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2 Drivers of genomic landscapes of differentiation 3 across *Populus* divergence gradient

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30 **Abstract**

31 Speciation, the continuous process by which new species form, is often investigated by
32 looking at the variation of nucleotide diversity and differentiation across the genome (hereafter
33 genomic landscapes). A key challenge lies in how to determine the main evolutionary forces at
34 play shaping these patterns. One promising strategy, albeit little used to date, is to comparatively
35 investigate these genomic landscapes as a progression through time by using a series of species
36 pairs along a divergence gradient. Here, we resequenced 201 whole-genomes from eight closely
37 related *Populus* species, with pairs of species at different stages along the speciation gradient to
38 learn more about divergence processes. Using population structure and ancestry analyses, we
39 document extensive introgression between some species pairs, especially those with parapatric
40 distributions. We further investigate genomic landscapes, focusing on within-species (nucleotide
41 diversity and recombination rate) and among-species (relative and absolute divergence) summary
42 statistics of diversity and divergence. We observe highly conserved patterns of genomic
43 divergence across species pairs. Independent of the stage across the divergence gradient, we find
44 support for signatures of linked selection (i.e., the interaction between natural selection and
45 genetic linkage) in shaping these genomic landscapes, along with gene flow and standing genetic
46 variation. We highlight the importance of investigating genomic patterns on multiple species
47 across a divergence gradient and discuss prospects to better understand the evolutionary forces
48 shaping the genomic landscapes of diversity and differentiation.

49

50 **Keywords:** differentiation islands, divergence, introgression, identity-by-descent, linked
51 selection, recombination

52

53 Introduction

54 Understanding the evolutionary forces that shape genetic variation is a central goal of
55 biology. Numerous population genomic studies have recently documented variation of the levels
56 of within-species genetic diversity and among-species differentiation across the genome
57 (hereafter genomic landscapes). Most frequently, these studies point to a highly heterogeneous
58 nature of these landscapes, leading to further investigations into the evolutionary forces
59 responsible for genomic regions of elevated and reduced differentiation between diverging
60 populations or species (Ellegren, et al. 2012; Martin, et al. 2013; Lamichhaney, et al. 2015;
61 Vijay, et al. 2016; Sendell-Price, et al. 2020).

62 Hotspots of elevated genetic differentiation relative to genomic background are often
63 referred to as ‘differentiation islands’ or ‘speciation islands’ and are assumed to form around loci
64 underlying local adaptation and/or reproductive isolation. Thus, delineating differentiation
65 islands has recently become a major topic of research in the field of speciation and adaptation
66 genomics (Burri 2017b; Martin and Jiggins 2017; Ravinet, et al. 2018; Tavares, et al. 2018;
67 Stankowski, et al. 2019). Such investigations are best suited for groups still experiencing
68 interspecific gene flow, *i.e.*, species diverging under an isolation-with-migration or a secondary
69 contact scenario (Harrison and Larson 2016; Roux, et al. 2016; Wolf and Ellegren 2017; Leroy,
70 et al. 2020; Yamasaki, et al. 2020). Genomic regions containing barrier loci are more resistant to
71 gene flow and are therefore expected to show higher levels of differentiation (the islands) as
72 compared to the rest of the genome (the sea level, Wu 2001). A number of empirical studies in
73 plants have proved the joint role of gene flow and selection in shaping these highly
74 heterogeneous genomic landscapes of differentiation and identified reproductive isolation genes
75 (*e.g.* Tavares, et al. 2018; Martin, et al. 2019; Stankowski, et al. 2019).

76 Heterogeneous differentiation landscapes can however also emerge due to other genomic
77 features not causally linked to reproductive barriers and speciation (Booker and Keightley 2018).
78 Linked selection, the interaction between natural selection and genetic linkage may contribute to
79 these diversity and differentiation landscapes. Two forms of linked selection are generally
80 recognised: background selection and genetic hitchhiking; although their relative importance is
81 still debated (Stephan 2010). Background selection (Charlesworth, et al. 1993), the effect of

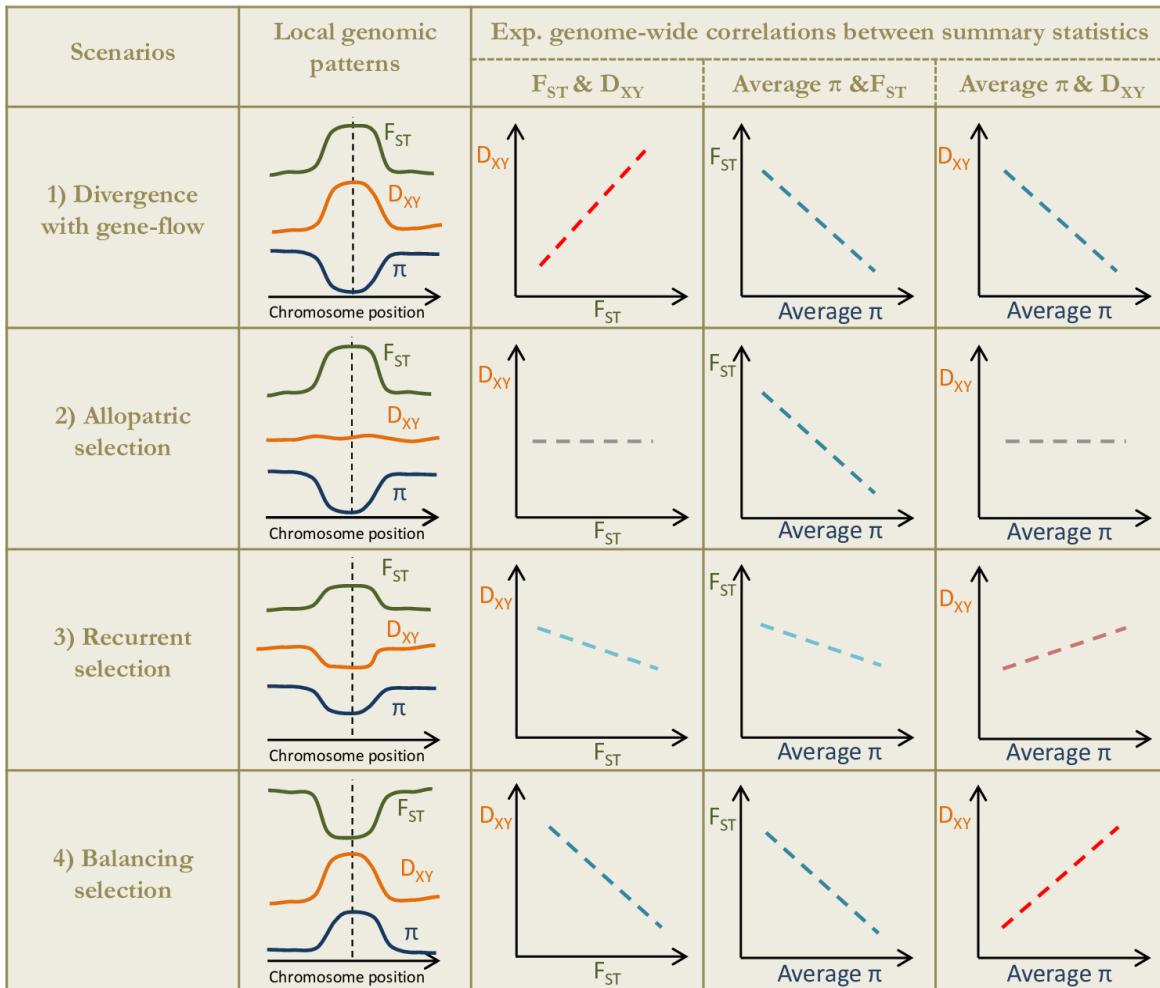
82 natural selection against deleterious alleles at linked neutral polymorphism, is known to reduce
83 diversity, particularly in regions with relatively high gene density (Corbett-Detig, et al. 2015;
84 Wolf and Ellegren 2017). Similarly, due to genetic hitchhiking, neutral alleles are dragged along
85 with positively selected ones (Smith and Haigh 1974). Linked selection reduces effective
86 population size (Ne) and can lead to regions of decreased diversity and elevated relative
87 differentiation. In regions of low recombination, linked selection can generate footprints that
88 extend over larger genomic regions around the positively or negatively selected loci
89 (Charlesworth and Campos, 2014). Thus, nucleotide diversity (e.g., π) and relative differentiation
90 (e.g., F_{ST}) estimates are expected to be negatively correlated (Burri 2017a). Such correlations
91 have been reported in *Ficedula* flycatchers (Burri, et al. 2015), *Heliconius* (Edelman, et al. 2019;
92 Martin, et al. 2019; Van Belleghem, et al. 2021), *Helianthus* sunflowers (Renaut, et al. 2013), the
93 Pacific cupped oyster (Gagnaire, et al. 2018), warblers (Irwin, et al. 2018), and hummingbirds
94 (Henderson and Brelsford 2020).

