Thesis for the degree of PHILOSOPHIAE DOCTOR

Speciation in arctic and alpine diploid plants

A. Lovisa S. Gustafsson



UiO : University of Oslo
Natural History Museum
Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences
© A. Lovisa S. Gustafsson, 2013

Series of dissertations submitted to the
Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences, University of Oslo No. 1414

ISSN 1501-7710

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted, in any form or by any means, without permission.

Cover: Inger Sandved Anfinsen.
Printed in Norway: AIT Oslo AS.
Produced in co-operation with Akademika Publishing.
The thesis is produced by Akademika Publishing merely in connection with the thesis defence. Kindly direct all inquiries regarding the thesis to the copyright holder or the unit which grants the doctorate.

## "A cryptic species is one that is commonly described in literature but never found in nature." <br> Galina Gussarova, Brooks Range, Atigon pass, Silene uralensis, during our fieldtrip in Alaska. <br> 

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. SUMMARY ..... 1
2. LIST OF PAPERS .....  3
3. INTRODUCTION ..... 4
3.1 Speciation in plants ..... 4
3.2 Cryptic speciation in the Arctic: the Draba case. ..... 5
3.3 Postzygotic isolation in Draba nivalis ..... 6
3.4 Aims of the present thesis ..... 7
4. SUMMARY OF PAPERS .....  8
5. METHODS ..... 11
5.1 Crossing experiments. ..... 11
5.2 Molecular analysis of Cardamine bellidifolia and Ranunculus pygmaeus ..... 14
5.3 Phylogenetic analysis in Cardamine nipponica and its relatives. ..... 15
5.4 Linkage mapping and QTL analysis in Draba nivalis ..... 16
6. RESULTS ..... 19
6.1 Crossing experiments. ..... 19
6.2 Molecular analysis of Cardamine bellidifolia ..... 23
6.3 Molecular analysis of Ranunculus pygmaeus ..... 24
6.4 Phylogenetic analysis in Cardamine nipponica and its relatives. ..... 25
6.5 Linkage mapping and QTL analysis in Draba nivalis. ..... 25
7. DISCUSSION ..... 27
7.1 Cryptic speciation in the Arctic ..... 27
7.2 Reproductive isolation in Draba nivalis. ..... 29
7.3 Evolutionary history of PHYE in Cardamine nipponica ..... 31
7.4 Strengths and limitations ..... 32
8. PERSPECTIVES ..... 35
9. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ..... 37
10. REFERENCES ..... 39
11. SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION ..... 44
12. PAPERS I-III ..... 49

## 1. SUMMARY

The main objectives of this thesis are to study patterns and processes of plant speciation in arctic and alpine diploid plants. Cryptic species are here referred to as morphologically similar individuals belonging to the same taxonomic species but that are unable to produce fertile offspring (i.e. 'sibling' species).

The arctic flora is considered as one of the most species-poor floras of the world, and the latitudinal gradient with decreasing diversity from low to high latitudes is likely the oldest recognised pattern in ecology. However, these estimates are usually based on morphological differentiation into taxonomically recognizable species and may not provide accurate numbers of biological species. Previous intraspecific crossing experiments in three diploid circumpolar species of Draba (Brassicaceae) revealed the presence of numerous cryptic biological species within each taxonomic species. The present study expands the knowledge based on these previously published results and suggests that frequent formation of cryptic biological species may be a general pattern in the arctic flora. Intraspecific crossing experiments including several distantly related circumpolar diploid plant species revealed that intrinsic postzygotic isolation has developed multiple times, even at small geographical scales. This was shown for all five selfing species investigated, whereas crosses within one outcrossing species generated fully fertile $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids. This suggests that a selfing mating system may accelerate the accumulation of hybrid incompatibilities. The barriers have in addition developed very rapidly, apparently within a few millennia, suggesting that speciation rates are unexpectedly high in the arctic flora. Cryptic biological species, although not yet recognisable morphologically, are thought to represent starting points for new evolutionary lineages that given sufficient time may develop into full-fledged new taxa. Other factors may thus account for the low diversity of the contemporary arctic flora in terms of taxonomic species. It is likely that high extinction rates rather than low speciation rates have played an important role in shaping the extent diversity in the arctic flora, possibly associated with climatic shifts during the Pleistocene glacial cycles.

The genetic mechanisms involved in the build-up of reproductive isolation are of central importance in understanding the evolution of new species. This thesis presents further insights into the mechanisms underlying reproductive isolation in Draba nivalis (Brassicaceae) - a small, circumpolar, predominantly selfing diploid herb that demonstrates numerous cryptic biological speciation events. By performing genetic linkage mapping and
searching for quantitative trait loci (QTL) associated with reproductive isolation more knowledge about the mechanisms involved in the evolution of intrinsic postzygotic reproduction in this system has been gathered. The linkage map was produced by combining both codominant and dominant markers and resolved eight linkage groups that most likely correspond to the eight chromosomes of D. nivalis. Observed patterns of inheritance were consistent with the influence of both nuclear-nuclear interactions and chromosomal changes. In particular, all seed set QTLs and one pollen fertility QTL displayed underdominant effects, matching expectations of chromosomal speciation models. Theory struggles to account for the establishment of large and strongly underdominant chromosomal translocations. Draba nivalis may however be an exception as a selfing mating system, is conducive for the establishment of chromosomal rearrangements through genetic drift. Overall this study confirms that multiple genetic mechanisms are involved in the build-up of reproductive isolation in D. nivalis, suggesting the involvement of both nuclear-nuclear interactions and structural chromosomal changes.

As plants are sessile organisms, they depend largely on adapting to locally changing climatic conditions such as temperature, aridity, and day length. Natural selection acting on traits that respond to such changes has likely played an important role in the evolution of plants. Climatic cycles of the Pleistocene caused drastic changes to species' ranges. For example, the Japanese alpine endemic plant Cardamine nipponica (Brassicaceae) probably diverged into northern and central populations during the Pleistocene climatic oscillations. The northern and central populations present highly diverged alleles of a particular photoreceptor gene phytochrome E (PHYE). Phytochromes such as PHYE monitor the surrounding light environment, and likely play an important role in the regulation of plant life cycles. The present study infers the evolutionary history of the PHYE in C. nipponica and its close relatives using maximum likelihood models. The resulting genealogical relationship suggested that standing genetic variation of $P H Y E$, which diverged under positive selection prior to speciation, resulted in the selective differentiation between the northern and central Japanese populations of C. nipponica. This further suggests the importance of standing genetic variation in regard to quick responses to climatic changes.

## 2. LIST OF PAPERS

I. A. Lovisa S. Gustafsson, Galina Gussarova, Liv Borgen, Hajime Ikeda, Jan Suda, Loren H. Rieseberg, Christian Brochmann. High speciation rates in arctic plants. Manuscript.
II. A. Lovisa S. Gustafsson, Inger Skrede, Heather C. Rowe, Galina Gussarova, Liv Borgen, Loren H. Rieseberg, Christian Brochmann, Christian Parisod. Genetics of cryptic speciation within an arctic mustard, Draba nivalis. Submitted.
III. Hajime Ikeda, A. Lovisa S. Gustafsson, Christian Brochmann, Hiroaki Setoguchi. Pre-speciation origin of selective divergence and balancing selection in a plant photoreceptor gene, phytochrome E. Submitted.

## 3. INTRODUCTION

### 3.1 Speciation in plants

The species concept is a heavily debated issue in evolutionary biology, and per date more than 25 concepts have been proposed (Coyne and Orr 2004). The biological species concept may be the most generally accepted one, and was defined by Mayr as "species are groups of interbreeding natural populations that are reproductively isolated from other such groups" (Mayr 1995), and represents the species concept discussed in this thesis. Furthermore, cryptic species are referred to as morphologically similar individuals belonging to the same taxonomic species but that are unable to produce fertile offspring.

Speciation in plants is characterized by the evolution of reproductive barriers preventing (or drastically reducing) genetic interchange between previously interbreeding populations (Rieseberg and Willis 2007). Plants vary dramatically in mating system, ploidy level, mode of dispersal, as well as life history, which gives us better understanding of how various ecological and evolutionary factors contribute to speciation (Brochmann et al. 1993, Levin 2000).

Plant species are typically isolated by multiple reproductive barriers (Rieseberg and Willis 2007). The genetically based traits that prevent gene exchange can act before fertilization (prezygotic mechanisms: prepollination or postpollination) and/or after fertilization (postzygotic extrinsic or intrinsic mechanisms related to habitat or genetic background, respectively). Intrinsic postzygotic barriers may be caused either by changes in functional genes or chromosomal rearrangements. The Bateson-Dobzhansky-Muller (BDM) model accounts for the accumulation of genic incompatibilities among isolated populations without loss of fitness (Lexer and Widmer 2008), whereas chromosomal rearrangements result in reduced fitness in heterozygotes leading to $50 \%$ inviable gametes (Rieseberg 2001). Structural divergence that results from fixation of chromosomal rearrangements reduces gene exchange between lineages by interfering with meiosis or reducing the level of recombination (Stebbins 1971, Rieseberg 2001, Levin 2002, Butlin 2005). Cytonuclear interactions may also be important in raising reproductive barriers. Such interactions create asymmetric reproductive isolation (Lowry et al. 2008, Leppälä and Savolainen 2011) because of dysfunctional interactions between nuclear and cytoplasmic factors (Levin 2003).

Whether the origin of reproductive barriers is predominantly due to selection or drift is an unresolved question among evolutionary biologists. Selection has generally been considered the main evolutionary force, but drift may be more important in small inbreeding populations (Levin 2000). BDM incompatibilities have largely been favoured over chromosomal rearrangements for the general origin of instrinsic postzygotic isolation (Orr et al. 2004), but chromosomal rearrangements may be more important in plant genomes (Chester et al. 2012). Indeed, genome doubling which is prevalent in plants, is expected to restore the fertility of hybrids with chromosomal rearrangements, while not alleviating genetic incompatibilities due to BDM (Rieseberg 2001, Rieseberg and Willis 2007). Recent theoretical developments have, however, highlighted selection in heterogeneous environments as an efficient promoter of the establishment of chromosomal rearrangements (Rieseberg 2001, Kirkpatrick and Barton 2006, Faria and Navarro 2010).

### 3.2 Cryptic speciation in the Arctic: the Draba case

Contrary to expectations, completely sterile $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids were obtained in intraspecific crosses of the diploid Draba fladnizensis Wulfen after crossing plants from Svalbard and mainland Norway (Brochmann et al. 1993). To follow up these unexpected results, intraspecific crossing experiments were conducted on the full circumpolar scale of three diploid and circumpolar Draba species: D. fladnizensis, D. nivalis Lilj., and D. subcapitata Simmons (Grundt et al. 2006). Within all three species, crosses between individuals from different geographic areas (Alaska, Greenland, Svalbard and mainland Norway) produced mostly sterile $F_{1}$ hybrids, revealing the presence of numerous cryptic biological species within each taxonomic species. For D. fladnizensis and D. nivalis as many as $92 \%$ of the within- and among-region crosses resulted in sterile or semisterile $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids, despite fully fertile parental plants. Furthermore, there was a positive correlation between the genetic distance among parents and the sterility of the resulting hybrids. The development of such reproductive barriers in other plant species is often associated with ecological and/or morphological divergence. In contrast, the genetic divergence and reproductive isolation in Draba were correlated with neither morphological nor ecological differentiation, suggesting that incipient speciation was caused by recent formation of intrinsic postzygotic isolation. The reproductive barriers must indeed have accumulated very rapidly as molecular data suggest that these three taxonomic species have arisen recently, most likely during the Pleistocene. The accumulation
of hybrid incompatibilities may have been facilitated by the predominant selfing mating system of all three species, possibly through genetic drift (Grundt et al. 2006).

Grundt et al. (2006) concluded that "although the Arctic is comparatively poor in morphological species, it may be rich in cryptic, biological species as demonstrated here for three species of Draba".

### 3.3 Postzygotic isolation in Draba nivalis

To better understand the genetic mechanisms underlying the discovery of recent intrinsic postzygotic isolation in Draba nivalis, linkage mapping and quantitative trait loci (QTL) analyses, searching for traits associated with reproductive isolation, was conducted (Skrede et al. 2008b). A large $F_{2}$ population was raised by selfing a semi-fertile $F_{1}$ hybrid generated from a cross performed by Grundt et al. (2006; paternal lineage originated from Norway and the maternal lineage from Alaska), and several traits related to hybrid incompatibility (pollen fertility, seed set, flowering time, number of flowers) were measured. In total, $383 \mathrm{~F}_{2}$ individuals were genotyped with 50 microsatellite markers, and linkage mapping followed by QTL analysis was conducted. It was concluded that multiple genetic mechanisms were underlying intrinsic postzygotic reproductive barriers in this system, and QTL analysis identified five loci underlying seed fertility and two underlying pollen fertility. Average seed and pollen fertility was lower in the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ population than in the parental species, but higher than in the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ population, suggesting that under-dominant loci underlie hybrid sterility. However, some $F_{2}$ individuals had lower fertility than any of the $F_{1}$ individuals, suggesting that also BDM incompatibility could be involved in the origin of sterility barriers. Maternal alleles for pollen fertility QTLs were in addition consistently associated with higher hybrid fertility than paternal alleles, suggesting the possible involvement of cytonuclear incompatibilities.

In summary, seed fertility was affected by under-dominant loci, most probably due to microchromosomal rearrangements since no obvious disruption was observed during meiosis, in addition to epistatic interactions due to reciprocal translocations and/or BDM incompatibilities. Pollen fertility was affected by BDM incompatibilities and possibly cytonuclear incompatibilities.

