MOLECULAR

# Phylogeny of Coreopsideae (Asteraceae) using ITS sequences suggests lability in reproductive characters 

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#### Abstract

Relationships among the 21 genera within the tribe Coreopsideae (Asteraceae) remain poorly resolved despite phylogenetic studies using morphological and anatomical traits. Recent molecular phylogenies have also indicated that some Coreopsideae genera are not monophyletic. We used internal transcribed spacer (ITS) sequences from representatives of 19 genera, as well as all major lineages in those genera that are not monophyletic, to examine phylogenetic relationships within this group. To examine the affects of alignment and method of analysis on our conclusions, we obtained alignments using five different parameters and analyzed all five alignments with distance, parsimony, and Bayesian methods. The method of analysis had a larger impact on relationships than did alignments, although different analytical methods gave very similar results. Although not all relationships could be resolved, a number of well-supported lineages were found, some in conflict with earlier hypotheses. We did not find monophyly in Bidens, Coreopsis, and Coreocarpus, though other genera were monophyletic for the taxa we included. Morphological and anatomical traits which have been used previously to resolve phylogenetic relationships in this group were mapped onto the well-supported nodes of the ITS phylogeny. This analysis indicated that floral and fruit characters, which have been used extensively in phylogenetic studies in the Coreopsideae, show a higher degree of evolutionary lability in this group than the more highly conserved vegetative and photosynthetic traits.


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## 1. Introduction

The tribe Coreopsideae (Panero and Funk, 2002) of family Asteraceae includes some familiar cultivated plants such as Cosmos, Coreopsis, and Dahlia. The tribe has been circumscribed in a variety of ways, and relationships within it have received the attention of a number of workers (Karis, 1993; Karis and Ryding, 1994; Robinson, 1981; Ryding and Bremer, 1992; Sherff and Alexander, 1955; Stuessy, 1977; Turner and Powell,

[^0]1977). Most workers have agreed that the Coreopsideae includes a core of larger genera such as Bidens, Coreocarpus, Coreopsis, Cosmos, Dahlia, and Thelesperma, and several smaller genera. However, the question of the inclusion of several smaller or monospecific genera has been somewhat problematic (Robinson, 1981; Ryding and Bremer, 1992; Stuessy, 1977). Features used to circumscribe the tribe were discussed by Robinson (1981) and Ryding and Bremer (1992), and include for example, fruits (cypselas) of the ray and disc florets (=flowers; the central and peripheral florets, respectively) radially compressed, the differentiated outer involucral bracts (reduced leaves subtending the inflorescence), and reddish resin in the fruits. Members of
the tribe also characteristically have anthochlor compounds, which are the yellow pigments of the floral tissues (Bohm and Stuessy, 2001; Crawford and Stuessy, 1981).

Another major question in addition to the delimitation of the tribe has been the monophyly and relationships of several genera, with the two largest genera, Bidens and Coreopsis, being most difficult to define (Kim et al., 1999; Mesfin, 1984, 1986, 1993; Mesfin et al., 1995, 1996, 2001). No single defining character has been identified for either of these genera; rather, a combination of characters has been used for species placement within a genus. Along with the difficulty in assigning species to some genera is the challenge of resolving relationships among the genera. An attempt to produce an explicit phylogeny for the tribe using morphological and anatomical characters produced limited resolution but suggested that three groups could be recognized (Karis and Ryding, 1994; Ryding and Bremer, 1992). One, called the "Coreopsis group," consists of Coreopsis, Coreocarpus, Cosmos, Cyathomone, Dahlia, Ericentrodea, Henricksonia, Narvalina, and Thelesperma. The characters prevalent in this group are generally opposite leaves and perfect (bisexual) disc florets. The second was designated the "Chrysanthellum group" and includes Chrysanthellum, Diodontium, Glossocardia, Isostigma, and Trioncinia. This group usually has alternate and/or basal leaves, $\mathrm{C}_{4}$ photosynthesis, bilobed ray florets, and long style branches. The last aggregation of genera was called the "Petrobium group" and includes the genera Petrobium, Dicranocarpus, Fitchia, Hidalgoa, Moonia, and Oparanthus. Ryding and Bremer (1992) and Karis and Ryding (1994) diagnosed this group by the opposite leaves, functionally male disc florets and styles with continuous stigmatic surfaces. The position of Bidens was unresolved (Karis and Ryding, 1994; Ryding and Bremer, 1992) in these studies and the authors questioned the monophyly of both it and Coreopsis.

This study used sequences from the internal transcribed spacer regions of nuclear ribosomal DNA (ITS) to construct a hypothesis of phylogenetic relationships for Coreopsideae. There are 21 genera included in the Coreopsideae by Robinson (1981) and Ryding and Bremer (1992) (excluding synonymy given by each), and this study included 19 of them. The emphasis of the study was to identify monophyletic groups within the tribe and to assess relationships among those groups. We examined the affects of different alignment parameters and analytical method (distance, parsimony, and Bayesian) on our conclusions. Once well supported groups had been identified using the ITS data, we mapped on the morphological and anatomical traits used by Ryding and Bremer (1992) to determine the homoplasy or lability of the types of traits traditionally used for classification and inferring evolutionary relationships in this group.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. DNA extraction, amplification, and sequencing

Total DNA was isolated from either fresh material, leaves dried on silica gel, or dried herbarium specimens using the method of Doyle and Doyle (1987). In some cases it was necessary to further clean DNA samples extracted from herbarium material using EluQuick (Schleicher \& Schuell, Keene, New Hampshire). When sufficient tissue from herbarium specimens was available, multiple extractions were performed to test for contamination.

