# A phylogenetic study of the tribe Podalyrieae (Fabaceae) 

by

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I declare that this dissertation has been composed by myself and the work contained within, unless otherwise stated, is my own.

J.S. Boatwrioht (February 2006)
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#### Abstract

The tribe Podalyrieae is a group of Papilionoid legumes that are largely endemic to the Cape Floristic Region of southern Africa. A phylogenetic study of the tribe was undertaken using gene sequences obtained from the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) as well as the plastid gene rbcL. Although the resolution was poor in the resulting trees, several groupings were noted within the tribe. The subtribe Xiphothecinae remains relatively unchanged and consists of the genera Amphithalea and Xiphotheca. The subtribe Podalyriinae was found to be paraphyletic. A close relationship was observed between the genera Liparia and Podalyria with Stirtonanthus as sister. Additional chloroplast genes (trnL-F and trnS-trnG) were sequenced to obtain better resolution within this group. While Podalyria and Stirtonanthus are monophyletic, the monophyly of Liparia is still uncertain. Virgilia and Calpurnia are closely related and Cyclopia retains its isolated, monophyletic position sister to the tribe. The species of Cadia included in the phylogenetic analysis formed a sister grouping to the tribe Podalyrieae and the inclusion of this genus in Podalyrieae is discussed. A date for the root node of the tribe was estimated at 28.55 MYA, using non-parametric rate smoothing (NPRS), indicating a major radiation to have taken place during the Pliocene. By means of independent contrasts it was determined that the rate of molecular evolution is higher in reseeders than resprouters, perhaps due to more reproductive cycles in these individuals, that would in turn affect the rate of DNA substitution.


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## List of abbreviations

| ACCTRAN | accelerated transformation |
| :---: | :---: |
| AIC | Akaike Information Criterion |
| bp | base pair |
| BP | bootstrap percentage |
| BSA | bovine serum albumin |
| CAIC | Comparative Analysis by Independent Contrasts |
| CFR | Cape Floristic Region |
| Cl | consistency index |
| cp | chloroplast |
| dATP | 2'-deoxyadenosine 5'-triphosphate |
| dCTP | 2'-deoxycytidine 5'-triphosphate |
| DELTRAN | delayed transformation |
| dGTP | 2'-deoxyguanosine 5'triphosphate |
| DMSO | dimethyl sulfoxide |
| DNA | deoxyribonucleic acid UNIVEP |
| dTTP | 2'-deoxythymidine 5'-triphosphate OF |
| eg | for example JOHANNESBU |
| ETS | external transcribed spacer |
| g | gram(s) |
| ie | in explanation |
| IGS | intergenic spacer |
| ILD | incongruence length difference test |
| IR | inverted repeat |
| ITS | internal transcribed spacer |
| LR | likelihood ratio |
| LSC | large single-copy region |
| m | meter(s) |
| $\mathbf{M g C l}{ }_{2}$ | Magnesium chloride |
| min | minute(s) |
| ML | maximum likelihood |
| ml | milliliter(s) |
| mM | millimolar(s) |


| MP. | maximum parsimony |
| :--- | :--- |
| MYA | million years ago |
| nc | nuclear |
| ng | nanogram(s) |
| No | number |
| NPRS | non-parametric rate smoothing |
| nst | number of substitutions |
| o $\mathbf{C}$ | degrees Celsius |
| PAUP | phylogenetic analysis using parsimony |
| PCR | polymerase chain reaction |
| pers comm. | personal communication |
| PP | posterior probability |
| rDNA | ribosomal deoxyribonucleic acid |
| RI | retention index |
| sec | second(s) |
| SSC | small single-copy region |
| SW | successive weighting |
| TBR | tree bisection and reconnection |
| TL | tree length |
| ts | transition(s) |
| tv | transversion(s) |
| v | version |
| $\boldsymbol{\mu l}$ | microliter(s) |
| $\mu M$ | micromolar(s) |



## CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

### 1.1 General introduction

The Cape Floristic Region (CFR) is among the most botanically diverse regions on earth and is regarded as one of the six floral kingdoms of the world (Good, 1964; Takhtajan, 1969). It comprises less than 5\% of the total area of South Africa, but contains an estimated 9030 species of vascular plants ( 8920 of which are flowering plants) with an endemism of $69 \%$ (Goldblatt and Manning, 2002). Two of the most notable features of this flora, is the great species richness and high levels of endemism (Good, 1953; Goldblatt, 1978; Linder, 2003). Reasons for this diversity have been associated with numerous factors that create a variety of habitats and niches to be filled e.g. environmental and climatic conditions (including climatic history); diversity of soils; and fire (Goldblatt and Manning 2002; Linder 2003). Fynbos is one of the vegetation types in the CFR and is defined by structural, floristic and phytogeographical criteria. Many definitions exist to describe fynbos. Campbell (1985) summarises the essential features of this vegetation as the presence of restioids, ericoids and proteoids (Figures 1.1 and 1.2).


Figure 1.1 Fynbos vegetation is characterised by the presence of restiods, ericoids and proteoids. A: Chondropetalum tectorum (L.f.) Raf. (Restionaceae); B: Erica sessiliflora L.f. (Ericaceae); C: Leucospermum conocarpodendron (L.) Beuk. (Proteaceae).


Figure 1.2 Fynbos is a sclerophyllous vegetation type occurring on sandy soils in the Cape. AD: Fernkloof Nature Reserve; E: Potberg, De Hoop Nature Reserve; F: Swartberg Pass.

The region is primarily dominated by winter rainfall with occasional snow, restricted to the mountains, followed by hot dry summers. The winter rainfall persists in the western Cape, while rain can be expected throughout the year along the south coast, and in the east mainly in summer (Linder, 2003). This Mediterranean climate has remained dominant after its establishment in the Miocene to late Pliocene, about $3-4$ million years ago (MYA). It is commonly suggested that the explosive speciation of plant taxa characteristic of fynbos was triggered by this change in climate near the Miocene-Pliocene boundary (Deacon et al., 1992; Linder et al., 1992).

Local fluctuations in rainfall are visible, particularly in mountainous areas, with those slopes facing the prevailing winds receiving more precipitation. The effect of limited rainfall on the vegetation is amplified by differences in soil, becoming more pronounced as rainfall decreases. Different soil types support characteristic vegetation, depending on the levels of precipitation. Forest vegetation normally occurs on deeper soils in places where precipitation is high. At lower rainfall and poorer soil quality, forest is replaced by shrubby or herbaceous vegetation, e.g. fynbos on sandy soils and renosterveld on clay soils (Goldblatt and Manning, 2002). The CFR is largely composed of alternating layers of erosion-resistant sandstone of the Table Mountain and Witteberg Groups, or fine-grained shales of the Bokkeveld Group (Goldblatt and Manning, 2000; 2002). Soils derived from this sandstone bedrock are typically coarse-grained and low in nutrients, but high in aluminium. Soil nutrients play an important role in determining the vegetation type that will occur in a specific area, e.g. the richer soils of the Cape mountains in the east leads to an intermingling of the Cape flora and tropical floristic elements (Campbell, 1983; Cowling, 1983; Linder, 2003).

Frequent fires are an important selective force in plant reproductive ecology and are generally involved in biological processes such as stimulation of flowering and germination (Le Maitre and Midgley, 1992). Fire is an important factor in the Cape floral composition, occurring frequently in cycles of between 5 and 50 years (Linder, 2003). Deacon et al. (1992) describe fynbos as pyrophylic or 'fire-loving' vegetation that is dominated by plants with life strategies tuned to the fire regime. Two main fire survival strategies are found. Resprouters which resprout from a woody rootstock after fire (usually with a multi-stemmed appearance) and reseeders that regenerate from seed and are typically single stemmed (Schutte et al., 1995).

As mentioned before the level of endemism is exceptionally high in South Africa, comparable to that of an oceanic island. Six families are endemic to the Cape: Bruniaceae, Geissolomataceae, Grubbiaceae, Peneaceae, Roridulaceae, and Stilbaceae senso stricto (including Retziaceae). They are all shrubs that occur mostly in montane habitats (Goldblatt,

1978; Goldblatt and Manning, 2002). The biodiversity in South. Africa is not evenly distributed across the sub-continent, so that some areas are more species rich than others, the so-called hotspots. The CFR not surprisingly stands out as the most diverse of these (the richest of the Mediterranean-climate hotspots), with about 6000 endemic species (Myers, 1990; Cowling and Hilton-Taylor, 1994). Myers et al. (2000) identified 25 out of the possible 34 hotspots of the world as high priority for conservation, as these contain the sole remaining habitats of $44 \%$ of the Earth's plant species and $35 \%$ of its vertebrate species. The Succulent Karoo, Maputaland-Pondoland-Albany and CFR in South Africa form part of these very important hotspots (Figure 1.3).

Asteraceae and Fabaceae are the largest families in the CFR, together comprising about $20 \%$ of the total species (Goldblatt and Manning, 2002). Fabaceae is well represented in most parts of the world and is the third largest family of flowering plants. It comprises about 727 genera and c. 19325 species. The unifying feature of the family is that the fruit is a legume, usually consisting of a single superior carpel, one locule, two to many ovules and parietal placentation. The family is currently divided into three subfamilies, the Caesalpinioideae, Mimosoideae and Papilionoideae, and 36 tribes. The subfamily Papilionoideae, of which the tribe Podalyrieae is a member, comprises 28 tribes and c. 13800 species (Lewis et al., 2005).

### 1.2 Objectives of the study

This study aims to investigate phylogenetic and evolutionary aspects of the tribe Podalyrieae:

1. An almost complete species-level phylogeny for the tribe will be reconstructed using DNA sequences from the internal transcribed spacer (ITS) of nuclear ribosomal DNA and the plastid gene rbcl, from which the major lineages and generic relationships can be assessed.
2. The relationship between Liparia, Podalyria and Stirtonanthus will be investigated by sequencing further plastid genes (trnL-F and $\operatorname{trnS-trnG)}$ for these genera and this data can later be used in pollination studies on Liparia.
3. The position of Cadia and its possible placement within Podalyrieae will be evaluated using ITS and $r b c L$ sequence data.
4. The rates of molecular evolution between reseeders and resprouters will be compared to determine whether reseeders have a higher rate of molecular evolution than resprouters.
5. A date for the root node of Podalyrieae will be produced to determine when the major radiation of the tribe took place.


Figure 1.3 The three hotspots that occur in South Africa. A: The Succulent Karoo (and Namibia) with the richest succulent flora on earth and a remarkably high number of endemic plant species. B: The Maputaland-Pondoland-Albany is an important center of plant endemism and stretches along the east coast of South Africa below the Great Escarpment. C: The CFR is one of the world's five Mediterranean hotspots and is home to the greatest non-tropical concentration of higher plant species in the world (from www.biodiversityhotspots.org).


## CHAPTER 2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

### 2.1 DNA extraction and purification

Total DNA was extracted from herbarium or silica dried leaf material ( $0.1-0.3 \mathrm{~g}$ ) using the $2 x$ CTAB method of Doyle and Doyle (1987). Absolute ethanol ( $2.5 x$ volume) for silica dried material and iso-propanol ( $2 / 3 x$ volume) for herbarium material was used to precipitate DNA from the extraction products at $-20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for one and two weeks respectively. The extracted DNA was purified using QIAquick silica columns according to the manufacturer's protocol for purifying PCR products (Qiagen Inc.) Voucher information and author citations for the taxa used in the study are listed in Table 2.1.

### 2.2 Amplification of the gene regions

Amplification was carried out using polymerase chain reactions (PCR), in $50 \mu \mathrm{l}$ reactions containing: $25 \mu \mathrm{l}$ PCR Mastermix [50 units/ml Taq DNA Polymerase ( pH 8.5 ), $400 \mu \mathrm{M}$ each of dATP, dGTP, dCTP, dTTP and $3 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{MgCl} 2_{2}$ (Promega Corporation)]; $0.5 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of both forward and reverse primers (see Table 2.2 for primer references and sequences and Figures 2.1 and 2.2 for diagrams of the gene regions); $1 \mu \mathrm{l}$ bovine serum albumin (BSA); 1 $\mu \mathrm{l}$ dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) for nuclear reactions and DNA template. Sterile distilled water was added to make up a total volume of $50 \mu \mathrm{l}$.

Protocols listed in Table 2.3 were used in the PCR reactions. A total of 26 cycles for ITS and 28 cycles for the chloroplast genes were completed (consisting of denaturation, annealing and extension) in a GeneAmp PCR System 9700 thermal cycler. The PCR products were purified using a QIAquick PCR purification kit following manufacturer's instructions. Unamplified taxa for all the gene regions are listed in Table 2.4.

### 2.3 Cycle sequencing

Cycle sequencing reactions were performed in $10 \mu \mathrm{l}$ reactions consisting of: 40 ng cleaned PCR product; $0.5 \mu \mathrm{l}$ Big Dye Terminator v. 3.1; $0.3 \mu \mathrm{l}$ primer; $2.0 \mu \mathrm{l}$ sequencing buffer; $0.5 \mu \mathrm{l}$ DMSO (for nuclear reactions); and sterile distilled water to make up a final volume of $10 \mu \mathrm{l}$. The cycle sequencing thermal profile consists of 26 cycles of 10 sec denaturation at $96^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, 5$ sec annealing at $50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and 4 min at $60^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in a thermal cycler (GeneAmp PCR system 9700). The products were purified using ethanol precipitation to remove any excess dye terminator. Cleaned cycle sequencing products were then directly sequenced on a 3130 xl Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems Inc.).

### 2.4 Phylogenetic analysis

### 2.4.1 Choice of outgroups

Representatives of the 'core' genistoids were chosen as outgroups in the separate and combined analyses of ITS and rbcL. This choice was based on the close relationship that exists between Podalyrieae and other genistoid tribes, especially Crotalarieae and Genisteae. In the analysis of Liparia, Podalyria and Stirtonanthus, the genera Amphithalea and Xiphotheca were chosen as outgroups due to the close relationship that was noted (Chapter 3). Voucher information, author citations and GenBank accession numbers for outgroups used in the study are listed in Table 2.4-2.6.

### 2.4.2 Maximum parsimony analysis (MP)

Complimentary strands of the sequenced genes were assembled and edited using Sequencher v. 3.1.2. (Gene Codes Corporation) and aligned manually. Insertions and deletions of nucleotides (indels) were scored as missing data and thus did not contribute to the analysis. Cladistic analyses for both the separate (ITS and $r b c L$ ) and combined (ITS and rbcL; for Liparia, Podalyria and Stirtonanthus ITS, rbcL, trnL-F and trnS-trnG) matrices were performed on a Macintosh G4 using the parsimony algorithm of the software package PAUP v. 4.0bl (Swofford, 1998). Tree searches were performed using a heuristic search with 1000 random sequence additions, tree bisection-reconnection (TBR) branch swapping and the MULPARS option 'on' only for ITS analysis (Chapter 3) and the combined ITS and rbcL analysis. All character transformations were treated as equally likely (Fitch parsimony; Fitch, 1971). To reduce the time spent on swapping, 10 trees per replicate were saved. Trees collected in the 1000 replicates were used as starting trees for another search without a tree limit. Delayed transformation character optimisation (DELTRAN) was used to illustrate branch lengths throughout [due to reported errors with accelerated transformation optimisation (ACCTRAN) in PAUP v. 4.0bl]. Internal support was estimated with 1000 bootstrap replicates using TBR and holding a total of 10 trees per replicate (Felsenstein, 1985). Only those clades of greater than $50 \%$ frequency are reported. The following scale for support percentages was used: 50--74\%, low; 75--84\%, moderate; 85--100\%, strong.

Congruence of the separate datasets was assessed by visual inspection of the individual bootstrap consensus trees. The bootstrap trees were considered incongruent only if they displayed 'hard' (i.e. with high bootstrap support) rather than 'soft' (i.e. with low bootstrap support) incongruence (Seelanan et al., 1997; Wiens, 1998). 'Conguence tests' such as ILD can be unreliable (Reeves et al., 2001; Yoder et al., 2001) and none of these methods were used.

### 2.4.3 Successive weighting (SW)

Successive approximations weighting (Farris, 1969) was used in the combined analyses to down-weight base positions that changed excessively to determine the effects of such characters on the tree topology (Chase et al., 2000). For SW the 'reweight characters' command based on the RI, using the maximum value (best fit) criterion and a base weight of 1 was used. The shortest Fitch trees were used as the basis for calculating the initial weights and the search-reweighting process was repeated until the same tree length was obtained twice in succession.

