

Specialized Predation Drives Aberrant Morphological Integration and Diversity in the Earliest Ants

Phillip Barden, Vincent Perrichot, Bo Wang

▶ To cite this version:

Phillip Barden, Vincent Perrichot, Bo Wang. Specialized Predation Drives Aberrant Morphological Integration and Diversity in the Earliest Ants. Current Biology - CB, 2020, 30 (19), pp.3818-3824.e4. 10.1016/j.cub.2020.06.106 . insu-02915953

HAL Id: insu-02915953 https://insu.hal.science/insu-02915953

Submitted on 17 Oct 2022

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial 4.0 International License

Specialized predation drives aberrant morphological integration and diversity in the earliest ants

- Phillip Barden^{a,b,*}, Vincent Perrichot^{c,*}, and Bo Wang^{d*}
- ^aNew Jersey Institute of Technology, Department of Biological Sciences, Dr Martin Luther King Jr Blvd, Newark, NJ 07102, USA.
- ^bAmerican Museum of Natural History, Division of Invertebrate Zoology, Central Park West, New York, NY 10024, USA.
- ^cUniv Rennes, CNRS, Géosciences Rennes UMR 6118, F-35000 Rennes, France.
- 12 ^d State Key Laboratory of Palaeobiology and Stratigraphy, Nanjing Institute of Geology and Palaeontology and Center for Excellence in Life and Paleoenvironment, Chinese Academy of Sciences, 39 East Beijing 14_{5} Road, Nanjing 210008, China.
- *Correspondence to: <u>barden@njit.edu</u>, <u>vincent.perrichot@univ-rennes1.fr</u>, <u>bowang@nigpas.ac.cn</u>.
- Lead contact: Phillip Barden (barden@njit.edu)

1 Summary

2 Extinct haidomyrmecine 'hell ants' are among the earliest ants known [1, 2]. These eusocial

- 3 Cretaceous taxa diverged from extant lineages prior to the most recent common ancestor of all
- 4 living ants [3] and possessed bizarre scythe-like mouthparts along with a striking array of horn-
- 5 like cephalic projections [4, 5, 6]. Despite the morphological breadth of the fifteen thousand
- 6 known extant ant species, phenotypic syndromes found in the Cretaceous are without parallel
- and the evolutionary drivers of extinct diversity are unknown. Here we provide a mechanistic
- 8 explanation for aberrant hell ant morphology through phylogenetic reconstruction and
- 9 comparative methods, as well as a newly reported specimen. We report a remarkable instance 10 of fossilized predation that provides direct evidence for the function of dorsoventrally-expanded
- 11 mandibles and elaborate horns. Our findings confirm the hypothesis that hell ants captured
- 12 other arthropods between mandible and horn in a manner that could only be achieved by
- 13 articulating their mouthparts in an axial plane perpendicular to that of modern ants. We
- demonstrate that the head capsule and mandibles of haidomyrmecines are uniquely integrated
- 15 as a consequence of this predatory mode and covary across species while finding no evidence
- 16 of such modular integration in extant ant groups. We suggest that hell ant cephalic integration –
- 17 analogous to the vertebrate skull triggered a pathway for an ancient adaptive radiation and
- 18 expansion into morphospace unoccupied by any living taxon.
- 19

20 **Results and Discussion**

21 Extinct diversity is a hallmark of certain lineages but conspicuous only with sufficient fossil

- 22 evidence. Even among the nine thousand extant species of birds, there are no hints of an
- ancient array of predatory theropods. Comparisons of marine penguins, flightless ratites,
- hummingbirds, and albatrosses will not yield reconstructions of ornamented spinosaurids or
- 25 massive tyrannosaurs. New evidence reveals the same is true for ants. With over 15,500
- species and subspecies across all post-producer trophic levels and nearly every terrestrial
 environment [7], modern ants are morphologically diverse [8]. Intraspecific caste specialization
- amplifies diversity in many species as worker form matches specialized function [9, 10], from
- foraging and food processing to defense and brood care. In effect there are tens of thousands of
- 30 ant morphotypes [11]. Even as extant ants represent a remarkable assemblage of adaptive
- 31 diversity, the boundaries of Recent morphology do not encompass the former expanses of early
- 32 ants.
- 33

34 The ant fossil record begins with contemporaneous Burmese and Charentese ambers from 35 France and Myanmar dated to the Albian-Cenomanian boundary (~100-99 Ma) [1, 2]. Over 50 36 ant species are known from the Cretaceous - of these, only two are definitively attributable to 37 modern lineages. Most Cretaceous ants belong to extinct stem-group lineages [3]. While the 38 first discovered Mesozoic ants were generalized anatomical composites of living ants and 39 solitary aculeate wasps [12, 13], subsequent discoveries demonstrate the diversity of extinct ant 40 lineages [1, 14, 15, 16, 17]. The most extreme examples are haidomyrmecine 'hell ants.' 41 Defined by dorsoventrally expanded scythe-like mandibles, these taxa are present in Burmese 42 and Charentese ambers, as well as Campanian-aged (~78 Ma) Canadian amber [18], but do 43 not persist into the Cenozoic [3]. Underscoring their bizarre mouthparts are a variety of horn-like cephalic appendages [4, 5, 6, 19]. The varied mandibles and horns of hell ants have no modern
 analog.

3

4 Initial phenotypic "explorations" have long been proposed as features of lineage history [20, 5 21]. Early adaptive radiations may give rise to a multitude of morphological innovations, with 6 only a subset of phenotypes persisting into the present [22, 23, 24]. Modern ant morphology 7 operates within the confines of a core set of structural elaborations that relate to niche 8 occupation [25]: spines appear within lineages as cuticular extensions of existing modular 9 elements and relate to defense as well as muscle attachment [26]; setae, ancestrally derived 10 from marine crustaceans, are modified for sense, adhesion, and defense [27, 28]; head 11 capsules and cuticle are broadened and flattened, rendering worker ants into living doors or 12 gliders [8, 29]. Because they dictate many interactions with the environment, ant mandibles are 13 frequently modified for prey capture or task performance through modifications in teeth or margins [30]. Across lineages, specialized mandibles may facilitate the shearing of vegetation 14 15 [8], the capture or killing of other ant hosts in social parasites [31], or the removal of defensive 16 adaptations in prey [32]. Even with these varied uses, the axis of mandibular movement within 17 modern ants is essentially fixed – extant ant mandibles open in a primarily lateral plane [33]. 18 Although unconfirmed until now by direct evidence, hell ant mandibles are suspected to have 19 articulated in an axis perpendicular to that of living species, acting as a trap-jaw mechanism for 20 prey capture [34]. Indirect evidence for this movement includes the presence of hypothesized 21 sensory setae in the path of mandible closure [18, 34]; covariation between elongate mandibles 22 and clypeal projections, which have been proposed to function together [4]; and the 23 reinforcement of cuticle in the region where the mandibles would come into contact with the 24 head capsule [5]. Here, we place haidomyrmecines in an expanded phylogenetic context, 25 demonstrate their unique morphospace occupation linked to evolutionary integration, and report 26 preserved predatory behavior to explain the extinct stem diversity of ants. Our results suggest 27 that an early radiation into disparate morphospace was triggered by an innovation in mouthpart 28 movement for specialized predation. This generated a pathway for phenotypic integration 29 between mandible and head capsule, analogous to the vertebrate skull. 30

