MOLECULAR PHYLOGENETICS

A molecular phylogeny of the Solanaceae

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A phylogeny of Solanaceae is presented based on the chloroplast DNA regions ndhF and trnLF. With 89 genera and 190 species included, this represents a nearly comprehensive genus-level sampling and provides a framework phylogeny for the entire family that helps integrate many previously-published phylogenetic studies within Solanaceae. The four genera comprising the family Goetzeaceae and the monotypic families Duckeodendraceae, Nolanaceae, and Sclerophylaceae, often recognized in traditional classifications, are shown to be included in Solanaceae. The current results corroborate previous studies that identify a monophyletic subfamily Solanoideae and the more inclusive "x = 12" clade, which includes Nicotiana and the Australian tribe Anthocercideae. These results also provide greater resolution among lineages within Solanoideae, confirming Jaltomata as sister to Solanum and identifying a clade comprised primarily of tribes Capsiceae (Capsicum and Lycianthes) and Physaleae. Stronger evidence also is provided for the inclusion of Capsicum within a paraphyletic Lycianthes. Solanaceae are a predominantly New World group, with several lineages represented on other continents. Apart from events within Solanum (for which sampling in this study is inadequate for biogeographic interpretations) the Old World representatives of Solanaceae can be accounted for by eight or nine dispersal events.

KEYWORDS: biogeography, chloroplast DNA, chromosome evolution, ndhF, phylogeny, Solanaceae, trnLF

INTRODUCTION

Assigned to Solanales (APG II, 2003) along with Convolvulaceae, Hydroleaceae, Montiniaceae, and Sphenocleaceae, Solanaceae are a monophyletic group containing approximately 100 genera and 2,500 species (D'Arcy, 1991; Olmstead & al., 1999; Hunziker, 2001; Olmstead & Bohs, 2007). Species of Solanaceae occur on all temperate and tropical continents, but by far the greatest biodiversity of the family is found in the western hemisphere. The Solanaceae include many of the world's most important agricultural species, including potatoes, tomatoes, eggplants, chili peppers, tomatillos, tobacco, petunia, and several other crops of regional significance. Due, in part,

This paper is dedicated to the memory of William D'Arcy and Armando Hunziker, two scholars of the family, to whom we owe a debt of gratitude for advancing our understanding of the Solanaceae. to their tremendous economic importance, Solanaceae have been subject to much systematic and other biological research, exemplified by the six international conferences and resulting volumes (Hawkes & al., 1979, 1991; D'Arcy, 1986b; Nee & al., 1999; Van den Berg & al., 2001; Spooner & al., 2007), and a monographic treatment of the family, culminating a lifetime's work by Armando Hunziker and his colleagues (Hunziker, 2001).

Traditional classifications of the family typically recognized two subfamilies, Cestroideae and Solanoideae (D'Arcy, 1979, 1991; Hunziker, 1979, 2001; Olmstead & Palmer 1992). An additional subfamily, Nolanoideae, has been segregated by some taxonomists as a distinct family, Nolanaceae (Cronquist, 1981; Thorne, 1992; Hunziker, 2001). Subfamily Solanoideae was considered to be ancestral within the Solanaceae and was characterized by its curved embryos contained in flattened discoid seeds and typically berry-like fruits (D'Arcy, 1979; Hunziker, 1979). Subfamily Cestroideae, with its straight or somewhat bent embryos in small, angular to subglobose seeds

and typically capsular fruits, was presumed to be derived. However, two recent classifications have been proposed for the family that deviate from these traditional views (Olmstead & al., 1999; Hunziker, 2001). Hunziker's classification (Hunziker, 2001), based mainly on morphology with a secondary emphasis on chemistry, reflects traditional views with some modifications over past treatments. For example, his linear order was designed to reflect "increasing complexity", and may be inferred to represent an approximate evolutionary sequence. In this regard it is interesting to note that he began his sequence with Cestroideae, which is the reverse of the order presented previously (Hunziker, 1979), suggesting that some of what had been learned about phylogeny influenced his ideas. However, he still retained Schizanthus and Salpiglossideae, with their bilateral symmetry, and Anthocercideae at the end of the sequence. He also recognized four small subfamilies (Anthocercidoideae, Juanulloideae, Salpiglossoideae, Schizanthoideae) in addition to the two large ones, Cestroideae and Solanoideae, and several small tribes or subtribes for individual genera that have been shown in phylogenetic studies (e.g., Olmstead & al., 1999) to be isolated from other recognized groups. He excluded genera such as Duckeodendron, Nolana, Sclerophylax, Goetzea, Espadaea, Coeloneurum, Henoonia, and Tsoala from the Solanaceae, placing some of them in segregate families.

Since the early 1990's, phylogenetic relationships within Solanaceae have been examined using molecular characters, particularly chloroplast DNA sequence data (Olmstead & Palmer, 1992; Spooner & al., 1993; Olmstead & Sweere, 1994; Fay & al. 1998; Olmstead & al. 1999; Gemeinholzer & Wink, 2001; Santiago-Valentin & Olmstead, 2003; Clarkson & al. 2004; Bohs, 2005; Levin & al., 2005, 2006; Weese & Bohs, 2007), and these findings have challenged previous views. Nolanaceae has been shown to be nested within the Solanaceae (Olmstead & Palmer, 1992; Tago-Nakazawa & Dillon, 1999). Several other taxa traditionally excluded from Solanaceae (Goetzea and related genera, Duckeodendron, Sclerophylax) were found to be derived from within Solanaceae (Olmstead & al., 1999; Gemeinholzer & Wink, 2001; Santiago-Valentin & Olmstead, 2003). Subfamilies Solanoideae and Cestroideae as traditionally circumscribed have been shown to be non-monophyletic, with Cestroideae paraphyletic relative to Solanoideae, and Solanoideae, in turn, paraphyletic relative to Nolanaceae. An important and previously unrecognized group consisting of subfamily Solanoideae (including Nolana), tribe Anthocercideae (endemic to Australia) and Nicotiana, all united by a base chromosome number of 12, was identified and referred to as the "x = 12" clade (Olmstead & Sweere, 1994). Several genera (Cyphomandra, Lycopersicon, Normania, Triguera) have been shown to belong within Solanum (Olmstead

& Palmer, 1992; Spooner & al., 1993; Bohs & Olmstead, 2001). However, many details of the phylogeny have remained obscure due to sparse taxonomic sampling and the limited resolving power of the DNA regions studied. In this study we expand both taxonomic and DNA sequence sampling to produce a more comprehensive and better-resolved phylogeny.

While the results presented here are based on cpDNA sequences, the use of nuclear gene sequences, particularly the Granule-Bound Starch Synthase gene (GBSSI, or waxy) has been used in several studies in Solanaceae (Peralta & Spooner, 2001; Walsh & Hoot, 2001; Levin & Miller, 2005; Levin & al., 2005, 2006; Smith & Baum, 2006; Yuan & al., 2006; Weese & Bohs, 2007) and may provide a useful dataset for the entire Solanaceae for comparison with cpDNA sequences. Also, a novel nuclear gene for phylogenetic reconstruction, Salicylic Acid Methyltransferase (SAMT) has been applied to a family-wide study (Martins & Barkman, 2005). A summary of molecular systematic studies of Solanaceae is found in Olmstead & Bohs (2007).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A total of 195 taxa was included in this study (Appendix) including five outgroup taxa, four from the sister clade Convolvulaceae (Convolvulus, Dinetus, Evolvulus, and Ipomoea), and Montinia (Montiniaceae), a more distant relative within Solanales (Olmstead & al., 2000; Bremer & al., 2002; Stefanovic & al., 2002). A goal was to sample genus-level diversity as completely as possible, including multiple species of all the larger genera. However, sufficient sampling to test hypotheses of monophyly at the generic level was largely beyond the scope of this study. Multiple accessions of a few species were included to confirm sequences when unanticipated results were obtained (e.g., Protoschwenkia, Latua) and are included in the Appendix, even though only one accession was included in the analyses. Similarly, multiple accessions of two species (Atropa belladonna, Markea panamensis) were collected under different names, now recognized as synonyms, and from different parts of the species distribution and both were included to confirm the taxonomy. The recent classification of Hunziker (2001) included 92 genera, of which 85 were sampled here, along with seven genera that were excluded from Solanaceae by him (Duckeodendron, Espadaea, Goetzea, Henoonia, Nolana, Sclerophylax, Tsoala). A summary of molecular phylogenetic studies of Solanaceae (Olmstead & Bohs, 2007) recognized 98 genera, of which 89 are sampled here. All taxa listed in the Appendix have sequence data for *ndhF*, whereas *trnLF* sequences are missing for five species (Jaltomata sinuosa, Capsicum pubescens, Mellissia begoniifolia, Nierembergia andina,

Benthamiella skottsbergii). For the latter, ndhF sequences were obtained either from taxa for which only a small amount of DNA was obtained from a herbarium specimen and trnLF sequencing failed (e.g., Benthamiella), or were sequenced as part of another study and DNA was not available for this study (e.g., Mellissia, kindly provided by Q. Cronk). In a few other cases (four accessions each for ndhF and trnLF, but never for the same species), only half of one or the other of the gene regions was included for similar reasons (Cyphanthera anthocercidea, Larnax subtriflora, Nicotiana glauca, N. africana for ndhF, Athenaea sp., Dunalia solanacea, Nothocestrum latifolium, Sclerophylax giliesii for trnLF). A total of 145 previously published sequences was included along with 245 new sequences obtained for this study.

DNA was obtained from fresh plant tissue, field-collected, silica-gel dried tissues, and herbarium specimens. Contributions from numerous other Solanaceae systematists and Botanical Gardens are gratefully acknowledged. Sequences were obtained by direct sequencing of PCR products following protocols described previously (Olmstead & Sweere, 1994; Olmstead & Reeves, 1995; Santiago-Valentin & Olmstead, 2003; Bohs, 2004). Sequences were aligned by eye and adjusted manually using the sequence editor Se-Al (Rambaut, 2002). All sequences newly generated during this study were submitted to Gen-Bank (Appendix) and the datasets and representative trees are deposited in TreeBASE (SN3872-20144).

Since they belong to a single non-recombining chloroplast genome, the *ndhF* and *trnLF* sequences were combined into a single dataset for analysis. The entire region of *ndhF* sequenced for the study (Olmstead & Sweere, 1994) was included in the analyses. However, a series of repeats and repeat fragments beginning ten nucleotides before the junction of the spacer and *trnF* gene and continuing into the *trnF* gene precluded unambiguous alignment of the 3' terminal portion of the *trnLF* region and, thus, was excluded. These repeats are similar to those reported by others (Vijverberg & Bachmann, 1999; Koch & al., 2005). Alignment gaps that were present in two or more of the ingroup taxa were coded as binary characters (Graham & al., 2000; Simmons & Ochoterena, 2000). Gaps that were informative only among outgroups were not scored.

Parsimony analyses utilized PAUP* vers. 4.0b10 (Swofford, 2002) with 200 initial replicates, random-order-entry starting trees, and TBR branch swapping with MULTREES and five trees saved per replicate. All transformations were equally weighted. A second round of analysis was then done using 1,000 starting trees and keeping only two trees per replicate, while using the strict consensus tree obtained from the first analysis as an inverse constraint to filter out trees compatible with that tree, thereby obviating the need to find all most-parsimonious

trees (Catalán & al., 1997). This procedure can be iterated, if necessary, until no further trees are discovered. No additional trees at the same or shorter lengths were obtained. Bootstrap analyses were conducted using 1,000 bootstrap replicates using TBR branch swapping, but with MULTREES off (DeBry & Olmstead, 2000).

RESULTS

The length of the portion of the *ndhF* sequence used in this study is 2,086 nucleotides in Nicotiana tabacum, whereas the total aligned length (including gaps to accommodate insertions and repeats) used in this analysis is 2,185 nucleotides. All gaps are even multiples of three and range in size from insertions and deletions of three nucleotides to a deletion of 48 nucleotides (in Hyoscyamus albus). The length of the trnLF sequence region in tobacco is 954 nucleotides. Unlike the *ndhF* sequences, which are entirely within the coding region of the gene, the trnLF sequences include mostly non-coding intron and spacer sequence. As a consequence, gaps are more frequent and variable in length. Most taxa in the Solanoideae have a region near the end of the trnLF spacer that is hypervariable for a series of long repeats, which often contain smaller insertions, deletions, and substitutions. An unambiguous alignment could not be obtained for this region, so it was not included in the analyses, leaving a total aligned length of 1,639 nucleotides. The combined length of the two regions, excluding the ambiguous portion of the trnLF spacer was 3,885 nucleotides.

