA).

243 *Genetic diversity*

244 The whole chloroplast genomes of each species were aligned in Geneious using MAFFT
245 (Katoh *et al.*, 2002) including accessions of the same species available on Genbank where
246 available (except *Pinus koraiensis* (NC_004677) and *Thuja standishii* (KX832627) where
247 the records on Genbank were found to have unusually high genetic distance from other
248 whole chloroplast genomes of the same species obtained both from Genbank and/or this
249 study and were therefore excluded).

250 The number of non-informative sites (singletons), parsimony informative sites (i.e. sites
251 that are present at least twice and are therefore potentially informative for phylogenetic
252 analyses), overall nucleotide diversity and average number of nucleotide differences (k)
253 were calculated in DNAsp v.6.12.03 (Rozas *et al.*, 2017). The number of indel events
254 and indel diversity was calculated using the multi-allelic gap option in the same program.
255 Calculations were done separately for those samples from Japan and for all samples (i.e.
256 individuals sampled for this study within and outside Japan and obtained from Genbank).
257 In addition, the number of SNPs and nucleotide diversity of genes and intergenic spacers
258 across the whole chloroplast genomes of each species was calculated in DNAsp v.6.12.03
259 using the multi-domain function.

260 Due to the presence of ambiguous sites in the reference mapping-based chloroplast
261 genome assemblies of *R. brachycarpum* and *V. vitis-idaea* that is not compatible with
262 DNAsp v.6.12.03 we used PopART (Leigh and Bryant, 2015) to calculate the number of
263 SNPs, parsimony informative sites and overall nucleotide diversity.

264 *Chloroplast microsatellite identification*

265 For the ten species where whole chloroplast *de novo* assembly was successful chloroplast
266 microsatellite regions were searched for using Find Polymorphic SSRs which uses the
267 Phobos Tandem Repeat Finder (Mayer, 2008) in Geneious with a repeat unit length of 1-
268 3 bp, a minimum length of 10 bp and a requirement that they occur in all sequences in the
269 alignment.

270 **Results**

271 *Chloroplast genome assembly*

272 An average of 8,285,799 reads were obtained per sample for the 12 species (Table S2).
273 For the 10 species that had their whole chloroplast genome successfully *de novo*
274 assembled, the percentage of total reads that were from the chloroplast genome varied
275 between 0.24% to 6.64% (Table S2) with substantial difference between angiosperms,
276 average of 3.46%, and the large nuclear genome bearing conifers with an average of
277 0.90%. As a consequence, overall read coverage of the chloroplast genome was 266.0
278 for angiosperms to 92.8 for conifers (Table S2). Whole chloroplast genome lengths were
279 between 156,109 to 166,708 bp for angiosperms and between 116,924 to 130,925 bp for
280 conifers. The whole chloroplast genomes of each species did not differ substantially in
281 length (average difference = 185.8 bp) with the most similar being *I. rugosa* (6 bp
282 maximum difference between samples) and the most different being *B. amurensis* (431
283 bp maximum difference). All sequences obtained from direct Sanger sequencing were
284 identical to the chloroplast genomes (except for some ambiguous sites in the read
285 mapping consensuses of *R. brachycarpum*) and confirmed all the variable sites. For the
286 list of Genbank accession numbers for each sample see Table S2 and for *R. brachycarpum*
287 and *V. vitis-idaea* sequence data see the fasta alignments in the Supplementary Materials.

288 *Genetic diversity of de novo assembled species*

289 An average of 56.6 SNPs per species were discovered when considering only Japanese
290 samples (Table 2) and 76.8 when including all samples (Table 2 and S3). A total of 31%
291 of all SNPs were parsimony informative for Japan and 41% for all samples. For both
292 angiosperms and conifers, the number of SNPs for samples from Japan varied greatly

293 between species with highest values 138 for *B. amurensis* and 110 for *P. jezoensis* and
294 lowest being 2 for *T. standishii* and 25 for *I. rugosa*, respectively (Table 2). When
295 considering all samples, the number of SNPs increased by between 6.4 to 1.07 times
296 (average 2.21 times) with the highest increase in *A. ukurunduense* and *P. jezoensis* (Table
297 S3). An average of 61.5 indels events were observed in Japanese samples with a
298 maximum of 147 in *B. ermanii* and a low of 17 in *T. standishii*. Similar to SNPs, the
299 number of indel events increased when including all samples (average 83.8 per species).
300 Considering SSR type indels for Japanese samples, mono- repeats were more common
301 than either di- or tri- repeats in all species with an average of 42.8 per species ranging
302 from 72 in *B. amurensis* to 22 in *T. standishii* (Table 3). This compares to an average per
303 species of 9.3 for di- and 6.4 for tri- repeats. An average of 54.9% of mono-repeats were
304 polymorphic varying from 90.2% in *A. veitchii* to 0% in *T. standishii*. This contrasts to
305 an average of 7.5% and 4.7% per species being polymorphic for di- and tri- repeats,
306 respectively. When considering all samples, the number of overall mono-, di- and tri-
307 repeats increased slightly with the number of polymorphic ones increasing to 59.7%,
308 8.06% and 7.4% percent for mono-, di- and tri- repeats, respectively (Table S4).

309 Based on the Japan only data, an average of 85.2% of regions (genes and intragenic
310 spacers) in the angiosperm chloroplast and 86.8% of regions in the conifer chloroplast
311 were invariable with most of the variable regions only having one SNP (Figure S1 and
312 S2). The results for all samples are not shown because they are nearly identical to those
313 based on the only Japan data. For the majority of species, the most diverse regions based
314 on nucleotide diversity were intragenic spacers except for the low diversity *A.*
315 *ukurunduense* in Japan where half of the most diverse regions were within genes (Table
316 4 and 5). The most diverse regions based on nucleotide diversity were particular to each
317 species in 56 cases, 13 regions were found in at least two species and only three regions,
318 *trnH-GUG-psbA*, *ycf1-ndhF* and the long *ycf1* gene, were observed in three species and
319 none in four or more. For the results based on all samples see Table S5.

320 *Genetic diversity of reference mapping assembled species*

321 The number of overall SNPs identified in *V. vitis-idaea* for was 213 for Japanese samples
322 with 84 being parsimony informative. For all samples the number of SNPs increased to

323 238 with 84 parsimony informative. In *R. brachycarpum*, the mapping using the *R. shanii*
324 reference chloroplast genome (MW374796) resulted in a higher number of SNPs being
325 uncovered (89/ 107 overall SNPs with 42/ 54 parsimony informative for Japan and all
326 samples, respectively) compared to mapping to *R. calophytum* (OM373082) which
327 uncovered 79 and 98 overall SNPs with 33 and 44 parsimony informative for only Japan
328 and all samples, respectively.