31 *Phylogenetic analysis and comparative morphospace*

32 Our Bayesian and parsimony optimizations of 65 characters across 46 taxa confirm all

33 haidomyrmecine genera as a monophyletic stem group outside of modern ant lineages,

34 potentially sister to all other ants [3] (Haidomyrmecinae [6]). We recover two reciprocally

35 monophyletic hell ant groups, suggesting one origin of horns but two independent derivations of

36 elongate horns (Figure 1). Horns are derived from extensions of the clypeus, a segment of the

- 37 head capsule that is typically flattened and strictly anteriorly positioned in ants and other
- 38 aculeates. The clade comprising *Aquilomyrmex*, *Dhagnathos*, and *Chonidris* has a medially
- 39 raised anterior clypeal margin developed into a furrowed appendage that points anteriad. The
- 40 remaining hell ant taxa have a posteriorly-derived clypeal projection resulting from an increase
- 41 in cuticular elevation and accompanied by a second projection, the frontal triangle. In
- 42 Linguamyrmex and Ceratomyrmex, the frontal triangle is fused to the clypeal projection. In taxa
- 43 where it is not fused to the clypeal projection, such as *Haidomyrmex* and *Protoceratomyrmex*,
- the function of the frontal triangle is unknown; it may aid in muscular attachment [33]. Scythe-

1 like mandibles and clypeal modifications are synapomorphies for hell ants and represent a

- 2 ground-plan for the last common ancestor of the lineage. Our comparisons of extant and
- 3 Cretaceous morphospace consistently recover haidomyrmecines as distinct from other stem
- 4 and crown ants, even as cephalic morphospace overlaps among other stem ants and living taxa
- 5 (Figures 2A and S1B). We assessed evolutionary correlation between the clypeus and
- 6 mandibles in a phylogenetic framework through Bayesian MCMC estimation and regression
- 7 analyses of phylogenetic independent contrasts. Analyses of subsampled measurements from
- 8 112 extant and fossil species indicate that the variation in clypeal and mandibular size is

9 uniquely coupled in hell ants, relative to modern ant lineages (Figures 2B and 2C).

10

11 Direct evidence of hell ant predation

12 Specimen NIGP163569 (Figures 3A-D) preserves an instance of haidomyrmecine prey capture 13 in 98.79 ± 0.62 Ma Burmese amber [35]. A single worker of *Ceratomyrmex ellenbergeri* (Figure 14 1D) – a species of hell ant possessing enormous slender mandibles and horn – is restraining a 15 Caputoraptor elegans nymph. Caputoraptor is known exclusively from Cretaceous Burmese 16 amber and a member of the extinct dictyopteran order †Alienoptera (†Alienopteridae) [36, 37]. 17 The mandibles and elongate horn of C. ellenbergeri are grasping the narrowed pronotal neck of 18 the nymphal C. elegans, acting as a collar, a position which is only possible through vertical 19 movement of the mandibles. Caputoraptor possesses an unusual cephalo-pronotal scissor-20 device, which has been hypothesized to aid in copulation, prey capture, or defense [37, 38]. 21 Given the highly specific capture mode reported here, a rapid contraction of the head capsule 22 against the serrated thorax by Caputoraptor may have been enough to evade predation by hell 23 ants. Ants and almost all other hexapods have dicondylic mandibles, which limit movement to 24 one axis. It is not yet known if hell ants have lost a condyle or restructured condyle placement, 25 however extant ants notably exhibit modified mandible joints - the dorsal mandibular socket is 26 widened and allows for gliding relative to the more restrictive ball-in-socket joint found in other 27 Hymenoptera [39]. This gliding likely increases range of motion and could be implicated in hell 28 ant prey capture.

29

30 Diversity in hell ant mandibles and horns likely reflects alternative adaptations for prey 31 capture. Prey were either pinned or pierced between sharp mandibles and head appendages,

32 which would kill on contact or allow for a subsequent immobilizing sting. Taxa with unarmed, 33 elongate horns such as *Ceratomyrmex* apparently grasped prey externally. Others such as

34

Haidomyrmex and Linguamyrmex are suspected to have impaled prey – potentially feeding on

- 35 internal liquid released after mandibular strikes as in some extant trap jaw ants [5, 40].
- 36

37 A doomed Cretaceous radiation

38 Haidomyrmecine "hell ants" were undoubtedly predators. While the postcephalic features of the 39 subfamily are consistent with other ant taxa [1, 14, 34], extreme modifications in cephalic

40 morphology define this enigmatic group. Hell ant mandibles, typified by dorsal expansions and a

- 41 sharp apical point, are expanded toward the vertex of the head [2, 4] while the clypeus is heavily
- 42 modified into a variety of nodes and horns in the context of the mandibles (Figures 1A-G and
- 43 S3). The apex of the mandibles and terminus of the clypeal processes are always in close
- 44 proximity when mandibles are closed suggesting the two are functionally integrated [4, 18, 34].

1 In at least one haidomyrmecine, *Linguamyrmex vladi*, the clypeal horn cuticle appears to be 2 medially reinforced, potentially with sequestered metals [5]. Accommodating the horn and 3 mandible, the head is dorso-ventrally elongate in most haidomyrmecines, whereby the oral 4 opening faces downward. While not hypognathous in the strict sense, this orientation is similar 5 to that of other aculeate Hymenoptera and many insects [41]. Modern ants are prognathic [42], 6 orienting their mouth forward by keeping the underside of the head parallel with the ground, 7 although the head may be pulled back to nearly flush with the propleuron. Hell ants appear to 8 have had limited head mobility and likely captured prey while keeping the oral opening 9 downward, which positioned the mandibles forward while hunting.

10

11 Extant "trap-jaw" ants provide insight into prey capture in haidomyrmecines. Trap jaw 12 syndromes – with rapidly closing mandibles that are released by a locking apparatus – have 13 evolved at least four times in extant ants [43]. Trap-jaw ants lock their mandibles into a wide-14 open horizontal position until prey initiate power-amplified closure by stimulating specialized 15 setae, or trigger hairs [44]. Rapidly closing mandibles strike prey, initially killing in some species 16 or grasping until a venomous sting is applied [45]. These mandible strikes are among the fastest 17 animal movements recorded [46]. Most haidomyrmecines have long, fine setae within the 18 hypothesized range of mandibular movement that have been interpreted as trigger hairs 19 (Figures 1A-D) [4, 5, 18, 34]. Some trap-jaw ants feed on fast moving prev such as springtails. 20 but many are generalists, feeding on termites, orthopterans, and spiders [40, 47]. Extant trap-21 jaw ant mandibles do not make contact with the head capsule but close against each other and 22 so mouthpart specialization reflects mandible-on-mandible contact (Figure 1J).

