1	Admixture may be extensive among hyperdominant Amazon rainforest tree species				
2					
3	Drew A. Larson ^{1*} https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7557-9999, Oscar M. Vargas ² https://orcid.org/0000-0002-				
4	5654-5873, Alberto Vicentini ³ https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5906-9358 and Christopher W. Dick ^{1,4}				
5	https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8745-9137				
6					
7	¹ Department of Ecology & Evolutionary Biology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, 48109, USA				
8	² Department of Biological Sciences, Humboldt State University, Arcata, CA, 95521, USA				
9	³ Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas da Amazônia (INPA), CEP 69067-375, Manaus, AM, Brazil				
10	⁴ Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute, Panama City, Republic of Panama				
11					
12	*Author for correspondence: Drew A. Larson				
13	Email: larsonda@umich.edu				
14	Tel: +1 (320) 894 0086				
15					
16	Received: 23 April 2021				
17	Accepted: 4 August 2021				
18					
19	Summary				
20					
21	• Admixture is a mechanism by which species of long-lived plants may acquire novel alleles.				
22	However, the potential role of admixture in the origin and maintenance of tropical plant diversity				
23	is unclear. We ask whether admixture occurs in an ecologically important clade of Eschweilera				
24	(Parvifolia clade, Lecythidaceae), which includes some of the most widespread and abundant tree				
25	species in Amazonian forests.				
26	• Using target capture sequencing, we conducted a detailed phylogenomic investigation of 33				
27	species in the Parvifolia clade and investigated specific hypotheses of admixture within a robust				
28	phylogenetic framework.				
29	• We found strong evidence of admixture among three ecologically dominant species, <i>E. coriacea</i> ,				
30	E. wachenheimii, and E. parviflora, but a lack of evidence for admixture among other lineages.				
	This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the <u>Version of Record</u> . Please cite this article as <u>doi</u> :				

<u>10.1111/NPH.17675</u>

Accepted species were largely distinguishable from one another, as was geographic structure
within species.

We show that hybridization may play a role in the evolution of the most widespread and
 ecologically variable Amazonian tree species. While admixture occurs among some species of
 Eschweilera, it has not led to widespread erosion of most species' genetic or morphological
 identities. Therefore, current morphological based species circumscriptions appear to provide a
 useful characterization of the clade's lineage diversity.

- Keywords: Amazon basin; hyperdominance; adaptive introgression; hybridization; Parvifolia clade;
 Lecythidaceae (Brazil nut family); target enrichment sequencing; tropical diversity
- 45

46 Introduction

47 The extent to which hybridization and introgression (i.e. admixture) have affected the 48 evolutionary history of tropical trees are only beginning to be understood. Admixture is expected to have 49 various evolutionary consequences depending on the context of its occurrence, ranging from infrequent, 50 localized production of hybrid offspring to the formation of new species (Rieseberg & Wendel, 1993). 51 Adaptive introgression is a possible mechanism by which tropical tree populations may acquire favorable 52 alleles, as has been demonstrated in various other plant clades (e.g. Martin et al., 2006; Whitney et al., 53 2010; Pease et al., 2016; Leroy et al., 2020), and may facilitate local adaptation beyond what might occur 54 through selection acting on standing genetic variation and *de novo* mutations (Suarez-Gonzalez *et al.*, 55 2018). 56 Hybridization amongst tropical trees has historically been considered a relatively rare

57 phenomenon, primarily because of the dearth of morphological intermediates in herbarium specimens of

- 58 tropical tree floras (Ashton, 1969; Parnell *et al.*, 2013). However, recent work using next generation
- 59 sequencing methods has demonstrated evidence of hybridization in tropical trees including in *Brownea*
- 60 (Fabaceae; Schley et al., 2020), Diosypyros (Ebenaceae; Linan et al., 2020), Melicope (Rutaceae;
- 61 Paetzold *et al.*, 2019) and *Metrosideros* (Myrtaceae; Choi *et al.*, 2020). Caron *et al.* (2019) found that
- 62 across tree taxa at a site in northern French Guiana, chloroplast haplotype diversity was more frequent in

63 species with a local congener than those without, which they attribute to introgression. However, direct 64 evidence of hybridization remains elusive for most clades of tropical trees. Because tests for admixture 65 are inherently comparative, tests for admixture should ideally be nested within a robust and broadly 66 inclusive phylogeny (Eaton et al., 2015). Such phylogenies are not yet available for many tropical clades, though phylogenomic datasets are becoming increasingly available (e.g. Prata et al., 2018; Couvreur et 67 68 al., 2019; Loiseau et al., 2019; Linan et al., 2020; Christe et al., 2021). Investigations that characterize 69 gene flow at well-studied forest plots may also enhance our understanding of the role of admixture in 70 tropical forests, because 1) gene pools can be delimited without having to consider the confounding 71 effects of geographic variation (Linan et al., 2020; Schley et al., 2020), and 2) permanently tagged trees 72 provide a kind of "living herbarium" in which variation in field characters not evident in herbarium 73 collections (e.g. branching architecture, microhabitat preferences, tree size) may be studied. 74 Target capture sequencing, also called target enrichment, is becoming increasingly popular for 75 phylogenomic studies of non-model plants (Cronn et al., 2012; Baker et al., 2021) and often produces 76 datasets with low missing data, even when the input DNA is partially degraded. The sizes of target loci 77 vary, but generally range from hundreds to a few thousand base pairs (bp) in length. The number of 78 targets also varies, but is frequently a few hundred loci, which is usually sufficient for phylogeny 79 reconstruction but is far fewer than is typically used for inferring admixture, especially compared to 80 methods such as RADseq, which can recover tens of thousands of RAD loci (Eaton & Ree, 2013; Eaton 81 et al., 2015; Johnson et al., 2018; Vargas et al., 2020). Gene tree-based methods for inferring admixture 82 using species networks can be used with several types of data, including target capture, though the 83 resulting networks can include patterns of reticulate evolution that are sensitive to model parameters and 84 gene tree quality (Morales-Briones et al., 2020). Given this and the increasing use of target capture for 85 studies of plant evolution comes the need to explore additional methods capable of identifying evidence 86 of admixture.

87 Our study taxa are tree species in the Brazil nut family, Lecythidaceae (Ericales). Lecythidaceae 88 are ecologically important in many Neotropical forests and several species in the genus *Eschweilera* are 89 among the most abundant trees across the Amazon basin (ter Steege et al., 2013). The Parvifolia clade of 90 *Eschweilera* comprises 66 described species, characterized by morphological features including a 91 distinctive double-coiled androecium (Fig. 1D) and lateral arils on their seeds (Mori et al., 2010 onward; 92 Huang et al., 2015). Several members of the Parvifolia clade have been described as hyperdominant (i.e. 93 species with disproportionate abundance across a large area of the Amazon; ter Steege et al., 2013). The 94 most abundant species of Lecythidaceae, Eschweilera coriacea (DC.) S.A.Mori, ranks third in abundance 95 out of the more than 16,000 estimated Amazonian tree species. It is ecologically variable, thriving in 96 floodplains as well as upland terra firme (Mori et al., 2010 onward), and is the only tree species that

attains ecological dominance in all geographic subregions of the Amazon basin (ter Steege *et al.*, 2013,
2020).

99 As is the case for many clades of tropical trees, species boundaries in Lecythidaceae are not 100 precisely understood, though the taxonomy of the family is relatively well studied (e.g. Prance & Mori, 1979; Mori & Prance, 1990; Mori et al., 2010 onward). Previous studies have found discordance between 101 102 morphology and plastid-based phylogenies, suggesting that chloroplast capture (i.e. the chloroplast of one 103 species being introgressed into another) may be common in the group (Huang et al., 2015). However, 104 hybridization followed by repeated directional backcrossing can result in chloroplast capture with little 105 genetic or morphological evidence of nuclear admixture (Rieseberg & Soltis, 1991). A recent study using 106 microsatellite DNA markers suggested that the nuclear genomes of *Eschweilera* may also conflict with 107 morphological based species circumscriptions (Heuertz et al., 2020), though we are not aware of any 108 previous studies that have shown explicit evidence of nuclear admixture in Lecvthidaceae. 109 We addressed the following questions: 1) is there evidence of nuclear admixture among species 110 of the Parvifolia clade of *Eschweilera*, including species that are among the most abundant and 111 ecologically variable trees in the Neotropics? and 2) to what extent do accepted species of *Eschweilera* 112 represent monophyletic lineages that are distinguishable from one another using nuclear genomic data? 113 The answers to these questions may shed light on whether the hyperabundance of widespread species like 114 E. coriacea could be partly explained by a history of genetic introgression. We employed a multi-faceted 115 sampling strategy and used target capture sequencing to generate the largest phylogenomic dataset for the 116 family to date. Our methods included the implementation of an explicit test for admixture suitable for 117 target capture data, which may prove useful for other phylogenomic datasets.

118

119 Materials and Methods

120 Focal study site and sampling strategy—We conducted sampling using two approaches. First, 121 we sampled 12 focal species of the Parvifolia clade (Table 1) that co-occur at a single 100-ha forest plot 122 in which all individuals of Lecythidaceae ≥ 10 cm diameter at 1.3m height have been tagged and 123 identified by specialists beginning in the late 1980s (See supporting information; Notes S1; Mori & 124 Lepsch-Cunha, 1995; Mori et al., 2001). The "Lecythidaceae plot" lies within Reserve 1501, also known 125 as Km 41, of the Biological Dynamics of Forest Fragments Project (BDFFP) located approximately 70 126 km north of Manaus, Brazil (2° 24' 54" S, 59° 50' 39" W). The plot was established to study the 127 Lecythidaceae of the central Amazon, a geographic center of diversity for the clade, but an area in which 128 its taxonomy was poorly characterized (Mori & Lepsch-Cunha, 1995). By pairing ecological studies with 129 alpha taxonomy, the investigators sought to characterize nuanced morphological differences among 130 species across population samples and, in doing so, identify new species and their ecological differences

131 (Mori & Lepsch-Cunha, 1995; Mori et al., 2001). Flowers and fruits are produced only sporadically in

- 132 many species of Lecythidaceae, but species determinations for each tree in the plot were made using
- 133 fertile material whenever possible (Mori *et al.*, 2001). The site was re-censused in 2019, which showed
- 134 there to be 6741 trees from 36 described species of Lecythidaceae (T. Milton *et al.*, unpublished). Herein,
- 135 we refer to this 100-ha Lecythidaceae plot as Reserve 1501.

