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- 1 Morphological and anatomical evolution of species of *Valeriana* (Caprifoliaceae) during
- 2 the uplifting of the Andean range
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14 ABSTRACT:

Andean species of Valeriana are frequently pointed to as an example of island woodiness, 15 i.e., plants of herbaceous ancestors usually evolve woodier forms on islands. We investigated 16 the phenomenon through morphoanatomical and phylogenetic analyses. Plants were collected 17 in the Páramos of Ecuador and had their vegetative morphology described. Stems were 18 sectioned for histological analyses of their anatomy. We mapped the morphoanatomical data 19 plus the maximum reported size for these species and other of the genus, on phylogenetic 20 trees reconstructed based on previously published sequences. Bigger than their Holarctic 21 22 counterparts, the ancestor of the South American Valeriana was likely to have had a maximum of 132 cm, and then after evolved to bigger and smaller sizes in a pattern similar to 23 Brownian motion, as supported by phylogenetic signal values. We classified the collected 24 25 plants into six growth forms (rosette herbs, semirosette herbs, elevated rosettes, elevated semirosettes, shrubs, and lianas), that are not directly related to variable levels of woodiness, 26 as pointed by our histological analyses. However, the production of unlignified parenchyma 27 in the wood is very frequent, except in older regions of shrubs. The ancestor of the South 28 American Valeriana is also very likely to have unlignified parenchyma in its wood. 29

30

KEY WORDS: cambial variant - habits - growth forms - island woodiness - plant anatomy reconstruction of ancestral character states - tropical alpine - unlignified parenchyma - wood
 anatomy

34 INTRODUCTION

Darwin (1859) was one of the first to recognize that representatives of predominantly 35 herbaceous groups are usually more woody on islands, a phenomenon known as insular 36 woodiness described by several authors (Carlquist, 1965, 1974; Dulin & Kirchoff, 2010). 37 Insular woodiness may be identified as relictual or secondary (Carlquist, 1974; Dulin & 38 Kirchoff, 2010), depending on whether the plants are descendants from a continental woody 39 ancestor or the woodiness on the island evolved from a herbaceous ancestor, respectively. 40 Thus, relictual woodiness should be interpreted as a plesiomorphic state and secondary 41 42 woodiness should be interpreted as an apomorphic state (Dulin & Kirchoff, 2010). Nürk et al. (2019) show that secondary woodiness can be a key innovation for plants that can drive 43 diversification in island ecosystems. At least 175 evolutionary transitions occurred in islands, 44 indicating that secondary woodiness represents a remarkable aspect of different insular floras 45 (Zizka et al., 2022). 46

The reasons for the secondary origin of woodiness are explained by several hypotheses, 47 among others: climatic mitigation and seasonal release, absence of large herbivores, ecological 48 shift in the transition to forest habitats on some islands, gaining competitive advantage by 49 growing taller and increasing longevity (reviewed in detail by Carlquist, 1974 and by Dulin 50 and Kirchoff, 2010). Zizka et al. (2022) identified reduced herbivory, increased drought, and 51 isolation as the main factors correlated with woodiness in continental islands. Biddick and 52 Burns (2021) propose a mechanism independent of natural selection and explain evolutionary 53 changes in plant size from the islands of the Southwest Pacific by an evolutionary drift, with 54 larger sizes related to woody growth forms. The listed factors are not mutually exclusive and 55 may work together or independently in different taxonomical groups as was suggested for the 56 flora of Canary Island, where 38 independent shifts toward insular woodiness occurred in 57 plants of 15 families (Lens et al., 2013). One of the genera studied by Lens et al. (2013) is 58

Pterocephalus Vaill. ex Adans. (Caprifoliaceae), an oriental group from the same family of the
valerians, plants that are reported as a good example of island woodiness in South America
(Carlquist, 1974; Nürk *et al.*, 2019). However, a work similar to Lens *et al.* (2013) is still
missing for plants in the New World.

The subfamily Valerianoideae Raf. (Caprifoliaceae), formerly known as Valerianaceae 63 64 Batsch, comprises five genera and ca. 400 species, present mainly in the northern hemisphere and the mountains of South America (Weberling & Bittrich, 2016). Valerianoideae represents 65 the most extensive radiation in Dipsacales, mainly in South America (Bell & Donoghue, 66 2005a,b) which hosts about 250 species of this group (Bell et al., 2012). Eriksen (1989) points 67 out that the largest genus, Valeriana L., has most species in South and South America, with a 68 center of diversity along the Andes. The work of Eriksen (1989) itself is one of the greatest 69 70 contributions to the knowledge of the species from South America, detailing the occurrence and morphology of several species from Ecuador. This diversity is often overlooked, since 71 Valerianoideae has often been considered annuals and herbaceous, based on the morphology 72 of plants from the Northern hemisphere (Stevens, 2001; Lee et al., 2021). However, more 73 detailed plant lists point to the presence of perennial growth forms, such as shrubs and scandent 74 75 plants, in the Andean Valeriana L. (Eriksen, 1989; Bell et al., 2012; Weberling & Bittrich, 76 2016).

The colonization of the high Andes is comparable to the colonization of a newly created island system (Vuilleumier, 1970; Smith & Young, 1987; Dulin & Kirchoff, 2010; Nürk *et al.*, 2019), as the mountain range is isolated and has similar patterns of diversification compared to the oceanic islands, potentially driving species radiations (Nürk *et al.*, 2019). It is therefore not surprising that *Valeriana* in the Andes, with its more woody representatives, is described as an example of island woodiness (Carlquist, 1974; Nürk *et al.*, 2019). One rapid radiation of Andean *Valeriana* possibly occurred in the Páramo region with a calculated diversification rate of 0.8-1.34 species per Myr (million years), a period related to the uplift of the Andes (Bell &
Donoghue, 2005b).

