

# Phylogenetic analysis of the “ECE” (CYC/TB1) clade reveals duplications predating the core eudicots

Dianella G. Howarth<sup>†</sup> and Michael J. Donoghue<sup>†</sup>

Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, Yale University, P.O. Box 208106, New Haven, CT 06520-8106

Contributed by Michael J. Donoghue, April 7, 2006

**Flower symmetry is of special interest in understanding angiosperm evolution and ecology. Evidence from the Antirrhineae (snapdragon and relatives) indicates that several TCP gene-family transcription factors, especially *CYCLOIDEA* (*CYC*) and *DICHOTOMA* (*DICH*), play a role in specifying dorsal identity in the corolla and androecium of monosymmetric (bilateral) flowers. Studies of rosid and asterid angiosperms suggest that orthologous TCP genes may be important in dorsal identity, but there has been no broad phylogenetic context to determine copy number or orthology. Here, we compare published data from rosids and asterids with newly collected data from ranunculids, caryophyllids, Saxifragales, and Asterales to ascertain the phylogenetic placement of major duplications in the “ECE” (*CYC/TB1*) clade of TCP transcription factors. Bayesian analyses indicate that there are three major copies of “CYC” in the ECE clade, and that duplications leading to these copies predate the core eudicots. *CYC1* contains no subsequent duplications and may not be expressed in floral tissue. *CYC3* exhibits similar patterns of duplication to *CYC2* in several groups. Using RT-PCR, we show that, in flowers of *Lonicera morrowii* (Caprifoliaceae), *DipsCYC2B* is expressed in the four dorsal petals and not in the ventral petal. *DipsCYC3B* is expressed in flower and petal primordia, possibly most strongly in the ventral petal.**

*CYCLOIDEA* | ECE clade | floral symmetry | gene duplication | TCP

Small changes in the molecular mechanisms of floral development can give rise to a vast array of different morphologies that potentially affect reproductive strategies and plant evolution. Increasing knowledge of candidate genes is facilitating research in this area. Studies of MADS-box genes, for instance, have led to a well supported model for specification of floral organ identity (1–3). The symmetry of floral organs, however, is less well understood. Shifts in the symmetry of flowers between polysymmetry (actinomorphy, radial symmetry) and monosymmetry (zygomorphy, bilateral symmetry) have been common within angiosperms (4–6), with much study focused on the sympetalous asterids (7–12). Such morphological shifts are of special interest in relation to pollination (e.g., see ref. 13) and perhaps to rates of speciation (14).

Understanding of the evolution of floral symmetry has been greatly advanced by the study of three transcription factors from two gene families: the TCP family [including *CYCLOIDEA* (*CYC*) (15)] and the MYB family [including *DIVARICATA* (16, 17) and *RADIALIS* (18, 19)]. *CYC*, the most thoroughly studied to date, has been shown to be involved in specifying dorsal, or adaxial, flower identity (15, 17, 20). Work thus far has shown that both *CYC* (in *Antirrhinum majus*) and its putative ortholog, TCP1 (in *Arabidopsis thaliana*), are expressed dorsally (15, 20, 21).

*CYC* has been well characterized in *A. majus* (snapdragon). It is a member of the TCP gene family, coined from the conserved basic helix–loop–helix (bHLH) TCP domain found in TEOSINTE BRANCHED1 (*TB1*) in *Zea mays*, *CYC* in *A. majus*, and the proliferating cell factor (PCF) DNA-binding proteins of *Oryza sativa*. Two closely related copies, *CYC* and *DICH* (*DICHOTOMA*), occur within the Antirrhineae (22), which includes snapdragon. In *A. majus* and *Mohavea* [both nested within *Antirrhinum* (23)], *CYC* and *DICH* have overlapping

expression patterns in floral meristems (15, 20, 24), and, at least in *Antirrhinum*, a fully radial and ventralized flower (a peloric form) is produced only in *CYC/DICH* double mutants (15, 17). Although there is partial redundancy in function, they do differ slightly in the timing of expression (20). Additionally, *CYC* and *DICH* both inhibit stamen growth in *A. majus*, with expression in stamen primordia resulting in abortion (15, 20).

