

Taxon-specific or universal? Using target capture to study the evolutionary history of a rapid radiation

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Abstract - Target capture emerged as an important tool for phylogenetics and population genetics in non-model taxa. Whereas developing taxon-specific capture probes requires sustained efforts, available universal kits may have a lower power to reconstruct relationships at shallow phylogenetic scales and within rapidly radiating clades. We present here a newly-developed target capture set for Bromeliaceae, a large and ecologically-diverse plant family with highly variable diversification rates. The set targets 1,776 coding regions, including genes putatively involved in key innovations, with the aim to empower testing of a wide range of evolutionary hypotheses. We compare the relative power of this taxon-specific set, Bromeliad1776, to the universal Angiosperms353 kit. The taxon-specific set results in higher enrichment success across the entire family, however, the overall performance of both kits to reconstruct phylogenetic trees is relatively comparable, highlighting the vast potential of universal kits for resolving evolutionary relationships. For more detailed phylogenetic or population genetic analyses, e.g. the exploration of gene tree concordance, nucleotide diversity or population structure, the taxon-specific capture set presents clear benefits. We discuss the potential lessons that this comparative study provides for future phylogenetic and population genetic investigations, in particular for the study of evolutionary radiations. **Keywords**— target capture, plant radiation, Bromeliaceae, *Tillandsia*, population structure, phylogenomics

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1 **1 Introduction**

2 Targeted sequencing approaches have emerged as a promise to studying evolutionary
3 relationships in non-model taxa, enabling researchers to retrieve large data sets whereas re-
4 quiring few genomic resources (Bossert & Danforth, 2018; Escudero, Nieto-Feliner, Pokorny,
5 Spalink, & Viruel, 2020; Soto-Gomez et al., 2019). Using custom DNA baits, the method
6 largely retrieves the same loci across a wide taxonomic scale, obtains comparable and merge-
7 able data sets, and may be combined with genome-skimming (E. M. Lemmon & Lemmon,
8 2013; Weitemier et al., 2014). Pre-existing knowledge of the targeted loci further provides
9 opportunities to address specific questions on both deep and shallow timescales (Hale, Gard-
10 ner, Viruel, Pokorny, & Johnson, 2020; A. R. Lemmon, Emme, & Lemmon, 2012). Finally,
11 the method does not necessarily require a reference genome, is highly cost-effective, and with
12 the ability to sequence herbarium samples, reduces the need for extensive sampling cam-
13 paigns (Blaimer, Lloyd, Guillory, & Brady 2016; Hale et al. 2020; Weitemier et al., 2014).
14 Target capture has been successfully applied to resolve phylogenies in diverse groups, from
15 arthropods such as bees (*Xylocopa*, Blaimer et al., 2016; Apidae, Bossert et al., 2019) and
16 Araneae (Hexathelidae, Hedin, Derkarabetian, Ramírez, Vink, & Bond, 2018) to mammals
17 (Cetacea, McGowen et al., 2020), and in numerous plant groups (*Heuchera*, Folk, Mandel,
18 & Freudenstein, 2015; Gesneriaceae, Ogutcen et al., 2021; Zingiberales, Sass, Iles, Barrett,
19 Smith, & Specht, 2016 to name a few). The method's utility for studies at micro-evolutionary
20 scales has been to date marginally explored, but several studies pointed at a good ability
21 to analyse genomic diversity and estimate population genomic parameters (Choquet et al.,
22 2019; Christmas, Biffin, Breed, & Lowe, 2017; de La Harpe et al., 2019; Derrien & Ramos-
23 Onsins, 2020; Sanderson, DiFazio, Cronk, Ma, & Olson, 2020). Nonetheless, the development
24 of probes for target enrichment may pose several challenges: first, the need to identify regions
25 conserved enough to ensure recovery, yet polymorphic enough to provide ample information

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26 (Soto-Gomez et al., 2019; Villaverde et al., 2018). Second, probe design requires detecting
27 regions without pervasive copy number polymorphism (Kadlec, Bellstedt, Maitre, & Pirie,
28 2017; A. R. Lemmon et al., 2012), a particular challenge for angiosperms and other groups,
29 where duplication events are ubiquitous (Van de Peer, Mizrachi, & Marchal, 2017).

30 In contrast, universal kits offer an attractive alternative that require reduced efforts
31 to establish, and provide comparable data sets across wider ranges of taxa (Johnson et al.,
32 2019; Kadlec et al., 2017). Such kits were designed to retrieve single-copy markers, for
33 example, in the broad scope of amphibians (Hime et al., 2021), anthozoans (Quattrini et al.,
34 2018), vertebrates (A. R. Lemmon et al., 2012) or angiosperms (Johnson et al., 2019). In the
35 latter example, the Angiosperms353 kit is designed to target 353 single-copy sequences across
36 angiosperms. So far the kit has been employed successfully in resolving phylogenies, including
37 but not limited to *Nepenthes* (Murphy et al., 2020), *Schefflera* (Shee, Frodin, Cámara-Leret,
38 & Pokorny, 2020) and the rapid radiation of *Burmeistera* (Bagley, Uribe-Convers, Carlsen,
39 & Muchhala, 2020), establishing the kit as an eminent tool in macroevolutionary research.
40 Its utility at microevolutionary levels is yet to be fully realized, although several works
41 established its suitability to deliver informative signals at a lower taxonomic level (Beck et al.,
42 2021) and in acquiring population genomics parameters (Slimp, Williams, Hale, & Johnson,
43 2020). The use of highly-conserved markers in a universal kit may, however, limit resolution
44 power. Generally, taxon-specific baits are expected to deliver a higher information content
45 and hence more accurate results (Kadlec et al., 2017), as enrichment success is known to drop
46 with the level of divergence between sequences used for probe design and the targeted taxa
47 (Liu et al., 2019). However, a study comparing the power of the universal Angiosperms353
48 kit and a taxon-specific kit to resolve phylogenomic relationship in Cyperaceae reported
49 surprisingly similar performance (Larridon et al., 2020). It remains to be established whether
50 these findings apply to other taxa and other evolutionary scales, including at population
51 level, where ample genomic variability is required to resolve intra-specific relationships and

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52 investigate patterns of genetic differentiation.

53 Until recently, the technology available to investigate evolutionary questions in rapidly
54 evolving groups featuring high net diversification rates has presented major obstacles, in par-
55 ticular for non-model groups. Decreasing costs of sequencing coupled with an ever-growing
56 plethora of bioinformatic tools for data processing and downstream analysis has led to an in-
57 crease in the use of methods like whole-genome sequencing, RNA sequencing and restriction
58 site associated DNA sequencing (RAD-Seq) in lieu of traditional methods employing few con-
59 served markers (de La Harpe et al., 2017; McKain, Johnson, Uribe-Convers, Eaton, & Yang,
60 2018; Weitemier et al., 2014; Zimmer & Wen, 2013). Whole-genome sequencing however
61 remains costly, posing barriers for research targeting large numbers of samples, organisms
62 with large genomes and non-model organisms, for which the availability of high-quality ge-
63 nomic resources is often limited (Hollingsworth, Li, van der Bank, & Twyford, 2016; Supple
64 & Shapiro, 2018). While RAD-seq is an affordable alternative and widely used in popula-
65 tion genetics, the resulting data sets may fall short when screened for homologous sequences
66 across distantly related lineages (but see e.g., Heckenhauer, Samuel, Ashton, Abu Salim, &
67 Paun, 2018). Additionally, the use of short and inconsistently-represented loci across phylo-
68 genetic sampling may result in low information content and difficulties in assessing paralogy
69 (E. M. Lemmon & Lemmon, 2013; McKain et al., 2018; Jones & Good, 2016).

70 Rapid evolutionary radiations are key stages in the evolutionary history across the
71 Tree of Life and highly recurrent, hence an essential part of biodiversity research (Gavrilets
72 & Losos, 2009; Givnish et al., 2014; Hughes, Nyffeler, & Linder, 2015; Soltis, Folk, & Soltis,
73 2019; Soltis & Soltis, 2004). Fast evolving groups provide potent opportunities to investi-
74 gate important questions in evolutionary biology, such as the interplay between ecological
75 and evolutionary processes in shaping biodiversity. Research on rapidly evolving lineages
76 has provided insight on the fascinating circumstances that drive radiations mostly in model
77 groups. A few notable study systems are the cichlid fish (McGee et al., 2020; Salzburger,

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2018), *Heliconius* butterflies (Dasmahapatra et al., 2012; Moest et al., 2020), *Anolis* lizards
(McGlathlin et al., 2018; Stroud & Losos, 2020), Darwin's finches (Lamichhaney et al., 2015;
Zink & Vázquez-Miranda, 2019), white-eyes birds (Moyle, Filardi, Smith, & Diamond, 2009)
and New World lupins (Nevado, Atchison, Hughes, & Filatov, 2016). Nevertheless, much
remains unknown about the genomic basis underlying rapid species diversification outside
these intensively studied systems.

