RESEARCH



Thirteen complete chloroplast genomes of the costaceae family: insights into genome structure, selective pressure and phylogenetic relationships

Dong-Mei Li^{1*}, Yan-Gu Pan¹, Hai-Lin Liu¹, Bo Yu¹, Dan Huang¹ and Gen-Fa Zhu^{1*}

Abstract

Background Costaceae, commonly known as the spiral ginger family, consists of approximately 120 species distributed in the tropical regions of South America, Africa, and Southeast Asia, of which some species have important ornamental, medicinal and ecological values. Previous studies on the phylogenetic and taxonomic of Costaceae by using nuclear internal transcribed spacer (*ITS*) and chloroplast genome fragments data had low resolutions. Additionally, the structures, variations and molecular evolution of complete chloroplast genomes in Costaceae still remain unclear. Herein, a total of 13 complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae including 8 newly sequenced and 5 from the NCBI GenBank database, representing all three distribution regions of this family, were comprehensively analyzed for comparative genomics and phylogenetic relationships.

Result The 13 complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae possessed typical quadripartite structures with lengths from 166,360 to 168,966 bp, comprising a large single copy (LSC, 90,802 – 92,189 bp), a small single copy (SSC, 18,363 – 20,124 bp) and a pair of inverted repeats (IRs, 27,982 – 29,203 bp). These genomes coded 111 – 113 different genes, including 79 protein-coding genes, 4 rRNA genes and 28 – 30 tRNAs genes. The gene orders, gene contents, amino acid frequencies and codon usage within Costaceae were highly conservative, but several variations in intron loss, long repeats, simple sequence repeats (SSRs) and gene expansion on the IR/SC boundaries were also found among these 13 genomes. Comparative genomics within Costaceae identified five highly divergent regions including *ndhF*, *ycf1-D2*, *ccsA-ndhD*, *rps15-ycf1-D2* + *rpl16-exon2-rpl16-exon1*. Five combined DNA regions (*ycf1-D2* + *ndhF*, *ccsA-ndhD* + *rps15-ycf1-D2*, *rps15-ycf1-D2* + *rpl16-exon2-rpl16-exon1*, *ccsA-ndhD* + *rpl16-exon2-rpl16-exon1*, and *ccsA-ndhD* + *rps15-ycf1-D2* + *rpl16-exon2-rpl16-exon1*) could be used as potential markers for future phylogenetic analyses and species identification in Costaceae. Positive selection was found in eight protein-coding genes, including *cemA*, *clpP*, *ndhA*, *ndhF*, *petB*, *psbD*, *rps12* and *ycf1*. Maximum likelihood and Bayesian phylogenetic trees using chloroplast genome sequences consistently revealed identical tree topologies with high supports between species of Costaceae.

*Correspondence: Dong-Mei Li biology.li2008@163.com Gen-Fa Zhu genfazhu@163.com

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



© The Author(s) 2024. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/) applies to the data made available in this article, unless otherwise stated in a credit line to the data.

Three clades were divided within Costaceae, including the Asian clade, *Costus* clade and South American clade. *Tapeinochilos* was a sister of *Hellenia*, and *Parahellenia* was a sister to the cluster of *Tapeinochilos* + *Hellenia* with strong support in the Asian clade. The results of molecular dating showed that the crown age of Costaceae was about 30.5 Mya (95% HPD: 14.9 – 49.3 Mya), and then started to diverge into the *Costus* clade and Asian clade around 23.8 Mya (95% HPD: 10.1 – 41.5 Mya). The Asian clade diverged into *Hellenia* and *Parahellenia* at approximately 10.7 Mya (95% HPD: 3.5 – 25.1 Mya).

Conclusion The complete chloroplast genomes can resolve the phylogenetic relationships of Costaceae and provide new insights into genome structures, variations and evolution. The identified DNA divergent regions would be useful for species identification and phylogenetic inference in Costaceae.

Keywords Costaceae, Chloroplast genome, Comparative genomics, Genome evolution, Phylogenetic relationships, Divergence time

Background

Costaceae Nakai, commonly known as the spiral ginger family, comprises more than 120 species that are primarily native to the tropical regions of South America, Africa, and Southeast Asia [1-6]. It is one of the most easily recognizable family within the order Zingiberales by its well-developed and sometimes branched aerial shoots that have a characteristic spiral phyllotaxy and petaloid labellum formed by fusion of five sterile staminodes [1-6]. Some species of Costaceae can be used as garden ornamental plants and cut flowers [4, 7-8], some of them, such as Costus speciosus, can be used as medicinal plants for the treatment of inflammation, rheumatism, bronchitis, fever, headache, asthma, flatulence, constipation, helminthiasis, leprosy, skin diseases, hiccough, anemia, anticancer, as well as burning sensation on urination [4, 8–12], and some Neotropical Costus species can be used an ecological model to understand the mechanisms of biogeographic origins, floral evolution and Neotropical diversity [13–15].

Previous phylogenetic analyses of family Costaceae based on molecular (ITS, trnL-F and trnK including the matK coding region) and morphological data revealed three major clades with discrete biogeographic distribution: a South American clade, an Asian clade and an African-neotropical Costus clade (Costus clade) [2, 5, 16]. The South American clade comprised three genera Chamaecostus, Dimerocostus and Monocostus, the Asian clade included three genera Cheilocostus, Paracostus and Tapeinochilos, and the Costus clade consisted of New World Costus, African melittophilous Costus, and African Costus grade [2, 5, 16]. Cheilocostus was established to classify the Southeast Asian and Malesian species of the broadly defined genus Costus [5]. Four species, C. speciosus (= Cheilocostus speciosus), C. lacerus (= Cheilocostus lacerus), C. globosus (\equiv Cheilocostus globosus), and C. sopuenisis (= Cheilocostus sopuenisis) were transferred to *Cheilocostus* in that study [5]. Although the genus Cheilocostus was native to South East Asia [5], its name and genetic status were disputed [5, 17–19]. Govaers [17]

had proposed that Cheilocostus was an illegitimate superfluous name for Hellenia, and Hellenia should be taken up for this genus. This arrangement was met with some approvals [18, 19]. Recently, a phylogenetic tree based on an enlarged taxon sampling of the Asian clade has confirmed the paraphyly of Hellenia by using two chloroplast markers data (*trnK* intron and *trnL-F* spacer) [20]. Morphological analyses have suggested that members of the Parahellenia subclade differ from the Hellenia species in many characteristics [20]. Based on molecular and morphological evidence, the Parahellenia subclade has been recognized as a new genus [20]. However, all these phylogenetic trees of Costaceae encompassed multiple poor-resolution branches [2, 5, 16, 20]. In addition, the molecular evolution of complete chloroplast genomes from Costaceae containing species from the South American clade, Asian clade and Costus clade, remains poorly understood [2, 5, 13–15, 20]. Therefore, it is worthwhile to investigate phylogenetic relationships and molecular evolution of Costaceae which covers its three distributions sampling.

Chloroplasts are critical and dynamic organelles in plant cells for converting solar energy to carbohydrates through the process of photosynthesis and oxygen release [21, 22]. Chloroplast has its independent genome (chloroplast genome) in plant cells with a circular doublestranded DNA molecule, typically comprising a large single copy region (LSC), a small single copy region (SSC), and two copies of inverted repeats (IRa and IRb) [21, 22]. Compared with nuclear genomes, the chloroplast genomes are smaller in length, with less recombination and lower rates of nucleotide substitutions. Hence they have been widely utilized for studies on reconstructing phylogenetic relationships and molecular evolution from algae to higher plants [23-36]. With the rapid development of high-throughput sequencing technologies, it is now more accurate and more convenient to obtain complete chloroplast genomes. In recent years, although some chloroplast genome sequences of Costaceae have been reported [15, 20, 37], these genome sequences of most species studied were incomplete without comprehensive chloroplast genome analyses for Costaceae. Currently, the complete chloroplast genomes of the genus *Monocostus* in the South American clade are rare and much less than the Asian clade and *Costus* clade.

In this study, we newly sequenced, assembled and annotated complete chloroplast genomes of eight species of Costaceae (Costus barbatus, C. beckii, C. dubius, C. woodsonii, C. speciosus Guangdong, C. speciosus var. marginatus, C. tonkinensis Yunnan and Monocostus uniflorus) coming from the Costus clade, Asian clade and South American clade, respectively, and then performed comparative genomics and phylogenomics analyses by integrating five published complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae from National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI). Our main aims were: (1) to characterize and to investigate these complete chloroplast genome structures and variations in Costaceae; (2) to detect variations of long repeats, simple sequence repeats (SSRs), and codon usage patterns of these chloroplast genomes in Costaceae; (3) to identify highly variable regions for potential DNA markers developing and to understand molecular evolution of chloroplast genomes in Costaceae; and (4) to reconstruct phylogeny and to assess the divergence time of Costaceae, especially, Hellenia and Parahellenia in the Asian clade.

Results

General characteristics of thirteen chloroplast genomes

In this study, a total of 13 complete chloroplast genomes of 10 species covering three clades in Costaceae were analyzed, including 8 newly sequenced genomes and 5 published ones (Table 1). The 8 sequenced samples produced 5.97 to 12.47 Gb clean reads each after removal of adapters and low-quality reads (Table S1). The 8 complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae generated in this study were deposited in the GenBank with accession numbers OP712648 to OP712655 (Table 1). All 13 chloroplast genomes exhibited a typical quadripartite structure containing a pair of inverted repeat (IR) regions (27,982-29,203 bp), an LSC region (90,802-92,189 bp) and an SSC region (18,363-20,124 bp) (Fig. 1; Table 1). The full-length variation of Costaceae was about 2.6 kb (genome size: 166,360-168,966 bp). The overall guanine-cytosine (GC) content varied slightly, from 36.16 to 36.55% (Table 1). The IR regions accounted for the highest GC content, followed by the LSC region, while the SSC region had the lowest GC content (Table 1). The GC content of the protein-coding gene sequences ranged from 37.57 to 37.76% (Table 1).

Herein,134–135 genes were annotated in these 13 genomes of Costaceae, consisting of 88 protein-coding genes, 8 ribosomal RNA genes (rRNAs) and 38–39 transfer RNA genes (tRNAs) (Table 1, Table S2). After annotation and manual checking, individual chloroplast genome resulted in 111–113 different genes, comprising 79 different protein-coding genes, 28–30 different tRNAs and 4 different rRNAs (Fig. 1; Tables 1 and 2, Table S2). Among all 13 genomes, the numbers of different protein-coding genes and different rRNAs were the same, but slight differences were found in tRNAs (Table 2, Table S2).

Among these 111–113 different genes, 21 genes were duplicated within IR regions, including 9 protein-coding genes, 8 tRNAs, and 4 rRNAs (Fig. 1; Table 2, Table S2). Sixteen genes contained one intron, while *clpP* and *ycf3* each contained two introns in 12 chloroplast genomes except in genome of *C. beckii* (Table 2, Table S2). The genome of *C. beckii*, only contained 17 intron-containing genes, because *trnG-UCC* has lost the intron (Table 2, Table S2).

