# Convergence of anti-bee pollination mechanisms in the Neotropical plant genus Drymonia (Gesneriaceae) 

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#### Abstract

The neotropical plant genus Drymonia displays a remarkable variety of floral shapes and colors. One feature that is particularly important to coevolution with pollinators involves the variable shapes and widths of corolla tubes. To evaluate the evolutionary context for changes in corolla shape, we constructed a phylogeny of 50 of the 75 species of Drymonia using molecular markers from plastid (trnK-matK) and nuclear regions (ITS and ETS). Mapping tube shapes on the phylogeny supports open, bell-shaped (campanulate) corolla shape as the ancestral character state for Drymonia, with multiple independent origins of constriction in the corolla tube. Corollas with constrictions take one of three tube shapes: a constricted flower opening and throat with a large, expanded pouch on the lower surface (hypocyrtoid); a constricted flower opening and throat lacking an expanded pouch on the lower surface (urceolate); or a constricted opening and throat where the sides of the corolla appear laterally compressed. Fieldwork demonstrates euglossine bees (mostly Euglossa spp. and Epicharis spp.) visit campanulate corollas while hummingbirds visit corollas that are constricted. Results support eight independent origins of constricted corolla tubes from ancestors with campanulate corolla tubes: 3 hypocyrtoid clades, 3 laterally compressed clades, and 3 urceolate clades (one of which represents a shift from a hypocyrtoid ancestor). Constricted corollas are associated with shifts from the ancestral condition of poricidal anther dehiscence, which presents pollen to pollinators in multiple small doses, to the derived condition of longitudinal anther dehiscence, which presents all pollen to pollinators simultaneously. The association of hummingbird pollination with constricted corolla tubes suggests that narrowing evolved as a barrier mechanism that prohibits the visitation of flowers by bees.


[^0]Keywords Convergence • Drymonia • Gesneriaceae • Hypocyrtoid corollas • Laterally compressed corollas • Pollination biology • Poricidal anther dehiscence • Urceolate corollas

## Introduction

Flowers of neotropical plants of the family Gesneriaceae have diversified into a remarkable array of colors and shapes (Fig. 1), suggesting a diverse coevolutionary history with pollinators. Few pollination studies or species-level phylogenies exist for the group. An understanding of the ecology and evolution of their flowers has been further hampered by a confusing classification system and lack of monophyly for many of the traditionally recognized genera because species were frequently shifted between poorly defined genera and genera were shifted between poorly defined tribes (Hanstein 1854, 1856, 1859, 1865; Fritsch 1893-1894; Martius 1829; Ivanina 1965, 1967; Wiehler 1973, 1983; Burtt and Wiehler 1995; Möller and Clark 2013; Weber et al. 2013). Recent molecular-based studies have begun to clarify phylogenetic relationships and circumscribe monophyletic genera (e.g., Smith and Atkinson 1998; Smith et al. 1997, 1998, 2004a, b; Smith and Clark 2013; Zimmer et al. 2002, Clark et al. 2006, 2012; Möller and Clark 2013; Weber et al. 2013). The objective of this study is to provide an evolutionary and ecological context for understanding the evolution of the narrowing of corolla tubes in Drymonia Mart. and how this feature may function as a barrier mechanism to pollinators.

Drymonia is one of the largest genera of Neotropical Gesneriaceae, with 75 species (Weber et al. 2013; Möller and Clark 2013). Martius (1829) circumscribed Drymonia on the basis of a leafy calyx and large corolla, but these features are also found in many other closely related genera. More recently Moore (1955) characterized Drymonia from other Gesneriaceae by the presence of poricidal anther dehiscence (Fig. 2a). Instead of undergoing longitudinal dehiscence (Fig. 2b), with thecae splitting fully open along the length and presenting all pollen simultaneously, the thecae in Drymonia open by a short basal pore which slowly releases pollen throughout anthesis (Fig. 2c, d). Wiehler (1983) aptly described these poricidal anthers as "salt-shaker-like." In bud, the four anthers are grouped coherently around the style, with their pore-like thecae facing inward, and become connate along the length of their margins as they mature. Prior to anthesis, the curvature and the differential length of the filament pairs invert the anther structure by turning it upside down (i.e., rotating $180^{\circ}$ ), causing the basal pores to face upwards before they open. During anthesis, the strategically placed anthers are thus able to pour or "shake" their powdery pollen grains through the pores onto visitors when they tip the structure over as they enter the flower (Fig. 2f). Steiner (1985) noted that gland-tipped trichomes located inside the corollas of Drymonia serrulata (Jacq.) Mart. exuded oil that played a role in promoting the adhesion of pollen grains to the body of Epicharis bees (family Apidae, subfamily Apinae). The 'salt-shaker' structure releases the pollen in doses, such that it takes five to eight visits to fully empty the anthers (Wiehler 1983).

The majority of flowering plants have anthers that open by splitting longitudinally along the entire locule. In contrast, anthers that dehisce poricidally represent less than $10 \%$ of flowering plants (Buchmann 1983). Poricidal anthers are almost entirely associated with vibratory pollen collection ("buzz pollination") by bees (Buchmann 1983). The transfer of pollen grains in Drymonia flowers is not facilitated by vibrations and is therefore unique among taxa with poricidal anther dehiscence.


Fig. 1 Corolla shape variation evaluated in Drymonia. a, b Bell-shaped (campanulate) in Drymonia brochidodroma. c, d Laterally compressed in Drymonia multiflora. e, f Pouched (hypocyrtoid) in Drymonia teuscheri. g, h Urn-shaped (urceolate) in Drymonia urceolata. Photos from field collections by John L. Clark (a, b J.L. Clark et al. 6354; c, d J.L. Clark et al. 12499; e, f J.L. Clark et al. 6369; g J.L. Clark 10006; h J.L. Clark 9005)


