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Plastome evolution and phylogenomics of *Glycine* (Leguminosae: Papilionoideae)

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Abstract

The genus *Glycine* Willd. is economically important due to the soybean, a major global crop for oil and protein. However, comprehensive phylogenetic studies of this genus are lacking, and plastome evolution remains poorly understood. In this study, we conducted comparative plastomic and phylogenetic analyses using 42 complete *Glycine* plastomes. This dataset encompassed 28 newly sequenced plastomes, two reassembled from public raw data, and 12 obtained from GenBank, collectively representing 15 of the 29 species in this genus. Comparative analyses revealed these *Glycine* plastomes range from 152,225 to 152,972 bp in length, and displayed highly conserved quadripartite structure, gene content (111 genes), and collinearity. Nine protein-coding genes and six non-coding regions showed high sequence variability, were thus identified as promising markers for phylogenetics and species delimitation. Selection pressure analyses detected branch-specific positive selection ($d_N/d_S > 1$) in *rpoB*, *accD*, and *rbcl*, supporting their potential roles in environmental adaptation. Phylogenomic analyses strongly supported the monophyly of *Glycine* and its two subgenera (*Soja* and *Glycine*), resolving three major clades within subgenus *Glycine*. However, several species were resolved as non-monophyletic, and the plastomic phylogeny conflicted with nuclear data, indicating cytonuclear discordance likely caused by hybridization, plastid capture, and/or incomplete lineage sorting. These findings highlight the complex evolutionary history of the genus. This study provides the most comprehensive plastome dataset for *Glycine* to date and offers new insights into its plastome evolution and cytonuclear discordance.

Introduction

The genus *Glycine* Willd. (Leguminosae: Papilionoideae) comprises two subgenera, *Soja* and *Glycine*, with a total of 29 herbaceous species. Subgenus *Soja* contains two annual species: the wild soybean *G. soja* Siebold & Zucc., native to East Asia, and the cultivated soybean *G. max* (L.) Merr., which was domesticated from *G. soja* in China. Subgenus *Glycine* includes 27 perennial species, of which 23 are endemic to Australia, two (*G. tabacina* (Labill.) Benth. and *G. tomentella* Hayata) are distributed in southeastern China, Japan, the islands of Southeast Asia, and Australia, one (*Glycine dolichocarpa* Tateishi & H. Ohashi) in Taiwan, China, and one (*G. koidzumii* Ohwi) in Japan. *Glycine*

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species occupy a wide range of habitats, including deserts, sandy beaches, various forest types spanning temperate to subtropical zones, and moist shrublands, demonstrating exceptional environmental plasticity [1, 2]. They exhibit enhanced tolerance to abiotic stresses (e.g., drought, salinity) and robust resistance against biotic stresses (e.g., pathogens, herbivores), making them valuable genetic resources for soybean improvement [3–5].

The genus *Glycine* Willd. was first established by Linnaeus with *G. javanica* L. as the type species [6], a designation retained by Willdenow [7]. De Candolle [8] controversially transferred many Phaseoleae species into *Glycine* L., substantially expanding *Glycine* to 286 species. Hermann [9] subsequently revised *Glycine*, retaining 10 species and dividing the genus into three subgenera: subg. *Soja*, subg. *Glycine*, and subg. *Leptocyanus*. Later, Verdcourt [10] demonstrated the original type of *G. javanica* belonged to *Pueraria* DC and designated *G. clandestina* J.C.Wendl. as the new type species [10]. Verdcourt [10] and Lackey [11] revised the genus into two subgenera: subg. *Soja* and subg. *Glycine*, a classification widely adopted in subsequent studies.

A robust phylogenetic framework is essential for elucidating evolutionary processes such as speciation, diversification, coevolution, and biogeographic patterns [12]. Despite the prevalent application of nuclear genomic data in phylogenetics, plastomes retain indispensable for phylogenetics due to their highly conserved structure and gene content, uniparental inheritance and low recombination rates, which reduce paralog interference and make them valuable for resolving complex reticulate evolutionary histories [13–20]. Comparisons between plastome and nuclear genome data could reveal evolutionary discordance caused by processes like hybridization [21–24], which are poorly studied in *Glycine*. Although most legume plastomes have the typical quadripartite structure, significant structural variations exist in some lineages, such as extensive rearrangements and IR loss in the IR-lacking clade (IRLC) [25]. *Glycine* plastomes are structurally conserved based on limited samples, allowing us to investigate structural variation and sequence-level evolution with broader sampling.

Previous phylogenetic studies using a few plastid loci robustly support the division of *Glycine* into two subgenera but offer limited phylogenetic resolution [26–29]. Subsequent plastid and nuclear phylogenomic analyses significantly improved resolution but suffered from limited species sampling [30–33]. Recent nuclear studies with broader sampling, resolved major clades and interspecific relationships of the genus [5, 31]. Nevertheless, these nuclear phylogenies exhibit topological conflicts with plastome-based phylogenies. For instance, nuclear data consistently position *G. falcata* Benth. as a sister to

all other species within the subgenus *Glycine*, whereas plastid data place it within a clade of this subgenus [5, 30, 31]. This widespread cytonuclear discordance likely results from hybridization, introgression, and/or incomplete lineage sorting (ILS). Furthermore, previous nuclear studies have revealed multiple non-monophyletic *G. tomentella* and *G. tabacina* [27, 31], yet comparable plastome-level studies are still lacking. Therefore, it is crucial to expand species- and individual-level sampling for plastome-based phylogenomic studies.

Plastids serve as the primary organelles for anabolic processes in plant cells [34]. Most plant plastomes possess a conserved quadripartite structure, comprising a large single-copy (LSC) region, a small single-copy (SSC) region, and two inverted repeat (IR_A and IR_B) regions. Plastome size usually ranges from 115 to 165 kb in length and contains 101 to 118 genes primarily involved in photosynthesis, transcription, and translation [35, 36]. Plastome evolution mirrors the adaptive history of plants, with gene loss, structural rearrangement, and horizontal transfer revealing adaptations to diverse ecological environments [37, 38]. Additionally, IR regions play a vital role in maintaining plastome stability, and their expansion or contraction provides important phylogenetic signals [39]. A notable case of such an evolutionary signal is the IRLC clade within the subfamily Papilionoideae, characterized by the complete loss of the IR_A region, which renders it evolutionarily and genetically unique [25]. Furthermore, most Papilionoideae, except for a few early diverging lineages, exhibit a 50-kb inversion in the LSC region [40–42]. Doyle et al. [28] demonstrated that the genus *Glycine* shares this 50-kb inversion with most Papilionoideae species. Sherman et al. [30] analyzed plastome structure in seven *Glycine* species, revealing relatively conserved IR boundaries and no structural rearrangements in perennial species. However, comprehensive studies on structural variations and evolutionary patterns across a broad sampling of *Glycine* plastomes are still needed.

In this study, we newly sequenced and assembled plastomes from 28 accessions of 11 species representing both *Glycine* subgenera and all three recognized clades within the subgenus *Glycine*. By integrating these newly sequenced with published *Glycine* plastomes, we analyzed their plastome structure and sequence divergence patterns, and reconstructed a robust plastome-based phylogenomic framework. Our study aims to (1) characterize structural variations and nucleotide divergence patterns across *Glycine* plastomes and (2) elucidate maternal lineage evolutionary trajectories within this genus.

Materials and methods

Taxa sampling

To ensure broad taxonomic and geographic representation, a total of 42 samples representing 15 *Glycine* species from the major lineages of the genus were strategically selected, including 28 newly sequenced accessions representing 11 species (detailed information provided in the Supplemental Table S1). For the newly sequenced samples, leaf materials were obtained from herbarium collections at the Chinese National Herbarium, Institute of Botany, Chinese Academy of Sciences (PE, China) and the Queensland Herbarium, Queensland Herbarium and Biodiversity Science (BRI, Australia) under standard sampling protocols (six from PE, and remainder from BRI; Supplemental Table S1). The plastomes of *G. clandestina*, *G. curvata*, *G. latifolia*, *G. latrobeana*, and *G. microphylla* are firstly reported. Voucher details are in Supplemental Table S1; the collection details and GenBank accession numbers for sequences from NCBI are provided in Supplemental Table S2.

