

1 **Phylogenomics within the Anthonotha clade (Detarioideae, Leguminosae) reveals a high**
2 **diversity in floral trait shifts and a general trend towards organ number reduction**

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30 **Abstract**

31 Detarioideae is well known for its high diversity of floral traits, including flower symmetry, number
32 of organs, and petal size and morphology. This diversity has been characterized and studied at higher
33 taxonomic levels, but limited analyses have been performed among closely related genera with
34 contrasting floral traits due to the lack of fully resolved phylogenetic relationships. Here, we used
35 four representative transcriptomes to develop an exome capture bait for the entire subfamily and
36 applied it to the Anthonotha clade using a complete data set (61 specimens) representing all extant
37 floral diversity. Our phylogenetic analyses recovered congruent topologies using ML and Bayesian
38 methods. The genus *Anthonotha* was recovered as monophyletic contrary to the remaining three
39 genera (*Englerodendron*, *Isomacrolobium* and *Pseudomacrolobium*), which form a monophyletic
40 group sister to *Anthonotha*. We inferred a total of 35 transitions for the seven floral traits (pertaining
41 to flower symmetry, petals, stamens and staminodes) that we analyzed, suggesting that at least 30%
42 of the species in this group display transitions from the ancestral condition reconstructed for the
43 *Anthonotha* clade. The main transitions were towards a reduction in the number of organs (petals,
44 stamens and staminodes). Despite the high number of transitions, our analyses indicate that the seven
45 characters are evolving independently in these lineages. Petal morphology is the most labile floral
46 trait with a total of seven independent transitions in number and seven independent transitions to
47 modification in petal types. The diverse petal morphology along the dorsoventral axis of symmetry
48 within the flower is not associated with differences at the micromorphology of petal surface,
49 suggesting that in this group all petals within the flower might possess the same petal identity at the
50 molecular level. Our results provide a solid evolutionary framework for further detailed analyses of
51 the molecular basis of petal identity.

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58 **Key words:** Berlinia clade, flower evolution, papillose conical cells, petal number, petal identity,
59 phylogenomics, target enrichment.

60 **1. Introduction**

61 **1.1. Flower diversity in the Detarioideae and the Anthonotha clade**

62 Legumes are well known for their diversity in flower morphology. The group has diversified into
63 a diverse array of flower arrangements, flower symmetry and number of organs within each of the
64 whorls (Tucker, 2003). The best known flower arrangement in legumes (the papilionoid or “pea-like”
65 flower) with distinctive petal types arranged along the dorsoventral axis of the flower is characteristic
66 of most taxa within subfamily Papilionoideae. This arrangement consists of an adaxial petal (also
67 referred to as dorsal, banner or standard petal), two lateral petals (wings), and two abaxial petals (also
68 known as ventral or keel) (LPWG, 2017). This flower arrangement is considered highly specialized
69 and its coevolution with bees is suggested as one of the drivers of diversification in this group (Cronk
70 and Moller, 1997). Most of our current knowledge on flower evolution and its molecular basis has
71 been centered in this subfamily. The remaining five subfamilies have also evolved diverse arrays of
72 flower diversity in relation to a diverse range of pollinators (Banks and Rudall, 2016; Bruneau et al.,
73 2014; Tucker, 2003; Zimmerman et al., 2017).

74 The pantropical subfamily Detarioideae comprises 81 genera and ca. 760 species, with its highest
75 diversity in tropical Africa and Madagascar (58% of species) (de la Estrella et al., 2018, 2017). The
76 group contains large trees of ecological importance in tropical environments (e.g. the Miombo forest
77 in east Africa) (Ryan et al., 2016), but also several species of economic importance as food source,
78 timber, oils, resins, as well as ornamentals (Langenheim, 2003). Detarioideae is well known for its
79 high level of flower diversity, regarding for example the symmetry, floral arrangement and size, and
80 number of organs per whorl (LPWG, 2017). The entire range of floral diversity encountered in
81 present-day legumes, with the notable exception of the specialized papilionoid flower, is
82 encompassed in this subfamily (Bruneau et al., 2014). This diversity is also visible at the flower
83 developmental (ontogeny) level, where the final number and arrangement of floral organs at anthesis
84 is achieved via alternative mechanisms (Bruneau et al., 2014; Tucker, 2002a, 2000). The plasticity of
85 some of these floral traits has been documented at multiple levels, among major lineages, between
86 closely related genera (Bruneau et al., 2014) and within species (Tucker, 2002a, 2002b).

87 One of the most extreme cases of variation of floral traits within Detarioideae (e.g. petal and
88 stamen numbers) is reported in the *Berlinia* clade, where plasticity of these traits is observed within
89 the same species and within flowers of the same individual (Breteler, 2011, 2010, 2008). In addition
90 to the diversity in organ number (merism), the *Berlinia* clade also displays variation in petal size and

91 arrangements within the dorsoventral axis of the flower. Most genera display a large adaxial (dorsal)
92 petal in the flower (e.g. *Gilbertiodendron* and *Berlinia* Fig. 1A and D) with additional lateral and
93 abaxial (ventral) petals of different size and shape (Bruneau et al., 2014; de la Estrella and Devesa,
94 2014a; LPWG, 2017; Mackinder and Pennington, 2011). Within the *Berlinia* clade, the *Anthonotha*
95 clade, which comprises a group of three closely related genera with contrasting flower symmetry, is
96 particularly diverse in its flower morphology. Some species of *Anthonotha* (Fig. 1G) and
97 *Isomacrolobium* (Fig. 1F) display modifications in petal arrangement, whereby the dorsal, lateral and
98 abaxial petals all possess a different morphology, or where the adaxial and lateral petals possess the
99 same morphology while the abaxial one has a unique morphology. In contrast, in *Englerodendron*
100 (Fig. 1E), a genus of four species with actinomorphic (radial symmetry) flowers (Breteler, 2006), all
101 petals have the same morphology, and they resemble either the adaxial or the lateral petals of the
102 zygomorphic and closely related *Anthonotha* and *Isomacrolobium*. These differences in petal size and
103 morphology along the dorsoventral axis of the flower might suggest distinct petal identities at the
104 molecular level, but this remains to be tested.

105

106 **1.2 The molecular basis of petal identity and its association with petal micromorphology**

107 The molecular basis of the of petal identity has been well characterized in papilionoids, where
108 specific transcription factors of *CYCLOIDEA* have been identified in *Lotus* (Feng et al., 2006; Wang
109 et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2013) and *Pisum* (Wang et al., 2008). In these two genera, the differences in
110 petal shape along the dorsoventral axis and petal symmetry reflect differences in gene expression
111 domains of three copies of *CYCLOIDEA*. This results in three domains of identity: adaxial (dorsal),
112 lateral and abaxial (ventral) identities. These domains of identity within the flower are also reflected
113 at the micromorphological level on each petal, where specific epidermal types are associated with
114 each petal identity (Feng et al., 2006; Ojeda et al., 2012, 2009). For instance, the dorsal petal identity
115 is conferred by the activity of two copies of *CYCLOIDEA* (*LjCYC2* and *LjCYC1*) in *Lotus japonicus*
116 L. and the petal surface is characterized by papillose conical cells (PCS) (Feng et al., 2006; Xu et al.,
117 2013). However, these molecular analyses have been concentrated in the Papilionoideae and there is
118 a lack of understanding of the molecular basis of petal identity in the other subfamilies of the
119 Leguminosae. The characterization of petal micromorphology and its relation to petal identity also
120 has been focused mainly on the Papilionoideae. Only two Detarioideae genera (*Brownea*,
121 *Tamarindus*) have been analyzed to date (Ojeda et al., 2009) and neither showed micromorphological
122 differentiation among petal types. However, it is unclear whether this lack of micromorphological

123 differentiation applies more generally to other members of this subfamily. Other subfamilies are
124 poorly represented in our understanding of floral genetics in legumes and with this study we hope to
125 bring awareness of the potential use of the Detarioideae as a “model clade” (Chanderbali et al., 2016)
126 to further improve our understanding of flower evolution in Leguminosae.

127

128 **1.3 Phylogenetic relationships of *Anthonotha* and closely related genera in the Berlinia clade**

129 The Berlinia clade (tribe Amherstieae) (de la Estrella et al., 2018) as circumscribed by Bruneau
130 et al (2008) comprises 17 genera and some ca. 180 species that occur exclusively in Africa. Previous
131 studies based on morphology and a few molecular markers have identified major lineages within this
132 group, e.g. the “babjit” group (Wieringa, 1999), which also has been recovered in more recent
133 phylogenetic analyses (de la Estrella et al., 2018, 2014). However, generic relationships have not
134 been fully resolved and a limited number of species have been included for most genera within the
135 Berlinia clade in previous studies (Bruneau et al., 2008; de la Estrella et al., 2014; Mackinder et al.,
136 2013). Within the Berlinia clade, the genus *Anthonotha* and its two close relatives, *Isomacrolobium*
137 and *Englerodendron*, is potentially the most problematic group that remains to be studied because
138 several studies have suggested *Anthonotha* might not be monophyletic (Breteler, 2008). The most
139 recent taxonomic analyses of the *Anthonotha* clade have been entirely based on morphological data,
140 and it is not clear whether the morphological traits used to circumscribe these genera reflect
141 monophyletic lineages (Breteler, 2011, 2010, 2008, 2006; van der Burgt et al., 2007). Despite the
142 remarkable flower diversity among the 17 genera of the Berlinia clade, and in particular within the
143 *Anthonotha* clade, the lack of phylogenetic resolution at the generic level found in previous studies
144 has hampered in-depth analyses of floral evolution. In order to better resolve relationships among
145 closely related genera within Detarioideae, as well as within genus, we developed a target enrichment
146 (exome capture) for the entire subfamily by selecting orthologues shared among four representative
147 transcriptomes. We combined the design of this capture bait set with a complete sampling of
148 *Anthonotha* and its closely related genera, representing a group of ca. 35 species with high diversity
149 in floral traits.