The Páramo is a neotropical high mountain ecosystem that concentrates around 6.7% 86 of the endemic plant species of the world (Chuncho Morocho & Chuncho, 2019). The 87 vegetation comprises mainly a gramineous covering, stemmed and acaulescent rosette plants, 88 and cushion plants usually associated with peat bog, occurring above forests and below 89 regional snowlines (Lauer, 1981; Rada et al., 2019). Its origin is related to a rapid rise of the 90 Andes accentuated between 2 and 5 Ma (Gregory-Wodzicki, 2000; Llambí & Soto-W, 2012), 91 92 occurring mostly in elevations between 3200 and 4000 m above sea level, but sometimes reaching altitudes exceeding 4700 m (Lauer, 1981). This environment reaches freezing 93 temperatures during the night, and high temperatures during the day, reaching 30°C in some 94 95 locations, varying according to the elevation, with a yearly average temperature between 2° and 10°C, and a yearly precipitation that may vary between 500 mm in dry regions and more 96 than 4000 mm in wet regions (Lauer, 1981; Luteyn, 1999; Llambí & Soto-W, 2012). The 97 regions that receive humidity from the Amazon and the Orinoco basins, as well as from the 98 tropical convergence zone, are very humid and have low pluvial seasonality (e.g., páramos of 99 100 Colombia and northwest Ecuador). However, the North of the Andes of Venezuela, Colombia, 101 and Cota Rica has a well-marked dry season (Llambí & Soto-W, 2012).

102 Phylogenetic studies of South American *Valerianoideae* (Bell *et al.*, 2012, 2015) and 103 their relationships with other Caprifoliaceae (Lee *et al.*, 2021) based on molecular data 104 reinforce the relatedness and recent diversification of South American *Valeriana*. Growth 105 forms of South American *Valeriana* species are generally mentioned in the descriptive 106 literature, although sometimes only in a general way. For this reason, growth forms frequently 107 need to be deducted from illustrations without a textual description (Meyer, 1951; Eriksen, 108 1989 are examples of descriptions with good supporting pictures), and sometimes not 109 consistent between sources. Wood anatomy studies of these South American plants are mostly lacking, with a few exceptions (Lörcher & Weberling, 1982, 1985; Bach et al., 2014, 2020) 110 which report various patterns of anomalous growth with successive cambia and a large non-111 fibrous phloem and parenchyma production. These descriptions show high contrast with 112 Valerianoideae species in the Northern Hemisphere, which are characterized by the regular 113 eustelic organization with a single cambium producing inner secondary xylem and outer 114 secondary phloem, with xylem parenchyma scant or absent (Solereder, 1908; Metcalfe & 115 Chalk, 1957). A detailed study on the anatomy of South American Valerianoideae is necessary 116 117 since wood anatomy has been proven to be an important source of data for studying evolution (Carlquist, 1980; Onyenedum & Pace, 2021), including its relatedness with specific growth 118 forms (Angyalossy et al., 2012; Pace & Angyalossy, 2013). 119

120 In this study, we propose the use of Valeriana as a model group to improve the knowledge about the evolution of different growth forms, including woody ones, in insular 121 environments. Therefore, to better understand the structural changes related to the rapid 122 diversification of Valerianoideae, we present an investigation of how morphology evolved in 123 Valeriana from equatorial South America, mainly centered on three topics: (i) how the size of 124 125 the aboveground part of the plants evolved in the group, (ii) a detailed study of the growth forms found in representatives of the Páramos, (iii) a detailed anatomical study of these 126 127 representatives, verifying if the different growth forms are explainable by differential levels of secondary growth. At first, we hypothesized to find an overall increase of lignified tissues and 128 taller plants along the phylogeny of the group, as predicted by the phenomenon of island 129 woodiness. However, our analyses revealed the presence of many complex patterns of wood 130 131 anatomy related to the presence of non-lignified tissues and the evolution of taller and shorter plants from a relatively tall ancestor. 132

133

134 MATERIAL AND METHODS

Plant collection and morphological analyses— Species were sampled in natural stands of Páramo in Ecuador (Table I). Each specimen was dug out of the soil with care to obtain all belowground coarse organs (roots and stems). In the laboratory, plants were evaluated for their morphology and anatomical samples were obtained as stem sections from the oldest and youngest parts of the perennial stem, labeled and stored in 50% ethanol.

All plants were perennial having persisting stems aboveground and/or belowground. In order to classify the diversity of growth forms in different categories, we generated the following identification key, based on previous descriptions of *Valeriana* in the Páramo (Eriksen, 1989), and the criteria for basic architectural models described by Klimešova (2018), in order to minimize inconsistences, although some individuals may slightly deviate from the classification. The growth form was assessed according to the following key, using exclusively macromorphological structures:

147	1.	Non-persisting aboveground stems, usually green, perennial structures present only in
148		the belowground stem2
149		Aboveground stem persisting
150	2.	Foliage leaves exclusively in a rosulate arrangement, flowering shoots of axillary or
151		terminal positionRosette herb
152		Foliage leaves in a rosulate arrangement, but not exclusively, foliage leaves also present
153		in a flowering erect shoot of apical position Semirosette herb
154	3.	Foliage leaves exclusively in a rosulate arrangement elevated by a single trunk-like
155		perennial stem aboveground, with axillary flowering shoots Elevated rosette
156		Foliage leaves not exclusively in a rosulate arrangement, multi-stemmed perennial
157		regions, presence of apical flowering shoots4

158	4.	Flowering shoots of apical origin not persisting, new branches grow sympodially from
159		axillary partsElevated semirosette
160		Flowering shoots of apical origin loses only inflorescences, keeping persisting
161		vegetative axes
162	5.	Erect plant with rigid stems, ramified near the base Shrub
163		Leaning to climbing plant with voluble stemLiana

Anatomical analyses— From the material fixed in 50% ethanol, we isolated the youngest and oldest regions of perennial stems. The material was directly sectioned transversally in a sliding microtome and double-stained with Astra-blue and safranin (Bukatsch, 1972). Permanent slides were observed and photographed in an Olympus BX53 microscope with an Olympus DP73 camera attached.