23

24 The Cretaceous ant fauna was rich, composed almost entirely of now extinct lineages that 25 did not persist beyond the K-Pg boundary [3]. Molecular divergence date estimates indicate that 26 crown ants extend into the Early Cretaceous [48, 49, 50, 51]. Early members of extant ant 27 lineages coexisted with stem taxa, including hell ants, for tens of millions of years. Following 28 their divergence in the Cretaceous, crown ants continued to diversify, with highest rates from 29 the late Cretaceous through the Oligocene [49, 52]. Despite consistent increases in diversity 30 over time among extant lineages [53], there has been no repeated evolution of 31 haidomyrmecine-like morphology. Early expansions in morphological variation are well known in 32 certain extinct taxa [54] but may be uncommon or difficult to measure [55, 56]. The evolutionary 33 pathway for early diversity may also be ambiguous. Hell ants reflect a series of adaptive forms

and a pattern of morphological diversity contingent on an innovation in mouthpart movement.
 Without an initial switch to vertically articulating mandibles, modern ant lineages never infiltrated
 the morphospace of their extinct counterparts.

37

Vertical mandible movement is present in aquatic larvae of some *Hydrophus* beetles [57, 58]. The larvae are predators of shelled shrimp, and use their specialized head projection in conjunction with mandibles to grasp prey [59]. Despite staggering anatomical diversity of insects, larval dytiscid beetles and hell ants together appear to represent the only two known instances of mandible-on-head contact used in prey capture [59], both appearing with vertically-articulating mouthparts. In the absence of a mandibular counterforce, mandibles interact with the head capsule [59] and act as a lower jaw analogous to the dentary and cranium of

1 vertebrates. An initial innovation in mandible articulation led to functional and evolutionary

- 2 integration [60] and feedback between horn and mandible, which provided access to new
- 3 adaptive space. The modular elements implicated in this syndrome were driven to striking
- 4 extremes. Such a pattern is visible when comparing *Protoceratomyrmex*, with a weakly
- 5 developed horn and stout mandibles, with *Linguamyrmex* and *Certomyrmex*, which possesses 6 increasingly co-exaggerated features (Figures 1A-G and S3). A similar, convergent pattern is
- also present in a sister clade including *Dhagnathos* and *Ceratomyrmex* (Figures 1E-F).
- 8
- 9

10 The ecological pressures and developmental requirements that led to vertical mandible 11 articulation are not yet known. Also unclear are the conditions that drove haidomyrmecines to 12 extinction after persisting for a period of at least 20 million years across present day Asia, 13 Europe, and North America. Predatory specialization may have rendered hell ants susceptible 14 to extinction during periods of ecological change. However, generalized stem-group taxa - such 15 as Gerontoformica – also disappear from the fossil record toward the end of the Cretaceous, suggesting other factors may have played a role including competition with burgeoning extant 16 17 ants. While haidomyrmecines and other stem ants were eusocial - evidenced by distinct 18 reproductive castes [2] - perhaps a distinct feature of crown ant sociality provided a bulwark 19 against extinction. Regardless of the conditions leading to their loss, our findings implicate 20 functional integration in shaping the aberrant phenotypic diversity of extinct taxa. Remarkably, 21 this example came as an antecedent to one of the most ubiquitous terrestrial lineages alive

- 22 today.
- 23
- 24

25

26

27 Acknowledgements

28 We are grateful to Martina Decker, Oliver Budd, Jackson Fordham, and Victor Nzegwu at the

- 29 New Jersey Institute of Technology (NIJT) for 3D model reconstruction; Dinghua Yang
- 30 (NIGPAS) for artistic reconstruction of predation; C. Sosiak (NIJT) with coding information for
- 31 *Haidoterminus*; Peta Hayes and Claire Mellish for facilitating access to the Natural History
- 32 Museum, London type material for P.B; D.A. Grimaldi, E.O. Wilson, and three anonymous
- 33 reviewers provided helpful feedback that improved the manuscript. This research was supported
- 34 by the Strategic Priority Research Program of the Chinese Academy of Sciences
- 35 (XDB2600000) and National Natural Science Foundation of China (41688103).
- 36

37 Author Contributions

38 Conceptualization, P.B., V.P., and B.W.; Formal Analysis, P.B., and V.P.; Investigation, P.B.,

- V.P., and B.W.; Methodology, P.B., V.P., and B.W.; Resources, P.B., V.P., and B.W.; Writing P.B., V.P., and B.W.
- 41

42 Declaration of Interests

- 43 The authors declare no competing interests.
- 44

1 Figure Legends

- 2 Fig. 1. Phylogeny and cephalic homology of hell ants and modern lineages. (Left)
- 3 Relationships among ant lineages and stem ants from Bayesian optimization of 64 characters
- 4 with constrained extant topology and divergence dates from Borowiec et al. [51]. (Right) Digitally
- 5 sculpted 3D reconstructions of hell ant genera: (A) *Haidomyrmex*; (B) *Protoceratomyrmex*; (C) 6 *Linguamyrmex*; (D) *Ceratomyrmex*; (E) *Dhagnathos*; (F) *Chonidris*; (G) *Aquilomyrmex*.
- 7 Scanning electron microscopy micrographs of extant ants: (H) Leptanilla; (I) Amblyopone; (J)
- 8 Anochetus; (K) Aneuretus; (L) Nothomyrmecia; (M) Tetraponera. H-I,K-M courtesy Roberto A.
- 9 Keller/AMNH; J from Alex Wild. Orange: mandibles; Blue: clypeus; Yellow: labrum; Purple:
- 10 frontal triangle. See also Figures S1 and S3, Table S1.

11 Fig. 2. Morphospace and evolutionary integration of living and Cretaceous ants. (A)

- 12 Principal coordinate analysis morphospace of cephalic characters (variance: PCo1 30%, PCo2
- 13 19%). (B) Slope (inset) and R-squared summary of linear regression analyses. Regressions
- 14 were performed on phylogenetic independent contrasts of scaled clypeal and mandibular area
- 15 (maximum length x maximum height / head area) in lateral view. Each slope represents one of
- 16 five subfamilial (n=8-15), three congeneric (n=9), or two Formicidae-wide (n=24, 61)
- 17 subsamples. Hell ants exhibit a strong positive relationship and high coefficient of determination
- between these traits (m=1.3, R2 =0.93, P<0.001), a result of integration following an innovation in mandibular function. (C) Posterior distribution of Bayesian estimates of evolutionary
- 20 correlation between clypeal and mandibular area in extant (n=24, \bar{x} =0.18) and hell ant (n=8, \bar{x}
- 21 =0.72) taxa included in Fig. 1 phylogeny. See also Figures S1 and S2, Table S2.
- 22 Fig. 3. Predation preserved in amber. (A–C), specimen NIGP163569, a worker of
- 23 *Ceratomyrmex ellenbergeri* grasping a nymph of *Caputoraptor elegans* (Alienoptera) preserved 24 in Burmese amber dated to ~99 Ma. (A) dorsal view; (B) reconstruction of specimen; (C) ventral
- view of mandibles closed around the pronotal neck; (D) simplified reconstruction from oblique
- 26 lateral view. Abbreviations: amd, apical portion of *Ceratomyrmex* mandibles; mib, mandibular
- 27 medioventral blade of *Ceratomyrmex*; e, compound eye of *Caputoraptor*; pg, protruding
- 28 extension of *Caputoraptor*'s gena.
- 29
- 30 STAR Methods
- 31

32 **RESOURCE AVAILABILITY**

33

34 Lead Contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Phillip Barden (barden@njit.edu).

37

38 Materials Availability

- 39 This study did not generate new unique reagents.
- 40

41 Data and Code Availability

- 42 The phylogenetic matrix and trees generated during this study are available at TreeBase
- 43 [TB2:S26540]. The published article includes all morphometric data generated and analyzed
- 44 during this study.