### 2.4.4 Maximum likelihood analysis (ML)

Methods of phylogenetic inference rely on their underlying models to make assumptions about the processes of DNA substitution. It is because of this fact that all models of evolution should be explored before a choice is made as to which model to use on a specific dataset. In order to do this, a test was performed using MODELTEST v. 3.06, which uses log likelihood scores to estimate which model of DNA evolution best fits the dataset at hand (Posada and Crandall, 1998). A choice is made among 56 possible models specified in MODELTEST ('modelblock' for PAUP). A matrix containing one tree, generated from the heuristic searches, was saved in NEXUS format and read into MODELTEST. Tests were performed using the algorithms in 'modelblock'. Bayesian analysis (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001; Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003: MRBAYES) was performed, using MRBAYES v. 2.01, for the combined matrices as stated before. The TIM+1+G model of substitution, indicated by MODELTEST [Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)] as the best fitting model, was used following the procedure set out in the manual. Settings for this model in PAUP v. 4.0bl were nst=6, rates=invgamma, basefrequency=emperical, clock=unconstrained and number of generations $=1000000$. The resulting trees were plotted against their likelihoods in order to determine where the likelihoods converge on a maximum value. All the trees before this convergence were discarded as the 'burn-in' phase. The remaining trees were imported into PAUP v. 4.0bl and a majority rule consensus tree was produced showing the frequency (i.e. posterior probabilities or PP ) of all observed bipartitions.

### 2.5 Comparison between the rates of molecular evolution in reseeders and resprouters

The software package CAIC (Comparative Analysis by Independent Contrasts; Purvis and Rambaut, 1995) can be used to analyse comparative data that includes continuous variables. The program can be used among other things to compare rates of evolution
among clades or characters. In this study, an analysis was performed to compare the rates of molecular evolution of reseeding versus resprouting individuals in Podalyrieae.

The resulting tree from the Bayesian analysis for the combined ITS and rbcL matrix was imported into TREE EDIT v. 1.0a 4.61 (Rambaut and Charleston, 2000) and exported into CAIC format, which resulted in plain text, coded phylogeny and branch length files. A table (tab delimited) was compiled containing branch lengths (continuous variable) from the Bayesian analysis and reseeding/resprouting information (categorical variable), gained from Schutte et al. (1995) and Schutte (pers. comm.), scored as 0 for resprouting and 1 for reseeding, for each species in the dataset. All this data was read into CAIC v. 2.6.9 following the procedure set out in the user's guide. The 'brunch' function of the CAIC program was used, as this is suitable for characters that have two states. The statistical results from the analysis done by CAIC were then used to perform a sign-test in order to compare the rates of molecular evolution between reseeders and resprouters. A similar analysis was performed on a dataset of Protea L., obtained from the Royal Botanic Gardens in Kew to test whether the higher diversification rates in reseeding species of Protea, as was mentioned by Reeves (2001), could be due to higher rates of molecular evolution in the reseeders. The results in this analysis were compared to those obtained for Podalyrieae.

### 2.6 Age estimation of the root node of Podalyrieae

Additional sequences were obtained from GenBank and combined with a subset of the data for Podalyrieae to compile a genistoid ITS matrix that could be used in a high-level analysis to date the node of Podalyrieae (voucher information, literature references, author citations and GenBank accession numbers are listed in Table 2.7). Non-parametric rate smoothing (NPRS) was used, which is applied when evolutionary rates vary across lineages (Sanderson, 1997). This algorithm assumes that evolutionary rates are auto-correlated in time and limits the speed with which rates can change from an ancestral to a descendant lineage. A likelihood ratio (LR) test was used to test for rate heterogeneity among the lineages in the dataset. If significant rate heterogeneity is indicated by the test, these differences in branch lengths should be smoothed using NPRS. With this approach, an ultrametric tree was produced in TREE EDIT v. 1.0a 4.61 (Rambaut and Charleston, 2000) without assuming a molecular clock. An estimate of the local rate of molecular evolution for each branch is constructed and the difference between that local rate estimate and its descendants' local rate then minimised (Sanderson, 1997). Diplotropis, a Sophoroid fossil described by Herendeen and Dilcher (1990) with a known date of 56 MYA , was used to calibrate the tree (Edwards et al. unpublished). To compute an error estimate for the root node of Podalyrieae, the NPRS procedure was applied to 100 bootstrapped matrices.


Figure 2.1 Schematic diagram of rDNA repeat in plants. The ribosomal rRNA genes are 18S, 5.8 S and 26S. ITS-1 and ITS-2 are the two internal transcribed spacer regions. IGS is the intergenic spacer; ETS is the external transcribed spacer (from Soltis and Soltis, 1998).


Figure 2.2 Diagram of the chloroplast genome of tobacco showing the two inverted repeats ( $\mathrm{IR}_{\mathrm{A}}$ and $\mathrm{IR}_{\mathrm{B}}$ ), large single-copy (LSC) and the small single-copy (SSC) region (from Wakasugi et al., 2001).
Table 2.1 Sources of plant material and vouchers used in this study (*Private collection of A.L. Schutte; ${ }^{1}$ Van der Bank et al., 2002; X= sequences submitted to GenBank, but accession numbers still outstanding).

Table 2.1 Continued.

|  |  |  | GenBank accession number |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Species | Source | Voucher \& Herbarium | ITS | rbcL | trnL-F trnS-trnG |
| A. spinosa (Harv.) A.L. Schutte | Matjiesfontein | Van Wyk 2195* | X | AM 177363 |  |
| A. stokoei L. Bolus | Kogelberg Nature Reserve | Vlok \& Schutte 297* | X | AM 177364 |  |
| A. tomentosa (Thunb.) Granby | Kogelberg Nature Reserve | VIok, Van Wyk \& Schutte 92* | X | AM 177365 |  |
| A. tortilis (E. Mey.) Benth. | Groot Winterhoek Nature Reserve | Schutte 599* | X | AM 177366 |  |
| A. villosa Schltr. | Laingsburg | Vlok \& Schutte 117****** | X | AM 177367 |  |
| A. violacea (E. Mey.) Benth. | Outeniqua Mountains, Moordkuils River | Vlok \& Schutte 407* | $x$ | AM 177368 |  |
| A. virgata Eckl. \& Zeyh. | Fernkloof Nature Reserve | Boatwright \& Magee 65, JRAU | X | AM 177369 |  |
| A. vlokii (A.L. Schutte \& B.E. van Wyk) A.L. Schutte | Uniondale, Fortkoppie | Schutte 744* | X | AM 177370 |  |
| A. williamsonii Harv. | Baviaanskloof Mountains | Euston-Brown s.n.* | X | AM 177372 |  |
| Calpurnia E. Mey. C. aurea (Aiton) Benth. | Living collection, RBG, Kew | RBG, Kew 1991-1626, K | AJ 409913 ${ }^{1}$ | - |  |
| C. glabrata Brummit | Transvaal, Carolina District | K. Baldwin \& M-J Baldwin 8502, J | X | AM 177372 |  |
| C. intrusa (R.Br. in W.T.Aiton) E. Mey. | Meiringspoort $\overline{\text { D }}$ | Schutte s.n.* | x | AM 177373 |  |
| C. sericea Harv. | Suikerbosrand Nature Reserve | Boatwright 86, JRAU | X | AM 177374 |  |
| C. sericea $\times$ C. woodii | Living collection from Moor Park Nature Reserve . | Beaumont s.n., NU | X | X |  |
| C. woodii Schinz. | Estcourt | Beaumont s.n., NU | X | AM 177375 |  |
| Cyclopia Vent. <br> C. alopecuroides A.L. Schutte | Kammanassie Nature Reserve | Vlok \& Schutte 129* | AM 050828 | x |  |
| C. alpina A.L. Schutte | Hottentots Holland Nature Reserve | Vlok \& Schutte 250* | AM 050830 | X |  |
| C. aurescens Kies | Klein Swartberg Mountains | AL \& BvW 771b, JRAU | AM 050826 | X |  |
| C. bolusii Hofmeyr \& Phillips | Swartberg Nature Reserve | Schutte 826* | X | X |  |

Table 2.1 Continued.

| Species | Source | Voucher \& Herbarium | GenBank accession number |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | ITS | rbcL | trnL-F | trnS-trnG |
| C. burtonii Hofmeyr \& Phillips | Swartberg Pass | Vlok \& Van Wyk 189, JRAU | AJ 310733 ${ }^{1}$ | - |  |  |
| C. falcata (Harv.) Kies | Groot Winterhoek, Voorberg | AL 598, JRAU | X | X |  |  |
| C. galioides (P.J. Bergius) DC. | Cape Point Nature Reserve | De Lange 13* | AM 050825 | X |  |  |
| C. genistoides (L.) R. Br. | De Hoop Nature Reserve, Potberg | Boatwright \& Magee 53, JRAU | AM 050819 | X |  |  |
| C. glabra (Hofmeyr \& Phillips) A.L. Schutte | Hex River Mountains, Matroosberg | Schutte 558* | AM 050830 | X |  |  |
| C. intermedia E.Mey. | Mossel Bay | AL 658, JRAU | X |  |  |  |
| C. Iongifolia Vogel | Vanstadensrivier Mountains | Vlok \& Schutte 422* | AM 050820 | X |  |  |
| C. maculata (Andrews) Kies | Garcia Forest Station | Schutte 609-611, JRAU | AJ 409896 ${ }^{1}$ | $x$ |  |  |
| C. meyeriana Walp. | Hottentots Holland Nature Reserve | Vlok \& Schutte 251* | AM 050818 | X |  |  |
| C. plicata Kies | Uniondale, Hoopsberg | AL 670b, JRAU | X | X |  |  |
| C. pubescens Eckl. \& Zeyh. | Port Elizabeth | Schutte 685-689, JRAU | AJ $409897^{1}$ | X |  |  |
| C. sessiliflora Eckl. \& Zeyh. | Swellendam, Langeberg | Vlok \& Shutte 213* | AM 050831 | X |  |  |
| C. subternata Vogel | Outeniqua Pass | Boatwright \& Magee 35, JRAU | AM 050821 | X |  |  |
| Liparia L. <br> L. angustifolia (Eckl. \& Zeyh.) A.L. Schutte | Fernkloof Nature Reserve | Boatwright \& Magee 66, JRAU | X | AM 177376 | X | X |
| L. bonaespei A.L. Schutte | Hottentots Holland Mountains, Mooredenaarskop | N.A. Helme \& D. Raimondo 3430, NBG | X | AM 177377 | X | X |
| L. boucheri (E.G.H. Oliv. \& Fellingham) A.L. Schutte | Kogelberg Nature Reserve | M. Johns s.n., JRAU | X | AM 177378 | X | - |
| L. calycina (L. Bolus) A.L. Schutte | Hottentots Holland Mountains | VIok \& Schutte 129* | X | AM 177379 | $\overline{-}$ | $\overline{-}$ |
| L. capitata Thunb. | Klein Swartberg $\quad$ I) | ALS \& BVW 776, JRAU |  | AM 177380 | X | $x$ |
| L. confusa A.L. Schutte | Swartberg Mountains | Vlok \& Schutte 502* | $x$ | X | X | X |
| L. congesta A.L. Schutte | Swartruggens | Bean 2619* | x | X | $\overline{-}$ | $\overline{-}$ |
| L. genistoides (Lam.) A.L. Schutte | Kammanassie Mountains | Schutte 752* | X | X | X | X |

Table 2.1 Continued.

| Species | Source | Voucher \& Herbarium | GenBank accession number |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | ITS | rbcL | trnL-F | trnS-trnG |
| L. hirsuta Thunb. | Montagu Pass | Boatwright \& Magee 33, JRAU | X | X | X | X |
| L. Iatifolia (Benth.) A.L. Schutte | Franschhoek Mountains | N.A. Helme 3455, NBG | $X$ | $X$ | $x$ | $X$ |
| L. myrtifolia Thunb. | Zeeliesrug | Van Wyk 2639* | X | $X$ | X | $X$ |
| L. parva Vogel ex Walp. | Cape Point | Van Wyk 3149, 3243, JRAU | AJ 409909 ${ }^{1}$ | X | X | $X$ |
| L. racemosa A.L. Schutte | Swartberg Mountains | Vlok \& Schutte 501* | $X$ | X | $X$ | $\overline{-}$ |
| L. rafnioides A.L. Schutte | Kogelberg Nature Reserve | M. Johns s.n., JRAU | $x$ | $X$ | $X$ | $X$ |
| L. splendens (Burm. F.) Bos \& De Wit subsp. comantha (Eckl. \& Zeyh.) Bos \& De Wit | Langeberg Mountains | Vlok \& Schutte 211* | $X$ | $X$ | $X$ | $X$ |
| L. splendens (Burm. F.) Bos \& De Wit subsp. splendens | Fernkloof Nature Reserve | Boatwright \& Magee 8, JRAU |  | $X$ | X | X |
| L. striata A.L. Schutte | Heidelberg, Verkykerskop | Schutte 759* | $X$ | $X$ | X | X |
| L. umbellifera Thunb. | Hex River Mountains, Matroosberg | Schutte 561* | X | X | $X$ | - |
| L. vestita Thunb. | Fernkloof Nature Reserve | Boatwright \& Magee 62, JRAU | $X$ | $X$ | $X$ | X |
| Podalyria Willd. P. argentea (Salisb.) Salisb. | Kogelberg Nature Reserve $\leq$ | Vlok, Van Wyk \& Schutte 4* | X | $X$ | X | $\overline{-}$ |
| P. biflora (L.) Lam. | Kortefontein, Langeberg $\geq$ Пो | Vlok s.n.* | X | $X$ | $X$ | $X$ |
| P. burchelli DC. | Zuurberg Mountains | B-E \& M. van Wyk 7* | $X$ | $X$ | $X$ | X |
| P. buxifolia (Retz.) Lam. | Montagu Pass | Boatwright \& Magee 34, JRAU | X | X | X | - |
| P. calyprata (Retz.) Willd. | 0 | Chase 16091, K | $x$ | $X$ | $\overline{-}$ | - |
| P. canescens E. Mey | Paarl (1) | Van Wyk 3237, JRAU | $X$ | $X$ | X | - |
| P. cordata (Thunb.) R.Br. | Kogelberg Nature Reserve | Vlok \& Schutte 311* | X | X | X | - |
| P. cuneifolia Vent. | Port Elizabeth | Van Wyk 2888, 3177, JRAU | AJ $409904^{1}$ | $X$ | $X$ | - |
| P. hirsuta (W.T. Aiton) Willd. | Kogelberg Nature Reserve | Vlok \& Schutte 437* | X | X | X | - |

Table 2.1 Continued.

Table 2.1 Continued.

Table 2.2 Primer sequences and references for the gene regions studied.

| Region | Primer sequence ( $5^{\prime}--3^{\prime}$ ) | Reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| cpDNA |  |  |
| $r b c L$ | 1 F (ATG TCA CCA CAA ACA GAA AC) | Olmstead et al., 1992 |
|  | 724R (TCG CAT GTA CCT GCA GTA GC) 636 F (GCG TTG GAG AGA TCG TTT GT) | Fay et al., 1997 |
|  | 1460R (TCC TTT TAG TAA AAG ATT GGG CCG AG) | Olmstead et al., 1992 |
| trnL-F intergenic spacer | $c$ (CGA AAT CGG TAG ACG CTA GG) | Taberlet et al., 1991 |
|  | $d$ (GGG GAT AGA GGG ACT TGA AC) |  |
|  | $e$ (GGT TCA AGT CCC TCT ATC CC) | " |
|  | $f$ (ATT TGA ACT GGT GAC ACG AG) | " |
| trnS-trnG (GCU) | GCC GCT TTA CAC TCA GC | Hamilton, 1999 |
|  | GAA CGA ATC ACA CTT TTA CCA C |  |
| ncDNA |  |  |
| ITS | AB 101 (ACG AAT TCA TGG TCC GGT GAA GTG TT) AB 102 (TAG AAT TCC CCG GTT CGC TCG CCG TT) | Sun et $\underset{\text { al., }}{ } 1994$ |
|  | ITS-2 (GCT GCG TTC TTC ATC GAT GC) | White et al., 1990 |
|  | ITS-3 (GCA TCG ATG AAG AAC GCA GC) | " |

Table 2.3 Cycling protocols used for PCR amplifications.

| Gene | Premelt | Denaturation | Annealing | Extension | Final extension |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cpDNA |  |  |  |  |  |
| rbcL | $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(3 \mathrm{~min})$ | $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(1 \mathrm{~min})$ | $48^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(1 \mathrm{~min})$ | $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(1: 30 \mathrm{~min})$ | $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(7 \mathrm{~min})$ |
| trnL-F | $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(3 \mathrm{~min})$ | $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(1 \mathrm{~min})$ | $48^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(1 \mathrm{~min})$ | $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(1 \mathrm{~min})$ | $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(7 \mathrm{~min})$ |
| trnS-trnG | $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(3 \mathrm{~min})$ | $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(1 \mathrm{~min})$ | $50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(1 \mathrm{~min})$ | $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(1: 30 \mathrm{~min})$ | $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(7 \mathrm{~min})$ |
| ncDNA <br> ITS |  |  |  |  |  |

Table 24 Unamplified taxa for the genes studied.

