Provided by Concordia University Research Repositor

American Journal of Botany 86(8): 1182-1190. 1999.

# PHYLOGENY OF THE TROPICAL TREE FAMILY DIPTEROCARPACEAE BASED ON NUCLEOTIDE SEQUENCES OF THE CHLOROPLAST RBCL GENE<sup>1</sup>

S. Dayanandan,<sup>2,6</sup> Peter S. Ashton,<sup>3</sup> Scott M. Williams,<sup>4</sup> and RICHARD B. PRIMACK<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup>Biology Department, Boston University, Boston, Massachusetts 02215; <sup>3</sup>Harvard University Herbaria, 22 Divinity Avenue, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138; and <sup>4</sup>Division of Biomedical Sciences, Meharry Medical College, 1005 D. B. Todd, Jr. Boulevard, Nashville, Tennessee 37208

The Dipterocarpaceae, well-known trees of the Asian rain forests, have been variously assigned to Malvales and Theales. The family, if the Monotoideae of Africa (30 species) and South America and the Pakaraimoideae of South America (one species) are included, comprises over 500 species. Despite the high diversity and ecological dominance of the Dipterocarpaceae, phylogenetic relationships within the family as well as between dipterocarps and other angiosperm families remain poorly defined. We conducted parsimony analyses on rbcL sequences from 35 species to reconstruct the phylogeny of the Dipterocarpaceae. The consensus tree resulting from these analyses shows that the members of Dipterocarpaceae, including Monotes and Pakaraimaea, form a monophyletic group closely related to the family Sarcolaenaceae and are allied to Malvales. The present generic and higher taxon circumscriptions of Dipterocarpaceae are mostly in agreement with this molecular phylogeny with the exception of the genus Hopea, which forms a clade with Shorea sections Anthoshorea and Doona. Phylogenetic placement of Dipterocarpus and Dryobalanops remains unresolved. Further studies involving representative taxa from Cistaceae, Elaeocarpaceae, Hopea, Shorea, Dipterocarpus, and Dryobalanops will be necessary for a comprehensive understanding of the phylogeny and generic limits of the Dipterocarpaceae.

Key words: Dipterocarpaceae; Gondwana; Hopea; Malvales; Phylogeny; Shorea.

Three entities are often considered to comprise the tropical tree family Dipterocarpaceae. The original family circumscription, based on the genus Dipterocarpus (Blume, 1825), is confined to Asia and the Seychelles. The Asian dipterocarps include 470 species and dominate the canopy of lowland equatorial forests. Subfamily Monotoideae (Gilg, 1925) comprises ~30 species in three genera, one of which, Monotes, was earlier associated with Tiliaceae (Heim, 1892). The monotypic subfamily Pakaraimoideae (Maguire and Ashton, 1977) based on Pakaraimaea dipterocarpacea has been described from the Guyana Highlands in South America. The recent discovery of Pseudomonotes tropinbosii from Colombia (Londono et al., 1995; Morton, 1995) extends the range of

<sup>1</sup> Manuscript received 24 April 1997; revision accepted 11 January 1999.

The authors thank Drs. Nimal and Savithri Gunatilleke (University of Peradeniya), Dr. Elizabeth Kellogg (Harvard University), Dr. Mark Chase (Royal Bortanic Gardens, Kew), and Dr. Harold Hill (University of North Carolina) for valuable advice throughout the research project; Messers M. A. Gunadasa, Nimal Tennakoon, and S. Harischandran (University of Peradeniya), Mr. Siril Wijesundara (Royal Botanical Gardens, Peradeniya), Dr. Dan Harder (Missouri Botanical Gardens), Dr. Shaw Lenguan and Mr. Kamurudeen (Forest Research Institute, Malaysia) for help in collecting leaf samples; Drs. Peter del Tredici and Robert Cook for providing access to resources at the Arnold Arboretum; and Elizabeth Stacy, Lisa Delissio, Bil Alverson, Cynthia Morton, and Ken Sytsma for comments on the manuscript. This research was supported by USAID research grant DPE-5542-G-SS-8023-00, NSF grant DEB 94-00147, UNESCO MAB programme, Arnold Arboretum Deland Award, and the President's Fund of Sri Lanka.

<sup>6</sup> Author for correspondence, current address: Forest Genetics Laboratory, Department of Renewable Resources, 751 General Services Building, University of Alberta, Canada T6G 2H1.

Monotoideae to the Neotropics. If all three entities are accepted as one family, the Dipterocarpaceae include over 500 species (Table 1). The Asiatic dipterocarps (subfamily Dipterocarpoideae) are further divided into two tribes, Dipterocarpeae and Shoreae (Brandis, 1895), with haploid chromosome numbers of 11 and 7, respectively. The tribe Shoreae is richer in species than Dipterocarpeae due to species richness in the genera Shorea and Hopea. Shorea comprises almost 200 species in 11 sections, while Hopea has over 100 species (Ashton, 1982).

The phylogenetic placement of the Dipterocarpaceae within the angiosperms has long been problematic, with arguments favoring its placement either in the order Malvales or the order Theales (Bessey, 1915; Hutchinson, 1926; Wettstein, 1935; Ashton, 1982). In more recent classifications, Cronquist (1988) placed Dipterocarpaceae in the Theales, while Dahlgren (1983) and Thorne (1992) placed it in the Malvales, again emphasizing the uncertainty of its phylogenetic position. Some of the morphological characters that support the placement of Dipterocarpaceae in the Theales are the possession of persistent imbricate sepals and frequently contorted corolla. Other characters, such as stellate, tufted, or glandular hairs, connectival appendages, mucilage cells, wood rays, floral vascular supply, seed coat, and geniculate petiole, support its placement in the Malvales (Ashton, 1982). Previous analyses of rbcL sequences robustly place Dipterocarpaceae allied to Malvales in a clade with Sarcolaenaceae (Chase et al., 1993; Dayanandan, 1996). A recent comprehensive study of the phylogeny of the Malvales based on rbcL sequence data has provided a more conclusive evidence for the Malvalean affinity of the Dipterocarpaceae (Alverson et. al., 1998).

Table 1. Number of species in different genera of Dipterocarpaceae and their geographical distribution. Data are from Ashton (1980, 1982).