For samples that were extracted from fresh or dried leaves, or from recently collected herbarium specimens, PCR amplification of the ITS region was obtained using primer ITS 4 (White et al., 1990) and a modified version of the White et al. (1990) primer ITS 5 (Kim et al., 1999). All PCR amplifications included negative controls to detect contamination.

For older herbarium specimens, amplification using these primers resulted in little or no observable amplification when viewed on an agarose gel. In such cases, a nested PCR amplification strategy was employed. An initial PCR was performed using primers 18F (5' GAT TGAATGGTCCGGTGAAG $3^{\prime}$ ) and 26R ( $5^{\prime}$ GCATT CCCAAACAACCCGAC $3^{\prime}$ ). Bovine serum albumin (BSA) was added to this PCR (to a final concentration of $1 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{ml}$ ). A small portion of the product from the initial PCR was used in a second amplification with the ITS4 and modified ITS5 primers listed above. For situations where nested PCR was used, a portion of the negative control from the initial amplification was used as template for the second amplification to check for contamination; an additional negative control was included at this step as well.

All PCR amplifications used standard cycling conditions (Sambrook and Russell, 2001). Reactions included DMSO to a final concentration of $10 \%$ to minimize amplification of pseudogenes (Buckler and Holtsford, 1996; Buckler et al., 1997). PCR products were purified by precipitation using an equal volume of PEG: NaCl ( $20 \%: 2.5 \mathrm{M}$ ).

Sequencing reactions were performed using BigDye Terminator kit (PE Applied Biosystems). Manufacturers recommendations were followed except that reaction volumes were reduced to $1 / 4$ of the recommended volume. Sequence reactions were performed using the ITS4 and modified ITS5 primers. When necessary to obtain double-stranded contigs, additional sequences using two internal primers (primers ITS2 and ITS3; White et al., 1990) were obtained. Sequences were analyzed on an ABI Prism 310 genetic analyzer (PE Applied Biosystems). Chromatographs were examined individually, then assembled into double-stranded contigs.

### 2.2. Taxon selection and sequence alignment

Representatives of most genera hypothesized as belonging to the Coreopsideae were used, with only Cyathomone and Moonia lacking (Table 1). When possible, multiple species of each genus were included. For the large, non-monophyletic genera of Coreopsis and Bidens, we used several representatives from each major lineage (see Ganders et al., 2000; Kim et al., 1999). In addition to sequences generated for this project, additional Coreopsideae and outgroup sequences were obtained from GenBank (Table 1). When many published sequences were available for a genus (e.g., Gatt et al., 2000; Kimball et al., 2003; Saar et al., 2003), the results presented in the publications were used to select several taxa that provided good representation of all major lineages within the group.

A recent study of the Asteraceae suggests that members of tribe Heliantheae are the sister clade to Coreopsideae (Goertzen et al., 2003). Our outgroup taxa were selected from Heliantheae sequences in GenBank, and included Helianthus longifolius, Phoebanthus grandiflorus, and Viguiera puruana.

We aligned the sequences using ClustalX (Thompson et al., 1997). Due to the difficulty of aligning noncoding regions over large evolutionary distances (e.g., Hickson et al., 2000), we generated several alignments using different alignment parameters. Previous research suggested that the gap open penalty has a greater impact on the alignment than the gap extension penalty (Hickson et al., 2000), so we only varied the gap opening penalty. We generated five alignments in which the gap opening penalty for both the paired and multiple alignment settings were set to $1,5,10,15$, or 20 . Some published sequences lacked the 5.8 S region and examination of the guide tree produced by ClustalX indicated that sequences which lacked the 5.8 S data clustered, though preliminary analyses indicated that these taxa formed several unrelated groups. To overcome this problem, the data were partitioned into ITS1, ITS2, and the 5.8S. Each partition was aligned separately for all five values of the gap opening penalty, and then the partition alignments were combined for analyses. The guide trees produced from the ITS1 and ITS2 partitions shared many similarities with published studies, and thus did not appear to be biased (the 5.8S region exhibited few substitutions within the Coreopsideae and thus provided too little data to compare to the ITS regions).

### 2.3. Phylogenetic analyses

All phylogenetic analyses were run on each of the five alignments (designated gap1, gap5, gap10, gap15, and gap20). Trees were rooted to the three Heliantheae outgroup taxa listed above. To determine the appropriate models for distance and Bayesian analyses, we used
the hierarchical likelihood ratio test as implemented in MODELTEST 3.06 (Posada and Crandall, 1998). Since fewer models are implemented in MrBayes, we used the MODELTEST results and hierarchy structure, and reanalyzed the data using only the models available for the Bayesian analyses. Among-site rate heterogeneity was accommodated using a four-category discrete approximation to a $\Gamma$-distribution (Yang, 1994).

