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2 **Trait correlates and functional significance of heteranthery in flowering plants**

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4 Mario Vallejo-Marín ^{1,*}

5 Elizabeth M. Da Silva ²

6 Risa D. Sargent ²

7 Spencer C. H. Barrett ³

8 ¹ School of Biological and Environmental Sciences, University of Stirling. Stirling, FK9

9 4LA. Scotland.

10 ² Department of Biology, University of Ottawa. 30 Marie-Curie (160 Gendron). Ottawa,

11 Ontario, K1N 6N5, Canada.

12 ³ Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Toronto. 25 Willcocks

13 Street, Toronto, Ontario, M5S 3B2. Canada.

14 * Author for correspondence. Tel. (+44) 1786 467822. Fax (+44) 1786 467843. e-mail:

15 mario.vallejo@stir.ac.uk

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19

20 **Summary**

- 21 • Flowering plants display extraordinary diversity in the morphology of male sexual
22 organs, yet the functional significance of this variation is not well understood. Here,
23 we conduct a comparative analysis of floral correlates of heteranthery—the
24 morphological and functional differentiation of anthers within flowers—among
25 angiosperm families to identify traits associated with this condition.
- 26 • We performed a phylogenetic analysis of correlated evolution between heteranthery
27 and several floral traits commonly reported from heterantherous taxa. In addition, we
28 quantified the effect of phylogenetic uncertainty in the observed patterns of correlated
29 evolution by comparing trees in which polytomous branches were randomly resolved.
- 30 • Heteranthery is reported from 12 angiosperm orders and is phylogenetically
31 associated with the absence of floral nectaries, buzz-pollination and enantiostyly
32 (mirror-image flowers). These associations are robust to particularities of the
33 underlying phylogenetic hypothesis.
- 34 • Heteranthery has likely evolved as a result of pollinator-mediated selection and
35 appears to function to reduce the conflict of relying on pollen as both food to attract
36 pollinators and as the agent of male gamete transfer. The relative scarcity of
37 heteranthery among angiosperm families suggests that the conditions permitting its
38 evolution are not easily met despite the abundance of pollen-collecting bees and
39 nectarless flowers.

40 **Keywords:** buzz-pollination, division of labour, heteranthery, phylogenetic analysis,
41 stamen differentiation.

43 **Introduction**

44 Flowering plants display unrivalled diversity in the morphology of their sexual organs,
45 particularly male structures. Variation in stamen traits is evident both among related species,
46 between plants within populations, and also within and between flowers produced by a single
47 individual (Darwin, 1877; Endress, 1994; D'Arcy & Keating, 1995; Barrett, 2002). Among
48 these different levels of stamen variation, within-flower polymorphism represents a relatively
49 uncommon but taxonomically widespread phenomenon. A particular form of this
50 polymorphism is heteranthery involving the occurrence of more than one structurally discrete
51 type of stamen within the same flower with contrasting functions (Müller, 1883; Vogel, 1978;
52 Fig 1; Vallejo-Marín *et al.*, 2009; Barrett, 2010). Heteranthery occurs in diverse taxonomic
53 groups and in a variety of forms indicating that it has most likely evolved on multiple
54 independent occasions during the history of the flowering plants (Graham & Barrett, 1995;
55 Jesson & Barrett, 2003).

56 In heterantherous species, stamen differentiation within flowers involves the shape,
57 colour, and/or size of anthers. Most commonly, two types of anthers are distinguishable. The
58 first is centrally located in the flower and composed of brightly coloured stamens (usually
59 yellow) that are short in length, and which are easily manipulated by pollen-collecting
60 visitors. The second type of anther is displaced away from the central axis of the flower, is
61 often cryptically coloured, and the individual anthers are usually larger in size than the
62 preceding type (Vallejo-Marín *et al.*, 2009; Barrett, 2010). Less commonly, a third type of
63 stamens occurs resembling the centrally located anthers, although it can be slightly larger

64 [e.g. *Solanum lumholtzianum*, Solanaceae (Whalen, 1979); *Senna* spp., Fabaceae, (Luo *et al.*,
65 2009)] or consists of staminodes (e.g. *Commelina* spp., Commelinaceae). Because
66 heterantherous species are exclusively animal-pollinated (Vogel, 1978), anther variation is
67 undoubtedly associated with various facets of the pollination process with consequences for
68 pollen dispersal and male function.