329 *Phylogenetic relationships*

330 The chloroplast variation in most species was found to be distributed in well supported
331 clades with clear non-overlapping geographical ranges (see Figures 1-12). For example,
332 *B. ermanii*, *A. ukurunduense*, *O. japonicus*, *P. jezoensis*, *R. brachycarpum*, *V. vitis-idaea*
333 and (to a less clear extent) *B. amurensis* were found to harbour northern and southern
334 distributed lineages. These lineages coincided with the distribution of two varieties in the
335 case of *P. jezoensis*, var. *jezoensis* distributed Far East Russia, northeast China and
336 Hokkaido and var. *hondoensis* distributed in Honshu, Japan (Aizawa *et al.*, 2007). For *R.*
337 *brachycarpum* phylogenetic relationships were similar between the results based on the
338 two references used for read mapping with all main clades recovered in both but the
339 phylogeny based on the *R. calophytum* reference was less well resolved in the early
340 diverging branches probably due to a lower number of SNPs recovered (Figure 11 and
341 S3). On the other hand, the lineages identified in *P. koraiensis* and *I. rugosa* had
342 overlapping ranges while for *A. veitchii* a diverged lineage was observed in only one
343 individual at the southern edge of the species range (Figure 1). For both *T. diversifolia*
344 and *T. standishii* all individuals harboured genetically similar chloroplast genomes with
345 no diverged lineages (Figure 1). Genbank accessions of the same species were mostly
346 placed within one of the distinct clades identified in this study (e.g. *P. koraiensis*, *A.*
347 *ukurunduense*, and *B. amurensis*). In three species, *A. veitchii*, *B. ermanii* and *B.*
348 *amurensis*, Genbank accessions of outgroup species were nested within identified clades.

349 **Discussion**

350 This is one of the first studies to develop ultra barcodes for species representing a distinct
351 biome and contributes to an increasing trend to assemble whole chloroplast genomes for
352 genetic resource development studies. For example, Song *et al.* (2023) included whole

353 chloroplast genomes, along with traditional short Sanger-based fragments, in a barcode
354 library of the flowering plants of arid NW China while Krawczyk *et al.* (2018) used whole
355 chloroplast genomes in a barcode library for the genus *Stipa*. However, studies
356 investigating *within* species variation of the whole chloroplast genome remain rare. In
357 this study the assembly of whole chloroplast genomes from short read genome skimming
358 data facilitated the discovery of significant levels of intraspecific chloroplast variation in
359 the 12 subalpine forest trees and shrubs. With the exception of *T. standishii*, this includes
360 tens of SNPs, indels and polymorphic simple sequence repeat regions per species. A total
361 of 31% and 41% of SNPs were parsimony informative for Japan and all samples,
362 respectively. These will be useful for elucidating genetic relationships and divergence of
363 populations across the range of these 12 species. However, hotspots of variation were
364 exceedingly rare with the vast majority of variable genes or intragenic regions only having
365 a single SNP.

366 While the whole chloroplast genomes of 10 species were efficiently and accurately
367 assembled using *de novo* assembly-based methods this method failed using short reads
368 for the two Ericaceae species, *R. brachycarpum* and *V. vitis-idaea*. However, we show
369 that mapping reads to a reference even in the absence of a con-specific reference in the
370 case of *R. brachycarpum* can provide reliable assay of chloroplast variation. For both
371 species tens of SNPs and geographically based chloroplast lineages were identified.

372 *Potential applications in phylogeography and conservation genetics*

373 By identifying chloroplast SNPs, indels and SSRs this study will accelerate
374 phylogeographic and conservation genetic studies of these 12 important subalpine forests
375 species. The whole chloroplast genome approach to identifying intraspecific chloroplast
376 variation has distinct advantages over using methods based on previously published
377 universal primers. Firstly, it maximises the ability to identify intraspecific chloroplast
378 variation, whether it consists of rare singleton SNPs to deeply diverged lineages (Worth
379 *et al.*, 2021; Wang *et al.*, 2023), in a genome that, as this study demonstrates, is mostly
380 invariable at the species level (sites with SNPs comprised between 0.0015-0.107% of all
381 sites in the 10 species where whole chloroplast genomes were assembled via *de novo*
382 methods for Japan samples). In fact, any variation, especially potentially phylogenetically

383 informative sites, were found to be scattered widely apart across the genome and therefore
384 are not guaranteed to be found via traditional Sanger based methods. Secondly, primer
385 pairs can be designed to target fragments that ensure the most efficient screening of
386 chloroplast variation (both singletons and parsimony informative ones) according to each
387 project's resources and objectives. Thirdly, simultaneously, chloroplast SSRs which have
388 a faster rate of evolution than other types of chloroplast polymorphism (Provan *et al.*,
389 1999) and are particularly sensitive markers for assessing population size changes and
390 genetic diversity (Provan, Powell and Hollingsworth, 2001) can be easily identified.
391 Lastly, the method can reveal unexpected patterns of chloroplast sharing with congeneric
392 species as demonstrated by the nesting of Genbank accessions of related species of *Betula*
393 and *Berberis* in the intraspecific variation found in Japan of *B. ermanii* and *B. amurensis*.
394 The identification of areas with unique genetic lineages (i.e. evolutionary significant units
395 (Moritz, 1994)) and/or high levels of genetic diversity could help to prioritise allocation
396 of limited conservation resources and inform management decisions for the 12 subalpine
397 species. This chloroplast information could also be used to identify seed source zones for
398 reforestation or translocation (Tsumura, 2022), which is particularly important given the
399 overall threat of decline of subalpine forests under global warming, deer browsing and
400 the small and isolated nature of some populations. For example, *Ilex rugosa* has only one
401 population on the island of Kyushu and one in the whole of the Chugoku area of western
402 Japan, while the declining isolated population of *Oplopanax japonicus* on the Kii
403 Peninsula depends almost entirely on the protection of deer proof fences for its persistence.
404 However, in all these cases nothing is known about the divergence and genetic diversity
405 of these populations. Range-wide studies are required to clarify the distribution of
406 chloroplast variation identified in this study, including the significance of apparently
407 southern versus northerly distributed distinct lineages identified in some of the 12 species.