136 We chose focal species that were among the most abundant and most closely related species of 137 Lecythidaceae at Reserve 1501 (Mori & Lepsch-Cunha, 1995; Huang et al., 2015). Whenever possible, 138 we sampled four to six tagged trees of each focal species and observed a minimum of at least 100 meters 139 between conspecifics to reduce the chances of sampling immediate relatives. Our field collections relied 140 on prior tree identifications of S. Mori and coworkers and we prioritized collection of three individual 141 trees that seemed to have intermediate morphology, including in branching architecture (Notes S2). For 142 each field-collected sample, leaf tissue was desiccated in silica gel and a voucher was deposited at the 143 BDFFP collection at the National Institute of Amazonian Research (INPA), in Manaus, Brazil. In total, 144 our sampling included 60 individuals collected at Reserve 1501 that were identified as a focal species or 145 suspected hybrid based on morphology (Table 1).

146 Our second sampling approach aimed for wider phylogenetic and geographic breadth and used 147 herbarium material and existing forest inventory vouchers. For this broader sampling, the New York 148 Botanical Garden Herbarium (NY) provided about half of our samples, which also included several non-149 focal species collected at Reserve 1501 and the surrounding area. Our overall sampling included 240 150 individuals from 127 of the 230 described species of Neotropical Lecythidaceae and seven outgroup 151 species from Paleotropical genera. This included 109 individuals of the Parvifolia clade from 33 152 described species as well as several species that have not yet been formally described (Table S1). A full 153 analysis of the relationships among all major clades, as well as a revised taxonomy of Lecythidaceae 154 utilizing this sampling is forthcoming (O. Vargas *et al.*, unpublished).

155

156 Sequencing and assembly—We performed DNA extractions using the NucleoSpin Plant Mini Kit II 157 (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany) following the manufacturer's protocol, but we extended the digestion 158 step to one hour and added 5 uL of proteinase K (20 mg/mL; Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Preparation of 159 unenriched libraries for genome skimming and target-enriched libraries followed by 150 bp paired-end 160 sequencing on an Illumina HiSeq4000 machine (Illumina Inc., San Diego California, USA) was 161 performed by Rapid Genomics (Gainesville, Florida, USA). The probes used to enrich libraries were 162 designed to capture 344 nuclear genes previously inferred to be low or single copy and genetically 163 variable in Lecythidaceae (Vargas et al., 2019). Raw reads were processed with SeqyClean (Zhbannikov

164 et al., 2017) to trim sequencing adapters, filter out low-quality reads, and trim read sections with a Phred

- score < 20 using a window of 10 bp. Trimmed reads were checked with FASTQC v0.11.3 (Andrews,
- 166 2010). Target loci were assembled using HybPiper v1.3.1 (Johnson et al., 2016) with default settings and
- 167 a target file that included DNA sequences based on complete cDNA targets (Vargas *et al.*, 2019). The
- 168 Hybpiper pipeline uses Exonerate (Slater & Birney, 2005), BLAST+ (Camacho et al., 2009), Biopython
- 169 (Cock et al., 2009), BWA (Li & Durbin, 2009), SAMtools (Li et al., 2009), GNU Parallel (Tange, 2011),
- 170 and SPAdes (Bankevich *et al.*, 2012).
- 171

172 **Paralog filtering and alignment**—When employing target capture, paralogs can be enriched during 173 library preparation and recovered in locus assemblies. While evidence suggests all or most Lecythidaceae 174 are diploid (Heuertz et al., 2020), the lineage is thought to have experienced a whole genome duplication 175 that occurred near the time of the most recent common ancestor of Ericales (Larson et al., 2020). Given 176 that paralogs from gene duplications can confound many phylogenetic analyses, we employed a tree-177 based pruning approach meant to reduce misidentified orthologs and assembly errors (Yang & Smith 178 2014). The parameters used in this trimming procedure were derived based *a priori* knowledge of the 179 Lecythidaceae phylogeny and inspection of hundreds of amino acid phylogenies (Methods S1; Mori et al., 180 2015; Rose et al., 2018; Larson et al., 2020). The procedure included multiple sequence alignment with 181 MAFFT v7.271 (Katoh et al., 2002; Katoh & Standley, 2013) followed by amino acid tree estimation 182 with RAxML v8.2.11 (Stamatakis, 2014) and was meant to reduce non-orthologous sequences in the 183 orthogroup alignments, while minimizing loss of phylogenetic information for taxa in the Parvifolia clade 184 (Methods S1). We use the term orthogroup to denote groups of sequences that appear to be reciprocally orthologous based on sequence similarity, regardless of their present function in individual species. 185 186

187 Preliminary phylogenetic investigation—In order to identify clades of closely related individuals, check 188 determinations for specimens, and to verify which individuals were nested within the Parvifolia clade, a 189 phylogenetic tree (herein referred to as the preliminary phylogeny) was estimated with the assembled 190 sequences from all 240 samples after the paralog filtering procedure described above. The preliminary 191 phylogeny was estimated using RAxML v8.2.11 and a separate GTRCAT model partition for each of the 192 exon and intron alignments of each orthogroup (Stamatakis, 2014). To assess support for clades in the 193 preliminary phylogeny, rapid bootstrapping with 200 replicates was conducted. The results were 194 visualized with Figtree (https://github.com/rambaut/figtree/). 195

- 196 *Genotyping and SNP analysis*—In order to investigate the genetic structure of Parvifolia species and
- 197 identify potentially admixed individuals, we called SNPs for each individual using GATK v.4.1.0.0
- 198 (McKenna *et al.*, 2010). The exon sequences for one individual for which we recovered 343 target loci

199 with a combined length of 836,403 bp were used as a reference assembly (Methods S2). Genomic variants 200 were called for each individual following GATK best practices, with modifications where necessary to 201 accommodate the available genomic resources for these non-model species (Methods S2; DePristo et al., 202 2011; Li et al., 2009; Li, 2013; Van der Auwera et al., 2013; Poplin et al., 2017; Hanlon et al., 2019). Several clades were identified based on the preliminary phylogeny and a clade-specific SNP dataset in 203 204 approximate linkage equilibrium was generated for each (Methods S2; Table S2; Purcell et al., 2007). We 205 used Structure v2.3.4 (Pritchard et al., 2000) to investigate genetic clustering of individuals within each 206 clade and determined the most appropriate number of populations (K) for each subset of taxa by 207 comparing the estimated posterior probability of the data for multiple values of K in conjunction with a 208 priori taxonomic information (Methods S2; Table S2). In cases where an individual showed strong 209 evidence of clustering with a species other than that to which it was identified based on morphology, the 210 identity of the individual was further investigated, and its determination was updated to reflect taxonomic 211 uncertainty and all available evidence (Fig. S1; Methods S3). Special consideration was given to E. 212 roseocalyx, which appeared to be nested within the broadly distributed species E. coriacea based on 213 preliminary results (Methods S3; Batista et al., 2017). To further explore patterns of genetic variation 214 within E. coriacea, we used the gdsfmt and SNPRelate packages (Zheng et al., 2012) in R v3.6.0 (R Core 215 Team, 2019) to produce an additional SNP dataset and conducted a genetic principal component analysis 216 (PCA), which was visualized with a custom R script that utilized the *plotly.js* library (Sievert, 2020).

217

218 Verifying admixture with rooted triple tests—To corroborate the admixed ancestry of individuals 219 identified using *Structure* and test for evidence of ancestral introgression among closely related species, 220 we implemented a test capable of inferring admixture from a set of gene trees using rooted triplets (RT; 221 i.e. gene trees consisting of three ingroup individuals and an outgroup; Fig. 2), which we conducted using 222 the novel script Run RT tests.py (see Data Availability Statement). A version of this test has been 223 proposed previously (Hudson et al., 2005), but we are not aware of any previous studies that have used it 224 to investigate admixture in target capture datasets. The RT tests were conducted by subsetting each 225 orthogroup alignment to include the four individuals of interest and estimating a gene tree with branch 226 lengths for each sub-alignment using IQ-TREE v1.6.3 (Nguyen et al., 2014; Chernomor et al., 2016). 227 This obviated the need to re-align sequences for each test and allowed the sequence data from all 240 228 samples to inform the sub-alignment, which may have helped alleviate alignment issues due to missing 229 data. Then, the topologies of the resulting trees were summarized to assess whether the data were 230 compatible with a scenario of no admixture, using the same theoretical framework as the D-statistic 231 (Green *et al.*, 2010). However, unlike most implementations of the *D*-statistic that count patterns in 232 multiple sequence alignments or SNP datasets, our test is based on gene trees and can therefore readily be

used with phylogenomic datasets consisting of relatively large gene regions in which all sites within aregion are assumed to share the same phylogenetic history.