1 EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

2 Studied material for reported predation

3 Specimen NIGP163569. A worker of Ceratomyrmex ellenbergeri, exposed in dorsal and ventral 4 views, with an insect nymph (family +Alienopteridae) caught between the mandibles and the 5 cephalic horn. The preservation is average, both syninclusions are coated in small bubbles 6 attached to their exoskeleton. In a rounded piece of clear yellow amber measuring 13×10×6 7 mm. Note: The specimen – from the Hukawng Valley, Kachin State, Myanmar – was deposited 8 in the Nanjing Institute of Geology and Palaeontology, Chinese Academy of Sciences (NIGPAS) 9 prior to the 2017 military control of some mine regions (work on this manuscript began in early 10 2017). The fossil acquired by NIGPAS was collected in full compliance with the laws of Myanmar and China including Regulation on the Protection of Fossils of China. To avoid any 11 12 confusion and misunderstanding, all authors declare that the fossil reported in this study was 13 not involved in armed conflict and ethnic strife in Myanmar. The specimen is deposited in the 14 public repository NIGPAS and is available for study. 15

16 Specimens for phylogenetic and morphometric data

- 17 All sampled specimens were adult female ants in museum collections. Specimens analyzed for
- 18 phylogenetic coding and morphometric data collection are noted by specimen number in Data
- 19 S1. All fossil specimens were previously described and are housed in the following collections:
- 20 American Museum of Natural History (AMNH), Geology Department and Museum of the
- 21 University Rennes 1 (IGR), Nanjing Institute of Geology and Palaeontology, Chinese Academy
- 22 of Sciences (NIGPAS), and University of Alberta Strickland Entomology Museum (UASM).
- 23 Morphometric measurements of extant taxa were obtained through the image database AntWeb
- 24 [11] with specimen numbers noted in Data S1.
- 25

26 METHOD DETAILS

27 **Phylogenetic dataset**

- A recent phylogenetic analysis of Cretaceous and modern ants indicated that hell ants are a
- 29 monophyletic stem-group [3, 61]. However, at the time of this analysis, only three
- 30 haidomyrmecine genera were known. We performed a series of expanded phylogenetic
- 31 analyses under alternate optimality criteria and analytical parameters to assess 1) the internal
- 32 relationships of the haidomyrmecines as well as 2) the position of hell ants within Formicidae.
- 33 We constructed a morphological matrix with 65 unordered, discrete characters: 37 were drafted
- 34 from the matrix of Barden and Grimaldi [3] indicated with an asterisk* in the character list in
- 35 Methods S1 which itself comprised novel characters as well as characters from Keller [62].
- 36 Some haidomyrmecine taxa are known only from alates or workers. To reduce the impact of
- 37 caste-specific morphological variation biasing the matrix construction and phylogenetic
- 38 inference, we did not add any additional caste-specific characters. Taxa with unknown worker
- 39 castes were coded as missing for worker-specific characters. Because some genera are only
- 40 known from alate or dealate taxa, which can exhibit significantly different thoracic sculpturing,
 41 additional characters were selected primarily from the head and metasoma. Features from
- 42 these areas vary less significantly among reproductive castes in known congeneric stem ant
- 43 morphotypes. Eight of the newly added characters included inapplicable states based on
- 44 contingent character systems (e.g. taxa without any horns were coded as inapplicable for
- 45 characters representing horn-related states). Characters were coded for a total of 46 terminals:
- 46 four outgroup taxa, 24 crown ants, and 18 stem ants (Table S1). Nine of the stem ant terminals

1 are within the Haidomyrmecinae. One of the crown ants, Kyromyrma neffi, is a fossil species

- 2 included to assess the impact of incomplete data. All haidomyrmecine genera are monotypic,
- 3 with the exception of Haidomyrmex and Linguamyrmex, which includes H. scimitarus, H. zigrasi,
- 4 and the type species, H. cerberus and L. brevicornis, L. rhinocerus, and the type species L.
- 5 vladi, respectively. Coding for Haidomyrmex and Linguamyrmex was based on chimeric scoring
- 6 for all congeners, which were not found to be distinct in the context of characters selected here.
- 7 The matrix included 2.8% missing states and 12.7% inapplicable states. Fossil taxa ranged
- 8 between 0% missing data in cases where several specimens are known such as species of
- 9 Gerontoformica to 21.5% with Myanmyrma gracilis known from a single fragmentary specimen.
- 10

11 Morphometric dataset

12 We compiled a dataset of clypeal and mandibular dimensions for 112 living and fossil ant

- 13 species by taking measurements of imaged specimens from AntWeb [11] and fossil specimens
- 14 (Data S1). Our measurements included:
- 15 Head length (HL) - length from the vertex to the anterior margin of the head capsule at 16 or above the oral opening in lateral view.
- 17 **Head depth (HD)** – maximum depth of the head in lateral view, comprising the frons 18 or vertex at its dorsal-most and subgenal area at its ventral-most, excluding any clypeal 19 horn in haidomyrmecines.
- 20 **Clypeal length (CL)** – length of the clypeus in lateral view from the anterior-most 21 expanse of the clypeus to the posterior-most expansion of the clypeus (the posterior-22 most region may correspond to the epistomal sulcus or the subgenal sulcus, depending 23 on the taxon). In cases where the epistomal sulcus is not visible from a lateral view, the 24 posterior margin of the clypeus was approximated by noting the relative position of the
- 25 sulcus to the antennal sockets in a frontal view, then measuring to this position.
- 26 Clypeal depth (CD) – maximum depth of the clypeus in lateral view from just above the 27 mandibular insertion at its lowest to the maximum elevational height, taken 28 perpendicular to CL.
- 29 Mandible length (ML) – Lateral length of mandible from insertion to apex.
- 30 Mandible height (MH) - Maximal height of mandible taken in lateral view from ventral-31 most to dorsal-most margins or teeth.
- 32

33 Our taxonomic sampling includes representatives of all 17 extant subfamilies (67 genera) and

- 34 each known extant trap-jaw genus. We also sampled multiple congeners for lineages with highly 35 specialized mandibles including Dorylus, Harpegnathos, Mystrium, and Protalaridris. Moreover,
- 36 we sampled congeners from three trap-jaw genera with known internal phylogenetic
- 37 relationships: Anochetus, Odontomachus, and Strumigenys. We took measurements for all taxa
- 38 included in our morphology-based phylogenetic reconstruction (noted with * in Data S1), except
- 39 for Brownimecia, Haidomyrmodes, Myanmyrma, and Sphecomyrma due to poor preservation. In
- 40 the event that we could not locate suitable images or specimens, we substituted species
- 41 included in the phylogeny for congeners for which we could collect accurate measurements
- 42 (noted with ** in Data S1). To evaluate the relationship between traits in haidomyrmecines and
- 43 extant ants, we created three size-scaled metrics of clypeus and mandible development: 44
 - **Area** (Trait Length x Trait Height/Depth) / (Head Length x Head Depth)

- Depth/Height Trait Height/Depth / Head Length
 Length Trait Length / Head Length
- 3 4

Three-dimensional reconstructions

5 Models were constructed and rendered in Blender v2.79 (Blender Foundation, Amsterdam,

6 Netherlands) by Oliver Budd, Jackson Fordham, and Victor Nzegwu, led by P.B. and Martina

7 Decker at the New Jersey Institute of Technology (NIJT). To provide an initial foundation for

8 digital sculpting, photomicrographs and a CT scan of *Haidomyrmex scimitarus* specimen AMNH

9 BuFB80 were imported into Blender for side-by side comparison. The head morphology of

Haidomyrmodes [2] and Haidoterminus [18] are largely similar to Haidomyrmex; these taxa
 were not modeled.