DNA extraction and sequencing

For the 28 newly sequenced plastomes, total DNA was extracted from ~ 15–20 mg (equivalent to ~ 1 cm²) silica-gel-dried or specimen leaf tissue using the CTAB method [43]. DNA was quantified using a Qubit Fluorometer. Genomic DNA libraries were constructed using the NEBNext® Ultra™ II DNA Library Prep Kit (New England Biolabs, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. Library quality was assessed by measuring concentration using the Qubit fluorometer, with a minimum threshold of 10 ng/μL required for sequencing (libraries ≥ 20 ng/μL were considered high-quality). The size distribution of the library fragments was assessed using an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer to ensure that fragments were predominantly concentrated within the 200–500 bp range. Libraries were purified and size-selected using AMPure XP magnetic beads, followed by two washes with 80% ethanol to remove impurities. The libraries were subsequently sequenced on the Illumina HiSeq 4000 platform with 150-bp paired-end reads at the Molecular Biology Experiment Platform, Germplasm Bank of Wild Species, Kunming Institute of Botany, Chinese Academy of Sciences (KIB). Raw reads were quality-checked with FastQC and filtered to remove adapter sequences, reads with > 10% unknown (N) bases, and reads where > 50% of bases had a Phred quality score (Q) ≤ 20. The resulting high-quality clean data (with average Q30 scores > 95%) were used for subsequent de novo assembly.

Plastome assembly and annotation

Plastome assembly was conducted using GetOrganelle v1.7.7 [44] with optimized parameters (-k 21,45,65,85,105,127; -R 15). Two plastomes of *G. remota*

(SRR18315596) and *G. max* × *G. soja* (SRR9714351) were reassembled from public raw data. Assembled graphs were visualized and confirmed using Bandage v0.8.1 [45]. A successful assembly was defined by a single closed circular path and the conserved quadripartite plastome structure. Genome annotation was performed using the Plastid Genome Annotator (PGA) with default parameters [46], with *G. max* (NC_007942) from NCBI as the reference. Manual refinement of annotations was carried out in Geneious v9.1.8 [47] to ensure precise demarcation of start and stop codons and confirm comprehensive gene coverage. Physical maps of the 28 newly sequenced plastomes were generated using the online tool OGDRAW [48].

Genome comparison and sequence divergence analysis

Whole-plastome collinearity was analyzed using the progressiveMauve plugin in Geneious v9.1.8 [47] with default parameters. Boundaries of the LSC, SSC, and IR regions were visualized with the online web tool CPJSDRAW [49]. Whole-plastome alignment and visualization were performed using mVISTA [50] under the shuffle-LAGAN alignment algorithm with *G. max* (NC_007942) as reference. Nucleotide diversity analysis of protein-coding, intron and intergenic regions (> 200 bp) was calculated using DNASP v6.12.03 [51]. These regions were extracted using the python script “get_annotated_regions_from_gb.py” (<https://github.com/Kinggerm/PersonalUtilities>).

Repeat sequences identification and codon usage analysis

Simple sequence repeats (SSRs) were identified using MISA v2.1 [52, 53] with thresholds of 10, 5, 4, 3, 3, and 3 for mono-, di-, tri-, tetra-, penta-, and hexanucleotides, respectively. Long repeats (forward, reverse, complement and palindromic; ≥ 30 bp, Hamming distance = 3) were detected with REPuter [54, 55]. One IR copy was removed from both analyses to avoid redundancy. Codon usage bias for all protein-coding genes (PCGs) across 42 *Glycine* plastomes was assessed by calculating codon counts and Relative Synonymous Codon Usage (RSCU) using CodonW v1.4.2 (<http://codonw.sourceforge.net>). RSCU reflects codon preference bias: values > 1.0 indicate overrepresented codons, < 1.0 underrepresented codons, and 1.0 denotes neutral usage (no bias). To further visually illustrate codon usage patterns, this study employed the online tool RSCU-Plot [56–59] (<https://p-cg-lab.shinyapps.io/RSCU-Plot/>) to generate bar charts of RSCU values for individual samples, clearly presenting the distribution characteristics of overrepresented and underrepresented codons.

Selective pressure analysis

Protein-coding genes (PCGs) were aligned using the codon mode of the MAFFT plugin in PhyloSuite v1.2.3

[60], and converted to the “PML” format via the Convert Sequence Format tool. The 42 *Glycine* plastome sequences were aligned with MAFFT under default parameters, and a maximum likelihood (ML) tree was reconstructed with RAxML v8.2.12 [61] (with optimized parameters: -m GTRGAMMA -N 1000 -f a -x 12345 -p 12345).

With the ML tree and PML-formatted sequence files as inputs, the nonsynonymous (d_N) and synonymous (d_S) substitution rates of each plastid gene was assessed using the CodeML program in PAML v4.10.7 [62]. For each PCG, the one-ratio model (assuming uniform ω across all branches; parameters: model = 0, NSites = 0) and two-ratio model (distinct ω for foreground vs. background branches; parameters: model = 2, NSites = 0) were

employed to detect selection differences. Model fit was determined by Likelihood Ratio Tests (LRT). Eight foreground branches (Fig. 1) were labeled using EasyCodeML v1.0 [63], with all configurations applied per PAML manual specifications to all target branches.

Phylogeny analysis

Following previously constructed phylogenetic frameworks [64, 65], *Neonotonia wightii* (Wight & Arn.) J.A.Lackey and *Phylacium bracteosum* Benn. (Phaseoleae, Glycininae) were selected as outgroups for phylogenetic reconstruction. The 77 protein-coding regions (CDS) and 132 non-coding sequences (NCR) (excluding 1-bp *ndhA-ndhH* intergenic region) from all 42 *Glycine* plastomes were extracted using the python script