235 When all four-taxon gene trees are rooted on a known outgroup, the result is a set of rooted 236 triplets, each of which contains exactly one ingroup relationship. There is a single tree bipartition that 237 contains topological information for the ingroup, since two individuals will be sister to the exclusion of 238 the third. For a rooted triplet consisting of ingroup taxa A, B, and C, the three possible ingroup 239 bipartitions are (AB|C), (AC|B), and (BC|A). We define the most frequent of the three bipartitions as the 240 "major relationship" and the other two possibilities as "conflicting relationships". The two individuals 241 that form the major relationship are inferred to be the two that are most closely related and are herein 242 referred to as T_1 and T_2 (Fig. 2). T_1 and T_2 are assumed to share a most recent common ancestor (MRCA) 243 that occurred more recently than the MRCA of all three ingroup individuals, whether or not there is 244 ongoing gene flow between/within the population(s) to which T_1 and T_2 belong (i.e. they can be the same 245 or different species). As long as there is a null expectation of no gene flow with the populations to which 246 the third ingroup (T_3) or the outgroup (O) individuals belong (i.e. T_3 and O are different species from one 247 another as well as from T_1 and T_2) and it can be assumed that for each gene tree, O has the earliest 248 diverging sequence, then in the absence of gene flow between the lineages represented by T_3 and T_1 249 and/or T₂, the number of gene tree with each of the possible two conflicting relationships should be 250 statistically equal, because each is equally likely to occur due to incomplete lineage sorting (ILS; Bryant 251 & Hahn, 2020).

Any statistically significant deviation from equality can be considered evidence that the assumptions of the multispecies coalescent model have been violated by gene flow between the lineages to which T_3 and T_1 and/or T_2 belong. We calculate *P* as the probability of a result at least as unequal as the observed frequencies using a binomial test where each gene tree that conflicts with the major relationship represents a trial and the probability of either conflicting relationship is equal to 0.5.

257 To correct for multiple comparisons, we used the Holm-Bonferroni method with α =0.01 to adjust 258 our critical value for rejecting the null hypothesis (Holm, 1979; Eaton et al., 2015). The statistical power 259 of each RT test is affected by the number of gene trees that conflict with the major relationship, which is 260 expected to vary based on the time since the MCRA of the relevant individuals. The type II error rate (i.e. 261 failing to reject the null hypothesis of no admixture when in fact there has been admixture) of this type of 262 RT test may be relatively high for many target capture datasets, due to the relatively low number of 263 independent trials available compared to some other tests for admixture using RADseq or whole genome 264 assemblies. Because of this, our results may represent a conservative estimate of admixture among our 265 sampled species, especially for cases of historical introgression involving small proportions of the 266 genome. However, our statically significant results provide strong evidence of admixture.

267 It should be noted that because we utilized coding sequences and the introns adjacent to them, 268 each locus is subject to natural selection. However, it is unlikely that selection would generally lead to a 269 systematic bias for one conflicting gene tree topology over the other for a large enough number of 270 independent loci to significantly increase the type I error rate (i.e. rejecting the null hypothesis of no 271 admixture, when in fact no admixture has occurred). It is also important to note that the test as 272 implemented does not explicitly account for heterozygosity, since each locus is represented by a single 273 consensus sequence per sample, as is typical in most phylogenomic datasets. The effect that differing 274 consensus-calling approaches during sequence assembly might have on phylogeny-based inferences of 275 admixture warrants future study.

276

277 **Parvifolia clade phylogeny**—To build a robust phylogenetic hypothesis for the Parvifolia clade, we 278 conducted additional analyses without individuals with evidence of recent admixture. We used additional 279 tree-based paralog pruning and generated two supermatrices, one that included data from introns and 280 another that did not (Methods S4). For clarity, we refer to the best-scoring tree for the dataset that include 281 both intron and exon sequences as the "Parvifolia phylogeny" and the best-scoring tree for the other 282 supermatrix as the "exon-only Parvifolia phylogeny". For visualization, a version of each phylogeny was 283 produced by trimming tips to include a single representative of each accepted species (Table S1) using the 284 pxrmt function in phyx (Brown et al., 2017). Conflict between the reduced-representation phylogenies 285 was visualized using the phytools package in R (Revell, 2012). A version of the Parvifolia phylogeny 286 with all tips, as well as an analysis of topological conflict with the untrimmed exon-only Parvifolia 287 phylogeny, generated using the pxbp function in phyx, is also reported.

288

289 Summaries of collection records and phenology for selected species—In order to visualize the extent of

known range overlap among hyperdominant species *E. coriacea*, *E. parviflora*, *E. truncata*, and *E.*

291 wachenheimii, we used a dataset curated by Mori et al. (2017) comprising available species occurrence

records for these taxa (Vargas & Dick, 2020). All records for each species were plotted with QGIS

v3.16.3 (https://github.com/qgis). We used a river shapefile available from the World Bank

294 (https://datacatalog.worldbank.org/dataset/major-rivers-world, CC-BY 4.0 license), the World Borders

295 Dataset (http://thematicmapping.org, CC BY-SA 3.0 license), and the digital elevation model of Lehner &

296 Grill (2013). We plotted individual occurrences, rather than range summaries, to more clearly show the

available data and corresponding gaps in existing collection records. To investigate flowering times of *E*.

298 coriacea, E. parviflora, and E. wachenheimii, we used the C.V. Starr Virtual Herbarium

299 (http://sweetgum.nybg.org/science/vh/) to examine all collections from Amazonas, Brazil housed at NY.

300 We identified specimens with flowers or flower buds at time of collection and verified the collection date

and determination for each based on the specimen label. The results were plotted as box plots and dot
 plots for each species in R using ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016) after removing duplicate collections made
 from the same tree on the same day.

- 304
- 305 Results

306 Admixture among species of the Parvifolia clade—Our SNP-calling approach identified 148,310 307 polymorphic sites among 109 individuals in the Parvifolia clade. Both Structure analyses and RT tests 308 support evidence of admixture among two species pairs in our sampling. Two individuals collected at 309 Reserve 1501 were supported as having near equal ancestry of E. coriacea and E. wachenheimii (Fig. 3). 310 These individuals were not recovered as sister to one another in the preliminary phylogeny (Fig. S2) and 311 RT tests showed significant evidence of admixture for separate tests that included these individuals (Table 312 2; Table S3). Two additional individuals were supported as genetic intermediates between E. 313 wachenheimii (ca. 70-75% ancestry) and E. parviflora (ca. 25-30% ancestry) in Structure, with RT tests

also supporting evidence of admixture (Fig. 3; Table 2; Table S3). This second pair of individuals were recovered as sister to one another in the preliminary phylogeny (Fig. S2).

- 316 We also tested for evidence of more ancient introgression among lineages using RT tests with 317 three ingroup individuals from three different species determinations or *Structure* clusters (in cases where 318 the individual's identity was unclear). Individuals whose determination contained an affinis modifier were 319 considered to be their own lineage for this purpose. We conducted 25 such tests, selecting one individual 320 per lineage and excluding individuals with evidence of recent admixture in Structure analyses. We did not 321 find significant evidence of admixture in any of these tests (Fig. 4; Fig. S3; Table 2; Table S3), though 322 three resulted in an uncorrected P < 0.05 but that was not significant at the level of $\alpha = 0.01$ after correcting 323 for multiple tests with the Holm-Bonferroni method (Table 2; Table S3). One such test included 324 individuals determined as E. parviflora, E. aff. parviflora, and E. wachenheimii in which 63.3% of 325 conflicting gene trees supported one alternative ($P = 3.52 \times 10^{-3}$). Another test included individuals of E. 326 laevicarpa, E. bracteosa and an individual determined as E. aff. laevicarpa: for this test 59.4% of 327 conflicting gene trees supporting one alternative ($P = 8.58 \times 10^{-3}$). The third test including individuals of E. 328 truncata, E. coriacea, and E. sagotiana resulted in 58.8% of conflicting gene trees supporting one 329 alternative ($P = 1.19 \times 10^{-2}$; Table 2; Table S3).
- 330

331 *Monophyly of described species in the Parvifolia clade*—In *Structure* analyses, individuals collected at

332 Reserve 1501 were consistently assigned ancestry corresponding almost exclusively (i.e. greater than

333 95%) to a single cluster, with notable expectations for two individuals with evidence of admixture (Fig. 3-

4; Fig. S4). There did not appear to be admixture within several clades based on samples collected at

Reserve 1501 including 1) E. collina, E. bracteosa, and E. laevicarpa, 2) E. atropetiolata and E.

336 *cyathiformis*, or 3) *E. micrantha* and *E. rankiniae* (Fig. 4). When considering individuals from these

337 species collected outside our focal plot, some were inferred to have ancestry corresponding to multiple

338 species. However, this appeared to be the result of intraspecific variation due to geographic structure, as

there was no evidence of admixture in relevant RT tests (Table S3). Intraspecific variation could have

340 caused ancestry to be assigned to a second cluster due to the parameterization of the analysis or uneven

341 sampling across subpopulations (e.g., several individuals sampled from Reserve 1501, one individual

342 from another locality). Indeed, the tendency for *Structure* to assign mixed ancestry in the presence of

- isolation by distance (Pritchard *et al.*, 2010) or when sampling is uneven across hierarchical levels of
- 344 population structure (Puechmaille, 2016) has been well-documented. Alternatively, this signal could
- 345 represent admixture that RT tests failed to detect.

346 Overall, most individuals had morphological determinations that agreed with genetic evidence. 347 There were $\overline{60}$ individuals collected at Reserve 1501 with morphological determinations as one of our 348 focal species or suspected hybrids. Of these, seven (11.7%) were shown to require redeterminations based 349 on genetic evidence and two were shown to be admixed (Table S1). There were 51 individuals in our 350 broader sampling of the Parvifolia clade that did not meet both of the following criteria: 1) determined to 351 be a focal species based on morphology; and 2) collected at Reserve 1501. Of these 51, there were 11 352 (21.6%) that required redeterminations, and two that showed evidence of admixture. Seven could be 353 redetermined to species and four were assigned a putative species determination with an *affinis* modifier 354 to reflect uncertainty (Fig. S1; Table S1).

