Title: Phylogenomic patterns of divergence and gene flow detail the evolution of reinforcement

and hybrid speciation in *Phlox* wildflowers

Authors: Austin G. Garner [1,2*], Benjamin E. Goulet-Scott [1,2], and Robin Hopkins [1,2*]

Affiliations:

[1] *Department of Organismic and Evolutionary Biology, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA*

021382, USA

[2] *The Arnold Arboretum, Harvard University, Boston, MA 02131, USA*

[*] Authors to whom correspondence should be addressed:

Austin G. Garner; email: aggarner@g.harvard.edu, phone: 617-496-9613

Robin Hopkins; email: rhopkins@fas.harvard.edu, phone: 617-496-9613

SUMMARY

• The tree of life is riddled with reticulate evolutionary histories, and some clades, such as

the eastern standing *Phlox*, appear to be hotspots of hybridization. In this group there are

two cases of reinforcement and nine hypothesized hybrid species. Given the historical

importance of this group for our understanding of plant speciation, the relationships of

these taxa and the role of hybridization and gene flow in their diversification require

genomic validation.

• Using phylogenomic analyses, we resolve the evolutionary relationships of the eastern

standing *Phlox* and test hypotheses about if and how hybridization and gene flow were

creative forces in their diversification.

• Our results provide novel resolution of the phylogenetic relationships in this group,

including well-supported paraphyly across some species. We identify gene flow during

one of two cases of reinforcement and find support for one of the five hypothesized

homoploid hybrid speciation events. Additionally, we infer the ancestries of four

allotetraploid hybrid species.

• Hybridization has contributed to diverse evolutionary outcomes within this *Phlox* group;

although, not as extensively as previously hypothesized. This study demonstrates the

importance of phylogenomics in confirming hypothesized histories of non-model systems

and adds to the growing evidence of interspecific genetic exchange in the generation of

biodiversity.

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

reinforcement; speciation

INTRODUCTION

Hybridization and gene flow can play important and diverse roles during the formation

and divergence of species (Taylor & Larson, 2019). While these processes are often viewed as

homogenizing forces, they can also generate novel variation. For example, gene flow can create

stable hybrid species and/or fuel the diversification of adaptive radiations (Abbott *et al.*, 2013;

Schumer *et al.*, 2014; Marques *et al.*, 2019). The act of hybridization itself can also create

selective pressures favoring the evolution of reproductive trait divergence to reduce mating

between species, i.e. reinforcement (Howard, 1993; Garner *et al.*, 2018). The effects of

hybridization and gene flow on speciation have been investigated across the tree of life, yet we

lack a broader understanding of the frequency and extent to which these forces impact speciation

across clades of organisms (but see Eaton *et al.*, 2015; Pease *et al.*, 2016). Characterizing the

context and consequences of hybridization and gene flow across groups of species is necessary

for discerning how these forces influence the generation and maintenance of biodiversity.

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

from historic research on non-model plant systems (Anderson, 1949; Stebbins, 1959; Grant,

1981). Patterns of morphological, physiological, and ecological trait variation across and within

plant species created taxonomic conflict, inspiring biologists to propose some species arose from

interspecific mating (Goulet *et al.*, 2017). In particular, observations of populations with

combinations of intermediate, recombinant, and novel traits to those of nearby geographically

overlapping species inspired hypotheses of polyploid and homoploid hybrid speciation (Gottlieb,

1972; Soltis & Soltis, 2009; Yakimowski & Rieseberg, 2014; Barker *et al.*, 2016). It is important

to return to these known and hypothesized cases of reticulate evolution with genomic tests for

gene flow to confirm these evolutionary processes and further understand the context of their

evolution (Goulet *et al.*, 2017).

Similarly, patterns of trait divergence in sympatry, where species coexist, but not in

allopatry, motivated hypotheses of hybridization causing reproductive trait divergence by

reinforcement (Hopkins, 2013). Yet, only a few empirical studies have evaluated the presence

and extent of gene flow during the evolution of reinforcement in nature (Kulathinal *et al.*, 2009;

Roda *et al.*, 2017; Turissini & Matute, 2017; Lemmon & Juenger, 2017; Dyer *et al.*, 2018).

Maladaptive hybridization can drive selection for reinforcement and the divergence of plant

reproductive traits such as flower color, flowering time, and cross-compatibility (McNeilly &

Antonovics, 1968; Levin, 1985; Fishman & Wyatt, 1999). However, gene flow and

recombination can also impede divergence by reinforcement (Felsenstein, 1981). Much debate

and theory has focused on if and how reinforcement can evolve if hybridization also causes

interspecific gene flow (Servedio & Noor, 2003), but further genomic study of cases of

reinforcement are needed to understand if and how this reproductive trait divergence has evolved

with gene flow.

Hybridization and gene flow result in the mixing of genetic variation between species. If

these processes coincide with the formation of novel diverging lineages, admixture of parental

species' genetic variation will be present in the new lineage. Traditional phylogenetic methods

infer evolution along bifurcating trees. However, modern phylogenomic analyses can use

discordance in allele patterns under these trees (Green *et al.*, 2010; Durand *et al.*, 2011) or model

allele frequencies at the tips (Gutenkunst *et al.*, 2009; Pickrell & Pritchard, 2012; Excoffier *et al.*,

2013) to identify a history of gene flow between taxa (reviewed in Hibbins & Hahn, 2021).

Contemporary genome-wide sequencing methods, such as restriction site-associated DNA

(RAD) sequencing (Andrews *et al.*, 2016)**,** allow cost-efficient application of these methods to

infer the evolutionary histories of genetic exchange in non-model systems (Eaton & Ree, 2013;

Eaton *et al.*, 2015; Léveillé-Bourret *et al.*, 2020; Bombonato *et al.*, 2020; Guo *et al.*, 2021;

Suissa *et al.*, 2022).

The eastern standing *Phlox* (Polemoniaceae) wildflowers are an ideal system for

exploring the role of hybridization and gene flow in speciation. They are a monophyletic group

(Landis *et al.*, 2018) distinct from the rest of *Phlox* by their upright growth habit and natural

occurrence across mid to eastern North America. Their natural ranges overlap and intertwine,

generating numerous zones of species contact (Fig. 1), and reproductive barriers between these

taxa are highly permissive (Levin, 1966b)**.** Decades of morphological, ecological, and

biochemical evidence have suggested hybridization and gene flow between taxa**,** leading to

hypotheses of their diversification by hybrid speciation and reinforcement (Anderson & Gage,

1952; Erbe & Turner, 1962; Levin, 1966a; Levin & Smith, 1966; Levin & Kerster, 1967; Levin

& Schaal, 1970b; Levin, 1985).

There are five hypothesized cases of homoploid hybrid species (*P. argillacea*, *P.

maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis*, *P. pilosa* subsp. *deamii*, *P. pilosa* subsp. *detonsa*, and *P. amoena*

subsp. *lighthipei*) and at least four cases of allotetraploid hybrid species (*P. villosissima* subsp.

villosissima, P. villosissima subsp. *latisepala, P. floridana, P. buckleyi*) (Table 1) within the

eastern standing *Phlox*. Support for these hypotheses were originally based on observations that

putative hybrid lineages had reproductive, morphological, and ecophysiological trait values that

appear to be intermediate, recombined, or transgressive with putative parental taxa, making them

potentially reproductively and ecologically distinct from their parental lineages (Levin, 1963,

1969; Levin & Smith, 1966; Hadley & Levin, 1969)**.** Further analysis of karyology (Smith &

Levin, 1967; Levin, 1968), cross compatibility (Levin, 1966b), biochemical profiles (Levin &

Schaal, 1970b, 1972; Levy & Levin, 1974, 1975), and microsatellite markers (Fehlberg *et al.*,

2014) built support for these hypotheses. Finally, natural hybrid zones and synthetic crosses

between pairs of putative parental taxa generated hybrids with phenotypes similar to the putative

stable hybrid lineages in nature (Levin, 1963, 1966a; Levin & Smith, 1966). However, other

treatments of these putative hybrids species have assumed them to be diverging varieties without

hybridization defining their formation (Wherry, 1956) or found no support for hybrid ancestry

with genome-wide markers (Goulet-Scott *et al.*, 2021).

This clade of *Phlox* also has two cases of reinforcement. During the speciation of both *P.*

drummondii and *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa*, flower color divergence within sympatric populations

decreases hybridization with closely related species (reviewed in Hopkins, 2013; Fig. 3). *P.*

drummondii has evolved from having light-blue to dark-red flower color to prevent hybridization

with sympatric light-blue colored *P. cuspidata* (Levin, 1985; Hopkins & Rausher, 2012), and *P.*

pilosa subsp. *pilosa* have evolved from pink to white flower color to prevent hybridization where

it cooccurs with pink colored *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior* (Levin & Kerster, 1967).