169 Phylogenetic analyses— Sequence data were recovered from data available in the two more recent phylogenies of South American Valerianoideae and related species to be used as 170 171 outgroups (Bell et al., 2012, 2015). The descriptive literature for all the plants was extensively searched for maximum sizes reported for aboveground plants (height or total length in the case 172 of climbing plants). As a conservative approach, we rounded down to five meters in cases 173 where the descriptions state "several meters". Synonyms were checked on Tropicos.org 174 (Missouri Botanical Garden, 2021). One voucher per species was selected based on the 175 occurrence of most of the analyzed molecular markers and the availability of size data. By the 176 end, we generated a matrix with 130 vouchers and six markers: the nuclear ribosomal ITS, and 177 cpDNA sequences of trnG, psbM-trnD, accD, ndhJ, and ycf5. Vouchers, sequence accession 178 numbers, and references for the maximum reported sizes are available in Supplementary 179 Material (Appendix 1). Sequences were aligned with MAFFT ver. 7 (Katoh & Standley, 2013) 180 and manually adjusted and concatenated in Geneious ver. R10 (Kearse et al., 2012), producing 181 a matrix of 130 taxa and 3235 characters (available as Supplementary Material as Appendix 182

2). The best partition scheme and model of evolution were selected with PartitionFinder ver. 2 183 (Lanfear et al., 2016), which detected three partitions (first: ndhJ+accD+ycf5+psbMtrnD; 184 second: ITS; and third: trnG) and GTR+ Γ +I as the best model for all of them. A maximum-185 186 likelihood tree (ML) was produced with these parameters in RAxML ver. 8 (Stamatakis, 2014) on Cipres (Miller et al., 2010). For support analysis, we ran 1000 bootstrap replications. This 187 tree was used to create an ultrametric tree using the RelTime method (Tamura et al., 2012, 188 2018), implemented in MEGA ver. 11 (Kumar et al., 2018; Mello, 2018), using the values 189 calculated for the origin of Valerianoideae, 50-58 Myr old to calibrate the analysis (Lee et al., 190 191 2021) and the model GTR+ Γ +I. For ancestral character reconstruction of plant size, we used the function "fastANC", a function that performs (reasonably) fast estimation of the ML 192 ancestral states for continuous traits, of the package phytools, ver. 1.0-3 (Revell, 2012) for R 193 194 ver. 4.1.3 (R Core Team, 2020), and K-values for phylogenetic signal (Blomberg et al., 2003) 195 were calculated with the function "multiPhylosignal" of the package picante 1.8.2 (Kembel et al., 2010). A phylogeny with fewer terminals and more molecular markers was produced for 196 plants with available anatomical data, some of them without size data available, in order to 197 reconstruct the evolution of growth forms and anatomy in these plants. We used all vouchers 198 included in the previous phylogenetic analyses (Bell et al., 2012, 2015) for Valeriana 199 officinalis (outgroup), Valeriana adscendens, Valeriana convallarioides, Valeriana hirtella, 200 Valeriana microphylla, Valeriana pilosa, Valeriana plantaginea, Valeriana rigida, Valeriana 201 202 tatamana. ITS, Agt1, Chlp, Hmgs, accD, Matk-trnK intron, ndhJ, psbM-trnD, rpoC1, trnG, ycf5, trnL-F, and psbA-trnH intergenic space were aligned with MAFFT ver. 7 (Katoh & 203 Standley, 2013) and manually adjusted and concatenated in Geneious ver. R10 (Kearse et al., 204 205 2012). A ML tree was produced with RAxML ver. 8 (Stamatakis, 2014) based on the best partition scheme and models selected with PartitionFinder ver. 2. The habit and anatomy 206 evolution was optimized in this tree with Mesquite ver. 3.7 (Maddison & Maddison, 2019) with 207

the maximum likelihood criterium and the Markov k-state 1 parameter model. These data arecompiled as supplementary material (Appendix 3).

210

211 RESULTS

In the broader phylogenetic analysis (Fig. 1, Appendix 4), we reconstructed that the 212 common ancestor of the South-American clade lived ca 14.51 (9.12 – 22.68, 95% confidence 213 214 interval) Myr and reached 132 cm tall of maximum size (Fig. 1, Appendix 5). Inside this group, the size of different lineages decreased or increased, so several processes of gigantism and 215 216 dwarfism occurred secondarily in the group. We calculated a K-value of 0.92 for the phylogenetic signal for the South America clade, only slightly larger than 0.87 for the core 217 Valeriana clade (the sister-group of Centranthus), but very distinct from 0.26 calculated for all 218 Valerianoideae (P-values = 0.001 for all the analyses). Thus, the size of *Valeriana*, especially 219 species of the South-American clade, evolved in a pattern similar to what is expected in a 220 221 Brownian pattern (values close to 1.0), when compared with their relatives elsewhere.