355

356 Geographic structure in E. coriacea— There was strong evidence of geographic structure among 12 357 samples of E. coriacea with no evidence of recent admixture. In a PCA of SNP data, the first, second, and 358 third principal components explained 15.14%, 11.24%, and 10.82% of the total variance respectively and 359 individuals with the same country of origin clustered together (Fig. S5). In phylogenetic analyses, 360 collections from Brazil formed a clade which was strongly supported as sister to collections from French 361 Guiana (Table S1; Fig. S6). The single individual collected in Panama was sister to an individual 362 collected at Los Amigos field station at Madre de Dios, Peru, with those sister to a clade of two 363 individuals collected at Yasuní National Park in Ecuador; those four individuals were also inferred to 364 have varying amounts of ancestry corresponding to a second cluster in *Structure* analyses, while 365 individuals from Brazil and French Guiana had inferred ancestry almost exclusively corresponding to a 366 single cluster (Fig. 3; Figs. S4).

367

368 *Phylogenetic relationships in the Parvifolia clade*—Our target capture approach resolved most of the 369 phylogenetic relationships among sampled species of the Parvifolia clade, though for some, support was 370 dataset-dependent (Fig. 4; Fig. S6-7; Table S4). Seven relationships among accepted species differed 371 between the Parvifolia phylogeny (i.e. intron and exon data) and the exon-only Parvifolia phylogeny (Fig. S7). Inferred relationships among individuals within a species tended to vary more than relationships 372 373 among species across datasets (Fig. S6). Regardless of whether intron data was included, E. truncata and 374 E. wachenheimii were inferred to be sister taxa, as were E. coriacea and E. parviflora. Those four species 375 formed a clade with *E. sagotiana*, with that clade of five species sister to a clade consisting of *E.* 376 pedicellata, E. ovata, and E. albiflora (Fig. 4).

377

Summary of collection records and phenology of selected species—Existing collection records showed
broad overlap in the geographic ranges of the four species we investigated (Fig. 5). Our survey of
phenology yielded 63 unique collections in flower from Amazonas, Brazil (Table S6, see later).
Collection date ranges and interquartile ranges for each of the three species overlapped, with the medians
for each falling within three weeks of one another during the dry season (Fig. S8).

383

384 Discussion

385 Admixture in the Parvifolia clade—Our results add to the small but growing body of evidence regarding 386 admixture among tropical trees and are, to our knowledge, the first examples of nuclear admixture among 387 hyperdominant Amazonian species. Our sampling included all accepted species of the Parvifolia clade 388 known to occur in the intensively studied Reserve 1501 plot (Table S1; Mori & Lepsch-Cunha, 1995). All 389 individuals of our 12 focal species collected at Reserve 1501 could be assigned robust species 390 determinations based on *Structure* analyses and tree-based phylogenomic inference (Figs. 3-4; Table S1; 391 Figs. S2-S4). Our results provide robust evidence of admixture between two of our focal species, E. 392 *coriacea* and *E. wachenheimii*. The two *E. coriacea* × *wachenheimii* individuals were recovered as 393 successively sister to all *E. wachenheimii* individuals in our preliminary phylogeny, consistent with each 394 sharing a high degree of genetic similarity with E. wachenheimii while also harboring genetic 395 dissimilarities with E. wachenheimii and with one another (Fig. S2). In addition, there was significant 396 evidence for rejecting the null hypothesis of no admixture for RT tests that included one E. wachenheimii, 397 one E. coriacea, and either putative E. coriacea × wachenheimii individual (Table 2; Table S3). 398 Our results also strongly support hypotheses of admixture between E. wachenheimii and E. 399 parviflora (Fig. 3; Table 2). The E. parviflora × wachenheimii individuals were inferred to have unequal 400 ancestry from the two parent species, suggesting that hybridization followed by backcrossing may have

- ancestry from the two parent species, suggesting that hybridization followed by backcrossing may have
- 401 occurred (Fig. 3; Fig. S4). We note that only a single individual of *E. parviflora* has ever been recorded at

402 Reserve 1501 and therefore was not among our focal species; the collections of these admixed individuals
403 were made within the BR-319 plot network, south of Reserve 1501

404 (https://ppbio.inpa.gov.br/sitios/br319; Table S1). Both sampled individuals with >95% ancestry

405 corresponding to *E. parviflora* in *Structure* analyses were collected in French Guiana. However, our

406 results are not consistent with geographic structure: the relevant RT tests rejected the null hypothesis of

407 no admixture for triplets consisting of one *E. wachenheimii*, one *E. parviflora*, and either putative *E.*

408 *parviflora* × *wachenheimii* intermediate (Table 2; Table S3).

409 All three of species with evidence of admixture, *E. coriacea*, *E. wachenheimii*, and *E. parviflora*,

410 have been described as hyperdominant—members of a group of 217 tree species that comprise

411 approximately 50% of the tree numbers and biomass of Amazon forests (ter Steege *et al.*, 2013).

412 Eschweilera coriacea is the third most abundant tree species across an Amazon-wide network of forest

413 inventory plots, with an estimated census population size of between four and five billion individuals (ter

414 Steege *et al.*, 2013, 2020) and is the only tree species to be considered hyperdominant in both the Amazon

- 415 basin and Guiana Shield regions (ter Steege *et al.*, 2013).
- 416

417 Is admixture widespread among species of Eschweilera?— Given the sizable gaps in available data on 418 hyperdominant species of *Eschweilera*, additional research is clearly needed to reveal the full extent of 419 admixture among them. We found admixture between two species pairs of hyperdominant Eschweilera at 420 two different localities, despite sampling 12 or fewer individuals for any species (Table 1). Of the three 421 individuals suspected to be hybrids based on morphology, only one showed evidence of admixture, while 422 three other individuals, one originally determined as E. coriacea and two as E. truncata, were also found 423 to be admixed (Table S1). This suggests that trees with or without obvious morphological signs of 424 hybridity may have admixed genomes. Data on the phenology of these species is quite limited but 425 indicates that broad overlap in flowering times during the dry season cannot be ruled out based on 426 existing data (Fig. S8) and evidence of admixture clearly demonstrates that phenological overlap can 427 occur in the Amazon basin.

428 Given the current evidence, the large population sizes of these species, their large and frequently 429 overlapping ranges (Fig. 5; Mori et al., 2017), and the prevalence of gene tree conflict in our results 430 (Table S3), we argue that admixture among *E. coriacea*, *E. wachenheimii*, and *E. parviflora* may be 431 extensive and that future efforts are likely reveal further evidence that admixture has played a role in the 432 evolution of these and possibly other species of *Eschweilera*. However, deeper sampling is necessary to 433 determine the extent of admixture and whether additional species admix. The results of several RT tests 434 showed patterns of gene tree conflict suggestive of ancestral evolutionary reticulations, but that failed to 435 meet our criteria for statistical significance (Table 2). Future work that implements explicit tests for

admixture with more independent loci may provide stronger evidence regarding whether ancient

437 evolutionary reticulations have occurred in *Eschweilera*. Future sampling efforts with a larger geographic

- 438 focus could also produce quantitative estimates of gene flow among lineages across the Neotropics, and
- 439 investigate whether entire populations, rather than individuals, bear genomic signatures of admixture.
- 440

السيال

441 **Biological implications of admixture among dominant tropical lineages**—If admixture is widespread, 442 interspecific gene flow may be an important factor in the evolution of the Parvifolia clade and could 443 shape their reproductive biology, local adaptation, and ecological interactions. Hybridization and 444 introgression can have various outcomes including increasing genetic diversity, sharing of adaptive 445 alleles, and either increasing or decreasing the strength of reproductive isolation barriers (Rieseberg & 446 Wendel, 1993). In some cases, a complete breakdown of reproductive isolation barriers can cause 447 "lineage collapse" or "speciation reversal", resulting in a new lineage with a mosaic genome (Kearns et 448 al., 2018). Alternatively, if hybrids are inviable, prezygotic isolation barriers may evolve (i.e. 449 reinforcement) or there may be little or no lasting population level effects of hybridization. In the case of 450 *Eschweilera*, current evidence suggests that chloroplast capture may be quite common (Huang *et al.*, 451 2015; O. Vargas et al., unpublished), indicating that at least some hybrids are capable of backcrossing 452 with their parent species.

453 Our results show that morphologically defined species largely correspond to distinctive gene 454 pools in our focal species, even in those that admix. The continued genetic cohesion of admixing species 455 could be due to several factors including hybrid inviability or divergent selection acting on suites of traits 456 that differ among these species. Unfortunately, data about the reproductive biology and ecology of the 457 species found to admix are limited. All three species most often occur in non-flooded forests, though E. 458 coriacea appears to tolerate flooding more readily than the other two (Mori & Lepsch-Cunha, 1995; Mori 459 et al., 2010 onward). Eschweilera coriacea frequently reach the canopy while E. wachenheimii are 460 typically smaller and occupy the understory. Eschweilera parviflora are most often found in the 461 understory, but can also reach the canopy (Mori et al., 2010 onward). All three species differ somewhat in 462 floral morphology (Fig. 1A-C; Table S5) and may attract different pollinators, though observations of 463 floral visitors are lacking for these species (Mori et al., 2010 onward). A better understanding of the 464 nuanced ecological differences among these species may help shed light the selective forces that maintain 465 their genetic separation.