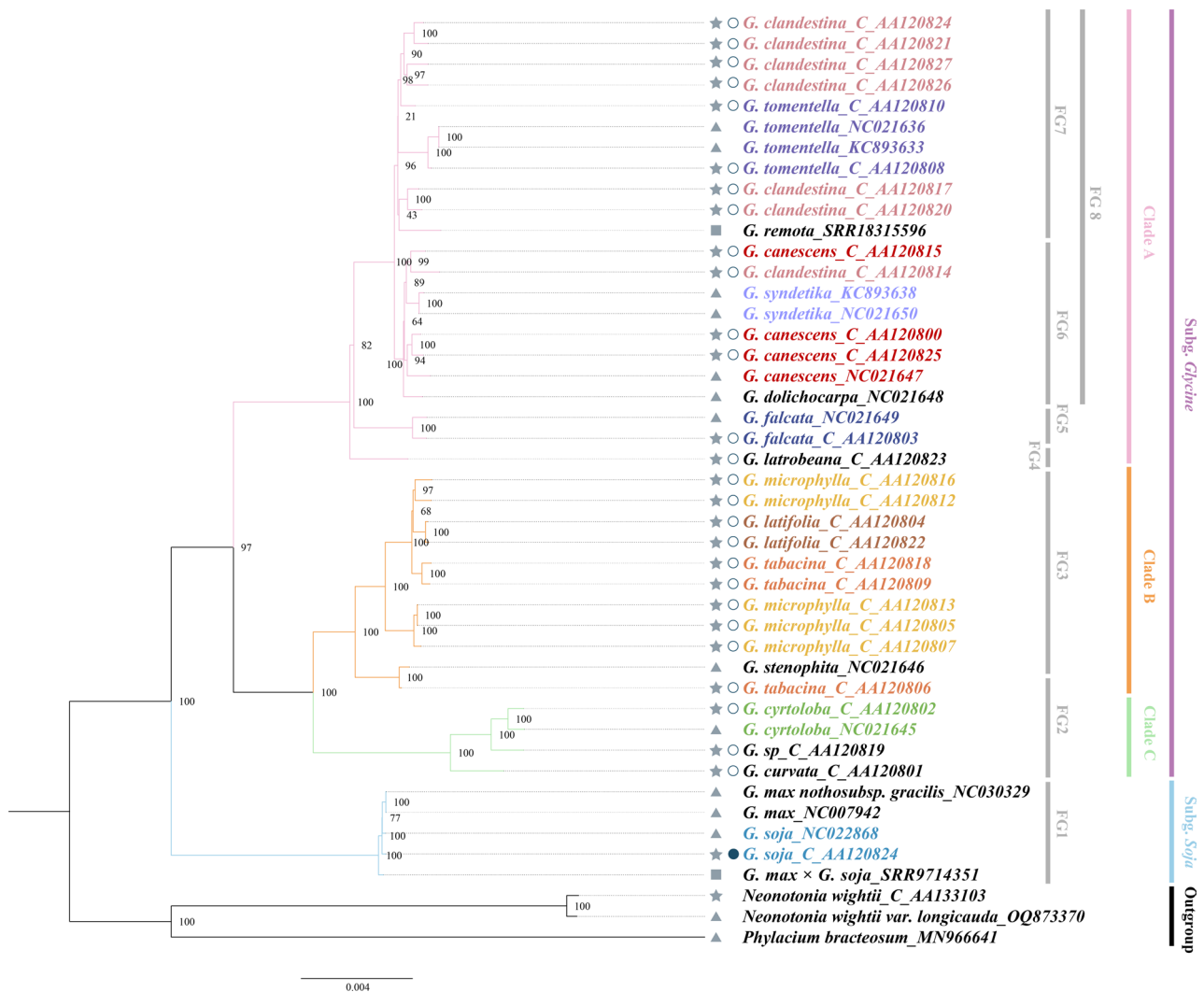


Fig. 1 Maximum Likelihood (ML) phylogenetic tree of *Glycine* based on the CP matrix. Taxa labels of the same color indicate different individuals of the same species. Two sets of symbols preceding the labels denote data sources and sampling locations, respectively. The first column presents data sources: stars, newly sequenced samples; squares, samples reassembled from published data; triangles, plastome sequences retrieved from NCBI. The second column presents sampling locations: open circles, Australia; solid circles, China; no symbols, published data with unavailable collection sites. Gray bars adjacent to taxa labels denote the specific foreground branches designated for the branch-model of the selection pressure analysis

“get_annotated_regions_from_gb.py” (<https://github.com/Kinggerm/PersonalUtilities>). Sequences were aligned using the MAFFT plugin in PhyloSuite v1.2.3 [60] with default parameters. Poorly aligned sites, defined as alignment columns with a high proportion of gaps or low sequence similarity, were automatically identified and removed using trimAl v1.4 under default parameters [66]. The resulting alignments were then concatenated in PhyloSuite to generate CDS, NCR, and complete plastome (CP, constructed by concatenating CDS and NCR sequences back-to-back, equivalent to a complete plastome with one IR region removed) datasets. The best nucleotide substitution model was selected with ModelFinder. The ML tree was reconstructed for each matrix using RAxML v8.2.12 [61], applying the GTRGAMMA model (recommended by RAxML) and GTR + F+I+G4 model (selected by ModelFinder) nucleotide substitution model, respectively. Bootstrap support (BS) was assessed with 1000 rapid replicates.

Results

Plastome features

All 28 newly sequenced *Glycine* plastomes exhibit a typical quadripartite structure, comprising LSC, SSC, and two IR regions (Fig. 2). These plastomes ranges in size from 152,225 to 152,972 bp (e.g., Fig. 3; LSC: 83,187–84,072 bp; SSC: 17,756–17,890 bp; IR: 25,405–25,575 bp), with GC content of 35.3–35.4% (Table S3). All 42 plastomes (28 newly sequenced and 14 published) show high collinearity, with identical gene content and arrangement (Fig. S1). These plastomes comprise 111 genes, including 77 protein-coding, 30 tRNA, and four rRNA genes (Fig. 2; Table 1, S3). Among these genes, 6 tRNA and 9 protein-coding genes contain a single intron, while *clpP*, *rps12* and *ycf3* contain two introns (Table 1).

Phylogeny inferences

Phylogenetic trees constructed from CDS, NCR, and CP matrices under two distinct models exhibited congruent topologies, with most nodes strongly supported (BS > 90%) (Fig. 1, S2, S3, S6). As the CP-based tree had the highest overall support, subsequent analyses were based on this topology. Monophyly of *Glycine* and its two subgenera (*Glycine* and *Soja*) were strongly supported (BS = 100%), as were clades A, B, and C within subgenus *Glycine* (BS = 100%). Within subgenus *Glycine*, Clades B and C formed a sister group (BS = 100%) and together were sister to Clade A (BS = 97%) (Fig. 1). Six species with multiple accessions were non-monophyletic: *G. clandestina*, *G. tomentella*, *G. canescens*, *G. microphylla*, and *G. tabacina* (subgenus *Glycine*), as well as *G. soja* (subgenus *Soja*). For the five non-monophyletic species in subgenus *Glycine* where geographic data was available, individuals from the same region did not form exclusive clades,

suggesting the observed polyphyly is not merely a geographic artifact.

Comparisons of IR boundaries and sequence divergence analysis

Among the 42 *Glycine* plastomes, IR regions range from 25,405 to 25,581 bp. At the four IR-LSC/SSC junctions, the LSC-IR_B boundary (JLB) resides within *rps19*, which spans 211–220 bp in the LSC and 59–68 bp in IR_B. The IR_B-SSC boundary (JSB) lies within *ndhF* in the subgenus *Glycine*, where *ndhF* extends 1–42 bp into IR_B and 2,234–2,262 bp into SSC, whereas in the subgenus *Soja* it coincides with the 3'-end of *ndhF*. The SSC-IR_A boundary (JSA) occurs within *ycf1*. In the SSC region, *ycf1* spans 40 bp in *G. tomentella* (KC893633 and NC021636), 2,763 bp in *G. cyrtoloba* (NC021645), and 4,878–4,920 bp in the remaining 39 genomes, while consistently spanning 440–589 bp in IR_A. The IR_A-LSC boundary (JLA) lies between *rpl2* and *trnH*(GUG), located 112–181 bp from *rpl2* and 2–42 bp from *trnH*(GUG). Partial IR expansion or contraction was observed. Subgenus *Soja* exhibits IR expansion into both LSC and SSC regions. Within subgenus *Glycine* Clade A, *G. dolichocarpa*, *G. remota*, and *G. clandestina* (C_AA120811) show expansion toward the SSC region, while *G. latrobeana* displays expansion toward the LSC region. In Clade C, *G. sp.* (C_AA120819) exhibits IR contraction at the SSC boundary (Fig. S4).

Comparative analysis of 42 *Glycine* plastomes revealed higher sequence variation and nucleotide diversity in single-copy regions than in IR regions, and in non-coding regions than in coding regions (Fig. 4, S5). Nucleotide diversity (π) was < 0.01 in all non-coding sequences > 200 bp, while < 0.005 in protein-coding genes. Among protein-coding genes, *matK*, *accD*, *ycf4*, *cemA*, *rpl20*, and *rps3* (located in LSC), as well as *ndhF*, *ccsA*, and *rps15* (in SSC), showed elevated diversity (π > 0.010). In non-coding regions, the LSC-located *psbA-trnH*(GUG), *trnG*(UCC)-*trnR*(UCU), *petA-psbI*, *trnP*(UGG)-*trnW*(CCA), *rpl20-rps18*, and *rps19-rps3* regions exhibited high diversity (π > 0.03).

Repeat sequences identification

Among the 42 *Glycine* plastomes, 3,637 SSRs were identified, with 69% located in intergenic regions (Fig. 5B). The number of SSRs per plastome ranged from 75 in *G. curvata* to 102 in *G. falcata* (Fig. 5A; Table S4). Six SSR types were detected: mononucleotide repeats predominated (53.7%–69.4%, primarily A/T types), followed by dinucleotide (16.7%–27.6%), tetranucleotide (7.0%–17.3%), and trinucleotide repeats (1.2%–7.0%), while penta-/hexanucleotide repeats occurred only in some genomes (Fig. 5C).