## Regions Species

cpDNA
rbcL Cadia pubescens, Calpurnia aurea, Cyclopia burtonii, Podalyria intermedia
trnL-F Liparia calycina, L. congesta, Podalyria calyptrata
trnS-trnG Liparia boucheri, L. calycina, L. congesta, L. racemosa, L. umbellifera, Podalyria argentea, P. buxifolia, P. calyptrata, P. canescens, P. cordata, P. cuneifolia, P. hirsuta, P. lanceolata, P. leipoldtii, P. microphylla, P. myrtillifolia
ncDNA
ITS
Podalyria velutina
Table 2.5 Sources of plant material used as outgroups in the ITS analysis (*unpublished).

| Species | Voucher \& Herbarium | GenBank accession number ITS | Reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Argyrolobium Eckl. \& Zeyh. |  |  |  |
| A. harmsianum Schltr. Ex Harms | Crisp 9042, CANB | AF 287685 | Crisp et al., 2000 |
| A. Iunare Druce | Crisp 9039, CANB | AF 287686 | Crisp et al., 2000 |
| Aspalathus Amm. A. longifolia Benth. | B.-E. van wyk 2799, JRAU | - | Van der Bank* |
| A. nivea Thunb. | B.-E. van Wyk 2938, JRAU | - | Van der Bank* |
| Crotalaria L. |  |  |  |
| C. capensis Jacq. | B.-E. \& M. van Wyk 1863, JRAU | - | Van der Bank* |
| C. lebeckioides Bond | B.-E. van Wyk 3315, JRAU | - | Van der Bank* |
| Dichilus DC. |  |  |  |
| D. strictus E. Mey. | Crisp 9073, CANB | AJ 287684 | Crisp et al., 2000 |
| Lebeckia Thunb. |  |  |  |
| L. cytisoides Thunb. | A.L. Schutte 286, JRAU | - | Van der Bank* |
| L. wrightii (Harv.) Bolus | B.-E. van Wyk 3354, JRAU | - | Van der Bank* |
| Lotononis (DC.) Eckl \& Zeyh. <br> L. alpina (Eckl. \& Zeyh.) B.-E. van Wyk | B.-E. \& M. van Wyk 1478, JRAU | - | Van der Bank* |
| L. laxa Eckl. \& Zeyh. | Crisp 9075, CANB | AF 287677 | Crisp et al., 2000 |

Table 2.5 Continued.

| Species | Voucher \& Herbarium | GenBank accession number ITS | Reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Maackia Rupr. \& Maxim. M. amurensis Rupr. \& Maxim | Botanical Gardens Göttingen, Germany | Z 72336 \& Z 72352 | Käss, 1995 |
| Melolobium Eckl. \& Zeyh. M. adenodes Eckl. \& Zeyh. M. candicans Eckl. \& Zeyh. | Van Wyk 4036, JRAU Van Wyk 4016, JRAU | AM 050832 <br> AM 050833 | Moteetee, 2003 <br> Moteetee, 2003 |
| Pearsonia Dümmer <br> P. grandifolia (Bolus) subsp. latibracteolata (Dümmer) Polhill <br> $P$. sessilifolia (Harvey) Dümmer | B.-E. van Wyk 3047, JRAU Crisp 9078, CANB | AJ 287675 | Van der Bank* Crisp et al., 2000 |
| Polhillia C. H. Stirton P. pallens C.H. Stirton Rafnia Thunb. | B.-E. van Wyk 2128, JRAU | - | Van der Bank* |
| R. alata G.J. Campbell \& B.-E. van Wyk | Campbell \& van Wyk 8, JRAU | AJ 744938 | Motsi, 2004 |
| R. vlokii G.J. Campbell \& B.-E. van Wyk | Van Wyk 3172, JRAU | AJ 744937 | Motsi, 2004 |
| Sophora L. <br> S. tetraphylla J.S. Muell. <br> S. toromiro Skottsb. | RBG, Kew 1977-1212, K RBG, Kew 1994-2331, K | AJ 310734 <br> AJ 409921 | Van der Bank et al., 2002 <br> Van der Bank et al., 2002 |
| Styphnolobium Scott. S. japonicum Scott. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { RBG, Kew 1972-10834, } \\ & \text { K } \end{aligned}$ | AJ 409920 | Van der Bank et al., 2002 |

Table 2.5 Continued.

| Species | Voucher \& Herbarium | GenBank accession <br> number ITS | Reference |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Thermopsis R.Br. <br> T. divaricarpa Nelson | Wang, Sun \& Yang <br> T. montana Torrey \& A. Gray | AY 091575 | Wang et al.* |
|  | HbUR/Ktm 101 | AF 384336 \& AF 384337 | Ainouche et al., 2003 |

Table 2.6 Voucher information for outgroups used in the rbcL analysis (*unpublished).

Table 2.6 Continued.

| Species | Voucher \& Herbarium | GenBank accession number rbcL | Reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Melolobium Eckl. \& Zeyh. |  |  |  |
| M. microphyllum (L.f.) Eckl. \& Zeyh. | T. Edwards 470 | Z 95539 | Käss \& Wink, 1997 |
| M. obcordatum Harv. | T. Edwards 469 | Z 95540 | Käss \& Wink, 1997 |
| Sophora L. |  |  |  |
| S. microphylla Aiton | CHR 529930 | AY 725480 | Heenen et al., 2004 |
| S. tomentosa L. | CHR 569752 | AY 725481 | Heenen et al., 2004 |

Table 2.7 Voucher information and GenBank accession numbers for the genistoid legumes used in the high-level analysis (*unpublished).

| Species | Voucher \& Herbarium | GenBank accession number ITS | Reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Acosmium Schott |  |  |  |
| A. panamense (Benth.) Yakovlev | Hughes 1308, FHO | AF 187084 | Lavin et al. , 2001 |
| Adenocarpus DC. |  |  |  |
| A. viscosus (Willd.) Webb \& Berth | Käss 343 | Z 72300 \& Z 72301 | Käss, 1995 |
| Aenictophyton A.T. Lee |  |  |  |
| A. reconditum A.T. Lee | Fryxell 4500, CANB | AF 287654 | Crisp et al. , 2000 |
| Anagyris L. |  |  |  |
| A. foetida L. | Wang, Sun \& Yang 49739 | AY 091571 | Wang et al. * |
| Anarthrophyllum Benth. |  |  |  |
| A. cumingii (Hook. \& Arn.) Philippi f. | AC 23756, G E | AY 609186 \& AY 609196 | Ainouche \& Misset* |
| Aotus Sm. | Z 윢 $_{\text {п }}$ |  |  |
| A. carinata Meisn. | Chappill $6581 \sim$ | AY 883352 | Orthia et al. , 2005 |
| A. cordifolia Benth. | Chappill 6587 ¢ | AY 883353 | Orthia et al. , 2005 |
| Argyrocytisus (Maire) Raynaud | $\xrightarrow{\square}$ |  |  |
| A. battandieri (Maire) Raynaud | Wink 397 | Z 95580 \& Z95581 | Käss \& Wink, 1997 |
| Argyrolobium Eckl. \& Zeyh. |  |  |  |
| A. hanveyanum Oliver | T. Edwards 471 | Z 95582 \& Z 95583 | Käss \& Wink, 1997 |
| A. marginatum Bolus | T. Edwards 477 | Z 95564 \& Z 95565 | Käss \& Wink, 1997 |
| A. zanonii (Turra) F.W. Ball | Käss 172 | Z 72274 \& Z 72275 | Käss, 1995 |

Table 2.7 Continued.

| Species | Voucher \& Herbarium | GenBank accession number ITS | Reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Aspalathus Amm. <br> A. cordata (L.) R. Dahlgr. <br> A. corrudifolia P.J. Bergius <br> A. linearis L. (N.L. Burm.) R. Dahlgr. <br> A. subulata Thunb. | Crisp 9067, CANB <br> Crisp 9037, CANB <br> Van Wyk 3630, JRAU <br> B. -E. van Wyk 1425, JRAU | AF 287681 <br> AF 287682 <br> AJ 744951 | Crisp et al., 2000 <br> Crisp et al., 2000 <br> Motsi, 2004 <br> Motsi, 2004 |
| Baphia Afzel. ex Lodd. <br> B. madagascaniensis (A.A. Heller) A.A. Heller | D.J. Du Puy M554, K | U 59888 | Hu et al., 2002 |
| Baptisia Vent. <br> B. australis R.Br. var. aberans (Larisey) M.G. Mendenh. <br> B. tinctoria (L.) R.Br. | Wang, Sun \& Yang 149633 <br> Botanical Gardens Heidelberg, Germany | AY 091572 $Z 72314$ \& Z 72315 | Wang et al. * Käss, 1995 |
| Bolusanthus Harms <br> B. speciosus (Bolus) Harms <br> Bossiaea Vent. <br> B. lenticularis DC. <br> B. linophylla R.Br. | J.P. 37 et , H.G. <br> MDC 9289 <br> Crisp 8927, CANB | $\begin{aligned} & \text { AF } 518104 \\ & \text { AF } 287657 \end{aligned}$ | Motsi, 2004 <br> Crisp \& Cook, 2003 <br> Crisp et al. , 2000 |
| Brongniartia Kunth. <br> B. alamosana Rydb. | Hu 1120, DAV | AF 467022 | Hu et al. , 2002 |
| Calicotome Link <br> C. villosa (Poir.) Link | Käss 175 | Z 72252 \& Z 72253 | Käss, 1995 |

Table 2.7 Continued.

| Species | Voucher \& Herbarium | GenBank accession number ITS | Reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Chorizema Labill. |  |  |  |
| C. aciculare C.A. Gardner | MDC 9202 | AF 518108 | Crisp \& Cook, 2003 |
| C. varium Benth. Ex Lindl. | MDC 8528 | AF 518112 | Crisp \& Cook, 2003 |
| Crotalaria L. |  |  |  |
| C. capensis Jacq. | Heidrich 366 | Z 72310 \& Z 72311 | Käss, 1995 |
| C. hyssopifolia Klotzsch | Singh, Malathum \& Murray 1352 | AF 313494 | Jourand* |
| C. lanceolata E. Mey. | Jourand 165770 | AF 313495 | Jourand* |
| C. lathyroides Guill. \& Perr. | Jourand 165771 | AF 313496 | Jourand* |
| C. ochroleuca G. Don. | Negri, Webster, Hill \& Heyward | AF 313497 | Jourand* |
| C. pallida Ait. | Botanical Gardens Lome, Togo | Z 72312 \& Z 72313 | Käss, 1995 |
| C. perrottetii DC. | Jourand 165773 | AJ 313498 | Jourand* |
| C. podocarpa DC. | Jourand 48249 | AJ 313500 | Jourand* |
| C. retusa L. | Jourand 165774 | AJ 313501 | Jourand* |
| C. senegalensis (Pers.) DC. | Jourand 165775 | AJ 313502 | Jourand* |
| Cyclolobium Benth. |  |  |  |
| C. nutans C.T. Rizzini \& E.P. Heringer Cytisophyllum O. Lang | Ratter et al. 7431, E | AF 467041 | Hu et al., 2002 |
| C. sessilifolium (L.) O. Lang | Botanical Gardens Hohenheim, Germany | Z 72254 \& Z 72255 | Käss, 1995 |
| Daviesia Sm. <br> D. mimosoides R.Br. | Crisp 9151 | AY 883356 | Orthia et al. , 2005 |
| Diplotropis Benth. |  |  |  |

Table 2.7 Continued.

Table 2.7 Continued.

| Species | Voucher \& Herbarium | GenBank accession number ITS | Reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| H. sophoroides (P.J. Bergius) Baillon | Van Wyk 3012, 3319, JRAU | AJ 409919 | Van der Bank et al., |
| Isotropis Benth. | MDC 9121 | AF 518105 | Crisp \& Cook, 2003 |
| 1. foliosa Crisp <br> I. forrestii F. Muell. | Crisp 9261 | AY 883357 | Orthia et al. , 2005 |
| Jacksonia R.Br. Ex Sm. |  | AF 518106 | Crisp \& Cook, 2003 |
| J. alata Benth. | MDC 8956 | $\text { AF } 519107$ | Crisp \& Cook, 2003 |
| J. macrocalyx Meisn. | MDC 9272 |  | Crisp \& Cook, 2003 |
| Laburnum Fabr. <br> L. anagyroides Medik. | MAF 162279 | AY 263679 | Pardo et al. , 2004 |
| Lebeckia Thunb. L. inflata Bolus | Belle Barker 204, JRAU | - | Motsi, 2004 |
| L. Iotononoides Schitr. | B.-E. van Wyk 149, JRAU | - | Motsi, 2004 |
| L. sericea Thunb. | C.M. van Wyk 2584, JRAU | - ${ }^{-}$ | Motsi, 2004 |
| L. sessilifolia (Eckl. \& Zeyh.) Benth. | Crisp 9041, CANB | AF 287678 | Crisp et al. , 2000 |
| Leptosema Benth. <br> L. daviesioides (Turcz.) Benth. | Crisp $9193 \stackrel{\square}{\square}$ | AY 883360 | Orthia et al. , 2005 |
| Lotononis (DC.) EckI. \& Zeyh. <br> L. oxyptera (E. Mey) Benth. <br> L. sericophylla Benth. | B.-E. van Wyk 2316, JRAU B. -E. van Wyk 1647, JRAU | - | Motsi, 2004 <br> Motsi, 2004 |
| Lupinus L. <br> L. arcticus S. Watson | Hb, ALTA/95826 | AF 007495 | Ainouche \& Bayer, 1999 |

Table 2.7 Continued.

| Species | Voucher \& Herbarium | GenBank accession number ITS | Reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| L. polyphyllus Lindley | USDA/504404 | AF 007496 | Ainouche \& Bayer, 1999 |
| Melolobium Eckl. \& Zeyh. |  |  |  |
| M. canescens Benth. | Dean 648, JRAU | AM 050834 | Moteetee, 2003 |
| M. calycinum Benth. | Moteetee 10, JRAU | AM 050835 | Moteetee, 2003 |
| M. humile Eckl. \& Zeyh. | Van Wyk 2351, JRAU | AM 050836 | Moteetee, 2003 |
| M. lampolobum (E. Mey.) Moteetee \& B.-E. van | Van Wyk 2145, JRAU | AM 050837 | Moteetee, 2003 |
| Wyk |  |  |  |
| Mirbelia Sm. |  |  |  |
| M. Iongifolia C.A. Gardner | Crisp 9263 | AY 883361 | Orthia et al., 2005 |
| M. speciosa DC. | ANBG 8100876 | AF 518116 | Crisp \& Cook, 2003 |
| Muelleranthus Hutch. |  |  |  |
| M. trifoliolatus (F. Muell.) Hutch. | Lally 743, CANB Z | AF 287653 | Crisp et al. , 2000 |
| Nemcia Domin |  |  |  |
| N. plicata (Turcz.) Crisp | Crisp \& Cook 150654 | AF 518119 | Crisp \& Cook* |
| Oxylobium Andrews | MDC 9133 | AF 518117 | Crisp \& Cook 2003 |
| O. cordifolium Andrews | MDC 9133 | AF 518117 | Crisp \& Cook, 2003 |
| Petteria C. Presl |  |  |  |
| P. ramentacea (Sieber) C. Presl | Botanical Gardens Gießen, Germany | Z 72232 \& Z 72233 | Käss, 1995 |
| Pickeringia Nutt. ex Torr. \& Gray |  |  |  |

Table 2.7 Continued.

