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      Title: Phylogenomic analyses re-examine the evolution of reinforcement and hypothesized
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      hybrid speciation in Phlox wildflowers
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Supporting Information: Figures S1-S10; Table S1-S4

SUMMARY

- The tree of life is riddled with reticulate evolutionary histories, and some clades, such as the eastern standing *Phlox*, appear to be hotspots of hybridization. In this group there are two cases of reinforcement and nine hypothesized hybrid species. Given their historical importance in our understanding of plant speciation, the relationships of these taxa and the role of hybridization in their diversification require genomic validation.
- Using phylogenomic analyses, we resolve the evolutionary relationships of the eastern standing *Phlox* and interrogate hypotheses about if and how hybridization and gene flow played a role in their diversification.
- Our results provide novel resolution of the phylogenetic relationships in this group, including paraphyly across some taxa. We identify gene flow during one case of reinforcement, and find genomic support for a hybrid lineage underlying one of the five hypothesized homoploid hybrid speciation events. Additionally, we estimate the ancestries of four allotetraploid hybrid species.
- Our results are consistent with hybridization contributing to diverse evolutionary
 outcomes within this group; although, not as extensively as previously hypothesized. This
 study demonstrates the importance of phylogenomics in evaluating hypothesized
 evolutionary histories of non-model systems and adds to the growing support of
 interspecific genetic exchange in the generation of biodiversity.

KEYWORDS: gene flow; hybridization; hybrid species; phylogeny; polyploid; RADseq; reinforcement; speciation

INTRODUCTION

Hybridization and gene flow can play important and diverse roles during the formation and divergence of species (Taylor & Larson, 2019). While these processes are often viewed as homogenizing forces, they can also generate novel variation. For example, gene flow can create stable hybrid species and/or fuel adaptive radiations (Abbott *et al.*, 2013; Schumer *et al.*, 2014; Marques *et al.*, 2019). The act of hybridization itself can also create selective pressures favoring the evolution of reproductive trait divergence to reduce mating between species, i.e. reinforcement (Howard, 1993; Garner *et al.*, 2018). The effects of hybridization and gene flow on speciation have been investigated across the tree of life, yet we lack a broader understanding of the frequency and extent to which these forces impact speciation across clades (but see Eaton *et al.*, 2015; Pease *et al.*, 2016). Characterizing the context and consequences of hybridization and gene flow across groups of species is necessary for discerning how these forces influence the generation and maintenance of biodiversity.

Much of the foundational work on hybridization as a creative force in speciation comes

Much of the foundational work on hybridization as a creative force in speciation comes from historic research on non-model plant systems (Anderson, 1949; Stebbins, 1959; Grant, 1981). Patterns of morphological, physiological, and ecological trait variation across and within plant species created taxonomic conflict, inspiring biologists to propose some species arose from interspecific mating (Goulet *et al.*, 2017). In particular, observations of populations with combinations of intermediate, recombinant, and novel traits to those of nearby geographically overlapping species inspired hypotheses of polyploid and homoploid hybrid speciation (Gottlieb, 1972; Soltis & Soltis, 2009; Yakimowski & Rieseberg, 2014; Barker *et al.*, 2016). It is important to return to these hypothesized cases of hybrid speciation with genomic tests for gene flow to evaluate their hypothesized origins and further understand the context and dynamics of their evolution (Goulet *et al.*, 2017).

Similarly, patterns of trait divergence in sympatry, where species coexist, but not in allopatry, motivated hypotheses of hybridization causing reproductive trait divergence by reinforcement (Hopkins, 2013). Yet, only a few empirical studies have evaluated the presence and extent of gene flow alongside the reinforcement's evolution (Kulathinal *et al.*, 2009; Roda *et al.*, 2017; Turissini & Matute, 2017; Lemmon & Juenger, 2017; Dyer *et al.*, 2018). Maladaptive hybridization can drive selection for reinforcement and the divergence of plant reproductive traits, such as flower color and cross-compatibility (McNeilly & Antonovics, 1968; Levin, 1985;

76 Fishman & Wyatt, 1999). However, gene flow and recombination can also impede divergence by 77 reinforcement (Felsenstein, 1981). Much debate and theory has focused on if and how 78 reinforcement can evolve if hybridization also causes interspecific gene flow (Servedio & Noor, 79 2003), but further genomic study of cases of reinforcement are needed to understand if and how 80 this reproductive trait divergence has evolved with gene flow. 81 Hybridization and gene flow result in genetic mixing between species. If these processes 82 coincide with the formation of novel lineages, admixture of parental species' genetic variation 83 will be present in the new lineage. Traditional phylogenetic methods infer evolution along 84 bifurcating trees. However, modern phylogenomic analyses can use discordance in allele patterns 85 under these trees (Green et al., 2010; Durand et al., 2011) or model allele frequencies at the tips 86 (Gutenkunst et al., 2009; Pickrell & Pritchard, 2012; Excoffier et al., 2013) to identify a history 87 of gene flow between taxa (reviewed in Hibbins & Hahn, 2021). Contemporary genome-wide 88 sequencing methods, such as restriction site-associated DNA (RAD) sequencing (Andrews et al., 89 2016), allow cost-efficient application of these methods to infer the evolutionary histories of 90 genetic exchange in non-model systems (Eaton & Ree, 2013; Eaton et al., 2015; Léveillé-Bourret 91 et al., 2020; Bombonato et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2021; Suissa et al., 2022). 92 The eastern standing *Phlox* (Polemoniaceae) wildflowers are an ideal system for 93 exploring the role of hybridization and gene flow in speciation. They are a monophyletic group 94 (Landis et al., 2018) distinct from the rest of *Phlox* by their upright growth habit and natural 95 occurrence across North America. Their natural ranges overlap and intertwine, generating 96 numerous zones of species contact (Fig. 1), and reproductive barriers between these taxa are 97 permissive (Levin, 1966b). Decades of morphological, ecological, and biochemical evidence 98 have suggested hybridization and gene flow between taxa, leading to hypotheses of their 99 diversification by hybrid speciation and reinforcement (Anderson & Gage, 1952; Erbe & Turner, 100 1962; Levin, 1966a; Levin & Smith, 1966; Levin & Kerster, 1967; Levin & Schaal, 1970b; Levin, 1985). 101 102 There are five hypothesized cases of homoploid hybrid species (*P. argillacea*, *P.* 103 maculata subsp. pyramidalis, P. pilosa subsp. deamii, P. pilosa subsp. detonsa, and P. amoena 104 subsp. lighthipei) and at least four cases of allotetraploid hybrid species (P. villosissima subsp. 105 villosissima, P. villosissima subsp. latisepala, P. floridana, P. buckleyi) (Table 1) within the 106 eastern standing *Phlox*. These hypotheses were originally based on observations that putative

PHYLOGENOMICS AND SPECIATION OF PHLOX

10/	hybrid lineages had reproductive, morphological, and ecophysiological trait values that appear to
108	be intermediate, recombined, or transgressive with putative parental taxa, making them
109	potentially reproductively and ecologically distinct from their parental lineages (Levin, 1963,
110	1969; Levin & Smith, 1966; Hadley & Levin, 1969). Further analysis of karyology (Smith &
111	Levin, 1967; Levin, 1968), cross-compatibility (Levin, 1966b), biochemical profiles (Levin &
112	Schaal, 1970b, 1972; Levy & Levin, 1974, 1975), and microsatellite markers (Fehlberg et al.,
113	2014) built support for these hypotheses. Finally, natural hybrid zones and synthetic crosses
114	between pairs of putative parental taxa generated hybrids with phenotypes similar to the putative
115	hybrid species (Levin, 1963, 1966a; Levin & Smith, 1966). However, other treatments of these
116	putative hybrid species have assumed them to be diverging varieties without hybridization
117	defining their formation (Wherry, 1956) or found no support for hybrid ancestry with genome-
118	wide markers (Goulet-Scott et al., 2021).
119	This clade of <i>Phlox</i> also has two cases of reinforcement. During the speciation of both <i>P</i> .
120	drummondii and P. pilosa subsp. pilosa, flower color divergence within sympatric populations
121	decreases matings with closely related species (reviewed in Hopkins, 2013; Fig. 3). P.
122	drummondii has evolved from having light-blue to dark-red flower color to prevent hybridization
123	with sympatric light-blue colored P. cuspidata (Levin, 1985; Hopkins & Rausher, 2012), and P.
124	pilosa subsp. pilosa have evolved from pink to white flower color to prevent hybridization where
125	it co-occurs with pink colored P. glaberrima subsp. interior (Levin & Kerster, 1967).
126	Biochemical evidence suggests gene flow occurred between sympatric P. pilosa subsp. pilosa
127	and P. glaberrima subsp. interior (Levin & Schaal, 1972), and transcriptomic analyses have
128	inferred a history of gene flow between sympatric P. drummondii and P. cuspidata but analyses
129	were limited to single individuals (Roda et al., 2017).
130	Phlox has been a taxonomically and phylogenetically difficult genus. Traditional
131	delineations of <i>Phlox</i> taxa relied on morphological and eco-geographic characteristics, resulting
132	in decades of describing, promoting, and demoting species, subspecies, and varieties
133	(Whitehouse, 1945; Wherry, 1955, 1965; Erbe & Turner, 1962; Turner, 1998; Locklear,
134	2011a,b). Variation in pistil style length has been used to divide the eastern standing <i>Phlox</i> into
135	long-styled (10-26mm) and short-styled (1.5-4mm) species groups (Wherry, 1930, 1931, 1932,
136	1955; Ferguson et al., 1999). However, other morphological traits vary widely within and
137	between species, and species-level relationships within the group remain either poorly supported

or incongruent across phylogenetic studies (Ferguson *et al.*, 1999; Ferguson & Jansen, 2002; Landis *et al.*, 2018; Goulet-Scott *et al.*, 2021). Resolving the phylogenetic relationship of the eastern standing *Phlox* with genomic methods will provide a framework for returning to evolutionary hypotheses about their speciation and understanding the dynamics of their diversification.

