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Further progress on the phylogeny of Noctuoidea (Insecta: Lepidoptera) using an expanded gene sample

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Abstract. Major progress has been made recently toward resolving the phylogeny of Noctuoidea, the largest superfamily of Lepidoptera. However, numerous questions and weakly supported nodes remain. In this paper we independently check and extend the main findings of multiple recent authors by performing maximum-likelihood analyses of 5-19 genes (6.7-18.6 kb) in 74 noctuoids representing all the families and a majority of the subfamilies. Our results strongly support the six family system of Zahiri et al., with the former Lymantriidae and Arctiidae subsumed within the huge family Erebidae, and Noctuidae restricted largely to the subfamilies with so-called trifine hindwing venation. Our data also strongly corroborate monophyly of the set of four families with quadrifid forewing venation, to the exclusion of Notodontidae, and removal from the latter of Oenosandridae. Other among-family relationships, however, remain unsettled. Our evidence is equivocal on the position of Oenosandridae, which are sister group to either Notodontidae alone or to all other noctuoids. Like other recent nuclear gene studies, our results also provide no strong support for relationships among the four quadrifid forewing families. In contrast, within families our analyses significantly expand the list of robustly resolved relationships, while introducing no strong conflicts with previous molecular studies. Within Notodontidae, for which we present the largest molecular taxon sample to date, we find strong evidence for polyphyly for some, or all, recent definitions of the subfamilies Thaumetopoeinae, Pygaerinae, Notodontinae and Heterocampinae. Deeper divergences are incompletely resolved but there is strong support for multiple 'backbone' nodes subtending most of the subfamilies studied. Within Erebidae, we find much agreement and no strong conflict with a recent previous study regarding relationships among subfamilies, and somewhat stronger support. Although many questions remain, the two studies together firmly resolve positions for over half the subfamilies. Within Noctuidae, we find no strong conflict with previous molecular studies regarding relationships among subfamilies, but much stronger resolution along the 'backbone' of the phylogeny. Combining information from multiple studies yields strongly resolved positions for most of the subfamilies. Finally, our results strongly suggest that the tribes Pseudeustrotiini and Prodeniini, currently assigned to the largest subfamily, Noctuinae, do not belong there. In sum, our results provide additional corroboration for the main outlines of family-level phylogeny in Noctuoidea, and contribute toward resolving relationships within families.

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Introduction

Noctuoidea (~42 400 species; van Nieukerken et al., 2011), the largest superfamily of Lepidoptera, have long presented difficult phylogenetic problems. Major progress toward solving these has been made in recent years, driven in part by the advent of molecular phylogenetics (Miller, 1991; Weller et al., 1994; Mitchell et al., 1997, 2000, 2006; Kitching & Rawlins, 1998; Fibiger & Lafontaine, 2005; Lafontaine & Fibiger, 2006; Zahiri et al., 2011, 2012, 2013a,2013b; Rota et al., 2016). It is now firmly established that Noctuidae in the broad former sense (e.g. Kitching & Rawlins, 1998), excluding the former Lymantriidae and Arctiidae, are paraphyletic (Weller et al., 1994; Mitchell et al., 2000, 2006; Zahiri et al., 2011). The six-family system of Zahiri et al. (2011), in which the former families Lymantriidae and Arctiidae are subsumed within the huge family Erebidae, and Noctuidae are restricted largely to the families with trifine hindwing venation, has been widely accepted. Monophyly of the set of four families with quadrifid forewing venation, to the exclusion of Notodontidae, and removal from the latter of Oenosandridae, have been strongly established (Miller, 1991; Mitchell et al., 2006; Zahiri et al., 2011). Major re-examinations and initial phylogenetic analyses have been carried out on all but Oenosandridae and Euteliidae (Miller, 1991; Lafontaine, 1993; Poole, 1995; Mitchell et al., 2006; Zahiri et al., 2012, 2013a, 2013b). Numerous questions and weakly supported nodes remain, however, and much additional evidence and corroboration is needed.

The goal of this paper is to independently assess and, where possible, extend the main findings of recent authors (Miller, 1991; Mitchell *et al.*, 2006; Zahiri *et al.*, 2011, 2012, 2013a,2013b), using a smaller taxon sample than in previous molecular studies but a larger gene sample. We analysed 5–19 genes (6.7–18.6 kb) in 74 noctuoid species, representing all the families and more than half of the subfamilies. We find no strong conflicts with previous molecular results; we corroborate many nodes with previous strong support; and we strongly resolve a number of additional nodes that had little or no previous support, especially in Notodontidae and Noctuidae.

Materials and methods

Taxon sampling

Our 74 noctuoid exemplars span all six noctuoid families. They include two of eight species of Oenosandridae; 22 species of Notodontidae representing seven of the nine subfamilies plus two unplaced genera recognized by Miller (1991); 22 species of Noctuidae s.s. representing 11 of the 19 subfamilies studied by Zahiri *et al.* (2013b); 22 species of Erebidae representing 13 of the 18 subfamilies recognized by Zahiri *et al.* (2012); five species of Nolidae, representing five of eight subfamilies recognized by Zahiri *et al.* (2013a); and one species of Eutelidae. As outgroups we included 16 exemplars representing 11 families and all four other superfamilies of Macroheterocera, plus both families of Pyraloidea, the apparent sister group to Macroheterocera. All of the outgroups, and 32 of the noctuoids,

had previously been included in the 483-taxon analysis of Regier *et al.* (2013), although they did not discuss noctuoid relationships.