A total of 3,655 long repeats were identified, including 1,127 forward, 593 reverse, 1,593 palindromic, and

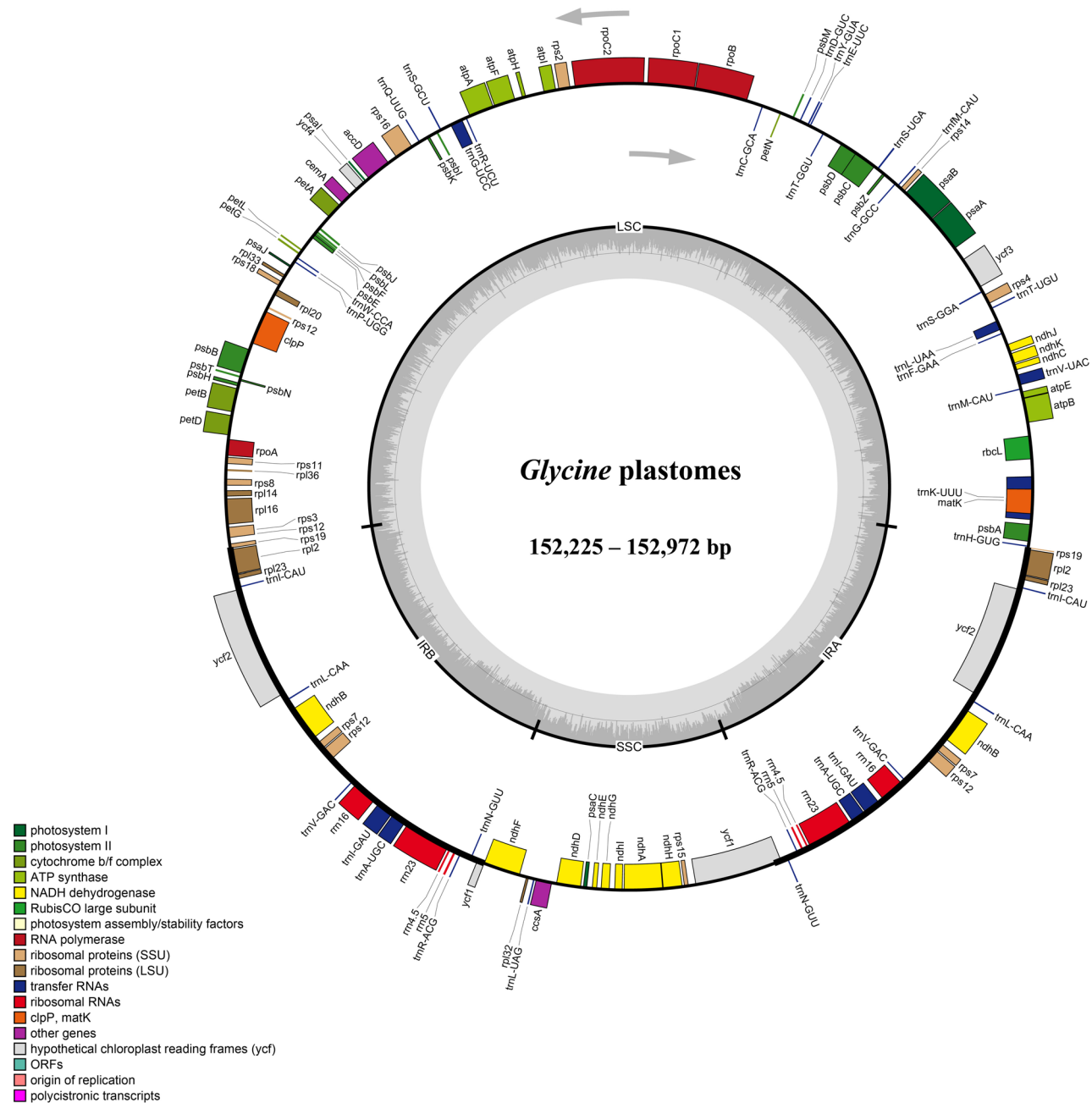


Fig. 2 Plastome map of *Glycine*. Genes inside the circle are transcribed clockwise while genes outside the circle are transcribed counterclockwise. Genes belonging to different functional groups are marked with different colors. The darker and lighter gray bands in the inner circle represent GC content and AT content, respectively

342 complementary repeats. All plastomes shared a conserved 287-bp forward repeat. The number of long repeats per plastome ranged from 60 in *G. clandestina* and *G. curvata* to 110 in *G. tomentella* (Fig. 5D; Table S5). Despite interspecific variation in number, distribution patterns remained consistent: palindromic repeats constituted the highest proportion (38.5%–53.4%), followed by forward (25.7%–36.5%), reverse (8.3%–21.2%), and complementary repeats (4.1%–15.3%). By length

category, 30–45 bp repeats predominated (86.8%–94.8%), 45–60 bp repeats accounted for 3.1%–10.3%, >90 bp repeats comprised 1.0%–1.7%, while 60–75 bp and 75–90 bp repeats were scarce or absent (Fig. 5E).

Codon usage pattern

Across the 42 *Glycine* plastomes, protein-coding regions contained from 20,819 (*G. canescens*_C_AA120825) to 22,589 (*G. microphylla*_C_AA120816) codons (Fig. S7).



Fig. 3 Comparative analysis of IR boundary regions in nine representative samples selected from 42 *Glycine* plastomes revealed a conserved gene organization, with only minor expansions or contractions. These structural variations show no significant correlation with overall plastome size divergence

The most frequent codon was AUU (952–1,036 occurrences), encoding isoleucine. UUA (encoding leucine) exhibited the highest relative synonymous codon usage (RSCU) value (mean = 2.14). Thirty-one codons displayed RSCU > 1.0, with 30 terminating in A/U nucleotides. Both AUG (encoding methionine) and UGG (encoding tryptophan) consistently had RSCU = 1.0 across all genomes, indicating no codon usage bias (Fig. 6; Table S6).

Selective pressure analysis

Genes with invalid d_N/d_S values ($\omega = 0.0001$, due to near 100% identity; $\omega = 999$, due to $d_S = 0$) were considered statistical outliers and excluded from the calculation to prevent bias. After excluding 13 outliers, analysis of 64 plastid protein-coding genes across *Glycine* species

revealed d_N/d_S ratios of 0.01718–0.66607, indicating pervasive purifying selection (Fig. 7). Branch-model analysis evaluated selection pressure on eight foreground branches (Fig. 1). Likelihood ratio tests showed the M0 model best fit most genes. After excluding aberrant d_N/d_S values ($\omega = 999$ or $\omega = 0.0001$), three genes exhibited lineage-specific selection shifts: *accD* underwent relaxed purifying selection in subgenus *Soja* (Fig. 1, FG1); *rpoB* showed relaxed purifying selection in *G. falcata* (Fig. 1, FG5); and *rbcl* experienced significant positive selection within a monophyletic group comprising all species in clade A of subgenus *Glycine*, except *G. latrobeana* and *G. falcata* (Fig. 1, FG8).

Table 1 Protein-coding genes identified in the plastomes of 42 *Glycine* samples (15 species) categorized by function