Here, we apply double-digest RAD (ddRAD) sequencing with phylogenomic approaches to resolve the evolutionary relationships of the eastern standing *Phlox*. We leverage this phylogenetic framework to test if gene flow has occurred alongside the evolution of two cases of reinforcement and investigate evidence of genomic composition and gene flow in multiple hypothesized cases of homoploid and allotetraploid hybrid speciation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling, sequencing, and data processing

We collected wild plants from across the native ranges of the eastern standing *Phlox* from 2017-2019, and we acquired additional samples from natural populations preserved in tissue culture at the Ohio State University Ornamental Plant Germplasm Center (OPGC). Our sampling includes thirty-two described eastern standing *Phlox* taxa, and three taxa from the outgroup matforming *Phlox* (Fig. 1; Supporting Information Table S1). We split taxa following Locklear, 2011b, except for the Texas annuals for which we only designated at species level.

Plants were grown in the greenhouse under controlled conditions until flowering. We extracted genomic DNA from bud tissue, processed this DNA into double-digest restriction-site-associated digestion (ddRAD) sequencing libraries, and paired-end sequenced the libraries as described in Goulet-Scott *et al.*, 2021. Raw sequence reads were demultiplexed, filtered, and *de novo* assembled as described in Goulet-Scott *et al.*, 2021, resulting in a final dataset of 116 ingroup and 4 outgroup individuals.

For all 120 samples, filtered reads (average of 3,060,421 reads per individual) were processed by iPyRAD v.0.9.50 (Eaton & Overcast, 2020) to construct four data matrices with varying levels of missingness, requiring a locus to be shared among a minimum of N = 4, 10, 20, and 30 individuals, named MS4, MS10, MS20, and MS30 respectively. These data matrices contain 165,549 to 53,871 loci and 1,884,423 to 105,363 SNP sites with a locus missingness rate of 90%, 83%, 72%, and 60% respectively.

Phylogenetic inferences

Phylogenetic relationships of our samples were inferred using concatenation and coalescent-based methods. First, ddRAD loci from the MS10, MS20 and MS30 datasets were individually concatenated into supermatrices. Maximum likelihood (ML) phylogenies were estimated from each supermatrix using IQ-TREE v.1.6.10 (Nguyen *et al.*, 2015) with the GTR + gamma nucleotide substitution model and 1,000 bootstrap replicates using ultrafast bootstrap approximation (Minh *et al.*, 2013; Hoang *et al.*, 2018). For the MS30 dataset, we estimated site concordance factors, or the level of concordance between the inferred tree and quartets at individual sites, as implemented in IQ-Tree (Minh *et al.*, 2020).

Second, we inferred a species-level phylogeny using a coalescent model in the program SVDquartets (Chifman & Kubatko, 2014), as implemented by PAUP v.4.0a166 (Swofford, 2002). Analyses were performed using the MS30 dataset, with all individuals grouped by taxa and omitting the mat-forming outgroup. For the SNP-site with the least amount of missing data from each locus, totaling 5,306 variant sites, we sampled all possible quartets with 100 non-parametric bootstrap replicates to generate a majority-rule consensus species tree. To consider the effects of introgression on the inferred relationships, this analysis was repeated, dropping all allopolyploid hybrids and individuals identified to have a signal of gene flow using D-statistics in analyses described below.

Support values between our concatenation and coalescent-based inference methods are derived from different estimation methods, standard bootstrap support (SBS) and ultrafast bootstrap support (UBS) respectively, and cannot be directly compared (Minh et~al., 2013; Chifman & Kubatko, 2014). SBS underestimates the likelihood of relationships (SBS \geq 70% has a 95% probability of being correct), while UBS are unbiased when \geq 70% (UBS = 95% has a 0.95% probability of being correct)(Hillis & Bull, 1993; Minh et~al., 2013).

Tests for gene flow alongside reinforcement

We tested for evidence of gene flow alongside the evolution of reinforcement in *P. drummondii* and *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa*. First, we computed Patterson's D-statistic (Durand *et al.*, 2011) to infer if gene flow occurred between two lineages in a given phylogeny. This test measures the asymmetry in the ratio of two discordant allele patterns, ABBA and BABA, across

the topology of a four-taxon pectinate tree ((P1, P2), P3), O). Under stochastic lineage divergence without gene flow between lineages P3 and P1 or P3 and P2, the proportion of discordant allele patterns from incomplete lineage sorting are unbiased (ABBA=BABA); however, when introgression has occurred between P3 and P1 or P3 and P2, one discordant allele pattern is more prevalent than the other.

We defined the P1, P2, P3, and O lineages as taxa and a "test" as a unique combination of individuals from these taxa. We subset the complete MS4 data matrix to include the individuals from a set of four taxa that fit the pectinate topology under our ML phylogenetic trees. P1 is the taxon that diverged by reinforcement (P. drummondii and P. pilosa subsp. pilosa), P2 as a taxon out to P1 but not involved in the reinforcement hypothesis, P3 as the taxon sympatric with P1 driving divergence by reinforcement (P. cuspidata and P. glaberrima subsp. interior), and O as an individual from a proximal lineage out to all other lineages. Tests were iterated over all possible combinations of all individuals of the P1 and P3 lineages, up to three randomly sampled individuals of the P2 lineage not observed growing geographically near populations of P1 or P3, and two individuals of the O lineage. The white flowered P. pilosa subsp. pilosa lineage that evolved by reinforcement diverged from the lineage of northern P. pilosa subsp. pilosa populations (Fig. 2); therefore, we only used *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North individuals in these tests. We also considered two different species as the P2 lineage in the hypothesis concerning P. pilosa subsp. pilosa North. In each test, only the loci present across all four taxa were used to quantify ABBA and BABA patterns. For all possible tests, we implemented the D-statistic test for 1,000 bootstrap iterations, with loci resampling with replacement, as described in Eaton et al., 2015. Tests with |Z-score| >3 are statistically significant.

To complement our D-statistic tests, a history of gene flow between the focal taxa in each reinforcement scenario was also evaluated by modeling subtrees of our phylogenetic sampling using TreeMix v1.13 (Pickrell & Pritchard, 2012), as implemented in iPyRAD. We first generated two subsets of the MS4 data matrix for each reinforcement scenario, referred to as the "P. pilosa" and "P. drummondii" submatrices respectively. These submatrices include all individuals from all non-hybrid lineages in the clades containing the focal taxa, P. drummondii and P. cuspidata or P. pilsoa subsp. pilosa North and P. glaberrima subsp. interior, all intermediate clades, and from an outgroup to these lineages. In iPyRAD, individuals were grouped based on their taxon identity, with individuals of P. drummondii and P. pilosa subsp.

pilosa North split based on flower color phenotype, and one unlinked SNP-site present in at least 20% of individuals within a species was sampled from each locus in the submatix. The P. drummondii (4,638 unlinked SNPs) and P. Pilosa submatrices (3,383 unlinked SNPs) were analyzed in TreeMix to estimate subtree models with m = 1-8 possible migration edges. The best supported number of migration edges was qualitatively chosen as the value at which the log-likelihood of the model began to increase only marginally.

Testing origins of homoploid hybrid species

To assess if there is genetic support for the five homoploid hybrid speciation hypotheses in this group (Table 1), we leveraged our phylogenetic inferences and evidence of gene flow to evaluate four expectations of genomic variation under a scenario of hybrid speciation: 1) the putative hybrid sits sister to or nested within one of its putative parental taxon in our bifurcating phylogenetic reconstructions, 2) the putative hybrid shows a signal of gene flow with its other parental taxon, 3) the signal of gene flow is exclusive to the putative hybrid, and 4) the signal of gene flow goes into the putative hybrid.

For putative hybrids that meet the first expectation, we tested for the presence of gene flow with the second putative parental lineage using Patterson's D-statistic, as described above. For each hybrid hypothesis, a four-taxon tree was generated by subsetting the MS4 dataset to all individuals of the putative hybrid species and putative second parent species, three individuals from a species lineage between the putative hybrid and putative parent, and two individuals of a closely related outgroup. The putative hybrid and the putative parent lineages served as either P1 or P3 based on the structure of our ML phylogenies. We also considered multiple species as the P2 lineage. For putative hybrid lineages with significant evidence of gene flow with their parental taxon, we evaluated if the signature of gene flow was localized to the hybrid lineage by testing for any gene flow between the two putative parental taxa. All hybrid hypotheses tested with D-statistics were also modeled with TreeMix v.1.13, as described above. For these analyses, the "P. maculata subsp. pyramidalis", "P. amoena subsp. lighthipei", and "P. pilosa subsp. detonsa" submatrices analyzed in TreeMix included 4,490, 4,294, and 1,033 unlinked SNPs respectively. We used the "P. pilosa" submatrix for the P. argillacea hypothesis given their identical sampling.

Inferring origins of allotetraploid hybrid species

We investigated the hypothesized ancestries of the four allotetraploid hybrid species (Table 1) using a consensus and comparative read alignment approach, previously demonstrated in birch trees (Wang *et al.*, 2021). Sequenced representatives of these taxa were previously confirmed to be tetraploid via flow cytometry at the OPGC.