To ensure that all conclusions were robust to alignment and analytical methods, multiple types of analyses were performed using each alignment. All parsimony and distance analyses were performed using PAUP* 4.0b10 (Swofford, 2003). Unless specifically mentioned, default settings were used in PAUP*. The reliability of specific groupings for both parsimony and distance analyses was examined using 500 bootstrap replicates. Due to computational limitations, parsimony analyses involved a heuristic search with 500 random sequence additions per bootstrap replicate with no branch swapping. Indels were treated as missing data. We examined two distance matrices for each alignment. One was generated using the maximum likelihood estimators in PAUP* and the model and parameters determined by MODELTEST, while the other was generated using LogDet distances. Trees were then generated using neighbor-joining.

Bayesian analyses were conducted using MrBayes 2.01 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001). Default priors were used for the base frequencies, rate matrix, branch lengths, and the shape parameter for the $\Gamma$-distribution. An uninformative prior was used for the topology. The analysis of the full dataset was conducted using $10^{6}$ generations with four chains (with three chains "heated" using the default parameters) and sampling from the Markov chain every 100th cycle. Graphs of the $\ln L$ values from five independent runs, each using four heated chains, started at random points in parameter space using each of the five alignments, suggested that the chains converged rapidly (in the first $2.5 \times 10^{4}$ generations). To ensure sampling of topologies after chain convergence, we discarded the first 500 trees ( $5 \times 10^{4}$ generations) as "burn-in."

The morphological matrix from Ryding and Bremer (1992) was mapped onto the resulting ITS phylogeny using MacClade 4.0 (Maddison and Maddison, 2000). Traits classified as "V" (variable) were coded as polymorphic. Due to different classification, trait values for several genera present in Ryding and Bremer (1992) were combined to follow the classification we used (Eryngiophyllum and Neuractis were combined with Chrysanthellum, and Glossocarida and Guerreroia were combined with Glossogyne). In these cases, an unknown value for any individual taxon resulted in an unknown coding in the combined genus, while differences were coded as polymorphic. A generic-level tree was created that only retained nodes that were resolved with support

Table 1
Coreopsideae samples included in this study

| Species | Sources of sequences: publications or plant material | Accession No. (GenBank/GSDB) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bidens alba L. | Ganders et al. (2000) | U67107 |
| Bidens beckii Torr. | Ganders et al. (2000) | U67096 |
| Bidens cernua L. | Ganders et al. (2000) | U67098 |
| Bidens ferulaefolia (Jacq.) DC. | Ganders et al. (2000) | U67094 |
| Bidens frondosa L. | Ganders et al. (2000) | U67094 |
| Bidens hintonii (Sherff) Melchert | Kimball et al. (2003) | AF330101 |
| Bidens macroptera (Sch. Bip ex Chiov) Mesfin Tadesse | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386342, GSDB:S:1386385 |
| Bidens mauiensis Sherff | Ganders et al. (2000) | U67101 |
| Bidens pachyloma (Oliv. \& Hiern.) Cufod. | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386344, GSDB:S:1386387 |
| Bidens pilosa L. | Ganders et al. (2000) | U67106 |
| Bidens prestinaria (Sch. Bip.) Cufod. | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386343, GSDB:S:1386386 |
| Bidens reptans (L.) G. Don | Ganders et al. (2000) | U67110 |
| Bidens sandwicensis Less. | Ganders et al. (2000) | U67102 |
| Bidens schimperi Sch. Bip. ex Walp. | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386341, GSDB:S:1386384 |
| Bidens segetum Mart. ex. Colla | Ganders et al. (2000) | U67112 |
| Bidens setigara (Sch. Bip.) Sherff | Tadesse 2275 OS | AY429080 |
| Chrysanthellum mexicanum Greenm. | Stuessy \& Gardner 3076 OS | AY429081 |
| Coreocarpus arizonicus (A. Gray) Blake | Kimball et al. (2003) | AF330092 |
| Coreocarpus congregatus (S.F. Blake) E.B. Smith | Kimball et al. (2003) | AF330089 |
| Coreocarpus insularis (Brandegee) E.B. Smith | Kimball et al. (2003) | AF330100 |
| Coreocarpus parthenioides Benth. | Kimball et al. (2003) | AF330093 |
| Coreocarpus sonoranus Sherff | Kimball et al. (2003) | AF330097 |
| Coreopsis basalis Blake | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386377, GSDB:S:1386420 |
| Coreopsis bigelovii A. Gray | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386360, GSDB:S:1386403 |
| Coreopsis californica (Nutt.) Sharsmith | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386355, GSDB:S:1386398 |
| Coreopsis calliopsidea DC. | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386361, GSDB:S:1386404 |
| Coreopsis cyclocarpa S.F. Blake | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386359, GSDB:S:1386402 |
| Coreopsis douglasii (DC.) H.M. Hall | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386353, GSDB:S:1386396 |
| Coreopsis gigantea (Kellogg) H.M. Hall | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386363, GSDB:S:1386406 |
| Coreopsis gladiata Walt. | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386371, GSDB:S:1386414 |
| Coreopsis grandiflora Hogg ex Sweet | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386378, GSDB:S:1386421 |
| Coreopsis leavenworthii T. \& G. | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386373, GSDB:S:1386416 |
| Coreopsis lopez-mirandae Sagast. | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386352, GSDB:S:1386395 |
| Coreopsis mutica DC. | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386356,GSDB:S:1386399 |
| Coreopsis pervelutina Sagast. | Dillon 6470 F | AY429083 |
| Coreopsis petrophila A. Gray | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386345, GSDB:S:1386388 |
| Coreopsis pickeringii A. Gray | Stuessy et al. 12676 OS | AY429084 |
| Coreopsis pubescens Ell. | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386381, GSDB:S:1386424 |
| Coreopsis pulchra Boynton | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386366, GSDB:S:1386409 |
| Coreopsis rhyacophila Greenm. | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386346, GSDB:S:1386389 |
| Coreopsis senaria S.F. Blake \& Sherff | Stuessy et al. 12600 OS | AY429085 |
| Coreopsis tripteris L. | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386368, GSDB:S:1386411 |
| Coreopsis woytkowski Sherff | Stuessy et al. 12520 OS | AY429086 |
| Coreopsis wrightii (A. Gray) H.M. Parker | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:1386382, GSDB:S:1386425 |
| Cosmos atrosanguineus (Hook.) Voss | Gatt et al. (2000) | AF165847 |
| Cosmos bipinnatus Cav. | Ganders et al. (2000) | U67114 |
| Dahlia coccinea Cav. | Gatt et al. (2000) | AF165830 |
| Dahlia dissecta S. Wats. | Gatt et al. (2000) | AF165844 |
| Dahlia merckii Lehm. | Gatt et al. (2000) | AF165843 |
| Dahlia rudis P.D. Sorensen | Gatt et al. (2000) | AF165841 |
| Dahlia variabilis Desf. | Gatt et al. (2000) | AF165831 |
| Dicranocarpus parviflorus A. Gray | R.D. Worthington 12564 TEX | AY429087 |
| Ericentrodea corazonensis S.F. Blake \& Sherff | Madison et al. 4386 F | AY429088 |
| Ericentrodea decomposita S.F. Blake \& Sherff | Santiseban \& Guevara 129 F | AY429089 |
| Fitchia speciosa Cheeseman | Kim et al. (1999) | GSDB:S:2668014, GSDB:S:2668015 |
| Glossogyne tenuifolia (Labill.) Cass. | S. Powell 054859 CGB | AY429090 |
| Goldmanella sarmentosa Greenm. | A.C. Sanders 9866 TEX | AY429091 |
| Henricksonia mexicana Turner | J.A. Villarreal 6173 TEX | AY429092 |
| Heterosperma diversifolium Krunth | Solomon 16341 TEX | AY429093 |
| Heterosperma pinnatum Cav. | Clark 566 MSB | AY429094 |
| Hidalgoa ternata Llave | H. Hernandez G. 1049 TEX | AY429095 |