Research of rapidly diversifying lineages presents several challenges. First, a brief di-
versification period typically leads to imperfect reproductive barriers and incomplete lineage
sorting, reflected in significant gene tree discordance and ambiguous relationships (Degnan
& Rosenberg, 2009; Lamichhaney et al., 2015; Pease, Haak, Hahn, & Moyle, 2016; Straub
et al., 2014). In addition, understanding 'speciation through time' poses a methodological
challenge, and requires connecting two conceptual worlds: macroevolutionary investigations,
concerned with spatial and ecological patterns over deeper timescales, and microevolution-
ary approaches, providing insight into the processes acting during population divergence
and speciation (Bragg, Potter, Bi, & Moritz, 2016; de La Harpe et al., 2017). Resolving
phylogenomic relationships and disentangling the contribution of different genomic processes
through time typically requires large-scale genomic datasets and thorough taxon sampling
efforts (E. M. Lemmon & Lemmon, 2013; Linder, 2008; Straub et al., 2012).

Here, we present Bromeliad1776, a new bait set for targeted sequencing, designed to
address a wide range of evolutionary hypotheses in Bromeliaceae: from producing robust
phylogenies to studying the interplay of genomic processes during speciation and the ge-
netic basis of trait shifts, such as photosynthetic and pollination syndrome. This highly
diverse Neotropical radiation provides an excellent research system for studying the drivers
and constraints of rapid adaptive radiation (Benzing, 2000; Givnish et al., 2011; Loiseau et
al., 2021; Mota et al., 2020; Palma-Silva & Fay, 2020; Wöhrmann, Michalak, Zizka, & Weis-
ing, 2020). Bromeliaceae is a species-rich and charismatic monocot family, consisting of over

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104 3,000 species, including crops in the genus *Ananas* and other economically important species
105 (Luther, 2008). Members of the family are characterized by a distinctive leaf rosette that
106 often impounds rainwater in central tanks (phytotelmata). A diversity of arthropods and
107 other animal species and microbes reside in bromeliad tanks, in some cases even leading to
108 protocarnivory and other forms of nutrient acquisition (Givnish, Burkhardt, Happel, & Wein-
109 traub, 1984; C. Leroy, Carrias, Céréghino, & Corbara, 2016). Bromeliads present a diversity
110 of repeatedly evolving adaptive traits, which allowed them to occupy versatile habitats and
111 ecological niches (Benzing, 2000). CAM photosynthesis, water-absorbing trichomes, forma-
112 tion of tank habit, extensive rates of epiphytism and a diversity of pollination syndromes
113 are some of the adaptations correlated with high rates of diversification within the family
114 (Benzing, 2000; Crayn, Winter, & Smith, 2004; Givnish et al., 2014; Kessler, Abrahamczyk,
115 & Krömer, 2020; Quezada & Gianoli, 2011).

116 To assess the utility of the Bromeliad1776 kit, we performed a comparison between
117 our taxon-specific kit and the universal Angiosperms353 kit using several methods across
118 different evolutionary time-scales. We present Bromeliad1776 in the light of methodological
119 considerations on bait design, data handling, analyses and other practical considerations.

120 **2 Materials and Methods**

121 **2.1 In-house bait design**

122 Whole-genome sequences and gene models from *Ananas comosus* v.3 (Ming et al., 2015)
123 were used to design a bait set aiming to target i) random protein coding genomic regions,
124 ii) genes previously described as associated with key innovation traits in Bromeliaceae (see
125 below), iii) markers previously used for phylogenomic inference in Bromeliaceae and iv) genes
126 orthologous to those in the Angiosperms353 bait set. The 1776 selected genes are detailed
127 in Supporting information Table S1.

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128 The random protein coding genes (subset *i* above) were selected based on genetic
129 diversity parameters calculated using whole-genome sequence and RNAseq data previously
130 published de La Harpe et al. (2020) with the PopGenome R package v.2.1.6 (Pfeifer, (Pfeifer,
131 Wittelsbürger, Ramos-Onsins, & Lercher, 2014). Genomic regions were retained in this cat-
132 egory if they shared at least 70% identity between *A. comosus* and *T. sphaerocephala*, and
133 if they had nucleotide diversity (π) values not exceeding the 90% quantile of the (π) distri-
134 bution across genes for four *Tillandsia* species (*Tillandsia australis*, *Tillandsia fasciculata*,
135 *Tillandsia floribunda* and *T. sphaerocephala*). We further excluded genes with a total exonic
136 size smaller than 1,100 bp, or individual exons smaller than 120 bp. Next, copy-number
137 variation was calculated based on clustering of *A. comosus* and *Tillandsia* transcriptome
138 assemblies to generate three copy number categories - "single copy", "low copy" (i.e., less
139 than five copies) and "high copy" (i.e., five or more copies). For the random genes (i.e., bait
140 subset *i*) we included in the design only "single copy" genes. Finally, we excluded genes that
141 were located in genomic regions outside those assigned to linkage groups in the *A. comosus*
142 reference (Ming et al., 2015). A total of 1,243 genes were identified for this part.

143 The bait subset of genes associated with key innovative traits in Bromeliaceae (subset
144 *ii* above) included (1) genes putatively under positive selection along branches relevant to
145 C3/CAM shifts (de La Harpe et al., 2020), (2) genes that exhibit differential gene expression
146 between CAM and C3 *Tillandsia* species (de La Harpe et al., 2020) and (3) genes putatively
147 associated with photosynthetic and developmental functions, or with flavonoid and antho-
148 cyanin biosynthesis, according to the literature (e.g. Ming et al., 2015; Palma-Silva, Ferro,
149 Bacci, & Turchetto-Zolet, 2016; Wai et al., 2017; Goolsby, Moore, Hancock, Vos, & Edwards,
150 2018). *Ananas comosus* genes with the highest match scores (calculated as lowest E-score
151 in BLASTP, Madden (2013) against the sequences of genes from the literature were added
152 to the bait set (see Supporting information Table S2 for details). A total of 1,612 genes
153 underpinning innovative traits were included in the bait design, regardless of criteria used

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154 for subset *i* for size, similarity and duplication rate.

155 Markers previously used for phylogenomic inference in Bromeliaceae (subset *iii*) were
156 obtained from the literature, spanning 13 genes (e.g. Barfuss et al., 2016; Machado et al.,
157 2020; Schulte, Barfuss, & Zizka, 2009, see TS2 for full list). Genes orthologous to those in
158 the Angiosperms353 bait set (Johnson et al., 2019) were identified using the orthologous gene
159 models from *A. comosus* based on gene annotations (Ming et al., 2015) or using BLASTP
160 (Madden, 2013), totalling 281 genes.

161 Finally, we used a draft genome of *T. fasciculata* (Jaqueline Hess, personal communi-
162 cation) to exclude from all candidates genes that exhibited multiple BLASTN hits, if they
163 have not been previously described as duplicated within the genus (de La Harpe et al., 2020).
164 Specifically, we excluded genes that matched another genomic sequence of at least 100bp with
165 high similarity score ($> 80\%$) and low E-value ($< 10^{-5}$). In an additional round of filtering
166 was performed by the manufacturer of the final bait set, Arbor Biosciences (Ann Arbor, MI,
167 USA), multi-copy genes with sequences that are more than 95% identical were collapsed into
168 a single sequence, and baits with more than 70% GC content or containing at least 25% re-
169 peated sequences were excluded. In addition, targets including exons smaller than 80 bp were
170 completed with regions flanking the exons according to the *A. comosus* reference genome.
171 The final kit included 1776 genes: 801 random protein coding genes, 681 genes associated
172 with key innovative traits, 13 genes representing phylogenetic markers and 281 genes ortholo-
173 gous to the Angiosperms353 set. Probes were designed with 57,445 80-mer baits tiling across
174 targets in 2x coverage, targeting approximately 2.3Mbp. The kit is subsequently referred to
175 as the Bromeliad1776 bait set. Further specifications can be found in Supporting information
176 Tables S1 and S2 and in the github repository: <https://github.com/giyany/Bromeliad1776>.

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177 **2.2 Plant material collection**

178 We sampled a total of 70/72 Bromeliaceae samples (for Angiosperms353 and for
179 Bromeliad1776, accordingly; Supporting information Table S3), including 56 accessions from
180 the Tillandsioideae subfamily and 16 representing the other subfamilies, except Navioideae
181 (according to Givnish et al. (2014)). Within Tillandsioideae, we sampled 38/40 individuals
182 from five species of the *Tillandsia* subgenus *Tillandsia* ('clade K' in Barfuss et al. (2016));
183 Sampling in Mexican populations illustrated in Supporting information Figure S1).

184 **2.3 Library preparation & enrichment**

185 DNA extractions were performed using a modified CTAB protocol (Doyle & Doyle,
186 1987), purified using Nucleospin[®] gDNA cleanup kit from Macherey-Nagel (Hudlow et al.,
187 2011) following the supplier's instructions with a two-fold elution step and finally quantified
188 with Qubit[®] 3.0 Fluorometer (Life Technologies, Ledeberg, Belgium).