Biochemical evidence suggests gene flow occurred between sympatric *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa*

and *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior* (Levin & Schaal, 1972), and genomic analyses have inferred a

history of gene flow between sympatric *P. drummondii* and *P. cuspidata,* but analyses were

limited to single individuals (Roda *et al.*, 2017).

Phlox has been a taxonomically and phylogenetically difficult genus. Traditional

delineations of *Phlox* species relied on morphological, ecological, and geographic characteristics,

resulting in a long history of describing, promoting, and demoting species, subspecies, and

varieties (Whitehouse, 1945; Wherry, 1955, 1965; Erbe & Turner, 1962; Turner, 1998; Locklear,

2011a,b). Conspicuous variation in pistil style length has been used to divide the eastern standing

Phlox into long-styled (10-26mm) and short-styled (1.5-4mm) species groups (Wherry, 1930,

1931, 1932, 1955; Ferguson *et al.*, 1999**).** However, other morphological traits vary widely

within and between species, and species-level relationships within the group remain either poorly

supported or incongruent across phylogenetic studies (Ferguson *et al.*, 1999; Ferguson & Jansen,

2002; Landis *et al.*, 2018; Goulet-Scott *et al.*, 2021). Resolving the phylogenetic relationship of

the eastern standing *Phlox* with modern genomic methods will provide a powerful framework for

returning to evolutionary hypotheses about their speciation and understanding the dynamics by

which their diversification has occurred.

Here, we apply double-digest RAD (ddRAD) sequencing with phylogenomic approaches

to resolve the evolutionary relationships of the eastern standing *Phlox*. We leverage this

phylogenetic framework to examine the contribution of hybridization and gene flow in the

diversification of this system. Specifically, we test if gene flow has occurred alongside the

evolution of two cases of reinforcement and investigate patterns of genetic composition and gene

flow in multiple hypothesized cases of homoploid and allotetraploid hybrid speciation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling, sequencing, and data processing

We collected wild plants from across the native ranges of the eastern standing *Phlox* from

2017-2019, and we acquired additional samples from natural populations preserved in tissue

culture at the Ohio State University Ornamental Plant Germplasm Center (OPGC). Our sampling

includes seventeen recognized eastern standing *Phlox* species, representing thirty-two described

subspecies, and three outgroup taxa from the mat-forming *Phlox* (Fig. 1; Supporting Information

Table S1). We split taxa following Locklear, 2011b, except for the Texas annuals for which we

only designated at species level.

Plants were grown in the greenhouse under controlled conditions until flowering. We

extracted genomic DNA from bud tissue using a hybrid Omega Bio-Tek EZNA DNA kit and

CTAB/Chloroform extraction protocol. Genomic libraries were constructed with a double-digest

restriction-site-associated digestion (ddRAD) sequencing protocol and paired-end sequenced as

described in Goulet-Scott *et al.*, 2021**.** Raw sequence reads were demultiplexed, filtered, and *de*

novo assembled as described in Goulet-Scott *et al.*, 2021**.** Samples with minimal informative

shared loci were removed, resulting in a final dataset of 116 ingroup and 4 outgroup individuals.

159 For the 120 retained samples, filtered raw reads (average of 3,060,421 reads per

160 individual) were processed by iPyRAD v.0.9.50 (Eaton & Overcast, 2020) to construct four

161 datasets with varying levels of missingness, requiring a locus to be shared among a minimum of

162 N = 4, 10, 20, and 30 individuals, named MS4, MS10, MS20, and MS30 respectively. These

163 assembled datasets produced matrices with a total of 165,549 to 5,3871 loci and 1,884,423 to

164 105,363 SNP sites with a locus missingness rate of 90%, 83%, 72%, and 60% respectively.

166 *Phylogenetic inferences*

167 Phylogenetic relationships of our samples were inferred using concatenation and

168 coalescent-based methods. First, whole ddRAD loci from the MS10, MS20 and MS30 datasets

169 were individually concatenated into supermatrices. Maximum likelihood phylogenies were

170 estimated from each supermatrix using IQ-TREE v.1.6.10 (Nguyen *et al.*, 2015) with the GTR +

171 gamma nucleotide substitution model and 1000 bootstrap replicates using ultrafast bootstrap

172 approximation (Minh *et al.*, 2013; Hoang *et al.*, 2018)**.**

173 Second, we inferred a population-level species tree using SVDquartets (Chifman &

174 Kubatko, 2014), as implemented in PAUP v.4.0a166 (Swofford, 2002). This method uses

175 unlinked SNPs to infer relationships among quartets of taxa under a coalescent model and then

176 estimates a species tree using a quartet assembly method. We conducted the analysis on our

177 dataset with least missingness, MS30, with the mat-forming species removed and *P. stolonifera*

178 set as the outgroup. To avoid genetic linkage, we sampled a single SNP-site with the least

179 amount of missing data from each locus, totaling 5,306 variant sites. We used all 7,160,245

180 possible quartets and 100 non-parametric bootstrap replicates to assess topological support and to

181 generate a majority-rule consensus species tree.

182 Support values between these two inference methods are derived from different

183 estimation methods and cannot be compared one to one. Standard bootstrap supports (SBS), as

184 used with our SVDquartets inferred tree, underestimate the likelihood of relationships; SBS

185 supports of 80% have a 95% likelihood of being correct. Ultrafast bootstrap supports (UBS), as

186 used for our concatenation inference method, are unbiased when >70%, so a 95% support has a

187 0.95 probability of being correct (Minh *et al.*, 2013)**.**

189 *Tests for gene flow alongside reinforcement*

We tested for evidence of gene flow alongside the evolution of reinforcement in *P.*

drummondii and *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa*. First, we computed Patterson's D-statistic (Green *et al.*,

2010; Durand *et al.*, 2011) to infer if gene flow occurred between two lineages in a given

phylogeny. This test measures the asymmetry in the ratio of two discordant allele patterns,

ABBA and BABA, across the topology of a four-taxon pectinate tree ((P1, P2), P3), O). Under

stochastic lineage divergence without gene flow between lineages P3 and P1 or P3 and P2, the

proportion of discordant allele patterns from incomplete lineage sorting are unbiased

(ABBA=BABA); however, when introgression has occurred between P3 and P1 or P3 and P2,

one discordant allele pattern is more prevalent than the other (ABBA>BABA, BABA>ABBA).

We defined the P1, P2, P3, and O lineages as taxa and a "test" as a unique combination of

individuals from these taxa. We subset the complete MS4 data matrix to include the individuals

from a set of four taxa that fit the pectinate topology under our ML phylogenetic trees. P1 is the

taxon that diverged by reinforcement (*P. drummondii* and *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa*), P2 as a taxon

out to P1 but not involved in the reinforcement hypothesis, P3 as the taxon sympatric with P1

driving divergence by reinforcement (*P. cuspidata* and *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*), and O as

an individual from a proximal lineage out to all other lineages. Tests were iterated over all

possible combinations of all individuals of the P1 and P3 lineages, up to three randomly sampled

individuals of the P2 lineage not observed growing geographically near populations of P1 or P3,

and two individuals of the O lineage. The white flowered *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* lineage that

evolved by reinforcement diverged from the lineage of northern *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa*

populations (Fig. 2), therefore, we only used *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North individuals in these

tests. We also considered two different species as the P2 lineage in the hypothesis concerning *P.*

pilosa subsp. *pilosa* North. For all possible tests, we implemented the D-statistic test for 1,000

bootstrap iterations with loci resampling with replacement, as described in (Eaton *et al.*, 2015).

Tests with |Z-score| >3 are statistically significant.

We complemented the D-statistic results with TreeMix v1.13 (Pickrell & Pritchard,

2012), a model-based method for inferring population splits and migration (gene flow) under a

tree framework, as implemented in iPyRAD. We targeted a potential signal of introgression by

modeling a subtree of our total phylogenetic sampling. We subset the complete MS4 data matrix

to include all individuals from all non-hybrid lineages in the clades containing the P1 and P3

lineages, described above, all intermediate clades, and from a lineage out to this subtree.

221 Individuals were grouped based on species identity with *P. drummondii* and *P. pilosa* subsp.

222 *pilosa* North split based on flower color phenotype. We denote these subtrees as "*P. pilosa*

223 subsp. *pilosa* North" and "*P. drummondii*" respectively. We required SNPs to be shared by at

224 least 20% of individuals from each species and randomly sampled one unlinked SNP from each

225 locus. The *P. drummondii* (4,638 unlinked SNPs) and *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North (3,383

226 unlinked SNPs) subtrees were modeled in TreeMix with $m = 1\text{-}8$ possible migration edges. The

227 best supported number of migration edges was qualitatively chosen as the value at which the log-

228 likelihood of the model began to increase only marginally.