According to their architecture, the collected plants were classified into different growth forms. All plants have a perennial woody region at the base and a transient part at the tip of the shoots. The perennial region may be located aboveground or belowground, and the transient region is always aboveground, bearing leaves and inflorescences. For the six identified morphologies, as represented in Fig. 2, we have additional observations for the analyzed specimens:

Rosette herbs always present a perennial belowground stem. *Valeriana alypifolia* was
 reported to have perennial stems aboveground forming a cushion (Eriksen, 1989), but
 we have not observed this growth form.

Semirosette herbs have a perennial belowground stem, with sympodial branching.
 Some specimens were observed having part of perennial stem aboveground in some localities.

Elevated rosettes have the main stem covered by remnants of old leaves, and may be
 massive, resembling a small *Espeletia* (a genus of Asteraceae that is a notable part of
 the Páramos landscapes, a silhouette of this plant is shown as a phorophyte for the liana
 on Fig. 2).

Elevated rosettes, elevated semirosettes, shrubs, and lianas do not have belowground
 stems.

• Lianas are highly branched at distinct levels.

Concerning the anatomy, all analyzed regions are stems (Fig 3), with the typical 241 endarch xylem (protoxylem occurring towards the center, Figs. 4a-b). The elevated semirosette 242 Valeriana tatamana is the only plant that does not form a cambium in the young regions. All 243 other plants show diverse levels of woodiness (i.e., secondary growth, with a cambium 244 producing secondary xylem) in the examined regions, even when the plants were recognized 245 as herbs in their growth form. The youngest part of the perennial stem presents the typical 246 conformation of a eudicot with a fibrous wood, i.e., secondary xylem mostly composed of 247 fibers, tracheary elements, and other lignified cells (Gibson, 1973; Melo-De-Pinna, 2009), with 248 few unlignified (and mainly parenchymatic) cells (Fig 4a). Unlignified parenchyma occurs in 249 250 the leaf gaps, the portions that interrupt the vascular cylinder in the divergence of leaf vascular traces at the nodal regions of the stem (Figs. 4c-d). Considering that the nodes are condensed 251 at the rosulate regions, these gaps are common. They are not anatomically part of the wood, 252 253 since they are a product of primary and non-vascular growth (derived from the shoot apical meristem), not the vascular cambium. The installation of the cambium starts in the fascicular 254 region, followed by the interfascicular cambium (Fig. 4e). 255

256 In the oldest part of the perennial stems, the initial wood usually keeps this same structure, suggesting the maintenance of the initial program of secondary development through 257 the organ. However, in most species, after this initial wood, a process of parenchyma 258 proliferation is evident during the late development of the secondary xylem. In these species, 259 the axial or radial structure of the wood comprises large portions of unlignified parenchyma. 260 Based on these structural changes and the differences between them, we detected five different 261 anatomical organizations related to their secondary growth, described below, and illustrated in 262 Fig. 3: 263

- Type 1: cambium mostly producing lignified cells centripetally (fibrous wood), with absent or very low proportions of unlignified axial parenchyma.
- Type 2: cambium producing axial and radial system with portions of lignified parenchyma alternating with unlignified parenchyma.
- Type 3: cambium producing unlignified parenchyma, mainly in rays.
- Type 4: successive cambia and inner phloem, with many portions of unlignified parenchyma.

We also registered the condition where no cambial activity is present, wood thus absent, with well-developed primary xylem and lignification on the pith. The vascular bundles are closed, i.e., without procambial cells that may give origin to a fascicular cambium.

Type 2 is present in all semirosette herbs, as well as in representatives of the other growth forms. In this type, portions of the cambium change their activity from producing lignified cells to production of unlignified parenchyma and vice versa (Fig. 5). These plants may either have a reduced cortical region, as in *Valeriana pilosa* (Fig. 5a) or a prominent cortical region, as in *Valeriana plantaginea* (Fig. 5b).

Most shrub species produce type 1 wood for a longer time, later changing to type 3 279 (Fig. 6). The exceptions are Valeriana imbricata that changes from type 1 to type 2 when older, 280 and Valeriana sp. nov. that has type 2 wood in both young and old stems. In the majority of 281 282 these plants, a considerable number of lignified elements are produced at first, possibly being responsible for the establishment of the structural function of the xylem, before the formation 283 of unlignified portions of radial parenchyma. This change is abrupt in V. buxifolia (Fig. 6a), 284 forming large portions of unlignified parenchyma. These portions are less prominent in V. 285 hirtella and V. microphylla (Figs. 6b-c), which have narrower rays. The phloem in these species 286 287 may present similar activity (Fig. 6d), although its more detailed structure could not be recovered in most samples. In Valeriana buxifolia, non-lignification is restricted to the rays 288 (Fig. 6e). 289

Apart from the general patterns, some of the analyzed species deserve special attentionin their description since they differ significantly from all the others in their anatomy.

The liana *Valeriana tomentosa* (Fig. 7) has its old stems nested within the type 3 anatomy, but with an interesting variation in the lignified portions of the wood. In some branches, the structure is similar to the other type 3 species (Figs. 7a-b). In other branches, there are many unlignified parenchymatic cells within portions with lignified elements, although the cambium also produces portions with exclusively unlignified cells (Figs. 7c-d).

The elevated rosette *Valeriana convallarioides* (Fig. 8) presents a cambial variant in all the analyzed stages. Even the young region (Fig. 8a) of the perennial stems has a complex production of secondary tissue with many unlignified cells. The inner part of the vascular cylinder has a cambium (Fig. 8b) that produces small islands of phloem (Fig. 8c), surrounded by the parenchymatic tissue. There are also several successive and not contiguous cambia producing external phloem and internal xylem, both with large portions of unlignifiedparenchyma (Fig. 8d).