Long repeats and SSRs analyses

Four types of long repeats, including forward, complement, reverse and palindromic repeats, were detected in 13 complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae. Among these 13 genomes, H. lacera ON598391 contained the highest number of long repeats (254), and C. tonkinensis Yunnan OP712650 contained the lowest number of long repeats (119) (Fig. 2A, Table S3). The number of forward repeats varied from 46 (C. tonkinensis Yunnan OP712650) to 108 (C. viridis MK262733), the number of palindromic repeats varied from 32 (C. tonkinensis Yunnan OP712650) to 69 (H. lacera ON598391), the number of reverse repeats varied from 23 (C. tonkinensis ON598393) to 70 (C. woodsonii OP712654), and the number of complement repeats varied from 4 (C. tonkinensis ON598393) to 27 (H. lacera ON598391) (Fig. 2A, Table S3). The lengths of the long repeats varied among the 13 genomes, of which most were found to exist with the range of 30-34 bp (Fig. 2B, Table S3). Long repeats with lengths of 35–39 bp and 40–44 bp were the second and third most common, respectively (Fig. 2B, Table S3).

Simple sequence repeats (SSRs) in these 13 complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae were also detected (Fig. 3, Table S4). The number of SSRs detected among these 13 genomes ranged from 81 (*C. tonkinensis* ON598393) to 107 (*C. viridis* MK262733) (Fig. 3A, Table S4). Among these SSRs, only 2 chloroplast genomes (*C. tonkinensis* Yunnan OP712650 and *C. tonkinensis* ON598393) had no hexanucleotide repeats (Fig. 3A, Table S4). A/T (39.40%) were the most frequently observed repeats, followed by AT/AT (27.34%), AAAT/ATTT (9.87%) and AAT/ATT (7.77%), respectively (Fig. 3B, Table S4). Among the SSRs in these 13 genomes, each genome contained 55 to 75 SSRs in the LSC regions, 16 to 26 SSRs in the SSC regions, and 3 to 5 SSRs in the

Table 1 Basic characterist	tics of thirteen	complete ci	hloroplas	t genome	es of the C	Costacea	e family								
Species	GenBank	Size (bp)	LSC	SSC	R	GC conte	ent (%)				Number	Number of	Number of	Number of	Genes
	accession		(dq)	(dq)	(dq)	Total	LSC	SSC	R	CDS	of genes (different)	CDS (different)	tRNA (different)	rRNA (different)	with introns
C. barbatus	OP712648	168,717	91,971	18,414	29,166	36.29	34.11	29.62	41.82	37.57	134 (111)	88 (79)	38 (28)	8 (4)	18
C. speciosus Guangdong	OP712649	167,174	91,239	19,971	27,982	36.33	34.28	29.15	42.23/ 42.24	37.61	134 (112)	88 (79)	38 (29)	8 (4)	18
C. tonkinensis Yunnan	OP712650	166,360	90,802	19,524	28,017	36.55	34.51	29.69	42.24/ 42.25	37.68	134 (112)	88 (79)	38 (29)	8 (4)	18
C. dubius	OP712651	168,573	91,938	18,363	29,136	36.30	34.13	29.63	41.83	37.58	134 (111)	88 (79)	38 (28)	8 (4)	18
C. speciosus var. marginatus	OP712652	167,185	91,236	19,953	27,998	36.33	34.28	29.17	42.22	37.63	134 (112)	88 (79)	38 (29)	8 (4)	18
C. beckii	OP712653	168,719	91,983	18,404	29,166	36.29	34.12	29.64	41.82	37.58	135 (111)	88 (79)	39 (28)	8 (4)	17
C. woodsonii	OP712654	168,551	91,861	18,420	29,135	36.30	34.15	29.55	41.83	37.58	134 (111)	88 (79)	38 (28)	8 (4)	18
M. uniflorus	OP712655	168,484	91,271	18,807	29,203	36.31	34.27	29.07	41.82/ 41.83	37.61	134 (112)	88 (79)	38 (29)	8 (4)	18
<i>H. speciosa</i> Guizhou	OK641589	167,158	91,239	19,955	27,982	36.33	34.28	29.17	42.23/ 42.24	37.60	134 (113)	88 (79)	38 (30)	8 (4)	18
C. viridis	MK262733	168,966	92,189	18,445	29,166	36.25	34.06	29.60	41.20	37.76	134 (111)	88 (79)	38 (28)	8 (4)	18
H. lacera	ON598391	168,053	91,955	20,124	27,987	36.16	34.03	29.00	42.23	37.70	134 (113)	88 (79)	38 (30)	8 (4)	18
<i>H. speciosa</i> Yunnan	ON598392	167,626	91,673	19,989	27,982	36.21	34.08	29.12	42.23	37.68	134 (113)	88 (79)	38 (30)	8 (4)	18
C. tonkinensis	ON598393	167,481	91,538	19,881	28,031	36.37	34.32	29.35	42.22	37.72	134 (113)	88 (79)	38 (30)	8 (4)	18
Note: CDS protein-coding genes,	, GC guanine-cyto	sine, LSC large	single cop	y region, SS	C small sing	lle copy re	gion, // inv	/erted rep	eat, OP712	648-OP71	2655 generate	d in this study			

Category of genes	Group of genes	Name of genes
Self-replication	DNA dependent RNA polymerase	rроА, rроВ, rроС1*, rроС2
	Large subunit of ribosomal proteins	rpl2 (×2)*, rpl14, rpl16*, rpl20, rpl22, rpl23 (×2), rpl32, rpl33, rpl36
	Small subunit of ribosomal proteins	rps2, rps3, rps4, rps7 (×2), rps8, rps11, rps12 (×2)*, rps14, rps15, rps16*, rps18, rps19 (×2)
RNA genes	Ribosomal RNA	rrn4.5 (×2), rrn5 (×2), rrn16 (×2), rrn23 (×2)
	Transfer RNA	trnA-UGC (×2)*, trnC-GCA, trnD-GUC, trnE-UUC, trnF-GAA, trnG-GCC (×2)®, trnG-UCC*©, trnH-GUG (×2), trnI-GAU (×2)*, trnK-UUU*, trnL-CAA (×2), trnL- UAA*, trnL-UAG, trnM-CAU (×4), trnN-GUU (×2), trnP-UGG, trnQ-UUG, trnR-ACG (×2), trnR-UCU, trnS-GCU, trnS-GGA®, trnS-UGA®, trnT-GGU®, trnT-UGU, trnV- GAC (×2), trnV-UAC*, trnW-CCA, trnY-GUA, trnfM-CAU@, trnI-CAU®, trnS-CGA®
Photosynthesis related genes	Subunits of photosystem I	psaA, psaB, psaC, psaI, psaJ
	Subunits of photosystem II	psbA, psbB, psbC, psbD, psbE, psbF, psbH, psbI, psbJ, psbK, psbL, psbM, psbN, psbT, psbZ, infA
	Subunits of cytochrome b/f complex	petA, petB*, petD*, petG, petL, petN
	Subunits of ATP synthase	atpA, atpB, atpE, atpF*, atpH, atpl
	Subunits of NADH dehydrogenase	ndhA*, ndhB (×2)*, ndhC, ndhD, ndhE, ndhF, ndhG, ndhH, ndhI, ndhJ, ndhK
	Subunit of rubisco	rbcL
Other genes	Subunit of acetyl-coA-carboxylase	accD
	c-type cytochrome synthesis gene	ccsA
	Envelop membrane protein	cemA
	Protease	clpP**
	Maturase	matK
Genes of unknown function	Conserved open reading frames	ycf1 (×2), ycf2 (×2), ycf3**, ycf4

Table 2 Gene contents in thirteen complete chloroplast genomes of the Costaceae family

Note: *: gene containing one intron; **: gene containing two introns; (×2): gene with two copies; (×4): gene with four copies; 0: trnG-UCC has no intron in chloroplast genome of C. beckii; 0: trnfM-CAU is missing in four chloroplast genomes of C. barbatus, C. dubius, C. beckii and C. woodsonii, respectively; 0: trnf-CAU is only present in five chloroplast genomes of H. speciosa Guizhou, C. viridis, H. lacera, H. speciosa Yunnan, and C. tonkinensis, respectively; 0: trnS-CGA is only present in chloroplast genome of C. viridis; 0: trnS-GGA, trnS-UGA, and trnT-GGU are missing in chloroplast genome of C. viridis; 0: trnG-GCC has two copies only in chloroplast genome of C. beckii

IRa and IRb regions, respectively (Fig. 3C, Table S4). Similarly, SSRs were analyzed in the protein-coding regions, intron regions and intergenic regions of these 13 genomes, indicating that each genome comprised 38 to 48 SSRs in intergenic regions, 12 to 14 SSRs in protein-coding regions, and 6 to 14 SSRs in introns (Fig. 3D, Table S4). Six genes, namely, *ndhD*, *rpoB*, *rpoC2*, *rps14*, *ycf1* and *ycf2* contained SSRs and their products longer than 150 bp in these 13 genomes, which can be used as potential DNA molecular markers for species identification in Costaceae (Table S4).

Codon usage analysis

The amino acid frequency, codon usage and relative synonymous codon usage (RSCU) were analyzed based on all 79 different protein-coding genes (Table S5). The total codons (excluding stop codons) of these 13 complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae ranged from 26,531 to 27,373. Among these codons, leucine (Leu) was the most abundant amino acid, followed by isoleucine (Ile); whereas cysteine (Cys) was the least abundant (Table S5). The codons ATG and TGG, encoding methionine (Met) and tryptophan (Trp), respectively, showed no codon bias both with RSCU values of 1.00 in these 13 genomes (Fig. 4, Table S5). The codons with the five lowest RSCU values (AGC, GAC, GGC, CTG and CGC) and three with the highest RSCU values (AGA, GCT, and TTA) were found in these 13 genomes (Fig. 4, Table S5). Twentynine codons showed codon usage bias with RSCU>1.00 in these 13 genomes genes (Table S5). Interestingly, of these 29 codons, twenty-eight were A/T-ending codons. The result of higher usage frequency of A/T-ending than G/C-ending was also found in *Aglaonema modestum* [29], *Phaseolus lunatus* [32], and *Zingiber montanum* [33].

IR expansion and contraction

Detail comparisons at the LSC/IRs/SSC boundaries were analyzed among the 13 complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae (Fig. 5). Although the IR/LSC boundaries of these 13 genomes were highly conserved, variations were also found in the IR/SSC boundaries. For IRa/LSC boundaries, the *rpl22* and *psbA* genes were located at the boundaries in these 13 genomes, respectively. The distances between the ends of *rpl22* and IRa/LSC boundaries ranged from 290 to 362 bp, and the distances between the starts of *psbA* and the IRa/LSC boundaries ranged from 154 to 289 bp (Fig. 5). Among these 13 genomes, the *rps3* and *rpl22* genes were found at the boundaries of the LSC/IRb regions, respectively (Fig. 5). *rps3*



Fig. 1 Chloroplast genome map of *C. barbatus* (GenBank accession number: OP712648; the outermost three rings) and CGView comparison of thirteen complete chloroplast genomes in the Costaceae family (the inter rings with different colors). Genes shown on the outside of the outermost first ring are transcribed counter-clockwise and on the inside clockwise. Outermost second ring with darker gray corresponds to GC content, whereas outermost third ring with the lighter gray corresponds to AT content of *C. barbatus* chloroplast genome by OGDRAW. The gray arrowheads indicate the direction of the genes. LSC, large single copy region; IR, inverted repeat; SSC, small single copy region. The innermost first black ring indicates the chloroplast genome size of *C. barbatus*. The innermost second and third rings indicate GC content and GC skews deviations in chloroplast genomes in Costaceae displayed from innermost fourth color ring to outwards 16th ring in turn: *C. barbatus* OP712648, *C. beckii* OP712653, *C. dubius* OP712651, *C. speciosus* Guangdong OP712649, *C. speciosus* var. *marginatus* OP712652, *C. tonkinensis* Yunnan OP712650, *C. viridis* MK262733, *C. woodsonii* OP712654, *H. speciosa* Guizhou OK641589, *M. uniflorus* OP712655, *H. lacera* ON598391, *H. speciosa* Yunnan ON598392, and *C. tonkinensis* ON598393; chloroplast genome similar and highly divergent locations are represented by continuous and interrupted track lines, respectively. The species in bold are sequenced in this study

expanded into the IRb regions in these 13 genomes, with the lengths ranging from 219 to 291 bp from the LSC/IRb boundaries; whereas the starts of *rpl22* and the LSC/IRb boundaries ranged from 291 to 363 bp (Fig. 5).