95 To understand the processes behind the heterogeneous differentiation landscapes along a
96 divergence gradient, a suite of summary statistics, widely used in population genomics, has been
97 employed (Han, et al. 2017; Irwin, et al. 2018). These summary statistics include (i) the average
98 nucleotide diversity within populations (π), (ii) the relative differentiation between populations
99 (F_{ST}) and (iii) the absolute divergence between populations (D_{XY}) (see Box 1).

Box 1: Correlations of genomic landscapes under different scenarios of divergence

Following Han *et al* (2017) and Irwin *et al* (2018) four main evolutionary scenarios can be hypothesized. The first scenario is ‘divergence with gene flow’ where selection at loci contributing to reproductive isolation restricts gene exchange between diverging species, locally elevating genomic differentiation (leading to both high F_{ST} and D_{XY}) and reducing genetic diversity. The second scenario is ‘allopatric selection’ where linked selection occurs independently within each species after the split leading locally to lower π and higher F_{ST} . Allopatric selection has opposite effects on D_{XY} , leaving it quite unchanged in combination. The third scenario is ‘recurrent selection’ where the same selective pressure reduces diversity at selected and linked loci leading to lower polymorphism within populations but similar divergence, ie. relatively low π and D_{XY} due to its dependence on ancestral polymorphism and high F_{ST} . The fourth and last scenario is ‘balancing selection’ where ancestral polymorphism is maintained between nascent species, resulting in elevated genetic diversity and low genetic differentiation. Then π is expected to be higher than neutral (as is D_{XY} , due to the high ancestral diversity) while F_{ST} is expected to be low.

(Box 1 continued)



Box 1 Figure: Expected correlations of pairs of summary statistics describing the genomic landscapes of diversity and differentiation associated with the four different scenarios proposed by Han *et al* (2017) and Irwin *et al* (2018). Positive and negative relationships are shown in red and blue, respectively. In the second column, local patterns associated with each scenario are described, i.e. (1) divergence with gene flow (a reproductive barrier to gene flow), (2) allopatric selection (a selective sweep in one of the two populations), (3) recurrent selection (a footprint of ancestral and still ongoing selection), (4) balancing selection. Average π corresponds to the averaged value of π for the two species included in the pairwise comparison. Given that both π and population-scale recombination rates (ρ) are dependent on Ne , similar relationships are expected for the relation with F_{ST} or D_{XY} and ρ , as compared with π .

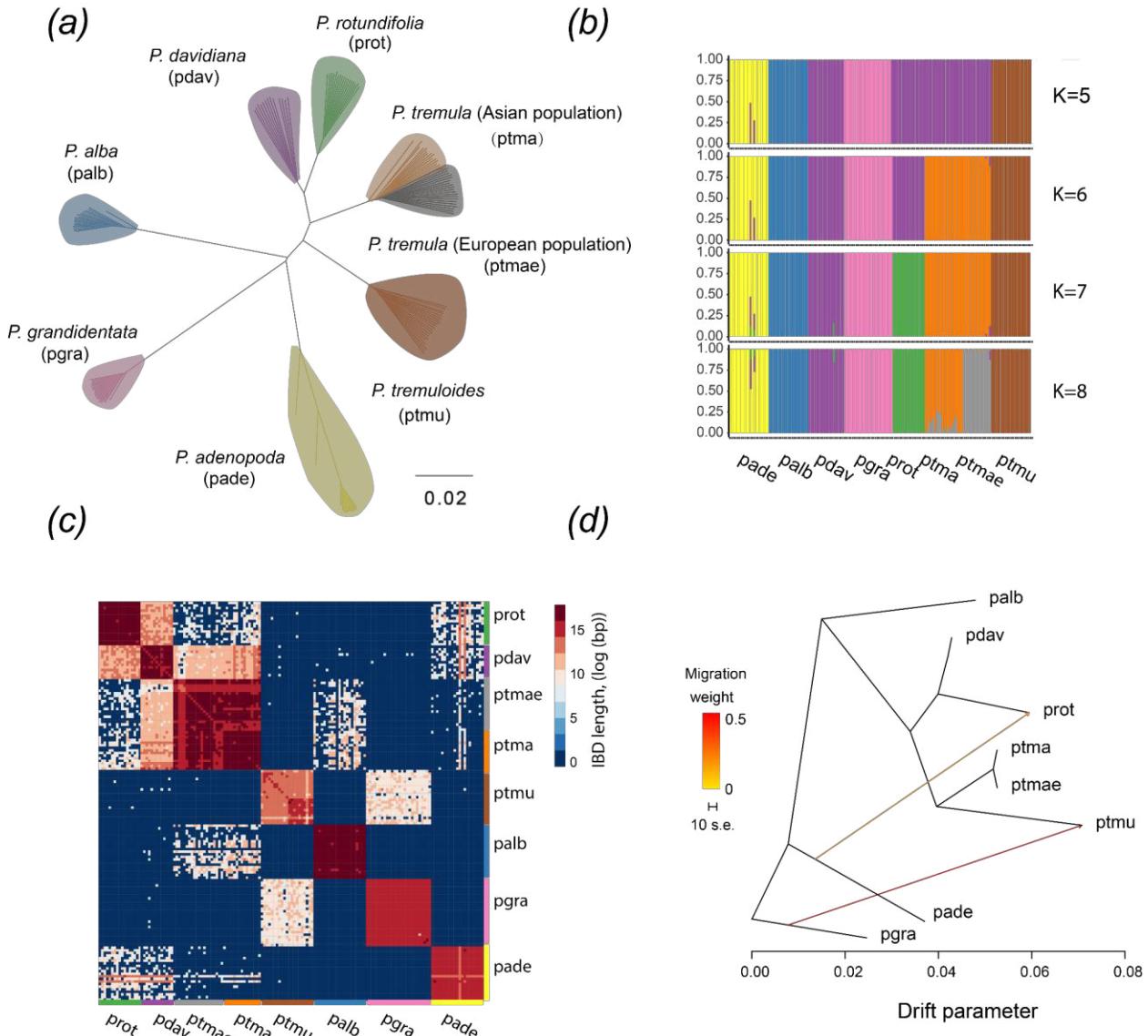
101 In this study, we focused on white poplars and aspens from the section *Populus* within
102 the genus *Populus*. These trees are widely distributed in Eurasia and North America (Supporting
103 Fig. S1 and Table S1) and provide a set of species pairs along the continuum of divergence.
104 Divergence times among species pairs vary from 1.3 to 4.8 million years ago (Shang, et al.
105 2020). This provides an excellent system to investigate the evolution of genomic landscapes of
106 diversity and divergence through time and to better understand the relative contribution of
107 different evolutionary processes to genomic landscapes. We use whole genome resequencing
108 data from eight *Populus* species (Supporting Fig. S1 and Table S1) to address the following
109 questions: (1) How do genomic landscapes of differentiation accumulate along the divergence
110 gradient? (2) Are differentiation patterns across the genomic landscape repeatable among
111 independent lineages? (3) What are the main evolutionary processes driving these heterogeneous
112 landscapes of diversity and differentiation along the divergence gradient? (4) Which divergence
113 scenario is consistent with ‘differentiation islands’ in each species pair?