A group of taxa that remain largely distinct despite incomplete reproductive barriers is sometimes called a syngameon (Lotsy, 1925; Suarez-Gonzalez *et al.*, 2018). Several of the best-studied examples of syngameons in trees are found within the oaks (*Quercus*), which hybridize prodigiously (e.g. Eaton *et al.*, 2015; Hipp *et al.*, 2020), yet largely retain their cohesion as species (Hardin, 1975; Cavender-Bares, 470 2019; Kremer & Hipp, 2020) and likely facilitate one another's ecological success through introgression

- 471 (Leroy et al., 2020). Our results suggest that some members of the Parviflora clade including E. coriacea,
- 472 *E. wachenheimii*, and *E. parviflora* could represent a syngameon, which have been hypothesized to be
- 473 common in tropical trees (Cannon & Lerdau, 2015; Schmitt et al., 2021), but have not often been
- 474 documented with genomic evidence. Exchanging genes with other species might facilitate local
- 475 adaptation across the broad ranges of species like *E. coriacea* (Fig. 5), but further investigation is needed
- 476 to test for evidence of a relationship between admixture, species abundances, and ecological amplitude.
- 477
- 478 **Population structure**—We found evidence of geographic structure within the hyperdominant species E. 479 coriacea (Fig. 3; Figs S4-5). In Structure analyses, runs with the best posterior probability consistently 480 inferred individuals of *E. coriacea* to correspond to two clusters, with individuals assigned varying 481 proportions of the two clusters depending on where the specimen was collected, in a gradient from 482 Panama to Ecuador and Peru to French Guiana and Brazil (Fig. 3; Fig. S4). We also found evidence to 483 suggest population structure in other species in the Parvifolia clade, including *E. truncata* (Fig. 3; Fig. 484 S4), E. sagotiana (Fig. S4), E. collina (Fig. 4), and E. pedicellata (Fig. 4), though we note our sampling 485 was not designed to make inferences on geographic structure in these species. Phylogeographic structure 486 is expected within broadly distributed Neotropical trees (Dick & Pennington, 2019) and has previously 487 been uncovered in several species (e.g. Dick & Heuertz, 2008; Nazareno et al., 2019).
- 488

489 Implications for the taxonomy of Amazonian trees—While a reassessment of species limits is outside 490 the scope of this work, our results suggest that our focal species can be robustly identified with the 491 methods we employed (Figs. 2-3; Figs. S3-4). Despite the occurrence of admixture in some species, most 492 individuals identified as a focal species clustered with other individuals with the same morphological 493 species identification (Table S1). Our results therefore suggest that admixture has not led to the 494 widespread erosion of species boundaries within the clade and therefore, morphology can be used to 495 reliably distinguish among most co-occurring species of Lecythidaceae. However, cases in which 496 genomic evidence did not match existing determinations suggest that refined taxonomic and genetic 497 studies may be warranted for some species including E. coriacea and E. micrantha (Table S1).

498 Our results show that morphological determinations for specimens collected outside Reserve 499 1501 more frequently conflicted with genomic evidence than did determinations for specimens from the 500 intensively studied plot (Table S1). Intraspecific morphological variability, identification errors, as well 501 as admixture may have contributed to this discordance. Many species in the Parvifolia clade, including 502 the three species for which we find evidence of admixture, have similar vegetative characteristics (Table 503 S5), overlapping phenology (Fig. S8; Table S6), and are broadly distributed across the Neotropics (Fig. 5; Mori *et al.*, 2010 onward; Mori *et al.*, 2017). Our results suggest that the methodology employed here might be useful for investigating species delimitation in relation to the geography of broadly distributed tropical tree species. To better characterize species boundaries in tropical trees, studies should explicitly investigate morphological characters in conjunction with genomic evidence, including for admixed individuals and/or populations.

509

510 Utility of target capture for studying tropical tree populations—There are several methods available to 511 detect evidence of admixture, each with its own benefits and assumptions. The target capture protocol 512 employed here, with probes specifically designed to recover low copy number, genetically variable loci in 513 Lecythidaceae (Vargas et al., 2019), allowed us to investigate evolutionary history using phylogenetic and 514 Bayesian clustering approaches. Our inferences were based on highly variable coding regions, which may 515 be under natural selection. The effect that targeting such regions has on studies of admixture and species 516 delimitation warrants further study. While employing neutral markers or a larger number of loci may have 517 led to different estimates of ancestry, our dataset allowed us to identify admixed individuals and 518 distinguish intraspecific geographic variation from admixture using an explicit test. There are drawbacks 519 to using target capture at infraspecific phylogenetic scales, including the relatively high per sample cost 520 compared to other reduced-representation genome sequencing approaches such as RADseq. However, 521 RADseq protocols often require relatively high-molecular weight input DNA (Graham et al., 2015), while 522 target capture can more readily allow researchers to include samples from partially degraded herbarium 523 specimens (Brewer et al., 2019). We recovered sequences from 343 loci, far fewer than often recovered 524 with RADseq, but far more than most studies that use microsatellites. However, unlike for many RADseq 525 datasets, we recovered sequence data for nearly all target loci for most samples (average 339.6 of 344 526 loci/individual), which enabled gene-tree based methods for explicitly testing hypotheses of admixture. 527 Our results suggest that target capture can be used to study admixture in topical trees and may be 528 especially useful for studies that wish to include herbarium specimens.

529

530 Author Contributions

531 D.A.L. and C.W.D. conceived the study. A.V. hosted the field work, obtained collection and 532 export permits, and provided access to existing BDFFP collections. D.A.L. and C.W.D. conducted the 533 field work to obtain new collections. D.A.L. conducted the lab work for focal species and designed and 534 performed the analyses. O.M.V. led the sampling and lab work for the broader phylogeny. O.M.V. and 535 D.A.L. mapped collection records. The figures and tables were prepared by D.A.L. The manuscript was 536 written by D.A.L. with editing by C.W.D. and input from all authors. All authors contributed to and 537 approved the final version of the manuscript. 538

539 Acknowledgements

540 We dedicate this work to the memory of two of our collaborators. Scott A. Mori (1941-2020) was 541 the Lecythidaceae specialist who co-founded the Reserve 1501 Lecythidaceae plot, and kindly and 542 generously supported our work. Paulo A. C. L. Assunção (1956-2021) was a field technician who trained 543 with Scott on the Lecythidaceae plot in the 1980s, became a renowned field botanist in his own right, and 544 trained us in Lecythidaceae field identification. We thank Priscila Souza, Juvenal Batista, Michel Ribeiro, 545 Bruno Garcia Luize, and Xavier Cornejo for contributing collections for our broader sampling. We thank 546 Priscila Souza, Tamara Milton, Nicolli Cabello, and BDFFP Director José Luís Camargo for their help in 547 Brazil and Joseph F. Walker for several helpful discussions about theory. We thank Stephen Smith, Deise 548 Gonçalves, Hannah Marx, Hector Figueroa, Tamara Milton, and three anonymous reviewers for their 549 comments on a previous version of the manuscript. Financial support came from NSF FESD 1338694 to D.A.L. and O.M.V. and NSF DEB 1240869 to C.W.D. Field work by D.A.L. was also supported by the 550 551 Global Fellowship in Agricultural Development within CA&ES at the University of California, Davis. 552 Samples from Brazil were part of a collaboration (CNPq AEX 01300.006387/2017-42) between the 553 University of Michigan and the National Institute of Amazonian Research (INPA) and were registered in 554 SISGEN-Brazil (#AA0B72D) by A.V. Collecting at BDFFP reserves was conducted under ICMBio 555 permit #58484-1. This is study number 819 of the Technical Series of the Biological Dynamics of Forest 556 Fragments Project (BDFFP - INPA/STRI).

557

558 Data Availability Statement

559 The data, novel scripts, and output files that support the findings of this study are openly available from

560 Dryad at doi:10.5061/dryad.fj6q573t4. Raw sequence reads are available from NCBI BioProject

- 561 PRJNA641333.
- 562
- 563 References

564 Andrews S. 2010. FastQC: a quality control tool for high throughput sequence data.

565 http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc. [accessed 6 November 2018].

Ashton, P. S. 1969. Speciation among tropical forest trees: some deductions in the light of recent
 evidence. *Biological Journal of the Linnaean Society* 1: 155-196

568 Baker WJ, Bailey P, Barber V, Barker A, Bellot S, Bishop D, Botigué LR, Brewer G, Carruthers T,

569 Clarkson JJ, *et al.* 2021. A comprehensive phylogenomic platform for exploring the angiosperm
 570 tree of life. *Systematic Biology*. https://doi.org/10.1093/sysbio/syab035