For SSC/IRa boundaries, ycf1 was located in the boundaries in these 13 genomes, which crossed into the IRa regions with lengths varying from 1239 to 2445 bp (Fig. 5). Regarding the IRb/SSC boundaries, ycf1 and ndhF genes were located at the boundaries in these 13 genomes, respectively (Fig. 5). ycf1 expanded into the SSC regions ranging from 3 to 87 bp in 10 genomes, respectively (Fig. 5). In contrast, the end of the *ycf1* gene was justly located within the IRb/SSC boundaries in 2 genomes (H. lacera and H. speciosa Yunnan) (Fig. 5). In the rest of the genome (C. tonkinensis ON598393), the distance between the end of ycf1 and the IRb/SSC boundary was 1 bp (Fig. 5). Among the 11 genomes, the lengths between the starts of *ndhF* and the IRb/SSC boundaries ranged from 6 to 71 bp, respectively (Fig. 5). However, in the other 2 genomes (C. tonkinensis Yunnan OP712650 and *C. tonkinensis* ON598393), *ndhF* expanded into the IRb regions by 14 and 16 bp, respectively (Fig. 5).

Sequence divergence analysis and nucleotide diversity

Using the whole chloroplast genome of C. barbatus as the reference, a comparative analysis based on the mVISTA program was performed on the 13 complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae (Fig. 6). The results indicated that the LSC and SSC regions were more divergent than the two IR regions (Fig. 6). In the proteincoding regions, most protein-coding genes were highly conserved except for rpl16, rpoC1, ccsA, ndhF, psaJ, *rps3*, *rps15* and *ycf1* (Fig. 6). The highly divergent regions among these 13 genomes mainly located in the intergenic regions, including trnS-trnG, atpH-atpI, accD-psaI and rpl16-exon2-rpl16-exon1 in the LSC region as well as ndhF-rpl32, rpl32-trnL, ccsA-ndhD, psaC-ndhE and rps15-ycf1 in the SSC region (Fig. 6). The CGview result also revealed that the IR regions were less divergent than the LSC and SSC regions (innermost 4th color ring to the



Fig. 2 Analysis of long repeats in thirteen complete chloroplast genomes of the Costaceae family. (A), Total numbers and different types of long repeats in each chloroplast genome. (B), Numbers of long repeats more than 30 bp long in each chloroplast genome. * indicates chloroplast genome of the species sequenced in this study

outwards 16th ring in Fig. 1). In comparison to the chloroplast genome of *C. barbatus* (innermost 4th color ring in Fig. 1), the rest of the 12 genomes showed four divergent regions in LSC (*psbI-trnS*, *trnS-trnG*, *trnT-trnE*, and *rps3*), one region in SSC (*ccsA-ndhD*) and one region in IRa (*rpl22-rps19*).

Nucleotide diversity (Pi) and single nucleotide substitutions in the LSC, SSC, IRa, IRb and the total of the chloroplast genomes were analyzed (Table 3). Thirteen complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae were aligned with a matrix of 168,717 bp with 3,161 variable sites (1.87%) and 3,070 parsimony informative sites (1.82%). The Pi value of the complete chloroplast genome was 0.006 (Table 3). The SSC region had the highest Pi value (0.015) and the IRb region had the lowest Pi value (0.001) (Table 3). Additionally, Pi values were measured by DnaSP v. 6.12.03 to identify highly variable regions in these 13 genomes (Fig. 7, Table S6). Of the proteincoding regions, the Pi value for each gene ranged from 0 to 0.0598, and the average value was 0.0026. The *rpl16exon1* had the highest Pi value (0.0598) followed by the other nine gene regions of rpl36, trnK-exon2, ycf1-D2, rps15, ndhF, psaJ, rps3, rpoC1-exon1 and ccsA (Pi>0.007) (Fig. 7A, Table S6). For the intergenic regions, the Pi values ranged from 0 to 0.0708 (psaC-ndhE) and had an average of 0.0081. The average Pi value of intergenic regions was 3.11 folds higher than that in protein-coding regions. Nine of these intergenic regions also showed remarkably high values (Pi>0.025), including psaCndhE, ccsA-ndhD, rps15-ycf1-D2, atpH-atpI, accD-psaI, trnS-trnG-exon1, rpl32-trnL, rpl16-exon2-rpl16-exon1 and psbI-trnS (Fig. 7B). Four universal chloroplast DNA markers, namely, trnL-F locus (trnL-exon2-trnF), trnL intron (trnL-exon1-trnL-exon2), trnK locus (matK-trnKexon1) and trnK-rps16 inergenic spacer (trnK-exon1rps16-exon2) were also tested on their variability. These four chloroplast DNA markers had Pi values of 0.0096, 0.0069, 0.0070 and 0.0079, respectively (Table S6). The Pi values of these four DNA markers were much lower than those of the newly identified highly variable intergenic regions.



Fig. 3 Analysis of SSRs in thirteen complete chloroplast genomes of the Costaceae family. (A), Total numbers and different types of SSRs detected in each chloroplast genome. (B), Frequencies of the identified SSRs in different motifs. (C), Frequencies of the identified SSRs in the LSC, SSC and IR regions. (D), SSR distribution in protein-coding regions, introns and intergenic regions detected in each chloroplast genome. * indicates chloroplast genome of the species sequenced in this study



Fig. 4 Heat map analysis for relative synonymous codon usage (RSCU) values of all protein-coding genes of thirteen complete chloroplast genomes in the Costaceae family. Red indicates higher RSCU values and blue indicates lower RSCU values. The species in bold are sequenced in this study

By using region length>250 bp and integrating the results of Pi, CGView and mVISTA, 18 regions, including 14 divergent regions and 4 universal chloroplast DNA markers, were extracted and constructed using the maximum likelihood (ML) trees to differentiate these 13 species/accessions of Costaceae (Additional file 7, Fig. S1). The basic topological structures of the ML trees, which were consistent with topological structures constructed by chloroplast genome data (Fig. 8), were selected for resolution power analysis. The resolution power depended on the number of discrimination successes in the ML trees. If the bootstrap value of the node between two species/accessions was more than 50, species/accessions in the ML tree were counted. Otherwise, species/accessions in the ML tree were not counted. The ML trees constructed by five divergent regions (ndhF, ycf1-D2, ccsA*ndhD*, *rps15-ycf1-D2* and *rpl16-exon2-rpl16-exon1*), and four universal chloroplast DNA markers (Fig. S1), were consistent with topological structures constructed by chloroplast genome data (Fig. 8). The four universal chloroplast DNA markers had resolution powers of trnL-exon1-trnL-exon2 at 46%, trnK-exon1-rps16-exon2 at 31%, matK-trnK-exon1 at 15% and trnL-exon2-trnF at 0, respectively (Fig. S1a, b, c, d). Comparative analysis of these five potential new markers revealed that *ycf1*-D2 had the highest resolution power of 69%, followed by ndhF at 46%, rpl16-exon2-rpl16-exon1 at 38%, ccsAndhD at 31%, and rps15-ycf1-D2 at 31% (Fig. S1f, i, l, m, r). Single candidate new marker with differentiation success of 100% was not found. These five regions (ndhF, ycf1-D2, ccsA-ndhD, rps15-ycf1-D2 and rpl16-exon2rpl16-exon1) were combined as new potential markers. These five combined potential markers (ycf1-D2+ndhF, ccsA-ndhD+rps15-ycf1-D2, ccsA-ndhD+rpl16-exon2rpl16-exon1, rps15-ycf1-D2+rpl16-exon2-rpl16-exon1, and ccsA-ndhD+rps15-ycf1-D2+rpl16-exon2-rpl16*exon1*) showed differentiation success $\geq 69\%$, especially, the ML tree constructed from *ccsA-ndhD*+*rps15-ycf1-D2* with high supports (bootstrap values>65%, and resolution power at 92%), could be used as a candidate molecular marker in Costaceae (Fig. S1s, t, u, v, w).

Selective pressure analysis

The ratio (ω) of non-synonymous (dN) to synonymous (dS) substitution (dN/dS) for all 79 shared protein-coding genes was analyzed across 13 complete chloroplast genomes in Costaceae. According to the M8 ($\beta \& \omega > 1$) model, a total of 8 protein-coding genes were under positive selection with posterior probability greater than 0.95 using the Bayes empirical bayes (BEB) method (Table 4). Among these genes, *ndhA* harboured the highest number of positive amino acids sites (6), followed by *rps12* (3),

	219 bp-	292 bp 871	33 bp	3035 bp 2444 bp	291 bp 234	bp
Catallate	rps3	rpl22 yo	f1 ndhF	ycfl	rpl22 \ [osbA
Costus barbatus	LSC 91,971 bp	IRb 29,166 b	p SSC 18	,414 bp IRa 29	,166 bp	LSC
OP/12048	219 bp_	291 bp 26	bp _6 bp	4294 bp 1239 bp	290 bp 250	bp
Costus spaciosus	rps3	rpl22 ycj	ndhF	ycfl	rpl22	psbA
Cuanadona	LSC 91,239 bp	IRb 27,982 b	SSC 19,	971 bp IRa 27,	982 bp	LSC
OP712649	219 bp	291 bp 3	bp _14 bp	4238 hp 1269 hp	290 bp 289	bp
01/12047	rps3	rpl22 ycf	1 ndhF	ycf1	rp122	osbA
Costus tonkinensis	LSC 90,802 bp	IRb 28,017 bp	SSC 19,	524 bp IRa 28,0	017 bp	LSC
Yunnan OP712650	220 bp	292 bp 81	bp _71 bp	3051 bp 2433 bp	291 hp 235	bp
~	rps3	rpl22 yc	ndhF	ycfl	rpl22	sbA
Costus dubius	LSC 91.938 bp	IRb 29,136 br	SSC 18,	363 bp IRa 29.	136 bp	LSC
OP712651	219 br	291 bp 51	hp 10 hp	4294 hp 1239 hp	290 hn 250	bp
Costus spaciosus	rns3	rpl22 vo	fl ndhF	vcfl	rpl22	sbA
var marginatus	LSC 91 236 bn	IRb 27 998 b	p SSC 19	953 bp IRa 27	998 bp	LSC
OP712652	220 bp	-292 bn 87	abb 33 bp	3035 bp 2444 bp	291 bp 234	bp
01/12002	rps3	rpl22 yc	fl ndhF	vcf1	rpl22	sbA
Costus beckii	LSC 91,983 bp	IRb 29,166 bp	SSC 18	,404 bp IRa 29,	166 bp	LSC
OP712653	219 bp	291 bp 81	p 71 bp	3050 bp 2433 bp	290 bp 236	bp
a	rps3	rpl22 ycj	1 ndhF	ycfl	rpl22	osbA
Costus woodsonu	LSC 91,861 bp	IRb 29,135 bj	SSC 18,	420 bp IRa 29,	135 bp	LSC
OP/12654	291 bp	363 bp 51 l	on 55 bp	3095 bp 2433 bp	362 bp 154	bn
	rps3	rpl22 vct	ndhF	ycf1	rpl22	osbA
Monocostus uniflorus	LSC 91,271 bp	IRb 29,203 br	SSC 18.	807 bp IRa 29.	203 bp	LSC
OP712655	219 bp	291 bp 26 t	op 6 bp	4294 bp 1239 bp	290 bp 250	bn
TT 11 · · ·	rps3	rpl22 ycf	1 ndhF	ycfl	rpl22	psbA
Hellenia speciosa	LSC 91,239 bp	IRb 27,982 bj	SSC 19	,955 bp IRa 27,	982 bp	LSC
Guiznou OK041589	220 br	292 hp 51	hp 55 hp	3035 bp 2445 bp	291 bp 232	bp
C · · · I	rps3	rpl22 vcfl	ndhF	ycfl	rpl22	osbA
Costus viridis	LSC 92,189 bp	IRb 29,166 bi	SSC 18	445 bp IRa 29	166 bp	LSC
MK262733	219 hp	291 bp	6 bp	4294 bp 1239 bp	290 bp 267	bp
	rps3	rpl22 ycfl	ndhF	ycfl	rpl22	sbA
Hellenia lacera	LSC 91,955 bp	IRb 27,987 bj	SSC 20	,124 bp IRa 27	,987 bp	LSC
UN598391	219 bp_	291 bp	6 bp	4294 bp 1239 bp	290 bp 250	bp
Hellenia speciosa	rps3	rpl22 ycfl	ndhF	ycfl	rpl22	osbA
Yunnan ON598392	LSC 91,673 bp	IRb 27,982 b	p SSC 19,	989 bp IRa 27.	982 bp	LSC
	219 bp	291 bp 1 t	p 16 bp	4260 bp 1270 bp	290 bp 250	bp
Costus tonkinensis	rps3	rpl22 ycf1	Y ndhF	ycfI	rp122 \ 7	psbA
ON598393	LSC 91,538 bp	IRb 28,031 b	p SSC 19.	881 bp IRa 28,	031 bp	ĹSC