114 **Results and Discussions**

115 **Strong interspecific structure despite interspecific introgression**

116 A large dataset of 30,539,136 high-quality SNPs was obtained by identifying SNPs among
117 individuals from seven *Populus* species (after the exclusion of *P. qiongdaoensis*, see Materials
118 and Methods). Neighbor-joining (Fig. 1a) and admixture analyses (based on a subset of 85,204
119 unlinked SNPs, Fig. 1b and Supporting Figs. S4 and S5) identified seven genetic groups, which
120 were consistent with previously identified species boundaries based on phylogenomic analyses
121 (Shang et al, 2020). Additionally, Admixture also indicated potential introgression between the
122 subtropical species *P. adenopoda* and two recently diverged species, *P. davidiana* and *P.*
123 *rotundifolia* (Fig. 1b and Supporting Fig. S5). Identity-by-descent (IBD) analyses (Fig. 1c) also
124 identified seven reliable clusters, corresponding to the same species boundaries, but further
125 pinpointed some shared haplotypes among the aspen species *P. davidiana*, *P. rotundifolia* and *P.*
126 *tremula*, indicating recent introgression or incomplete lineage sorting among these species. The
127 IBD results also provide support for extensive introgression between two pairs of highly
128 divergent species with overlapping distributions, including *P. alba* and *P. tremula*, and also *P.*
129 *grandidentata* and *P. tremuloides*. These results suggest a scenario of divergence with ongoing

130 gene flow for some species pairs, either due to isolation-with-migration or secondary contact,
 131 maintained even after substantial divergence times (net divergence d_a : 0.023 for *P. alba* - *P.*
 132 *tremula*; d_a : 0.025 for *P. tremuloides* - *P. grandidentata*).



133

134 **Figure 1.** Genetic structure among *Populus* (poplar and aspen) accessions investigated. (a) Neighbor-
 135 joining tree based on all SNPs for seven *Populus* species. Colored clusters represent different species
 136 according to legend. (b) Estimated membership of each individual's genome for $K = 5$ to $K = 8$ as
 137 estimated by Admixture (best $K = 7$). (c) Identity by descent (IBD) analysis for seven *Populus* species.
 138 Heatmap colours represent the shared haplotype length between species. (d) The maximum likelihood
 139 tree inferred by TreeMix under a strictly bifurcating model with two migration events.

140 We have further confirmed that the tree topology recovered with TreeMix (Pickrell and
141 Pritchard 2012) was consistent with phylogenetic relationships found in a previous study (Shang,
142 et al. 2020). This expected main topology explained 95.8% of the total variance under a drift-
143 only model of divergence. In addition, TreeMix was used to infer putative migration events in
144 *Populus* (Fig. 1d). Adding a single migration edge allowed us to account for 98.9% of the total
145 variance (Supporting Fig. S6). This event was inferred from *P. grandidentata* to *P. tremuloides*
146 and is consistent with previous reports of extensive hybridization and introgression between
147 these two species (Deacon, et al. 2019). A second migration edge was inferred from *P.*
148 *adenopoda* to *P. rotundifolia*, which allowed us to explain 99.6% of the total variance (Fig. 1d).
149 By adding more migration edges, the variance explained plateaued (increasing by less than 0.1%,
150 which was considered as too marginal, Supporting Fig. S6). Therefore, we considered the
151 bifurcating tree with two migration events as the best scenario in this analysis explaining the
152 historical relationships among these *Populus* species based on our data and sampling.