The combined sequence dataset had a total of 1,138 parsimony informative nucleotide characters (769 in ndhF; 369 in trnLF), which, together with 80 coded gap characters (7 in ndhF; 73 in trnLF), yields a total of 1,218 characters in the analysis. Parsimony analysis of these data yielded numerous equally most-parsimonious trees (length = 4,720; CI = 0.56; RI = 0.79). The strict consensus tree with bootstrap values and one of the most parsimonious trees with branch lengths proportional to the inferred changes are shown in Figs. 1 and 2 respectively.

The strict consensus tree shows a high level of resolution with moderate to strong bootstrap support (ca. > 70%) throughout the tree. Most of the unresolved nodes on the tree fall in terminal branches comprised of closely related species (e.g., within *Solanum*, *Capsicum*, *Lycium*, *Nicotiana*, etc.), but a few significant unresolved nodes remain among the main branches.

The genera *Duckeodendron*, *Sclerophylax*, *Nolana*, and the Antillean endemic genera *Goetzea*, *Espadaea*, *Henoonia*, and *Coeloneurum*, recognized as the separate families Duckeodendraceae, Sclerophylacaceae, Nolanaceae, and Goetzeaceae, respectively, are nested within the Solanaceae.

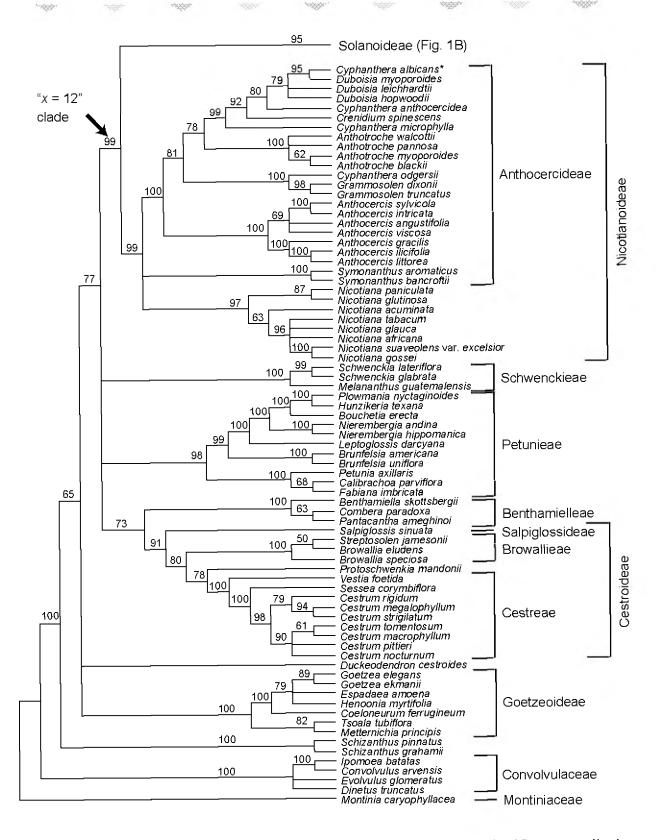
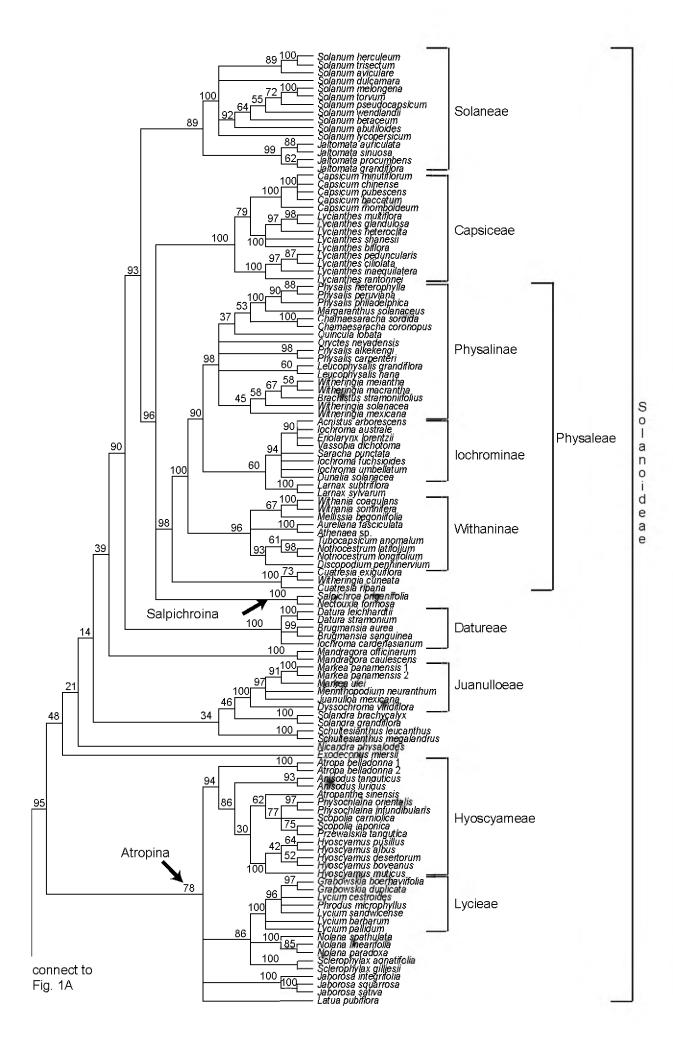


Fig. 1. Solanaceae phylogeny depicted as strict consensus tree based on combined ndhF and trnLF sequences. Numbers above branches represent bootstrap values. Suprageneric groups recognized here are labeled to the right. Arrows indicate bases of the Atropina, Salpichroina, and "x = 12" clades. Asterisk indicates this individual may be of hybrid origin (see text).



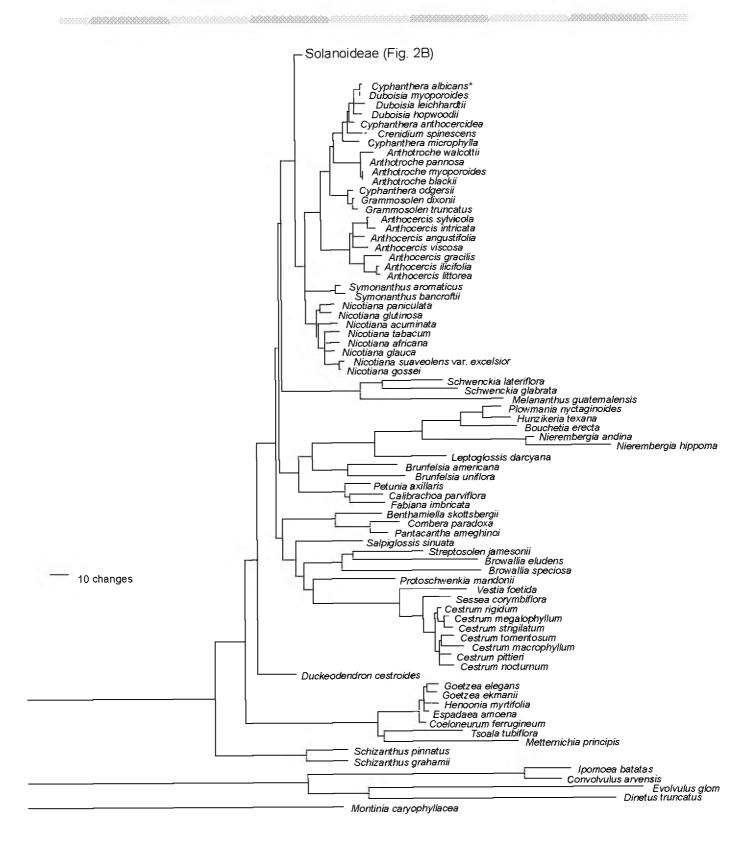
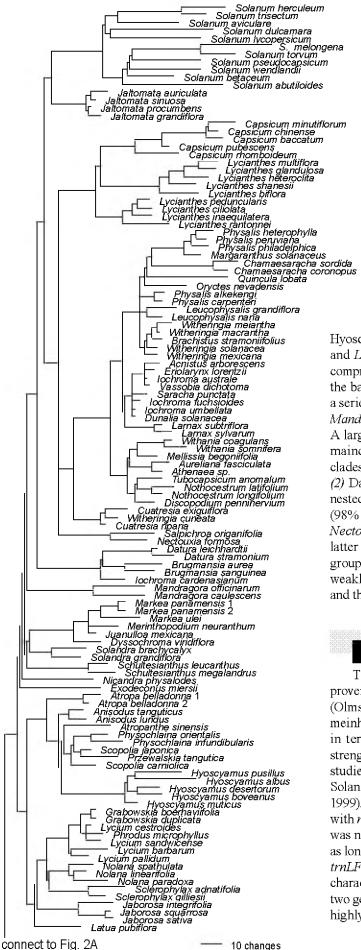


Fig. 2. Solanaceae phylogeny depicted as one of many equally most-parsimonious trees with inferred branch lengths (DELTRAN optimization in PAUP*) based on combined *ndhF* and *trnLF* sequences. Asterisk indicates this individual may be of hybrid origin (see text). Scale bar indicates ten inferred substitutions.



This analysis (Figs. 1-2) identifies Schizanthus as sister to the rest of the Solanaceae, with a clade comprising Goetzea and related genera plus Metternichia (Brazil) and Tsoala (Madagascar) as the next branch along with the monotypic Amazonian endemic Duckeodendron unresolved at this node. The next node on the tree includes four unresolved clades: (1) Cestroideae plus the Patagonian Benthamiellieae, (2) Petunieae, (3) Schwenckieae, and (4) the "x = 12" clade. The "x = 12" clade remains one of the most strongly supported major branches in the tree (99% BS) and is comprised of two strongly supported sister groups, Nicotianoideae (Nicotiana plus Anthocercideae; 99% BS) and Solanoideae (95%). Within the Solanoideae, a moderately well-supported clade (78%) comprising the

Hyoscyameae, Lycieae, Nolana, Jaborosa, Sclerophylax, and Latua is sister to a weakly supported clade (48%) comprising the remainder of the Solanoideae. A grade at the base of the latter clade includes the Juanulloeae and a series of genera of uncertain relationship (Exodeconus, Mandragora, Nicandra, Solandra, and Schultesianthus). A large and species-rich clade makes up most of the remainder of the Solanoideae and contains four distinct clades: (1) Solaneae (Jaltomata plus Solanum; 89% BS), (2) Datureae (100% BS), (3) Capsiceae (with Capsicum nested within Lycianthes; 100% BS), and (4) Physaleae (98% BS). A small clade consisting of Salpichroa and Nectouxia belongs in an unresolved position with the latter two clades. The Physaleae comprise four distinct groups, subtribes Physalinae, Iochrominae (with Larnax weakly supported as sister to Iochrominae), Withaninae, and the genus Cuatresia.

DISCUSSION

The results of this analysis provide a significant improvement over past phylogenetic studies of Solanaceae (Olmstead & Palmer, 1992; Olmstead & al., 1999; Gemeinholzer & Wink, 2001; Martins & Barkman, 2005) in terms of taxonomic representation, resolution, and strength of support for many clades in the tree. In prior studies, rbcL provided relatively little information within Solanaceae (Olmstead & Sweere, 1994; Olmstead & al., 1999). Thus, for this study, trnLF was sequenced along with ndhF. Since rbcL was not available for most taxa, it was not included in analyses here. Though only ca. 45% as long as *ndhF*, the primarily noncoding sequence in the trnLF region has 60% as many parsimony informative characters as ndhF. Results of individual analyses of the two gene regions (not shown) were both well resolved and highly congruent with each other.

In general, results from past molecular phylogenetic studies are corroborated with additional support for many groups. In several cases, groups that were either poorly supported or ambiguous in resolution in past studies are now fully resolved and well supported. Results from the only molecular phylogeny based on nuclear DNA sequences with representative sampling throughout Solanaceae (Martins & Barkman, 2005) are consistent with these results in many places, as noted in the discussion of individual clades, but lack sufficient resolution or sampling to provide comparison with these results in many other places.