230 *Testing origins of homoploid hybrid species*

231   To evaluate if the five putative homoploid hybrid species in the standing *Phlox* (Table 1)

232 have genetic support we leveraged our phylogenetic inferences and tests for gene flow to

233 evaluate four criteria: 1) the putative hybrid sits sister to or nested within one of its putative

234 parental taxon in our bifurcating phylogenetic reconstructions, 2) the putative hybrid shows a

235 signal of gene flow with its other parental taxon, 3) the signal of gene flow is exclusive to the

236 putative hybrid, and 4) the signal of gene flow goes into the putative hybrid.

237   For putative hybrids that are sister to or within one of their putative parent lineages, we

238 tested for the presence of gene flow with the second putative parental lineage using Patterson's

239 D-statistic, as described above. For each hybrid hypothesis, a four-taxon tree was generated by

240 subsetting the MS4 dataset to all individuals of the putative hybrid species and putative second

241 parent species, three individuals from a species lineage between the putative hybrid and putative

242 parent, and two individuals of a closely related outgroup. The putative hybrid and the putative

243 parent lineages served as either P1 or P3 based on the structure of our ML phylogenies. We also

244 considered multiple species as the P2 lineage. For putative hybrid lineages with significant

245 evidence of gene flow with their parental taxon, we evaluated if the signature of gene flow was

246 localized to the hybrid lineage by testing for any gene flow between the two putative parental

247 taxa. All hybrid hypotheses tested with D-statistics were also modeled with TreeMix v.1.13, as

248 described above. The *P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis*, *P. amoena* subsp. *lighthipei*, and *P. pilosa*

249 subsp. *detonsa* modeled subtrees used 4,490, 4,294, and 1,033 unlinked SNPs respectively. We

250 used the *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North modeled subtree for the *P. argillacea* hypothesis given

251 their identical sampling.

Inferring origins of allotetraploid hybrid species

We investigated the hypothesized ancestries of the four allotetraploid hybrid species

(Table 1) using a consensus and comparative read alignment approach, similar to (Wang *et al.*,

2021)**.** Sequenced representatives of these taxa were previously confirmed to be tetraploid via

flow cytometry at the OPGC.

First, we created reference consensus sequences from diploid lineages. Whole ddRAD

loci present in at least 60% of diploid taxa from the MS4 dataset were concatenated to generate

taxon-level consensus sequences using the iPyRAD window extractor toolkit, retaining the most

common allele in the consensus sequence for species with multiple samples. We then mapped

the filtered sequence reads for all allotetraploids to the diploid consensus sequences using bwa-

mem (Li, 2013). We tallied the proportion of primary read alignments with a mapping quality $\geq$

5 for the forward and reverse reads. We reasoned the diploid consensus receiving the highest

proportion of quality read alignments would be most closely related to the ancestor of the

mapped reads.

We tested this assumption by mapping one representative from each diploid taxon to the

consensus sequences. We observed the consensus receiving the highest relative proportion of

mapped reads corresponding to the known identity of the diploid individual the read came from,

with some reads mapping to closely related sister taxa (Supporting Information Table S4). This

method allows identification of small subclades of diploid taxa to which the reads are most

similar, and we inferred the ancestry of the allopolyploid subgenomes as the diploid subclades

receiving the highest rates of read mapping (Wang *et al.*, 2021).

RESULTS

Phylogenomic inferences of evolutionary relationships

Maximum likelihood (ML) trees inferred from the three concatenated datasets were

highly congruent, despite variation in missing data (Fig. 2; Supporting Information Fig. S1, S2).

Therefore, we focus our results to trends in interspecific relationships observed across

phylogenetic inferences.

The base of the eastern standing *Phlox* is notably composed of long-styled taxa. We

recover an early split between *P. stolonifera* and all other taxa (UFB=100), followed by a split of

a well-supported clade (UFB=100) containing *P. ovata* out to *P. pulchra, P. glaberrima* subsp.

triflora, and the allotetraploid *P. buckleyi* (UFB=100). The remaining *P. glaberrima* subspecies

are found in a neighboring clade with subspecies of *P. carolina* and *P. maculata* (UFB=100).

Across all inferences, the *P. glaberrima* and *P. carolina* subspecies are not monophyletic within

their species delineation. The next branch subtends a small clade including *P. amplifolia* and *P.*

paniculata (UFB=100).

Across all datasets, we inferred all short-styled taxa form a monophyletic group evolving

from the long-styled species (UFB=100). This short-styled group contains the *P. pilosa*, *P.*

divaricata, P. villosissima, and *P. amoena* subspecies, *P. floridana*, and the three Texas annual

species (*P. drummondii*, *P. roemeriana*, and *P. cuspidata*), Half of our *P. pilosa* subspecies

samples, including *P. pilosa* subsp. *fulgida*, *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa*, and *P. pilosa* subsp. *deamii*,

form a clade out to the remaining short-style species (UFB=100). Given the relative northern

origin of these samples, we call this the *P. pilosa* "North" group. This group also contains the

white flower morph of *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* that has evolved by reinforcement, sometimes

described as *P. argillacea*. Both *P. divaricata* and *P. amoena* species form monophyletic groups

(UFB=100), although *P. divaricata* subspecies are interdigitated.

The remaining *P. pilosa* subspecies, Texas annuals, and the allotetraploids *P. floridana,*

P. villosissima subsp. *villosissma* and *P. villosissima* subsp. *latisepala* form a large clade

(UFB=100). We observe reduced branch supports along the backbone of this clade; however, the

Texas annual species are monophyletic (UFB=100), with *P. roemeriana* sister to *P. drummondii.*

Adjacent to the annuals lie the remaining *P. pilosa* subspecies. We refer to this *P. pilosa* group as

"South", given the more southern origin of these taxa relative to the *P. pilosa* North group.

Our low support partitioning the *P. pilosa* South group from the Texas annuals may be

due to the presence of the allotetraploid subspecies *P. villosissima* subsp. *latisepala* and *P.*

villosissima subsp. *villosissima.* These taxa were inferred either out to the annuals or out to the *P.*

pilosa South group with variable support (UFB=41-100). Variation in their inferred placement is

consistent with their hypothesized hybrid ancestry between *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South and *P.*

drummondii (Table 1). Similar phylogenetic uncertainty is observed for the allotetraploid *P.*

floridana across analyses. This may be a result of its putative hybrid ancestry between *P. pilosa*

subsp. *pilosa* South and *P. carolina* subsp. *angusta* (Table 1).

Coalescent-based species tree inference using SVDquartets recovered a species tree with

nearly identical relationships to our ML inferred trees (Supporting Information Fig. S3);

however, some interspecific positions varied in their branch supports. We inferred strong support

for most nodes along the backbone of the tree (SBS > 80) and splits between major species

groupings, except for early splits differentiating relative placement within the long-style species.

P. pulchra, P. glaberrima subsp. *triflora,* and *P. buckleyi* remained monophyletic (SBS=84) and

separate from the remaining monophyletic *P. glaberrima*/*P.maculata*/*P.carolina* subspecies

(SBS=100). We also recovered the polyphyletic relationships of the *P. pilosa* North and *P. pilosa*

South groups. Unlike our ML analyses, our coalescent inferences showed support for partitioning

the clade of *P. pilosa* South and the allotetraploids *P. floridana*, *P. villosissima* subsp.

villosissima and *P. villosissima* subsp. *latisepala* sister to the Texas annuals (SBS=89).

Evidence of gene flow alongside reinforcement

We applied D-statistics and TreeMix v.1.13 to infer if gene flow occurred between

sympatric populations of focal species in two cases of reinforcement. All D-statistic tests were

structured so a negative D supports a history of introgression between these focal species.

In *P. drummondii*, reinforcement against hybridization with *P. cuspidata* has favored the

divergence of light-blue to dark-red flower color in sympatry (Fig. 3a). D-statistic tests between

allopatric *P. drummondii* and *P. cuspidata* show no evidence of gene flow; however, all 48 tests

between sympatric dark-red *P. drummondii* and every *P. cuspidata* were negative, with 24 being

significant (Table 2). Our best fit model (m=2) of the *P. drummondii* subtree in TreeMix

recovered *P. cuspidata* out to *P. drummondii* and *P. roemeriana,* with a migration event going

from *P. cuspidata* into dark-red sympatric *P. drummondii* (Fig. 3c). This migration edge

remained present for all models m ≥2 (Supporting Information Fig. S4, S9).