Fig. 2 Plant-pollinator interactions and anther dehiscence. a Poricidal anther dehiscence in Drymonia killipii (scale in mm). b Longitudinal anther dehiscence in Columnea medicinallis. c, d Poricidal anther dehiscence in Drymonia urceolata. e Euglossa bee captured and photographed from recently visited flower of Drymonia ecuadorensis, Rio Palenque Science Center. f Drymonia ecuadorensis visited by Euglossa bee. g Drymonia collegarum visited by Tawny-bellied Hermit (Phaethornis syrmatophorus). Photo a by Richard W. Dunn; b-f by John L. Clark and G by Murray Cooper (a R.W. Dunn s.n. from cultivated material; b J.L. Clark et al. 10006; c J.L. Clark et al. 6906; d J.L. Clark 10006.e, f = From Rio Palenque Science Center, Ecuador, No voucher specimen; $\mathbf{g}=\mathrm{El}$ Pahuma Orchid Reserve, Ecuador)

The remarkable array of corolla shapes and colors (Fig. 1) across Drymonia has resulted in a confusing taxonomic history. The traditional or pre-phylogenetic circumscription of Drymonia was limited to species with campanulate corollas (Wiehler 1983; Moore 1955), as featured in Fig. 1a, b. However, more recent molecular phylogenetic work demonstrated that the genus was paraphyletic and necessitated the transfer of species into Drymonia from other genera, including discordant taxa that were previously in Alloplectus Mart., Nautilocalyx Linden ex Hanst., and Paradrymonia Hanst. (Clark 2005; Clark et al. 2006, 2012). These changes resulted in the addition of many species with different corolla shapes, making Drymonia one of the most morphologically variable clades in the family. The convoluted taxonomic history of Drymonia demonstrates why relying on floral traits can be problematic as the basis for generic circumscriptions. A classification system based on pollination syndromes, or convergent floral adaptations to different pollinator types (Faegri and van der Pijl 1979; Fenster et al. 2004), will not necessarily reflect phylogenetic relationships. In the case of Drymonia, the campanulate corolla and 'salt-shaker-anthers' likely represent adaptations to bee pollination (Wiehler 1983; Steiner 1985). Molecular phylogenies were important precursors to studies such as the present on Drymonia because they helped define monophyletic units. In contrast, traditional classifications exemplified by Drymonia would recognize most of the non-bee pollinated flowers in other genera (e.g., Alloplectus, Paradrymonia, or Nautilocalyx).

Another good example of an artificial circumscription is the gesneriad genus Hypocyrta Mart. The genus is no longer recognized, but mentioning it here helps understand the evolutionary plasticity of corolla shapes in the Gesneriaceae, as the defining character of Hypocyrta was the corolla shape: specifically, a constricted flower opening and throat, with a large, expanded pouch on the lower surface (Fig. 1e, f). Some of the 44 species previously classified as Hypocyrta are now classified in Drymonia, and the rest nest in seven other genera including Besleria L., Codonanthe (Mart.) Hanst., Corytoplectus Oerst., Nematanthus Schrad., Pachycaulos J.L. Clark and J.F. Sm., Paradrymonia, and Pearcea Regel. Phylogenetic methods based on molecular sequence data have greatly facilitated the classification of the family by discarding artificially recognized genera such as Hypocyrta and defining monophyletic genera that are morphologically diverse such as Drymonia.

In the present paper, we combine ecological and phylogenetic approaches to evaluate the evolution of corolla shapes across Drymonia. Flowers in the genus can be classified into four general shapes based on the width of the corolla tube and the flower opening. Bell-shaped (campanulate) corollas have a relatively constant width from the base through the throat and flower opening ( $5.6-17.0 \mathrm{~mm}$ ), with lobes flaring out around the opening (Fig. 1a, b). Most Drymonia flowers with bell-shaped corollas are yellowish-green to white, and they tend to have fimbriate margins on the lobes. Pouched (hypocyrtoid) corollas are defined by a constricted throat and flower opening ( $3.0-4.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) and an often greatly expanded pouch on the lower surface ( $9.1-15.4 \mathrm{~mm}$, Fig. 1e, f). Pouched corollas tend to have yellow tubes that contrast with bright reds on the lobes. Urn-shaped (urceolate) corollas are apically constricted like pouched corollas (to a narrowest corolla width of $4.0-4.8 \mathrm{~mm}$ ), but lack the ventral pouch (Fig. 1g, h). Finally, laterally compressed corollas have throat widths of approx. $4.0-10.0 \mathrm{~mm}$, similar to those of bell-shaped corollas, but the flower openings appear pinched into narrow "key-holes" ( $3.0-4.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ wide; Fig. 1c, d).

We hypothesize that open bell-shaped flowers are pollinated primarily by bees (Fig. 2e, f ), while the three constricted flower shapes (pouched, urn-shaped, and laterally compressed) are pollinated primarily by hummingbirds (Fig. 2g) and that constricted flower openings represent adaptations to prevent access by bees to nectar and pollen. Grant and

Grant (1968) originally proposed that such an association between narrow openings and hummingbird flowers serves to reduce bee visitation. Here we evaluate directionality of shifts in corolla shape and provide an initial assessment of pollination syndromes by developing a species-level phylogeny of the genus, recording pollinators of focal flowers for each of the shape classes, and surveying the literature for additional pollination records. We also map shifts in anther dehiscence (poricidal vs. longitudinal) and discuss implications for pollination.

## Materials and methods

Taxon sampling and outgroup selection
Fifty-nine species were sequenced for the $\operatorname{trnK}-m a t \mathrm{~K}$ of plastid DNA (cpDNA), the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region and the external transcribed spacer (ETS) region of 18S-26S of nuclear ribosomal DNA (nrDNA). The ingroup included 50 of 75 Drymonia species. This research represents the most comprehensive phylogenetic taxon sampling to date for Drymonia. Most species were photographed in the field and determinations were verified with herbarium voucher specimens, photographs, and literature. The study of type specimens was necessary for the identification of many Drymonia species and was carried out in conjunction with an ongoing monographic revision. Some Drymonia species, such as D. serrulata, are common roadside weeds in South and Central America, but most are local endemics that are only found in intact forests. Extensive fieldwork for the present study was necessary because many Drymonia in the analyses are only known from one or two localities (e.g., D. decora J.R. Clark and J.L. Clark, D. ignea J.L. Clark, D. peltata (Oliver) H.E. Moore, D. submarginalis Gómez-Laurito and Chavarría, and others). All taxa have fertile voucher specimens archived at the Smithsonian Institution's U.S. National Herbarium (US) and The University of Alabama Herbarium (UNA). A complete list of samples, voucher specimens with locality, and GenBank accession numbers is provided in Appendix 1.