Fig. 5 Comparisons of border distances between adjacent genes and junctions of the LSC, SSC and two IR regions among thirteen complete chloroplast genomes of the Costaceae family. Numbers above or near the colored genes indicate the distances between the genes and the boundary sites. The figure is not in scale for sequence length, and only shows relative changes at or near the IR/SC boundaries. The species in bold are sequenced in this study

ycf1 (3), *clpP* (2), *petB* (2), *psbD* (2), *cemA* (1) and *ndhF* (1) (Table 4). However, the M2a model analysis revealed that there were only 14 positive amino acid sites by using the BEB method (Table 4). These results inferred that the M8 model was significantly better than the M2a model, identifying the presence of amino acid sites under positive selection.

Phylogenetic relationships

Two phylogenetic trees were constructed using chloroplast genome sequences by ML and Bayes inference (BI) methods, respectively (Fig. 8A and B). The species of Zingiberaceae were used as outgroups. Both ML and BI trees displayed similar topological structures (Fig. 8A and B). The analyzed Costaceae species were divided into three clades: a South American clade, an Asian clade and a *Costus* clade with strongly supported values (bootstrap values=99–100% for the ML tree and posterior probabilities=1 for the BI tree nodes) (Fig. 8A and B).

In both two trees, there were three subclades in the Asian clade with strong supports (bootstrap values=100%; posterior probabilities=1), namely, Hellenia, Tapeinochilos and Parahellenia, which had nested relationships (Fig. 8A and B). Within Hellenia, H. speciosa Guizhou OK641589, C. speciosus Guangdong OP712649, H. speciosa OL688995, H. speciosa Yunnan ON598392 and C. speciosus var. marginatus OP712652 were clustered one by one, forming a cluster with moderate to strong supports (bootstrap values=83-100%; posterior probabilities=0.84-1); H. lacera ON598391 and H. delinana OL689000 were clustered together, forming another cluster with strong supports (bootstrap value=100%; posterior probability=1); then the two clusters, H. viridis OL688999 and H. oblonga OL688997 were clustered step by step (Fig. 8A and B).



Fig. 6 Visualized alignment of thirteen complete chloroplast genomes sequences of the Costaceae family using mVISTA. *C. barbatus* chloroplast genome sequence was used as a reference. Gray arrows and thick black lines indicate gene orientation. Purple bars represent exons, sky-blue bars represent untranslated regions (UTRs), red bars represent non-coding sequences (CNS), gray bars represent mRNA and white regions represent sequence differences among all analyzed chloroplast genomes. Horizontal axis indicates the coordinates within the chloroplast genome. Vertical scale represents the identity percentage that ranges from 50–100%. The species in bold are sequenced in this study

Table 3	Variable site analy	vses of thirteen	complete chloropla	ast genomes of th	ne Costaceae family
				/	

Regions	Length	Variable site	s	Informative	sites	Nucleotide diversity
		Number	%	Number	%	
LSC	91,971	2,028	2.2050	1,967	2.1387	0.0075
SSC	18,414	839	4.5563	814	4.4205	0.0154
IRa	29,166	180	0.6171	170	0.5829	0.0020
IRb	29,166	114	0.3909	112	0.3840	0.0013
Complete chloroplast genome	168,717	3,161	1.8736	3,070	1.8196	0.0063

Within *Parahellenia*, three accessions of *P. tonkinensis* (OL688992, OL688993 and OL688994), *P. malipoensis* OL688996 and *C. tonkinensis* ON598393 were clustered together, forming a cluster with strong supports (bootstrap values=97-100%; posterior probabilities=1);

C. tonkinensis Yunnan OP712650 and *P. yunanensis* OL688998 were clustered together, forming another cluster with strong supports (bootstrap value=100%; posterior probability=1.0); then the two clusters were clustered together with strong supports (bootstrap



Fig. 7 Comparisons of nucleotide diversity (Pi) values among thirteen complete chloroplast genomes of the Costaceae family. (**A**), Protein-coding genes. Protein-coding genes with Pi values > 0.007 are labeled with gene names. (**B**), Intergenic regions. Intergenic regions with Pi values > 0.025 are labeled with intergenic region names

value=100%; posterior probability=1.0) (Fig. 8A and B). In the *Costus* clade, *C. pictus* MH603409, *C. barbatus* OP712648, *C. beckii* OP712653 and *C. viridis* MK262733 were clustered together, forming a cluster with strong supports (bootstrap value=93–95%; posterior probabilities=1); *C. woodsonii* OP712654, *C. dubius* OP712651 and *C. dubius* MH603406 were also clustered together, forming another cluster with strong supports (bootstrap value=97–100%; posterior probability=1); then the two clusters, *C. pulverulentus* KF601573, *C. osae* MH603408 and *C. gabonensis* MH603407 were clustered one by one (Fig. 8A and B). In the South American clade, *M.* *uniflorus* OP712655 and *M. uniflorus* KF601572 were first clustered together with strong supports (bootstrap value=100%; posterior probability=1), then clustered with *Dimerocostus strobilaceus* MH603413 with strong supports (bootstrap value=100%; posterior probability=1), and finally clustered with *Chamaecostus acaulis* MH603404 with strong supports (bootstrap value=100%; posterior probability=1) (Fig. 8A and B).

Divergence time estimation

Divergence time estimation suggested that the common ancestor of Costaceae firstly split from Zingiberaceae at

Gene name	Model	np	InL	Parameters	Positively selected sites Pr (ω > 1)
cemA	M2a	29	-991.852756	ω2=16.05889	1 M 0.931
	M8	29	-991.966607	p0 = 0.95614 p = 0.00500 q = 2.03556 (p1 = 0.04386) $\omega = 10.52669$	1 M 0.963*
clpP	M2a	29	-844.212769	$\omega 2 = 145.50270$	23 L 0.919, 24I 0.998**
	M8	29	-844.212761	p0 = 0.98974 p = 0.00500 q = 1.93438 (p1 = 0.01026) $\omega = 145.50213$	23 L 0.958*, 24l 0.999**
ndhA	M2a	29	-1624.988245	ω2=102.62253	83 V 0.933, 185R 1.000**, 186 V 1.000**, 187l 1.000**, 188 L 1.000**, 200 W 0.962*
	M8	29	-1637.945062	p0 = 0.95909 p = 0.00500 q = 1.93014 ($p1 = 0.04091$) $\omega = 30.35637$	83 V 0.963*, 185R 1.000**, 186 V 1.000**, 187I 1.000**, 188R 1.000**, 200 W 0.981*
ndhF	M2a	29	-3304.560615	ω2=4.42852	674 A 0.963*
	M8	29	-3304.561625	p0=0.96774 <i>p</i> =0.52675 q=8.62704 (p1=0.03226) ω=4.45145	674 A 0.971*
petB	M2a	29	-905.857200	ω2=375.89354	1 L 1.000**, 2 N 0.991**
	M8	29	-907.599426	p0 = 0.98507 p = 0.00500 q = 2.19711 (p1 = 0.01493) $\omega = 208.93829$	1 L 1.000**, 2 N 0.996**
psbD	M2a	29	-1489.475590	ω2=179.56481	3I 0.996**, 4 A 1.000**
	M8	29	-1489.475572	p0 = 0.99133 p = 0.00500 q = 1.97892 (p1 = 0.00867) $\omega = 179.56381$	3I 0.998**, 4 A 1.000**
rps12	M2a	29	-518.619174	ω2=999.00000	18R 0.932, 55Q 0.932, 115 K 0.991**
	M8	29	-518.619174	p0 = 0.94820 p = 0.00500 q = 1.93325 ($p1 = 0.05180$) $\omega = 999.00000$	18R 0.976*, 55Q 0.977*, 115 K 0.998**
ycf1	M2a	29	-8514.166872	ω2=6.86864	916 K 0.944, 1130l 0.961*, 1416 K 0.985*
	M8	29	-8514.114591	p0 = 0.97844 p = 0.30668 q = 0.74177 ($p1 = 0.02156$) $\omega = 7.56416$	916 K 0.969*, 1130l 0.978*, 1416 K 0.994**

Table 4 Pc	ositivelv se	elected sites d	etected in t	thirteen com	plete chlo	roplast o	aenomes of the	Costaceae	familv	J
										1

Note: * and ** indicate posterior probability higher than 0.95 and 0.99, respectively

about 67.1 Mya (95% HPD: 63.3-73.2 Mya), and then split from *Musella-Ensete* clade at approximately 56.5 Mya (95% HPD: 48.5-69.0 Mya) (Fig. 9). The crown node age of Costaceae was about 30.5 Mya (95% HPD: 14.9-49.3 Mya) (Fig. 9). The crown node age of the *Costus* clade and Asian clade was 23.8 Mya (95% HPD: 10.1-41.5 Mya). Diversification of the *Costus* clade and Asian clade was 23.8 Mya (95% HPD: 10.1-41.5 Mya). Diversification of the *Costus* clade and Asian clade was 23.8 Mya (95% HPD: 1.5-10.8 Mya) and 10.7 Mya (95% HPD: 3.5-25.1 Mya), respectively. Within the Asian clade, diversification of *Parahellenia* and *Hellenia* took place at 3.9 Mya (95% HPD: 1.5-8.2 Mya) and 3.3 Mya (95% HPD: 1.5-6.2 Mya), respectively (Fig. 9).