69 Heteranthy is commonly associated with a suite of floral characters and particular
70 pollinator characteristics. Heterantherous species usually lack nectar and offer pollen as the
71 sole reward to visitors which are mainly pollen-collecting bees (Vogel, 1978; Vallejo-Marín
72 *et al.*, 2009). Pollen dispersal in heterantherous species frequently involves buzz pollination
73 in which pollen is released from anthers through small apical pores (poricidal anther
74 dehiscence) as a result of vibrations of flight muscles of the wings of large bodied bees
75 (Buchmann, 1983). Comparative analyses of monocotyledonous groups have revealed that
76 heteranthy is commonly associated with enantiostyly [mirror-image flowers, a floral
77 polymorphism in which the style is deflected to either the left- or right-side of a flower, with
78 at least some anthers commonly (but not exclusively) positioned on the opposite side of the
79 flower (see Jesson & Barrett (2003) for a review)] and aspects of perianth symmetry and
80 floral orientation (Graham & Barrett, 1995; Jesson & Barrett, 2003). These associations
81 strongly suggest that heteranthy represents a convergent floral syndrome that has evolved
82 as a result of pollinator-mediated selection. However, associations between heteranthy and
83 floral and pollination traits have not been investigated more widely in angiosperms and this is
84 the main goal of our study.

85 Here, we use phylogenetic comparative methods to examine associations between
86 heteranthy and several floral and pollination traits that have been previously observed to

87 co-occur with this condition. We begin by identifying families in which heteranthery occurs
88 through a literature survey and document traits commonly associated with this condition. We
89 then specifically test for correlated evolution between heteranthery and the presence versus
90 absence of nectaries, enantiostyly and poricidal anthers (buzz-pollination).

91 **Materials and Methods**

92 **Data collection**

93 We performed a literature search for families containing heterantherous species. Our primary
94 sources included Vogel (1978), Buchmann (1983), Endress (1994; , 1996) and Jesson and
95 Barrett (2003), and ISI Web of Science where we performed a search using the term
96 heteran*. To record buzz-pollination, the list of poricidally-dehiscent/buzz-pollinated
97 angiosperm families reported in Buchmann (1983) was updated and expanded using ISI Web
98 of Science using the search terms: buzz-poll* OR buzz poll* OR poricida*. Most species
99 with poricidal anthers are buzz-pollinated, although there are exceptions (*e.g.* Araceae,
100 Balanophoraceae, Mayacaceae) (Buchmann, 1983). We obtained information on the presence
101 or absence of floral nectaries from Bernardello (2007). Families containing enantiostylous
102 taxa were obtained from Graham & Barrett (1995), Jesson & Barrett (2003) and L. K. Jesson
103 (*pers. comm.*). For heteranthery, buzz-pollination, and enantiostyly, a family was scored as
104 "1" (present) if it included at least some species with the trait of interest and "0" otherwise.
105 For floral nectaries we scored families as "1", with floral nectaries, and "0", no floral
106 nectaries, including polymorphic families in which nectaries have been lost.