Outgroup samples were chosen on the basis of previous phylogenetic studies of Gesneriaceae and Episcieae (=subtribe Columneinae) (Clark et al. 2006, 2012). Given our focus on Drymonia, we limited outgroups to species in closely related genera from the core Episcieae clade outlined in Clark et al. (2012). Specifically, we used Alloplectus aquatilis C.V. Morton, Columnea ( 2 spp. ), Corytoplectus congestus (Linden ex Hanst.) Wiehler, Crantzia cristata (L.) Scop. ex Fritsch, Glossoloma (2 spp.), Neomortonia rosea Wiehler, and Pachycaulos nummularia (Hanst.) J.L. Clark and J.F. Sm. (Appendix 1).

DNA extraction, amplification, and sequencing
Most genomic DNAs were isolated from silica-dried leaf material collected in the field. Leaf samples were ground using a ThermSavant FastPrep FP120 cell disrupter (Qbiogene, Carlsbad, CA). DNA was isolated using the Qiagen DNeasy ${ }^{\text {TM }}$ DNA isolation kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA).

Templates of the nrDNA internal transcribed spacer region (ITS) were prepared using the primers ITS5HP (Suh et al. 1993) and ITS4 (White et al. 1990). Additionally, the reverse and forward of the internal primers ITS2 and ITS3 (White et al. 1990) were used to obtain double stranded DNA sequence of the entire ITS region. Templates of the nrDNA external transcribed spacer region (ETS) were prepared using the primers18S-ETS (Baldwin and Markos
1998) and ETS-B developed for Mimulus (Phyramaceae) by Beardsley and Olmstead (2002). Templates of the cpDNA $\operatorname{trnK}$-matK were prepared using primers trnK1 (CTAACTCAACGGTAGAGTACTCG) and matK (CTCCTGAAAGATAAGTGG).

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplifications followed the procedures described by Baldwin et al. (1995) utilizing Taq DNA polymerase (Promega, Madison, WI). To reduce within-strand base pairing that can result in interference with Taq polymerase activity, we found it essential to use $5 \%$ DMSO and $5 \%$ BSA in PCR reactions for ETS and ITS. The PCR products were electrophoresed using a $1.0 \%$ agarose gel in $1 \times \mathrm{TBE}(\mathrm{pH} 8.3)$ buffer, stained with ethidium bromide to confirm a single product, and purified using PEG 8000 (polyethylene glycol) in 2.5 M NaCl under the conditions described in Johnson and Soltis (1995). Direct cycle sequencing of purified template DNAs was performed by the Nevada Genomics Center (University of Nevada, Reno, NV).

DNA chromatograms were proofed, edited, and contigs were assembled using Se quencher 3.0 (Gene Codes Corporation, Ann Arbor, MI). Sequences were deposited in GenBank (Appendix 1).

## Alignment

All sequences were aligned in the multiple sequence alignment program MUSCLE (Edgar 2004). Because the sequences were not highly divergent in the ingroup (i.e., Drymonia), it was possible to make minor adjustments to minimize overlapping gaps. This approach allowed for single-site and multiple-site gaps to be treated with equal weight (Simmons and Ochoterena 2000). All regions were easily aligned and none were excluded from the analyses.

## Assignment of corolla shape and assessment of anther dehiscence

The corollas of Drymonia were assigned to one of the following four corolla shapes: (1) bell-shaped (campanulate; Fig. 1a, b), (2) laterally compressed (Fig. 1c, d), (3) pouched (hypocyrtoid; Fig. 1e, f), and (4) urn-shaped (urceolate; Fig. 1g, h). Anthers were assigned as poricidally dehiscent (Fig. 2a) or longitudinally dehiscent (Fig. 2b). Some species with urn-shaped and laterally compressed corollas present an initial poricidal stage, which then rapidly develops into longitudinal dehiscence; we coded these as longitudinal in the character state reconstructions. Each taxon was carefully evaluated in the field or from herbarium specimens. All corolla shapes were photographed with images readily available on the first author's website (www.gesneriads.ua.edu).

Drymonia is strongly supported as nesting in a clade with Glossoloma, Columnea, Alloplectus, and Neomortonia rosea (Clark et al. 2006, 2013). Compared to Drymonia, the flowers of Columnea, Glossoloma, and Alloplectus have a more elongate tubular or bilabiate corolla and are not readily assigned to one of the four shapes outlined above. The corolla shapes of Neomortonia rosea, Pachycaulos nummularia, and Corytoplectus congestus could be assigned to one of the above corolla shapes, but it would be conjectural to evaluate them in a phylogenetic context here because they are not the focus of the present study and including them would require extensive taxon sampling of additional outgroups. Characters were unordered (Fitch 1971) and character evolution analyses were performed in Mesquite, version 4.08 (Maddison and Maddison 2011) where parsimony optimization using the unordered states assumption was implemented. The character states were mapped onto the Bayesian consensus tree obtained in the molecular analyses (Fig. 3).


Fig. 3 Majority rule Bayesian inference tree shown with support values indicated for Maximum likelihood bootstrap and parsimony bootstrap. Based on three molecular markers (ITS, ETS and trnK-matK spacer). Numbers correspond to Bayesian posterior probabilities/maximum likelihood bootstrap/parsimony bootstrap. Nodes that collapse in the strict consensus tree are indicated by ("*") at the base of the branch. Independent origins of longitudinal anther dehiscence (ingroup only) is shown by diagrams to right of taxon names. All other in-group taxa have poricidal anther dehiscence

## Test of incongruence

The incongruence length difference test (ILD: Farris et al. 1994) was performed as the partition homogeneity test implemented in PAUP*4.0 b10 (Swofford 2003) with 1,000 bootstrap replicates (using a heuristic search, simple addition, and no branch swapping). The cpDNA, ITS, and ETS were each treated as separate partitions. As the ILD has been shown to indicate incongruence where none exists (Dolphin et al. 2000; Yoder et al. 2001; Barker and Lutzoni 2002; Dowton and Austin 2002), bootstrap analyses were performed on each partition separately to assess areas of conflict and to determine if any conflict was strongly supported (Mason-Gamer and Kellogg 1996; Seelanen et al. 1997).