The elevated semirosette *Valeriana tatamana* (Fig. 9) has its young portion completely devoid of cambial cells (Fig. 9a). The primary vascular bundles of this region are closed, i.e., do not have procambial cells capable of producing fascicular cambium. This plant, however, has a well-marked lignification of the outer region of the pith, as well as big portions of the primary xylem (Fig. 9b).

Additional small anatomical descriptions are compiled in Fig. 10. Some interesting features are the lignified elements of wood formed only by tracheids in *Valeriana rigida* and the absence of fibers in *Valeriana tomentosa*. Even though, we describe the lignified part of the wood in these plants as fibrous (in accord with Gibson, 1973).

In the more restricted phylogenetic analysis (Appendix 3), species that are represented 313 by more than one voucher form a single clade, except V. pilosa and V. plantaginea. These 314 plants are sustained by short branches and low support values, indicating that the four analyzed 315 vouchers are closely related and possibly the same species. In the reconstruction of ancestral 316 317 character states (Fig. 11), we found an ambiguous result for growth form in the most recent ancestral taxon of the Ecuadorian Valeriana, i.e., it may have been of any of the analyzed states. 318 However, for the anatomy, type 2 (0.41) or type 3 (0.45), forms with unlignified parenchyma 319 320 in the xylem, were reconstructed as being as more likely to have been present in the old region of the perennial stem of this ancestor. The common ancestral of V. convallarioides and V. rigida 321 is more likely to have had the type 2 anatomy (0.44). Thus, the type 4 present in V. 322 323 convallarioides is probably derived from type 2, by the origin of additional cambia and the formation of inner phloem. The remaining Valeriana forms a clade, with an ancestor likely to 324 have type 2 (0.39) or type 3 (0.50) anatomy. 325

326

327 DISCUSSION

As for our phylogenetic analysis, it mostly agrees with previous studies (Bell et al., 328 2012, 2015). However, the relationship between V. plantaginea and V. pilosa needs to be 329 discussed in detail. According to Eriksen (1989), V. plantaginea can approach V. pilosa in 330 appearance at low altitudes and on waterlogged soils. In the provided identification key, the 331 plants differ only in bracts and the rough appearance of V. plantaginea versus the slender 332 appearance of V. pilosa. As the two species do not differ in many aspects (including anatomy 333 and general morphology in some environments) and are so interconnected in their phylogenetic 334 position, special attention should be paid to these two species in future taxonomic revisions of 335 the group. 336

We found that speciation of Valeriana in Páramos resulted in a more variable structural 337 organization in plants, including extremes sizes for the whole genus (from cushion plants to 338 several-meters lianas). Instead of the expected increase in sizes from a small ancestor, we 339 detected the evolution of shorter and much taller forms from an already tall ancestor, when 340 341 compared with its counterparts in other regions. Moreover, we did not find a simple relation between growth form and anatomy. Instead of an increase in lignified tissues, we registered a 342 very diverse organization of unlignified tissues in the wood of plants with different habits. The 343 344 functional role of lignification in providing support for the plant could only be associated with most shrub species. These species produce young shoots with the rigid tissue necessary for 345 upright growth but produce less rigid tissues when older. The developmental alternation 346 347 between lignified and unlignified tissues may be the expression of a trade-off between storage (better provided by the unlignified parenchyma) and structural rigidity (better provided by the 348 lignified cells). 349

350

351 *Plant size and growth forms*

The South American Valeriana has undergone a rapid diversification over the past 10 352 million years (Bell et al., 2012), among other clades that represent at least three introductions 353 354 on the South American continent (Bell & Donoghue, 2005b; Bell et al., 2012, 2015). Our main finding about the evolution of plant size is that the Andean plants' ancestor was likely to have 355 been taller than their relatives before the rapid rise of the Andes. Even if these numbers are 356 underestimated (since we rounded down maximum sizes to five meters), these plants were still 357 estimated to have been taller than the ancestors of all other clades of the subfamily. And since 358 this possible ancestor of up to 132 cm in height, several events of increase and decrease in size 359 360 probably happened. Valeriana is often cited as an example of island woodiness (Carlquist, 361 1974; Nürk et al., 2019), however, the presence of very small herbaceous plants (few centimeters, including cushion-like forms) along tall woody plants is often not considered in 362 these studies. Our results revealing random evolutionary drift in plant size (K-values close to 363 1.0) are similar to findings by Biddick & Burns (2021) and are, rather than the classical example 364 of island woodiness, an example of a broader "island rule" that explains variations in size 365 (Biddick et al., 2019). According to this rule, small species become larger and larger species 366 become smaller in islands, and Biddick & Burns (2021) point evolutionary drift as a cause for 367 this phenomenon. 368