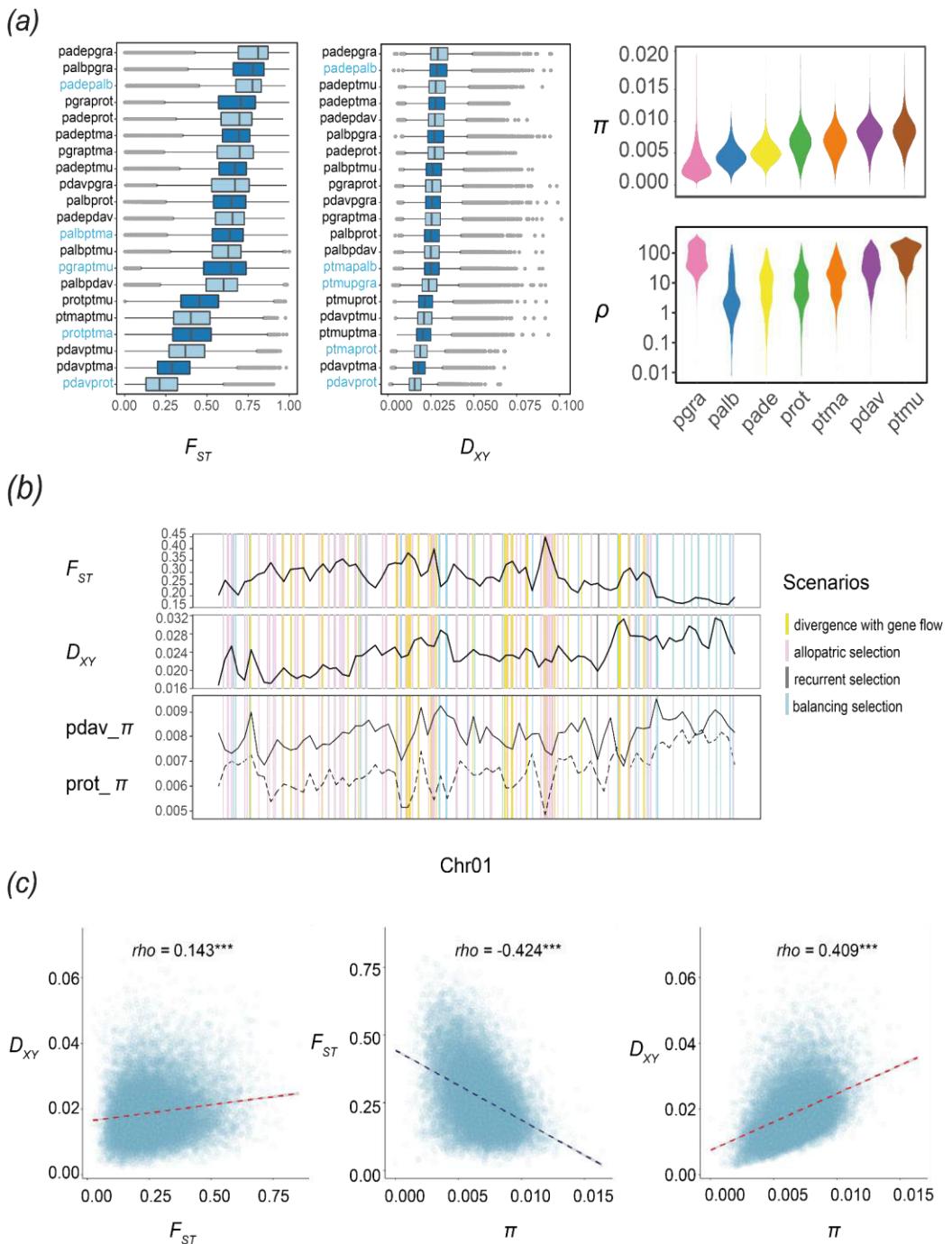
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154 **Detecting local genomic patterns consistent with the four scenarios**

155 Using non-overlapping 10kb sliding windows spanning the genome, we reported diversity
156 and divergence estimates for all species and species pairs (Fig. 2a). Mean F_{ST} varied from 0.23
157 between *P. davidiana* - *P. rotundifolia* to 0.71 between *P. adenopoda* - *P. grandidentata*,
158 whereas D_{XY} ranged from 0.016 (*P. davidiana* - *P. rotundifolia*) to 0.028 (*P. adenopoda* - *P.*
159 *grandidentata*). The average π varied from 3.5×10^{-3} in *P. grandidentata* to 8.4×10^{-3} in *P.*
160 *tremuloides* (Fig. 2a). The relatively high average π value observed in *Populus* species is
161 consistent with the large SMC++-inferred effective population sizes for these species
162 (Supplementary Note 1) and the fast LD decay (Supporting Fig. S7). In addition to nucleotide
163 diversity and differentiation across 10kb sliding windows, we also computed ρ . Since both π and
164 ρ scale with Ne , significant correlations of the diversity and recombination landscapes were
165 expected and were indeed empirically observed for each species (correlations ranging from 0.12
166 for *P. adenopoda* and 0.23 for *P. davidiana*).

167 We then identified regions that could be consistent with the alternative divergence scenarios
168 (described in Box 1) for five representative species pairs (Supporting Fig. S8). These species
169 pairs were selected to represent distinct stages across the divergence gradient, from early to late

170 stages of speciation (blue labels in Fig. 2a). Our results are consistent with a heterogeneous
171 distribution of the four scenarios along the genome for all five species pairs (Fig. 2b, see also
172 Supporting Fig. S9-S13 and Table S2). This generates different genome-wide patterns of
173 correlations among species pairs, rather than a single scenario at play across the whole genome
174 (Fig. 2c, Box 1). The majority of the genome (74.3%-78.7%) in all five species pairs fits a
175 scenario of “allopatric selection”, in which the excess of F_{ST} was driven by low π and not higher
176 D_{XY} (rosa bars in Fig. 2b, Supporting Fig. S9-S13 and Table S2). Such a signature is consistent
177 with recent footprints of positive or background selection on genomic differentiation and is
178 therefore consistent with the hypothesis of a prime role of linked selection (see also
179 Supplementary Note 2 for an explicit detection of selective sweeps). Genomic regions fitting the
180 scenario of ‘balancing selection’ (scenario d in Supporting Fig. S8) are the second most frequent
181 for all investigated species pairs (11.6%-13.9% of detected regions). This scenario is
182 characterized by an elevated D_{XY} but a low F_{ST} implying the action of balancing selection in
183 shaping the heterogeneous landscape of divergence. In addition, we found support for
184 divergence-with-gene flow in all five species pairs (5.5%-8.1%), suggesting that genomic
185 heterogeneity in the levels of gene flow due to species barriers play a role in shaping genomic
186 differentiation landscapes. Interestingly, this result holds true for all five species pairs we
187 investigated in detail, *i.e.*, regardless of the level of gene flow or the stage along the *Populus*
188 speciation continuum. Indeed, limited gene flow was inferred between *P. adenopoda* - *P. alba*,
189 but regions with high D_{XY} were also identified in this highly diverged species pair and could be
190 rather due to shared ancestral polymorphisms. In contrast, at the early stage of divergence, local
191 barriers to gene flow may play an important role in genomic heterogeneous divergence, as
192 significantly positive correlations between D_{XY} and F_{ST} are found (Fig. 3c), which is consistent
193 with a divergence with gene-flow scenario (Box 1 figure). Besides, for early stages of divergence
194 background selection may have too limited power to explain alone regional patterns of
195 accentuated differentiation (Burri 2017b).