## Phylogenetic analyses

The parsimony analysis was performed to completion using a two stage heuristic search in PAUP* 4.0 (Swofford 2003). The first stage of the analysis was done using the following settings: 1,000 random addition cycles, holding 10 trees of equal length at each step; tree bisection-reconstruction (TBR) branch swapping with no more than 10 trees saved for each rep; MULTREES option not in effect. The second stage of the analysis was performed on all trees in memory with the same settings, but with the MULTREES option in effect. Two searches with altered settings did not find shorter trees; these included a search with 10 random addition cycles holding 1,000 trees at each step, and one with 1,000 random addition cycles holding 100 trees at each step.

Additional tree searches were done using the parsimony ratchet analysis with NONA (Goloboff 1999) and Winclada (Nixon 2002). Ten separate tree searches were conducted using the following settings: 200 iterations per search, one tree held for each iteration, 132 characters sampled ( $10 \%$ of the total), and $\mathrm{amb}=$ poly-(only considers unambiguous support). The total evidence analysis was swapped to completion, but analyses of individual datasets were limited to 100,000 trees. Multiple ratchet searches were performed in WinClada as suggested by Nixon (1999) since the ratchet option can sometimes get stuck on suboptimal "islands" and it is therefore better to perform more separate searches with fewer iterations than one larger search with more iterations.

Clade robustness was evaluated in PAUP* with a bootstrap analysis (Felsenstein 1985). We used 1,000 heuristic bootstrap replicates with the following settings: 10 random addition cycles; tree bisection-reconstruction (TBR) branch swapping with no more than 10 trees saved for each replicate.

The parsimony analyses and clade support were evaluated for each individual dataset (ETS, ITS, $\operatorname{trn} \mathrm{K}-m a t \mathrm{~K}$ ), a combined molecular dataset, and a total evidence analysis. Conflict between datasets was evaluated by comparing incongruence of strongly supported clades from individual datasets (e.g., ITS vs. ETS; ITS vs. trnK-matK; and nrDNA vs. trnK-matK).

Bayesian inference analyses were conducted using MrBayes 3.2.2. (Ronquist et al. 2012) implemented in the CIPRES web portal (http://www.phylo.org/; Miller et al. 2009). Models of nucleotide substitution for each partition were assessed with JModeltest 2.1.3. (Darriba et al. 2012). The best-fit models, selected using the Akaike information criterion (AIC), were TPM2uf + G for ETS, GTR + I + G for ITS, and GTR + G for trnK-matK. Two independent Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analyses, each with 20 million generations, were run. The analyses were started from random trees, sampling each 1000th generation. Convergence of the two independent MCMC runs was analyzed in Tracer v1.5 (Rambaut and Drummond 2007) and the first $25 \%$ of trees were discarded as burn in
before the posterior distribution was sampled. The remaining trees from both runs were used to construct a majority-rule consensus tree, and the posterior probability (PP) values were used as indicators of robustness.

Maximum Likelihood analyses were conducted in RaxML v7.6.6 (Stamatakis 2006; Stamatakis et al. 2008) implemented in CIPRES web portal (http://www.phylo.org/; Miller et al. 2009), and clade support was estimated by performing bootstrap with 1,000 replicates.

## Ancestral reconstruction

Standard parsimony character optimization was implemented in Mesquite 2.75 (Maddison and Maddison 2011) to reconstruct the ancestral state for corolla tube shape and anther dehiscence. For the reconstruction we used the BI consensus topology derived from the total evidence data set, and considered the characters unordered and equally weighted. This method finds the ancestral states that minimize the number of changes required to explain the distribution of character states observed on the phylogeny (Maddison and Maddison 2011).

## Flower visitation and pollination modes

To identify floral visitors, flowers from the six species of Drymonia were videotaped with Sony Digital Camcorders. With three cameras, we were able to videotape three different flowers (from three different plants) at any given time. Each camera was placed on a tripod approximately 2 m away from the focal flower and covered with a modified 2-L plastic bottle to protect it from rain. Flower visitor surveys were selected to focus on at least one species for each of the four different corolla shapes of Drymonia (Table 2). Examples of each corolla shape are shown in Fig. 1 and the coding of corolla shape for the entire matrix is provided in Table 1. The following six Drymonia species were videotaped: Drymonia affinis (Mansf.) Wiehler and D. hoppii (Mansf.) Wiehler (laterally compressed); D. dodsonii (Wiehler) J.L. Clark and D. tenuis (Benth.) J.L. Clark (pouched); D. ecuadorensis Wiehler (bell-shaped); and $D$. urceolata Wiehler (urn-shaped). A total of 164 h of filming (16-48 h per taxon) were performed in 2009, 2010, and 2011 in three localities in Ecuador. Visits were considered legitimate when the visitor entered the corolla and made contact with the anthers (Table 1).

## Results

DNA sequencing and alignment
Amplifications were successful for all regions for all individuals, with some exceptions (Appendix 1). Of the three regions sampled, ITS provided the most parsimony-informative substitutions ( 142 or $51 \%$ of the combined three regions; Appendix 2). The trnK-matK spacer provided the least number of parsimony-substitutions ( 20 or $7.2 \%$ of the combined three regions; Appendix 2). The aligned matrix for the full analysis contained 1,689 basepairs; of these, 1,176 were constant and 235 were uninformative. The outgroups of the analysis contributed 53 of the 278 parsimony informative substitutions. There were no ambiguously aligned sites excluded from the analysis. Sequence divergence in the ingroup was relatively conserved and no informative indels required scoring. The complete list of gene regions and statistics is provided in Appendix 2.
Table 1 Pollinator survey information outlining taxon, distribution, source of observation (literature citation if not generated for this study), and corolla shape