Table 1 (continued)

| Species | Sources of sequences: <br> publications or plant material | Accession No. <br> (GenBank/GSDB) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Isostigma chrithmigolium Less. | 194755 TEX | AY429096 |
| Narvalina domingensis (Cass.) Less. | Judd et al. 5187 F | AY429097 |
| Oparanthus teikiteetitiii (Florence \& Stuessy) R.K. | Wood et al. 6336 PTBG | AY429098 |
| Shannon \& W.L. Wagner |  |  |
| Petrobium arboreum (J.R. \& G. Forst.) R. Br. | Liogier 20969 F | AY429099 |
| Selleophytum buchii Urban | Unpubl. | AY429082 |
| Thelesperma filifolium (Hook.) A. Gray | Evert 19279 RM | AY017365 |
| Thelesperma marginatum Rydb. | Nelson 27184 RM | AY429100 |
| Thelesperma megapotamicum (Spreng.) Kuntz | Unpubl. | AY429101 |
| Thelesperma subnudum A. Gray | Unpubl. | AY017352 |
| Thelesperma windhamii C.J. Hansen |  | AY017363 |

Publication is listed for all published sequences. Sequences collected for this study include collector information, and are followed by the herbarium acronym (Holmgren et al., 1990).
${ }^{\text {a }}$ Sequence provided by Q. Cronk.
(bootstrap and posterior probability values) in the consensus tree. Four genera were not monophyletic (see Section 3) and occurred in multiple places on the resulting tree. For these genera, the character state assignments attributed to the entire genus in Ryding and Bremer (1992) were attributed to each individual lineage containing at least one member of those four genera.

## 3. Results

The five alignments varied from 746 (gap1) to 683 (gap20) nucleotides in length. The best model, as determined by MODELTEST, was TN93 + $\Gamma$ (one transversion and two transition parameters plus a gamma distribution) for all five alignments. The transition matrix differed slightly, but in all alignments $\mathrm{C}-\mathrm{T}$ changes occurred about twice as frequently as $\mathrm{A}-\mathrm{G}$ changes; and $\mathrm{A}-\mathrm{G}$ changes occurred 2-3 times as frequently as transversions (A-G changes were highest in gapl and lowest in the gap20 alignment). The shape parameter of the gamma distribution varied slightly among alignments (gapl $=0.55$ to gap20 $=0.63$ ). Among the models available in MrBayes, the best fitting model was GTR $+\Gamma$ (general time reversible plus a gamma distribution).