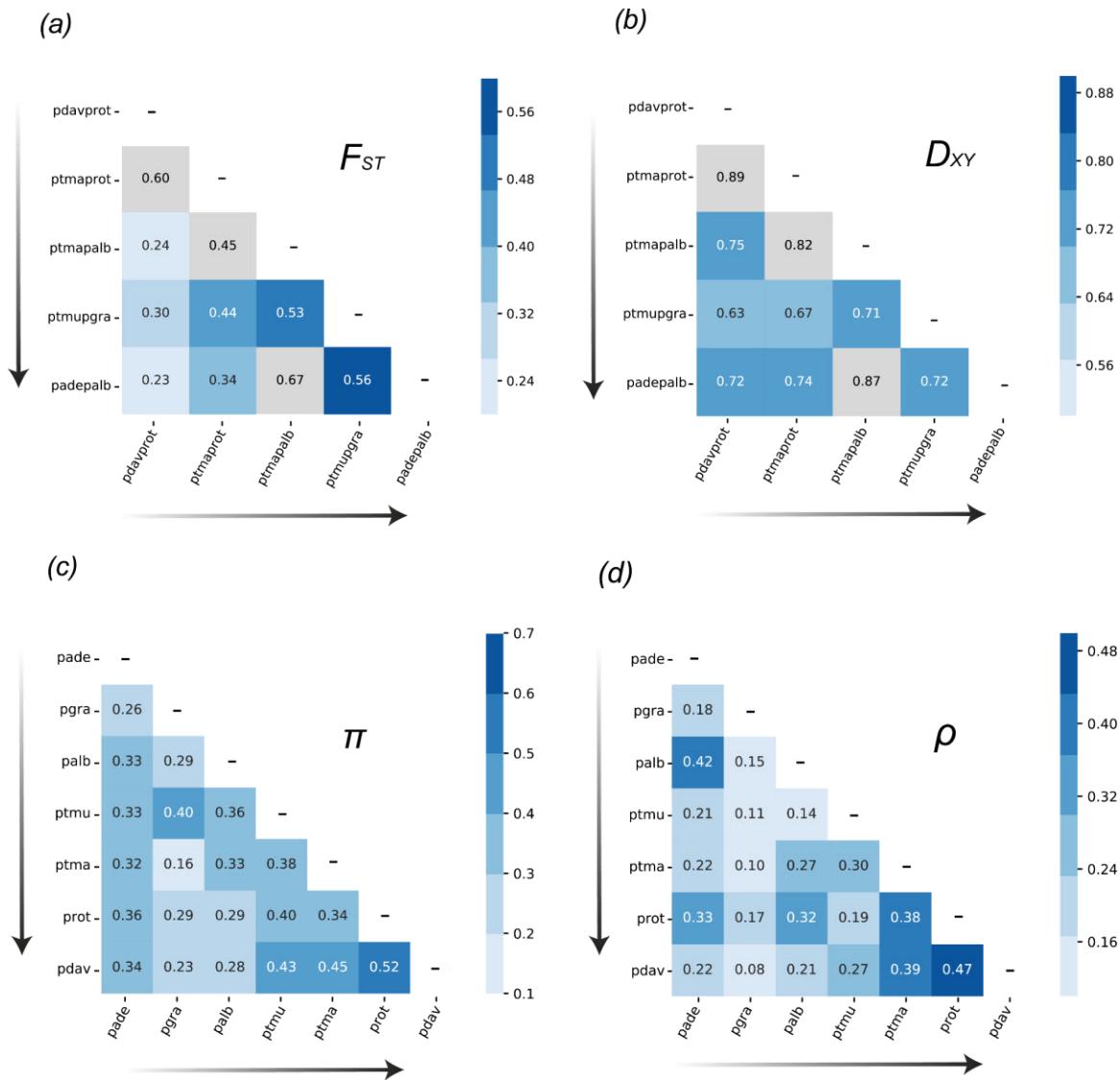


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197 **Figure 2. (a)** Observed variance in F_{ST} , D_{XY} for all species pairs, and π and ρ for seven *Populus* species, 198 calculated across 10kb windows. The five representative species pairs were labeled in blue. Note that the 199 unit of ρ is 4Ner and that ρ is log-scaled. **(b)** Landscapes of π , F_{ST} , and D_{XY} on chromosome 1 for the two 200 closest species, *P. davidiana* and *P. rotundifolia*. **(c)** Genome-wide correlation analysis for π , F_{ST} , D_{XY} 201 and ρ between *P. davidiana* and *P. rotundifolia*. P values less than 0.001 are summarized with three 202 asterisks.

203 **Conserved genomic landscapes across the continuum of divergence**

204 We calculated genome-wide correlations of divergence, nucleotide diversity, and
205 recombination across non-overlapping 10kb windows spanning the whole genome between
206 pairwise comparisons of species or species pairs (Fig. 2a). The degree of correlation of both the
207 relative and absolute divergence landscapes between pairs of species supports a highly conserved
208 pattern among the five investigated species pairs (Fig. 3a-b, between *P. adenopoda* -*P. alba* and
209 *P. tremula* -*P. alba* for F_{ST} and between *P. rotundifolia* - *P. davidiana* and *P. rotundifolia* - *P.*
210 *tremula* for D_{XY}). The correlations of F_{ST} landscapes become stronger when the overall
211 differentiation increases. For instance, the correlation of F_{ST} between *P. tremula* - *P. alba* and *P.*
212 *rotundifolia* - *P. davidiana* is 0.24, while the value for the two most divergent species pairs
213 (between *P. adenopoda* - *P. alba* and *P. tremuloides* - *P. grandidentata*) is 0.56. This may be the
214 case that the effect of linked selection accumulates as differentiation advances. Comparing
215 landscapes of the nucleotide diversity π between species (Fig. 3c), we observed that the
216 correlation coefficients vary substantially, from 0.16 (*P. tremula* versus *P. grandidentata*) to
217 0.52 (*P. rotundifolia* versus *P. davidiana*). The correlation generally decreases with the
218 phylogenetic distance. We notably reported the strongest correlation coefficient for the
219 phylogenetically closest pair of species: *P. rotundifolia* and *P. davidiana* (Fig. 3c). Pairwise
220 comparisons of the local recombination rates inferred independently for all species also revealed
221 only positive correlations (Fig. 3d), with the highest positive correlation coefficient of ρ again
222 observed between the two closest related species, *P. davidiana* and *P. rotundifolia* (0.47), while
223 the weaker correlation was observed for *P. davidiana* and *P. grandidentata* (0.08). Most of the
224 lower values (correlation coefficients < 0.2) were found when comparing *P. grandidentata* with
225 other species, suggesting again a unique recombination landscape in this species. Interestingly,
226 correlations of π were in general higher than those of ρ , indicating that not only recombination
227 rate variation shapes nucleotide diversity. Overall, landscapes of genetic diversity, divergence
228 and recombination rate remain relatively stable across different species or species pairs (Fig. 3),
229 which implies relatively conserved genomic features across all species. This phenomenon has
230 also been observed in few other plant and animal model systems (Nosil and Feder 2012; Renaut,
231 et al. 2014; Burri, et al. 2015; Wang, et al. 2020).



