1	Seed size and its rate of evolution correlate with species diversification across
2	angiosperms
3	
4	Short title: Seed size and angiosperm diversification

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24 Abstract

25

26 Species diversity varies greatly across the different taxonomic groups that comprise 27 the Tree of Life (ToL). This imbalance is particularly conspicuous within 28 angiosperms, but is largely unexplained. Seed mass is one trait that may help clarify 29 why some lineages diversify more than others because it confers adaptation to 30 different environments, which can subsequently influence speciation and extinction. 31 The rate at which seed mass changes across the phylogeny may also be linked to 32 diversification by increasing reproductive isolation and allowing access to novel 33 ecological niches. However, the magnitude and direction of the association between 34 seed mass and diversification has not been assessed across the angiosperm phylogeny. 35 Here, we show that absolute seed size and the rate of change in seed size are both 36 associated with variation in diversification rates. Based on the largest available 37 angiosperm phylogenetic tree, we found that smaller-seeded plants had higher rates of 38 diversification, possibly due to improved colonisation potential. The rate of 39 phenotypic change in seed size was also strongly positively correlated with speciation 40 rates, providing rare, large-scale evidence that rapid morphological change is 41 associated with species divergence. Our study now reveals that variation in 42 morphological traits and, importantly, the rate at which they evolve can contribute to 43 explaining the extremely uneven distribution of diversity across the ToL.

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45

46 Introduction

47 Angiosperms are one of the most species-rich clades on Earth and have dominated48 terrestrial plant communities since the Late Cretaceous [1]. The astounding diversity

49 of flowering plants is distributed extremely unevenly across the ToL. Each of the five 50 most species-rich angiosperm families contains >10,000 species while more than 200 51 families contain <100 species each [2]. An enduring pursuit in evolutionary biology is 52 to explain this uneven distribution of biodiversity, not only in angiosperms, but also 53 across the whole ToL [3].

54

55 Biological traits offer one way to explain disparity in species diversification if they 56 confer adaptation to different environments. Seed mass is one such trait that is 57 particularly important for angiosperms because it integrates across many 58 characteristics of an individual's life history strategy [4]. Along with adult plant size, 59 seed mass affects survival, reproductive lifespan and dispersal [5]. These life history 60 characteristics contribute to fitness and adaptation, which are the ultimate 61 determinants of whether lineages diversify or go extinct [6]. In support of this idea, 62 seed mass has been shown to correlate negatively with diversification in the 63 Polygoneaceae [7], but this has not been investigated across large taxonomic scales. 64 As seed mass varies over ten orders of magnitude in angiosperms, from the minute 1 65 μg seeds of some orchids to the >18 kg seeds of the sea coconut (Lodoicea 66 maldivica), this huge variation may coincide with variation in species diversity. 67 Generalising the direction and magnitude of a link between seed mass and 68 diversification across taxonomic scales has, however, proved difficult. Some life 69 history characteristics encapsulated by seed mass are expected to promote speciation 70 or extinction, while others may simultaneously counteract such effects [8].

71

The rate of change in key biological traits, such as seed size, can be as important in
driving macroevolutionary dynamics as the absolute values of the traits themselves

74 [9]. This is because phenotypic divergence may cause reproductive isolation that 75 results in speciation [10]. Nevertheless, few empirical studies have detected a 76 correlation between rates of phenotypic evolution and lineage diversification 77 [9,11,12]. A correlation between the two may be expected where a trait can change 78 more rapidly in some species than others in response to selective pressures (i.e. high 79 "evolvability" [13]). This rapid change may enable greater access to new ecological 80 niches or quicker establishment of reproductive isolation, thereby increasing the rate 81 of speciation (λ) [14]. In the case of seed mass, the ability to switch rapidly from 82 small seeds with high dispersal ability to larger seeds with lower dispersal ability 83 might promote cycles of rapid colonisation and isolation or permit adaptation to new 84 dispersal vectors in novel environments. Rapid evolution of new phenotypes may also 85 allow individuals to escape harsh environmental conditions and competitive 86 interactions [15], thereby decreasing extinction rates (μ). The net outcome of these 87 processes on net diversification (r = λ - μ) will ultimately depend upon which of these 88 rates responds more strongly to phenotypic change.