The results presented here confirm the inclusion of several genera often excluded from Solanaceae (e.g., Goetzea and related genera Espadaea, Henoonia, and Coeloneurum, Nolana, Duckeodendron, and Sclerophylax) and extend those results to also include Tsoala within Solanaceae. Typically, justification for their exclusion in traditional classifications (e.g., Cronquist, 1981; Thorne, 1992; Takhtajan, 1997) was based on one or more traits, usually ovary and fruit characters, thought to be definitive for the group (see Hunziker, 2001), despite the recognition that the genera were closely related to Solanaceae. Knapp's treatment of fruit diversity in Solanaceae included this expanded view of gynoecial morphology in the family (Knapp, 2002). The base of the tree includes a series of branches including Schizanthus and several taxa not traditionally assigned to Solanaceae, or controversial in their placement in Solanaceae: Goetzea and relatives, Duckeodendron, and Tsoala. The remaining taxa form a clade that is the core of the Solanaceae in all traditional treatments. Below we discuss important clades individually.

Schizanthus Ruiz & Pav. — This genus of twelve species is sister to the rest of the family. Many of its unusual traits, such as strongly bilateral floral symmetry, two fertile stamens, and resupinate flowers (Hunziker, 2001) are not found in other Solanaceae or their sister group, Convolvulaceae. Thus, they are most likely to be autapomorphies of an ancient lineage, rather than ancestral for the family. Within Schizanthus, phylogenetic analysis shows that the broad range of floral diversity is linked to pollinator diversity, with concerted evolution in floral traits associated with pollination syndromes proceeding from bee to hum mingbird and moth pollination (Pérez & al., 2006). The restriction of Schizanthus to southern South America (Chile and Argentina) may reflect a southern hemisphere origin for the family (see below), but inferring ancestral states of either morphology or geographic ancestry from a relict sister group is inappropriate without solid phylogenetic information both above and below it on the tree. All reported counts indicate ten pairs of chromosomes. Ironically, Hunziker's (2001) classification recognizes the isolated nature of this genus by according it the rank of subfamily and citing molecular phylogenetic studies in support of this (Olmstead & al., 1999), yet he placed it near the end of his schema in which taxa are ordered according to "their increasing complexity."

Goetzeoideae (Miers ex Airy Shaw) Thorne & **Reveal.** — The taxonomic placement of the small Antillean group consisting of Goetzea, Espadaea, Henoonia, and Coeloneurum, with a total of seven species, has been problematic due to differences in its fruit type (drupe), pollen, and wood anatomy relative to other putatively related families (Santiago-Valentin & Olmstead, 2003). After being assigned to several different families, they were first suggested to belong to Solanaceae by Wettstein (1895), but have most often been placed in their own family, Goetzeaceae, in recent classifications (Cronquist, 1981; D'Arcy, 1991; Thorne, 1992; Takhtajan, 1997; Hunziker, 2001). Olmstead & al. (1999) provided the first molecular evidence for their placement in Solanaceae. Subsequent studies (Fay & al., 1998; Santiago-Valentin & Olmstead, 2003) showed that the monotypic Metterni*chia*, formerly placed near *Cestrum*, is related to *Goetzea*. In this study we find that the enigmatic and monotypic Tsoala also belongs here, as sister to Metternichia (tissue of Tsoala kindly provided by T. Deroin). Tsoala was placed initially in Solanaceae tribe Cestreae primarily due to similarities in pollen morphology with Metternichia, which was then assigned to Cestreae (Bosser & al., 1992). Hunziker (2001) disagreed with this placement, choosing instead to emphasize differences between the two genera. He also argued that the apparent lack of internal phloem in Tsoala excluded it from Solanaceae. However, tricolpate pollen with echinate exine sculpturing and a perforate tectum now can be seen to provide a potential synapomorphy for the clade of Metternichia, Tsoala, and the Goetzea group (Gentry, 1986; Bosser & al., 1992; Santiago-Valentin & Olmstead, 2003). Tsoala and Metternichia share the plesiomorphic trait for the family of capsular fruits, whereas members of the Goetzea group have drupes. Metternichia is from the coastal forests of southeastern Brazil and Tsoala is a monotypic Malagasy endemic genus once thought to be extinct (Bosser & al., 1992), but rediscovered in 2004 (G. Schatz, pers. comm.). Although the subfamily Goetzeoideae originally included just the Antillean genera (Olmstead & al., 1999), these results expand its circumscription to include Metternichia and Tsoala. Chromosome counts are available for Espadaea (2n = 48; Xiqués & al., 1994) and Metternichia (2n = 26; Moscone & al., 2005).

Duckeodendron Kuhlmann. — Duckeodendron is a monotypic genus of large trees native to lowland Amazonia. Hunziker (and others) excluded Duckeodendron from Solanaceae (Hunziker, 2001), primarily because of its drupaceous fruits, despite the fact that it does have internal phloem and floral characteristics consistent with Solanaceae. In our results, Duckeodendron is unresolved

with respect to Goetzeoideae and the rest of the Solanaceae exclusive of *Schizanthus*. Based on *rbcL* sequences, Fay & al. (1998) placed *Duckeodendron* sister to other Solanaceae to the exclusion of *Goetzea*, whereas Santiago-Valentin & Olmstead (2003) obtained a tree based on three chloroplast genes that united *Duckeodendron* with Goetzeoideae with modest support (78%). These two groups share a unique deletion in the *trnLF* spacer (scored as a character in the phylogeny analysis here), which may indicate monophyly of this group despite the fact that this relationship is not recovered in the present analysis. Unfortunately, inability to resolve this relationship prevents drawing conclusions about the origin of the drupe-like fruits shared by *Duckeodendron* and Goetzeoideae (Knapp, 2002). The chromosome number of *Duckeodendron* is unknown.

Benthamielleae Hunz. — This small group of three genera (Benthamiella, Combera, and Pantacantha) and 15 species from Patagonia and southern South America were assigned to the catch-all tribe Nicotinaeae in most traditional classifications (e.g., Hunziker, 1979). However, D'Arcy (1991) placed Pantacantha into Cestreae and Hunziker (2000) segregated these three genera of low shrub and mat-forming species into their own tribe Benthamiellieae. These are sampled here for the first time in a molecular phylogeny and form a well-supported (100%) monophyletic group that is sister to Cestroideae, forming a clade with them with moderate support (73%). The three genera share a distinctive pollen morphology with large, irregularly shaped exine ornamentations (Stafford & Knapp, 2006). Chromosome counts indicate x = 11 for all three genera (Moscone, 1989). Whether they should be included in Cestroideae is a subjective decision, not contradicted by our results, but also not strongly supported by them.

Cestroideae Burnett. — Subfamily Cestroideae of traditional Solanaceae classifications (e.g., Hunziker, 1979; D'Arcy, 1991) forms a paraphyletic grade (Olmstead & Palmer, 1992; Olmstead & al. 1999) characterized by plesiomorphic traits in the family, including capsular fruits (Knapp, 2002) with small seeds containing straight embryos. Olmstead & al. (1999) suggested a much-reduced Cestroideae containing tribes Salpiglossideae Benth. sister to Browallieae Kostel, plus Cestreae Dumort. This is corroborated here with additional sampling, including the addition of Sessea in a position sister to Cestrum and Protoschwenkia as sister to Cestreae. Salpiglossideae once were treated as belonging to Scrophulariaceae (e.g., Bentham, 1846) due to their bilaterally symmetrical flowers, but they were recognized subsequently as members of Solanaceae (e.g., Wettstein, 1895). The traditional circumscription of tribes Cestreae and Salpiglossidae has fluctuated depending on the author, and D'Arcy (1978) combined the two tribes into Cestreae, in which he recognized 15 genera and about 500 species. Fourteen of these genera were sampled here, and only five of them (Cestrum, Sessea, Browallia,

Streptosolen, and Salpiglossis) emerge on our Cestroideae clade. That the traditional Salpiglossideae were not monophyletic was suggested by D'Arcy (1978) and confirmed by Olmstead & Palmer (1992). The most recent treatment (Hunziker, 2001) restricts the group to Salpiglossis and Reyesia (not sampled here), which together comprise six species from Chile and Argentina. Salpiglossis sinuata, the only species of the two genera included in the present analysis, is sister to the rest of Cestroideae (91%). Hunziker (1995, 2001) erected the tribe Browallieae to include Browallia, a group of about three to six species of annual herbs distributed from Arizona to Mexico and Bolivia and the monotypic shrub, Streptosolen jamesonii of Peru and Ecuador. Their pollen exhibit the unusual characteristics of having 5–8 colpi and a coarsely striated exine (Gentry, 1979; Stafford & Knapp, 2006) The molecular analysis confirms this view, uniting Browallia and Streptosolen in a well-supported clade (100%). Protoschwenkia was placed formerly in tribe Schwenckieae (Hunziker, 2001) and its unexpected placement in Cestroideae as sister to Cestreae (78%) was confirmed by sampling two separate accessions of this species (Appendix). The dorsifixed anther attachment in Protoschwenkia is inconsistent with other members of Schwenckieae and is similar to Sessea and other Cestroideae (Hunziker, 2001). The monotypic Protoschwenkia occurs in Andean Bolivia and adjacent Brazil, which also is consistent with the south temperate and Andean distribution of most Cestreae as opposed to the distribution of Schwenckieae in the more tropical regions of eastern South America and the Caribbean.

Tribe Cestreae consists of the small genera Vestia (one species from Chile) and Sessea (five Andean species) as successive sister groups to Cestrum. Metternichia, assigned to Cestreae in most treatments, is here placed in Goetzeoideae. Vestia and Sessea exhibit the capsular fruits characteristic of the rest of Cestroideae (and most other basal lineages of Solanaceae), whereas Cestrum has fleshy, berry-like fruits (Knapp, 2002). These three genera also lack the Arabidopsis-type telomeres typical of most angiosperms and found in all other Solanaceae examined (Sykorova & al., 2003). Cestrum represents a significant radiation relative to the rest of this clade, with about 175 species distributed throughout the tropical regions of the New World. The early diverging lineages of Cestroideae retain a southern Andean distribution and if, as seems likely, Benthamiellieae are sister to this lineage, an origin in southern South America can be inferred. Chromosome counts for Salpiglossis, Browallia, and Streptosolen are predominantly x = 11 (with 10 and 12 reported in *Browallia* and *Streptosolen*, respectively). *Vestia* and *Cestrum* are x = 8. Counts are not available for Protoschwenkia and Sessea.

Petunieae Horan. — This clade includes an assemblage of genera assigned to various tribes (e.g., Nicotianeae, Salpiglossideae) in traditional classifications.

Petunia s.l. and Fabiana are sister to the remaining genera of this clade. Wijsman (1990) split *Petunia*, resurrecting the genus Calibrachoa. This split is consistent with chromosome base numbers of x = 9 for *Petunia* (also for *Fabi*ana) and x = 7 for Calibrachoa. A cpDNA RFLP analysis (Ando & al., 2005) and DNA sequence analysis including both cpDNA and mtDNA (Kulcheski & al., 2006) confirm the monophyly of Calibrachoa and Petunia. However, Fabiana was not included in those studies. Our results suggest that Fabiana may be sister to Calibrachoa, but support is weak (68%) and sampling inadequate to lend confidence to that inference. Current work on Fabiana should resolve its relationship to Petunia and Calibrachoa (I. Peralta, pers. comm.) These taxa are distributed in southern South America with one species of Calibrachoa (C. parviflora) exhibiting a disjunct distribution between southern South America and North America.

Brunfelsia, with ca. 45 species, is widely distributed in tropical regions of South and Central America and has radiated in the Greater Antilles, with about 22 species found there. Leptoglossis and Nierembergia are South American, distributed principally from Peru to Argentina (with one species of the latter in Mexico), whereas Bouchetia, Hunzikeria and Plowmania are distributed from Guatemala and Mexico to the SW United States (with one species of the former in South America). Petunioideae seem likely to have originated in southern South America, where Petunia, Calibrachoa, Fabiana, Leptoglossis, Nierembergia and most of the potential sister groups (i.e., Cestroideae, Bentham iellieae, Schwenckieae, "x = 12" clade) are located, and to have diversified northward into Central and North America in two lineages, Brunfelsia and the Bouchetia, Hunzikeria, Plowmania clade. Chromosome numbers based on x = 11 (Brunfelsia), 10 (Leptoglossis), 9 (Petunia, Fabiana, Nierembergia), 8 (Bouchetia, Hunzikeria, Nier*embergia*), and 7 (*Calibrachoa*) are all present in Petunieae and appears to represent a descending aneuploid series in each of the two main branches of Petunieae.

