

1 **The origins and diversification of hummingbird pollination in Bromeliaceae**

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8

9 **Abstract**

10 Bromeliaceae are a model group for understanding explosive Neotropical diversification,
11 combining remarkable ecological breadth and high species richness, despite relatively
12 recent evolutionary origins. Several drivers are hypothesised to accelerate bromeliad
13 diversification, and hummingbird pollination is frequently proposed to be among the
14 strongest. However, our understanding has been limited by sparse and uneven pollinator
15 datasets and by the amount of diversification rate variation in bromeliads, much of which can
16 be explained by other drivers. Here we assemble a novel database of published pollinators
17 for 403 bromeliad species spanning 70% of genera across all subfamilies, and analyse these
18 data in a phylogenetic framework. We estimate ancestral states, which indicate widespread
19 lability, including many previously unknown transitions. Many of these occur in recent
20 evolutionary time, indicating ongoing turnover in pollinators. Despite pronounced background
21 diversification rate heterogeneity, hummingbird pollination is confirmed to be a primary driver
22 of diversification, a result that we show is unlikely to change even under unrealistic
23 assumptions of its prevalence in unsampled species. Our findings support hummingbirds as
24 a central organising force in the complex web of bromeliad evolution, and provide a
25 foundation for future data collection and integrative analyses in this charismatic family.

26

27 **Introduction**

28 The Neotropics are one of the great centres of biodiversity, spanning a vast geographic
29 region and harbouring a large proportion of the planet's vascular plant species, many of
30 which are endemic (Antonelli and Sanmartín 2011; Hughes et al. 2012; Raven et al. 2020).
31 The bromeliads (family Bromeliaceae) capture some of the most remarkable aspects of
32 Neotropical biodiversity and are considered a model system for evolution (Palma-Silva and
33 Fay 2020). With over 3,700 species in eight subfamilies and about 80 genera (Givnish et al.
34 2011; Kessous et al. 2024), bromeliads are one of the largest flowering plant families in the
35 Neotropics, and occupy an exceptional diversity of ecological niches (Givnish et al. 2011,
36 2014; Kessous et al. 2024). These range from seasonally dry lowlands and inselbergs to
37 humid mountain forests and cloud forest canopies (Biedinger et al. 2000; Cervantes et al.
38 2005; Toledo-Aceves et al. 2014). Their ecological breadth is underpinned by remarkable
39 ecomorphological diversity. Within the family, epiphytism has repeatedly evolved (Zotz et al.
40 2021), along with tank formation which supports numerous animal and microbial species
41 (Males 2016; Ladino et al. 2019; Simão et al. 2020; Barberis et al. 2023), specialised
42 photosynthetic pathways (Crain et al. 2004, 2015), and a wide range of growth forms and
43 reproductive strategies (Griffiths and Smith 1983; Kessler et al. 2019). What makes
44 bromeliad evolution so remarkable is the evolutionary tempo implied by their estimated age
45 of origin (Palma-Silva and Fay 2020; Kessous et al. 2024). While bromeliads likely originated
46 in the Cretaceous (~100 Mya), molecular evidence suggests that diversification of extant
47 lineages did not begin until the early Miocene (~20 Mya), following a long stem lineage
48 (Givnish et al. 2018; Kessous et al. 2021). This implies that their extant species richness and
49 ecomorphological diversity evolved over a relatively short timescale, meaning that
50 diversification rates exceed those of many large vertebrate groups, which have much older
51 origins (Upham et al. 2019). Bromeliads are therefore an exceptional example of rapid
52 Neotropical diversification, and the forces behind this success remain unresolved (Givnish et
53 al. 2014; Palma-Silva and Fay 2020; Kessous et al. 2024).

55 Across the angiosperm Tree of Life, research seeks to identify the adaptive traits shaping
56 diversification rates (de Queiroz 2002; Sauquet and Magallón 2018). These are often
57 described as key innovations, readily accessible adaptations that enable species to exploit
58 new resources, reduce competition and expand their ranges, leading to reproductive
59 isolation and speciation (Givnish 2010). The identification of these adaptations, and external
60 forces including climate (Jansson and Davies 2008; Li et al. 2013; Thompson et al. 2023), is
61 therefore central to understanding both the origins of biodiversity and the potential directions
62 it may take in our changing planet (Cahill et al. 2013; Hatfield et al. 2025). When
63 diversification is rapid and occurring alongside repeated ecological divergences, it is often
64 described as an adaptive radiation (Schluter 2000). However, recent work has emphasised
65 that many plant radiations, especially those that are very rich and widespread across
66 heterogeneous environments, may instead indicate explosive diversification (Givnish 2015)
67 driven by interactions between adaptations and environments, rather than any single key
68 innovation acting independently (Givnish et al. 2015; Sauquet and Magallón 2018;
69 Thompson et al. 2024). Within bromeliads, previous phylogenetic studies have implicated
70 several coevolving adaptations in accelerating diversification rate, including avian pollination,
71 epiphytism, the tank-forming habit, CAM photosynthesis, and seed variation (Givnish et al.
72 2014; Silvestro et al. 2014; Kessous et al. 2024). These traits are thought to have facilitated
73 evolution into new ecological niches, particularly in the mountain environments where
74 bromeliad diversification is known to be faster (Givnish et al. 2014).

75

76 The importance of pollinator transitions in driving macroevolution is a large focus of research
77 across angiosperms (van der Niet and Johnson 2012; Van der Niet et al. 2014; Breitkopf et
78 al. 2015; Givnish et al. 2015; Thompson et al. 2024, 2025a). Pollinator transitions play a
79 central role in shaping patterns of pollen transfer, mating systems and reproductive isolation,
80 thereby triggering speciation (Fenster et al. 2004; Schiestl and Schlüter 2009; Rymer et al.
81 2010; Van der Niet et al. 2014). The importance of this hypothesis in plant evolution stems
82 from Darwin's early work on orchid variation, which he linked to insect pollinators (Darwin

83 1889). These effects are often studied in the descriptive framework of pollination syndromes,
84 which characterise the suite of specialised adaptations between plants and pollinators
85 (Fenster et al. 2004). An example is the tubular and red, yellow, or purple diurnal flowers that
86 produce lots of nectar in hummingbird-pollinated plants (Abrahamczyk and Kessler 2014;
87 Kessler et al. 2019; Barreto et al. 2024). However, pollination syndromes are not exclusive
88 categories, and many plants have mixed or flexible pollination systems (Johnson and Steiner
89 2000), leading macroevolutionary researchers to focus on pollinator identity and transitions
90 among pollinator groups rather than detailed syndrome scoring (Givnish et al. 2014;
91 Hernández-Hernández et al. 2014; Thompson et al. 2024, 2025a). However,
92 macroevolutionary tests of pollinator-driven diversification have produced inconsistent
93 results. Some lineages show strongly positive associations between diversification rate and
94 pollinators (Hernández-Hernández et al. 2014; Serrano-Serrano et al. 2017), whereas others
95 are negative (Wessinger et al. 2019). Within the same group, the relationship can be
96 inconsistent depending on scale and methods (Gravendeel et al. 2004; Givnish et al. 2015).
97 Furthermore, hypothesised macroevolutionary impacts of pollinators can weaken or
98 disappear when taxonomic sampling is improved (Thompson et al. 2024), rate heterogeneity
99 is explicitly accounted for (Thompson et al. 2025a), or additional correlates mediating
100 diversification are considered (Thompson and Venditti 2025).