89

90 Here, we show that both seed mass and its phenotypic rate of evolution correlate with 91 speciation and extinction across the angiosperm ToL. Our approach combined the 92 most comprehensive phylogenetic timetree available [16] with an unparalleled dataset 93 of seed mass measurements from over 30,000 angiosperm species [17]. We estimated 94 rates of speciation, extinction and seed size evolution across the phylogeny using 95 Bayesian, method-of-moments, and maximum likelihood analyses - each with 96 different assumptions regarding rate variation through time. We then tested whether 97 there was any links between rates of diversification and both seed size and its rate of 98 evolution. Additionally, we examined whether this link was consistent across different 99 methodologies, timescales and taxonomic categories.

100

101 **Results**

102 Our results point to a strong association between angiosperm diversification and rates 103 of seed size evolution irrespective of analytical method or taxonomic scale, with 104 weaker evidence for a link between macroevolutionary dynamics and absolute seed 105 size. In the first instance, we calculated rates of speciation (λ), extinction (μ) and seed 106 size evolution using Bayesian Analysis of Macroevolutionary Mixtures (BAMM) 107 [18]. BAMM models rate heterogeneity through time and lineages, and accounts for 108 incomplete taxon sampling. We used a genus-level phylogenetic tree for this 109 particular analysis to maximise overlap between the phylogenetic and the seed mass 110 datasets and make computation feasible. The resulting tree contained 4105 genera. As 111 expected, given the high degree of taxonomic imbalance observed in the angiosperm 112 phylogeny, we found strong support for more than 100 shifts in the rates of 113 diversification (Fig. S1). There was also marked heterogeneity in the rates of seed size 114 evolution (Fig. 1), which varied over two orders of magnitude (Fig. S2).

115

116 We then estimated whether shifts in macroevolutionary dynamics (λ , μ and r) 117 estimated with BAMM were significantly correlated with absolute mean genus seed 118 size and rates of seed size evolution by comparing the empirical correlations to a null 119 distribution generated using STructured Rate Permutations on Phylogenies 120 (STRAPP), which is robust to phylogenetic pseudoreplication (see Methods for 121 details) [19]. We were able to link major differences in diversity across angiosperm 122 clades with both the rate of phenotypic evolution and the absolute value of trait itself. 123 Specifically, increased speciation was associated with a faster rate of seed size

124 evolution (Spearman's $\rho = 0.44$, p-value < 0.0001; Fig. 2a). Increased extinction rates 125 were similarly associated with higher evolvability ($\rho = 0.35$, p-value = 0.003), but 126 given the weaker effect, the net outcome of λ - μ was that diversification rates were 127 positively correlated with phenotypic change ($\rho = 0.42$, p-value < 0.0001; Fig. 2b). 128 We also identified an association between seed size and both speciation and extinction 129 $(\rho = -0.22, \text{ p-value} = 0.016 \text{ and } \rho = -0.20, \text{ p-value} = 0.045, \text{ respectively; Fig. 2b}).$ 130 Again, as the effect on speciation was greater than that on extinction, diversification 131 rates increased with decreasing seed size ($\rho = -0.19$, p-value = 0.049; Fig. 2b). 132 Generally, the observed correlations arose from many phenotypically fast-evolving 133 clades distributed across the phylogeny (Fig. S2) and were robust to prior choice in 134 the BAMM analyses (Fig. S1).