Specimens for this study, obtained with the gracious assistance of collectors around the world (see Acknowledgements), are stored in 100% ethanol at -80°C as part of the ATOLep collection at the University of Maryland, USA. Nucleic acid extraction used only the head and thorax for species that have larger adults, leaving the rest of the body including the genitalia as a voucher. The entire specimen was used for species with smaller adults. Wing vouchers were retained for nearly all exemplars. DNA 'barcodes' were generated for all taxa, either by us using standard primer sequences with M13 tails (Regier & Shi, 2005) or, more frequently, by the All-Leps Barcode of Life project (http://www.lepbarcoding.org). COI DNA 'barcodes' were checked against the Barcode of Life Data system reference library (Ratnasingham & Hebert, 2007) to confirm specimen identifications and also to facilitate future identification of specimens whose identity is still pending (i.e. species listed as 'sp.' or 'unidentified' in the present report). In the case of undescribed species, the species interim epithet is not italicized.

Gene sampling

All species were sequenced for five protein-coding nuclear gene regions (6.6 kb) that have previously been shown to provide generally strong resolution within superfamilies (Regier *et al.*, 2009). To increase resolving power for deeper relationships, in 34 of the 74 noctuoids, spread across all families, and all 16 outgroup species, we sequenced an additional 14 genes for a total of up to 14.7 kb. The 14 additional gene regions are a subset of the 21 gene regions first tested across ditrysian Lepidoptera by Zwick *et al.* (2011) and Cho *et al.* (2011). Gene names, functions and full lengths of the individual gene regions are given in Table S1 of Cho *et al.* (2011). The number of gene regions attempted for each exemplar, the total amount of sequence obtained, and the GenBank accession numbers for these sequences, can all be found in Table S1.

Generation of DNA sequence data

A detailed protocol of all laboratory procedures is provided by Regier *et al.* (2008). Further descriptions, including gene amplification strategies, PCR primer sequences, and sequence assembly and alignment methods, can be found in Regier *et al.* (2008, 2009). To summarize, species-specific templates for mRNA amplification were prepared by first extracting total nucleic acids. Extracted nucleic acids were stored at -80° C in RNAse-free deionized water (diethyl-pyrocarbonate-treated). Specific regions of the cognate mRNAs were amplified by reverse transcription followed by PCR. Specific bands were gel isolated and re-amplified by PCR using hemi-nested primers, when available. Visible bands that were too faint to sequence were reamplified, using as primers the M13 sequences at the 5' ends of all gene-specific primers. PCR amplicons were

sequenced directly on a 3730 DNA Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, U.S.A.). Sequences were edited and assembled using the TREV, PREGAP4 and GAP4 programs in the STADEN package (Staden, 1999). Individual sequences were concatenated, and alignments were made automatically using the 'Translation Align' software in the GENEIOUS PRO v5.3.4 package [60]. In the alignment process, splitting of individual codons was not allowed. A data-exclusion mask of 1440 uncertainly aligned characters out of 20 373 total aligned characters (=7.1% of total) for all 90 species was applied.

Character partitions, taxon × gene dataset design and phylogenetic analyses

Three distinct datasets that include all sequences were constructed. The first consists of unaltered nucleotides from all three nucleotide positions (nt123). The second (nt123_partition) contains the same nucleotides, but with these partitioned into two nonoverlapping character sets that separate nonsynonymous-only from mostly synonymous change. These two complementary character sets are called noLRall1nt2 and LRall1nt3 [see table 1 in Regier & Zwick (2011) for complete definitions; also see http://www.phylotools.com]. We chose this bi-partition procedure over the more common tri-partition by codon position because the approach is simpler, having only two character sets, and yet generates a larger nonsynonymous-only set. Scripts to generate the two character sets are freely available (appendix 4 of Regier et al., 2008; http://www.phylotools.com). The third dataset (nt123_degen1) is based on the degen1 approach [23], in which in-frame codons of the same amino acid are fully degenerated with respect to synonymous change (e.g. CAT --> CAY). Leu codons (TTR+CTN) are degenerated to Leu+Phe (YTN) and Arg codons (AGR + CGN) are degenerated to Arg + Ser2 (MGN). Phe and Ser2 are degenerated to TTY and AGY, respectively. The basic idea of the degen1 approach is to capture the nonsynonymous signal while excluding the synonymous signal and any compositional heterogeneity it produces. The degen1 script is freely available (Regier et al., 2010; Zwick et al., 2012; http://www.phylotools.com). The substitution model used in all analyses was a general time-reversible nucleotide model with a term for invariant sites and among site rate heterogeneity accounted for by a discrete gamma distribution (GTR + G + I). This model was applied separately to each character subset in the partitioned analysis. To test whether the missing data from taxa sequenced for only five genes had a marked effect on the results from the all-data matrix (5-19 genes), we carried out parallel analyses on a reduced gene sample including only the five gene regions that were sequenced in all taxa.