Function of Genes	Group of Genes	Name of Genes
Self-replication	Ribosomal RNA genes	<i>rrn4.5</i> × 2, <i>rrn5</i> × 2, <i>rrn16</i> × 2, <i>rrn23</i> × 2
	Transfer RNA genes	<i>trnA</i> (UGC)* × 2, <i>trnC</i> (GCA), <i>trnD</i> (GUC), <i>trnE</i> (UUC), <i>trnF</i> (GAA), <i>trnM</i> (CAU), <i>trnG</i> (GCC), <i>trnG</i> (UCC)*, <i>trnH</i> (GUG), <i>trnI</i> (CAU) × 2, <i>trnI</i> (GAU)* × 2, <i>trnK</i> (UUU)*, <i>trnL</i> (CAA) × 2, <i>trnL</i> (UAA)*, <i>trnL</i> (UAG), <i>trnM</i> (CAU), <i>trnN</i> (GUU) × 2, <i>trnP</i> (UGG), <i>trnQ</i> (UUG), <i>trnR</i> (ACG) × 2, <i>trnR</i> (UCU), <i>trnS</i> (GCU), <i>trnS</i> (GGA), <i>trnS</i> (UGA), <i>trnT</i> (GGU), <i>trnT</i> (UGU), <i>trnV</i> (GAC) × 2, <i>trnV</i> (UAC)*, <i>trnW</i> (CCA), <i>trnY</i> (GUA)
	Ribosomal protein (small subunit)	<i>rps2</i> , <i>rps3</i> , <i>rps4</i> , <i>rps7</i> × 2, <i>rps8</i> , <i>rps11</i> , <i>rps12</i> ** × 2, <i>rps14</i> , <i>rps15</i> , <i>rps16</i> *, <i>rps18</i> , <i>rps19</i>
Genes for photosynthesis	Ribosomal protein (large subunit)	<i>rpl2</i> * × 2, <i>rpl14</i> , <i>rpl16</i> *, <i>rpl20</i> , <i>rpl23</i> × 2, <i>rpl32</i> , <i>rpl33</i> , <i>rpl36</i>
	RNA polymerase	<i>rpoA</i> , <i>rpoB</i> , <i>rpoC1</i> *, <i>rpoC2</i>
	Subunits of photosystem I	<i>psaA</i> , <i>psaB</i> , <i>psaC</i> , <i>psaI</i> , <i>psaJ</i>
	Subunits of photosystem II	<i>psbA</i> , <i>psbB</i> , <i>psbC</i> , <i>psbD</i> , <i>psbE</i> , <i>psbF</i> , <i>psbH</i> , <i>psbI</i> , <i>psbJ</i> , <i>psbK</i> , <i>psbL</i> , <i>psbM</i> , <i>psbN</i> , <i>psbT</i> , <i>psbZ</i>
	Subunits of ATP synthase	<i>atpA</i> , <i>atpB</i> , <i>atpE</i> , <i>atpF</i> *, <i>atpH</i> , <i>atpI</i>
	Large subunit of Rubisco	<i>rbcL</i>
	Subunits of NADH Dehydrogenase	<i>ndhA</i> *, <i>ndhB</i> * × 2, <i>ndhC</i> , <i>ndhD</i> , <i>ndhE</i> , <i>ndhF</i> , <i>ndhG</i> , <i>ndhH</i> , <i>ndhI</i> , <i>ndhJ</i> , <i>ndhK</i>
Other genes	Cytochrome b6f complex	<i>petA</i> , <i>petB</i> *, <i>petD</i> *, <i>petG</i> , <i>petL</i> , <i>petN</i>
	Maturase	<i>matK</i>
	Envelope membrane protein	<i>cemA</i>
	Subunit of acetyl-CoA	<i>accD</i>
	Synthesis gene	<i>ccsA</i>
	ATP-dependent protease	<i>clpP</i> **
	Genes of unknown function	<i>ycf1</i> , <i>ycf2</i> × 2, <i>ycf3</i> **, <i>ycf4</i>

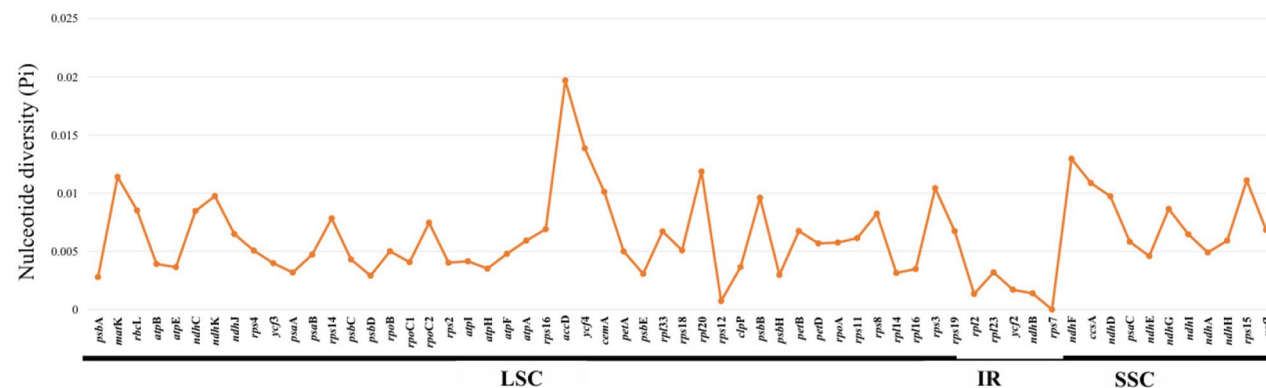
Gene*:Gene with one introns; Gene**:Gene with two introns;Gene (×2):Number of copies of multi-copy genes

Discussion

Plastome characteristics and adaptive evolution of *Glycine*
The plastomes within the subfamily Papilionoideae generally exhibit pronounced structural variations. Although most lineages of this subfamily including *Glycine* share a common ~ 50 kb large inversion, plastomes of *Glycine* are highly conserved compared to other closely related genera. For instance, *Medicago* L. has undergone frequent

inversions and rearrangements [67], while *Trifolium* L. is characterized by the loss of *accD* and significant gene duplications [68].
A comparative analysis of 42 *Glycine* plastomes confirms this stability: their structure, size, gene content, and gene order are highly consistent, with minimal variation in total length (~ 0.8 kb). In angiosperms, plastome size fluctuation is often linked to the expansion or contraction of the Inverted Repeat (IR) regions. However, in *Glycine*, plastome size variation shows no apparent correlation with IR dynamics. The minor IR boundary shifts observed in *Glycine* are also documented in other genera such as *Indigofera* (Leguminosae) [69], *Salvia* (Lamiaceae) [70], and *Amygdalus* (Rosaceae) [71]; such subtle variations at the boundaries may provide valuable reference information for species delimitation within the genus. Given this high degree of macro-structural stability, genetic differentiation in *Glycine* is primarily reflected in micro-scale sequence variations. Consequently, an in-depth exploration of nucleotide diversity within these conserved genomes is significant for revealing mutational hotspots and evolutionary pressures across the genus.
Glycine plastomes were highly conserved in sequence, with IR regions showing lower nucleotide diversity than SC regions, and protein-coding regions lower than non-coding regions—patterns consistent with other angiosperms (e.g., *Cardiocrinum* (Endl.) Lindl. [72], *Quercus* L. [73], *Crataegus* L. [74], *Ficus* L. [75], and *Rubus* L. [76]). Despite this, six divergent hotspot regions (Pi > 0.03) were identified in SC regions: *psbA-trnH*(GUG), *trnG*(UCC)-*trnR*(UCU), *petA-psbJ*, *trnP*(UGG)-*trnW*(CCA), *rpl20-rps18*, and *rps19-rps3*. Among these, *psbA-trnH*(GUG) and *petA-psbJ* have been widely used for phylogenetic reconstruction and species identification across many angiosperm groups [77, 78]. Research indicates that sequences that evolve at different rates vary in their utility for resolving phylogenetic relationships at different taxonomic levels. For instance, Wang et al. [79] demonstrated that intron sequences could resolve deep relationships within Fabaceae but were less effective at resolving intergeneric relationships within subfamilies. Conversely, intergenic spacers, characterized by faster evolutionary rates, proved more effective for resolving relationships among closely related taxa. Sakai et al. [29] utilized a concatenated matrix of four plastid intergenic spacers (*rps11-rpl36*, *atpB-rbcL*, *trnS-trnG*, *rps3-rpl16*) to construct a phylogeny for *Glycine* but failed to resolve some deep nodes. However, none of these four spacers were identified as hotspots in this study. Thus, the identified hotspots represent potential markers for phylogenetic reconstruction, population genetics, and DNA barcoding in *Glycine* and related taxa.
Glycine has undergone radiation and allopolyploidization [1], resulting in complex ploidy in species such as *G.*