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151 **1.4 Objectives of this study**

152 The aims of this study were to: 1) reconstruct the relationships of *Anthonotha* and its most
153 closely related genera (*Isomacrolobium* and *Englerodendron*) within the Berlinia clade using a
154 complete sampling representing all extant floral diversity, 2) determine the ancestral states of seven

155 of the most labile floral traits within the Anthonotha clade and identify major transitions from the
156 ancestral floral state reconstructed, 3) test for correlations in the evolution of the floral traits
157 investigated in this group, and 4) establish whether changes in petal morphology and position within
158 the dorsoventral axis of the flower are associated with differences in petal identity, as measured by
159 differences in petal surface micromorphology.

160

161 **2. Materials and methods**

162 **2.1 Selection of species and transcriptome sequencing**

163 For the transcriptome analysis, we selected four species (*Anthonotha fragans* (Baker f.) Exell &
164 Hillc., *Afzelia bella* Harms, *Copaifera officinalis* (Jacq.) L., and *Prioria balsamifera* (Vermoesen)
165 Breteler) representing the major clades within Detarioideae (de la Estrella et al., 2018). Three were
166 generated in this study and the fourth was obtained from a previous study on *Copaifera officinalis*
167 Jacq. (Matasci et al., 2014). For each species we collected young leaves from seedlings growing
168 under nursery conditions. RNA was extracted using the Pure Link™ Plant RNA Reagent (Invitrogen)
169 following the manufacturer's protocol with DNase I Amp grade (Invitrogen). RNA quantity and
170 quality were checked using a Qubit^R 2.0 Invitrogen (Life Technologies) and with an agarose gel at
171 2%, respectively. Each sample was later enriched for mRNA using the NEXTflex™ Poly(A) bead
172 capture (BioScientific). RNA libraries were prepared for each species with the NEXTflex™ Rapid
173 Directional RNA-seq kit following the manufacturer's protocol and ~25 million reads (150 bp paired
174 end sequences) were generated per library on a NextSeq Illumina sequencer at GIGA (Grappe
175 Interdisciplinaire de Génoprotéomique Appliquée) at the Université de Liège. Raw reads were first
176 analyzed with FastQC (<http://www.bioinformatics.bbsrc.ac.uk/projects/fastqc>) and later cleaned with
177 Trimmomatic v. 0.36 (Bolger et al., 2014) with settings ILLUMINA_CLIP:TruSeq3-PE.fa:20:30:10
178 LEADING:3 TRAILING:3 SLIDINGWINDOW:4:15 MINLEN:36. Trinity v. 2.2 (Grabherr et al.,
179 2011) was used for *de novo* assembly using the default parameters. Raw reads for each species were
180 assembled separately. Transcriptome assembly statistics and quality were assessed with rnaQUAST
181 v. 1.4 (Bushmanova et al., 2016). To assess completeness of the transcriptomes, the Benchmarking
182 Universal Single-Copy Orthologs (BUSCO ver. 2) was run on each species separately using the
183 embryophyta odb9 database (Simão et al., 2015). Statistics of the four assemblies are described on
184 Table S1. Fastq sequences from the three transcriptomes are deposited in the NCBI Bioproject
185 PRJNA472454 (SUB4060777, SUB4060776, SUB4060712).

186

187 2.2. Target loci selection and bait design

188 For each species we identified open reading frames (ORFs) in the assembled transcriptome
189 contigs using TransDecoder v2.1.0 (Haas et al., 2013) with default parameters. Coding regions with
190 at least 100 amino acids were first predicted and extracted. An additional retention criteria search was
191 used to retain ORFs with homology blasts on legumes using a BlastP search against a database
192 containing the proteins from the complete genomes of six legume species (*Cajanus cajan* (L.)
193 Millsp., *Cicer arietinum* L., *Glycine max* (L.) Merr., *Medicago truncatula* Gaertn., *Phaseolus*
194 *vulgaris* Wall. and *Vigna radiata* (L.) R. Wilczek) (Data S1). We identified putatively single copy (or
195 low copy number) genes with a CD-HIT (Li and Godzik, 2006) to cluster highly similar proteins
196 within each species, followed by a SelfBLAST step to discard proteins with multiple hits. We later
197 identified orthologues among the four transcriptomes using reciprocal best blast hits using a BlastP
198 with a cut-off value of 1 -evalue 1e-10. We found from 32,129 to 46,510 ORFs with BlastP hits with
199 the Pfam and the legume genomes (Table S1).

200 Selected orthologues were first aligned with MAFFT v.7 (Kato and Kuma, 2002) and trimmed
201 with BMGE (Criscuolo and Gribaldo, 2010). Individual phylogenetic trees were reconstructed from
202 each identified shared orthologue using RAxML v. 8.2.9 (Stamatakis, 2014) and only genes with a
203 congruent topology to the known phylogenetic relationships among the four species were retained (de
204 la Estrella et al., 2018, 2017). We generated two data sets, one with the recovered orthologues
205 considering the four transcriptomes and the tree topology, and another set excluding *Afzelia bella*
206 (with lowest number of contigs in the assembled transcriptomes). Orthologs with >80 % homology
207 and at least 300 bp in length were selected from these two data sets. Putative intron/exon boundaries
208 within these selected genes were predicted using the *A. fragans* assembled contigs as a reference and
209 a database of three legume genomes (*M. truncatula*, *G. max* and *C. arietinum*) using a custom-made
210 python script. Only exons >100 bp were retained along with the 5' and 3' UTR sequences attached to
211 the exons of the flanking regions. Each exon was treated separately for bait design to prevent location
212 of the baits in the intron/exon boundaries. We selected 289 target loci (genes), representing 1,058
213 contigs with a total of 1,021 putative exons and a total size of 359,269 bp. The selected sequences
214 were subjected to a RepeatMasker (www.repeatmasker.org) analysis (Smit et al., 2015) using the
215 Fabaceae repeats database from the Michigan State University Plant Repeat Databases
216 (<http://plantrepeats.plantbiology.msu.edu/downloads.html>) with default settings. The probes were
217 further *in silico* screened separately against both the *G. max* and *M. truncatula* genomes. Probes with
218 soft-masking sequences and with non-unique hits in the two reference genomes were excluded from

219 the final bait design. The selected target regions were used to select orthologues and to develop a
220 target enrichment bait suitable for the entire subfamily. The final set of genes selected were used to
221 design an exome capture bait (Arbor Biosciences, MI, USA) with a 3x tiling of 120 bp RNA baits
222 generating a total of 6,565 probes. This probe was applied to the Anthonotha clade, the focal group of
223 our study, together with selected genera of the Berlinia clade.

224

225 **2.3 Taxon sampling**

226 The focal group of the study (Anthonotha clade) consists of c. 35 species currently classified
227 based in morphology into four genera: *Anthonotha* (17 species), *Englerodendron* (4 species),
228 *Isomacrobium* (12 species) and the monospecific *Pseudomacrobium* (*P. mengei* Hauman). Our
229 sampling included 61 samples representing all species within the Anthonotha clade (except
230 *Isomacrobium sargosii* (Pellegr.) Aubrév. & Pellegr. and *I. hallei* Aubrév.) (Table S2). This
231 sampling included several individuals for widely distributed species and replicates for four species.
232 In order to represent the closest genera of our focal group, we also included eight of the 17 genera
233 within the Berlinia clade. These eight genera have been previously identified as the closest related
234 lineages of our focal group (de la Estrella et al., 2018, 2017, 2014).

235

236 **2.4 DNA extraction, library preparation and hybridization**

237 Total genomic DNA was extracted from leaf tissue (25-35 mg) from herbarium specimens or
238 silica gel samples (Table S2) using the CTAB modified protocol (Doyle and Doyle, 1987) and the
239 QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen, Venlo, Netherlands), followed by Qubit® 2.0 Fluorometer
240 quantification (Life Technologies, Invitrogen, Foster City, USA). We used a modification of the cost-
241 effective protocol for plastome capture for library preparation (Mariac et al., 2014). Briefly, DNA
242 extracts were sheared using a Bioruptor® Pico (Diagenode SA., Liège, Belgium) to yield sonicated
243 fragments of around ca. 400 bp. Sheared and sized DNA was then repaired and tagged using 6-bp
244 barcodes for multiplexing all the samples (Rohland and Reich, 2012) after AMPure XP bead-based
245 sample clean-up steps (Agencourt Bioscience, Beckman Coulter, Brea, USA). Hybrid enrichment
246 was performed on pools of 48 samples per reaction following the MYbaits v 3.0.1 protocol, with 24 h
247 of hybridization, a high stringency post-hybridization wash and a final amplification involving 17
248 PCR cycles on a StepOnePlus (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, USA). Paired-end sequencing (2 ×
249 150 bp) was performed on an Illumina NextSeq with reagent kit V2 at the GIGA platform (Liège,
250 Belgium), assigning 400,000 million reads/sample.

