1	Heritabilities of lateral and vertical herkogamy in Lysimachia arvensis		
2			
3	Jiménez-López, F. Javier ¹ , Arista, Montserrat ¹ , Talavera, María ¹ , Pannell, John R. ² &		
4	Pedro L. Ortiz ¹		
5			
6			
7	1, Departamento de Biología Vegetal y Ecología, Universidad de Sevilla, Apdo. 1095,		
8	41080 Sevilla, Spain		
9			
10	2, Department of Ecology and Evolution, University of Lausanne, Lausanne CH-1015,		
11	Switzerland		
12			
13			
14	Running title: Heritability of herkogamy in Lysimachia arvensis		
15			
16	Corresponding author: Pedro Luis Ortiz, Departamento de Biología Vegetal y Ecología,		
17	Universidad de Sevilla, Apdo. 1095, 41080 Sevilla, Spain. E-mail: <u>plortiz@us.es</u> . Phone		
18	number: + 954557054		
19			

20

21 ABSTRACT

22

23 Herkogamy, spatial separation between stigma and anthers within a flower, is 24 important in regulating plant-mating system. We studied phenotypic variation and 25 heritability of herkogamy traits in Lysimachia arvensis (=Anagallis arvensis) that shows 26 both lateral and vertical herkogamy in the same flower, a rare strategy in flowering 27 plants. Both lateral and vertical herkogamy showed continuous variation in 15 natural 28 populations. Lateral herkogamy, measured as the angle between style and stamens, 29 ranged from 5.6 to 66.5 degrees; vertical herkogamy ranged from reverse to approach 30 herkogamy. Herkogamy traits were constant within plants but variable among plants 31 and populations. Flowers with marked lateral herkogamy showed mainly reverse 32 herkogamy, while flowers with low lateral herkogamy showed mainly approach 33 herkogamy. Both herkogamy traits showed a high degree of narrow sense heritability 34 $(h^2=0.843$ for lateral and $h^2=0.635$ for vertical herkogamy). We discuss the possibility 35 that variation in both herkogamy traits among populations of L. arvensis is a 36 consequence of differential selective pressures under different pollination 37 environments. 38 39 Keywords: Anagallis, approach herkogamy, floral trait evolution, Primulaceae, reverse

40 herkogamy

41

2

42

44

43 INTRODUCTION

45 Herkogamy is the spatial separation between stigma and anthers within a 46 hermaphrodite flower (Webb & Lloyd, 1986) and appears in both self-incompatible 47 and self-compatible species. In self-incompatible species, herkogamy reduces 48 interference between sexual organs, e.g., preventing stigma clogging and improving 49 pollen export (Webb & Lloyd, 1986). In self-compatible species, herkogamy may also 50 play an important role in preventing self-fertilization (Webb & Lloyd, 1986). Diverse 51 studies have shown that small differences in herkogamy result in different rates of self-52 pollen deposition (e.g. Ritland & Ritland, 1989; Robertson et al., 1994; Karron et al., 53 1997; Motten & Stone, 2000). Increased herkogamy can be selected in environments 54 in which cross-pollination is favoured, e.g. to prevent selfing and inbreeding 55 depression. In contrast, in environments in which pollinators or mates are limited, 56 reduced herkogamy may be favoured by selection for reproductive assurance (e.g. 57 Moeller & Geber, 2005; de Vos et al., 2012).

58

59 The precise modality of stigma-anther separation can take several forms, including 60 vertical and lateral herkogamy. Vertical herkogamy involves a vertical displacement 61 between the stigma and anthers and is by far the most common. Stigma may situate 62 above anthers such that pollinators contact it before pollen, a situation termed 63 approach herkogamy; alternatively, stigma may situate below anthers such that 64 pollinators contact it after pollen, a situation termed reverse herkogamy (Webb & 65 Lloyd, 1986). Approach herkogamy is the most frequent form of vertical herkogamy in 66 self-incompatible species while approach and reverse herkogamy are equally frequent 67 in self-compatible species (Lloyd & Webb, 1992; Opedal et al., 2017). Some plant 68 species show stylar polymorphism, with individuals presenting either approach or 69 reverse herkogamy; the genetic basis of such polymorphism has been studied in some 70 species, revealing the action of one or two major loci (Barrett et al., 2000; Ushijima et 71 al., 2012; Nowak et al., 2015). In other species, styles show continuous variation in 72 height, with flowers ranging from reverse to approach herkogamy (Motten & Stone