Schwenckieae Hunz. — This small clade of three genera and approximately 30 species is widely distributed in low elevation, tropical regions from the Antilles to Argentina. Schwenckia (ca. 25 spp.) and Melananthus (5 spp.) are both distributed throughout that range and the monotypic Heteranthia is a rare Brazilian endemic. Unusual corolla lobes with "lobules" flanking the lobes themselves, and two fertile stamens with ventrifixed anthers are distinguishing characters for the group (D'Arcy & Benitez de Rojas, 1991; Hunziker, 2001). Our results place the monotypic Protoschwenkia (endemic to the Andes), which lacks the corolla lobules and has dorsifixed anthers, with Cestroideae (see above), where it is a better fit geographically. Some earlier studies suggested that Schwenckieae may be the sister group to the rest of the family, although always with low bootstrap support (Fig. 1 in Olmstead & al., 1999; Santiago-Valentin & Olmstead, 2003). The exact placement of Schwenckieae is uncertain in this study, but *Schizanthus* has moderate support as the first branch in Solanaceae, with Goetzeoideae and *Duckeodendron* both diverging before Schwenckieae. Chromosome counts of n = 10 and 12 have been reported for *Schwenckia* (Rao & D'Arcy, 1989; Chiarini, 2003). The widespread distribution of this small clade combined with the lack of resolution with respect to outgroups makes it difficult to speculate as to the geographic origin of this group.

" $\mathbf{x} = 12$ " clade. — These results corroborate prior cpDNA (e.g., Olmstead & al., 1999) and nuclear SAMT (Martins & Barkman, 2005) studies in finding strong support (99%) for a clade that includes the traditional subfamily Solanoideae plus Nicotiana and the Australian endemic tribe Anthocercideae. Whereas Anthocercideae have been difficult to place to subfamily in previous classifications (Haegi, 1979, 1986), Nicotiana has never been placed with Solanoideae. This clade, with its putative cytological synapomorphy of chromosome numbers based on 12 pairs, was first recognized by Olmstead & Palmer (1992) and the informal name "x = 12" clade given to it (Olmstead & Sweere, 1994).

Nicotianoideae Miers. — Most recent Solanaceae classifications have assigned *Nicotiana* to the tribe Nicotianeae (Hunziker, 1979, 2001; D'Arcy, 1991), which was a catch-all group containing *Nicotiana* and other genera lacking the defining traits of the other tribes of traditional Cestroideae (Anthocercideae, Cestreae, Salpiglossideae, Schwenckieae). In our results the other genera are distributed among Benthamiellieae and Petunieae. *Nicotiana* is monophyletic and part of a larger well-supported clade that includes the Anthocercidae.

Anthocercideae G. Don. — Anthocercideae is an Australian clade (one species reaches New Caledonia) of seven genera and 31 species and is characterized by a suite of traits including flowers with a non-accrescent calyx, broadly actinomorphic corollas, and stamens with extrorse anther dehiscence attached low in the corolla tube (for more details, see Haegi, 1986; Garcia & Olmstead, 2003). Its relationship to other Solanaceae was unclear before molecular systematic studies placed it firmly with Nicotiana (Olmstead & Palmer 1992; Garcia & Olmstead 2003; Clarkson & al., 2004). Our results do not resolve Anthocercideae as monophyletic, with Symonanthus in an unresolved position relative to Nicotiana and the other six genera of Anthocercideae. However, Clarkson & al. (2004) provide evidence from more DNA regions to support monophyly of Anthocercideae and Garcia & Olmstead (2003) argue that the distinctive morphology shared by all seven genera support their monophyly. Our analysis includes one additional species of Duboisia (D. hopwoodii) and finds, as did previous studies, that our accession of Cyphanthera albicans is nested within Duboisia. In a monograph of Anthocercideae, Haegi (1983) reports cases of natural hybridization between *D. myoporoides* and *C. albicans*. Material of *C. albicans* for our study was collected in a region of overlap in the distribution of these two species (B. Lepschi, pers. comm.) and may represent a hybrid individual with *D. myoporoides* as the maternal parent, hence the close sequence similarity in cpDNA between the two accessions in our study and previous studies that included these accessions (Garcia & Olmstead, 2003; Clarkson & al., 2004).

Nicotiana L. originated and diversified initially in the New World (ca. 50 species) and underwent a subsequent secondary radiation in Australia (section Suaveolentes, ca. 25 species) including one species in Africa (Olmstead & Palmer, 1991; Clarkson & al. 2004). Knapp & al. (2004) presented a revised sectional classification for Nicotiana based on recent molecular phylogenetic studies (Aoki & Ito, 2000; Chase & al. 2003; Clarkson & al., 2004).

Given that all of the probable outgroups to Nicotianoideae are New World in origin, it seems likely that the group originated in the New World. The basal split between Anthocercideae and *Nicotiana* means that the New World ancestor of Anthocercideae did not leave an extant lineage in the New World. Since the colonization of Australia by *Nicotiana* came relatively late in the diversification of that group, there must have been two dispersals to Australia in the history of Nicotianoideae to account for their present distribution. Thus, the common distribution in Australia of *Nicotiana* sect. *Suaveolentes* and Anthocercideae is coincidence, rather than further evidence of relationship.

Solanoideae Kostel. — The Solanoideae in its traditional circumscription (e.g., Hunziker, 1979; D'Arcy, 1991; but not Hunziker, 2001) is monophyletic (95%) and characterized by fleshy fruits (Knapp, 2002) with flattened seeds containing curved embryos, all of which represent derived traits in Solanaceae. Solanoideae have been recognized in virtually all prior classifications of Solanaceae, although Hunziker (2001) segregated Juanulloeae into its own subfamily and continued the traditional practice of excluding *Nolana* and *Sclerophylax* from the family altogether. The *SAMT* study of Martins & Barkman (2005) also identified Solanoideae with strong support.

The base of this clade is well resolved in the strict consensus tree (Fig. 1), but with a series of branches having poor bootstrap support. Several small genera (Exodeconus, Mandragora, Nicandra, Schultesianthus, Solandra) represent lineages from the early diversification of this clade with no close relatives. Their phylogenetic isolation is reflected in traditional classifications in several instances where monogeneric tribes have been recognized (e.g., Mandragoreae, Nicandreae, Solandreae). Relationships suggested for some of these taxa in previous phylogenetic studies with limited sampling or data (e.g., Exodeconus

with *Nicandra*; Olmstead & Palmer, 1992; Olmstead & al., 1999; *Mandragora* with Hyoscyameae; Hoare & Knapp, 1997) are not corroborated here, although there continues to be weak support (46%) for *Solandra* with Juanulloeae (Knapp & al., 1997; Olmstead & al. 1999).

Despite the weak support for the branching order at the base of Solanoideae, our results provide strong evidence of relationships among some groups that were not clear before. Apart from the isolated genera just mentioned, four clades, all with bootstrap support ≥ 78%, comprise the rest of Solanoideae: (1) Atropina (Hyoscyameae, Lycieae, Jaborosa, Latua, Nolana, and Sclerophylax), (2) Juanulloeae, (3) Solaneae, Capsiceae, Physaleae, and Datureae, and (4) Salpichroina (Salpichroa and Nectouxia). The suffix "-ina" (Atropina and Salpichroina) is used here to denote unranked informal clade names (see Kron, 1997).

Atropina (Hyoscyameae Endl., Lycieae Lowe, Jaborosa Juss., Latua Phil., Nolana L., and Sclero**phylax Miers).** — Hyoscyameae is an Old World group comprising seven to eight genera and ca. 40 species (An-Ming & Zhang, 1986; D'Arcy & Zhang, 1992) and strongly supported as monophyletic in our analysis (94%). The characteristic circumscissile capsule, found in all species except Atropa, develops from a berry-like immature fruit, thus its ontogeny reflects its ancestry (Knapp, 2002). Atropa is sister to the rest of the Hyoscyameae in our analysis, as has been found in previous molecular phylogenetic studies (Olmstead & al. 1999; Yuan & al., 2006), but this relationship is not reflected in traditional classifications, where the berry-like fruit of Atropa typically results in its placement apart from other Hyoscyameae. On the basis of secondary chemistry, Tétényi (1987) placed Atropa with Hyoscyameae and Mandragora. The number of species in Atropa is controversial, with estimates of two (Hunziker, 2001), three (Hoare & Knapp, 1997), or five (D'Arcy, 1991). A second accession of Atropa belladonna was included here to confirm the placement of Atropa (Appendix). These results corroborate previous studies (e.g., Olmstead & al., 1999) that exclude Mandragora from this clade. Within Hyoscyameae, Anisodus, Hyoscyamus, and Physochlaina are found to be monophyletic, whereas Scopolia, with two widely disjunct species in Japan and Europe, is inferred to be paraphyletic with respect to the monotypic Przewalskia from the Tibetan plateau. Physochlaina, Przewalskia, and Scopolia form a clade (77%), which is corroborated by analysis of waxy gene sequences (Yuan & al., 2006).

Lycium is one of the largest genera of Solanaceae, with about 80 species distributed worldwide. It comprises the core of tribe Lycieae along with two small genera, Grabowskia (3–4 species mostly of southern South America, but with one disjunct in South America and Mexico) and Phrodus (one species from Chile). Morphological and molecular phylogenetic studies have shown

that Grabowskia is nested within Lycium (Bernardello & Chiang-Cabrera, 1998; Miller & Venable, 2000; Miller, 2002; Levin & Miller, 2005; Levin & al., 2007), a result that is corroborated here, with the additional conclusion that Phrodus also is derived from within Lycium (this is unresolved in Levin & Miller, 2005). If these results hold up, maintaining Grabowskia and Phrodus as distinct genera in a phylogenetic classification will be untenable and tribe Lycieae will be redundant with *Lycium*. However, evidence from the nuclear gene waxy places Phrodus as sister to Lycium and Grabowskia, albeit with weak support (Levin & al., 2007). Despite weak conflicting evidence from ITS (Miller & Venable, 2000; Miller, 2002), prior molecular phylogenetic studies of *Lycium* (Fukuda & al., 2001; Levin & Miller, 2005; Levin & al., 2007) concluded that there was a single colonization event in Africa with subsequent migration to Eurasia and Australia. All studies support a North American ancestry of the Hawaiian and Pacific Island species, L. sandwicense (as L. carolinianum var. sandwicense in Levin & al., 2007).

In addition to Hyoscyameae and Lycieae, the Atropina clade contains four genera mostly of temperate South America and extending up the Pacific coastal foothills of the Andes to Peru. Both Nolana and Sclerophylax are frequently segregated from Solanaceae and considered distinct families (e.g., Hunziker, 2001). Nolana has a curious fruit comprised of five or more carpels in which individual ovules intrude into the ovary wall forming distinct chambers and, ultimately a series of single-seeded mericarps (Bondeson, 1986). Sclerophylax also has fruit morphology atypical for Solanaceae, with ovules reduced to one or a few per carpel and forming a dry indehiscent fruit. Nolana comprises ca. 90 species distributed primarily in the coastal "lomas" formations in southern Peru and Chile (Tago-Nakazawa & Dillon, 1999; Dillon & al., 2007). Sclerophylax is mainly Argentine in distribution. Jaborosa (including Trechonaetes, represented here by J. sativa) is a genus of ca. 25 species in southern South America, primarily Argentina. Latua is a monotypic genus from Chile most commonly assigned to Nicotianeae (Hunziker, 1979; D'Arcy, 1991), or to its own tribe, Latueae (Hunziker, 2001) in the paraphyletic Cestroideae, which is consistent with its chromosome number of n = 9 (based on a single count in Plowman & al., 1971). The presence of a berry-like fruit in Latua dictated its placement in Solanoideae in early treatments (e.g., Bentham, 1876). Tétényi (1987) suggested a placement near Jaborosa based on embryological and secondary chemical traits, but this was disputed by Hunziker (2001). Because the molecular results reported here are at odds with the placement of the genus in recent classifications, we sampled two accessions of Latua to confirm our findings (Appendix).

The geographic distribution of Atropina suggests a history very similar to that of Nicotianoideae. Based on

outgroup distributions, an origin in the New World must be inferred, but, as was the case with Anthocercideae, no remnant lineage of Hyoscyameae is found there, and, as in *Nicotiana*, a relatively recent colonization event in *Lycium*, apparently to Africa, has led to its present distribution (Fukuda & al., 2001).