101
102 Hummingbird pollination is particularly important to bromeliad diversification. There are 366
103 extant species of hummingbird (family Trochilidae), which interact with thousands of plant
104 species across ~100 families (Barreto et al. 2024). However, among these families,
105 bromeliads show an unusually strong association with hummingbirds. Although data is
106 incomplete, hummingbirds are estimated to pollinate approximately half of bromeliad
107 species, and the syndrome is found in the majority of genera, making hummingbirds the
108 dominant pollinator group (Kessler et al. 2019). Additionally, the crown age of hummingbirds
109 is also approximately contemporaneous with that of bromeliads (McGuire et al. 2014), which
110 hints at co-diversification through time. There is reason to suggest hummingbird pollination

111 may act as a key innovation driving adaptive radiation, both through its direct effects on floral
112 specialisation and reproductive isolation (Benzing 2000; Kessler et al. 2019), and through its
113 association with other traits linked to rapid diversification (Givnish et al. 2014). In particular,
114 by driving shifts into montane and epiphytic environments, hummingbird pollination may act
115 as a key organising force within the complex network of ecological and evolutionary factors
116 that shape bromeliad diversification. Furthermore, pollination is evolutionarily labile; previous
117 work has identified at least 12 transitions to hummingbird pollination, as well as a number of
118 transitions to bat pollination (Aguilar-Rodríguez et al. 2019; Kessler et al. 2019), supporting
119 the evolutionary accessibility of this trait. Other pollinators of bromeliads include bats, bees,
120 moths, butterflies and a variety of less frequently reported insect and vertebrate taxa (Frank
121 and Lounibos 2009; Aguilar-Rodríguez et al. 2019; Leal et al. 2020). While these also
122 contribute to bromeliad reproduction, adaptations and ecology, their phylogenetic
123 distributions, evolutionary origins, and role in shaping diversification remain less well
124 documented.

125

126 Our current understanding of the origins and diversification of pollination is limited in
127 bromeliads, and largely derives from analyses with highly sparse phylogenetic and pollinator
128 sampling (Givnish et al. 2014; Neves et al. 2023). When sampling is incomplete, which
129 arises from uneven molecular sequencing and limited pollinator data coverage,
130 diversification rate estimates are biased (FitzJohn et al. 2009; Mynard et al. 2023). This
131 affects macroevolutionary inferences because diversification rates vary widely across
132 complex, large groups (Rabosky 2014) and are not necessarily strongly coupled to a single
133 force (Beaulieu and O'Meara 2016; Caetano et al. 2018; Siqueira et al. 2020; Thompson et
134 al. 2024). Across bromeliads, we know that the diversification rate varies strongly (Kessous
135 et al. 2024), and many of the forces hypothesised to shape this variation are correlated
136 across space, through time and between lineages (Givnish et al. 2014; Neves et al. 2023).
137 Even when potential drivers of plant diversification are broadly sampled within an integrative
138 framework, a large portion of the rate heterogeneity remains unexplained (Thompson et al.

139 2024). Therefore, to characterise the macroevolutionary impact of hummingbird pollination in
140 bromeliads, we need to (1) improve pollinator data sampling, (2) fully characterise rate-
141 heterogeneity in the family, and (3) employ methods designed to accommodate rate-
142 heterogeneity when assessing correlates of diversification explicitly. By doing this, we can
143 identify whether hummingbird pollinators accelerate diversification despite the background
144 rate heterogeneity, much of which is explained by other adaptive traits and forces (Givnish et
145 al. 2014).

146

147 If pollinator evolution has played a central role in shaping bromeliad diversification, then
148 understanding its macroevolutionary dynamics is also critical for anticipating how plant
149 diversity will respond to ongoing environmental change. Extinction risk in plants is not
150 randomly distributed across the Tree of Life, and species with ecological specialisation and
151 restricted geographic ranges often have elevated threat levels (Lughadha et al. 2020;
152 Bachman et al. 2024). The bromeliad family is unusual, given the exceptionally high
153 proportion of species that are hummingbird pollinated (Kessler et al. 2019), many of which
154 are restricted to montane regions that are experiencing rapid environmental changes (Zizka
155 et al. 2020; Ramírez-Barahona et al. 2025). A large number of bromeliads in all subfamilies
156 are expected to be threatened (Zizka et al. 2020), due to vulnerability to ongoing threats
157 such as habitat loss, climate change, and disruption of plant-pollinator networks (Siqueira
158 Filho and Tabarelli 2006; Zotz et al. 2010; Wagner and Zotz 2018; Zizka et al. 2020;
159 Leimberger et al. 2022). This is exacerbated by threats to pollinators; 10% of hummingbird
160 species are threatened and 60% are in decline (Zizka et al. 2020; Leimberger et al. 2022),
161 alongside bats and insects which experience similar pressures (Zamora-Gutierrez et al.
162 2021; Cornelisse et al. 2025). Together, these declines threaten the stability of pollinator-
163 plant networks that have deep coevolutionary roots (Dalsgaard et al. 2018; Sonne et al.
164 2022).

165

166 Here, we investigate the evolution of pollinator variation in Bromeliaceae, and its
167 consequences for diversification rate. We assemble a database of published pollinators,
168 comprising 403 species matched to an extensive recently published phylogenetic framework
169 with extensive taxonomic coverage (Elliott et al. 2024). While this coverage is incomplete, it
170 is comparable to pollinator datasets available for other plant groups (Ackerman et al.
171 2023, Thompson et al. 2025b), including those that have been used to detect
172 macroevolutionary patterns (Hernández-Hernández et al. 2014), and it represents a broader
173 limitation of pollinator data. We reconstruct ancestral pollinators in a hidden rates framework
174 capturing rate heterogeneity (Boyko and Beaulieu 2020), and characterise the transitions
175 leading to extant pollinator variation across the family. We recover more transitions than
176 previously known, especially in terminal branches, indicating ongoing pollinator turnover. By
177 using a Bayesian method that explicitly accommodates incomplete sampling and
178 diversification rate heterogeneity (Rabosky 2014), we confirm that hummingbird pollination is
179 strongly associated with accelerated diversification. Critically, by exploring a wide range of
180 assumptions about the prevalence of hummingbird pollination in unsampled species (Kessler
181 et al. 2019), we find that this relationship is robust. Even under extreme and biologically
182 implausible assumptions about the true proportion of hummingbird-pollinated species, the
183 positive association between hummingbird pollination and diversification remains
184 unchanged. Our results confirm hummingbird pollination as a strong driver of the origins of
185 Neotropical plant biodiversity, and our dataset provides a strong foundation for future
186 macroevolutionary research and data collection.