107 **Phylogeny**

108 To determine the phylogenetic distribution of heteranthery, we used a tree of families of
109 flowering plants available at Phylomatic (<http://www.phylodiversity.net/phylomatic>), which
110 is based on the supertree by Davies *et al.* (2004). This tree combines information from
111 multiple separate studies to create a single, large phylogenetic hypothesis. Our final tree
112 contained 440 terminal taxa, i.e. families. We chose this particular phylogenetic hypothesis to
113 maximize the number of taxa analysed and because this tree was the best angiosperm
114 phylogeny available at the time of data collection. The Davies *et al.* tree differs from a recent
115 phylogenetic hypothesis for angiosperms (APG III, Bremer *et al.*, 2009) in several ways,
116 including the collapse of families (*e.g.* the family Cochlospermaceae is included in
117 Bixaceae), and changes in the placement of several taxa. However, the majority of the deep
118 nodes are similar in the two trees. Moreover, when we used the APG III phylogeny to
119 conduct the tests of correlated evolution described below on a subset of our data ($n = 377$
120 families for the comparisons of heteranthery *vs.* poricidal anthers and heteranthery *vs.*
121 enantiostyly; and $n = 339$ families for heteranthery *vs.* nectaries), we found no significant
122 changes (results not shown) compared to our findings with the tree of Davies *et al.*. We
123 therefore present below the results of the analysis of correlated evolution obtained using the
124 more taxa-rich tree of Davies *et al.* Finally, to facilitate comparison with future studies, in the
125 text we refer to families according to the taxonomic nomenclature of APG III, which can be
126 obtained from the comprehensive list of synonymy of family names available at
127 <http://www.mobot.org/MOBOT/research/APweb/>.

128 **Data analysis on correlated evolution of traits**

129 We conducted Pagel's test of correlated evolution (Pagel, 1994; Pagel & Meade, 2006) on the
130 phylogenetic tree to investigate whether the evolution of heteranthery (character states:
131 present/absent) was independent of floral characters commonly found in heterantherous
132 species. This was carried out separately for each of three characters (buzz-pollination, floral
133 nectaries, and enantiostyly) using the binomial classification of character states described in
134 the previous section. Pagel's test calculates the likelihood of nested models of character
135 evolution for pairs of characters. In the omnibus test, two models are compared. The first is a
136 model in which the character states for both traits are allowed to change independently. The
137 second assumes that the transition in one character depends on the state of the second
138 character. The statistical fit of the model to the observed distribution of character states under
139 a given phylogenetic hypothesis can be compared between nested models using a likelihood
140 ratio test (LRT). The significance of the LRT test is obtained using a Chi-square distribution
141 with degrees of freedom equal to the difference in parameters between the models being
142 compared (Pagel, 1994). If the dependent model provides a significantly better fit to the data,
143 then one can conclude that the two characters evolve in a correlated fashion.

144 Pagel's test of correlated evolution requires dichotomous trees with non-zero branch
145 lengths. However, our tree included several polytomies that represent uncertainty in the
146 phylogenetic reconstruction. To address this issue, we randomly resolved polytomies using
147 the R-program APE (Paradis *et al.*, 2004), and created a sample of 1000 of these randomly
148 resolved trees, in which all branch length were set to one. We then conducted Pagel's test in
149 all 1000 trees in our sample to assess the robustness of our results to particular phylogenetic
150 hypotheses.

151 **Results**

152 **Taxonomic distribution of heteranthery**

153 Heteranthery has been reported from 20 families (Endress, 1994, p. 153). We excluded some
154 of these families from our analyses either because one set of anthers produced sterile pollen
155 (*e.g.* Gesneriaceae, Gao *et al.*, 2006), or because we considered two taxa as part of the same
156 family (*e.g.* Caesalpinaceae was included within Fabaceae). In the case of Liliaceae and
157 Gentianaceae, heteranthery has been reported previously (Vogel, 1978; Endress, 1994);
158 however, we were unable to verify these reports by finding information of the identity of
159 heterantherous species in these families, and thus we excluded them from the present
160 analysis. Representative species for each of the 16 families included in our analyses are
161 provided in Table S1, together with information on floral characteristics and pollinators at the
162 family level. The 16 families with heteranthery analyzed here belong to 12 orders, including
163 both monocotyledons and eudicotyledons — Asparagales, Brassicales, Commelinales,
164 Dilleniales, Ericales, Fabales, Lamiales, Malpighiales, Malvales, Myrtales, Sapindales and
165 Solanales. The broad taxonomic distribution of families containing heterantherous taxa (Fig
166 2) is consistent with the hypothesis that heteranthery has had multiple origins in the
167 angiosperms and represents a striking example of floral convergence.