The TCP gene family is diverse, with a complement of 24 copies found in *Arabidopsis* (refs. 8 and 25, as well as Fig. 1A). This family includes the PCF genes, first described in rice, which control cell growth. The PCF subfamily are easily distinguished from members of the other subfamily, *CYC/TB1*, by differences in the length and sequence of the TCP domain (26). A subset of the *CYC/TB1* subfamily has an additional conserved arginine rich “R domain” (26). However, it seems that the R domain originated independently in two separate clades (8). One of these clades, which we call the “ECE” clade (Fig. 1), includes both *TB1* and *CYC/DICH* (as well as TCP1, -12, and -18 from *Arabidopsis*) and is the clade we focus on in this study. ECE refers to a conserved short motif (glutamic acid–cysteine–glutamic acid) between the TCP and R domains that we have found in most members of this clade (27). The remaining members of the TCP gene family are either suspected to function outside of the flower or do not function in dorsal/ventral patterning (8, 26). Within the ECE clade, only *CYC/DICH* and their apparent orthologs in other species have been assayed for expression, leaving open the possibility that there are other closely related genes that could be important in dorsal/ventral patterning. Little is known about the occurrence or the phylogenetic location of major duplications in the ECE clade of TCP genes, and therefore orthology is difficult to assess, especially in non-model organisms.

Duplications in *CYC*-like genes and their apparent orthologs have been common in core eudicots (7, 22, 28–33). Additionally, our recent work on the angiosperm clade Dipsacales (27) demonstrated that three major copies of *CYC*-like genes (*DipsCYC1*, -2, and -3) were present in the ancestor of that group, and that several additional duplication events then occurred within this clade (Fig. 1B). These duplications fell within the ECE clade; however, it could not be determined from studying Dipsacales alone whether they greatly predated the origin of this clade or perhaps took place in the lineage immediately subtending the Dipsacales (Fig. 1B). The aim of the present study was to locate the phylogenetic position of these duplication events by using available data and additional sequences we generated from across the eudicots. The resulting ECE gene tree would also provide a framework within which to conduct targeted studies of *CYC* and related genes and thereby obtain a better understanding of the role of these genes in the evolution of flower symmetry.

Conflict of interest statement: No conflicts declared.

Abbreviation: PCF, proliferating cell factor.

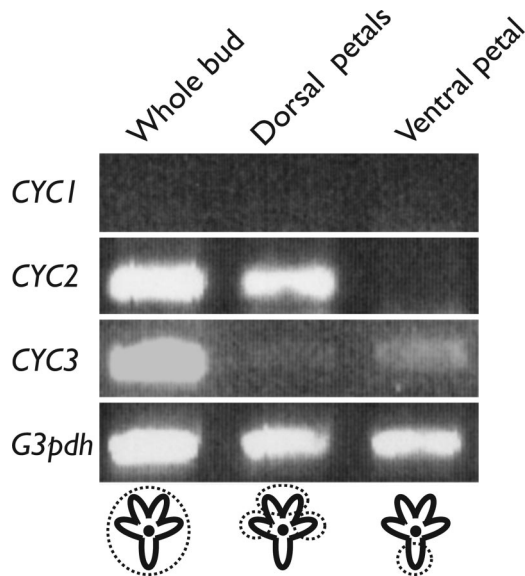
Data deposition: The sequences reported in this paper have been deposited in the GenBank database (accession nos. DQ462258–DQ462275).

<sup>†</sup>To whom correspondence may be addressed. E-mail: dianella.howarth@yale.edu or michael.donoghue@yale.edu.

© 2006 by The National Academy of Sciences of the USA







**Fig. 3.** Image of agarose gel electrophoresis of cDNA from *L. morrowii* flowers. CYC1 indicates expression of *DipsCYC1*, CYC2 indicates expression of *DipsCYC2B*, and CYC3 indicates expression of *DipsCYC3B*. *G3pdh* is included as a control. Bird's-eye view of flower is included showing the differentiation between the four dorsal petals and the single ventral petal. Dotted circles indicate the portions of the flower used in each RNA extraction.