The species radiation in *Valeriana* into the Páramos does not appear to have been controlled by selection for larger and more lignified growth forms, but rather by release from restrictions that prohibited independent variation of anatomical and morphological features. For example, some plants may have been restricted in a more seasonal or hostile environment in the past, needing adaptations such as root contraction to keep the vegetative apical meristem 374 close to the soil surface (Wilson & Anderson, 1979; Stevenson, 1980; Cyr et al., 1988), shortening of internodes to produce basal rosettes and prolongation of internodes when apical 375 meristems transfer to the flowering phase (Kawamura et al., 2011; McKim, 2020). Such 376 restriction may be necessary to reconcile every developmental step in the life of the plant 377 growing in an environment under selective pressure but is removed when entering a less 378 seasonal or hostile environment. All of these steps can be triggered by a combination of external 379 and internal factors in seasonal climates such as day length, temperature changes, and plant 380 size. Plants coming to a less seasonal Páramo, for example, could have been released from 381 382 some of these external constraints so that in different genotypes or epitypes (these signals can be controlled genetically or epigenetically; Grimanelli and Roudier, 2013) there could be 383 greater variability in growth forms. The events under this hypothesis, together with the 384 385 stochastic model described by Biddick & Burns (2021), could have allowed these plants to independently gain incredible diversity in plant size, growth form, and anatomy found in the 386 group, as well in other plant groups, as happens with Lupinus L. in the Andes (Hughes & 387 Eastwood, 2006). 388

The diversity of habits among South American representatives of *Valeriana*, already 389 390 documented by some authors (Eriksen, 1989; Weberling & Bittrich, 2016) and organized by us in six different forms, can be perceived as variable and depending mainly on the position of 391 392 perennial organs and their branching patterns. The ambiguous result, in our reconstruction, for the growth form of the ancestor may have been caused by a rapid origin of these different forms 393 during a brief period of speciation in the group. Other possibilities may be our limited sampling 394 of the species within this big family, since the found likelihood values are not conclusive and 395 396 this diversification pattern may change if more data and sampling is available. In addition, more cryptical reasons for differences in growth forms may occur. In the case of V. alypifolia, 397

for example, we only rosette herbs, however bigger growth forms are described for the species
and they may be related to hybridization with *V. microphylla* (Eriksen, 1989).

During the diversification of the South American Valeriana, the Andean region did not 400 reach elevations above 3000 m, although extreme adaptations to frost may have occurred in 401 some areas above 2300 m (van der Hammen & Cleef, 1986; Boschman, 2021). The Páramos 402 palynological registry was rich in Poaceae and Asteraceae at the time, suggesting that open 403 vegetation predominated (van der Hammen & Cleef, 1986; Gregory-Wodzicki, 2000). Past and 404 recent climatic variability of the Andean Páramo, i.e., seasonality in the southern parts and 405 diurnal variations in the equatorial parts (Rada et al., 2019) may be the reason why the 406 ecosystem hosts a large variety of growth forms that can cope with harsh conditions. 407 Densifying the axis of the shoots into a rosette can protect young plant parts near the soil and 408 409 protect the apical meristem surrounded by leaves and underground axillary buds from frost in winter (temperate regions) or at night (elsewhere). These small plants are more decoupled from 410 air temperatures and usually keep their leaves warmer, while large stature is more coupled with 411 the atmosphere temperature (Sklenář et al., 2016). 412

413

414 *Plant anatomy and growth forms*

Although we hypothesized to find an overall increase of lignified tissues and taller plants along the phylogeny of the group, our analyses revealed the presence of many complex patterns of wood anatomy not coordinated with the growth forms. The most basic anatomical pattern that appears to be preserved in the youngest regions of the perennial stems of the studied species is a fibrous wood with small vessels and little or no parenchyma. This pattern is very similar to that described for Valerianaceae by Metcalfe & Chalk (1957), based on species in the Holarctic region, and can is interpreted by us as relating to support but of little importancefor storage in young tissues.

Previous studies examining the anatomy of the South American Valeriana (Lörcher & 423 Weberling, 1982, 1985; Bach et al., 2014) found different patterns of anomalous growth, with 424 successive cambia and large production of non-fibrous phloem and parenchyma, as we have 425 found. We found successive cambia and inner phloem in V. convallarioides as described for V. 426 condamoana, V. nivalis, V. pycnantha, and V. globularis (Lörcher & Weberling, 1982); V. 427 thalictroides and V. micropterina (Lörcher & Weberling, 1985); and V. carnosa and V. 428 clarinifolia (Bach et al., 2014). Maintaining the internal parts of the phloem may be useful to 429 protect the tissue from adverse environments, such as freezing temperatures or herbivores, 430 including aphids, which have been previously reported to attack the genus (Mooney et al., 431 432 2012; Sasaki, 2021). Because all these species have a rosulate leaf arrangement, these anatomical variants may complement the protection provided by their external morphology. 433 These cambial variants do not represent disordered growth and have a polyphyletic origin in 434 the angiosperms (Carlquist, 2001), and are particularly common in lianas (Angyalossy et al., 435 2012). Surprisingly, no cambial variants have been described for Valeriana lianas in this or 436 previous studies. 437

The scandent species *V. Tomentosa* analyzed by us shows the regular activity of a single cambium, producing outer phloem and inner xylem with a very persistent aboveground stem. The presence of many parts of unlignified parenchyma may be justified because this habit does not require supportive tissue since it grows on a phorophyte or other support. The presence of unlignified, soft elements blending with rigid elements is quite common in lianas (Angyalossy *et al.*, 2012; Bastos *et al.*, 2016) and is related to the flexibility and torsion resistance of these plants. However, this may be a secondary function, as the non-lianescent ancestor of this group already had these parts of unlignified wood. Thus, these large amounts of soft tissues may have
had another primary function during evolution, as storage tissue, for example.