73 2000; Takebayashi et al., 2006). Metric traits, as the length of style or the position of 74 stamens, are usually controlled by several loci with small effects (Kulbaba & Worley, 75 2008), and covariation between floral organs is common (e.g., Conner & Sterling 1996; 76 Herrera, 2001). Such continuous covariation could constrain the evolvability of 77 herkogamy (Lande & Arnold, 1983). A much less common type of spatial separation 78 between sexual organs is lateral herkogamy, in which the style is horizontally displaced 79 from the centre of the flower, forming an angle with the stamens. Lateral herkogamy 80 has been described, e.g., in Linum (Ruiz-Martín et al., 2018) and Centaurium (Brys & 81 Jacquemyn, 2011), but as far as we are aware its genetic architecture is unknown.

82 Lysimachia arvensis is a self-compatible species that, unusually, shows both vertical 83 and lateral herkogamy. Flowers show lateral herkogamy during their first day of 84 opening, but their styles subsequently move to a central position, showing vertical 85 herkogamy on their second day (Jiménez-López et al., pers. obs.). The consecutive 86 expression of two types of herkogamy in the same flower is uncommon and could 87 represent a two-step barrier to self-pollination. Lysimachia arvensis is widely 88 distributed, occurring both in stable habitats with a favourable pollination 89 environment and in disturbed places where the pollination environment may be 90 unfavourable and/or unpredictable. If herkogamy regulates the probability of self-91 pollen deposition, variation in herkogamy might thus reflect variation in outcrossing 92 opportunities (e.g. Takebayashi et al., 2006; Herlihy & Eckert, 2007). On the other 93 hand, variation in the expression of herkogamy might simply reflect developmental 94 instability (Dongen, 2000; Debat & David, 2001) or low trait canalization (Waddington, 95 1942; Debat & David, 2001). Either way, knowledge of its genetic architecture, 96 specifically its narrow-sense heritability, would be a useful first step towards 97 understanding the potential for herkogamy to evolve in response to selection. Our 98 study thus aimed to determine the heritability of both lateral and vertical components 99 of herkogamy in Lysimachia arvensis, as well as to characterize other correlations 100 between floral traits.

101

102 MATERIAL AND METHODS

103 Lysimachia arvensis (L.) U. Manns & Anderb. (former Anagallis arvensis L.; Manns & 104 Anderberg, 2009) is an annual plant native to the Mediterranean Basin but widely 105 distributed around the world. The species is polymorphic in flower colour, with some 106 plants producing blue flowers and other red flowers (Arista et al., 2013). Flowers last 107 two or three days. Anther opening occurs during the first anthesis day and the stigma 108 is receptive throughout the life span of the flower. During 2015 and 2016, we sampled 109 15 natural populations of *L. arvensis* in a wide geographical range during the peak of 110 flowering (Appendix 1). In each population, we randomly collected between ten and 111 30 plants and measured herkogamy traits for two flowers per plant. Moreover, we 112 studied floral variation within maternal families growing in a common glasshouse. In 113 one population from Huelva (SW Spain; 37°17'31"N 6°22'43"W), seeds were collected 114 in 2016 from a single fruit of each of eight individuals that were separated in the 115 population by at least 5 m. Seeds were allowed to germinate in a growth chamber, and 116 the resulting plant families were raised in a glasshouse. We chose a single parent plant 117 per family and measured its two herkogamy traits. Each such parent was hand-118 pollinated, either with pollen from another parent, or with its own pollen. Fruits 119 resulting from each female-male parent combination were separately collected, and 120 seeds were sown to obtain offspring families. Herkogamy traits were measured in 121 2017 for 6 to 16 offspring per family.

