Microsatellite-assisted identification and comparative population genetics of Malagasy olive species (*Noronhia* spp., Oleaceae)

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ABSTRACT

An exhaustive inventory of Madagascar's native flora is necessary to optimize its conservation, particularly for highly diversified endemic groups of plants whose many habitats are threatened with short-term loss. The Malagasy olive (*Noronhia* spp., Oleaceae), with at least 80 species, is recognized as one of the highly diversified tree genera of the SW Indian Ocean Flora. Field identification of *Noronhia* species is, however, often a challenge and numerous sterile samples need posterior identification. As molecular tools may assist this task, we tested cross-species amplification of 13 nuclear microsatellite loci (i.e. SSRs) among a large sample of *Noronhia* taxa (60 of the 82 described species in Madagascar). Eight species were also investigated at the population level with 13 nuclear and 15 plastid SSRs. A high cross-species transferability of markers was demonstrated, although three nuclear loci showed evidence of null alleles in some species. Based on the amount of genetic diversity observed within eight diploid species, we showed that putative polyploids could be efficiently detected using nuclear SSRs. Our markers thus allowed revealing one polyploid taxon, but their relatively low frequency suggests that whole-genome duplication was not a major process involved in the high diversification of *Noronhia* as previously hypothesized. Finally, plastid lineages as well as genetic clusters identified with nuclear SSRs allowed distinguishing all six species collected at Andohahela and Marojejy. These results demonstrate that microsatellites can assist *Noronhia* identification in their diversity hotspots, as well as reveal contrasting genetic diversity patterns (such as isolation by distance) between sympatric taxa.

KEYWORDS: Biodiversity inventory and conservation – IBD – Madagascar – *Noronhia* – Polyploidy – Population genetics – Species identification – *tsilaitra*.

Introduction

Biodiversity inventory is an essential prerequisite for investigating species distribution patterns and diversification processes, and such information is essential to define conservation action in biodiversity hotspots (Willis, Gillson, and Knapp 2007). However, species identification based on phenotypic criteria can be very challenging in highly diversified groups and species complexes (Freudenstein et al. 2017), such that developing molecular tools is often required to assist this task (Duminil and Di Michele 2009). Yet, DNA barcoding approaches have also proven to be sometime limited in discriminating closely related taxa that still exchange genes (e.g. Singh et al. 2012; Caetano Wyler and Naciri 2016), and thus population genetics may be more efficient in uncovering cryptic species at the local scale (Wang et al. 2014; McKendrick et al. 2017; Maduna et al. 2017). Furthermore, polyploidization, as a major speciation process in plants, still needs to be better documented in hyper-diversified tropical groups for which chromosome counts or cellular DNA content measurements by flow cytometry are difficult to obtain on a comprehensive taxon sampling (Husband, Baldwin, and Suda 2013), especially from herbarium samples (Viruel et al. 2019). The use of highly variable cross-species markers (such as microsatellites or Simple Sequence Repeats, SSRs), which can inform on the ploidy level of individuals (e.g. García-Verdugo et al. 2009; Feng et al. 2018; Liang et al. 2019; Díaz Martínez, Boedeker, and Zuccarello 2020; Hagl et al. 2021), represents a more integrative alternative approach.

In the Malagasy biodiversity hotspot, floristic inventory is still a matter of intense research, and the taxonomy of numerous highly diversified groups needs re-evaluation, while many habitats are threatened with short-term loss (Ganzhorn et al. 2008; Callmander et al. 2011; Goyder et al. 2017). The Malagasy olive (*Noronhia* Stadtm. ex Thouars, Oleaceae), commonly named “*tsilaitra*”, has radiated since the Oligocene, resulting in at least 82 species (Hong-Wa and Besnard 2013, 2014; Hong-Wa 2016). *Noronhia* is now recognized as one of the highly diversified tree genera of the SW Indian Ocean Flora, although less diverse than groups like *Dombeya* Cav. or *Diospyros* L. (Skema 2012; Linan et al. 2019). It has colonized various types of habitats in Madagascar, such as coastal forests and rainforests (mainly in the East and North), dry deciduous forests (in the North and West), and central High Plateau gallery forests and savannas (Perrier de la Bâthie 1949, 1952; Hong-Wa 2016). The reasons for the *Noronhia* diversification remain unknown, although an adaptive radiation involving recurrent hybridizations and possible polyploidizations has been suggested (Hong-Wa and Besnard 2013, 2014). Field identification of “*tsilaitra*” species is often a challenge, especially in regions where closely related taxa locally co-exist; such as in dry and rain forests from the North to the South-East (Hong-Wa and Besnard 2014). For instance, at least 25 taxa have been recently recorded in the remnant forests of the Loky-Manambato, for a region of ca. 1000 km² (Daraina, North-East Madagascar; G. Besnard, C. Hong-Wa, J. Salmona, and A.E. Ranaivoson, pers. obs.). Taxon identification is also made difficult in the field when flowers and fruits are absent (especially during the dry season), or impossible to collect (e.g. trees of the canopy). During our field collections, numerous sterile samples were thus not clearly assigned to a species, needing posterior identification assisted by genetic markers. The barcoding approach (based on plastid and nuclear ribosomal DNA) has however showed some limitations to delineate species due to low nucleotide sequence divergence (Hong-Wa and Besnard 2014).