12

13 QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

1415 Phylogenetic analyses

16 The matrix was optimized under both parsimony and Bayesian inference (BI). Parsimony

17 optimization included equal (EW) and implied weighting (IW). We ran tree searches agnostically

18 without any topological constraints, and with the crown ant topology constrained to the results of

19 the latest large-scale molecular phylogenetic hypothesis [51]. Morphological phylogenies have

20 been in significant disagreement with molecular-based hypothesis, so this topological constraint

21 was included to assess the sensitivity of our results to changing character polarity. Our

22 phylogenetic assessment therefore included a total of six searches: EW Parsimony, IW

23 Parsimony, and Bayesian inference each with and without a topological constraint (EWC, IWC,

24 BIC, EWUC, IWUC, BIUC).

25

26 Trees were generated under a parsimony framework in TNT v1.5 (equal and implied weights)

27 [63, 64]. All parsimony optimizations utilized the 'xmult' command with tree-drifting, ratchetting,

and sectorial searches until the lowest score tree was identified one hundred times

29 independently. Tree support was assessed with 1000 bootstrap pseudoreplicates. Topological

30 constraints were employed with the "Force" command. Our unconstrained EW search returned

31 160 most parsimonious trees of 212 steps with a consistency index (CI) of 0.33 and retention

32 index (RI) of 0.66; the constrained topology EW search resulted in four most parsimonious trees

33 of 242 steps (CI: 0.32, RI: 0.65). Implied weights parsimony reconstructions were performed

34 with the 'xpiwe' command with a default k-value of 3 [65]. The implied weights phylogeny was

35 more resolved and supported (Fig. S1A) in both the unconstrained (CI: 0.37, RI: 0.77) and

- 36 constrained (CI: 0.32, RI: 0.66) searches.
- 37

38 Bayesian inference was performed in MrBayes v3.2.7a [66]. We excluded character 13,

39 antennal segment number, from Bayesian searches as it comprises a large number of character

40 states. We specified variable coding with a gamma rate distribution i.e. under a Mkv + gamma

41 model [67]. Searches were run for ten million generations with four chains under default

42 parameters of three heated and one cold. We removed 25% of sampled trees as burn-in.

43 Topology was fixed with the "constraint" command for the restricted topology search. We

44 assessed convergence for searches by ensuring that the average standard deviation of split

1 frequencies was less than 0.01, potential scale reduction factors were equal to ~1, and

- 2 estimated sample size (ESS) exceeded 200. ESS was assessed in Tracer v1.7.1 [68]. Because
- 3 fossil branches do not terminate in the present, we performed phylogenetic estimation with tip-
- 4 dating to generate more accurate branch lengths used in phylogenetic comparative methods.
- 5 Tip dating allows for fossil terminals to calibrate divergence date estimates, which provides
- 6 temporally informed branch length estimates for fossils [69, 70]. Using the same morphological
- matrix as in our BI phylogenetic analyses, we generated a phylogeny under a fossilized birth–
 death model in MrBayes [71]. We constrained monophyly according to the results of our BIC
- 9 analysis and calibrated the phylogeny through Cretaceous fossil terminal dates. As in our BIC
- 10 reconstruction, we applied a variable Mk + gamma model for a single morphological partition.
- 11 We applied a clock-constrained fossilized birth-death model with the flat and fairly agnostic
- 12 priors of Matzke and Wright [72] for our gamma distribution, clock rate, and birth-death
- 13 (igrvarpr=uniform(0.0001, 200); clockratepr = normal(0.0025,0.1); speciationpr = uniform(0,10);
- extinction pr, fossilization pr = beta(1,1)). Our search was run for ten million generations with
- 15 default chain and temperature settings. We again discarded 25% of sampled trees as burn in
- and assessed convergence as our BIC and BIUC runs. Our results (Fig. S1C) are not meant to
- 17 provide divergence date alternatives to those derived from molecular-based phylogenetics, but
- 18 rather are an attempt to generate another topological hypothesis that incorporates fossil age to
- 19 assess the impact on comparative methods.
- 20

21 Morphospace analyses

To assess the comparative morphospace of hell ants, other stem-ants, crown ants, and non-ant

- 23 aculeate outgroup taxa, we performed a series of principal coordinate analyses (PCo) and
- 24 principal component analyses (PCA). Morphospace plots were generated from phylogenetic
- character matrices used in phylogenetic reconstruction, as in other analyses of morphospace of extinct taxa [73]. However, because inapplicable states can generate artificial positions in
- 27 morphospace [74], morphological matrices were pruned of characters with inapplicable (-)
- 28 states for any terminal. In addition, to ensure that morphospaces were not primarily driven by
- missing data for fossil taxa or anatomical partitioning, we generated three morphospaces: data
- 30 were subsampled into 1) cephalic-only (Fig. 2A) and 2) all-character datasets (Fig. S1B) for PCo
- 31 analyses and 3) a matrix with no missing data for PCA analysis (Fig. S1B). We generated
- 32 euclidean distance matrices in R and PCo analyses with the 'pco' command in the LabDSV
- 33 library [75]. The outgroup taxon *Heterogyna* possessed a great deal of inapplicable states, and
- 34 so was removed from PCo and PCA analyses to include more characters. The taxa
- 35 Brownimecia clavata, Haidomyrmodes mammuthus, and Myanmyrma gracilis contain the
- 36 greatest number of missing states. These taxa were excluded from the PCA analysis to allow for
- 37 greater character sampling as PCA analyses cannot incorporate missing data.
- 38

39 Phylogenetic comparative methods

- 40 To assess the relationship between clypeus and mandible, we performed a series of linear
- 41 regressions on phylogenetic independent contrast scores informed from different taxonomic
- 42 sampling treatments. Our taxonomic sampling reflected the match between our phenotypic
- 43 dataset and available phylogenetic hypotheses. Treatments are outlined in Table S2. We
- 44 performed two extant "formicidae-wide" analyses: one incorporating our dated morphological