189 For each sample, 200ng DNA was sheared using Bioruptor[®] Pico sonication device
190 (Diagenode, Seraing, Belgium) aiming for an average insert size of 350bp, dried in a speed
191 vacuum Eppendorf concentrator 5301 (Eppendorf, Germany) and eluted in 30µL ddH₂O.
192 Genomic libraries were prepared using the NEBNext[®] Ultra TM II DNA Library Prep
193 Kit for Illumina[®] (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, United States) using reagents at
194 half volumes following Hale et al. (2020) and using 11 PCR cycles, increased up to 13 cy-
195 cled for libraries with low genomic output. Samples were double-indexed with NEBNext[®]
196 Multiplex Oligos for Illumina[®] (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA). Fragment sizes
197 were inspected with Agilent Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) and
198 concentrations were measured with Qubit[®] 3.0 Fluorometer. Subpools of 11-14 equimolar
199 genomic libraries were prepared using phylogenetic proximity and DNA concentrations of
200 the genomic libraries, which ranged from 2.62 to 118.0 ng/µL, following Soto-Gomez et al.
201 (2019).

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202 We used the Angiosperms353 and the Bromeliad1776 bait sets from Arbor Biosciences
203 (Ann Arbor, MI, USA) to enrich each subpool of genomic libraries independently with a single
204 hybridization reaction of myBaits[®] target capture kits from Arbor Biosciences (Ann Arbor,
205 MI, USA), following Hale et al. (2020). Average fragment size and DNA yield were estimated
206 for each subpool using Agilent Bioanalyzer and Qubit[®] 3.0 Fluorometer. Subpools were then
207 pooled in equimolar conditions and sequenced at Vienna BioCenter Core Facilities (Vienna,
208 Austria) on Illumina[®] NextSeq[™] 550 (2x150bp, Illumina, San Diego, CA). Sequencing was
209 conducted independently for either bait kit. The sequencing data are publicly available in
210 the NCBI Short Reads Archive (BioProject ID PRJNAxxx, SRA Study SRPxxx).

211 **2.4 Data processing**

212 The raw sequence data in BAM format was demultiplexed using deML v.1.1.3 (Renaud,
213 Stenzel, Maricic, Wiebe, & Kelso, 2015) and samtools view v.1.7 (Li et al., 2009), converted
214 to fastq using bamtools v.2.4.0 (Barnett, Garrison, Quinlan, Strömberg, & Marth, 2011)
215 and quality checked using FastQC v.0.11.7 (Andrews, 2010). Reads were then trimmed for
216 adapter content and quality using TrimGalore v.0.6.5 (Krueger, 2019), a wrapper tool around
217 FastQC and Cutadapt, using settings `-fastqc -retain unpaired`. Sequence quality and adapter
218 removal was confirmed with FastQC reports.

219 Quality and adapter-trimmed reads were aligned to *A. comosus* reference genome v.3
220 (Ming et al., 2015) using bowtie2 (Langmead & Salzberg, 2012) with the `-very-sensitive-local`
221 option to increase sensitivity and accuracy. Samtools (Li et al., 2009) was then used to re-
222 move low quality mapping and sort alignments by position, and PCR duplicates were marked
223 using MarkDuplicates from PicardTools v.2.25 (*Picard Toolkit*, 2019). Summary statistics of
224 the mapping step were generated using samtools stats. Variants were called using freebayes
225 v1.3.2-dirty (Garrison & Marth, 2012) and sites marked as MNP
226 complex were decomposed and normalized using the script 'vcfallelicprimitives' from vcfib

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(Garrison, 2012). Next, AN/AC field was calculated using bcftools v.1.7 (Li, 2011) and variant calls were filtered using vcflib (Garrison & Marth, 2012) and bcftools. Given that freebayes does not perform automatic variant filtering steps, we identified sets of parameters that generate reliable final SNP sets, based on two independent criteria: the highest transition/transversion ratios as reported by SnpSift (SnpEff suite, Cingolani et al., 2012) and the lowest π_N/π_S (see section 2.7 below). After a detailed evaluation, we used the following criteria to generate two high quality SNP sets: we considered genotype calls with per-sample coverage below $10\times$ as missing (NA) and excluded variants (i) marked as indels or neighboring indels within a distance of 3 bp, (ii) with depth of coverage at the SNP level lower than $500\times$, (iii) with less than ten reads supporting the alternate allele at the SNP level, or (iv) with more than 40% missing data. Summary statistics of the final SNP sets were generated using the script `vcf2genocountsmatrix.py` (available from <https://github.com/giyany/Bromeliad1776>), namely the total number of SNPs, the proportion of on-target SNPs and the proportion of SNPs in some specific genomic contexts, with *A. comosus* genome v.3 as a reference. We present an example of data processing with the HybPiper pipeline (Johnson et al., 2016) in the github repository (<https://github.com/giyany/Bromeliad1776>).

2.5 Bait specificity and efficiency

To explore bait specificity, we calculated the percentage of high quality trimmed reads on-target using samtools stats and bedtools intersect v2.25.0 (Quinlan & Hall, 2010) using the script `calculat_bait_target_specifity.sh` (available from <https://github.com/giyany/Bromeliad1776>). Targets for Bromeliad1776 were defined as the bait sequences plus their 500 bp flanking regions. Targets for Angiosperms353 were defined using orthogroups to *A. comosus*: gene annotations from the bait set were used to assign genes to orthogroups using OrthoFinder (Emms & Kelly, 2019), resulting in 559 *A. comosus* genes assigned to orthogroups. Within the orthogroups, targets were again defined as exonic regions plus their

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252 500 bp flanking regions.

253 To provide insights into determinants of bait capture success, we calculated bait effi-
254 ciency for all baits of Bromeliad1776. For each bait, efficiency was calculated as the number
255 of high-quality reads uniquely mapping to each bait target region, averaged over samples.
256 We then tested for the correlation of capture efficiency to several bait characteristics (copy
257 number, GC content, number and size of exons in targeted gene, size of baits and phyloge-
258 netic distance to *A. comosus*) with a generalized linear model or Kruskal-Wallis test in R
259 v.4.0.3 (R Core Team, 2020) using a negative binomial family.

260 **2.6 Phylogenomic analyses**

261 We inferred phylogenomic relationships for all samples using two methods: a con-
262 catenation method, and a coalescent-based species tree estimation. The latter method was
263 included as concatenation methods do not account for gene tree incongruence, which may
264 result in high support for an incorrect topology (Kubatko & Degnan, 2007), especially in
265 the presence of notable incomplete lineage sorting. In addition, gene tree incongruence anal-
266 ysis provides insight into molecular genome evolution, including the extent of incomplete
267 lineage sorting and other genomic processes such as hybridization and introgression (Galtier
268 & Daubin, 2008; Wendel & Doyle, 1998).

269 We used the SNP genotypes to create a phylip matrix with vcf2phylip v.2.0 (Ortiz,
270 2019) and constructed a maximum-likelihood species tree for each bait set with RAxML-NG
271 v.0.9.0 (Kozlov, Darriba, Flouri, Morel, & Stamatakis, 2019), using 250 bootstrap replicates
272 and a GTR model with an automatic MRE-based bootstrap convergence test. Next, we
273 constructed a species tree using ASTRAL-III v.5.7.7 (hereafter: ASTRAL, Zhang, Rabiee,
274 Sayyari, & Mirarab, 2018). For both the Angiosperms353 and the Bromeliad1776 sets, we
275 considered genes within each bait set as independent genomic windows. For Angiosperms353,
276 we extracted the 559 genes (assigned to orthogroups as explained above) as genomic windows

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277 using bedtools intersect. For Bromeliad1776, genomic windows were extracted using the *A.*
278 *comosus* gene sequences included in bait design. All loci and all accessions were included in
279 species tree inference regardless of the percentage of missing data, since taxon completeness
280 of individual gene trees is important for statistical consistency of this approach, and we
281 expected only low levels of fragmentary sequences (Mirarab, 2019; Nute, Chou, Molloy, &
282 Warnow, 2018). After excluding genes with zero coverage, 269 genes and 1,600 genes were
283 included in species tree inference for Angiosperms353 and Bromeliad1776, respectively.

284 For each gene, a maximum-likelihood gene tree was inferred using ParGenes (Morel,
285 Kozlov, & Stamatakis, 2019) with RAxML-NG (Kozlov et al., 2019), using a GTR model
286 with an automatic MRE-based bootstrap convergence test. Loci with insufficient signal may
287 reduce the accuracy of species tree estimation (Mirarab, 2019), hence, in all gene trees, nodes
288 with a bootstrap support smaller than ten were collapsed using Newick utilities (Junier
289 & Zdobnov, 2010). A species tree was then generated in ASTRAL with quartet support
290 and posterior probability for each tree topology. The number of conflicting gene trees was
291 calculated using phyparts and visualized using the script phypartspiecharts.py (available from
292 <https://github.com/mossmatters/MJPythonNotebooks>).