251 **2.5 Assembly of captured sequences and recovery of orthologues**

252 Raw reads were first analyzed with FastQC and later cleaned with Trimmomatic v. 036 (Bolger
253 et al., 2014) using the same conditions as described above. Reads were demultiplexed using the
254 software Sabre (<https://github.com/najoshi/sabre>) and mapped to the bait reference using BWA with
255 the bwa-mem algorithm (Li and Durbin, 2010). We then used Samtools (Li et al., 2009) and bedtools
256 (Quinlan and Hall, 2010) on the mapped reads to determine capture success and coverage for each
257 sample. Reads for each sample were later assembled *de novo* using SPAdes ver. 3.9 (Bankevich et
258 al., 2012). We chose the genomic version of SPAdes (instead of maSPAdes), which reduces the
259 number of isoforms on the assemblies. This assembler uses iterative k-mer lengths during the
260 assembly allowing the reconstruction of contigs from the long reads (150 bp) we employed in this
261 study. The contigs generated represent a consensus sequence of each captured region, thus indels and
262 heterozygotes are not included, as the consensus sequence represents the most common allele. We
263 used the cds and peptides of *A. fragans* reference (Data S2) and a custom-made Python script to
264 select the corresponding contigs with significant hits (e-value $1e^{-10}$) using Blast (Altschul et al., 1997)
265 and Blat (Kent, 2002). We further identified orthologues on the selected contigs using the strategy
266 developed by Yang and Smith (2014)
267 (https://bitbucket.org/yangya/phylogenomic_dataset_construction).

268 Briefly, we reduced redundancy of cluster using CD-HIT (Li and Godzik, 2006) (99%, threshold,
269 word size =10). After that we performed an all-by-all blast on all the samples and later filtered with a
270 hit fraction cut-off of 0.5. We then used MCL (Van Dongen, 2000) with an inflation value of 1.4 to
271 reduce identified clusters in the samples. Clusters with less than 1000 sequences were aligned with
272 mafft (--genafpair --maxiterate 1000) (Kato and Kuma, 2002), 0.1 minimal column occupancy and
273 tree inference was generated with RAxML v. 8.2.9 (Stamatakis, 2014). We used PASTA (Mirarab et
274 al., 2015) for larger clusters, minimal column occupancy of 0.01 and trees were inferred using
275 fasttree (Price et al., 2009). Paralog sequences were pruned using the strict 1to1 strategy (Yang and
276 Smith, 2014), which searches for homolog sequences that are strictly one-to-one correspondence
277 among samples. The concatenated alignment was visually inspected and formatted with AliView
278 (Larsson, 2014) and summary statistics obtained using AMAS (Borowiec, 2016). Raw sequence
279 reads are deposited in the NCBI SRA XXXXXX.

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282 **2.6 Phylogenomic analysis using gene tree (individual orthologues) and supermatrix** 283 **(concatenation) approaches**

284 Phylogenetic analyses were performed using maximum likelihood approach (ML) as
285 implemented in RAxML v. 8.2.9 (Stamatakis, 2014) on each separate orthologue alignment using the
286 GTRCAT model with -f a flags, 1000 bootstrap replicates and default settings. Additional analyses
287 were performed using a supermatrix (concatenated alignment) by ML as described above and with a
288 Bayesian approach using MrBayes 3.2.6 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001; Ronquist and
289 Huelsenbeck, 2003) as implemented in CIPRESS Gateway (Miller et al., 2010) using four chains,
290 two runs of 5,000,000 generations with the invgamma rate of variation and a sample frequency of
291 1000. Density curves and the ESS (Effective Sample Size) from the MrBayes output was analyzed
292 using Tracer v. 1.7 (Rambaut et al., 2018). Resulting trees were visualized and edited in FigTree
293 v.1.4.3 (Rambaut, 2016).

294

295 **2.7 Analysis using species tree estimation**

296 Species trees were inferred with two coalescence-based programs using the ML gene trees
297 generated with RAxML. We used ASTRAL-II v. 5.5.7 (Mirarab and Warnow, 2015; Sayyari and
298 Mirarab, 2016) and calculated support with local posterior probability (LPP). An additional analysis
299 was performed with STAR (Liu et al., 2009) as implemented in the STRAW webserver
300 (<http://bioinformatics.publichealth.uga.edu/SpeciesTreeAnalysis/index.php>). Individual gene trees
301 were rooted online using the STRAW webserver. We selected species of *Gilbertiodendron* to root
302 trees in all analyses.

303

304 **2.8 Estimation of gene tree concordance**

305 We assessed species-tree and gene-tree conflict and concordance with an emphasis on the
306 *Anthonotha* clade. We used the concatenated-based species tree obtained with RAxML with 74 %
307 matrix occupancy and 100% taxon completeness, and we also examined gene-tree conflict using the
308 ASTRAL-II reference species tree. Concordance was quantified using the pipeline PhyParts
309 (<https://bitbucket.org/blackrim/phyParts>) (Smith et al., 2015) and visualized with the ETE3 Python
310 toolkit (Huerta-Cepas et al., 2016) as implemented in the script PhyPartsPieCharts
311 (<https://github.com/mossmatters/MJPythonNotebooks>). Both analyses were performed with all
312 branches regardless of their support, and also excluding branches with low support (-s 0.7 filter).

313

314 **2.9 Mapping characters, ancestral state reconstructions and correlation of character states**

315 We studied seven floral traits pertaining to floral symmetry, petals, stamens and staminodes
316 (Table 1). Character states for all taxa were scored and obtained from published taxonomic and
317 morphological studies of the Detarioideae (Bruneau et al., 2014; Tucker, 2002b, 2002a) and from
318 more detailed studies in *Anthonotha* (Breteler, 2010, 2008), *Isomacrolobium* (Breteler, 2011),
319 *Englerodendron* (Breteler, 2006; van der Burgt et al., 2007), *Pseudomacrolobium menzei* Hauman
320 (De Wildeman, 1925; INEAC, 1951; IRCB, 1952; Wilczek et al., 1952), *Gilbertiodendron* (de la
321 Estrella et al., 2014; de la Estrella and Devesa, 2014a, 2014b), *Didelotia* (Oldeman, 1964; van der
322 Burgt, 2016), *Oddoniodendron* (Banak and Breteler, 2004), *Librevillea klainei* (Pierre ex Harms)
323 Hoyle (Tucker, 2000), *Berlinia* (Mackinder, 2001; Mackinder and Harris, 2006; Mackinder and
324 Pennington, 2011) and *Isoberlinia* (Tucker, 2002a). Additional information was obtained from
325 available images and voucher specimens (Table S2). Our sampling encompassed all the
326 morphological diversity for these floral traits observed in the extant species of the *Anthonotha* clade.
327 For the remaining genera the scoring was done for the species representing each genus. Characters
328 were scored as binary states (Table S3) and ancestral state reconstructions were performed on the tree
329 obtained from the RAxML analyses using parsimony and likelihood methods as implemented in
330 Mesquite ver. 2.75 (Maddison and Maddison, 2015). Maximum likelihood reconstructions were
331 obtained with the Mk1 model of trait evolution.

332 Members of the *Anthonotha* clade vary in petal, stamen and staminode number and certain
333 species also display reduction or increase in the number of organs within whorls. To determine
334 whether changes towards an increase or decrease of organ numbers were correlated in their evolution,
335 we tested the correlation between changes: 1) in petal and stamen numbers, 2) petal and staminode
336 number, 3) flower symmetry and intraspecific variation in organ numbers, and 4) intraspecific
337 variation in petal and stamen numbers. The characters were coded as binary factors (see Table S3 for
338 scoring details) and pairs of characters were compared between ML independence and dependence
339 models, and with Bayesian MCMC comparing the discrete dependent and independent models. After
340 each comparison, likelihood ratios and Bayes factors were compiled to determine significance of
341 correlation. These analyses were performed with BayesTraits v3 (Pagel and Meade, 2006).

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345 **2.10 Morphological characterization of petal types and their identity based on** 346 **micromorphology**

347 To determine whether differences in petal morphology along the dorsoventral axis within the
348 flower were associated with different petal identities, we analyzed the morphology of each petal
349 within each species using the same voucher specimens and source of information used for mapping
350 characters noted above. Two parameters were used to establish the identity of each petal based on
351 these arrangement types: the overall morphology of the petal (size, symmetry, and shape) and its
352 location within the dorsoventral axis of the flower (adaxial, lateral or abaxial). This analysis focused
353 on species of the *Anthonotha* clade where we were able to sample the entire extant diversity. Once
354 the identity at the macro level was established for each species, we then examined whether all petals
355 (adaxial, lateral and abaxial) have similar or different epidermal types, the latter suggesting
356 differences in petal identity within the flower. We analyzed in total 21 species for the four genera
357 (*Anthonotha*, *Isomacrolobium*, *Englerodendron* and *Pseudomacrolobium*) of our focal group (Table
358 S4). Flowers from voucher specimens were first re-hydrated and later preserved in 70% ethanol.
359 Petal micromorphology for each individual petal within each species was analysed on both sides with
360 a light microscope (Nikon optiphot-2) and some specimens were further examined using a Zeiss
361 scanning electron microscope (SEM) at high vacuum (EHT=5.00 kv). Classification of epidermal
362 types and their level of differentiation were based on cell-shape traits (primary sculpture) and on the
363 fine relief of the cell wall, or secondary sculpture (Barthlott, 1990). The terminology of these
364 epidermal types follows (Ojeda et al., 2009).