Subfamily	Genus	No. of species	Distribution			
Pakarimoideae	Pakaraimaea	1	Guyana highland, South America			
Monotoideae	Monotes	30	Africa and Madagascar			
	Marquesia	3	Africa			
	Pseudomonotes	1	Colombia, South America			
Dipterocarpoideae						
Tribe: Dipterocarpeae	Dipterocarpus	69	Sri Lanka, India, Burma, Thailand, Indo-China, Yunnan, Malaya, Sumatra, Java, Bali, Borneo, Philippines			
	Anisoptera	11	Chittagong and Indo-China to New Guinea			
	Upuna	1	Malesia, Borneo			
	Cotylelobium	6	Sri Lanka, Peninsular Thailand, Malesia, Sumatra, Lingga, Anabas Islands, Borneo			
	Vatica	65	Sri Lanka, South and East India, Burma, Thailand, Indo-China, South China, and Malesia			
	Vateria	2	Sri Lanka and India			
	Vateriopsis	1	Seychelles			
	Stemonoporus	15	Sri Lanka			
Tribe: Shoreae	Dryobalanops	7	Malaya, Central Sumatra, Borneo and intervening islands			
	Parashorea	14	South Burma, Thailand, Indo-China, South China, Malesia, Sumatra, Borneo, Philipines, and intervening islands			
	Neobalanocarpus	1	Malesia			
	Нореа	102	Sri Lanka, Andamans, South and east India, Burma, Thailand, Indo-China, South-China, Hainan, Malesia			
	Shorea	194	Sri Lanka, India, Burma, Thailand, Indo-China, Malesia, Malaya, Sumatra, Borneo, intervening islands, Java, Philipines, Moluccas			

Maury (1978), after analyzing the morphology of pollen, fruits, embryos, and seedlings of many species in the family Dipterocarpaceae, suggested that the Monotoideae represent a distinct entity and could be treated as a separate family with an alliance to Asiatic dipterocarps. Kostermans (1985) argued that presence of extrafloral glands on the leaf, uniseriate wood rays, androgynophore with numerous stamens, and tricolporate pollen grains in both Monotes and members of Tiliaceae, and the absence of these characters in Asiatic dipterocarps, indicate affinities of the Monotoideae with Tiliaceae. However, he failed to recognize that extrafloral nectaries are widespread among Asiatic dipterocarps. Furthermore, glandular hairs are present in some Asiatic dipterocarps, but absent in Monotes and Tiliaceae. According to Kostermans (1985), the only character shared between Asiatic dipterocarps and Monotes, but not in Tiliaceae, is the imbricate flower sepals, which he did not consider important enough to link Monotes to the dipterocarps. Consequently, Kostermans (1989) created a new family Monotaceae to include both Pakaraimoideae and Monotoideae, recognizing the close affinity between the two subfamilies. He placed Monotaceae close to Tiliaceae and distant from Dipterocarpaceae.

One of the reasons for these disagreements may be due to reversals or parallel evolution of the limited number of morphological characters. It is often difficult to weigh the relative importance of different morphological characters. On the other hand, none of the morphological analyses (Maury, 1978; Ashton, 1982) were done cladistically. An alternative approach is clearly necessary to resolve the relationships of the Dipterocarpoideae, Monotoideae, and Pakaramoideae.

Present understanding of phylogenetic relationships of Dipterocarpaceae is based on a few comparative studies

(Maury, 1978, 1979; Ashton, 1979). Suggested affinities among dipterocarps have been based on wood anatomy (Gotwald and Parameswaran, 1966; Brazier, 1979; Parameswaran and Gotwald, 1979), secondary metabolites (Ourisson, 1979), and morphological characters (Ashton, 1979, 1982). Within Dipterocarpaceae, Maury (1978, 1979), on the basis of seed, embryo, and seedling characters, recognized two main groups, one with imbricate fruit sepals and the other with valvate fruit sepals. The imbricate group included two monophyletic genera, Hopea and Shorea, while the valvate clade included Dipterocarpus and Vatica. The placement of most genera within these two clades remained unresolved. Ashton (1979) also pointed out the difficulties involved with classification of Hopea, Shorea, and Neobalanocarpus due to their morphological similarities. The taxonomic position of Hopea brevipetiolaris has long been a point of controversy. This species was originally placed in the genus Balanocarpus. Ashton (1963, 1972, 1980) transferred B. brevipetiolaris into Hopea. Kostermans (1992), however, favored its placement in the genus Balanocarpus. The presence of a terminal band of apotracheal parenchyma, silica (SiO<sub>2</sub>) in ray cells, and sparsely distributed resin canals in H. brevipetiolaris supports its placement in a separate genus from *Hopea*, as those characters are absent in other Hopea species (Parameswaran and Gotwald, 1979). However, the type species of Balanocarpus, B. utilis, lacks these characters.

Two alternative hypotheses exist to explain the origin and phytogeography of dipterocarps (Merrill, 1923; Croizat, 1952, 1964; Ashton, 1982). The first suggests that dipterocarps originated on the Eurasian plate, possibly in the Malesian region, and migrated westward towards south Asia and Africa. This is based on the assumption that the high species diversity of dipterocarps found in

Table 2. Taxa selected for *rbcL* sequencing and their source (GenBank or voucher number). Classification is based on Ashton (1982) and Cronquist (1988).