The linkage map was nevertheless produced with 50 microsatellites only. Evidencing more linkage groups than the number of chromosomes, Skrede et al. (2008b) suggested that
less than half of the Draba genome was covered, thus possibly underestimating important fertility QTLs and epistatic interactions.

### 3.4 Aims of the present thesis

The present thesis aims to provide further insights into the patterns and processes involved in the evolution of new species in arctic and alpine regions.

Paper I focuses on intraspecific crossing barriers in arctic diploid plants, elaborating on the possibility of the arctic flora containing numerous cryptic biological species. Including distantly related species, with contrasting mating system in circumpolar, intraspecific crossing experiments will allow generalisations. The hypothesis is that selfing species will reveal more cryptic biological species than outcrossing species.

Paper II focuses on gaining further insights into the genetic mechanisms involved in the build up of intrinsic postzygotic reproductive isolation. The aim is to increase the genome coverage of Draba nivalis by adding a number of molecular markers to be mapped on reciprocal $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ populations, followed by QTL analysis searching for traits associated with reproductive isolation. This will increase the certainty to what extent chromosomal rearrangements, nuclear-nuclear interactions and cytonuclear incompatibilities are involved in the rapid accumulation of hybrid incompatibilities in this system.

Paper III focuses on a particular gene: the photoreceptor phytochrome E (PHYE). This gene presents highly diverged alleles between northern and central populations of the Japanese endemic plant Cardamine nipponica. The present study address whether the selective differentiation in this species originated from alleles that coalesced prior to speciation (i.e. standing genetic variation) or from newly accumulated mutations.

## 4. SUMMARY OF PAPERS

Paper I: High speciation rates in arctic plants.
The Arctic is considered to be one of the most species-poor regions of the world, and the latitudinal gradient with decreasing species diversity from low to high latitudes is considered as the oldest recognized pattern in ecology. These estimates are, however, based on morphological differentiation and may not provide accurate numbers of biological species diversity. The present study followed up the previously demonstrated crossing barriers found within three circumpolar plant species, trying to elucidate if the formation of cryptic biological species is a common pattern in the arctic flora. After performing intraspecific crossing experiments in several distantly related circumpolar, diploid plant species, $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrid fertility was measured.

Living plant material was collected of 22 species in three main geographical regions (Alaska/Yukon, the North Atlantic archipelago of Svalbard, and mainland Norway). Crosses were successful in five selfing species and one outcrossing species. The results indicate that sterility barriers have formed frequently within single taxonomic species, suggesting that the formation of cryptic biological species is a general pattern in the arctic flora. All five selfing species demonstrated hybrid incompatibilities, whereas the hybrids in the one outcrossing species were fully fertile. This suggests that a selfing mating system accelerates the accumulation of hybrid incompatibilities. In addition, the barriers appear to have evolved very rapidly as investigated populations were genetically very similar in spite of being more or less reproductively isolated, suggesting surprisingly high speciation rates in the arctic flora. Thus, the results contradict previous explanations for the latitudinal diversity gradient that assume lower evolutionary rates towards the poles.

A recent study of New World birds and mammals using birth-death models suggest that both speciation and extinction rates increase at higher latitudes. High extinction rates rather than low speciation rates may indeed account for the low species diversity in the arctic flora, possibly associated with climatic shifts during the Pleistocene glacial cycles.

Paper II: Genetics of cryptic speciation within an arctic mustard, Draba nivalis.
The origin and build-up of reproductive isolation is of central interest in evolutionary biology and has been the subject of considerable debate and discussion for decades. Here the focus was to get further insights into the mechanisms underlying intraspecific reproductive isolation in the diploid, circumpolar herb Draba nivalis (Brassicaceae). Multiple genetic mechanisms,
including nuclear-nuclear and cyto-nuclear incompatibilities as well as structural chromosomal changes, have previously been reported in the rapid evolution of postzygotic reproductive isolation in this system. Genetic linkage mapping of a large $F_{2}$ population was conducted followed by quantitative trait loci (QTL) analysis searching for traits associated with reproductive isolation. The linkage map was produced by combining a dataset of 31 codominant microsatellites with 63 dominant markers, including 52 amplified fragment length polymorphisms (AFLPs) and 11 sequence-specific amplified polymorphisms (SSAPs). The map resolved eight linkage groups that most likely correspond to the eight chromosomes of $D$. nivalis. The QTL-analysis revealed four QTLs associated with pollen fertility, three with seed set, three with flowering time and four with number of flowers. Among the 14 detected QTLs, patterns of inheritance reported for those QTLs associated with postzygotic isolation were consistent with the influence of both nuclear-nuclear interactions and chromosomal changes. In particular, all seed set QTLs and one pollen fertility QTL displayed underdominant effects, matching expectations of chromosomal speciation models. The establishment of underdominant chromosomal rearrangements may be facilitated in species such as Draba nivalis that are predominantly self-fertilizing. Selfing is likely to reduce gene flow and effective recombination between populations, as well as possibly increasing the speed of fixation of adaptive loci. The present study suggests that multiple genetic mechanisms are indeed involved in the build-up of reproductive isolation in D. nivalis, highlighting the importance of both nuclear-nuclear interactions and structural chromosomal changes, although no evidence of cyto-nuclear incompatibilities was demonstrated.

Paper III: Pre-speciation origin of selective divergence and balancing selection in a plant photoreceptor gene, phytochrome E.

Climatic oscillations during Pleistocene invariably caused drastic changes to species' ranges. For species to respond to such shifts in their local environment, standing genetic variation would play a more important role than newly accumulated mutations. The focus in this paper was to investigate the importance of standing genetic variation in relation to genetic differentiation following Pleistocene climatic oscillations in Cardamine nipponica, a perennial herb endemic to the high mountains in the Japanese archipelago. The photoreceptor phytochrome E (PHYE) presents strong genetic differentiation between northern and central populations of C. nipponica and has evolved under balancing selection. A previous study revealed a firm sister relationship between C. nipponica and the arctic-alpine C. bellidifolia,
with C. alpina and C. resedifolia included in the same clade. Using this phylogenetic framework, the entire coding region of PHYE was sequenced along with two additional photoreceptor genes; phytochrome $A$ (PHYA) and cryptochromes 1 (CRY1), used as reference loci. The genealogies for the three phytochromes were inferred using maximum likelihood models, and were consistent with previous phylogenetic studies for both PHYA and CRY1, where northern and central populations of $C$. nipponica formed a monophyletic group with $C$. bellidifolia as sister. In contrast, the genealogy for PHYE presented a robust paraphyletic relationship, with northern populations of C. nipponica forming a clade with C. bellidifolia, presenting central populations of C. nipponica as sister to this clade. Tests of natural selection further supported a model assuming positive selection on divergence for both clades. Accordingly, the differentiation of PHYE between northern and southern populations of C. nipponica was most likely caused by alleles under natural selection that diverged prior to speciation. This highlights the possible importance of standing genetic variation in regard to quick responses to climatic changes.

## 5. METHODS

### 5.1 Crossing experiments

In paper I the aim was to perform extensive crossing experiments to potentially reveal a general pattern of cryptic biological speciation in the arctic flora. The choice of species to be investigated was critical, and the following five criteria had to be fulfilled. The plants should:
i) be diploid to avoid introducing additional complexity because of polyploidy. There are currently too few named diploid species in the arctic flora to account for the high diversity seen at the polyploid level adding to the interest to study diploids in regard to cryptic speciation (Brochmann et al. 2004).
ii) have a full circumpolar range to maximize the possibility for detecting cryptic biological species, which may be most likely at large spatial scales.
iii) be more or less common, to facilitate the field work.
iv) represent divergent phylogenetic lineages, to investigate whether formation of cryptic biological species is common across diverse genera and families in the arctic flora, and not only confined to the three Draba species studied by Grundt et al. (2006).
v) vary in mating system to test for potential differences between selfing and outcrossing species, as previous studies (Grundt et al. 2006, Skrede et al. 2008b) indicate that a selfing mating system might accelerate the formation of cryptic biological species.

Twenty-two species representing ten plant families were selected, and a total of 1722 specimens were collected (Supplementary Information, Table S1). Plant material was collected from three main geographical regions: Alaska/Yukon, the arctic archipelago of Svalbard, and mainland Norway in 2009. One population was defined as plants occurring within an area of $100 \mathrm{~m} \times 100 \mathrm{~m}$, and individual plants were (if possible) collected at least 10 m apart. For each population the aim was to collect a minimum of ten living plants, one plant as a voucher and leaves from five plants as silica samples. The living plants were cleaned for soil and wrapped in moist paper and plastic bags before shipped to Norway. In Alaska/Yukon this was performed twice, as widely separated sampling areas were visited, with intermediate stops in Fairbanks, where the living plants were replanted in the green house at the University of Alaska Fairbanks. Upon arrival in Norway the plants were once again replanted in a phytotron free from pollinating insects, at the University of Oslo (cultivation conditions as
specified in Brochmann et al. 1992). The plants were cultivated for two flowering seasons per year with three months of summer conditions and three months of winter conditions (vernalization).

The crossing program was designed to cover three main spatial scales: withinpopulation crosses, within-region crosses and between-region crosses. The within-region crosses were performed among four subregions in Alaska/Yukon (Seward Peninsula, Brooks Range, Central Alaska along Denali Highway, and Yukon Territory). The between-region crosses were performed among the three main geographic regions Alaska/Yukon, Svalbard, and mainland Norway. For logistical reasons, collections in Svalbard were made only around Longyearbyen, and crosses performed among these closely located populations are referred to as Svalbard-population crosses. In each crossing experiment, flower buds were emasculated on the maternal plant long before anthesis to avoid self-fertilization. Pollen was transferred 29 days later, depending on stigma receptivity. Whenever possible, reciprocal crosses were performed. Many of the species were, however, either difficult to cultivate or did not flower regularly under the specific phytotron conditions. Thus large portions of the crossing experiments failed. Ploidy level of parental populations was verified using DNA flow cytometry and type of breeding system was assessed based on ability to set seed after spontaneous self-pollination (paper II).
$F_{1}$-seeds were harvested and vernalized before sowing. Five $F_{1}$ seedlings (if available) from each cross were raised to maturity. $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrid fertility was estimated as percent stainable pollen and as percent seed set. Pollen stainability was estimated by counting the proportion of fully stained pollen grains after adding lactophenol in cotton blue on pollen transferred to a microscope slide, and about 200 pollen grains (Fig. 1) were counted for each plant (Radford et al. 1974). This is a commonly used method to estimate pollen fertility (see e.g. Brochmann 1993, Kelly et al. 2002, Stucky et al. 2012), but it should however be noted that it only measures the pollen stainability and might not necessary reflect the actual pollen fertility. For the selfing species, seed set was measured as percent fully developed seed set after spontaneous selfing, relative to total number of ovules. Also here it should be noted that the seed set does not necessarily reflect the actual number of fertile seeds as no germination tests were conducted. For simplicity, however, pollen stainability and seed set is referred to as pollen and seed fertility. Based on the high correlation between pollen and seed fertility estimates, it was possible to classify the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids (and parents) as fertile (fertility $\geq 70 \%$ ), semisterile (fertility $\geq 30 \%$ to $<70 \%$ ) and sterile (fertility $<30 \%$ ).


Figure 1. Pictures of pollen grains of Cardamine bellidifolia stained by the addition of lactophenol in cotton blue on pollen transferred to a microscope slide. Showing stainable (potentially fertile) and sterile pollen grains. Рното: A. Lovisa S. Gustafsson

Successful crosses (resulting in viable $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids) were obtained for six species out of which five were predominantly selfing; Cardamine bellidifolia L., Cochlearia groenlandica L., Saxifraga hyperborea R. Br., Ranunculus pygmaeus Wahlenb. and Silene uralensis (Rupr.) Bocquet, and one species predominantly outcrossing; Silene acaulis (L.) Jacq. (Fig. 2). It is worth noting that the successful crosses thus included two species from the same plant genus, but with different mating systems (S. uralensis and S. acaulis; Caryophyllaceae).


Figure 2. The six species for which successful intraspecific crosses were obtained (resulting in viable $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids): Cardamine bellidifolia, Cochlearia groenlandica, Saxifraga hyperborea, Ranunculus pygmaeus, Silene uralensis and Silene acaulis. Poto: A. Lovisa S. Gustafsson: Cardamine bellidifolia, Cochlearia groenlandica, Ranunculus pygmaeus, Silene acaulis; Bjørn Erik Sandbakk (www.svalbardflora.net): Silene uralensis; Aud Else Berglen Eriksen: Saxifraga hyperborea.

### 5.2 Molecular analysis of Cardamine bellidifolia and Ranunculus pygmaeus

In paper I, molecular analyses were conducted for two species, i.e. Cardamine bellidifolia and Ranunculus pygmaeus. Eight nuclear genes (CHS, CO, COP1, DET1, DFR, F3H, FRI, and GA1) were sequenced to infer the level and timing of evolutionary divergence between the crossed populations of $C$. bellidifolia. The Japanese alpine endemic C. nipponica was inferred
as sister species of $C$. bellidifolia (Ikeda et al. 2012), and used as outgroup along with plants of C. alpina, C. resedifolia, and C. glauca. Maximum likelihood methods were used to assess phylogenetic relationships, and the isolation with migration (IM, Nielsen and Wakeley 2001, Hey and Nielsen 2004) model was used to infer the demographic history. To complement the IM results, additional divergence time estimates using *BEAST (Heled and Drummond 2010) were calculated.