First, we created reference consensus sequences from diploid lineages. Whole ddRAD loci present in at least 60% of diploid taxa from the MS4 dataset were concatenated to generate taxon-level consensus sequences using the iPyRAD window extractor toolkit, retaining the most common allele in the consensus sequence for species with multiple samples. We then mapped the filtered sequence reads for all allotetraploids to the diploid consensus sequences using bwamem (Li, 2013). We tallied the proportion of primary read alignments with a mapping quality \geq 5 for the forward and reverse reads. We reasoned the diploid consensus receiving the highest proportion of quality read alignments would be most closely related to the ancestor of the mapped reads (Wang *et al.*, 2021).

We tested this assumption by mapping one representative from each diploid taxon to the consensus sequences. We observed the consensus receiving the highest relative proportion of mapped reads corresponding to the identity of the diploid individual the read came from (Supporting Information Table S4). This method allows identification of small subclades of diploid taxa to which the reads are most similar, and we inferred the ancestry of the allopolyploid subgenomes as the diploid subclades receiving the highest rates of read mapping (Wang *et al.*, 2021).

Finally, reticulate evolutionary relationships resulting from allopolyploidy are not well represented by a bifurcating tree. Therefore, we performed a NeighborNet analysis in SplitsTree4 to reconstruct the possible network-like evolutionary relationships among taxa across the whole group (Huson & Bryant, 2006). Our NeighbourNet analysis was performed on all informative SNPs from the MS30 dataset, with 1,000 replicate bootstrap iterations.

RESULTS

Phylogenomic inferences of evolutionary relationships

291 Maximum likelihood (ML) trees inferred from our concatenated datasets were highly 292 congruent, despite varying missingness (Fig. 2; Supporting Information Fig. S1, S2). Therefore, 293 we focus our results to trends in interspecific relationships observed across ML inferences. 294 The base of the eastern standing *Phlox* is notably composed of long-styled taxa. We 295 recover an early split between P. stolonifera and all other taxa (UFB=100), followed by a split of 296 a well-supported clade (UFB=100) containing *P. ovata* out to *P. pulchra, P. glaberrima* subsp. 297 triflora, and the allotetraploid P. buckleyi (UFB=100). The remaining P. glaberrima subspecies 298 are found in a neighboring clade with subspecies of P. carolina and P. maculata (UFB=100). 299 Across all inferences, the *P. glaberrima* and *P. carolina* subspecies are not monophyletic within 300 their species delineation. The next branch subtends a clade including P. amplifolia and P. 301 paniculata (UFB=100). 302 Across all datasets, we inferred all short-styled taxa form a monophyletic group evolving 303 from the long-styled taxa (UFB=100). This short-styled group contains the P. pilosa, P. 304 divaricata, P. villosissima, and P. amoena subspecies, P. floridana, and the three Texas annual 305 species (P. drummondii, P. roemeriana, and P. cuspidata), Half of our P. pilosa subspecies 306 samples, including P. pilosa subsp. fulgida, P. pilosa subsp. pilosa, P. argillacea, and P. pilosa 307 subsp. deamii, form a clade out to the remaining short-style species (UFB=100). Given the 308 relative northern origin of these samples, we call this the *P. pilosa* "North" group. This group 309 also contains the white flower morph of P. pilosa subsp. pilosa that evolved by reinforcement, 310 sometimes described as P. argillacea. Both P. divaricata and P. amoena species form 311 monophyletic groups (UFB=100), although *P. divaricata* subspecies are interdigitated. 312 The remaining *P. pilosa* subspecies, Texas annuals, and the allotetraploids *P. floridana*, 313 P. villosissima subsp. villosissma and P. villosissima subsp. latisepala form a large clade 314 (UFB=100). We observe reduced branch supports along the backbone of this clade; however, the 315 Texas annual species are monophyletic (UFB=100), with P. roemeriana sister to P. drummondii. 316 Adjacent to the annuals lie the remaining P. pilosa subspecies. We refer to this P. pilosa group as 317 "South", given the more southern origin of these taxa relative to the *P. pilosa* North group. 318 Our low support partitioning the *P. pilosa* South group from the Texas annuals may be 319 due to the presence of the allotetraploid P. villosissima subspecies. These taxa were inferred 320 either out to the annuals or out to the *P. pilosa* South group with variable support (UFB=41-100). 321 Variation in their placement is consistent with their hypothesized hybrid ancestry between P.

pilosa subsp. pilosa South and P. drummondii (Table 1). Similar phylogenetic uncertainty is observed for the allotetraploid P. floridana across analyses. This may also be a result of its polyploid hybrid ancestry (Table 1). Notably, the majority site patterns from our site concordance factor analysis are concordant with the MS30 ML tree relationships leading up to clades, with exception at nodes flanking splits involving allopolyploid lineages between the P. amoena and the Texas annuals groups (Fig 2).

Coalescent-based species tree inference using SVDquartets recovered species trees with generally similar relationships between the major species groupings observed in our ML inferred trees (Supporting Information Fig. S3). Our "full data" and "no hybrids" inferred trees differ primarily in their ability to resolve the relationships between the early diverging long-style species and the *P. glaberrima/P.maculata/P.carolina* subspecies. While the "full data" tree provides weak support that these two groups are distinct (SBS=75), as seen in the ML analyses, the no hybrids inference weakens this confidence (SBS=68). However, all datasets reiterate support for *P. amplifolia* and *P. paniculata* forming a monophyletic branch (SBS=100) subtending a monophyletic group containing all short-styled taxa (SBS=93-94). We recovered support for the *P. pilosa* North and *P. pilosa* South groups as being polyphyletic, and we clarified the relationship of the Texas annuals and *P. pilosa* South groups as sister, when omitting hybrids (SBS=100).

Evidence of gene flow alongside reinforcement

We applied D-statistics and TreeMix v.1.13 to infer if gene flow occurred between sympatric populations of focal taxa in two cases of reinforcement. All D-statistic tests were structured so a negative D supports a history of introgression between these focal taxa.

In *P. drummondii*, reinforcement against hybridization with *P. cuspidata* has favored the divergence of light-blue to dark-red flower color in sympatry (Fig. 3a)(Levin, 1985; Hopkins & Rausher, 2012). D-statistic tests between allopatric *P. drummondii* and *P. cuspidata* show no evidence of gene flow; however, all 48 tests between sympatric dark-red *P. drummondii* and every *P. cuspidata* were negative, with 24 being significant (Table 2). Our best fit *P. drummondii* subtree modeled in TreeMix (m=2) recovered *P. cuspidata* out to *P. drummondii* and *P. roemeriana*, with a low-weight migration event (0.11) going from *P. cuspidata* into dark-red sympatric *P. drummondii* (Fig. 3c). This migration edge indicates 11% of alleles in the

353 sympatric P. drummondii population are from the P. cuspidata lineage. This migration edge 354 remained present for all models $m \ge 2$ (Supporting Information Fig. S4, S9). 355 In P. pilosa subsp. pilosa North, reinforcement against hybridization with P. glaberrima 356 subsp. interior has favored the divergence of flower color from pink to white (Fig. 3b)(Levin & 357 Kerster, 1967). Unlike reinforcement in P. drummondii, the ranges of P. pilosa subsp. pilosa 358 North and P. glaberrima subsp. interior are mosaic and are not distinctly divisible as 359 geographically allopatric or sympatric (Levin & Kerster, 1967). Therefore, we grouped our tests 360 for gene flow based on the flower color of the *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North individual used, pink 361 or white, instead of by geography. Our tests do not support gene flow between pink (N=360) nor 362 white (N=180) flowered *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North and *P. glaberrima interior* (Table 2). 363 TreeMix modeled P. pilosa subtrees produced similar topologies to our ML phylogenetic 364 inferences but did not infer migration events involving *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North (Fig. 3d; 365 Supporting Information Fig. S5, S9). 366 367 Evidence of divergence and gene flow underlying hypotheses of putative homoploid hybrid 368 species 369 We leveraged our inferred phylogenies to evaluate if evidence of gene flow is consistent 370 with the formation of a hybrid lineage under the five hypothesized cases of homoploid hybrid 371 speciation in the eastern standing *Phlox* (Table 1). First, we asked if a putative hybrid species sits 372 nested within or sister to one of its hypothesized parental species and we find support for four of 373 the five putative hybrids showing this relationship (Fig. 2, Supporting Information Fig. S1, S2, 374 S3); P. amoena subsp. lighthipei within P. amoena subsp. amoena, P. maculata subsp. 375 pyramidalis within P. maculata subsp. maculata, P. argillacea within P. pilosa subsp. pilosa 376 North, and P. pilosa subsp. detonsa in P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South. P. pilosa subsp. deamii was 377 not found out or within P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South or P. amoena subsp. amoena, consistent 378 with (Goulet-Scott et al., 2021). 379 Second, we ask if there is evidence of gene flow with the other, non-sister, lineage. For P. 380 amoena subsp. lighthipei, P. argillacea, and P. pilosa subsp. detonsa, D-statistic tests and 381 TreeMix analyses did not find support for gene flow between the putative hybrids and their 382 second hypothesized parental species (Table 3; Supporting Information Fig. S5, S6, S7, 383 S9). However, D-statistic tests do support gene flow between P. glaberrima subsp. interior and

P. maculata subsp. *pyramidalis*, with 63 of 70 tests being significantly negative. Importantly, no evidence of gene flow was found between *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior* and *P. maculta* subsp. *maculata*, N=160 (Table 3). All *P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis* subtrees modeled in TreeMix confirmed this result, with a low-weight migration edge from *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior* into *P. maculta* subsp. *pyramidalis* (Fig. 4, Supporting Information Fig. S8, S9). In our best-fit model (m=4), this migration edge has a weight of 0.189, indicating 18.9% of alleles in the *P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis* lineage are from *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*.