571	Bankevich A, Nurk S, Antipov D, Gurevich AA, Dvorkin M, Kulikov AS, Lesin VM, Nikolenko SI,
572	Pham S, Prjibelski AD, et al. 2012. SPAdes: A new genome assembly algorithm and its
573	appplications to single-sell sequencing. Journal of Computational Biology 19: 455-477.
574	Batista G. JE, Mori SA, Harrison JS. 2017. New species of Eschweilera and a first record of Cariniana
575	(Lecythidaceae) from Panama. <i>Phytoneuron</i> 2017–62: 1–16.
576	Brewer GE, Clarkson JJ, Maurin O, Zuntini AR, Barber V, Bellot S, Biggs N, Cowan RS, Davies
577	NMJ, Dodsworth S, et al. 2019. Factors affecting targeted sequencing of 353 nuclear genes from
578	herbarium specimens spanning the diversity of Angiosperms. Frontiers in Plant Science 10:
579	1102.
580	Brown JW, Walker JF, Smith SA. 2017. Phys: phylogenetic tools for unix. Bioinformatics 33: 1886–
581	1888.
582	Bryant D, Hahn MW. 2020. The concatenation question. In: Scornavacca C, Delsuc F, Galtier N, eds.
583	Phylogenetics in the Genomic Era: 3.4:1–3.4:23.
584	Camacho C, Coulouris G, Avagyan V, Ma N, Papadopoulos J, Bealer K, Madden TL. 2009.
585	BLAST+: architecture and applications. BMC Bioinformatics 10: 421.
586	Cannon CH, Lerdau M. 2015. Variable mating behaviors and the maintenance of tropical biodiversity.
587	Frontiers in Genetics 6: 183.
588	Caron H, Molino J-F, Sabatier D, Léger P, Chaumeil P, Scotti-Saintagne C, Frigério J-M, Scotti I,
589	Franc A, Petit RJ. 2019. Chloroplast DNA variation in a hyperdiverse tropical tree community.
590	Ecology and Evolution 9: 4897–4905.
591	Cock PJA, Antao T, Chang JT, Chapman BA, Cox CJ, Dalke A, Friedberg I, Hamelryck T, Kauff
592	F, Wilczynski B, et al. 2009. Biopython: freely available Python tools for computational
593	molecular biology and bioinformatics. Bioinformatics 25: 1422-1423.
594	Cavender-Bares J. 2019. Diversification, adaptation, and community assembly of the American oaks
595	(Quercus), a model clade for integrating ecology and evolution. New Phytologist 221: 669-692.
596	Chernomor O, von Haeseler A, Minh BQ. 2016. Terrace aware data structure for phylogenomic
597	inference from supermatrices. Systematic Biology 65: 997–1008.
598	Choi JY, Purugganan M, Stacy EA. 2020. Divergent selection and primary gene flow shape incipient
599	speciation of a riparian tree on Hawaii Island. Molecular Biology and Evolution 37: 695–710.
600	Christe C, Boluda CG, Koubínová D, Gautier L, Naciri Y. 2021. New genetic markers for Sapotaceae
601	phylogenomics: More than 600 nuclear genes applicable from family to population levels.
602	Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 160: 107123.

603	Couvreur TLP, Helmstetter AJ, Koenen EJM, Bethune K, Brandão RD, Little SA, Sauquet H,
604	Erkens RHJ. 2019. Phylogenomics of the major tropical plant family Annonaceae using targeted
605	enrichment of nuclear genes. Frontiers in Plant Science 9: 1941.
606	Cronn R, Knaus BJ, Liston A, Maughan PJ, Parks M, Syring JV, Udall J. 2012. Targeted enrichment
607	strategies for next-generation plant biology. American Journal of Botany 99: 291-311.
608	DePristo MA, Banks E, Poplin R, Garimella KV, Maguire JR, Hartl C, Philippakis AA, del Angel
609	G, Rivas MA, Hanna M, et al. 2011. A framework for variation discovery and genotyping using
610	next-generation DNA sequencing data. Nature Genetics 43: 491–498.
611	Dick CW, Heuertz M. 2008. The complex biogeographic history of a widespread tropical tree species.
612	Evolution 62 : 2760–2774.
613	Dick CW, Pennington RT. 2019. History and geography of Neotropical tree diversity. Annual Review of
614	Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 50 : 279–301.
615	Eaton DAR, Hipp AL, González-Rodríguez A, Cavender-Bares J. 2015. Historical introgression
616	among the American live oaks and the comparative nature of tests for introgression. <i>Evolution</i> 69 :
617	2587–2601.
618	Eaton DAR, Ree RH. 2013. Inferring phylogeny and introgression using RADseq data: an example from
619	flowering plants (Pedicularis: Orobanchaceae). Systematic Biology 62: 689-706.
620	Green RE, Krause J, Briggs AW, Maricic T, Stenzel U, Kircher M, Patterson N, Li H, Zhai W,
621	Fritz MH-Y, et al. 2010. A draft sequence of the Neandertal genome. Science 328: 710-722.
622	Graham CF, Glenn TC, McArthur AG, Boreham DR, Kieran T, Lance S, Manzon RG, Martino
623	JA, Pierson T, Rogers SM, et al. 2015. Impacts of degraded DNA on restriction enzyme
624	associated DNA sequencing (RADSeq). Molecular Ecology Resources 15: 1304–1315.
625	Hardin JW. 1975. Hybridization and introgression in Quercus Alba. Journal of the Arnold Arboretum
626	56 : 336–363.
627	Hanlon VC, Otto SP, Aitken SN. 2019. Somatic mutations substantially increase the per-generation
628	mutation rate in the conifer <i>Picea sitchensis</i> . Evolution letters 3 : 348–358.
629	Heuertz M, Caron H, Scotti-Saintagne C, Pétronelli P, Engel J, Tysklind N, Miloudi S, Gaiotto FA,
630	Chave J, Molino J-F. 2020. The hyperdominant tropical tree Eschweilera coriacea
631	(Lecythidaceae) shows higher genetic heterogeneity than sympatric Eschweilera species in
632	French Guiana. Plant Ecology and Evolution 153: 67-81.
633	Hipp AL, Manos PS, Hahn M, Avishai M, Bodénès C, Cavender-Bares J, Crowl AA, Deng M, Denk
634	T, Fitz-Gibbon S, et al. 2020. Genomic landscape of the global oak phylogeny. New Phytologist
635	226 : 1198–1212.

- Holm S. 1979. A simple sequentially rejective multiple test procedure. *Scandinavian Journal of Statistics*637 6: 65–70.
- Huang Y-Y, Mori SA, Kelly LM. 2015. Toward a phylogenetic-based generic classification of
 Neotropical Lecythidaceae—I. Status of *Bertholletia*, *Corythophora*, *Eschweilera* and *Lecythis*.
 Phytotaxa 203: 85–121.
- Huson DH, Klöpper T, Lockhart PJ, Steel MA. 2005. Reconstruction of reticulate networks from gene
 trees. In: Miyano S, Mesirov J, Kasif S, Istrail S, Pevzner PA, Waterman M, eds. *Research in computational molecular biology*. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 233–249.
- Johnson MG, Gardner EM, Liu Y, Medina R, Goffinet B, Shaw AJ, Zerega NJC, Wickett NJ. 2016.
 HybPiper: extracting coding sequence and introns for phylogenetics from high-throughput
 sequencing reads using target enrichment. *Applications in Plant Sciences* 4: 1600016.

647 Johnson MG, Pokorny L, Dodsworth S, Botigué LR, Cowan RS, Devault A, Eiserhardt WL,

648 Epitawalage N, Forest F, Kim JT, *et al.* 2018. A universal probe set for targeted sequencing of

- 649 353 nuclear genes from any flowering plant designed using k-medoids clustering. *Systematic*650 *Biology* 68: 594–606.
- Katoh K, Misawa K, Kuma K, Miyata T. 2002. MAFFT: a novel method for rapid multiple sequence
 alignment based on fast Fourier transform. *Nucleic Acids Research* 30: 3059–3066.
- Katoh K, Standley DM. 2013. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7: improvements
 in performance and usability. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 30: 772–780.
- 655 Kremer A, Hipp AL. 2020. Oaks: an evolutionary success story. *New Phytologist* 226: 987–1011.

656 Leroy T, Louvet J-M, Lalanne C, Le Provost G, Labadie K, Aury J-M, Delzon S, Plomion C,

- 657 Kremer A. 2020. Adaptive introgression as a driver of local adaptation to climate in European
 658 white oaks. *New Phytologist* 226: 1171–1182.
- Lehner B, Grill G. 2013. Global river hydrography and network routing: baseline data and new
 approaches to study the world's large river systems. *Hydrological Processes* 27: 2171–2186.
- Li H, Durbin R. 2009. Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows–Wheeler transform.
 Bioinformatics 25: 1754–1760.
- Li H. 2013. Aligning sequence reads, clone sequences and assembly contigs with BWA-MEM. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1303.3997.* https://arxiv.org/abs/1303.3997.

665 Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, Marth G, Abecasis G, Durbin R,

666 1000 Genome Project Data Processing Subgroup. 2009. The Sequence Alignment/Map format
 667 and SAMtools. *Bioinformatics* 25: 2078–2079.

668	Li H, Handsaker B, Wysoker A, Fennell T, Ruan J, Homer N, Marth G, Abecasis G, Durbin R,
669	1000 Genome Project Data Processing Subgroup. 2009. The sequence alignment/map format
670	and SAMtools. Bioinformatics 25: 2078–2079.
671	Linan AG, Lowry II PP, Miller AJ, Schatz GE, Sevathian J-C, Edwards CE. 2020. RAD-sequencing
672	reveals patterns of diversification and hybridization, and the accumulation of reproductive
673	isolation in a clade of partially sympatric, tropical island trees. Molecular Ecology
674	https://doi.org/10.1111/mec.15736.
675	Loiseau O, Olivares I, Paris M, de La Harpe M, Weigand A, Koubínová D, Rolland J, Bacon CD,
676	Balslev H, Borchsenius F, et al. 2019. Targeted capture of hundreds of nuclear genes unravels
677	phylogenetic relationships of the diverse Neotropical palm tribe Geonomateae. Frontiers in Plant
678	<i>Science</i> 10 : 864.
679	Lotsy JP. 1925. Species or linneon. Genetica 7: 487–506.
680	Martin NH, Bouck AC, Arnold ML. 2006. Detecting adaptive trait introgression between Iris fulva and
681	I. brevicaulis in highly selective field conditions. Genetics 172: 2481.
682	McKenna A, Hanna M, Banks E, Sivachenko A, Cibulskis K, Kernytsky A, Garimella K, Altshuler
683	D, Gabriel S, Daly M. 2010. The Genome Analysis Toolkit: a MapReduce framework for
684	analyzing next-generation DNA sequencing data. Genome research 20: 1297–1303.
685	Morales-Briones DF, Kadereit G, Tefarikis DT, Moore MJ, Smith SA, Brockington SF, Timoneda
686	A, Yim WC, Cushman JC, Yang Y. 2020. Disentangling sources of gene tree discordance in
687	phylogenomic data sets: testing ancient hybridizations in Amaranthaceae s.l. Systematic Biology
688	70 : 219-235.
689	Mori SA, Becker P, Kincaid D. 2001. Lecythidaceae of a central Amazonian lowland forest:
690	implications for conservation. In: Bierregaard RO, Gascon C, Lovejoy TE, Mesquita R, eds.
691	Lessons from Amazonia: the ecology and conservation of a fragmented forest. New Haven,
692	Connecticut: Yale University Press, 55-67.
693	Mori SA, Kiernan EA, Smith NP, Kelly LM, Huang Y-Y, Prance GT, Thiers, BM. 2017.
694	Observations on the phytogeography of the Lecythidaceae clade (Brazil nut family). Phytoneuron
695	30 : 1–85.
696	Mori SA, Lepsch-Cunha N. 1995. The Lecythidaceae of a central Amazonian moist forest. Bronx, New
697	York: New York Botanical Garden Press.
698	Mori SA, Prance GT. 1990. Lecythidaceae, Part 2. The zygomorphic-flowered New World genera
699	(Couroupita, Corythophora, Bertholletia, Couratari, Eschweilera, & Lecythis). Bronx, New
700	York: New York Botanical Garden Press.