A range-wide genetic analysis was conducted for R. pygmaeus using Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism AFLP (Vos et al. 1995). Very little AFLP variation was observed even though primer combinations with only two selective nucleotides also were tested. The final AFLP dataset included 34 polymorphic markers and reproducibility was very high ( $99.16 \%$ ). To visualize the main structure in the data, Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) was conducted and a neighbor-joining tree was produced using PAUP* 4.0 b 10 (Swofford 2002). For details, see paper I.

### 5.3 Phylogenetic analysis in Cardamine nipponica and its relatives

A previous phylogenetic study revealed a robust sister relationship between the Japanese alpine endemic Cardamine nipponica and C. bellidifolia based on internal transcribed spacer (ITS) sequences and 10 nuclear genes (Ikeda et al. 2012). Among other material, this study used collections of C. bellidifolia initially gathered for crossing experiments (paper I). The study in paper III takes advantage of this previously demonstrated sister relationship in order to unravel the evolutionary history of a photoreceptor gene; phytochrome E (PHYE), determining whether standing genetic variation or newly accumulated mutations were involved in the selective differentiation of PHYE. Plants are highly dependent on being able to adapt to surrounding climatic conditions such as changes in temperature, aridity, and day length, and natural selection acting on traits that respond to such changes has likely played an important role in plant evolution. Accordingly, several studies have focused on photoreceptor genes such as phytochromes, which sense red and far-red light. PHYE is particularly important for germination and flowering at low temperature conditions (Halliday and Whitelam 2003, Heschel et al. 2007). Cardamine nipponica grows at high altitudes ranging from 2000-3000 m and is exposed to cool temperatures, suggesting an important role for the PHYE. Ikeda et al. (2009) reported that alleles of PHYE were highly diverged in populations from northern and central Japan, a pattern congruent with other Japanese plant species (e.g.

Fujii and Senni 2006, Ikeda et al. 2008b, a). The previous studies focused on intraspecific variation only, leaving the question of whether standing genetic variation or newly accumulated mutations formed the basis for the presented divergence between northern and central populations unanswered. The present study aims to determine the divergence history of the PHYE alleles in C. nipponica, investigating the importance of standing genetic variation in relation to genetic differentiation following Pleistocene climatic oscillations.

Cardamine nipponica was analyzed together with its close relatives $C$. bellidifolia, $C$. alpina, C. residifolia, and C. glauca was used as outgroup. The entire PHYE gene was sequenced, along with two additional phytochromes (used as reference loci); phytochrome $A$ (PHYA) and cryptochrome 1 (CRY1), and added to previously published sequences of $C$. nipponica and C. resedifolia (Ikeda et al. 2009, 2011). The genealogical relationships for each gene were estimated using maximum likelihood models and implemented in TREEFINDER (Jobb et al. 2004). To confirm the significance of the obtained topology, the Approximately Unbiased (AU) test (Shimodaira and Hasegawa 1999) was conducted testing three alternative topologies (paper I). To examine non-neutral divergence for PHYE in C. nipponica, likelihood analysis was conducted based on the ratio of nonsynonymous to synonymous substitutions $\left(d_{\mathrm{N}} / d_{\mathrm{S}}\right)$ using CODEML in PAML4.0 (Yang 2007).

### 5.4 Linkage mapping and QTL analysis in Draba nivalis

To investigate the impact of cytonuclear incompatibilities on reproductive isolation in $D$. nivalis, the aim was to raise a new mapping population, by crossing the same individuals as in Skrede et al. (2008b), but in the opposite direction (i.e. reciprocal cross). Furthermore, the strategy to characterize speciation loci was to increase the density of the linkage map produced in the previous study (Skrede et al. 2008b) genotyping reciprocal $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ populations with additional genetic markers. To compare traits on reciprocal $F_{2}$ populations, quantitative trait loci (QTL) analysis would be conducted, further taking advantage of $D$. nivalis being a close phylogenetic relative to model plant species such as Arabidopsis spp. and Brassica spp. Investigating relatives in an evolutionary perspective offers ample opportunities to share knowledge and molecular tools (Mitchell-Olds 2001, Schranz et al. 2007). It is suggested that the compact genome of Arabidopsis thaliana (L.) Heynh. and its chromosome number $n=5$ are derived characters that evolved from close relatives (Schranz et al. 2006). It is likely that $n$ $=8$ is the ancestral chromosome number for the tribe Camelinae, to which Arabidopsis
belongs, and also potentially for most of the Brassicaceae. Integrating the search of co-linear portions of chromosomes across Brassicaceae into the concept of an ancestral genome with $n$ $=8$, Schranz et al. (2006) proposed a set of 24 conserved genomic blocks (Brassicaceae Building Blocks; BBB ) that are mainly reshuffled to produce the different Brassicaceae genomes. This new paradigm represents an important step towards a unified comparative genomic system across the Brassicaceae. Using this genomic block system in a physical mapping context, (Schranz et al. 2007) demonstrated that the Boechera stricta Graham genome ( $n=7$ ) evolved from the ancestral genome ( $n=8$ ).

By comparing the $D$. nivalis genome with the ancestral Brassicaceae genome the aim was to reconstruct the Draba genome evolution. Furthermore, since BBB-markers have been shown to be conserved and co-linear among Brassicaceae species, QTL characterization with such markers of known location in the Arabidopsis genome would provide outstanding information about their location and putative content, and would allow specific focus for investigation on candidate portions of the Draba genome. In addition to the BBB-markers, AFLPs and Sequence-Specific Amplification Polymorphism (SSAPs, specifically marking insertions of Transposable Elements (TEs, Syed and Flavell 2006) would further increase the map density. SSAPs are typically more polymorphic than AFLPs and would possibly determine whether or not TEs are involved in the origin of sterility barriers in $D$. nivalis. Three particular TEs showing evidence of recent transpositional activity in Brassicaceae were chosen; TRIM-Br, SB2 and AtC10 (paper II).

Performing linkage mapping on reciprocal $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ populations, including this wide variety of genetic markers (i.e. microsatellites, BBB-markers, AFLPs, SSAPs), followed by QTL analysis of fertility traits such as seed set, pollen fertility, and number of flowers, should result in a dense QTL map. However, finding markers polymorphic between the two parental lineages proved very difficult. Initial analyses of the BBB- markers were very promising and amplification in the available $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ population was successful: $25 \%$ of the initial screening of 300 markers (primers provided by Eric Schranz, Amsterdam) amplified well. To test for polymorphism, the markers that amplified well in the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ population were sequenced for the two parental lineages, but no polymorphism was observed. Thus the BBB-markers had to be excluded from further analyses. Unfortunately, the raising of a reciprocal $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ population also failed.

Difficulties in finding polymorphic markers were encountered for the AFLPs and SSAPs as well, but after screening 72 AFLP and 36 SSAP primer combinations in eight
individuals (i.e. the two parents, three $F_{1}$ hybrids and three $F_{2}$ hybrids), 13 AFLP and seven SSAP of the most informative primer combinations were chosen for further analysis. Together with the microsatellites, a total of 128 loci were genotyped in $359 \mathrm{~F}_{2}$ individuals (Paper II). Markers presenting high transmission ratio distortion (TRD) were removed prior to linkage analysis as they might hinder accurate estimation of the genomic location and effects of QTLs. The linkage map was produced by pairwise linkage of estimated recombination fraction and minimum LOD (Logarithm of Odds) score, i.e. two markers were placed in the same linkage group if the estimated recombination fraction was $\leq 0.35$ and LOD score $\geq 5$, retained the marker order associated with a maximized likelihood score (error probability 0.01 ) and minimized number of crossover events.

QTL analyses identify loci that are linked to genes underlying traits. Composite interval mapping of the four phenotypic traits (i.e. pollen fertility, seed set, flowering time and number of flowers) was performed in R/qtl (Broman et al. 2003). Combining codominant (microsatellites) and dominant markers (AFLPs and SSAPs) allow genotypes of dominant markers to be inferred using the information from the codominant markers (i.e., Hidden Markov models (HMMs) estimated QTL genotype probabilities as a function of the genotypes at the nearest markers, assuming no crossover interference). A genome-wide LOD significance threshold for each trait was assessed with 1000 permutations (alpha=0.05).

The previous study (Skrede et al. 2008b) suggested that structural chromosomal rearrangements might have contributed to the rapid build up of reproductive isolation in this system. If chromosomal rearrangements were responsible for reproductive isolation, then genome duplication could restore the fertility, as two identical copies of one chromosome are produced. Thus, experiments to double the chromosome set of $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids by treating seedlings with colchicine (that induces genome duplication) was conducted. The $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ seedlings were exposed to colchicine in many different concentrations and for variable periods of time, but unfortunately either died, or their genomes had not been doubled (ploidy level was investigated based on flow cytometry). Comparative chromosomal painting to highlight chromosomal changes was also attempted, in collaboration with Martin Lysak and Terezie Mandakova at the Masaryk University, Czech Republic, but without success.

## 6. RESULTS

### 6.1 Crossing experiments

The parental plants of all species were (with a few exceptions) fully fertile (Fig. 3). In total, $742 \mathrm{~F}_{1}$ hybrids were analysed for pollen fertility and $709 \mathrm{~F}_{1}$ hybrids for seed fertility. The within-population crosses as well as the Svalbard-population crosses generated highly fertile $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids in all species, except for a few $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids in Cochlearia groenlandica that showed reduced seed fertility, and a few $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids in Saxifraga hyperborea that showed highly reduced pollen and seed fertility. Both the within-region crosses (Alaska/Yukon crosses) and the between-region crosses in all selfing species mainly generated $F_{1}$ hybrids with pollen and seed fertility that was strongly reduced compared to parental plants. In the single outcrossing species, Silene acaulis, highly fertile $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids were generated from the within-population crosses, the Svalbard-population crosses, and the between-region crosses (Fig. 3).

In Cardamine bellidifolia, 63 crosses were successful, and $238 \mathrm{~F}_{1}$ hybrids were analysed for pollen fertility and $236 \mathrm{~F}_{1}$ hybrids for seed fertility. The within-population crosses and the Svalbard-population crosses resulted in $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids almost as fertile as the parental plants (mean pollen fertility $78-85 \%$, mean seed fertility $82-85 \%$ ). All within- and between-region crosses resulted in $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids with strongly reduced pollen and seed fertility (mean pollen fertility $7-15 \%$, mean seed fertility $7-8 \%$ ). The reciprocal crosses resulted in similar hybrid fertility. In this species, not only the fertility but also the quantity of the pollen was reduced in the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids (Fig. 4). In addition, the fruit set was also reduced (Fig. 4).


## Cochlearia groenlandica




Saxifraga hyperborea



Ranunculus pygmaeus




Figure 3. Fertility data for parental plants and intraspecific $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids in Cardamine bellidifolia, Cochlearia groenlandica, Saxifraga hyperborea, Ranunculus pygmaeus, Silene uralensis and $S$. acaulis. Fertility was estimated as \% fully stainable pollen grains (out of ca. 200 pollen grains) and as $\%$ developed seeds after spontaneous selfing, relative to total number of ovules.


Figure 4. Pollen and fruit production in $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids of Cardamine bellidifolia. A and C shows pollen and fruit from a fertile $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrid generated from a within-population cross (Alaska). B and D shows pollen and fruit from a sterile $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrid generated from a between-region cross (Alaska-Svalbard). Poто: Ulla Schildt (inflorescence in C, D) and Karsten Sund (A, B and fruit in C, D)

In Cochlearia groenlandica, 55 crosses were successful, and $253 \mathrm{~F}_{1}$ hybrids were analysed for pollen fertility and $252 \mathrm{~F}_{1}$ hybrids for seed fertility (Fig. 3). The withinpopulation crosses and the Svalbard-population crosses resulted mostly in $F_{1}$ hybrids with similar fertility as the parental plants (mean pollen fertility $92-95 \%$, mean seed fertility 73 $69 \%$ ). The within- and between-region crosses resulted in $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids with reduced fertility, in particular seed fertility (mean pollen fertility $79-60 \%$, seed fertility $38-18 \%$ ). The reciprocal crosses resulted in similar hybrid fertility.

In Saxifraga hyperborea, 48 crosses were successful, and $142 \mathrm{~F}_{1}$ hybrids were analysed for pollen fertility and $141 \mathrm{~F}_{1}$ hybrids for seed fertility (Fig. 3). Both the withinpopulation crosses and the Svalbard population crosses resulted primarily in fully fertile $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids, although a handful of hybrids had strongly reduced pollen and seed fertility (mean pollen fertility $88-44 \%$, mean seed fertility $80-34 \%$ ). The within- and between-region crosses resulted in $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids with reduced fertility (mean pollen fertility $38-22 \%$, seed fertility 32 $21 \%$ ). All reciprocal crosses except for one cross in population 23 resulted in similar hybrid fertility.

In Ranunculus pygmaeus, 17 crosses were successful and $60 \mathrm{~F}_{1}$ hybrids were analysed for pollen and seed fertility (Fig. 3). No within-population crosses or Svalbard-population crosses were successful. Most within- and between-region crosses resulted in $F_{1}$ hybrids with reduced fertility (mean pollen fertility $33-37 \%$, seed fertility $32-36 \%$ ). No reciprocal crosses were successful in this species.

In Silene uralensis, only one cross was successful and $14 \mathrm{~F}_{1}$ hybrids were analysed for pollen and seed fertility (Fig. 3). The between-region cross generated completely sterile $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids (mean pollen and seed fertility $0 \%$ ).