135

136 We also obtained estimates of net diversification rates with other methods to account 137 for intra-generic variation in seed size and test the robustness of our findings. The 138 first method used a moment estimator that assumed diversification rates were constant 139 over time within genera that had a known crown age and number of species [20]. 140 Monophyletic genera were then selected from a phylogenetic tree containing 8448 141 species present in our initial seed mass dataset so that they each contained ≥ 4 species 142 with seed size data and more than 30% of their described species, thereby ensuring 143 that the minimum probability of recovering the correct crown age node of any genus 144 was 70% (see Methods). A rate of seed size evolution was then estimated for the 70 145 resulting genera by fitting a Brownian Motion (BM) model of trait evolution. 146 Mirroring the BAMM analysis, diversification rates were strongly correlated with the 147 rate of seed size evolution (PGLS slope = 0.157, p-value = 0.004; df = 69), and 148 weakly negatively correlated with mean genus seed size (PGLS slope = -0.064, pvalue = 0.039; df = 69). Our results were similar when we did not limit the analysis based on available seed size data (PGLS slope = -0.103, p-value = 0.004, df = 127; no analysis was performed for trait evolution with these criteria because of considerable missing data).

153

154 The second method that we used to account for intra-generic variation involved 155 estimating macroevolutionary dynamics and phenotypic evolution across sets of 156 clades in our species-level tree that were defined at different timescales. A series of 157 ten, 2 million year-wide time slices from the present up to 20 million years ago was 158 used to identify the most inclusive monophyletic clades of ≥ 4 species. The minimum 159 intra-clade sampling fraction was set at 30% as above. For each resulting clade in 160 each time interval, diversification rates and seed size evolution were estimated as in 161 our previous non-BAMM analyses. We also fitted a series of time-dependent 162 diversification models to each clade with RPANDA, which uses a maximum 163 likelihood approach to estimate speciation and extinction and allows for incomplete 164 taxon sampling [21]. By measuring the correlation of macroevolutionary rates and 165 morphological rates across sets of similarly aged clades we effectively eliminated any 166 spurious correlations caused by both rates being positively correlated with time. 167 Again, we found a positive correlation between the rate of seed size evolution and 168 speciation rates that was consistent across time slices (Fig. 3a, Fig. S3a). As expected 169 given the weak association between seed size and speciation found in our other 170 analyses, a significant negative correlation was only recovered in some of the 171 analysed time slices (Fig 3b, Fig. S3b).

172

173 Discussion

Our study supports the ideas that variation in seed mass and, particularly, its rate of evolution can help explain disparity in diversification across the angiosperm phylogeny by playing a central role in plant life history. As we show with our cladebased analysis, our results are repeatable across many methodologies, varying timescales and do not ascribe to a particular taxonomic category (Figs 2, 3). We also showed that the effect of intra-generic variation in seed mass in the BAMM analysis was negligible (S1 Appendix).

181

182 The robust association of high rates of phenotypic change with lineage diversification 183 has recently been observed in other taxonomic groups [9,12], but never across the 184 whole of the angiosperm ToL as we find here. Accelerated morphological evolution 185 may allow radiating lineages to occupy more complex adaptive landscapes [22]. 186 Similarly, species with greater rate of change in their seed mass (i.e., higher 187 evolvability) could shift between adaptive peaks or develop reproductive barriers 188 more rapidly. Alternatively, the theory of punctuated equilibria [23], whereby 189 morphological changes can arise from the speciation process, might also explain the 190 connection of phenotypic evolution with species divergence. However, current 191 methods do not allow us to distinguish whether speciation is responding to 192 morphological change or vice versa when reconstructing 250 million years of 193 evolutionary history [9].

194

Seed mass itself will also covary with dispersal ability and environmental tolerance in ways that can change speciation and extinction. For example, we found that smallerseeded genera had faster speciation rates. This may be because smaller-seeded genera generally disperse over larger distances [24], which can promote speciation by