122 Herkogamy measurements were taken from fresh flowers, starting their first day of 123 anthesis, based on photographs taken directly in the glasshouse. From these images, 124 the two components of herkogamy were measured using ImageJ software. Lateral 125 herkogamy was measured as the angle between style and stamens (hereafter 'style-126 stamen angle'; Fig. 1). To characterize approach or reverse herkogamy, we measured 127 stamen length (from flower base to anther centre) and pistil length (from flower base 128 to stigma centre; Fig. 1); approach or reverse herkogamy was then calculated as the 129 difference between pistil and stamen lengths, which would be equivalent to final 130 separation between anthers and stigma (hereafter 'stigma-anther displacement'). 131 Variation in herkogamy traits among populations and plants was tested by means of

132 general linear models (GLM), with population treated as a main effect and plant

133 nested in population. Gaussian distributions were used to analyse both lateral and 134 vertical herkogamy, and analyses were conducted using GLzM module of SPSS (IBM 135 SPSS Statistic 24, USA) with Type III test. Pearson correlations between pistil and 136 stamen lengths, stigma-anther displacement and style-stamen angle were calculated 137 for the flowers measured in the field. To determine whether herkogamy traits were 138 constant within plants, we performed Pearson correlations between the herkogamy 139 values obtained in the two flowers of each plant sampled in the field. Heritability of 140 each herkogamy trait was estimated for the plants growing in glasshouse by regressing 141 values of offspring families on mean values of each trait of their parents; the slope of 142 the line of best-fit is an estimate of heritability (h²; e.g. Lennartsson et al., 2000).

143

144 RESULTS

Flowers of *Lysimachia arvensis* display two types of herkogamy that change sequentially throughout their life span. The first day of opening, all the flowers showed lateral herkogamy and the anthers were longitudinally placed in relation to stamen filament opening towards the inner of the flower (Fig. 1). During the second day of opening, the style had moved upright, and the anthers were transversally placed in relation to the stamen filament (Fig. 1). In flowers lasting three days, vertical herkogamy did not change from the second day of anthesis.

152 In plants measured in the field, mean pistil length was 2.53 mm and mean stamen 153 length was 2.50 mm (n = 600). Style-stamen angle ranged from 5.6 to 66.5 degrees, 154 with a mean of 28.6 (n = 600) while stigma-anther displacement ranged from negative 155 to positive values (mean 0.03, n = 600; Fig. 2). These four traits were significantly 156 correlated (Fig. 3). Style-stamen angle was negatively correlated with both pistil and 157 stamen length, while stigma-anther displacement was positively correlated with both 158 traits. The two herkogamy traits were almost identical within plants, with Pearson 159 correlations for both traits between pairs of flowers of the same plant being very high: 160 r = 0.939 (p < 0.0001, n = 300) for style-stamen angle; r = 0.885 (p < 0.0001, n = 300) 161 for stigma-anther displacement. Style-stamen angle and stigma-anther displacement

- 162 showed significant variation among populations (Wald-chi square = 429.19, 14 df, p <
- 163 0.001 for lateral and Wald-chi square = 509.42, 14 df, p < 0.001 for vertical herkogamy)
- and plants (Wald-chi square = 9529.88, 283 df, p < 0.001 for lateral and Wald-chi
- square = 4310.46, 283 df, p < 0.001 for vertical herkogamy).
- 166 For plants coming from a single population and grown in the glasshouse, pistil length
- 167 ranged from 0.90 to 2.80 mm (mean = 2.46, SD = 0.21, n = 96) and stamen length
- 168 between 2.11 2.72 mm (mean = 2.36, SD = 0.15, n = 96). Style-stamen angle ranged
- 169 from 12.56 40.71 degrees, with a mean angle of 25.38 degrees (SD = 6.89, n = 96)
- 170 while stigma-anther displacement ranged from -0.06 to 0.42 mm with a mean 0.1 mm
- 171 (SD = 0.1, n = 96). Heritabilities calculated in terms of offspring-parent regressions
- 172 were significant for pistil length ($F_{1, 95}$ = 306.42, p < 0.0001), stamen length ($F_{1, 95}$ =
- 173 328.09, p < 0.0001), style-stamen angle (F_{1, 95} = 230.98, p < 0.0001; Fig. 4) and stigma-
- anther displacement ($F_{1, 95}$ = 63.68, p < 0.0001; Fig. 4). Narrow-sense heritability (h^2)
- 175 was high for all the traits: 0.875 for pistil length, 0.882 for stamen length, 0.843 for
- 176 lateral herkogamy and 0.635 for vertical herkogamy.
- 177