Population genetics studies were recently carried out on *Noronhia* spp. to evaluate the impact of landscape variables on their demography (Salmona, Dresen et al. 2020; Salmona, Olofsson et al. 2020), but these studies have only focused on species that are very easily identified (i.e. *N. lowryi* Hong-Wa and *N. spinifolia* Hong-Wa) and probably reproductively well isolated from their congeners. More investigations are still necessary to document the

past demography and processes involved in the diversification of *Noronhia* species (e.g. local adaptation, reproductive isolation, and recurrent admixture). Before tackling such questions, a preliminary characterization of their genome diversity may help to identify species complexes and/or polyploids, and then assist in designing the most appropriate research approaches. Here, we thus first tested cross-species amplification of nuclear SSR markers recently developed (Salmona, Olofsson et al. 2020) among a large sample of *Noronhia* taxa (ca. three-quarters of the 82 described species in Madagascar). Eight species were also investigated at the population level to compare their allelic richness and genetic diversity, as well as to test for the presence of null alleles or allelic dropout. Besides, the potential utility of such multi-allelic loci in determining the ploidy level of species was assessed. Nuclear and plastid SSR data were finally used in two distant locations (Andohahela in the South East, and Marojejy in the North East) to test their species discrimination power and their potential utility for comparative studies of population genetics.

Material and methods

Plant sampling

To test the cross-species transferability of SSR makers, we first analysed 76 *Noronhia* taxa from the entire range of the genus in Madagascar (Figure 1; Table S1). For each individual, a voucher specimen has been deposited in at least a herbarium (Table S1). Most Malagasy species (60 taxa) were represented by a single individual, whereas nine accessions remained unidentified. In this initial sample, we decided to analyse four individuals of *N. louvelii* H. Perrier (from three locations) to test the possible occurrence of different ploidy levels within this taxon (see below). In addition, only three individuals of two species were collected outside Madagascar: *N. peglerae* (C.H. Wright) Hong-Wa & Besnard from South Africa, and *N. emarginata* (Lam.) Stadtm. ex Thouars from the Reunion Island and Hawaii. This latter has been translocated from Madagascar to archipelagos of the Indian and Pacific Oceans as well as in the Caribbean region (CABI 2020). In its new range, it is often cultivated as an ornamental or vanilla tutor, but it can naturalize and is locally considered invasive (CABI 2020).

To test the utility of our markers for population genetics and assess their power at discriminating species at the local scale, we then characterized *Noronhia* individuals from four distant sites (Table S2): Andohahela NP in the South East (38 individuals), Marojejy NP in North East (74 ind.), Ankafoabe on the northern High Plateau (10 ind.), and Itremo-Ibity on the central High Plateau (73 genotypes already analysed in Salmona, Olofsson et al. 2020). For each sampled tree, we collected a leaf in silica gel for DNA extraction, recorded GPS coordinates, and made a herbarium specimen for later species identification. Species sampling on these sites is detailed as follows: (i) Trees collected in Andohahela were assigned to six forest species (Figure S1): *N. aff. boivinii* Dubard (18 ind.), *N. grandifolia* H. Perrier (7 ind.), and four undetermined species: hereafter named sp1_Ando (8 ind.), sp2_Ando (2 ind.), sp3_Ando (2 ind.), and sp4_Ando (1 ind.); (ii) Samples collected in Marojejy were assigned to six distinct forest species (Figure S1): *N. verticillata* H. Perrier (33 ind.), *N. humblotiana* (H. Perrier) Hong-Wa (26 ind.), *N. disjuncta* Hong-Wa (8 ind.), *N. louvelii* (5 ind.), and two undetermined species (hereafter named sp1_Maroj and sp2_Maroj; one individual each). Note that two species were collected in Marojejy along parallel transects of ca. 3.5 km: *N. verticillata*, a riparian species found along the river; and *N. humblotiana*, an understory forest species collected along the path at ca. 10-50 m from the river; (iii) Lastly, all trees

collected in Ankafobe were assigned to *N. brevitiba* H. Perrier (gallery forest species), and (iv) those from Itremo-Ibity to *N. lowryi* (savanna shrub).

DNA extraction and microsatellite genotyping

Total genomic DNA was extracted from ~5 mg of dried leaves. Each sample was ground in a 2-mL tube containing three tungsten beads with a TissueLyser (Qiagen). The BioSprint 15 DNA Plant Kit (Qiagen) was then used to extract DNA, which was eluted in 200 μ L AE buffer. Among the 14 loci previously developed (Salmona, Olofsson et al. 2020), 13 were retained, after Nor-14 was discarded due to amplification failure in initial tests on ten species (i.e. *N. aminae* Hong-Wa, *N. brevitiba*, *N. capuronii* Bosser, *N. clarinerva* Hong-Wa, *N. disjuncta*, *N. humblotiana*, *N. intermedia* Hong-Wa, *N. sp1_Ando*, *N. spinifolia*, and *N. verticillata*). This locus also showed a significant excess of homozygosity on *N. lowryi* suggesting the presence of null alleles in this species (Salmona, Olofsson et al. 2020). As developing cross-species loci can be a challenge in some plant groups (e.g. Kpatènnon et al. 2020), their transferability can be maximized by designing primers from conserved genomic regions (e.g. exons of genes), as it has been done for the 13 selected loci (see Salmona, Olofsson et al. 2020). Nuclear SSRs were amplified by PCR following the methods described in Salmona, Olofsson et al. (2020). In order to check the potential utility of cytoplasmic markers for species identification at the local scale, all individuals collected in Marojejy and Andohahela were also analysed with 15 cpSSR loci (loci cp_5, 11, 12, 21, 22, 24, 27, 29, 33, 36, 41, 43, 44, 50, and 51) as described in Besnard et al. (2011). All PCR products were separated by capillary electrophoresis on an ABI Prism 3730 DNA Analyzer (Applied Biosystems), and allele size scoring was done with Geneious v9.0.5 (Kearse et al. 2012).