199 creating isolated populations [25]. However, the relationship between dispersal and 200 speciation is highly context dependent. The permeability of a landscape to dispersal 201 determines the values of dispersal that may promote species divergence [26]. The 202 weak correlation that we observed between seed size and diversification might 203 therefore reflect contradicting patterns of different strength operating at different 204 clades in the angiosperm phylogeny. Dispersal syndromes may also modify the effect 205 of seed size on speciation. For instance, species with larger seeds are generally 206 associated with biotic dispersal that distributes seeds over greater distances than wind 207 or gravity dispersal [5]. However, broad-scale predictions for the effects of dispersal 208 syndromes on diversification may be inaccurate, since the former depend on 209 landscape connectivity [8] and can sometimes be inconsistent, e.g. a wind-dispersed 210 seed might be transported by an animal. We also found that smaller-seeded genera had 211 higher rates of extinction, possibly due to smaller nutritional reserves that constrain 212 establishment, environmental tolerance and access to limiting resources [27]. Detailed 213 contextual data will be necessary to expand upon the mechanisms underlying our 214 findings in specific regions and clades.

215

216 Although seed mass is associated with other traits that can affect diversification, there 217 is little evidence that these better explain our observed correlations or that seed size is 218 a mere proxy for one of these other traits. For example, genome size positively 219 correlates with seed mass [28], and faster rates of genome size evolution have been 220 linked to increased speciation in angiosperms [29]. Shorter, smaller-seeded plants also 221 tend to have faster life cycles, which may accelerate mutation rates [30] and promote 222 diversification [31]. By comparing the effects of genome size and life cycle across a 223 subset of >900 genera in our dataset, we found that only the distinction between

strictly annual versus perennial genera influenced macroevolutionary dynamics in a similar way as seed size (S1 Appendix, Fig. S4). But unlike other traits [29], both absolute seed size as well as its rate of change were correlated with speciation and extinction. Thus, although other traits surely influence diversification [32], we argue that our results generally reflect the role of seed size as a trait that integrates across multiple aspects of life history characteristics in ways that can predictably influence plant macroevolutionary dynamics (Fig. S5).

231

232 The approach applied here can help to unravel the processes responsible for 233 generating large-scale asymmetries in biodiversity. It also offers the potential to test 234 how widely-varying traits and their rate of morphological evolution influence other 235 aspects of the evolution and adaptation of flowering plants (e.g. [16]). Clade-specific 236 exceptions arising from local interactions with non-focal traits [33] and specific 237 spatio-temporal contexts will undoubtedly interact with broad-scale 238 macroevolutionary patterns and may modulate the effects of seed mass on 239 diversification. Regardless, our results show that seed size and its rate of evolution 240 correlate with speciation and extinction across the flowering plants. This finding may 241 help to explain why some clades are much more species-rich than others and points to 242 a key role of rapid morphological evolution in generating greater levels of diversity.

243

244 Materials and methods

245 Seed mass and phylogenetic dataset

Seed mass data for 31,932 species were obtained from the Royal Botanic Gardens
Kew Seed Information Database [17]. Species names were standardised with The
Plant List (TPL) nomenclature [2] and cleaned using the *Taxonstand* R package [34].

Further processing at the genus-level was performed with the *taxonlookup* R package [35], which is a complete genus-family-order mapping for vascular plants that draws from TPL, the Angiosperm Phylogeny website [36] and a higher-level manuallycurated taxonomic lookup [16]. Mean seed mass values were subsequently calculated for a total of 4763 genera.

254

255 We used the most comprehensive phylogenetic tree for land plants [16,37] that 256 comprises 31,389 species. Taxonomic information for our phylogenetic tree was run 257 through *Taxonstand* and *taxonlookup* as described above to make it as comparable as 258 possible to the seed mass dataset. Monophyly of the genera in the tree was assessed 259 using the *Monophy* package [38]. The initial estimate was 16%, but we removed taxa 260 classified as outliers by *Monophy* (i.e., taxa that lay outside of an established "core 261 clade" for each genus) and this resulted in only 8% of the genera not being 262 monophyletic. The *Phyndr* [35] package was then used to generate a genus-level tree 263 with as much overlap as possible between the phylogeny and the trait data. The final 264 genus-level phylogenetic tree included representatives from 303 plant families (Fig. 265 S6). We also obtained a species-level tree with 8448 representatives from the initial 266 phylogenetic tree that were also present in the Kew Seed Information Database.

