# TOWARDS AN UNDERSTANDING OF THE PHYLOGENETIC RELATIONSHIPS OF AUSTRALIAN HYDROCOTYLOIDEAE (APIACEAE)

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Australian *Apiaceae*, dominated by *Hydrocotyloideae* Link, are characterized by a number of enigmatic genera, the phylogenetic relationships of which are obscure. A cladistic analysis using morphological and anatomical data indicated that *Apiaceae* are monophyletic and *Hydrocotyloideae* form a grade between a paraphyletic *Araliaceae* and a monophyletic *Apioideae* Drude + *Saniculoideae* Burnett. Beyond this, there was no support for past suprageneric arrangements within the order. *Hydrocotyleae* Spreng. and their constituent subtribes were polyphyletic, as were the subtribes of *Mulineae* DC. The relationships between Australian genera were not well resolved although the analysis did provide a good indication of broad generic affinities.

Keywords. Anatomy, Apiales, Araliaceae, Hydrocotyleae, morphology, Mulineae, Umbelliferae.

## INTRODUCTION

Currently, 250 species in 46 genera are considered to comprise Australian *Apiaceae* (*Umbelliferae*) (Tables 1, 2). Of these, 80% of species and 27% of genera are endemic to Australia and its offshore islands. Each of Drude's (1898) three subfamilies is represented in Australia, but the diversity within *Hydrocotyloideae* Link. far outweighs that of *Apioideae* Drude and *Saniculoideae* Burnett. Australian *Apioideae* (see Table 1 for full list of genera and authorities) have much in common with those of New Zealand. *Aciphylla* (two species, both endemic) *Gingidia* (three species, one shared with New Zealand), *Anisotome* (one endemic species) and *Oreomyrrhis* (seven species, all endemic) are essentially New Zealand genera found at higher altitudes in Australia. Three species of *Lilaeopsis* occur at lower altitudes. However, most of the remaining genera (18 of the 27 apioid genera) are represented only by *Eryngium*. Whilst this genus is in need of revision in Australia, it is conservatively thought to consist of about 15 species (Michael, 1999), 12 of which are endemic.

The highest levels of endemism are seen in the *Hydrocotyloideae* (Table 2). This subfamily accounts for 74% of Australian species of *Apiaceae*, and comprises 29% of the world's hydrocotyloid genera and 38% of the world's species (based on Pimenov & Leonov 1993). Of the 18 hydrocotyloid genera found in Australia, 12 are endemic and two (*Trachymene* and *Actinotus*) have about 90% of their species

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| Subfamily and tribe | Genus                              | World   | Australia |
|---------------------|------------------------------------|---------|-----------|
| Apioideae           |                                    |         |           |
| Apieae              | Aciphylla J. R. Forst. & G. Forst. | 40      | 2         |
| 1                   | *Aegopodium L.                     | 7       | 1         |
|                     | *Ammi L.                           | 3–4     | 2         |
|                     | Anisotome Hook. f.                 | 15      | 1         |
|                     | Apium L.                           | 25      | 4         |
|                     | *Berula W. D. J. Koch              | 2       | 1         |
|                     | *Bupleurum L.                      | 180-191 | 3         |
|                     | Carum L.                           | 30      | 1         |
|                     | *Crithmum L.                       | 1       | 1         |
|                     | *Cyclospermum Lag.                 | 3       | 1         |
|                     | *Foeniculum Mill.                  | 4-5     | 1         |
|                     | Gingidia J. W. Dawson              | 10      | 3         |
|                     | Lilaeopsis Greene                  | 25      | 3         |
|                     | Oenanthe L.                        | 40      | 2         |
|                     | *Petroselinum Hill                 | 2       | 1         |
| Caucalideae         | Daucus L.                          | 22      | 2         |
|                     | *Torilis Adans.                    | 15      | 1         |
| Coriandreae         | *Bifora Hoffm.                     | 3       | 1         |
|                     | *Coriandrum L.                     | 2       | 1         |
| Peucedaneae         | *Anethum L.                        | 2       | 1         |
|                     | *Ferula L.                         | 170     | 1         |
| Scandiceae          | *Anthriscus (Pers.) Hoffm.         | 10-12   | 1         |
|                     | *Scandix L.                        | 5-20    | 1         |
| Smyrnieae           | *Conium L.                         | 6       | 1         |
|                     | Oreomyrrhis Endl.                  | 25      | 7         |
| Tordylieae          | *Pastinaca L.                      | 14      | 1         |
|                     | *Tordylium L.                      | 18      | 1         |
| SANICULOIDEAE       |                                    |         |           |
| Saniculeae          | Eryngium L.                        | 230-250 | 15        |

TABLE 1. Tribes of *Apioideae*, *Saniculoideae* present in Australia and territories. Genera represented only by introduced or naturalized taxa indicated by \*

restricted to the continent. However, with the exception of *Xanthosia* (20 species), *Platysace* (30 species), *Trachymene* (40 species) and *Actinotus* (20 species) most Australian endemic or near-endemic genera contain no more than three species. Generally, Australia's smaller genera represent segregates from larger, often non-Australian, genera. Thus, the generic diversity of Australian *Hydrocotyloideae* may be a reflection of the current state of taxonomic circumscriptions rather than phylogenetically meaningful taxa.