Juanulloeae Hunz. — This clade of approximately five genera and 30 species is widely distributed in tropical regions of Central and South America, but is poorly known and generic boundaries are not clear (Knapp & al., 1997; but see Hunziker, 2001 for different generic circumscriptions). Many species are epiphytes or lianas, life forms unusual elsewhere in Solanaceae. Some genera are bat-pollinated and several are myrmecophilous. Schultesianthus usually is included in this group (Knapp & al., 1997; Hunziker, 2001), but here is only weakly supported (34%) in a clade along with Juanulloeae and Solandra. The species of Markea sampled here (M. panamensis and M. ulei) were segregated into Hawkesiophyton by Hunziker (1977), but we follow terminology of Knapp & al. (1997) in this study. Thus Markea sensu Hunziker (2001) was not sampled. Morphological cladistic analyses (Persson & al., 1994; Knapp & al., 1997) suggested that Schultesianthus and Solandra were nested within Juanulloeae, a relationship that is not supported here.

Solaneae, Capsiceae, Physaleae, Datureae, Salpichroa Miers, and Nectouxia Kunth. — This clade was identified by Olmstead & al. (1999) in an analysis that focused on relationships within Solanoideae, but with very weak support. In our study, the clade has 90% bootstrap support and is further supported by the presence of a hypervariable region of the trnLF intergenic spacer consisting of long repeats and repeat fragments (not used in the analysis) that is not found elsewhere in the family. Similar repeats have been found in other groups (Asteraceae—Vijverberg & Bachmann, 1999; Brassicaceae—Koch & al., 2005). Within this clade, Datureae is sister to a clade comprised of the other groups. The latter clade (93%) corresponds closely to tribe Solaneae sensu D'Arcy (1991) and Hunziker (2001) with the inclusion of Nectouxia and Salpichroa (assigned to tribe Jaborosae in those treatments).

Datureae Dumort. — Datura, with eleven species, and Brugmansia, with ca. six species, are herbaceous and woody representatives of this group, respectively. These are among the most widely distributed and important hallucinogenic plants used by indigenous peoples in the New World (Schultes, 1979). Datureae occupy a strongly supported position as sister to the large clade containing Solaneae, Capsiceae, Physaleae, and Salpichroina. Whether to retain Brugmansia as distinct from Datura is an old debate, but results of a cladistic analysis found both to be monophyletic and sister to each other (Persson & al., 1999), a result corroborated here, albeit with minimal sampling

(two species per genus). An unanticipated finding here is that *Iochroma cardenasianum* is found to belong in this clade (data kindly provided by S. Smith). *Iochroma cardenasianum* is a microphyllous shrub native to dry Andean environments in Bolivia. It has flowers very reminiscent of the "angel's trumpet" flowers of *Brugmansia*, which may reach 30 cm or longer, but are much smaller, measuring about 3 cm in length. Despite early records of *Datura* in Asia and its presence in some interpretations of pre-Columbian texts from south Asia (Geeta & Gharaibeh, 2007), Datureae is probably a New World group that was transported to Asia early in post-European contact (Symon & Haegi, 1991; Daunay & al., 2007).

Salpichroina (Salpichroa Miers and Nectouxia Kunth). — Salpichroa, with ca. 15 species distributed primarily in Andean South America, and the monotypic Nectouxia of Mexico and west Texas form a well-supported clade of uncertain relationship to Capsiceae, Physaleae, and Solaneae. D'Arcy (1991) and Hunziker (2001) placed these genera with Jaborosa in tribe Jaboroseae based on the presence of trinucleate pollen, otherwise uncommon in the family. This apparently is a convergent trait.

Physaleae Miers. — Solaneae and Capsiceae are two of the most species-rich clades in Solanaceae, yet each has only two genera as presently conceived. In contrast, the closely related clade Physaleae has approximately 200 species divided into some 25 genera. Given that these clades are of comparable age (Capsiceae and Physaleae are sisters and Solaneae diverged shortly before, thus making it difficult to resolve relationships among them), it is curious why taxonomists have split Physaleae so finely at the rank of genus while in the other two clades few genera have been accepted. This may be due to the presence of the distinctive trait of poricidal anthers in Lycianthes and Solanum, thus leading to recognition of large clades as single genera in Capsiceae and Solaneae. Within Physaleae, we recognize five clades, Iochrominae, Physalinae, Withaninae, each with about eight genera, plus Larnax and Cuatresia as separate small clades. Hunziker (2001) recognizes four groups (subtribes within his Solaneae) comprising this set of taxa plus three genera (Capsicum, Exodeconus, Jaltomata) that do not belong with them in our analyses. Three of his groups each contain genera representing three or four of our clades, thus signifying a very different concept for his groupings. Before Hunziker's most recent classification (Hunziker, 2001), most of the genera in Physaleae were assigned to a large tribe Solaneae in traditional classifications with no subdivisions indicating relationship (Wettstein, 1895; Hunziker, 1979; D'Arcy, 1991). Although our results do not permit strong inference on species-level relationships in Physaleae and, thus, conclusions about the monophyly of genera are not possible in most cases, relationships among the clades are well supported, with Cuatresia sister to the rest (Figs. 1B, 2B).

Cuatresia is a group of ca. eleven tropical lowland forest species distributed from Guatemala to Bolivia. It has often been confused with Witheringia, and Hunziker (2001) placed Cuatresia and Witheringia together with seven other genera in subtribe Witheringinae. However, Witheringia and Cuatresia are clearly distinct morphologically and phylogenetically. Several species originally described in Witheringia have been transferred to Cuatresia, and at least one other, W. cuneata, awaits transfer (Fig. 1).

Larnax and Deprea (not sampled here) are distributed primarily in the Andes from Colombia to Bolivia. Historically, the taxonomy of these genera has been confused, with species originally placed in seven genera now assigned to either Deprea or Larnax (Sawyer, 2005). Furthermore, the distinctions between the two genera have been unclear and have varied according to taxonomic opinion. Recent morphological cladistic work by Sawyer (2001, 2005) places seven species in Deprea and 25 in Larnax. The two genera can be distinguished by androecial and pollen characters as well as corolla shape (campanulaterotate in Larnax vs. infundibular in Deprea). As a result of these studies, Deprea sylvarum was transferred to Larnax, and thus our sampling does not include species of Deprea as defined by Sawyer (2005). Our results place Larnax as sister to Iochrominae, but with weak support for the inclusive group (60%). Evidence from one morphological cladistic analysis suggested a placement for Deprea and Larnax near Physalis, in particular near the sometimessegregated genus Tzeltalia, with which they share a woody habit and high elevation habitats (Estrada & Martinez, 1999), whereas another such study (Sawyer, 2005) suggested Deprea was close to Witheringia and Larnax was sister to most of Physaleae. However, nuclear ITS and waxy sequences do not place Larnax close to other Physaleae, but instead sister to Capsiceae (Whitson & Manos, 2005). A study using two nuclear gene regions (Smith & Baum, 2006) placed *Larnax* in Physaleae, but sister to *Cuatresia*. Obviously, more molecular work using intensive sampling within the Physaleae and Capsiceae is desirable to ascertain the phylogenetic relationships of Deprea and Larnax.

Withaninae Bohs & Olmstead, subtrib. nov. Type genus: Withania Pauq. — Herbae frutices vel arbores pro parte maxima ex orbe antiquo. Flores in fasciculis axillaribus dispositi, pedunculis carentes. Corollae campanulatae urceolatae rotatae vel hypocrateriformes. Fila saepe appendicibus lateralibus conspicuis sulcum nectariferam formantibus. Comprendit genus Withaniam et genera propinqua.

Herbs, shrubs, or trees primarily from the Old World. Flowers in axillary fascicles; peduncle absent. Corollas campanulate, urceolate, rotate, or salverform. Filaments often with conspicuous lateral appendages forming nectar grooves. The subtribe includes *Withania* and related genera.

This small clade of ca. forty species is quite literally "all over the map", with representatives in South America, Atlantic oceanic islands (e.g., Canaries, St. Helena), Africa, Europe, south, west, and east Asia, and the Hawaiian Islands. Few to no morphological synapomorphies have been identified for this clade, but all genera have axillary fasciculate inflorescences that lack peduncles. Many members of this clade have conspicuous lateral filament appendages that may form a "nectar groove". However, other genera outside the clade may also exhibit these traits. Withanolide steroidal alkaloids are known from Withania and Discopodium (Hunziker, 2001), but these also occur in genera outside the clade (Tétényi, 1987).

Three small clades are identified in our results, with relationships among them unresolved. One clade includes Athenaea and Aureliana (100%) and is distributed in southern Brazil and adjoining regions of Argentina, Bolivia, and Paraguay. A second clade (67%) includes Mellissia, a monotypic genus from St. Helena, and Withania, the largest and most widely distributed genus in the group, occurring from the Canary Islands across Africa, southern Europe, and Asia. Mellissia was thought to be extinct before being rediscovered in the 1990's (Fay & al., 2007; previously unpublished *ndhF* sequence kindly provided by Q. Cronk). Debate over generic concepts for Withania (i.e., whether to include Archiphysalis, Mellissia, and Physaliastrum) has led to disagreement over the number of genera recognized (D'Arcy & Zhang, 1992; Hunziker, 2001). Hunziker (2001) included Mellissia within Withania, and the molecular results support their close relationship. Stylar heteromorphism has been noted in *Athenaea*, Aureliana, and Withania, and several species of Withania have been shown to be dioecious (Hunziker, 2001; Anderson & al., 2006). Thus, heterostyly may be a morphological feature that unites the Withania and Athenaea/Aureliana clades. The third clade (93%) includes Nothocestrum, with four species endemic to Hawaii, Tubocapsicum (one species, China), and Discopodium, a monotypic genus from the mountains of equatorial Africa. Virtually all of the rest of Physaleae is New World in distribution, so the Athenaea/Aureliana clade probably represents a relict distribution from the common ancestor of Withaninae. The sister group relationship between Tubocapsicum and *Nothocestrum* and the fact that the most likely outgroups to this clade are from Africa or Eurasia suggests that the Hawaiian endemic Nothocestrum most likely arrived from the west. The remarkable geographic distribution in this small group is unrivaled in the family, except by *Lycium* and Solanum, each of which is a much larger group.

Iochrominae (Miers) Hunz. — This is a well-supported clade (94%) comprising *Acnistus*, *Dunalia*, *Eriolarynx*, *Iochroma*, *Saracha*, and *Vassobia*. Relationships within this clade are poorly resolved in our study. *Iochroma*, represented by three species here, does not

appear to be monophyletic. A detailed phylogenetic study of Iochrominae (Smith & Baum, 2006) produced greater resolution and found generic boundaries to be in disarray. A companion study of the evolution of flower size, shape, and color suggested that response to pollinator preference has led to convergence in traits traditionally used to define genera (Smith & Baum, 2007). Our study found weak support (60%) for *Larnax* as sister to Iochrominae, both groups are primarily Andean in distribution. However, they are a poor fit with Iochrominae morphologically and a clade comprising Iochrominae, *Deprea* and *Larnax* is not supported by nuclear gene data (Whitson & Manos, 2005; Smith & Baum, 2006). *Iochroma cardenasianum* from Bolivia falls out in Datureae, a result corroborated by a nuclear gene phylogeny (S. Smith, pers. comm.).

Physalinae (Miers) Hunz. — Physalinae is dominated by Physalis, with more than 75 species and a center of diversity in Mexico and North America. Morphological cladistic analyses (Axelius, 1996; Estrada & Martinez, 1999) suggest that Margaranthus and possibly Chamaesaracha, Leucophysalis, and Quincula are derived from within *Physalis*. In our results, the type and sole Asian species, P. alkekengi, falls out with the eastern North American P. carpenteri in a small clade separate from the other samples of *Physalis* (98%). A study of *Physalis* and related genera using nuclear DNA sequences (Whitson & Manos, 2005) was largely consistent with our results. They found a Central American clade consisting of Witheringia and Brachistus, with Tzeltalia and Leucophysalis viscosa (the latter two taxa not sampled here) sister to the rest of Physalinae, followed by a branch containing P. alkekengi and P. carpenteri. Their results are also consistent with ours in finding a clade comprised of Witheringia and Brachistus. Our study suggests that Witheringia is paraphyletic with respect to *Brachistus*. Despite the poor resolution at the base of Physalinae and the sparse sampling of *Physalis*, it appears that a clade comprising all Physalis species would also include at least Chamaesaracha and Margaranthus and possibly Oryctes, Quincula, and Leucophysalis, all of which occur in Central and North America (except P. alkekengi).