408 *Genetic markers for ancient DNA studies*

409 Fossils of subalpine plants including most of the 12 species investigated in this study are
410 found in Last Glacial age sediments where they are sometimes abundant (Nishiuchi *et al.*,
411 2017). Genetic studies that utilize the chloroplast genomes assembled in this study could
412 contribute to studies of ancient DNA by providing an independent assessment of species

413 diversity and abundance, e.g. via methods such as sedaDNA (Liu *et al.*, 2020), to contrast
414 with solely fossil based conclusions. Indeed, incorporating genetics into palaeoecological
415 studies of Japan is an important endeavour because it could enable the identification of
416 morphologically similar but ecologically diverged species from fossils. In Japan, conifers
417 of the genera *Tsuga*, *Abies* and *Pinus* have both temperate and subalpine representatives
418 while *Picea* has both geographically restricted and widespread representatives. Therefore,
419 the inability to distinguish species of these genera when only fossil pollen is available
420 and/or when macrofossils lack informative parts such as reproductive structures, has large
421 implications for our understanding of past vegetation and migration/ range contraction
422 histories of specific forest biomes. For conifers, whole chloroplast genomes are
423 particularly promising for ancient DNA studies given the high level of species divergence
424 of the chloroplast which is paternally inherited in conifers (Mogensen, 2009). In addition,
425 having the whole chloroplast genome available means that any chloroplast genome
426 fragment obtained from fossils or sediment using Next Generation Sequencing methods,
427 typically comprising small fragments under 50 bp (Parducci *et al.*, 2019), will likely be
428 matchable to some part of the genome and, depending on the length and diversity of the
429 fragment (and the level of chloroplast sharing in the case of angiosperms), the species
430 will likely be identified. The likelihood of accurate species identification will only
431 improve with increasing number of different chloroplast fragments recovered. In Japan,
432 increasing the number of whole chloroplast genomes available especially for species rich
433 genera (e.g. *Picea*) is crucial to increasing the potential and accuracy of ancient DNA
434 studies. Knowledge about the intra-specific chloroplast lineages in each species may also
435 provide an opportunity to investigate the past distribution of specific lineages.

436

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448 **Data accessibility statement**

449 All whole chloroplast genomes are available on Genbank for the ten species whose whole
450 chloroplast genome was assembled using *de novo* methods while for *R. brachycarpum*
451 and *V. vitis-idaea* results see the fasta alignments in the Supplementary Materials.

452 **Author contributions**

453 The research was designed and performed by J.R.P.Worth, S. Kikuchi, S. Kanetani and
454 S. Ueno. D. Takahashi, M. Aizawa, E. A. Marchuk, M. A. Polezhaeva, V. V. Sheiko and
455 H. Jae Choi provided resources for this research. J.R.P.Worth and S. Ueno undertook the
456 analyses and J.R.P.Worth interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript with input from
457 all authors.

458 **Conflict of interest**

459 The authors declare no conflict of interest

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616 **Table 1** Details of the 12 subalpine plants investigated in this study including their
617 taxonomy, distribution and habit.

Species	Family	Distribution	Habit
<i>Abies veitchii</i>	Pinaceae	Japanese endemic	Tree
<i>Acer ukurunduense</i>	Sapindaceae	Japan/ Korea/ Far E. Russia/ N.E. China	Tree
<i>Berberis amurensis</i>	Berberidaceae	Japan/ Korea/ Far E. Russia/ N.E. China	Shrub
<i>Betula ermanii</i>	Betulaceae	Japan/ Korea/ Far E. Russia/ N.E. China	Tree
<i>Ilex rugosa</i>	Aquifoliaceae	Japan/ Far E. Russia	Shrub
<i>Oplopanax japonicus</i>	Araliaceae	Japanese endemic	Shrub
<i>Picea jezoensis</i>	Pinaceae	Japan/ Korea/ Far E. Russia/ N.E. China	Tree
<i>Pinus koraiensis</i>	Pinaceae	Japan/ Korea/ Far E. Russia/ N.E. China	Tree
<i>Rhododendron brachycarpum</i>	Ericaceae	Japan/ Korea/ Far E. Russia	Shrub
<i>Thuja standishii</i>	Cupressaceae	Japanese endemic	Tree
<i>Tsuga diversifolia</i>	Pinaceae	Japanese endemic	Tree
<i>Vaccinium vitis-idaea</i>	Ericaceae	Northern hemisphere	Shrub

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620 **Table 2** Summary of genetic diversity identified in the 12 study species including single nucleotide polymorphisms and indels based on
 621 the Japan dataset. Total sites analysed is the length of the whole chloroplast genome after excluding one inverted repeat.

Species	No. samples	Total sites	Sites (excluding gaps)	Monomorphic sites	Singletons	Parsimony informative sites	Nucleotide diversity (P_i)	Average number of nucleotide differences (k)	Indel events	InDel Diversity per site ($P_i(i)$)
<i>Acer ukurunduense</i>	6	130025	129681	129671	3	7	0.00004	4.7	31	0.00011
<i>Berberis amurensis</i>	8	129781	128946	128808	95	43	0.00036	46.1	139	0.00041
<i>Betula ermanii</i>	8	134983	134079	134008	47	24	0.00018	24.4	147	0.00039
<i>Ilex rugosa</i>	9	131506	131476	131451	17	8	0.00006	7.6	26	0.00008
<i>Oplopanax japonicus</i>	8	130338	130185	130125	6	54	0.00022	29	29	0.0001
<i>Abies veitchii</i>	7	121579	121109	121046	57	6	0.00016	19.8	100	0.00031
<i>Picea jezoensis</i>	4	124559	124047	123937	103	7	0.00046	56.5	53	0.00022
<i>Pinus koraiensis</i>	4	117154	116760	116731	26	3	0.00013	15	37	0.00017
<i>Thuja standishii</i>	5	131166	130225	130223	2	0	0.00006	0.8	17	0.00006
<i>Tsuga diversifolia</i>	4	121291	120827	120769	34	24	0.00027	33	36	0.00017
<i>Rhododendron brachycarpum</i> ¹	7	157211	-	157122	47	42	0.00023	-	-	-
<i>Rhododendron brachycarpum</i> ²	7	155954	-	155875	46	33	0.00019	-	-	-
<i>Vaccinium vitis-idaea</i> ³	10	144322	-	144109	129	84	0.00043	-	-	-

622 ¹ mapped to MW374796; ² mapped to OM373082; ³ mapped to the *V. vitis-idaea* whole chloroplast genome assembled from the Oxford

623 Nanopore and Illumina NovaSeq reads Hirabayashi, Debnath and Owens (2023)

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628 **Table 3** Summary of genetic diversity identified at simple sequence repeat (SSR) regions identified in the *de novo* assembled whole
 629 chloroplast genomes of 10 study species for Japan samples only.

Species	No. samples	No. polymorphic SSRs (mono-repeats >9 length)	No. monomorphic SSRs (mono-repeats >9 length)	No. polymorphic SSRs (di-repeats >9 length)	No. monomorphic SSRs (di-repeats >9 length)	No. polymorphic SSRs (tri-repeats >9 length)	No. monomorphic SSRs (tri-repeats >9 length)
<i>Acer ukurunduense</i>	6	21	47	0	3	0	12
<i>Berberis amurensis</i>	8	53	19	0	9	2	2
<i>Betula ermanii</i>	8	44	17	2	16	1	11
<i>Ilex rugosa</i>	9	21	30	0	4	0	5
<i>Oplopanax japonicus</i>	8	9	18	0	7	0	2
<i>Abies veitchii</i>	7	37	4	1	13	0	9
<i>Picea jezoensis</i>	4	17	8	4	7	0	5
<i>Pinus koraiensis</i>	4	20	16	0	6	0	0
<i>Thuja standishii</i>	5	0	22	0	14	0	9
<i>Tsuga diversifolia</i>	4	13	12	0	7	0	6

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635 **Table 4** The top ten most variable regions of the *de novo* assembled whole chloroplast genome of Japanese samples of five angiosperm
 636 study species according to nucleotide diversity (P_i). Intergenic spacers are italicized while genes are shown in bold. Note that *Acer*
 637 *ukurunduense* only had nine variable regions.