168 The number of species in each family for which heteranthery is reported varied
169 enormously. For example, the only report of heteranthery in the Anacardiaceae — which
170 contains approximately 600 species in 70 genera (Zomlefer, 1994) — is for *Anacardium*
171 *humile* (Vogel 1978). Other families for which heteranthery is reported in only one species
172 include Brassicaceae, Malvaceae and Lythraceae (Table S1). In other cases, heteranthery has
173 been documented in several species belonging to only one or a few genera. These cases

174 include Dilleniaceae [*e.g.* *Dillenia*, *Hibbertia* (Vogel, 1978; Endress, 1997)], Lecythidaceae
175 [*Bertholletia*, *Couroupita*, *Gustavia* (Vogel, 1978; Lloyd, 1992)], Pontederiaceae
176 [*Heteranthera*, *Monochoria* (Vogel, 1978; Tang & Huang, 2007)], Solanaceae [*Solanum*
177 (*Bohs et al.*, 2007)], Tecophilaeaceae [*Cyanella* (Dulberger & Ornduff, 1980)], ,
178 Haemodoraceae [*Dilatris*, *Schiekia*, *Haemodorum*, *Xiphidium* (Simpson, 1990; LK Jesson,
179 unpublished data)], and Malpighiaceae [*Banisteria*, *Hiptage*, *Malpighia* (Vogel, 1978)].

180 In Fabaceae and Melastomataceae, heteranthery is more widespread in its distribution
181 occurring in hundreds of species and many genera. Reports of anther dimorphism in Fabaceae
182 include *Caesalpinia*, *Swartzia*, *Senna*, *Cassia*, *Chamaechrista*, *Crotalaria*, *Dioclea*, *Dypterix*,
183 *Eysenhardtia*, *Mucuna*, *Ormosia*, *Platymiscium*, *Poiretia*, and *Stylosanthes* (Vogel, 1978;
184 Dulberger, 1981; Stevens *et al.*, 2001; Laporta, 2005; Marazzi & Endress, 2008). Similarly,
185 the Melastomataceae contain many heterantherous species in *Aciotis*, *Acisanthera*,
186 *Adelobotrys*, *Arthrostema*, *Centradenia*, *Dissotis*, *Heterocentron*, *Melastoma*, and *Tibouchina*
187 (Vogel, 1978; Gross, 1993; Stevens *et al.*, 2001), and in some of these taxa heteranthery is
188 relatively common (Renner, 1989).

189 **Family correlates of heteranthery**

190 Table S1 documents floral characteristics and pollinators of heterantherous families. Several
191 generalizations can be extracted from this table and from Figure 2. Families with heteranthery
192 often exhibit other forms of within-flower polymorphism, including the presence of
193 staminodes (present in all families but Bixaceae and Lythraceae), and heterostyly (present in
194 Fabaceae, Lythraceae and Pontederiaceae) (Table S1). In the latter two tristylous families
195 species also possess within flower stamen differentiation although in this case they are not
196 functionally differentiated as in heteranthery. With a few exceptions (*e.g.* Dilleniaceae,

197 Lecythidaceae, Malvaceae), heterantherous families tend to have few stamens and all except
198 two families—Anacardiaceae and Brassicaceae—contain species with poricidal anther
199 dehiscence. Nectaries occur in all but three families: Commelinaceae, Dilleniaceae, and
200 Malpighiaceae, although heterantherous taxa most often lack nectar. With respect to floral
201 symmetry, 10 out of 16 families with heteranthery possess slight to strongly zygomorphic
202 perianths, at least occasionally. Finally, insects are the main pollinators of families with
203 heteranthery, and pollen-collecting bees in particular are the most common pollinators.

204 **Correlated Evolution of Floral Traits**

205 *Heteranthery and Poricidal Anthers.* Among the 16 families containing heterantherous
206 species included here, all but Anacardiaceae and Brassicaceae contain species with poricidal
207 anthers. This high rate of co-occurrence of poricidal anthers and heteranthery contrasts with
208 the lower rate of poricidal anthers in our phylogenetic sample of angiosperm families (88%
209 vs. 15%, 64 poricidal families out of 440). When phylogenetic relationships among families
210 were taken into account, we found strong support indicating that the evolution of heteranthery
211 and poricidal anthers (buzz-pollination) are strongly associated ($P < 0.001$; Table 1). This
212 pattern of correlated evolution was highly significant in all of the 1000 trees included in our
213 sample indicating that our finding is robust to the particular phylogenetic hypothesis being
214 used.