| Species | Voucher \& Herbarium | GenBank accession number ITS | Reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| P. montana Torrey \& A. Gray | Wang, Sun \& Yang 191728 | AY 091568 | Wang et al. * |
| Piptanthus Sweet |  |  |  |
| P. tomentosus Franchet | Wang, Sun \& Yang 111852 | AY 091570 | Wang et al. * |
| Podolobium R.Br. <br> $P$. aciculiferum F . Muell. | GTC 606 | AF 518118 | Crisp \& Cook, 2003 |
| Poecilanthe Benth. |  |  |  |
| $P$ falcata (Vell.) Heringer | De Lima 2, RJ | AF 467492 | Hu et al., 2002 |
| Pultenaea Sm. |  |  |  |
| P. pedunculata Hook. | De Kok 756 | AY 883374 | Orthia et al. , 2005 |
| $P$. stipularis Sm. | De Kok $701 \frac{\square}{\text { I }}$ E | AY 883378 | Orthia et al. , 2005 |
| Rafnia Thunb. |  |  |  |
| R. acuminata (E. Mey.) G.J. Campbell \& B.-E. van Wyk | Campbell \& Van Wyk 17, JRAU | AJ 744942 | Motsi, 2004 |
| $R$. amplexicaulis (L.) Thunb. | Campbell \& Van Wyk 26, JRAU | AJ 744943 | Motsi, 2004 |
| R. crassifolia Harv. | Campbell \& Van Wyk 150, JRAU | AJ 744939 | Motsi, 2004 |
| R. diffusa Thunb. | Campbell \& Van Wyk 44 , JRAU | AJ 744944 | Motsi, 2004 |
| R. elliptica Thunb. | Van Wyk \& Van Wyk 615, JRAU | AJ 744940 | Motsi, 2004 |
| R. ovata E. Mey. | Campbell \& Van Wyk 128, JRAU | AJ 744941 | Motsi, 2004 |
| R. perfoliata E. Mey. | Crisp, Gilmore \& Van Wyk 140947 | AF 287679 | Crisp et al. , 2000 |
| R. schlechteriana Schinz | Campbell \& Van Wyk 33, JRAU | AJ 744950 | Motsi, 2004 |
| R. spicata Thunb. | Campbell \& Van Wyk 141, JRAU | AJ 744945 | Motsi, 2004 |
| Retama Raf. |  |  |  |

Table 2.7 Continued.

| Species | Voucher \& Herbarium | GenBank accession number ITS | Reference |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| R. monosperma (L.) Boiss. | MAF 162126 | AY 263681 | Pardo et al., 2004 |
| R. sphaerocarpa (L.) Boiss. | MAF 160442 | AY 263682 | Pardo et al. , 2004 |
| Sophora (L.) |  |  |  |
| S. microphylla (Meyen.) | RBG, Kew 1969-16092, K | AJ 409924 | Van der Bank et al., |
| S. prostrata J. Buch. | RBG, Kew 1988-2824, K | AJ 409922 | Van der Bank et al. |
| Spartium L. |  |  |  |
| S. junceum L. | MAF 159908 | AF 351088 | Cubas et al., 2002 |
| Sphaerolobium Sm. |  |  |  |
| S. minus Labill. | MDC 9154 | AF 518101 | Crisp \& Cook, 2003 |
| S. nudiflorum (Meisn.) Benth. | RB 891 | AF 518102 | Crisp \& Cook, 2003 |
| Stauracanthus Link | 》 Z |  |  |
| Stauracanthus genistoides (Brot.) Samp. subsp. genistoides | MAF 7908 | AF 384340 \& AF 384341 | Ainouche et al., 2003 |
| Templetonia R.Br. |  |  |  |
| T. retusa R.Br. | Crisp 8996, CANB | AF 287636 | Crisp et al., 2000 |
| Ulex L. |  |  |  |
| U. densus Webb | HbUR/UD 7 | AF 384356 \& AF 384357 | Ainouche et al.,. 2003 |
| U. panviflorus Pourr. | LB-UR-Fr/G53 | AF 007470 | Ainouche \& Bayer, 1999 |



## CHAPTER 3

MOLECULAR PHYLOGENETICS OF THE TRIBE PODALYRIEAE

### 3.1 Introduction

### 3.1.1 General

The tribe Podalyrieae is a group of Papilionoid legumes that, with the exception of Calpurnia, are endemic to the CFR of South Africa. It forms part of the Cape floral clades together with amongst others Crotalarieae pro parte (Aspalathus and Rafnia) and Psoraleeae pro parte (Psoralea L. and Otholobium C.H. Stirton). These clades, according to Linder (2003), can be defined as those clades that have had most of their evolutionary history in the CFR and have been there since the Pliocene. Podalyrieae currently contains eight genera: Amphithalea, Calpurnia, Cyclopia, Liparia, Podalyria, Stirtonanthus, Virgilia and Xiphotheca. All the species are long-lived perennials with notable variation in growth form. They range from tall, upright trees to erect woody shrubs and subshrubs or sprawling shrublets. A variety of leaf types can be found in the tribe varying from imparipinnately compound leaves in Calpurnia and Virgilia, to trifoliate leaves in Cyclopia and simple leaves in Amphithalea, Liparia, Podalyria, Stirtonanthus and Xiphotheca. The structure of the inflorescence is a useful taxonomic character at both inter- and infrageneric level. They are either subterminal, axillary racemes or panicles in Calpurnia and Virgilia, or axillary, subterminal inflorescences in the rest of the tribe. The flowers are normally firmly textured and adapted for pollination by xylocopid bees (Schutte and Van Wyk, 1998a). Whitehead et al. (1987) state that flowers pollinated by bees tend to be blue or yellow with nectar guides and a sweet odour. According to Van Wyk (1993), no correlation exists between sugar ratios of nectar and the types of pollinators that are attracted by members of the tribe. Nectar in Podalyrieae seems to be sucrose rich and unspecialised for pollination. The high sucrose levels support a notion of a 'long-tongued bee syndrome', i.e. most species are pollinated by xylocopid bees, but the correlation and implied co-evolution is not completely convincing (Van Wyk, 1993).

The two fire-survival strategies, i.e. reseeders and resprouters, can be observed in Podalyrieae. Resprouting and reseeding taxa differ in their habitat specificity, population densities, relative regional abundance and seed germination tempo, as there is a tendency of reseeding species to germinate more rapidly than resprouting species (Schutte et al., 1995). In legumes, resprouting versus reseeding is often an important distinguishing character in morphologically similar taxa, but this character is often difficult to include in taxonomic studies, seeing that fire survival strategy is not visible on herbarium specimens.

The genistoid alliance was described by Polhill (1976; 1981) as a group of predominantly southern Hemisphere tribes suspected of being closely related. These include the northern Hemisphere Genisteae, Euchresteae; Thermopsideae and some Sophoreae; the South African Crotalarieae, Podalyrieae and Hypocalypteae; the Australian Bossiaeeae and Mirbelieae and the neotropical Brongniartieae. Molecular studies show

Podalyrieae to be sister to a clade consisting of Crotalarieae and Genisteae (Figure 3.1). These together with Euchresteae, Sophoreae (Maackia and some species of Sophora) and Thermopsidae form the 'core' genistoids (Käss and Wink, 1995; 1996; 1997; Doyle et al., 2000; Crisp et al., 2000; Wojciechowski, 2003, Wojciechowski et al., 2004). These results are in agreement with earlier work done by Van Wyk and Schutte (1995a) that incorporated morphological and chemical evidence. The species in these tribes are mainly centred in Africa and Eurasia and include many genera from temperate and subtropical regions, e.g. Aspalathus, Genista, Podalyria and Thermopsis (Wojciechowski, 2003).


Figure 3.1 Relationships within the 'core' genistoids (from Crisp et al., 2000).

Schutte and Van Wyk (1998a) in their study of the tribes Liparieae and Podalyrieae proposed many important changes at both the tribal and generic level. They suggested an amalgamation of the two tribes and consequently placed Liparieae into synonymy under Podalyrieae. Hypocalyptus was excluded from the tribe and now constitutes the monotypic tribe Hypocalypteae and is probably more closely related to the Australian Mirbelieae and

Bossiaeeae (Schutte and Van Wyk, 1998b). The paraphyletic genus Priestleya DC. was dissolved and its members split between Liparia and Xiphotheca (Schutte and Van Wyk, 1993; 1994). Coelidium Vogel ex Walp. was moved into synonymy with Amphithalea (Schutte, 1995a), Stirtonanthus described as a new genus (Van Wyk and Schutte 1994; 1995b) and Calpurnia transferred to Podalyrieae (Van Wyk and Schutte, 1995a). The tribe was divided into two subtribes (Figure 3.2): Podalyriinae (consisting of Calpurnia, Cyclopia, Liparia, Podalyria, Stirtonanthus and Virgilia) and Xiphothecinae (consisting of Amphithalea and Xiphotheca). Members of the Xiphothecinae typically have a non-intrusive calyx base, obtuse keel petal, reduced number of ovules and a thickened lobe on the abaxial surface of the wing petals. Podalyriinae have an intrusive calyx base and rostrate keel petal (Schutte and Van Wyk, 1998a).


Figure 3.2 Cladogram of relationships within Podalyrieae (from Schutte and Van Wyk, 1998a).

Van der Bank et al. (2002) in a study of Podalyrieae, combining ITS sequence data with morphological and chemical data, confirmed the monophyly of Liparieae and Podalyrieae, but found the subtribe Podalyriinae to be non-monophyletic, with Cyclopia forming a grouping sister to the rest of the tribe. They suggested that a broader concept of Podalyrieae be accepted to include Cyclopia, rather than erecting another subtribe to accommodate the genus (Figure 3.3).


Figure 3.3 One of the 68 most parsimonious trees from the combined analysis of the ITS region, morphological and chemical data (from Van der Bank et al., 2002).

### 3.1.2 Genera in Podalyrieae

### 3.1.2.1 Amphithalea

The genus consists of 42 species endemic to the Cape Province of South Africa. Schutte (1995a) found the genera Amphithalea (then consisting of 21 species) and Coelidium (which also consisted of 21 species) to be congeneric and reduced Coelidium into synonymy under Amphithalea.

The members of the genus are typically shrubs or shrublets with mostly simple, opposite leaves varying from linear to lanceolate or ovate, with flat or strongly recurved or incurved margins. Petioles are generally absent and the stipules are greatly reduced. The flowers are purple, mauve or pink and found in axillary one or two flowered inflorescences. They occur from the Kamiesberg near Garies in the north-western Cape through the Cape Peninsula, extending as far as Grahamstown in the east as indicated in Figure 3.4 (Schutte, 1995a). Red data list information and fire survival strategies are provided for Amphithalea in Table 3.1 and for all the genera to follow in Tables 3.2--3.8. This information was obtained from Schutte (1995a), Schutte et al. (1995), Hilton-Taylor (1996) and Schutte (pers. comm.).

### 3.1.2.2 Calpurnia

Calpurnia consists of seven species (one of which is presumably extinct) and a putative hybrid between $C$. sericea and $C$. woodii. The species are narrow endemics of South Africa with one species extending into Ethiopia, C. aurea subsp. aurea, and southern India, $C$. aurea subsp. indica (Figure 3.5). All the members of the genus are slender trees or shrubs with imparipinnately compound leaves that are pulvinate and petiolate. Their stipules are small and appear triangular to subulate. The inflorescences are racemose to paniculate; either terminal or axillary with bright golden to yellow flowers. The fruits are linear, compressed, one to six-seeded and dehiscent (Beaumont et al., 1999).

The genus was originally placed in the tribe Sophoreae, but based on the intrusive calyx base in some species, hairs on the stamens, the accumulation of carboxylic acid esters of quinolizidine alkaloids and chromosome base number of $x=9$ (all characters shared with genera of Podalyrieae), it was transferred to the tribe Podalyrieae (Van Wyk and Schutte, 1995a). This transfer was later confirmed by Van der Bank et al. (2002) where Calpurnia grouped with Virgilia with high support (97BP) as is illustrated in Figure 3.3.


Figure 3.4 Known geographical distribution of Amphithalea (from Schutte, 1995a).

Table 3.1 Fire-survival strategy and Red Data List information of Amphithalea (Red indicates species not included in this study).



Figure 3.5 Known geographical distribution of Calpurnia (from Schutte, 1995a).

Table 3.2 Fire-survival strategy and Red Data List information of Calpurnia (Red indicates species not included in this study).

| Species | Reseeder | Resprouter | Unknown | Status |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| C. aurea | X |  |  | Not threatened |
| C. floribunda Harv. |  |  | * | Not threatened |
| C. glabrata |  |  | X | Not threatened |
| C. intrusa | X |  |  | Not threatened |
| C. reflexus A.J. Beaumont |  |  | \% | Extinct |
| C. sericea | X |  |  | Not threatened |
| C.sericea $x$ woodii |  | X | X | Not threatened Rare |

### 3.1.2.3 Cyclopia

Cyclopia consists of 23 species that are endemic to the CFR (Figure 3.6). The habits of the species are diverse and vary from tall, erect tree-like shrubs to woody, virgate subshrubs or small sprawling shrublets. The leaves are digitately trifoliate and petiolate with stipules present, but fused with the petiole. The leaflets show pinnate venation with prominent, decurrent leaf bases as found in Liparia. The inflorescences are single flowered with the flowers situated in the axils of the upper leaves. Their flowers are yellow with a rigid texture and sweet scent. Distinct grooves are found on the standard petal that act as nectar guides
for xylocopid bees. The pods are coriaceous with beaked distal ends and are laterally compressed in most species, whilst inflated in others (Schutte, 1997b). No alkaloids are found in members of Cyclopia, making the genus distinct in Podalyrieae (Van Wyk and Schutte, 1995a).


Figure 3.6 Known geographical distribution of Cyclopia (from Schutte, 1995a).

Table 3.3 Fire-survival strategy and Red Data List information of Cyclopia (*Reseeders capable of resprouting and red indicates species not included in this study).

| Species | Reseeder | Resprouter | Unknown | Status |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| C. alopecuroides | X |  |  | Limited distribution |
| C. alpina |  | X |  | Rare |
| C. aurescens |  | X |  | Rare |
| C. bolusii |  | X |  | Rare \& localised |
| C. bowieana Harv. | $x$ |  |  | Not threatened (limited distribution) |
| C. burtonii | X | * |  | Rare |
| C. buxifolia (Burm. f.) Kies |  | 8 |  | Widespread |
| C. falcata |  | X |  | Widespread |
| C. filiformis Kies |  |  | * | Extinct |
| C. galioides |  | X |  | Limited distribution |
| C. genistoides |  | X |  | Widespread |
| C. glabra |  | X |  | Rare |
| C. intermedia |  | X |  | Widespread |
| C. latifolia DC. |  |  | 8 | Endangered |
| C. laxiflora Benth. |  |  | \% | Extinct |


| Species | Reseeder | Resprouter | Unknown |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| C. longifolia | $\mathbf{X}$ |  | Status |
| C. maculata | $\mathbf{X}$ |  | Endangered |
| C. meyeriana | $\mathbf{x}$ |  | Sporadic |
| C. plicata | $\mathbf{X}$ |  | distribution |
| C. pubescens | $\mathbf{X}$ |  | Widespread |
| C. sessiliflora |  | $\mathbf{X}$ |  |
| C. squamosa A.L. Schutte <br> C. subternata | $\mathbf{X}$ |  | Rare |

### 3.1.2.4 Liparia

After a reevaluation of the generic delimitations of Liparia and Priestleya, Schutte and Van Wyk (1994) found the 12 species remaining in Priestleya to be congeneric with Liparia. These were consequently placed into synonymy under Liparia and after the description of five new species (Schutte, 1995b) the genus is composed of 20 species, all of which are endemic to the CFR (Figure 3.7).

All the species in Liparia are long-lived perennials, varying from erect woody shrubs to virgate, multi-stemmed shrubs or small rounded subshrubs and sprawling shrublets. The leaves are alternate, simple and sessile with distinctly pulvinate and decurrent leaf bases. The venation pattern is very distinctive with three or more veins arising from the leaf base, whereas other genera in the tribe show pinnate venation. Stipules are present, although sometimes reduced. The inflorescences are axillary, simple racemes with an apical extension of the inflorescence axis. The flowers are mostly bright yellow with one species having bright orange-red flowers (L. splendens) and two others lemon yellow flowers (L. boucheri and L. parva). The changes in inflorescence and floral structure found in Liparia can be ascribed to adaptation to various pollinators, e.g. L. splendens for sunbird pollination (Schutte, 1997c).

### 3.1.2.5 Podalyria

Some uncertainty as to the correct number of species and nomenclature of the genus still exists. Schutte (1995a) recorded 19 species and four that are insufficiently known. The species are distributed from north of Nieuwoudtville and extend southwards to the Cape Peninsula and eastwards up to the Transkei and southern Kwazulu-Natal (Figure 3.8). The plants are usually woody shrubs or subshrubs with alternate leaves that are simple and petiolate, ranging from linear to cordate with stipules usually present. The inflorescences are one to several flowered racemes with purple, pink or white firmly textured flowers. The pods are coriaceous and inflated with three to several seeds in each pod (Schutte, 1995a).

Podalyria accumulates large amounts of quinolizidine alkaloids and alkaloid esters are derived from angelic- or tiglic acid, rather than carboxylic acid (Van Wyk et al., 1992).


Figure 3.7 Known geographical distribution of Liparia (from Schutte, 1995a).