To examine the role of base compositional differences on the conclusions, we compared the neighbor-joining topologies obtained from analysis of LogDet distances with those obtained from TN93 $+\Gamma$ distances, since LogDet distances are not affected by deviations from stationarity (Lake, 1994; Lockhart et al., 1994). The results from both sets of distance analyses were very similar (data not shown). LogDet analyses resulted in one well-supported node that was not evident in the TN93 $+\Gamma$ analyses (though this node was present in parsimony and Bayesian analyses), and one node that was supported in all five alignments using TN93 $+\Gamma$ (boot-
strap support ranged from 70 to $80 \%$ ) obtained only weak support using LogDet (absent in analysis of one alignment, and with $51-69 \%$ bootstrap support in analyses of the other alignments). No well-supported nodes in LogDet conflicted with other types of analyses. Thus, our conclusions do not appear to be biased by deviations from stationarity.

Analyses of all five alignments indicated that greater differences were found among the type of analyses (distance, parsimony, and Bayesian) than among the five alignments. Within a particular type of analysis the primary difference among alignments was in the level of support, rather than the topology of the tree. The few topological differences tended to involve poorly supported nodes (fewer than $50 \%$ bootstrap replicates or posterior probability values), and thus may not represent meaningful differences among the alignments. In no cases did different alignments provide good support for conflicting nodes within a single type of analysis. Overall, this suggests that, while alignment is important, alignment of problematic regions may have little affect on conclusions when sufficient signal strength is present elsewhere in the data.

We compared results from all five alignments and three analytical methods (we only used results from a single distance analysis, TN93 $+\Gamma$, since the two distance methods were quite similar), such that we examined a total of 15 consensus trees. There were 30 wellsupported nodes ( $\geqslant 70 \%$ bootstrap support or $\geqslant 95 \%$ posterior probability values) present in all analyses (regardless of method or alignment; Fig. 1), with an additional five nodes that were well-supported in most trees (at least 13 of 15 possible trees). An additional 16 nodes were well-supported in at least three trees from one type of analysis, with some present (but at lower support levels) in other trees as well. These nodes are indicated by letters on Fig. 1, and details about the degree of support for these nodes are found in Table 2.


Fig. 1. Results of analysis of ITS tree. This is a consensus of distance, parsimony, and Bayesian analyses using all five alignments. Nodes that were poorly supported (did not obtain at least $70 \%$ bootstrap or $95 \%$ posterior probability values in analysis of at least three alignments for one type of analysis) were collapsed. Of resolved nodes, ${ }^{* *}$ indicates nodes that were well supported ( $\geqslant 70 \%$ bootstrap support or $\geqslant 95 \%$ posterior probability values) in all 15 analyses; * indicates nodes well-supported in 13-14 analyses; letters refer to nodes that were well-supported in at least three alignments from one type of analysis (see Table 2 for details of support).

As can be seen, the three analytical methodologies largely resulted in very similar topologies. However, some differences were seen among the methods. In general, the Bayesian analyses had more well-supported nodes than did either distance or parsimony analyses (Table 2, " 0 " indicates situations where there were no well-sup-
ported relationships for a particular analytical method). For nodes that were not found consistently among all analytical types, the topologies of the parsimony and Bayesian trees were most similar (though, particularly in parsimony analyses, levels of support at some nodes fell below our cut-off values). Both parsimony and

Table 2
Node letters refer to Fig. 1

| Node | Distance | Parsimony | Bayesian |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| A | $1(3)$ | 0 | 4 |
| B | 5 | $3(4)$ | $4(5)$ |
| C | 0 | $4(5)$ | 5 |
| D | 0 | $2(5)$ | 5 |
| E | 0 | 5 | 5 |
| F | 0 | 5 | 5 |
| G | $1(4)$ | $3(5)$ | $4(5)$ |
| H | 5 | 0 | $0(3)$ |
| I | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| J | $4(5)$ | $0(4)$ | $1(4)$ |
| K | 0 | $2(5)$ | 5 |
| L | 5 | 0 | $0(5)$ |
| M | 5 | $0(3)$ | $0(4)$ |
| N | $2(4)$ | $0(4)$ | $3(5)$ |
| O | 0 | 5 | 5 |
| P | 0 | 5 | 5 |

Number of the five alignments analyzed for each method that supported a node at greater than $70 \%$ bootstrap or $95 \%$ posterior probabilities for each type of analysis. Numbers in parentheses are total number alignments that resolved the node at greater than $50 \%$ bootstrap or posterior.

Bayesian analyses supported several deeper nodes that were unresolved in distance analyses (Fig. 1, Table 2).

There was only one well-supported node that was in conflict among the different types of analyses. In distance analyses (TN93 $+\Gamma$ ), all five alignments supported a grouping of lineage Coreopsis 4 (Fig. 1) with lineage Coreopsis 5, with bootstrap support marginally above the cut-off mark (varying between 70 and $80 \%$ support in the five alignments). This node was present at greater than $50 \%$ bootstrap support in four of five analyses using LogDet as well, though bootstrap support values were below the cut-off mark ( $51-69 \%$ ). In parsimony and Bayesian strong support was found for the inclusion of lineage Coreopsis 4 within a larger clade (Fig. 1, clade C) that excluded Coreopsis 5.