In Silene acaulis, 17 crosses were successful, and $33 \mathrm{~F}_{1}$ hybrids were analysed for pollen fertility and six $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids for seed fertility (Fig.3). The within-population crosses, the Svalbard-population crosses and the between-region crosses generated highly fertile $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids (mean pollen fertility $85-97 \%$ ). Seed fertility was only tested for a few betweenregion crosses (mean seed fertility 70\%). No reciprocal crosses were performed.

### 6.2 Molecular analysis of Cardamine bellidifolia

Consistent with Ikeda et al. (2012), C. bellidifolia was resolved as sister to the Japanese alpine endemic C. nipponica (paper I). The Maximum likelihood (ML) tree had poor resolution,
however, with virtually no geographic structure observed within C. bellidifolia, presenting plants from Alaska and Svalbard intermingled in the tree (paper I).

In the isolation with migration (IM) analyses the estimated demographic parameters for each pair of regions were consistent among three independent replicates and an unambiguous peak of posterior probability was obtained for each parameter. Divergence between Alaska and Svalbard was estimated to be most recent (2600 yr. before present [BP], 95\% HPD (Highest Posterior Density) 0-35600 yr. BP), while divergence between Alaska and Scandinavia was estimated as the oldest (22000 yr. BP, 95\% HPD 3000-186600 yr. BP). Although the HDP intervals were quite large, divergence among the contemporary populations of $C$. bellidifolia across the entire circumpolar region seems to have occurred during the last glacial cycle, possibly even after the last glaciation.

In the *BEAST analysis, the oldest divergence was estimated between Scandinavia (Norway) and the other regions (Svalbard, Alaska and Yukon; 38800 yr. BP, $95 \%$ HPD $=$ 14800-59600 yr. BP). The most recent divergence was inferred between Yukon and Alaska, but this estimate was not significant due to poor geographic structure within C. bellidifolia in the gene trees.

### 6.3 Molecular analysis of Ranunculus pygmaeus

Very little genetic variation was observed in Ranunculus pygmaeus. The final AFLP dataset included only 34 polymorphic markers despite the large number (41) of primer combinations initially tested. The reproducibility was very high ( $99.16 \%$ ). Virtually no variation was observed in the northern North Atlantic area (Scandinavia, Svalbard and Greenland). The neighbour-joining tree revealed two major groups: one Central European group consisting of the populations from the Alps and the Tatra Mountains, and one arctic group (paper I). The arctic group obtained $90 \%$ bootstrap support but virtually no support for internal branches. The PCoA plot revealed some geographic structure that was largely consistent with the NJ tree, with the Central European and Russian Taymyr populations placed at one extreme of the first axis and the Scandinavian/Svalbard/Greenland populations at the other extreme of the axis (paper I).

The lengths of the aligned sequences of CRY1, PHYA, and PHYE were 2,247-2,304 bp, 3,691$3,720 \mathrm{bp}$ and 3,623-3,671 bp, respectively (paper III). The ML trees revealed monophyly for all three genes for the northern Japanese populations of C. nipponica, as well as for PHYA and PHYE in central Japanese populations. Among these photoreceptor genes, no alleles were shared between northern and southern populations of C. nipponica. In the CRY1 and PHYA trees, C. nipponica was retrieved as monophyletic (i.e. including both central and northern populations). In contrast to PHYA and CRY1, PHYE resolved northern populations of C. nipponica together with $C$. bellidifolia as sister to the central populations of C. nipponica. The likelihood ratio tests examining non-neutral divergence for PHYE indicated that positive selection had been involved in amino acid replacements accumulating on the basal branches of $C$. nipponica and $C$. bellidifolia.

### 6.5 Linkage mapping and QTL analysis in Draba nivalis

A total of 128 loci were genotyped in $359 \mathrm{~F}_{2}$ individuals. Twenty-nine markers (22.6\%) were excluded from the map construction because of TRD. The final map (see paper II) was constructed using 94 markers ( 31 microsatellites, 52 AFLPs and 11 SSAPs), with a total map length of 894 cM , forming eight linkage groups (LG1-LG8) that most likely correspond to the eight chromosomes of D. nivalis. A total of 14 significant QTLs were detected, of which four were associated with pollen fertility, three with seed set, three with flowering time and four with number of flowers.

Pollen fertility QTLs were detected on LG2, LG3, LG4 and LG7 and showed considerable variation in gene action (as assessed based on the marker closest to the LOD peak). This includes intermediate dominance (LG2; marker AFLP41), additivity (LG3; marker D11), dominance (LG4; AtC10_7), and underdominance (LG7; AtC10_17; Fig. 5). The maternal allele was dominant to the paternal allele for the QTLs on LG2 and LG4. Seed set QTLs were detected on LG1, LG2 and LG7. All three QTLs were underdominant (marker closest to LOD peak on LG1; AFLP21, LG2; A214, LG7; AtC10_17; Fig. 5). Flowering time QTLs were detected on LG2, LG4 and LG5. The QTLs on LG2 and LG4 had intermediate dominance effects (marker closest to LOD peak; AFLP33 and AFLP69 respectively), whereas the QTL on LG5 displayed additive gene action (marker closest to LOD peak; AFLP5; Fig. 5). Number of flower QTLs were detected on LG2, LG3 and LG5. The QTLs on LG2, LG5,
and LG7 had additive effects, whereas for the LG3 QTL, the paternal allele was dominant to the maternal allele (Fig. 5).


Figure 5. Effect plots for fertility QTLs as assessed based on the marker closest to the LOD peak for each trait. AA is homozygote for the maternal allele and BB is homozygote for the paternal allele.

## 7. DISCUSSION

The present study proposes that the formation of cryptic biological species is a general pattern in the arctic flora, and indicate that hybrid incompatibilities arise very rapidly, even at small spatial scales, suggesting high speciation rates in the arctic flora. All five selfing species investigated produced sterile or semisterile hybrids whereas hybrids from the one outcrossing species were fully fertile, further suggesting that a selfing mating system appears to accelerate accumulation of hybrid incompatibilities.

Highlighting the importance of both nuclear-nuclear interactions and structural chromosomal changes, the present study suggests that multiple genetic mechanisms are involved in the rapid build-up of reproductive isolation in Draba nivalis. All traits associated with seed fertility and one pollen fertility QTL demonstrated underdominant effects. The selfing mating system of this species may be an important factor in the fixation of chromosomal changes, which in addition is the main reproductive mode of many arctic diploid plants.

The major advance in paper III was that the evolutionary origin of intra-specific divergence in the Japanese endemic Cardamine nipponica was elucidated. The differentiation of PHYE between northern and southern populations of C. nipponica was most likely inferred from alleles under natural selection that diverged prior to speciation, i.e. in the ancestor of $C$. nipponica and C. bellidifolia.

### 7.1 Cryptic speciation in the Arctic

Despite the full fertility of parental populations, all selfing species mainly produced sterile or semisterile $F_{1}$ hybrids on the circumpolar scale, usually also at the regional scale (Alaska/Yukon), and mostly fertile $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids at the local scale. These results are based on large data sets ( $>200$ crosses and $>750 \mathrm{~F}_{1}$ hybrids), and include many populations both at local, regional and circumpolar scale, indicating that numerous cross-incompatible cryptic biological species have developed within single taxonomic arctic plant species. In total, $98 \%$ of the crosses between geographic regions and $96 \%$ of the crosses between sites in the Alaska/Yukon region produced sterile or semisterile hybrids. The one outcrossing species generated highly fertile hybrids both at the local and circumpolar scale. No apparent morphological or ecological differences between the populations that were isolated by postzygotic reproductive barriers were found. Thus, supporting previous work (Grundt et al.
2006) suggesting that a selfing mating system may accelerate the accumulation of hybrid incompatibilities both by reducing gene flow between diverging lineages, and by increasing the fixation rate of hybrid incompatibilities, possibly via genetic drift.

In the two selfing species investigated for genetic diversity (Cardamine bellidifolia and Ranunculus pygmaeus), investigated populations were genetically very similar in spite of being more or less reproductively isolated. Molecular analysis of $C$. bellidifolia suggests a very recent divergence, possibly after the last glaciation. This implies that hybrid incompatibilities have arisen very rapidly, even among closely related populations. Accordingly, the present study not only show that intrinsic postzygotic isolation has developed multiple times and at small geographic scales within single named taxonomic species, but also that postzygotic isolation may develop very rapidly, apparently within a few millennia.

The arctic flora is one of the most polyploid-rich floras on earth, with many species formed via reticulate rather than divergent evolution (Brochmann et al. 2004, Brochmann and Brysting 2008, Brochmann et al. 2013). This type of speciation occurs via hybridization and genome doubling and may take only a single or a few generations for completion. The present study provides additional evidence that rapid speciation may also take place via divergent evolution in arctic diploid plants, extending the previous finding of cryptic biological speciation events in the three Draba species (Brochmann et al. 1993, Grundt et al. 2006, Skrede et al. 2008a) to other genera and plant families.

The results obtained in this study indicate that speciation rates are surprisingly high in the arctic flora, suggesting that other factors should account for the low species diversity in the Arctic. It is tempting to suggest that high extinction rates, rather than low speciation rates, possibly related to Pleistocene climatic oscillations, account for the present low species diversity. Results presented here are in agreement with those obtained for New World birds and mammals (Weir and Schluter 2007) that, based on birth-death models, suggest that both speciation and extinction rates increase at higher latitudes. There are not many studies on how extinction rates vary with latitude and quantifying extinction rates is problematic (Dowle et al. 2013). However, a study investigating marine bivalve genera based on fossil data over the past 11 million years indicate higher extinction rates at higher latitudes (Jablonski et al. 2006).

The origin of the latitudinal diversity gradient has long been the subject of lively discussions and many different hypotheses have been proposed. While a generally accepted explanation for the latitudinal diversity gradient remains elusive (Mittelbach et al. 2007),
ecologists have speculated that elevated temperatures may influence speciation rates via higher mutation rates, shorter generation times and/or faster physiological processes (Davies et al. 2004a, Davies et al. 2004b, Wright et al. 2006, Rohde 2013). However, changes in diversification rates could result from variation in both speciation and extinction rates. Many estimates of tropical diversity are based on net diversification, which could result from differences in either speciation and/or extinction rates (Mittelbach et al. 2007), highlighting the importance of studies incorporating both factors, such as the study of New World birds and mammals by Weir and Schluter (2007).

### 7.2 Reproductive isolation in Draba nivalis

The genetic linkage map is based on robust linkage analysis combining 99 codominant and dominant markers, resolving eight linkage groups, possibly corresponding to the eight chromosomes of $D$. nivalis $(2 n=16)$.

The higher fitness of selfed $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ hybrids as compared to $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids, as well as the mapping of underdominant QTLs for pollen fertility and seed set, suggest the importance of chromosomal rearrangements in the build-up of reproductive isolation (RI) in this system. In particular, the underdominant seed set QTLs detected on LG1, LG2 and LG7 are consistent with multiple restructuring events among lineages, promoting RI in D. nivalis following chromosomal models of speciation. These results are congruent with the previous study of Skrede et al. (2008b) that also highlight the importance of chromosomal speciation in this system. Only a few recent studies have examined the processes underlying the fixation of chromosomal rearrangements among plant lineages and their impact on RI. Adaptive QTLs underlying prezygotic isolation between Mimulus lewisii and M. cardinalis mapped to regions of suppressed recombination corresponding to reciprocal translocations and inversions, suggest that chromosomal rearrangements have a crucial impact on the build-up of RI (Fishman et al. 2013). Other studies indicate that selection may drive the fixation of chromosomal rearrangements and thus lead to chromosomal speciation (Rieseberg 2001, Faria and Navarro 2010, Lowry and Willis 2010, Glemin and Ronfort 2013). No morphological or ecological differentiation between the populations in $D$. nivalis was observed, suggesting that selection has not been a primary force in the build-up of RI in this system.

Earlier studies suggest an important role of genetic drift in speciation (Wright 1941, Mayr 1963, Key 1968, Grant 1971), but theoretical studies in the latter part of the $20^{\text {th }}$ century
imply that fixation of chromosomal rearrangements by genetic drift was unlikely to effectively drive RI (Hedrick 1981, Walsh 1982). The probability of maintaining chromosomal rearrangements with large underdominant effects was shown to be extremely low, except in very small, inbred populations, leading to a broad consensus that BDM incompatibilities predominate over chromosomal rearrangements in the origin of intrinsic postzygotic isolation (Orr et al. 2004).

Draba nivalis is a predominantly self-fertililizing plant (Brochmann and Steen 1999). Populations examined here have in addition a small effective population size, with low levels of molecular diversity, that most likely have experienced repeated periods of extinction and recolonization events during the Pleistocene climatic oscillations (Grundt et al. 2004). These are all characteristics that may promote establishment of chromosomal rearrangements (Hedrick 1981, Walsh 1982, Lande 1985, Levin 2002, Gavrilets 2004). The predominantly selfing strategy of $D$. nivalis most likely contributed to the rapid build up of RI, possibly by reducing gene flow and effective recombination between populations. Despite recent speciation literature that emphasize the importance of BDM incompatibilities (Coyne and Orr 2004), chromosomal speciation may very well be more important in highly selfing plants such as the majority of arctic diploid plants.

The two QTLs on LG7 (i.e. near AtC10_17) showing underdominant effects for both pollen fertility and seed set, were associated with a polymorphic insertion of the 5000 bp LTR retrotransposon AtC10. Previous work has shown that retrotransposons may contribute significantly to genome evolution (Kidwell and Lisch 2001, Bennetzen 2005, Biemont and Vieira 2006). However, plant genomes usually contain hundreds of such insertions (Wicker et al. 2007, Gaut and Ross-Ibarra 2008) and QTLs may map to such intervals without any significant effect on focal phenotypes. The association revealed here is, however, not necessarily coincidental. Polymorphic insertions may indeed modify local recombination rates by disrupting co-linearity and/or inducing heterochromatinization (Dooner and He 2008, Colome-Tatche et al. 2012, Melamed-Bessudo and Levy 2012). Accordingly, such microchromosomal change or the resulting linkage between previously segregating BDM loci would behave as an underdominant locus (Hoffmann and Rieseberg 2008) without the involvement of disproportionately strong genetic drift for their fixation (Rieseberg 2001, Levin 2002).