Discussion

Chloroplast genome structure and sequence variation

In this study, 13 complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae were comparatively analyzed. These 13 genomes revealed a typical quadripartite structure, with a single LSC region, a single SSC region and two IR regions (Fig. 1). They shared similar GC content, protein-coding genes, rRNAs and most of the tRNAs, which also had been found in other flowering plants [24–26, 28–35]. Although these 13 genomes were highly conserved, intron loss, gene duplication and gene loss appeared in this study, for instance, trnG-UCC had no intron in the genome of *C. beckii*, while the rest 12 genomes contained one intron in this tRNA gene, suggesting that intron loss had occurred during the evolutionary history of *C. beckii*. Interestingly, the genome of *C. viridis* had two copies of trnG-GCC, but this tRNA gene showed only one copy in the rest of the 12 genomes (Table 2, Table S2). By contrast, certain events of intron loss, gene duplication and gene loss were reported in Zingiberoideae species [28], *Amorphophallus* species [38] and *Aglaonema* cultivars [29].

IR contraction and expansion have been considered important evolutionary events in chloroplast genomes in some plants, such as genome size variation, gene duplication, and reduction of duplicate genes to one copy [23–25, 29, 39]. Our results also indicated that genome lengths and boundaries of IR expansion existed variations among these 13 genomes. In previous studies, lengths of chloroplast genomes within a genus showed small variations, such as in genera *Ensete* [40] and *Hedychium* [28]. However, the chloroplast genomes of different Costaceae species remarkably varied in genomes lengths of 2.6 kb in this study (Table 1). This occurrence was also reported



Fig. 8 Phylogenetic relationships of Costaceae species based on chloroplast genomes sequences reconstructed using maximum likelihood (ML) and the bayes inference (BI) methods. (A), ML tree. (B), BI tree. The species in bold are sequenced in this study



Fig. 9 Divergence time estimation of Costaceae species based on nucleotide sequences of 75 single-copy protein-coding genes shared in 22 chloroplast genomes of Costaceae. The fossil and calibration taxa are indicated with red points on the corresponding nodes. Mean divergence time of the nodes are shown at the nodes with blue. The numbers inside each blue bracket after mean divergence time represent 95% highest posterior density (HPD) of estimated divergence time, with minimum and maximum values, respectively. The species in bold are sequenced in this study

in the Musaceae species with approximately 5.7 kb differences in genome lengths [40], and the Polystachya species with about 3.8 kb differences in genome lengths [31]. The reasons for length variations of chloroplast genomes may be due to the massive number of genes or introns loss and gain, IR contraction and expansion, and variations of the intergenic regions. Although the IR boundaries of these 13 genomes were relatively stable, IR expansion was still observed, such as rps3 expanding into the LSC/IRb boundaries in all 13 genomes, and ndhF expanding into SSC/IRb boundaries in two chloroplast genomes (C. tonkinensis Yunnan OP712650 and C. tonkinensis ON598393) (Fig. 5). Therefore, variations in LSC/IRb and SSC/IRb boundaries may be the main contributions of IR contraction and expansion in these 13 genomes. The existence of IR contraction and expansion were also reported in previous studies [23–25, 29, 40].

Highly divergent regions and selective pressure analysis

In previous studies, four universal chloroplast DNA markers, namely, *trnL-F*, *trnL* intron, *trnK* including the *matK* coding region and *trnK-rps16* intergenic spacer, had been extensively used for molecular phylogeny and evolution of Costaceae [2, 3, 5, 13]. However, for some *Costus* species, their phylogenetic relationships were poorly resolved by these four chloroplast DNA markers [2, 13]. In the present study, Pi values of these four chloroplast DNA markers were relatively low (Pi<0.01) compared to other highly divergent regions (Fig. 7, Table

S6), which could explain the low-resolution branches found in these phylogenetic studies [2, 13]. Therefore, it is necessary to develop highly variable regions at the family level as potential markers for future research. Here, based on the results of CGview, mVISTA, Pi values and ML trees, 5 highly divergent regions (ndhF, ycf1-D2, ccsA-ndhD, rps15-ycf1-D2 and rpl16-exon2-rpl16-exon1) among 13 complete genomes of Costaceae were detected, and suitable for species identification (Fig. S1). Similarly, ccsA-ndhD, rps15-ycf1-D2, ycf1-D2, and ndhF had been reported for potential molecular markers in Zingiberoideae [28], aroideae [30], Polystachya [31] and Zingiber [33]. Therefore, the divergent region of *rpl16-exon2*rpl16-exon1 could potentially be used as a specific DNA barcode for species identification and phylogenetic studies in Costaceae. Additionally, to increase the differentiation success of these five divergent regions, five combined regions showed better differentiation power (Fig. S1). Hence, we recommend these five combined regions to be candidate molecular markers to identify Costaceae species.

The ratio (ω =dN/dS) has been widely used for measuring selective pressure [30–31, 33–35]. The ω ratio>1 represents positive selection, while ω <1 represents purifying selection [31, 32]. In the current study, the ω ratio was less than one in most of the protein-coding genes, revealing that they were under purifying selection. In addition, 8 genes, namely, *cemA*, *clpP*, *ndhA*, *ndhF*, *petB*, *psbD*, *rps12* and *ycf1*, with positive selection sites were identified in Costaceae in this study (Table 4). Among these genes, two of them (ndhA and ndhF) encode subunits of NADH-plastoquinone oxidoreductase (Table 2). ndhA plays a critical role in the incorporation of the peripheral arm into the membrane-embedded part of the chloroplast NADH dehydrogenase-like (NDH) complex and is essential for stabilizing subcomplex A and subcomplex E of chloroplast NDH complex, which mediates ferredoxin-dependent plastoquinone reduction in the thylakoid membrane [41]. Our results revealed that *ndhA* gene harboured the highest number (6) of positive amino acid sites within the 13 genomes of Costaceae, suggesting that *ndhA* gene may play essential roles in the evolution of chloroplast NDH complex and thylakoid membrane in Costaceae species. The rps12 encodes ribosome subunit protein and has important effects on the rates and patterns of evolution [27]. The petB encodes S1-domaincontaining protein of photosynthetic electron transfer B, which is involved in the stabilization and translation of chloroplast mRNAs [42]. Its transcript accumulation is driven by a free-running circadian clock [42]. The *psbD* encodes the core protein D2 of the photosynthesis complex PSII, which is an important factor affecting photosynthetic efficiency during salt stress [43]. The clpP encodes case inolytic protease (Clp) complex, which plays essential roles in maintaining protein homeostasis and comprises both plastid-encoded and nuclearencoded subunits [44]. Rapid *clpP* sequence evolution is associated with genetic incompatibilities [45]. The cemA encodes envelop membrane protein. Lastly, *ycf1* encodes unknown proteins and is competent in identification at genus and species level of orchids [46]. Recent studies have revealed that these eight genes with positive selection in flowering plants are common [27–31, 33, 35, 47, 48]. For example, *ndhF* has been reported as a positive selection in the Aroideae species [30]; *clpP* and *ycf1* have been reported as positive selections in the Polystachya species [31]; *ndhA* and *clpP* have been reported as positive selections in the *Hoya* species [35]; *ndhA*, *clpP*, *rps12* and ycf1 have been reported as positive selections in the Zingiber species [33, 47]; and cemA, clpP, ndhF, petB, rps12 and ycf1 have been reported as positive selections in the Dalbergia species [48]. Among the analyzed species of Costaceae, they possessed diversity of ecological habitats, such as shade under the woods, forest margins, moist places in valleys, roadsides and ditch sides [1, 7]. Therefore, Costaceae species may face different types of stresses in their ecological habitats, and these eight positive selection genes may play important roles during the evolution and adaption of the Costaceae species to their respective ecological habitats.

Phylogenetic analyses and divergence time estimation

Previous reports had used nuclear ITS and several chloroplast markers for phylogenetic studies in the Costaceae family [2, 5, 16, 20]. Specifically, two chloroplast DNA markers (trnK intron and trnL-F spacer) had been extensively used in phylogenetic relationships of Costaceae [2, 5, 16, 20]. These studies based on nuclear ITS and two chloroplast markers identified three clades within the Costaceae family: a South American clade, an Asian clade and a Costus clade [2, 5, 16, 20]. However, these analyses of phylogenetic relationships in Costaceae contained multiple poor-resolution branches [2, 5, 16, 20]. In this study, both phylogenetic trees obtained by chloroplast genome sequences divided Costaceae into three clades (an Asian clade, a Costus clade and a South American clade) with strong support (Fig. 8). Our phylogenetic result was broadly consistent with previous studies [2, 5, 16, 20]. In the Asian clade, three subclades of Hellenia, Tapeinochilos and Parahellenia displayed a nested evolutionary relationship with strong supports (Fig. 8). Subclade Hellenia included C. speciosus Guangdong and C. speciosus var. marginatus with highly supported node values (Fig. 8). Therefore, based on the results of the phylogenetic relationships herein, these two species should be transferred to Hellenia with the names of Hellenia speciosa Guangdong and Hellenia speciosa var. marginatus, respectively. Additionally, C. tonkinensis Yunnan OP712650 was clustered in the subclade of Parahellenia (Fig. 8). This result was in agreement with a previous study [20], which supported the opinion that *Parahelle*nia subclade should be recognized as a new genus. Consequently, C. tonkinensis Yunnan should be transferred to genus Parahellenia with the name of Parahellenia tonkinensis Yunnan. Finally, C. viridis was clustered with C. barbatus and C. beckii in the Costus clade, and it did not show close relationship with previously reported H. viridis OL688999 [20]. This might be because the two analyzed species were different from each other, but they used the same name viridis.

According to the divergence time estimation, the crown node age of Costaceae estimated here (Fig. 9) (30.5 Mya, 95% HPD: 14.9-49.3 Mya) was in close proximity to a previous study reported by Fu et al. [40] (24.9 Mya). However, Specht [49] using *trnL-F* and *trnK* sequence data of Costaceae, estimated the divergence time of Costaceae to be 65.6 ± 7.73 Mya; Kress et al. [50] using three gene regions (*rbcL, atpB*, and 18 S), estimated the crown diversification of Costaceae to be 52 ± 5 Mya; and André et al. [14] using nucleotide sequences of 2 plastid and 4 nuclear genetic markers, estimated the diversification of Costaceae may be caused by molecular data selection, taxon sampling, calibration point setting, and different methods of selection. In addition, our

analyses also suggested that the main taxon within the *Costus* clade diverged at approximately 4.4 Mya (95% HPD: 1.5-10.8 Mya) (Fig. 9), which was in closeness to a previous report (4.6 Mya) [51].

Conclusions

In this study, we analyzed and compared the structural characteristics of 13 complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae, and estimated the phylogenetic divergence time of Costaceae. These 13 genomes had conserved quadripartite structure, similar protein-coding genes and codon usage, but also with some variations in genomes lengths, tRNA gene contents, introns, SSRs, long repeats and IR borders. Five highly divergent regions were identified, which would be useful for developing high-resolution DNA markers for further studies of Costaceae. Eight protein-coding genes (cemA, clpP, ndhA, ndhF, petB, psbD, rps12 and ycf1) were found to undergo positive selection. Based on chloroplast genome sequences, the phylogenetic relationships in Costaceae showed that Costaceae species were divided into three clades, namely, a South American clade, an Asian clade and a Costus clade, with strongly supported values. Estimation of the divergence time of Costaceae suggested that the crown age of Costaceae was at approximately 30.5 Mya (95% HPD: 14.9-49.3 Mya). This study not only enriched the complete chloroplast genome resources of Costaceae, but also provided useful information for further studies of the evolution and phylogeny of Costaceae species.