365

366 **3. Results**

367 **3.1 Bait capture and mapping success**

368 We obtained an average of 919,856.5 reads per sample and recovered on average 84.89 % (\pm
369 3.94) of the baits in the set of samples included. Of these, an average of 35.77 % (\pm 13.15) of the
370 reads mapped to the *A. fragans* reference contigs (Table S5). Overall, we obtained a coverage
371 between 10-100X for at least 50% of the captured bait (Fig. S1). The final concatenated matrix
372 consisted of 61 taxa, 922 exons (clusters) and 239,334 aligned bp with 74.06 % overall matrix
373 occupancy (Table S6). The matrix contained 31,950 (13.35%) variable sites and 14,448 (6.04%)
374 potentially parsimony informative sites. The final alignment is deposited on the Dryad Digital
375 Repository: XXX.

376 **3.2 Phylogenetic relationships within the Anthonotha clade**

377 We obtained congruent topologies with ML (Fig. S2) and Bayesian (Fig. S3) analyses using the
378 concatenated matrix, which resulted in resolved relationships and high support for all the lineages.
379 The same lineages and topology were also recovered on the ML analysis using the individual genes
380 (Fig. S4) and similar topologies were also obtained with the coalescent approaches using ASTRAL-II
381 (Figs. S5) and STAR (Fig. S6). We did not obtain different topologies when only the 247 genes with
382 the highest level of taxon completeness were included in the coalescent analyses of ASTRAL-II and
383 STAR. We only noted a reduction in support of the relationship between *Anthonotha* ss and the
384 cluster containing *Englerodendron*, *Isomacrolobium* and *Pseudomacrolobium*, and the remaining
385 outgroup taxa (Fig. S5B). All these analyses identified the clade comprising *Englerodendron*
386 *korupense*, *E. gabunense* and *Isomacrolobium graciflorum* with the lowest level of support relative to
387 other lineages of our study (Figs. S2-S6). All the species included with multiple individuals and those
388 with replicates formed sister clades, except *A. pynaerti*, *Englerodendron gabunense* and *E.*
389 *korupense*. The analysis of gene congruence among the 247 genes with the highest level of taxon
390 completeness revealed the presence of conflict of topologies with low frequency, and we did not
391 observe discordant loci dominated by a single alternative topology. This discordance was
392 concentrated in the Anthonotha clade, suggesting the presence of substantial incomplete lineage
393 sorting in this group. Similar distribution of concordance and conflict was revealed using the
394 ASTRAL-II species as a reference (Fig. S7) or the RAxML concatenated tree as a reference (Fig.
395 S8). We did not find a difference in the level of conflict and concordance when only the highest
396 supported branches were included (Fig. S7B and Fig. S8B).

397 In all our analyses, two main clades were recovered with high support within our focal group,
398 one corresponding to all the *Anthonotha* ss species and the other containing the three remaining
399 genera *Isomacrolobium*, *Englerodendron* and *Pseudomacrolobium* (Fig. 1). The latter monospecific
400 genus has not been included before in phylogenetic analyses, and the grouping of these three genera
401 was an unexpected result, given their diverse flower morphology (e.g. flower symmetry and size of
402 petals).

403

404 **3.3 Evolution of floral characters and ancestral state reconstructions**

405 Our reconstructions suggest that the ancestral condition in the Anthonotha clade is a
406 zygomorphic flower with five petals of two types, the largest on the adaxial side with a distinct
407 morphology and the other four petals on the lateral and abaxial sides with a similar overall

408 morphology. The ancestral reconstructions also suggest the presence of three large stamens on the
409 adaxial side and six staminodes (Fig. 1H). This flower organization was observed in most species (12
410 out of 17) within *Anthonotha* ss. Our mapping and reconstruction analyses indicate that floral
411 modifications consisting mainly in a reduction in number of petals, stamens and staminodes (Table 2
412 and Fig. S9), and more frequently in the *Isomacrolobium*, *Englerodendron* plus *Pseudomacrolobium*
413 clade.

414 Our analyses suggest that the petal is the most labile organ among those we studied, involving
415 modifications in petal types (morphology and location within the dorsoventral axis) (Fig. 2A) and
416 number (organ merism) (Fig. 2B) with at least seven and eight independent transitions, respectively
417 (Fig. S9). In addition to the seven modifications (increase and decrease) in petal types (Fig. 3A and
418 C), we also identified three independent transitions to an alternative arrangement of two petal types.
419 In these three independent transitions, the adaxial and the two lateral petals display the same
420 morphology with the two abaxial petals having a distinctive morphology (Fig. 3B).

421

422 **3.4 Correlation of floral character traits in the *Anthonotha* clade**

423 Despite an overall trend towards a reduction in the number of petals, stamens and staminodes
424 within this group, there is a lack of evidence that modifications in these three organs are correlated
425 within a species. We also did not find evidence that flower symmetry is associated with the evolution
426 of intraspecific variability in petal or stamen number. In addition, we did not find evidence that
427 intraspecific variation within the petal whorl is correlated with intraspecific variation within the
428 stamen whorl. Thus, our results suggest that within this group all these seven flower characters seem
429 to have evolved independently.

430

431 **3.5 Petal identity based on their location along the dorsoventral axis of symmetry and their** 432 **corresponding micromorphology**

433 Here we analyzed a total of 21 species within the *Anthonotha* clade. Of these, 11 species were
434 similar to the ancestral condition inferred for the *Anthonotha* clade while seven species exhibited
435 four independent transitions towards a reduction to one petal type. In addition, we also studied two
436 species representing two of the three independent transitions to an alternative arrangement of two
437 petal types and one species representing one (of two) independent shifts towards an increase in petal
438 types (Table S4). We recorded two major epidermal types among all species that were examined

439 (Fig. 4 and Table S4). All species have papillose cells, either conical cells with striations (PCS) or
440 knobby cells with a rugose surface (PKR). PCS cells are characterized by a circular shape with the
441 striations directed towards the highest point of the cell (Fig. 4C-E). In contrast, the cell shape of PKR
442 is less rounded, the base of the cell is bigger (and with a square shape), and the striations of the
443 rugose surface is more evenly distributed on the cell surface (Fig. 4H-I). Our analysis and
444 comparison of epidermal types of each distinctive petal types (based on their morphology) and their
445 location along the dorsoventral axis (adaxial, lateral and abaxial) within the flower, reveals a lack of
446 epidermal micromorphology differentiation corresponding to differences in petal identity (Fig. 4).
447 This suggests that, at the micromorphological level, all petal types within each species have a similar
448 petal identity, regardless of position or morphology. However, we found a trend towards the presence
449 of less differentiated cells on species with flowers where the petals are smaller or less exposed (Fig.
450 S10).

451

452 **4. Discussion**

453 **4.1 The application of target enrichment as an integrative strategy to increase resolution at** 454 **multiple taxonomic levels**

455 Target enrichment (exome capture) is emerging as an efficient strategy for phylogenetic
456 reconstruction across different taxonomic levels (Budenhagen et al., 2016; Mandel et al., 2014),
457 allowing the combination of different studies using a common set of markers. Target enrichment is a
458 cost-effective strategy to obtain markers for phylogenetic analysis at multiple taxonomic levels,
459 including a set of markers for the entire flowering plants (angiosperms) (Budenhagen et al., 2016;
460 Johnson et al., 2018). This approach has been successfully applied in several plant families (Carlsen
461 et al., 2018; Comer et al., 2016; Herrando-Morairaa et al., 2018; Mandel et al., 2015, 2014; Moore et
462 al., 2018) and it has proved useful to reconstruct relationships among closely related genera, within
463 the same genus (Bogarin et al., 2018; Fragoso-Martínez et al., 2017; Heyduk et al., 2016; Mitchell et
464 al., 2017; Schmickl et al., 2016) and at species level (Nicholls et al., 2015; Villaverde et al., 2018).
465 Within Leguminosae, this approach has been applied on lineages of the Papilionoideae and
466 Caesalpinioideae (De Sousa et al., 2014; Nicholls et al., 2015; Ogutcen et al., 2018; Vatanparast et al.,
467 2018) and our study is the first to use target enrichment outside these subfamilies using a complete
468 sampling representing the entire extant diversity of the target group.

469 The recovery of the captured genes in target enrichment analyses have employed several
470 strategies (or pipelines). PHYLUCE was developed for ultraconserved elements (UCEs) and uses a
471 stringent filter to exclude paralogous sequences after the *de novo* assembly (Faircloth, 2015).
472 HybPiper is also a common strategy used to recover captured regions. This strategy first maps the
473 reads to a reference sequence and subsequently performs a *de novo* assembly, allowing the recovery
474 of both exonic and intronic regions (Johnson et al., 2016). This pipeline identifies potential
475 paralogous regions, but it lacks a specific guideline on how to handle paralogs after their
476 identification. More recently, Fer and Schmickl (2018) developed HybPhyloMarker, which contains
477 a set of scripts suitable from read quality to the reconstruction of phylogenetic trees; however, the
478 identification and exclusion of paralogous is not specifically addressed. Unlike these bioinformatic
479 pipelines, we employed an approach designed to recover orthologues from transcriptomes and low
480 coverage genomes, which allows a more in depth assessment of paralogous sequences (Yang and
481 Smith, 2014). This pipeline uses gene tree-based orthology approaches to identify paralogues regions
482 (clusters) in the data set. This pipeline contains four strategies to identify and exclude these
483 paralogous regions, and in this study we used the 1to1 strategy, which identifies homologues among
484 the samples analyzed based on a strictly one-to-one assessment. This particular pipeline has been
485 used both to select genes for the development of target enrichment (Vatanparast et al., 2018), as well
486 as to recover captured regions for phylogenetic analyses (Nicholls et al., 2015).