Protein-coding regions



Non-coding regions

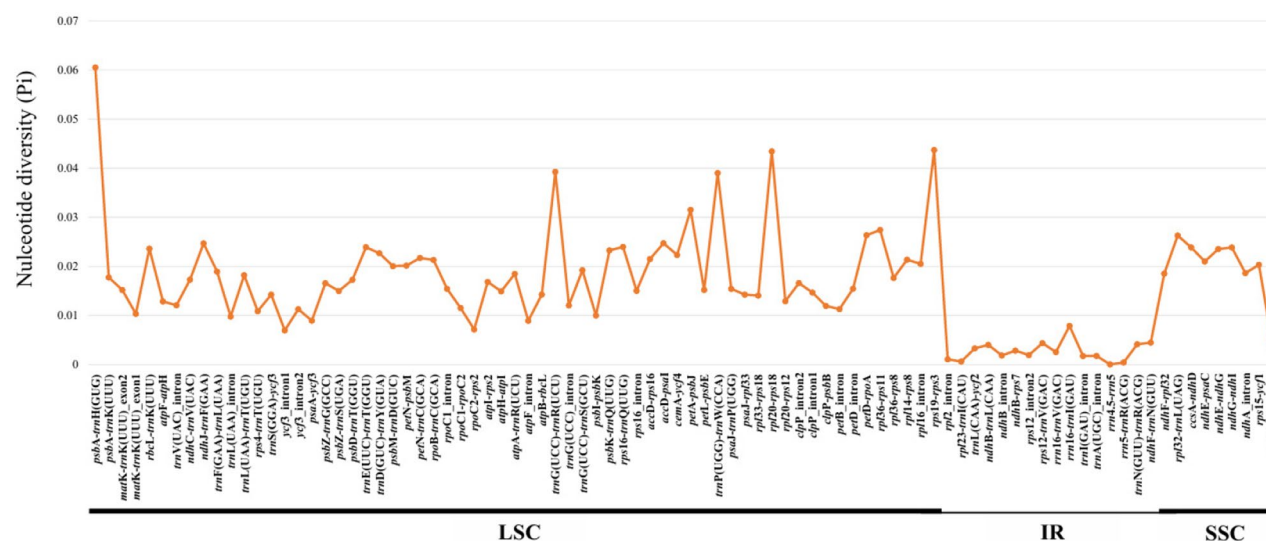


Fig. 4 Nucleotide diversity (π) values across 42 *Glycine* plastomes, showing genus-wide divergence patterns. The upper panel shows π values for protein-coding sequences, whereas the lower panel shows π values of non-coding regions

tomentella and *G. tabacina* [80]. The allopolyploidization hypothesis is supported by evidence from hybridization experiments [81], isozyme analysis [82], morphology [83], DNA data [84] and phylogenomic data [85]. These processes may have shaped significant selective imprints on the plastome. Selection pressure analysis revealed three genes under lineage-specific shifts: *rpoB* (relaxed selection in *G. falcata*), *accD* (relaxed selection in Subgenus *Soja*), and *rbcL* (significant positive selection in foreground branch 8), suggesting that these genes may be associated with environmental adaptation processes within their respective lineages.

The *accD* gene encodes a subunit of acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACCase), a key enzyme in fatty acid synthesis that regulates unsaturated fatty acid production and influences biomembrane stability under high temperatures [86]. The editing efficiency of *accD* correlates with thermotolerance. Wild soybean (*G. soja*) of the eastern

Asian subgenus *Soja*, occurs widely across China, where northeastern China being a genetic diversity center. In contrast to species of the subgenus *Glycine*, subgenus *Soja* has undergone long-term adaptation to colder environments. Therefore, we hypothesize that the observed selection pressure on *accD* in subgenus *Soja* may be linked to its low-temperature adaptation.

In *G. falcata*, *rpoB* (encoding the β subunit of the plastid-encoded RNA polymerase, PEP) is under relaxed selection [87]. PEP serves as the primary RNA polymerase in mature plastid, responsible for transcribing > 80% of plastid genes and directly regulates the expression of photosynthesis-related genes [88–90]; its activity is modulated by environmental signals like light, temperature, and circadian rhythms [87]. Furthermore, *rpoB* influences photosynthetic efficiency by coordinating nuclear-plastid gene interactions [91]. While *G. falcata* occupies a broad ecological range, our comparative

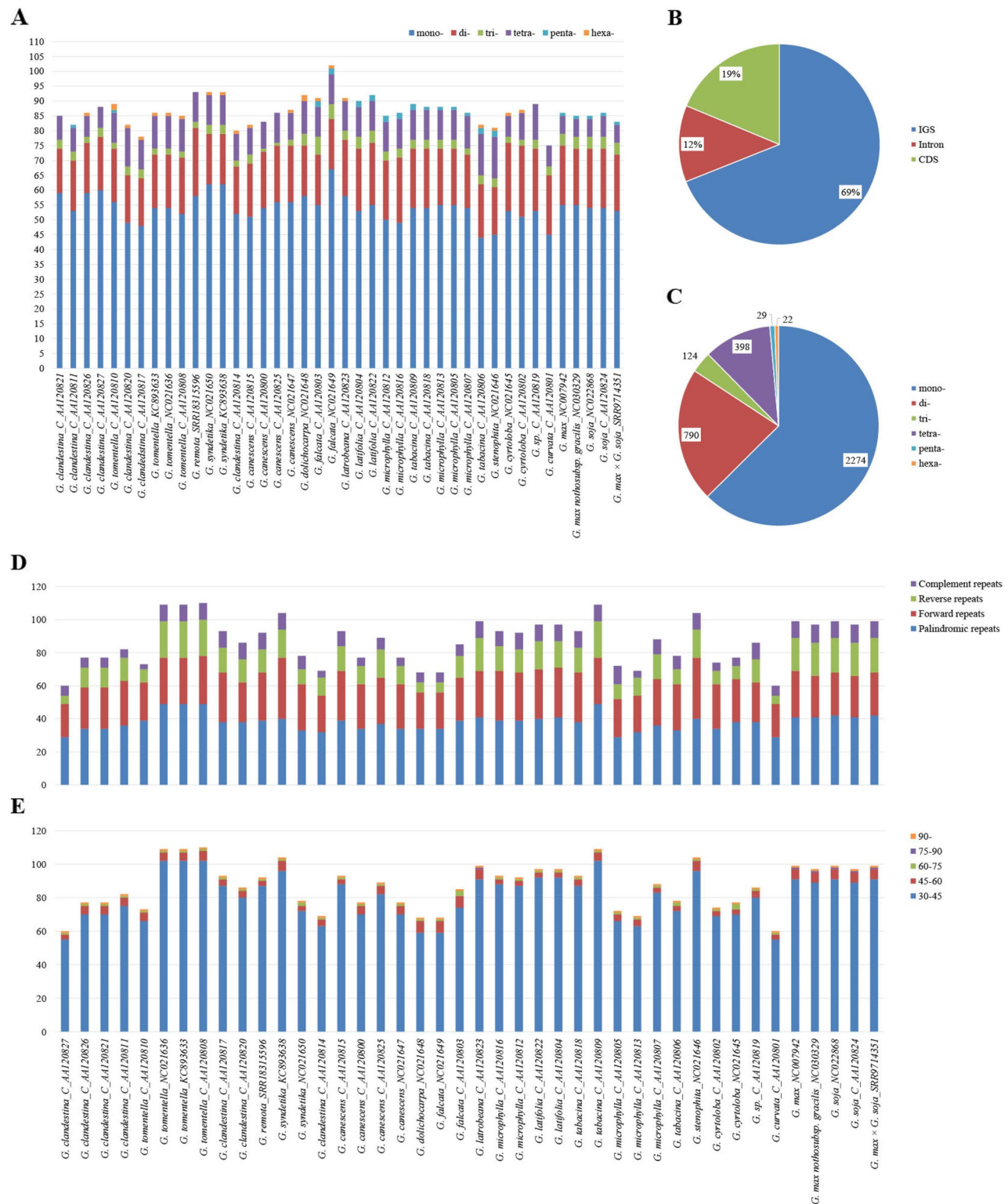


Fig. 5 Distribution of simple sequence repeats (SSRs) and long repeats sequences in 42 *Glycine* plastomes: **(A)** types and quantities of SSRs detected in each species; **(B)** distribution of SSRs across distinct regions of the plastomes; **(C)** abundance of different SSR types; **(D)** types and abundance of long repeat sequences identified in each species; **(E)** length intervals and corresponding counts of these sequences across studied species