Although the generic-level tree used to examine morphological traits contained several polytomies (Fig. 2), and many of the traits were polymorphic or unknown within a genus, there is considerable conflict between the ITS topology and the morphological data. To obtain a general idea of the consistency of each alignment, we examined the retention index (RI), which is independent of number of taxa, for the most parsimonious ITS trees using each of the five alignments and the morphological data mapped onto the ITS topology (e.g., Fig. 2). Across the five alignments, the ITS tree had RI values ranging from 0.69 to 0.70 . In contrast, the morphological data, mapped onto the topology of the ITS tree, had a retention index that was much lower, $\mathrm{RI}=0.46$. Assuming the ITS tree (Figs. 1 and 2) is largely correct, this suggests that, for the evolutionary distances we were considering, there is more homoplasy present in morphological traits that have been used for phylogenetic reconstruction in this group than there is in the ITS data.

To get a better idea of which types of traits might exhibit homoplasy, we categorized the Ryding and Bremer (1992) traits into four categories, and then we determined how many of those traits exhibited homoplasy (any trait that had a consistency index less than one) across the ITS tree. Of the 37 traits in Ryding and Bremer (1992), 28 were parsimony informative for the taxa we examined. Of those 28 informative traits, 5 described vegetative characteristics, 11 described inflorescence and flower traits, 11 described characteristics of the fruits, and 1 described anatomical traits associated with photosynthetic pathway $\left(\mathrm{C}_{3}\right.$ or $\left.\mathrm{C}_{4}\right)$. There was no homoplasy among the single photosynthesis-related trait. Among the vegetative traits, only 1 of 5 ( $20.0 \%$ ) exhibited homoplasy. The number of homoplasious traits was greater among floral characteristics, where 10 of $11(90.9 \%)$ traits exhibited homoplasy (e.g., Fig. 2). The category of traits with the greatest homoplasy was the fruit characteristics, where all 11 traits appeared homoplasious. Fruit traits also had, on average, the lowest consistency indices of any of the categories (e.g., Fig. 2).

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. Influence of sequence alignment and analytical methods on phylogeny

Although unambiguous alignment of noncoding regions can be problematic at deeper levels (e.g., Hickson et al., 2000), the consistent results we observed among alignments generated under different parameters suggest that, at least in some cases, conclusions may not be biased by differential alignment of problem regions. Rather, we found that different analytical methods had a greater impact on our conclusions than did the specific alignment used. Our results suggest that, instead of assessing multiple alignments, it may be more important to select analytical methods carefully, and to analyze the data using multiple methods to determine which nodes are dependent upon type of analysis, as compared to those which are independent of specific assumptions or parameters of the analytical methodology.

Our data also indicate that ITS, although most commonly used to address relationships among relatively closely related species, can resolve some deeper relationships with good bootstrap support (see also Baldwin et al., 2002; Goertzen et al., 2003; Hershkovitz and Lewis, 1996). Our results show that it is sufficiently variable to resolve relationships among closely related species within many genera, while maintaining a sufficient number of more slowly evolving sites to provide resolution among major clades within the tribe. While variation in the length of the individual ITS regions and the presence of numerous indels can inhibit easy alignment, it is


Fig. 2. Indicates all genera or major lineages (for genera that were not monophyletic). Four floral and three fruit characters are mapped on the tree: traits 12 [Ray florets female, fertile or sterile (0). Ray florets neuter (1)], 15 [Disc florets with a bifid style, perfect or occasionally functionally male (0). Disc florets with an entire style, functionally male (1)], 16 [Disc florets without partial or complete median bundles (0). Disc florets with partial or complete median bundles (1)], 22 [Style branches with 2 stigmatic lines (0). Style branches with the entire surface stigmatic (1)], 30 [Cypselas of disc florets only slightly compressed (0). Cypselas of disc florets strongly compressed (1)], 31 [Cypselas of disc florets neither cartilagineous nor winged (0). Cypselas of disc florets cartilagineous or winged (1)], and 35 [Pappus awns in disc floret cypselas, if barbellate to hairy, then antrorsely so (0). Pappus awns in disc floret cypselas, if barbellate, then retrorsely so (1)] of Ryding and Bremer (1992).
clear that these problems are not sufficient to negate the utility of ITS at deeper levels.

### 4.2. Consistency of morphological and anatomical traits

One of the most surprising conclusions from this study was the inconsistency we observed among the morphological and anatomical traits which have been used previously in taxonomic (Sherff and Alexander, 1955) and phylogenetic (Ryding and Bremer, 1992) studies in this group. Although reproductive characters have in general been considered more useful than vegetative
features in plants systematics (see Stuessy, 1990; for thorough discussion), reproductive traits appear to be extremely labile in the Coreopsideae. Aspects of the fruit, which have often been used as key traits in assigning species to different genera (Melchert and Turner, 1990; Smith, 1989), appear to be the least reliable of the traits examined. This lability may, in part, be driven by the simple genetic control of some fruit characteristics, which has been demonstrated in several genera of Coreopsideae (Ganders et al., 2000; Gillett and Lim, 1970; Smith, 1989). This lability may also help explain the difficulty in finding synapomorphies to unite genera
and larger groups (Karis and Ryding, 1994; Ryding and Bremer, 1992), and suggests that reproductive characteristics should be used with caution for phylogenetic reconstruction in the Coreopsideae.