| Taxon | Distribution | Source of observation | Pollinator | Corolla shape |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ingroup (50) |  |  |  |  |
| Drymonia affinis (Mansf.) Wiehler | Central and South America | This study (Ecuador) | Bird | Laterally compressed |
| Drymonia alloplectoides Hanst. | Central and South America |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia ambonensis (L.E. Skog) J.L. Clark | Central America |  |  | Hypocyrtoid |
| Drymonia atropurpurea Clavijo and J.L. Clark | Ecuador and Colombia |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia brochidodroma Wiehler | Ecuador and Colombia |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia candida Hanst. | Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia chiribogana Wiehler | Ecuador |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia coccinea (Aubl.) Wiehler | South America |  |  | Laterally compressed |
| Drymonia coccinea (Aubl.) Wiehler | South America |  |  | Laterally compressed |
| Drymonia conchocalyx Wiehler | Central America | Feinsinger et al. (1987) | Bird | Laterally compressed |
| Drymonia coriacea (Oerst. ex Hanst.) Wiehler | Central and South America |  |  | Hypocyrtoid |
| Drymonia crassa C.V. Morton | Colombia and Venezuela |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia crenatiloba (Mansf.) Wiehler | Ecuador |  |  | Urceolate |
| Drymonia decora J.R. Clark and J.L. Clark | Costa Rica |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia dodsonii (Wiehler) J.L. Clark | Colombia and Ecuador | This study (Ecuador) | Bird | Hypocyrtoid |
| Drymonia doratostyla (Leeuwenb.) Wiehler | Bolivia and Peru |  |  | Laterally compressed |
| Drymonia ecuadorensis Wiehler | Ecuador | This study (Ecuador) | Bee | Campanulate |
| Drymonia foliacea (Rusby) Wiehler | South America |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia folsomii L.E. Skog | Costa Rica and Panama |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia hoppii (Mansf.) Wiehler | South America | This study (Ecuador) | Bird | Laterally compressed |
| Drymonia ignea J.L. Clark | Ecuador |  |  | Urceolate |
| Drymonia killipii Wiehler | Colombia and Ecuador |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia laciniosa Wiehler | Ecuador and Peru |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia lanceolata (Hanst.) C.V. Morton | Central and South America |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia longifolia Poepp. | South America |  |  | Campanulate |

Table 1 continued

| Taxon | Distribution | Source of observation | Pollinator | Corolla shape |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Drymonia macrantha (Donn. Sm.) D.N. Gibson | Central America |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia macrophylla (Oerst.) H.E. Moore | Central and South America |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia microphylla Wiehler | Panama |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia mortoniana (Oerst.) H.E. Moore | Costa Rica |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia multiflora (Oerst. ex Hanst.) Wiehler | Central America | Stiles and Freeman (1993) | Bird | Laterally compressed |
| Drymonia ovatifolia J.L. Clark | Central and South America | Enrique (1998) | Bee | Campanulate |
| Drymonia parviflora Hanst. | Costa Rica and Panama |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia peltata (Oliver) H.E. Moore | Costa Rica |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia pendula (Poepp.) Wiehler | South America |  |  | Laterally compressed |
| Drymonia pilifera Wiehler | Costa Rica and Panama |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia pulchra Wiehler | Ecuador |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia rhodoloma Wiehler | Colombia and Ecuador |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia rubra C.V. Morton | Costa Rica and Panama |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia rubripilosa Wiehler | Costa Rica |  |  | Laterally compressed |
| Drymonia serrulata (Jacq.) Mart. | Central and South America | Steiner (1985) | Bee | Campanulate |
| Drymonia stenophylla (Donn. Sm.) H.E. Moore | Central America |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia strigosa (Oerst.) Wiehler | Central America | Enrique (1998) | Bee | Campanulate |
| Drymonia submarginalis Gómez-Laur. and M.M. Chavarría | Costa Rica and Nicaragua |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia tenuis (Benth.) J.L. Clark | Colombia and Ecuador | This study Dziedzioch et al. (2003) | Bird | Hypocyrtoid |
| Drymonia teuscheri (Raymond) J.L. Clark | South America | Dziedzioch et al. (2003) | Bird | Hypocyrtoid |
| Drymonia turrialvae Hanst. | Central and South America | Dressler (1968) | Bee | Campanulate |
| Drymonia urceolata Wiehler | South America | This study Dziedzioch et al. (2003) | Bird | Urceolate |
| Drymonia warszewicziana Hanst. | Central and South America |  |  | Campanulate |
| Drymonia sp. 1-JLC 6863 | Venezuela |  |  | Urceolate |
| Drymonia sp. 2-JLC 8366 | Ecuador |  |  | Urceolate |

Tests of incongruence
The incongruence length difference (ILD) tests found no significant discordance between the ITS and ETS datasets ( $P=0.100$ ) or between the combined nrDNA (ITS concatenated with ETS) and $\operatorname{trnK}-m a t \mathrm{~K}$ (cpDNA) datasets ( $P=1.00$ and 0.500 respectively). Therefore, we combined these three datasets in a total evidence analysis.

Phylogenetic analyses
The parsimony analysis for the combined dataset resulted in 208 trees of length 1,230 ( $\mathrm{CI}=0.55, \mathrm{RI}=0.66$, and $\mathrm{RC}=0.36$ ). The strict consensus of these trees is congruent with the tree shown in Fig. 3. Minor exceptions include polytomies for some of the crown clades. Clades that collapse in the strict consensus tree that are resolved in ML or BI are indicated by asterisks in Fig. 3.

Pollination modes
Results of videotaping were consistent with an association between constricted corollas and hummingbird pollination (Table 1). The species with bell-shaped corollas, D. ecuadorensis, was visited solely by euglossine bees (Fig. 2e, f) at a rate of 3.29 visits per hour. No bee visits were recorded to the five species with constricted openings (urn-shaped, pouched, and laterally compressed), while hummingbirds visited these flowers at rates of 0.04 to 0.36 visits per hour. Literature surveys further support this pattern; bees have been observed pollinating the bell-shaped D. aciculata Wiehler (observations by Dressler, cited in Steiner 1985), D. serrulata (Steiner 1985), D. strigosa (Enrique 1998), D. turrialvae Hanst. (Dressler 1968), and D. ovatifolia J.L. Clark (as Nautilocalyx panamensis (Seem.) Seem.; Enrique 1998), while hummingbirds have been observed pollinating the laterally compressed D. conchocalyx Hanst. (Feinsinger et al. 1987) and D. multiflora (Oerst. ex Hanst.) Wiehler (Stiles and Freeman 1993) as well as the pouched D. teuscheri (Raymond) J.L. Clark (Dziedzioch et al. 2003).