178 DISCUSSION

179 *Lysimachia arvensis* displays two types of herkogamy that show continuous variation. 180 The first day of opening, all the flowers observed showed lateral herkogamy, although 181 in some cases the angle between the style and the stamens was as little as 5.6 182 degrees. However, in the second day of opening, the style had moved upright, and 183 flowers showed wide and continuous variation in vertical herkogamy, ranging from 184 reverse to approach herkogamy, and including flowers with their stigma and anthers at 185 the same level. Both herkogamy traits showed a high variation among plants, as has 186 been found in other species (e.g., Luijten et al., 1999; Lennartsson et al., 2000; Herlihy 187 & Eckert, 2007). Although we do not yet know the role of approach and reverse 188 herkogamy in self-pollination in *L. arvensis*, flowers without vertical herkogamy are 189 certainly able to self-pollinate autonomously (Jiménez-López, unpub. data). Thus, 190 during their first day of opening, flowers of L. arvensis are more likely to be

191 outcrossed, but those that do not show vertical herkogamy may show delayed self-

192 pollination. Such delayed selfing is likely to be adaptive in an annual plant by

193 conferring reproductive assurance in the absence of mates or pollinators (Kalisz &

194 Vogler, 2003; Kalisz et al., 2004).

195 The lengths of pistil and stamens in *L. arvensis* were strongly correlated, i.e., flowers 196 with longer pistils also had longer stamens. Both sexual organs also showed a positive 197 correlation with vertical herkogamy, although variation in the stigma-anther 198 displacement depended mainly on variation in pistil length. As indicated by the 199 coefficients of determination (r²), the length of the pistil was responsible for 51.2% of 200 variation in stigma-anther displacement (Fig. 3B), while the length of the stamen was 201 responsible for only 2.9% (Fig. 3D). That is, vertical herkogamy is mainly a consequence 202 of variation in pistil length, and this may suggest that the correlation between sexual 203 organs does not constrain the evolution of this trait in response to selective pressures 204 (Ushimaru & Nakata, 2002). A similar result has been found for other taxa with 205 continuous variation in vertical herkogamy, such as Mimulus (Kleunen & Ritland, 206 2004), Aquilegia (Herlihy & Eckert, 2007) and Polemonium (Kulbaba & Worley, 2008), 207 as well as in species with stylar polymorphisms (e.g., Barrett et al., 2000). In contrast 208 with vertical herkogamy, sexual organs showed a negative correlation with lateral 209 herkogamy. Although the style-stamen angle does not necessarily depend on the 210 lengths of the sexual organs, in *L. arvensis* this does appear to be the case. This implies 211 that flowers with marked lateral herkogamy show mainly reverse vertical herkogamy, 212 whereas flowers with low lateral herkogamy show mainly approach vertical 213 herkogamy, as shown by the negative correlation between both herkogamy traits. 214 Lysimachia arvensis only offers pollen as a reward, and bees grab the anthers to collect 215 pollen, landing either directly on the anthers or on the petals and going quickly to the 216 anthers. Thus, in flowers of *L. arvensis* with lateral herkogamy pollinators would 217 contact the anthers before the stigma in most visits, which makes lateral herkogamy 218 functionally similar to reverse vertical herkogamy. It would be interesting to determine 219 the relative role of each herkogamy trait in preventing self-pollination, and whether 220 they act synergistically.

221 Herkogamy traits were very similar within plants, as suggested by the strong 222 correlations between the two measured flowers of each plant. This indicates that 223 variation in herkogamy traits is unlikely to be a consequence of developmental 224 instability (Dongen, 2000; Debat & David, 2001) and suggests strong broad-sense 225 heritability. In fact, regressions of progeny on parent traits showed a high degree of 226 narrow-sense heritability for both lateral and vertical herkogamy. Heritability of 227 vertical herkogamy has been shown in numerous species, ranging from 0.30 to 0.85 228 (e.g., Luijten et al., 1999; Lennartsson et al., 2000; Kleunen & Ritland, 2004; Kulbaba & 229 Worley, 2008): our estimate (h^2 =0.635) is towards the high end of variation 230 documented among species studied to date. Heritability of the lateral herkogamy 231 (h²=0.843) was even higher than that of vertical herkogamy. Heritability estimates for 232 lateral herkogamy are much less frequent in the literature and, to our knowledge, our 233 estimate seems to be the first.