All phylogenetic analyses were based on the maximumlikelihood (ML) criterion as implemented in GARLI (Genetic Algorithm for Rapid Likelihood Inference; v2.0; Zwickl, 2006). We used the program default settings, including random stepwise addition starting trees, except that we halved the number of successive generations yielding no improvement in likelihood score that prompts termination (genthreshfortopoterm = 10000), as suggested for bootstrapping in the GARLI manual. Each search for the single best ML tree consisted of 990-1000 separate GARLI ML search replicates run to completion on each of the full datasets (nt123, nt123_partition, nt123_degen1). Bootstrap analyses consisted of 700-750 pseudo-replicates, each based on 15 heuristic search replicates run to completion. Optimal-tree searches and bootstrap analyses were parallelized using grid computing (Cummings & Huskamp, 2005) through The Lattice Project (Bazinet & Cummings, 2008). For consistency in the characterization of results, we will refer to bootstrap support of 70-79% as 'moderate,' 80-89% as 'strong' and ≥90% as 'very strong'. The all-data 5–19 gene data matrices and trees generated in our analyses will be archived in Dryad.

Results and Discussion

All five of our analyses yielded similar topologies and bootstrap values. These observations are summarized in Fig. 1, which shows the single best ML topology for the nt123 all-data unpartitioned analysis, with bootstrap values for all five analyses superimposed on the branches. (The outgroups are not shown.) Our discussion will proceed from the bottom to the top of the tree in Fig. 1.

Among-family relationships

Like other molecular studies, our results strongly support monophyly of a Noctuoidea that excludes Doidae. The latter now seem firmly established, on both molecular and morphological evidence, to belong to Drepanoidea (Regier et al., 2009, 2013; Mutanen et al., 2010; Bazinet et al., 2013; Heikkilä et al., 2015). The implied convergence in the tympanic organs of Noctuoidea and Doidae, the latter consisting of six species restricted to the southwestern United States and Central America, deserves further study.

In a landmark study, Miller (1991) erected a separate family for Oenosandra Newman and relatives, removing these from Notodontidae. Like other molecular studies, our results strongly support this decision. The phylogenetic position of Oenosandridae, however, is less clear. The basal split in Noctuoidea is hypothesized on the basis of morphology to separate Oenosandridae, comprising eight known species restricted to Australia, from all others (Miller, 1991). Molecular analyses, however, have been equivocal on this point. In the present study (Fig. 1) the oenosandrids are sister to Notodontidae in all 19-gene analyses, but with weak support, whereas they are sister to all other noctuoids, with strong support from nt123, in all five-gene analyses. It thus appears that there is conflict among genes in our full dataset. The eight-gene study of Mutanen et al. (2010) found the single oenosandrid to be the earliest-diverging noctuoid. In a more extensive molecular study of noctuoid relationships, however, Zahiri et al. (2011) found that the position of Oenosandridae varied depending on the details of character inclusion/exclusion. Thus, we regard the question of the placement of Oenosandridae as incompletely settled.

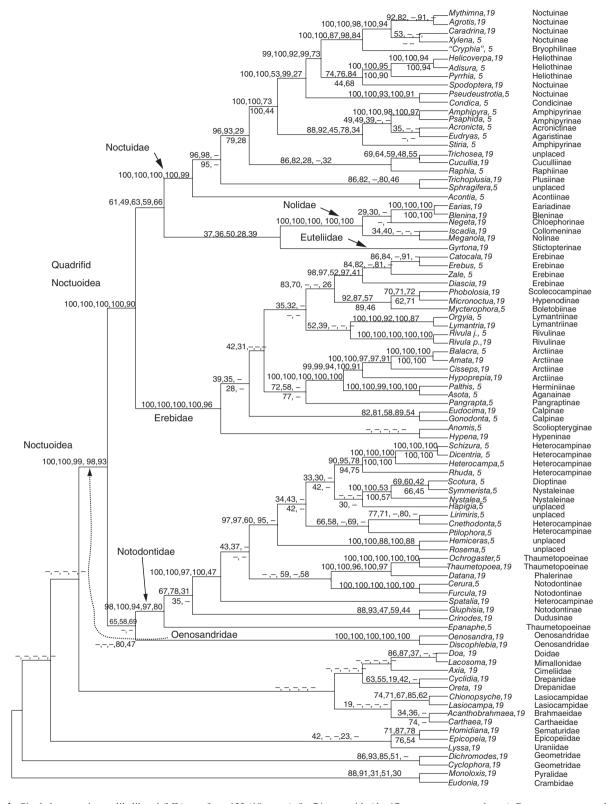


Fig. 1. Single best maximum-likelihood (ML) tree for nt123 (19 genes), for 74 noctuoids (the 17 outgroups are not shown). Bootstrap support values (percentage) above and/or below branches: nt123 unpartitioned (19 genes), nt123 partitioned (19 genes), degen1 (19 genes), nt123 unpartitioned (5 genes), degen1 (5 genes). '-', bootstrap value < 50. Classification follows Miller (1991) for Notodontidae, Lafontaine & Schmidt (2010, 2013) for all others.

Like previous nuclear gene studies, our results strongly support monophyly of the quadrifid forewing noctuoids and monophyly of each of the four constituent families, but are not decisive on relationships among the families. The strongest apparent support to date on the latter question comes from the mitogenomic study of Yang et al. (2015), who favour the hypothesis (Erebidae (Nolidae (Euteliidae + Noctuidae))).

In the sections below we review relationships within the three largest families.

Within-family relationships

Notodontidae. Notodontidae, consisting of about 3800 mostly tree-feeding species (Miller, 1992; van Nieukerken et al., 2011), have been the subject of only one broad phylogenetic study (Miller, 1991). Our 22 exemplars are the largest sample of notodontids yet subjected to molecular-phylogenetic analysis. In Fig. 2 we compare our results on notodontids to those extracted from two earlier molecular studies (Mitchell et al., 2006; Zahiri et al., 2011). Greatly increased sampling is obviously needed, but the evidence so far already shows some strong groupings.