Inferring origins of allotetraploid hybrid species

We leveraged comparative read mapping to infer the subgenome ancestries of four allotetraploid *Phlox* species (Table 1) (Levin, 1966b, 1968; Smith & Levin, 1967). Concatenated ddRAD loci were used to generate 439,271 bp long reduced consensus sequences for each of the 28 diploid species, with a locus missingness rate of 25% among them. Mapping of reads to this consensus dataset resulted in differential assignment of sequence ancestry for each tetraploid sample to subclades of diploid taxa (Fig. 5).

Reads from *P. villosissima* subsp. *villosissima* and *P. villosissima* subsp. *latisepala* mapped with high frequency to the *P. pilosa* South group and the Texas annuals, each receiving 30-34% and 22-26% respectively. Within these two groups the top recipients of mapped reads were *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South and *P. cuspidata* for all three samples. Our NeighbourNet analysis mirrors this result (Supporting Information Fig. S10), placing the polyploid lineages between the ancestors of the *P. pilosa* South clade and the Texas annuals.

P. floridana showed a high mapping rate to the P. pilosa South group (34%), with most reads mapping to P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South and second most to P. pilosa subsp. detonsa. Contrary to the hypothesized origins of this species, we did not observe elevated read mapping to the P. carolina subspecies consensus sequences. Instead, we observed elevated read mapping to P. amoena subsp. amoena. Again, the NeighbourNet analysis also reflects our mapping results, showing P. floridana intermediate partitioning between the P. pilosa South and P. amoena lineages.

Finally, *P. buckleyi* reads mapped with the highest rate to the *P. ovata*, *P. pulchra*, *P. glaberrima* subsp. *triflora* clade (38%), with the NeighborNet analysis showing *P. buckleyi* being of intermediate placement to *P. ovata* and *P. glaberrima* subsp. *triflora*.

DISCUSSION

With genomic data and modern phylogenomic analyses, evolutionary biology can understand the presence, extent, and consequences of hybridization and gene flow across large clades of organisms. Here, we present well-resolved phylogenetic relationships of the eastern standing *Phlox*, demonstrate clear support for most described species relationships, and reveal novel non-monophyletic relationships of subspecies in historically taxonomically difficult species complexes. Using this phylogenetic framework, our analyses identify evidence of a hybrid lineage consistent with one case of hypothesized homoploid hybrid speciation, identify putative ancestries of multiple polyploid species, and find evidence of gene flow in one case of reinforcement. However, we also find no support for many hypothesized cases of gene flow in the formation of new lineages. Our findings demonstrate the utility and importance of phylogenomics in confirming hypothesized evolutionary histories of non-model systems and add to the growing evidence that hybridization and gene flow across species boundaries does play diverse roles in generating novel biodiversity.

Evolutionary relationships of the eastern standing Phlox

Previous phylogenetic inference of the eastern standing *Phlox* either relied on a handful of genetic markers or limited taxonomic sampling, leaving most of the evolutionary relationships of this group unclear (Ferguson *et al.*, 1999; Ferguson & Jansen, 2002; Roda *et al.*, 2017; Landis *et al.*, 2018; Goulet-Scott *et al.*, 2021). Our phylogenomic inferences on genome-wide ddRAD markers from a broad taxonomic sampling clarify the evolutionary relationships of the eastern standing *Phlox* and provide novel insight into their diversification (Fig. 2; Supporting Information Fig. S1-S3).

Taxonomic treatments of the eastern standing *Phlox* have grouped these taxa by differences in style length (Wherry, 1930, 1931, 1932, 1955). Unlike prior phylogenetic studies, our inferences support a large monophyletic clade of short-styled taxa subtended by multiple paraphyletic clades of long-styled taxa. Divergence in style-length can generate reproductive isolation (Kay, 2006; Brothers & Delph, 2017), and future work should investigate if and how the transition in style length is involved in the diversification of the short-styled taxa.

Our analyses also reveal unprecedented resolution into relationships within species groups. Our inferences support P. drummondii and P. roemeriana are sister taxa within the Texas annuals (Fig. 2). This topology is supported in Roda et al., 2017 but not supported in studies with few genetic loci (Ferguson et al., 1999; Ferguson & Jansen, 2002; Landis et al., 2018). In the P. glaberrima/P. carolina/P. maculata complex, we find support for nonmonophyletic relationships among subspecies (Fig. 2). Additionally, the subspecies of the P. pilosa complex form distinct polyphyletic groups coinciding with their relative northern or southern location of origin, as suggested in Goulet-Scott et al., 2021 (Fig. 2). The one exception is P. pilosa subsp. sangamonensis which sits in the southern clade but is found in the north (Fig. 1), a discovery consistent with the hypothesis of P. pilosa subsp. sangamonensis arising by longdistance dispersal from southern populations of *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* (Levin & Smith, 1965; Levin, 1984). The non-monophyletic relationship among the northern and southern P. pilosa lineages and within P. glaberrima were suggested in previous phylogenetic studies, but remained uncertain due to low phylogenetic supports and reliance on few genetic loci (Ferguson et al., 1999; Ferguson & Jansen, 2002; Landis et al., 2018). Only with phylogenomics are we able to definitively show support for these relationships. Classic taxonomic delineations within *Phlox* are largely based on morphological characteristics (Wherry, 1955; Locklear, 2011b), yet our phylogenetic inferences demonstrate current taxonomy may not best reflect the true evolutionary relationships of some taxa within this group.

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Evolution of reinforcement with and without gene flow

Limited empirical study has evaluated if interspecific hybridization generating selection for reinforcement also results in reinforcement evolving in the face of gene flow (Garner *et al.*, 2018). We investigated if gene flow accompanied two cases of divergence by reinforcement in *Phlox* (Fig. 3).

P. drummondii has diverged from light-blue to dark-red flower color to prevent hybridization with P. cuspidata (Levin, 1985; Hopkins & Rausher, 2012). Our sampling revealed evidence of gene flow between P. cuspidata and multiple sympatric dark-red P. drummondii individuals but not between P. cuspidata and any allopatric light-blue P. drummondii, consistent with previous observations (Roda et al., 2017). A history of gene flow from hybridization in sympatry but not in allopatry mirrors the model of phenotypic divergence by reinforcement in

sympatry but not in allopatry (Garner *et al.*, 2018). This pattern suggests the signal of gene flow is the product of contemporary hybridization in sympatry and not due to admixture between the distant ancestors of *P. cuspidata* and *P. drummondii*. Although F1 hybrids have high sterility (Suni & Hopkins, 2018), our observation of a low proportion of *P. cuspidata* alleles (11%) in the sympatric dark-red *P. drummondii* lineage indicate hybrids do backcross in nature, resulting in interspecific gene flow. Therefore, reinforcement in *P. drummondii* evolved despite gene flow in sympatry.

Conversely, our analyses do not support a history of gene flow coinciding with reinforcement in *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North. *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North has evolved from pink to white colored flowers to reduce hybridization where it co-occurs with *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior* in high frequency (Fig. 2) (Levin, 1966b; Levin & Kerster, 1967; Levin & Schaal, 1970a,b, 1972). Reproductive isolation between these taxa is high but field experiments and experimental crosses demonstrate these species do generate hybrid seed (Levin, 1966b; Levin & Kerster, 1967; Levin & Schaal, 1970a,b, 1972)(Fig. 2). However, we do not detect gene flow between these species (Fig. 3; Table 2). This result suggests hybrid offspring between these taxa may be completely inviable, lethally maladapted, or have exceedingly high sterility and that reinforcement may have occurred after gene flow had ceased and postzygotic RI was complete between the lineages.

The presence/absence of gene flow in these two cases of reinforcement presents a powerful opportunity to investigate the dynamics by which reproductive trait divergence, and flower color specifically, evolves by reinforcing selection. In both cases the *Phlox* responded to reinforcing selection through the evolution of the same trait – flower color – while in one case the trait evolved in the presence of gene flow and in the other case there is no gene flow between sympatric species. For reproductive trait divergence to evolve by reinforcement, alleles conferring increased assortative mating within a species must remain associated with alleles causing costly hybridization between species (Servedio & Kirkpatrick, 1997; Kirkpatrick, 2000). When gene flow between species is present, recombination can disassociate these alleles, impeding successful divergence. In the two *Phlox* cases, we see similar responses to selection but different potentials for gene flow to result in recombination. These contrasting scenarios could allow future research to compare if and how other factors influencing the probability of successful reinforcement may also differ between these two examples and contribute to our

empirical understanding of when reinforcement is likely to evolve. For example, are there differing genetic architectures and genetic linkage underlying the cost of hybridization and flower color between these cases, varying strengths of reproductive isolating barriers between the species pairs upon their secondary contact, and/or differences in the functional cost of hybridization (i.e. offspring or gamete loss)? Further study of the strength and genetic architecture of reproductive isolating barriers between these *Phlox* species will better inform how reinforcement evolves.