187

188 **Materials and Methods**

189 **Phylogenetic framework**

190 We used a recent phylogenetic hypothesis of the family, which we pruned from a larger
191 phylogeny of order Poales (Elliott et al. 2024). This was reconstructed using a phylogenomic
192 backbone, sampling 353 nuclear loci (Johnson et al. 2019), to which published sequences
193 were added from GenBank (Benson et al. 2012). The phylogeny samples 1,065 bromeliads

194 from 77 genera in all subfamilies. It was time-calibrated as part of the larger Poales
195 phylogeny using a mixture of primary and secondary calibrations (Elliott et al. 2024), in the
196 absence of meaningful fossils for Bromeliaceae (Kessous et al. 2021).

197

198 **Pollinator data collection**

199 We undertook an extensive literature review to gather data on pollinators for as many
200 species in the phylogeny as is possible, to enable analyses in a statistical evolutionary
201 framework. We undertook a literature search between September 2024 and March 2025 in
202 Google Scholar using searches with combinations of [Genus species] AND pollina OR
203 pollinated OR pollinator OR pollination, and [G. species] AND poll OR pollinated OR
204 pollinator OR pollination, for every species in the phylogeny. Resulting peer-reviewed
205 articles, doctoral theses, and botanical databases were reviewed for information of
206 pollinators. Bromeliad species were scored with the presence of major pollinator groups:
207 hummingbirds, other birds (poorly-sampled groups or unspecified), bats, Hymenoptera,
208 Lepidoptera, other insects (poorly-sampled groups or unspecified), and terrestrial mammals.
209 Where possible, we recorded individual pollinator species. However, macroevolutionary
210 analyses require scoring pollinators at broader functional levels (Hernández-Hernández et
211 al. 2014; Thompson et al. 2024, 2025a), and we grouped pollinator records further in
212 subsequent analyses.

213

214 **Ancestral pollinator estimation**

215 We estimated ancestral states in a hidden rates framework using the R package corHMM
216 (Boyko and Beaulieu 2020). Three basic models were estimated for comparison, which were
217 replicated with a hidden rate class, totalling six models. These are all-rates-different (ARD),
218 equal rates (ER), and symmetrical (SYM). The model fits were ranked by AIC weight and the
219 best was investigated further by estimating 300 stochastic character maps (Bollback 2006),
220 which were summarised into node support. We combined and excluded some pollinator
221 groups prior to analysis, as poorly-sampled states can lead to spurious transition rates and

222 biased node states (Goldberg and Igić 2008; Sauquet et al. 2017; Reyes et al. 2018).
223 Hummingbirds ($n = 298$) and other birds ($n = 10$) were combined as they strongly overlap in
224 our dataset in all but one bromeliad species (*Pitcairnia feliciana* (A.Chev.) Harms & Mildbr.).
225 Furthermore, records of non-hummingbirds may be opportunistic or infrequent visitors
226 instead of primary pollinators. Moths and butterflies were similarly combined into a single
227 Lepidoptera group, due to their shared evolutionary history and similar pollination
228 mechanisms including nectar-based rewards. Other insects and terrestrial (non-bat)
229 mammals were excluded due to their small sample sizes ($n = 10$, and 2, respectively).
230 Hymenoptera were retained as a separate group, given their distinct pollination biology and
231 sufficient sampling in our dataset. Similarly, bats were retained as a group because they
232 were sufficiently sampled, and have a distinctive pollination syndrome. The four pollinator
233 groups we analysed with corHMM were bats, hummingbirds (containing the nine non-
234 hummingbird birds), Hymenoptera, and Lepidoptera. Species with multiple pollinator groups
235 recorded in our dataset were scored as polymorphic ($n = 70$). Following analysis, we
236 characterised well-supported internal transitions based on a threshold of support of >0.7 for
237 a given state. We also characterised terminal branch transitions, where the most recent
238 ancestor of a species has >0.7 node support for a given state but there has been a change
239 in pollinator.

240

241 **Character-independent diversification**

242 The relative paucity of pollinator data, which is observed across families, makes setting
243 state-specific sampling fractions required by -SSE models difficult (Mynard et al. 2023).
244 Following previous work under similar conditions (Thompson et al. 2024, 2025a; Thompson
245 and Venditti 2025), we estimated diversification rate heterogeneity in the character-
246 independent framework Bayesian Analysis of Macroevolutionary Mixtures (BAMM, (Rabosky
247 2014)). We ran four reversible-jump Monte Carlo Markov chains (rjMCMC) for 50 million
248 generations, sampling every 5,000 and discarding the first 10% as burn-in. We set a
249 conservative prior expectation of one rate shift, and other priors were set in the R package

250 BAMMtools (Rabosky et al. 2014). We accounted for incomplete taxonomic sampling by
251 providing genus-level sampling fractions. By doing so at genus level, rather than tribe or
252 subfamily, we can capture as much background rate-heterogeneity as possible.
253 Convergence was assessed by ensuring that effective sample sizes for all parameters
254 were >200, using the R package coda (Plummer et al. 2006).

255

256 **Trait-dependent diversification**

257 Using the BAMM rates, we tested whether hummingbird pollination is associated with higher
258 speciation and net diversification rates, using Structured Rate Permutations on Phylogenies
259 (STRAPP, (Rabosky and Huang 2016)) implemented in the R package BAMMtools
260 (Rabosky et al. 2014). Benefits of STRAPP, beyond the lack of necessity to set state-specific
261 sampling fractions, include that it does not assume all rate variation is either associated with
262 the focal trait or not, and it can account for incomplete sampling at fine scales. This
263 combination of BAMM and STRAPP has been shown to be effective in situations of
264 incomplete trait data, including in pollinator analyses (Thompson and Venditti
265 2025, Thompson et al. 2025a). Due to the dominance of hummingbird pollinators in gathered
266 observations, we focussed on the impact of hummingbird pollination scored binarily (1 =
267 present, 0 = absent). With STRAPP, we performed 1,000 randomisations and assessed
268 significance with a Mann-Whitney statistical test. Species were coded as 1 if they had
269 evidence of hummingbird pollination, either as the sole pollinator or in combination with
270 observations of other pollinators (n = 298). Species were coded as 0 if they only had records
271 of non-hummingbird pollinators. Species present in the phylogeny but without pollinator
272 records were excluded. We also tested whether diversification rates differed among other
273 pollinator groups. We ran an additional STRAPP analysis in which species were assigned to
274 one of hummingbird, Hymenoptera, Lepidoptera or bat. STRAPP does not allow for
275 polymorphic state scoring, and we excluded polymorphic species from this analysis (n = 70),
276 notably 66 with recorded hummingbird pollination. To assess whether the exclusion of
277 polymorphic species influences our results, we performed a complementary STRAPP

278 analysis in which species were coded by the number of recorded pollinator groups (ranging
279 from one to four). These two multi-group STRAPP analyses used a Kruskal-Wallis test to
280 assess significance.