Capsiceae Dumort. — Lycianthes was first segregated from Solanum on the basis of a novel fruit morphology (Hassler, 1917, described in Hunziker, 2001). However, Capsicum and Lycianthes, which together comprise this clade, share a derived anatomical trait of ten nerves in the calyx vasculature as opposed to five in Solanum and most Solanaceae (D'Arcy, 1986a). Previous molecular phylogenetic studies have confirmed a close relationship between Capsicum and Lycianthes (Olmstead & Palmer, 1992; Bohs & Olmstead, 1997; Olmstead & al., 1999; Walsh & Hoot, 2001). Ironically, this fact has been used to support the segregation of Lycianthes from Solanum, but not to place it with Capsicum (Hunziker, 2001); instead,

the shared poricidal anthers of Solanum and Lycianthes were deemed more important in classification. For example, Hunziker (2001), citing D'Arcy's (1986a) work, said: "D'Arcy ... demonstrated undoubtedly that Lycianthes is more closely related to Capsicum than to Solanum ..." yet still placed Lycianthes with Solanum in his subtribe Solaninae and Capsicum with several other genera in subtribe Capsicinae. Lycianthes is a one of the largest genera in Solanaceae with 150 to 250 species (Hunziker, 2001; Dean, 2004) and is distributed in the Neotropics and tropical SE Asia, whereas Capsicum has ca. 30 species and is restricted to the New World, where it is widely distributed from the southwestern U.S. to Argentina. Olmstead & al. (1999) suggested that Capsicum was derived from a paraphyletic Lycianthes, based on cpDNA restriction site data and a limited sampling of five species of Lycianthes and two of Capsicum. However, a study by Walsh & Hoot (2001) based on chloroplast atpB-rbcL spacer and nuclear waxy sequences found both genera to be monophyletic, though with weak bootstrap support for both clades. Our results find moderately strong support for a paraphyletic Lycianthes, with Capsicum and one clade of Lycianthes joined with 79% bootstrap support. Given that Capsicum is a Linnaean genus and *Lycianthes* was described much more recently, a taxonomic change to recognize this would require either that some or all of Lycianthes be transferred to Capsicum, or that Lycianthes be split into at least two genera. The type of Lycianthes is L. lycioides (L.) Hassler, which was not sequenced in this study, but has been included in previous molecular systematic analyses (Olmstead & al., 1999; Walsh & Hoot, 2001), where it is closely related to L. rantonnei, thus, at minimum, the clade sister to Capsicum would have to be renamed in order for genera in Capsiceae to be monophyletic.

Solaneae Dumort. — Solanum, with ca. 1,400 species (D'Arcy, 1991; Nee, 1999; Hunziker, 2001; S. Knapp, pers. comm.) constitutes approximately half the species in Solanaceae. As such, it has been the focus of several molecular phylogenetic studies aimed at understanding the entire genus (Bohs & Olmstead, 1997, 1999; Olmstead & Palmer, 1997; Bohs, 2005; Weese & Bohs, 2007), or portions of it (e.g., Palmer & Zamir, 1982; Hosaka & al., 1984; Spooner & al., 1993; Bruneau & al., 1995; Castillo & Spooner, 1997; Bohs & Olmstead, 2001; Peralta & Spooner, 2001; Bohs, 2004, 2007; Spooner & al., 2004, 2005; Levin & al., 2005, 2006; Martine & al., 2006). These studies have shown that several segregate genera, including Cyphomandra, Lycopersicon, Normania, and Triguera, belong within Solanum. Perhaps equally important for understanding the evolution of the family, these studies have confirmed that Lycianthes does not belong with Solanum. Like Solanum, Lycianthes has anthers opening by terminal pores, a trait sufficiently distinctive to suggest a close relationship between the two. Prior molecular phylogenetic

studies have not been able to resolve the sister group to Solanum with confidence, with either Jaltomata or Capsicum plus Lycianthes suggested by different analyses (Olmstead & Palmer, 1992, 1997; Bohs & Olmstead, 1997; Olmstead & al. 1999). Resolution of this sister group to Solanum is important for understanding the evolution of poricidal anthers, because, if Capsiceae is the sister group to Solanum and Capsicum (without poricidal anthers) is derived from within *Lycianthes* (as seems to be the case; see above), then a single origin in the common ancestor of the inclusive group might account for the presence of this trait in both genera. However, our results find strong support (89%) for Jaltomata as sister to Solanum and likewise for Capsiceae to form a clade (96%) with Physaleae, Salpichroa and Nectouxia. Weese & Bohs (2007) also found strong support for Jaltomata as sister to Solanum based on a combined analysis of three nuclear and chloroplast genes. Thus, two origins of poricidal anthers is a more parsimonious explanation for the presence of this trait in these two groups.

Jaltomata is a genus of ca. 50 species distributed from the southwestern U.S. through Central America and the Andes to Bolivia, with a center of diversity in Peru. Phylogenetic analysis identified two primary lineages; one in South America and one in Mesoamerica (Mione & al., 1994). Solanum has a worldwide distribution, with centers of diversity in tropical America, Africa, and Australia. Solanum consists of about 12 to 15 major clades (Bohs, 2005; Weese & Bohs, 2007), the largest of which comprises subgenus Leptostemonum, the "spiny solanums" (Levin & al., 2006). The South American S. thelopodium group emerges as sister to the remainder of Solanum (Bohs, 2005; Weese & Bohs, 2007). This relationship, combined with the New World distribution of its sister genus Jaltomata, indicates that Solanum originated in the Americas, most likely in South America, and radiated several times to the Old World.

BIOGEOGRAPHY

A well-resolved phylogeny with reasonably comprehensive sampling, along with phylogenetic studies of the more inclusive group Solanales (Bremer & al. 2002; Stefanovic & al., 2002), also permits the exploration of biogeographic history of Solanaceae. The Solanales comprise two large sister clades, Solanaceae and Convolvulaceae, and five small genera, *Hydrolea*, *Grevea*, *Kaliphora*, *Montinia*, and *Sphenoclea* (Bremer & al., 2002; APG II, 2003). *Hydrolea* and *Sphenoclea* are sister taxa and comprise ca. twelve species distributed in tropical regions of the New and Old Worlds. The other three genera comprise Montiniaceae (Bremer & al., 2002) and are restricted to South Africa and Madagascar. Within Convolvulaceae, *Humbertia*,

a Malagasy endemic, is sister to the rest of the family, followed by two branches comprised of species from SE Asia and Madagascar (Stefanovic & al., 2002). New World taxa do not appear until higher in the tree, in the two main clades that form the core of Convolvulaceae. In light of the southern connections elsewhere at the base of Solanales, the placement of Schizanthus (southern South America) and Goetzeoideae (southern Brazil, Madagascar, and the Antilles) at the base of the Solanaceae suggests strongly that the Solanales are of southern hemisphere origin and possibly owe their early diversification to the break-up of Gondwana. If this is true, the distribution of Tsoala in Madagascar might be an ancient relict of that Gondwanan ancestor and be the only Old World relictual lineage in the Solanaceae. A poor fossil record for Solanaceae has thus far hampered establishment of the timing of origin of the Solanaceae. However, in an effort to estimate ages of major lineages of angiosperms (Wikstrom & al., 2001), a suggested minimum date of origin for the Solanales of 82-86 million years before present (bearing in mind a substantial error in any such estimates; Hillis & al., 1996; Magallon, 2004) suggests an origin of Solanaceae close in time to the split-up of Gondwana.

The relative completeness of the sampling and the resolution of our results permit an estimate of the number of lineages that have successfully colonized (without human assistance) outside of the New World (excluding Solanum). Lineages outside of the New World include: (1) Tsoala, (2) Nicotiana subgenus Suaveolens, (3) Anthocercidae, (4) one clade of Lycium, (5) Hyoscyameae, (6) Mandragora, (7) part of Withaninae (probably one event), (8) Physalis alkekengi, and (9) part of Lycianthes (the phylogeny of Lycianthes is still poorly known, but a relatively small group of about 20 species exists in SE Asia and may represent a single lineage). Thus, depending on whether Tsoala represents a relictual lineage or a colonization event, eight or nine dispersal events have led to successful diversification outside of the New World. Of course, if Solanaceae turns out to be much older than presently believed, then some other lineages could represent relictual Gondwanan lineages, but this seems unlikely to be the case. Solanum appears to represent a minimum of five additional events (Bohs, 2005; Levin & al., 2006; Weese & Bohs, 2007), although sufficient sampling is not yet available to permit more precise inference. The majority of Old World species in the large Leptostemonum clade ("spiny" solanums) appears to owe their distribution to a single colonization event (Olmstead & Palmer, 1997; Levin & al., 2006).

Three genera of Solanaceae have native species on Hawaii (*Lycium*, *Nothocestrum*, *Solanum*). The three endemic Hawaiian species of *Solanum* apparently belong to the Old World clade of *Leptostemonum* with connections to other South Pacific or Australasian species (Levin &

al., 2006; Whalen, 1984). Evidence from phylogenetic studies now suggests that colonization from the New World (*Lycium*), Asia (*Nothocestrum*), and the South Pacific (*Leptostemonum*) all contributed to the indigenous Hawaiian Solanaceae flora.

CHROMOSOME EVOLUTION

A traditional view of chromosomal evolution in Solanaceae posited a base chromosome number of x = 12(Raven, 1975), which typifies nearly 85% of the species in the family. This was consistent with the traditional perception that Solanoideae represented the "generalized" or ancestral subfamily (e.g., D'Arcy, 1979). However, the inference from phylogeny implies that x = 12 is a derived condition in Solanaceae, where it characterizes the large x = 12 clade. Isolated counts of x = 12 have been reported in Espadaea, Schwenckia, and Streptosolen which do not belong to the x = 12 lineage (Hunziker, 2001). Outside the x = 12 clade, several chromosome base numbers are found, but all are lower than x = 12. The ancestral condition for Cestroideae and Benthamiellieae can be inferred to be x = 11. In Petunieae, reduction in chromosome base number is apparent in the branches leading to Petunia (x = 7) and to Bouchetia and Hunzikeria (x = 8), but the ancestral number is equivocal, with 9, 10, or 11 as possibilities. Limited counts for Goetzeoideae (x = 12 or 13) and Schwenckieae (x = 10 or 12) and the absence of any counts for Duckeodendron prevent any firm inference regarding ancestral base chromosome number in those clades. Schizanthus, which is sister to the rest of Solanaceae, is consistently x = 10. Critical information from Convolvulaceae, the sister group to Solanaceae, is missing for many early diverging branches, but x = 9-15 are reported elsewhere in the family (Raven, 1975; S. Stevanovic, pers. comm.). Base chromosome numbers elsewhere in Solanales (e.g., Montiniaceae, Sphenocleaceae, Hydroleaceae) include x = 8, 10, and 12. Thus it seems difficult to speculate at this time on the ancestral chromosome number for Solanaceae.



CONCLUSIONS

These results provide a framework phylogeny for the entire family that can help integrate many previously published phylogenetic studies within Solanaceae. A comprehensive revision of the classification of Solanaceae is now within reach. However, several areas still require further study. Whereas sampling for this study was not intended to address monophyly of genera in the family, several genera appear to be non-monophyletic, including *Lycianthes* (e.g., with respect to *Capsicum*), *Physalis*

(e.g., Chamaesaracha, Margaranthus), Browallia (e.g., Streptosolen), Cyphanthera (e.g., Crenidium, Duboisia), and Lycium (e.g., Grabowskia, Phrodus). Resolution of relationships and generic limits are notably weak in each of the subtribes of Physaleae. Identification of the sister to the "x = 12" clade still eludes us and the basal relationships among Solanoideae are poorly supported. A framework phylogeny such as this can also provide the basis for inference into the time of origin of major lineages of Solanaceae. However, this endeavor is hampered by the limited fossil evidence on which to base a calibration for a molecular clock. Nonetheless, this family-wide phylogeny provides an abundance of hypotheses for testing phylogenetic, ecological, evolutionary, and biogeographical questions both within the Solanaceae and in the broader context of the angiosperms.

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Appendix. Taxa and vouchers for species sampled.

Species, geographic origin (specific to collection, if known, otherwise general for species), collector and collection number (herbarium), ndhF GenBank accession no.trnLF GenBank accession no.