In *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North, reinforcement against hybridization with *P. glaberrima*

subsp. *interior* has favored the divergence of flower color from pink to white (Fig. 3b). Unlike

reinforcement in *P. drummondii*, the ranges of *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North and *P. glaberrima*

subsp. *interior* are mosaic and cannot be distinctly divided as geographically allopatric or

sympatric (Levin & Kerster, 1967). Therefore, we grouped our tests for gene flow based on the

flower color of the *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North individual used, pink or white, instead of by

geography. Our tests show no support for gene flow between pink (N=360) or white (N=180)

flowered *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North and *P. glaberrima interior* (Table 2). TreeMix modeled

P. pilosa subsp. *pilosa* North subtrees produced similar topologies to our ML phylogenetic

inferences but did not infer migration events involving *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North (Fig. 3d;

Supporting Information Fig. S5, S9).

Evidence of divergence and gene flow underlying hypotheses of putative homoploid hybrid

species

We leveraged our inferred phylogenies with tests for gene flow to evaluate support for

the five hypothesized cases of homoploid hybrid speciation in the eastern standing *Phlox* (Table

1). Specifically, we asked if a putative hybrid species sits nested within or sister to one of its

hypothesized parental species and if a signature of gene flow exists from the other putative

parental species into the putative hybrid.

Our phylogenetic inferences find support for four of the five putative hybrids being

nested or within one of their putative parents (Fig. 2, Supporting Information Fig. S1, S2, S3); *P.*

amoena subsp. *lighthipei* within *P. amoena* subsp. *amoena*, *P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis*

within *P. maculata* subsp. *maculata*, *P. argillacea* within *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North*, and P.*

pilosa subsp. *detonsa* in *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South*. P. pilosa* subsp. *deamii* was not found out

or within *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South or *P. amoena* subsp. *amoena*, consistent with (Goulet-

Scott *et al.*, 2021)*.*

For *P. amoena* subsp. *lighthipei, P. argillacea, and P. pilosa* subsp. *detonsa,* D-statistic

tests and TreeMix analyses did not find support for gene flow between the putative hybrids and

their second hypothesized parental species (Table 3; Supporting Information Fig. S5, S6, S7,

S9). However, D-statistic tests do support gene flow between *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior* and

P. maculata subsp. *pyramidalis,* with 63 of 70 tests being significantly negative. Importantly, no

evidence of gene flow was found between *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior* and *P. maculta* subsp.

maculta, N=160 (Table 3)*.* All models of the *P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis* subtree in TreeMix

(best fit m=4) confirmed this result, with a migration edge from *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*

into *P. maculta* subsp. *pyramidalis* (Fig. 4, Supporting Information Fig. S8, S9). These results

are consistent with *P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis* as a hybrid lineage arising from *P. maculata*

subsp. *maculata* and *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior* parental lineages.

Inferring origins of allotetraploid hybrid species

We leveraged comparative read mapping to infer the subgenome ancestries of four

allotetraploid *Phlox* species (Table 1) (Levin, 1966b, 1968; Smith & Levin, 1967). *P.*

villosissima subsp. *villosissima* and *P. villosissima* subsp. *latisepala* are thought to be

independent products between *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South and *P. drummondii*. *P. floridana* is

hypothesized to be the product of *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South and *P. carolina* subsp. *angusta*,

and *P. buckleyi* contains two discordant diploid karyotypes hypothesized to be from extinct taxa

(Wherry, 1955)**.**

Concatenated ddRAD loci were used to generate 439,271 bp long reduced consensus

sequences for each of the 28 diploid species, with a locus missingness rate of 25% among them.

Mapping of reads to this consensus dataset resulted in differential assignment of sequence

ancestry for each tetraploid sample to subclades of diploid taxa (Fig 5.).

Reads from *P. villosissima* subsp. *villosissima* and *P. villosissima* subsp. *latisepala*

mapped primarily to the *P. pilosa* South group and the Texas annuals, with each receiving 30-

34% and 22-26% respectively. Within these two groups the top recipients of mapped reads were

P. pilosa subsp. *pilosa* South and *P. cuspidata* for all three samples. *P. floridana* showed a

similar high mapping rate to the *P. pilosa* South group (34%), with most reads mapping to *P.*

pilosa subsp. *pilosa* South and second most to *P. pilosa* subsp. *detonsa*. Contrary to the

hypothesized origins of this species, we did not observe elevated read mapping to the *P. carolina*

subspecies consensus sequence. Instead, we observed elevated read mapping to *P. amoena*

subsp. *amoena*. Finally, *P. buckleyi* reads mapped with the highest rate to the *P. ovata*, *P.*

pulchra, *P. glaberrima* subsp. *triflora* clade (38%), with the highest recipients being *P. pulchra*

and *P. ovata.*

DISCUSSION

With the accessibility of genomic data and modern phylogenomic analyses, evolutionary

biology is well-positioned to understand the presence, extent, and consequences of hybridization

and gene flow across large clades of organisms. Here, we present well-resolved phylogenetic

relationships of the eastern standing *Phlox*, demonstrate clear support for most described species

relationships, and reveal novel non-monophyletic relationships of subspecies in historically

taxonomically difficult species complexes. Using this phylogenetic framework, we determine

hybridization has generated new species in this clade, although maybe not as extensively as

previously hypothesized. Our results support one case of hypothesized homoploid hybrid

speciation, identify putative ancestries of multiple polyploid species, and find evidence of gene

flow in one of two cases of reinforcement. However, we also find no support for many

hypothesized cases of gene flow in the formation of new lineages. Our findings demonstrate the

utility and importance of phylogenomics in confirming hypothesized evolutionary histories of

non-model systems and add to the growing evidence that hybridization and gene flow across

species boundaries can play diverse roles in generating novel biodiversity.

Evolutionary relationships of the eastern standing Phlox

Previous phylogenetic inference of the eastern standing *Phlox* either relied on a handful

of genetic markers or limited taxonomic sampling, leaving the evolutionary relationships of this

group unclear (Ferguson *et al.*, 1999; Ferguson & Jansen, 2002; Roda *et al.*, 2017; Landis *et al.*,

2018; Goulet-Scott *et al.*, 2021). Our phylogenomic inferences on genome-wide ddRAD markers

from a broad taxonomic sampling clarify the evolutionary relationships of the eastern standing

Phlox and provide novel insight into their diversification.

Taxonomic treatments of the eastern standing *Phlox* have grouped these taxa by

conspicuous differences in style length (Wherry, 1930, 1931, 1932, 1955). Unlike prior

phylogenetic studies, our inferences support a large monophyletic clade of short-styled taxa

subtended by multiple paraphyletic clades of long-styled taxa (Fig. 2). Divergence in style-length

can generate reproductive isolation (Kay, 2006; Brothers & Delph, 2017), and this transition

from long to short style-length may have reduced competition and stimulated the diversification

of the short-styled clade.

Our analyses also reveal unprecedented resolution into relationships within species

groups. Our inferences support *P. drummondii* and *P. roemeriana* are sister taxa within the

Texas annuals (Fig. 2). This topology is supported in Roda *et al.*, 2017 but not supported in

studies not using genome-wide markers (Ferguson *et al.*, 1999; Ferguson & Jansen, 2002; Landis

et al., 2018). In the *P. glaberrima/ P. carolina/ P. maculata* complex, we find support for non-

monophyletic relationships among subspecies (Fig. 2). Additionally, the subspecies of the *P.*

pilosa complex form distinct polyphyletic groups coinciding with their relative northern or

southern location of origin, as suggested in Goulet-Scott *et al.*, 2021. The one exception is *P.*

pilosa subsp. *sangamonensis* which sits in the southern clade but is found in the north (Fig. 1), a

discovery consistent with the hypothesis of *P. pilosa* subsp. *sangamonensis* arising by long-

distance dispersal from southern populations of *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* (Levin & Smith, 1965;

Levin, 1984). The non-monophyletic relationship among the northern and southern *P. pilosa* taxa

and within *P. glaberrima* were suggested in previous phylogenetic studies, but remained

uncertain due to low phylogenetic supports and reliance on few genetic loci (Ferguson *et al.*,

1999; Ferguson & Jansen, 2002; Landis *et al.*, 2018). Only with modern phylogenomics are we

able to definitively show support for these relationships.

Classic taxonomic delineations within *Phlox* are largely based on morphological

characteristics (Wherry, 1955; Locklear, 2011b), yet our phylogenetic inferences demonstrate

current taxonomy may not best reflect the true evolutionary relationships of some taxa within

this group. Discovery of these new phylogenetic relationships begs reconsideration of the

taxonomy of the group and motivates future research into why morphological variation is

inconsistent with phylogenetic relationships.

Evolution of reinforcement with and without gene flow

Limited empirical study has evaluated if interspecific hybridization generating selection

for reinforcement also results in reinforcement evolving in the face of gene flow (Garner *et al.*,

2018). We investigated if gene flow accompanied two cases of divergence by reinforcement in

Phlox (Fig. 3).