No.	<i>Acer ukurunduense</i>	<i>Berberis amurensis</i>	<i>Betula ermanii</i>	<i>Ilex rugosa</i>	<i>Oplopanax japonicus</i>
1	<i>rpl33—rps18</i>	<i>trnH-GUG—psbA</i>	<i>ycf1—ndhF</i>	<i>ndhG—ndhI</i>	<i>ycf1—ndhF</i>
2	<i>psbB—psbT</i>	<i>psbI—trnS-GCU</i>	<i>psbZ—trnG-GCC</i>	<i>psbI—trnS-GCU</i>	<i>rps2—rpoC2</i>
3	<i>ndhC—trnV-UAC</i>	<i>ycf1—ndhF</i>	<i>ndhD—psaC</i>	<i>trnH-GUG—psbA</i>	<i>psbZ—trnG-GCC</i>
4	<i>trnS-GCU—trnG-UCC</i>	<i>trnL-UAG—ccsA</i>	<i>rps15—ycf1</i>	<i>rps4—trnT-UGU</i>	<i>rpl16—rps3</i>
5	atpF	<i>atpI—rps2</i>	ycf1	<i>trnG-GCC—trnM-CAU</i>	<i>trnG-GCC—trnM-CAU</i>
6	petA	<i>ndhF—rpl32</i>	rps15	<i>psbB—psbT</i>	<i>psbC—trnS-UGA</i>
7	clpP1	accD	<i>petG—trnW-CCA</i>	<i>trnS-UGA—psbZ</i>	<i>ndhE—ndhG</i>
8	ycf1	<i>trnS-GGA—rps4</i>	<i>ndhF—rpl32</i>	<i>rps2—rpoC2</i>	<i>trnH-GUG—psbA</i>
9	ndhA	<i>trnN-GUU—ycf1</i>	rpl14	<i>psbA—matK</i>	<i>rps8—rpl14</i>
10	-	<i>trnQ-UUG—psbK</i>	cemA	psbA	<i>rps18—rpl20</i>

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645 **Table 5** The top ten most variable regions of the *de novo* assembled whole chloroplast genome of Japanese samples of five conifer study
 646 species according to nucleotide diversity (P_i). Intergenic spacers are italicized while genes are shown in bold. Note that *Thuja standishii*
 647 only had two variable regions.

No.	<i>Abies veitchii</i>	<i>Picea jezoensis</i>	<i>Pinus koraiensis</i>	<i>Thuja standishii</i>	<i>Tsuga diversifolia</i>
1	<i>ycf2</i> — <i>trnH-GUG</i>	<i>rpoA</i> — <i>rps11</i>	<i>rps12</i> — <i>rps7</i>	<i>ndhJ</i> — <i>rps12</i>	<i>clpP</i> — <i>ycf12</i>
2	<i>rpl33</i> — <i>psaJ</i>	<i>trnR</i> — <i>UCU</i>	<i>trnfM-CAU</i> — <i>trnG-GCC</i>	<i>chlB</i> — <i>matK</i>	<i>rps12</i> — <i>rps7</i>
3	<i>atpE</i> — <i>trnM-CAU</i>	<i>trnS</i> — <i>UGA</i>	<i>psbK</i>	-	<i>rps11</i> — <i>rpl36</i>
4	<i>trnl-CAU</i> — <i>psbA</i>	<i>rpoC1</i> — <i>rpoC2</i>	<i>rrn5</i> — <i>trnR-ACG</i>	-	<i>psbJ</i> — <i>psbL</i>
5	<i>psaJ</i> — <i>trnP-UGG</i>	<i>chlB</i> — <i>trnQ-UUG</i>	<i>trnS-GCU</i> — <i>psaM</i>	-	<i>ycf2</i> — <i>trnH-GUG</i>
6	<i>trnP-UGG</i> — <i>trnW-CCA</i>	<i>ycf12</i> — <i>clpP</i>	<i>trnQ-UUG</i> — <i>psbK</i>	-	<i>chlN</i> — <i>ycf1</i>
7	<i>clpP</i> — <i>rps12</i>	<i>trnH-GUG</i> — <i>trnT-GGU</i>	<i>rpl23</i> — <i>trnI-GAU</i>	-	<i>rps15</i>
8	<i>psbK</i>	<i>psaJ</i> — <i>trnP-UGG</i>	<i>trnT-GGU</i> — <i>trnS-GCU</i>	-	<i>rpl14</i>
9	<i>trnM-CAU</i> — <i>trnV-UAC</i>	<i>ycf12</i> — <i>psbB</i>	<i>psbK</i> — <i>psbI</i>	-	<i>psbK</i> — <i>psbI</i>
10	<i>rpl23</i> — <i>trnV-GAC</i>	<i>ycf1</i> — <i>rps15</i>	<i>chlN</i> — <i>rps15</i>	-	<i>ycf1</i>