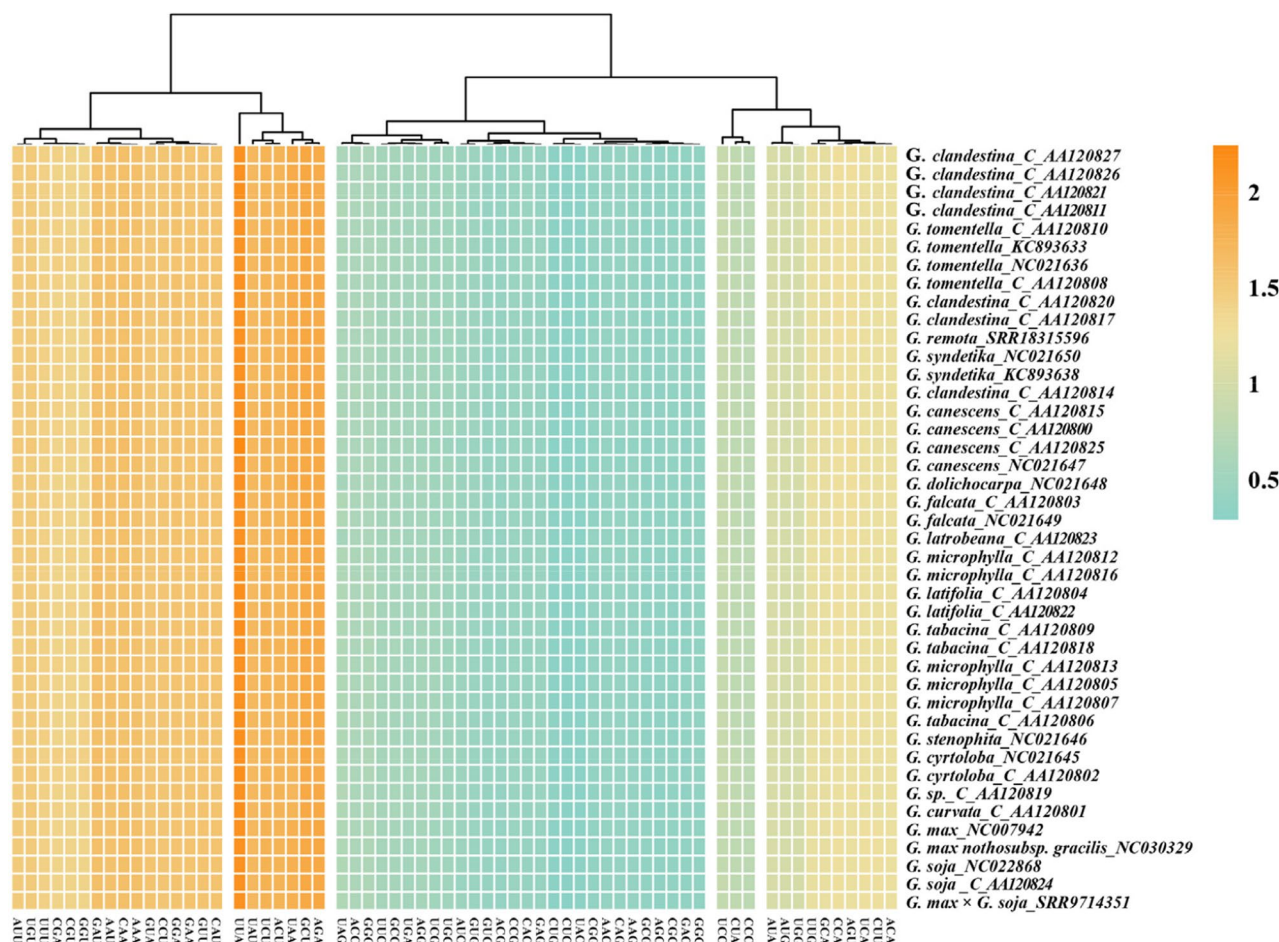


Fig. 6 Relative Synonymous Codon Usage (RSCU) patterns in plastid protein-coding sequences across 42 *Glycine* plastomes

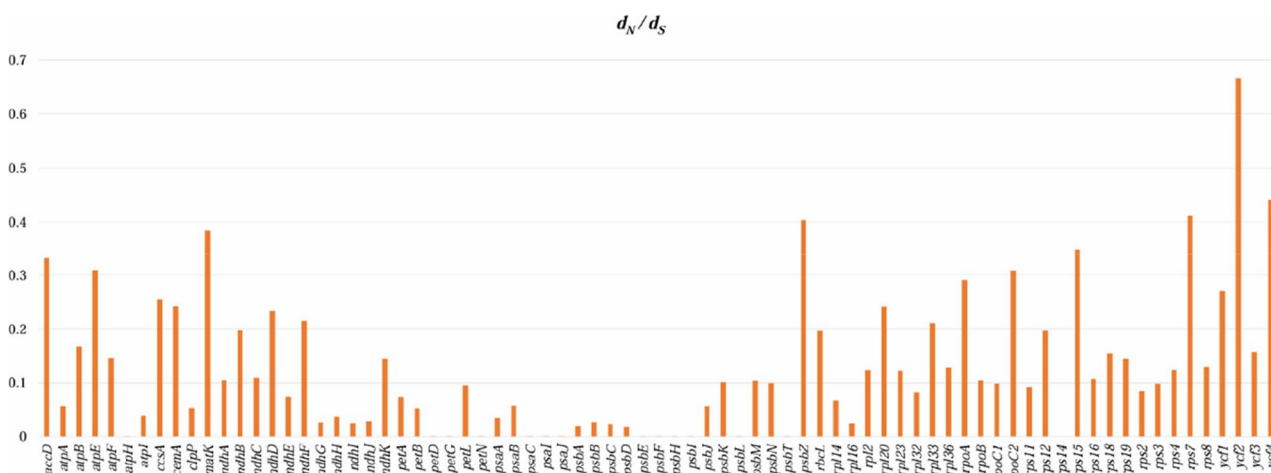


Fig. 7 Non-synonymous to synonymous substitution rate ratios (d_N/d_S) for all protein-coding genes in 42 *Glycine* plastomes

analysis with other widespread *Glycine* species (e.g., *G. tomentella* and *G. tabacina*) suggests that this relaxed selection is specific to *G. falcata* rather than a universal trait of widespread species. This specific evolutionary pattern may be associated with the unique

ecological pressures or evolutionary history experienced by *G. falcata*.

Within foreground branch 8 (Fig. 1, FG8), the *rbcl* gene showed significant positive selection. The *rbcl* encodes the large subunit of Rubisco, which contains the

catalytic core and is responsible for the vital physiological process of CO₂ fixation in photosynthesis. Given that Rubisco's catalytic efficiency and CO₂/O₂ specificity are highly sensitive to temperature and CO₂ availability, the evolution of its primary sequence is widely regarded as a critical mechanism for plant habitat adaptation. Similar patterns in *Ficus* [75] and *Ilex* [92] link positive selection on *rbcL* to ecological adaptability. The species in foreground branch 8 (*G. dolichocarpa*, *G. canescens*, *G. syndetika*, *G. remota*, *G. tomentella*, and *G. clandestina*) occupy diverse habitats from arid to humid regions suggesting that the positive selection at specific sites may enhance Rubisco's performance under the specific environmental stresses (e.g., high temperature or aridity) encountered during the radiation of this group, even though similar selection was not observed in all widespread *Glycine* species (e.g., *G. falcata* and *G. tabacina*).

Across the 42 *Glycine* plastomes, all 77 genes were under purifying selection ($d_N/d_S < 1$), consistent with patterns in other angiosperms [75, 76, 93–97]. Purifying selection maintains essential functional domains by purging deleterious mutations [98, 99], explaining the high interspecific conservation observed in *Glycine* plastomes.

Phylogenetic analysis

We present the most comprehensively sampled plastomic genome phylogeny of the genus *Glycine* to date, revealing a well-supported phylogeny across major clades. Consistent with previous studies [30, 31, 100], the monophyly of the genus *Glycine* and its two subgenera, *Soja* and *Glycine*, is strongly supported. Within the subgenus *Glycine*, three major clades (A, B, and C) are recovered. Clade B and Clade C form a clade that is sister to Clade A, consistent with plastome-based phylogenies [30, 31], but incongruent with nuclear genome-based phylogenies (e.g., histone H3-D in Sherman-Broyles et al. [30] and genome-wide SNP data in Landis and Doyle [31]), which place *G. falcata* as the earliest-diverging lineage. These clades, initially proposed by Doyle et al. [28], are here expanded. Clade A is expanded to include additional species such as *G. dolichocarpa*, *G. syndetika*, and *G. remota*, encompassing a substantial portion of the perennial *Glycine* diversity. It is widely distributed across diverse ecological zones in Australia, including deserts, dry shrublands, temperate grasslands, savannas, and temperate broadleaf and mixed forests. Clade B is extended to include *G. stenophita*. Species in Clade B are unified by morphological features such as stoloniferous growth, adventitious root buds (except *G. stenophita* and partial allotetraploid group of *G. tabacina* [81]) and specific secondary venation patterns of leaves [28], and some produce fertile hybrids in interspecific crosses [101–103]. Together, these morphological characteristics clarify the evolutionary coherence of Clade B. However, they remain

insufficient to justify formal taxonomic revisions within this clade. Clade C contains two species characterized by distinctively curved pods. Due to differences in taxon sampling, interspecific relationships are difficult to compare directly across studies.