Notodontid subfamily concepts have been in flux. Based on his morphological-cladistic results, Miller (1991) recognized nine subfamilies. Schintlmeister (2008), in a monumental work on the Palaearctic fauna, presented a ten-subfamily system modified from Miller (1991), albeit without disclosing his reasoning, which treats Thaumetopoeinae as a separate, unrelated family. In a later catalogue of the world fauna (Schintlmeister, 2013), he recognized an additional eight subfamilies. Becker (2014) presented still another variant in conjunction with his checklist of the Neotropical fauna. Our results (Fig. 2) permit an initial test of some of these subfamily concepts, as well as Miller's (1991) hypothesis of among-subfamily relationships.

In Fig. 2A we show the subfamily placements under the classifications of Miller (1991), Schintlmeister (2008, 2013) and Becker (2014) for each genus sequenced. For six subfamilies, there were at least two representatives according to one or more classification systems, allowing partial tests of monophyly. Four of those subfamilies were polyphyletic in our tree, under one or more classification systems. First, although our results strongly confirm Miller's (1991) inclusion in Notodontidae of Thaumetopoeinae (the processionary moths), sometimes treated as a separate family, they also strongly suggest that this subfamily as currently defined is polyphyletic. The Afro-tropical endemic genus Epanaphe Aurivillius, used locally for silk production (Mbahin et al., 2012), is separated by five nodes (Fig. 2A, nodes 2-6), two of which have bootstrap support of 100%, from the two other genera we sampled, the Australian Ochrogaster Herrich-Schäffer and the Palaearctic Thaumetopoea Hübner. The latter are united by 100% bootstrap support, as are Thaumetopoea and the Australian genus Epicoma Hübner in the tree of Zahiri et al. (2011; Fig. 2B). Thus, Epanaphe appears to be unrelated to a group consisting of all other thaumetopoeines for which sequence data exist. This very strong molecular result implies convergence in several morphological characters

(Miller, 1991) as well as the behavioural trait of subsociality (albeit of somewhat different forms).

Our results also imply polyphyly for some but not all concepts of Notodontinae. Miller (1991) proposed a substantial broadening of Notodontinae (also adopted by Lafontaine & Schmidt, 2010), to include not only Notodonta Ochsenheimer and close relatives but also three other family groups from previous authors, the latter all combined in his tribe Dicrurini. These are the Cerurinae of Forbes (1948) and predecessors; the Gluphisiini of Forbes (1948); and the Ptilophorinae of Matsumura (1929; = Ptilodontinae Packard 1864). Our tree strongly argues that these three groups are unrelated. Gluphisia Boisduval is separated from the common ancestor of Cerura Schrank + Furcula Lamarck and Ptilophora Stephens by three nodes (Fig. 2A, nodes 2, 3, 7), two of which have bootstrap support of 100%. Cerura + Furcula in turn are separated from Ptilophora by five nodes (nodes 4, 5, 8, 9, 10), one of which has bootstrap support of 97%. In the classifications of Schintlmeister (2008) and Becker (2014), by contrast, separate status is maintained for Cerurinae (Furcula, Cerura). Schintlmeister (2008) also separates the subfamily Ptilophorinae (*Ptilophora*). Becker (2014) follows Miller (1991) in retaining Gluphisia in Notodontinae, whereas Schintlmeister (2008) places *Gluphisia* in Pygaerinae. By Schintlmeister's narrow definition, the Notodontinae are not represented in our sample. Our results suggest that broader concepts (including that of Becker, 2014) are probably not monophyletic.

Pygaerinae sensu Schintlmeister (2008) are also polyphyletic on our tree, as Gluphisia and Spatalia Hübner are separated by three nodes (2, 3, 7) that include bootstrap supports of 88 and 100%. Our results confirm Schintlmeister's (2008) doubt that Spatalia actually belongs in Pygaerinae.

Finally, our results suggest that two of the definitions of Heterocampinae examined here are polyphyletic. Following suggestions by Forbes (1948), Miller included in this subfamily, in addition to Heterocampa Doubleday and close relatives (the Heterocampini of Forbes, 1948), the Old World groups Stauropinae, Spataliinae and Fentoniinae of Matsumura (1929). Stauropinae and putative New World relatives were combined into Stauropini: most New World heterocampines were placed in Heterocampini; and Spatalia Hübner and Fentonia Butler were left unplaced as to tribe (Miller, 1991). Our results argue strongly against this expansion of Heterocampinae. In our tree, four New World genera including Heterocampa form a strongly supported 'core' group (node 11; BP = 90), with strongly supported internal structure (nodes 12, 13; BP=100). The two sampled Old World heterocampines sensu Miller (1991), on the other hand, are separated by at least four nodes, from each other and from the New World heterocampines, with moderate to very strong support. Spatalia, an isolated, early-diverging lineage in our tree, is separated from Heterocampa and relatives by four nodes, one of which (node 8) has 97% bootstrap support. Cnethodonta Staudinger, an Old World member of Stauropini sensu Miller, is separated by four nodes, one (node 15) with 77% bootstrap support, from New World Heterocampinae, within which Schizura Doubleday, a member of Stauropini sensu Miller, is deeply nested. These results strongly suggest that