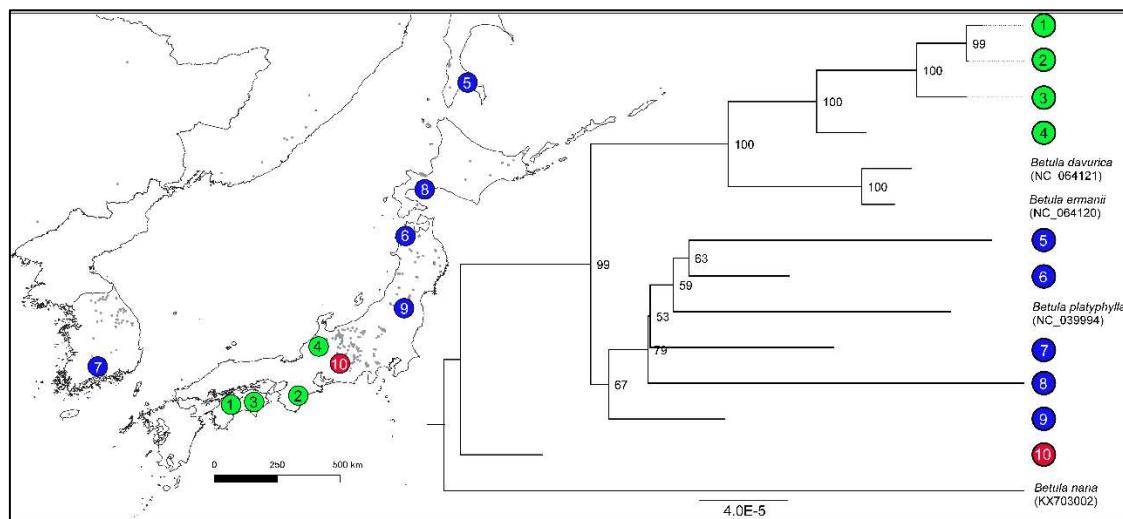
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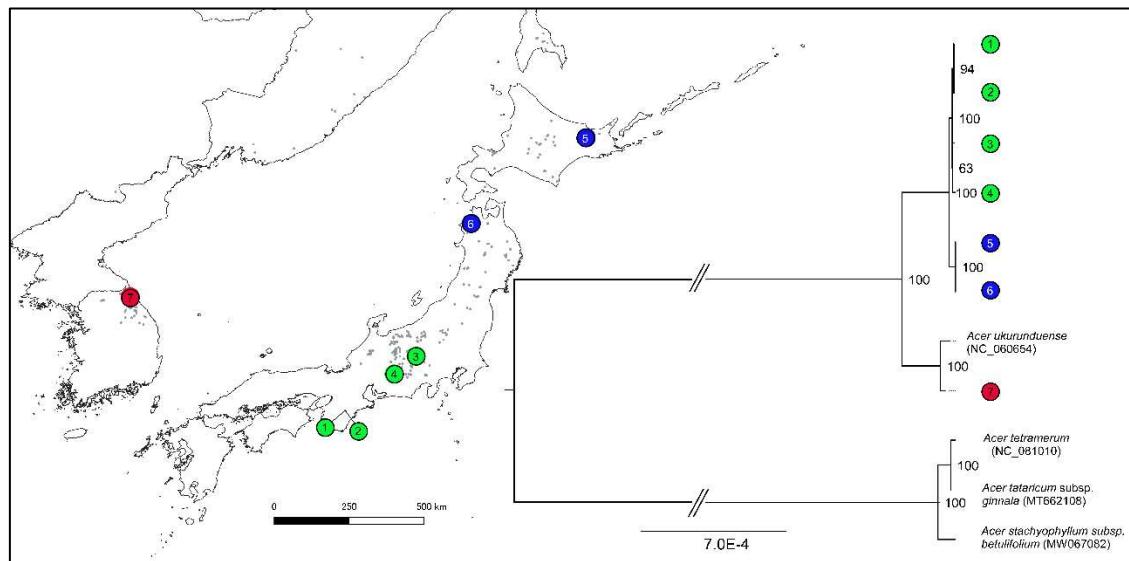
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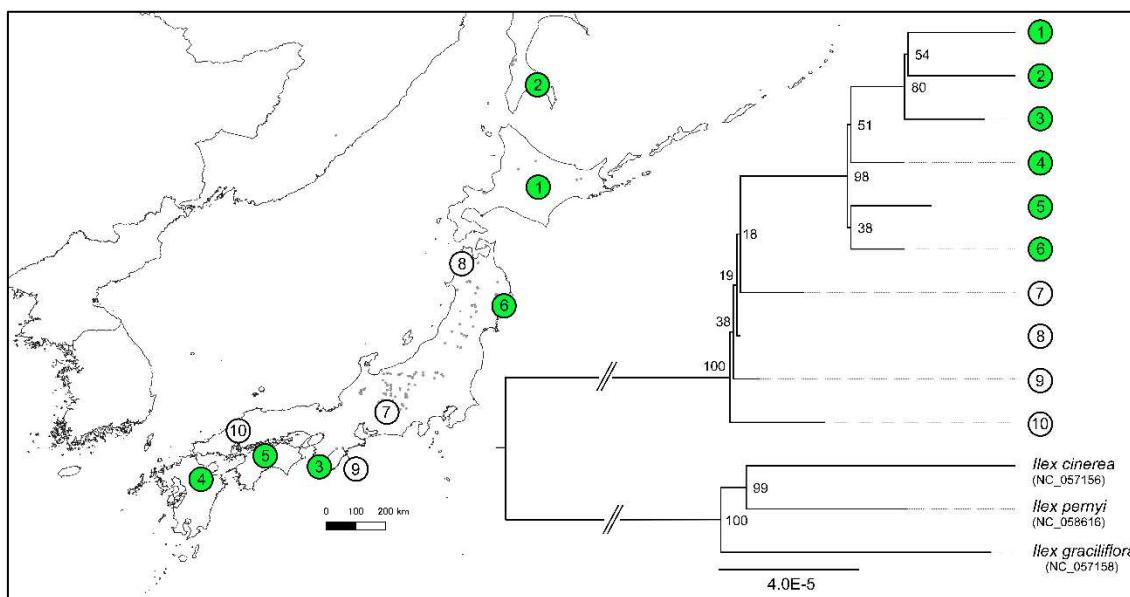
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654 **Figure 1** Phylogenetic tree based on the whole chloroplast genomes of *Betula ermanii*
655 assembled from samples from Japan, South Korea and Russia. The only other *Betula*
656 *ermanii* whole chloroplast genome sequence available on Genbank and three outgroup
657 genomes are also included. The location of the identified clades are mapped.



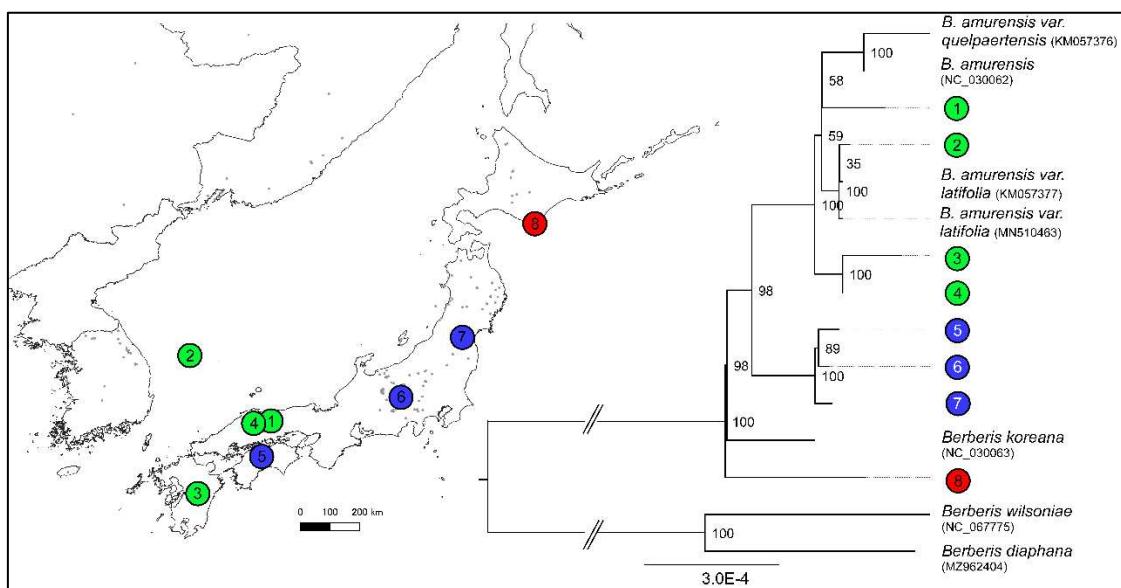
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659 **Figure 2** Phylogenetic tree based on the whole chloroplast genomes of *Acer*
660 *ukurunduense* assembled from samples from Japan and South Korea. The only other *Acer*
661 *ukurunduense* whole chloroplast genome sequence available on Genbank and three
662 outgroup genomes are also included. The location of the identified clades are mapped.