BDM incompatibilities is largely favoured over chromosomal rearrangements as they account for the accumulation of genetic incompatibilities among isolated populations, without
loss of fitness (Rieseberg and Willis 2007, Lexer and Widmer 2008). The present study also shows evidence of nuclear-nuclear incompatibilities. QTLs underlying pollen fertility displayed additive to dominant effects in addition to underdominance. In contrast to Skrede et al. (2008b) and other studies suggesting the importance of cytonuclear incompatibilities in RI (Lowry et al. 2008, Leppälä and Savolainen 2011), maternal alleles for pollen QTLs were not consistently associated with higher fertility. Maternal alleles were indeed associated with increased fertility in $F_{2}$ hybrids for the QTL on LG3 (i.e. near D11) and LG4 (i.e. near AtC10_7), but the QTL on LG2 (i.e. near AFLP41) showed the opposite pattern and most likely represents a nuclear-nuclear BDM incompatibility. This is consistent with the importance of BDM incompatibilities in the evolution of new species (Coyne and Orr 2004, Rieseberg and Willis 2007).

### 7.3 Evolutionary history of PHYE in Cardamine nipponica

The genealogical analysis of PHYE in C. nipponica and its close relatives revealed that the northern populations of $C$. nipponica formed a monophyletic group together with those of $C$. bellidifolia, whereas the alleles observed in the central populations of C. nipponica formed a monophyletic sister group. This paraphyletic relationship of PHYE is discordant with the previously demonstrated monophyly of C. nipponica based on ten nuclear loci (Ikeda et al. 2012). The reference loci PHYA and CRY1, supported populations of C. nipponica as monophyletic, even though CRY1 did not differentiate between northern and southern populations. Furthermore, the topology constraining paraphyly of northern and central Japanese populations of C. nipponica was significantly rejected both for CRY1 and PHYA as well as for the concatenated data of the eight nuclear genes. Accordingly, the paraphyletic relationships among the PHYE alleles in C. nipponica likely represent the gene specific evolutionary history, suggesting divergence prior to speciation, i.e. in the ancestor of $C$. nipponica and C. bellidifolia. It is also possible that introgression occurred after speciation. However, the genealogy of PHYE showed reciprocal monophyly of the northern Japanese clade of C. nipponica and C. bellidifolia, without sharing any alleles. In addition, the speciation history of $C$. nipponica and $C$. bellidifolia indicated that gene flow after speciation occurred solely from the former to the latter (Ikeda et al. 2012). It is therefore unlikely that the present genetic similarity at PHYE between C. bellidifolia and northern Japanese populations of $C$. nipponica is the result of introgression.

Tests of natural selection significantly supported the model assuming positive selection on the divergence of central Japanese populations of C. nipponica, northern Japanese populations of C. nipponica and C. bellidifolia. This indicates that positive selection was involved in the divergence of PHYE in the ancestral species, potentially reflecting functional differences that could be involved in adaptation. For instance, the photoperiod in the growing season is different between northern and central Japan ( $\sim 0.5-1$ hour in the summer). Cardamine bellidifolia grows in habitats with longer photoperiod and at higher latitudes as compared to C. nipponica. This suggests that selection in regard to different photoperiods may have been important in the divergence of PHYE. Previous studies have indeed shown that natural variation in phytochromes is associated with latitudinal clines of ecologically important traits such as flowering time (Balasubramanian et al. 2006) and timing of bud-set (Ingvarsson et al. 2008). The involvement of PHYE in local adaptation to environmental changes along latitudes has also been suggested for another alpine plant, Arcterica nana (Maxim.) Makino (Ikeda and Setoguchi 2010). Thus, PHYE probably played an important role in local adaptation of northern and central populations of C. nipponica, resulting in the present genetic differentiation.

Although genetic drift following climate oscillations also might have been important in inducing the observed genetic differentiation of PHYE between northern and central populations of C. nipponica, natural selection was most likely important for shaping the extant differentiation. Because local or temporal adaptation following climate change requires immediate response to the changing environment, standing genetic variation would contribute more to adaptation than newly accumulated mutations. The present study suggests that standing genetic variation of PHYE, which diverged under positive selection prior to speciation, resulted in the selective differentiation between the northern and central Japanese populations of C. nipponica, further suggesting the importance of standing genetic variation in regard to quick responses to climate changes.

### 7.4 Strengths and limitations

The conclusions in paper I are based on results from a very large data set, and present direct evidence of reproductive isolation within several phylogenetically distantly related plant species. This is contrary to many other studies that only rely on indirect measurements of reproductive isolation using molecular methods. In addition, including results from one
predominant outcrossing species allowed interpretations of underlying evolutionary forces (such as drift and selection). In paper II the linkage map and following QTL-analysis of the $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ population in Draba nivalis was conducted using a large set of markers, a large $\mathrm{F}_{2}$ population and performed using solid analytical tools. The resulting eight linkage groups likely represent the eight chromosomes of $D$. nivalis suggesting that substantial parts of the genome have been covered. Combining both codominant and dominant markers allowed genotypes of the dominant markers to be inferred, generating more information from the dominant markers than otherwise possible. In addition, the present map was constructed after removing distorted markers, enabling a more accurate estimation of the genomic location and effects of QTLs as compared to the previous published map (Skrede et al. 2008b). In paper III the major advance was that the evolutionary origin of intra-specific divergence in Cardamine nipponica was elucidated. The present study revealed that the selective divergence in the photoreceptor gene PHYE, was inferred from ancestral polymorphisms. Previous works on population genetics found evidence for natural selection within species, but did little to clarify its evolutionary origin i.e., ancestral polymorphisms or newly accumulated mutations.

A major limitation in paper I was that no direct calculations of speciation rates were conducted. Furthermore, no direct estimates of extinction rates could be performed to test the hypothesis of high extinction rates (in addition to high speciation rates). A selfing mating system appeared to aid the accumulation of hybrid incompatibilities, with the outcrossing species investigated presenting fully fertile $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids. However, results were only obtained from one outcrossing species (due to difficulties with cultivation and crossing experiments of the other outcrossing species initially collected). No obvious morphological differences were observed for the different populations showing hybrid incompatibilities, but no morphometric analysis was conducted to provide firm evidence of this. A major limitation in paper II was that no mapping of parental populations was conducted. The probable involvement of chromosomal rearrangements in the evolution of hybrid incompatibilities in this system could have been corroborated if the genetics of parental lineages were known. In addition, genome duplication and chromosomal painting could have shown the importance of chromosomal rearrangements. However these experiments failed. Difficulties with finding polymorphisms between the parents limited the number of markers included in the genetic linkage mapping. With more markers, the Draba genome could have been covered even further. A primary aim was to produce a reciprocal mapping population to compare traits between them, and possibly elucidate the involvement of cytonuclear incompatibilities. Unfortunately this failed, leaving
the question of the importance of cytonuclear incompatibilities largely unanswered. In paper III it would have been interesting to include studies on the functions of PHYE alleles and confirm their ecological and evolutionary importance, but no such studies were conducted.

## 8. PERSPECTIVES

The presence of numerous cryptic biological species in the Arctic strongly calls for further studies. Could the same pattern be found in other regions with similar climatic conditions, or perhaps in other systems with many selfing species or even in other organism groups? Arctic regions are characterized by low temperatures, short growing seasons, and drought. Traditionally, these extreme environmental constraints, especially low temperatures, have been postulated to cause very low evolutionary rates in the arctic ecosystem. The present study contradicts this view, suggesting that speciation rates are in fact exceptionally high. Crossing experiments for other areas with similar climatic conditions, such as mountainous regions, should be conducted to investigate if evolutionary rates are in fact high in these regions as well.

Selfing is the main reproduction mode for a large proportion of the arctic flora. The present study suggests that a selfing mating system facilitates the accumulation of hybrid incompatibilities. All selfing species generated fully sterile or semisterile $F_{1}$ hybrids, in contrast to the one outcrossing species that generated fully fertile $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ hybrids. Including more species with contrasting reproductive modes would enable better generalizations. To see whether similar patterns are observed in other regions containing large proportions of selfing species, it would further be interesting to perform crossing experiments in other areas where selfing is a main reproduction mode. One such habitat could be semideserts.

The present study does not provide any direct calculations of speciation rates, something that definitely should be conducted to confirm that speciation rates are exceptionally high in the Arctic. Estimating speciation rates among a wide range of populations representing a broad taxonomic sampling will provide generalizations, and such analyses are presently being conducted in our group. Providing information about past extinction rates would also be very interesting, but harder do perform as data for such calculations does not exist.

Weir and Schluter (2007) suggested that both speciation and extinction rates increase at higher latitudes in New World birds and mammals. However, in contrast to the present study, the results were based on birth-death models and not empirical crossability data. Performing crossing experiments including other organism groups could provide additional support for the latitudinal correlation.

Numerous genetic mechanisms are involved in the rapid accumulation of hybrid incompatibilities in Draba nivalis. With the improved access to conducting whole genome
sequencing, the parental lineages in this species should be sequenced. This would provide information about to what extent chromosomal rearrangements are important in the up-rise of reproductive isolation in this system, including the potential involvement of transposable elements. Furthermore, genome sequencing of parental lineages would yield additional polymorphic markers that could be used in genetic mapping, thereby increasing the coverage of the Draba genome even further.

With the present study more knowledge about the genetic mechanisms involved in the evolution of reproductive isolation in Draba nivalis has been gained. Including more species in genetic mapping would provide useful comparisons. Cardamine bellidifolia would be an interesting candidate. This species clearly demonstrated cross-incompatibilities at large and small spatial scales and is a suitable study plant as it is easily cultivated and generating reciprocal mapping populations should be feasible.

I thank Liv Borgen, Christian Brochmann, Per Gustafsson, Marte Holten Jørgensen, Sabrina Mazzoni and Magnus Popp for helpful comments on this manuscript.

## 9. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many people have been involved in the formation of this thesis, both directly and indirectly. I am forever grateful for all the support from colleagues, friends and family throughout the years, and even if not mentioned here by name I hope you know who you are and what you mean to me. First I would like to thank my main supervisor Christian Brochmann - you have let me go my own way when I wanted to, you have guided me in the right direction when I needed to, and you have helped me solve issues, big and small, whenever necessary. You understood me very quickly, "there is no need to argue with you because you will do what you want anyway". My co-supervisors Liv Borgen and Galina Gussarova: Liv - you have been a great support all along, among other things helping me with practical issues such as pollen and seed analysis and mental support when things were tough, Galina - we spent an in many ways challenging time together in the field, but what greatness does not come from hard work and pain? Thanks for the support, both in the field and with computer analysis back in the office. Thanks also to Vladimir Gusarov who was with us in field. Christian Parisod, although not officially a co-supervisor you have definitely functioned as one already from the very beginning - Thank you! Thanks also for accepting me in your lab in Neuchatel. It was a fun and productive time and I really enjoyed being part of your research group! I thank my co-authors for the valuable comments and corrections in all three manuscripts. Your work has been highly appreciated and necessary! A special thanks to Loren Rieseberg, who kindly welcomed me to his lab in Vancouver, turning the "Draba-hell" (as Inger Skrede once put it) into "Draba-heaven", and thanks to all the friendly people in the lab! I also want to thank Eric Schranz, and the people in his research group in Amsterdam, for an inspiring time in your lab. Reidar Elven, your participation in the planning of the field trip was of utmost importance and discussions with you were always fun, inspiring and helpful! Rolf Y. Berg, your contribution in the planning of the field trip to Bøverdalen was very helpful and finding the plants would definitely have been much more complicated without your outstanding knowledge of the area. I have been lucky enough to be part of a working environment with many nice and encouraging colleagues. Alfonso, you disappeared from NHM way too quick and your southern ways have been very much missed ever since. Eva, I could not have asked for a better office mate, and training mate! As you left there have not been many hours at the gym, or running along the Akerselva during working hours. Magnus, Sanne, Laura, Guro, Virginia, Yan, Lisbeth, Desalegn, Manuel, Rosalia, Marian, Cathy, Felly, Abel, Tigist - the back bone in "the Brochmann group" during my time here. I have enjoyed your company and happy
faces all along and always looked forward to the Tuesday meetings when I got to hear what you have been up to the last week! I wish to thank all other colleagues I have had contact with at the NHM from the Botanical Museum through the Geological museum to the Zoology museum. I also want to pass a big thank you to the people in the greenhouses, with a special thanks to Nils who have looked after my plants with the best of care. Thanks also to the gardeners in the phytotron in Blindern - this work would definitely not have been possible without you! Many people have helped and supported me from outside the NHM. Emma Egedal - you are my best friend and you consistently show me reasons not to have a single doubt about it. I think you have not been for a single visit in Oslo without helping me with things at work from counting seeds to sample leaf tissue - Thank you!! Thanks to Florian who also helped me a lot with those things I had to do even if it was weekend and I had a visitor. I thank my friends in Oslo and all over the world especially Ornella, Paula, Ulli, Mery, Martine, Annika, Sandro, Håvard, Patrick, Kate, Asia, Emma i Stockholm, Ida, Kaisa, Josse, Anna, Elisabet and Stina. I am so happy I have you and I could not ask for better friends! Alexandre Antonelli - you have been one of my biggest inspirations throughout my studies. You inspired me from the very first botany course in Gothenburg, and I am not sure I would have been where I am now without having crossed your way - Thank you!! My family have been a tremendous support during this part of my life. Ludvig, how could I have counted all those endless seeds and pollen grains without you?? Klara, you have been through the same trip as me. Thanks for your guidance and support and thanks for letting me train Celtic during your stay abroad. I am forever grateful to my parents Karin and Per. You have supported me through absolutely everything and I cannot imagine how things would have been without you - Thank you!!