Methods

Plant materials and DNA extraction

Due to sample collection challenges, samples of the eight Costaceae species, representing one Monocostus species from the South American clade (M. uniflorus), four Costus species (C. barbatus, C. beckii, C. dubius, and C. woodsonii) from the Costus clade, and three species (C. speciosus Guangdong, C. speciosus var. marginatus, and C. tonkinensis Yunnan) from the Asian clade (Fig. S2), were obtained from the resource garden of the environmental horticulture research institute (23°23'N, 113°26'E) at the Guangdong Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Guangzhou, China. Species formal identifications were made using the Flora of China [1], The Zingiberaceous resources in China [8], Botanical paintings of Chinese Zingiberales [52], and also conducted using photos (available on https://www.gingersrus.com/Costus.php). Young and healthy leaves of seedlings were collected and quickly frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 $^\circ C$ until use. The total genomic DNA was extracted from young leaves using sucrose gradient centrifugation method with minor modifications [53]. DNA integrity and quality were assessed by a NanoDrop 2000 microspectrometer (Wilmington, DE, USA), and detected using a 1% (w/v) agarose gel electrophoresis. The other five published complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae were downloaded from NCBI for the following comparative analyses.

Illumina sequencing, assembly and annotation

Each high-quality DNA sample was sheared into fragments of about 350 bp to construct a library according to the manufacturer's instructions (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, England). Sequencing was carried out on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform with 150 bp paired-end reads length (Biozeron, Shanghai, China). The raw data were checked using FastQC v. 0.11.9 (http:// www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/), and filtered by Trimmomatic v. 0.39 [54] with default parameters. Next, filtered reads were de novo assembled using GetOrganelle v. 1.7.6.1 [55] with default settings. Geneious Prime 2022 (Biomatters Ltd., Auckland, New Zealand) [56] was used to align the contigs and the start and stop codons were manually edited with a reference chloroplast genome of C. viridis (GenBank accession number MK262733). Then, each assembled chloroplast genome was annotated in GeSeq [57] and the online Dual Organellar Genome Annotator (DOGMA) [58] with default parameters, respectively. Additionally, tRNAscanSE v. 2.0.5 [59] and BLAST v. 2.13.0 [60] were used to confirm the tRNA and rRNA genes. The annotation results were also validated by comparing them with NCBI's non-redundant (Nr) protein database, Gene Ontology (GO), Clusters of orthologous groups (COG) for eukaryotic complete genomes database, Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) Automatic Annotation Server (KAAS) (http://www.genome.jp/kegg/ kaas/) [61] and SWISS-PROT databases. The physical maps of complete chloroplast genomes were drawn using Organellar Genome Draw (OGDRAW) v. 1.3.1 [62]. The eight newly annotated complete chloroplast genome sequences were first validated using online GB2sequin [63]. Then, the annotation results were further validated and formatted using Sequin v. 15.50 from NCBI, and submitted to GenBank (see Table 1 for accession numbers).

Sequence analysis and statistics

Codon usage was analyzed by using MEGA v. 7.0 [64], and the relative synonymous codon usage (RSCU) and amino acid frequencies were calculated with default parameters. When the RSCU value is larger than 1, the codon is used more often than expected, while values less than 1 indicate its relative rarity [65, 66]. The clustered heat map of RSCU values of 13 complete Costaceae chloroplast genomes was conducted by R v. 4.0.2 [67].

The long repeats sequences, which included forward, palindrome, reverse and complement repeats, were detected using REPuter [68] with a minimal repeat size of 30 bp, a repeat identity of more than 90%, and a hamming distance of 3. In this study, due to the collection difficulties of original sequenced data for the five published chloroplast genomes of Costaceae, the possible effects by different assembled ways on detection SSRs were not considered. SSRs in the chloroplast genomes were detected via MISA-web [69] by setting the minimum number of repeats to 10, 5, 4, 3, 3 and 3 for mononucleotide, dinucleotide, trinucleotide, tetranucleotide, pentanucleotide and hexanucleotide, respectively.

Genome comparison and sequence divergence analyses

The contraction and expansion of the IR regions were obtained by comparing the SC/IR borders and their adjacent genes of 13 complete Costaceae chloroplast genomes using IRscope [70]. The mVISTA program in the Shuffle-LAGAN mode [71] was employed to compare the complete chloroplast genomes divergence among 13 complete chloroplast genomes with the annotated chloroplast genome of C. barbatus as the reference. Additionally, the chloroplast genome of C. barbatus was compared to the other 12 whole chloroplast genomes of Costaceae using CGView Server [72]. GC distributions were measured based on GC skew using the equation: GC skew = (G-C)/(G+C). To analyze the sequence divergence of complete chloroplast genomes in Costaceae, the protein-coding and intergenic regions among these 13 complete chloroplast genomes were extracted and aligned using MAFFT v. 7.458 [73] with default parameters. Then, nucleotide variability (Pi) values were analyzed using DnaSP v. 6.12.03 [74]. The step size was set to 200 bp, and the window length was set to 600 bp. The protein-coding regions with Pi>0.007, the intergenic regions with Pi>0.025, the region length>250 bp, and 4 universal chloroplast DNA markers including trnLexon1-trnL-exon2, trnK-exon1-rps16-exon2, matK-trnKexon1 and trnL-exon2-trnF, were extracted and then analyzed individually to differentiate these Costaceae species (Additional file 7). The maximum likelihood (ML) tree was calculated by using the nucleotide substitution model of Tamura-Nei in MEGA v. 7.0 [64] with 1000 replicates. Additionally, variable and parsimony informative base sites of the LSC, SSC, IRa, IRb, and complete chloroplast genomes of these 13 genomes were also calculated using C. barbatus as the reference.

Positive selection analysis

Selective pressure was analyzed for consensus 79 proteincoding genes among 13 complete chloroplast genomes of Costaceae. The nonsynonymous (dN) and synonymous (dS) substitution rates were calculated by using the CodeML program implemented in EasyCodeML [75]. First, each single protein-coding gene was extracted, their stop codons removed and aligned separately using ClustalW in MEGA v. 7.0 [64], followed by manual adjustment for abnormal alignments. Next, based on the alignments, the ML tree was constructed using MEGA v. 7.0 as an input tree. Six models were investigated to calculate the dN and dS ratios (ω) and the likelihood ratio tests (LRTs): M0 (one-ratio), M1a (nearly neutral), M2a (positive selection), M3 (discrete), M7 (β) and M8 ($\beta \& \omega > 1$). The positive selection models (M2a and M8) were used to detect positively selected sites based on both ω and LRTs values [76]. A bayes empirical bayes (BEB) method [77] was then selected to calculate posterior probabilities. In the BEB analysis, posterior probability higher than 0.95 and 0.99 indicated sites that were under positive selection and strong positive selection, respectively.

Phylogenetic analysis

To reconstruct and confirm the phylogenetic relationships of Hellenia and Parahellenia in Costaceae, a total of 31 chloroplast genomes sequences of Costaceae were analyzed, which included 13 complete and 18 incomplete chloroplast genomes (Table S7). Of these 31 genomes, 8 complete chloroplast genomes were generated in the present study, and the other 23 chloroplast genomes sequences were obtained from the GenBank database and individuals (Table S7, Additional file 9), respectively. Twelve chloroplast genomes of the Zingiberaceae species in GenBank were added as outgroups (Table S7). The chloroplast genome sequences were aligned using the MAFFT v. 7.458 [73] with default parameters and manually checked when necessary. The best nucleotide substitution model (general-time-reversible, gamma distribution and invariable sites, GTR+G+I) was determined using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) in jModelTest v. 2.1.10 [78]. Subsequently, the ML tree was constructed using PhyML v. 3.0 [79], and a bootstrap test was performed with 1000 replicates to calculate the bootstrap values for all branch nodes. Bayesian inference (BI) analysis was carried out using MrBayes v. 3.2.6 [80]. Two Markov Chain Monte Carlo algorithm (MCMC) runs were performed with 200,000 generations and four Markov chains, starting from random trees, sampling trees every 100 generations, and discarding the first 10% of samples as burn-in. The phylogenetic trees were edited and visualized using iTOL v. 3.4.3 (http://itol.embl.de/ itol.cgi).

Divergence time estimation

As some published chloroplast genomes of Costaceae missed large fragments, we only selected complete or nearly complete chloroplast genomes for divergence time estimation (Table S8). Divergence time estimation was performed by the dataset of 75 single-copy protein-cod-ing genes shared in 22 chloroplast genomes of Costaceae using the MCMC tree in PAML v. 4.4 [81]. First, the best nucleotide substitution model (GTR) was selected using

jModelTest v. 2.1.10 [78] under AIC, and construction ML tree from the chloroplast genomes sequences were undertaken using PhyML v. 3.0 [79]. Second, two fossil records and one calibration point was obtained and used in the divergence time estimation. Zingiberopsis attenuate [82] was used as a mean age of 65 Million years ago (Mya) for the crown age of family Zingiberaceae. Ensete oregonense [83] was applied to calibrate the crown age of Ensete and Musella with a mean age of 43 Mya. Each fossil calibration point was assumed to follow a normal distribution with a standard deviation of 2 and an offset of 2, resulting in 63.1-70.9, and 41.1-48.9 Mya 95% intervals, respectively. Then, one calibration point (http://www. timetree.org/) was also used in this analysis, including the calibration point between Zingiber and Kaempferia with a mean age of 6.86 Mya (3.0-10.0 Mya). Thirdly, the new ML tree constructed from chloroplast genomes sequences was used as a starting tree for the MCMC run. MCMC run was set at 400,000 generations, sampling every 100 generations, and removing the first 10% generations as burn in. Divergence time estimation was calculated by parameters of clock=2 and model=0, with 95% highest posterior density (HPD) intervals, and then inserting the resulting divergence times into the ML tree.

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi. org/10.1186/s12864-024-09996-4.