Arguably the most geographically widespread genus in the subfamily, *Hydrocotyle*, reaches a high level of diversity within Australia. Of the 130 species currently recognized at the world level (Pimenov & Leonov, 1993), c.60 are found in Australia,

| Genus          | World                            | Australia |      |
|----------------|----------------------------------|-----------|------|
| Hydrocotyleae  |                                  |           |      |
| Hydrocotylinae | Brachyscias J. M. Hart & Henwood | 1         | 1    |
|                | Centella L.                      | 40        | 2    |
|                | Chlaenosciadium C. Norman        | 1         | 1    |
|                | Homalosciadium Domin             | 1         | 1    |
|                | Hydrocotyle L.                   | 130       | c.60 |
|                | Neosciadium Domin                | 1         | 1    |
|                | Platysace Bunge                  | 30        | c.30 |
|                | Trachymene Rudge                 | 45        | 40   |
|                | Uldinia J. M. Black              | 1         | 1    |
| Xanthosiinae   | Actinotus Labill.                | 21        | 20   |
|                | Pentapeltis Bunge                | 2         | 2    |
|                | Schoenolaena Bunge               | 1         | 1    |
|                | Xanthosia Rudge                  | 20        | 20   |
| MULINEAE       |                                  |           |      |
| Azorellinae    | Azorella Lam.                    | 70        | 2    |
|                | Dichosciadium Domin              | 1         | 1    |
|                | Diplaspis Hook. f.               | 3         | 3    |
|                | Oschatzia Walpers                | 2         | 2    |
|                | Schizeilema (Hook.f.) Domin      | 13        | 1    |

TABLE 2. Tribes and subtribes of Hydrocotyloideae present in Australia and territories

with c.58 of those considered to be endemic. Within the Australian region, *Hydrocotyle* express a range of life histories and habits not seen elsewhere in the genus. In particular, a cohort of annual species largely restricted to semi-arid regions of the country may warrant generic status (Eichler, 1987). In contrast, the predominantly South African *Centella* is poorly represented in Australia. Only one genus, *Azorella*, is common to Australia and South America whilst being absent from New Zealand and its territories. Australia's claim to two species of this predominantly Fuegian genus is merely an artefact of political boundaries for it is found on Australia's subantarctic islands: *A. macquariensis* Orchard, endemic to Macquarie Is., and the more widespread *A. selago* Hook.f. on Heard Is. and other subantarctic islands (Orchard, 1989). *Schizeilema*, on the other hand, is present in New Zealand (11 species; Dawson, 1971), the alpine regions of the Australian mainland (one species) and in South America (one species).

*Hydrocotyloideae* has traditionally accommodated species with 'woody' endocarps and fruit that lack vittae. Within *Hydrocotyloideae*, Drude recognized two tribes: *Hydrocotyleae* Spreng. (transversely compressed fruit) and *Mulineae* DC. (dorsoventrally compressed fruit). *Hydrocotyleae* was further divided into *Hydrocotylinae* W. D. J. Koch (calyces small or absent) and *Xanthosiinae* Tausch (calyces large). Similarly, Drude considered *Mulineae* to comprise several subtribes: species that lacked winged fruit but had locelli in the fruit were assigned to *Bowlesiinae* Drude, whereas those that lacked both wings and locelli comprised *Azorellinae* Tausch; species with winged, non-locellate fruit were placed within *Asteriscinae* Drude. Of all Drude's subtribes of *Hydrocotyloideae*, *Xanthosiinae* is almost exclusively Australian. Of the 46 species in four genera assignable to this subtribe, only one species, *Actinotus novae-zelandiae* (Petrie) Petrie occurs outside Australia, in nearby New Zealand (Webb, 1980). In addition, the circumscription of the *Xanthosiinae* amply illustrates Drude's monothetic approach to classification, for *Xanthosiinae* was erected to accommodate taxa with laterally compressed fruit and 'large' calyx limbs. In doing so, all taxa with laterally compressed fruit and reduced or absent calyx limbs constituted his *Hydrocotylinae*.

One is left with the impression, then, that the Australian *Apiaceae* is characterized by relatively high levels of generic and specific endemism manifest in the *Hydrocotyloideae*. This may be either an artefact of taxonomic knowledge, reflect a relatively long period of isolation, or some combination of both.

Recent molecular investigations into the phylogenetic relationships of the *Apiales* have done much to adjust our perceptions of evolutionary affinity within the order (Plunkett et al., 1996a; 1997; Downie et al., 1998). From an Australian perspective, the most intriguing result of this recent wave of research has been the suggestion that that Drude's Hydrocotyloideae is polyphyletic (Plunkett et al., 1996a; 1997; Downie et al., 1998). Whilst the thrust of the recent molecular research has been the elucidation of the deeper branches within the order and lineages within Apioideae, one can only speculate what insights might be provided when such analyses use a larger sample of *Hydrocotyloideae*. We would certainly concur that the characters traditionally employed in the classification of Apiales are afflicted by homoplasy (Plunkett et al., 1996a; Downie et al., 1998; Katz-Downie et al., 1999). Nevertheless, a number of molecular phylogenies have, to a certain extent, been able to successfully map morphological synapomorphies onto molecular trees (Plunkett et al., 1996a; Katz-Downie et al., 1999). So, whilst high levels of morphological homoplasy are common in the order, there appears to be some 'phylogenetic signal' present in the morphological and anatomical data. Part of the difficulty for any analysis of morphological and anatomical data – whether used as primary data or secondarily mapped onto trees – concerns the erection of homology hypotheses based upon (potentially) non-homologous data (e.g. parallel evolution of schizocarpous fruit in Araliaceae (Astrotricha DC. and Harmsiopanax Warb.) and Apiaceae). The situation is further compounded by relatively high amounts of missing and/or inapplicable data in some taxa.