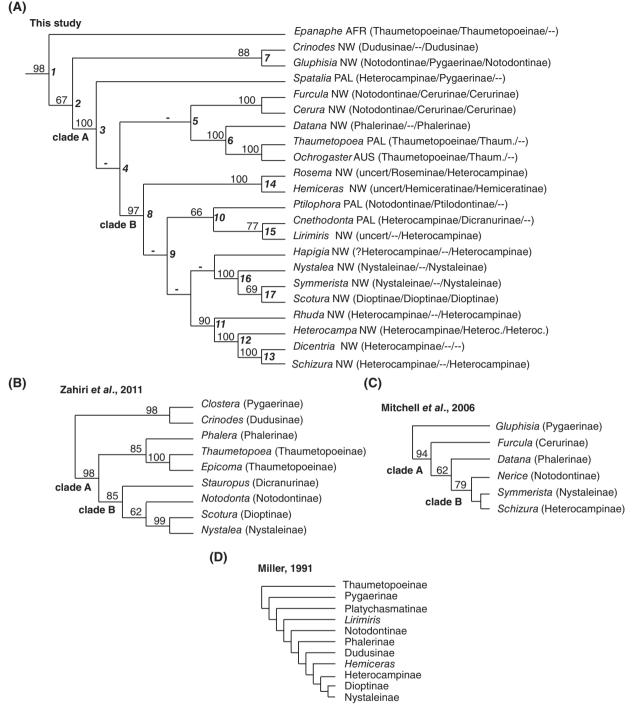


Fig. 2. Comparison of relationships among subfamilies of Notodontidae between the present study, Mitchell *et al.* (2006), Zahiri *et al.* (2011) and Miller (1991). (A) Relationships among subfamilies simplified from Fig. 1, with maximum-likelihood (ML) bootstraps for nt123 unpartitioned above branches. Geographic distribution shown after taxon names: AFR, Africa; AUS, Australia; NW, New World; PAL, Palaearctic. Subfamily names in parentheses according to Miller (1991)/Schintlmeister (2008, 2013)/Becker (2014). '--', subfamily not specified by that author; '-', bootstrap value <50; Thaum., Thaumetopoeinae; Heteroc., Heterocampinae. (B) Relationships among notodontid subfamilies extracted from larger noctuoid ML phylogeny of Zahiri *et al.* (2011), with ML bootstraps above branches. Subfamily classification follows Lafontaine & Schmidt (2010, 2013). (C) Relationships among notodontid exemplars included in the two-gene, 141-taxon ML noctuoid phylogeny of Mitchell *et al.* (2006), extracted from their Fig. 4. ML tree search used the GTR + G + I model, bootstraps based on Minimum Evolution search under GTR ML distance ignoring among-site rate variation. Subfamily classification follows Lafontaine & Schmidt (2010, 2013). (D) Relationships among subfamilies inferred from cladistic analysis of morphology by Miller (1991).

Stauropini in this sense are polyphyletic. The circumscription of Heterocampinae by Becker (2014) also disagrees with our tree, due to the strongly and moderately supported separation of Hemiceras Guenée and Rosema Walker, respectively, from the remaining heterocampines sensu Becker (2014). In our tree, the position of Hapigia Gueneé, placed with doubt in Heterocampinae by Miller et al. (1997) and subsequently by Becker (2014), also contradicts monophyly of that subfamily, but Hapigia is separated from the largest cluster of Heterocampinae by only very weakly supported nodes. In sum, our evidence suggests that any monophyletic definition of Heterocampinae will probably restrict that subfamily to the New World. Whether the strongly supported 'core' group of genera around Heterocampa are related to other purported New World heterocampines remains unclear.

The relationships among notodontid subfamilies supported by our analyses include points of both agreement and disagreement with those of Miller (1991; Fig. 2D). The 'backbone' of our tree has two very strongly supported nested groupings (node 3, BP = 100 and node 8, BP = 97). The more inclusive grouping, which we term clade A, includes all taxa except Epanaphe (Thaumetopoeinae s.l.), Crinodes (Dudusinae) and Gluphisia (Pygaerinae sensu Schintlmeister, 2008). Among these three early-diverging taxa there is weak support for Epanaphe as the sister group to all other notodontids (node 2; BP = 67), and strong support for grouping Gluphisia with Dudusinae (node 7; BP = 88). The limited sampling of Zahiri et al. (2011; Fig. 2B) also shows a strongly supported grouping comparable to our Clade A, similar in excluding just Dudusinae and Pygaerinae (they did not sample Epanaphe), which are strongly grouped as in our study. A group analogous to Clade A is also strongly supported in the two-gene noctuoid study of Mitchell et al. (2006; Fig. 2C), which sampled six notodontids. All three studies agree with Miller (1991; Fig. 2D) in identifying Pygaerinae as an early-diverging lineage. The initial divergences within Clade A are weakly supported, but there is very strong support for the grouping of Datana Walker (Phalerinae) with Thaumetopoeinae s.s. (node 6; BP = 100). This grouping of subfamilies was also strongly supported by Zahiri et al. (2011; Fig. 2B).