234 In summary, our results indicate that both herkogamy traits in L. arvensis are 235 phenotypically variable and have a high degree of heritability. If we assume that 236 herkogamy affects self-pollen deposition as happens in other studied species (e.g. 237 Barrett & Shore, 1987; Kalisz & Vogler, 2003; Kalisz et al., 2004; Takebayashi et al., 238 2006), differences in pollination environment can select for different herkogamy traits. 239 Lysimachia arvensis is a widely distributed species that occurs mainly in ruderal 240 environments where pollinator availability is very variable. In fact, marked differences 241 in pollinator attendance has been previously reported, with some populations of 242 Southern Spain receiving very few visits (Gibbs & Talavera, 2001), others being visited 243 by solitary bees (Ortiz et al., 2015) or other populations from Germany receiving visits 244 from Bombus terrestris (Raine & Chittka, 2007). Thus, the variation in herkogamy traits 245 found among populations could be a consequence of differential selective pressures by 246 pollinators. Differences in pollinator attendance between colour morphs have also 247 been reported, with the blue flowered morph receiving more visits than the red 248 flowered morph (Ortiz et al., 2015). Although we have not measured differences in 249 herkogamy traits between colour morphs, it is tempting to speculate a lower 250 herkogamy expression in the less visited morph to increase reproductive assurance.

251 Either way, knowing how each herkogamy trait prevents self-pollen deposition in *L*.

252 *arvensis* would be crucial to understand their evolution.

- 253
- 254

255 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

256 This work was supported by FEDER funds and grants from the Spanish MINECO

257 (CGL2012-33270; CGL2015-63827) to M.A. and P.L.O. and to F.J. J-L. (BES-2013-

258 062859) and from the Swiss National Science Foundation and the University of

259 Lausanne to J.R. Pannell. The authors thank Servicios Generales de Herbario e

260 Invernadero de la Universidad de Sevilla.

261

262

264

263 REFERENCES

- Arista M., Talavera M., Berjano R. & Ortiz P. L. (2013) Abiotic factors may explain the
 geographical distribution of flower colour morphs and the maintenance of colour
- 267 polymorphism in the scarlet pimpernel. *Journal of Ecology* **101**: 1613–1622.
- Barrett S. C., Jesson L. K. & Baker A. M. (2000) The evolution and function of stylar
 polymorphisms in flowering plants. *Annals of Botany* 85: 253–265.

270 Barrett S. C. H. & Shore J. S. (1987) Variation and evolution of breeding systems in the

- 271 *Turnera ulmifolia* L. complex (Turneraceae). *Evolution* **41**: 340-354.
- 272 Brys R. & Jacquemyn H. (2011) Variation in the functioning of autonomous self-
- pollination, pollinator services and floral traits in three *Centaurium* species. *Annals*of Botany **107**: 917–925.

275 Conner J. K. & Sterling A. (1996) Selection for independence of floral and vegetative

traits: evidence from correlation patterns in five species. *Canadian Journal of Botany* 74: 642–644.

- de Vos J. M., Keller B., Isham S. T., Kelso S. & Conti E. (2012) Reproductive implications
- 279 of herkogamy in homostylous primroses: variation during anthesis and reproductive
- assurance in alpine environments. *Functional Ecology* **26**: 854–865.

- 281 Debat V. & David P. (2001) Mapping phenotypes: canalization, plasticity and
- developmental stability. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* **16**: 555-561.
- 283 Dongen V. (2000) The evolutionary potential of developmental instability. *Journal of*

284 *Evolutionary Biology*, **13**: 326-335.