267

268 Diversification and phenotypic evolution analyses

First, speciation, extinction and net diversification rates and rates of seed size evolution were estimated separately on the genus-level phylogeny using BAMM version 2.5.0 [18]. BAMM models shifts in macroevolutionary regimes across a phylogenetic tree using reversible-jump Markov chain Monte Carlo (rjMCMC) sampling. Initial prior settings were calculated with the *setBAMMpriors* function in

274 BAMMtools [39], and the expectedNumberOfShifts parameter was set at 25 for both 275 the speciation/extinction and trait evolution analyses, respectively. We incorporated 276 non-random incomplete sampling information following BAMM protocols by 277 calculating the proportion of genera sampled inside each family and estimated the 278 backbone sampling as the overall proportion of sampled genera. Taxonlookup was 279 used as a reference for these calculations. All BAMM analyses were run for 50 280 million generations. We verified convergence by plotting chain traces and ensuring 281 that the effective sample sizes of all relevant parameters exceeded 200. The first 10 282 million generations were discarded as burn-in. The *plotPrior* function in BAMMtools 283 was used to check the difference between model priors and posteriors. We also 284 analysed BAMM prior sensitivity by re-running both the diversification and the trait 285 evolution analyses with different settings for the expectedNumberOfShifts parameter 286 of either 10, 25, 50 or 100 (Fig. S1).

287

288 Second, estimates of net diversification rates were obtained for a curated set of 289 angiosperm genera using the species-level phylogeny. Only monophyletic genera with 290 four or more species in the tree were considered for further analysis. A minimum 291 threshold value for genus specific sampling fraction was set at 0.3. This ensured that 292 the minimum probability of recovering the true root node of any genera was 0.7 293 ("crown sampling probability", following [40,41]). Crown ages for the selected 294 genera were then calculated and used to estimate net diversification rates using the 295 method-of-moments estimator [20]. The total number of species in each genus was 296 obtained from *taxonlookup*. Following standard practice, we assumed three values of 297 relative extinction fraction, $\varepsilon = 0$, 0.5 and 0.9. Different values did not affect our conclusions; therefore we present the results of the intermediate extinction fraction (ϵ 298

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299 = 0.5). The rate of seed size evolution was estimated with by fitting a Brownian
300 Motion (BM) model of evolution to the seed size data within each genus using
301 *fitContinuous* from the package *geiger* [42].

302

303 Finally, we obtained clade-based measures of diversification and seed size evolution 304 across the species-level tree. Clade-specific sampling fractions were calculated by 305 weighting the genus-specific sampling fractions (i.e., the number of congeneric 306 species in the 8448 species tree divided by the total number of described species for 307 that genus) by the number of species from each genus present in the clade. These 308 weighted sampling fractions were used to estimate the total clade species richness. A 309 minimum threshold of 0.3 was used for the clade-specific sampling fraction, again 310 ensuring that the crown sampling probability for each clade was at least 0.7 (the 311 actual median clade crown sampling probabilities for the time slices ranged between 312 0.84 and 0.95). We estimated net diversification rates with the method-of-moments 313 estimator as described above. We also used RPANDA to fit a series diversification 314 models that estimated time-dependent rates to each clade. We fitted six different 315 models of diversification: (i) pure birth model with constant λ (speciation rate); (ii) 316 pure birth model with exponential λ ; (iii) birth-death model with constant λ and μ 317 (extinction); (iv) birth-death model with constant λ and exponential μ ; (v) birth-death 318 model with exponential λ and constant μ ; and (vi) birth-death model with exponential 319 λ and exponential μ . We then used AIC-based model selection to select the best fitting 320 model and obtain the corresponding macroevolutionary parameters. Additionally, to 321 account for possible biases when analysing clades with many non-congeneric species, 322 we confirmed the results of our clade-based analysis but only considered clades that 323 only contained congeneric species (Fig. S7).