Varying support for homoploid and allotetraploid hybrid species hypotheses

Within the eastern standing *Phlox* there are five homoploid and four allopolyploid hybrid speciation hypotheses (Table 1). Of the homoploid hybrid speciation hypotheses, we only observed genomic evidence for one lineage, P. maculata subsp. pyramidalis, arising from the distinct lineages of its hypothesized parental taxa, P. maculata subsp. maculata and P. glaberrima subsp. interior. P. maculata subsp. pyramidalis is found phylogenetically closely related to multiple P. maculata subsp. maculata individuals (Fig. 2), with a strong signal of gene flow from P. glaberrima subsp. interior (Fig. 4; Table 3.). Our analyses also identify P. maculata subsp. pyramidalis is an advanced generation hybrid, with 18.9% of its alleles derived from P. glaberrima subsp. interior. This evidence identifies P. maculata subsp. pyramidalis resulted from hybridization, and is consistent with the long-standing homoploid hybrid speciation hypothesis of this lineage. However, while evidence of historical hybridization is necessary to infer homoploid hybrid speciation, it is not sufficient to demonstrate a stable, reciprocally reproductively isolated lineage has evolved by homoploid hybrid speciation. Future work is necessary to determine if the hybrid origin of *P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis* gave rise to a stable reproductive isolated lineage from its putative parental species, demonstrating it evolved by homoploid hybrid speciation (Schumer *et al.*, 2018).

Additionally, a classic interpretation of the homoploid hybrid speciation hypothesis requires the stable reproductively isolated homoploid hybrid species to arise by hybridization between two distinct species. This interpretation is rooted in the biological species concept and may bring to question whether a subspecies of one of the parental taxa, like P. maculate subsp. pyramidalis, can arise via homoploid hybrid speciation. We caution how this interpretation is applied and required across systems where the taxonomic delineation between species and

subspecies is controversial, in flux, and not based on the levels of reproductive isolation between the taxa. Quantifications of reproductive isolation between taxa involved in the *P. maculata subsp. pyramidalis* hypothesis will aid in evaluating the extent to which these taxa are distinct biological species, and fit this classic definition of homoploid hybrid speciation, despite their current taxonomy

The remaining four hypothesized cases of homoploid hybrid speciation were not supported by our genomic investigation, despite extensive phenotypic and biomolecular evidence. Three taxa are closely related to one of their hypothesized parental species, and may just be divergent population from this lineage, while the fourth taxon is distantly related to both hypothesized parents and may possess phenotypic traits resembling these species through convergence or incomplete lineage sorting.

Polyploid hybrid lineages can be significantly easier to identify than homoploid hybrids through chromosome structure and number. Despite this advantage, inferring the evolutionary origin of these lineages remains challenging (Rothfels, 2021). Although the signals from our comparative read mapping and SplitsTree analyses are coarse, our approaches suggest the identity of the progenitor clades that gave rise to these polyploid hybrid species. Our evidence supports *P. villosissima* subsp. *latisepala* and *P. villosissima* subsp. *villosissima* are derived from *P. pilosa* (*P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South) and a Texas annual species. *P. drummondii* was previously hypothesized as the parent but our analyses cannot resolve which of the Texas annual species or their ancestor is the parent. As previously hypothesized, we find support for one parent of *P. floridana* to be *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South, yet we find evidence that *P. amoena* subsp. *amoena* may be the second parent instead of the *P. carolina subspecies*. We also observe *P. buckleyi* is genetically similar to the early-diverging long-styled *Phlox*, but we cannot confirm the specific parental lineages from this group. Future work using longer haplotype phase may help resolve the evolutionary origins of these species and better inform the dynamics and evolutionary trajectory of these allopolyploid species.

Across both the hypothesized homoploid and polyploid hybrid lineages, the *P. pilosa* group has been a potential and realized source of hybridization activity. Four of the five hypothesized homoploid hybrid lineages and three of the four polyploid lineages were thought to include *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* as a parent. While none of the hypothesized homoploid hybrid lineages have hybrid origin with *P. pilosa* subspecies, three of the four hypothesized polyploid

hybrid lineages are derived from *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South subspecies ancestry. *P. pilosa*'s developmental biology may make it prone to evolutionary innovation, with many populations having high rates of unreduced gametes and whole genome duplications across their range (Worcester, Mayfield, & Ferguson, 2012). Future work may help address what factors underly this developmental instability and if it has an outsized role in the generation of novel evolutionary lineages relative to other *Phlox* species.

Implications on Evolutionary History of Trait Variation

Much of the data supporting the role of hybridization and gene flow in the speciation of the eastern standing *Phlox* stemmed from comparisons of trait variation between lineages found in sympatry. Our findings support hybridization has likely contributed to some of the phenotypic variation observed across taxa in these cases, both as a source of genetic variation and force for selective divergence. However, our findings also indicate a lack of interspecific genetic exchange for many hypothesized cases of hybrid speciation. Further study of these confirmed cases may inform how specific traits and even genes move between species and contribute to reproductive isolation between lineages. While our lack of support in some cases suggests forces other than hybridization may underlie patterns of trait variation observed across taxa in this group, this finding also motivates a strong need to reevaluate our previous evidence for the existence of gene flow, and to rethink our expectations of how and why traits evolve within and between closely related species. Future investigation into the phenotypic variation of these taxa may provide new insights into how differences in ecological selective pressures across overlapping species ranges, effective population size, and incomplete lineage sorting contribute to phenotypic divergence within and between species.

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PHYLOGENOMICS AND SPECIATION OF PHLOX

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- 813 **SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION:**
- Figure S1. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic inference from whole concatenated loci, with a
- locus shared among at least 10 individuals.
- 816 Figure S2. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic inference from whole concatenated loci, with a
- 817 locus shared among at least 20 individuals.
- Figure S3. Coalescent-based phylogenetic inference using SVDquartets, with a locus shared
- among at least 30 individuals.
- **Figure S4.** TreeMix models for the *P. drummondii* subtree.
- Figure S5. TreeMix models for the *P. pilosa subsp. pilosa* North subtree.
- Figure S6. TreeMix models for the *P. pilosa subsp. detonsa* subtree.
- Figure S7. TreeMix models for the *P. amoena subsp. lighthipei* subtree.
- Figure S8. TreeMix models for the *P. maculata subsp. pyramidalis* subtree.
- Figure S9. TreeMix model best fit estimation.
- Figure S10. NeighborNet whole phylogeny splitsgraph.
- 827 **Table S1.** Species sampling.
- Table S2. All D-statistic test results for introgression in two cases of reinforcement.
- 829 **Table S3.** All D-statistic test results for introgression in four hypothesized cases of hybrid
- 830 speciation.
- 831 **Table S4.** Summary of comparative read mapping of diploid and allotetraploid species to diploid
- consensus sequences.

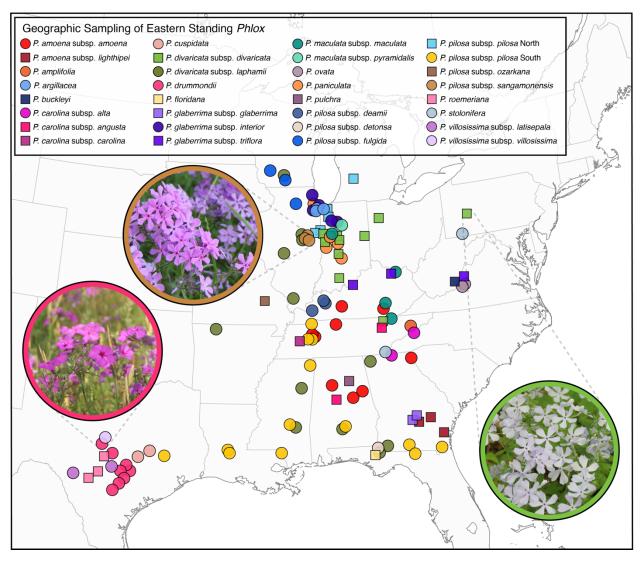


Figure 1. Map of individuals sampled across the interdigitating ranges of the thirty-two eastern standing *Phlox* taxa included for phylogenetic analyses. Each point represents the locality of a single individual with the color and shape corresponding to an individual's taxonomic identity. Three insets show *P. pilosa* subsp. *sangamonensis* (brown), *P. drummondii* (pink), and *P. divaricata* subsp. *divaricata* (green) in their natural habitat.

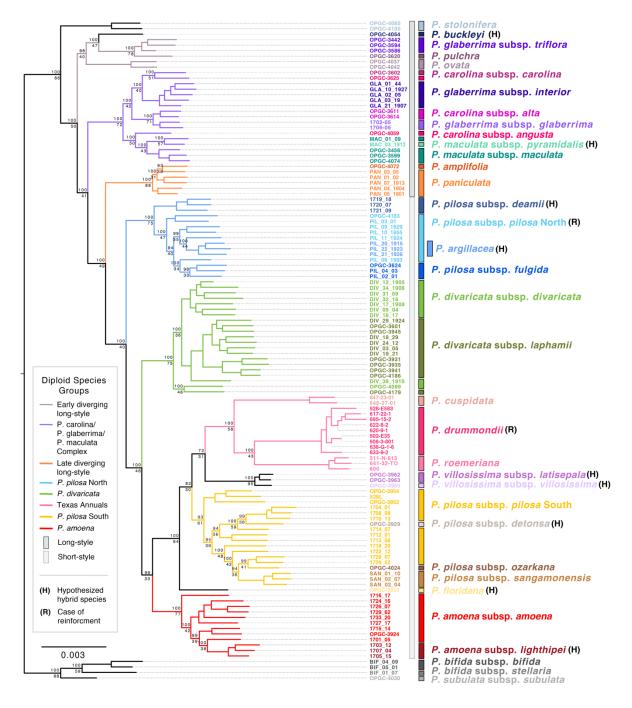


Figure 2. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic inference of eastern standing *Phlox* from whole concatenated ddRAD loci that were shared by at least 30 individuals. Nodes differentiating taxa are labeled with ultrafast bootstrap approximation support (above) and site concordance factor values (below).