CYC3 contains a separate ECE-type copy from *Antirrhinum* as well as TCP12 from *Arabidopsis*. Until this study, expression data had not been obtained for any members of this clade. Duplications within the CYC3 clade are similar to those within CYC2. For instance, in Dipsacales, it seems that duplications in CYC2 and CYC3 occur in the same places in the phylogeny of Caprifoliaceae, and additional parallel duplications occur within Morinaceae (27). Our data also indicate a duplication in *Scaevola* (Asterales) in both CYC2 and CYC3. Other groups have not yet been sampled as thoroughly, so it is unclear whether such mirrored duplications are common. In addition to rosids and asterids, the CYC3 clade contains sequences from *Polygonum* (Caryophyllids). *Polygonum* does not seem to be duplicated in this gene clade; however, we may have failed to amplify all copies in this case.

**Importance of Other Copies.** A few CYC studies have sequenced outlier sequences, which did not clearly fit in the CYC2 clade (7, 30, 31). Our analyses clarify the position of these outlier (non-CYC2) copies within the ECE gene tree (Fig. 2). This phylogeny should foster more targeted studies of these copies and what role they may play in flower development.

Our data indicate that the single ECE copy found in monocots, magnoliids, and ranunculids duplicated into three separate copies near the divergence of the core eudicots. TB1, the single copy from *Zea*, is expressed across the entire floral meristem, differing from the known CYC2 expression in *Antirrhinum*. Yet, as with CYC2, TB1 expression is correlated with suppression in stamen primordia (38, 39). TB1, however, is most similar to genes in the CYC1 clade, expression of which we have been unable to detect in *Lonicera* flower buds. The CYC3 clade was unrecognized until this study, with the expression patterns and function of CYC3 genes unknown. Our preliminary data from RT-PCR of *DipsCYC3B* (CYC3) in *Lonicera* show that it is also expressed in flowers and, within the petal primordia, is in both the four dorsal petals and the lower single ventral petal (Fig. 3). Differing from the dorsal expression of members of the CYC2 clade, we have seen consistently more amplification of

*DipsCYC3B* in the ventral petal as compared with the dorsal petals at this time point in bud development. Given the preliminary expression pattern of *DipsCYC3B* in *Lonicera* and the close sister relationship between CYC3 and CYC2, genes from the CYC3 clade warrant comparative study for floral patterning and inclusion in studies of floral symmetry pathways.

Basic helix–loop–helix (bHLH) transcription factors, such as the TCP genes, usually function as multimers (40), often binding with other bHLH proteins. In *Oryza*, there is evidence that genes in the CYC/TB1 subfamily form homo- and heterodimers with each other (41). Owing to dosage effects, duplications of interacting gene partners often are maintained together (40, 42, 43). These observations may relate to our finding that duplications in CYC2 in various groups are mirrored by duplications in CYC3. It is possible that members of CYC2 and CYC3 interact in areas of coexpression, and members of CYC3 certainly bear close attention from a functional standpoint.