324

325 *Correlation of diversification and trait evolution*

326 All rate variables were log-transformed for the correlation analyses. We used 327 STRAPP to test for multiple associations between **BAMM**-estimated 328 macroevolutionary dynamics and each of seed mass (using genus mean values as 329 character states) and seed mass rate of evolution (using seed mass evolutionary rates 330 at the genus-level tips of the phylogeny as character states). STRAPP compares the 331 correlation between a focal trait and a macroevolutionary parameter (λ , μ or r) to a 332 null distribution of correlations. The null correlations are generated by permuting the 333 evolutionary rates in the tips of the phylogenetic tree while maintaining the location 334 of rate shift events in the phylogeny. In each case, we calculated the absolute 335 difference between the observed correlation of the macroevolutionary rate and the 336 trait state and the null correlation obtained by the structured permutations across 5000 337 samples from the BAMM posterior. The reported p-value was the proportion of 338 replicates where the null correlation coefficient was greater than the observed 339 correlation. We found a low type I error associated with our STRAPP correlation 340 analysis (p-value = 0.11, Fig. S8).

341

For both the curated genera dataset and the clade based analyses, we estimated the relationship between speciation rates with seed size rate of evolution and mean genus seed size with phylogenetic generalised least square (PGLS) as implemented in the R package *caper* [43] (Fig. S9, Fig. S10). Similar results as presented in the main text were obtained when analysing net diversification instead of speciation rates (Fig. S11). Finally, we similarly analysed the correlation between speciation and each of seed size and its rate of change, this time selecting only clades consisting of

- 349 congeneric species. Again, this analysis resulted in a similar pattern as the one
- 350 presented in the main text (Fig. S7).
- 351
- 352 *Code availability*
- 353 Scripts used to carry out the analysis described in the paper and generate the figures
- 354 will be deposited in Github upon acceptance.
- 355

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363 Author contributions

- 364 J.I and A.S.T.P conceived the study. J.I. and E.F.M. performed the analysis. J.I. and
- 365 A.J.T interpreted the analysis and wrote the manuscript. All authors edited the
- 366 manuscript.
- 367

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369 **References**

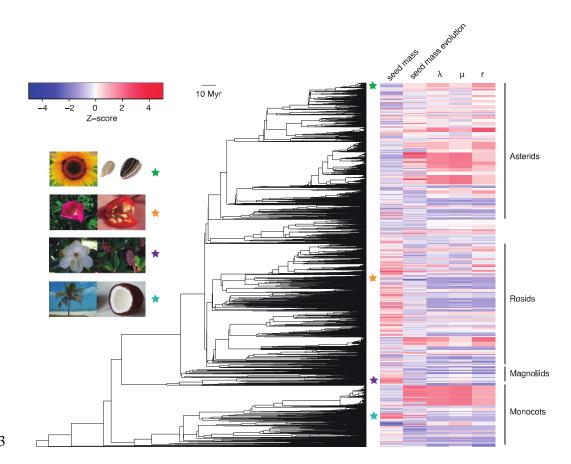
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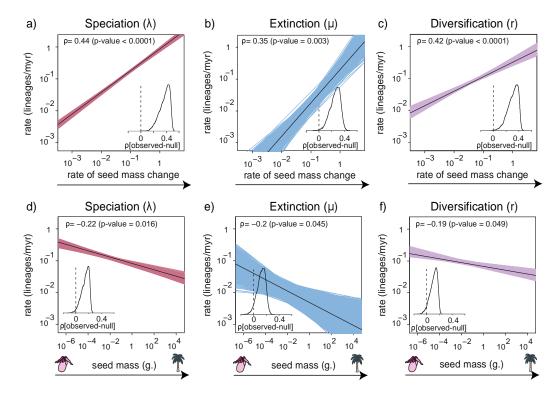


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514 Figure 1. Seed mass and macroevolutionary rates estimated with BAMM across

the angiosperm tree of life. Phylogenetic tree of 4105 genera of plants with seed mass, rate of seed mass change, and speciation (λ), extinction (μ) and net diversification (r) rates estimated by BAMM. Seed mass and rate data were standardised to Z-scores so that variation could be directly compared.