281

282 **Sensitivity testing with BiSSE**

283 We performed sensitivity analyses to assess the impacts of uncertainty in state-specific
284 sampling on the estimated relationship between hummingbird pollination and diversification
285 rates. These analyses were not intended to provide biologically meaningful state-specific
286 diversification parameters. They were designed to evaluate whether the direction of the
287 difference between average diversification rate of hummingbird-pollinated species and
288 others is robust across different assumptions of the prevalence of hummingbird pollination.

289 We scored species binarily by the presence of hummingbird pollination, and calculated
290 artificial state sampling fractions assuming our data and phylogeny had sampled from 20%
291 to 80% of species truly pollinated by hummingbirds, in 10% intervals. These span the expert
292 judgment of 50-60% (Kessler et al. 2019) and also explore extreme scenarios. We also
293 tested whether providing state-dependent sampling fractions impacted results, by specifying
294 none in a final analysis. These analyses were implemented with BiSSE (Maddison et al.
295 2007), using a Bayesian MCMC framework in the R package diversitree (FitzJohn 2012). For
296 each scenario, we fitted a standard BiSSE model under Maximum Likelihood, where state-
297 specific parameters of speciation and extinction rate, and directional transition rate, are
298 estimated freely from the data. These ML estimates were used as starting parameters in the
299 MCMC analyses, and exponential priors were implemented. Each MCMC run was 10,000
300 generations, sampled every 25 and with the first 2,000 discarded as burn-in. The difference
301 between the average net diversification of hummingbird-pollinated species and other species
302 was calculated, retaining a posterior sample of 320 estimates per scenario.

303 **Results**

304 **A dataset of bromeliad pollinators to enable comparative research**

305 Our literature review found pollinator data for 403 species (~39% of species in the phylogeny
306 (Elliott et al. 2024)). This covers ~11% of all bromeliad species in 53 genera (~66% of the
307 total), which is consistent with the sparseness of pollinator data documented in other plant
308 families (Orchidaceae, ~10% species and ~56% genera (Ackerman et al. 2023); Cactaceae,
309 ~18% and ~66% genera (Thompson et al. 2025b)). Hummingbird pollination dominates the
310 dataset, with 298 species recorded (~74%). Hymenoptera was second most common, with
311 99 species (~25%). Following these are Chiroptera (53 species, ~13%) and Lepidoptera (54
312 species, ~13%). Small numbers of species are recorded for “other insects” (10 species,
313 ~2%) and terrestrial mammals (3 species, ~0.7%). Pollinator data were available for all eight
314 subfamilies, but coverage was uneven. Sampling coverage varied among subfamilies but
315 reflected their species richness. The two largest subfamilies, Bromelioideae and
316 Tillandsioideae, were the best represented, with pollinator records available for 37 of
317 approximately 40 genera and 20 of approximately 22 genera, respectively. All five genera of
318 Pitcairnioideae were represented in our dataset. Puyoideae, Brocchinoideae, and
319 Hechtioideae are each monogeneric and are fully represented at the genus level.
320 Navioideae and Lindmannioideae, comprising five and two genera, respectively, were partially
321 sampled at three and two genera, respectively. A genus-level summary and the full species-
322 level dataset are available in Supplementary Materials.

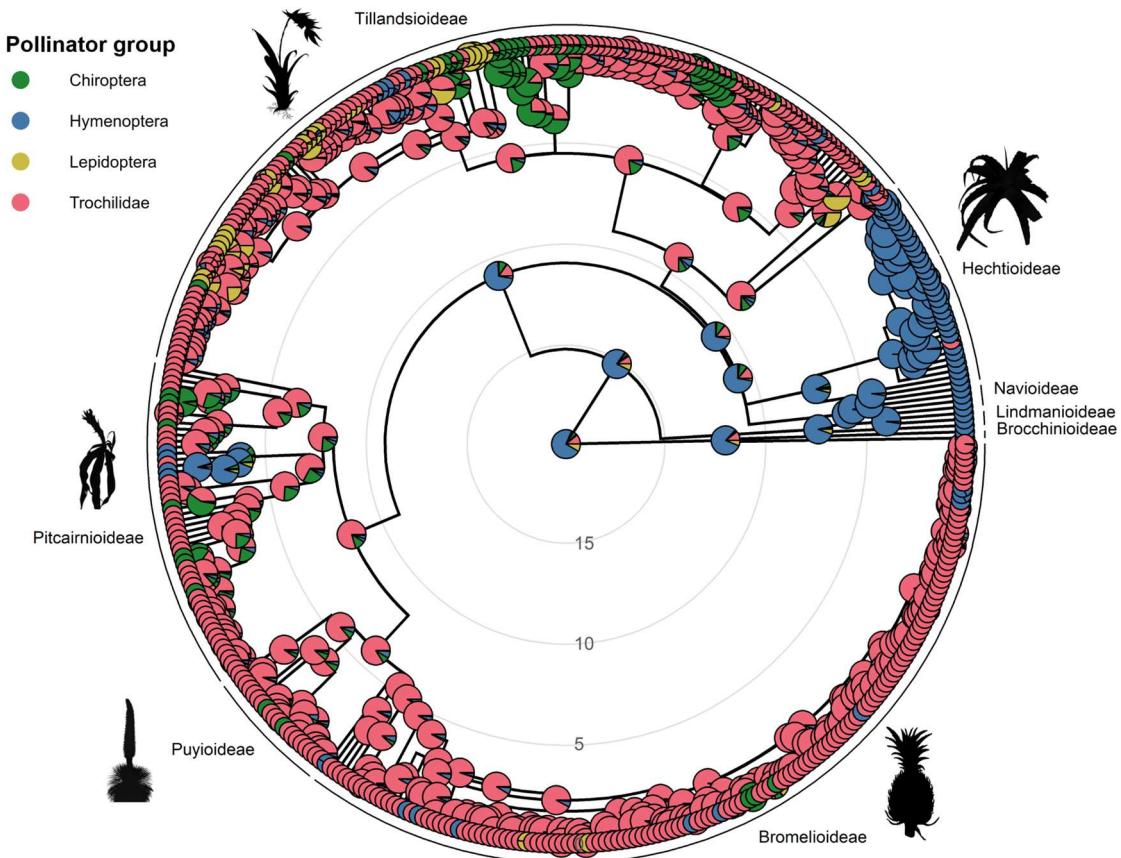
323

324 **The evolution of pollinator diversity in bromeliads**

325 The most recent bromeliad ancestor was most likely pollinated by Hymenoptera (node
326 support 0.75) (Figure 1). This is retained in the earliest-diverging subfamilies,
327 Brocchinoideae, Lindmannioideae, Navioideae and Hechtioideae, with the exception of a
328 shift to bird pollination within *Hechtia* Klotzsch (Ramírez-Morillo et al. 2018). Hummingbird
329 pollination originated independently on two deep branches. One origin is in the branch
330 leading to extant Tillandsioideae (node support 0.75), and a second is in the common