Family	Genus Section		Species selected	GenBank or voucher no. <sup>a</sup>		
Bixaceae	Bixa Cochlospermum		B. orellana C. vitifolium	GBAN-AF022128 GBAN-AF022129		
Sphaerocepalaceae	Rhopalocarpus		R. lucidus	GBAN-AF022130		
Thymeliaceae	Phaleria Daphne Dirca		P. chermsideana D. mezereum Dirca sp.	GBAN-PCU26332 GBAN-AF022132 GBAN-DSU26322		
Sarcolaenaceae	Sarcolaena		S. oblongifolia	GBAN-SOU26337		
Dipterocarpaceae	D. 1		n. tr	4.1. 001		
Subfamily: Pakaraimoideae	Pakaraimaea		P. dipterocarpacea	Ashton, 001		
Subfamily: Monotoideae	Monotes		Monotes sp.	DKH3134		
Subfamily: Dipterocarpoideae Tribe: Dipterocarpeae	Dipterocarpus		D. zeylanicus D. insignis	91D003 91D004		
	Anisoptera Upuna		Anisoptera sp. Upuna borneensis	92D011 92D010		
	Cotylelobium		C. scabriusculum	92D010 91D005		
	Vatica	Vatica	V. affinis	91D005		
	vanca	Sunaptea	V. cinerea	91D007		
	Stemonoporus	Sunapiea	S. canaliculatus	91D008		
	Siemonoporus		Stemonoporus sp.	91D009		
			S. gilimalensis	91D010		
	Vateria		V. copalifera	91D010		
Tribe: Shoreae			D. aromatica	91D011		
Inbe: Snoreae	Dryobalanops		D. aromaπca N. heimii	91D012 91D013		
	Neobalanocarpus	<i>II</i>		91D013 91D014		
	Нореа	Нореа	H. jucunda H. brevipetiolaris	91D014 91D015		
		Dryobalanoides	н. brevipenoiaris Н. dryobalanoides	91D013 91D016		
	Shorea	Shorea	S. dyeri	91D016 91D017		
	Shorea	Shorea	S. lissophylla	91D017 91D018		
			S. robusta	91D018 91D019		
		Anthoshorea	S. stipularis	91D019 91D020		
		Anthoshorea	S. assamica	91D020 91D021		
		Mutica	S. curtisii	91D021 91D022		
		Ovales	S. ovalis	91D022 91D023		
		Doona	S. affinis	91D023 91D024		
		Боона	S. ayıms S. ovalifolia	91D024 91D025		
			S. ovalifolia S. zeylanica	91D025 91D001		

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> The prefix GBAN- has been added for linking the online version of *American Journal of Botany* to GenBank but is not part of the actual GenBank accession number.

the Far East is associated with the origin of the family (Merrill, 1923; Prakash, 1972; Meher-Homji, 1979). The second hypothesis suggests that dipterocarps originated in Gondwana (Croizat, 1952, 1964; Ashton, 1982). One clade, comprising the subfamilies Monotoideae and Pakaraimoideae, extended its range westward from Africa to South America; the other clade, the subfamily Dipterocarpoideae, migrated eastward through the Deccan plate (Ashton and Gunatilleke, 1987), entered the Eurasian plate, and diversified in the Far Eastern region (Ashton, 1980). Ashton (1982) pointed out that dipterocarp dispersal must be overland due to limited seed dispersal ability, obligate species-specific mycorrhizal symbiosis, lack of seed dormancy, and salt intolerance of seeds. This hypothesis is consistent with fossil evidence (Ramanujan, 1968; Lakanpal, 1970), tectonic events (Sclater and Harrison, 1971; Audley-Charles, Hurley, and Smith, 1981; Brock, 1981; Klootwijk and Radhakrishnamoorthy, 1981), the existence of the wingless-fruited dipterocarpoid Vateriopsis on the Gondwana fragment of Mahe, Seychelles, and comparative anatomy and morphology (Ashton, 1982). Reconstructing the phylogeny of dipterocarps using an additional set of characters such as molecular data may shed light on the understanding of the historical biogeography of the family Dipterocarpaceae.

In the present study, we reconstructed the phylogeny of Dipterocarpaceae based on *rbcL* sequence data of selected species. We provide evidence favoring the placement of the Asian dipterocarps in the order Malvales allied to Sarcolaenaceae and show that *Monotes* and *Pakaraimaea* are closely related to Asiatic dipterocarps.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Taxon sampling—The rbcL gene sequences of 35 species representing five families and 20 genera were used in the present analysis (Table 2). Leaves were either frozen in liquid nitrogen or dried in silica gel in the field and transported to the laboratory at Boston University for DNA extractions. Published rbcL sequences representing all families in a monophyletic clade with Dipterocarpaceae (Alverson et al., 1998) were included in the present analysis. The rbcL sequences of Cistaceae and Muntingia of Elaeocarpaceae were not available from GenBank.

DNA extraction, rbcL amplification, and sequencing—Total genomic DNA was extracted from leaf samples using the methods of Doyle and Doyle (1987) and Dayanandan, Bawa, and Kesseli (1997). The rbcL gene was amplified by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using oligonucleotide primers G1F and G1460R, modified from primers designed by Gerard Zurawski (Zurawski et al., 1981; Zurawski, Clegg, and Brown, 1984; Zurawski and Clegg, 1987), to be complementary to the Gossypium rbcL gene. Amplification reactions contained 200 µmol/ L each of dATP, dCTP, dGTP, dTTP, 50 mmol/L KCl, 10 mmol/L Tris-HCl (pH 9.0), 0.1% Triton X-100, 10 pmol/L of each primer, 2 units of Taq DNA Polymerase (Promega), and 1.5 mmol/L MgCl2 in a total volume of 100 µl. Thermal cycling was performed in a MJ Research PTC100 thermal cycler at 94°C for 90 sec, 40°C for 60 sec and 72°C for 120 sec for 40 cycles. Amplified DNA was purified using Promega Magic PCR purification columns and directly sequenced by the Sanger dideoxy chain termination method with thermal cycling using the fmol Sequencing System (Promega Corporation City, Madison, Wisconsin). Thermal cycling was performed for 30 sec at 50°C, 60 sec at 70°C, and 90 sec at 94°C for 30 cycles. Internal primers originally designed by G. Zurawski (DNAX Institute, Palo Alto, California) were modified to complement dipterocarp rbcL sequences and used for sequencing both strands of rbcL. Sequences were aligned using the IBI/PUSTELL sequence analysis program using an IBM personal computer. Accuracy of sequences was rechecked by translating to peptide sequences and examined for premature stop codons and frame shifts.

Cladistic analysis—Aligned sequences and resulting trees were analyzed using PAUP 3.1.1 (Swofford, 1993) and MacClade 3.04 (Maddison and Maddison, 1993) on a PowerMacintosh computer. A heuristic search was performed with equal weights, 100 replicates of random sequence addition, and TBR (tree bisection reconnection) branch swapping with MULPARS (multiple parsimonious trees) on (Swofford and Begle, 1993). Bootstrap analysis was performed for 100 replicates with simple sequence addition, MULPARS on and steepest descent off. The rbcL sequences of Bixa, Cochlospermum, and Rhopalocarpus were used as outgroups.