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536 Figure 2. Seed mass and seed mass rate of evolution correlate with 537 macroevolutionary dynamics estimated with BAMM. Spearman correlations were 538 calculated between speciation (λ), extinction (μ), and net diversification (r) and each 539 of a) rate of seed mass change and b) seed mass. Coloured lines are correlations for 540 one sample of the BAMM posterior distribution, bold line is the median. The insets 541 show the density plots of the absolute difference between the observed and null 542 correlation calculated across 5000 structured permutations of the evolutionary rates 543 on the phylogenetic tree (myr = million years).

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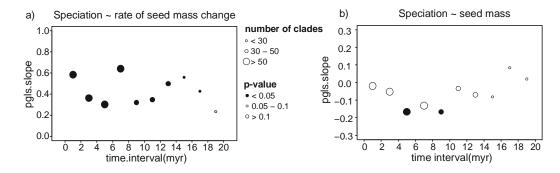


Figure 3. Seed mass and seed mass rate of evolution correlate with speciation in the clade-based analysis. Correlation of (a) rate of seed mass evolution and (b) seed mass with speciation rate (λ) estimated using RPANDA in the clade-based analysis. The strength of correlations is shown as PGLS slopes and were calculated using mean clade-level seed mass across 10 time slices in the species-level phylogenetic tree. The size of the circles represents the number of clades in each time slice while the colour indicates the significance of the slope. A detailed representation of the results in each time slice is given in figures S9 and S10.

580 Supporting Information captions

581

582 Fig. S1. Prior and posterior distribution of the number of rate shifts in BAMM for a) 583 the speciation/extinction and b) phenotypic evolution analyses for 584 *expectedNumberOfShifts* = 10, 25, 50 and 100. The analyses in the main text were 585 carried out with *expectedNumberOfShifts* = 25 for both speciation/extinction and 586 phenotypic evolution analyses.

587

Fig. S2. Phylogenetic tree of 4105 angiosperm genera with branches scaled by diversification rate as determined by BAMM. The colours of the branches indicate the rate of seed mass evolution, also estimated with BAMM.

591

Fig. S3. Seed mass and its rate of evolution are associated with speciation in the clade-based analyses. (a) PGLS slope of the relationship between speciation rate (λ) from the method-of-moments estimator and and the rate of seed mass evolution across 10 time slices in the species level phylogenetic tree. Circles are scaled to the number of clades in each time slice while colour indicates the significance of the slope. (b) PGLS slope of the relationship between speciation rate and mean clade seed mass. For a detailed representation of the results in each time slice, see figure S12 and S13.

600 **Fig. S4.** STRAPP correlations of diversification and phenotypic traits for 938 601 angiosperm genera. The distribution of the absolute difference in the observed 602 correlation minus the null correlation is plotted for each trait. The coloured dotted 603 lines indicate the mean of that distribution, and the black dotted line indicates 0; a 604 distribution with mean = 0 would show no association between a focal trait and

605	speciation. STRAPP correlation of seed mass (shown in blue), C-value (shown in red)
606	and life cycle (shown in green) with a) speciation rate (λ), b) extinction rate (μ), and
607	c) net diversification rate (r).
608	
609	Fig. S5. Proposed effects of seed mass and other life history traits on diversification
610	(solid lines). Dashed lines indicate correlations between life history traits. Numbers
611	indicate reference where the link is proposed.
(10	

612

Fig. S6. Phylogenetic tree of 303 angiosperm families with representatives in thisstudy. The red bars indicate the levels of sampling for each family.

615

Figure S7. Correlation of speciation with seed mass and seed mass rate of evolution in the clade-based analysis only considering congeneric species. (a) PGLS slope of the relationship of speciation rate - estimated with the method-of-moments estimator with mean clade seed mass across 10 time slices in the species level phylogenetic tree. The size of the circles represents the number of clades in each time slice while the colour indicates the significance of the slope. (b) PGLS slope of the relationship of speciation rate and the rate of seed mass evolution.