More than any other of Drude's subfamilies, the *Hydrocotyloideae* have been surveyed across a range of organ systems at the generic level. We felt, therefore, that it would not be premature to undertake a morphological and anatomical phylogeny focussing on relationships within the subfamily. Our interest in initiating this exercise was primarily to investigate the broad generic affinities of the Australian genera of *Hydrocotyloideae* and, at the same time, to complement the phylogenetic conclusions drawn from molecular data sources.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Taxonomic sample

In the absence of comprehensive genus-level phylogenies and for the sake of simplicity, we have assumed that each genus is monophyletic and we used a single species to represent each genus. In view of Eichler's (1986) comments concerning the putative generic status of the annual species of *Hydrocotyle*, we have included a representative of each life-history form from this genus. In general, our selection of taxa was aimed at providing a representative sample of genera that have previously provided the 'backbone' of molecular phylogenies (Plunkett *et al.*, 1996a; 1997; Downie & Katz-Downie, 1999). However, given our focus on Australian genera, we were obliged to emphasize genera within Drude's (1898) *Hydrocotyloideae*. The choice of genera was influenced by the availability of comparative and (relatively) unambiguous morphological and anatomical data. Thus, four of the five hydrocotyloid genera listed as *incertae sedis* by Pimenov & Leonov (1993), plus *Dickinsia* Franch. and *Choritaenia* Benth., were excluded.

Our selection of non-hydrocotyloid taxa was similarly constrained. Representatives of *Pittosporaceae* were used as the outgroup following results of Plunkett *et al.* (1996a). Seventeen taxa of *Araliaceae* (*sensu* Harms, 1898) were included. In order to test the phylogenetic resolution in our data set we considered it appropriate to select genera that were indicative of the topologies derived from the molecular phylogenies of Plunkett *et al.* (1996a; 1997). However, only genera with a reasonable availability of data were eventually included. The inclusion of 10 genera from *Saniculoideae* and *Apioideae* were selected by applying the same criteria.

#### Character choice

Characters were chosen to reflect past (i.e. primarily those of Harms, 1898, and Drude, 1898; for a detailed discussion of the classificatory history of *Apiaceae* see Constance, 1971) as well as contemporary classificatory hypotheses for the order. In addition, we looked for data that were available for the majority of genera in our sample. In doing so, priority was given to data applicable to a large sample of hydrocotyloid genera. This often resulted in such data being unavailable or sparsely representative of non-hydrocotyloid genera.

When the results of different workers were in conflict on the interpretation of the same data source, we accepted the state distribution with the most explicit taxonomic scope. For example, Drude (1898) generalized the presence of a crystal layer surrounding the carpophore as the defining character of Scandicineae Tausch, but Tseng (1967) found no such layer in the five genera from this subtribe that he examined. Thus, following Tseng we scored Torilis and Scandix explicitly as not having crystals. This approach resulted in the exclusion of some data sources that previously formed the basis of alternative classifications within the order. Perhaps the most notable exclusion were the pollen and cotyledon data of Cerceau-Larrival (1962, 1971). The utility of these data has been discussed elsewhere (Tutin, 1968; Plunkett et al., 1996b). However, whilst Cerceau-Larrival and her collaborators provided a broad taxonomic coverage of key genera in the Apiaceae sensu stricto, there is little or no comparable data available for Araliaceae and Pittosporaceae. Similarly, the somewhat patchy taxonomic coverage of phytochemical data rendered it inappropriate for inclusion in this study. The data matrix of 71 characters and 67 taxa (three Pittosporaceae, 17 Araliaceae, 36 Hydrocotyloideae, two Saniculoideae, 8 Apioideae and one incertae sedis) is shown in Fig. 1, and the character list and data sources are provided in the Appendix.

Apium prostratum Bupleurum falcatum 0100000010010111100111102010?11????????1?0010?10??00010010022001100000 Daucus glochidiatus 01000110010011111102111102????11??????010013?10??00010010024?00101000 Donnellsmithia cordata 010001?10100111110011110(12)????11???????1?0010010??0001001002???????00 Heteromorpha trifoliata Lomatium dasycarpum 01000110010011111102111102????11???????0?0015110??0001001002???????00 Scandix pecten veneris 01000110010011111100111102????11???????0?001??100000010010044000101000 Torilis nodosa Acanthopanax trifoliatus 10310110100010110011000(01)0?(012)20?1101(01)1010001000?00???001100?010300000000 Aralia spinulosa 03300100100001012001000010002111100010(01)0001000?00???001100?010300000000 Arthrophyllum pinnatum Astrotricha latifolia Delarbrea michieana 0330020011001011001000000?021?11011010010?000000?42000?00?01?3?????10 Fatsia japonica Hedera helix Mackinlava macrosciadia Munroidendron racemosum 0041001010111003001002012?000?110001011001000?00???00?100?01?3100010100 00010200100011110101100(01)0??21?11001010010?010030?4200??00?01????????10 Myodocarpus Polyscias purpureus Pseudopanax arboreus 1030011010001011001100010011 (01) 1 (01) 10100010000001??00?100?010300000000 Reynoldsia sandwicensis 03310010100010(01)2001000000?(012)00?110(01)01010(01)01000000???001100?0103100000100 Schefflera digitata 1331001010001011001000000?02011101(01)1010001000000?1100?100?01??????100 Tetrapanax papyrifer Tetraplasandra hawaiiensis 1331011010121003001002000?200?1100010(01)010?000000?1100?100?01?010000?100 Tupidanthus calyptratus 1100030011001111011100010(02)???11???????00101000022?00???00?5000000000? Centella asiatica Homalosciadium homalocarpum Neosciadium glochidiatum Chlaenosciadium gardneri Hydrocotyle pedicellosa Hydrocotyle callicarpa Micropleura renifolia Platysace stephensonii 120001001100111101110001(01)2??0?11???????00001000032000???00?30100000(01)0? Trachymene incisa 

FIG. 1. Data matrix. See Appendix for character list and data sources.