Supplementary Material 1: Table S1. The basic information of 8 newly sequenced chloroplast genomes in family Costaceae

Supplementary Material 2: Table S2. Genes distribution in 13 Costaceae complete chloroplast genomes

Supplementary Material 3: Table S3. Comparison of the long repeats among 13 Costaceae complete chloroplast genomes

Supplementary Material 4: Table S4. Statistics of simple sequence repeats (SSRs) sequences distribution and designed primers in 13 Costaceae complete chloroplast genomes

Supplementary Material 5: Table S5. Codon usages of all protein coding genes in 13 Costaceae complete chloroplast genomes

Supplementary Material 6: Table S6. Nucleotide diversity (Pi) analyses of protein coding genes, intron and intergenic regions in 13 Costaceae complete chloroplast genomes

Supplementary Material 7: Fasta form of 14 divergent regions and 4 universal chloroplast DNA markers sequences from 13 species/accessions of Costaceae

Supplementary Material 8: Table S7. Information of chloroplast genomes sequences used in present phylogenetic analyses

Supplementary Material 9: Fasta form of nine Costaceae nearly complete chloroplast genomes sequences provided by Dr. Juan Chen in South China Botanical Garden of Chinese Academy of Sciences

Supplementary Material 10: Table S8. Information of chloroplast genomes sequences used in divergence time estimation

Supplementary Material 11: Fig. S1. Maximum likelihood (ML) trees of 13 species/accessions of Costaceae based on the chloroplast genomes divergent genes and intergenic regions. a ML tree based on intergenic

sequences of matK-trnK-exon1. b ML tree based on intergenic sequences of trnK-exon1-rps16-exon2. c ML tree based on intergenic sequences of trnL-exon1-trnL-exon2. d ML tree based on intergenic sequences of trnLexon2-trnF. e ML tree based on sequences of gene ccsA. f ML tree based on sequences of gene ndhF. g ML tree based on sequences of gene rps3. h ML tree based on sequences of gene rps15. i ML tree based on sequences of gene ycf1-D2. j ML tree based on sequences of gene rpoC1-exon1. k ML tree based on the intergenic sequences of psaC-ndhE. I ML tree based on the intergenic sequences of ccsA-ndhD. m ML tree based on the intergenic sequences of rps15-ycf1-D2. n ML tree based on the intergenic sequences of atpH-atpl. o ML tree based on the intergenic sequences of accD-psal. p ML tree based on the intergenic sequences of trnS-trnGexon1. q ML tree based on the intergenic sequences of rpl32-trnL. r ML tree based on the intergenic sequences of rpl16-exon2-rpl16-exon1. s ML tree based on the intergenic sequences of ccsA-ndhD+rpl16-exon2-rpl16exon1. t ML tree based on the intergenic sequences of ccsA-ndhD+ rps15ycf1-D2. u ML tree based on the intergenic sequences of rps15-ycf1-D2+ rpl16-exon2-rpl16-exon1. v ML tree based on the intergenic sequences of ccsA-ndhD+rps15-ycf1-D2+ rpl16-exon2-rpl16-exon1. w ML tree based on the intergenic sequences of ycf1-D2+ ndhF

Supplementary Material 12: Fig. S2. Comparison of morphologies among eight species of family Costaceae. (A) terminally flowering of Costus barbatus, (B) terminally flowering of Costus speciosus Guangdong, (C) leaf morphology of Costus tonkinensis Yunnan, (D) basally flowering of Costus dubius, (E) leaf morphology of Costus speciosus var. marginatus, (F) terminally flowering of Costus woodsonii, (G) basally flowering of Costus beckii, (H) terminally flowering of C. beckii, and (I) flowering of Monocostus uniflorus

Acknowledgements

The authors thank Dr. Juan Chen from the South China Botanical Garden of Chinese Academy of Sciences for providing nine Costaceae nearly complete chloroplast genome sequences. The authors thank Mr. Jian-Ping Huang from the Xishuangbanna Tropical Botanical Garden of Chinese Academy of Sciences for the formal identification of *Costus tonkinensis* Yunnan. We are grateful to the Guangdong basic and applied basic foundation project, Special Financial Fund of Foshan-High-level of Guangdong Agricultural Science and Technology Demonstration City project, Guangdong Science and Technology project, and the creative agricultural research team. We are also very thankful for the editors and reviewers for their comments and suggestions.

Author contributions

D.M. L. undertook seven species formal identifications, conceived and designed the experiments, generated and analyzed the data, wrote the draft of the manuscript and revised it. G.F.Z. conceived the study. Y.G.P., H.L.L., B.Y. and D.H. collected plant materials. All authors contributed to the experiments and approved the final draft of the manuscript.

Funding

This research was financially supported by the Guangdong basic and applied basic foundation project (No. 2021A1515010893, No. 2023A1515011234), Special Financial Fund of Foshan-High-level of Guangdong Agricultural Science and Technology Demonstration City Project (2022), Guangdong Science and Technology project (No. 2022B020160005), and Creative agricultural research team (No. 202128TD). The funding agencies had no role in the design of the study, analysis, interpretation of the data and writing of the manuscript.

Data availability

All raw read data are available at the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) with the BioProject accession number PRJNA882627 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih. gov/bioproject/882627). The eight newly sequenced complete chloroplast genomes in this study have been submitted to GenBank (https://www.ncbi. nlm.nih.gov) with accession numbers OP712648 - OP712655 and available in NCBI (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) (see Table 1). All voucher specimens were deposited in the resource garden of the Environmental Horticulture Research Institute, Guangdong Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Guangzhou, China. The nine nearly complete chloroplast genome sequences of Costaceae provided by Dr. Juan Chen and their accession numbers are listed in Additional file 9. Other chloroplast genome sequences for phylogenetic analyses and divergence time estimation can be obtained from NCBI, and their accession numbers are listed in Table S7 and Table S8.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

This study was carried out in compliance with the relevant institutional, national, as well as international guidelines and legislation, and was approved by the resource garden of the environmental horticulture research institute, Guangdong Academy of Agricultural Sciences (Voucher number, Costus barbatus: Ll2015CO001; Costus beckii: Ll2018CO008; Costus dubius: Ll2016CO006; Costus speciosus Guangdong: Ll2015CO002; Costus speciosus var. marginatus: Ll2016CO007; Costus tonkinensis Yunnan: Ll2016CO005; Costus woodsonii: Ll2016CO010; Monocostus uniflorus: Ll2016CO011).

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Author details

¹Guangdong Key Lab of Ornamental Plant Germplasm Innovation and Utilization, Environmental Horticulture Research Institute, Guangdong Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Guangzhou 510640, China

Received: 4 January 2023 / Accepted: 9 January 2024 Published online: 17 January 2024

References

- Wu D, Larsen K, Zingiberaceae. Flora of China, vol.24. Beijing: Science press;2000. p.320–21.
- Specht CD, Kress WJ, Stevenson DW, DeSalle R. A molecular phylogeny of Costaceae (Zingiberales). Mol Phylogenet Evol. 2001;21(3):333–45.
- Kress WJ, Prince LM, Hahn WJ, Zimmer EA. Unraveling the evolutionary radiation of the families of the Zingiberales using morphological and molecular evidence. Syst Biol. 2001;50(6):926–44.
- 4. Branney TME. Hardy gingers: including *Hedychium, Roscoea and Zingiber*. Portland and London: Timber press; 2005. pp. 7–22.
- Specht CD, Stevenson DW. A new phylogeny-based generic classification of Costaceae (Zingiberales). Taxon. 2006;55(1):153–63.
- Leong-Škorničková J, Böhmová A, Trån HĐ. A new species and new combination in basally flowering Vietnam Costaceae. PhytoKeys. 2022;190:103–11.
- Gao JY, Xia YM, Huang JY, Li QJ. Zhongguo Jiangke Huahui. 1st ed. Beijing: Science press;2006. p.124–26.
- Wu D, Liu N, Ye Y. The Zingiberaceous resources in China. 1st ed. Wuhan: Huazhong university of science and technology press;2016. p. 144, 172.
- Al-Attas AA, El-Shaer NS, Mohamed GA, Ibrahim SR, Esmat A. Anti-inflammatory sesquiterpenes from *Costus speciosus* rhizomes. J Ethnopharmacol. 2015;176:365–74.
- El-Far AH, Badria FA, Shaheen HM. Possible anticancer mechanisms of some Costus speciosus active ingredients concerning drug discovery. Curr Drug Discov Technol. 2016;13(3):123–43.
- Benelli G, Govindarajan M, Rajeswary M, Vaseeharan B, Alyahya SA, Alharbi NS, Kadaikunnan S, Khaled JM, Maggi F. Insecticidal activity of camphene, zerumbone and α-humulene from *Cheilocostus speciosus* rhizome essential oil against the old-world bollworm, *Helicoverpa armigera*. Ecotoxicol Environ Saf. 2018;148:781–86.
- 12. Bakhshwin D, Faddladdeen KAJ, Ali SS, Alsaggaf SM, Ayuob NN. Nanoparticles of *Costus speciosus* ameliorate diabetes-induced structural changes in rat prostate through mediating the pro-inflammatory cytokines IL 6, IL1 β and TNF-a. Molecules. 2022;27(3):1027.
- Salzman S, Driscoll HE, Renner T, André T, Shen S, Specht CD. Spiraling into history: a molecular phylogeny and investigation of biogeographic origins and floral evolution for the genus *Costus*. Syst Bot. 2015;40(1):104–15.
- André T, Salzman S, Wendt T, Specht CD. Speciation dynamics and biogeography of neotropical spiral gingers (Costaceae). Mol Phylogenet Evol. 2016;103:55–63.

- Valderrama E, Sass C, Pinilla-Vargas M, Skinner D, Maas PJM, Maas-van de Kamer H, Landis JB, Guan CJ, Specht CD. Unraveling the spiraling radiation: a phylogenomic analysis of Neotropical *Costus* L. Front Plant Sci. 2020;11:1195.
- Specht CD. Systematics and evolution of the tropical monocot family Costaceae (Zingiberales): a multiple dataset approach. Syst Bot. 2006;31(1):89–106.
- 17. Govaers R. Hellenia Retz., the correct name for Cheilocostus C. D. Specht (Costaceae). Phytotaxa. 2013;151(1):63–4.
- Kumar R, Singh SK, Sinha BK, Sharma S. Description of two new species of Hellenia (Costaceae) from North-East India. Keanean J Sci. 2016;5:3–8.
- Chen J, Zeng L, Zeng S, Tan Y, Xia N. Taxonomic studies on the Chinese Costaceae I: a new name and two new combinations. Phytotaxa. 2021;512(3):159–68.
- 20. Chen J, Zeng S, Zeng L, Nguyen KS, Yan J, Liu H, Xia N. *Parahellenia*, a new genus segregated from *Hellenia* (Costaceae) based on phylogenetic and morphological evidence. Plant Divers. 2022;44(4):389–405.
- 21. Daniell H, Lin CS, Yu M, Chang WJ. Chloroplast genomes: diversity, evolution, and applications in genetic engineering. Genome Biol. 2016;17(1):134.
- Brunkard JO, Runkel AM, Zambryski PC. Chloroplast extend stromules independently and in response to internal redox signals. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 2015;112(32):10044–9.
- Xiong Q, Hu Y, Lv W, Wang Q, Liu G, Hu Z. Chloroplast genomes of five *Oedogonium* species: genome structure, phylogenetic analysis and adaptive evolution. BMC Genomics. 2021;22(1):707.
- Gu C, Ma L, Wu Z, Chen K, Wang Y. Comparative analyses of chloroplast genomes from 22 Lythraceae species: inferences for phylogenetic relationships and genome evolution within Myrtales. BMC Plant Biol. 2019;19(1):281.
- Henriquez CL, Abdullah, Ahmed I, Carlsen MM, Zuluaga A, Croat TB, McKain MR. Molecular evolution of chloroplast genomes in Monsteroideae (Araceae). Planta. 2020;251(3):72.
- Henriquez CL, Abdullah, Ahmed I, Carlsen MM, Zuluaga A, Croat TB, McKain MR. Evolutionary dynamics of chloroplast genomes in subfamily Aroideae (Araceae). Genomics. 2020;112(3):2349–60.
- 27. Liu S, Wang Z, Wang H, Su Y, Wang T. Patterns and rates of plastid *rps12* gene evolution inferred in a phylogenetic context using plastomic data of ferns. Sci Rep. 2020;10(1):9394.
- Li DM, Li J, Wang DR, Xu YC, Zhu GF. Molecular evolution of chloroplast genomes in subfamily Zingiberoideae (Zingiberaceae). BMC Plant Biol. 2021;21(1):558.
- Li DM, Zhu GF, Yu B, Huang D. Comparative chloroplast genomes and phylogenetic relationships of *Aglaonema modestum* and five variegated cultivars of *Aglaonema*. PLoS ONE. 2022;17(9):e0274067.
- Li B, Liu T, Ali A, Xiao Y, Shan N, Sun J, Huang Y, Zhou Q, Zhu Q. Complete chloroplast genome sequences of three aroideae species (Araceae): lights into selective pressure, marker development and phylogenetic relationships. BMC Genomics. 2022;23(1):218.
- Jiang H, Tian J, Yang J, Dong X, Zhong Z, Mwachala G, Zhang C, Hu G, Wang Q. Comparative and phylogenetic analyses of six Kenya *Polystachya* (Orchidaceae) species based on the complete chloroplast genome sequences. BMC Plant Biol. 2022;22(1):177.
- Tian S, Lu P, Zhang Z, Wu JQ, Zhang H, Shen H. Chloroplast genome sequence of Chongming lima bean (*Phaseolus lunatus* L) and comparative analyses with other legume chloroplast genomes. BMC Genomics. 2021;22(1):194.
- Li DM, Ye YJ, Xu YC, Liu JM, Zhu GF. Complete chloroplast genomes of *Zingiber montanum* and *Zingiber zerumbet*: genome structure, comparative and phylogenetic analyses. PLoS ONE. 2020;15(7):e0236590.
- Yu J, Fu J, Fang Y, Xiang J, Dong H. Complete chloroplast genomes of *Rubus* species (Rosaceae) and comparative analysis within the genus. BMC Genomics. 2022;23(1):32.
- Odago WO, Waswa EN, Nanjala C, Mutinda ES, Wanga VO, Mkala EM, et al. Analysis of the complete plastomes of 31 species of *Hoya* group: insights into their comparative genomics and phylogenetic relationships. Front Plant Sci. 2022;12:814833.
- Han C, Ding R, Zong X, Zhang L, Chen X, Qu B. Structural characterization of *Platanthera Ussuriensis* chloroplast genome and comparative analyses with other species of Orchidaceae. BMC Genomics. 2022;23(1):84.
- Barrett CF, Specht CD, Leebens-Mack J, Stevenson DW, Zomlefer WB, Davis JI. Resolving ancient radiations: can complete plastid gene sets elucidate deep relationships among the tropical gingers (Zingiberales)? Ann Bot. 2014;113(1):119–33.
- Liu E, Yang C, Liu J, Jin S, Harijati N, Hu Z, Diao Y, Zhao L. Comparative analysis of complete chloroplast genome sequences of four major *Amorphophallus* species. Sci Rep. 2019;9(1):809.