293 **2.7 Population structure and nucleotide diversity estimates**

294 To explore the genetic structure within the *Tillandsia* species complex, we focused on
295 five species from 15 localities (Supporting information Table S3 and Supporting information
296 Figure S1). We first used plink v.1.9 (Chang et al., 2015) to filter out SNPs in linkage dise-
297 quilibrium. Population structure was further explored through individual ancestry analysis,
298 with identity-by-descent matrix calculated by plink and inference of population structure
299 using ADMIXTURE v.1.3. with K values ranging from one to ten, and 30 replicates for
300 each K, using a block optimization method (Alexander & Lange, 2011). A summary of the
301 ADMIXTURE results was obtained and presented using pong (Behr, Liu, Liu-Fang, Nakka,

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302 & Ramachandran, 2016). The set of LD-pruned biallelic SNPs was further filtered to allow a
303 maximum of 10% missing data and used to perform a principal components analysis (PCA)
304 with SNPRelate v.1.20.1 (Zheng et al., 2012). Finally, for each *Tillandsia* species, we used
305 the strategy of T. Leroy et al. (2021) to compute synonymous (π_S) and non-synonymous (π_N)
306 nucleotide diversities and Tajima's D, from fasta sequences using seq_stat_coding (T. Leroy
307 et al., 2021).

308 **3 Results**

309 **3.1 Higher mapping rates and capture efficiency for taxon-specific set**

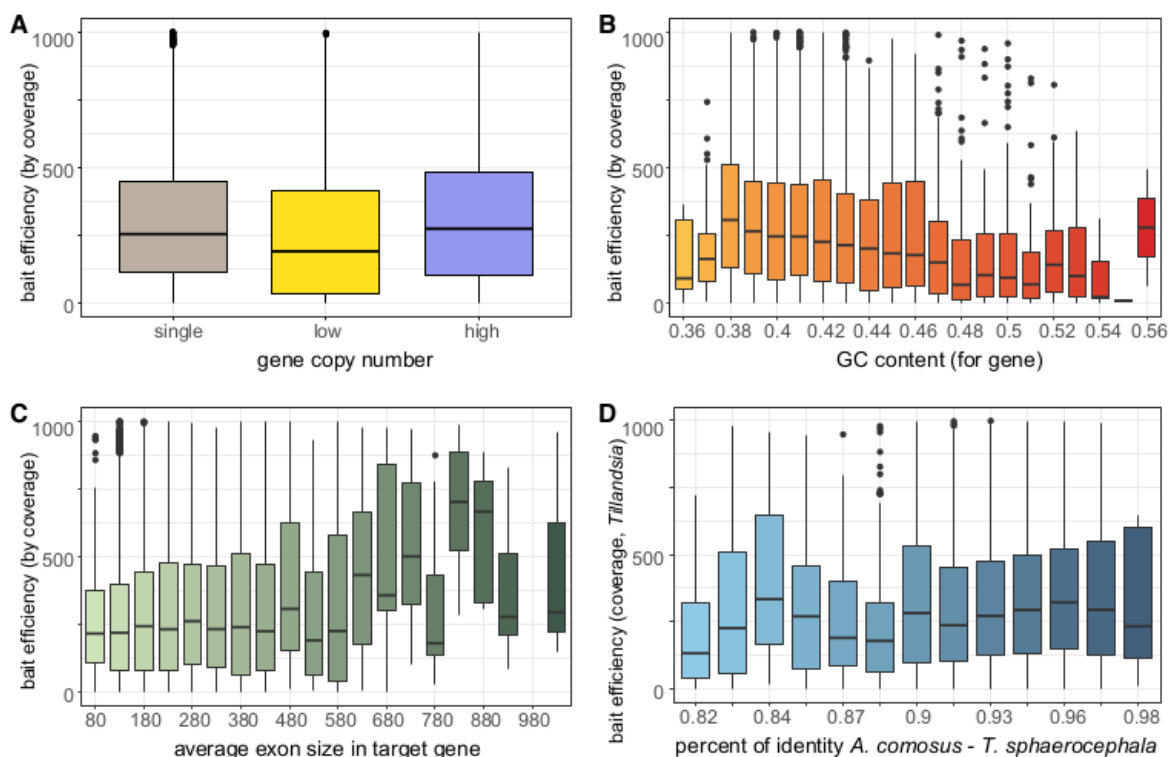
310 On average, 4,401,958 (803,464-12,693,516) paired-end reads per accession were gen-
311 erated per Angiosperms353 library and 2,962,023 (1,282,762-6,298,880) per Bromeliad1776
312 library. Overall, the mapping rates to the *A. comosus* reference genome were higher for li-
313 braries enriched with Bromeliad1776, with an average mapping rate of 82.3% (61.8%-95.9%)
314 and 42.8% (22.1%-77.9%), for Bromeliad1776 and Angiosperms353, respectively (Support-
315 ing information Figure S2, Supporting information Table S4). Higher mapping rates were
316 recorded for subfamilies Bromelioideae and Puyoideae, as compared to Tillandsioideae, for
317 both the Angiosperms353 and Bromeliad1776 sets (see Supporting information Figures S3
318 and S4, respectively). This may reflect the effect of reference bias, and in the case of
319 Bromeliad1776, it may be further amplified by our kit design based on *A. comosus* (subfam-
320 ily Bromelioideae). Bait specificity was high for Bromeliad1776 with on average 90.4% reads
321 on-target (76.5%-94.2%), while for Angiosperms353 bait specificity was 14.0% (4.6%-30.1%;
322 see Supporting information Figure S2). Mapping rates and bait specificity were positively
323 correlated for both bait sets (GLM, $P < 0.01$).

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324 **3.2 Bait efficiency depends on the genomic context**

325 We investigated factors that may influence bait efficiency, starting with the contribu-
326 tion of gene copy number variation. We assumed three categories regarding the number of
327 paralogs per orthogroup: single copy, low-copy (i.e., less than five copies) and high-copy (i.e.,
328 five or more copies). The number of gene copies had a significant effect on bait efficiency
329 and post-hoc Dunn's test supported significant differences in efficiency for comparisons be-
330 tween low-copy and high-copy, and between single-copy and low-copy ($P=2.8^{-44}$). Low-copy
331 genes exhibit the lowest enrichment success, suggesting that the bait efficiency is not simply
332 correlated to the number of gene copies (Figure 1). We also recovered a significant effect of
333 the intragenic GC content and GC content of the baits on bait efficiency (GLM, $P=1.5^{-68}$).
334 Finally, we investigated the possible link between efficiency and gene structure. Average
335 exon sizes ($P < 2.0^{-16}$) and total number of exons per gene ($P=1.1^{-89}$) were also positively
336 correlated with enrichment success. The size of the smallest exon for all targeted genes was
337 however not correlated with bait efficiency. Sequence similarity, measured as percent of iden-
338 tity between *Tillandsia* sequences and those of *A. comosus*, was positively correlated with
339 capture success ($P=4.8^{-13}$; Figure 1).

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340

341 **Figure 1** Effects of (A) putative gene copy number, (B) gene GC content, (C) average
342 exon size, and (D) percent of identity on bait efficiency in Bromeliad1776 bait set, measured
343 as the number of high-quality reads uniquely mapping to bait target region across samples.
344 Continuous variable was binned and y-values higher than 1,000 excluded for visualization in
345 B-D.

346 3.3 Both kits provided a large number of SNPs

347 After variant calling and filtering, we identified 47,390 and 209,186 high-quality SNPs
348 for the Angiosperms353 and the Bromeliad1776 bait sets, respectively. On average, miss-
349 ing data represented 23.7% of genotype calls per individual in Angiosperms353, but only
350 6.3% for the Bromeliad1776 kit. The differences in missingness are likely associated with
351 the higher mean depth per site across the Bromeliad1776 kit (6,602), as compared to An-

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352 giosperms353 (3,437). Focusing on the subgenus *Tillandsia*, we identified 15,622 SNPs for
353 Angiosperms353 (including a total of 18.9% missing data) compared to 65,473 polymorphic
354 sites (2.9% missing data) for Bromeliad1776. In both full data sets and the subset in-
355 cluding only *Tillandsia* samples, Bromeliad1776 recovered more variants in intronic regions
356 compared with Angiosperms353. Angiosperms353 recovered a large proportion of off-target
357 SNPs, whereas in Bromeliad1776 approximately 15% of the SNPs were recovered from flank-
358 ing regions (Table 1). We discuss ascertainment bias that may rise due to the non-random
359 selection of markers in Supplementary Information.