Cross-amplification of SSR loci and survey of ploidy among *Noronhia* species

Cross-amplification of the 13 nuclear SSR loci was first tested on 76 *Noronhia* taxa. The maximum number of alleles per locus was recorded to estimate the minimum ploidy of each individual.

Loci cross-amplification was then investigated among and within species at four locations (i.e. Marojejy, Andohahela, Ankafobe, and Itremo-Ibity). The eight species analysed at the population level (with at least seven individuals) were used to ascertain cross-species transferability of loci both for PCR amplification and for polymorphism records. These species were *a posteriori* considered as diploid since a maximum of two alleles per locus were recorded on all individuals (see results, below). For these taxa, we individually reported the number of alleles per locus (N_a), and then assessed the overall genetic diversity per locus using allelic richness (A_R ; Hurlbert 1971) with the RStudio package *hierfstat* (R Development Core Team 2014; Goudet et al. 1996), and using the observed (H_O) and expected (H_E) heterozygosities with Genetix v4.05 (Belkhir et al. 2004). For each locus, in order to detect loci with putative null alleles or allelic dropout, departure from Hardy–Weinberg proportion was estimated with a Weir & Cockerham Fixation Index (F_{IS} , Weir and Cockerham 1984), and a χ^2 exact test (hereafter HW) based on 10,000 Monte Carlo Markov Chain (MCMC) batches and iterations per batch using Genepop v4.7.5 (Raymond and Rousset 1995). As the power at estimating species ploidy based on the maximum number of alleles at a locus depends on the number and frequency of alleles found at each locus within a species (Besnard and Baali-Cherif 2009), this has to be taken with caution, especially when only one individual is analysed. To test the power of the method, we estimated the probability P_{3x} that a triploid

individual present in a population of a diploid species is revealed with our loci (i.e., at least one locus showing three distinct alleles in its genotype; Besnard and Baali-Cherif 2009).

Genetic structure and species delimitation at the local scale

We then investigated the species discrimination power of SSR data and their potential utility for comparative studies of population genetics. We first analysed cpDNA haplotype relationships between species locally collected at two distant sites (Andohahela and Marojejy) using reduced-median networks constructed with Network v5 (Bandelt, Forster, and Röhl 1999). Patterns of genetic variance were then examined with a principal component analysis (PCA) using the package ade4 implemented in RStudio (Dray and Dufour 2007). These analyses were based on nuclear SSR allele occurrences to test the discrimination of species at Andohahela and Marojejy. We further assessed the potential presence of nuclear genetic structure at the local scale using the snapclust clustering approach of the adegenet RStudio package (Tonkin-Hill et al. 2019; Jombart 2008). We used the *K*-means method (for a number of clusters *K* ranging from one to ten at the local scale, or fifteen at a global scale) and selected the most appropriate *K* value using the BIC (Bayesian information criterion) statistics (Schwarz 1978) over 20 iterations per *K* value. This analysis was done after excluding species with few samples (one to five genotypes; see results) that may not bring enough information to identify their own genetic cluster and could also bias clustering inferences of other taxa.

To assess the potential effect of distance on gene flow, we finally compared patterns of isolation by distance (IBD) in Marojejy, where *N. verticillata* (33 individuals) and *N. humblotiana* (26) were collected along parallel transects of ca. 3.5 km (Figure S1). The comparison of a riparian and an understory forest species on close parallel transects may reveal contrasting patterns of genetic IBD due to varying contribution of dispersal vectors (e.g. wind and facilitated movement of insect pollinators in riparian habitats vs. limitation of insect movement in the understory forest). To compare IBD patterns of the two species, the pairwise kinship coefficients of Loiselle (Loiselle et al. 1995) and Ritland (Ritland 1996) were estimated at several geographic distance classes (i.e., 0.1; 0.2; 0.3; 0.4; 0.5; 0.6; 0.7; 0.8; 0.9; 1; 1.5; 2; 2.5; 3; 3.5 km) in both species with SPAGeDi v1.5 (Hardy and Vekemans 2002). *P*-values for 2-sized tests of regression analysis on logarithmic geographic distances for each species were calculated with 10,000 permutations with the same software.

Results

Nuclear SSR cross-species transferability and ploidy survey among Noronhia

The SSR dataset for cross-species amplification among 76 *Noronhia* accessions is provided in Table S1. Most samples were successfully amplified on the 13 loci, but very few amplification failures were observed for two accessions on Nor-08 (GB_437 and MSV_320), and on Nor-09 (GB_1185 and CHW_579). PCR amplification of these loci was independently repeated three times on these samples to ensure the observation. All individuals analysed showed a maximum of two alleles at each locus (i.e. diploid profile), except three of the four samples of *N. louvelii* (from Analamazaotra and Ambodivohitra) that has three or four alleles on four to 11 loci (i.e. tetraploid profiles; Table S1). On average 7.07 (± 2.19) loci were heterozygous in the accessions from Madagascar. In contrast, the two non-native *N. emarginata* individuals collected at the Reunion Island and Hawaii were both homozygous on all loci, sharing the same genetic profile.