Our plastome phylogeny includes multiple accessions for 15 species, allowing finer-scale inference. While certain species remain unsampled due to their restricted distributions in remote geographic regions and the consequent challenge in obtaining high-quality molecular materials, our taxon sampling encompasses all recognized major clades within subgenus *Glycine* according to established phylogenetic frameworks. Therefore, the current sampling density is sufficient to represent the species-level evolutionary breadth of the genus. However, it is undeniable that insufficient species sampling within Clade A constrains the resolution of its internal phylogenetic relationships. Several species appear non-monophyletic, including *G. canescens*, *G. clandestina*, *G. microphylla*, *G. tomentella*, and *G. tabacina* (Fig. 1). Within Clade A, the plastid phylogeny shows *G. canescens* and *G. clandestina* to be non-monophyletic, contrasting with their monophyly in nuclear datasets [5, 31]. Such cytonuclear discordance is common in angiosperms (e.g., *Trema* [104], *Amorpha* [105]) and has been frequently documented in association with plastome capture events [106]. Within Clade B, *G. microphylla* is shown here, for the first time, to be non-monophyletic. Two accessions form a weakly supported clade with *G. latifolia*, with this clade being sister to *G. tabacina*; while three others cluster as a strongly supported sister group (BS = 100%; Fig. 1). This topology differs from previous studies based on ITS sequences and plastid non-coding fragments [27, 29] and suggests a possible complexity in its intraspecific relationships that warrants further investigation, especially considering that hybridization among *G. microphylla*, *G. latifolia*, and *G. tabacina* has been documented [77]. Non-monophyly in *G. tomentella* and *G. tabacina*, species representing classic polyploid complexes ($2n = 38/40/78/80$), has been consistently documented and reflects their allopolyploid origins [1]. Previous studies delineated *G. tomentella* into six diploid (D1–D6) and six tetraploid taxa (T1–T6) [82, 107], leading to partial taxonomic resolution (e.g., *G. arenaria* Tindale and *G. syndetika* split from *G. tomentella*, *G. stenophita* from *G. tabacina*) [108–110]. Nevertheless, while plastomic phylogeny offers crucial insights into the evolutionary history of *Glycine*, these data alone are insufficient to propose formal taxonomic revisions or species delimitations for these non-monophyletic taxa, and sampling limitations, given the extensive ranges of certain taxa, may introduce bias into phylogenetic inferences. Recent studies show the presence of multiple plastid lineages with *Macadamia* species due to

geographically based plastid capture events between species [21]. The divergence likely stems from differing plastome inheritance patterns across lineages, potentially driven by interspecific hybridization [81]. Resolving taxonomy in these cases requires population-level sampling and multilocus analyses. Future studies should prioritize broader intraspecific sampling and integrate nuclear phylogenomics to untangle the complex evolutionary past of this genus. Ultimately, such genomic data should be combined with morphological evidence to establish robust species boundaries within these intricate lineages.

The phylogenetic incongruence of *G. clandestina*, *G. latrobeana*, and *G. falcata* exemplifies the cytonuclear discordance within *Glycine*. This pattern is consistent with hybridization/introgression or incomplete lineage sorting (ILS) frequently observed in other Papilionoideae genera such as *Lotus* L. [111]. and *Trifolium* [112], typically attributed to reticulate evolution. Overall, despite the highly conservation of the *Glycine* plastome structure, its evolutionary history is profoundly shaped by reticulate processes. Such discordance underscores that reticulate evolution is a pervasive driver of legume diversification. Consequently, single plastid datasets are insufficient to resolve the complex evolution of Fabaceae, necessitating integrative phylogenomic analyses with multi-omic data in future studies.

Glycine latrobeana is placed as sister to other Clade A species (excluding *G. falcata*), consistent with Doyle et al. [27] but conflicting with plastid fragment data [28], which grouped it with *G. clandestina* and *G. canescens*. This inconsistency may reflect both cytonuclear conflict and limited resolution from short plastid sequences. A clearer placement will require broader taxon sampling and multiple data types.

The placement of *G. falcata* also varies between nuclear and plastome datasets. Our plastome-based tree positions it within Clade A, divergent following *G. latrobeana* (BS = 82%), as sister to all other members, in agreement with recent plastome-based studies [29, 30] (these studies did not sample *G. latrobeana*). In contrast, nuclear phylogenies place *G. falcata* as sister to the entire subgenus *Glycine* (e.g. [5, 30]), . This cytonuclear discordance suggests a complex evolutionary history involving ancient hybridization or incomplete lineage sorting. Resolving *G. falcata*'s placement will require integration of nuclear genomes, transcriptomes, and multiple phylogenetic methods to disentangle the drivers of discordance and clarify the evolutionary relationships within the genus *Glycine*.

While this study achieved high overall phylogenetic resolution, support for certain nodes remains relatively low. This may reflect the rapid radiation experienced by *Glycine* during its early evolution, wherein limited phylogenetic signal (e.g., synapomorphies) accumulated over

a short divergence time, approaching the intrinsic resolving limit of single plastid genomic datasets and making it difficult to reliably distinguish between incomplete lineage sorting (ILS) and hybridization events. Furthermore, due to insufficient geographic coverage in intra-specific sampling, the observed topological conflicts may not fully represent the genuine evolutionary history. Therefore, integrating nuclear genomic data with coalescent-based analytical approaches will be necessary to determine whether these patterns of non-monophyly and plastome capture reflect genuine evolutionary processes or stem from analytical bias due to insufficient informative sites.

Conclusion

In this study, we analyzed 42 plastomes (including 28 newly sequenced, 2 reassembled from public raw data and the remaining 12 from GenBank) representing 15 *Glycine* species. These plastomes exhibit the highly conserved quadripartite structure, gene content (111 genes: 77 PCGs, 30 tRNAs, 4 rRNAs) and strong collinearity across the genus. Six non-coding regions were found to be highly diverse, which can serve as candidate markers for future phylogenetics, population genomics, and species delimitation in the genus *Glycine*. Phylogenomic analyses provide robust support for the monophyly of the genus *Glycine* and its two subgenera (*Glycine* and *Soja*), and resolve three major clades (A, B, C) within subgenus *Glycine*, with Clades B and C forming a clade sister to Clade A. Notably, six species (*G. canescens*, *G. clandestina*, *G. microphylla*, *G. tabacina*, *G. tomentella*, and *G. soja*) exhibited non-monophyly across accessions, suggesting complex histories potentially involving hybridization. Our study further reveals cytonuclear discordance in the phylogeny of *Glycine*, indicating its complicated evolutionary history probably shaped by hybridization, plastid capture, and incomplete lineage sorting. Further studies should include population-level sampling of non-monophyletic species to delimit intraspecific lineages and clarify taxonomic boundaries by integrating molecular and morphological evidence, and implement comprehensive sampling across *Glycine* to reconstruct a robust phylogeny using phylogenomic datasets and elucidate the mechanisms underlying cytonuclear discordance.

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12870-026-08422-z>.

Supplementary Material 1.

Supplementary Material 2.

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Authors' contributions

K.-L.A.: Methodology, Formal analysis, Visualization, Writing. W.G.: Formal analysis, Visualization, Writing. Q.L.: Methodology, Visualization. D.-J.W.: Methodology, Formal analysis. Z.X.: Methodology, Formal analysis. X.-G.F.: Methodology, Formal analysis. L.Z.: Formal analysis. Z.-Y.Y.: DNA extraction and genome sequencing. R.H.: review & editing. J.W.: Sample collection, review & editing. R.Z.: Sample collection and genome sequencing, Funding acquisition, Writing. T.-S.Y.: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing, Funding acquisition. All authors approved the manuscript.

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Data availability

All newly generated plastome data in this study are available in the National Genomics Data Center (<https://ngdc.cncb.ac.cn/genbase/>) (<https://ngdc.cncb.ac.cn/genbase/>) under accession numbers provided in shown in Supplemental Table S1.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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