360 **3.4 Similar phylogenomic resolution in concatenation method, Bromeliad1776** 361 **outperforms Angiosperms353 for species tree reconstruction**

362 The Angiosperms353 and Bromeliad1776-based maximum-likelihood phylogenetic trees
363 recovered the same backbone phylogeny of Bromeliaceae, clustering subfamily Tillandsioideae
364 and the subgenus *Tillandsia* with high bootstrap values (Supporting information Figure S5).
365 Neither set obtained high support for inter-population structure for *Tillandsia gymnotrya*,
366 but highly-supported nodes separated *T. fasciculata* accessions from Mexico and from other
367 locations, and the populations of *T. punctulata* for the Bromeliad1776 data set were similarly
368 separated. The tree topologies were identical, with the notable exception of the placements
369 of *Tillandsia biflora* and *Racinaea ropalocarpa* and the genus *Deuterocohnia* (Supporting in-
370 formation Figure S5, purple arrow). Overall, internal nodes are strongly supported for both
371 sets, except for *Hechtia carlsoniae* as sister to Tillandsioideae, which is poorly supported for
372 both sets. While several internal nodes are slightly less supported for the Angiosperms353
373 set, overall these results demonstrate the efficacy of both kits in phylogenomic reconstruc-
374 tion using concatenation approaches, indicating that as few as 47k SNPs within variable
375 regions provide reliable information to resolve phylogenetic relationships within the recent
376 evolutionary radiation of *Tillandsia*.

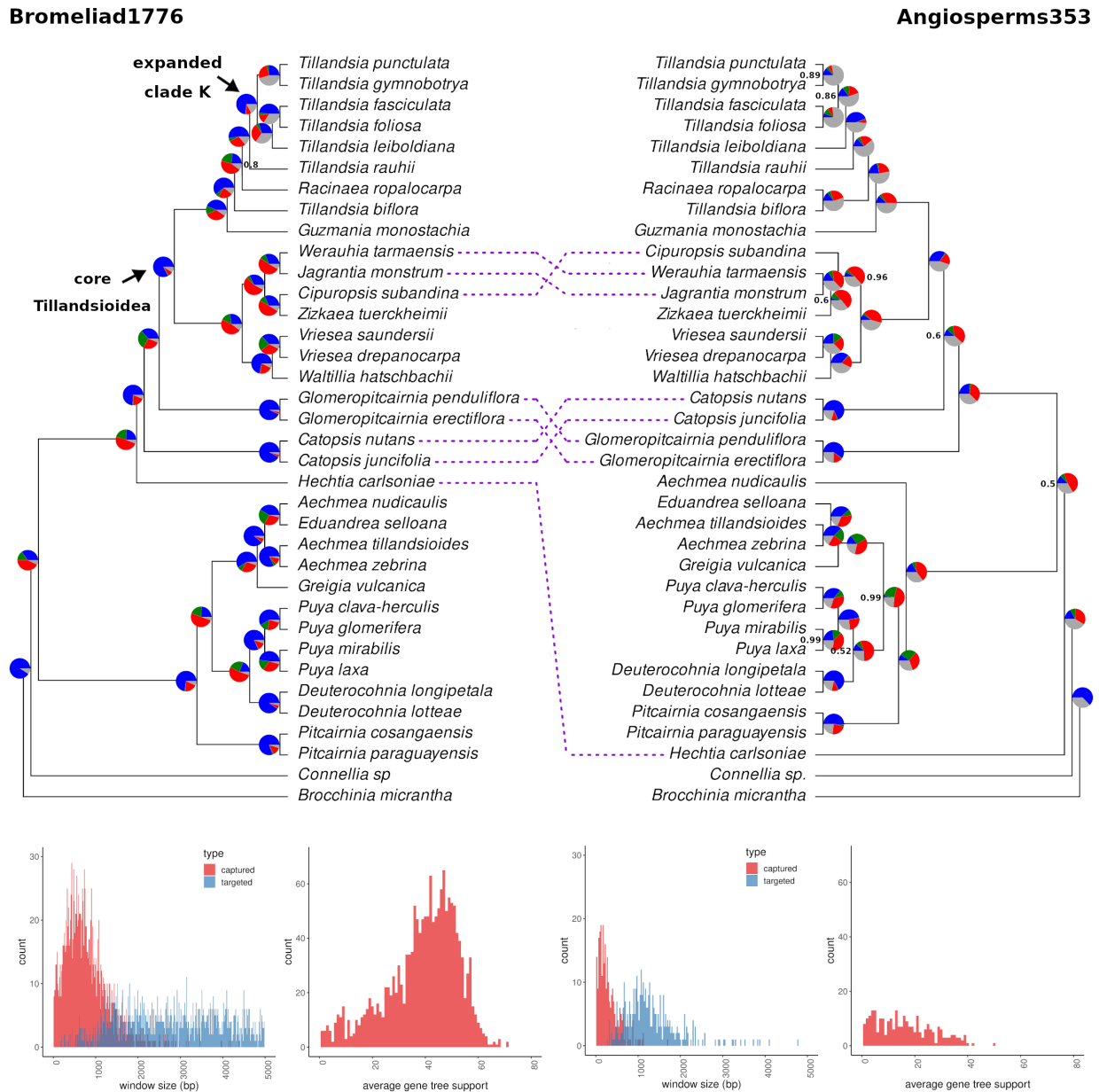
Bait capture taxon-specific vs. universal

377 Species trees as inferred with ASTRAL for both data sets likewise provided an overall
378 strong local posterior support (Figure 2, see also Supporting information). Several nodes
379 however exhibit lower local posterior support values for the Angiosperms353 tree than for
380 the Bromeliad1776 tree. The topology for the Bromeliad1776 ASTRAL tree was similar to
381 the ML tree, but differed again by placing *Deuterocohnia* as sister taxa to *Puyoideae* only.
382 In the Angiosperms353 tree, the topology differed from both ML trees and the ASTRAL
383 Bromeliad1776 tree in several nodes. *H. carlsoniae* was placed as a sister taxa to all other
384 subfamilies in the Angiosperm353 phylogeny. Notably, the placement of *Catopsis* and *Glom-*
385 *eropitcrania* differed, as well as the placement of *Cipurosis subandinai*, *T. biflora* and *R.*
386 *ropalocarpa*. Several internal nodes were poorly supported, such as the node separating the
387 tribe Catopsidae and core Tillandsioideae, and the nodes separating Tillandsioideae from all
388 other subfamilies. The differences in topology between the Angiosperms353 ASTRAL tree to
389 all other trees (ML trees and Bromeliad1776 ASTRAL tree) together with the low posterior
390 support suggest lower resolution power and a poor fit of this data set for resolving a species
391 tree.

392 The length and average size of the input gene trees different among sets, with average
393 window length of 304.6 bp and 819.9 bp and average gene tree support of 16.9 and 38.9 for
394 Angiosperms353 and Bromeliad1776 bait-sets, respectively (Figure 2). An examination of
395 gene tree concordance constructed with Bromeliad1776 data set allowed to identify variable
396 levels of gene tree conflict among nodes (Figure 2). Gene tree discordance was especially high
397 for the split between Tillandsioideae and other subfamilies, as well as for the split between
398 Puyoideae and taxa assigned to Bromelioideae. Furthermore, gene tree discordance and the
399 proportion of un-informative gene trees was especially high for splits among clades within the
400 K.1 and K.2 clades of subgenus *Tillandsia*. A similar analysis with Angiosperms353 yielded
401 evidence for gene tree discordance, but a considerable number of gene trees were reported
402 to be non-informative (grey part of the pie charts), especially within subgenus *Tillandsia*

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403 (Figure 2).



404

405 **Figure 2** Coalescent-based species trees generated ASTRAL-III for samples enriched with
 406 *Bromeliad1776* (left) and *Angiosperms353* (right, flipped for mirroring), on 269 and 1600
 407 genes for each set, respectively. Node values represent local posterior probabilities (pp) for the
 408 main topology and are equal to 1 unless noted otherwise. Pie charts at the nodes show levels