1 phylogeny (pruned to 24 matching terminals) and one incorporating the Bayesian genus-tree of 2 Blanchard & Moreau [76] (pruned to 61 matching terminals). We also generated contrast scores 3 for five subfamily-specific treatments: Haidomyrmecinae (our dated morphological phylogeny 4 pruned to 8 matching terminals), Dorylinae (Blanchard & Moreau [76] pruned to 11 matching 5 terminals), Formicinae (the UCE-100 best loci phylogeny of Blaimer et al. [77] pruned to 9 6 matching terminals), Mymicinae (Blanchard & Moreau [76] pruned to 15 matching terminals), 7 and Ponerinae (Blanchard & Moreau [76] pruned to 10 matching terminals) as well as three 8 genus-specific treatments, each pruned to nine terminals: Anochetus [78], Odontomachus [79], 9 and *Strumigenys* [80]. To account for mismatch of species between phylogenies and phenotypic 10 data, we performed analyses at the genus level and did not included multiple congeners in 11 subfamily-specific and formicidae-wide datasets. Generic representatives we included in the 12 Blaimer et al. [77] and Blanchard & Moreau [76] analyses are noted in Data S1 under the 13 column "Data Species". Contrast scores were generated for all metrics of clypeal and 14 mandibular expansion with the "pic" command in the R package ape [81]: Area, Depth/Height, 15 and Length. We then fit linear models to contrast scores in R using the "Im" command. Resulting 16 summary statistics are presented in Table S2 as well as Figures 2 and S2. Across all metrics, 17 hell ants exhibit increased slopes and R-squared values for the linear relationship between 18 clypeus and mandibles relative to extant ant treatments. Reduced Extant-only and Ponerinae-19 only analyses of clypeal depth and mandible height as well as our Odontomachus-only clypeal 20 area and mandibular area analysis recover significant linear relationships, although with 21 reduced slopes and fit than in the case of hell ants. We presented our area-metric in the main-22 text as it includes both individual depth/height and length measurement data. 23

24 We also assessed integration between clypeal and mandibular dimensions in a Bayesian 25 framework with the R package ratematrix [82], which can be used to assess correlation between 26 traits across a phylogeny. We pruned our dated molecular phylogeny to terminals for which we 27 had phenotypic data and labeled all tips as either "hell" mandibular syndrome (dorsally 28 expanded to meet clypeal extensions as in all hell ants) for haidomyrmecines and "typ" 29 mandibular syndrome (typical mandibular development reflected in taxa with horizontal 30 mouthpart articulation, i.e. all non-hell ants) for all other ant taxa. Our tip labeling reflected two 31 reciprocally monophyletic groups of "hell" or "typ" taxa. We then generated 100 simulated trees 32 with stochastic character mapping for the two mandibular syndromes with the 'make.simmap' 33 command in phytools [83]. This sample of trees and our phenotypic data (clypeal and 34 mandibular area, height/depth, and length) were used in two MCMC chain runs employed with 35 'ratematrixMCMC', each spanning five million generations. We discarded 25% of resulting 36 samples as burn in and assessed convergence with the 'checkConvergence' command. We 37 then merged the two chain samples and extracted the posterior distribution and degree of 38 overlap for evolutionary correlation with the 'extractCorrelation' and 'testRatematrix' commands, 39 respectively. We also repeated this process after converting our dated tree to ultrametric with 40 the 'extend' method in phytools to assess any impact in differing branch lengths. Our results 41 (Fig. S2D) recover hell ants as consistently exhibiting higher degrees of evolutionary correlation 42 across clypeal and mandibular area, height/depth, and length in both ultrametric and non-43 ultrametric treatments. We identify a lower degree of overlap in area and height dimensions for 44 non-ultrametric (area: 10.2%; height/depth: 17.1%; length: 48.1%) and ultrametric (area: 24.5%;

1 height/depth: 30.1%; length: 46.3%) treatments, mirroring the results of our PIC analyses but

- 2 demonstrating a less extreme difference between hell ants and crown ants with this
- 3 methodology.

4 5

7

8

11

12

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26 27

28

29

32

33

6 References

- Dlussky, G.M. (1996). Ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) from Burmese amber. Paleontol. J. 30, 449–454.
- Perrichot, V., Nel, A., Néraudeau, D., Lacau, S., and Guyot, T. (2008). New fossil ants in
 French Cretaceous amber (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Naturwissenschaften *95*, 91–97.
 - 3. Barden, P., and Grimaldi, D.A. (2016). Adaptive radiation in socially advanced stemgroup ants from the Cretaceous. Curr. Biol. *26*, 515–521.
- Perrichot, V., Wang, B., and Engel, M. S. (2016). Extreme morphogenesis and ecological
 specialization among Cretaceous basal ants. Curr. Biol. *26*, 1468–1472.
- Barden, P, Herhold, H.W., and Grimaldi, D.A. (2017). A new genus of hell ants from the
 Cretaceous (Hymenoptera: Formicidae: Haidomyrmecini) with a novel head structure.
 Syst. Entomol. *42*, 837–846.
 - Perrichot, V., Wang, B., and Barden, P. (2020). New remarkable hell ants (Formicidae: Haidomyrmecinae stat. nov.) from Cretaceous Burmese amber. Cretaceous Res. *109*, 104381.
 - 7. Bolton, B. (2020). An online catalog of the ants of the world. Available from http://antcat.org.
 - 8. Hölldobler, B., and Wilson, E.O. (1990). The ants (Cambridge: Harvard University Press).
 - 9. Oster, G.F., and Wilson, E.O. (1978) Caste and Ecology in the Social Insects (Princeton: Princeton University Press).
 - 10. Beldade, P., Mateus, A.R.A., and Keller, R.A. (2011). Evolution and molecular mechanisms of adaptive developmental plasticity. Mol. Ecol. *20*, 1347–1363.
 - 11. AntWeb. (2020). Version 8.38.1. California Academy of Science. Available from https://www.antweb.org.
- 12. Wilson, E.O., Carpenter, F.M., and Brown, W.L. (1967). The first Mesozoic ants. Science
 157, 1038–1040.
 - 13. Wilson, E.O. (1985). Ants from the Cretaceous and Eocene amber of North America. Psyche *92*, 205–216.
- 14. Engel, M.S., and Grimaldi, D.A. (2005). Primitive new ants in Cretaceous amber from
 Myanmar, New Jersey, and Canada (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Am. Mus. Novit. 3485,
 1–24.
- 15. Barden, P., and Grimaldi, D.A. (2013). A new genus of highly specialized ants in
 Cretaceous Burmese amber (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Zootaxa *3681*, 405–412.
- 16. LaPolla, J.S., Dlussky, G.M., and Perrichot, V. (2013). Ants and the Fossil Record. Annu.
 Rev. Entomol. *58*, 609–630.
- 41 17. Perrichot, V. (2014). A new species of the Cretaceous ant *Zigrasimecia* based on the
 42 worker caste reveals placement of the genus in the Sphecomyrminae (Hymenoptera:
 43 Formicidae). Myrmecol. News *19*, 165–169.