## Discussion

Bayesian, maximum likelihood, and parsimony analyses all resulted in congruent topologies with high levels of node support, and corolla shapes were unambiguously optimized on the inferred phylogeny for Drymonia (Fig. 3). This optimization strongly supports the convergent evolution of corolla shapes in Drymonia, with multiple independent origins of the three types of constricted corolla tubes from campanulate ancestors (cf., legend in Fig. 3).

## Traditional circumscription of Drymonia

The results presented here are congruent with previous phylogenetic studies that support the non-monophyly of traditional Drymonia (Clark et al. 2006; 2012). The traditional circumscription of Drymonia is artificial because it relies on corolla shape and anther dehiscence, traits that reflect pollination syndrome rather than evolutionary relatedness. Below we discuss shifts from campanulate corollas to each of the three types of constricted corollas in greater detail.

Pollination modes
Results of the pollinator observations and literature survey support the hypothesis that corolla constriction evolved multiple times in association with bird pollination. Species with the ancestral bell-shaped corollas are pollinated by bees, while species with pouched, urn-shaped, or laterally compressed corollas are pollinated by hummingbirds (Table 1). Euglossine and Epicharis bees found to pollinate bell-shaped Drymonia have thorax widths of $5-10 \mathrm{~mm}$ (Steiner 1985). The narrow openings of pouched ( $3.0-4.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ ), urn-shaped $(4.0-4.8 \mathrm{~mm})$, and laterally compressed flowers $(3.0-4.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ at the top of the throat and $1.0-2.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ near the base of the throat) effectively prevent access by bees to the pollen and nectar rewards of these flowers, while visitation results demonstrate they are not narrow enough to serve as barriers to hummingbird bills. Thus narrow corollas in Drymonia serve as a 'barrier trait', preventing or reducing visitation by bees and other insects.

We hypothesize that selection to reduce loss of pollen and nectar to insects was the main driver of evolutionary narrowing of corollas. Alternatively, constricted corollas may have evolved primarily to better guide hummingbird bills and increase precision and consistency of pollen placement. Temeles et al. (2002) demonstrated that flower width is an important factor when considering the coevolution and specialization of hummingbirds and flowers (also see Grant and Temeles 1992, Muchhala 2007). Future experimental work would be useful in evaluating the relative importance of bill-corolla fit vs. insect exclusion in the repeated evolution of constricted corollas across Drymonia.

Along with corolla shape, the shifts in primary pollinators across Drymonia are also associated with changes in anther dehiscence. The ancestral condition of poricidal dehiscence ("salt-shaker anthers") is independently lost in six clades, each of which is also associated with constricted corollas and hummingbird pollination (Fig. 3). For some species in these clades, including D. urceolata (Fig. 2c, d), D. rubripilosa Kriebel and D. multiflora, an initial poricidal stage can be detected before anthers fully rupture via longitudinal dehiscence (prior to anthesis). The presence of a vestigial poricidal dehiscence stage further supports the conclusion that these represent recent shifts from ancestors with poricidal anthers. We suggest that the shifts in anther dehiscence represent adaptations to more effectively present pollen to each pollinator type. To maximize male fitness, selection should favor placing specific amounts of pollen on each visitor, with the optimal dose size depending on visitation frequency and visitor behavior (Harder and Thomson 1989; Thomson and Thomson 1992; Castellanos et al. 2006). Thus, because bees tend to have high visit rates and frequently groom excess pollen off their bodies (Harder 1990), bee-pollinated plants should present their pollen in numerous small doses to as many bees as possible, while for hummingbirds, pollen would be more effectively dispersed in fewer, larger doses (Thomson et al. 2000, Castellanos et al. 2006). In line with this scenario, the hummingbird-adapted Drymonia species with narrow corollas have much lower visitation rates than the bee-adapted D. ecuadorensis (Table 2). The 'salt-shaker' poricidal anthers in Drymonia likely evolved to slowly dose pollen to multiple bees, while also avoiding 'over-dosing' individual bees and triggering grooming behavior. Longitudinally-dehiscent anthers present few, larger doses to the infrequent hummingbird visitors.

## Pouched corollas

Pouched corollas (Fig. 1e) have three independent origins within Drymonia (Fig. 3); one in Central America and two in the northern Andes of South America (Fig. 3). Additional
Table 2 Results from videotaping flower visitors to six Drymonia species representing four corolla shapes

| Drymonia species | Corolla shape | Number of plants filmed | Total hours filmed | Total visits |  | Visits per hour |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | Bees | Birds | Bees | Birds |
| D. affinis | Laterally compressed | 3 | 16 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0.06 |
| D. dodsonii | Hypocyrtoid | 4 | 47.7 | 0 | 17 | 0.00 | 0.36 |
| D. ecuadorensis | Campanulate | 3 | 32.5 | 107 | 0 | 3.29 | 0.00 |
| D. hoppii | Laterally compressed | 3 | 17 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0.06 |
| D. tenuis | Hypocyrtoid | 5 | 26.7 | 0 | 1 | 0.00 | 0.04 |
| D. urceolata | Urceolate | 4 | 24 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0.13 |

independent origins of pouched corollas occur in other New World genera such as $B e$ sleria, Columnea, Gasteranthus, Nematanthus, Pachycaulos, and Paradrymonia.

The possible adaptive function of the enlarged pouches at the base of the corolla is unclear. One possibility is that they may serve as an 'overflow chamber' for the accumulation of nectar (sensu Wolf and Stiles 1989), however we consider this unlikely as we have never found nectar in the pouches when flowers were dissected in the field. Wiehler (1983) suggested that pouches serve as a "target enlargement;" an increased visual display that aids in long-distance attraction of hummingbirds. Many Drymonia inflorescences include brightly-colored bracts, thus the pouches could also function to create a 'bi-colored display' (sensu Willson and Thompson 1982).

Urn-shaped corollas
There are three independent origins of urn-shaped corollas (Fig. 1g, h) in Drymonia and they are all located in South America (Fig. 3). It is noteworthy that urn-shaped corollas share recent common ancestors with bell-shaped taxa (e.g., Drymonia turrialvae and D. foliaceae $+D$. ovatifolia) and pouched taxa (e.g., D. dodsonii, D. tenuis, and D. teuscheri). This study sampled nearly all of the currently known species of Drymonia with urnshaped corollas, including two species that are potentially new to science (JLC 8366 and JLC 6863).