Table 3.4 Fire-survival strategy and Red Data List information of Liparia (*Reseeders capable of resprouting and red indicates species not included in this study).

| Species | Reseeder | Resprouter | Unknown | Status |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| L. angustifolia | X |  |  | Endangered |
| L. bonaespei | X |  |  | Rare |
| L. boucheri | X |  |  | Rare |
| L. calycina | X |  |  | Rare |
| L. capitata |  | X |  | Limited distribution |
| L. confusa |  | X |  | Limited distribution |
| L. congesta | X |  |  | Rare |
| L. genistoides | X |  |  | Rare |
| L. graminifolia L. |  |  | \% | Extinct |
| L. hirsuta | $\mathbf{x}$ | * |  | Widespread |
| L. laevigata (L.) Thunb. | \% |  |  | Rare |
| L. latifolia |  | X |  | Limited distribution |
| L. myrtifolia | X |  |  | Not threatened |
| L. parva |  | X |  | Rare |
| L. racemosa | X |  |  | Rare |
| L. rafnioides | X |  |  | Rare |
| L. splendens |  | X |  | Rare |
| L. striata |  | $x$ |  | Endangered |
| L. umbellifera | X |  |  | Widespread (Montane) |
| L. vestita |  | X |  | Limited distribution |



Figure 3.8 Known geographical distribution of Podalyria (from Schutte, 1995a).

Table 3.5 Fire-survival strategy and Red Data List information of Podalyria (*Reseeders capable of resprouting and red indicates species not included in this study).

| Species | Reseeder | Resprouter | Unknown |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| P. argentea |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Status |
| P. biflora |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Rare |
| P. burchellii |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Widespread |
| P. buxifolia |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Not threatened |
|  |  | $*$ | Widespread |
| P. calyptrata |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | (Montane) |
| P. cordata |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Widespread |
| P. cuneifolia |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Rare |
| P. hirsuta |  |  | Widespread |
| P. intermedia | $\mathbf{X}$ |  | Unknown |
| P. lanceolata |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Rare |
| P. leipoldtii |  |  | Rare |
| P. microphylla |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Localised |
| P. myrtillifolia |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Highly localised |
| P. oleaefolia |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | (Extinct?) |
| P. orbicularis |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Widespread |
| P. pearsonii |  | K | Limited distribution |
| P. reticulata Harv. |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Rare |
| P. rotundifolia |  |  | Rare |
|  |  |  | Rare |


| Species | Reseeder | Resprouter | Unknown | Status |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| P. sericea | $\mathbf{X}$ |  |  | Vulnerable |
| P. variabilis |  | $\mathbf{X}$ |  | Unknown |
| P. velutina |  |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Indeterminate |

### 3.1.2.6 Stirtonanthus

Stirtonia was described by Van Wyk and Schutte (1994) to accommodate three yellowflowered species of Podalyria. It differed mainly in the decussate inflorescences, yellow flower colour, non-fleshy rim-aril of the seeds and difference in the combination of quinolizidine alkaloids found in these plants. However, the name Stirtonia was found to be illegitimate and replaced with Stirtonanthus (Van Wyk and Schutte, 1995b). Stirtonanthus consists of three species, known from only a few isolated localities in the south-western and southern Cape (Figure 3.9). They vary from single to multi-stemmed shrubs or small trees with simple, alternate leaves that are obovate to orbicular in shape. Paired stipules are present and the inflorescences are axillary peduncles with two, four or six decussate flowers (Van Wyk and Schutte, 1994).


Figure 3.9 Known geographical distribution of Stirtonanthus (from Schutte, 1995a).

Table 3.6 Fire-survival strategy and Red Data List information of Stirtonanthus.

| Species | Reseeder | Resprouter | Unknown | Status |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| S. chrysanthus | $\mathbf{X}$ |  | Rare |  |
| S. insignis |  |  | Vulnerable |  |
| S. taylorianus |  |  | Rare |  |

### 3.1.2.7 Virgilia

Virgilia consists of two species, one of which has two subspecies: V. oroboides subsp. oroboides and $V$. oroboides subsp. ferruginea. It has a limited distribution with the species occurring on moist sites from the Cape Peninsula to Port Elizabeth (Figure 3.10). The species are typically small trees between four to 15 m tall with a single or branched main stem. Leaves are imparipinnately compound with subsessile, pulvinate pinnae that are linear to narrowly ovate in shape and opposite or alternate. Stipules are usually present and can be either caducous or persistent. The inflorescences are axillary and subterminal racemes (rarely panicles) with three to 16 flowers, which vary from rose-violet, violet-purple, pink or white with a sweet scent. Pods are linear, dehiscent, two-valved and slightly compressed between the seeds (Van Wyk, 1986).

Van Wyk (1986) noted that various characters in the genus are geographically correlated along an east-west gradient and that these are of great taxonomic value to distinguish between the species and subspecies. By means of starch-gel electrophoresis, Van der Bank et al. (1996) found the differences in allozyme variation between the taxa mostly quantitative and also indicated an east-west gradient of character variation. They suggested that the genus could be a product of recent speciation with introgressive hybridisation leading to the geographical and ecological patterns of character variation.

### 3.1.2.8 Xiphotheca

During their study of the relationships of the genera of Podalyrieae and Liparieae, Schutte and Van Wyk (1993) found the genus Priestleya to be paraphyletic. The name Xiphotheca was thereafter reinstated for Priestleya sect. Aneisothea based on the inflorescence structure, non-intrusive calyx (except for $X$. cordifolia), obtuse and pocketed keel petals, leaf shape and size and evidence from alkaloids (anabasine as major alkaloid).

Xiphotheca is composed of nine species, all of which are endemic to the fynbos regions of South Africa (Figure 3.11). The species vary in habit from single-stemmed, treelike shrubs to many stemmed, virgate shrubs or straggling shrublets. Leaves are simple and petiolate with pinnate venation and stipules are present throughout the genus, although reduced in size. The inflorescences consist of yellow flowers arranged in simple, axillary
racemes, which are two-flowered and decussate. The name Xiphotheca, meaning swordlike container, accurately describes the pods which are laterally compressed, sessile and constricted between the seeds (Schutte, 1997a).


Figure 3.10 Known geographical distribution of Virgilia (from Schutte, 1995a).

Table 3.7 Fire-survival strategy and Red Data List information of Virgilia.

| Species | Reseeder | Resprouter | Unknown |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | Status | V. divaricata | $\mathbf{X}$ |  |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| V. oroboides subsp. <br> ferruginea | $\mathbf{X}$ | Limited distribution |
| $V$. oroboides subsp. <br> oroboides | $\mathbf{X}$ |  |



Figure 3.11 Known geographical distribution of Xiphotheca (from Schutte, 1995a).

Table 3.8 Fire-survival strategy and Red Data List information of Xiphotheca.

| Species | Reseeder | Resprouter | Unknown | Status |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| $X$. canescens | $\mathbf{X}$ |  | Vulnerable |  |
| X. cordifolia | $\mathbf{X}$ |  | Limited |  |
|  |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | distribution |  |
| X. elliptica | $\mathbf{x}$ |  | Not threatened |  |
| X. fruticosa | $\mathbf{X}$ |  | Not threatened |  |
| X. guthriei | $\mathbf{X}$ |  | Endangered |  |
| X. lanceolata |  | $\mathbf{x}$ | Endangered |  |
| X. phylicoides |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Vulnerable |  |
| X. reflexa |  | $\mathbf{X}$ | Vulnerable |  |
| $X$. tecta |  |  | Not threatened |  |

### 3.1.3 Aims of the chapter

This chapter aims to present:

1. The results of the species-level analysis using rbcL and ITS (MP and ML analyses).
2. A comparison of the rates of molecular evolution between reseeders and resprouters.
3. A date for the root node of Podalyrieae (high-level analysis).


Figure 3.12 Representatives of Podalyrieae. A: Amphithalea virgata (from www.fernkloof.com); B: Calpurnia aurea (from www.plantweb.co.za); C: Cyclopia genistoides; D: Liparia hirsuta; E: Podalyria buxifolia; F: Stirtonanthus taylorianus; G: Xiphotheca guthriei (Mark Johns); H: Virgilia divaricata.

### 3.2 Results

### 3.2.1 Species-level phylogeny

### 3.2.1.1 Statistics

A summary of the statistics for each analysis is provided in Table 3.9.

### 3.2.1.2 Separate molecular analysis

## Plastid results

The rbcL matrix included 1415 sites of which 1183 were constant, 232 (16.4\%) variable and 154 (10.9\%) potentially informative. 173 equally most parsimonious trees of 447 steps with a Cl of 0.62 and an RI of 0.83 were obtained (Table 3.9). The rbcL region had the highest transitions ( ts ): transversions (tv) ratio (Table 3.10).

## Nuclear results

The analysis of the ITS region consisted of 734 characters of which 359 were constant, 375 (51.1\%) variable and 234 ( $31.9 \%$ ) potentially informative. 6650 equally most parsimonious trees of 891 steps, a Cl of 0.61 and an RI of 0.83 were obtained (Table 3.9).

### 3.2.1.3 Combined molecular analysis (Total evidence)

A comparison between the bootstrap consensus trees of the rbcL and ITS data is presented in Figure 3.13. These datasets were combined directly as no strongly supported incongruent patterns exist between them. Fitch analysis produced 140 equally most parsimonious trees ( $\mathrm{TL}=1176$; $\mathrm{Cl}=0.61 ; \mathrm{RI}=0.83$ ). Successive weighting resulted in 950 trees (Figure 3.14; $\mathrm{Cl}=0.61$; $\mathrm{RI}=0.83$ ). The matrix included 2148 characters of which 1618 were constant, 530 (24.7\%) variable and 323 ( $15.0 \%$ ) potentially parsimony informative (Table 3.9).

The overall resolution was low in the resulting trees, but several major clades could be identified within the tribe. The first major clade contains the genera Amphithalea and Xiphotheca. A relationship between these genera receives low support (53BP, 54SW). Sister to this clade is a grouping containing Liparia, Podalyria and Stirtonanthus. Podalyria is weakly supported to be monophyletic (63BP, 65SW) and groups with Liparia with low support (56BP, 59SW). Liparia is paraphyletic, with L. calycina not included in the Liparia clade. Stirtonanthus is sister to this grouping and weakly supported to be monophyletic (69BP, 71SW). The next


Figure 3.13 Comparison between the bootstrap consensus trees of A : the rbcL analysis and B: the ITS analysis. Bootstrap percentages over $50 \%$ are shown above each branch.


Figure 3.14 One of the equally parsimonious trees from the combined molecular analysis of $r b c L$ and ITS. Numbers above the branches are Fitch lengths (DELTRAN optimisation) and those below are bootstrap percentages over 50\% (SW bootstrap results underlined). Solid arrows indicate groups not present in the Fitch strict consensus tree and open arrows indicate groups not present in the both the SW and Fitch strict consensus trees ( $\mathrm{Cl}=0.61$; $\mathrm{Rl}=0.83 ; T L=1176$ ).
clade contains the genera Calpurnia and Virgilia. Calpurnia is paraphyletic, while Virgilia is strongly supported to be monophyletic (100BP, 100SW). The members of Cyclopia form the following clade and the monophyly of the genus receives high support (99BP, 98SW). Cadia is well supported to be part of, or sister to Podalyrieae (92BP, 94SW). The monophyly of Cadia receives high support (100BP, 100SW), but resolution within the genus is low.

On the specific level, a few supported groupings are found. Amphithalea michrantha and A. williamsonii group together with strong support (100BP, 100SW) and the sister groupings between $A$. ciliaris and $A$. flava, and $A$. dahlgrenii and $A$. obtusiloba receive low support (67BP, 69SW; 63BP, 60SW). In Liparia, groupings with moderate support include: L. angustifolia with L. hirsuta (81BP, 84SW); L. capitata with L. congesta (80BP, 79SW); and with low support include: L. parva with L. splendens (56BP, 59SW). Podalyria hirsuta and P. velutina form a well supported grouping (95BP, 96SW), with $P$ cordata and $P$. burchellii successively sister (88BP, 88SW; 50BP, 50SW). P. oleaefolia and P. speciosa group together with high support (91BP, 93SW). Stirtonanthus chrysanthus and S. taylorianus are strongly supported as a sister pair (95BP, 94SW). The resolution on the specific level was better within Calpurnia and Virgilia. The hybrid C. sericea $x$ woodii groups with one of the parent species, C. woodii (80BP, 79SW). The Calpurnia clade receives high support, but C. intrusa is excluded from this grouping. In Virgilia, V. divaricata groups with V. oroboides subsp. ferruginea (75BP, 77SW). Groupings receiving moderate to high support in Cyclopia are $C$. alopecuroides with $C$. bolusii (89BP, 89SW), and C. glabra with C. meyeriana (81BP, 83SW).

### 3.2.1.4 Maximum likelihood (Bayesian) analysis

The topology of the majority rule consensus tree from the Bayesian analysis differed slightly from the Fitch tree and therefore is presented separately (Figure 3.16). Amphithalea and Xiphotheca are again strongly supported to be closely related (PP 0.95) but group with Stirtonanthus, although support for this is low (PP 0.49). Liparia and Podalyria form a strongly supported clade (PP 1.0). Liparia is again paraphyletic, with L. calycina and L. umbellifera not included in the Liparia clade. Virgilia and Calpurnia form separate well supported clades (PP 1.0 for Virgilia; PP 0.79 for Calpurnia). These groupings differ from the Fitch tree where they group together, although this grouping lacks bootstrap support. In this analysis Calpurnia is supported to be monophyletic, with $C$. intrusa included in the Calpurnia clade (PP 0.79). Cyclopia forms the next grouping and its monophyly receives high support (PP 1.0). Cadia is well supported to be monophyletic (PP 1.0) and part of or sister to Podalyrieae (PP 1.0).

On the specific level, the relationships were similar to those indicated in the Fitch tree, with either higher or lower support. Reseeders and resprouters are indicated on the majority rule consensus tree as this is the phylogeny that was used in the CAIC analysis.

### 3.2.2 Comparison between the rates of molecular evolution in reseeders and resprouters

 The raw data from the CAIC output files are supplied in Appendix 1 (Table A1.1 and A1.2). The analysis resulted in a total of 33 contrasts for Podalyrieae and 15 for Protea (Table 3.11). In Podalyrieae, 21 of the contrasts are positive contrasts and 12 negative contrasts. The results for Protea gave 10 positive and 5 negative contrasts. A positive contrast indicates that the character state with the higher integer (i.e. reseeders scored as 1) has higher branch length values (Table A1.1 and A1.2, column 3). More positive contrasts are indicative of higher rates of molecular evolution in reseeders as more pairs of contrasts are present where the occurrence of longer branch lengths leads to a reseeder (Figure 3.15). A negative contrast in a continuous variable means that among the taxa being contrasted, higher branch length values are found in taxa having the categorical trait (survival strategy) in a lower state (i.e. resprouters scored as 0 ), thus indicating that the branch length leading to a reseeder is shorter than in a resprouter (Figure 3.15). Contrasts are phylogenetically independent as long as the lines linking compared species never meet or cross.

Figure 3.15 A schematic illustration of a positive and a negative contrast. Numbers above the branches are branch lengths. See text for explanation.


Figure 3.16 Bayesian analysis of combined rbcL and ITS dataset. Majority rule consensus tree with PP shown above the branches. Reseeders and resprouters are indicated by coloured lines.

### 3.2.3 High-level analysis

### 3.2.3.1 Statistics

A summary of the statistics for the ITS analysis is provided in Table 3.12.

### 3.2.3.2 Age estimation of the root node of Podalyrieae

The analysis of the ITS region consisted of 745 characters of which 233 were constant, 512 variable and 425 potentially informative (Table 3.12). The high-level analysis resulted in 260 equally most parsimonious trees of 3122 steps, a Cl of 0.33 and an RI of 0.77 (Figure 3.17). The ultrametric tree produced by the NPRS procedure is presented in Figure 3.18. Diplotropis was used to calibrate the tree in absolute time and a date for the root node of Podalyrieae is estimated at 28.55 MYA . To assess the confidence levels for this date it is necessary to calculate the variance in age estimates due to possible sampling bias. This is done by using the bootstrap resampling method, which recalculates the date 100 times using the MP branch lengths from bootstrapping the DNA regions. The resulting bootstrap distribution of age estimates gave a mean age estimate of 29.91 MYA with a standard error of $\pm 1.094$ MYA.


Figure 3.17 One of the equally parsimonious trees from the high-level ITS analysis. Numbers above the branches are Fitch lengths (DELTRAN optimisation) and those below are bootstrap percentages above $50 \%$. Solid arrows indicate groups not present in the Fitch strict consensus trees ( $\mathrm{Cl}=0.33 ; \mathrm{Rl}=0.77 ; \mathrm{TL}=3122$ ).


Figure 3.18 The ultrametric tree based on ITS produced by non-parametric rate smoothing (NPRS). A time scale in million years ago (MYA) indicates the divergence times of the various nodes.