## 10. REFERENCES

Balasubramanian, S., S. Sureshkumar, M. Agrawal, T. P. Michael, C. Wessinger, J. N. Maloof, R. Clark, N. Warthmann, J. Chory, and D. Weigel. 2006. The PHYTOCHROME C photoreceptor gene mediates natural variation in flowering and growth responses of Arabidopsis thaliana. Nature Genetics 38:711-715.
Bennetzen, J. L. 2005. Transposable elements, gene creation and genome rearrangement in flowering plants. Current Opinion in Genetics \& Development 15:621-627.
Biemont, C. and C. Vieira. 2006. Genetics: Junk DNA as an evolutionary force. Nature 443:521-524.
Brochmann, C. 1993. Reproductive strategies of diploid and polyploid populations of arctic Draba (Brassicaceae). Plant Systematics and Evolution 185:55-83.
Brochmann, C., L. Borgen, and B. Stedje. 1993. Crossing relationships and chromosomenumbers of nordic populations of Draba (Brassicaceae), with emphasis on the $D$. alpina complex Nordic Journal of Botany 13:121-147.
Brochmann, C. and A. K. Brysting. 2008. The Arctic - an evolutionary freezer? Plant Ecology \& Diversity 1:181-195.
Brochmann, C., A. K. Brysting, I. G. Alsos, L. Borgen, H. H. Grundt, A. C. Scheen, and R. Elven. 2004. Polyploidy in arctic plants. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society 82:521-536.
Brochmann, C., M. E. Edwards, and G. Alsos. 2013. The dynamic past and future of arctic vascular plants: climate change, spacial variation and genetic diversity. Pages 133-152 in K. Rohde, editor. The balance of nature and human impact. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
Brochmann, C., P. S. Soltis, and D. E. Soltis. 1992. Multiple origins of the octoploid Scandinavian endemic Draba cacuminum - electrophoretic and morphological evidence. Nordic Journal of Botany 12:257-272.
Brochmann, C. and S. W. Steen. 1999. Sex and genes in the flora of Svalbard - implications for conservation biology and climate change. The Norwegian Academy of Science and Letters 38:33-72.
Broman, K. W., H. Wu, S. Sen, and G. A. Churchill. 2003. R/qtl: QTL mapping in experimental crosses. Bioinformatics 19:889-890.
Butlin, R. K. 2005. Recombination and speciation. Molecular Ecology 14:2621-2635.
Chester, M., J. P. Gallagher, V. V. Symonds, A. V. C. da Silva, E. V. Mavrodiev, A. R. Leitch, P. S. Soltis, and D. E. Soltis. 2012. Extensive chromosomal variation in a recently formed natural allopolyploid species, Tragopogon miscellus (Asteraceae). Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 109:1176-1181.
Colome-Tatche, M., S. Cortijo, R. Wardenaar, L. Morgado, B. Lahouze, A. Sarazin, M. Etcheverry, A. Martin, S. H. Feng, E. Duvernois-Berthet, K. Labadie, P. Wincker, S. E. Jacobsen, R. C. Jansen, V. Colot, and F. Johannes. 2012. Features of the Arabidopsis recombination landscape resulting from the combined loss of sequence variation and DNA methylation. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 109:16240-16245.
Coyne, J. A. and H. A. Orr. 2004. Speciation. Sinauer Associates, Inc., Sunderland.
Davies, T. J., T. G. Barraclough, V. Savolainen, and M. W. Chase. 2004a. Environmental causes for plant biodiversity gradients. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London Series B-Biological Sciences 359:1645-1656.

Davies, T. J., V. Savolainen, M. W. Chase, J. Moat, and T. G. Barraclough. 2004b. Environmental energy and evolutionary rates in flowering plants. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 271:2195-2200.
Dooner, H. K. and L. M. He. 2008. Maize genome structure variation: interplay between retrotransposon polymorphisms and genic recombination. Plant Cell 20:249-258.
Dowle, E. J., M. Morgan-Richards, and S. A. Trewick. 2013. Molecular evolution and the latitudinal biodiversity gradient. Heredity 110:501-510.
Faria, R. and A. Navarro. 2010. Chromosomal speciation revisited: rearranging theory with pieces of evidence. Trends in Ecology \& Evolution 25:660-669.
Fishman, L., A. Stathos, P. M. Beardsley, C. F. Williams, and J. P. Hill. 2013. Chromosomal rearrangements and the genetics of reproductive barriers in Mimulus (Monkeyflowers). Evolution. Doi:10.1111/evo.12154.
Fujii, N. and K. Senni. 2006. Phylogeography of Japanese alpine plants: biogeographic importance of alpine region of Central Honshu in Japan. Taxon 55:43-52.
Gaut, B. S. and J. Ross-Ibarra. 2008. Selection on major components of angiosperm genomes. Science 320:484-486.
Gavrilets, S. 2004. Fitness landscapes and the origin of species. Princeton University Press, Princeton.
Glemin, S. and J. Ronfort. 2013. Adaptation and maladaptation in selfing and outcrossing species: new mutations versus standing variation. Evolution 67:225-240.
Grant, V. 1971. Plant speciation. Columbia University Press, New York.
Grundt, H. H., S. Kjølner, L. Borgen, L. H. Rieseberg, and C. Brochmann. 2006. High biological species diversity in the arctic flora. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 103:972-975.
Grundt, H. H., M. Popp, C. Brochmann, and B. Oxelman. 2004. Polyploid origins in a circumpolar complex in Draba (Brassicaceae) inferred from cloned nuclear DNA sequences and fingerprints. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 32:695-710.
Halliday, K. J. and G. C. Whitelam. 2003. Changes in photoperiod or temperature alter the functional relationships between phytochromes and reveal roles for phyD and phyE. Plant Physiology 131:1913-1920.
Hedrick, P. W. 1981. The establishment of chromosomal variants. Evolution 35:322-332.
Heled, J. and A. J. Drummond. 2010. Bayesian inference of species trees from multilocus data. Molecular Biology and Evolution 27:570-580.
Heschel, M. S., J. Selby, C. Butler, G. C. Whitelam, R. A. Sharrock, and K. Donohue. 2007. A new role for phytochromes in temperature-dependent germination. New Phytologist 174:735-741.
Hey, J. and R. Nielsen. 2004. Multilocus methods for estimating population sizes, migration rates and divergence time, with applications to the divergence of Drosophila pseudoobscura and $D$. persimilis. Genetics 167:747-760.
Hoffmann, A. A. and L. H. Rieseberg. 2008. Revisiting the impact of inversions in evolution: from population genetic markers to drivers of adaptive shifts and speciation? Annual Review of Ecology Evolution and Systematics 39:21-42.
Ikeda, H., T. Carlsen, N. Fujii, C. Brochmann, and H. Setoguchi. 2012. Pleistocene climatic oscillations and the speciation history of an alpine endemic and a widespread arcticalpine plant. New Phytologist 194:583-594.
Ikeda, H., N. Fujii, and H. Setoguchi. 2009. Molecular evolution of phytochromes in Cardamine nipponica (Brassicaceae) suggests the involvement of PHYE in local adaptation. Genetics 182:603-614.

Ikeda, H., N. Fujii, and H. Setoguchi. 2011. Molecular evolution of cryptochrome genes and the evolutionary manner of photoreceptor genes in Cardamine nipponica (Brassicaceae). Journal of Plant Research 124:85-92.
Ikeda, H., K. Senni, N. Fujii, and H. Setoguchi. 2008a. Consistent geographic structure among multiple nuclear sequences and cpDNA polymorphisms of Cardamine nipponica Franch. et Savat. (Brassicaceae). Molecular Ecology 17:3178-3188.
Ikeda, H., K. Senni, N. Fujii, and H. Setoguchi. 2008b. Survival and genetic divergence of an arctic-alpine plant, Diapensia lapponica subsp. obovata (Fr. Schm.) Hultén (Diapensiaceae), in the high mountains of central Japan during climatic oscillations. Plant Systematics and Evolution 272:197-210.
Ikeda, H. and H. Setoguchi. 2010. Natural selection on PHYE by latitude in the Japanese archipelago: insight from locus specific phylogeographic structure in Arcterica nana (Ericaceae). Molecular Ecology 19:2779-2791.
Ingvarsson, P. K., M. V. Garcia, V. Luquez, D. Hall, and S. Jansson. 2008. Nucleotide polymorphism and phenotypic associations within and around the phytochrome B2 Locus in European aspen (Populus tremula, Salicaceae). Genetics 178:2217-2226.
Jablonski, D., K. Roy, and J. W. Valentine. 2006. Out of the tropics: evolutionary dynamics of the latitudinal diversity gradient. Science 314:102-106.
Jobb, G., A. von Haeseler, and K. Strimmer. 2004. TREEFINDER: a powerful graphical analysis environment for molecular phylogenetics. Bmc Evolutionary Biology 4:18.
Kelly, J. K., A. Rasch, and S. Kalisz. 2002. A method to estimate pollen viability from pollen size variation. American Journal of Botany 89:1021-1023.
Key, K. H. L. 1968. The concept of stasipatric speciation. Systematic Zoology 17:14-22.
Kidwell, M. G. and D. R. Lisch. 2001. Perspective: transposable elements, parasitic DNA, and genome evolution. Evolution 55:1-24.
Kirkpatrick, M. and N. Barton. 2006. Chromosome inversions, local adaptation and speciation. Genetics 173:419-434.
Lande, R. 1985. The fixation of chromosomal rearrangements in a subdivided population with local extinction and colonization. Heredity 54:323-332.
Leppälä, J. and O. Savolainen. 2011. Nuclear-cytoplasmic interactions reduce male fertility in hybrids of Arabidopsis lyrata subspecies. Evolution 65:2959-2972.
Levin, D. A. 2000. The origin, expansion and demise of plant species. Oxford University Press, New York.
Levin, D. A. 2002. The role of chromosomal change in plant evolution. Oxford University Press, New York.
Levin, D. A. 2003. The cytoplasmic factor in plant speciation. Systematic Botany 28:5-11.
Lexer, C. and A. Widmer. 2008. The genic view of plant speciation: recent progress and emerging questions. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 363:3023-3036.
Lowry, D. B., J. L. Modliszewski, K. M. Wright, C. A. Wu, and J. H. Willis. 2008. The strength and genetic basis of reproductive isolating barriers in flowering plants. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 363:30093021.

Lowry, D. B. and J. H. Willis. 2010. A widespread chromosomal inversion polymorphism contributes to a major life-history transition, local adaptation, and reproductive isolation. Plos Biology 8.
Mayr, E. 1963. Animal species and evolution Harvard University Press, Cambridge.
Mayr, E. 1995. Species, classification, and evolution. Pages 3-12 in R. Arai, M. Kato, and Y. Doi, editors. Biodiversity and evolution. National Science Museum Foundation, Tokyo.

Melamed-Bessudo, C. and A. A. Levy. 2012. Deficiency in DNA methylation increases meiotic crossover rates in euchromatic but not in heterochromatic regions in Arabidopsis. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 109:E981-E988.
Mitchell-Olds, T. 2001. Arabidopsis thaliana and its wild relatives: a model system for ecology and evolution. Trends in Ecology \& Evolution 16:693-700.
Mittelbach, G. G., D. W. Schemske, H. V. Cornell, A. P. Allen, J. M. Brown, M. B. Bush, S. P. Harrison, A. H. Hurlbert, N. Knowlton, H. A. Lessios, C. M. McCain, A. R. McCune, L. A. McDade, M. A. McPeek, T. J. Near, T. D. Price, R. E. Ricklefs, K. Roy, D. F. Sax, D. Schluter, J. M. Sobel, and M. Turelli. 2007. Evolution and the latitudinal diversity gradient: speciation, extinction and biogeography. Ecology Letters 10:315-331
Molau, U. 1993. Relationships between flowering phenology and life-history strategies in tundra plants. Arctic and Alpine Research 25:391-402.
Nielsen, R. and J. Wakeley. 2001. Distinguishing migration from isolation: a Markov Chain Monte Carlo approach. Genetics 158:885-896.
Orr, H. A., J. P. Masly, and D. C. Presgraves. 2004. Speciation genes. Current Opinion in Genetics \& Development 14:675-679.
Radford, A. E., W. C. Dickison, J. R. Massey, and C. R. Bell. 1974. Vascular plant systematics. New York: Harper \& Row.
Rieseberg, L. H. 2001. Chromosomal rearrangements and speciation. Trends in Ecology \& Evolution 16:351-358.
Rieseberg, L. H. and J. H. Willis. 2007. Plant speciation. Science 317:910-914.
Rohde, K. 2013. Latitudinal diversity gradients: equilibrium and nonequilibrium explanations. Pages 155-167 in K. Rohde, editor. The balance of nature and human impact. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
Schranz, M. E., M. A. Lysak, and T. Mitchell-Olds. 2006. The ABC's of comparative genomics in the Brassicaceae: building blocks of crucifer genomes. Trends in Plant Science 11:535-542.
Schranz, M. E., A. J. Windsor, B. Song, A. Lawton-Rauh, and T. Mitchell-Olds. 2007. Comparative genetic mapping in Boechera stricta, a close relative of Arabidopsis. Plant Physiology 144:1690-1690.
Shimodaira, H. and M. Hasegawa. 1999. Multiple comparisons of log-likelihoods with applications to phylogenetic inference. Molecular Biology and Evolution 16:11141116.