SSR polymorphisms were then investigated among and within species at four locations. Microsatellite loci were successfully amplified on all individuals (195 trees; Table S2). First, only the five *N. louvelii* samples from Marojejy again showed more than three alleles on four to ten loci (polyploid profile). Although a maximum of four alleles per locus was scored on four individuals, one sample (MSV_508) showed five alleles of similar intensity on one locus (Nor-10). We then compared genetic diversity patterns among the eight species with a diploid profile and for which at least seven individuals were sampled (Table 1). Allelic polymorphism was revealed on all loci in *N. lowryi* and *N. aff. boivinii*, whereas one to three loci were monomorphic in the six remaining taxa. Nor-03 was the most variable locus in six species, with a maximum of 21 alleles in *N. lowryi* and *N. humblotiana* (Table 1). In contrast, Nor-12 and Nor-13 were the least variable loci, each reaching a maximum of four alleles in one species (*N. humblotiana* and *N. aff. boivinii*, respectively). A homozygosity excess coupled with a significant departure from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was revealed on Nor-08 in *N. lowryi* and *N. aff. boivinii*, and Nor-02 in *N. aff. boivinii* (Table 1). These observations may result from the presence of null alleles as already observed on Nor-08 with the PCR failure on two species (see above). For Nor-02, the observed allele size range is particularly wide among *Noronhia* species (i.e. 210-288 bp; Tables S1 and S2) and allelic dropout could also explain homozygosity excess. These loci should thus be used with caution because frequent null alleles may bias the estimation of some parameters (i.e. P_{3x} ; see below). A significant departure from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was also observed on Nor-01 in *N. humblotiana*, despite no homozygosity excess, but this should result from a strong structure in the population (e.g. Walhund effect; see below). Finally, allelic richness (computed for seven individuals) ranged from 3.03 to 5.54, respectively in *N. verticillata* and *N. humblotiana*.

All individuals, except those assigned to *N. louvelii*, showed a diploid profile (see above), but the maximum number of alleles on a dozen loci does not necessarily reflect the ploidy level. We thus estimated the probability that a triploid genotype would be detected, P_{3x} (i.e. observation of at least a locus with three alleles), within the eight diploid species sampled at the population level. This parameter was first assessed with all loci, but we then excluded loci with putative null alleles in at least one species for a more conservative test (Table 2). P_{3x} computed on the ten most reliable loci was still relatively high (89.2 to 99.5%) in all species, meaning that a triploid individual has a great probability of being detected on at least one locus considering the levels of genetic diversity in the eight studied diploid species.

Potential use of SSRs for comparative population genetics and species identification

We then investigated genetic differentiation between *Noronhia* species at two localities: Andohahela and Marojejy. Plastid SSR data support taxa distinction with very few intraspecific polymorphisms (Figure 2; Table S3). PCAs based on nuclear SSR alleles also show that all species with at least five individuals were clearly distinguished from each other at both sites (Figures 3 and 4). In addition, other species, represented only by either a single individual or a pair, were also discriminated from the most frequently collected taxa on the two first axes of the PCAs, supporting their status as distinct species. The analysis of one or two individuals per species is, however, not enough to reveal intra- and inter-specific variability that may allow distinguishing them in a multivariate analysis.

Then, we excluded taxa with less than seven samples for which a Bayesian clustering analysis on nuclear SSR data could not be performed. This approach revealed a distinct genetic cluster for each of the three species collected at Andohahela (Figure 3C) and Marojejy (Figure 4D). All individuals were assigned to a specific cluster with a probability equal to 1

(the probability that an individual belongs to another cluster was $< 10^{-11}$ in Marojejy and $< 10^{-15}$ in Andohahela). No evidence of admixture was thus observed. Similarly, the global clustering analysis of the eight species retained for local-scale analyses (including those from Ankafobe and Itremo-Ibity) also strongly supported them as part of distinct genetic clusters (Figure S2).

Patterns of IBD were finally compared between *N. humblotiana* and *N. verticillata*, two species collected in Marojejy on parallel transects along the path close to the river course (Figures 5, S3, S4 and S5). The understory species (*N. humblotiana*) shows a stronger and highly significant IBD pattern (both for Ritland and Loiselle kinship coefficients, p -value $< 10^{-4}$) than the riparian species (*N. verticillata*; p -value = 0.0303 and 0.0475, for Ritland and Loiselle kinship coefficients, respectively).

Discussion

Cross-species nuclear SSRs revealed a low frequency of polyploids in Noronhia

A relatively high cross-species transferability of our nuclear SSR markers was demonstrated among a representative sample of *Noronhia* (60 of the 82 described species in Madagascar; Hong-Wa 2016). Three loci should, however, be used with caution since PCR failure and/or homozygosity excess were revealed in some species suggesting the presence of null alleles (Nor-08 and Nor-09) or allelic dropout (Nor-02). All loci have also revealed intra-specific polymorphisms in several species demonstrating their potential utility for comparative population genetics among *Noronhia*. Only the two invasive individuals of *N. emarginata* from the Reunion Island and Hawaii were genetically identical and homozygous on all tested microsatellites, suggesting a strong bottleneck associated with their establishment into their new range (i.e., Seychelles, Mascarenes, French Polynesia, Cook Islands, Hawaii, Caribbean, and Bermuda; CABI 2020).