623

Fig. S8. Type I error analysis. We estimated the type I error rate of our analysis by simulating neutral traits on the angiosperm phylogenetic tree. We performed 1000 simulations and then ran 1000 STRAPP tests with each simulated dataset. We estimated the corresponding p-values for the association between traits and diversification and calculated the type I error as the proportion of datasets where a significant association (p-value < 0.05) was detected.

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631	Fig. S9. Correlations between clade rate of seed size evolution and speciation rate
632	(estimated with RPANDA) across time slices from: (a) 0 to 2 million years (myr); (b)
633	2 to 4 myr; (c) 4 to 6 myr; (d) 6 to 8 myr; (e) 8 to 10 myr; (f) 10 to 12 myr; (g) 12 to
634	14 myr; (h) 14 to 16 myr; (i) 16 to 18 myr; and (j) 18 to 20 myr.
635	
636	Fig. S10. Correlations between mean clade seed mass and speciation rate (estimated
637	with RPANDA) across time slices from: (a) 0 to 2 million years (myr); (b) 2 to 4 myr;
638	(c) 4 to 6 myr; (d) 6 to 8 myr; (e) 8 to 10 myr; (f) 10 to 12 myr; (g) 12 to 14 myr; (h)
639	14 to 16 myr; (i) 16 to 18 myr; and (j) 18 to 20 myr.
640	
641	Figure S11. Correlation of (a) rate of seed mass evolution and (b) seed mass with net
642	diversification rate (r) estimated using RPANDA in the clade-based analysis. The
643	strength of correlations is shown as PGLS slopes and were calculated using mean
644	clade-level seed mass across 10 time slices in the species-level phylogenetic tree. The
645	size of the circles represents the number of clades in each time slice while the colour
646	indicates the significance of the slope.
647	
648	Fig. S12. Correlations between clade rate of seed size evolution and speciation rate

(estimated with the method-of-moments estimator) across time slices from: (a) 0 to 2
million years (myr); (b) 2 to 4 myr; (c) 4 to 6 myr; (d) 6 to 8 myr; (e) 8 to 10 myr; (f)
10 to 12 myr; (g) 12 to 14 myr; (h) 14 to 16 myr; (i) 16 to 18 myr; and (j) 18 to 20

652 myr.

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Fig. S13. Correlations between mean clade seed mass and speciation rate (estimated

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655	with the method-of-moments estimator) across time slices from: (a) 0 to 2 million
656	years (myr); (b) 2 to 4 myr; (c) 4 to 6 myr; (d) 6 to 8 myr; (e) 8 to 10 myr; (f) 10 to 12
657	myr; (g) 12 to 14 myr; (h) 14 to 16 myr; (i) 16 to 18 myr; and (j) 18 to 20 myr.
658	
659	Fig. S14. Mean genus seed mass of strict annual $(n = 106)$ and perennial $(n = 832)$
660	genera. No significant difference between the means of the two groups was found
661	when phylogeny was accounted for (PGLS, $F_{1,937} < 0.01$, p-value = 0.972).
662	
663	Fig. S15. Mean genus seed mass and coefficient of variation for 2613 angiosperm
664	genera. The two variables were not significantly correlated (PGLS test, $F_{1,131} = 0.67$,
665	p-value = 0.416).
666	
667	Fig. S16. Correlation of coefficient of variation in seed mass with macroevolutionary

668 dynamics. STRAPP correlations with speciation (λ), extinction (μ) and net 669 diversification (r) and the genus-level coefficient of variation in seed mass for 2613 670 angiosperm genera (i.e. each with seed mass data for >1 species in the Kew SID). 671 Correlations and insets calculated as in Fig. 2.

672

Table S1. STRAPP correlations for 938 genera of angiosperms with seed mass,
genome size (i.e., C-value) and life cycle data. Macroevolutionary parameters were
obtained from an analysis with 4105 genera (see Main text).