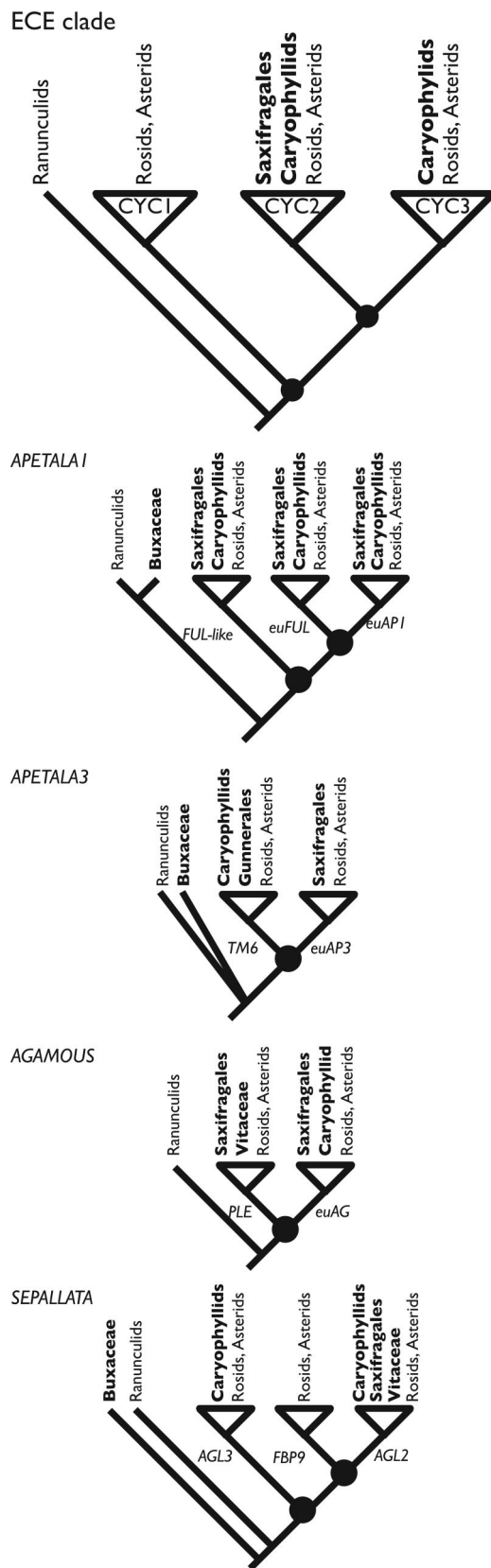
**Comparison with MADS-box Genes.** Our analyses show that the duplications leading to the three major ECE gene clades that we found previously in Dipsacales (27) took place deep within angiosperm phylogeny, after the origin of the eudicots but before the evolution of the core eudicots. It is possible that these major duplication events played an important role in connection with the major changes in flower form that mark the core eudicot clade. Most importantly, perhaps, flowers of the core eudicots (excluding Gunnerales) are based on a pentamerous ground plan, as opposed to the dimerous ground plan that characterizes the basal eudicots (44, 45). The switch to pentamery entails the establishment of differentiation of dorsal and ventral portions of the flower in relation to the axis on which they are borne.

Our findings on CYC evolution provide a remarkable complement to recent studies of MADS-box genes (Fig. 4). It seems that members from each of the major functional categories of the ABC model of floral MADS-box genes [*APETALA1* (*API*, A class), *APETALA3* (*AP3*, B class), *AGAMOUS* (*AG*, C class), and *SEPALLATA*] underwent a duplication in a similar location near the base of the core eudicots (46–50). Our data from the ECE clade, a separate major family of transcription factors involved in floral development, show the same pattern (Fig. 4).

Unfortunately, taxon sampling is currently too limited in all of these cases to pinpoint whether these duplications really did occur at the same point in eudicot phylogeny. However, it is worth considering the possibility that these events were tightly correlated with one another and with the major changes in floral organization that occurred during this key period in angiosperm evolution. It is possible that there was a genome-wide duplication at this point, which may have provided the opportunity for functional specialization of the resulting gene copies and therefore for major changes in flower morphology. Based on analyses of gene order (51) and synonymous substitution rate (52), a genome duplication event has been hypothesized before the evolution of the clade including rosids and asterids, but after the split from monocots. Only when we achieve a more complete and comparable sampling will it be possible to evaluate the extent to which these gene duplications actually corresponded in time and fueled a major transition in floral form.

## Materials and Methods

**Plant Material.** Sequences from 30 individuals were used in all analyses, consisting of 12 taxa from our previous work in Dipsacales; 11 published taxa from multiple asterid and rosid clades; and sequences obtained for this study (from extracted total genomic DNAs) from 7 taxa representing the ranunculids, Saxifragales, caryophyllids, and Asterales. Multiple copies found in many of these species resulted in a total of 82 separate sequences. (Table 1, which is published as supporting informa-



**Fig. 4.** Phylogenies of floral MADS-box genes and the ECE clade, comparing the phylogenetic location of duplications. Each hypothesized duplication is indicated by a black dot. Non-rosid or -asterid eudicots are shown in bold. Trees of *APETALA1*, *APETALA3*, *AGAMOUS*, and *SEPALLATA* are modified from refs. 47–50, respectively.

tion on the PNAS web site, provides a list of included taxa and GenBank accession numbers.)