487 Using this 1to1 approach, we were able to recover 67 % of the total bait size after quality
488 filtering and this data set allowed us to increase the level of resolution among closely related genera,
489 providing strong phylogenetic support when applied to all extant species within *Anthonotha* ss (Fig.
490 1). This also allowed us to infer relationships within this genus and the other three closely related
491 genera, despite of the potential for incomplete lineage sorting (ILS) observed in our data sets (Figs.
492 S7-S8). Our preliminary analyses at higher taxonomic levels (including nearly all described genera
493 within Detarioideae) suggested the Detarioideae bait set and the strategy used to recover orthologues
494 is suitable for reconstructing highly supported relationships at the subfamily level (M. de la Estrella
495 *et al.*, in prep.). This hybrid capture approach will increase the level of resolution compared to
496 previous analyses (Bruneau et al., 2008; de la Estrella et al., 2017; LPWG, 2017) and allow the
497 possibility to build a more comprehensive phylogeny of the subfamily at multiple taxonomic levels.
498 This strategy is also suitable for analyses at the intraspecific level, as the application of this bait set
499 has recovered enough signal to reconstruct the population structure and demography of *Anthonotha*

500 *macrophylla*, one of the most widely distributed species in the Guineo-Congolian region (S.
501 Cervantes *et al.*, in prep.).

502

503 **4.2 The Anthonotha clade exhibits remarkable floral diversity at multiple levels with overall** 504 **tendency to reduction in organ number**

505 Detarioideae and Dialioideae are renowned for their high floral diversity, including floral
506 symmetry, and shifts in number and fusion of organs. Although this diversity and level of variation
507 have been documented in major clades (Bruneau *et al.*, 2014; Zimmerman *et al.*, 2017), it has rarely
508 been studied in detail among closely related genera (or within a genus) using a complete taxon
509 sampling and a well resolved phylogenetic framework. One of our major findings is the extensive
510 diversity in the number of transitions within the Anthonotha clade, with at least 35 instances of
511 modifications in the seven floral traits we analyzed, suggesting that at least 30% of the species have
512 modified at least one of these floral traits (Table 2). Our analyses also suggests that this group has an
513 overall tendency towards a reduction of floral organs, and in particular a reduction in the number of
514 petals (Table 2 and Fig. 2). Petal number reduction, however, occurs only with the lateral and abaxial
515 petals, while the adaxial petal is always retained, except in the most extreme condition of complete
516 lack of petals. Apetalous flowers are commonly observed in other Detarioideae genera and are
517 frequent in the resin-producing clade (Fougère-Danezan *et al.*, 2010), where apetalous is constant
518 within a genus. In Detarioideae, 20% (17 of 81) of genera are considered apetalous and this lack of
519 petals is observed in almost all species within these genera (Bruneau *et al.*, 2014; de la Estrella *et al.*,
520 2018; Tucker, 2000). This is the case, for example in *Didelotia* (Fig. 1B), a genus of 11 species
521 where all species are apetalous. In our focal group, only one species, *Isomacrolobium vignei*, has
522 been reported with a complete absence of petals, and this is observed in only some of the specimens
523 analyzed (Breteler, 2011), thus highlighting the remarkable lability of this trait at multiple levels
524 within the Anthonotha clade.

525 In this study we found that the petal is the most labile of the floral traits that we studied. Flowers
526 of the four genera in the Anthonotha clade display high diversity of petal sizes, number, shape and
527 arrangement in the flower (Figs. 2 and 3). Some species, such as *Isomacrolobium leptorhachis*, *I.*
528 *nigericum* and *I. brachyrachis*, display different petal shapes and sizes along the dorsoventral axis of
529 the flower, similar to some extent to the level of morphological differentiation of the papilionoid
530 flower, with one adaxial (dorsal), two lateral, and two abaxial (ventral) petals. A different
531 arrangement is observed in the four *Englerodendron* species with actinomorphic flowers (Fig. 3C),

532 where all petals display the same size and morphology within the same flower, but considerable
533 diversity in shape and size is observed among the four species. One species (*E. conchyliphorum*) has
534 all petals resembling the large adaxial (dorsal petal) typical of the zygomorphic flowers of most of
535 the genera in the Berlinia clade (Bruneau et al., 2014), while in the remaining three species all petals
536 resemble those from lateral petals (Breteler, 2006; van der Burgt et al., 2007).

537 The Anthonotha clade also displays high levels of intraspecific variation in petal and stamen
538 number with four and three independent transitions, respectively (Table S2). A high level of
539 intraspecific variation has been observed in early diverging angiosperms, including lineages of
540 eudicots sister to core asterid and rosid clades (Ronse De Craene, 2015). However, intraspecific
541 variation is not a common feature of the more derived core eudicot clades. In our focal group, the
542 most extreme level of variation has been reported in *Isomacrolobium vignei*, with intra-individual
543 variation in the number of petals ranging from 0 to 4 (Breteler, 2011). Such levels of variation have
544 been reported in a few instances in core eudicots (Kitazawa and Fujimoto, 2014); for instance in
545 *Cardamine hirsuta* (Brassicaceae) where the intra-individual variation in petal number is due to loss
546 of developmental robustness and the evolution of a selfing syndrome (Monniaux et al., 2016).
547 However, the mechanisms behind this variability is not clear in the case of *I. vignei* and further work
548 is required on this species.

549

550 **4.3 A different molecular mechanism behind petal identity in the Anthonotha clade and** 551 **Detarioideae?**

552 One of the main questions arising from our analyses is what is maintaining this diversity of floral
553 traits among closely related taxa. Tucker, (2002a, 2002b) has characterized the developmental
554 changes that occur in taxa that display modifications in petal number in a number of Detarioideae.
555 However, despite recent advances in the understanding of the molecular basis of petal identity and
556 petal symmetry in some model Papilionoideae species (*Lotus* and *Pisum*), it is not clear whether the
557 same transcription factors (*CYCLOIDEA*, *WOX1*, *MIXTA-like* and *MADS-box*) (Feng et al., 2006;
558 Wang et al., 2010, 2008; Weng et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2013; Zhuang et al., 2012) are also implicated
559 in the evolution of the diverse morphology observed in Detarioideae. Analyses of gene expression in
560 several genera of the Papilionoideae have further demonstrated the role some of these transcription
561 factors play during the evolution of petal morphology. For instance, the dorsalization (the acquisition
562 of the morphology of the dorsal petal) of lateral and ventral petals in *Cadia purpurea* (G. Piccioli
563 Aiton is the result of a homeotic transformation due to an expansion of the expression domain to the

564 lateral and ventral domains of the *CYCLOIDEA* gene conferring dorsal identity (Pennington et al.,
565 2006). Similarly, the lateralization of the dorsal and ventral petals among *Lotus* species of the
566 Macaronesia region have been associated with a shift in the timing of expression of the *CYCLOIDEA*
567 gene responsible for lateral identity (Ojeda et al., 2017). Furthermore, specimens of *Lathyrus*
568 *odoratus* L. with modified dorsal petals (hooded mutant, *hhd*) have been explained by alterations of
569 gene expression and sequence truncation of the *CYCLOIDEA* dorsal identity gene, which resulted in
570 a homeotic alteration resulting in the lateralization of the dorsal petal in this loss of function mutant
571 (Woollacott and Cronk, 2018). In all these species, modifications in petal identity are also
572 accompanied by modifications in the petal micromorphology associated with each identity. As such,
573 in the papilionoid flower the typical petal micromorphology characteristic of each petal along the
574 dorsoventral axis has been altered during changes in petal morphology (Ojeda et al., 2009).

575 In the Anthonotha clade, although we observed epidermal types similar to those previously
576 reported in other legumes (Ojeda et al., 2009), their distribution on the petal types along the
577 dorsoventral axis does not suggest that each petal has a different identity. Even on the species with
578 three distinct petal types (*Isomacrolobium leptorhachis*, *I. nigericum*, and *I. brachyrachis*) with one
579 adaxial (dorsal), two lateral and two abaxial (ventral) petals (Fig. 3 A), all five petals have the same
580 petal micromorphology. This is congruent with previous analyses of more limited sampling outside
581 the Papilionoideae, which suggested that the micromorphological differentiation along the
582 dorsoventral axis of the flower is unique to this subfamily (Ojeda et al., 2009). We also did not find
583 an association of a particular epidermal type with a specific petal type in species with zygomorphic
584 flowers, but there is a tendency for PKR cells to occur more often (twice) than PCS cell types and the
585 opposite trend is observed in the four species with actinomorphic flowers, with PCS recorded more
586 often (three times) than PKR cell types (Table S4).