Using different strategies of development, the older parts in most of the studied species 447 produce non-lignified elements in their secondary xylem. The vascular parenchyma is a storage 448 tissue (Evert, 2006; Appezzato-da-Glória, 2015) where unlignified cells not only store 449 carbohydrates but are readily permeable to their water-soluble forms. We can thus expect that 450 the main function of the non-fibrous Valeriana wood (types 2-4) is storage. However, the 451 occurrence of unlignified parenchyma in axial wood of angiosperms appears to be very limited, 452 including Cactaceae and Portulacaceae from very seasonal Brazilian semi-arid areas (Wheeler 453 et al., 1981, 2020; Melo-De-Pinna, 2009), which allows these plants store water and possibly 454 carbohydrates. A study of species of Senecio L. (Asteraceae) from the equatorial Andes, 455 456 revealed that in representatives of Páramo, hydraulic safety is preferable to efficient transportation, reflected by smaller tracheary elements, that are more resistant to cavitation 457 (Soukup et al., 2021). Valeriana also has small tracheary elements, and the presence of storage 458 tissue for water and solutes may help the conductivity regulation. 459

460

461 CONCLUSION

The genus *Valeriana* from Andean Páramos is a good example of insular rule where descendants of common ancestors are characterized by a large array of sizes, growth forms, and anatomy that are not perfectly coordinated together. Next studies should focus on additional regions of the South American Páramo and *Valeriana* of the cushion growth form (very small plants that form compact mats) which includes many described species that were missing among our samples. Moreover, a comparison of the growth forms and anatomy in more species may enlighten how the transition between so disparate patterns may have occurred oversuch a short period.

470

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481

482 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

JK, AK and PS collected the plants in Ecuador, JK analyzed the plants morphologically. PS
identified the plants. RC and JD conducted the anatomical analyses. RC conducted
phylogenetic analyses. All authors discussed the data and results, and contributed to the final
text of the manuscript.

487

488 DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Phylogenetic data, including accession numbers, alignments, and matrices are available assupporting material.

491 Table I. Collection details of the specimens collected in Ecuador between October and November of 2018. Detailed illustrations of plant

492 morphology are available upon request.

Species	Locality and	Voucher for population
Species	Locality and	voucher for population
	elevation (m)	
Valeriana adscendens Turcz.	Pato Cocha, 3500	PRC, Sklenár P., Ptácek J., Klimešova J., Klimeš A. 15545
Valeriana adscendens Turcz.	Guamaní, 4350	Spirit collection of Institute of Botany, Třeboň, Czech Republic
Valeriana alypifolia Kunth	Antisana, 4420	PRC, P. Sklenár & E. Duskova 12434
Valeriana buxifolia F.G. Mey.	Yacuri, 3400	PRC, Sklenár P., Ptácek J., Klimešova J., Klimeš A. 15691
Valeriana convallarioides (Schmale) B.B. Larsen	Yacuri, 3780	PRC, Sklenár P., Ptácek J., Klimešova J., Klimeš A. 15686
Valeriana hirtella Kunth	Tinajillas, 3430	PRC, Sklenár P., Ptácek J., Klimešova J., Klimeš A. 15507
Valeriana imbricata Killip	Cordoncillo, 3150	PRC, Sklenár P., Ptácek J., Klimešova J., Klimeš A. 15825
Valeriana microphylla Kunth	Guamaní, 4350	Spirit collection of Institute of Botany, Třeboň, Czech Republic
Valeriana pilosa Ruiz & Pav.	Guamaní, 4350	Spirit collection of Institute of Botany, Třeboň, Czech Republic
Valeriana plantaginea Kunth	Guamaní, 4350	Spirit collection of Institute of Botany, Třeboň, Czech Republic
Valeriana rigida Ruiz & Pav.	Antisana, 4420	PRC, Zeisek, V., Irazabel, J. V1
Valeriana tatamana Killip	Pato Cocha, 3500	PRC, Sklenár P., Ptácek J., Klimešova J., Klimeš A. 15659
Valeriana tatamana Killip	Yacuri, 3780	PRC, Sklenár P., Ptácek J., Klimešova J., Klimeš A. 15733
Valeriana tomentosa Kunth	Tinajillas, 3315	PRC, Sklenár P., Ptácek J., Klimešova J., Klimeš A. 15839
<i>Valeriana</i> sp. nov.	Yacuri, 3400	PRC, Sklenár P., Ptácek J., Klimešova J., Klimeš A. 15684

493

495	Figure 1. Maximum likelihood phylogeny of <i>Valerianoideae</i> , with branches colored
496	according to maximum likelihood estimation for plant size of ancestors. Occurrences are
497	detailed beside species names and, according to the legend. The ancestral of the South
498	American clade is pointed, with estimated age and size.
499	
500	Figure 2. Diversity of growth forms of the analyzed species of Valeriana, assessed by the
501	identification key found in the methods.
502	
503	Figure 3. Diversity of anatomical vascular structure in perennial stems of the analyzed
503 504	Figure 3. Diversity of anatomical vascular structure in perennial stems of the analyzed species of <i>Valeriana</i> , comparing young and old regions. Pairs of circles show combination of
503 504 505	Figure 3. Diversity of anatomical vascular structure in perennial stems of the analyzed species of <i>Valeriana</i> , comparing young and old regions. Pairs of circles show combination of types in individual species, upper circle: young part of the perennial stem; lower circle: old
503 504 505 506	Figure 3. Diversity of anatomical vascular structure in perennial stems of the analyzed species of <i>Valeriana</i> , comparing young and old regions. Pairs of circles show combination of types in individual species, upper circle: young part of the perennial stem; lower circle: old part of the perennial stem. Numbers between circles points with up/down arrows the types of
503 504 505 506 507	Figure 3. Diversity of anatomical vascular structure in perennial stems of the analyzed species of <i>Valeriana</i> , comparing young and old regions. Pairs of circles show combination of types in individual species, upper circle: young part of the perennial stem; lower circle: old part of the perennial stem. Numbers between circles points with up/down arrows the types of anatomical variation found in these plants.
503 504 505 506 507 508	Figure 3. Diversity of anatomical vascular structure in perennial stems of the analyzed species of <i>Valeriana</i> , comparing young and old regions. Pairs of circles show combination of types in individual species, upper circle: young part of the perennial stem; lower circle: old part of the perennial stem. Numbers between circles points with up/down arrows the types of anatomical variation found in these plants.
503 504 505 506 507 508	Figure 3. Diversity of anatomical vascular structure in perennial stems of the analyzed species of <i>Valeriana</i> , comparing young and old regions. Pairs of circles show combination of types in individual species, upper circle: young part of the perennial stem; lower circle: old part of the perennial stem. Numbers between circles points with up/down arrows the types of anatomical variation found in these plants. Figure 4. a-e. Structure of perennial stems of <i>Valeriana</i> . a. <i>Valeriana adscendens</i> , with