10 (013) 00200 (01) 10011112112000137777711777777770010000321007770077 (01) 00000007 12000100111011210200010555511555555556010100000005550 (01) 53 (01) 00000005 12 (34) 001001100111121120001322525712575275757575700011000320101110 (01) 03010000001 ?330012011001111211200010525252521125252520000000525525501255 (03) 01000005 12200120111111111111121020001012525252511252521125252 101000001100001025252521125255211252555200032010003201055005355505 10100251010011115112000102555551155555115555520000321005550051150000005 12100255520011117711211252552112525521125255200010000000052552000521101100005 123003001100111101050001512555555555555000100055550005550005501010101050555 Dichosciadium ranunculaceum Homalocarpus bowlesioides Domeykoa amplexicaulis Brachyscias verecundus Pittosporum undulatum Schizeilema fragoseum Hymenosporum flavum Klotzschia braziliensis

Spananthe paniculata

Diplaspis cordifolia

Huanaca andiana

Diposis saniculifolia

Hermas capitata

Asteriscium closii

Pozoa

Mulinum chillanense

Bolax gummifera

Azorella spinosa

Oschatzia cuneifolia

Bowlesia incana

Drusa oppositifolia Eryngium pinnatum

Gymnophyton

Sanicula gregari

Actinotus omnifertilis Pentapeltis peltigera Schoenolaena juncea

**Uldinia** ceratocarpa

Xanthosia tridentata

Laretia acaulis

Eremocharis

Naufraga balearica

FIG. 1. (Continued.)

Sollya heterophylla

#### Analyses

The analyses used PAUP\* (Version 4.0b4; Swofford, 1998) on a Power Macintosh computer with a MAXTREES setting of 40,000 trees due to memory limitations. All characters were assumed to be unordered and multistate taxa were treated as polymorphic. The heuristic search was run in two stages. Firstly, a heuristic search with MULTREES option, tree-bisection-reconnection (TBR) branch swapping and ACCTRAN optimization was run with 100 random addition sequence replicates, each limited to saving a maximum of 2000 trees. The minimal length trees from this search were then used as the starting trees for a second search with a single replicate limited to 40,000 trees (with all other options the same as the first analysis). Bootstrap values (Felsenstein, 1985) were calculated from 100 replicate analyses performed using a heuristic search strategy, random addition sequence of taxa and TBR branch swapping, with a limit of 400 trees per replicate.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

A total of 14,000 trees (tree length = 334) were found from two replicates in the first stage of the heuristic search, from between one and seven islands. When these 14,000 trees were used as the starting trees for the second search, the maximum of 40,000 most parsimonious trees was reached and were swapped to completion. Each of the 40,000 trees had a length of 334 steps, consistency indices (CI) of 0.464, rescaled consistency indices (RC) of 0.342, and a retention index (RI) of 0.736. Comparison of strict consensus trees generated from the two sets of trees found them to be of identical topology, thus generating more trees of the minimal length obtained was considered unlikely to have any impact on our results. The strict consensus of these trees is illustrated in Fig. 2 and a majority rule consensus shown in Fig. 3.

Despite our relatively conservative approach to the inclusion of taxa and characters, the data set contained 26% missing information and, as a consequence, there is relatively low resolution in the strict consensus tree (Fig. 2) concomitant with low bootstrap support. Bootstrap support tends to be lowered by a number of factors including a low character/taxon ratio, high amounts of missing data and high homoplasy. Given the data at hand, no single factor can be identified as influencing bootstrap support.

With the possible exception of *Saniculoideae* and *Apioideae*, the strict consensus tree (Fig. 2) is not congruent with the classifications of either Harms (1898; *Araliaceae*) or with Drude (1898; *Apiaceae*). The topology does, however, agree broadly with trees obtained from sequence data in which *Araliaceae* constitutes a basal grade that merges with members of *Hydrocotyloideae* that in turn, grade into a monophyletic *Saniculoideae* and *Apioideae* (Plunkett *et al.*, 1996a). The latter two clades comprise a monophyletic group with 55% bootstrap support (Fig. 2). Given our emphasis on characters used in the traditional delimitation of the higher taxa of *Apiales*, it is surprising that we obtained little support for taxa commonly defined by such characters. One conclusion, then, might be that the extent of homoplasy within many of these characters is so high that their use obfuscates the actual relationships. We believe that homoplasy does not explain entirely the lack of congruence between our results and those of previous workers. What is more likely is that the



FIG. 2. Strict consensus tree of 40,000 trees. CI=0.464, RC=0.342, RI=0.736. OG, Outgroup; Ar, *Araliaceae*; Hy, *Hydrocotyloideae*; Sa, *Saniculoideae*; Ap, *Apioideae*. Bootstrap values above 50% marked. Dashed branches indicate collapsed branches in the strict consensus for which bootstrap values above 50% were found.

combination of missing data and serially linked inapplicable data (such as characters 6 (calyx presence), and 31 (calyx aestivation) in this data set) serve to compound a relatively homoplastic data set.