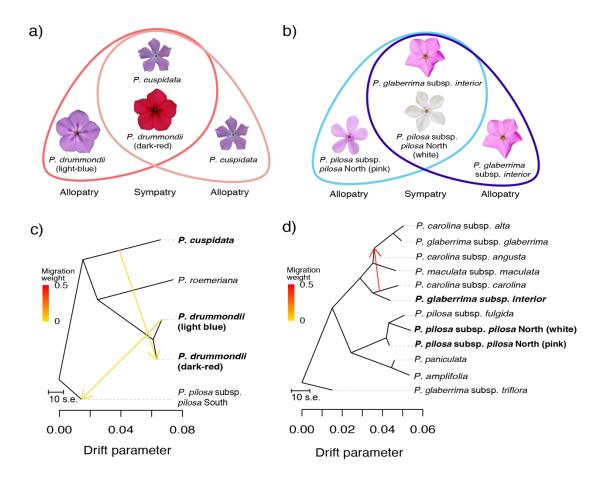


Figure 3. (a and b) Schematics of flower color divergence due to reinforcement in two species of *Phlox* to prevent maladaptive hybridization with another species in sympatry. (a) *P. drummondii* (red line) has similar light-blue colored flowers to *P. cuspidata* (pink line) in allopatry but *P. drummondii* has evolved dark-red flowers in sympatry to reduce hybridizing with *P. cuspidata*. (b) In allopatry *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North (light blue line) has similar pink colored flowers to *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior* (dark blue line), but where they co-occur in high frequency in sympatry, *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North has evolved white flowers to reduce hybridizing with *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*. (c and d) Best fit models from TreeMix inferred gene flow between *P. cuspidata* and dark-red *P. drummondii* (c) (best fit m=2) but did not support evidence of gene flow between *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior* and either color morph of *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North (d) (best fit m=1).

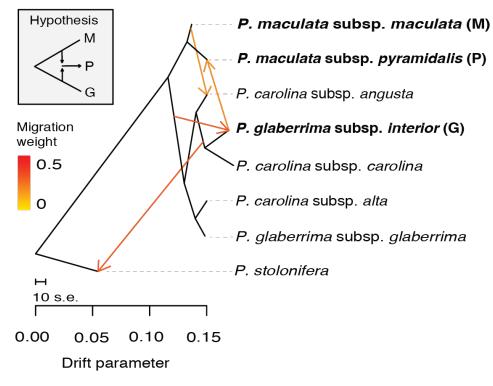


Figure 4. Results from TreeMix support the hybrid speciation hypothesis for *P. maculata pyramidalis* in a pruned subtree (best fit m=4). Modeling of 4,490 unlinked SNPs for individuals clustered by taxon identity inferred *P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis* sister to *P. maculata* subsp. *maculata* and receiving a migration event (gene flow) from *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*.

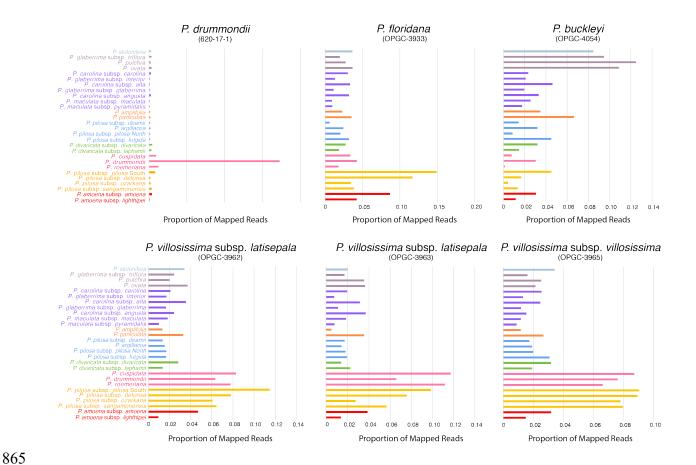


Figure 5. Proportion of reads mapped to diploid species-level consensus sequences for a diploid representative of *P. drummondii* and all allotetraploid hybrid individuals. Bar colors correspond to diploid species groups in Figure 2.

	Putative Parent Species 2 Motivating Previous Evidence	P. glaberrima subsp. interior P. pilosa subsp. pilosa North morphology ^a , physiology ^a , seed protein polymorphism ^a , experimental crosses ^c	$P.\ glaberrima\ { m subsp.}\ interior\ P.\ maculata\ { m subsp.}\ maculata\ { m morphology}^0$, physiology 5 , seed protein polymorphism 5 , experimental crosses 5	morphology G , seed protein polymorphism f , experimental crosses GG	morphology ^G , experimental crosses ^{CG} , microsatellites ^H	seed protein polymorphism $^{ t r}$, experimental crosses $^{ t c}$	karyology $^{^{\mathrm{J}}}$, flavonoids $^{^{\mathrm{K}}}$, seed protein polymorphism $^{^{\mathrm{F}}}$, experimental crosses $^{^{\mathrm{C}}}$	karyology $^{\prime}$, flavonoids $^{\prime}$, seed protein polymorphism $^{\circ}$, experimental crosses $^{\circ}$	karyology $^{^{\mathrm{J}}}$, flavonoids $^{^{\mathrm{L}}}$, seed protein polymorphism $^{^{\mathrm{F}}}$, experimental crosses $^{^{\mathrm{C}}}$	karyology
	Putative Parent Species 2	P. pilosa subsp. pilosa Nort	P. maculata subsp. maculate	P. amoena subsp. amoena	P. amoena subsp. amoena	P. carolina	P. carolina subsp. angusta	P. drummondii	P. drummondii	unknown
eastern standing Phlox	Putative Parent Species 1	P. glaberrima subsp. interior	P. glaberrima subsp. interior	P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South P. amoena subsp. amoena	P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South P. amoena subsp. amoena	P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South P. carolina	P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South P. carolina subsp. angusta	P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South P. drummondii	P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South	unknown
ses in the	Ploidy	2N	2N	2N	2N	2N	4N	4N	4N	AN N
Table 1. Hybrid speciation hypotheses in the eastern standing <i>Phlox</i>	Hypothesized Hybrid Species Ploidy Putative Parent Species	P. argillacea	P. maculata subsp. pyramidalis	P. amoena subsp. lighthipei	P. pilosa subsp. deamii	P. pilosa subsp. detonsa	P. floridana	P. villosissima subsp. villosissima 4N	P. villosissima subsp. latisepala	P. buckleyi

Supporting Literature: A (Levin 1969), B (Levin an Schaal 1972), C (Levin 1966b), D (Levin 1963), E (Hadley Levin 1969), F (Levin an Schaal 1970), G (Levin and Smith 1966), H (Fehlberg et al. 2014), I (Smith and Levin 1967), J (Levin 1968), K (Levy and Levin 1975), L (Levy and Levin 1974).

Table 2. Summary results f	for four taxon D-statistic tests for introg	gression in two cases of reinfor	cement	
Reinforcement Scenario	P1	P2	P3	Rang
P. drummmondii	P. drummmondii (light-blue)	P. roemariana	P. cuspidata	(-0.12.

	,							
Reinforcement Scenario	P1	P2	P3	Range D	Range Z [†] 1	Range D Range Z^{\dagger} nSig/N † -D nSig/N † +D Test ID	ig/N [‡] +D	Test ID
P. drummnondii	P. drummmondii (light-blue)	P. roemariana	P. cuspidata	(-0.120.01) (0.187, 2.479) 0/24	.187, 2.479)	0/24	0/24	T2:1 - T2:24
	P. drummmondii (dark-red)	P. roemariana	P. cuspidata	(-0.160.01) (0.341, 4.692)	.341, 4.692)	24/48	0/48	T2:25 - T2:72
P. pilosa subsp. pilosa North	th							
	P. pilosa subsp. pilosa North (pink)	P. divaricata subsp. divaricata P. glaberrima subsp. interior (-0.10. 0.08) (0.008, 2.771)	P. glaberrima subsp. interior	(-0.10.0.08) (0	.008, 2.771)	0/180	0/180	T2:73 - T2:252
	P. pilosa subsp. pilosa North (white)	P. divaricata subsp. divaricata P. glaberrima subsp. interior	P. glaberrima subsp. interior	(-0.08, 0.09) (0.016, 2.418)	.016, 2.418)	06/0	06/0	r2:253 - T2:342
	P. pilosa subsp. pilosa North (pink)	P. paniculata	P. glaberrima subsp. interior	(-0.09, 0.05) (0.025, 2.707)	.025, 2.707)	0/180	0/180	F2:343 - T2:522
	P. pilosa subsp. pilosa North (white) P. paniculata	P. paniculata	P. glaberrima subsp. interior	(-0.09, 0.10) (0.026, 2.566)	.026, 2.566)	06/0	06/0	T2:523 - T2:612

P1, P2, P3 refer to the three lineages used for the ABBA-BABA D statistic test (See Methods). Outgroups not shown. All tests can be found in Table S2.

† Z-score to assess significance of whether D deviates from zero. Bold indicates significance at α=0.01.

† Number of significant tests over all possible sampled individuals. Significant -D identifies gene flow between P1 and P3, while significant +D identifies gene flow between P2 and P3.