### 4.3. Monophyly of larger genera

Of the six largest genera of Coreopsideae, ITS sequences suggest that the genera Bidens, Coreopsis, and Coreocarpus are not monophyletic whereas Cosmos, Dahlia (see also Gatt et al., 2000 and Saar et al., 2003) and Thelesperma occur as well-supported clades (Fig. 1). The taxon sampling for Cosmos was rather limited, and any statement about its monophyly should be viewed as preliminary.

The problems with the delimitation of Bidens and Coreopsis have been discussed at length (Agnew, 1974; Mesfin, 1984, 1986; Mesfin et al., 1995, 1996, 2001; Sherff and Alexander, 1955; Wild, 1967) and no single defining character has been identified for either genus. Rather, the combination of several characters, which may be found in multiple genera but are more common in one genus or the other, has been used to place a species in one genus. The difficulty in finding synapomorphic characters for these genera (or lineages within each defined genus) is probably due to the evolutionary lability of the traits that have frequently been used in the systematics of this group (e.g., Fig. 2). The characters no doubt have been employed because they are easily observed and plants with the contrasting character states are easily distinguishable. Two recent molecular studies that sampled taxa from Bidens and Coreopsis more extensively (Ganders et al., 2000; Kim et al., 1999) revealed the same strongly supported groups in each genus that occur in the present tree (Fig. 1). However, relationships among these well-defined groups were different in some cases because of the additional taxa included in the present study.

The species of Coreopsis are scattered in multiple well-supported clades, two of which include taxa assigned to other genera in addition to Coreopsis (e.g., Fig. 1). In one clade, Henricksonia and Heterosperma also occur, and in the other generically heterogeneous clade representatives of Bidens and Thelesperma are included. Of particular interest are members of Coreopsis sect. Pseudoagarista, which have been united based on aspects of the fruits and the paleae (bracts subtending the fruits) (Sherff, 1936; Sherff and Alexander, 1955). This section forms a well-supported group, morphologically distinct from other elements traditionally placed in Coreopsis, in a cladistic analysis of morphological characters (Mesfin et al., 2001). Pubescent and oblong to oblong-eliptic paleae that are attached to the cypselas of the disc florets are the characters uniting this group. In the ITS phylogeny, members of this section form two distinct clades. One clade is composed entire-
ly of Andean species (lineage Coreopsis 1) and the other contains Mexican members of the section (lineage Coreopsis 4).

Species assigned to Bidens are found in two strongly supported clades, agreeing with the results of Ganders et al. (2000) for taxa in common. One clade contains only Bidens while the other also includes some Coreopsis and all species of Thelesperma (e.g., Fig. 1). Included in this second clade is an unusual aquatic species, which has either been placed in Bidens or segregated as Megalodonta beckii. The analyses of Ganders et al. (2000) placed the species sister to various Bidens (such as B. cernua and B. frondosa) in a strongly supported clade, and thus the authors stated that there was no evidence for segregating the species as a separate genus. This study does not find support for the same grouping (Fig. 1), leaving its taxonomic status in question. Our results suggest that Thelesperma, which is distributed primarily in the western United States and northern Mexico, shares a common ancestor with temperate Bidens and Coreopsis rather than with members of the genera from Mexico and farther south. Thelesperma, unlike Bidens and Coreopsis, is defined by the fusion of the inner involucral bracts; otherwise, it is similar to the two other genera.

A prior study using both ITS and plastid sequences (Kimball et al., 2003) demonstrated that Coreocarpus as recognized (albeit with reservations) by Smith (1989) was not monophyletic. The molecular data supported the recognition of a core Coreocarpus (Coreocarpus 2; Fig. 1) that excludes three species. Kimball et al. (2003) supported the transfer of two of these species to Bidens (including Bidens hintonii; Fig. 1) as had been done by Melchert and Turner (1990). The third discordant species (C. congregatus), is particularly enigmatic, and had previously been placed in Coreopsis (Smith, 1983). The results of Kimball et al. (2003) suggested that it is closest to the genus Cosmos where it is also placed, with modest support, in the present analysis which has more extensive taxon sampling (Fig. 1).

### 4.4. Clades containing small or monospecific genera

The clade containing Fitchia, Oparanthus, Selleophytum (or Coreopsis buchii), and the monospecific Narvalina all include plants endemic to islands (Fig. 1). Fitchia has been treated either as a member of the Coreopsideae (Karis and Ryding, 1994; Ryding and Bremer, 1992) or as closely related to but not within the tribe (Robinson, 1981; Stuessy, 1977). The sister relationship we observed between Fitchia and Oparanthus, both from Polynesia, are in agreement with the views that the genera are closely related (Carlquist, 1974, 2001; Ryding and Bremer, 1992; Shannon and Wagner, 1997). However, there is no support for the hypothesis that these genera are
insular derivatives of Bidens (Carlquist, 1974, 2001; Shannon and Wagner, 1997). The ITS phylogeny supports the recognition of the monospecific genus Selleophytum, in conflict with its classification in Coreopsis (Sherff and Alexander, 1955). We are aware of no previous studies which have united Selleophytum with the other monospecific genus, Narvalina, though both are from the Caribbean. Some of the trees produced by Ryding and Bremer (1992) placed Narvalina near Cyathomone (not included in this study) and Ericentrodea, but in all of their cladograms Narvalina was far removed from the genera with which it forms a well-supported clade in the present study (Fig. 1), though Selleophytum was not included by Ryding and Bremer (1992).