At least ten loci revealed polymorphisms within the eight diploid species analysed at the population level. The chance of detecting a non-diploid genotype present in these populations on at least one locus is high as shown by the probability of triploid detection ($P_{3x} > 0.89$). This test is quite conservative given that the probability of detecting a higher level of ploidy (tetraploid and more) is expected to be far greater (but extremely complicated to estimate). The diploid profile of most *Noronhia* accessions (i.e. 257/263) thus supports that polyploidy is not frequent in this genus. However, P_{3x} is not a formal test because it does not allow directly estimating the probability of a polyploid species to be detected based on a single SSR genotype, since this probability will depend on the genetic diversity present within a given taxon (e.g. recent autopolyploids should be more difficult to detect). Non-diploid evidence based on one or two locus should be also avoided due to possible locus duplication events. Consequently, we acknowledge that species ploidy should be determined with high confidence based on the genetic profile of several loci from several individuals of a population (e.g. García-Verdugo et al. 2009; Feng et al. 2018; Hagl et al. 2021). Our data thus allowed us to unambiguously reveal eight polyploid individuals in one taxon (*N. louvelii*) sampled in rainforests of two distant places (i.e. six from Marojejy-Ambodivohitra, and two from Analamazaotra). The diploid profile of one *N. louvelii* individual (RZC_157) from another location, however, calls for additional studies on a more comprehensive sample to test that this taxonomical denomination, which shows a wide morphological variation in herbarium collections, could include several cryptic species with different ploidy levels. Non-diploid individuals of *N. louvelii* are probably tetraploid although one of them showed five

alleles at one locus. Abnormal chromosome segregation in polyploids is frequent and could also explain irregularities linked to aneuploid formation (as already observed, for instance, in progenies of the hexaploid ‘Moroccan olive’; Besnard et al. 2008). Although our results confirm the existence of Malagasy olive polyploids, the relatively low frequency of non-diploid profiles suggests that whole-genome duplication was not a major process involved in *Noronhia* diversification, as previously hypothesized (Hong-Wa and Besnard 2014). Supporting this statement, further ongoing population analyses in northern Madagascar (i.e., Loky-Manambato and Montagne d’Ambre) following the same approach on more than 700 individuals belonging to more than 30 *Noronhia* species have not revealed any polyploid taxa yet (G. Besnard, unpublished data). Ploidy verification of *Noronhia* individuals and taxa should however remain a prerequisite step when developing population genomics, which aims to infer their past demographic history or document hybridization patterns.

Comparative population genetics of co-occurring Noronhia species

Diploid species collected at the population level were then clearly distinguished with multivariate and Bayesian clustering analyses of nuclear SSR data. In addition, at the two locations where multiple *Noronhia* species were collected (Marojejy and Andohahela), both nuclear and plastid microsatellite data confirmed taxa delineation, thus proving their potential utility in assisting *Noronhia* identification. The high transferability of markers also allowed comparative investigation on the genetic diversity among species (Table 1), as well as comparison of their genetic structure (as shown, for instance, in related species of Brassicaceae; Clauss, Cobban, Mitchell-Olds 2012). To illustrate this purpose, we showed that two co-occurring *Noronhia* species collected on a rainforest transect harbour contrasted patterns of genetic diversity (Table 1). In addition, a highly significant IBD was revealed in the understory species (*N. humblotiana*) in contrast to the riparian species (*N. verticillata*), which has a rather dendritic distribution inside the forest along the edges of rivers. This observation suggests that gene flow in *N. humblotiana* may be reduced by the forest cover, probably as a consequence of a limited movement of insect pollinators and reduced wind flow in the understory. Conversely, more wind and facilitated movement of insect pollinators in the open riparian habitat as well as seed dispersal via the river may allow gene flow to a longer distance inside the forest and reduce the IBD pattern in *N. verticillata*. This also means that connectivity between trees within and among *Noronhia* populations should depend on numerous factors (i.e., population density, habitat opening, pollination and fruit dispersal vectors; Salmona, Dresen et al. 2020; Salmona, Olofsson et al. 2020) and may considerably affect genetic diversity patterns that could be contrasted between congeneric species, even from very close habitats. Such knowledge may also be highly relevant when defining conservation practices of protected forests. Finally, strong IBD could reduce the power of markers at delimitating taxa when comparing individuals of the same species from distant locations, thus calling for additional studies.

Conclusions and perspectives

Our study shows how microsatellite markers can be used in comparative population genetics studies of *Noronhia* spp. Genetic characterization of dozens of species occurring in two hotspots of the genus (i.e., Loky-Manambato and Montagne d’Ambre) is in progress and will help us to determine their ploidy as well as assist their recognition and compare their diversity. The possibility that species complexes are present in these areas deserves special

attention, and such preliminary analyses may be essential to identify them and define the most appropriate sampling for tackling questions on their reproductive isolation with genomic data.

Finally, the extremely low heterozygosity revealed on *N. emarginata* is particularly unusual in *Noronhia*. As this taxon is quite easy to sample in its invasive range and its floral-to-fruit development biology relatively well described (Rohwer 1995), as opposed to all other species of the genus, we consider it as a choice model for developing *Noronhia* genomics. Therefore, the two accessions from the Reunion Island and Hawaii are currently under sequencing to assemble a reference genome of the genus that could be used for further population genomics of any *Noronhia* species.

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Cynthia Hong-Wa is a curator at Claude E. Phillips Herbarium. Contribution: Secured and identified plant material, and edited the final text.