#### RESULTS

The heuristic search resulted in 12 equally parsimonious trees, each with a length of 359 steps with consistency index (CI) of 0.50 and rescaled consistency index of (RC) of 0.37 (after excluding uninformative characters). The strict consensus tree of 12 equally parsimonious trees is given in Fig. 1. Ten key morphological characters of Dipterocarpaceae were compiled (Gotwald and Parameswaran, 1966; Maury, 1978; Ashton, 1979, 1982; Jong and Kaur, 1979) and mapped on the phylogenetic tree derived from *rbcL* sequence data. All branches were resolved in the strict consensus tree, except for the branches from *Dryobalanops* to the remaining Asiatic dipterocarps, and the *Anisoptera*, *Cotylelobium*, and *Vatica* to the *Stemonoporus*, *Upuna*, and *Vateria* clade.

Dipterocarpaceae and Sarcolaenaceae formed a strongly supported monophyletic clade sister to Thymelaeaceae. Within the dipterocarp clade, *Monotes* occupied a basal position and *Pakaraimaea* occupied the next position basal to Asiatic dipterocarps. However, the branches among *Sarcolaena, Monotes*, and *Pakaraimaea* were weakly supported with bootstrap values of <50%.

The monophyly of the subfamily Dipterocarpoideae is well supported. Members of Dipterocarpoideae formed four clades (*Dryobalanops*, *Dipterocarpus*, and remaining species of the tribes Shoreae and Dipterocarpeae) and relationships among these clades remain unresolved (Fig.

1). Among the remaining Dipterocarpeae taxa, *Vateria*, *Stemonoporus*, *Upuna*, *Anisoptera*, *Vatica*, and *Cotylelobium* formed a monophyletic group with a close affinity among *Vateria*, *Stemonoporus*, and *Upuna*.

The monophyly of the tribe Shoreae is supported except for the position of *Dryobalanops* (Fig. 1). Species of Shorea section Shorea (S. dyeri, S. lissophylla, S. robusta) formed a clade sister to the clade of S. curtisii (section Mutica) and S. ovalis (section Ovales). Shorea species of section Anthoshorea and the species of the genus Hopea formed a monophyletic clade sister to Shorea section Doona. Neobalanocarpus was sister to the Anthoshorea, Hopea, and Doona clade. Within the Dipterocarpoideae clade, bootstrap results are in agreement with the strict consensus tree obtained from the heuristic search, with few exceptions. All branches showed a bootstrap consensus value of >50%, except for branches supporting the monophyly of Shorea, Hopea, and Neobalanocarpus; Neobalanocarpus, Doona, Hopea, and Anthoshorea; Doona, Hopea, and Anthoshorea; and Upuna, Vateria, and Stemonoporus.

Mapping of morphological characters on the phylogenetic tree reconstructed from *rbcL* sequence data (Fig. 1; Tables 3 and 4) showed five character state changes (wood parenchyma, resin canals, flower petals, pollen aperture, and pericarp dehiscence) on the branch supporting the monophyly of the Dipterocarpoideae. Within Dipterocarpoideae, monophyly of the tribe Shoreae is supported by five characters (grouped xylem vessels, resin canal grouped into series, chromosome number of seven, imbricate fruit sepal aestivation, and thickened fruit sepal base). The monophyly of the tribe Dipterocarpeae is supported by three characters (solitary resin canals, chromosome number of 11, and free flower petals). Two morphological character state changes (solitary resin canals and chromosome number of 11) were observed on the branch with the genus Dipterocarpus, and three character state changes (resin canals grouped into series, chromosome number of seven, and thickened fruit sepal base) were observed on the branch with *Dryobalanops*.

## DISCUSSION

Analysis of *rbcL* sequence data suggests that the family Dipterocarpaceae, including Monotes and Pakaraimaea, is monophyletic and is sister to Sarcolaenaceae. Although the Sarcolaenaceae have been considered as a member of Theales (Cronquist, 1988), recent studies showed a malvalean affinity (Dahlgren, 1983, 1989; Thorne, 1992; Conti, Litt, and Sytsma, 1996; Alverson et al., 1998). Close affinity of Dipterocarpaceae to Sarcolaenaceae had earlier been suggested based on wood anatomical and other features (Ashton, 1982). A common origin of Dipterocarpaceae and Sarcolaenaceae from an ancient tiliaceous stock has also been suggested (Maguire et al., 1977). The *rbcL* data support earlier authors who argued a malvalean affinity for Dipterocarpaceae (Lindley, 1846; Heim, 1892; Hallier, 1912; Corner, 1946; Ashton, 1982; Thorne, 1992) but disputes the thealean affinity (Endlicher, 1840; Lindley, 1846; De Candolle, 1868; Cronquist, 1981). According to Corner (1976), palisade cells in the seed coat of *Dipterocarpus* and *Vatica* show similarity to Durio and Cullenia of Bombacaceae (Mal-

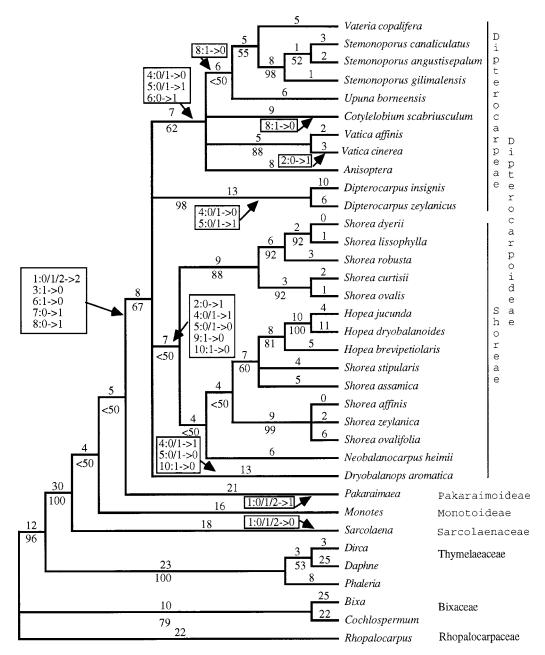


Fig. 1. The strict consensus tree of 12 equally parsimonious trees (Length = 359 steps, CI = 0.50, and RC = 0.37, after excluding uninformative characters) identified by equally weighted parsimony analysis using rbcL sequence data from selected taxa of Dipterocarpaceae. A heuristic search was performed with random sequence addition (100 replicates) with TBR branch swapping, steepest descent off, and MULPARS on, using PAUP 3.11. Branch length (above the line) and bootstrap values (below the line) are given at each branch. Changes in morphological character states are given inside boxes at branches. Characters and character states are numbered as in Tables 3 and 4. *Bixa, Cochlospermum*, and *Rhopalocarpus rbcL* sequences were used as outgroups.

vales). Analysis of *rbcL* sequences also supports a close affinity of that Dipterocarpaceae with Cistaceae and Malvales s. str. (Bombacaceae, Malvaceae, Sterculiaceae, and Tiliaceae; Chase et al., 1993; Alverson et al., 1998).