587 Among the four genera we studied in detail, *Isomacrolobium* has the highest level of diversity of
588 petal types. In this genus only one species displays the ancestral state inferred for the Anthonotha
589 clade and we observed three different modifications to the ancestral type arrangement. But even in
590 this group there is no association with a specific epidermal type. For example, in *I. explicans*, where
591 the lateral petals resemble the adaxial (dorsal) petal, suggesting the possibility of dorsalization of the
592 ventral petals, there are no differences in epidermal morphology (Fig. 3B). We found the same for the
593 only species of *Isomacrolobium* with zygomorphic flowers, *I. obanense*, where all petals resemble
594 the adaxial (dorsal) petal (Fig. 3C).

595 Overall, our results provide a solid phylogenetic framework to further explore detailed
596 comparisons among species with contrasting morphologies and to analyze in more detail the
597 molecular basis underlying this diversity on petal morphology.

598

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607

608 **Author Contribution**

609 DIO and OH designed the study; DIO, EK, ME, SC, EB, JM, BD participated in the bait design and
610 performed the laboratory analyses. DIO and EB conducted the analyses. DIO wrote the manuscript.
611 SJ and BD contributed to collection of plant material. All authors read the first draft and provided
612 comments.

613

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903

904 **Figures**

905 **Fig. 1.** Phylogenetic reconstruction of the *Berlinia* clade obtained from individual and concatenated
906 analyses using ML and Bayesian inference. The arrow indicates the location of the ancestral state
907 reconstruction within the focal group (*Anthonotha* clade). Flower diversity in the genera sampled in
908 the *Berlinia* clade: (A) *Gilbertiodendron obliquum* (Jongkind 9972), (B) *Didelotia africana*
909 (XvdB_3), (C) *Oddoniodendron micranthum* (Bidault_MBG), (D) *Berlinia grandiflora* (FOLI092H),
910 (E) *Englerodendron korupense* (XvdB_741-8), (F) *Isomacrolobium* aff. *tripolisomere*
911 (Bidault_2214_EB_3234), (G) *Anthonotha macrophylla* (Bidault_1246_EB_9850), and (H)
912 schematic representation of the flower in the ancestral state (*A. macrophylla*). Petal types (identity
913 based on their position within the dorsoventral axis within the flower) are in color blue (adaxial petal)
914 and in green (lateral and abaxial petals). Stamens are indicated in yellow and staminodes in black. * =
915 Nodes with < 85 bootstrap support obtained from the concatenated and individual RAxML analyses.
916 Drawing modified from fig. 15 in Breteler (2010: 84). Copyright Meise Botanic Garden and Royal
917 Botanical Society of Belgium. Photo credits: (A) Carel Jongkind, (C, F, G) Ehoarn Bidault, (D)
918 Olivier Hardy, (B, E) Xander van der Burgt.

919

920 **Fig. 2.** Schematic representation of the various modifications in petal types (A) and the number of
921 petals (B) from the ancestral state reconstructed in the *Anthonotha* clade. Next to the arrows is
922 indicated the type of transition and the number of independent transitions. Ada = adaxial petal, Lat =
923 lateral petal, Aba = abaxial petal. Petal types (identity based on their position within the dorsoventral
924 axis within the flower) are colored blue (adaxial), green (lateral) and orange (abaxial). Stamens are
925 indicated in yellow and staminodes in black. Drawings modified fig. 3A2 in Breteler (2008: 141), fig.
926 15 in Breteler (2010: 84). Copyright Meise Botanic Garden and Royal Botanical Society of Belgium.

927

928 **Fig. 3.** Schematic representation of the transitions in petal types from the ancestral state in the
929 *Anthonotha* clade. Different colors represent petal identity (ID) based on their location along the
930 dorsoventral axis within the flower and on their morphology on the corresponding diagrams: blue
931 adaxial identity, green lateral identity and orange abaxial identity. Drawings modified from fig. 3A2

932 in Breteler (2008: 141), fig. 15 in Breteler (2010: 84), Fig. 4H, 17D, fig. 19B, fig. 22 in Breteler
933 (2011:68, 75, 76, 78). Copyright Meise Botanic Garden and Royal Botanical Society of Belgium.

934

935 **Fig. 4.** Distribution of epidermal types along the dorsoventral axis of symmetry within the flower.
936 (A) Flower of *Englerodendron korupense* (XvdB_741_8) with all petals with similar petal
937 macromorphology (one petal type), (B) schematic representation of *E. usambarensis* indicating the
938 location of adaxial, lateral and abaxial petals, (C-E) papillose conical cells (PCS) in a specimen of *E.*
939 *conchylophorum* (Michelson 1060) on three different petals selected based on their location in the
940 flower. (F) Flower of *Anthonotha xanderi* (XvdB_279) with one large petal (adaxial) and lateral and
941 abaxial petals of similar sizes (arrows), (G) schematic representation of *A. xanderi* with the identity
942 of their petals based on their location. (H-I) papillose knobby rugose (PKR) cells observed in
943 *Anthonotha noldeae* (Carvahlo 6946) on the two types of petals based on morphology. All scale bars
944 10 μm . Drawings modified from fig. 3A2 in Breteler (2008: 141), fig. 15 in Breteler (2010: 84).
945 Copyright Meise Botanic Garden and Royal Botanical Society of Belgium. Photo credits: (A) Xander
946 van der Burgt and (F) Ehoarn Bidault.

947

948 **Tables**

949 **Table 1.** List of the four floral traits studied and the scoring for the genera sampled of the Berlinia
950 clade.

951 **Table 2.** Number of independent transitions inferred from the ancestral condition in the Anthonotha
952 clade.

953

954 **Supporting Information**

955

956 **Figures**

957 **Fig. S1.** Capture success of the baits on the 61 samples after mapping with the 1021 exons reference.

958 **Fig. S2.** Best tree recovered with RAxML on the concatenated matrix using 200 bootstrap replicates.

959 **Fig. S3.** Best tree recovered with MrBayes on the individual clusters with the Bayesian support.

960 **Fig. S4.** Best tree recovered with RAxML on individual clusters (orthologues) using 200 bootstrap
961 replicates.

962 **Fig. S5.** ASTRAL species tree inference based on the ML inferred individual genes (clusters)

963 obtained with RAxML and fast 200 bootstrap support. (A) Using the longest 247 rooted trees (B) and

964 using all 661 rooted trees. Branch support is indicated above each branch. Red represent the
965 *Anthonotha* ss clad and blue *Englerodendron*, *Isomacrolobium* and *Pseudomacrolobium*.

966 **Fig. S6.** STAR species tree inference using the ML inferred individual genes (clusters) obtained with
967 RAxML and 200 fast bootstrap support. (A) Using the 247 more complete rooted trees and with (B)
968 including all 661 rooted trees. Red represent the *Anthonotha* ss clad and blue *Englerodendron*,
969 *Isomacrolobium* and *Pseudomacrolobium*.

970 **Fig. S7.** ASTRAL-II tree of the *Anthonotha* clade with summary of conflict and concordant gene
971 trees with (A) including all branches in the analysis and (B) including only branches with high
972 support (70%). Pie chart color coding: blue: fraction of gene trees supporting the shown split; green:
973 fraction of gene trees supporting the second most common split; red: fraction of gene trees supporting
974 all other alternative partitions; gray: fraction of gene trees with no information (missing or
975 unresolved).

976 **Fig. S8.** RAxML concatenated tree of the *Anthonotha* clade with summary of conflict and concordant
977 gene trees with (A) including all branches in the analysis and (B) including only branches with high
978 support (70%). Pie chart color coding: blue: fraction of gene trees supporting the shown split; green:
979 fraction of gene trees supporting the second most common split; red: fraction of gene trees supporting
980 all other alternative partitions; gray: fraction of gene trees with no information (missing or
981 unresolved).

982 **Fig. S9.** Ancestral state reconstruction of flower symmetry, petal numbers, intraspecific stamen
983 variation, no. of stamens, no. of staminodes, petal types and no. of petals with maximum likelihood.

984 **Fig. S10.** Level of differentiation on papillose conical cells (PCS) on species with actinomorphic
985 flowers in *Englerodendron*. (A) *E. korupense* (*van der Burgt 741*) with smaller petals and less
986 differentiated PCS cells (B-E). (F) *E. conchylophlorum* (*Michelson 1060*) with larger petals (and
987 more area exposed) with PCS showing a higher level of differentiation (G-J). All scale bars 10 μ m.
988 Drawings modified from fig. 3A2 in Breteler (2008: 141), fig. 15 in Breteler (2010: 84). Copyright
989 Meise Botanic Garden and Royal Botanical Society of Belgium.

990

991 **Tables**

992 **Table S1.** Assembly metrics from the four transcriptomes used to generate the Detarioideae bait.

993 **Table S2.** Voucher specimens and location of the species included in the analyses.

994 **Table S3.** Matrix of the character states used in the ancestral reconstruction in the *Berlinia* clade.

995 **Table S4.** Voucher specimens of species used in the analysis of petal micromorphology. All
996 specimens collected from Meise herbarium. Epidermal types identified in the species analyzed. PCS
997 = papillose conical cells with striations, PKR = papillose knobby rugose cells, ^t = presence of
998 trichomes.

999 **Table S5.** Statistics of the capture for the samples included in this study.

1000 **Table S6.** Supermatrix dimension, statistics of the number of orthologues and percentage of success
1001 for the species included in the study.