P. drummondii has diverged from light-blue to dark-red flower color to prevent

hybridization with *P. cuspidata* (Levin, 1985; Hopkins & Rauser, 2012)**.** Our geographically

widespread sampling revealed evidence of gene flow between *P. cuspidata* and multiple

sympatric dark-red *P. drummondii* individuals but not between *P. cuspidata* and any allopatric

light-blue *P. drummondii,* consistent with previous observations (Roda *et al.*, 2017)*.* A history of

gene flow in sympatry but not allopatry mirrors the model of divergence by reinforcement to

reduce hybridization in sympatry but not in allopatry (Garner *et al.*, 2018). This pattern also

suggests the signal of gene flow is the product of hybridization in contemporary sympatry and

not due to ancient admixture between *P. cuspidata* and *P. drummondii*. Although F1 hybrids are

highly sterile (Suni & Hopkins, 2018), our findings indicate hybrids do backcross in nature,

resulting in interspecific gene flow. Therefore, reinforcement in *P. drummondii* evolved despite

gene flow in sympatry.

Conversely, our analyses do not support a history of gene flow coinciding with

reinforcement in *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North. *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North has evolved from

pink to white colored flowers to prevent hybridization where it co-occurs with *P. glaberrima*

subsp. *interior* in high frequency (Fig. 2) (Levin, 1966b; Levin & Kerster, 1967; Levin & Schaal,

1970a,b, 1972)*.* Reproductive isolation between these taxa is high but field experiments and

experimental crosses demonstrate these species can generate hybrid seed**,** with divergence in

flower color reducing the formation of hybrid seed by half in nature (Levin, 1966b; Levin &

Kerster, 1967; Levin & Schaal, 1970a,b, 1972)(Fig. 2). However, our analyses do not detect gene

flow between these species (Fig. 3; Table 2). This result suggests hybrid offspring between these

taxa may be completely inviable, lethally maladapted, or have exceedingly high sterility and that

reinforcement may have occurred after gene flow had ceased.

The presence/absence of gene flow in these two cases of reinforcement present a

powerful opportunity to investigate the dynamics by which reproductive trait divergence, and

flower color specifically, evolves by reinforcing selection. For reproductive trait divergence to

evolve by reinforcement, alleles conferring increased assortative mating within a species must

remain associated with alleles causing costly hybridization between species (Servedio &

Kirkpatrick, 1997; Kirkpatrick, 2000). When gene flow between species is present,

recombination can disassociate these alleles, impeding successful divergence. Yet, we find the

same trait evolving due to reinforcing selection in two *Phlox* species despite gene flow occurring

alongside one case but not the other. This result may be the consequence of differing genetic

architectures and genetic linkage underlying the cost of hybridization and flower color between

these cases, varying strengths of reproductive isolating barriers between the species pairs upon

their secondary contact, and/or differences in the functional cost of hybridization (i.e. offspring

or gamete loss). Further study of the strength and genetic architecture of reproductive isolating

barriers between these *Phlox* species will better inform how reinforcement evolves.

Varying support for hypothesized homoploid and allotetraploid hybrid species

Within the eastern standing *Phlox* there are five hypothesized homoploid hybrid species

and four hypothesized allopolyploid species (Table 1). We only observed genomic support for *P.*

maculata subsp. *pyramidalis* being a homoploid hybrid species between *P. maculata* subsp.

maculata and *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior. P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis* is found

phylogenetically closely related to multiple *P. maculata* subsp. *maculata* individuals (Fig. 2)

with a strong signal of receiving gene flow from *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior* (Fig. 4; Table

3.). We can conclude our sampled *P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis* is of hybrid origin, however

future work will be necessary to discern if the hybrid origin of *P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis*

actually gave rise to reproductive isolation of its lineage from its putative parental species

(Schumer *et al.*, 2018).

The remaining four hypothesized cases of homoploid hybrid speciation were not

supported by our genomic investigation, despite extensive phenotypic and biomolecular

evidence. In the cases of *P. amoena* subsp. *lighthipei*, *P. argillacea,* and *P. pilosa* subsp. *detonsa*

the lineages thought to be hybrid in origin may simply be divergent geographically isolated

populations from one of their hypothesized parental lineages. Yet in the case of *P. pilosa* subsp.

deamii, the lineage is distantly related to both hypothesized parents and may possesses

phenotypic traits resembling these species through convergence or incomplete lineage sorting.

Polyploid hybrid lineages can be significantly easier to identify than homoploid hybrids

through chromosome structure and counts. Despite this advantage, inferring the evolutionary

origin of these lineages remains challenging (Rothfels, 2021). Although the signals from our

comparative read mapping are coarse, our approach suggests the identity of the progenitor clades

that gave rise to the polyploid hybrid species in this group. Our evidence supports *P. villosissima*

subsp. *latisepala* and *P. villosissima* subsp. *villosissima* are derived from *P. pilosa* (*P. pilosa*

subsp. *pilosa* South) and a Texas annual species. *P. drummondii* was previously hypothesized as

the parent but our analyses cannot resolve which of the Texas annual species or ancestor is the

parent. As previously hypothesized, we find support for one parent of *P. floridana* to be *P. pilosa*

subsp. *pilosa* South, yet we find evidence that *P. amoena* subsp. *amoena* may be the second

parent instead of the *P. carolina subspecies*. We also observe *P. buckleyi* is genetically similar to

the early-diverging long-styled *Phlox*, but we cannot confirm the specific parental lineages from

this group. Future work using longer haplotype phase may help resolve the evolutionary origins

of these species and better inform the dynamics and evolutionary trajectory of these

allopolyploid species.

Across both the hypothesized homoploid and polyploid hybrid lineages, the *P. pilosa*

group has been a potential and realized source of hybridization activity. Four of the five

hypothesized homoploid hybrid lineages and three of the four polyploid lineages were thought to

include *P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* as a parent. While our analyses indicate none of the hypothesized

homoploid hybrid lineages have hybrid origin with *P. pilosa* subspecies, three of the four

hypothesized polyploid hybrid lineages are derived from *P. pilosa* subsp*. pilosa* South

subspecies ancestry. *P. pilosa*'s developmental biology may make it prone to evolutionary

innovation, with many populations having high rates of unreduced gametes and whole genome

duplications across their range (Worcester, *et al*, 2012). Future work may help address what

factors underly this developmental instability and if it has an outsized role in the generation of

novel evolutionary lineages relative to other *Phlox* species.

Implications on Evolutionary History of Trait Variation

Much of the data supporting the role of hybridization and gene flow in the speciation of

the eastern standing *Phlox* stemmed from comparisons of trait variation between lineages found

in sympatry. Our findings support hybridization has likely contributed to some of the phenotypic

variation observed across taxa in these cases, both as a source of genetic variation and force for

selective divergence. However, our findings also indicate a lack of interspecific genetic exchange

for many hypothesized cases of hybrid speciation. Further study of these confirmed cases may

inform how specific traits and even genes move between species and contribute to reproductive

isolation between lineages. While our lack of support in some cases suggests forces other than

hybridization may underlie patterns of trait variation observed across taxa in this group, this

finding also motivates a strong need to reevaluate our previous evidence for the existence of

gene flow, and to rethink our expectations of how and why traits evolve within and between

closely related species. Future investigation into the phenotypic variation of these taxa may

provide new insights into how differences in ecological selective pressures across overlapping

species ranges, effective population size, and incomplete lineage sorting contribute to phenotypic

divergence within and between species.

FUNDING

557   This study was supported by the National Science Foundation (DEB-1844906 to R.H.,

558 and Graduate Research Fellowship to A.G.G.); the Harvard Graduate School of Arts and

559 Sciences' Herchel Smith Graduate Research Fellowship in Science (to A.G.G. and B.E.G.S.);

560 and the Harvard University Herbaria Expedition Grant (to A.G.G.).

562 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

563   We are grateful to S.V. Edwards, E.M. Kramer, J. Wakeley, and J. Mallet for thoughtful

564 discussions that improved this study, and to C.J. Ferguson, G.A. Burgin, and A.E. Berardi for

565 their helpful comments on this manuscript. We are also thankful to P.S. Jourdan and the OPGC

566 staff for sharing their *Phlox* collections with us.

568 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

569   A.G.G. and R.H. conceptualized the project. A.G.G., B.E.G.S., and R.H. collected and

570 analyzed the data. A.G.G. and R.H. wrote the manuscript.

572 **DATA ACCESSIBILITY**

573   Supporting data underlying this article is found on Dryad Digital Repository: [insert rep

574 ID}

576 **REFERENCES**

577 **Abbott R**, **Albach D**, **Ansell S**, **Arntzen JW**, **Baird SJE**, **Bierne N**, **Boughman J**, **Brelsford**
578 **A**, **Buerkle CA**, **Buggs R**, *et al.* **2013**. Hybridization and speciation. *Journal of Evolutionary*
579 *Biology* **26**: 229–246.