Acnistus arborescens (L.) Schltdl., Central and South America, Bohs 2577 (UT), EU580855/EU580954; Anisodus luridus Link, China, BIRM S.0215/71 (BIRM), EU580856/EU580955; Anisodus tanguticus (Maxim.) Pascher, Australia, Ho & al. 118 (GH), EU580857/EU580956, Anthocercis angustifolia F. Muell., Australia, Olmstead 94-05 (WTU), AY098704/AY098671; Anthocercis gracilis Benth., Australia, H. Stace s.n. (UWA), AY098705/AY098672; Anthocercis ilicifotia Hook., Australia, Stace s.n. (UWA), AY098706/AY098673; Anthocercis intricata F. Muell., Australia, Stace s.n. (KPBG), AY098707/AY098674; Anthocercis littorea Labill., Australia, H. Stace s.n. herb. uncertain (UWA), (PERTH), or (KPBG), AY098708/AY098675; Anthocercis sylvicola T.D. McFarl. & Ward.-Johnson, Australia, Middleton s.n. (PERTH), AY098709/AY098676; Anthocercis viscosa R. Br., Australia, Symon 14835 (AD), U08914/AY098677; Anthotroche blackii F. Muell., Australia, Stace s.n. (KPBG), AY098711/AY098678; Anthotroche myoporoides C.A. Gardner, Australia, Stace s.n. (KPBG), AY098810/AY098679; Anthotroche pannosa Endl., Australia, Stace s.n. (KPBG), AY098712/AY098680; Anthotroche walcottii F. Muell., Australia, Bellairs & Bellairs 2035 (PERTH), AÝ098713/AYÒ98681; Athenaea sp., Brazil, D'Arcy (MO), EU580858/EU580957; Atropa belladonna L. 1, Eurasia, BIRM S.0078 (BIRM), U08915/-; Atropa belladonna L. 1, Eurasia, Olmstead s.n. (WTU), -/EU580958; Atropa belladonna L. 2, Eurasia, BIRM S.0051 (BIRM), EU580859/EU580959; Atropanthe sinensis (Hemsl.) Pascher, China, Schneider 2407 (GH), EU580860/EU580960; Aureliana fasciculata (Veil.) Sendtn., Brazil, Brown s.n. (IAC), EU580861/EU580961; Benthamiella skottsbergii A. Soriano, Argentina, Leuenberger & Arroyo 3711 (CORD), EU580862/-; Bouchetia erecta Dunal, Mexico, SW U.S.A., D Arcy 1791 (MO), EU580863/EU580962; Brachistus stramoniifolius (Kunth) Miers, Central America, Sousa-Pena 738a (CONN), EU580864/ EU580963; Browallia eludens Van Devender & P.D. Jenkins, U.S.A., Jenkins & al. 90-106 (WTU), EU580865/EU580964; Browallia speciosa Hook., South America, BIRM S.0416 (BIRM), AY206739/AY206753; Brugmansia aurea Lagerh. = Methysticodendron amesianum R.E. Schult. or B. amesianum (R.E. Schult.) D'Arcy, Colombia, BIRM S.0412 (BIRM), EU580866/EU580965; Brugmansia sanguinea (Ruiz & Pav.) D. Don, Colombia, Olmstead s.n. (WTU), EU580867/EU580966; Brunfelsia americana L., Antilles, Matthaei Bot. Gard. #840215, no voucher, AY206740/AY206754; Brunfelsia uniflora (Pohl) D. Don, Brazil, Brown s.n. (UEC), EU580868/EU580967; Calibrachoa parviflora (Juss.) D'Arcy, U.S.A., Sanders 5835 (COLO), EU580869/EU580968; Capsicum baccatum L., Bolivia, Eshbaugh E 1584 (MU), U08916/EU580969; Capsicum chinense Jacq., in cult., Bohs 3088 (UT), EU603442/EU603443; Capsicum minutiflorum (Rusby) Hunz., Bolivia, Bohs & al. 3012 (UT), DQ667543/EU580970; Capsicum pubescens Ruiz & Pav., in cult., Bohs 2565 (UT), DQ667544/-; Capsicum rhomboideum (Dunal) Kuntze, Ecuador, Heiser 7518 (IND), DQ667545/EU580971; Cestrum macrophyllum Vent., Puerto Rico, Olmstead 2003-10 (WTU), EU580870/EU580972; Cestrum megalophyllum Dunal, Bolivia, Bohs & Nee 2756 (UT), EU126005/EU580973; Cestrum nocturnum L., Central America, Northern South America, Olmstead s.n. (WTU), AY206741/AY206755&AY206723; Cestrum pittieri Francey, Costa Rica, Bohs 2922 (UT), EU126006/EU580974; Cestrum rigidum Rusby, Bolivia, Nee & Bohs 49653 (NY), EU126007/EU580975; Cestrum strigilatum Ruiz & Pav., Bolivia, Bohs & Nee 2811 (UT), EU126008/EU580976; Cestrum tomentosum L.f., Costa Rica, Bohs 2933 (UT), EU126009/EU580977; Chamaesaracha coronopus (Dunal) A. Gray, U.S.A., Turner 15854 (TEX), EU580871/EU580978; Chamaesaracha sordida (Dunal) A. Gray, U.S.A., Olmstead 92-245 (WTU), EU580872/EU580979; Coeloneurum ferrugineum Urb., Dominican Republic, Santiago 93-201 (MAPR), AY206742/AY206756 & AY206724; Combera paradoxa Sandwith, Argentina, Bernadello & Moscone 658 (CORD), EU580873/EU580980; Crenidium spinescens Hacgi, Australia, Lepschi & Lally 1672 (CANB), AY098714/AY098682; Cuatresia exiguiflora (D'Arcy) Hunz., Costa Rica, Bohs 2454 (UT), EU126010/EU580981; Cuatresia riparia (Kunth) Hunz., Costa Rica, Bohs 2551 (UT), EU126011/EU580982; Cyphanthera albicans Miers, Australia, Lepschi & Lally 1732 (CANB), AY098715/AY098683; Cyphanthera anthocercidea Haegi, Australia, Haegi 1456 (AD), AY098716/ AY098684; Cyphanthera microphylla Miers, Australia, Lepschi 2170 (PERTH), AY098717/AY098685; Cyphanthera odgersii (F. Muell.) Haegi, Australia, Chinnock 3100 (AD), AY098718/AY098687; Datura leichhardtii Benth., Australia, D'Arcy 17759 (MO),

Appendix. Continued.

EU580874/EU580983; Datura stramonium L., U.S.A., Olmstead s.n. (WTU), U08917/EU580984; Discopodium penninervium Hochst., Uganda, Knapp 9808 (BM), EU126012/EU580986; Duboisia hopwoodii (F. Muell.) F. Muell., Australia, Lepschi & al. 4438 (CANB), EU580876/EU580987; Duboisia leichhardtii (F. Muell.) F. Muell., Australia, Haegi 2056 (AD), AY098719/ AY098689; Duboisia myoporoides R. Br., Australia, Symon 14832 (AD), AY098720/AY098690; Duckeodendron cestroides Kuhlm., Brazil, Ribeiro 1189 (K), AY206743/AY206757 & AY206725, Dunalia solanacea Kunth, Ecuador, Smith 211 (WIS), EU580877/ EU580988; Dyssochroma viridiflora Miers, Brazil, Brown s.n. (IAC), EU580878/EU580989; Eriolarynx lorentzii (Dammer) Hunz., Argentina, Olmstead S-18 (WTU), (BIRM S.0376), EU580879/EU580990; Espadaea amoena A. Rich., Cuba, Santiago 93-202 (UPR), AY206744/AY206758 & AY206726; Exodeconus miersii (Hook. f.) D'Arcy, Galapagos Is., BIRM S.1223/73 (BIRM), EU580880/EU580991; Fabiana imbricata Ruiz & Pav., Argentina, Olmstead s.n. (WTU), EU580881/EU580992; Goetzea ekmanii O.E. Schulz, Dominican Republic, Santiago 96-2a (WTU), AY206745/AY206759 & AY206727; Goetzea elegans Wydl., Puerto Rico, Olmstead 92-220 (WTU), AY206746/-; Goetzea elegans Wydl., Puerto Rico, Santiago 89-6 (MAPR, WTU), -/ AY206760; Grabowskia boerhaviifolia (L.f.) Schltdl., Argentina, BIRM S.1801/76 (BIRM), EU580882/-; Grabowskia boerhaviifolia (L.f.) Schltdl., Argentina, Bernardello 894 (CORD), -/DQ124554; Grabowskia duplicata Arn., Argentina, BIRM S.0258/66 (BIRM), EU580883/-; Grabowskia duplicata Arn., Argentina, Bernardello & Vesprini 898 (CORD), -/DO124555; Grammosolen dixonii (F. Muell. & R. Tate) Haegi, Australia, Symon 14833 (AD), Olmstead s.n. (WTU), AY098721/AY098691; Grammosolen truncatus (Ising) Haegi, Australia, Canty 2429 (AD), AY098722/AY098692; Henoonia myrtifolia Griseb., Cuba, Santiago 96-15 (WTU), ÁY206747/ÁY206761 & AY206728; Hunzikeria texana (Torr.) D'Arcy, U.S.A., Ferguson 089 (TEX), EU580886/EU580993; Hyoscyamus albus L., Mediterranean Europe, BIRM S.1218/81 (BIRM), EU580887/EU580994; Hyoscyamus boveanus Asch. & Schweinf., Egypt, Abdel-Migid s.n. (WTU), EU580888/EU580995; Hyoscyamus desertorum (Asch. & Boiss.) Tackholm, Afghanistan, Herb. of late E. India Co. #5924 (GH), EU580889/EU580996; Hyoscyamus muticus L., Egypt, Abdel-Migid s.n. (WTU), EU580890/EU580997; Hyoscyamus pusitlus L., Egypt, Ab del-Migid s.n. (WTU), EU580891/EU580998; Iochroma australe Griseb., Bolivia, Olmstead S-17 (WTU), EU580892/EU580999; Iochroma cardenasianum Hunz., Bolivia, Smith & al. 383 (WIS), EU580893/ EU581000; Iochroma fuchsioides (Bonpl.) Miers, Colombia, Olmstead S-29 (WTU), EU580894/EU581001; Iochroma umbellatum (Ruiz & Pav.) D'Arcy, Peru, Hutchison & al. 6240 (UC), EU580895/EU581002; Jaborosa integrifolia Lam., Argentina, BIRM S.0290/83 (BIRM), EU580896/EU581003; Jaborosa sativa (Miers) Hunz. & Barboza, Argentina, BIRM S.0234 (BIRM), EU580897/EU581005; Jaborosa squarrosa (Miers) Hunz. & Barboza, Bolivia, Nee & al. 51819 (NY), EU126013/EU581004; Jaltomata auriculata (Miers) Mione, Andean South America, BIRM S.1596/76 (BIRM), EU580898/EU581006; Jaltomata grandiflora (B.L. Rob. & Greenm.) D'Arcy, Mione, & T. Davis, Mexico, D'Arcy 17709 (probably D Arcy 17749, grown at MO from seed of Tilton Davis 1114), EU580899/EU581007; Jaltomata procumbens (Cav.) J.L. Gentry, Mexico, Olmstead S-24 (WTU), U47429/AY098695; Jaltomata sinuosa (Miers) Mione, Bolivia, Nee & al. 51830 (NY), EU580900/DQ180418; Juanultoa mexicana (Schltdl.) Miers, Mexico, BIRM S.0411/69 (BIRM), U08919/EU581008; Larnax subtriflora (Ruiz & Pav.) Miers, Peru, Sawyer 777 (CONN), EU580902/EU581009; Larnax sylvarum (Standi. & C.V. Morton) N.W. Sawyer, Costa Rica, Bohs 2504 (UT), EU126022/-: Larnax sylvarum (Standl. & Morton) N.W. Sawyer, Costa Rica, Almeda 2226 (DUKE), -EU580985; Latua pubiflora (Griseb.) Baill., Chile, Gardner & al. DCI 20 (E), EU580903/EU581010; Latua pubiflora (Griseb.) Baill., Chile, Plowman 2643 (WIS), -/EU581011; Leptoglossis darcyana Hunz. & Subils, Peru, Dillon & Dillon 3684 (US), EU580904/EU581012; Leucophysalis grandiflora (Hook.) Rydb., U.S.A., Olmstead S-30 (WTU), EU580905/EU581013; Leucophysalis nana (A. Gray) Averett, U.S.A., Bartholomew 5994 (MO), EU580906/EU581014; Lycianthes biflora (Lour.) Bitter, China, Guosheng 6316 (MO), DQ667551/EU581015; Lycianthes ciliolata (M. Martens & Galeotti) Bitter, Mexico, Dean 206 (DAV), DQ667553/EU581016; Lycianthes glandulosa (Ruiz & Pay.) Bitter, Andean South America, BIRM S.1616/75 (BIRM), DQ667560/EU581017; Lycianthes heteroclita (Sendtn.) Bitter, Costa Rica, Bohs 2376 (UT), U72756/DQ180414; Lycianthes inaequilatera (Rusby) Bitter, Bolivia, Bohs 3089 (UT), DQ667561/EU581018; Lycianthes multiflora Bitter, Costa Rica, Bohs 2902 (UT), DQ667567/EU581019; Lycianthes peduncularis (Schltdl.) Bitter, Mexico, Dean 283 (DAV), DQ667570/EU581020; Lycianthes rantonnei (Carrière) Bitter, Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay, Olmstead S-96 (WTU), BIRM S.0928 (BIRM), AF500840/DQ180417; Lycianthes shanesii (F. Muell.) A.R. Bean, SE Asia; cult. by W; D'Arcy (MO), Bohs 2721 (UT), DQ667578/EU581021; Lycium barbarum L., China, Olmstead S-35 (WTU), EU580907/AB036601 & AB036572; Lycium cestroides Schltdl., Argentina, BIRM S.0368/70 (BIRM), Olmstead S-34 (WTU), U08920/AB036578 & AB036607; Lycium pallidum Miers, U.S.A., Olmstead 95-14 (WTU), EU580908/AB036584 & AB036613; Lycium sandwicense A. Gray, Hawaii, Olmstead 92-224 (WTU), EU580909/EU581022; Mandragora caulescens C.B. Clarke, Asia, Ho & al. 1172 (GH), EU580911/EU581023; Mandragora officinarum L., Mediterranean, BĪRM S.0672 (BIRM), U08922/EU581024; Margaranthus solanaceus Schltdl., Mexico, Olmstead S-37 (WTU), EU580912/EU581025; Markea panamensis Standl. 1, Panama, BIRM S.1462/73 (BIRM), EU580883/EU581026; Markea panamensis Standl. 2, Panama, Knapp & Mallet 9164 (BM), EU580885/EU581027; Markea ulei (Dammer) Cuatrec., Brazil, Bohs 3061 (UT), EU126021/EU581028; Melananthus guatemalensis (Benth.) Soler., Guatemala, King 1930 (US), EU580913/EU581029; Mellissia begoniufolia Hook. f., St. Helena, Cronk s.n. (E), EU580914/-; Merinthopodium neur anthum (Hemsl.) Donn. Sm., Costa Rica, Bohs 2490 (UT), EU126014/ EU581030; Metternichia principis J.C. Mikan, Brazil, Schnoor 88 (MO), AY206748/AY206763 & AY206729; Nectouxia formosa Kunth, Mexico, Bye 4308 (MO), EU580915/EU581031; Nicandra physalodes (L.) Gaertn., Peru, Olmstead S-38 (WTU);, U08924/ EU581032; Nicotiana acuminata (Graham) Hook., Argentina/Chile, Olmstead S-39 (WTU) BIRM S.0372 (BIRM), U08923/ AY098696; Nicotiana africana Merxm., Namibia, Clarkson 020 (BM), AJ585943/AJ577448; Nicotiana glauca Graham, Argentina, Nee & al. 51725 (BM), AJ585910/AJ577414; Nicotiana glutinosa L., Peru, BIRM S.1002 (BIRM), AY098726/AY098699; Nicotiana gossei Domin, Australia, Olmstead S-48 (WTU), BIRM S.1003 (BIRM), AY098727/AY098700; Nicotiana paniculata L., Peru, Olmstead S-53 (WTU), BIRM S.0560 (BIRM), AY098728/AY098701; Nicotiana suaveolens Lehm. var. excelsior J.M. Black, Australia, Olmstead S-44 (WTU), BIRM S.0904 (BIRM), AY098725/AY098698; Nicotiana tabacum L., in cult., no voucher, L14953/Z00044; Nierembergia andina Millán, Argentina, Nee & Bohs 50842 (NY), EU126015/-; Nierembergia hippomanica Miers, Argentina, Olmstead S-58 (WTU), EU580917/EU581033; Nolana linearifolia Phil., Chile, Dillon & Dillon 5727 (F),