- 18. McKellar, R.C., Glasier, J., and Engel, M.S. (2013). A new trap-jawed ant (Hymenoptera:
 Formicidae: Haidomyrmecini) from Canadian Late Cretaceous amber. *Can. Entomol.* 145, 454–465.
- 4 19. Miao, Z., and Wang, M. (2019). A new species of hell ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae:
 5 Haidomyrmecini) from the Cretaceous Burmese amber. J. Guangxi Normal Univ. *37*,
 6 139–142.
 - 20. Simpson, G.G. (1944) Tempo and mode in evolution. (New York: Columbia University Press).
- 9 21. Valentine, J.W. (1980). Determinants of diversity in higher taxonomic categories.
 10 Paleobiology *6*, 444–450.

7

8

- 22. Foote, M. (1997). The evolution of morphological diversity. Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst. 28,
 129–152.
- 13 23. Gavrilets, S., and Losos, J.B. (2009). Adaptive radiation: contrasting theory with data.
 14 Science *323*, 732–737.
- 15 24. Slater, G.J., Price, S.A., Santini, F., and Alfaro, M.E. (2010). Diversity versus disparity
 and the radiation of modern cetaceans. Proc. R. Soc. B. *277*, 3097–3104.
- Pie, M.R., and Traniello, J.F.A. (2007). Morphological evolution in a hyperdiverse clade:
 the ant genus *Pheidole*. J. Zool. *271*, 99–109.
- Sarnat, E. M., Friedman, N. R., Fischer, G., Lecrocq-Bennet, B., and Economo, E. P.
 (2017). Rise of the spiny ants: diversification, ecology and function of extreme traits in the
 hyperdiverse genus *Pheidole* (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Biol. J. Linn. Soc. *122*, 514–
 538.
- 27. Wilson, E.O., and Hölldobler, B. (1986). Ecology and behavior of the neotropical
 cryptobiotic ant *Basiceros manni* (Hymenoptera: Formicidae: Basicerotini). Insect. Soc.
 33, 70–84.
- 28. Gnatzy, W., and Maschwitz, U. (2006). Pedestal hairs of the ant *Echinopla melanarctos* (Hymenoptera, Formicidae): morphology and functional aspects. Zoomorphology *125*,
 57–68.
- 29. Dornhaus, A., and Powell, S. (2010). Foraging and defence strategies. In Ant ecology,
 30 Lach, L., Parr, C. L. & Abott, K. L., eds. (New York: Oxford University Press), pp. 210–
 31 230.
- 30. Gotwald Jr., W.H. (1969). Comparative morphological studies of the ants, with particular
 reference to the mouthparts (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Cornell Univ. Agric. Exp. Station
 Mem. 408, 1–150.
- 35 31. Schumann, R.D. 1992. Raiding behavior of the dulotic ant *Chalepoxenus muellerianus* 36 (Finzi) in the field (Hymenoptera: Formicidae, Myrmicinae). Insect. Soc. *39*, 325–333.
- 37 32. Brandão, C.R.F., Diniz, J.L.M., and Tomotake, E.M. (1991). *Thaumatomyrmex* strips
 38 millipedes for prey: a novel predatory behaviour in ants, and the first case of sympatry in
 39 the genus (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Insect. Soc. *38*, 335–344.
- 40 33. Paul, J. (2001). Mandible movements in ants. Comp. Biochem. Phys. A. *131*, 7–20.
- 34. Barden, P., and Grimaldi, D.A. (2012). Rediscovery of the bizarre Cretaceous ant
 Haidomyrmex Dlussky (Hymenoptera: Formicidae), with two new species. Am. Mus.
 Novit. 3755, 1–16.

35. Shi, G., Grimaldi, D.A., Harlow, G.E., Wang, J., Wang, J., Yang, M., Lei, W., Li, Q., and 1 2 Li, X. (2012). Age constraint on Burmese amber based on U–Pb dating of zircons. 3 Cretaceous Res. 37, 155–163. 4 36. Bai, M., Beutel, R.G., Klass, K.D., Zhang, W., Yang, X., and Wipfler, B. (2016). 5 †Alienoptera—A new insect order in the roach-mantodean twilight zone. Gondwana Res. 6 *39*, 317–326. 7 37. Bai, M., Beutel, R.G., Zhang, W., Wang, S., Hörnig, M., Gröhn, C., Yan, E., Yang, X., and 8 Wipfler, B. (2018). A new Cretaceous insect with a unique cephalo-thoracic scissor 9 device. Curr. Biol. 28, 438-443. 10 38. Kočárek, P. (2018). The cephalo-thoracic apparatus of Caputoraptor elegans may have 11 been used to squeeze prey. Curr. Biol. 28, R824-R825. 12 39. Richter, A., Keller, R.A., Rosumek, F.B., Economo, E.P., Garcia, F.H., and Beutel, R.G. 13 (2019). The cephalic anatomy of workers of the ant species Wasmannia affinis 14 (Formicidae, Hymenoptera, Insecta) and its evolutionary implications. Arthropod Struct. & 15 Dev. 49, 26–49. 16 40. Moffett, M.W. (1986). Trap-jaw predation and other observations on two species of 17 Myrmoteras (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Insect. Soc. 33, 85-99. 18 41. Snodgrass, R.E. (1935). Principles of insect morphology (Ithaca: Cornell University 19 Press). 20 42. Bolton, B. (2003). Synopsis and classification of Formicidae. Mem. Am. Entomol. Inst. 71, 21 1 - 370.22 43. Larabee, F.J., and Suarez, A.V. (2014). The evolution and functional morphology of trap-23 jaw ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Myrmecol. News 19, 25-36. 24 44. Gronenberg, W. (1995). The fast mandible strike in the trap-jaw ant Odontomachus. J. 25 Comp. Physiol. A. 176, 399-408. 26 45. Bolton, B. (1999). Ant genera of the tribe Dacetonini (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). J. Nat. 27 Hist. 33, 1639–1689. 28 46. Patek, S.N., Baio, J.E., Fisher, B.L., and Suarez, A.V. (2006). Multifunctionality and 29 mechanical origins: ballistic jaw propulsion in trap-jaw ants. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 30 *103*, 12787–12792. 31 47. Ehmer, B., and Hölldobler, B. (1995). Foraging behavior of Odontomachus bauri on Barro 32 Colorado island, Panama. Psyche 102, 215-224. 33 48. Brady, S.G., Schultz, T.R., Fisher, B.L., and Ward, P.S. (2006). Evaluating alternative 34 hypotheses for the early evolution and diversification of ants. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 35 *103*, 18172–18177. 49. Moreau, C.S., Bell, C.D., Vila, R., Archibald, S.B., and Pierce, N.E. (2006). Phylogeny of 36 37 the ants: diversification in the age of angiosperms. Science 312, 101-104. 38 50. Moreau, C.S., and Bell, C.D. (2013). Testing the museum versus cradle tropical biological 39 diversity hypothesis: phylogeny, diversification, and ancestral biogeographic range 40 evolution of the ants. Evolution 67, 2240-2257. 41 51. Borowiec, M.L., Rabeling, C., Brady, S.G., Fisher, B.L., Schultz, T.R., and Ward, P.S. 42 (2019). Compositional heterogeneity and outgroup choice influence the internal 43 phylogeny of the ants. Mol. Phylogenet. and Evol. 134, 111–121.