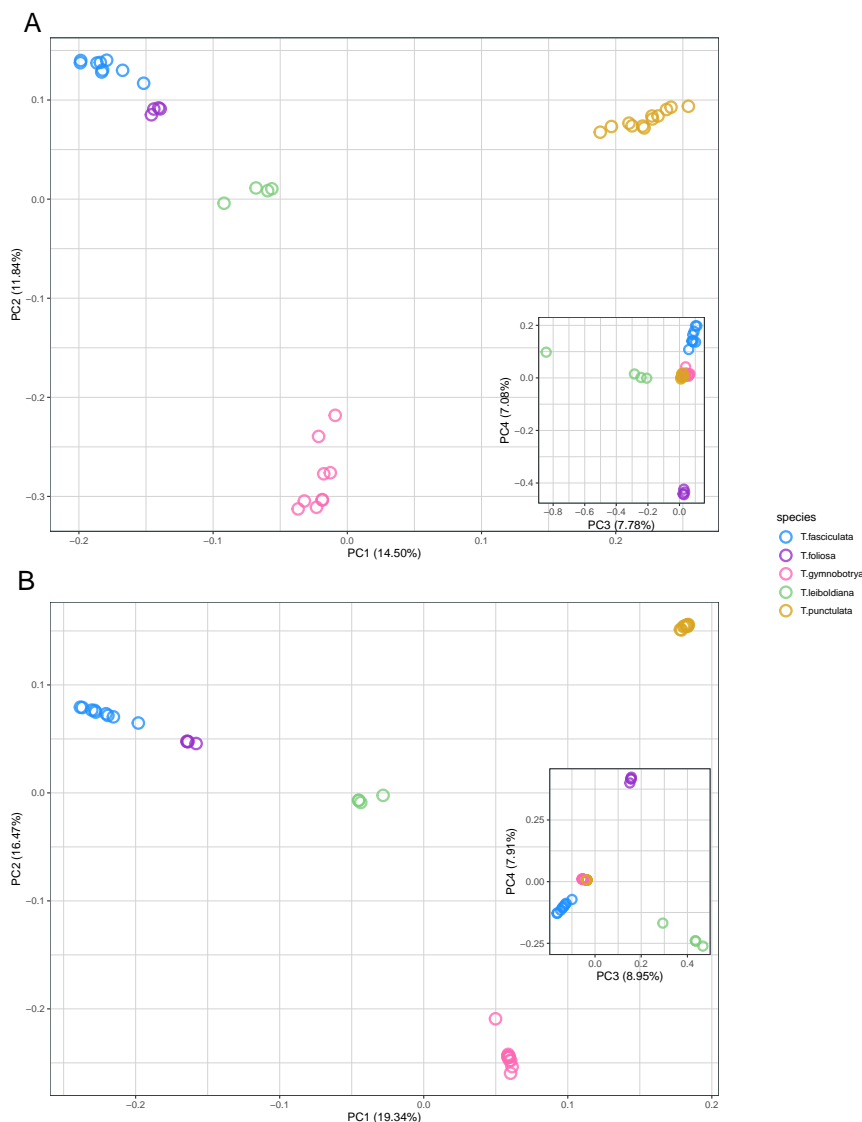
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409 of gene tree discordance: the percentages of concordant gene trees (blue), the top alternative
410 bipartition (green), other conflicting topologies (red) and uninformative gene trees (gray). At
411 bottom, length and average bootstrap support for gene trees from either data set, according to
412 the design of the bait set used for enrichment: Angiosperms353 (right) and Bromeliad1776
413 (left). Each gene was considered a single genomic window.

414 **3.5 Strong interspecific structure, but little evidence for within-species popula-**
415 **tion structure**

416 After LD-pruning and retaining maximum 10% missing data, 1,025 and 32,941 biallelic
417 SNPs were included for the *Tillandsia* PCA analysis of the Angiosperms353 and Bromeliad1776
418 data sets, respectively. Overall, both data sets provided evidence for interspecific structure,
419 but not for population structure, with Bromeliad1776 resulting in border-line higher res-
420 olution (slightly better separating *T. foliosa* from *T. fasciculata*). The percentage of ex-
421 plained variance was higher in the Bromeliad1776 set (19.3% and 16.5% for PC1 and PC2)
422 as compared to the Angiosperms353 data set (14.5% and 11.8%, see Figure 3, Supporting
423 information Figure S6). Based on these two PCAs, we found no evidence for spatial genetic
424 structure within each species, since accessions did not cluster by geographic origin on the two
425 PCs presented, or any other PCs we investigated (See Supporting information Figure S6).

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426

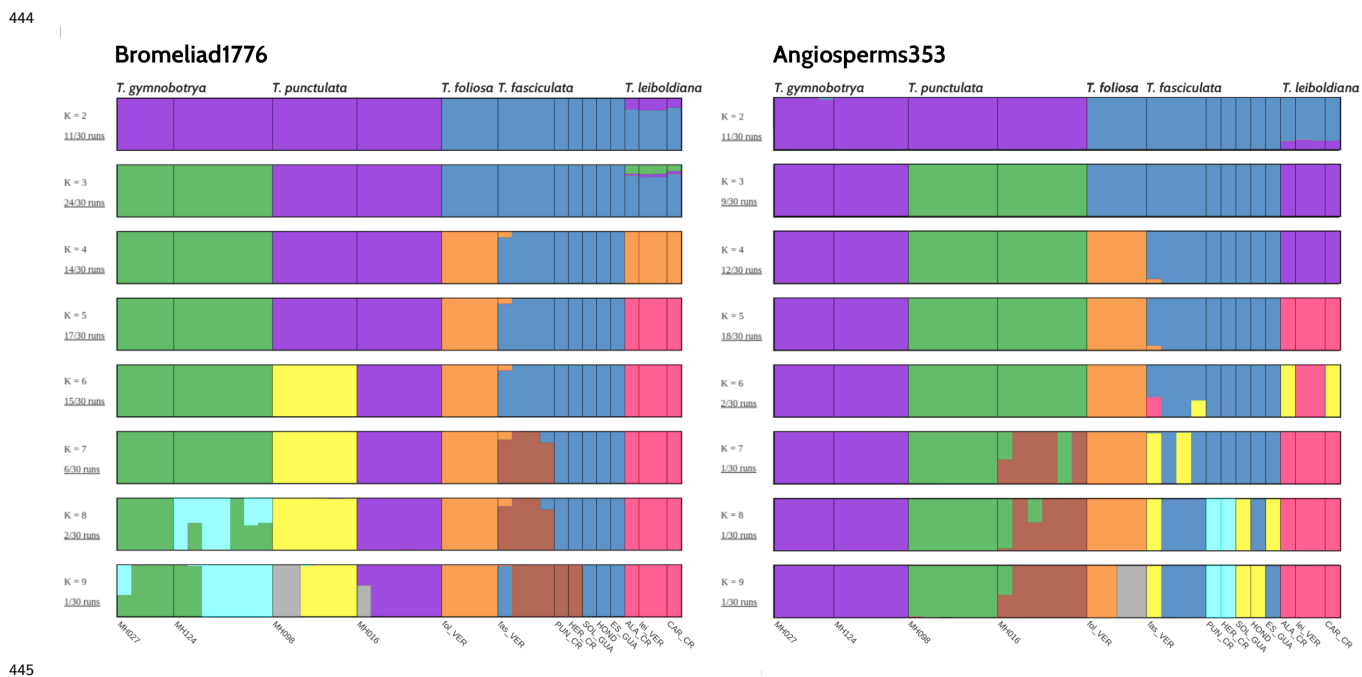
427 **Figure 3** *Principal Component Analysis (PCA) plot for samples of Tillandsia subgenus*
428 *Tillandsia* enriched with two bait sets: A. *Angiosperms353* (1,025 variants); B. *Bromeliad1776*
429 (32,941 variants). Colors indicate different species according to legend.

430

431 In addition to PCA, we performed ADMIXTURE analyses based on 9,804 and 42,613
432 variants for the Angiosperms353 and Bromeliad1776 sets, respectively (Figure 4). We used
433 a cross-validation strategy to identify the best K and found clear support for K=5 for the

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434 Bromeliad1776 set (Supporting information Figure S7). In contrast, the CV pattern for the
 435 Angiosperms353 set varied widely, providing limited information about the best K. Low-
 436 est CV values were however observed for K=9 with locally low values for K=5 and K=3
 437 (Supporting information Figure S7). We further investigated the ADMIXTURE bar plots at
 438 different values of K. For K=5, very similar patterns can be observed for both sets, with the
 439 recovered clusters reflecting the expected species boundaries. The main difference between
 440 the two data sets was the ability of the Bromeliad1776 set to reach a more consistent solution
 441 (“consensus”) among 30 runs, especially at large K, as compared to the runs based on the
 442 Angiosperms353 bait set. The Bromeliad1776 was also able to distinguish between different
 443 sampling localities of *T. punctulata* and of *T. fasciculata* at K=7-8 (Figure 4).



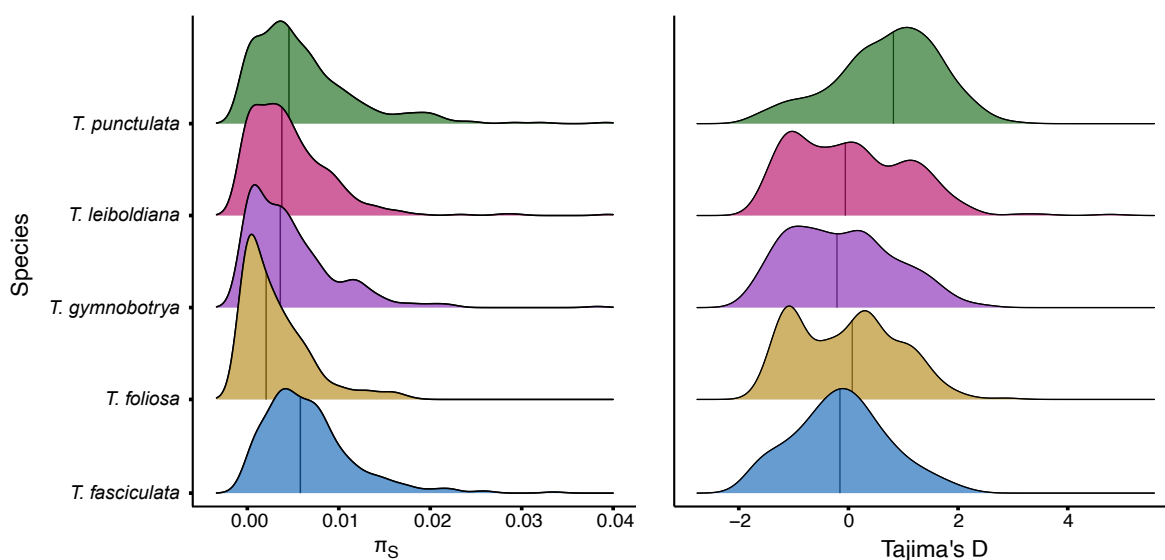
446 **Figure 4** Population structure of 5 *Tillandsia* subgenus *Tillandsia* species from 14 sampling
 447 locations inferred with the ADMIXTURE software. Samples were enriched with either of two
 448 bait sets: Angiosperms353 (9,804 variants after LD-pruning) and Bromeliad1776 (42,613
 449 variants after LD-pruning), showing values of K=2 to K=9. Colors represent genetically

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450 differentiated groups while each accession is represented by a vertical bar.