### Araliaceae

Our results were not congruent with any past classification of *Araliaceae*. In the case of the largely monothetic classifications of *Araliaceae* by Harms (1898), based on



FIG. 3. Majority-rule consensus tree of 40,000 trees with percentage frequency indicated on branches. Groups indicated as in Fig. 2. The region above 'X' is expanded in Fig. 4.

petal aestivation, and by Eyde and Tseng (1971) who emphasized leaf morphology and fruit anatomy, this result is understandable. We could not provide any support for Eyde and Tseng's contention that mild polymery is plesiomorphic for the family, although the polymerous *Tupidanthus* Hook.f. & Thomson (palmate leaves) and *Reynoldsia* A.Gray and their relatives (pinnate leaves) do comprise a moderately well-resolved clade. The inclusion of *Reynoldsia*, *Munroidendron* Sherff. and *Tetraplasandra* A.Gray within a clade is further supported by the synapomorphies of sheathed multiseriate rays (character 39) and pollen with nexinous breaks (character 67). There is broad agreement between our results and the family level phylogeny using *rbcL* and *matK* sequence data of Plunkett *et al.* (1996a; 1997). Like Plunkett *et al.* (1996a, Fig. 3) we resolve *Araliaceae* as a basal grade between *Pittosporaceae* and *Apiaceae senso stricto*. The basal position of *Delarbrea* Viell. in our trees is consistent with results obtained using a combined data set of *rbcL* and *matK* sequences (Plunkett *et al.*, 1997). Unlike the trees of Plunkett *et al.* (1997), however, we do not resolve *Araliaceae* as a distinct clade, nor do we see *Micropleura, Centella* and *Mackinlaya* nesting with *Delarbrea*. Furthermore, our results indicate that *Delarbrea* and *Myodocarpus* Brongn. & Gris. (the latter being absent from previous molecular analyses) form a sister relationship basal to the remainder of the order. *Delarbrea* and *Myodocarpus* share secretory cavities (Baumann, 1946; Lowry, 1986) and axial parenchyma (Oskolski, 1996). A close relationship between these genera has previously been suggested by Vieillard (1865) and by Viguier (1906).

Unlike Plunkett *et al.* (1996a) our results do not indicate a close relationship between *Delarbrea* and *Spananthe* Jacq. (*Hydrocotyloideae–Mulineae*), nor do we observe a close relationship between *Micropleura* Lag., *Centella* (both *Hydrocotyloideae–Hydrocotyleae*) and *Mackinlaya* F.Muell. (ancestral to core *Araliaceae* in Plunkett *et al.*, 1997). Our results indicate that *Mackinlaya*, along with the Australian endemic genus *Astrotricha*, are the two most derived taxa in our sample of *Araliaceae*. The derived nature of these genera has been suggested previously (Harms, 1898; Philipson, 1951), for both have incipient schizocarps, and in the case of *Mackinlaya*, clawed petals and stem-clasping leaf bases. Together, these characters have traditionally been used to distinguish typical *Araliaceae* from *Apiaceae* but may represent parallelisms.

The molecular phylogenies of Plunkett *et al.* (1996a; 1997) and Downie *et al.* (1998) resolved *Hydrocotyle* as being nested within *Araliaceae*. We could not confirm this with our morphological and anatomical data set, although *Hydrocotyle* and its segregates do form a clade that may well be transitional between typical *Araliaceae* and *Apiaceae*. Given that *Hydrocotyle* and their allies share a number of characters with at least some *Araliaceae* (a base chromosome number of x=12, schizocarps that lack carpophores (with the exception of most annual *Hydrocotyle*) and sessile petal bases) we must admit that the eventual inclusion of *Hydrocotyle* and its relatives within 'core' *Araliaceae* is a possibility. If *Hydrocotyle* was to be included within *Araliaceae* it would appear that a base chromosome number of x=12 may be the only synapomorphy for the family.

## Hydrocotyloideae

Drude's (1898) tribes and, to a lesser extent, his subtribes, have been traditionally used as a means of organizing genera within *Hydrocotyloideae*. The artificial nature of Drude's subfamily and its constituent suprageneric taxa has been raised by a number of workers (Kondo *et al.*, 1996; Plunkett *et al.*, 1996a; 1997; Downie *et al.*, 1998; Katz-Downie *et al.*, 1999). As with *Araliaceae*, our analysis provided only

limited support for Drude's (1898) divisions of *Hydrocotyloideae*. *Hydrocotyleae* was depicted as being paraphyletic (see below), as was Drude's *Mulineae* (Figs 2–4). Two clades contain the majority of *Mulineae* (*Bowlesia* Ruiz & Pav. and *Pozoa* Lag. clades in Fig. 4). The Brazilian genus *Klotzschia* Cham. (Mulinae) is sister to *Naufraga* Constance & Cannon (*incertae sedis sensu* Pimenov & Leonov, 1993), which together are sister to the Australian genera *Trachymene* (*Hydrocotyleae*) and *Uldinia* (*Hydrocotyleae*). Very few data are available for *Uldinia*, *Klotzschia* and *Naufraga*, although, based upon pollen morphology, Shoup and Tseng (1977)



FIG. 4. *Apiaceae*, expanded beyond 'X' from Fig. 3. Subtribes of *Hydrocotyloideae* indicated by parenthetic abbreviations. *Hydrocotyleae*: Hydr, *Hydrocotylinae*; Xa, *Xanthosiinae*. *Mulinae*: Bo, *Bowlesiinae*; As, *Asteriscinae*; Az, *Azorellinae*. ic, *incertae sedis*.

suggested that *Klotzschia* formed a transition between *Araliaceae* and *Apiaceae*. Most of the remainder of *Mulineae* fall into two larger clades. The first (*Bowlesia* clade; Fig. 4) contains the Australian genera *Diplaspis*, *Oschatzia* and *Schizeilema* (shared with New Zealand and South America). This clade is supported by the presence of a tetrasporic, 16-celled embryo sac (characters 56 and 57) and the (homoplasious) presence of a carpophore (character 19): *Schizeilema ranunculus* (d'Urv.) Domin does, in fact, have a carpophore.