Appendix. Continued.

(A), AY93634/AY101162.

EU580918/EU581034; Nolana paradoxa Lindl., Chile, Freyre s.n. (F), EU580919/EU581035; Nolana spathulata Ruiz & Pav., Peru, Dillon & Dillon 3767 (F), U08925/EU581036, Nothocestrum lattfolium A. Gray, Hawaii, Herbst & al. 725 (COLO), EU580921/ EU581037; Nothocestrum longifolium A. Gray, Hawaii, Oppenheimer s.n., (BISH), EU580922/EU581038; Oryctes nevadensis S. Watson, U.S.A., Tiehm 11982 (COLO), EU580923/EU581039; Pantacantha ameghinoi Speg., Argentina, Ambrosetti & al. 1419 (CORD), EU580924/EU581040; Petunia axillaris (Lam.) Britton, Sterns, & Poggenb., Southern Brazil to Northern Argentina, Olmstead S-60 (WTU), BIRM S.0367/68) (BIRM), U08926/AY098702; Phrodus microphyllus (Miers) Miers, Chile, Simon 484, 10/29/70, (UC), EU580925/EU581041; Physalis alkekengi L., Asia, D'Arcy 17707 (MO), U08927/DQ180420; Physalis carpenteri Rydb., U.S.A., Whitson 1133 (DUKE), EU580926/EU581042; Physalis heterophylla Nees, U.S.A., Olmstead S-64 (WTU), EU580927/ EU581043; Physalis peruviana L., Peru, Olmstead S-69 (WTU), EU580928/EU581044; Physalis philadelphica Lam., in cult., Bohs 2433 (UT), EU580929/EU581045; Physochlaina infundibularis Kuang, China, Boufford & al., 26096 (A), EU580930/EU581046; Physochlaina orientalis (Bieb.) G. Don, Russia, BIRM S.0125/71 (BIRM), EU580931/EU581047; Plowmania nyctaginoides (Standl.) Hunz. & Subils, Mexico, Breedlove & Bartholomew 55920 (MO), EU580932/EU581048; Protoschwenkia mandonii Soler., Bolivia, Nee & Solomon 32037 (US), EU580934/-; Protoschwenkia mandonii Soler., Bolivia, Nee & al. 51827 (NY), EU126023/EU581049; Przewalskia tangutica Maxim., China, Ho & al. 505 (GH), EU580935/EU581050; Quincula lobata (Torr.) Raf., U.S.A., Olmstead 93-74 (WTU), EU580936/EU581051; Salpichroa origanifolia (Lam.) Baill., South America, Olmstead S-70 (WTU), BIRM S.0291 (BIRM), EU580937/EU581052; Salpiglossis sinuata Ruiz & Pav., Chile, Olmstead S-71 (WTU), BIRM S.0181/69 (BIRM), U08928/ AY206765 & AY206730; Saracha punctata Ruiz & Pav., South America, Plowman 4651 (UC), EU580938/EU581053; Schizanthus grahamii Gill. ex Hook., Argentina, Olmstead 2004-199 (WTU), EU580939/EU581054; Schizanthus pinnatus Ruiz & Pav., Chile, Olmstead S-72 (WTU), BIRM S.0224/66 (BIRM), U08929/AY206766; Schultesianthus leucanthus (Donn. Sm.) Hunz., Mexico, Wendt 6784 (TEX), EU580940/EU581055; Schultesianthus megalandrus (Dunal) Hunz., Ecuador, Acevedo & al. 1715 (US), EU580941/EU581056; Schwenckia glabrata Kunth, Venezuela, Benitez de Rojas 3992 (MO), EU580942/EU581057; Schwenckia lateriflora (Vahl) Carvalho, Venezuela, Benitez de Rojas 3901 (MO), AY206749/AY206767; Sclerophylax adnatifolia Di Fulvio, Argentina, Nee & Bohs 50857 (NY), EU126016/EU581058; Sclerophylax gilliesii Miers, Argentina, Bartlett s.n. (UC), EU580943/EU581059; Scopolia carniolica Jacq., Europe, specimen uncertain (GH), EU580944/-; Scopolia carniolica Jacq., Europe, specimen uncertain (MO),-/EU581060; Scopolia japonica Maxim., Japan, Tsugaru & Sawada 17731 (A), EU580945/-; Scopolia japonica Maxim., Japan, Akiyama s.n. (MO), -/EU581061; Sessea corymbiflora Goudet ex R. Taylor & R. Phillips, Venezuela, Benitez de Rojas 5373 (MY), AY206750/AY206768; Solandra brachycalyx Kuntze, Costa Rica, Plowman & Gentry 2957 (MO), EU580946/EU581062; Solandra grandiflora Sw., Caribbean and South America, in cult., Matthei Bot. Gard., #840415 (no voucher), U08930/EU581063; Solanum abutiloides (Griseb.) Bitter & Lillo, Argentina, Bolivia, Olmstead S-73 (WTU), BIRM \$.0655 (BIRM), U47415/AY555453; Solanum aviculare G. Forst., Australia, BIRM \$.0809 (BIRM), U47418/ AY559238, Solanum betaceum Cav., Bolivia, Bohs 2468 (UT), U47428/DQ180426; Solanum dulcamara L., U.S.A., no voucher, U47419/AY266231; Solanum herculeum Bohs, Morocco, Jury 13742 (RNG), AF224065/DQ180466; Solanum lycopersicum L., in cult., no voucher, U08921/AY098703; Solanum melongena L., Africa, Olmstead S-91 (WTU), BIRM S.0657 (BIRM), AF224069/ DQ180406; Solanum pseudocapsicum L., Central and South America, BIRM S.O870 (BIRM), U47422/DQ180436; Solanum torvum Sw., Mexico, Central America, Olmstead S-101 (WTU), BIRM S.0839 (BIRM), L76286/AY266246; Solanum trisectum Dunal, France, Bohs 2718 (UT), AF22406/DQ180471; Solanum wendlandii Hook. f., Central America, BIRM S.0488/67 (BIRM), U47427/DQ180440; Streptosolen jamesonii (Benth.) Miers, Ecuador/Peru, Olmstead S-106 (WTU), EU580948/EU581064; Symonanthus aromaticus (C.A. Gardner) Haegi, Australia, McKinney s.n. herb. uncertain (UWA), (PERTH), or (KPBG), AY098723/ AY098693; Symonanthus bancroftii (F. Muell.) Haegi, Australia, Stace s.n. (KPBG), AY098724/AY098694; Tsoala tubiflora Bosser & D'Arcy, Madagascar, Res. Nat. 2918, Ramamonjisoa (P), EU580949/EU581065; Tubocapsicum anomalum (Franch. & Sav.) Makino, China, Chen 231 (MO), EU580950/EU581066; Vassobia dichotoma (Rusby) Bitter, Bolivia, Nee & al. 51797 (NY), EU126017/EU581067; Vestia foetida (Ruiz & Pav.) Hoffmanns., Chile, BIRM S.0105 (BIRM), AY206751/AY206769; Withania coagulans (Stocks) Dunal, Central Asia, Olmstead S-109 (WTU), EU580951/EU581068; Withania somnifera (L.) Dunal, Canary Is., Mediterranean to Central Asia, Voucher unknown; in cult. at U. Connecticut Greenhouse (#199200148), EU580952/EU581069; Witheringia cuneata (Standi.) Hunz., Costa Rica, Bohs 2394 (UT), EU126018/EU581070; Witheringia macrantha (Standi. & C.V. Morton) Hunz., Costa Rica, Bohs 2512 (UT), EU126019/EU581071; Witheringia meiantha (Donn. Sm.) Hunz., Costa Rica, Bohs 3015 (UT), EU126020/EU581072; Witheringia mexicana (B.L. Rob.) Hunz., Mexico, BIRM S.1199 (BIRM), EU580953/ EU581073; Witheringia solanacea L'Hér., Costa Rica, Bohs 2416 (UT), U72755/EU581074. Outgroups: Montinia caryophyllacea Thunb., South Africa, Olmstead 94-01 (WTU), AF130178/AY206764; Ipomoea batatas (L.) Lam., unknown, K.-J. Kim 13844 (YNUH), AF130177/-; Ipomoea batatas (L.) Lam., Costa Rica, Stefanovic 00-20 (WTU), /AY101071; Convolvulus arvensis L., U.S.A., Olmstead 92-244 (WTU), AJ236243/AY101102; Evolvulus glomeratus Nees & C. Mart., Brazil, Olmstead 92-215 (WTU), AY936341/AY101121; Dinetus truncatus (Kurz) Staples, Thailand, Staples & al. 425

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