Table 3.9 Statistics from PAUP analyses of the separate and combined datasets.

|  | rbcL | ITS | Combined |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| No. of included positions in matrix | 1415 | 734 | 2148 |
| No. of variable sites | 232 | 375 | 530 |
|  | $16.40 \%$ | $51.09 \%$ | $24.67 \%$ |
| No. of parsimony-informative sites | 154 | 234 | 323 |
|  | $10.88 \%$ | $31.88 \%$ | $15.04 \%$ |
| No. of trees (Fitch) | 173 | 6650 | 140 |
| No. of steps (Tree length) | 447 | 891 | 1176 |
| CI | 0.62 | 0.61 | 0.61 |
| RI | 0.83 | 0.83 | 0.83 |
| Average no. of changes per variable |  |  |  |
| sites (no. of steps/ no. of variable sites) | 1.9 | 2.3 | 2.2 |
| No. of trees (SW) |  |  | 950 |
| No. of steps (Tree length) |  |  | $882.25718 / 1176$ |
| CI (SW) |  |  | 0.61 |
| RI (SW) |  |  | 0.83 |

Table 3.10 Number of steps, Cl and RI values for transitions and transversions of each gene region based on separate analysis.

|  | rbcL |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | ITS |  |  |  |
|  | ts | tv | ts | tv |
| No. of steps | 292 | 155 | 538 | 353 |
| CI | 0.63 | 0.60 | 0.59 | 0.64 |
| RI | 0.82 | 0.84 | 0.83 | 0.83 |
| ts:tv |  | 1.88 |  | 1.52 |

Table 3.11 Number of positive and negative contrasts generated by CAIC for Podalyrieae and Protea.

|  | Number of positive <br> contrasts | Number of negative <br> contrasts | Total number of <br> contrasts |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Podalyrieae | 21 | 12 | 33 |
| Protea | 10 | 5 | 15 |

Table 3.12 Statistics obtained from PAUP for the ITS matrix used in the high-level analysis.

|  | ITS region |
| :--- | :--- |
| No. of included positions in matrix | 745 |
| No. of constant sites | 233 |
| No. of variable sites | 512 |
| No. of parsimony-informative sites | 425 |
| No. of trees (Fitch) | 260 |
| No. of steps (Tree length) | 3122 |
| CI | 0.33 |
| RI | 0.77 |
| Average no. of character changes per variable site (no. of steps/ no. of variable |  |
| sites) | 6.1 |

### 3.3 Discussion

### 3.3.1 Utility of ITS

The trees produced by the separate analysis of ITS and rbcL showed no clear incongruences and thus permitted combination of the two datasets. ITS had a higher number of variable sites (51.09\%; Table 3.9) than rbcL (16.40\%; Table 3.9) and about one and a half times the number of parsimony-informative sites. It thus provided a more resolved phylogeny and shows that faster evolving nuclear genes are important in phylogenetic reconstruction and may be highly informative at lower taxonomic levels, as was the case in Podalyrieae. Soltis and Soltis (1998) mention that ITS is valuable for phylogenetic reconstruction in angiosperms and can be used especially when comparing species and closely related genera. The greater evolutionary rate in nuclear genes ensures more efficient sequencing, since more variation is detected per unit of sequence than in organellar genes. The combination of data from multiple genes and character sets leads to improved performance of phylogenetic analyses so that computer run times are shorter, permitting a more rigorous analysis in a given time, with the resulting phylogenetic trees being more highly resolved and supported.

### 3.3.2 Relationships within Podalyrieae

The relationship between Amphithalea and Xiphotheca, although weakly supported, corresponds to the findings of Schutte and Van Wyk (1998a) and Van der Bank et al. (2002). These two genera constitute the subtribe Xiphothecinae and share several morphological characters: a non-intrusive calyx base; obtuse keel petal; reduced number of ovules; and wing petals with a thickened lobe on the abaxial surface as is shown in Figure 3.19 (Schutte and Van Wyk, 1998a).


Figure 3.19 Flower and wing petal of Xiphotheca fruticosa. A: The flower has a non-intrusive calyx base and obtuse keel petal. B: A thickened lobe is found on the abaxial surface of the wing petal (from Schutte, 1995a).

The resolution within the Amphithalea/Xiphotheca clade was low in both the MP and ML analyses, but a few sister pairs were noted. Amphithalea michrantha and A. williamsonii were strongly supported to be closely related. This relationship was noted by Schutte (1995a), which states that $A$. williamsonii differs from $A$. michrantha only in its densely sericeous calyx and pink standard and wing petals. Amphithalea ciliaris and A. flava are also closely related. The latter differs from $A$. ciliaris in having bright yellow flowers, instead of white flowers with a brown keel tip. No clear relationship exists between A. dahlgrenii and A. obtusiloba. Amphithalea dahlgrenii is probably more closely related to $A$. esterhuysiniae, which was not included in the study due to the difficulty of obtaining material, seeing that it is a rare endemic of the Hex River Mountains (Table 3.1). Schutte (1995a) mentions that the distinction between these two species is doubtful, but that $A$. dahlgrenii has tomentose calyx lobes, as opposed to the glabrous calyx lobes of $A$. esterhuyseniae, and shorter bracts than the latter.

The subtribe Podalyriinae is clearly not monophyletic. This confirms the results obtained by Van der Bank et al. (2002) where Cyclopia formed a grouping sister to the rest of Podalyrieae. The six genera that constitute the subtribe have an intrusive calyx base and rostrate (beaked) keel petal as indicated in Figure 3.20 (Schutte and Van Wyk, 1998a).


Figure 3.20 Flower of Liparia-congesta showing-the-intrusive-calyx-base-and rostrate-keel petal that are characteristics of the subtribe Podalyriinae (from Schutte, 1995a).

In this study, three groupings were recognised within Podalyrinae. The first of these is a clade containing Liparia, Podalyria and Stirtonanthus. This grouping is sister to Amphithalea and Xiphotheca, but it receives low support in the Fitch tree and Stirtonanthus is not
represented as part of this grouping in the ML analysis. A further analysis on this group using additional plastid genes was performed and is discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

The second group consists of Calpurnia and Virgilia. These genera were both originally placed in Sophoreae (Van Wyk, 1986; Beaumont et al., 1999). They share several characters, including imparipinnately compound leaves and the major alkaloids virgiline and its carboxylic acid ester (Van Wyk and Schutte, 1995a; Schutte and Van Wyk, 1998a). This grouping is not present in the majority rule consensus tree of the Bayesian analysis where the genera form separate, well supported lineages. Calpurnia intrusa is not included in the Calpurnia clade on the Fitch tree. This is probably due to the low resolution across the tree, seeing that the genus is monophyletic in the ML analysis. The hybrid between C. sericea and C. woodii was described by Beaumont et al. (1999). Both putative parent species of this hybrid were included in the study and a possible relationship with only C. woodii was found. A clear explanation for this is not apparent, but sampling material from the parent species at the hybrid locality might prove valuable. In Virgilia, V. divaricata and V. oroboides subsp. ferruginea group together with strong support. Van Wyk (1986) suggested that $V$. oroboides subsp. ferruginea probably originated as a hybrid between $V$. divaricata and $V$. oroboides subsp. oroboides. This and the fact that it is more or less geographically isolated from $V$. oroboides subsp. oroboides could explain the close relationship with $V$. divaricata. Van der Bank et al. (1996) also suggest that divergence followed by introgression could account for the similarity in the taxa. They speculate that there could have been an initial divergence in two species, V. divaricata and V. oroboides, with introgression resulting in a morphologically intermediate $V$. oroboides subsp. ferruginea.

Cyclopia is strongly supported to be monophyletic forms the third grouping in Podalyriinae. The genus is unique in Podalyrieae, as it is the only member that has trifoliate leaves and a total absence of alkaloids. It has been suggested that Cyclopia shares a close relationship with Liparia and Podalyria, but that is clearly not the case in this study (Schutte and Van Wyk, 1998a). Cyclopia alopecuroides and C. bolusii seem to be closely related. Schutte (1997b) suggested a close relationship between C. aurescens and C. bolusii, but this is not reflected in the results. Similarities_between C. alopecuroides and-C. bolusii include the inflated pods that have hairy margins found in both species (Schutte, 1997b). A close relationship exists between C. glabra and C. meyeriana. Cyclopia glabra differs from C. meyeriana in that it is multi-stemmed with a glabrous calyx and inner surface of the bracts (Schutte, 1997b).

While the monophyly of the tribe is only weakly supported (56BP, 54SW, PP 0.63) an interesting result is the high support for a close relationship between Cadia and Podalyrieae. This result is not surprising and has been suggested by previous authors, e.g. Schutte and Van

Wyk (1998a), and Doyle et al. (2000). Chapter 5 presents a more detailed discussion on the relationship between Cadia and Podalyrieae.

### 3.3.3 Comparison between the rates of molecular evolution in reseeders and resprouters

It is evident that the number of positive contrasts is higher in both Podalyrieae and Protea (Table 3.11). This shows that the rate of molecular evolution (branch lengths) is higher in reseeders, which one might expect due to the higher number of reproductive cycles and genetic diversification found in reseeders, seeing that DNA replicates more often in these individuals and more seed will fix different kinds of mutations (different sets of alleles).

In this study, the rates of molecular evolution were found to be higher in reseeding species of Protea than in the resprouters. Due to the higher rate of molecular evolution in reseeders, more individuals are produced that can accumulate more variation (DNA substitutions), which could result in higher adaptation and speciation rates in these individuals. It may be possible that this could affect the diversification rates in reseeders, as was shown by Reeves (2001), who used a maximum likelihood estimate for the diversification rate of Protea under a constant speciation rate. She mentions that in reseeding fynbos species of Protea, the diversification rate is higher than in the resprouting lineages, but states that it is evidently possible to attain similar or even higher speciation rates as a resprouter outside of the Cape. Schutte et al. (1995) also suggest that the rate of speciation and diversification is more rapid in reseeding species than in resprouters. This is due to the temporal isolation that inhibits gene flow in reseeders, as opposed to the interbreeding populations of the resprouters. Wells (1969) argues that reseeders have shorter generation times than resprouters and that they are subject to selection pressures acting on each discrete generation of seedlings. Therefore reseeders are more prone to diversification than resprouters.

In the genus Erica, Verdaguer and Ojeda (2005) suggest that resprouting is ancestral to the reseeder life strategy and they suggest that the marked species diversity and narrow endemism in this genus could be associated with the seeder habit. In Aspalathus however, Van der Bank et al. (1999) demonstrated through-morphological-and- genetic analyses; that reseeding could be a pleisiomorphic character state with resprouting developing as a firesurvival strategy. They suggest that switches between the two strategies are possible, e.g. in Cyclopia, Podalyria and Hypocalyptus, and that it must still be demonstrated whether the change from reseeding to resprouting was a single evolutionary event or convergence in different populations of Aspalathis.

### 3.3.4 Age estimation of the root node of Podalyrieae

The use of molecular sequence data for making inferences about the ages of lineages and clade diversification has become more frequent in recent years and is discussed by Linder (2003) and Wojciechowski (2003). Several studies have been done subsequently to determine the ages of well known Cape plant groups, e.g. Richardson et al. (2001) dated the major proliferation of Phylica at 7-8 MYA; Reeves (2001) dated the radiation of Protea at 25 MYA; the divergence of the sister pair Ferraria and Moraea was dated at 25 MYA (Goldblatt et al., 2002); Muraltia started its radiation at 20.7 MYA (Forest, unpublished); the age of Aspalathus was estimated at 22 MYA (Edwards, unpublished). Linder (2005) discusses the evolution of diversity in the Cape flora and mentions that the greatest diversity and most recent radiations in southern Africa are found in the more arid western parts of the subcontinent. The largely gradual transformation in climate that has taken place throughout the evolutionary history of South Africa means that there was no single, obvious trigger for the radiation of the Cape flora and this subsequently accounts for the great spread in the dates of initiation of the radiation of various lineages.

Lavin et al. (2005) in an evolutionary rates analysis of legumes found that in legumes a rapid diversification of lineages took place in the Tertiary, soon after the family's origin about 60 MYA. In their study, Diplotropis was also used to fix the age of the genistoid crown clade at 56 MYA. In this study, the root node of Podalyrieae was dated at 28.55 MYA. This date indicates that Podalyrieae started its diversification in the late Oligocene during the Tertiary. Linder (2003) suggests that two environmental changes in the Tertiary could have triggered the radiations that took place, namely fluctuations in sea-level and climatic changes. At the end of the Oligocene there was a general improvement in the climate of the Cape. The Miocene was marked by high sea-levels, with only ephemeral ice-sheets on Antarctica. Climatic gradients from the equator to the poles became steeper in the Middle Miocene and seasonal aridity became more pronounced in the late Miocene after the glaciation of the northern Hemisphere that led to a symmetrical zonal climate. The South Atlantic high pressure cell became fixed in a position that blocks summer precipitation-in the fynbos region-(Hendey, 1983; Deacon-et-al., 1992; Hallam, 1994; Linder, 2003) and with the inception of the Mediterranean type climate during the Pliocene, the climate in South Africa stabilised. It is during this period (approximately 5 MYA ) and the late Miocene (approximately 10 MYA ) that the major radiation in Podalyrieae took place.

Linder (2005) suggests that several selective forces could be proposed that drove speciation in the Cape flora. Among these are pollinator, edaphic and climatic specialisation.

He comments that although it is possible to investigate the evolution of plant species diversity the generality of the interpretations are limited by four problems:

1. Methods of molecular dating are still flawed and it is not known how large the errors in the estimations are.
2. The poor fossil record of the Cape flora means that we have no independent verification of the suggested paleohistory.
3. The number of clades investigated is still quite small and it is possible that the sample was highly skewed.
4. The methods of inferring the ecologies and distributions of ancestral taxa are still crude.

Although the Cape flora is an excellent place to investigate the generation of exceptionally high species richness, determining the factors that appear to greatly influence the speciation in the CFR is not simple and it is likely that several factors operate simultaneously (Linder, 2003).


## CHAPTER 4

## GENERIC RELATIONSHIPS

BETVEEN LIPARIA, PODALYRIA AND STIRTONANTHUS

### 4.1 Introduction

### 4.1.1 General

In chapter 3 the morphological characters, geographical distribution and Red Data List status of the genera Liparia, Podalyria and Stirtonanthus are discussed. Due to the close relationship noted between the genera (Figure 3.14), additional plastid genes were sequenced to improve the resolution between these groups. This was done for the following reasons:

Firstly, the monophyly of Podalyria has been questionable since Van der Bank et al. (2002) found the genus to be paraphyletic. They mention that there is little clear evidence, molecular and otherwise, for the status of the monophyly of Podalyria. Further study is thus still necessary to resolve this matter and it is addressed in this chapter.

Secondly, Liparia is the only genus in Podalyrieae that contains species that are pollinated by pollinators other than xylocopid bees (Schutte and Van Wyk, 1998a). The flowers in Podalyrieae are normally adapted to pollination by xylocopid bees and as a consequence are quite firmly textured (Schutte and Van Wyk, 1998a). The species with alternative pollination vectors seem to mimic members of Proteaceae and display structural changes in both the inflorescences and flowers. The inflorescences are either congested and decussate, or pendant, proteoid heads (Figure 4.1 B, D and E). The flowers are firmly textured and have long, forwardly directed beaks for pollination by birds (e.g. L. splendens) or possibly rodents (e.g. L. parva) as opposed to the short and upwardly directed keel tip of the bee pollinated species (Schutte, 1997c). The inflorescences of $L$. parva are borne at ground level and the pale colour and yeast odour of the flowers suggest that small mammals might pollinate them (Johnson, 1992), an occurrence that is unique in Fabaceae (Schutte and Van Wyk, 1994). It would thus be interesting to determine whether these adaptations to pollination are reflected in the phylogenetic relationships of Liparia and to build a species-level phylogeny for the genus that could be used in studies concerning the pollination biology of the genus.

Thirdly, the monophyly of Liparia needs to be assessed, as it has been questioned both in chapter 3 as well as by previous authors.

### 4.1.2 Aims of the chapter:

This chapter aims to:

1. Present a species-level phylogeny for Liparia, Podalyria and Stirtonanthus, based on ITS, rbcL, trnL-F and trnS-trnG.
2. Assess the monophyly of Liparia and Podalyria.
3. Investigate whether shifts in pollinators are reflected in phylogenetic relationships.


Figure 4.1 Representatives of Liparia, Podalyria and Stirtonanthus. A: Liparia bonaespei (Nick Helme); B: Liparia parva (from www.plantweb.co.za); C: Stirtonanthus taylorianus; D: Liparia splendens; E: Liparia splendens; F: Podalyria biflora (Mark Johns); G: Podalyria burchellii.

### 4.2 Results

### 4.2.1 Species-level phylogeny

### 4.2.1.1 Statistics

Statistics for each analysis is provided in Table 4.1.