Within Clade A there is strong support for a group we term Clade B (node 8, BP = 97%) that includes all Clade A taxa except Thaumetopoeinae, Cerurinae sensu Schintlmeister (2008) and Phalerinae. An analogous clade, moderately to strongly supported, is found in the results of both Zahiri et al. (2013b; Fig. 2B) and Mitchell et al. (2006; Fig. 2C). Within Clade B, the basal divergences are very weakly supported, but there is very strong support for grouping of Nystaleinae with Dioptinae (node 16; BP = 100), in agreement with Miller (1991) and Weller (1992). This result also corroborates Miller's assertion (Miller, 2009) that Dioptinae, previously often treated as a separate family, are deeply nested within Notodontidae. Our tree suggests paraphyly of nystaleines with respect to dioptines but bootstrap support for nonmonophyly is weak (node 17; BP = 69%). The grouping of Nystalaeinae + Dioptinae is also reported by Zahiri et al. (2011; Fig. 2B), with strong support. The tree of Mitchell et al. (2006; Fig. 2C) suggests that Notodontinae s.s. (Schintlmeister, 2008) are closely related to Nystalaeinae + Dioptinae.

Clade B also contains the four genera stated or implied by Miller (1991) to be of uncertain position. Of these, Hemiceras Guenée and Rosema Walker are very strongly grouped together (node 14; BP = 100%), potentially providing the basis for expansion of either the subfamily Hemiceratinae recognized by Lafontaine & Fibiger (2006), or the subfamily Roseminae recognized by Schintlmeister (2013). Finally, the uncertainly placed Neotropical Lirimiris Walker is moderately strongly grouped with the Old World Cnethodonta (Dicranurinae sensu Schintlmeister, 2008; node 15; BP = 77%).

It might be argued that those aspects of our findings which appear to strongly conflict with morphological evidence are artifacts of sparse taxon sampling, which can include long branch attraction. We doubt that this is the case. In our experience with gene sets of this size in Lepidoptera, strongly supported, apparently artifactual groupings due to any effect of taxon sampling are rare. In a 123-taxon study across the families of Ditrysia, Cho et al. (2011) found no strongly supported unexpected groupings when the sampling was reduced to the 44 taxa having the most sequence. Within Noctuoidea, Mitchell et al. (1997, 2000, 2006) used only 7, 14 and 21 exemplars respectively to strongly circumscribe the huge clade now recognized as Erebidae, plus several groupings therein. These groupings, initially controversial because they contradicted monophyly for the traditional definition of Noctuidae, have invariably been corroborated in subsequent studies with much larger taxon samples. Moreover, the main notodontid clades identified in the current study are also well supported in the two other molecular studies that have included notodontids. We think they are likely to hold up. To summarize, the limited molecular information so far outlines multiple, strongly supported, nested major clades of notodontid subfamilies and provides strong evidence against some recent definitions of multiple subfamilies. Further study of notodontid relationships is one of the most important future tasks for noctuoid systematics.

Erebidae. Erebidae, containing about 24 600 species (van Nieukerken et al., 2011), are one of the largest families of Lepidoptera. In Fig. 3 we compare our results on relationships among subfamilies within Erebidae to those of Zahiri et al. (2012), using their classification. We sampled 13 of the 18 subfamilies. In both studies, support for groupings of subfamilies is often weak, especially at deeper levels. In the tree of Zahiri et al. (2012), 12 of the 16 nodes subtending multiple subfamilies have bootstrap support of 52% or less, whereas only four have support of \geq 70%. Support in the present study is somewhat stronger, possibly due in part to the smaller taxon sample; six of 11 nodes subtending multiple subfamilies have BP \geq 70%.

Although robust support is frequently lacking, its distribution across clades is very similar between studies. In both trees there is a strongly supported clade, here termed the 'Erebine lineage', consisting of Erebinae, Hypenodinae, Scolecocampinae, Boletobiinae, Tinoliinae and Toxocampinae. (The last two were not sampled in the present study.) Considering just the subfamilies

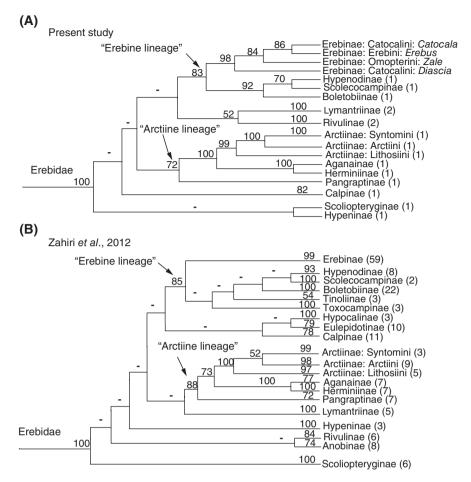


Fig. 3. Comparison of relationships among subfamilies of Erebidae between the present study and Zahiri *et al.* (2012). (A) Relationships among erebid subfamilies simplified from Fig. 1, with ML bootstraps for nt123 unpartitioned above branches. (B) Relationships among erebid subfamilies simplified from Zahiri *et al.* (2012), with ML bootstraps above branches. '-', bootstrap value <50.

sampled in both, moreover, relationships within the 'Erebine lineage' are identical between studies; they are supported weakly in Zahiri *et al.* (2012) but moderately to strongly in the present study (Fig. 3). In addition, both studies moderately to strongly support a clade, here termed the 'Arctiine lineage', that consists of Pangraptinae, Herminiinae, Aganainae and Arctiinae. Relationships within this clade are the same (Pangraptinae, Arctiinae (Hermiinae, Aganinae)), and moderately to strongly supported, in both studies.