**Primer Design and Amplification from Additional Taxa.** All primers were designed in the TCP domain (forward primer) and the R domain (reverse primer). Primers were designed from published and our amplified TCP genes (see ref. 27 for a full list). Multiple primer pairs were used for each taxon. PCR and cloning were performed as described (27). Between 10 and 40 (depending on cloning success) colonies were screened for all potentially different copies or alleles of *CYC*-like genes. Cloned products of the appropriate size (200–800 bp) were sequenced.

**Phylogenetic Alignment and Analyses.** All clones from each DNA extraction (obtained from multiple primer pairs) were compiled in SEQUENCHER 4.2 (Gene Codes, Ann Arbor, MI). *CYC*-like genes were determined by the presence of the highly conserved amino acid sequence of the TCP domain. Positive clones were separated into different “types” based on shared differences from other clones, and a consensus sequence was generated for each type. Protein sequences for each potential copy/allele obtained were aligned by eye in MACCLADE 4 (53) to the other published taxa. Nucleotide sequence data from the three alignable regions TCP, ECE, and R were used in subsequent analyses.

Parameters for the Bayesian analyses were estimated by using MODELTEST 3.06 (54). The Akaike Information Criterion (55) recommended a general time reversible (GTR) model with added parameters for invariable sites and a  $\gamma$  distribution (GTR + I +  $\Gamma$ ), for the TCP region alone, the non-TCP region, and the entire sequence. Bayesian analyses were conducted by using this model for the entire matrix. We used the Metropolis-coupled Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMCMC) method as implemented in MRBAYES 3.0B4 (56) to run four chains (3 heated). We ran 5 million generations, sampling every 1,000 generations. The trees were analyzed in TRACER 1.0.1 (<http://evolve.zoo.ox.ac.uk/software.html?id=tracer>) to determine a burn-in of 1 million trees (1,000 sampled trees). A majority rule consensus was calculated from the remaining trees by using PAUP\* 4.0B10 (57) to determine posterior probabilities.

**RT-PCR.** Total RNA was extracted from middle-stage flower buds (after petal edges had been defined but before bud opening) and dissected corolla lobes of *L. morrowii* Gray [voucher housed in the Yale University Herbarium (YU)], a species where there is differentiation between the four dorsal corolla lobes and a single ventral lobe. Frozen tissue was lysed in a FastPrep Instrument (QBiogene, Irvine, CA) and extracted by using the Qiagen (Valencia, CA) RNeasy kit, using the optional DNase step. cDNA was reverse transcribed with SuperScript III by using the manufacturer’s instructions with random hexamers (Invitrogen). Specific primers were used to amplify each of the three copies as follows: *DipsCYC1* [forward (F), 5′-ACCAGAGGCCTYAACTCCAACC-3′; reverse (R), 5′-GCGTTAGCATCRAATGCGATTCTCC-3′]; *DipsCYC2B* (F, 5′-GATGAAAATCAACTGCACTACTGG-3′; R, 5′-AGCATCCCTCTTCTC-GTTCCCAAC-3′); and *DipsCYC3B* (F, 5′-TTGAGRGCYAGGAGGATGAGATTAC-3′; R, 5′-ACTCCCTCGCCTTTC-CCAATTCTC-3′). Each copy was amplified separately from cDNA generated from whole bud, all four dorsal petal lobes, and the single ventral petal lobe. Additionally, a portion of *G3pdh*, which spans 5 exons, was amplified as a positive control. All of the above reactions included initial stock RNA as a negative control to rule out DNA contamination. Each band was confirmed to be from a specific copy through direct sequencing.

We thank the following for gifts of DNA: E. Edwards (University of California, Santa Barbara; *Pereskia* DNA), E. Kramer (Harvard University, Cambridge, MA; *Aquilegia* DNA), S.-T. Kim (Yale Uni-

versity, New Haven, CT; *Polygonum* DNA), S. Mathews (Arnold Arboretum of Harvard University, Cambridge, MA; non-eudicots DNA), and L. Schultheis (Foothill College, Los Altos Hills, CA; *Ribes* DNA). We thank A. Litt for sharing RNA expertise; L. Hileman (University of Kansas, Lawrence) for kindly providing aliquots of initial primer sequences; P. Soltis and E. Kramer for their gracious help with earlier versions of this manuscript; and M. Dunn, E.