580 **Anderson E**. **1949**. Introgressive hybridization. *Introgressive Hybridization.*

581 **Anderson E**, **Gage A**. **1952**. Introgressive hybridization in *Phlox bifida*. *American Journal of*
582 *Botany* **39**: 399–404.

583 **Andrews KR**, **Good JM**, **Miller MR**, **Luikart G**, **Hohenlohe PA**. **2016**. Harnessing the power
584 of RADseq for ecological and evolutionary genomics. *Nature Reviews Genetics* **17**: 81–92.

585 **Barker MS**, **Arrigo N**, **Baniaga AE**, **Li Z**, **Levin DA**. **2016**. On the relative abundance of
586 autopolyploids and allopolyploids. *New Phytologist* **210**: 391–398.

587 **Bombonato JR**, **do Amaral DT**, **Silva GAR**, **Khan G**, **Moraes EM**, **da Silva Andrade SC**,
588 **Eaton DAR**, **Alonso DP**, **Ribolla PEM**, **Taylor N**, *et al.* **2020**. The potential of genome-wide

RAD sequences for resolving rapid radiations: a case study in Cactaceae. *Molecular*
Phylogenetics and Evolution **151**: 106896.

Brothers AN, **Delph LF**. **2017**. Divergence in style length and pollen size leads to a postmating-
prezygotic reproductive barrier among populations of *Silene latifolia*. *Evolution* **71**: 1532–1540.

Chifman J, **Kubatko L**. **2014**. Quartet inference from SNP data under the coalescent model.
Bioinformatics (Oxford, England) **30**: 3317–3324.

Durand EY, **Patterson N**, **Reich D**, **Slatkin M**. **2011**. Testing for ancient admixture between
closely related populations. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **28**: 2239–2252.

Dyer KA, **Bewick ER**, **White BE**, **Bray MJ**, **Humphreys DP**. **2018**. Fine-scale geographic
patterns of gene flow and reproductive character displacement in *Drosophila subquinaria* and
Drosophila recens. *Molecular Ecology* **27**: 3655-3670.

Eaton DAR, **Hipp AL**, **González-Rodríguez A**, **Cavender-Bares J**. **2015**. Historical
introgression among the American live oaks and the comparative nature of tests for
introgression. *Evolution* **69**: 2587–2601.

Eaton DAR, **Overcast I**. **2020**. ipyrad: Interactive assembly and analysis of RADseq datasets.
Bioinformatics (Oxford, England) **36**: 2592–2594.

Eaton DAR, **Ree RH**. **2013**. Inferring phylogeny and introgression using RADseq data: an
example from flowering plants (*Pedicularis*: Orobanchaceae). *Systematic Biology* **62**: 689–706.

Erbe L, **Turner BL**. **1962**. A biosystematic study of the *Phlox cuspidata-Phlox drummondii*
complex. *The American Midland Naturalist* **67**: 257.

Excoffier L, **Dupanloup I**, **Huerta-Sánchez E**, **Sousa VC**, **Foll M**. **2013**. Robust demographic
inference from genomic and SNP data. *PLoS Genetics.* **9**: e1003905.

Fehlberg SD, **Ty MC**, **Ferguson CJ**. **2014**. Reexamination of a putative diploid hybrid taxon
using genetic evidence: The distinctiveness of *Phlox pilosa* subsp. *deamii* (Polemoniaceae).
International Journal of Plant Sciences **175**: 781–793.

Felsenstein J. **1981**. Skepticism Towards Santa Rosalia, or Why are There so Few Kinds of
Animals? *Evolution* **35**: 124.

Ferguson CJ, **Jansen RK**. **2002**. A chloroplast DNA phylogeny of eastern *Phlox*
(Polemoniaceae): implications of congruence and incongruence with the ITS phylogeny.
American Journal of Bbotany **89**: 1324–1335.

Ferguson CJ, **Kramer F**, **Jansen RK**. **1999**. Relationships of eastern north American *Phlox*
(Polemoniaceae) based on ITS sequence data. *Systematic Botany* **24**: 616.

Fishman L, **Wyatt R**. **1999**. Pollinator-mediated competition, reproductive character displacement, and the evolution of selfing in *Arenaria uniflora* (Caryophyllaceae). *Evolution* **53**: 1723–1733.

Garner AG, **Goulet BE**, **Farnitano MC**, **Molina-Henao YF**, **Hopkins R**. **2018**. Genomic signatures of reinforcement. *Genes* **9**.

Gottlieb LD. **1972**. Levels of confidence in the analysis of hybridization in plants. *Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden* **59**: 435.

Goulet BE, **Roda F**, **Hopkins R**. **2017**. Hybridization in plants: Old ideas, new techniques. *Plant Physiology* **173**: 65–78.

Goulet-Scott BE, **Garner AG**, **Hopkins R**. **2021**. Genomic analyses overturn two long-standing homoploid hybrid speciation hypotheses. *Evolution* **75**: 1699–1710.

Grant V. **1981**. *Plant Speciation*. New York Chichester, West Sussex: Columbia University Press.

Green RE, **Krause J**, **Briggs AW**, **Maricic T**, **Stenzel U**, **Kircher M**, **Patterson N**, **Li H**, **Zhai W**, **Fritz MH-Y**, *et al.* **2010**. A draft sequence of the neandertal genome. *Science* **328**: 710–722.

Guo C, **Ma P-F**, **Yang G-Q**, **Ye X-Y**, **Guo Y**, **Liu J-X**, **Liu Y-L**, **Eaton DAR**, **Guo Z-H**, **Li D-Z**. **2021**. Parallel ddRAD and genome skimming analyses reveal a radiative and reticulate evolutionary history of the temperate bamboos. *Systematic Biology* **70**: 756–773.

Gutenkunst RN, **Hernandez RD**, **Williamson SH**, **Bustamante CD**. **2009**. Inferring the joint demographic history of multiple populations from multidimensional SNP frequency data. *PLoS Genetics* **5**: e1000695.

Hadley EB, **Levin DA**. **1969**. Physiological evidence of hybridization and reticulate evolution in *Phlox maculata. American Journal of Botany* **56**: 561–570.

Hibbins M, **Hahn MW**. **2021**. Phylogenomic approaches to detecting and characterizing introgression. *Genetics* **220**: iyab173.

Hoang DT, **Chernomor O**, **von Haeseler A**, **Minh BQ**, **Vinh LS**. **2018**. UFBoot2: Improving the ultrafast bootstrap approximation. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **35**: 518–522.

Hopkins R. **2013**. Reinforcement in plants. *New Phytologist* **197**: 1095–1103.

Hopkins R, **Rausher MD**. **2012**. Pollinator-mediated selection on flower color allele drives reinforcement. *Science (New York, N.Y.)* **335**: 1090–1092.

Howard DJ. **1993**. Reinforcement: origin, dynamics, and fate of an evolutionary hypothesis. *Hybrid Zones and the Evolutionary Process*: 46–69.

Kay KM. **2006**. Reproductive isolation between two closely related hummingbird-pollinated
neotropical gingers. *Evolution* **60**: 538–552.

Kirkpatrick M. **2000**. Reinforcement and divergence under assortative mating. *Proceedingsof*
the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences **267**: 1649–1655.

Kulathinal RJ, **Stevison LS**, **Noor MAF**. **2009**. The genomics of speciation in *Drosophila*:
diversity, divergence, and introgression estimated using low-coverage genome sequencing. *PLoS*
Genetics **5**: e1000550.

Landis JB, **Bell CD**, **Hernandez M**, **Zenil-Ferguson R**, **McCarthy EW**, **Soltis DE**, **Soltis PS**.
2018. Evolution of floral traits and impact of reproductive mode on diversification in the *Phlox*
family (Polemoniaceae). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* **127**: 878–890.

Lemmon EM, **Juenger TE**. **2017**. Geographic variation in hybridization across a reinforcement
contact zone of chorus frogs (*Pseudacris*). *Ecology and Evolution* **7**: 9485–9502.

Léveillé-Bourret É, **Chen B-H**, **Garon-Labrecque M-È**, **Ford BA**, **Starr JR**. **2020**. RAD
sequencing resolves the phylogeny, taxonomy and biogeography of Trichophoreae despite a
recent rapid radiation (Cyperaceae). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* **145**: 106727.

Levin DA. **1963**. Natural hybridization between *Phlox maculata* and *Phlox glaberrima* and its
evolutionary significance. *American Journal of Botany* **50**: 714.

Levin DA. **1966a**. Chromatographic evidence of hybridization and evolution in *Phlox maculata*.
American Journal of Botany **53**: 238–245.

Levin DA. **1966b**. The *Phlox pilosa* complex: crossing and chromosome relationships. *Brittonia*
18: 142.

Levin DA. **1968**. The genome constitutions of eastern north american *Phlox* amphiploids.
Evolution **22**: 612.