232

233 **Figure 3. Correlations analyses of within-species diversity or among-species divergence landscapes (a-b)**
234 Correlation coefficients of F_{ST} or D_{XY} between species pairs. The species pairs are ordered across the
235 divergence gradient (arrows). Comparisons containing a shared species were masked (grey squares). (c-
236 d) Correlation coefficients of π or ρ between species. The order of the species is based on the order of
237 species divergence from the root. All the values are significantly positively correlated ($p < 0.001$).

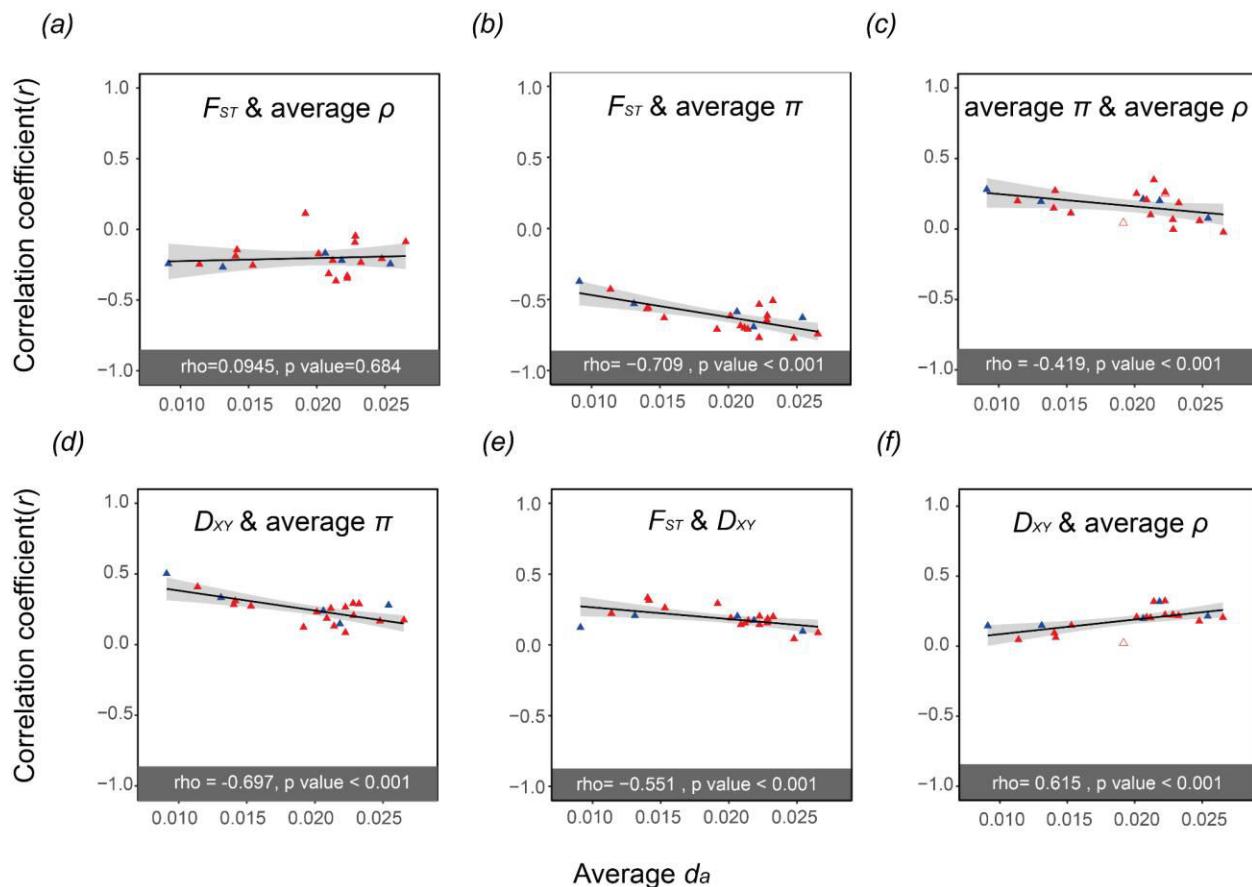
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239 Correlated patterns of genome-wide variation across the *Populus* continuum of divergence

240 The conserved genomic patterns observed across independent species pairs indicates the role
241 of linked selection in shaping genomic landscapes of differentiation (Fig. 3), in which

242 background selection could play a major role, as deleterious mutations are much more common
243 than beneficial ones. We then test if background selection may have driven these patterns alone.
244 According to a generally accepted expectation proposed by Burri (2017b), the correlations
245 between genomic variation and genome features should be impacted by background selection.
246 First, the correlation between F_{ST} and ρ becomes stronger with divergence, as lineage-specific
247 effects of background selection accumulate with time. Second, D_{XY} and π are highly correlated
248 with one another under BGS, because diversity can be inherited from ancestors, being passed
249 down over lineage splits. Third, π and ρ remain highly correlated, because background selection
250 continues to play a role in the daughter populations after speciation.

251 The use of several species across a continuum of divergence allows us to evaluate how the
252 correlations evolve through this continuum, from early to late stages of speciation. To this end,
253 we used the level of genetic distance between each species pair (d_a : D_{XY} – mean π) as a proxy for
254 the divergence time and we reported linear relationships between correlation coefficients across
255 the 21 species pairs (Fig. 4). However, the correlation analysis between genomic variation and
256 recombination rate showed different patterns from expectations under background selection. We
257 found negative relationships between F_{ST} and ρ , but no significant changes associated with time
258 since divergence (Fig. 4a). This is inconsistent with expectations under background selection
259 (Burri 2017b). Similar investigations for π and F_{ST} showed significantly negative correlations
260 while the trend became stronger as divergence increases (Fig. 4b). We also recovered a strong
261 positive correlation between π and ρ (Fig. 4c), and a similar trend was found as for the
262 investigation of π and D_{XY} (Fig. 4d). This trend is inconsistent with the general hypothesis that
263 such correlations should remain highly correlated as divergence increases (Burri 2017b). For
264 each species, we detected significant negative correlations between gene density and π in all
265 other *Populus* species (Supporting Fig. S14). The consistency is either due to background
266 selection or genetic hitchhiking (Nordborg, et al. 2005; Stephan 2010). Pairwise correlations
267 between D_{XY} and F_{ST} were significantly positive across the entire divergence continuum, and
268 these correlations tend to become weaker as divergence increases (Fig. 4e). The observed
269 patterns differ from expectations under a simple scenario with background selection as the sole
270 factor shaping the heterogeneous landscape of differentiation across species, indicating that
271 additional evolutionary factors contribute to the observed signal (Burri 2017b). Our analyses in-



272

273 **Figure 4.** Correlations between variables for all species comparisons plotted against the averaged d_a ,
274 used here as a measure of divergence time. The filled triangles indicate when the correlation coefficients
275 are significant ($p < 0.01$). The blue triangles correspond to the correlation coefficients of the five
276 representative species pairs shown in Fig. 2a and 3a-b. The results for all the other species pairs are
277 shown in red. The upper panels show how the relationships between F_{ST} and (a) D_{XY} , or (b) average π
278 vary for pairs of species with increasing divergence time; and between average π and D_{XY} for all species
279 pairs investigated (c). The lower panels show how the relationships between average ρ and (d) F_{ST} , and
280 (e) D_{XY} , and (f) average π vary for pairs of species with increasing divergence time.