### 4.2.1.2 Separate molecular analysis

## Molecular evolution

The aligned ITS matrix was the shortest in length, but contained the most parsimonyinformative sites ( $4.6 \%$, Table 4.1) and had a transitions (ts): transversions (tv) ratio of 1.4 (Table 4.2). Among the plastid genes, trnS-trnG had the highest number of variable (8.2\%) and parsimony-informative (3.7\%) sites, but the lowest ts:tv ratio ( 0.83 ). The trnL-F matrix contained the lowest number of variable sites (6.97), whilst the rbcL matrix had the highest ts:tv ratio (1.82). Liparia possessed a 29-base pair (bp) deletion at position 235--264 in trnL-F and a 36bp deletion at position 172-208 in the $\operatorname{trnS}-\operatorname{trnG}$ matrix.

## Plastid results

Visual inspection of the separate rbcL, trnL-F and trnS-trnG matrices demonstrated no strongly supported incongruent patterns and these datasets were combined directly. Due to the low resolution in the separate plastid gene trees only the combined plastid analysis is discussed. The parsimony analysis of the combined matrix included 3295 characters of which 3048 were constant, 247 ( $7.5 \%$ ) variable and 102 ( $3.1 \%$ ) potentially informative. A total of 404 equally most parsimonious trees of 311 steps, a Cl of 0.83 and an RI of 0.84 were obtained (Table 4.1).

## Nuclear results

Analysis-of the ITS region-included 675 characters with 575 constant, 100 (14.8\%) variable and ${ }^{-}$ 31 ( $4.6 \%$ ) potentially informative characters. Fitch analysis produced 3428 most parsimonious trees with a length of $125, \mathrm{a} \mathrm{Cl}$ of 0.86 and an Rl of 0.86 (Table 4.1).

### 4.2.1.3 Combined molecular analysis (Total evidence)

The bootstrap consensus trees from the combined plastid and ITS analyses are presented in Figure 4.2. The trees showed no strongly supported incongruent groupings and the datasets
were combined directly. The combined matrix included 3970 characters of which 3623 were constant, 347 ( $8.7 \%$ ) variable and 133 ( $3.4 \%$ ) potentially informative. Analysis produced 995 equally most parsimonious trees ( $\mathrm{TL}=450 ; \mathrm{Cl}=0.82 ; \mathrm{RI}=0.82$ ). Successive weighting resulted in 470 trees (Figure 4.3; $\mathrm{Cl}=0.82$; $\mathrm{RI}=0.82$, see Table 4.1).

A relationship between Liparia and Podalyria is strongly supported (87BP, 88SW), as opposed to the low support it received in the combined ITS and rbcL analysis (Figure 3.14). The position of Stirtonanthus as sister to this clade receives low support (65BP, 63 SW).

Liparia is paraphyletic with L. calycina not included in the Liparia clade. Maximum likelihood analysis of ITS and rbcL (Figure 3.16) indicated that both L. calycina and L. umbellifera are excluded from the Liparia grouping, but that was not the case in this analysis. Groupings within Liparia include: L. angustifolia with L. hirsuta (85BP, 84SW); L parva with $L$. splendens (81BP, 79SW); L. capitata with L. congesta (60BP, 61SW).

Podalyria receives low support to be monophyletic (71BP, 72SW). A grouping of nine species, the $P$.argentea clade, receives low support (64BP, 61SW). Podalyria cordata and $P$. hirsuta group together with high support (92BP, 91SW), as do P. oleaefolia and P. speciosa (99BP, 99SW).

The Stirtonanthus clade in this analysis was unresolved, although in the ITS and rbcL analysis (Figure 3.14) a relationship between S. chrysanthus and S. taylorianus is suggested (95BP, 94SW).

### 4.2.2 Maximum likelihood (Bayesian) analysis

Due to slight differences in the topologies of the majority rule consensus tree (Figure 4.4) and the Fitch tree (Figure 4.3), the former is included separately. The grouping of Liparia and Podalyria is again well supported (PP 1.0), with the sister relationship of Stirtonanthus also receiving high support (PP 1.0) as opposed to the low support in the Fitch analysis. Liparia calycina is again not included in the Liparia clade. Some of the groupings on the specific level differ from the Fitch analysis, although these generally receive low support. The groupings
-- -between $L$. angustifolia and $L$. hirsuta (PP-1.0), and-L. parva-and $L$. splendens (PP 1.0) receive high support. Podalyria is strongly supported to be monophyletic (PP 1.0) and the P. argentea clade receives high support (PP 1.0). Strongly supported sister pairs are: $P$. oleaefolia and $P$. speciosa (PP 1.0); P. cordata and P. hirsuta (PP 1.0). Stirtonanthus chrysanthus and $S$. taylorianus group together with high support (PP 0.9).

ipa
Podalyria argentea
Podalyria biflora
Podalyria burchellii
Podalyria calyptrata Podalyria canescens
Podalyria cordata
Podalyria hirsulif Podalyria lanceolata
Podalyria leipoldtii
Podalyria pearsonii Podalyria microphylla Podalyria oleaefolia
 Podalyria rotundifolia
Podalyria sericea


Stitonanthus chrysanthus
Stitonanthus insignis Amphithalea imbricata Amphithalea ciliaris Xiphotheca guthriei B Xiphotheca guthriei

Bootstrap percentages,above 50\% are shown above each branch.


Figure 4.3 One of the equally parsimonious trees from the combined molecular dataset. Numbers above the branches are Fitch lengths (DELTRAN optimisation) and those below the branches are Fitch bootstrap percentages over 50\% (SW bootstrap results are underlined). Solid arrows indicate groups not present in the Fitch strict consensus tree and open arrows indicate groups not present in both the SW and Fitch consensus trees ( $\mathrm{Cl}=0.82$; $\mathrm{Rl}=0.82$; $T L=450$ ).


Figure 4.4 Bayesian analysis of the combined ITS and plastid dataset. Majority rule consensus tree with PP shown above the branches.

Table 4.1 Statistics from PAUP analyses for the separate and combined datasets.

|  | rbcL | trnL-F | trnS- <br> trnG | ITS | Combined <br> plastid | Combined <br> molecular |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| No. of included positions in matrix | 1414 | 1091 | 790 | 675 | 3295 | 3970 |
| No. of variable sites | 107 | 76 | 65 | 69 | 145 | 214 |
|  | $7.56 \%$ | $6.97 \%$ | $8.22 \%$ | $10.22 \%$ | $4.40 \%$ | $5.39 \%$ |
| No. of parsimony-informative sites | 42 | 32 | 29 | 31 | 102 | 133 |
|  | $2.97 \%$ | $2.93 \%$ | $3.67 \%$ | $4.59 \%$ | $3.10 \%$ | $3.35 \%$ |
| No. of trees (Fitch) | 1553 | 914 | 4194 | 3428 | 404 | 995 |
| No. of steps (Tree length) | 138 | 86 | 73 | 125 | 311 | 450 |
| Cl | 0.82 | 0.92 | 0.92 | 0.86 | 0.83 | 0.82 |
| RI | 0.85 | 0.92 | 0.93 | 0.86 | 0.84 | 0.82 |
| Average no. of changes per |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| variable sites (no. of steps/ no. of | 1.29 | 1.13 | 1.12 | 1.81 | 2.14 | 2.1 |
| variable sites) |  |  |  |  |  | 470 |
| No. of trees (SW) |  |  |  |  |  | $367.19168 / 450$ |
| No. of steps (Tree length) |  |  |  |  | 0.82 |  |
| Cl (SW) |  |  |  |  |  | 0.82 |
| RI (SW) |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table 4.2 Number of steps, Cl and RI values for transitions and transversions for each gene region based on separate analysis.

|  | rbcL |  | trnL-F |  | trnS-trnG |  | ITS |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ts | tv | ts | tv | ts | tv | ts | tv |
| No. of steps | 89 | 49 | 45 | 41 | 33 | 40 | 73 | 52 |
| Cl | 0.87 | 0.73 | 0.89 | 0.95 | 0.88 | 0.95 | 0.85 | 0.87 |
| RI | 0.85 | 0.85 | 0.88 | 0.96 | 0.88 | 0.97 | 0.84 | 0.89 |
| ts:tv | 1.82 |  | 1.1 |  | 0.83 |  | 1.4 |  |

### 4.3 Discussion

### 4.3.1 Molecular evolution

When comparing ITS to the plastid regions used, it showed much more variation and contained the most parsimony-informative sites ( $4.6 \%$, Table 4.1). In combination with the plastid genes, a total of 133 ( $3.35 \%$, Table 4.1) informative sites were present. ITS proved to be very useful in this study, especially in combination with the plastid genes.

### 4.3.2 The LiparialPodalyria clade

It is clear that a close relationship exists between Liparia and Podalyria due to the high support in both the Fitch and Bayesian analyses. The genera share the intrusive calyx base and rostrate keel petal that is characteristic of Podalyriinae and both have few-flowered, racemose inflorescences (Schutte and Van Wyk, 1998a). Schutte (1997b) described a close relationship between Cyclopia and Liparia, due to the presence of prominent, decurrent leaf bases and sterile bracts at the base of the inflorescences in both genera. From this study (Chapter 3) it is evident that Cyclopia retains an isolated position within Podalyrieae forming the earliest diverging lineage in the tribe and does not seem closely allied to Liparia. Crisp et al. (2000) mention a similar close relationship between Liparia and Podalyria. In their analysis the genera grouped together with moderate bootstrap support and it thus seems likely that they are sister taxa.

### 4.3.3 Monophyly of Liparia

All the analyses performed indicate that Liparia is not monophyletic, with L. calycina not included in the Liparia clade (L. umbellifera not included in the ML analysis; Figure 3.16). Schutte (1995a) described a close relationship between L. calycina and L. vestita and the two species share a sympatric distribution (Figure 4.5). Liparia vestita in this case is embedded in the Liparia clade in a position close to L. boucheri and L. latifolia (Figures 4.3 and 4.4).

Liparia is easily distinguished from other genera in the tribe by the sessile leaves, unusual-leaf venation pattern, the presence of a terminal rachis extēnsion on the inflorescences and the unique combination of alkaloids found in the genus (Schutte, 1997c). Crisp et al. (2000) also commented on the possible paraphyly of Liparia, with some species of Liparia grouping with Cyclopia and others with Podalyria in their analysis. They ascribed this result to the amalgamation of Liparia and Priestleya and recommended that this should be tested with a larger sampling from both genera. In this study Liparia is almost complete, lacking only L. graminifolia, which is presumably extinct, and L. laevigata, which due to a low yield of DNA
during extraction could not be amplified for any of the genes. The amalgamation of the two genera does not seem to be the problem, seeing that the rest of Liparia group together (with moderate support in the ML analysis). It might be wise to recollect material from other populations of $L$. calycina to eliminate possible sequencing error before making a definite conclusion.


Figure 4.5 The similarity between A: Liparia calycina and B: L. vestita (1: Leaf; 2: Flower; 3 : Wing petal). The bracts are almost as long as the calyx in L. calycina, whereas they are only half the length in L. vestita (from Schutte, 1995a).

No apparent morphological characters confirm the grouping between $L$. angustifolia and L. hirsuta, but the two are strongly supported to be closely related. Liparia capitata and $L$. congesta both have the carinal lobe of the calyx longer than the other lobes, but no apparent close relationship has previously been suggested. Liparia congesta occurs on sandy soils, as opposed to the rocky sandstone preferred by L. capitata (Schutte, 1995a, 1997c).

## - 4.3.4-Monophyly-of Podalyria

The support for Podalyria to be monophyletic, although low in the MP analysis, differs from the result obtained by Van der Bank et al. (2002) where Podalynia was paraphyletic with at least three groupings. According to Schutte (1995a) there is no single autapomorphy for the genus, but it has a unique combination of characters, namely simple, distinctly petiolate leaves (shared with Stirtonanthus and Xiphotheca), pink, purple or white flowers (shared with Virgilia and Amphithalea), few-flowered racemose inflorescences (shared with some species of Liparia) and
a characteristic combination of alkaloids. In a chemical study of the genus no less than 16 different alkaloids were found. Stirtonanthus (then part of Podalyria) differed in accumulating virgiline, $13 \alpha$-hydrolupanine and two totally different esters (Van Wyk et al., 1992). From this study it is evident that Podalyria is most likely monophyletic.

The $P$. argentea clade, consisting of $P$. argentea, $P$. biflora, $P$. cuneifolia, $P$. leipoldtii, $P$. microphylla, P. myrtillifolia, P. pearsonii, $P$. sericea and $P$. variabilis ( $P$. intermedia is also included in this clade in the ITS and $r b c L$ analysis done in chapter 3 , but was not included in this analysis due to sequencing difficulty) corresponds more or less to the P. biflora group, described by Schutte (1995a). The leaf apices are reflexed in this group, except for $P$. intermedia.

In Figure 3.14, $P$. hirsuta and $P$. velutina form a well-supported grouping, with $P$. cordata as sister. Due to sequencing difficulty, $P$ velutina could not be included in the current analysis and is not represented in Figure 4.3. Instead, $P$. cordata and $P$. hirsuta group together with high support. It is difficult to comment on this grouping, as $P$. hirsuta did not form part of the treatment of Podalyria done by Schutte (1995a) and thus the morphological characters of this species are not described. From the results of the current study, it seems likely that a close relationship exists between P. cordata, P. hirsuta and P. velutina. Schutte (1995a) describes a close relationship between $P$. burchellii and $P$. velutina and states that they might even be the same species, but in this analysis $P$. burchellii groups with the clade containing $P$. velutina only with low support in the rbcL and ITS analysis (Figures 3.14 and 4.3). The high support for $P$. oleaefolia and $P$. speciosa is expected, seeing that $P$. speciosa is now considered a synonym of $P$. oleaefolia.

### 4.3.5 Are changes in pollination syndromes reflected in the phylogenetics of Liparia?

Two of the species suspected of alternative pollination vectors, L. parva and L. splendens, form a moderately supported clade in the MP analysis (Figure 4.3) and a strongly supported clade in the ML analysis (Figure 4.4). Both these species have unique floral characteristics. The īnflorescences appear as head-like structures subtended by large sterile bracts at the base, mimicking in appearance those of Protea (Schutte, 1997c). It is clear that the changes associated with the shift in pollinator from xylocopid bees to either birds or mammals are derived characters in these species, rather than parallel evolution of unrelated traits in the two lineages and thus shifts in pollination are reflected in the phylogenetic relationships of Liparia.

Bird pollination in South Africa seems to be strongly associated with plant communities on nutrient poor soils (e.g. fynbos) where it is relatively inexpensive to produce copious
amounts of nectar, that is preferred by birds, using the excess carbon unavailable for growth (Rebelo, 1987). Deacon et al. (1992) suggest that unfavourable conditions in fynbos (e.g. high wind velocities, frequent mists and rain) inhibit the abundance of insects and could also trigger the shift to alternative pollination vectors. The shift to mammal pollination, especially in Proteaceae, normally occurs in small isolated populations that may have been neglected by birds that favour species forming large monospecific stands (Wiens et al., 1983). Another explanation for the shift to mammal pollinators is that inflorescences hidden beneath foliage might be less visible to harmful insects and would thus suffer less insect damage to flowers (Rebelo and Breytenbach, 1987). What triggered the shift in pollinators in Liparia is not clear, but further research into the pollination biology of Liparia is underway and promises to deliver very interesting results and insights into the strange floral morphology found in $L$. parva and $L$. splendens especially (Midgley pers. comm.).

### 4.3.6 Position of Stirtonanthus

Stirtonanthus is weakly supported to be sister to the LiparialPodalyria clade. A strange result is the low resolution obtained within the genus in this analysis. In Figure 3.14, a close relationship between S. chrysanthus and S. taylorianus is suggested. These species are probably closely related and have inflated pods, as opposed to the compressed pods of S. insignis, and are both reseeders (Van Wyk and Schutte, 1994). The placement of Podalyria in closer relation to Liparia is quite unexpected, seeing that Stirtonanthus once formed part of Podalyria, but the overall placement of Stirtonanthus remains unclear, being strongly supported as sister to the Liparia/Podalyria grouping in the ML analysis (Figure 4.4) and weakly supported in the MP analysis (Figure 4.3). A definite conclusion on the placement of Stirtonanthus is not evident, although it seems likely that it is included in the Liparia/Podalyria/Stirtonanthus clade and sister to Liparia and Podalyria.