Outside of the two strongly supported lineages relationships are divergent, but even here some points of concordance can be discerned. Most notably, in both studies, Scolecocampinae and Hypeninae are among the first subfamilies to branch off. Overall, our study supports and extends the main conclusions of Zahiri *et al.* (2012). Although many questions remain, the two studies together firmly resolve positions for over half the subfamilies.

Noctuidae. Noctuidae s.s., containing about 11700 species (van Nieukerken *et al.*, 2011) are the second-largest family of Noctuoidea. In Fig. 4 we compare our results on relationships within Noctuidae to those of Zahiri *et al.* (2013b; closely similar

to Rota *et al.* (2016)) and of Mitchell *et al.* (2006). Unlike previous studies (Fig. 4B, C), our current result (Fig. 4A) shows strong resolution throughout the 'backbone' of noctuid phylogeny, although this could in part reflect our smaller sample of subfamilies. Of the 14 bootstrap values for nodes subtending members of two or more subfamilies, there are 11 > 70%, 10 > 80% and 7 > 90%. Our strongly supported topology differs from those of both Mitchell *et al.* (2006) and Zahiri *et al.* (2013b), particularly among the earlier-branching lineages, but only in tree regions where support in those studies was weak. Of the subfamilies we studied, Acontiinae and Plusiinae + the unplaced *Sphragifera*, in that order, are strongly supported as the first two noctuid lineages to branch off.

There are multiple points of correspondence between the present study and that of Zahiri $et\,al.$ (2013b). Although the taxon samples do not overlap entirely, we can recognize in both trees (Fig. 4A, C) a strongly supported node (BP = 100% in this study, 97% in Zahiri $et\,al.$, 2013b), here termed the 'higher noctuid' clade, consisting of Amphipyrinae, Acronictinae, Agaristinae, Bryophilinae, Condicinae, Heliothinae and Noctuinae, and additionally (in the tree of Zahiri $et\,al.$, 2013b)

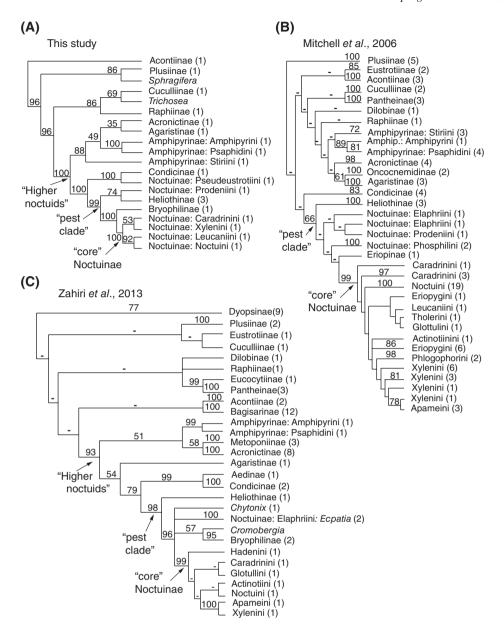
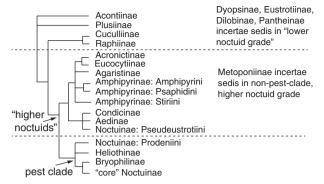


Fig. 4. Comparison of relationships among subfamilies of Noctuidae between the present study, Mitchell et al. (2006) and Zahiri et al. (2013b). (A) Relationships among noctuid subfamilies, and tribes of Noctuinae, simplified from Fig. 1, with bootstraps for nt123 unpartitioned above branches. Numbers in italics to right of branch points are node numbers referred to in text. (B) Relationships among noctuid subfamilies, and among tribes of Noctuinae, simplified from Mitchell et al. (2006; their Fig. 4), with ME bootstraps above branches. '-', or no marking, = bootstrap value <50. Numbers of genera sampled given in parentheses to the right of taxon names. (C) Relationships among noctuid subfamilies, and among tribes of Noctuinae, simplified from Zahiri et al. (2013b), with ML bootstraps above branches. '-', bootstrap value < 50. Numbers of genera sampled given in parentheses to the right of taxon names.

Aedinae and Metoponiinae. Zahiri et al. (2013b) postulate two morphological synapomorphies for this clade, namely, basal abdominal brushes and pockets in the male (which, however, would have to have been repeatedly lost or reduced; Rota et al., 2016), and presence of a raised, nodular tympanal sclerite, which appears to be unique.

Within the 'higher noctuid' clade, both studies strongly support a variant of the 'pest clade' of Mitchell et al. (2006), consisting of Heliothinae, Noctuinae and related smaller subfamilies/tribes/unassociated genera. These total almost 7000 species, mostly herb feeders. (Noctuids outside this clade are a mixture of tree- and herb-feeding lineages; reviews in Mitchell et al., 2006; Zahiri et al., 2013b). In our tree, most of the 'higher noctuids' excluded from the 'pest clade' form a well-supported group containing Amphipyrinae, Acronictinae and Agaristinae (Fig. 4A, BP = 88%). A comparable group is found, albeit



Not sampled: Balsinae, Cydosiinae, Diptherinae, Eriopinae

Fig. 5. Summary of current understanding of relationships within Noctuidae, combining groupings from the present study (Fig. 4A) and Zahiri et al. (2013b; Fig. 4C). Topology shown is a form of reduced semi-strict consensus of trees in Fig. 4A, C, produced by removing unassociated genera, collapsing all nodes in each tree with bootstrap support <80%, creating semi-strict consensus and removing terminals with highly ambiguous positions therein. Of the latter, Dilobinae, Dyopsinae, Eustrotiinae and Pantheinae are excluded from 'higher noctuids', whereas Metoponiinae are included in 'higher noctuids' but excluded from the 'pest clade'.

weakly supported, by Zahiri et al. (2013b; Fig. 4C; BP = 51%), except that Agaristinae are weakly grouped instead with the pest clade and near relatives. Metaponiinae, not sampled in this study, are grouped with Acronictinae and Amphipyrinae by Zahiri et al. (2013b), but only weakly (Fig. 4C).