Edwards, and members of the M.J.D. laboratory for helpful discussions. D.G.H. is grateful for a Forest B. H. and Elizabeth D. W. Brown Postdoctoral Fellowship from Yale University and for a travel grant from the Molecular and Organismic Research in Plant History (MORPH) Research Coordination Network. The work of M.J.D. on angiosperm phylogeny is supported by a Tree of Life grant from the National Science Foundation.

- Coen, E. S. & Meyerowitz, E. M. (1991) *Nature* **353**, 31–37.
- Pelaz, S., Ditta, G. S., Baumann, E., Wisman, E. & Yanofsky, M. F. (2000) *Nature* **405**, 200–203.
- Honma, T. & Goto, K. (2001) *Nature* **409**, 525–529.
- Endress, P. K. (1999) *Int. J. Plant Sci.* **160**, S3–S23.
- Endress, P. K. (1996) *Diversity and Evolutionary Biology of Tropical Flowers* (Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge, U.K.).
- Weberling, F. (1989) *Morphology of Flowers and Inflorescences* (Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge, U.K.).
- Reeves, P. A. & Olmstead, R. G. (2003) *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **20**, 1997–2009.
- Cubas, P. (2002) in *Developmental Genetics and Plant Evolution*, eds. Cronk, Q. C. B., Bateman, R. & Hawkins, J. (Taylor and Francis, London), pp. 247–266.
- Gillies, A. C. M., Cubas, P., Coen, E. S. & Abbott, R. J. (2002) in *Developmental Genetics and Plant Evolution*, eds. Cronk, Q. C. B., Bateman, R. M. & Hawkins, J. A. (Taylor & Francis, London), pp. 233–246.
- Knapp, S. (2002) in *Developmental Genetics and Plant Evolution*, eds. Cronk, Q. C. B., Bateman, R. M. & Hawkins, J. A. (Taylor & Francis, London), pp. 267–297.
- Ree, R. H. & Donoghue, M. J. (1999) *Syst. Biol.* **48**, 633–641.
- Donoghue, M. J., Ree, R. H. & Baum, D. A. (1998) *Trends Plant Sci.* **3**, 311–317.
- Neal, P. R. (1998) *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* **29**, 345–373.
- Sargent, R. D. (2004) *Proc. R. Soc. London Ser. B* **271**, 603–608.
- Luo, D., Carpenter, R., Vincent, C., Copsey, L. & Coen, E. (1996) *Nature* **383**, 794–799.
- Galego, L. & Almeida, J. (2002) *Genes Dev.* **16**, 880–891.
- Almeida, J., Rocheta, M. & Galego, L. (1997) *Development (Cambridge, U.K.)* **124**, 1387–1392.
- Corley, S. B., Carpenter, R., Copsey, L. & Coen, E. (2005) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **102**, 5068–5073.
- Costa, M. M. R., Fox, S., Hanna, A. I., Baxter, C. & Coen, E. (2005) *Development (Cambridge, U.K.)* **132**, 5093–5101.
- Luo, D., Carpenter, R., Copsey, L., Vincent, C., Clark, J. & Coen, E. (1999) *Cell* **99**, 367–376.
- Cubas, P., Coen, E. & Zapater, J. M. M. (2001) *Curr. Biol.* **11**, 1050–1052.
- Hileman, L. C. & Baum, D. A. (2003) *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **20**, 591–600.
- Oyama, R. K. & Baum, D. A. (2004) *Am. J. Bot.* **91**, 918–925.
- Hileman, L. C., Kramer, E. M. & Baum, D. A. (2003) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **100**, 12814–12819.
- Damerval, C. & Manuel, M. (2003) *C. R. Palevol.* **2**, 241–250.
- Cubas, P., Lauter, N., Doebley, J. & Coen, E. (1999) *Plant J.* **18**, 215–222.