Laterally compressed corollas
Laterally compressed corollas (Fig. 1c, b) within Drymonia have three independent origins; one in South America and two in Central America (Fig. 3). The clade that includes Drymonia rubripilosa and D. multiflora comprises species from Central America, and D. conchocalyx is also from Central America. The clade that includes Drymonia pendula, D. doratostyla, D. coccinea, D. hoppii and D. affinis comprises species from the western slopes of the northern Andes and western Amazonia. The South American clade of laterally compressed flowers is the only example in the genus where constricted corollas have retained the ancestral condition of poricidal anther dehiscence. All of the species with laterally compressed corollas are epiphytic and most have brightly colored bracts relative to sister-clades. Laterally compressed corollas are also found in most species of Glossoloma (Clark 2009) and in Nematanthus, for which hummingbird pollination is well documented (Franco and Buzato 1992; Sazima et al. 1995; Buzato et al. 2000; San MartinGajardo and Santana Vianna 2010).

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## Appendix 1

See Table 3.
Table 3 Specimens sequenced in molecular phylogenetic study of Drymonia and closely related congeners with voucher specimen, institution and GenBank accession numbers for ITS, ETS, and $\operatorname{trnK}-m a t \mathrm{~K}$

| Taxon | Voucher | Locality | ITS | ETS | trnK-matK |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ingroup |  |  |  |  |  |
| Drymonia affinis (Mansf.) Wiehler | L. Clavijo 1560 (COAH) | Colombia | KM079423 | KM079416 | KM079491 |
| Drymonia alloplectoides Hanst. | J.L. Clark 10049 (US) | Cultivated (Costa Rica) | KM079424 | KM079422 | KM079498 |
| Drymonia ambonensis (L.E. Skog) J.L. Clark | J.L. Clark 8600 (US) | Panama | DQ211134 | KM079399 | KM079474 |
| Drymonia atropurpurea Clavijo and J.L. Clark | L. Clavijo 1689 (COL) | Colombia | KM079425 | KM079392 | KM079467 |
| Drymonia brochidodroma Wiehler | J.L. Clark 7360 (US) | Ecuador | DQ211166 | KM079396 | KM079471 |
| Drymonia candida Hanst. | J.L. Clark 8341 (US) | Ecuador | DQ211131 | KM079413 | KM079488 |
| Drymonia chiribogana Wiehler | J.L. Clark 7358 (US) | Ecuador | DQ211149 | KM079385 | KM079460 |
| Drymonia coccinea (Aubl.) Wiehler | J.L. Clark 6492 (US) | Ecuador | DQ211132 | KM079419 | KM079495 |
| Drymonia coccinea (Aubl.) Wiehler | J.L. Clark 7247 (US) | Ecuador | KM079426 | KM079421 | KM079497 |
| Drymonia conchocalyx Wiehler | J.L. Clark 6276 (US) | Costa Rica | AF543261 | KM079384 | KM079459 |
| Drymonia coriacea (Oerst. ex Hanst.) Wiehler | J.L. Clark 6590 (US) | Cultivated (Ecuador) | DQ211129 | KM079414 | KM079489 |
| Drymonia crassa C.V. Morton | J.L. Clark 6865 (US) | Venezuela | KM079427 | KM079412 | KM079487 |
| Drymonia crenatiloba (Mansf.) Wiehler | J.L. Clark 5462 (US) | Ecuador | AF543259 | KM079375 | KM079450 |
| Drymonia decora J.R. Clark and J.L. Clark | J.L. Clark 10043 (US) | Cultivated (Costa Rica) | KM079428 | KM079389 | KM079464 |
| Drymonia dodsonii (Wiehler) J.L. Clark | J.L. Clark 6205 (US) | Ecuador | AF543256 | KM079379 | KM079454 |
| Drymonia doratostyla (Leeuwenb.) Wiehler | J.L. Clark 6783 (US) | Bolivia | DQ211144 | KM079418 | KM079493 |
| Drymonia ecuadorensis Wiehler | J.L. Clark 6185 (US) | Ecuador | DQ211147 | KM079386 | KM079461 |
| Drymonia foliacea (Rusby) Wiehler | J.L. Clark 6808 (US) | Bolivia | DQ211138 | KM079373 | KM079448 |
| Drymonia folsomii L.E. Skog | J.L. Clark 8569 (US) | Panama | KM079429 | KM079408 | KM079483 |
| Drymonia hoppii (Mansf.) Wiehler | J.L. Clark 5036 (US) | Ecuador | AF543263 | KM079417 | KM079492 |
| Drymonia ignea J.L. Clark | J.L. Clark 5713 (US) | Ecuador | AF543257 | KM079380 | KM079455 |
| Drymonia killipii Wiehler | J.L. Clark 7521 (US) | Ecuador | KF040189 | KM079402 | KM079477 |
| Drymonia laciniosa Wiehler | J.L. Clark 8794 (US) | Ecuador | DQ211126 | KM079411 | KM079486 |
| Drymonia lanceolata (Hanst.) C.V. Morton | J.L. Clark 8553 (US) | Panama | KF040190 | KM079401 | KM079476 |