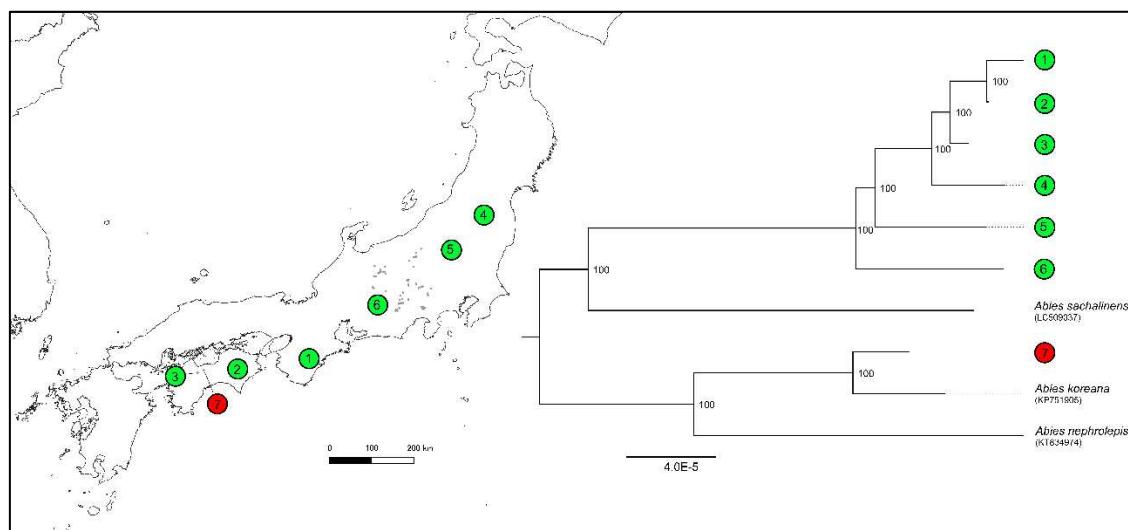
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664 **Figure 3** Phylogenetic tree based on the whole chloroplast genomes of *Ilex rugosa*
665 assembled from samples from Japan and Russia. Three outgroup genomes available on
666 Genbank are also included. The location of the identified clades are mapped.



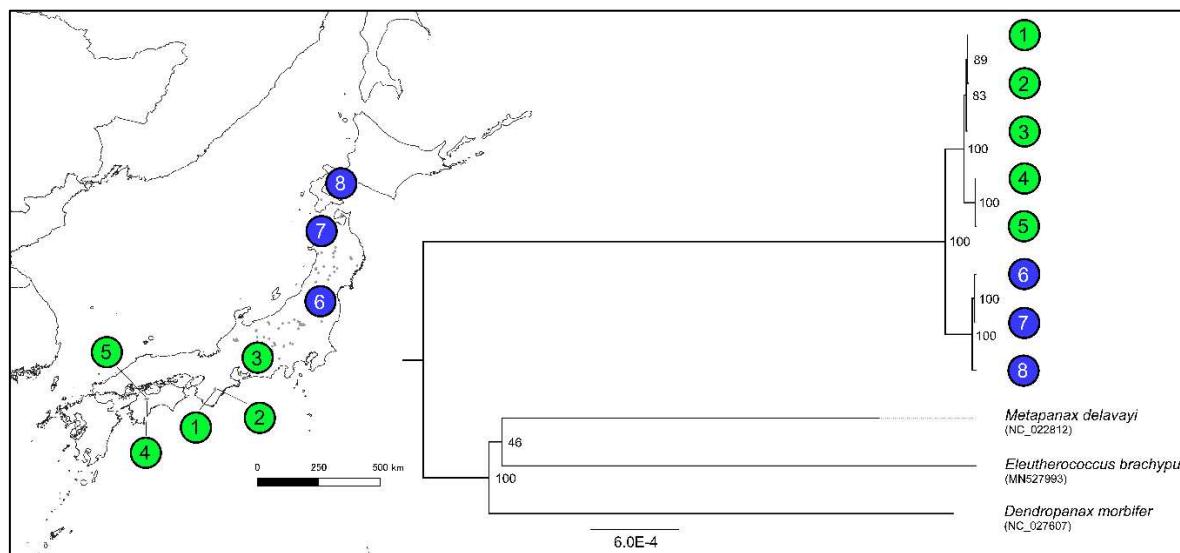
667

668 **Figure 4** Phylogenetic tree based on the whole chloroplast genomes of *Berberis*
669 *amurensis* assembled from samples from Japan and South Korea. Other *Berberis*
670 *amurensis* whole chloroplast genome sequences available on Genbank and three outgroup
671 genomes are also included. The location of the identified clades are mapped.



672

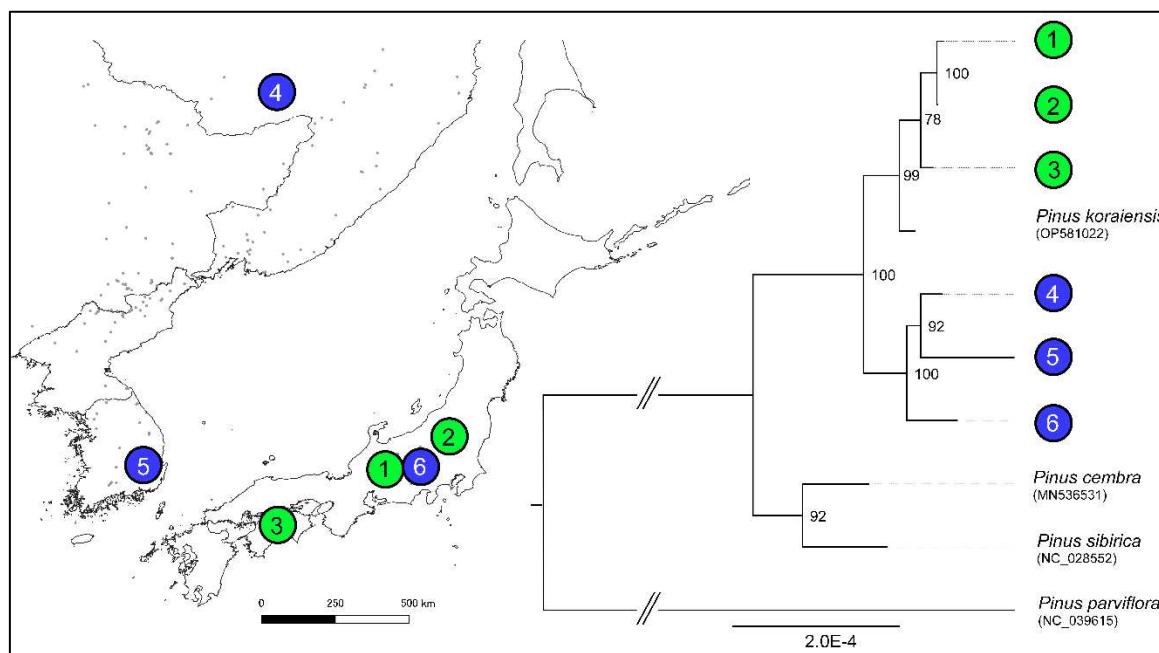
673 **Figure 5** Phylogenetic tree based on the whole chloroplast genomes of *Abies veitchii*
674 assembled from samples from Japan. Three outgroup genomes available on Genbank are
675 also included. The location of the identified clades are mapped.