The evidence presented here suggests that *Monotes* and *Pakaraimaea* are more closely related to Asiatic dipterocarps than to Tiliaceae. This is in agreement with other recent interpretations (Maguire et al., 1977; Maury, 1978). Wood anatomical characters also support the close alliance between *Monotes* and Asiatic dipterocarps (Ban-

croft, 1935; Gotwald and Parameswaran, 1966). However, this is contrary to Kostermans (1989) who considered that *Monotes* is more closely related to Tiliaceae than to Dipterocarpoideae. Kostermans (1989) also raised Monotoideae to a family status, including both *Monotes* and *Pakaraimaea*. In phylogenetic trees based on *rbcL* sequence data, *Monotes* and *Pakaraimaea* form two distinct, though weakly supported clades, paraphyletic to Asian dipterocarps, and therefore formation of a new family, Monotaceae, cannot be justified. However, all

Table 3. Morphological characters and character states of Dipterocarpaceae used for mapping on the phylogenetic tree derived from *rbcL* sequence data. All characters were used as unordered.

- 1. Wood parenchyma: 0 = uniseriate; 1 = biseriate; 2 = multiseriate.
- 2. Xylem vessels: 0 = solitary; 1 = grouped.
- 3. Resin canals: 0 = present; 1 = absent.
- 4. Resin canal groups: 0 = solitary; 1 = series.
- 5. Chromosome number: 0 = seven; 1 = eleven.
- 6. Petals: 0 = connate; 1 = free.
- 7. Pollen aperture: 0 = tricolporate; 1 = tricolpate.
- 8. Pericarp dehiscence: 0 = loculicidal; 1 = non-loculicidal.
- 9. Fruit sepal aestivation: 0 = imbricate; 1 = valvate.
- 10. Fruit sepal base: 0 = thick; 1 = non-thick.

three groups, Monotoideae, Pakaraimoideae, and Dipterocarpoideae, together form a monophyletic group and therefore treating the whole clade as one family is justified. However, a detailed study involving members of Cistaceae and Elaeocarpceae, particularly *Muntingia*, would be necessary for a comprehensive understanding of the relationships between Sarcolaenaceae and subfamilies of the Dipterocarpaceae.

Phylogenetic relationships within Dipterocarpaceae based on *rbcL* data are mostly in agreement with present taxonomic treatments (Ashton, 1980, 1982) as well as phylogenetic speculations (Maury, 1978, 1979; Ashton, 1982). The inferred phylogenetic tree topology is in agreement with the division of Dipterocarpaceae into two tribes, mainly based on chromosome numbers (Jong and Kaur, 1979). The tribes Dipterocarpeae and Shoreae form monophyletic groups with the exception of *Dipterocarpus* and *Dryobalanops*, for which phylogenetic positions remain unresolved. However, presence of solitary resin canals and the base chromosome number of 11 support the placement of *Dipterocarpus* within the clade of the tribe Dipterocarpeae. Similarly, grouping of resin canals into groups, chromosome number of seven, and the thick-

ened fruit sepal base support the placement of Dryobalanops within tribe Shoreae.

Meijer (1979) postulated that *Dipterocarpus* may represent the basal clade of Dipterocarpoideae. Maury (1978) recognized *Dipterocarpus* as a primitive group among the members of the tribe Dipterocarpeae, and she placed *Dipterocarpus* along with other taxa of Dipterocarpeae as sister to the group with species of the tribe *Shoreae*. *Dipterocarpus* has a number of unique characters, including the winged free calyx tube and large flowers associated with pollination by macrolepidoptera. *Dipterocarpus* may be a clade with early divergence, but most of the primitive morphological characters appear to have been lost in *Dipterocarpus* over the course of evolution.

The monophyly of the remaining taxa of the tribe Dipterocarpeae (Vateria, Stemonoporus, Vatica, Cotylelobium, Anisoptera, and Upuna) is in agreement with previous taxonomic and phylogenetic treatments of the dipterocarps (Maury, 1978, 1979; Ashton, 1982). The separate status of Cotylelobium and Vatica and the unity of the latter genus, from which we sampled species from each of its two sections, are upheld. This is contrary to Kostermans' (1987) decision to unite Cotylelobium with Vatica section Sunaptea and separate both from the type section of Vatica. Morphological data suggest that Vateriopsis also belongs to this group, and further molecular studies will be necessary to infer the phylogenetic position of Vateriopsis.

The phylogenetic placement of the genus *Dryobalanops* remains unresolved. Ashton (1979) considered *Dryobalanops* as a member of the tribe Shoreae, while Maury (1978) placed *Dryobalanops* in the tribe Dipterocarpeae. The presence of solitary vessels suggests the affinity of *Dryobalanops* to the tribe Dipterocarpeae (Gotwald and Parameswaran, 1966), while chromosome number indicates an affinity to the tribe Shoreae (Jong and Kaur, 1979). Among other morphological characters,

Table 4. Morphological character states of selected taxa of Dipterocarpaceae used to map on the phylogenetic tree derived from *rbcL* sequence data. Characters and states are numbered as given in Table 3. Data were compiled from Ashton (1979, 1982), Gotwald and Parameswarn (1966), Jong and Kaur (1979), and Maury (1978).