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Guillaume Besnard is a researcher at the French Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique. He focuses on the biogeography of various plant and animal groups. Contribution: Conceived the study, performed lab work and data analyses, and wrote the paper with the help of all authors.

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Data availability statement

All samples information and genotyping data are provided in Supplemental Data.

Supplemental data

Supplemental Data may be found in the online version of this article at the publisher's website:

Table S1. Cross-species transferability of 13 nuclear SSR loci among 76 *Noronhia* accessions

Table S2. Full dataset of nuclear SSR genotypes on 266 individuals (for 13 loci)

Table S3. Plastid SSR (cpSSR) profiles of 112 individuals collected in Marojejy and Andohahela NPs

Figure S1. Geographic distribution of sampled species and individuals at the two sites of (A) Marojejy and (B) Andohahela

Figure S2. Inference of genetic structure among eight *Noronhia* species (with a minimum of seven genotypes) from four distant locations

Figure S3. Pairwise kinship relationships according to the geographic distance in *N. humblotiana*

Figure S4. Pairwise kinship relationships according to the geographic distance in *N. verticillata*

Figure S5. Comparison of IBD patterns between two rainforest *Noronhia* species collected on the same transect in the Marojejy NP (based on the Loiselle kinship coefficient)

Table 1. Summary of genetic diversity parameters among eight diploid *Noronhia* species assessed on 13 SSR loci. The number of alleles (N_a), allelic richness (A_R ; computed for seven individuals), observed and expected heterozygosities (H_O and H_E , respectively), F_{IS} fixation index (Weir and Cockerham 1984), and departure from Hardy–Weinberg proportion (HW; χ^2 p -value) are given. The number of characterized individuals is indicated in parentheses under each species name. As multiple tests were done for each species (i.e. between 10 and 13 polymorphic loci), departure from Hardy–Weinberg was considered significant when HW was inferior to 0.005 (in bold).

Species	Locus	N_a	A_R	H_O	H_E	F_{IS}	HW	Species	Locus	N_a	A_R	H_O	H_E	F_{IS}	HW
<i>N. lowryi</i> (73)	Nor-01	10	5.00	0.685	0.773	0.115	0.096	<i>N. verticillata</i> (33)	Nor-01	6	3.41	0.455	0.586	0.226	0.127
	Nor-02	12	5.69	0.658	0.795	0.174	0.044		Nor-02	5	4.26	0.788	0.742	-0.063	0.908
	Nor-03	21	8.89	0.877	0.916	0.043	0.548		Nor-03	14	8.26	0.970	0.907	-0.071	0.395
	Nor-05	10	5.71	0.753	0.775	0.027	0.419		Nor-05	6	5.14	0.636	0.785	0.192	0.264
	Nor-06	3	2.26	0.233	0.237	0.015	0.420		Nor-06	3	2.37	0.273	0.432	0.373	0.040
	Nor-07	18	8.04	0.877	0.895	0.021	0.156		Nor-07	6	3.63	0.636	0.599	-0.064	0.638
	Nor-08	11	5.69	0.630	0.803	0.216	<10⁻⁴		Nor-08	1	1.00	0.000	0.000	-	-
	Nor-09	19	7.85	0.795	0.877	0.095	0.010		Nor-09	1	1.00	0.000	0.000	-	-
	Nor-10	5	2.65	0.301	0.294	-0.026	0.338		Nor-10	2	1.98	0.303	0.339	0.109	0.606
	Nor-11	4	1.78	0.123	0.119	-0.037	1.000		Nor-11	2	2.00	0.515	0.508	-0.015	1.000
	Nor-12	3	2.25	0.438	0.430	-0.020	1.000		Nor-12	1	1.00	0.000	0.000	-	-
	Nor-13	3	2.50	0.411	0.371	-0.108	0.827		Nor-13	3	2.38	0.515	0.470	-0.098	0.713
	Nor-15	8	5.07	0.808	0.781	-0.035	0.626		Nor-15	3	2.92	0.546	0.604	0.098	0.388
	Mean	9.77	4.88	0.584	0.620	0.037	0.422		Mean	4.08	3.03	0.434	0.459	0.057	0.508
<i>N. humblotiana</i> (26)	Nor-01	5	3.73	0.731	0.714	-0.024	0.001	<i>N. disjuncta</i> (8)	Nor-01	6	5.87	0.625	0.867	0.293	0.005
	Nor-02	18	8.95	0.885	0.919	0.039	0.040		Nor-02	6	5.50	0.500	0.675	0.273	0.306
	Nor-03	21	9.73	0.923	0.928	0.006	0.652		Nor-03	11	9.98	1.000	0.933	-0.077	0.564
	Nor-05	13	7.17	0.846	0.812	-0.043	0.775		Nor-05	5	4.83	0.875	0.808	-0.089	0.949
	Nor-06	14	8.56	0.962	0.912	-0.056	0.651		Nor-06	4	3.86	0.625	0.525	-0.207	1.000
	Nor-07	7	4.51	0.654	0.560	-0.172	0.964		Nor-07	6	5.74	0.750	0.817	0.087	0.574
	Nor-08	7	3.70	0.346	0.631	0.457	0.005		Nor-08	9	8.36	0.750	0.908	0.185	0.054
	Nor-09	11	7.80	0.962	0.896	-0.075	0.543		Nor-09	3	2.88	0.500	0.592	0.164	1.000
	Nor-10	12	7.34	0.808	0.875	0.078	0.625		Nor-10	3	2.88	0.750	0.575	-0.333	0.273
	Nor-11	1	1.00	0.000	0.000	-	-		Nor-11	3	2.87	0.250	0.342	0.282	0.200
	Nor-12	4	3.08	0.615	0.604	-0.019	0.673		Nor-12	1	1.00	0.000	0.000	-	-
	Nor-13	2	1.98	0.269	0.340	0.212	0.288		Nor-13	1	1.00	0.000	0.000	-	-
	Nor-15	8	4.42	0.615	0.556	-0.110	0.667		Nor-15	8	7.37	0.625	0.842	0.271	0.105
	Mean	9.46	5.54	0.663	0.673	0.024	0.490		Mean	5.08	4.79	0.558	0.606	0.077	0.457

Table 1, end.