281

282 -dicate that extensive gene flow and incomplete lineage sorting may contribute to differentiation
283 landscapes as well, in particular in the early stages of the speciation continuum. However, with
284 increasing divergence, the reduced gene flow and limited shared standing genetic variation may
285 contribute less to differentiation landscapes. Consistent with our findings, studies in monkey
286 flowers, threespine stickleback, and avian species also suggest that background selection may be

287 too subtle to drive alone conserved genomic patterns across multiple species (Irwin, et al. 2018;
288 Stankowski, et al. 2019; Rennison, et al. 2020). Indeed, these studies indicate either adaptive
289 introgression or shared standing genetic variation also play major roles in generating similar
290 patterns of genomic differentiation.

291 **Conclusions**

292 In this study, we investigated the evolution of the genomic landscape across a divergence time
293 continuum of seven species of *Populus*. By investigating evolution of diversity and
294 differentiation landscapes across this divergence continuum, we provide a valuable case-study in
295 terms of the number of species pairs analyzed (see also Stankowski, et al. 2019). Our analyses
296 support the primary role of linked selection, in particular background selection in shaping the
297 empirical patterns of genomic differentiation, but its contribution alone is not sufficient to
298 maintain the general consistency between these genomic landscapes. The observed positive
299 correlations between F_{ST} and D_{XY} in all species pairs indicate that shared ancient polymorphism
300 must also play a very important role. Besides, our study also confirmed the importance of gene
301 flow in this plant system. We observed extensive introgression among species with parapatric
302 distributions, despite a high level of divergence among the most divergent hybridizing species
303 ($d_a = 0.025$). This is notable since the net divergence values are larger than the upper boundary
304 for the ‘grey zone of speciation’ reported by Roux et al. (2016) for both vertebrate and
305 invertebrate animals (d_a from 0.005 to 0.02). Further investigations across divergence continua in
306 other plant systems are needed to determine if this is a general pattern in plants, or a feature of
307 the specific demographic and evolutionary history of the *Populus* system. In the future, the
308 investigation of speciation along multiple species complexes, together with the inclusion of the
309 different scenarios of selection in more sophisticated demographic modeling approaches could
310 represent a major step forward to provide a better description of the processes at play.

311

312 Materials and methods

313 Sampling, sequencing and read processing

314 Species of the genus *Populus* are perennial woody plants, dioecious, and widely distributed
315 across the Northern Hemisphere (Stettler, et al. 1996). The genus *Populus* comprises six sections
316 containing 29 species, among which ten species form the section *Populus* (Stettler, et al. 1996;
317 Jansson, et al. 2010). The genus *Populus* is well studied not only due to the trees' economic and
318 ecological importance, but also due to their small genome sizes (<500Mb), diploidy through the
319 genus ($2n = 38$), wind pollination, extensive gene flow among species, and sexual and vegetative
320 reproductive strategies (Rajora and Dancik 1992; Martinsen, et al. 2001; Suarez-Gonzalez, et al.
321 2016). Among all woody perennial angiosperm species, the genome of *Populus trichocarpa* was
322 sequenced and published first (Tuskan, et al. 2006). In addition to *P. trichocarpa*, another well-
323 annotated genome assembly is available (*P. tremula*; Schiffthaler, et al. 2019).

324 Two hundred and one samples were collected from eight species of *Populus* section *Populus* in
325 Eurasia and North America (supplemental material, Fig. S1 and Table S1). The leaves were dried
326 in silica gel first and were then used for genomic DNA extraction with Plant DNeasy Mini Kit
327 (Qiagen, Germany). To increase the purity of total DNA, we used the NucleoSpin gDNA Clean-
328 up kit (Macherey-Nagel, Germany). Whole genome resequencing was performed with 2 x 150bp
329 paired-end sequencing technology on Illumina HiSeq 3000 sequencer at the Institute of Genetics,
330 University of Bern, Switzerland.

331 All raw sequencing reads were mapped to the *P. tremula* 2.0 reference genome (Schiffthaler,
332 et al. 2019) using BWA-MEM, as implemented in bwa v0.7.10 (Li 2013). Samtools v1.3.1 was
333 used to remove alignments with mapping quality below 20 (Li, et al. 2009). Read-group
334 information including library, lane, sample identity and duplicates was recorded using Picard
335 v2.5 (<http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/>). Sequencing reads around insertions and deletions
336 (*i.e.*, indels) were realigned using RealignerTargetCreator and IndelRealigner in the Genome
337 Analysis Toolkit (GATK v3.6) (DePristo, et al. 2011). We used the GATK HaplotypeCaller and
338 then GenotypeGVCFs for individual SNP calling and for joint genotyping, respectively, among
339 all samples using default parameters. Finally, we performed several filtering steps using GATK
340 to retain only high-quality SNPs: (1) 'QD' < 2.0; (2) 'FS > 60.0'; (3) 'MQ < 40.0'; (4)

341 'ReadPosRankSum < -8.0'; (5) 'SOR > 4.0'; (6) 'MQRankSum < -12.5'. Moreover, we also
342 excluded loci with missing data of more than 30% and discarded two individuals with very low
343 depth of coverage (< 10), as calculated using VCFtools v0.1.15
344 (http://vcftools.sourceforge.net/man_latest.html). The scripts for SNP calling are available at
345 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6785344>.

346 **Family relatedness and population structure analysis**

347 To avoid pseudoreplication due to the inclusion of clone mates, we estimated kinship coefficients
348 using the KING toolset for family relationship inference based on pairwise comparisons of SNP
349 data (<http://people.virginia.edu/~wc9c/KING/manual.html>). The software classifies pairwise
350 relationships into four categories according to the estimated kinship coefficient: a negative
351 kinship coefficient estimation indicates the lack of a close relationship. Estimated kinship
352 coefficients higher than >0.354 correspond to duplicates, while coefficients ranging from [0.177,
353 0.354], [0.0884, 0.177] and [0.0442, 0.0884] correspond to 1st-degree, 2nd-degree, and 3rd-degree
354 relationships, respectively. This analysis identified 13 duplicated genotypes out of a total of 32
355 samples from the Korean population of *P. davidi*. In addition, all individuals of *P.*
356 *qiongdaensis* were identified as clone mates (supplementary material, Fig. S2). Therefore, these
357 two populations were eliminated from subsequent analyses and only 7 species were kept for the
358 analyses.

359 After discarding individuals with low depth and high inbreeding coefficient ($F > 0.9$, *P.*
360 *qiongdaensis*) as well as clones identified with the KING toolset, we used VCFtools v0.1.15
361 (http://vcftools.sourceforge.net/man_latest.html) to calculate the mean depth of coverage and
362 heterozygosity for each individual. The depth of coverage was relatively homogeneous
363 (supplementary material, Fig. S3) and varied from 21 \times to 32 \times .