Skrede, I., L. Borgen, and C. Brochmann. 2008a. Genetic structuring in three closely related circumpolar plant species: AFLP versus microsatellite markers and high-arctic versus arctic-alpine distributions. Heredity 102:293-302.
Skrede, I., C. Brochmann, L. Borgen, and L. Rieseberg. 2008b. Genetics of intrinsic postzygotic isolation in a circumpolar plant species, Draba nivalis (Brassicaceae). Evolution 62:1840-1851.
Stebbins, G. L. 1971. Chromosomal evolution in higher plants. Edward Arnold, London.
Stucky, J. M., L. E. Gadd, and C. Arellano. 2012. Pollination Biology and Seed Production of a Federally Endangered Perennial, Echinacea laevigata (Asteraceae:Heliantheae). American Midland Naturalist 168:93-111.
Swofford, D. L. 2002. PAUP*. Phylogenetic Analysis Using Parsimony (*and Other Methods). Sinauer Associates, Inc. , Sunderland.
Syed, N. H. and A. J. Flavell. 2006. Sequence-specific amplification polymorphisms (SSAPs): a multi-locus approach for analyzing transposon insertions. Nature Protocols 1:2746-2752.

Vos, P., R. Hogers, M. Bleeker, M. Reijans, T. Vandelee, M. Hornes, A. Frijters, J. Pot, J. Peleman, M. Kuiper, and M. Zabeau. 1995. Aflp - a new technique for DNAfingerprinting. Nucleic Acids Research 23:4407-4414.
Walsh, J. B. 1982. Rate of accumulation of reproductive isolation by chromosome rearrangements. American Naturalist 120:510-532.
Weir, J. T. and D. Schluter. 2007. The latitudinal gradient in recent speciation and extinction rates of birds and mammals. Science 315:1574-1576.
Wicker, T., F. Sabot, A. Hua-Van, J. L. Bennetzen, P. Capy, B. Chalhoub, A. Flavell, P. Leroy, M. Morgante, O. Panaud, E. Paux, P. SanMiguel, and A. H. Schulman. 2007. A unified classification system for eukaryotic transposable elements. Nature Reviews Genetics 8:973-982.
Wright, S. 1941. On the probability of fixation of reciprocal translocations. American Naturalist 75:513-522.
Wright, S., J. Keeling, and L. Gillman. 2006. The road from Santa Rosalia: A faster tempo of evolution in tropical climates. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 103:7718-7722.
Yang, Z. H. 2007. PAML 4: Phylogenetic analysis by maximum likelihood. Molecular Biology and Evolution 24:1586-1591.
11. SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

| Family, Species | Geographic Origin | n | Corem | Accession no. | Coordinates |  | Altitude |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (Pre-dominant mating system) Pop. ID |  |  | From | To | Latitude | Longitude | (m.a.s.) |
| Brassicaceae |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Cardamine bellidifolia L . (S) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-S-01 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Nybyen | 18 | 45729 | 45746 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 12^{\prime} 2.58{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 35^{\prime} 26.4 "$ | 137 |
| LG09-S-27 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Todalen | 21 | 46179 | 46199 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 11^{\prime} 3.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 51^{\prime} 27.9^{\prime \prime}$ | 48 |
| LG09-S-32 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen, Longyearbyen: Sarkofagen | 15 | 46256 | 46270 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 59.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 $5^{\circ} 32^{\prime} 0.1{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 513 |
| LG09-A-42 | U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Nome | 11 | 46418 | 46428 | N65 ${ }^{\circ} 2^{\prime} 53.64{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W164 ${ }^{\circ} 48^{\prime} 45.96^{\prime \prime}$ | 237 |
| LG09-A-52 | U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Wooly Lagoon | 7 | 46498 | 46504 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 51^{\prime} 18.7^{\prime \prime}$ | W166 ${ }^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 6.7^{\prime \prime}$ | 42 |
| LG09-A-63 | U.S.A., Alaska, Brooks Range: Near Atigun Pass | 19 | 48946 | 48963 | N68 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 45.48{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W149 ${ }^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 43.68^{\prime \prime}$ | 954 |
|  |  |  | 54904 | - |  |  |  |
| LG09-A-68 | U.S.A., Alaska, Brooks Range: Atigun Pass | 15 | 48986 | 48999 | N68 ${ }^{\circ} 8^{\prime} 10.44{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W149 ${ }^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 37.56^{\prime \prime}$ | 1447 |
|  |  |  | 54905 | - |  |  |  |
| LG09-A-83 | U.S.A., Alaska, Denali Highway: Near Downwind Lake | 18 | 49386 | 49401 | N63 ${ }^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 23.1{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W146 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 42.3{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1194 |
|  |  |  | 49412 | - |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | 53163 | - |  |  |  |
| LG09-A-104 | U.S.A., Alaska, Denali Highway: Near Clearwater Airport | 6 | 49567 | 49572 | N63 ${ }^{\circ} 2^{\prime} 48.84{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W147 ${ }^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 46.08^{\prime \prime}$ | 1170 |
| LG09-A-109 | Canada, Yukon Territory, Tombstone Territorial Park: Goldensides Trail | 16 | 49643 | 49658 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 31^{\prime} 43.74{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W138 ${ }^{\circ} 11^{\prime} 57.42^{\prime \prime}$ | 1552 |
| LG09-N-130 | Norway, Oppland, Lom, Bøverdalen: Near Juvasshytta | 13 | 25850 | 25861 | N61 ${ }^{\circ} 40^{\prime} 31.2^{\prime \prime}$ | E8 ${ }^{\circ} 22^{\prime} 0.2^{\prime \prime}$ | 1520 |
|  |  |  | 25901 | - |  |  |  |
| Cochlearia groenlandica L. (S) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-S-04 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Nybyen | 16 | 45779 | 45794 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 12^{\prime} 20.7{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 35^{\prime} 53.4 "$ | 79 |
| LG09-S-24 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Bjørndalen | 13 | 46134 | 46146 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 25.4{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 19^{\prime} 42.9^{\prime \prime}$ | 31 |
| LG09-S-34 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Blomsterdalen | 16 | 46282 | 46297 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 14^{\prime} 16.4{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 $5^{\circ} 30^{\prime} 43.0{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 41 |
| LG09-A-48 | U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Nome | 14 | 46447 | 46460 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 29^{\prime} 4.48^{\prime \prime}$ | W165 ${ }^{\circ} 25^{\prime} 49.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 2 |
| LG09-A-51 | U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Wooly Lagoon | 19 | 46480 | 46497 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 51{ }^{\prime} 18.7^{\prime \prime}$ | W166 ${ }^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 6.7^{\prime \prime}$ | 42 |
|  |  |  | 56044 | - |  |  |  |
| LG09-A-54 | U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Teller | 16 | 48670 | 48684 | N65 ${ }^{\circ} 15^{\prime} 52^{\prime \prime}$ | W166 ${ }^{\circ} 21^{\prime} 57.1^{\prime \prime}$ | 6 |
|  |  |  | 56045 | - |  |  |  |
| Caryophyllaceae |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Minuartia biflora (L.) Schintz \& Thell. (S) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-S-09 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Longyearbyen | 16 | 45879 | 45894 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 18.3{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 $5^{\circ} 36^{\prime} 50.8{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 66 |
| LG09-S-15 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Endalen | 16 | 45975 | 45990 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 11^{\prime} 41^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 47^{\prime} 32.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 28 |
| LG09-S-22 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Bjørndalen | 16 | 46103 | 46118 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 25.4{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 19^{\prime} 42.9^{\prime \prime}$ | 31 |
| LG09-S-30 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Todalen | 17 | 46233 | 46249 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 10^{\prime} 37.0^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 50^{\prime} 24.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 150 |
| LG09-N-131 | Norway, Oppland, Lom, Bøverdalen: Near Juvasshytta | 13 | 25862 | 25873 | N61 ${ }^{\circ} 40^{\prime} 31.2^{\prime \prime}$ | E8 ${ }^{\circ} 22^{\prime} 0.2^{\prime \prime}$ | 1520 |
|  |  |  | 25902 | - |  |  |  |
| Minuartia rubella (Wahlenb.) Hiern (S) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-A-50 | U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Wooly Lagoon | 12 | 46468 | 46479 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 52^{\prime} 41.3^{\prime \prime}$ | W166 ${ }^{\circ} 8^{\prime} 53.3$ " | 214 |
| LG09-A-65 | U.S.A., Alaska, Brooks Range: Near Atigun Pass | 6 | 48980 | 48985 | N68 ${ }^{\circ} 12^{\prime} 46.86^{\prime \prime}$ | W149 ${ }^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 55.98^{\prime \prime}$ | 995 |


| LG09-A-72 | U.S.A., Alaska, Brooks Range: Atigun Pass | 2 | 49227 | 49228 | N68 ${ }^{\circ} 7{ }^{\prime} 41.34 "$ | W149 ${ }^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 47.94{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1383 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| LG09-A-100 | U.S.A., Alaska, Denali Highway: Near Clearwater Airport | 4 | 49525 | 49528 | N63 ${ }^{\circ} 2^{\prime} 39.18^{\prime \prime}$ | W147 ${ }^{\circ} 7^{\prime} 59.16{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1576 |
| LG09-N-143 | Norway, Oppland, Lom, Bøverdalen: Along road to Juvasshytta | 12 | 26057 | 26067 | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{N} 61^{\circ} \\ & 34.298^{\prime \prime} \end{aligned}$ | E8 $8^{\circ} 23^{\prime} 49.2{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1087 |
|  |  |  | 54902 | - |  |  |  |
| Silene acaulis (L.) Jacq. (O) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-S-06 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Longyearbyen | 16 | 45811 | 45826 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 2.6{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 36^{\prime} 39.6{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 53 |
| LG09-S-11 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Endalen | 16 | 45911 | 45926 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 11^{\prime} 10.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 $5^{\circ} 46{ }^{\prime} 10.2^{\prime \prime}$ | 52 |
| LG09-S-26 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Bjørndalen | 16 | 46163 | 46178 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 14^{\prime} 55.5{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 29^{\prime} 1.1{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 7 |
| LG09-A-40 | U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Nome, towards Pilgrim Hot Springs | 17 | 46340 | 46356 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 53^{\prime} 38.1^{\prime \prime}$ | $\begin{array}{cc} \mathrm{W} 165^{\circ} & 12^{\prime} \\ 52.56^{\prime \prime} \end{array}$ | 262 |
| LG09-A-56 | U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Nome, road to Jensen Camp | 6 | 48884 | 48889 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { N64} \quad 37 ' \\ & 16.399^{\prime \prime} \end{aligned}$ | W165 ${ }^{\circ} 27^{\prime} 0.799^{\prime \prime}$ | 22 |
| LG09-A-71 | U.S.A., Alaska, Brooks Range: Atigun Pass | 27 | 49200 | 49226 | N68 ${ }^{\circ} 7{ }^{\prime \prime} 41.34{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W149 ${ }^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 47.94 "$ | 1383 |
| LG09-A-98 | U.S.A., Alaska, Denali Highway: Near Clearwater Airport | 16 | 49509 | 49524 | N63 ${ }^{\circ} 2^{\prime} 39.18^{\prime \prime}$ | W1470 ${ }^{\prime}$ ' 59.16" | 1576 |
| LG09-A-116 | Canada, Yukon Territory, Tombstone Territorial Park: Angelcomb Peak | 11 | 49752 | 49762 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 34^{\prime} 49.68{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W138 ${ }^{\circ} 14^{\prime} 29.4 "$ | 1496 |
| LG09-A-125 | Canada, Yukon Territory, Tombstone Territorial Park: Along Demster Highway | 5 | 55948 | 55952 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 36{ }^{18.06 "}$ | W138 ${ }^{\circ} 19^{\prime} 14.58{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1210 |
| LG09-N-132 | Norway, Oppland, Lom, Bøverdalen: Along road to Juvasshytta | 16 | $\begin{aligned} & 25874 \\ & 25903 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 25883 \\ & 25908 \end{aligned}$ | N61 ${ }^{\circ} 41^{\prime} 56.5^{\prime \prime}$ | E8 ${ }^{\circ} 23^{\prime} 18.1^{\prime \prime}$ | 1520 |
| Silene uralensis (Rupr.) Bocquet (S) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-S-14 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Endalen | 16 | 45953 | - | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 11^{\prime} 10.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 10.2^{\prime \prime}$ | 52 |
|  |  |  | 45960 | 45974 |  |  |  |
| LG09-S-31 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Todalen | 6 | 46250 | 46255 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 10^{\prime} 34.7{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 53^{\prime} 56.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 44 |
| LG09-S-36 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Bolterdalen | 16 | 46306 | 46321 | N788 9' 56.4" | E15 $5^{\circ} 57^{\prime} 27.6^{\prime \prime}$ | 13 |
| LG09-A-70 | U.S.A., Alaska, Brooks Range: Atigun Pass | 21 | 49169 | 49189 | N68 ${ }^{\circ} 7^{\prime} 41.34{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W149 ${ }^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 47.94{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1383 |
| LG09-A-79 | U.S.A., Alaska, Brooks Range: Near Galbraith Lake Campground | 1 | 49363 | - | N68 ${ }^{\circ} 27^{\prime} 6.54{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W149 ${ }^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 37.56{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 853 |
| LG09-A-126 | Canada, Yukon Territory, Tombstone Territorial Park: Towards Auston Pass | 23 | 49826 | 49848 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 37^{\prime} 13.26 "$ | W138 ${ }^{\circ} 27^{\prime} 2.28^{\prime \prime}$ | 417 |
| Diapensiceae |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Diapensia lapponica L. (O) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-A-44 | U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Nome | 15 | 46379 | 46393 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 59^{\prime} 42.12{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W1640 $42^{\prime} 37.8^{\prime \prime}$ | 256 |
| LG09-A-78 | U.S.A., Alaska, Brooks Range: Near Galbraith Lake Campground | 16 | 49347 | 49362 | N68 ${ }^{\circ} 27^{\prime} 6.54{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W149 ${ }^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 37.566^{\prime \prime}$ | 853 |
| LG09-A-84 | U.S.A., Alaska, Denali Highway: Near Downwind Lake | 16 | 49413 | 49428 | N63 ${ }^{\circ} 4^{\prime} 23.1{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W146 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 42.3{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1194 |
| Ericaceae |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Arctous alpinus L.Nied. [O/S) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-A-58 | U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Salmon Lake Campground | 14 | 48890 | 48903 | N64* 55' $4.5{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W164 ${ }^{\circ} 57141.76{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 166 |
| LG09-A-76 | U.S.A., Alaska, Brooks Range: Near Galbraith Lake Campground | 13 | 49319 | 49331 | N680 $27{ }^{\prime} 5.1{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W149 ${ }^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 27.966^{\prime \prime}$ | 842 |
| LG09-A-105 | U.S.A., Alaska, Denali Highway: Near Glacier Gap Lake | 16 | 49595 | 49610 | N63 ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\prime} 51.78^{\prime \prime}$ | W146 ${ }^{15} 5^{\prime} 8.52{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1162 |
| LG09-A-111 | Canada, Yukon Territory, Tombstone Territorial Park: Goldensides Trail | 16 | 49670 | 49685 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 31{ }^{\prime}$ 23.64" | W138 ${ }^{\circ} 14^{\prime} 45.24{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1216 |
| LG09-N-142 | Norway, Oppland, Lom, Bøverdalen: Near Jotunheim fjellstue | 16 | 26041 | 26056 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { N61 }{ }^{\circ} \\ & 15.098^{\prime \prime} \end{aligned}$ | E8 ${ }^{\circ} 8^{\prime} 23.5{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1130 |
| Cassiope tetragona (L.) D.Don (O/S) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-S-13 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Endalen | 15 | 45944 | 45952 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 11^{\prime} 10.9$ " | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 46^{\prime} 10.2^{\prime \prime}$ | 52 |
|  |  |  | 45954 | 45959 |  |  |  |
| LG09-S-19 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Bjørndalen | 16 | 46040 | 46055 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 25.4 "$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 19$ ' 42.9" | 31 |
| LG09-S-28 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Todalen | 16 | 46200 | 46215 | N78 $8^{\circ} 11^{\prime} 3.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 51^{\prime} 27.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 48 |