- 285 Gibbs P. E. & Talavera S. (2001) Breeding system studies with three species of Anagallis
- 286 (Primulaceae): self-incompatibility and reduced female fertility in *A. monelli* L.
- 287 Annals of Botany **88**: 139-144.
- Herlihy C. R. & Eckert C. G. (2007) Evolutionary analysis of a key floral trait in *Aquilegia canadensis* (Ranunculaceae): genetic variation in herkogamy and its effect on the
 mating system. *Evolution* 61: 1661–1674.
- Herrera J. (2001) The variability of organs differentially involved in pollination, and
- 292 correlations of traits in Genisteae (Leguminosae: Papilionoideae). *Annals of Botany*293 88: 1027–1037.
- Kalisz S. & Vogler D. W. (2003) Benefits of autonomous selfing under unpredictable
 pollinator environments. *Ecology* 84: 2928-2942.
- 296 Kalisz S., Vogler D.W. & Hanley K. M. (2004) Context-dependent autonomous self-
- fertilization yields reproductive assurance and mixed mating. *Nature* **430**: 884–887.
- 298 Karron J. D., Jackson R. T., Thumser N. N. & Schlicht S. L. (1997) Outcrossing rates of
- 299 individual *Mimulus ringens* genets are correlated with anther–stigma separation.
- 300 *Heredity* **79**: 365–370.
- 301 Kleunen M. V. & Ritland K. (2004) Predicting evolution of floral traits associated with
- 302 mating system in a natural plant population. *Journal of Evolutionary Biology* **17**:
- 303 1389–1399.
- 304 Kulbaba M. W. & Worley A. C. (2008) Floral design in *Polemonium brandegei*
- 305 (Polemoniaceae): genetic and phenotypic variation under hawkmoth and
- 306 hummingbird pollination. *International Journal of Plant Sciences* **169**: 509–522.
- 307 Lande R. & Arnold S. J. (1983) The measurement of selection on correlated characters.
- 308 *Evolution* **37**: 1210-1226.

- Lennartsson T., Oostermeijer J. G. B., van Dijk J. & den Nijs H. C. (2000) Ecological
- 310 significance and heritability of floral reproductive traits in *Gentianella campestris*
- 311 (Gentianaceae). *Basic and Applied Ecology* **1**: 69–81.
- Lloyd D. G. & Webb C. J. (1992) The Evolution of Heterostyly. In: Barrett S. C. H. (ed).
- 313 *Evolution and Function of Heterostyly.* Monographs on Theoretical and Applied
- 314 Genetics, vol 15. Springer, Berlin, pp. 151-178.
- Luijten S. H., Oostermeijer J. G. B., Ellis-Adam A. C. & den Nijs J. H. C. (1999) Variable
- herkogamy and autofertility in marginal populations of *Gentianella germanica* in
 the Netherlands. *Folia Geobotanica* 34: 483.
- 318 Manns U. & Anderberg A. A. (2009) New combinations and names in Lysimachia
- 319 (Myrsinaceae) for species of Anagallis, Pelletiera and Trientalis. *Willdenowia 39*: 49320 54.
- 321 Moeller D. A. & Geber M. A. (2005) Ecological context of the evolution of self-
- 322 pollination in *Clarkia xantiana*: population size, plant communities, and
- 323 reproductive assurance. *Evolution* **59**: 786–799.
- 324 Motten A. F. & Stone J. L. (2000) Heritability of stigma position and the effect of
- 325 stigma-anther separation on outcrossing in a predominantly self-fertilizing weed,
- 326 Datura stramonium (Solanaceae). American Journal of Botany **87**: 339–347.
- 327 Nowak M. D., Russo G., Schlapbach R., Hu C. N., Lenhard M. & Conti E. (2015) The draft
- 328 genome of *Primula veris* yields insights into the molecular basis of heterostyly.
- 329 *Genome biology* **16**: 12.
- 330 Opedal Ø. H., Bolstad G. H., Hansen T. F., Armbruster W. S. & Pélabon C. (2017) The
- evolvability of herkogamy: Quantifying the evolutionary potential of a composite
- 332 trait. *Evolution* **71**: 1572–1586.
- 333 Ortiz P. L., Berjano R., Talavera M., Rodríguez-Zayas L. & Arista M. (2015) Flower colour
- 334 polymorphism in *Lysimachia arvensis*: How is the red morph maintained in
- 335 Mediterranean environments? Perspectives in Plant Ecology, Evolution and
- 336 *Systematics*, **17**: 142-150.