Relationships between various combinations of members of this clade have been postulated in the past. When emphasizing stipule and, somewhat equivocally, fruit morphology, Domin (1908) indicated an affinity between Schizeilema, Huanaca Cav., Diplaspis, Bowlesia, Homalocarpus Hook. & Arn. and Drusa DC. Given the difficulty of homologizing stipule morphology across the order, we could not include this potentially informative character in our data set. We did, however, include Tseng's (1967) fruit anatomy data and the pollen data of Ting et al. (1964). Tseng's grouping of Schizeilema, Huanaca, Homalocarpus and Drusa rested largely on the degree of development of certain fruit characters rather than upon the presence or absence of discrete character states. The palynological data of Ting et al. (1964) is similarly ambiguous, although we would agree that Azorella, Laretia and Schizeilema form a grouping based on the shared presence of an ectoapertural bridge. Mathias and Constance (1971) cogently outlined the problem concerning the relationships of Diplaspis, Huanaca and Schizeilema. We concur with them that revisiting the generic limits of these genera would be particularly rewarding, but we would add that Azorella and the Australian endemic, Oschatzia should also be considered if such a study is undertaken. Within this group, two moderately well-supported sister relationships are evident. One comprises Homalocarpus and Drusa whereas the other comprises *Diposis* DC. and *Mulinum* Pers. On the basis of fruit anatomy, Tseng (1967) considered Mulinum and Diposis to be transitional between his group III (Eremocharis Phil., Asteriscium Cham. & Schltdl. and relatives) and his group IV (Azorella and relatives) fruit-types. In our analysis, the sister relationship between Diposis and Mulinum is supported by the shared possession of wings derived from the lateral ribs (character 47), a character that has apparently arisen independently in Drusa, Gymnophyton Clos. and Uldinia.

A close relationship between *Drusa* and *Homalocarpus* was suggested by Mathias and Constance (1965). In the current analysis, the sister relationship between these genera is resolved only by the unique combination of a series of otherwise homoplasious character states: obvious calyx teeth (character 6), presence of stellate trichomes (character 46), and alternate leaves (character 53). *Drusa* and *Homalocarpus*, along with some species of *Bowlesia*, also have indumented petals (a character not used in this data set).

*Pozoa, Eremocharis, Domeykoa* Phil., *Asteriscium* and *Gymnophyton* constitute the second clade of *Mulineae* (*Pozoa* clade; Fig. 4). Members of this grouping were considered by Mathias and Constance (1962) to form a natural alliance. Our results indicate that this clade is separable from the taxa immediately basal to it (*Hermas*)

L., *Dichosciadium* and *Bolax* Comm. ex Juss.) by the shared presence of a petal gland (character 52) and a base chromosome number of x=5 (character 61). In the case of the latter character, this appears to be derived from the more typical condition of x=8 for the *Mulineae*. The sister relationship between *Pozoa* and *Asteriscium* within the clade reflects their possession of the plesiomorphic state of non-inflexed petal apices (character 9).

Regardless of the eventual location of *Hydrocotyle* and its segregates *Neosciadium* and *Homalosciadium*, the *Hydrocotyleae* are clearly paraphyletic. Drude's *Xanthosiinae* is predominantly Australian with only *Actinotus novae-zelandiae* occurring outside the Australian plate in New Zealand. However, even this subtribe can not be upheld without some modification. In our results, *Xanthosiinae* can not be accepted without the inclusion of *Micropleura* Lag., *Chlaenosciadium*, *Brachyscias* and *Centella* (*Hydrocotylinae*) and the exclusion of *Actinotus* and *Schoenolaena*. The majority of this modified *Xanthosiinae* (*Centella* clade; Fig. 4) constitute a clade in our trees based on the shared possession of secondary ribs (fruit of *Brachyscias* is not available). The *Actinotus* clade are immediately basal to what might be considered as core *Xanthosiinae*. A close relationship between the predominantly South African genus *Centella* and the Australian endemic, *Xanthosia* is not novel. Tseng (1967) used fruit anatomy to postulate a close relationship, and recently Downie and Katz-Downie's (1999) phylogenetic analysis of chloroplast *rps*16 intron sequence data indicated a sister relationship between these genera.

Neither *Trachymene*, nor its sister, *Uldinia*, appear to be closely related to any other Australian genera. That *Trachymene* and *Uldinia* form a close relationship has been commented upon in the past (Theobald, 1967), and recently they have been treated as congeneric (Keighery & Rye, 1999). However, the genera can be distinguished by the form of the carpophore (although there is some debate about this feature, which is interpreted as a lignified extension of the pedicel by Theobald, 1967) and the position and form of the wings. The wings on the fruit of *Uldinia* develop from the apical portion of the lateral ribs, whereas in *Trachymene* the wings (when present) develop from the entire dorsal rib. Within the *Hydrocotyloideae*, whereas dorsal wings are apparently restricted to *Hydrocotylinae* and *Araliaceae* (*Myodocarpus*).