451 3.6 Distinct diversities hint at different demographic processes

452 Averaged levels of nucleotide diversity at synonymous sites π_S greatly varied among
453 species, from 4.1×10^{-3} to 8.1×10^{-3} for *T. foliosa* and *T. fasciculata*, respectively (Support-
454 ing information Table S5; Figure 5). Given the recent divergence of these different species
455 and their roughly similar life history traits, they are expected to share relatively similar mu-
456 tation rates, hence the observed differences in π_S are expected to translate into differences of
457 long-term N_e . Looking at the distribution of π_S across genes, we found broader or narrower
458 distributions depending on the species, which explains the observed differences in averaged
459 π_S , as typically represented by the median of the distribution (vertical bars, Figure 5). Most
460 species exhibit distributions of Tajima's D (Fig 5) that are centered around zero, with the
461 notable exception of *T. punctulata*. The distribution of this species is shifted toward positive
462 Tajima's D values, therefore indicating a recent population contraction, suggesting that this
463 species experienced a unique demographic trajectory as compared to the other species.



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465 **Figure 5** *Distribution of Tajima's D and synonymous (π_S) nucleotide diversity within each*
466 *species for the Bromeliad1776 kit.*

467 **4 Discussion**

468 **4.1 A taxon-specific bait set performs marginally better for phylogenomics**

469 In this study, we compared the information content and performance of a taxon-specific
470 bait set and a universal bait set for addressing questions on evolutionary processes at different
471 scales in a highly diverse Neotropical plant group, including recently radiated clades. We
472 found that the taxon-specific kit provided a greater number of segregating sites, yet contrary
473 to our expectations, the abundance of information content did directly translate to a greater
474 resolution power.

475 The universal and taxon-specific sets performed comparably when investigating macroevo-
476 lutionary patterns: the inferred species trees are remarkably consistent between the two bait
477 sets (Supporting information Figure S5, Figure 2). Notably, both sets were sufficiently in-
478 formative to reconstruct the relationships among the fastest radiating clades. These results
479 resonate with previous comparative works (e.g. in *Burmeistera*, Bagley et al., 2020; in *Bud-*
480 *dleja*, Chau, Rahfeldt, & Olmstead, 2018; and in *Cyperus*, Larridon et al., 2020), where
481 taxon-specific markers provided higher gene assembly success, but a comparable number of
482 segregating sites for phylogenetic inference, indicating that universal bait sets are nearly as
483 effective as taxon-specific bait sets, even in fast evolving taxa. The main advantage of the
484 bromeliad taxon-specific set is its ability to provide additional resolution for deeper exami-
485 nation of gene tree incongruence (Figure 2), currently a fundamental tool in phylogenomic
486 research (Edwards, 2009; Morales-Briones et al., 2020; Pease et al., 2016).

487 The taxon-specific bait set performed marginally better to address hypotheses at more
488 recent evolutionary scales and provided arguably clearer evidence for inference of species

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489 genomic structure using clustering methods. In fact, genetic markers obtained from both
490 data sets provided sufficient information to infer species but no geographic structure, sug-
491 gesting that *Tillandsia* could be characterized by high gene dispersal among populations.
492 Considering that the Angiosperms353 kit has shown potential to provide within-species sig-
493 nal, as recently demonstrated by Beck et al. (2021) on *Solidago ulmifolia*, and to estimate
494 demographic parameters from herbarium specimen (Slimp et al., 2020), we would expect the
495 taxon-specific set to accurately reveal a geographical genetic structure. However, the present
496 study is generally based on small sample sizes per species (n=4-8), mostly sampled within
497 a limited geographic range, limiting our ability to draw robust conclusions on the levels of
498 intra-specific population structure.

499 The Bromeliad1776 kit provided a substantially larger number of segregating sites
500 (more than 200k vs. 47k in Angiosperms353; Table 1, Supporting information Figure S2)
501 due to higher enrichment success, following the expectation for higher sequence variation in
502 custom-made loci (Figure 1, see also Bragg et al., 2016; de La Harpe et al., 2019; Kadlec et
503 al., 2017). We accordingly found that rates of molecular divergence are distinctly correlated
504 with enrichment success in our sampling (Figure 1), following the expectation that a universal
505 kit will provide fewer segregating sites.

506 However, the difference in resolution power between the kits cannot be ascribed solely
507 to the different numbers of SNPs, but rather to the length and variability of the obtained
508 regions. The topology obtained with the Angiosperm353 data set under the multi-species
509 coalescent model was substantially different from all other inferred trees and the input gene
510 trees provided a low power to detect patterns of gene tree discordance (Figure 2). We addi-
511 tionally observed that the highly conserved regions targeted by Angiosperms353 are shorter
512 in comparison to Bromeliad1776 targets and thus result in shorter input windows for species
513 tree inference (Figure 2). Hence, the patterns of gene tree discordance in the Angiosperms353
514 data set likely indicate incorrect gene tree estimation or other model misspecifications, rather

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515 than a biological signal. Specifically, coalescence-based methods are sensitive to gene tree
516 estimation error (Zhang et al., 2018) and perform better with gene trees estimated from
517 unlinked loci long enough and variable enough to render sufficient signal per gene tree - this
518 is especially true for data sets with many taxa. The high rates of uninformative genes trees,
519 found in almost half of the intergenic nodes in the Angiosperms353 data set, is expected with
520 increased levels of gene tree error which in turn reduce the accuracy of ASTRAL (Mirarab,
521 2019; Sayyari & Mirarab, 2016). In contrast, the Bromeliad1776 ASTRAL tree (Figure 2,
522 left) resolved phylogenetic relationships among taxa with high posterior probability and a
523 topology similar to the ML tree. Gene tree discordance analysis revealed high incongruence
524 around certain nodes, possibly reflecting rapid speciation events.

525 Since inference of phylogenetic relationships under the multi-species coalescent and
526 exploration of gene tree discordance are both pivotal to phylogenomic research (Degnan &
527 Rosenberg, 2009; Edwards et al., 2016; Pease et al., 2016), a taxon-specific kit provides a
528 clear advantage especially in recent rapid radiations, where gene tree conflict and incomplete
529 lineage sorting are expected to be prevalent (Dornburg, Su, & Townsend, 2019; Kubatko &
530 Degnan, 2007; Roch & Warnow, 2015). In that regard, inference of the species tree with the
531 Bromeliad1776 is a tool to drive further hypotheses concerning evolutionary and demographic
532 processes in the evolution of *Tillandsia*. Moreover, the features of the loci targeted provide
533 an important opportunity to study selection (see section 4.3).

534 **4.2 Insights on Bromeliaceae phylogeny and demographic processes in *Tilland-*** 535 ***sia***

536 Both bait sets resolved the phylogeny of Bromeliaceae, including the fastest evolving
537 lineages of the subfamily Tillandsioideae. The results generally agreed to previous findings
538 of the relationships among taxa (Givnish et al., 2011, 2014). Several findings which contrast
539 with the expected known phylogeny may point at a complexity of genomic processes in the

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540 evolutionary history of Bromeliaceae subfamilies. Both the ML tree and species tree did not
541 support a monophyly of the subfamily Pitcairnioideae, which was represented by four samples
542 and two genera in our phylogeny: *Deuterochonia* and *Pitcarnia*. Rather, the genus *Deute-*
543 *rochonia* was sister to subfamily Puyoideae or sister to both Puyoideae and Bromelioideae
544 subfamilies. These findings contrast results of Barfuss et al. (2016) and Granados Mendoza
545 et al. (2017). Interestingly, in a visualization of gene tree discordance we found high levels
546 of incongruence and a high percentage of trees supporting an alternative topology in the
547 node splitting the genera, indicating that several genomic processes such as hybridization
548 and incomplete lineage sorting may have accompanied divergence in this group, contribut-
549 ing to the phylogenetic conflict and extending the challenges in resolving these evolutionary
550 relationships. Within the core Tillandsioideae, the tribes Tillandsieae and Vrieseae were
551 found to be monophyletic, in accordance with previous work on the subfamily (Barfuss et
552 al., 2016). Finally, within our focal group *Tillandsia* subgenus *Tillandsia*, clade K as sug-
553 gested by Barfuss et al. (2016) and clades K.1 and K.2 as proposed by Granados Mendoza et
554 al. (2017) were all well supported, further in agreement with their interpretation of Mexico
555 and Central America as a center of diversity for subgenus *Tillandsia*. Within *Tillandsia*,
556 incongruence was prominent at the recent splits within clade K.1. and clade K.2 as expected
557 in a recent rapid radiation, a result of high levels of incomplete lineage sorting, hybridization
558 and introgression (Berner & Salzburger, 2015).