1002

1003 **Table 1**

Floral trait	State 0	State 1	State 2	State 3
1. Flower symmetry	Zygomorphic	Actinomorphic		
2. Petal number	6 petals	5 petals	1-4 petals	Absent
3. No. of petal types	1 type	2 types	3 types	
4. Petal merism	Variable	Invariable		
5. Fertile stamens	> 3	3	< 3	
6. No. of staminoids	> 6	6	< 6	
7. Stamen merism	Variable	Invariable		

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1017 **Table 2**

Trait	Modification	Frequency
Flower symmetry	Actinomorphy	3
Petal	Reduction of number	6
	Increase of number	1
	Reduction of petal types	4
	Increase of petal types	3
	Intraspecific petal number variation	4
Stamen	Increase of number	1
	Reduction of number	4
	Intraspecific stamen number variation	3
Staminoid	Reduction of number	6

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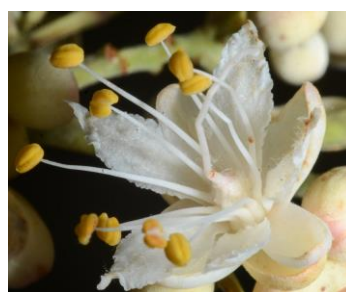
(A)
Gilbertiodendron
Zygomorphic



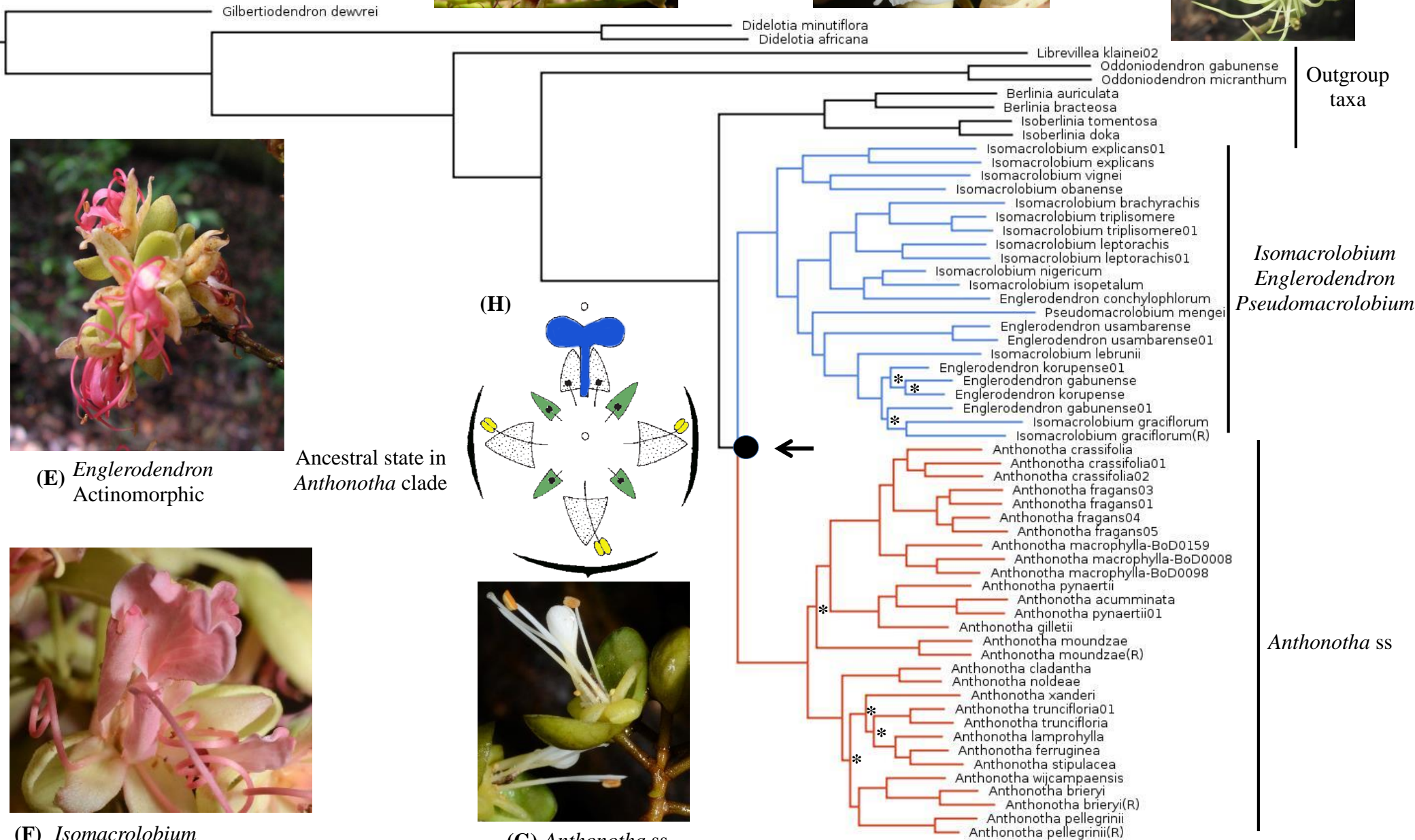
(B)
Didelotia
Zygomorphic



(C)
Odoniodendron
Actinomorphic



(D)
Berlinia
Zygomorphic

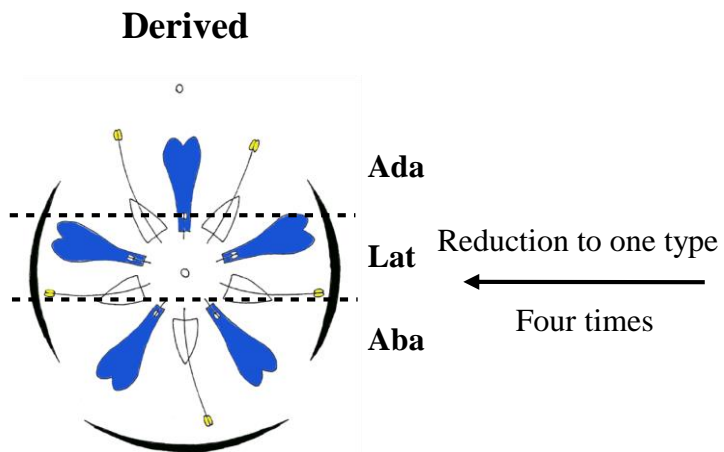


Outgroup taxa

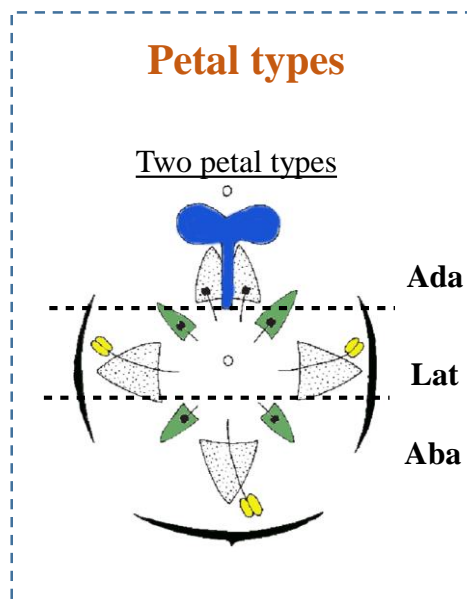
Isomacrolobium
Englerodendron
Pseudomacrolobium

Anthonotha ss

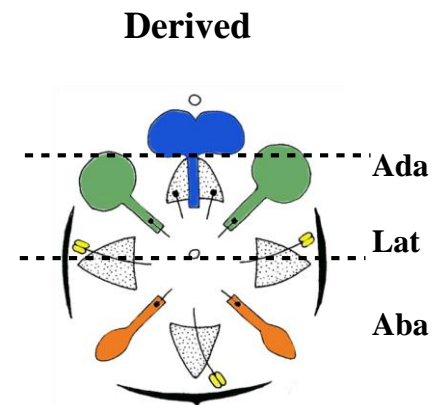
(A)



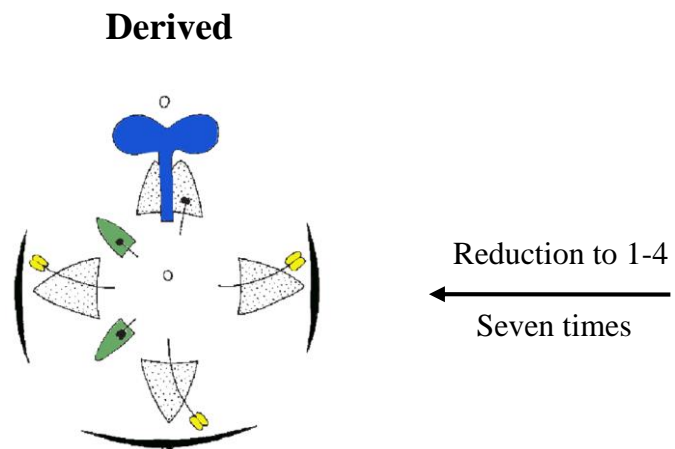
Ancestral



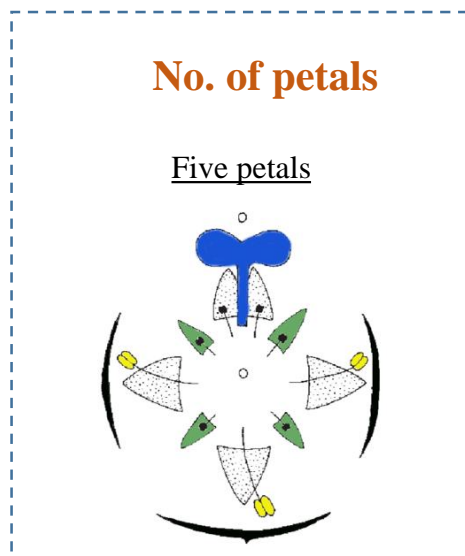
→ Increase to three types
Three times



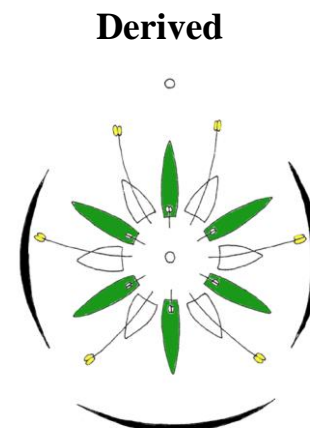
(B)