331 ancestor of Pitcairnioideae, Puyoideae and Bromelioideae (node support 0.80). Following
332 these transitions, pollination systems diversified repeatedly across these four subfamilies. In
333 Tillandsioideae, there are several reversals to Hymenoptera, and transitions to bat and
334 Lepidoptera pollination. There is also one reversal from bat pollination to hummingbird
335 pollination. Pitcairnioideae is similar, with reversals to Hymenoptera and repeated transitions
336 to bat pollination. In contrast, transitions away from hummingbird pollination, either reversals
337 to Hymenoptera or transitions to bats and Lepidoptera, are concentrated in recent branches
338 in Puyoideae and Bromelioideae. In total, there are 14 well-supported shifts in nodes deeper
339 than those preceding terminal branches. Two of these are in nodes descending from a highly
340 uncertain node containing *Werauhia* J.R.Grant and *Alcantarea* (É.Morren ex Mez) Harms,
341 thus the true number may be 13. Beyond these shifts in deeper ancestors, there are many
342 more transitions occurring along terminal branches. 96 species show a change relative to a
343 strongly supported recent ancestral pollinator, of which 63 retain the ancestral pollinator but
344 gain one or more new pollinator groups. Only 31 are complete shifts away from the ancestral
345 pollinator. Gains of each pollinator group were relatively common, especially Hymenoptera
346 and Lepidoptera. It is worth noting that these may not represent true terminal branch
347 transitions, as the taxonomic sampling means shallow internal nodes may not be included.
348 But, the true degree of lability is likely underestimated, as transitions between species within
349 pollinator groups are not modelled.

350



351

352 **Figure 1: The evolution of pollination across the phylogeny of Bromeliaceae.** Tips and
 353 ancestors are coloured by pollinator groups: bats (green), hummingbirds (red), Hymenoptera
 354 (blue), and Lepidoptera (yellow). Uncertainty of ancestral states was estimated with 300
 355 stochastic character maps, estimated under an all-rates-different model of evolution, with
 356 hidden rates. Rate classes were combined for visualisation (i.e. hummingbird fast and slow
 357 rate classes were combined). The best supported root state is Hymenoptera, and there are
 358 major transitions to hummingbird pollination in the branch leading to the subfamily
 359 Tillandsioideae, and the branch leading to Pitcairnioideae, Puyoideae and Bromelioideae.
 360 Further transitions to other pollinator groups are nested within these subfamilies, and there is
 361 evidence of a loss and regain of hummingbird pollination in Tillandsioideae. Many previously
 362 unknown transitions occur in shallower branches, indicating ongoing turnover. The
 363 Tillandsioideae and Bromelioideae silhouettes are from Phylopic (<https://www.phylopic.org/>),
 364 and we created the remaining silhouettes using images available under Creative Commons
 365 licenses.

366

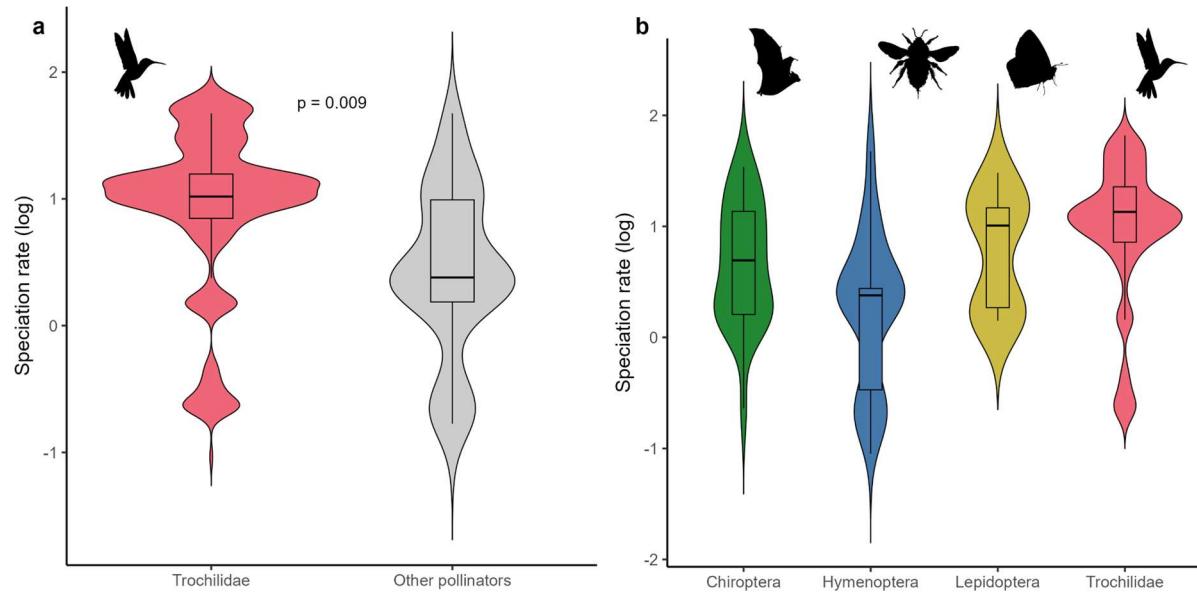
367 **Hummingbird pollination accelerates speciation**

368 We tested whether pollination by different animal groups shapes diversification rates in
369 bromeliads using trait-dependent diversification analyses (Figure 2). We performed STRAPP
370 tests using BAMM-estimated rates, in which incomplete sampling was corrected at genus-
371 level and rate-heterogeneity fully characterised. In binary tests of pollinator-dependent
372 diversification for each group, where polymorphic species were not considered, we found
373 that only hummingbird pollination doubles the rate of speciation and net-diversification.

374 Average speciation and net diversification for hummingbird-pollinated bromeliad species are
375 2.77 and 2.64 (lineages/Ma), respectively. For other species, they are 1.46 and 1.15
376 (lineages/Ma), respectively. Pollination by bats, Hymenoptera or Lepidoptera scored binarily
377 had insignificant impacts on speciation or net diversification ($p > 0.05$ in all cases). When
378 excluding polymorphic species ($n = 70$), most of which include hummingbird pollination ($n =$
379 66), and scoring the remaining species into their pollinator group, we found no significant
380 impact of pollinator groups on speciation and net diversification ($p > 0.05$ in both tests).

381 Testing the impact of polymorphically-scored species, which ranged from one to four
382 pollinator groups per species, we also found no significant impact on speciation or net
383 diversification ($p > 0.05$ in both cases).