*Naufraga* is the only genus listed by Pimenov & Leonov (1993) as *incertae sedis* that was included in our data set. As indicated by our analysis, this genus forms a clade with *Trachymene*, *Uldinia* and *Klotzschia*. Constance & Cannon (1967) judiciously assigned *Naufraga* to *Hydrocotyloideae* on the possibility that its endocarps would become woody (fruit was not available to them), its apparently simple umbels and the absence of a carpophore. In their discussion of the new genus they indicated that the ovaries of *Naufraga* have vittae in the intercostal regions. This last character is one of only a few that apparently separates *Saniculoideae* and *Apioideae* from the remainder of the order. It should be noted that in our data set, woody endocarps do, in fact, segregate *Hydrocotyloideae* and *Araliaceae* from

Saniculoideae and Apioideae. In contrast with our results, Downie and colleagues (2000a) have indicated that Naufraga nests within Apioideae. Furthermore, Downie et al. (1998) placed Klotzschia as sister to Saniculoideae and Apioideae clades. Thus, we feel that it would be imprudent for us to attempt to sustain an argument for a relationship between Trachymene, Uldinia, Naufraga and Klotzschia on the basis of morphological and anatomical data.

The taxonomic affinities of *Platysace* have not received serious consideration apart from its inclusion by Drude within Hydrocotylinae and Tseng's assignment of it to his group I fruit-type (along with all other Hydrocotyleae in his sample). This is not surprising given the morphological diversity within the genus. The majority of *Platysace* are characterized by either simple lobed leaves with palmate venation or by entire leaves with parallel venation. The leaves of taxa with parallel venation are clearly derived from lobed leaves by the union of the lobes during the early development of the seedling leaves. Another group of species, mostly restricted to Western Australia, have dissected leaves with palmate venation which are frequently suppressed in the juvenile growth stage such that the adult plants are cladodenous. Whilst some species have strongly laterally compressed fruit others have terete mericarps or even weakly dorsally compressed mericarps (described by Tseng as rhomboid). This range of variation was not captured in the current analysis. The placement of *Platysace* between the *Centella* clade and the *Bowlesia* clade in our analyses is due to its base chromosome number of x=8 (Keighery, 1982). This number is characteristic of Mulineae (Moore, 1971), but to our knowledge is unique within *Hydrocotyleae* (generally x = 5, 11 or 12). Given the small sample of *Platysace* used in our analysis it is premature to draw any conclusions as to the phylogenetic relationships of Platysace.

#### Apioideae and Saniculoideae

*Apioideae* and *Saniculoideae* together constitute a monophyletic group. *Saniculoideae* are not rendered as monophyletic in our analyses, possibly due to a small sample size (Fig. 2), but do form a sister relationship with the *Apioideae*.

## CONCLUSIONS

If the success of this study is judged by our primary objective, the resolution of the phylogenetic affinities of Australian *Hydrocotyloideae*, then we must admit that we have taken only a small step forward. What is clear, though, is that if we are to truly understand the phylogenetic relationships within the *Apiales*, especially the relationships between *Araliaceae* and *Hydrocotyloideae*, then it is essential that we must focus more attention upon the taxa endemic to Australia. Much progress has been made in documenting the morphological and anatomical diversity within *Apiales*. The interpretation of future phylogenetic endeavours (regardless of the taxonomic sample used) will, however, continue to be compromised by a lack of

well-considered homology hypotheses for morphological and anatomical characters. Whilst hypotheses illustrating the extent of homoplasy within a character may be achieved by mapping character states on to a tree derived from an independent data source, such an approach can not necessarily determine the derivation of different states. Thus, whilst we admit that in some cases synapomorphies may not always be apparent, we endorse the approach of Downie *et al.* (2000b) in pursuing them in taxa that might otherwise be revealed only by molecular data. In particular, we would advocate the extension of Tseng's work on fruit anatomy in a comparative way throughout the order. Similarly, details of embryology may well prove to be informative in defining suprageneric taxa. Lastly, the resolving powers of data found to be useful in relatively small or diffuse taxonomic samples (e.g. data on stipule morphology, phytochemistry, palynological and seedlings) should also be extended.

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# Appendix

# Character list

- Leaf venation
   0: pinnate
   1: palmate
- Inflorescence
   0: umbellate
   1: cymose
   2: solitary
   3: paniculate

 Hermaphrodite flowers (Froebe, 1979)
 pleiosciadioid
 heteropleiosciadioid
 symplesiosciadioid
 sciadioid
 einzelblute

- 4. *Pedicels*0: articulated1: not articulated
- 5. Ovaries0: inferior1: semi-inferior2: superior
- 6. Calyx0: an entire rim1: toothed2: ligulate3: absent
- 7. Petals0: imbricate1: valvate
- 8. *Petals*0: not apically cleft1: apically cleft
- 9. *Petals*0: inflexed1: not inflexed
- 10. *Petals*0: sessile1: tapering at the base

- 11. Petals0: typically 51: typically > 5
- 12. Stamens0: typically 51: typically >52: numerous
- 13. Petal venation
  0: many longitudinal veins
  1: one longitudinal vein
- 14. *Disks* 0: not cleft 1: cleft
- 15. *Styles* 0: connate 1: free
- 16. *Styles* 0: 1 1: 2–3 2: 4–6 3: 7+
- 17. *Stigma* (Heslop-Harrison & Shivanna, 1977)
  0: papillate
  1: smooth
- 18. *Fruit* 0: fleshy 1: dry
- 19. Free carpophore0: present1: absent
- 20. *Endocarp* 0: not compressed 1: laterally compressed 2: dorsally compressed