- 1 52. Economo, E.P., Narula, N., Friedman, N.R., Weiser, M.D., and Guénard, B. (2018). 2 Macroecology and macroevolution of the latitudinal diversity gradient in ants. Nat. Comm. 3 9, 1778.
 - 53. Pie, M.R., and Tschá, M.K. (2009). The macroevolutionary dynamics of ant diversification. Evolution 63, 3023-3030.

4

5

6

7

8

9

11

17

18

19

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

- 54. Hughes, M., Gerber, S., and Wills, M.A. (2013). Clades reach highest morphological disparity early in their evolution. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 110, 13875–13879.
- 55. Harmon, L.J., Losos, J.B., Davies, J.T., Gillespie, R.G., Gittleman, J.L., Jennings, B.W., Kozak, K.H., McPeek, M.A., Moreno-Roark, F., Near, T.J. and Purvis, A. (2010). Early 10 bursts of body size and shape evolution are rare in comparative data. Evolution 64, 2385--2396.
- 12 56. Hopkins, M.J., and Smith, A.B. (2015). Dynamic evolutionary change in post-Paleozoic 13 echinoids and the importance of scale when interpreting changes in rates of evolution. 14 Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 112, 3758-3763.
- 15 57. Böving, A.G., and Craighead, F.C. (1931) An illustrated synopsis of the principal larval 16 forms of the order Coleoptera (Brooklyn: Brooklyn Entomological Society).
 - 58. Friis, H., Bauer, T., and Betz, O. (2003). An insect larva with a 'pig-snout': structure and function of the nasale of Hyphydrus ovatus L. (1763) (Coleoptera: Dytiscidae). J. Zool. 261, 5968.
- 20 59. Hayashi, M., and Ohba, S.Y. (2018). Mouth morphology of the diving beetle Hyphydrus 21 japonicus (Dytiscidae: Hydroporinae) is specialized for predation on seed shrimps. Biol. J. 22 Linn. Soc. 125, 315-320.
 - 60. Armbruster, W.S., Pélabon, C., Bolstad, G.H., and Hansen, T.F. (2014). Integrated phenotypes: understanding trait covariation in plants and animals. Philos. T. R. Soc. B. *369*, 20130245.
 - 61. Barden, P. (2017). Fossil ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae): ancient diversity and the rise of modern lineages. Myrmecol. News 24, 1-30.
 - 62. Keller, R.A. (2011). A phylogenetic analysis of ant morphology (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) with special reference to the poneromorph subfamilies. B. Am. Mus. Nat. Hist. 355, 1-90.
- 31 63. Goloboff, P.A., and Catalano, S.A. (2016). TNT version 1.5, including a full 32 implementation of phylogenetic morphometrics. Cladistics 32, 221–238.
- 33 64. Goloboff, P.A. (1993). Estimating character weights during tree search. Cladistics 9, 83-34 91.
- 35 65. Goloboff, P.A. (2014). Extended implied weighting. Cladistics 30, 260-272.
- 36 66. Ronguist, F., Teslenko, M., Van Der Mark, P., Ayres, D.L., Darling, A., Höhna, S., Larget, 37 B., Liu, L., Suchard, M.A., and Huelsenbeck, J.P. (2012). MrBayes 3.2: efficient Bayesian 38 phylogenetic inference and model choice across a large model space. Syst. Biol. 61, 39 539-542.
- 40 67. Lewis, P.O. (2001). A likelihood approach to estimating phylogeny from discrete 41 morphological character data. Syst. Biol. 50, 913–925.
- 42 68. Rambaut, A., Drummond, A.J., Xie, D., Baele, G., and Suchard, M.A. (2018). Posterior 43 summarization in Bayesian phylogenetics using Tracer 1.7. Syst. Biol. 67, 901–904.

- 1 69. Ware, J.L., Grimaldi, D.A., and Engel, M.S. (2010). The effects of fossil placement and 2 calibration on divergence times and rates: an example from the termites (Insecta: 3 Isoptera). Arthropod Struct. & Dev. 39, 204-219. 4 70. Ronquist, F., Klopfstein, S., Vilhelmsen, L., Schulmeister, S., Murray, D.L., and 5 Rasnitsyn, A.P. (2012). A total-evidence approach to dating with fossils, applied to the 6 early radiation of the Hymenoptera. Syst. Biol. 61, 973–999. 7 71. Zhang, C., Stadler, T., Klopfstein, S., Heath, T.A., and Ronquist, F. (2015). Total-8 evidence dating under the fossilized birth-death process. Syst. Biol. 65, 228249. 9 72. Matzke, N.J., and Wright, A. (2016). Inferring node dates from tip dates in fossil Canidae: 10 the importance of tree priors. Biol. Letters 12, 20160328. 11 73. Brusatte, S.L. Benton, M.J., Ruta, M., and Lloyd, G.T. (2008). Superiority, competition, 12 and opportunism in the evolutionary radiation of dinosaurs. Science 321, 1485-1488. 13 74. Gerber, S. (2019). Use and misuse of discrete character data for morphospace and 14 disparity analyses. Palaeontology 62, 305-319. 15 75. Roberts, D.W. (2007). LabDSV: Ordination and multivariate analysis for ecology. R 16 package version, 1. 17 76. Blanchard, B.D., and Moreau, C.S. (2017). Defensive traits exhibit an evolutionary trade-18 off and drive diversification in ants. Evolution 71, 315–328. 19 77. Blaimer, B.B., Brady, S.G., Schultz, T.R., Lloyd, M.W., Fisher, B.L., and Ward, P.S. 20 (2015). Phylogenomic methods outperform traditional multi-locus approaches in resolving 21 deep evolutionary history: a case study of formicine ants. BMC Evol. Biol. 15, 271. 22 78. Larabee, F.J., Fisher, B.L., Schmidt, C.A., Matos-Maraví, P., Janda, M., and Suarez, A.V. 23 (2016). Molecular phylogenetics and diversification of trap-jaw ants in the genera 24 Anochetus and Odontomachus (Hymenoptera: Formicidae). Mol. Phylogenet. and Evol. 25 103, 143–154. 26 79. Matos-Maraví, P., Matzke, N.J., Larabee, F.J., Clouse, R.M., Wheeler, W.C., Sorger, 27 D.M., Suarez, A.V., and Janda, M. (2018). Taxon cycle predictions supported by model-28 based inference in Indo-Pacific trap-jaw ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae: 29 Odontomachus). Mol. Ecol. 27, 4090-4107. 30 80. Ward, P.S., Brady, S.G., Fisher, B.L., and Schultz, T.R. (2015). The evolution of 31 myrmicine ants: phylogeny and biogeography of a hyperdiverse ant clade (Hymenoptera: 32 Formicidae). Syst. Entomol. 40, 61–81. 33 81. Paradis, E., Claude, J., and Strimmer, K. (2004). APE: analyses of phylogenetics and 34 evolution in R language. Bioinformatics 20, 289-290. 35 82. Caetano, D.S., and Harmon, L.J. (2017). ratematrix: An R package for studying 36 evolutionary integration among several traits on phylogenetic trees. Methods. Ecol. Evol. 37 *8*, 1920–1927. 38 83. Revell, L.J. (2012). phytools: an R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and 39 other things). Methods. Ecol. Evol. 3, 217–223. 40 41
- 42