384



385

386 **Figure 2: Hummingbird pollination accelerates diversification rate.** (a) Mean tip
 387 speciation rates, estimated with BAMM, are significantly faster in bromeliads with recorded
 388 hummingbird pollination ($n = 298$) than species pollinated exclusively by other groups ($n =$
 389 105) ($p < 0.05$). (b) When only species with a single recorded pollinator group are
 390 considered simultaneously, speciation rates do not differ significantly among pollinator
 391 groups ($p > 0.05$). Violin plots show the distribution of mean tip speciation rates, and boxplots
 392 indicate the median and interquartile range. Rates are log-transformed for visualisation.
 393 Silhouettes of pollinator groups are from Phylopic (<https://www.phylopic.org/>).

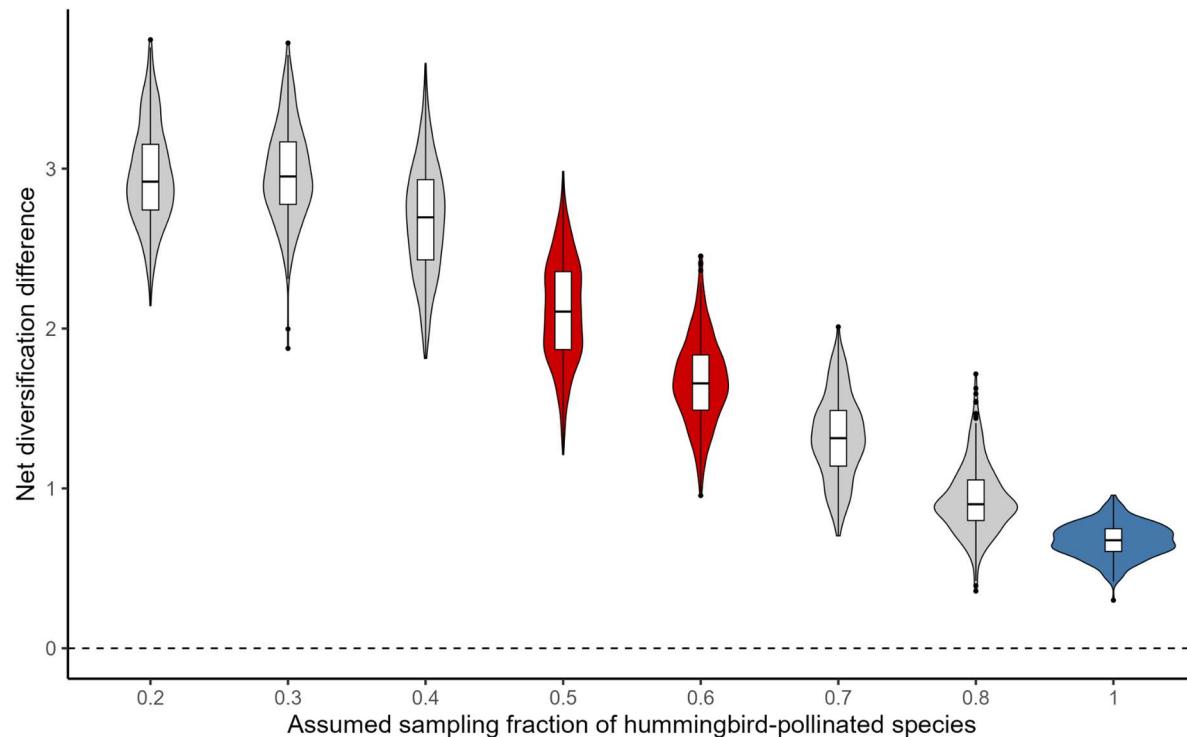
394

395 **Unlikely that improving sampling will change the hummingbird-diversification**
 396 **relationship**

397 We tested how sensitive the result that hummingbird pollination accelerates diversification is
 398 to incomplete sampling assumptions, which are not known precisely but estimated at 50-
 399 60% (Kessler et al. 2019) (Figure 3). To do this, we used simplistic BiSSE tests in which the
 400 proportion of sampled hummingbird-pollinated species was altered from extremes of 0.2 to
 401 0.8, assuming a total of 3,700 species. We also tested the impact of making any corrections
 402 of state-dependent sampling, enforcing an incorrect total sampling for both states. In every
 403 case, the difference between net diversification of hummingbird-pollinated species and

404 others is positive (Figure 3). This is higher when the proportion of unsampled hummingbird-
405 pollinated species is specified as higher.

406



407

408 **Figure 3: Little sensitivity of the hummingbird-diversification relationship to**
409 **incomplete sampling.** The difference in net diversification between hummingbird-pollinated
410 lineages and other bromeliads under alternative assumptions about the true proportion of
411 hummingbird-pollinated bromeliads. Violins show the posterior distribution of the difference
412 in net diversification estimated from Bayesian BiSSE analyses, assuming we had sampled
413 between 20-80% of all hummingbird-pollinated species, as well as a model without
414 correcting for state-dependent sampling (blue violin). Boxplots indicate the median and
415 interquartile range. Under no sampling scenario is the difference in net diversification
416 negative or zero. The relationship between hummingbird pollination and diversification is
417 therefore robust to uncertainty in sampling.

418 **Discussion**

419 Bromeliaceae have long attracted the attention of evolutionary biologists as a model system
420 for adaptive radiation in the rise of Neotropical biodiversity (Givnish et al. 2014; Palma-Silva
421 and Fay 2020). Their remarkable species richness and variation in ecological strategies has
422 evolved over a remarkably short timescale (Givnish et al. 2011, 2018; Kessous et al. 2024).
423 Why they so rapidly diversified is a major focus of research, and the importance of different
424 forces has been recognised, such as hummingbird pollination, epiphytism, CAM
425 photosynthesis and tank formation (Givnish et al. 2014; Kessous et al. 2024). Among these,
426 pollinator evolution has received particular attention, and is also a major hypothesis beyond
427 bromeliads in other angiosperms groups (van der Niet and Johnson 2012; Van der Niet et al.
428 2014; Breitkopf et al. 2015; Thompson et al. 2024, 2025a). However, macroevolutionary
429 tests of pollinator-driven diversification have often been limited by sparse and uneven
430 sampling of both pollinator observations and molecular phylogenies (Givnish et al. 2014;
431 Kessler et al. 2019). Recent studies in other plant families demonstrate that increasing
432 phylogenetic and trait sampling can alter long-standing inferences about the
433 macroevolutionary consequences of pollinators (Thompson et al. 2024, 2025a). Here, by
434 assembling a large pollinator dataset, with coverage comparable to recent compilations
435 (Ackerman et al. 2023, Thompson et al. 2025b), we re-evaluated the evolution of pollinator
436 diversity in bromeliads, and its macroevolutionary consequences. By reconstructing
437 ancestral states under a heterogeneous model of evolution, we find there are more
438 transitions than previously thought (Kessler et al. 2019), especially in recent evolutionary
439 time. We confirm there is a strong impact of pollinator evolution on diversification, with
440 hummingbird pollination accelerating rates even after accounting for background rate-
441 heterogeneity. Importantly, we show that this relationship is robust to uncertainty in pollinator
442 sampling. The impact of hummingbird pollination is recovered even under extreme and
443 unrealistic assumptions about future data collection, indicating that this pattern is stable.