- 337 Raine N.E. & Chittka L. (2007) The adaptive significance of sensory bias in a foraging
- context: floral colour preferences in the bumblebee *Bombus terrestris*. *PLoS One*, 2,e556.
- 340 Ritland C. & Ritland K. (1989) Variation of sex allocation among eight taxa of the
- 341 *Mimulus guttatus* species complex (Scrophulariaceae). *American Journal of Botany*342 **67**: 1731–1739.
- Robertson A. W., Diaz A. & Macnair M. R. (1994) The quantitative genetics of floral
 characters in *Mimulus guttatus*. *Heredity* 72: 300–311.
- Ruiz-Martín J., Santos-Gally R., Escudero M., Midgley J. J., Pérez-Barrales R. & Arroyo J.
- 346 (2018) Style polymorphism in *Linum* (Linaceae): a case of Mediterranean parallel
- 347 evolution? *Plant Biology* **20**: 100–111.
- 348 Takebayashi N., Wolf D. E. & Delph L. F. (2006) Effect of variation in herkogamy on
- outcrossing within a population of *Gilia achilleifolia*. *Heredity* **96**: 159-165.
- 350 Ushijima K., Nakano R., Bando M., Shigezane Y., Ikeda K., Namba Y., Kume S., Kitabata
- 351 T., Mori H. & Kubo Y. (2012) Isolation of the floral morph-related genes in
- 352 heterostylous flax (*Linum grandiflorum*): the genetic polymorphism and the
- 353 transcriptional and post-transcriptional regulations of the S locus. *The Plant Journal*354 **69**: 317-331.
- 355 Ushimaru A. & Nakata K. (2002) The evolution of flower allometry in selfing species.
- 356 Evolutionary Ecology Research, **4**: 1217-1227.
- Waddington C. H. (1942) Canalization of development and the inheritance of acquired
 characters. *Nature* 150: 563.
- 359 Webb C. J. & Lloyd D. G. (1986) The avoidance of interference between the
- 360 presentation of pollen and stigmas in angiosperms II. Herkogamy. New Zealand
- 361 *Journal of Botany* **24:** 163-178.
- 362

- Figure 1. Schematic representation of flowers of *Lysimachia arvensis* on the first and
 the second day of anthesis, showing the traits measured to characterize herkogamy. A,
 lateral herkogamy; B, approach herkogamy; C, reverse herkogamy.
- 366 367

Figure 2. (A) Frequency distribution of style-stamen angle (degrees) in the first day of
 flower opening and (B) the stigma-anther displacement in the second day of flower
 opening in *Lysimachia arvensis* from 15 natural populations.

371 372

Figure 3. Pearson correlations between floral traits of 15 populations of *Lysimachia arvensis* in the W Europe and N Africa. (A) Pistil/Stamen length, (B) Pistil
length/Stigma-anther displacement, (C) Pistil length/Style-stamen angle, (D) Stamen
length/Stigma-anther displacement (E) Stamen length/Style-stamen angle and (F)
Style-stamen angle/stigma-anther displacement. Sample sizes are 600 in all cases. All
correlations were significant at p < 0.0001.

379 380

Figure 4. Relationships between the style-stamen angle (A) and the anther-stigma

displacement (B) of parent plants of *Lysimachia arvensis* and their offspring derived
 from hand pollinations. Herkogamy values of parent plants were calculated as the

384 mean value between both parents (i.e., mid-parent value).

Appendix 1. Sampled populations of *Lysimachia arvensis* with sample sizes and geographic coordinates.

Locality	Sample	Coordinates
	size	
Portugal. Alentejo. Sines	10	37º57'11''N /8°55'51''W
Portugal. Algarve. Aljezur. Monte Clerigo	27	37°18'35.3"N / 8°48'37.9"W
Portugal. Algarve. Carrapateira	29	37°11'47.4"N 8°54'27.4"W
Spain. Tarragona. Mont-Roig del Camp	22	42°04'43.3"N / 2°09'07.7"E
Spain. Sevilla. Dos Hermanas	30	37°21'09.8"N / 5°56'23.2"W
Spain. Sevilla. Alamillo	30	37°24'46.9"N / 5°59'48.8"W
Spain. Cádiz. Zahara de la Sierra	18	36°49'30.2"N / 5°22'44.9"W
Spain. Cádiz. Zahara de los Atunes	15	36°7'7.0"N / 5°49'58.8"W
Spain. Huelva. Aracena 1	20	37°54'13.3"N / 6°34'08.2"W
Spain. Huelva. Aracena 2	15	37°54'44.8"N / 6°34'08.0"W
Spain. Alicante. Albaida	11	38º48'38.2"N / 0º30'0.0"W
Spain. Alicante. Sierra de Bernia	13	38º40'19.4"N / 0º2'45.8"W
France. Corsica. Solenzara	30	41º51'19.5"N / 9°21'43.67"E
Switzerland. Chéserex. Les Rouges	15	46°24'11.6"N / 6°09'34.8"E
Tunisia. Tabarka	15	36°57'46"N / 8°44'51"E



Figure 1.



Figure 2





Figure 4