559 When applied to methods in population genetics, we obtained some evidence for a
560 difference in demographic processes and in the level of genetic variation among species. This
561 was especially true for the taxon-specific bait set: for example, the bait set differentiated
562 between populations of *T. punctulata* and *T. fasciculata*, but not *T. gymnotrya* in a max-
563 imum likelihood tree and ancestry analysis (Supporting information Figure S5, Figure 4),
564 indicating differences in inter-population genetic structure among species. The evidence for
565 different demographic processes in these species extended to estimates of Tajima's D, where

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566 lower values may indicate a recent bottleneck. In addition, we found a unique distribution of
567 nucleotide diversity for *T. foliosa*, possibly reflecting a low effective population size for this
568 endemic species in contrast with the closely related, but widespread *T. fasciculata*. In all
569 cases, our limited sampling given the large size of the family constrains our ability to draw
570 conclusions of a 'true' phylogeny and to account for population structure. Our finding how-
571 ever suggests that nuclear markers obtained with a target capture technique can highlight
572 genomic processes and be further applied to address questions in population genomics with
573 a wider sampling scheme.

574 **4.3 Future prospects and implications for research in Bromeliaceae and other** 575 **rapid radiations**

576 Beyond the scope of this study, the availability of a bait set kit for Bromeliaceae
577 provides a prime genetic resource for investigating several topical research questions on the
578 origin and maintenance of Bromeliaceae diversity. Manyfold studies of bromeliad phyloge-
579 nomics set force the challenges of resolving species-level phylogenies with a small number of
580 markers, particularly in young and speciose groups (Goetze, Zanella, Palma-Silva, Büttow,
581 & Bered, 2017; Granados Mendoza et al., 2017; Loiseau et al., 2021; Versieux et al., 2012).
582 This particularly curated bait set allows highly efficient sequencing across taxa: within our
583 study, we found high mapping success with 82.3% average read mapping. As expected, we
584 documented a difference in enrichment success among taxa, explained by divergence time to
585 the reference used for bait design (see Supporting information Figure S4), suggesting possible
586 deviations from the assumptions of non-randomly distributed missing data that may mislead
587 phylogenetic inference (A. R. Lemmon, Brown, Stanger-Hall, & Lemmon, 2009; Streicher,
588 Schulte, & Wiens, 2016; Xi, Liu, & Davis, 2016). However, given the large enrichment suc-
589 cess, downstream analysis with deliberate methodology can account for possible biases and
590 provide robust inference with strict data filtering (Molloy & Warnow, 2018; Streicher et al.,

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2016). Hence, target enrichment with Bromeliad1776 can produce large data sets with consistent representation between taxa, allowing repeatability between studies and retaining the possibility for global synthesis by including sequence baits orthologous to the universal Angiosperms353 bait set. Moreover, with specific knowledge of the loci targeted in this set, the ability to obtain the same sequences across taxa and experiments and to differentiate genic regions with the use of *A. comosus* models, this bait set offers a broad utility for research in population genomics.

Another important feature in the Bromeliad1776 set is the inclusion of genes putatively associated with key innovative traits in Bromeliaceae with a focus on C3/CAM shifts. Little is known about the molecular basis of the CAM pathway, an adaptation to arid environments which evolved independently and repeatedly in over 36 plant families (Heyduk, Moreno-Villena, Gilman, Christin, & Edwards, 2019; Chen, Xin, Wai, Liu, & Ming, 2020; Silvera et al., 2010). CAM phenotypes are considered key adaptations in Bromeliaceae, associated with expansion into novel ecological niches. In *Tillandsia*, C3/CAM shifts were found to be particularly associated with increased rates of diversification (Crayn et al., 2004; de La Harpe et al., 2020; Givnish et al., 2014). The Bromeliad1776 bait set offers opportunities to address specific questions on the relationship between rapid diversification and photosynthetic syndromes in this clade, including testing for gene sequence evolution. Additionally, the inclusion of multi-copy genes, combined with newly developed pipelines for studying gene duplication and ploidy (Morales-Briones et al., 2020; Viruel et al., 2019), are beneficial for studying the role of gene duplication and loss in driving diversification. With the increasing ubiquity of target baits as a genomic tool we expect to see additional pipelines and applications emerging, further expanding the utility of target capture for both macro- and microevolutionary research.

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615 **5 Conclusions**

616 Even as whole genome sequencing becomes increasingly economically feasible, tar-
617 get capture is expected to remain popular due to its extensive applications in research. We
618 found that evaluating the differences in resolution power between universal and taxon-specific
619 bait sets is far from a trivial task, and we attempted to lay out a methodological roadmap
620 for researchers wishing to reconstruct the complex evolutionary history of rapidly diversify-
621 ing lineages. While a taxon-specific set offers exciting opportunities beyond phylogenomic
622 and into research of molecular evolution, its development is highly time-consuming, requires
623 community-based knowledge and may cost months of work when compared with out-of-the-
624 box universal kits. Our results suggest that universal kits can continue to be employed when
625 aiming to reconstruct phylogenies, in particular as this may offer the possibility to use pre-
626 viously published data to generate larger data sets. However, for those wishing to deeply
627 investigate evolutionary questions in certain lineages, a taxon-specific kit offers certain ben-
628 efits during data processing stages, where knowledge of the design scheme and gene models
629 is extremely useful, and the possible return of costs is especially high for taxa emerging as
630 model groups. We furthermore encourage groups designing taxon-specific kits to include also
631 universal probes, furthering the mission to complete the tree of life.

632 **6 Acknowledgments**

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639 **7 Author Contribution**

640 CL, MP and GY conceived the study. CL provided funding. TK coordinated sample
641 collection, MdLH, VGJ and GY collected data. Species identification was performed by
642 MHJB and WT. Targets were selected by GY, with guidance from JH and MP. Molecular
643 work was performed by CGC, JV, NR, MHJB. The data was analyzed by GY and TL with
644 feedback by JV and OP. The manuscript was written by GY with significant input from all
645 co-authors. TL and OP should be considered joint senior author.

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1059 **8 Data Accessibility**

1060 NCBI

1061 **Table 1** Number and characteristics of the variants obtained for Angiosperms353 and
1062 Bromeliad1776.

1063

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	indv Nr.	SNP Nr.	site mean depth	SNPs in exonic regions	SNPs in intronic regions	SNPs in intergenic regions	on-target SNPs	flanking SNPs	off-target SNPs
intragenic vcf									
Angiosperm353	70	47,390	3447	40,628 (85.7%)	4,376 (9.2%)	2,386 (5.1%)	8,424 (17.8%)	3,488 (7.4%)	35,478 (74.8%)
Bromeliad1776	72	209,186	6601.7	170,893 (81.7%)	35,790 (17.1%)	2,503 (1.2%)	162,924 (77.9%)	37,661 (18.0%)	8,601 (4.11%)
pop-level vcf									
Angiosperm353	38	15,622	1,837.8	13,345 (85.5%)	1,442 (9.2%)	835 (5.3%)	3,032 (19.4%)	1,129 (7.22%)	11,461 (73.4%)
Bromeliad1776	40	65,473	3914.9	54,636 (83.5%)	9,967 (15.2%)	870 (1.3%)	51,405 (78.5%)	10,588 (16.2%)	3,480 (5.3%)

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1064 **9 Supporting information**

1065 **9.1 Tables**

1066 **Table S1** Genes included in the Bromeliad1776 bait design, with identifiers as annotated
1067 in *Ananas comosus* genome v.3 (Ming et al., 2015). The table includes details about exon
1068 composition, copy number and putatively associated pathways.

1069 **Table S2** Categories of pathways and traits used to choose genes of interest for the Bromeliad1776
1070 bait set, including literature source and number of genes in each category.

1071 **Table S3** List of accessions used in this study. For samples of *Tillandsia* subgenus *Tilland-*
1072 *sia* locality codes are also indicated.

1073 **Table S4** Number of reads, numbers and percentage of read mapping to target in all
1074 samples for both bait sets.

1075 **Table S5** Averaged levels of nucleotide diversity at synonymous (π_S) and non-synonymous
1076 (π_N) for 5 *Tillandsia* subgenus *Tillandsia* species.