- Wicke S, Schneeweiss GM, DePamphilis CW, Muller KF, Quandt D. The evolution of the plastid chromosome in land plants: gene content, gene order, gene function. Plant Mol Biol. 2011;76:273–97.
- Fu N, Ji M, Rouard M, Yan HF, Ge XJ. Comparative plastome analysis of Musaceae and new insights into phylogenetic relationships. BMC Genomics. 2022;23(1):223.
- Yamamoto H, Sato N, Shikanai T. Critical role of *ndhA* in the incorporation of the peripheral arm into the membrane-embedded part of the chloroplast NADH dehydrogenase-like complex. Plant Cell Physiol. 2021;62(7):1131–45.
- 42. Jiang J, Chai X, Manavski N, Williams-Carrier R, He B, Brachmann A, et al. An RNA chaperone-like protein plays critical roles in chloroplast mRNA stability and translation in Arabidopsis and Maize. Plant Cell. 2019;31(6):1308–27.
- Kayanja GE, Ibrahim IM, Puthiyaveetil S. Regulation of *Phaeodactylum* plastid gene transcription by redox, light, and circadian signals. Photosynth Res. 2021;147(3):317–28.
- Lu C, Li L, Liu X, Chen M, Wan S, Li G. Salt stress inhibits photosynthesis and destroys chloroplast structure by downregulating chloroplast development-related genes in *Robinia pseudoacacia* seedlings. Plants (Basel). 2023;12(6):1283.
- Abdel-Ghany SE, LaManna LM, Harroun HT, Maliga P, Sloan DB. Rapid sequence evolution is associated with genetic incompatibilities in the plastid clp complex. Plant Mol Biol. 2022;108(3):277–87.
- Li H, Xiao W, Tong T, Li Y, Zhang M, Lin X, Zou X, Wu Q, Guo X. The specific DNA barcodes based on chloroplast genes for species identification of Orchidaceae plants. Sci Rep. 2021;11(1):1424.
- Jiang D, Cai X, Gong M, Xia M, Xing H, Dong S, et al. Complete chloroplast genomes provide insights into evolution and phylogeny of *Zingiber* (Zingiberaceae). BMC Genomics. 2023;24(1):30.
- Li C, Liu Y, Lin F, Zheng Y, Huang P. Characterization of the complete chloroplast genome sequences of six *Dalbergia* species and its comparative analysis in the subfamily of Papilionoideae (Fabaceae). Peer J. 2022;10:e13570.
- Specht CD. Gondwanan vicariance or dispersal in the tropics? The biogeographic history of the tropical monocot family Costaceae (Zingiberales). Aliso. 2006;22:631–42.
- 50. Kress WJ, Specht CD. The evolutionary and biogeographic origin and diversification of the tropical monocot order Zingiberales. Aliso. 2006;22:621–32.
- Kay KM, Reeves PA, Olmstead RG, Schemske DW. Rapid speciation and the evolution of hummingbird pollination in neotropical *Costus* Subgenus *Costus* (Costaceae): evidence from nrDNA ITS and ETS sequences. Am J Bot. 2005;92(11):1899–910.
- Yu F, Chen ZY, Liao JP, Yu HP, Wang B, Song JJ et al. Botanical paintings of Chinese Zingiberales. 1st ed. Wuhan: Huazong university of science and technology press;2012. p. 166-9, 190-1.
- Li X, Hu Z, Lin X, Li Q, Gao H, Luo G, Chen S. High-throughput pyrosequencing of the complete chloroplast genome of *Magnolia officinalis* and its application in species identification. Acta Pharm Sin. 2012;47:124–30.
- 54. Bolger AM, Lohse M, Usadel B. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence data. Bioinformatics. 2014;30(15):2114–20.
- Jin JJ, Yu WB, Yang JB, Song Y, dePamphilis CW, Yi TS, Li DZ. GetOrganelle: a fast and versatile toolkit for accurate de novo assembly of organelle genomes. Genome Biol. 2020;21(1):241.
- Kearse M, Moir R, Wilson A, Stones-Havas S, Cheung M, Sturrock S, et al. Geneious Basic: an integrated and extendable desktop software platform for the organization and analysis of sequence data. Bioinformatics. 2012;28(12):1647–9.
- Tillich M, Lehwark P, Pellizzer T, Ulbricht-Jones ES, Fischer A, Bock R, Greiner S. GeSeq - versatile and accurate annotation of organelle genomes. Nucleic Acids Res. 2017;45(W1):W6–11.
- Wyman SK, Jansen RK, Boore JL. Automatic annotation of organellar genomes with DOGMA. Bioinformatics. 2004;20(17):3252–55.
- 59. Lowe TM, Chan PP. tRNAscan-SE On-line: search and contextual analysis of transfer RNA genes. Nucleic Acids Res. 2016;44:W54–7.
- Altschul SF, Madden TL, Schäffer AA, Zhang J, Zhang Z, Miller W, Lipman DJ. Gapped BLAST and PSI-BLAST: a new generation of protein database search programs. Nucleic Acids Res. 1997;25(17):3389–402.

- Moriya Y, Itoh M, Okuda S, Yoshizawa AC, Kanehisa M. KAAS: an automatic genome annotation and pathway reconstruction server. Nucleic Acids Res. 2007;35:W182–5.
- Greiner S, Lehwark P, Bock R. OrganellarGenomeDRAW (OGDRAW) version 1.3.1: expanded toolkit for the graphical visualization of organellar genomes. Nucleic Acids Res. 2019;47(W1):W59–64.
- 63. Lehwark P, Greiner S. GB2sequin A file converter preparing custom GenBank files for database submission. Genomics. 2019;111(4):759–61.
- Kumar S, Stecher G, Tamura K. Mega 7: molecular evolutionary genetics analysis version 7.0 for bigger datasets. Mol Biol Evol. 2016;33(7):1870–4.
- Mazumdar P, Binti Othman R, Mebus K, Ramakrishnan N, Ann Harikrishna J. Codon usage and codon pair patterns in non-grass monocot genomes. Ann Bot. 2017;120(6):893–909.
- Parvathy ST, Udayasuriyan V, Bhadana V. Codon usage bias. Mol Biol Rep. 2022;49(1):539–65.
- 67. R Core Team. R: a language and environment for statistical computing. https://www.R-project.org. Accessed 20 June 2021.
- Kurtz S, Choudhuri JV, Ohlebusch E, Schleiermacher C, Stoye J, Giegerich R. REPuter: the manifold applications of repeat analysis on a genomic scale. Nucleic Acids Res. 2001;29(22):4633–42.
- Beier S, Thiel T, Münch T, Scholz U, Mascher M. MISA-web: a web server for microsatellite prediction. Bioinformatics. 2017;33(16):2583–5.
- Amiryousefi A, Hyvönen J, Poczai P. IRscope: an online program to visualize the junction sites of chloroplast genomes. Bioinformatics. 2018;34(17):3030–1.
- 71. Frazer KA, Pachter L, Poliakov A, Rubin EM, Dubchak I. VISTA: computational tools for comparative genomics. Nucleic Acids Res. 2004;32:W273–9.
- 72. Grant JR, Stothard P. The CGView server: a comparative genomics tool for circular genomes. Nucleic Acids Res. 2008;36:W181–4.
- Rozewicki J, Li S, Amada KM, Standley DM, Katoh K. MAFFT-DASH: integrated protein sequence and structural alignment. Nucleic Acids Res. 2019;47(W1):W5–10.
- Rozas J, Ferrer-Mata A, Sánchez-DelBarrio JC, Guirao-Rico S, Librado P, Ramos-Onsins SE, Sánchez-Gracia A. DnaSP 6: DNA sequence polymorphism analysis of large datasets. Mol Biol Evol. 2017;34(12):3299–302.
- 75. Gao F, Chen C, Arab DA, Du Z, He Y, Ho SYW. EasyCodeML: a visual tool for analysis of selection using CodeML. Ecol Evol. 2019;9(7):3891–8.
- 76. Yang Z. Likelihood ratio tests for detecting positive selection and application to primate lysozyme evolution. Mol Biol Evol. 1998;15(5):568–73.
- Yang Z, Wong WSW, Nielsen R. Bayes empirical bayes inference of amino acids sites under positive selection. Mol Biol Evol. 2005;22(4):1107–18.
- Santorum JM, Darriba D, Taboada GL, Posada D. jmodeltest.org: selection of nucleotide substitution models on the cloud. Bioinformatics. 2014;30(9):1310–1.
- Guindon S, Dufayard JF, Lefort V, Anisimova M, Hordijk W, Gascuel O. New algorithms and methods to estimate maximum-likelihood phylogenies: assessing the performance of PhyML 3.0. Syst Biol. 2010;59(3):307–21.
- Ronquist F, Teslenko M, van der Mark P, Ayres DL, Darling A, Höhna S, et al. MrBayes 3.2: efficient bayesian phylogenetic inference and model choice across a large model space. Syst Biol. 2012;61(3):539–42.
- Yang Z. PAML 4: phylogenetic analysis by maximum likelihood. Mol Biol Evol. 2007;24(8):1586–91.
- Hickey LJ, Peterson RK. Zingiberopsis, a fossil genus of the ginger family from the late cretaceous to early eocene sediments of western Interior North America. Can J Bot. 1978;56:1136–52.
- Manchester S, Kress W. Fossil banana (Musaceae): Ensete oregonense sp. nov. from the Eocene of western North America and its phytogeographic significance. Am J Bot. 1993;80(11):1264–72.

Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.