676

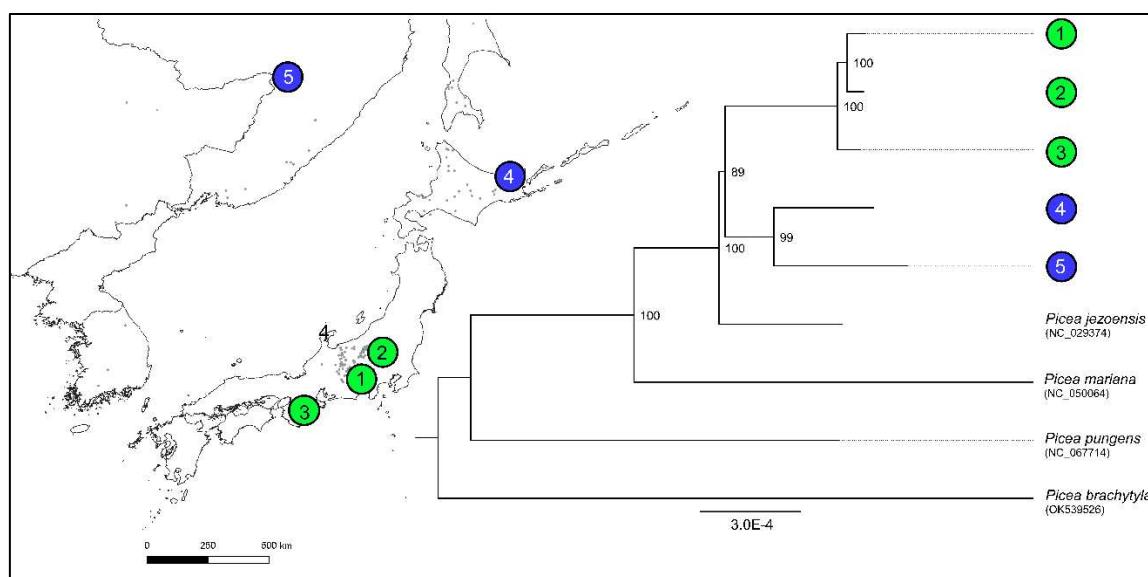
677 **Figure 6** Phylogenetic tree based on the whole chloroplast genomes of *Oplopanax*
678 *japonicus* assembled from samples from Japan. Three outgroup genomes available on
679 Genbank are also included. The location of the identified clades are mapped.

680

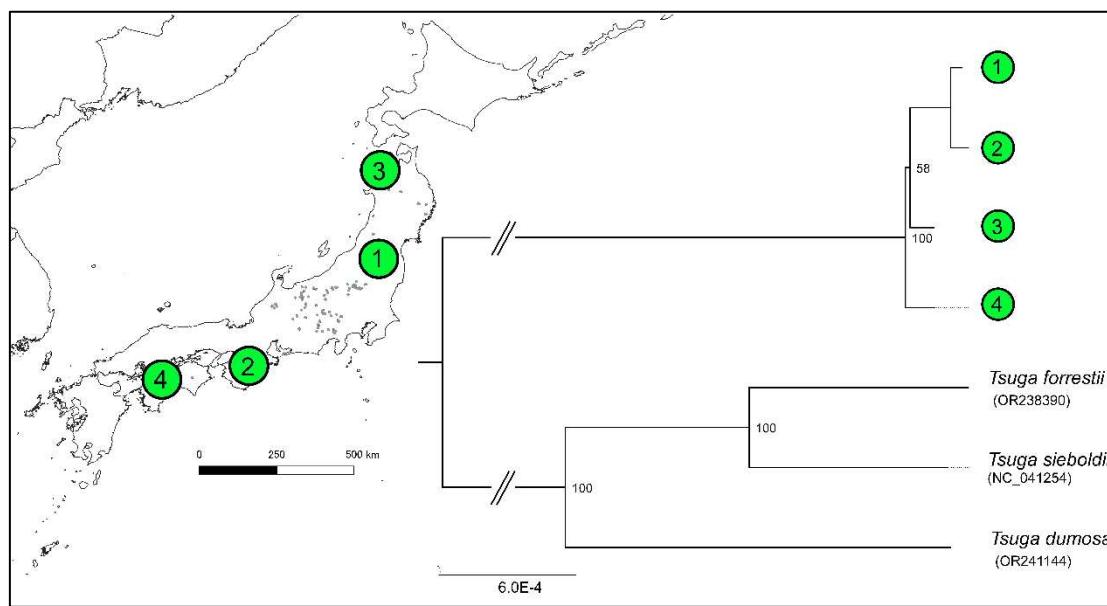


681 **Figure 7** Phylogenetic tree based on the whole chloroplast genomes of *Pinus koraiensis*
682 assembled from samples from Japan, South Korea and Russia. One other *Pinus koraiensis*
683 whole chloroplast genome sequence available on Genbank and three outgroup genomes
684 are also included. The location of the identified clades are mapped.