Levin DA. **1969**. The challenge from a related species: A stimulus for saltational speciation. *The*
American Naturalist **103**: 316–322.

Levin DA. **1984**. Genetic variation and divergence in a disjunct *Phlox*. *Evolution* **38**: 223–225.

Levin DA. **1985**. Reproductive character displacement in *Phlox*. *Evolution* **39**: 1275.

Levin DA, **Kerster HW**. **1967**. Natural selection for reproductive isolation in *Phlox*. *Evolution;*
21: 679–687.

Levin DA, **Schaal BA**. **1970a**. Corolla color as an inhibitor of interspecific hybridization in
Phlox. *The American Naturalist* **104**: 273–283.

Levin DA, **Schaal BA**. **1970b**. Reticulate evolution in *Phlox* as seen through protein
electrophoresis. *American Journal of Botany* **57**: 977–987.

Levin DA, **Schaal BA**. **1972**. Seed protein polymorphism in *Phlox pilosa* (Polemoniaceae).
Brittonia **24**: 46.

Levin DA, **Smith DM**. **1965**. An enigmatic *Phlox* from Illinois. *Brittonia* **17**: 254.

Levin DA, **Smith DM**. **1966**. Hybridization and evolution in the *Phlox pilosa* complex. *The*
American Naturalist **100**: 289–302.

Levy M, **Levin DA**. **1974**. Novel flavonoids and reticulate evolution in the *Phlox pilosa–P.*
drummondii complex. *American journal of botany* **61**: 156–167.

Levy M, **Levin DA**. **1975**. The novel flavonoid chemistry and phylogenetic origin of *Phlox*
floridana. *Evolution* **29**: 487–499.

Li H. **2013**. Aligning sequence reads, clone sequences and assembly contigs with BWA-MEM.
arXiv [q-bio.GN].

Locklear JH. **2011a**. *Phlox ovata* L. (Polemoniaceae): Clarification of the nomenclature of the
Allegheny *Phlox*. *Castanea* **76**: 116–117.

Locklear JH. **2011b**. *Phlox a natural history and gardener's guide*. Portland, OR: Timber Press.

Marques DA, **Meier JI**, **Seehausen O**. **2019**. A combinatorial view on speciation and adaptive
radiation. *Trends in ecology & evolution* **34**: 531–544.

McNeilly T, **Antonovics J**. **1968**. Evolution in closely adjacent plant populations IV. Barriers to
gene flow. *Heredity* **23**: 205–218.

Minh BQ, **Nguyen MAT**, **von Haeseler A**. **2013**. Ultrafast approximation for phylogenetic
bootstrap. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **30**: 1188–1195.

Nguyen L-T, **Schmidt HA**, **von Haeseler A**, **Minh BQ**. **2015**. IQ-TREE: a fast and effective
stochastic algorithm for estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies. *Molecular Biology and*
Evolution **32**: 268–274.

Pease JB, **Haak DC**, **Hahn MW**, **Moyle LC**. **2016**. Phylogenomics reveals three sources of
adaptive variation during a rapid radiation. *PLoS biology* **14**: e1002379.

Pickrell JK, **Pritchard JK**. **2012**. Inference of population splits and mixtures from genome-
wide allele frequency data. *PLoS genetics* **8**: e1002967.

Roda F, **Mendes FK**, **Hahn MW**, **Hopkins R**. **2017**. Genomic evidence of gene flow during
reinforcement in Texas *Phlox*. *Molecular Ecology* **26**: 2317–2330.

Rothfels CJ. **2021**. Polyploid phylogenetics. *New Phytologist* **230**: 66–72.

Schumer M, **Rosenthal GG**, **Andolfatto P**. **2014**. How common is homoploid hybrid
speciation? *Evolution* **68**: 1553–1560.

Schumer M, **Rosenthal GG**, **Andolfatto P**. **2018**. What do we mean when we talk about hybrid
speciation? *Heredity* **120**: 379–382.

Servedio MR, **Kirkpatrick M**. **1997**. The effects of gene flow on reinforcement. *Evolution* **51**:
1764.

Servedio MR, **Noor MAF**. **2003**. The role of reinforcement in speciation: Theory and data.
Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics **34**: 339–364.

Smith DM, **Levin DA**. **1967**. Karyotypes of eastern north American *Phlox*. *American Journal of*
Botany **54**: 324.

Soltis PS, **Soltis DE**. **2009**. The role of hybridization in plant speciation. *Annual Review of Plant*
Biology **60**: 561–588.

Stebbins GL. **1959**. The role of hybridization in evolution. *Proceedings of the American*
Philosophical Society **103**: 231–251.

Suissa JS, **Kinosian SP**, **Schafran PW**, **Bolin JF**, **Taylor WC**, **Zimmer EA**. **2022**. Homoploid
hybrids, allopolyploids, and high ploidy levels characterize the evolutionary history of a western
North American quillwort (*Isoëtes*) complex. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* **166**:
107332.

Suni SS, **Hopkins R**. **2018**. The relationship between post-mating reproductive isolation and
reinforcement in *Phlox*. *Evolution* **72**. 1387-1398.

Swofford DL. **2002**. PAUP*. Phylogenetic analysis using parsimony (* and other methods). *Vol.*
Sinauer Associates, Sunderland, MA.

Taylor SA, **Larson EL**. **2019**. Insights from genomes into the evolutionary importance and
prevalence of hybridization in nature. *Nature Ecology & Evolution* **3**: 170–177.

Turissini DA, **Matute DR**. **2017**. Fine scale mapping of genomic introgressions within the
Drosophila yakuba clade. *PLoS Genetics* **13**: e1006971.

Turner BL. **1998**. Atlas of the Texas species of *Phlox* (Polemoniaceae). *Phytologia* **85**: 309–
326.

Wang N, **Kelly LJ**, **McAllister HA**, **Zohren J**, **Buggs RJA**. **2021**. Resolving phylogeny and
polyploid parentage using genus-wide genome-wide sequence data from birch trees. *Molecular*
Phylogenetics and Evolution **160**: 107126.

Wherry ET. **1930**. The eastern short-styled Phloxes. *Bartonia* **12**: 24–53.

Wherry ET. **1931**. The eastern long-styled Phloxes, part I. *Bartonia* **13***: 18–37.

Wherry ET. **1932**. The eastern long-styled Phloxes, part II. *Bartonia* **14**: 14–26.

Wherry ET. **1955**. The genus *Phlox*, Monograph III. *Morris Arbor, Philadelphia, USA*.

Wherry ET. **1956**. The genus *Phlox*. *The American Midland Naturalist* **56**: 508.

Wherry ET. **1965**. The genus *Phlox*, Ten Years After. *Bartonia* **35***: 13–16.

Whitehouse E. **1945**. Annual *Phlox* Species. *The American Midland Naturalist* **34**: 388.

Worcester L, Mayfield MH, Ferguson CJ. **2012**. Cytotypic variation in *Phlox pilosa* ssp.
pilosa (Polemoniaceae) at the western edge of its range in the central United States. *Journal of*
the Botanical Research Institute of Texas **6**: 443–451.

Yakimowski SB, **Rieseberg LH**. **2014**. The role of homoploid hybridization in evolution: a
century of studies synthesizing genetics and ecology. *American Journal of Botany* **101**: 1247–
1258.

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION:

Figure S1. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic inference from whole concatenated loci, with a

locus shared among at least 10 individuals.

Figure S2. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic inference from whole concatenated loci, with a

locus shared among at least 20 individuals.

Figure S3. Coalescent-based phylogenetic inference using SVDquartets, with a locus shared

among at least 30 individuals.

Figure S4. TreeMix models for the *P. drummondii* subtree.

Figure S5. TreeMix models for the *P. pilosa subsp. pilosa* North subtree.

Figure S6. TreeMix models for the *P. pilosa subsp. detonsa* subtree.

Figure S7. TreeMix models for the *P. amoena subsp. lighthipei* subtree.

Figure S8. TreeMix models for the *P. maculate subsp. pyramidalis* subtree.

Figure S9. TreeMix model best fit estimation.

Table S1. Species sampling.

Table S2. All D-statistic test results for introgression in two cases of reinforcement.

Table S3. All D-statistic test results for introgression in four hypothesized cases of hybrid

speciation.

Table S4. Summary of comparative read mapping of diploid and allotetraploid species to diploid

consensus sequences.

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

785   **Figure 2.** Maximum likelihood phylogenetic inference of eastern standing *Phlox* from whole

786   concatenated ddRAD loci. Loci were required to be shared by at least 30 individuals. Numbers

787   on branches represent bootstrap supports from 100 bootstrap replicates using ultrafast bootstrap

788   approximation (UFB). Bootstrap supports are shown for all nodes differentiating between taxa.