## CHAPTER 5

AFFINITY OF THE GENUS CADIA (SOPHOREAE) WITH THE TRIBE PODALYRIEAE

### 5.1 Introduction

### 5.1.1 General

Cadia is an anomalous genus of Papilionoid legumes that consists of seven species. The most widespread of the species is Cadia purpurea, occurring in East and North-East Africa and Arabia, while the other six species are endemic to Madagascar (Du Puy et al., 2002). The placement of Cadia has been uncertain for some time. It appears to have an affinity with the tribe Podalyrieae, but has been placed in the non-monophyletic tribe Sophoreae by authors like Polhill (1981) and Schutte and Van Wyk (1998a). Recent molecular evidence by Doyle et al. (2000) confirms the close relationship between Cadia and Podalyrieae based on $r b c L$ and non-molecular evidence, e.g. floral development, embryology, chromosome numbers. Cadia was supported to be a member of Podalyrieae and the authors suggested that the placement of Cadia be reconsidered.

Cadia spp. have tufted, imparipinnate leaves and axillary, racemose inflorescences with pendulous actinomorphic, pink to purple flowers (Du Puy et al., 2002). The floral characteristics of Cadia are probably the most confusing, their radial floral symmetry and unstable petal aestivation are unusual within Papilionoideae (Tucker, 1987, 2002, 2003). Pennington et al. (2000) in their evaluation of floral evolution of the basal Papilionoideae, based on sequence data from the chloroplast intron trnL, interpret the shift from the typical zygomorphic, papilionoid flower in Cadia as a reversal, due to unusual pollination biology and the need to attract different pollinators, with Cadia being presumably bird pollinated. Tucker (2002) however suggests that this change could alternatively be due to the neotenous nature of the flowers of these groups, i.e. to retain the juvenile state of radial symmetry. The change to a zygomorphic flower is brought about late in floral development and those that appear radial at anthesis lack the final events that would express a zygomorphic flower. She concludes that in terms of floral development, Cadia conforms to the consistently unidirectional organogenesis found in other Sophoreae and is in agreement with the majority of other Papilionoid legumes from various tribes.

The chemical composition of Cadia shares compounds found within members of the -Podalyrieae, again suggesting a close relatiónship. It contains carboxylic acid esters of quinolizidine alkaloids, also found in Calpurnia, Stirtonanthus, Virgilia and some species of Liparia (Van Wyk, 2003; Wink, 2003; Wink and Mohammed, 2003). The isoflavone 3'hydroxydaidzein, a major seed flavonoid of the Podalyrieae, is also found in Cadia purpurea (De Nysschen et al., 1998).

### 5.1.2 Aims of the chapter

The results of both the species-level (rbcL and ITS) and high-level (ITS) phylogenies where used to determine possible relationships between Cadia and Podalyrieae.


Figure 5.1 The unusual floral morphology of Cadia purpurea. A: From www.audubonart.com; B: From www.humanflowerproject.com.

### 5.2 Results

### 5.2.1 Species-level phylogeny

### 5.2.1.1 Statistics

The statistics for the combined analysis of ITS and $r b c L$ is presented in Table 3.9.

### 5.2.1.2 Combined molecular analysis (Total evidence)

A discussion of the statistics of the combined analysis can be found in section 3.2.1.3. Figure 5.2 presents a shortened version of Figure 3.14. From this it is clear that Cadia is closely affiliated to Podalyrieae, as it groups with the tribe with high support (92BP, 94SW). The genus is strongly supported to be monophyletic (100BP, 100SW) and C. purpurea groups with two of the Madagascan species, C. commersoniana and C. pubescens (95BP, 96SW).

### 5.2.2 High-level analysis

### 5.2.2.1 Statistics

The statistics for the high-level analysis is presented in Table 3.12.

### 5.2.2.2 High-level ITS phylogeny

Figure 5.3 presents a shortened version of Figure 3.17 from which the position of Cadia and Podalyrieae in relation to the other genistoid tribes can be seen. Cadia groups with Podalyrieae with high support (100BP) and is strongly supported to be monophyletic (100BP). Sister to the Podalyrieae/Cadia grouping are the tribes Crotalarieae and Genisteae (89BP). Sophoreae (in part) and Thermopsidae group together with low support (54BP) and are sister to the above mentioned tribes. These tribes constitute the 'core' genistoids and retain an isolated, monophyletic position within the genistoid legumes.


Figure 5.2 A shortened version of one of the most parsimonious trees from the combined rbcL and ITS analysis (Figure 3.14). The numbers above the branches are Fitch lengths (DELTRAN optimisation) and those below are bootstrap percentages above 50\% (SW bootstrap results underlined). Solid arrows indicate groups not present in the Fitch strict consensus tree ( $\mathrm{Cl}=0.61$; $\mathrm{RI}=0.83 ; \mathrm{TL}=1176$ ).


Figure 5.3 A shortened version of one of the equally parsimonious trees produced by the highlevel ITS analysis (Figure 3.17) indicating the position of Cadia and Podalyrieae in relation to the other genistoid tribes. The numbers below the branches are bootstrap percentages above $50 \%(\mathrm{Cl}=0.33 ; \mathrm{RI}=0.77 ; \mathrm{TL}=3122$ ).

### 5.3 Discussion

As suggested by several authors, a close relationship seems to exist between Cadia and Podalyrieae. Although Schutte and van Wyk (1998a) excluded Cadia from Podalyrieae, they mention that it is not impossible that studies involving chemistry or DNA might place Cadia in a position close to the tribe. From this study it is evident that the position of Cadia is in need of reconsideration, as was mentioned by Doyle et al. (2000).

It is clear that the genus is monophyletic and that the widely distributed Cadia purpurea is closely related to the Madagascan species. A close relationship seems to exist between $C$. commersoniana, C. pubescens and C. purpurea. Cadia commersoniana and C. pubescens both have broad, leafy bracts on the inflorescence and can be distinguished by the strongly pubescent leaves and stems of $C$. pubescens, together with the smaller number of leaflets found in this species. C. pedicellata has a similar distribution to $C$. pubescens, but is much less pubescent and has narrow, non-leafy bracts on the inflorescence (Du Puy et al., 2002).

Cadia shares several of its characters with members of Podalyrieae: imparipinnately compound leaves as in Calpurnia and Virgilia, axillary racemose inflorescences as in most Podalyrieae, similar alkaloids and seed flavonoids and a similar growth form to some Podalyrieae. The radial floral symmetry could therefore be unique to the genus, i.e. autapomorphies, as was the interpretation by Pennington et al. (2000) and Tucker (2002). Molecular data from this and previous studies (Van der Bank et al., 2002) do not support the subtribal concepts as was proposed by Schutte and Van Wyk (1998a), due to the paraphyly of the subtribe Podalyriinae. It would therefore be possible, after careful consideration, to transfer Cadia to Podalyrieae if a broader tribal concept, possibly without subtribal classification, is proposed. Alternatively a separate subtribe could be erected to accommodate the genus, but this would have to be done for all the clades in Podalyriinae and would not be taxonomically viable. In light of this a transfer of Cadia to Podalyrieae is proposed.


## CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

### 6.1 Conclusions

The tribe Podalyrieae has been the focus of previous morphological (Schutte, 1995a) and molecular studies (Van der Bank et al., 2002), but to date no detailed species-level phylogeny exists for the tribe. The starting point in this study was therefore to reconstruct an almost complete species-level phylogeny for Podalyrieae (based on rbcL and ITS sequence data), which was then used to study the phylogenetic and some evolutionary aspects of the tribe.

In Chapter 3, four major clades were noted in the analysis of ITS and rbcL: the Amphithalea/Xiphotheca clade (corresponding to the subtribe Xiphothecinae), the Liparia/Podalyria/Stirtonanthus clade, the Calpurnia/Virgilia clade and the Cyclopia clade. The current classification of Podalyrieae divides the tribe into two subtribes, Podalyrinae and Xiphothecinae. It is evident that the molecular results in this study do not fit the subtribal concepts in the tribe, due to the paraphyletic nature of the subtribe Podalyrinae. To accommodate these groupings a broader concept of Podalyrieae, without subtribal classification is suggested, as this would be more practical than erecting numerous subtribes (corresponding to each of the separate groupings).

The genus Cadia was included in this study to evaluate whether it shares a close relationship with Podalyrieae. In Chapter 5 the molecular analyses (both species and highlevel) indicated a close relationship between Cadia and Podalyrieae. Due to the various characters Cadia shares with members of the tribe together with molecular evidence, it is suggested that the genus be moved either to a position closer to Podalyrieae or included in the tribe.

Also in Chapter 3, two evolutionary aspects of Podalyrieae were studied. Firstly, the rates of molecular evolution between reseeders and resprouters were compared to determine whether reseeders have higher rates of molecular evolution than resprouters. By means of independent contrasts, it was shown that the rates of molecular evolution were indeed higher in the reseeders in Podalyrieae and Protea when compared to the resprouters. This confirms the hypothesis of Reeves (2001) that diversification rates are higher in reseeding species of Protea and reflects the higher evolutionary rates of the reseeders, due to the larger number of reproductive cycles in these individuals that leads to a greater genetic diversity. Secondly, ITS sequence data was used in a high-level analysis to determine a date for the root node of Podalyrieae. This date was estimated at 28.55 MYA and indicates that a major radiation occurred in the tribe during the Pliocene and does concord with the inception of Mediterranean type climates in the Cape.

In Chapter 4, a species-level phylogeny for Liparia, Podalyria and Stirtonanthus was reconstructed (based on ITS, rbcL, trnL-F and $\operatorname{trnS}-\operatorname{trn} G$ ) to investigate the relationship between these genera, asses the monophyly of especially Liparia and Podalynia and to test whether a shift in pollination vector is a derived character in Liparia. Liparia and Podalyria are closely related, with Stirtonanthus as a possible sister taxon. With the inclusion of more species, Podalynia was found to be monophyletic (contrasting to reports by Van der Bank et al., 2002). Even with the inclusion of almost all the species, Liparia seems to be paraphyletic (as found by Crisp et al., 2000). The two species with alternative pollination vectors grouped together as sister taxa, suggesting that the shift from bee pollination, as found in the rest of the genus, to bird or mammal pollination appears to be a derived character and not the result of convergent evolution. Pollination studies on Liparia will provide important insights into the interesting pollination biology of the genus.

### 6.2 Future research

Future studies on Podalyrieae should focus on improving the resolution within the genera and strengthening the 'backbone' of the tree. ITS was very valuable in this study and Small et al. (2004) state that one of the primary advantages of nuclear genes for phylogenetic analysis is the elevated rate of sequence evolution relative to organellar genes. In some plant groups, like Podalyrieae, sequences from non-coding plastid and nuclear regions (ITS) provide low resolution of relationships. An alternative to the standard regions that are sequenced in phylogenetic studies are low-copy nuclear genes [e.g. Alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH); Granulebound starch synthase (GBSSI or Waxy); Floricaula/Leafy (FLO or LFY)] which might provide more robust estimates of phylogeny. These can be used since there may be rare copies of the ITS in an individual that are not amplified due to selective amplification of only one copy. This selective amplification together with concerted evolution could obscure processes such as hybridisation in the history of an organism. It is clear that low-copy nuclear regions are becoming more important in phylogenetic analyses and might be an interesting future step in the-phylogenetic reconstruction of Podalyrieāe (Crawford and Mōrt, 200 $\overline{4}$; Mort and Crawford, 2004).


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APPENDIX
Appendix 1
Table A1.1 Contrasts produced by CAIC for Podalyrieae.

| Code | Survival Strategy* | Branch lengths* | Std Dev | Height | Subtaxa | nodal Survival Strategy | nodal <br> Branchlengths | Residuals |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAABAAAAA |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| AA | 1 | 2.705 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 79.6174 | 1.84744 |
| CAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAABAAAA | 1 | 1.57689 | 2.3094 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 73.79402 | 0.98292 |
| CAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAABABA | 1 | 0.80543 | 2.23607 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 73.2638 | 0.39172 |
| CAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA | 1 | -0.92 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 71.3074 | -0.93055 |
| CAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAABBBB | 1 | 2.793 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 73.4754 | 1.91488 |
| CAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAABBA | 1 | 0.3875 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 70.5909 | 0.07145 |
| CAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA | 1 | 0.3228 | 2.70416 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 70.53266 | 0.02186 |
| CAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAB | 1 | -0.02983 | 3 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 73.77406 | -0.24837 |
| CAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAABA | 1 | -0.09101 | 2.23607 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 65.4188 | -0.29525 |
| CAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA | 1 | -1.7515 | 2.82843 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 64.9039 | -1.56776 |
| CAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA | 1 | 1.06349 | 2.82843 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 63.2464 | 0.58948 |
| CAAAABAABAAABAAAA | 1 | 1.9755 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 57.3085 | 1.2884 |
| CAAAAAAAAAAAAAA | 1 | -0.46516 | 2.44949 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 61.7368 | -0.58198 |
| CAAAABAAAAAAAAA | 1 | -0.01625 | 2.28709 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 50.2958 | -0.23796 |
| CAAAABAABAAABAA | 1 | -0.49235 | 2.44949 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 54.1 | -0.60282 |
| CAAAABAABBAAABA | 1 | 2.4105 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 82.9655 | 1.62175 |
| CAAAAAAAAAAAAB | 1 | 0.3975 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 61.0605 | 0.07911 |
| CAAAABAAAAAAAB | 1 | 0.184 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 49.72 | -0.08451 |
| CAAAABAABBAABA | 1 | 0.12835 | 2.23607 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 54.9072 | -0.12715 |
| CAAAABAAAAABB | 1 | 1.7255 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 56.2305 | 1.09681 |
| CAABAAABBBAAA | 1 | 1.43478 | 2.28709 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 61.19468 | 0.87402 |
| CAABAAABBBAB | 1 | 0.1705 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 62.5975 | -0.09485 |
| CAAAAAAAAAA | 1 | -2.84781 | 2.44949 | -9 | 2. | -9 | 58.10322 | -2.4079 |
| CAAAABAAAAA | 1 | 0.73824 | 2.73861 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 50.77473 | 0.34023 |
| CAAAABAABA | 1 | 1.38468 | 2.28869 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 55.13798 | 0.83562 |
| CAAAABAABB | 1 | -1.3047 | 2.31158 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 52.12984 | -1.22536 |

Table A1.1 Continued.

| Code | Survival Strategy* | Branch lengths* | Std Dev | Height | Subtaxa | nodal Survival Strategy | nodal Branchlengths | Residuals |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CAABAAABBB | 1 | 0.09298 | 2.82843 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 59.16525 | -0.15425 |
| CAAAABAAA | 1 | -1.18859 | 2.86356 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 52.21436 | -1.13638 |
| CAAAAAAA | 1 | -2.16044 | 2.3094 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 52.904 | -1.88115 |
| CAABAAAA | 1 | 0.591 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 65.082 | 0.2274 |
| CAAAAA | 1 | -0.83738 | 2.64575 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 50.385 | -0.86723 |
| CAABA | 1 | 0.15051 | 2.73523 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 63.1809 | -0.11017 |
| CABAA | 1 | 0.77782 | 2.82843 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 48.333 | 0.37056 |

[^0]Table A1.2 Contrasts produced by CAIC for Protea.

| Code | Survival <br> Strategy* |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | Branch <br> lengths* | Std Dev | Height | Subtaxanodal <br> Survival <br> Strategy | nodal Branch <br> length | Residuals |  |
| AAAABBAAAA | 1 | 0.066 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 7.312 | 0.16932 |
| AAAAABAAB | 1 | 0.2025 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 6.0665 | 0.17413 |
| AAAAAAA | 1 | 0.20501 | 2.55402 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 5.68424 | 0.17421 |
| AAAAABB | 1 | -0.074 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 7.12 | 0.16439 |
| AAAABA | 1 | 1.74771 | 2.23607 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 7.6122 | 0.22855 |
| BAAAAA | 1 | 0.62299 | 2.28808 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 5.43755 | 0.18893 |
| BAAAAB | 1 | -0.105 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 7.075 | 0.1633 |
| BAAAB | 1 | 0.01143 | 2.44949 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 6.66267 | 0.1674 |
| CAABA | 1 | -0.1365 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 5.2135 | 0.16219 |
| AAAA | 1 | 0.37422 | 3.60518 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 6.41818 | 0.18017 |
| AABB | 1 | -0.18228 | 2.44949 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 3.71375 | 0.16057 |
| BAAB | 1 | 0.378 | 2 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 5.226 | 0.18031 |
| CA | 1 | 0.40516 | 2.3094 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 3.85287 | 0.18126 |
| B | 1 | -106.74984 | 2.68985 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 219.69965 | -3.59258 |
| @Root | 1 | 32.1099 | 2.83971 | -9 | 2 | -9 | 51.40384 | 1.29786 |

*See discussion under Table A1.1.


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[^0]:    *Columns 2 and 3 indicate that when a contrast is made by CAIC, a positive contrast indicates that longer branch lengths were present in
    reseeders, as opposed to a negative contrasts where longer branch lengths were found in resprouters.