215 *Heteranthery and Enantiostyly.* Of the 15 families with heteranthery included in our
216 phylogenetic analysis, six contained enantiostylous species. In contrast, the incidence of
217 enantiostyly among flowering plants as a whole is very low (<3%; 11 out of 440 families).
218 Our analysis provided strong support for the correlated evolution of heteranthery and

219 enantiostyly ($P < 0.001$, Table 1); a result that was not strongly influenced by the particular
220 phylogenetic hypothesis that was used.

221 *Heteranthery and Nectaries.* We found information on the presence versus absence of
222 nectaries at the family level for 362 plant families. Among all families, 196 contained mostly
223 taxa with nectaries, 156 contained taxa with and without nectaries (polymorphic), and 10
224 generally lacked nectaries. Of the 166 families in which nectaries have been lost, 7% (11
225 families) included heterantherous taxa, while heteranthery occurred in 3% (5 families) out of
226 the 196 families in which nectaries are widespread. Tests of correlated evolution indicated
227 that a model in which heteranthery and the absence of nectaries evolve in a correlated fashion
228 fits the data better than one in which these two characters evolve independently (Table 1, P
229 < 0.05). The correlated evolution model provided a better fit than the independent model over
230 our entire sample of phylogenetic trees (Table 1).

231 **Discussion**

232 Heteranthery is one of several types of stamen dimorphism within angiosperm flowers. It has
233 evolved in at least 12 orders indicating independent origins and suggesting that the selective
234 forces responsible for the evolution of heteranthery are encountered by disparate animal-
235 pollinated taxa. The number of independent evolutionary origins of heteranthery is unknown,
236 although it is certainly larger than the number of families in which it occurs, as heteranthery
237 has evolved independently several times even within the same genus *e.g. Solanum* (Bohs *et*
238 *al.* 2007). Our study identified several common features associated with heteranthery
239 including the lack of floral nectaries, poricidal anthers, enantiostyly, few stamens, bee
240 pollination, and, in some groups, weakly to strongly zygomorphic perianths. However, not

241 surprisingly given the diverse affinities of heterantherous taxa, there are many exceptions to
242 these patterns.

243 **Correlated evolution**

244 Our phylogenetic analyses revealed a strong correlation between heteranthery and poricidal
245 anthers, lack of nectaries and enantiostyly (Table 1). Although our analyses were conducted
246 at the family level, and in most groups heteranthery was only evident in a small proportion of
247 species within a family, we were still able to detect patterns of correlated evolution. The fact
248 that our analysis was sensitive enough to uncover patterns of association at the family level
249 gives us confidence that the associations we uncovered are likely to reflect the evolution of
250 strong functional associations. However, family-level analysis has the disadvantage that it is
251 difficult to dissect the sequence of character state associations required to understand the
252 assembly of the heterantherous syndrome. Knowing the order of acquisition of correlated
253 traits is critical for understanding why heteranthery has arisen in some groups and not others.

254 The strong association between heteranthery and buzz-pollination seems likely to
255 have arisen as a result of the evolution of heteranthery within buzz-pollinated clades and not
256 vice versa (Buchmann, 1983; Vallejo-Marín *et al.*, 2009). However, it is more difficult to
257 infer whether enantiostyly precedes or follows the evolution of heteranthery (Jesson &
258 Barrett, 2003), or if a transition to weakly zygomorphic corollas is a pre-requisite for the
259 evolution of heteranthery. Providing answers to these questions requires well-resolved
260 phylogenies at the family level or below. For example, Bohs and colleagues conducted a
261 phylogenetic analysis of the evolution of heteranthery within buzz-pollinated *Solanum*
262 (*Solanaceae*) (Levin *et al.*, 2006; Bohs *et al.*, 2007); their study included the major clades of
263 *Solanum* with more concentrated sampling in the subgenus *Leptostemonum*. The vast