Table 3 continued

| Taxon | Voucher | Locality | ITS | ETS | trnK-matK |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Drymonia longifolia Poepp. | J.L. Clark 6262 (US) | Ecuador | KF040191 | KM079371 | KM079446 |
| Drymonia macrantha (Donn. Sm.) D.N. Gibson | J.L. Clark 10055 (SEL) | Cultivated (Costa Rica) | KM079430 | KM079405 | KM079480 |
| Drymonia macrophylla (Oerst.) H.E. Moore | J.L. Clark 4776 (US) | Ecuador | KM079431 | KM079410 | KM079485 |
| Drymonia microphylla Wiehler | J.L. Clark 10036 (US) | Cultivated | KM079432 | KM079420 | KM079496 |
| Drymonia mortoniana (Oerst.) H.E. Moore | J.L. Clark 6585 (US) | Cultivated <br> (Panama, Costa Rica) | KM079433 | KM079400 | KM079475 |
| Drymonia multiflora (Oerst. ex Hanst.) Wiehler | J.L. Clark 8586 (US) | Panama | DQ211128 | KM079406 | KM079481 |
| Drymonia ovatifolia J.L. Clark | J.L. Clark 8625 (US) | Panama | DQ211175 | KM079376 | KM079451 |
| Drymonia parviflora Hanst. | J.L. Clark 8676 (US) | Panama | DQ211148 | KM079404 | KM079479 |
| Drymonia peltata (Oliver) H.E. Moore | J.L. Clark 6286 (US) | Cultivated (Costa Rica) | DQ211140 | KM079387 | KM079462 |
| Drymonia pendula (Poepp.) Wiehler | J.L. Clark 8870 (US) | Cultivated (Peru) | DQ211140 | KM079415 | KM079490 |
| Drymonia pilifera Wiehler | J.L. Clark 8568 (US) | Panama | DQ211137 | KM079374 | KM079449 |
| Drymonia pulchra Wiehler | J.L. Clark 7245 (US) | Ecuador | KM079434 | KM079370 | KM079445 |
| Drymonia rhodoloma Wiehler | J.L. Clark 4843 (US) | Ecuador | AF543260 | KM079383 | KM079458 |
| Drymonia rubra C.V. Morton | A. Monro 4242 (BM) | Costa Rica | KM079435 | KM079409 | KM079484 |
| Drymonia rubripilosa Wiehler | A. Monro 4911 (BM) | Costa Rica | KM079436 | KM079407 | KM079482 |
| Drymonia serrulata (Jacq.) Mart. | J.L. Clark 8843 (US) | Cultivated (Central and South America) | DQ211133 | KM095651 | KM079494 |
| Drymonia stenophylla (Donn. Sm.) H.E. Moore | J.L. Clark 8872 (US) | Cultivated (Panama) | KM079437 | KM079388 | KM079463 |
| Drymonia strigosa (Oerst.) Wiehler | J.L. Clark 8854 (US) | Cultivated (Mexico) | DQ211143 | KM079403 | KM079478 |
| Drymonia submarginalis Gómez-Laur. and M.M. Chavarría | J.L. Clark 8871 (US) | Cultivated (Costa Rica) | DQ211143 | KM079390 | KM079465 |
| Drymonia tenuis (Benth.) J.L. Clark | J.L. Clark 4586 (US) | Ecuador | AF543254 | KM079381 | KM079456 |
| Drymonia teuscheri (Raymond) J.L. Clark | J.L. Clark 8174 (US) | Peru | KM079438 | KM079382 | KM079457 |
| Drymonia turrialvae Hanst. | J.L. Clark 8552 (US) | Panama | DQ211141 | KM079398 | KM079473 |
| Drymonia urceolata Wiehler | J.L. Clark 5225 (US) | Ecuador | KF040192 | KM079372 | KM079447 |
| Drymonia warszewicziana Hanst. | J.L. Clark 8614 (US) | Panama | DQ211127 | KM079397 | KM079472 |
| Drymonia sp. 1 | J.L. Clark 6863 (US) | Venezuela | DQ211142 | KM079378 | KM079453 |

Table 3 continued

| Taxon | Voucher | Locality | ITS | ETS | trnK-matK |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Drymonia sp. 2 | J.L. Clark 8366 (US) | Ecuador | DQ211130 | KM079377 | KM079452 |
| Outgroup |  |  |  |  |  |
| Alloplectus aquatilis C.V. Morton | J. L. Clark 6875 (US) | Venezuela | DQ211110 | KM079394 | KM079469 |
| Columnea billbergiana Beurl. | J. L. Clark 8630 (US) | Panama | DQ211115 | KM079366 | KM079441 |
| Columnea scandens L. | J. L. Clark 6541 (US) | Martinique | KM079439 | KM079367 | KM079442 |
| Crantzia cristata (L.) Scop. | J.L. Clark 6546 (US) | Martinique | DQ211154 | KM079365 | KM079440 |
| Corytoplectus congestus (Linden ex Hanst.) Wiehler | J.L. Clark 6868 (US) | Venezuela | DQ211162 | KM079395 | KM079470 |
| Glossoloma herthae (Mansf.) J.L. Clark | J.L. Clark 4958 (US) | Ecuador | AF543230 | KM079391 | KM079466 |
| Glossoloma tetragonum Hanst. | J.L. Clark 8547 (US) | Panama | DQ211104 | KM079393 | KM079468 |
| Neomortonia rosea Wiehler | J. L. Clark 7582 (US) | Ecuador | DQ211099 | KM079369 | KM079444 |
| Pachycaulos nummularia (Hanst.) J.L. Clark and J.F. Sm. | J.L. Clark 6248 (US) | Ecuador | AF543266 | KM079368 | KM079443 |

Herbarium acronyms follow Thiers (2013)

## Appendix 2

See Table 4.

Table 4 Statistics of ITS, ETS and trnK-matK genic regions

| Statistic | ETS | ITS | trnK-matK | All three regions |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Aligned length | 462 | 632 | 595 | 1,689 |
| Mean GC content $(\%)$ | $46.7(46.8)$ | $58.2(58.2)$ | $32.7(32.7)$ | $45.7(45.7)$ |
| Mean pair-wise divergence (\%) | $8.0(5.7)$ | $5.7(5.2)$ | $8.9(8.8)$ | $4.1(3.8)$ |
| Parsimony uninformative substitutions | $87(82)$ | $86(71)$ | $62(52)$ | $235(205)$ |
| Parsimony informative substitutions | $116(87)$ | $142(120)$ | $20(18)$ | $278(225)$ |
| Constant characters | $259(293)$ | $404(441)$ | $513(525)$ | $1176(1,259)$ |
| Consistency index | $.59(.65)$ | $.50(.57)$ | $.90(.90)$ | $.55(.60)$ |
| Retention index | $.70(.76)$ | $.67(.73)$ | $.86(.87)$ | $.66(.72)$ |
| Rescaled consistency index | $.41(.50)$ | $.34(.41)$ | $.77(.78)$ | $.36(.43)$ |
| Tree length | $464(337)$ | $625(449)$ | $97(81)$ | $1,230(906)$ |

Values in parentheses are for the ingroup only (i.e., Drymonia)

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