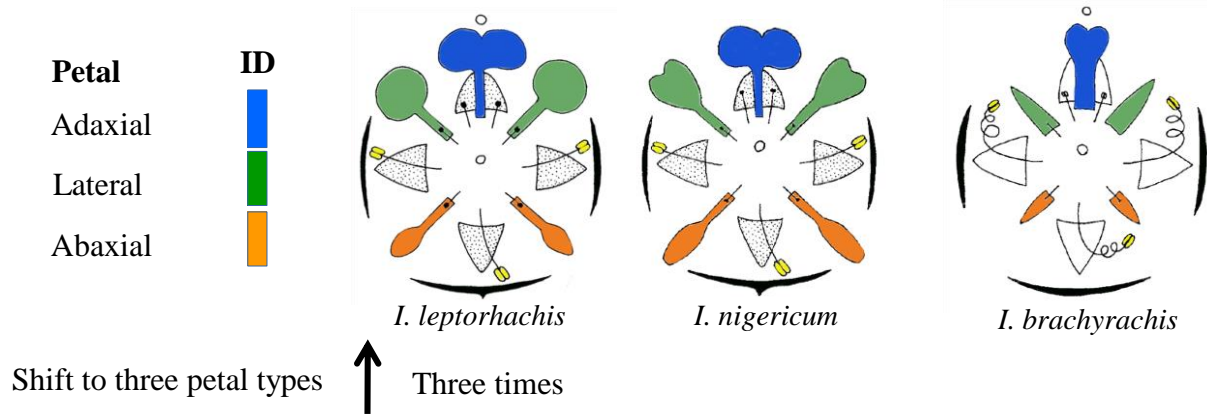
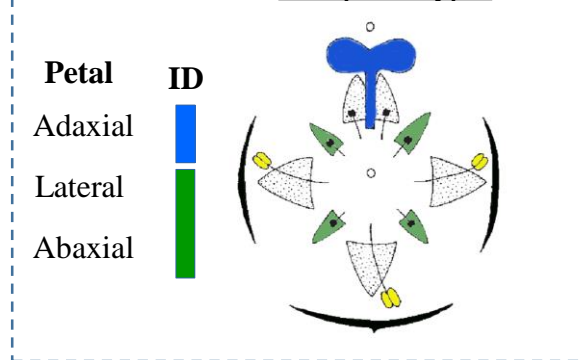


Ancestral

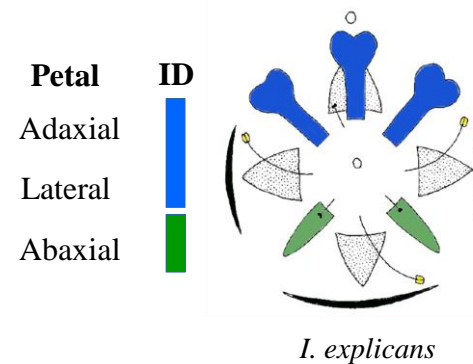
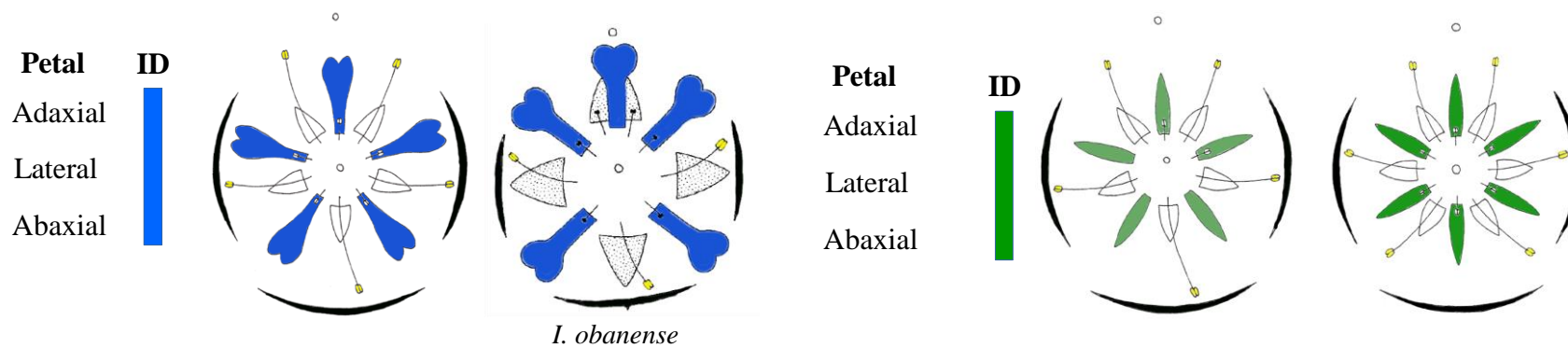


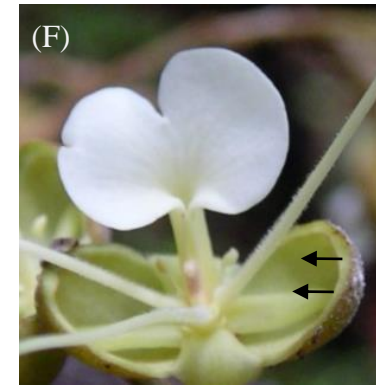
→ Increase to 6
Once



(A)**Derived****Ancestral**Two petals typesShift to an alternative
arrangement of two petal types

Three times

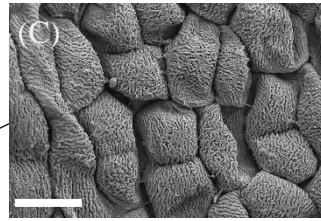
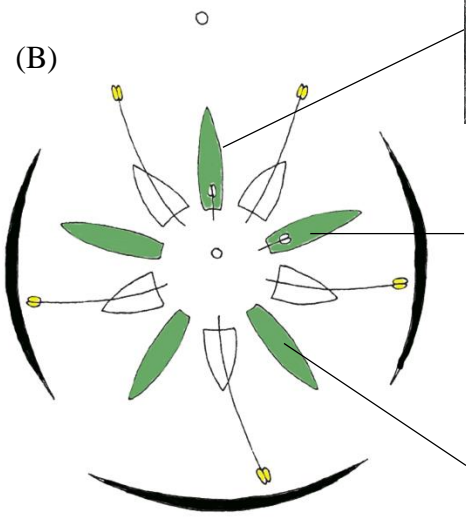
(B)**Derived**Shift to one petal type
↓ Four times
(C)**Derived**



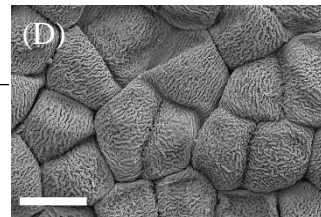
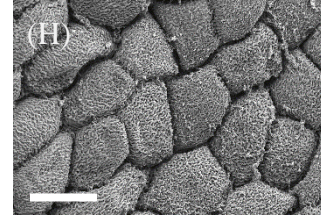
Petal identity based on location within the dorsoventral axis of the flower

PCS

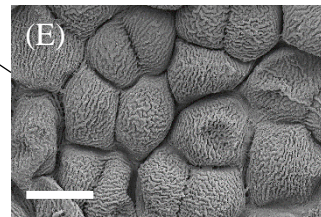
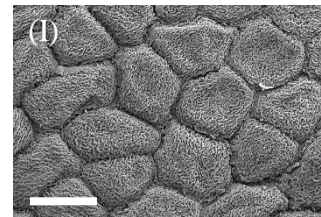
PKR



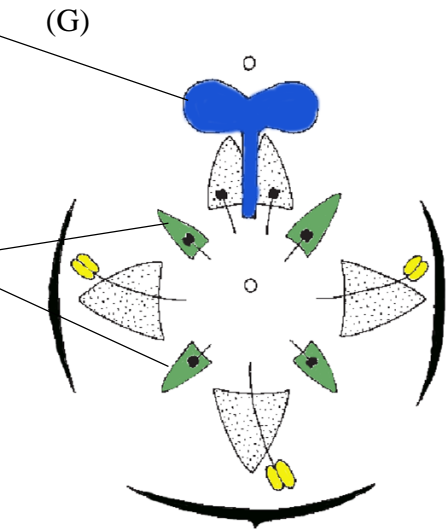
Adaxial



Lateral



Abaxial



Actinomorphic flowers

Zygomorphic flowers