444

445 **New insights from a large dataset of pollinators**

446 We find the dominant pollinator of bromeliads is birds, primarily hummingbirds, as predicted
447 by Kessler et al. (Kessler et al. 2019), although our data may indicate the estimated
448 proportion of 50-60% is slightly conservative. Where possible, we recorded pollinators to
449 species level, although we grouped them into higher taxonomic groups for analysis and
450 description, excluding the rarest groups. Of the 403 species in our dataset, ~74% are bird
451 pollinated, all of which are hummingbird, or hummingbird plus other birds, except one.
452 Hymenoptera was the second most frequent, with ~25% of species, and following this is bats
453 (~13%) and Lepidoptera (~8%). Most bromeliads are pollinated by a single group (~83%),
454 but a substantial minority (~17%) have more than one group recorded.
455 Pollinator data is difficult to assemble in angiosperms and relatively few family-wide
456 databases exist (although see (Specht et al. 2012; Ackerman et al. 2023, Thompson et al.
457 2025b)). Although our dataset is incomplete, it facilitates future research in bromeliad
458 evolution, ecology and conservation, and provides a foundation for data collection.
459
460 Polymorphic species nearly totally consist of birds in combination with other pollinators.
461 Although a portion of these will be rare or opportunistic visitors, mixed pollination systems
462 are also recognised as common and potentially adaptive in angiosperms (Johnson and
463 Steiner 2000). Mixed pollination can be associated with niche partitioning, including between
464 birds which pollinate during the day and bats at night (Dellinger et al. 2019a,b; Lagomarsino
465 and Muchhala 2019). We note that 26 of the 403 species on our dataset combine bat and
466 hummingbird pollination. Although birds more frequently co-occur with Hymenoptera (38
467 species) and Lepidoptera (34 species), bats are rarer overall and nearly half of bat pollinated
468 species co-occur with hummingbird pollination. Mixed pollination can also act to reduce
469 effects of extirpation, or temporal changes in pollinator abundances and low pollinator
470 availability (Wilson et al. 2007; Leal et al. 2020). It is also recognised that mixed pollination
471 can be an intermediate evolutionary state (Stebbins 1970). Our data may support this, given
472 that many species are polymorphic, whereas deeper nodes tend to reconstruct as single
473 pollinators. However, this is also somewhat expected from ancestral state reconstructions,

474 as they are informed by extant variation, meaning that transient intermediate states in deep
475 nodes are not recoverable.

476

477 **The flexible evolution of pollinator diversity in bromeliads**

478 Although hummingbirds are the dominant pollinators across bromeliads, our ancestral
479 reconstructions indicate that the ancestral bromeliad was most likely pollinated by
480 Hymenoptera. This is consistent with previous inferences using much smaller datasets
481 (Givnish et al. 2014; Kessler et al. 2019), and our investigations provide greater resolution by
482 sampling a larger portion of bromeliads and using complex heterogeneous models (Boyko
483 and Beaulieu 2020). We found that evolution from the ancestral pollinator is highly complex,
484 with best support for the model with maximum heterogeneity. Transition rates differ between
485 all pollinator groups, and different lineages evolve at different rates. This suggests that the
486 tempo of pollinator evolution has varied throughout time, between lineages, and across the
487 Neotropics (Graham et al. 2012; Varassin and Sazima 2012; Kriebel et al. 2019). This
488 heterogeneity likely reflects spatiotemporal variation in selective pressures, which arise from
489 distributional and elevational shifts, changes in habitat structure, ecological conditions and
490 pollinator availability. These dynamics are further influenced by interactions and correlated
491 evolution with other adaptations, such as CAM photosynthesis, epiphytism, and tank
492 formation (Givnish et al. 2014; Neves et al. 2023), which are unevenly distributed across the
493 Neotropics and between lineages.

494

495 By improving pollinator data coverage, and using a large phylogeny (Elliott et al. 2024), we
496 infer more pollinator transitions have occurred in bromeliad evolution than were previously
497 known. An earlier investigation with a smaller phylogeny inferred two or three deep origins of
498 hummingbird pollination associated with origins of major subfamilies, and 12 reversions to
499 insect pollination in the largest subfamilies (Givnish et al. 2014). Similarly, a synthesis of
500 published findings and floral variation describes 12-14 (Kessler et al. 2019). Our results
501 support these deep transitions, but additionally reveal extensive turnover in pollinators in

502 more recent evolutionary time, in which gains, losses and replacements of pollinators are
503 frequent. These results support that pollinator evolution, including by hummingbirds, remains
504 highly labile and dynamic (Leal et al. 2020; Barreto et al. 2024), and turnover is likely
505 ongoing at a relatively high rate. In total, we infer 110 well-supported pollinator transitions in
506 bromeliad evolution, 96 of which occur along terminal branches. The deeper transitions
507 include three to hummingbirds, ten reversals away from hummingbirds, and four transitions
508 among non-avian pollinators. Transitions away from hummingbird pollination are
509 disproportionately towards bats and Lepidoptera, and include multiple reversals to
510 Hymenoptera, particularly within Tillandsioideae. Transitions along terminal branches are
511 dominated by gains of insect pollinators, and frequently occur in mixed-pollination states
512 rather than replacements of the ancestral pollinator.

513

514 **Little doubt that hummingbird pollination accelerates diversification**

515 It has long been suggested that hummingbird-pollination accelerates bromeliad
516 diversification (Givnish et al. 2014; Kessler et al. 2019; Barreto et al. 2024). Using pollinator
517 data with over fourfold greater coverage than previous datasets (Givnish et al. 2014), we
518 confirm this. Critically, the effect persists even after accounting for the background rate
519 heterogeneity that shapes bromeliad diversification, a portion of which likely will be driven by
520 factors beyond pollination (Givnish et al. 2014; Kessler et al. 2019; Neves et al. 2023;
521 Thompson et al. 2024). As previously predicted, speciation and net diversification are both
522 doubled on average by the evolution of hummingbird pollination. This pattern is likely to be
523 explained by a combination of forces driving divergences which lead to speciation, including
524 divergences in floral morphology, nectar production and phenology (van der Niet and
525 Johnson 2012; Van der Niet et al. 2014; Kessler et al. 2019; Barreto et al. 2024; Thompson
526 and Venditti 2025). Furthermore, hummingbird pollination is frequently associated with
527 montane and epiphytic ecosystems (Givnish et al. 2014), in which steep ecological gradients
528 and habitat fragmentation can accelerate population divergence (Hughes and Eastwood
529 2006). Birds are also thought to be able to transfer pollen over greater distances than

530 insects, due to their higher mobility and larger ranges, and higher pollen transfer efficiency
531 (Castellanos et al. 2003; Krauss et al. 2017; Abrahamczyk et al. 2022). These factors
532 increase genetic divergence and adaptive potential, potentially driving diversification.
533 However, the macroevolutionary consequences of long-distance pollen transfer remain
534 debated, as increased gene flow may reduce population structure and the potential for
535 allopatric speciation (Gelmi-Candusso et al. 2017; Gamba and Muchhal 2020; Wessinger
536 2021). Additionally, not all hummingbirds disperse pollen over greater distances than bees
537 (Schmidt-Lebuhn et al. 2019).