511 the pith (pi). **b.** *Valeriana tomentosa*. Detail of the xylem in a bundle, with protoxylem poles

512 (black arrowheads) in the opposite side of the cambium (white arrowhead) in the beginning

513 of its activity. **c-d.** *Valeriana alypifolia*. c. Presence of many parenchymatic gaps (white

arrowheads) related to the leaf traces (some of them pointed by black arrowheads) in the

- 515 condensed nodes of the rosette in the young region. **d.** Persistence of the leaf gaps structure in
- 516 older region (arrowheads). e. Valeriana adscendens. The activity of the fascicular cambium

517 (white arrowhead) precedes the installation of the fascicular cambium (black arrowhead).
518 Bars: a=100 μm; b=40 μm; c=300 μm; d=200 μm, e=150 μm.

519

Figure 5. a-b. Old region of perennial stems with the formation of portions of unlignified
parenchyma alternating with lignified elements (type 2). a. *Valeriana pilosa*. The axial
portion of the cambium interchanges its activity (the beginning of the region marked by
arrowheads) alternating portions of unlignified parenchyma (white arrowheads) and lignified
cells (black arrowheads). b. *Valeriana plantaginea*, a semirosette herb with type 2 anatomy in
the secondary xylem (2nd xy), with a considerable portion of phloem (ph) and cortical (co)
tissue. Bars: a=100 µm; b=400 µm.

527

Figure 6. a-e. Anatomy of the old perennial stems of *Valeriana* shrubs. a. *Valeriana* 528 buxifolia. Abrupt transition from type 1 to type 3, forming large portions of unlignified 529 parenchyma in the rays (arrowheads). b. Valeriana hirtella. Formation of narrower portions 530 of unlignified parenchyma (arrowheads). c-d. Valeriana microphylla. c. Xylem. The 531 formation of unlignified parenchyma (black arrowheads) begins after some production of an 532 amount of fibrous wood, as indicated by the presence of growth rings (some of them pointed 533 by white arrowheads). **d.** Cambial activity. The secondary phloem begins also produce large 534 portions of unlignified parenchyma after the production of fibers (arrowhead). e. Large non-535 lignified rays in tangential section of Valeriana buxifolia. Bars: a, c=300 µm; b=400 µm; 536 537 d=100 μm; e=800 μm.

538

539 Figure 7. a-d. Anatomy of the old perennial stems of the liana Valeriana tomentosa. a. General aspect of the type 3 anatomy in branches with strong lignification. b. Details of the 540 fibrous portion of the wood. c. General aspect of the type 3 anatomy in branches with weak 541 lignification. d. Details of the fibrous portion of the wood with many unlignified 542 parenchymatic cells among them. **Bars:** a, c=400 µm; b, d=40 µm. 543 544 Figure 8. a-d. Cambial variant in the elevated rosette Valeriana convallarioides. a. Young 545 region of the perennial stem with a well stablished secondary growth, between the cortex (co) 546 and pith (pi). **b-d.** Cross-sections of the older region of perennial stem. The left side of the 547 images are turned toward the inner region of the stem, and the right size to the outer region. 548 549 **b.** Formation of inner phloem (ip) close to the pith (pi) by inner portions of the cambium 550 (arrowheads). c. Detail of the inner islands of phloem (some of them pointed by arrowheads). **d.** Successive cambia, not contiguous, marked with arrowheads. **Bars:** a=500 µm; b, d =400 551 μ m; c =40 μ m. 552

553

Figure 9. a-b. Anatomy of the young perennial stems of the elevated semirosette *Valeriana tatamana*. a. Transition (arrowhead), in a vascular bundle, between primary xylem (below)
and primary phloem (above), with no cambial cells. b. Vascular bundles (arrowheads), and a
large portion of pith with lignified cells (lp). Bars: a=40 μm; b =400 μm.

558

Figure 10. Additional anatomical description for the analyzed *Valeriana* perennial stems.
Non-appliable characters are marked with an en dash (-) in plants with a superscript number,
for 1. *Valeriana rigida* (vessels and fibers absent, tracheal elements restrict to tracheids), 2.

562 *Valeriana tatamana* (no secondary growth in the young region), 3. *Valeriana tomentosa*563 (fibers absent).

564

565	Figure 11. Optimization of the habit (left) and type of anatomy in the older region of the
566	perennial stems (right) on the ML tree, using the Mk1 substitution model for categorical
567	characters. Superscript numbers mean the article with the original sequences for these
568	vouchers with ¹ for Bell et al. (2012) and ² for Bell et al. (2015). Ecuadorian species are
569	marked with a green box.

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