Species	Locus	N_a	A_R	H_O	H_E	F_{IS}	HW	Species	Locus	N_a	A_R	H_O	H_E	F_{IS}	HW
<i>N. brevītuba</i> (10)	Nor-01	3	3.00	0.600	0.700	0.150	0.758	<i>N. sp1_Andō</i> (8)	Nor-01	7	6.63	0.875	0.875	0.000	0.621
	Nor-02	6	5.54	0.900	0.826	-0.095	0.893		Nor-02	5	4.86	0.875	0.775	-0.140	0.652
	Nor-03	7	6.28	0.700	0.853	0.187	0.314		Nor-03	5	4.63	0.625	0.650	0.041	1.000
	Nor-05	6	5.24	0.800	0.747	-0.075	0.978		Nor-05	6	5.73	0.750	0.817	0.087	0.943
	Nor-06	4	3.68	0.700	0.668	-0.050	0.576		Nor-06	6	5.62	0.750	0.767	0.023	0.504
	Nor-07	4	3.40	0.300	0.537	0.455	0.108		Nor-07	7	6.62	0.625	0.867	0.293	0.238
	Nor-08	4	3.99	1.000	0.774	-0.314	0.706		Nor-08	4	3.88	0.875	0.750	-0.181	0.680
	Nor-09	3	2.98	0.800	0.584	-0.398	0.333		Nor-09	5	4.63	0.750	0.683	-0.105	1.000
	Nor-10	3	2.70	0.400	0.563	0.301	0.307		Nor-10	5	4.87	1.000	0.800	-0.273	1.000
	Nor-11	1	1.00	0.000	0.000	-	-		Nor-11	4	3.87	0.500	0.675	0.273	0.478
	Nor-12	2	2.00	0.400	0.337	-0.200	1.000		Nor-12	2	2.00	0.375	0.458	0.192	1.000
	Nor-13	3	2.70	0.300	0.563	0.481	0.173		Nor-13	2	1.88	0.125	0.125	0.000	1.000
	Nor-15	4	3.90	0.600	0.721	0.176	0.709		Nor-15	2	1.99	0.250	0.233	-0.077	1.000
	Mean	3.84	3.57	0.577	0.606	0.051	0.571		Mean	4.62	4.40	0.644	0.652	0.011	0.760
<i>N. aff. boivinii</i> (18)	Nor-01	7	5.78	0.833	0.830	-0.004	0.439	<i>N. grandifolia</i> (7)	Nor-01	3	3.00	0.143	0.539	0.750	0.021
	Nor-02	11	8.30	0.611	0.911	0.336	0.001		Nor-02	4	4.00	0.571	0.714	0.213	0.734
	Nor-03	17	9.53	0.833	0.925	0.102	0.493		Nor-03	5	5.00	0.286	0.824	0.671	0.007
	Nor-05	8	5.26	0.556	0.744	0.259	0.123		Nor-05	4	4.00	0.857	0.736	-0.180	0.712
	Nor-06	8	5.45	0.889	0.749	-0.193	0.750		Nor-06	3	3.00	0.571	0.473	-0.231	1.000
	Nor-07	7	3.82	0.444	0.397	-0.124	1.000		Nor-07	3	3.00	0.286	0.539	0.489	0.105
	Nor-08	9	6.92	0.278	0.870	0.687	<10⁻⁴		Nor-08	1	1.00	0.000	0.000	-	-
	Nor-09	9	6.85	0.944	0.868	-0.091	0.569		Nor-09	7	7.00	0.714	0.890	0.211	0.383
	Nor-10	10	6.98	0.944	0.856	-0.107	0.940		Nor-10	4	4.00	0.857	0.780	-0.108	0.190
	Nor-11	3	1.78	0.111	0.110	-0.015	1.000		Nor-11	7	7.00	1.000	0.846	-0.200	0.958
	Nor-12	3	2.02	0.167	0.160	-0.041	1.000		Nor-12	1	1.00	0.000	0.000	-	-
	Nor-13	4	3.98	0.722	0.770	0.064	0.785		Nor-13	2	2.00	0.143	0.143	-0.000	1.000
	Nor-15	6	4.18	0.500	0.594	0.162	0.166		Nor-15	6	6.00	0.857	0.802	-0.075	0.744
	Mean	7.85	5.45	0.603	0.676	0.080	0.559		Mean	3.85	3.85	0.484	0.560	0.140	0.485

Table 2. Probability of detecting a triploid individual in eight diploid species by using individual SSR locus (p_{3x}) or their combination (P_{3x} ; Besnard and Baali-Cherif 2009). The number of characterized individuals is indicated in parentheses under each species name. P_{3x} was computed for each species by combining information from the 13 loci or 10 loci without evidence of null allele. Probability per locus: $p_{3x} = 3! \sum p_i p_j p_k$ (with p_i , p_j and p_k , the frequencies of three distinct alleles i , j , and k); Probability combining information from x loci: $P_{3x} = 1 - \prod (1 - p_{3x})$.