	Character									
Genus—Section	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Monotes	0	0	1	?	?	1	0	0	0/1	1
Pakaraimaea	1	0	1	?	?	1	0	0	1	1
Dipterocarpus	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
Anisoptera	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
Vatica—Vatica	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	0/1	1	1
Vatica—Sunaptea	2	1	0	0	1	1	?	1	1	1
Cotylelobium	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
Vateria	2	0/1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
Upuna	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
Stemonoporus	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
Dryobalanops	2	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	0
Neobalanocarpus	2	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
Shorea—Doona	2	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
Shorea—Anthoshorea	2	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
Shorea—Mutica	2	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
Shorea—Ovales	2	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
Shorea—Shorea	2	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
Нореа—Нореа	2	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
Hopea—Dryobalanoides	2	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0

valvate fruit sepals (Maury, 1978) support the placement of *Dryobalanops* in Dipterocarpeae, while connate petals (Ashton, 1982) and grouped resin canals support the placement of *Dryobalanops* in the tribe Shoreae. A detailed analysis using several species of *Dryobalanops* would be valuable in further resolving the phylogenetic position of this genus.

The present study shows that *Neobalanocarpus*, *Hopea*, and *Shorea* sections *Anthoshorea* and *Doona* form a clade sister to the remaining species of *Shorea*. The close affinity between *Neobalanocarpus*, *Hopea*, and section *Doona*, is supported by wood anatomical characters (Parameswaran and Gotwald, 1979). Although the close alliance between sections *Doona* and *Anthoshorea* has been recognized by Maury (1978), she considered *Hopea* as a separate clade sister to all species of *Shorea*.

Neobalanocarpus occupies a weakly supported basal position in the clade comprising section *Doona*, section Anthoshorea, and Hopea. Floral biology, especially the diurnal anthesis and the stamen structure of Neobalanocarpus, shows similarity to section Doona (Dayanandan et al., 1990). Presence of medium-sized vessels and storied rays and absence of silica in Neobalanocarpus led Parameswaran and Gotwald (1979) to place it in a special position allied to *Hopea*. Anthocyanin development (Bate-Smith and Whitmore, 1959) and bark morphology (Whitmore, 1962) in *Neobalanocarpus* are similar to *Ho*pea. Jong and Kaur (1979) observed abnormalities in meiosis in *Neobalanocarpus*: failure in pairing of chromosomes at metaphase I, irregular disjunction of chromosomes, and tendency to associate in pairs at metaphase II and anaphase II. Therefore, they speculated that Neobalanocarpus may be a result of hybridization between Hopea and Shorea.

Although Maury (1978) placed the genus Hopea and section Anthoshorea in two different but closely related groups, rbcL data support the monophyly of section Anthoshorea and the genus Hopea. The floral morphologies of the genus *Hopea* and section *Anthoshorea* are similar, both having an urceolate corolla and stamens with an acicular connectival appendage. The positioning of Hopea and Neobalanocarpus in a clade with Shorea disrupts the monophyly of the genus Shorea. Since the objective of a natural system of classification is to have monophyletic groups as taxonomic units, this relationship needs further evaluation using representative taxa from all sections of both Hopea and Shorea for subsequent consideration in the classification of the genera Shorea and Hopea. According to rbcL data, Hopea brevipetiolaris forms a clade with other Hopea species, and therefore it is reasonable to include it in *Hopea* rather than in a separate genus.

The monophyly of the three species of *Shorea* of section *Shorea* studied is in agreement with taxonomical grouping (Ashton, 1982). Despite the disjunct distribution pattern of *Shorea robusta* in India and *S. dyeri* and *S. lissophylla* in Sri Lanka, these three species form a clade sister to species of *Shorea* of section *Mutica*, which are distributed in Malesia. Section *Ovales* is closely related to *Mutica* and is also distributed in Malesian forests. Although *S. ovalis* is a polyploid (Ashton, 1982), the wood anatomy of *S. ovalis* is similar to that of section *Mutica*. Therefore, *S. ovalis* (section *Ovales*) and section

Mutica may be a result of recent divergence from a common ancestor.

The distribution of the taxa of the basal clades, Sarcolaenaceae and Monotes, in Madagascar and Africa where Sarcolaenaceae are now extinct and the absence of such taxa in the Asian region are in agreement with the Gondwanan origin hypothesis of dipterocarps. Presence of fossils of Dipterocarpoxylon in Africa (Chiarugi, 1933) and fossil records of Dryobalanoxylon in India (Ramanujan, 1968) together with the basal position of Dipterocarpus and Dryobalanops in the present cladogram are also consistent with the hypothesis that dipterocarps originated in Gondwana and migrated eastwards through India to the Malesian region. However, the disjunct distribution of closely related taxa both in Sri Lanka and Malesia suggests that dipterocarps must have already diverged to generic or even infrageneric sections before they entered the Laurasian plate from the Deccan plate. For instance, *Hopea jucunda* and *Shorea stipularis*, both of section Anthoshorea, are present in Sri Lanka (Ashton, 1980), while their respective sister taxa, Hopea dryobalanoides and Shorea assamica, are present in Malesia (Ashton, 1982).

In summary, this study shows that taxa of Dipterocarpaceae, including *Monotes* and *Pakaraimaea*, form a monophyletic group closely related to the family Sarcolaenaceae. The present taxonomic grouping of Dipterocarpaceae is mostly in agreement with the phylogeny with the exception of the genus *Hopea*, which forms a clade with *Shorea* section *Anthoshorea*. Phylogenetic placement of *Dipterocarpus* and *Dryobalanops* remains unresolved. Further studies involving representative taxa from both *Hopea* and *Shorea* as well as *Dipterocarpus* and *Dryobalanops* are needed for a comprehensive understanding of the phylogeny within the Dipterocarpaceae.

#### LITERATURE CITED

ALVERSON, W. S., K. G. KAROL, D. A. BAUM, M. W. CHASE, S. M. SWENSEN, R. McCOURT, AND K. J. SYTSMA. 1998. Circumscription of the Malvales and relationships to other Rosidae: evidence from *rbcL* sequence data. *American Journal of Botany* 85: 876–887.

ASHTON, P. S. 1963. Taxonomic notes on Bornean Dipterocarpaceae. Garden's Bulletin Singapore 20: 229–284.

— 1972. Precursor to a taxonomic revision of Ceylon Dipterocarpaceae. *Blumea* 20: 357–366.

— 1979. Phylogenetic speculations on Dipterocarpaceae. In G. Maury-Lechon [ed.], Dipterocarpacees: Taxonomie-Phylogenie-Ecologie, Memoires du Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, serie B, Botanique 26, 145–149. Editions du Museum, Paris.