701 Mori SA, Smith NP, Cornejo X, Prance GT. 2010. The Lecythidaceae pages. *The Lecythidaceae pages*. 702 [WWW document] URL http://sweetgum.nybg.org/science/projects/lp/. [accessed 9 July 2020]. 703 Mori SA, Smith NP, Huang Y-Y, Prance GT, Kelly LM, Matos CC. 2015. Toward a phylogenetic-704 based generic classification of Neotropical Lecythidaceae-II. Status of Allantoma, Cariniana, Couratari, Couroupita, Grias and Gustavia. Phytotaxa 203: 122-137. 705 706 Nazareno AG, Dick CW, Lohmann LG. 2019. A biogeographic barrier test reveals a strong genetic 707 structure for a canopy-emergent Amazon tree species. Scientific Reports 9: 18602. 708 Nguyen L-T, Schmidt HA, von Haeseler A, Minh BQ. 2014. IQ-TREE: a fast and effective stochastic 709 algorithm for estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* 32: 710 268-274. 711 Paetzold C, Wood KR, Eaton DAR, Wagner WL, Appelhans MS. 2019. Phylogeny of Hawaiian 712 Melicope (Rutaceae): RAD-seq Resolves Species Relationships and Reveals Ancient 713 Introgression. Frontiers in Plant Science 10: 1074. 714 Parnell J, Pedersen H, Hodkinson T, Balslev H, Welzen PC, Simpson D, Middleton D, Esser H-J, 715 Pooma R, Utteridge T, et al. 2013. Hybrids and the flora of Thailand. Thai Forest Bulletin 41: 716 1–9. 717 Pease JB, Haak DC, Hahn MW, Moyle LC. 2016. Phylogenomics reveals three sources of adaptive 718 variation during a rapid radiation. PLOS Biology 14: e1002379. 719 Pease JB, Hahn MW. 2015. Detection and polarization of introgression in a five-taxon phylogeny. 720 Systematic Biology 64: 651–662. 721 Poplin R, Ruano-Rubio V, DePristo MA, Fennell TJ, Carneiro MO, Van der Auwera GA, Kling 722 DE, Gauthier LD, Levy-Moonshine A, Roazen D, et al. 2017. Scaling accurate genetic variant 723 discovery to tens of thousands of samples. *bioRxiv*: 201178. doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/201178. 724 Prance GT, Mori SA. 1979. Lecythidaceae: Part I: The actinomorphic-flowered New World 725 Lecythidaceae (Asteranthos, Gustavia, Grias, Allantoma, & Cariniana). Bronx, New York: New 726 York Botanical Garden Press. 727 Prata EMB, Sass C, Rodrigues DP, Domingos FMCB, Specht CD, Damasco G, Ribas CC, Fine 728 PVA, Vicentini A. 2018. Towards integrative taxonomy in Neotropical botany: disentangling the 729 Pagamea guianensis species complex (Rubiaceae). Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society 188: 730 213-231. 731 Pritchard JK, Stephens M, Donnelly P. 2000. Inference of population structure using multilocus 732 genotype data. Genetics 155: 945. 733 Pritchard JK, Wen W, Falush D. 2010. Documentation for STRUCTURE software: Version 2.3. 734 Chicago, IL, USA: University of Chicago..

- Puechmaille SJ. 2016. The program structure does not reliably recover the correct population structure
 when sampling is uneven: subsampling and new estimators alleviate the problem. *Molecular ecology resources* 16: 608–627.
- Purcell S, Neale B, Todd-Brown K, Thomas L, Ferreira MAR, Bender D, Maller J, Sklar P, de
 Bakker PIW, Daly MJ, *et al.* 2007. PLINK: a tool set for whole-genome association and
- population-based linkage analyses. *The American Journal of Human Genetics* 81: 559–575.
 R Core Team. 2019. *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. Vienna, Austria: R
- Foundation for Statistical Computing. Version 3.6.0.
- Revell LJ. 2012. phytools: an R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other things).
 Methods in ecology and evolution 3: 217–223.
- Rieseberg LH, Wendel JF. 1993. Introgression and its consequences in plants. In: Harrison RG, ed.
 Hybrid zones and the evolutionary process. New York, NY: Oxford University Press, 70–109.
- Rose JP, Kleist TJ, Löfstrand SD, Drew BT, Schönenberger J, Sytsma KJ. 2018. Phylogeny,
 historical biogeography, and diversification of angiosperm order Ericales suggest ancient
 Neotropical and East Asian connections. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 122: 59–79.
- Schley RJ, Pennington RT, Pérez-Escobar OA, Helmstetter AJ, de la Estrella M, Larridon I,
 Sabino Kikuchi IAB, Barraclough TG, Forest F, Klitgård B. 2020. Introgression across
 evolutionary scales suggests reticulation contributes to Amazonian tree diversity. *Molecular Ecology* 29: 4170–4185.
- Schmitt S, Tysklind N, Derroire G, Heuertz M, Hérault B. 2021. Topography shapes the local
 coexistence of tree species within species complexes of Neotropical forests. *Oecologia* 196: 389–
 398.
- 757 Sievert C. 2020. Interactive Web-Based Data Visualization with R, plotly, and shiny. Boca Raton,
 758 Florida: CRC Press.
- 759 Slater GSC, Birney E. 2005. Automated generation of heuristics for biological sequence comparison.
 760 *BMC Bioinformatics* 6: 31.
- 761 Stamatakis A. 2014. RAxML version 8: a tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-analysis of large
 762 phylogenies. *Bioinformatics* 30: 1312–1313.
- 763 Suarez-Gonzalez A, Lexer C, Cronk QCB. 2018. Adaptive introgression: a plant perspective. *Biology* 764 *Letters* 14: 20170688.
- 765 **Tange O. 2011.** Gnu parallel-the command-line power tool. *The USENIX Magazine* **36**: 42–47.
- ter Steege H, Pitman NCA, Sabatier D, Baraloto C, Salomão RP, Guevara JE, Phillips OL, Castilho
 CV, Magnusson WE, Molino J-F, *et al.* 2013. Hyperdominance in the Amazonian tree flora.
 Science 342: 1243092.

769 ter Steege H, Prado PI, Lima RAF de, Pos E, de Souza Coelho L, de Andrade Lima Filho 770 D, Salomão RP, Amaral IL, de Almeida Matos FD, Castilho CV, et al. 2020. Biased-771 corrected richness estimates for the Amazonian tree flora. Scientific Reports 10: 10130. 772 Van der Auwera GA, Carneiro MO, Hartl C, Poplin R, del Angel G, Levy-Moonshine A, Jordan T, 773 Shakir K, Roazen D, Thibault J, et al. 2013. From FastQ data to high-confidence variant calls: 774 the Genome Analysis Toolkit best practices pipeline. Current Protocols in Bioinformatics 43: 775 11.10.1-11.10.33. 776 Vargas OM, Dick CW. 2020. Diversification history of Neotropical Lecythidaceae, an ecologically 777 dominant tree family of Amazon rain forest. In: Rull V, Carnaval AC, eds. Neotropical 778 diversification: patterns and processes. Cham: Springer International Publishing, 791–809. 779 Vargas OM, Goldston B, Grossenbacher DL, Kay KM. 2020. Patterns of speciation are similar across 780 mountainous and lowland regions for a Neotropical plant radiation (Costaceae: Costus). Evolution 781 74: 2644-2661. 782 Vargas OM, Heuertz M, Smith SA, Dick CW. 2019. Target sequence capture in the Brazil nut family 783 (Lecythidaceae): marker selection and in silico capture from genome skimming data. Molecular 784 Phylogenetics and Evolution 135: 98–104. 785 Wickham H. 2016. ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis. New York: Springer-Verlag. 786 Whitney KD, Randell RA, Rieseberg LH. 2010. Adaptive introgression of abiotic tolerance traits in the 787 sunflower Helianthus annuus. New Phytologist 187: 230–239. 788 Zhbannikov IY, Hunter SS, Foster JA, Settles ML. 2017. SeqyClean: a pipeline for high-throughput 789 sequence data preprocessing. In: Proceedings of the 8th ACM International Conference on 790 Bioinformatics, Computational Biology, and Health Informatics (ACM-BCB '17). New York, NY: 791 ACM, 407-416. doi: https://doi.org/10.1145/3107411.3107446. 792 Zheng X, Levine D, Shen J, Gogarten SM, Laurie C, Weir BS. 2012. A high-performance computing 793 toolset for relatedness and principal component analysis of SNP data. Bioinformatics 28: 3326-794 3328. 795 796 Fig. S1 Schematic of the process for making redeterminations based on all available evidence. 797 Fig. S2 The preliminary phylogeny of the Parvifolia clade, estimated from a supermatrix of intron and 798 exon target capture data. 799 Fig. S3 Results of several *Structure* analyses with alternative values of K. 800 Fig. S4 Results of *Structure* analyses using a SNP dataset for the clade that included *E. coriacea*, *E.* 801 wachenheimii, E. sagotiana, E. truncata, and E. parviflora. 802 Fig. S5 Three-dimensional scatterplot for a genetic principal component analysis showing geographical