264 majority of *Solanum* species lack floral nectaries and offer pollen as the only reward to attract
265 pollinators. The hermaphroditic, pentamerous, radially symmetric flowers of most *Solanum*
266 species have a stereotypical morphology in which similar-sized anthers form a cone in the
267 centre of the flower (solanoid anthers). However, some derived *Solanum* species possess
268 heteranthery accompanied by different degrees of corolla zygomorphy. Bohs and colleagues
269 identified up to seven independent origins of stamen dimorphism within the "spiny solanums"
270 (Levin *et al.*, 2006) and at least one more in the Normania clade (Bohs *et al.*, 2007) . The
271 phylogenetic distribution of heteranthery indicates that in this case buzz-pollination and lack
272 of nectaries preceded the evolution of heteranthery, which after it originated was
273 accompanied by changes to corolla morphology.

274 **Convergence in function**

275 Heteranthery represents an example of convergent evolution, but why has heteranthery
276 evolved on multiple occasions in unrelated groups? The answer to this question requires
277 determining the selective forces responsible for the evolution and maintenance of
278 heteranthery. The most widely accepted explanation for the function of heteranthery posits
279 that anther dimorphism represents the specialization of stamens into fertilizing and feeding
280 functions (H. Müller, 1881; F. Müller, 1883). According to the "division of labour"
281 hypothesis, the short, centrally located and brightly coloured set of anthers serves to attract
282 and reward pollinators (feeding anthers), while the second anther or anther set of larger,
283 cryptically-coloured, anther(s) is involved mostly in fertilization (pollinating anthers).
284 Therefore, the division of labour hypothesis rests on two tenets: first, pollinators focus their
285 pollen collecting efforts on feeding anthers more than on pollinating anthers; and second,
286 pollinating anthers contribute disproportionately to fertilization (Vallejo-Marín *et al.*, 2009).

287 Despite the fact that the division of labour hypothesis has gained acceptance since its
288 inception (Forbes, 1882; Darwin, 1899; Harris & Kuchs, 1902; Buchmann, 1983; Barrett,
289 2010), empirical confirmation of both tenets of this hypothesis has been relatively scarce and
290 restricted to a few taxa (*e.g. Solanum*, Bowers, 1975; Vallejo-Marín et al. 2009; *Melastoma*,
291 Luo *et al.*, 2008). Determining whether the division of labour hypothesis is a general
292 explanation of the functional significance of heteranthy awaits empirical confirmation in
293 other lineages.

294 The division of labour hypothesis predicts that heteranthy should occur in species in
295 which pollen is the only reward for pollinators. Table S1 indicates that the main pollinators of
296 families with heterantherous species are insects, especially bees. Our finding that
297 heterantherous species occur in families in which nectaries are entirely absent, or have been
298 lost in some groups, also suggests an important role for pollen as the sole floral reward.
299 However, some heterantherous species (*e.g. Haemodorum* and *Schiekia*, Haemodoraceae)
300 produce floral nectar. It would be interesting to determine if pollinators in these groups
301 specialize in exploiting different rewards.

302 A recent theoretical investigation demonstrated that heteranthy evolves when
303 pollinators remove more pollen than should be provided in exchange for pollination services
304 (Vallejo-Marín *et al.*, 2009). A pre-condition for the evolution of heteranthy is therefore
305 that pollinators act as pollen thieves. Pollen theft is a phenomenon that has only recently been
306 recognized as an important source of selection on floral strategies (Hargreaves *et al.*, 2009).
307 If poricidal anthers represent a mechanism to reduce the amount of pollen consumed by
308 pollinators (Buchmann, 1983), then the evolution of heteranthy in buzz-pollinated clades
309 may represent the escalation of male strategies that influence pollen dispensing and reduce

310 pollen consumption. Determining the function of anther dimorphism in a broader sample of
311 taxa will shed light on whether heteranthery indeed has evolved as a response to similar
312 selective pressures or has multiple functions among different groups.