685



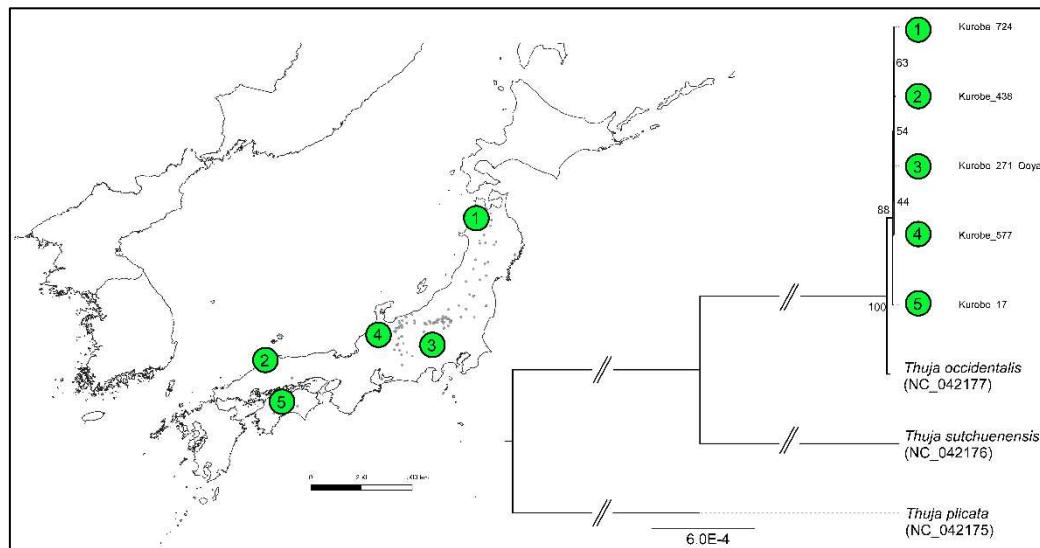
686 **Figure 8** Phylogenetic tree based on the whole chloroplast genomes of *Picea jezoensis*
687 assembled from samples from Japan and Russia. One other *Picea jezoensis* whole
688 chloroplast genome sequence available on Genbank and three outgroup genomes are also
689 included. The location of the identified clades are mapped.



690

691 **Figure 9** Phylogenetic tree based on the whole chloroplast genomes of *Tsuga diversifolia*
692 assembled from samples from Japan. Three outgroup genomes available on Genbank are
693 also included. The location of the identified clades are mapped.

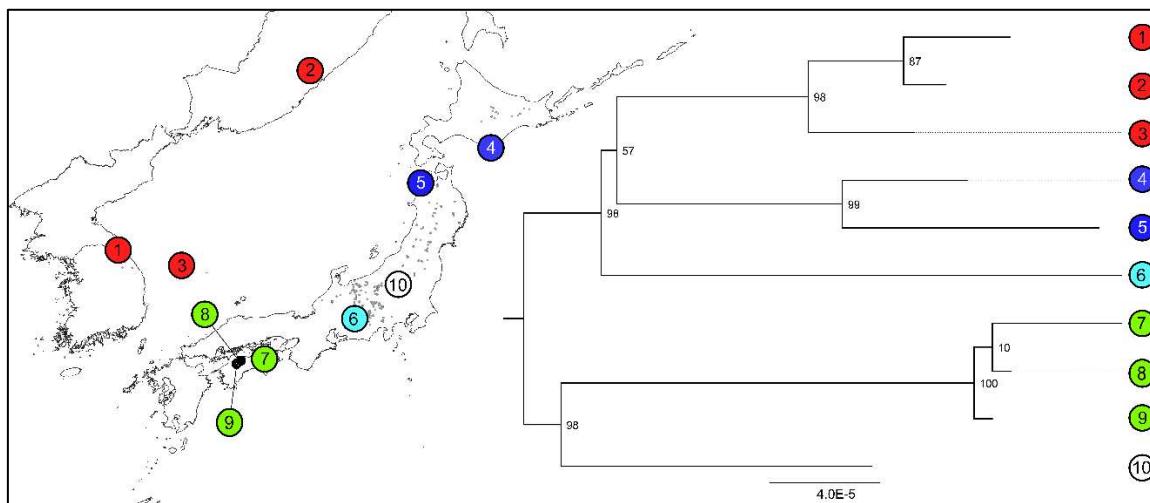
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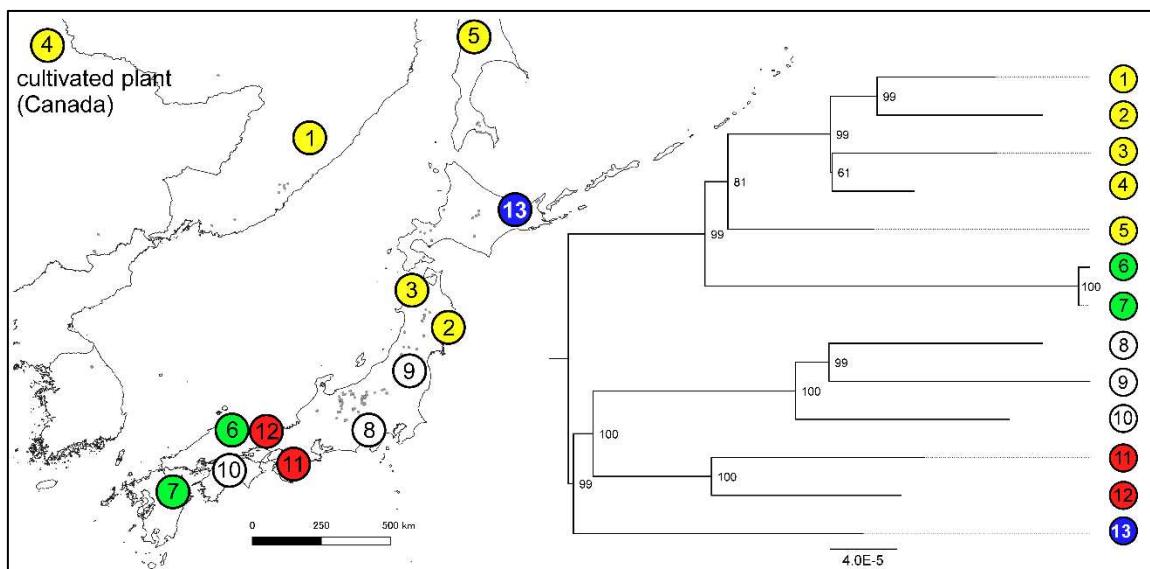
696 **Figure 10** Phylogenetic tree based on the whole chloroplast genomes of *Thuja standishii*
697 assembled from samples from Japan. Three outgroup genomes available on Genbank are
698 also included. The location of the identified clades are mapped. Note that the outgroup
699 sequences may not reliably represent the true phylogenetic relationships of *T. standishii*
700 to other *Thuja* species but here are only used for the purpose of providing outgroups.

701



702 **Figure 11** Phylogenetic tree based on the whole chloroplast genomes of *Rhododendron*
703 *brachycarpum* assembled from samples from Japan, South Korea and Russia. The
704 location of the identified clades are mapped. These results are based on the reference
705 mapping to *R. shanii* (MW374796).

706



707 **Figure 12** Phylogenetic tree based on the whole chloroplast genomes of *Vaccinium vitis-*
708 *idaea* assembled from samples from Japan and Russia. The location of the identified
709 clades are mapped. These results are based on reference mapping to the whole chloroplast
710 genome of a cultivated individual of *Vaccinium vitis-idaea* from Canada.

711