- 803 structuring in samples of *E. coriacea*.
- 804 Fig. S6 The Parvifolia phylogeny without reduced representation, produced using a supermatrix of intron
- and exon target capture data.
- 806 Fig. S7 Comparison of the reduced-representation Parvifolia phylogenies recovered with two
- 807 supermatrices.
- 808 Fig. S8 Boxplots overlayed with dot plots showing the day of the year that collections were made for
- specimens at the New York Botanical Garden Herbarium.
- 810 **Table S1** Voucher and accession information for samples used in the study.
- 811 **Table S2** Summary statistics for all SNP datasets and estimated probability of the data for all *Structure*
- 812 analyses for differing values of K.
- 813 **Table S3** Summary of all rooted triplet tests conducted.

814 **Table S4** Results of tree searches and likelihood recalculations for the Parvifolia phylogenies, ordered by

- 815 increasing AIC score.
- 816 **Table S5** Summaries of morphological and ecological traits of species inferred to engage in admixture.
- 817 Table S6 Information for flowering specimens collected in Amazonas, Brazil and housed at the New
- 818 York Botanical Garden Herbarium.
- 819 Methods S1 Paralog filtering and alignment.
- 820 Methods S2 Genotyping and SNP dataset analyses.
- 821 Methods S3 Redetermination of individuals based on all available evidence.
- 822 Methods S4 Parvifolia phylogeny supermatrix construction and phylogeny estimation.
- 823 Notes S1 Note on species of the Parvifolia clade at Reserve 1501.
- 824 Notes S2 Notes on sampling at Reserve 1501 and prioritization of morphological intermediates.
- 825
- 826

827

828

Group or focal species	Number of samples (based on morphology in parentheses)	Named spp. represented
E. atropetiolata S.A.Mori	5 (5)	1
E. bracteosa (Poepp. ex O.Berg) Miers	4 (6)	1
E. collina Eyma	5 (5)	1
E. coriacea (DC.) S.A.Mori	12 (13)	1
E. cyathiformis S.A.Mori	5 (4)	1
<i>E. laevicarpa</i> S.A.Mori	7 (6)	1

E. micrantha (O.Berg) Miers	2 (6)	1
E. pedicellata (Rich.) S.A.Mori	6 (7)	1
E. pseudodecolorans S.A.Mori	5 (4)	1
E. rankiniae S.A.Mori	4 (4)	1
E. truncata A.C.Sm.	10 (9)	1
E. wachenheimii (Benoist) Sandwith	4 (6)	1
Focal species or admixed from Reserve 1501	58 (60)	12
Admixed within Parvifolia clade	4 (3)	n.a.
Parvifolia clade	109 (107)	33
Lecythidaceae	240 (240)	127

Table 1. Summary of the number of samples before and after making redeterminations.

Samples forming	Third	Major	Conflict	Conflict	P value	Corrected	Reject
major relationship	ingroup	relationship	1 count	2 count		crit. value	H-null
		count					
EswaL779, EscoL796	EscoL834	141	124	53	4.87E-08	2.22E-04	Yes
EstrL882, EswaL779	EspaL068	134	124	56	2.18E-07	2.27E-04	Yes
EswaL779, EscoL824	EscoL834	129	126	59	4.69E-07	2.33E-04	Yes
EstrL891, EspaL068	EswaL779	131	113	64	1.42E-04	2.38E-04	Yes
EsmiL332, EspaL068	EswaL779	208	69	40	3.52E-03	2.44E-04	No
EscoL885, EslaL783	EsbrL794	147	101	69	8.58E-03	2.50E-04	No
EstrL838, EscoL834	EssaL335	140	104	73	0.012	2.56E-04	No
EsroL664, EsamL886	EsmiL823	120	111	83	0.026	2.63E-04	No
EscoL241, EscoL828	EscoL885	224	50	36	0.080	2.70E-04	No
EscoL771, EswaL839	EstrL711	212	55	42	0.111	2.78E-04	No
EsteL690, EstrL772	EspaL068	222	50	38	0.120	2.86E-04	No
EstrL838, EswaL779	EssaL335	170	80	66	0.141	2.94E-04	No
EspaL386, EspaL868	EsteL704	221	49	39	0.169	3.03E-04	No
EscyL797, EsrhL578	EsatL643	164	77	65	0.178	3.13E-04	No
EstrL838, EswaL779	EscoL834	118	107	93	0.179	3.23E-04	No

Table 2. Summary of 15 rooted triplet tests, ranked in order of increasing *P* value.

- 834 Figure legends

Figure 1. Examples of the morphology of members of the Parvifolia clade. A) Flower of *Eschweilera*

836 parviflora. B) Lateral view of a flower of Eschweilera wachenheimii. C) Flower of Eschweilera coriacea.

B37 D) Flower of *Eschweilera collina* with androecial hood sectioned. E) Fruit bases, opercula, and seeds of

838 Eschweilera parviflora. F) Fruits, operculum, and seeds of Eschweilera coriacea. G) Leaves and old fruit

839 of Eschweilera atropetiolata. H) Abaxial view of a leaf of Eschweilera coriacea. I) Bark of Eschweilera

840 tessmannii. J) Bark of Eschweilera truncata. K) Bark of Eschweilera sagotiana. L) Bark of Eschweilera

841 atropetiolata. Photo attribution: A, B, E, F, G, I, J & L to Scott Alan Mori; C, D & K to Carol Ann

842 Gracie; H to Xavier Cornejo. Reproduced under terms of the CC BY-NC-SA 3.0 license. Captions are

- adapted from Mori *et al.* (2010 onward).
- 844

845 Figure 2. Schematic of the rooted triplet test for assessing evidence of admixture. Red arrows indicate 846 four hypothetical samples selected for the test. The test assumes that the outgroup diverges first in all 847 gene trees and at least two species are represented in the ingroup. Blue and red phylogenies represent the 848 two possible topologies that conflict with the most common topology after all possible gene trees have 849 been generated. Any statistically significant deviation from equal numbers of the two conflicting 850 topologies, where P is the probability of a result at least as unequal as the observed frequencies using a 851 binomial test, is considered evidence that the assumptions of the multispecies coalescent have been 852 violated by admixture among species.

853

Figure 3. Population structure (K=5) of all samples in the clade that included *E. coriacea*, *E. wachenheimii*, *E. truncata*, and *E. parviflora*. Each bar represents the ancestry of an individual inferred
with *Structure*. Each individual is labeled with a unique code used throughout all analyses and asterisks
indicate samples from focal species collected at Reserve 1501. Collection locations outside Reserve 1501
are indicated as follows: Pa-Panama, Pe-Peru, E-Ecuador, F-French Guiana, B-Brazil. Black stars above
bars indicate individuals with significant evidence of admixture based on an RT test.

860 **Figure 4**. Phylogeny of the Parvifolia clade visualized using a single representative per accepted species.

861 Branch labels are IQ-TREE ultrafast bootstrap support. Asterisks on branch labels indicate nodes that

862 conflict with the best scoring maximum likelihood topology recovered with an exon-only supermatrix.

863 The results of *Structure* analyses are shown for SNP datasets that included all individuals within the

864 corresponding clades indicated on the phylogeny. Each individual is labeled with a unique code used

throughout all analyses and asterisks on these labels indicate samples from focal species collected at

866 Reserve 1501. The legend for each sub-plot indicates the one or more species that most closely

867 corresponded to each cluster based on accepted taxonomy. The individuals in these clades generally

868 clustered along morphologically defined species boundaries and there was no significant evidence of

admixture for these taxa based on rooted triplet tests.

870

Figure 5. Occurrence records across the Neotropics for four closely related species in the Parvifolia

872 clade, three of which show evidence of admixture in this study. Few or no records are available for these

873 species across much of the Amazon basin since most come from collections made in permanent plots.

874 Because of this, there is uncertainty in the true extent of range overlap among these and other species of

875 Lecythidaceae as well as many other clades of Neotropical trees.

Author Manu



nph_17675_f1.png

Author Manu



Select three individuals of two or more species as well as a more distantly related individual to use as an outgroup for rooting gene trees

빈빈빈빈빈빈빈 비빈빈빈빈빈빈 비빈빈빈빈빈빈

쒼쒼쒼뫤쒼빈쒼 쒼쒼쒼뭰쒼뉀쒼 빈벵뭰뭰빈빈



......

Summerize the results to find the most common gene tree topology (black) among the three topological possibilities

Generate all possible rooted gene trees

The most common topology is defined as the major relationship, with individuals T_1 and T_2 more closely related to one another than to T_3

Determine how many gene trees contain each of the two possible topologies that conflict with the major relationship

This article is protected by Calculate the probability (P) that the more common

conflicting topology could occur at least as many times as actually observed if the null hypothesis of no admixture is true and the observed gene tree conflict is due to ILS







Eschweilera chartaceifolia