313 **Why is heteranthery rare?**

314 Heteranthery is dispersed across a wide diversity of angiosperm families, but with the
315 exception of Fabaceae and Melastomataceae both of which contain numerous heterantherous
316 species, it is relatively uncommon. Why is heteranthery rare given the abundance of pollen
317 collecting bees and nectarless flowers? According to the division of labour hypothesis, if
318 heteranthery serves to reduce the amount of pollen consumed by pollinators enabling more
319 pollen to engage in fertilization, then heteranthery should often be selectively favoured in
320 nectarless species. However, several factors may constrain the evolution of heteranthery.

321 First, it is possible that pollen-consuming pollinators collect pollen that would otherwise be
322 lost from the fertilization process (Harder & Wilson, 1998). In this scenario, excess pollen
323 consumption may not be detrimental to plant fitness and thus there is no selection for anther
324 specialization and dimorphism. Second, for division of labour to drive the evolution of anther
325 dimorphism requires that changes in the placement of pollen on the pollinator's body result in
326 differences in pollen being either consumed or reaching a stigma. If the pollinator's body
327 cannot be successfully partitioned in this manner then heteranthery may not evolve.

328 Pollinators of sufficient size, relative to the flower, may be required to allow for
329 specialization of anther function. Limited availability of sites for pollen placement may
330 constrain the ability to partition the pollinator's body among closely related species, thus
331 disfavoring diversification through sexual specialization. Finally, anther dimorphism
332 requires differentiation of developmental pathways and it is possible that in some groups

333 developmental or genetic constraints may limit the capacity for organ differentiation within
334 anther whorls. The genetic and developmental basis of floral form in heterantherous species
335 is not well understood and this is an area that would repay future attention.

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451 **Figure legends**

452 **Figure 1.** Floral morphology and anther differentiation in two heterantherous species of
453 *Solanum* (Solanaceae). Heteranthery has evolved multiple independent times in *Solanum*, a
454 genus of ca. 1500 species and characterizes all species in the small Section *Androceras*
455 illustrated here. (a) *S. citrullifolium*, (b) *S. rostratum*. The left-hand side and central panels
456 show lateral and front views of the flowers. Notice the difference in degree of zygomorphism
457 of the corolla in these two species. The right-hand side panels show the strong dimorphism in
458 the size, colour and shape of anthers. PA: pollinating anther; FA: feeding anthers; s: style.

459

460 **Figure 2.** Phylogenetic relationships among families containing heterantherous species.
461 Characters associated with heteranthery are shown with shaded circles for each family. For
462 classification of character states see text. Black circles denote presence and white circles
463 absence of the following traits: heteranthery (H), poricidal anthers (P), enantiostyly (E). In
464 the case of nectaries (N), black circles denote presence and white circles represent either
465 absence in the entire family or a polymorphic state, i.e. nectaries have been lost in some
466 species. Family names and phylogenetic relationships follow APG III.

467

468

469 **Table 1.** Phylogenetic tests of correlated evolution between heteranthery and the following
 470 three traits: poricidal anthers, enantiostyly (mirror-image flowers) and nectaries. For each
 471 pair of traits two models were compared, one in which the two traits evolve independently of
 472 each other (independent model) and the other in which the transitions among character states
 473 in one trait are dependent on the character state of the other trait (dependent model). *P*-values
 474 are shown in parenthesis and are based on a Chi-square distribution with 4 d.f. To account for
 475 uncertainty in phylogenetic reconstruction, likelihood ratios and *P*-value were calculated for
 476 each of 1000 trees representing random resolutions of polytomous branches in the original
 477 phylogeny.

478

Comparison	Log likelihood independent model	Log likelihood dependent model	Likelihood ratio	LR range in 1000 trees sample
Heteranthery vs. poricidal anthers	-224.31	-199.57	49.47 (<0.001)	47.59-52.60 (<0.001)
Heteranthery vs. enantiostyly	-110.23	-97.46	25.43 (<0.001)	25.24-27.57 (<0.001)
Heteranthery vs. nectaries	-287.96	-281.96	12.19 (<0.05)	11.37-13.27 (<0.05)

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