- Howarth, D. G. & Donoghue, M. J. (2005) *Int. J. Plant Sci.* **166**, 357–370.
- Smith, J. F., Hileman, L. C., Powell, M. P. & Baum, D. A. (2004) *Mol. Phylogenet. Evol.* **31**, 765–779.
- Citerne, H. L., Möller, M. & Cronk, Q. C. B. (2000) *Ann. Bot.* **86**, 167–176.
- Citerne, H. L., Luo, D., Pennington, R. T., Coen, E. & Cronk, Q. C. B. (2003) *Plant Physiol.* **131**, 1042–1053.
- Fukuda, T., Yokoyama, J. & Maki, M. (2003) *J. Mol. Evol.* **57**, 588–597.
- Ree, R. H., Citerne, H. L., Lavin, M. & Cronk, Q. C. B. (2004) *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **21**, 321–331.
- Gübitz, T., Caldwell, A. & Hudson, A. (2003) *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **20**, 1537–1544.
- Soltis, D. E., Soltis, P. S., Endress, P. K. & Chase, M. W. (2005) *Phylogeny and Evolution of Angiosperms* (Sinauer, Sunderland, MA).
- Lukens, L. & Doebley, J. (2001) *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **18**, 627–638.
- Endress, P. K. (1992) *Int. J. Plant Sci.* **153**, S106–S122.
- Jaretzky, R. (1928) *Jahrb. Wiss. Bot.* **69**, 357–490.
- Doebley, J., Stec, A. & Hubbard, L. (1997) *Nature* **386**, 485–488.
- Hubbard, L., McSteen, P., Doebley, J. & Hake, S. (2002) *Genetics* **162**, 1927–1935.
- Amoutzias, G. D., Robertson, D. L., Oliver, S. G. & Bornberg-Bauer, E. (2004) *EMBO Reports* **5**, 1–6.
- Kosugi, S. & Ohashi, Y. (2002) *Plant J.* **30**, 337–348.
- Papp, B., Pál, C. & Hurst, L. D. (2003) *Nature* **424**, 194–197.
- Birchler, J. A., Bhadra, U., Pal Bhadra, M. & Auger, D. (2001) *Dev. Biol.* **234**, 275–288.
- Magallon, S., Crane, P. R. & Herendeen, P. S. (1999) *Ann. Mo. Bot. Gard.* **86**, 297–372.
- Soltis, D. E., Sinters, A. E., Zanis, M. J., Kim, S., Thompson, J. D., Soltis, P. S., Ronse De Craene, L. P., Endress, P. K. & Farris, J. S. (2003) *Am. J. Bot.* **90**, 461–470.
- Kramer, E. M. & Hall, J. C. (2005) *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* **8**, 13–18.
- Litt, A. & Irish, V. F. (2003) *Genetics* **165**, 821–833.
- Kim, S., Yoo, M.-J., Albert, V. A., Farris, J. S., Soltis, P. S. & Soltis, D. E. (2004) *Am. J. Bot.* **91**, 2102–2118.
- Kramer, E. M., Jaramillo, M. A. & Di Stilio, V. S. (2004) *Genetics* **166**, 1011–1023.
- Zahn, L. M., Kong, H., Leebens-Mack, J. H., Kim, S., Soltis, P. S., Landherr, L. L., Soltis, D. E., dePamphilis, C. W. & Ma, H. (2005) *Genetics* **169**, 2209–2223.
- Bowers, J. E., Chapman, B. A., Rong, J. & Paterson, A. H. (2003) *Nature* **422**, 433–438.
- De Bodt, S., Maere, S. & Van de Peer, Y. (2005) *Trends Ecol. Evol.* **20**, 591–597.
- Maddison, D. R. & Maddison, W. P. (2003) (Sinauer, Sunderland, MA).
- Posada, D. & Crandall, K. A. (1998) *Bioinformatics* **14**, 817–818.
- Akaike, H. (1973) in *Second International Symposium on Information Theory*, eds. Petrov, B. N. & Csaki, F. (Akademiai Kiado, Budapest), pp. 267–281.
- Huelsenbeck, J. P. & Ronquist, F. (2001) *Bioinformatics* **17**, 754–755.
- Swofford, D. L. (2001) *PAUP\**: Phylogenetic Analysis Using Parsimony (\*and Other Methods) (Sinauer, Sunderland, MA), Version 4.0B10.