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

Figure 4. Results from TreeMix support the hybrid speciation hypothesis for *P. maculata*

pyramidalis in a pruned subtree (best fit m=4). Modeling of 4,490 unlinked SNPs for individuals

clustered by taxon identity inferred *P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis* sister to *P. maculata* subsp.

maculata and receiving a migration event (gene flow) from *P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*.

810   **Figure 5.** Proportion of reads mapped to diploid species-level consensus sequences for a diploid

811   representative of *P. drummondii* and all allotetraploid hybrid individuals. Bar colors correspond

812   to diploid species groups in Figure 2.

Table 1. Hybrid speciation hypotheses in the eastern standing *Phlox*

Hypothesized Hybrid Species	Ploidy	Putative Parent Species 1	Putative Parent Species 2	Motivating Previous Evidence
P. argillacea	2N	*P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*	*P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North	morphology[A], physiology[A], seed protein polymorphism[B], experimental crosses[C]
P. maculata subsp. *pyramidalis*	2N	*P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*	*P. maculata* subsp. *maculata*	morphology[D], physiology[E], seed protein polymorphism[F], experimental crosses[C]
P. amoena subsp. *lighthipei*	2N	*P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South	*P. amoena* subsp. *amoena*	morphology[G], seed protein polymorphism[F], experimental crosses[CG]
P. pilosa subsp. *deamii*	2N	*P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South	*P. amoena* subsp. *amoena*	morphology[G], experimental crosses[CG], microsatellites[H]
P. pilosa subsp. *detonsa*	2N	*P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South	*P. carolina*	seed protein polymorphism[F], experimental crosses[C]
P. floridana	4N	*P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South	*P. carolina* subsp. *angusta*	karyology[IJ], flavonoids[K], seed protein polymorphism[F], experimental crosses[C]
P. villosissima subsp. *villosissima*	4N	*P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South	*P. drummondii*	karyology[J], flavonoids[L], seed protein polymorphism[F], experimental crosses[C]
P. villosissima subsp. *latisepala*	4N	*P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South	*P. drummondii*	karyology[IJ], flavonoids[L], seed protein polymorphism[F], experimental crosses[C]
P. buckleyi	4N	unknown	unknown	karyology[I]

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

Table 2. Summary results for four taxon D-statistic tests for introgression in two cases of reinforcement

Reinforcement Scenario	P1	P2	P3	Range D	Range $Z^{\dagger}$	nSig/N‡ -D	nSig/N‡ +D	Test ID
P. drummmondii								
	P. drummmondii (light-blue)	*P. roemariana*	*P. cuspidata*	(-0.12. -0.01)	(0.187, 2.479)	0/24	0/24	T2:1 - T2:24
	P. drummmondii (dark-red)	*P. roemariana*	*P. cuspidata*	(-0.16. -0.01)	(0.341, **4.692**)	**24/48**	0/48	T2:25 - T2:72
P. pilosa subsp. *pilosa* North								
	P. pilosa subsp. *pilosa* North (pink)	*P. divaricata* subsp. *divaricata*	*P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*	(-0.10. 0.08)	(0.008, 2.771)	0/180	0/180	T2:73 - T2:252
	P. pilosa subsp. *pilosa* North (white)	*P. divaricata* subsp. *divaricata*	*P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*	(-0.08. 0.09)	(0.016, 2.418)	0/90	0/90	T2:253 - T2:342
	P. pilosa subsp. *pilosa* North (pink)	*P. paniculata*	*P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*	(-0.09. 0.05)	(0.025, 2.707)	0/180	0/180	T2:343 - T2:522
	P. pilosa subsp. *pilosa* North (white)	*P. paniculata*	*P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*	(-0.09. 0.10)	(0.026, 2.566)	0/90	0/90	T2:523 - T2:612

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

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

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

Table 3. Summary results for four taxon D-statistic tests for introgression in four hypothesized cases of hybrid speciation

Hypothesized Hybrid	P1	P2	P3	Range D	Range Z†	nSig/N‡ -D	nSig/N‡ +D	Test ID
P. argillacea								
	P. argillacea	*P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* North	*P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*	(-0.09, 0.08)	(0.023, 2.115)	0/90	0/90	T3:1 - T3:90
	P. argillacea	*P. divaricata* subsp. *divaricata*	*P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*	(-0.08, 0.09)	(0.016, 2.418)	0/90	0/90	T3:91 - T3:180
	P. argillacea	*P. paniculata*	*P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*	(-0.09, 0.10)	(0.026, 2.566)	0/90	0/90	T3:181 - T3:270
P. pilosa subsp. *detonsa*								
	P. pilosa subsp. *detonsa*	*P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South	*P. carolina* subsp. *angusta*	(-0.14, 0.01)	(0.033, 2.383)	0/12	0/12	T3:271 - T3:282
	P. pilosa subsp. *detonsa*	*P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South	*P. carolina* subsp. *alta*	(-0.09, 0.02)	(0.042, 1.520)	0/12	0/12	T3:283 - T3:294
	P. pilosa subsp. *detonsa*	*P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South	*P. carolina* subsp. *carolina*	(-0.13, 0.06)	(0.207, 1.794)	0/6	0/6	T3:295 - T3:300
	P. pilosa subsp. *detonsa*	*P. drummondii*	*P. carolina* subsp. *angusta*	(-0.08, -0.01)	(0.223, 1.880)	0/12	0/12	T3:301 - T3:312
	P. pilosa subsp. *detonsa*	*P. drummondii*	*P. carolina* subsp. *alta*	(-0.05, 0.05)	(0.164, 1.238)	0/12	0/12	T3:313 - T3:324
	P. pilosa subsp. *detonsa*	*P. drummondii*	*P. carolina* subsp. *carolina*	(-0.04, 0.06)	(0.024, 1.147)	0/6	0/6	T3:325 - T3:330
	P. pilosa subsp. *detonsa*	*P. roemeriana*	*P. carolina* subsp. *angusta*	(-0.05, 0.06)	(0.055, 1.266)	0/12	0/12	T3:331 - T3:342
	P. pilosa subsp. *detonsa*	*P. roemeriana*	*P. carolina* subsp. *alta*	(-0.05, 0.13)	(0.024, 2.696)	0/12	0/12	T3:343 - T3:354
	P. pilosa subsp. *detonsa*	*P. roemeriana*	*P. carolina* subsp. *carolina*	(-0.05, 0.02)	(0.188, 1.102)	0/6	0/6	T3:355 - T3:360
P. amoena subsp. *lighthipei*								
	P. amoena subsp. *lighthipei*	*P. amoena amoena*	*P. pilosa* subsp. *pilosa* South	(-0.14, 0.08)	(0.005, 2.887)	0/234	0/234	T3:361 - T3:594
	P. pilosa subsp. *pilosa* South	*P. drummondii*	*P. amoena* subsp. *lighthipei*	(-0.13, 0.06)	(0.007, 2.631)	0/234	0/234	T3:595 - T3:828
	P. pilosa subsp. *pilosa* South	*P. cuspidata*	*P. amoena* subsp. *lighthipei*	(-0.10, 0.13)	(0.007, 2.559)	0/156	0/156	T3:829 - T3:984
P. maculata subsp. *pyramidalis*								
	P. maculata subsp. *pyramidalis*	*P. maculata* subsp. *maculata*	*P. glaberrima* subsp. *interior*	(-0.50, 0.08)	(1.869, **20.718**)	**27/30**	0/30	T3:985 - T3:1014
	P. glaberrima subsp. *interior*	*P. carolina* subsp. *alta*	*P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis*	(-0.34, -0.06)	(2.002, **13.515**)	**17/20**	0/20	T3:1015 - T3:1034
	P. glaberrima subsp. *interior*	*P. glaberrima* subsp. *glaberrima*	*P. maculata* subsp. *pyramidalis*	(-0.31, -0.06)	(2.167, **12.277**)	**19/20**	0/20	T3:1035 - T3:1054
	P. glaberrima subsp. *interior*	*P. carolina* subsp. *alta*	*P. maculata* subsp. *maculata*	(0.01, 0.20)	(0.299, **6.323**)	0/80	**62/80**	T3:1055 - T3:1134
	P. glaberrima subsp. *interior*	*P. glaberrima* subsp. *glaberrima*	*P. maculata* subsp. *maculata*	(-0.02, 0.19)	(0.090, **6.313**)	0/80	**59/80**	T3:1135 - T3:1214

P1, P2, P3 refer to the three lineages used for the ABBA-BABA D statistic test (See Methods). Outgroups not shown. All tests can be referenced by Test ID in Table S3.
† Z-score to assess significance of whether D deviates from zero. Bold indicates significance at α=0.01.
‡ Number of significant tests over all possible sampled individuals. Significant -D identifies gene flow between P1 and P3, while significant +D identifies gene flow between P2 and