F3:1015 - T3:1034 F3:1035 - T3:1054 T3:1055 - T3:1134 T3:985 - T3:1014 T3:331 - T3:342 T3:361 - T3:594 T3:91 - T3:180 F3:181 - T3:270 T3:283 - T3:294 T3:295 - T3:300 T3:301 - T3:312 T3:313 - T3:324 T3:325 - T3:330 T3:343 - T3:354 F3:355 - T3:360 T3:595 - T3:828 T3:829 - T3:984 T3:1 - T3:90 Test ID nSig/N[‡] -D nSig/N[‡] +D 0/234 **62/80 59/80** 0/234 0/12 0/12 0/30 0/20 06/0 06/0 0/12 9/0 0/12 0/12 0/20 9/0 9/0 0/234 27/30 19/20 0/234 0/156 17/20 06/0 0/12 0/12 0/12 0/12 0/12 08/0 9/0 9/0 9/0 (1.869, 20.718) (2.002, 13.515)(0.023, 2.115) (0.016, 2.418)(0.026, 2.566)(0.042, 1.520)(0.055, 1.266)(0.005, 2.887)(0.007, 2.631)(0.007, 2.559)(2.167, 12.277) (0.299, 6.323)(0.090, 6.313)(0.207, 1.794)(0.164, 1.238)(0.024, 2.696)(0.223, 1.880)(0.024, 1.147)(0.188, 1.102)Range Z (-0.34, -0.06)(-0.31, -0.06)(-0.02, 0.19)(-0.09, 0.08)(-0.08.0.09) (-0.08, -0.01)(-0.14, 0.08)(-0.10, 0.13)(-0.50, 0.08)(-0.09, 0.10)(-0.14, 0.01)(-0.04, 0.06)(-0.13, 0.06)(0.01, 0.20)(-0.09, 0.02)(-0.05, 0.05)(-0.05, 0.06)(-0.05, 0.02)(-0.13, 0.06)(-0.05, 0.13)P. maculata subsp. pyramidalis P. maculata subsp. pyramidalis P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South P. glaberrima subsp. interior P. maculata subsp. maculata P. glaberrima subsp. interior P. glaberrima subsp. interior P. glaberrima subsp. interior P. amoena subsp. lighthipei P. amoena subsp. lighthipei P. carolina subsp. carolina P. carolina subsp. angusta P. carolina subsp. carolina P. carolina subsp. angusta P. carolina subsp. carolina P. carolina subsp. angusta P. carolina subsp. alta P. carolina subsp. alta P. carolina subsp. alta
 Fable 3. Summary results for four taxon D-statistic tests for introgression in four hypothesized cases of hybrid speciation
 P. glaberrima subsp. glaberrima P. divaricata subsp. divaricata P. pilosa subsp. pilosa North P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South P. maculata subsp. maculata P. carolina subsp. alta P. carolina subsp. alta Р. атоепа атоепа P. drummondii P. drummondii P. drummondii P. drummondii P. roemeriana P. roemeriana P. roemeriana P. paniculata P. cuspidata P. maculata subsp. pyramidalis P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South P. pilosa subsp. pilosa South P. glaberrima subsp. interior P. glaberrima subsp. interior P. glaberrima subsp. interior P. amoena subsp. lighthipei P. pilosa subsp. detonsa P. argillacea P. argillacea P. argillacea P. maculata subsp. pyramidalis P. amoena subsp. lighthipei P. pilosa subsp. detonsa Hypothesized Hybrid P. argillacea

21, P2, P3 refer to the three lineages used for the ABBA-BABA D statistic test (See Methods). Outgroups not shown. All tests can be referenced by Test ID in Table S3.

P. glaberrima subsp. glaberrima P. maculata subsp. maculata

Z-score to assess significance of whether D deviates from zero. Bold indicates significance at α =0.01

P. glaberrima subsp. interior

^{*} Number of significant tests over all possible sampled individuals. Significant -D identifes gene flow between P1 and P3, while significant +D identifies gene flow between P2 and



New Phytologist Supporting Information

Article title: Phylogenomic analyses re-examine the evolution of reinforcement and hypothesized hybrid speciation in *Phlox* wildflowers

Authors: Austin G. Garner ^{1,2}, Benjamin E. Goulet-Scott ^{1,2}, and Robin Hopkins ^{1,2*}

Article acceptance date: 22 March 2024



Fig. S1: Maximum likelihood phylogenetic inference of eastern standing *Phlox* relationships from whole concatenated ddRAD loci. Loci were required to be shared by at least 10 individuals. Numbers on branches represent bootstrap supports using ultrafast bootstrap approximation (UFB). Bootstrap supports are shown for all nodes differentiating between taxa.

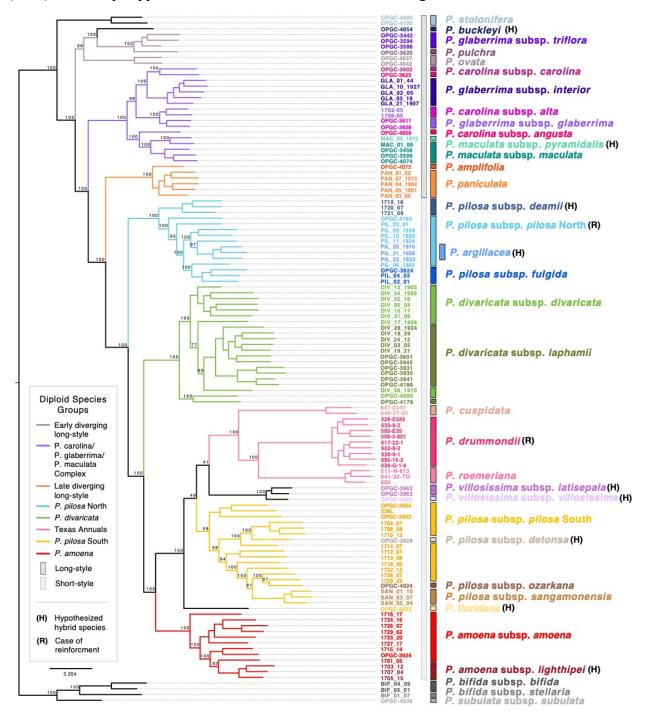




Fig. S2: Maximum likelihood phylogenetic inference of eastern standing *Phlox* relationships from whole concatenated ddRAD loci. Loci were required to be shared by at least 20 individuals. Numbers on branches represent bootstrap supports using ultrafast bootstrap approximation (UFB). Bootstrap supports are shown for all nodes differentiating between taxa.

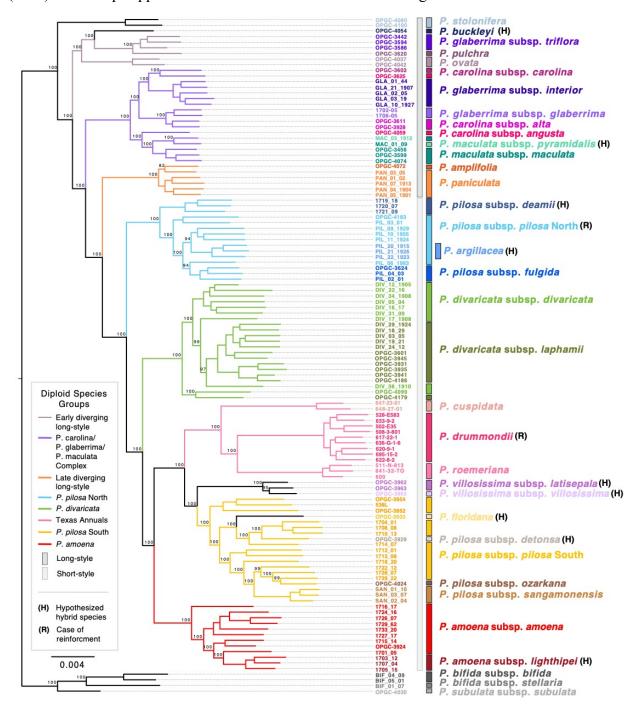




Fig. S3: Coalescent-based phylogenetic inferences of eastern standing *Phlox* relationships from 5,306 unlinked SNPs using SVDquartets, both A) with and B) without identified hybrid taxa. Loci were required to be shared by at least 30 individuals. Numbers on branches represent bootstrap supports from 100 nonparametric bootstrap replicates (SBS). Unlabeled branches had supports of SBS=100.

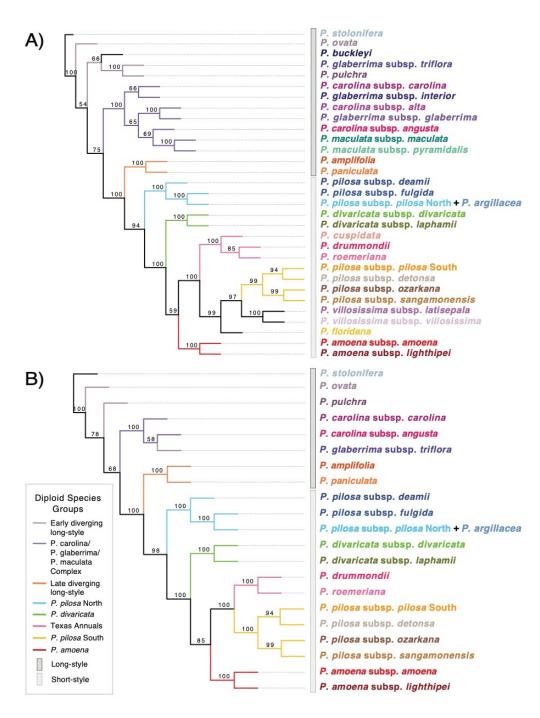




Fig. S4: Qualitative approximation of best fit TreeMix subtree model by the decay in increase in log likelihood across subtrees modeled with TreeMix with increasing number of migration events m = 0-8.