- 21. *Endocarp* 0: indurated to
  - crustaceous
  - 1: chartaceous to membranous
- 22. Gynoecial canals (Tseng, 1967)0: associated with
  - vascular bundles
  - 1: intercostal
  - 2: scattered
- 23. Vittae (Eyde and Tseng, 1971)
  0: absent
  1: present
- 24. Dorsal bundles (Eyde and Tseng, 1971)0: separate from peripheral bundles
  - 1: united with peripheral bundles
- 25. Ventral bundles (Eyde and Tseng, 1971)
  0: united
  1: separated
  2: anomalous
  - 3: absent
- 26. Stomata (Guyot, 1971)0: paracytic1: anomycitic2: anisocytic
  - 3: tetracytic
- 27. Vessel element end wall (Rodríguez, 1957)
  0: absent
  1: vestigial
  2: scalariform
- 28. Intervascular pitting (Rodríguez, 1957)
  0: scalariform
  1: opposite
  2: alternate

- 29. *Rays type* (Rodríguez, 1957)
  0: heterogenous I II
  1: homogenous I II
  - 2: paedomorphic
- 30. Vessel element bar number (Rodríguez, 1957)
  0: 0
  1: 1-70
- 31. *Calyx*0: imbricate1: valvate
- 32. *Placentation*0: parietal1: apical
- 33. Helical thickening (Oskolski, 1996)0: not thickened1: thickened
- 34. Vascular tracheids (Oskolski, 1996)0: absent1: present
- 35. Libriform fibre (Oskolski, 1996)0: thin1: thick
- 36. Septate fibres (Oskolski, 1996)
  0: absent
  1: present
- 37. Axial parenchyma (Oskolski, 1996)0: paratrachial1: apotrachial
- 38. Multiseriate rays(Oskolski, 1996)0: absent1: present
- 39. Sheaths on multiseriate ray cell (Oskolski, 1996)
  0: absent
  1: present

- 40. *Radial canals* (Oskolski, 1996) 0: absent 1: present
- 41. Commissural ingrowths0: absent1: present
- 42. Innermost endocarp layer (Tseng, 1967)
  0: longitudinal
  1: transverse
- 43. Secondary ribs on fruit (Tseng, 1967)0: absent1: present
- 44. Endocarp ruminate0: not ruminate1: ruminate
- 45. Ovules offset (Tseng, 1967)
  0: not offset
  1: offset
- 46. Fruit hair type
  0: glabrous
  1: stellate
  2: dendritic
  3: barbs
  4: glochids
  - 5: unicellular
- 47. Fruit wing position (Tseng, 1967)
  0: absent
  1: lateral
  2: marginal
  3: dorsal
- 48. Funicle length (Håkansson, 1952)0: short1: long
- 49. *Hairs on funicle*0: absent1: present

- 50. *Crystals in mesocarp* 0: absent
  - 1: scattered
  - 2: discontinuous inner
  - 3: continuous inner
  - 4: septum
- 51. *Crystal type* 0: absent 1: druses 2: rhomboid
- 52. *Petal gland* (Mathias & Constance, 1962) 0: absent 1: present
- 53. Leaf arrangement0: alternate1: opposite
- 54. Leaves (Philipson, 1970)0: not articulated with petiole1: articulated with
  - petiole
- 55. Ovules in each mericarp 0: one 1: two
  - 2
  - 2: more than two
- 56. Embryo sac (Håkansson, 1952)
  0: monosporic
  1: tetrasporic
- 57. Nuclei in embryo sac (Håkansson, 1952) 0: eight 1: sixteen
- 58. Chromophilic substances (Håkansson, 1952)
  0: absent
  1: present
- 59. Dorsal surface of mericarp0: not concave1: concave
- 60. Nucellus (Håkansson, 1952, Davis, 1966)0: tenuinucellate1: crassinucellate

| Base chromosome<br>number (Bell &<br>Constance, 1957; 1960;<br>1966; Keighery, 1982)<br>0: x = 12 | 64. | Pollen bridge without<br>pore (Ting et al., 1964)<br>0: absent<br>1: present      | 68. | Colpi length (Ting et al.,<br>1964)<br>0: long<br>1: short         |
|---|-----|---|-----|--|
| 1: $x = 5$<br>2: $x = 11$<br>3: $x = 8$<br>4: $x = 7$<br>5: $x = 9$                               | 65. | Pollen bridge with pore<br>(Ting <i>et al.</i> , 1964)<br>0: absent<br>1: present | 69. | Endoaperture width<br>(Ting et al., 1964)<br>0: broad<br>1: narrow |
| Pollen external outline<br>(Ting et al., 1964)<br>0: oblong<br>1: elliptic<br>2: rhomboid         | 66. | Pollen rimmed (Ting<br>et al., 1964)<br>0: absent<br>1: present                   | 70. | Secretory cavities<br>(Baumann, 1946)<br>0: absent<br>1: present   |
| 2. monitoid<br>3: spheroid<br>4: bone-shaped<br>Aperture position (Ting                           | 67. | Nexine break (Tseng,<br>1971)<br>0: absent  | 71. | Embryo sac type<br>0: polygonium<br>1: drusa                       |

1: present

2: penea

63. Aperture position (Ting et al., 1964)
0: angles
1: sides

61.

62.