364

365 We used PLINK (Purcell, et al. 2007) to generate a variance-standardized relationship matrix
366 for principal components analysis (PCA) and a distance matrix to build a neighbor joining tree
367 (NJ-tree) with all filtered SNPs. The NJ tree was constructed using PHYLP v.3.696
368 (<https://evolution.genetics.washington.edu/phylip.html>). Both PCA and NJ-tree analyses were

369 performed based on the full set of SNPs. In addition, we used ADMIXTURE v1.3 for the
370 maximum-likelihood estimation of individual ancestries (Alexander and Lange 2011). First, we
371 generated the input file from a VCF containing unlinked SNPs. Besides, sites with missing data
372 more than 30% have been filtered out. This analysis was run for K from 1 to 10, and the
373 estimated parameter standard errors were generated using 200 bootstrap replicates. The best K
374 was taken to be the one with the lowest cross-validation error. We also performed an IBD blocks
375 analysis using BEAGLE v5.1 (Browning and Browning 2013) to detect identity-by-descent
376 segments between pairs of species. The parameters we used are: window=100,000;
377 overlap=10,000; ibdtrim=100; ibdlod=10.

378 **Demographic trajectory reconstruction**

379 To reconstruct the demographic history of *Populus* species, we first inferred the history of
380 species splits and mixture based on genome wide allele frequency data using TreeMix v1.13
381 (Pickrell and Pritchard 2012). We removed the sites with missing data and performed linkage
382 pruning. We then ran TreeMix implementing a default bootstrap and a block size of 500 SNPs (-
383 k=500). The best migration edge was evaluated according to the greatest increase of total
384 variation explained. The plotting R functions of the Treemix suite were then used to visualize the
385 results.

386 **Nucleotide diversity and divergence estimates**

387 Nucleotide diversity, as well as relative and absolute divergence estimates were calculated based
388 on genotype likelihoods. We used ANGSD v0.93
389 (<http://www.popgen.dk/angsd/index.php/ANGSD>) to estimate statistical parameters from the
390 BAM files for all *Populus* species. First, we used ‘*dosaf 1*’ to calculate site allele frequency
391 likelihood and then used ‘*realSFS*’ to estimate folded site frequency spectra (SFS). Genome-
392 wide diversity and Tajima’s D were calculated with the parameter ‘*-doThetas 1*’ in ANGSD
393 based on the folded SFS of each species. We selected two population genomic statistics to
394 estimate divergence F_{ST} and D_{XY} . We estimated SFS for each population separately and then used
395 it as a prior to generate a 2D-SFS for each species pair. F_{ST} of each species pair were estimated
396 with the parameters ‘*realSFS fst*’ based on the 2D-SFS. Finally, we averaged the F_{ST} value of
397 sites over 10kb windows. To estimate D_{XY} , we used ANGSD to calculate minor allele

398 frequencies with the parameters ‘-GL 1 -doMaf 1 -only_proper_pairs 1 -uniqueOnly 1 -
399 remove_bads 1 -C 50 -minMapQ 30 -minQ 20 -minInd 4 -SNP_pval 1e-3 -skipTriallelic 1 -
400 doMajorMinor 5’ and then computed D_{XY} as follows: $D_{XY} = A_1 * B_2 + A_2 * B_1$, with A and B being
401 the allele frequencies of A and B, and 1 and 2 being the two populations. We averaged D_{XY}
402 across 10kb windows.

403 To examine the relationships among diversity, differentiation, and recombination landscapes,
404 we estimated Pearson’s correlation coefficient between pairs of these statistics. These tests were
405 performed across genomic windows for the 21 possible *Populus* species pairs. Finally, we used
406 $d_a (D_{XY} - \text{mean } \pi)$ as a measure of divergence time.

407 **Population-scale recombination rate and linkage disequilibrium**

408 We estimated population scaled recombination rate with FastEPRR (Gao, et al. 2016) for each
409 species separately. To eliminate the effect of sample size on the estimation of recombination rate,
410 we downsampled to 13 randomly selected individuals for each species, corresponding to the
411 number of individuals available for *Populus davidiana* (pdav). First, we filtered all missing and
412 non-biallelic sites with VCFtools and then phased the data with the parameters “*impute=true*
413 *nthreads=20 window=10,000 overlap=1,000 gprobs=false*” in Beagle v5.1 (Browning and
414 Browning 2013). Finally, we ran FastEPRR v2.0 (Gao, et al. 2016) with a window size of 10kb.
415 After getting the results, we estimated the correlation between recombination rate of one species
416 to another. To evaluate LD decay, we used PLINK (Purcell, et al. 2007) to obtain LD statistics
417 for each species. Parameters were set as follows: ‘*--maf 0.1 --r^2 gz --ld-window-kb 500 --ld-*
418 *window 99999 --ld-window-r^2 0*’. LD decay was finally plotted in R.

419 **Divergent regions of exceptional differentiation**

420 We further investigated genomic differentiation landscapes across multiple species pairs along
421 the *Populus* divergence gradient and identified which evolutionary factors contribute to genomic
422 differentiation. We reported genomic regions showing elevated or decreased values of F_{ST} , D_{XY}
423 and π across 10kb windows. Windows falling above the top 5% or below the bottom 5% of F_{ST}
424 and D_{XY} were considered. For these specific windows, we then classified them following the four
425 models of divergence suggested by Irwin *et al.* 2018 and Han *et al* 2017. These four models

426 differ in the role of gene flow (with or without), or the type of selection (selective sweep,
427 background selection or balancing selection).

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443 **Conflict of interest disclosure**

444 None of the authors have a conflict of interest to declare regarding the publication of this
445 manuscript.

446 **Data, script and code availability**

447 The raw read data have been deposited with links to BioProject accession numbers
448 PRJNA299390, PRJNA612655, PRJNA720790, and PRJNA297202 in the NCBI BioProject
449 database (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/>). All the scripts used for the analysis are
450 available on: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6785344>.

451 **Supplementary information**

452 Supplementary information is available in the “Supplementary material” section of the bioRxiv
453 page of the article, <https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.08.26.457771>.

454 **Author contributions**

455 Study conceived and designed by Huiying Shang and Christian Lexer. Laboratory work
456 conducted by Huiying Shang. Population genomic data analysis by Huiying Shang with feedback
457 from Thibault Leroy. Interpretation of the results was undertaken by Huiying Shang, Martha
458 Rendón-Anaya, Ovidiu Paun, David Field, Jacqueline Hess, Claus Vogl, Pär K. Ingvarsson,
459 Christian Lexer and Thibault Leroy. The manuscript was drafted by Huiying Shang, with help
460 from Thibault Leroy and Ovidiu Paun, and was improved and approved by all authors.

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