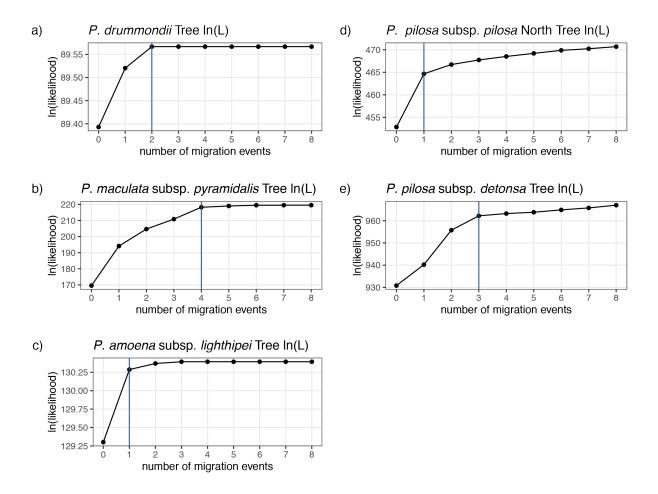




Fig. S5: TreeMix *P. drummondii* subtree models with m=1-8 migration events. Best fit model (m=2) identified by the decay in log likelihood across models (Supporting Information Fig. S4).

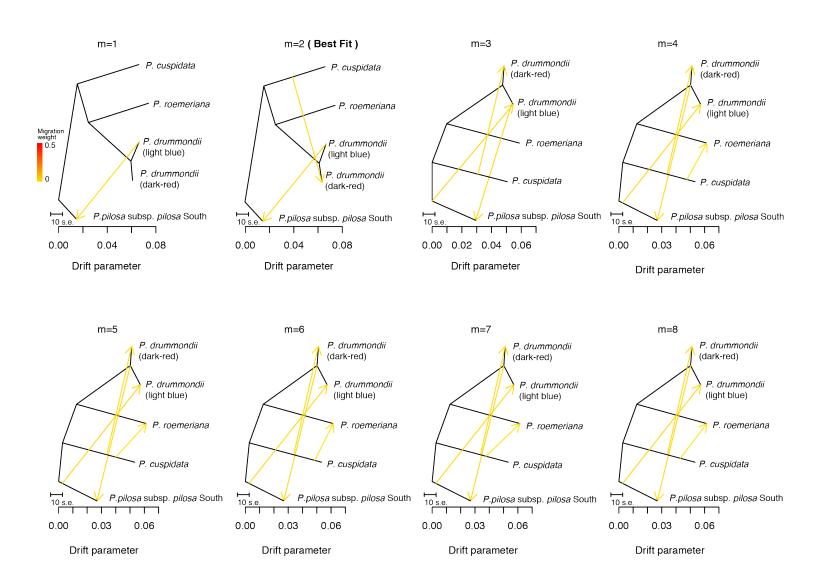
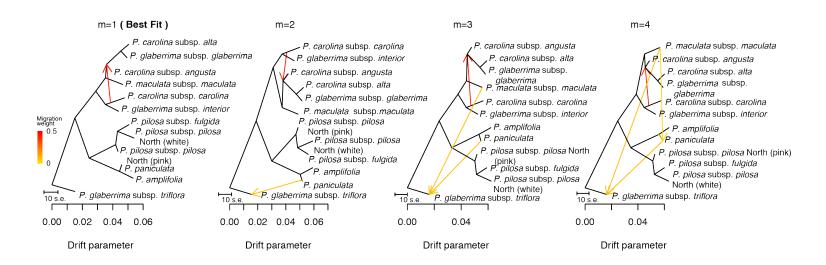




Fig. S6: TreeMix *P. pilosa* subtree models with m=1-8 migration events. Best fit model (m=1) identified by the decay in log likelihood across models (Supporting Information Fig. S4).



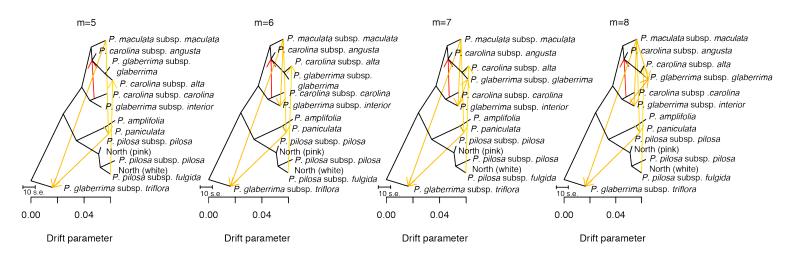




Fig. S7: TreeMix *P. pilosa* subsp. *detonsa* subtree models with m=1-8 migration events. Best fit model (m=3) identified by the decay in log likelihood across models (Supporting Information Fig. S4).

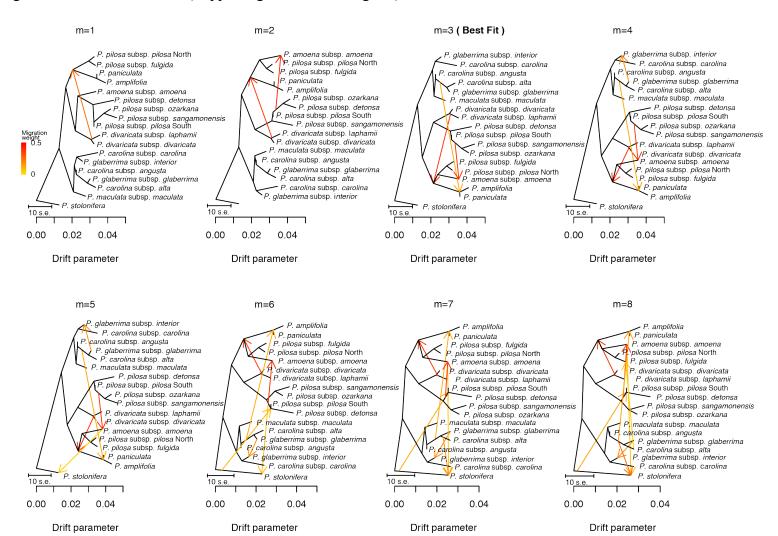




Fig. S8: TreeMix *P. amoena* subsp. *lighthipei* subtree models with m=1-8 migration events. Best fit model (m=1) identified by the decay in log likelihood across models (Supporting Information Fig. S4).

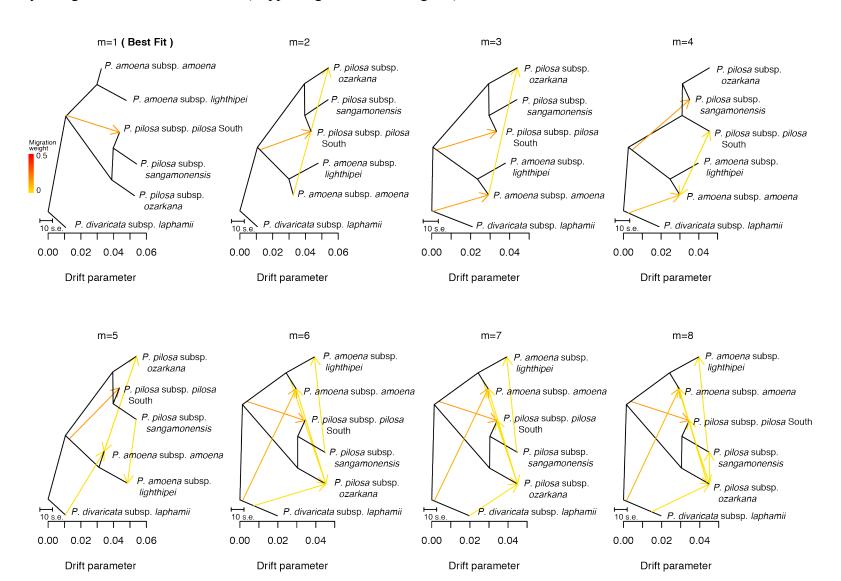




Fig. S9: TreeMix *P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis* subtree models with m=1-8 migration events. Best fit model (m=4) identified by the decay in log likelihood across models (Supporting Information Fig. S4).

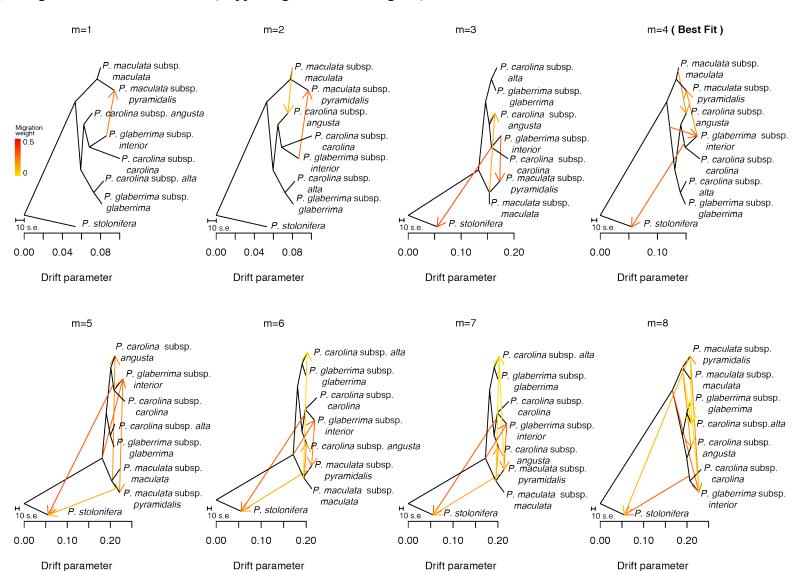


Fig. S10: SplitsTree NeighborNet inference of eastern standing *Phlox* relationships from informative SNPs in the MS30 dataset. Numbers on branches represent bootstrap supports from 1000 bootstrap replicates. Colors denote the major diploid species groups resolved in our phylogenetic inferences (Fig. 2, 5); while numbers denote the positions of the allopolyploid hybrid species; 1) *P. floridana* 2) *P. villosissima* subsp. *villosissima* 3) *P. villosissima* subsp. *latisepala* 4) *P. buckelyi*.