538
539 Notably, we find that this pattern is caused by presence of hummingbird pollination, rather
540 than exclusive pollination by hummingbirds. When polymorphic species were excluded to
541 facilitate comparison of rates across four major pollinator groups, the association between
542 pollinators and diversification was no longer significant. This result reflects a methodological
543 limit of the analytical approach that cannot account for polymorphic species (Rabosky and
544 Huang 2016). Indeed, ~94% of polymorphic species in our dataset include hummingbirds
545 among their pollinators, showing that mixed systems are dominated by hummingbirds. The
546 result is not restricted to species relying solely on pollinators, but extends to those that gain
547 or retain hummingbirds alongside others. Although here we describe species with mixed
548 pollination systems as polymorphic, these can be interpreted as a form of ecological
549 generalisation in pollination. Such generalist strategies can confer greater adaptive potential
550 in differing environments (Griffith and Sultan 2012), and that plants can gain additional
551 pollinators without strong trade-offs caused by losing their ancestral pollinator, including
552 documented cases involving hummingbirds (Armbruster 2017). By combining the effects of
553 hummingbird pollination with ecological flexibility, species with multiple pollinator groups may
554 be more likely to proliferate and speciate. Our results therefore support a classic key
555 innovation model, in which the frequent acquisition of hummingbird pollination repeatedly
556 accelerates diversification, even as part of a mixed pollination system and when interacting
557 with other coevolving traits.

558

559 **Hummingbirds as the organising force in the complex diversification of bromeliads**

560 Our results suggest that hummingbird pollination in bromeliads can be viewed as a key
561 innovation, although we still caution that drivers of diversification are complex and
562 multivariate (Givnish et al. 2014; Silvestro et al. 2014; Sauquet and Magallón 2018;
563 Helmstetter et al. 2023; Thompson et al. 2024). Other factors are still very important, such as
564 epiphytism, CAM photosynthesis, elevation, and tank-formation, but our results suggest they
565 may act additively on hummingbird effects, rather than being equally powerful. This is
566 because hummingbird pollination remains important even after accounting for rate
567 heterogeneity, much of which is explained by other forces (Beaulieu and O'Meara 2016;
568 Rabosky and Huang 2016; Caetano et al. 2018). In other families, such as cacti and orchids,
569 the long presumed effect of pollinator evolution on diversification (Hernández-Hernández et
570 al. 2014; Givnish et al. 2015) disappears once rate heterogeneity is incorporated on an
571 appropriate scale (Thompson et al. 2024, 2025a; Thompson and Venditti 2025). Our finding
572 adds structure and order to what may appear a diffuse network of correlated drivers (Givnish
573 et al. 2014). Although pollinator divergence is not instant, it may act as the key facilitator of
574 this network by promoting access to ecosystem conditions and selective forces under which
575 these correlated traits can evolve. These correlated traits may therefore act additively on
576 diversification once hummingbird pollination facilitates access to high elevation and epiphytic
577 environments, where ecological gradients, habitat structure and resources create conditions
578 under which other traits, such as CAM photosynthesis, tank-formation, and epiphytism
579 further promote diversification (Givnish et al. 2014). With this hypothesised pathway in mind,
580 hummingbird pollination does replace the complex multi-trait view of bromeliad
581 diversification, but provides a primary trait around which the complexity is organised. We
582 hope that our results and interpretation motivate further integrative analyses to explicitly test
583 this hypothesis. Similar hypotheses have been tested recently with structural equation
584 models, which offer some insights into the origins and structure of complex ecological and
585 evolutionary systems (Tietje et al. 2022; Bhadra et al. 2025; Zizka et al. 2025).

586

587 **A pattern unlikely to change despite incomplete data**

588 It remains unknown exactly how many bromeliad species are pollinated by hummingbird
589 pollinators, and this uncertainty has long constrained trait-dependent diversification
590 analyses. Although our data greatly expands existing pollinator compilations for bromeliads,
591 and is comparable in coverage to those available for other plant families (Specht et al. 2012;
592 Ackerman et al. 2023, Thompson et al. 2025b), incomplete trait sampling remains
593 unavoidable. Although we analysed our dataset within a character independent framework
594 accounting for incomplete sampling (Rabosky 2014), we explicitly explored how different
595 assumptions of the proportion of sampled hummingbird-pollinated species influenced our
596 results. Across a wide range of scenarios, spanning expert judgments (Kessler et al. 2019)
597 as well as deliberately extreme and unrealistic proportions, we find the hummingbird-
598 bromeliad system is a rare case in macroevolution where the pattern is strong enough to
599 overcome incomplete sampling. Diversification rate is consistently higher in hummingbird-
600 pollination species. We found this even under the unrealistically conservative assumption
601 that our dataset sampled 80% of all truly hummingbird-pollinated bromeliads, although the
602 magnitude is reduced. While further pollinator data collection will be invaluable for
603 characterising further evolutionary transitions, and facilitating integrative multivariate
604 analyses across large species sampling, additional data are unlikely to change our findings.

605

606 **Conclusion**

607 Bromeliaceae is one of the most rapidly evolving and ecologically diverse plant radiations of
608 the Neotropics. The forces driving their success are complex and have been difficult to
609 resolve due to incomplete pollinator data and molecular sequencing. By assembling a family-
610 wide pollinator dataset and analysing it in a large phylogenetic framework, we show that
611 pollinator evolution is highly dynamic and ongoing. Despite this lability, and despite
612 substantial background diversification rate heterogeneity, some of which is associated with
613 other drivers, hummingbird pollination emerges as a powerful driver. Hummingbird

614 pollination is likely to act as an organising factor in bromeliad diversification. Sensitivity
615 analyses show that this pattern is unlikely to change under realistic and unrealistic scenarios
616 of future data collection. Our results and dataset provide a strong foundation for future
617 integrative analyses, to help disentangle the web underlying the origins of Neotropical
618 diversity.

619

620 **Data Availability**

621 Data and code underlying these results are available in GitHub
622 (https://github.com/elizabethforward03/bromeliad_hummingbird).

623

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629

630 **Author Contributions**

631 EAF and JBT designed the study. EAF compiled the data. EAF and JBT analysed the data,
632 interpreted the results, wrote the manuscript, and revised the final version. JBT supervised
633 the research

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