— 1980. Dipterocarpaceae. In M. D. Dassanayake and F. R. Fosberg [eds.], A revised handbook to the flora of Ceylon, vol. 1, 364–423. Amerind Publishing Company, New Delhi.

— 1982. Dipterocarpaceae. *In C. G. G. J. Van Steenis [ed.]*, Flora Malesiana, Series 1, Spermatophyta, vol. 9, 237–552. Martinus Nijhoff Pulishers, The Hague.

———, AND C. V. S. GUNATILLEKE. 1987. New light on the plant geography of Ceylon I. Historical plant geography. *Journal of Biogeography* 14: 249–285.

AUDLEY-CHARLES, M. G., A. M. HURLEY, AND A. G. SMITH. 1981. Continental movements in the Mesozoic and Cenozoic. *In* T. C. Whitmore [ed.], Wallace's line and plate tectonics, 9–23. Clarendon Press. Oxford.

BANCROFT, H. 1935. The taxonomy, history and geographical distribution of Monotoideae. *American Journal of Botany* 22: 505–519.

- BATE-SMITH, E. C., AND T. C. WHITMORE. 1959. Chemistry and taxonomy in Dipterocarpaceae. *Nature* (London) 184: 795–796.
- BESSEY, C. 1915. The phylogenetic taxonomy of flowering plants. *Annals of the Missouri Botanical Gardens* 2: 109–164.
- Blume, K. L. 1825. Dipterocarpaceae in Bijdragen tot de Flora van Nederlanisch Indie. *Batavia*.
- Brandis, D. 1895. An enumeration of the Dipterocarpaceae. *Journal of Linnean Society* 31: 1–148.
- Brazier, J. D. 1979. Classifying the Dipterocarpaceae: the wood technologist's view. *In* G. Maury-Lechon [ed.], Dipterocarpacees: Taxonomie-Phylogenie-Ecologie, Memoires du Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, serie B, Botanique 26, 76–80. Editions du Museum, Paris.
- BROCK, A. 1981. Paleomagnetism of Africa and Madagascar. In M. W. McElhinney and D. A. Valencio [eds.], Paleoreconstruction of the continents. United States Geological Survey Geodynamics Series 2: 65–76.
- Chase, M. W., et al. 1993. Phylogenetics of seed plants: an analysis of nucleotide sequences from the plastid gene *rbcL*. *Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden* 80: 528–580.
- CHIARUGI, A. 1933. Legni fossili della Somalia Italiana. Palaeontographia Italia 32: 106–118.
- CONTI, E., A. LITT, AND K. J. SYTSMA. 1996. Circumscription of Myrtales and their relationship to other Rosids: evidence from *rbcL* sequence data. *American Journal of Botany* 83: 221–233.
- CORNER, E. J. H. 1946. Centrifugal stamens. Journal of the Arnold Arboretum 27: 423–437.
- ——. 1976. The seeds of dicotyledons. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- CROIZAT, L. 1952. Thoughts on high systematics, phylogeny and floral morphology with a note on the origin of Angiospermae. *Candollea* 19: 17–96.
- 1964. Manual of phytogeography. The Hague, The Netherlands.
- CRONQUIST, A. 1981. An integrated system of classification of flowering plants. Columbia University Press, New York, NY.
- ——. 1988. The evolution and classification of flowering plants. Columbia University Press, New York, NY.
- Dahlgren, R. 1983. General aspects of angiosperm evolution and macrosystematics. *Nordic Journal of Botany* 3: 119–149.
- . 1989. The last Dahlgrenogram: system of classification of the Dicotyledons. *In* K. Tan, R. R. Mill, and T. S. Elias [eds.], Plant taxonomy, phytogeography and related subjects, 249–260. Edinburgh University, Edinburgh.
- DAYANANDAN, S. 1996. Phylogeny of the tropical tree family Dipterocarpaceae based on nucleotide sequences of the chloroplast *rbcL* gene and morphology. Ph.D. dissertation, Boston University, Boston, MA.
- ——, D. N. C. ATTYGALLE, L. ABEYGUNASEKERA, C. V. S. GUNATIL-LEKE, AND I. A. U. N. GUNATILLEKE. 1990. Phenology and floral morphology in relation to pollination of Sri Lankan dipterocarps. *In* K. S. Bawa and M. Hadley [eds.], Reproductive ecology of tropical forest plants. UNESCO, Paris and Parthenon Publishing, Carnforth.
- ———, K. S. BAWA, AND R. V. KESSELI. 1997. Conservation of microsatellites among tropical trees (Leguminosae). *American Journal of Botany* 84: 1658–1663.
- De Candolle, A. P. 1868. Prodromus systematis naturalis regni vegetabilis, sieve enumeratio contracta ordinum generum specierumque plantarum huc usque cognitarium, juxta methodi naturalis, normas digesta. Parisii, Sumptibus Sociorum Treuttel et Wurtz.
- DOYLE, J. J., AND J. L. DOYLE. 1987. A rapid DNA isolation procedure for small quantities of fresh leaf tissue. *Phytochemical Bulletin* 19: 11–15.
- ENDLICHER, S. 1840. Genera planatarum. Vindobonae, Apud Fr. Beck Universitatis Bibliopolam. p. 1012.
- GILG, E. 1925. Dipterocarpaceae in Engler. Naturlichen Pflanzenfamilien., 121: 237–269.
- GOTWALD, H., AND N. PARAMESWARAN. 1966. Das sekunddare Xylem der Familie Dipterocarpaceae. Anatomische Untersuchungen zur Taxonomie und Phylogenie. Botanische Jahrbucher. 85: 410–508.
- HALLIER, H. 1912. L'origine et le systeme phyletique des angiospermes