In Fig. 5 we combine the information in Fig. 4A, C to depict what we can confidently say about relationships among the noctuid subfamilies. To construct the combined tree, we first removed the unassociated genera in both trees, then collapsed all the branches in each starting tree that had less than 80% bootstrap support. We then created a reduced consensus tree by including all unambiguous groupings of taxa that were supported (strongly) in at least one tree and not (strongly) contradicted by the other, and leaving out the four terminals lacking unambiguous placement in the consensus tree. Finally, we noted for the five deleted taxa what placements were consistent with the evidence (Fig. 5). The result is a relatively well-resolved set of strongly supported relationships among subfamilies, that also shows where the main remaining questions lie. Prominent among those questions is the position of the 'lower' noctuid subfamilies not sampled in this study.

A second major topic for future work is the circumscription and internal phylogeny of the huge subfamily Noctuinae s.l. (Lafontaine & Schmidt, 2010), which includes nearly 6000 species, over half of Noctuidae (Mitchell et al., 2006). Morphology-based recognition of this clade (Beck, 1960, 1992; Lafontaine, 1993; Poole, 1995), which combines pieces of four large subfamilies in earlier classifications, was a major advance in noctuid systematics, as are recent detailed hypotheses such as that of Lafontaine & Schmidt (2010, 2013). Given the diversity of Noctuinae, it is to be expected that the process of sorting out exactly which lower-level groups do and do not belong will be protracted (Lafontaine & Schmidt, 2013). A consistent

result of molecular analyses, starting with the two-gene studies of Mitchell et al. (2000, 2006) and continuing through recent multi-gene analyses (Zahiri et al., 2013b; Rota et al., 2016; present study; see Fig. 4), has been very strong bootstrap support for a 'core' group of Noctuinae consisting of all tribes except Elaphriini, Prodeniini, Phosphilini and Pseudeustrotiini, but either no support for (Fig. 4C), or evidence against (Fig. 4A, B), monophyly of Noctuinae with one or more of the latter four tribes included. The evidence against monophyly, heretofore weak, is much stronger in the present study (Fig. 4A). The representative of Prodeniini is separated from 'core' Noctuinae by two nodes, one of which has 100% bootstrap support, whereas the representative of Pseudeustrotiini is separated from 'core' Noctuinae by three very strongly supported nodes. Although they need further testing, these results are unlikely to be an artifact of sparse taxon sampling as they are similar to, and not strongly contradicted by, those from the much larger taxon sample of Mitchell et al. (2006; Fig. 4B). Both larval and adult synapomorphies have been identified for Noctuinae s.l. (Lafontaine & Fibiger, 2006; Lafontaine & Schmidt, 2010), but no analyses have demonstrated that morphological characters as a whole (sensu Heikkilä et al., 2015) support monophyly for this group, and morphological characters are not infallible (see Doidae, above). Thus, we consider the limits of a monophyletic Noctuinae to be an open question and predict that these may prove eventually to correspond to just the 'core' Noctuinae identified by molecular data.

Conclusions

We conducted an independent assessment, using the largest gene sample to date, of phylogenetic relationships within Noctuoidea inferred by recent authors. Our main findings are as follows:

- 1 Our data strongly corroborate the six-family system of Zahiri et al. (2011), including (i) removal of Oenosandridae from Notodontidae, (ii) exclusion of these two families from a clade containing the remaining families, and (iii) subordination of Arctiidae, Lymantriidae and most 'quadrifine' Noctuidae s.l. within the huge family Erebidae. However, our results, like those of previous molecular studies, are equivocal on the position of Oenosandridae and on relationships among the four 'quadrifid' forewing families.
- 2 Our evidence is much stronger on relationships within families. Within Notodontidae, we find strong evidence for polyphyly of one or more of the concepts of Thaumetopoeinae, Pygaerinae, Notodontinae and Heterocampinae expressed in recent classifications. Deeper divergences are only partially resolved, but our results, in combination with those of previous molecular studies, strongly support multiple nodes in an initial 'backbone' phylogeny estimate across the largest notodontid subfamilies.
- 3 Within Erebidae, relationships among subfamilies are likewise only partially resolved, but our results parallel those of Zahiri et al. (2012) in delimiting moderately to strongly supported 'arctiine' and 'erebine' lineages, with identical internal

- relationships, that together encompass 8-10 of the 18 sub-
- 4 Within Noctuidae, our results provide the strongest support to date for relationships among the subfamilies. There are no strong conflicts with the phylogeny of Zahiri et al. (2013b), and a semi-strict consensus of the robustly supported groupings in the two trees yields well-defined positions for most subfamilies.

Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article under the DOI reference: 10.1111/syen.12199

Table S1. A spreadsheet showing specimens sequenced, their classification, specimen accession numbers, number of genes attempted, total sequence length obtained and GenBank accession numbers.

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