| LG09-A-45 | U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Nome | 15 | 46394 | 46408 | N65 ${ }^{\circ} 2^{\prime} 53.64{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W164 ${ }^{\circ} 48^{\prime} 45.96{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 237 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| LG09-A-64 | U.S.A., Alaska, Brooks Range: Near Atigun Pass | 16 | 48964 | 48979 | N68 ${ }^{\circ} 12^{\prime} 46.86^{\prime \prime}$ | W149 ${ }^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 55.98^{\prime \prime}$ | 995 |
| LG09-A-82 | U.S.A., Alaska, Denali Highway: Near Downwind Lake | 15 | 49364 | 49378 | N63 ${ }^{\circ} \mathbf{4}^{\prime} 23.1{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W146 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 42.3{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1194 |
| LG09-A-108 | Canada, Yukon Territory, Tombstone Territorial Park: Goldensides Trail | 16 | 49627 | 49642 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 31^{\prime} 43.74{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W $1388^{\circ} 11^{\prime} 57.42^{\prime \prime}$ | 1552 |
| LG09-A-115 | Canada, Yukon Territory, Tombstone Territorial Park: Near Angelcomb Peak | 11 | 49741 | 49751 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 33^{\prime} 41.22^{\prime \prime}$ | W $138{ }^{\circ} 14^{\prime} 34.86^{\prime \prime}$ | 1284 |
| Kalmia procumbens (L.) Spreng (O/S) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-A-46 | U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Nome | 9 | 46409 | 46417 | N65 ${ }^{\circ} 2^{\prime} 53.64{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W164 ${ }^{\circ} 48^{\prime} 45.96^{\prime \prime}$ | 237 |
| LG09-A-86 | U.S.A., Alaska, Denali Highway: Near Downwind Lake | 10 | 49445 | 49454 | N63 ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\prime} 23.1{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W146 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 42.3$ " | 1194 |
| LG09-A-88 | U.S.A., Alaska, Denali Highway: Near Phalarope lake | 7 | 49455 | 49461 | N63 ${ }^{\circ} 5^{\prime} 19.74{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W146 ${ }^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 14.16^{\prime \prime}$ | 1250 |
| LG09-N-144 | Norway, Oppland, Lom, Bøverdalen: Along Orma River | 17 | 26069 | 26080 | N61 ${ }^{\circ} 42^{\prime} 23.9^{\prime \prime}$ | E8 ${ }^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 54.2^{\prime \prime}$ | 1200 |
|  |  |  | 55943 | 55947 |  |  |  |
| Polemoniaceae |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Polemonium boreale Adams (O) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-S-35 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Longyearbyen | 10 | $\begin{aligned} & 46298 \\ & 46322 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 46305 \\ & 46323 \end{aligned}$ | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 16^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 37{ }^{\prime} 21.601{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 37 |
| Polygonaceae |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Oxyria digyna (L.) Hill (O/S) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-S-02 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Nybyen | 16 | 45747 | 45762 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 12^{\prime} 20.7{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 35^{\prime} 53.4{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 79 |
| LG09-S-17 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Endalen | 17 | 46007 | 46023 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 11^{\prime} 41^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 47^{\prime} 32.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 28 |
| LG09-S-29 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Todalen | 17 | 46216 | 46232 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 11^{\prime} 3.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 51^{\prime} 27.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 48 |
| LG09-A-69 | U.S.A., Alaska, Brooks Range: Atigun Pass | 16 | 49153 | 49168 | N68 ${ }^{\circ} 8^{\prime} 10.44{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W149 ${ }^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 37.56^{\prime \prime}$ | 1447 |
| LG09-A-89 | U.S.A., Alaska, Denali Highway: Near Phalarope lake | 16 | 49462 | 49476 | N63 ${ }^{\circ} 5^{\prime} 19.74{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W146 ${ }^{\circ} 24^{\prime} 14.16^{\prime \prime}$ | 1250 |
|  |  |  | 49478 | - |  |  |  |
| LG09-A-118 | Canada, Yukon Territory, Tombstone Territorial Park: Near Tombstone Range Viewpoint | 11 | 49708 | 49718 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 2^{\prime} 39.6{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W138 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 57.36^{\prime \prime}$ | 1225 |
| LG09-A-120 | Canada, Yukon Territory: Keno Sumit | 17 | 49793 | 49809 | N63 ${ }^{\circ} 56{ }^{\prime} 28.86{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W135 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 5.28{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1696 |
| LG09-N-134 | Norway, Oppland, Lom, Bøverdalen: Along road to Juvasshytta | 16 | 25918 | 25933 | N61 ${ }^{\circ} 41^{\prime} 56.5{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E8 ${ }^{\circ} 23^{\prime} 18.1{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1520 |
| Ranunculaceae |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Ranunculus pygmaeus Wahlenb. (S) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-S-08 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen, Longyearbyen: Huset | 27 | 45843 | - | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 12^{\prime} 29^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 $5^{\circ} 35^{\prime} 30.5{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 72 |
|  |  |  | 45846 | - |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | 45848 | - |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | 45850 | - |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | 45852 | 45857 |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | 45861 | 45875 |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | 45877 | 45878 |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | 53162 | - |  |  |  |
| LG09-S-16 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Endalen | 16 | 45991 | 46006 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 11^{\prime} 41^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 47^{\prime} 32.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 28 |
| LG09-S-21 | Norway, Svalbard, Spitsbergen: Bjørndalen | 31 | 46072 | 46102 | N78 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 25.4{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | E15 ${ }^{\circ} 19^{\prime} 42.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 31 |
| LG09-A-47 | U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Nome | 18 | 46429 | 46446 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 27{ }^{\prime} 22.2^{\prime \prime}$ | W165 ${ }^{\circ} 5^{\prime} 46.3$ " | 2 |
| LG09-A-67 | U.S.A., Alaska, Brooks Range: Atigun Pass | 16 | 49128 | 49143 | N68 ${ }^{\circ} 8^{\prime} 10.44{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W149 ${ }^{\circ} 28^{\prime} 37.56^{\prime \prime}$ | 1447 |
| LG09-A-102 | U.S.A., Alaska, Denali Highway: Near Clearwater Airport | 10 | 49537 | 49546 | N63 ${ }^{\circ} 2^{\prime} 48.84{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W147 ${ }^{\circ} 9^{\prime} 46.08{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1170 |
| LG09-A-119 | Canada, Yukon Territory, Tombstone Territorial Park: Near Tombstone Range Viewpoint | 10 | 49719 | 49728 | N64 ${ }^{\circ} 2^{\prime} 39.6{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | W138 ${ }^{\circ} 13^{\prime} 57.36^{\prime \prime}$ | 1225 |
| LG09-N-135 | Norway, Oppland, Lom, Bøverdalen: Along road to Juvasshytta | 16 | 25934 | 25949 | N61 ${ }^{\circ} 41^{\prime} 51.5^{\prime \prime}$ | E8 ${ }^{\circ} 23^{\prime} 36.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1481 |
| Thalictrum alpinum L. (O) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| LG09-N-136 | Norway, Oppland, Lom, Bøverdalen: Along road to Juvasshytta | 11 | 25951 | 25961 | N61 ${ }^{\circ} 41^{\prime} 51.5^{\prime \prime}$ | E8 ${ }^{\circ} 23^{\prime} 36.9{ }^{\prime \prime}$ | 1481 |


| ni゙m | $\stackrel{\circ}{\sim}$ | Niさ 䒚 | Ñ | ふヲ导吴水 |  | \％ | 守肙 | n | $\stackrel{2}{0}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  | 示 $\bar{\sigma}=$ ni＝ <br>  <br>  | $\begin{aligned} & \overline{1} \\ & \dot{6} \\ & \text { - } \\ & 0 \\ & 0 \\ & i \end{aligned}$ |  | 5 0 0 0 0 0 in in a | \％ $\cdots$ $\cdots$ $\cdots$ $\cdots$ $\cdots$ $i$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | j 0 en e 0 0 0 0 0 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ल̈ } \\ & \text { ぶ } \\ & \text { 子 } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |
| $\because$ ペーロー | 二 $\sim$ | 은 | ニコ | にコロニコ | ํํํ |  | च $\stackrel{\infty}{\sim}$ |  | $\cdots$ |









$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ત̃ }
\end{aligned}
$$锥合


ILE9t



$\infty$ n＝$\curvearrowleft=\simeq=\infty$

$$
\overline{\mathrm{N}}
$$


ニ๐ ก̃
U．S．A．，Alaska，Denali Highway：Near Clearwater Airport
Canada，Yukon Territory，Tombstone Territorial Park：Along Demster Highway Canada，Yukon Territory，Tombstone Territorial Park：Along Demster Highway Norway，Oppland，Lom，Bøverdalen：$\emptyset_{\text {vre }}$ B $\varnothing$ vertuntj

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Nome, towards Pilgrim Hot Springs } \\
& \text { U.S.A., Alaska, Brooks Range: Near Galbraith Lake Campground } \\
& \text { U.S.A., Alaska, Denali Highway: Near Glacier Gap Lake } \\
& \text { Canada, Yukon Territory, Tombstone Territorial Park: Along Demster Highway } \\
& \text { Norway, Oppland, Lom, Bøverdalen: Near Bøvertun Winter Parking }
\end{aligned}
$$

TOTAL

[^0]Table S 1.
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { U.S.A., Alaska, Seward Peninsula: Salmon Lake Campground } \\
& \text { Norway, Oppland, Lom, B } \varnothing \text { verdalen: Along Orma River }
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

Sampling data for species collected during the field season summer 2009，and intended for intraspecific crossing experiments．Pre－dominant mating
system is system indicated as： $\mathrm{O}=$ outcrossing， $\mathrm{S}=$ selfing，and $\mathrm{O} / \mathrm{S}=$ mixed（data from Molau 1993，Brochmann and Steen 1999 ，pers．com．Reidar Elven）．Plant families are indicated in bold．Population ID includes collector and year（LG09＝Lovisa Gustafsson 2009），main geographic region（S $=$ Svalbard， $\mathrm{N}=$ mainland Norway， $\mathrm{A}=\mathrm{Alaska} / \mathrm{Yukon}$ ），followed by population number．Accession number refers to the unique ID number in the DNAbank database Corema at the Natural History Museum，University of Oslo．Vouchers deposited in O．
13. PAPERS I-III





[^0]:    Tofieldiaceae（S）
    Tofieldiaceae
    Tofieldia pusilla
    Tofieldia pusilla（Michx．）Pers．（S）
    LG09－A－41
    LG09－A－75
    会
    LG09－A－123
    LG09－N－140
    Violaceae
    Viola biflora L．（O）
    LG09－A－61
    LG09－N－137