- exposes a l'aide de leur arbre genealogique. Archives neerlandaises des sciences exactes et naturelles 3B 1: 146.
- HEIM, F. 1892. Recherches sur les Dipterocarpacees, 1–186. Ph.D. dissertation, à la faculte des sciences de Paris.
- HUTCHINSON, J. 1926. The families of flowering plants. Macmillan, London.
- JONG, K., AND A. KAUR. 1979. A cytotaxonomic view of Dipterocarpaceae with some comments on polyploidy and apomixis. *In* G. Maury-Lechon [ed.], Dipterocarpacees: Taxonomic-Phylogenic-Ecologie, Memoires du Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, serie B, Botanique 26, 41–49. Editions du Museum, Paris.
- KLOOTWIJK, C. T., AND C. RADHAKRISHNAMOORTHY. 1981. Phanerozoic paleomaganetism of the Indian Plate and the Indian Asia collision. In M. W. McElhinny and D. A. Valencio [eds.], Paleoreconstruction of the continents. United States Geologic Survey Geodynamic series 2: 93–105.
- KOSTERMANS, A. J. G. H. 1985. Family status for the Monotoideae Gilg. and the Pakaraimoideae Ashton, Maguire and de Zeeuw (Dipterocarpaceae). *Taxon* 34: 426–435.
- 1987. The genera Sunaptea (Griff.) and Cotylelobium (Pierre) (Dipterocarpaceae). In A. J. G. H. Kostermans [ed.], Proceedings of the Third Round Table Conference on Dipterocarps, 603–627. UNESCO, Paris.
- . 1989. Monotaceae, a new family allied to Tiliaceae. *Taxon* 38: 123–124.
- . 1992. A handbook of the Dipterocarpaceae of Sri Lanka. Wildlife Heritage Trust of Sri Lanka. Colombo.
- LAKANPAL, R. N. 1970. Tertiary floras of India and their bearing on the historical geology of the region. *Taxon* 19: 675–694.
- LINDLEY, J. 1846. The vegetable kingdom. Bradbury and Evans, London.
- LONDONO, A. C., E. ALVAREZ, E. FORERO, AND C. M. MORTON. 1995.
  A new genus and species of Dipterocarpaceae from the Neotropics.
  I. Introduction, taxonomy, ecology and distribution. *Brittonia* 47: 225–236
- MADDISON, W. P., AND D. R. MADDISON. 1993. MacClade: analysis of phylogeny and character evolution, version 3.04. Sinauer, Sunderland, MA.
- MAGUIRE, B. P. C., AND P. S. ASHTON. 1977. Pakaramoideae, Dipterocarpaceae of the western hemisphere II. Systematic, geographic, and phyletic considerations. *Taxon* 26: 359–368.
- ——, ——, D. E. GIANNASI, K. J. NIKLAS, AND C. DE ZEEUW. 1977. Pakaramoideae, Dipterocarpaceae of the western hemisphere. *Taxon* 26: 341–385.
- MAURY, G. 1978. Dipterocarpacees: du fruit à la plantule. Ph.D. dissertation. Université Paul Sabatier, Toulouse.
- . 1979. Interpretation Phylogenique des caracters des pollens, fruits-germinations, Embryos et plantules des Dipterocarpacees. *In* G. Maury-Lechon [ed.], Dipterocarpacees: Taxonomie-Phylogenie-Ecologie, Memoires du Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, serie B, Botanique 26, 139–144. Editions du Museum, Paris.
- MEHER-НОМЛ, V. M. 1979. Distribution of Dipterocarpaceae: some phytogeographic considerations on India. *Phytocoenologia* 6: 85–93.
- Meijer, W. 1979. Taxonomic studies in the genus *Dipterocarpus. In* G. Maury-Lechon [ed.], Dipterocarpacees: Taxonomie Phylogenie-Ecologie, Memoires du Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, serie B, Botanique 26, 50–56. Editions du Museum, Paris.
- Merrill, E. D. 1923. Distribution of the Dipterocarpaceae. *Philipine Journal of Science* 23: 1–32.
- MORTON, C. M. 1995. A new genus and species of Dipterocarpaceae from the Neotropics. II. Stem anatomy. *Brittonia* 47: 237–247.
- OURISSON, G. 1979. Chimie-taxonomie des Dipterocarpacees. In G. Maury-Lechon [ed.], Dipterocarpacees: Taxonomie-Phylogenie-Ecologie, Memoires du Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, serie B, Botanique 26, 57–67. Editions du Museum, Paris.
- PARAMESWARAN, N., AND H. GOTWALD. 1979. Problematic taxa in the Dipterocarpaceae. Their anatomy and taxonomy. *In* G. Maury-Lechon [ed.], Dipterocarpacees: Taxonomie-Phylogenie-Ecologie, Memoires du Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle, serie B, Botanique 26, 69–75. Editions du Museum, Paris.
- Prakash, U. 1972. Palaeoenvironmental analysis of Indian tertiary floras. *Geophytology* 2: 178–205.

- RAMANUJAN, C. G. K. 1968. Some observations on the flora of the Cuddalore Sandstone series: Cretaceous-Tertiary formations of south India. *Journal of Geological Society of India* 2: 271–285.
- SCLATER, J. G., AND C. G. A. HARRISON. 1971. Elevation of mid-ocean ridges and the evolution of the southwest Indian ridge. *Nature* 230: 175–177.
- SWOFFORD, D. L. 1993. PAUP: phylogenetic analysis using parsimony, version 3.1.1. Illinois Natural History Survey, Champaign, IL.
- ——, AND D. P. BEGLE. 1993. PAUP: phylogenetic analysis using parsimony, user's manual. Laboratory of Molecular Systematics, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC.
- THORNE, R. F. 1992. An updated phylogenetic classification of the flowering plants. *Aliso* 13: 365–389.
- WETTSTEIN, R. 1935. Handbuch der systematischen Botanik. Leipzig. WHITMORE, T. C. 1962. Studies in systematic bark morphology. III. Bark taxonomy in Dipterocarpaceae. *Gardens Bulletin, Singapore* 19: 321–371.
- ZURAWSKI, G., M. T. CLEGG, AND A. H. D. Brown. 1984. The nature of nucleotide sequence divergence between barley and maize chloroplast DNA. *Genetics* 106: 735–749.
- , B. Perrot, W. Bottomley, and P. R. Whitfield. 1981. The structure of the gene for the large subunit of ribulose 1–5 bisphosphate carboxylase from spinach chloroplast DNA. *Nucleic Acids Research* 14: 3251–3270.
- —, AND M. T. CLEGG. 1987. Evolution of higher plant chloroplast DNA-encoded genes: implications for structure-function and phylogenetic studies. *Annual Review of Plant Physiology* 38: 391–418.