Locus	<i>N. lowryi</i> (73)	<i>N. verticillata</i> (33)	<i>N. humblotiana</i> (26)	<i>N. disjuncta</i> (8)	<i>N. brevitiba</i> (10)	<i>N. sp1_Ando</i> (8)	<i>N. aff. boivinii</i> (18)	<i>N. grandifolia</i> (7)
Nor-01	0.432	0.161	0.291	0.513	0.221	0.533	0.509	0.079
<i>Nor-02</i>	<i>0.482</i>	<i>0.360</i>	<i>0.730</i>	<i>0.270</i>	<i>0.461</i>	<i>0.354</i>	<i>0.689</i>	<i>0.245</i>
Nor-03	0.751	0.707	0.757	0.668	0.516	0.217	0.729	0.415
Nor-05	0.462	0.443	0.528	0.413	0.348	0.428	0.376	0.276
Nor-06	0.022	0.033	0.712	0.135	0.216	0.360	0.387	0.066
Nor-07	0.699	0.187	0.209	0.434	0.111	0.519	0.099	0.079
<i>Nor-08</i>	<i>0.494</i>	<i>0.000</i>	<i>0.186</i>	<i>0.609</i>	<i>0.354</i>	<i>0.293</i>	<i>0.594</i>	<i>0.000</i>
<i>Nor-09</i>	<i>0.665</i>	<i>0.000</i>	<i>0.672</i>	<i>0.082</i>	<i>0.135</i>	<i>0.234</i>	<i>0.591</i>	<i>0.547</i>
Nor-10	0.044	0.000	0.625	0.079	0.067	0.390	0.572	0.337
Nor-11	0.007	0.000	0.000	0.038	0.000	0.214	0.004	0.478
Nor-12	0.024	0.000	0.143	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.008	0.000
Nor-13	0.044	0.037	0.000	0.000	0.067	0.000	0.373	0.000
Nor-15	0.445	0.153	0.200	0.492	0.278	0.000	0.204	0.411
P_{3x} (13)	99.90	94.39	99.97	99.45	96.74	98.92	99.95	97.65
P_{3x} (10)*	98.90	91.23	99.52	97.91	89.19	96.91	99.03	93.13

* P_{3x} (10) computed on ten loci after excluding Nor-02, Nor-08 and Nor-09 (in italic), for which PCR failure and/or significant homozygosity excess were observed in at least one species (Table 1; Supporting Information, Table S1).

Figure 1. Geographic origin of the 74 samples of the Malagasy floristic region used for cross-species amplification tests of nuclear SSRs. Each yellow dot represents a sample. North and South-East were the most sampled areas and also correspond to regions with the highest species diversity and endemism for *Noronhia* (Hong-Wa 2016). Map was drawn with the help of B. Fougeron.

Figure 2. Phylogenetic relationships between the six species collected at Andohahela (A) and the six species collected at Marojejy (B) were analysed with a reduced-median network (Bandelt, Forster, and Röhl 1999) based on cpSSR data (Table S3). At the two sites, these analyses distinguished six plastid lineages (with very few intra-lineage polymorphisms), confirming taxa distinction.

Figure 3. Species discrimination based on nuclear SSR data in Andohahela NP: (A) Principal component analysis (PCA) on all sampled individuals based on SSR allele presence; (B-C) Inference of genetic structure using Bayesian simulations with snapclust on Rstudio (Tonkin-Hill et al. 2019; Jombart 2008) based on SSR genotypes (with at least seven individuals): (B) Bayesian information criterion (BIC; Schwarz 1978) over 20 iterations per K value, and (C) Barplot of the snapclust analysis based on the best K value ($K = 3$) according to BIC (best K is reached when BIC stops to decrease and begins to increase). The percentage (p) of assignment of each individual to the clusters averaged over 20 iterations is shown. Each individual is represented by a horizontal bar.

Figure 4. Species discrimination based on nuclear SSR data in Marojejy NP: (A) Principal component analysis (PCA) on all taxa based on SSR allele presence; (B) PCA after excluding *N. louvelii* (five polyploid individuals); (C-D) Inference of genetic structure using Bayesian simulations with snapclust on Rstudio (Tonkin-Hill et al. 2019; Jombart 2008) based on SSR genotypes of three species (with at least eight individuals): (C) Bayesian information criterion (BIC; Schwarz 1978) over 20 iterations per K value, and (D) Barplot of the snapclust analysis based on the best K value ($K = 3$) according to BIC (best K is reached when BIC stops to decrease and begins to increase). The percentage (p) of assignment of each individual to the clusters averaged over 20 iterations is shown. Each individual is represented by a vertical bar.

Figure 5. Comparison of IBD patterns between two rainforest *Noronhia* species collected on the same transect in the Marojejy NP. Mean kinship relationship (Ritland 1996) according to the geographic distance in *N. verticillata* (Blue line and diamonds) and *N. humblotiana* (Red line and circles). The R-square and p-value statistics are given in the upper right. For each distance class, a mean pairwise kinship coefficient is given. Individual pairwise kinship estimates are given Figures S3 and S4.