Another insular endemic, the monospecific genus Petrobium from St. Helena in the South Atlantic, has also been interpreted as a derivative of Bidens (Carlquist, 2001; Shannon and Wagner, 1997; Stuessy, 1988). Cronk (1992) suggested a close relationship between $O p$ aranthus and Petrobium. The ITS phylogeny does not support Petrobium as a derivative of Bidens, nor as a close relative of Oparanthus. Our results do support Cronk's (1992) hypothesis that Petrobium is one of the relictual endemics in the flora of St. Helena because it occupies a basal position in the Coreopsideae (Fig. 1). Several morphological traits examined by Ryding and Bremer (1992) were shared between Petrobium and Fitchia and/or Oparanthus, and served as diagnostic characters for the clade. These include character 16 (Fig. 2; disc florets with complete median vascular bundles), character 17 (two secretory canals beside the corolla veins), and character 22 (Fig. 2; style branches with entire surface stigmatic), all of which unite the three insular genera. Our results suggest that these characters have evolved in parallel in the three genera, but their selective value is unknown.

One clade in the ITS tree that has been recognized in prior studies (e.g., Ryding and Bremer, 1992; Stuessy, 1977) consists of Chrysanthellum, Glossogyne, and Isostigma (Fig. 1). One physiological feature shared by these genera is the $\mathrm{C}_{4}$-photosynthetic pathway (Robinson, 1981; Smith and Turner, 1975; Stuessy, 1977), and our results support prior suggestions (Robinson, 1981; Smith and Turner, 1975) that the feature originated once within the Coreopsideae and provides a good synapomorphy for the group.

One small clade contains two sections of Coreopsis, two species of Heterosperma and the monospecific Henricksonia which is distinguished by its distinctive fruits (Fig. 1). When Turner (1977) described the latter genus, he commented, "it is presumably most closely related to the genus Coreocarpus, although (because of its dimorphic achenes) it will key to Heterosperma in Sherff and Alexander's (1955) treatment of Coreopsidinae." He also suggested that Henricksonia could be closely related to sections Anathysana (represented by C. cyclocarpa)
and section Electra (represented by C. mutica). The ITS phylogeny indicates that Henricksonia is closely related to Heterosperma, independent of the dimorphic fruits, as well as the two sections of Coreopsis mentioned by Turner (1977). Relationships within this clade are not all highly supported, and additional sequence data and taxon sampling, together with morphological studies, are needed to clarify relationships within this group and to determine whether either Heterosperma or the two sections of Coreopsis are monophyletic lineages.

The genus Hidalgoa resembles Dahlia in certain respects, and has been called "climbing-dahlia" because of its viney habit (Sorensen, 1969). Our results, in which only one species of Hidalgoa was available for study, were not informative about the relationship between Dahlia and Hidalgoa because both are part of a basal polytomy (Fig. 1). The ITS phylogeny provides no support for the inclusion of Hidalgoa in a group with Fitchia, Oparanthus, or Dicranocarpus as suggested by the study of Ryding and Bremer (1992), though a relationship with Dicranocarpus cannot be ruled out.

The monospecific genus Goldmanella has been recognized as a distinctive element in Coreopsideae, with some discussion (Robinson, 1981; Ryding and Bremer, 1992; Stuessy, 1977) as to whether it is properly placed within the tribe. Features such as the several rows of graded involucral bracts are anomalous within the tribe but, perhaps in part for lack of a better alternative, the genus has been retained in the Coreopsideae (Robinson, 1981; Ryding and Bremer, 1992; Stuessy, 1977). The ITS phylogeny has Goldmanella near the base as one element of a polytomy, and while supporting inclusion in the tribe, it does not provide insights into the relationships of this unusual genus within Coreopsideae (Fig. 1).

### 4.5. Phylogenetic reconstruction in Coreopsideae: morphology versus ITS sequences

In comparing the results of this study with those of Ryding and Bremer (1992), it is clear that the ITS and morphological data disagree. With respect to the three major clades found by Ryding and Bremer ("Coreopsis group," "Petrobium group," and "Chrysanthellum group"), the ITS data only supported the "Chrysanthellum group" (see Figs. 1 and 2). The absence of monophyly for Bidens in the ITS data (see also Ganders et al., 2000; Kim et al., 1999) may have led to the difficulty Ryding and Bremer (1992) had in determining the phylogenetic placement of this genus. Both Ryding and Bremer (1992) and Karis and Ryding (1994) questioned the monophyly of Coreopsis, and the molecular phylogeny provides strong support for the doubt expressed in these two earlier studies (Figs. 1 and 2). Mapping of several morphological characters that diagnose groups in the study of Ryding and Bremer (1992) onto
the ITS phylogeny (e.g., Fig. 2) provide some insights into the labile nature of the characters and suggest why phylogenetic reconstruction using them, as done by Ryding and Bremer (1992), is challenging at best.

## 5. General conclusions

Our results suggest that, although the proper alignment of homologous sites is clearly important for phylogenetic analyses, there may be strong phylogenetic signal for particular relationships in some data sets that allow similar estimates of phylogeny to be obtained using slightly different alignments. For regions that are difficult to align, as ITS can be at deeper levels, a sensitivity analysis such as we performed may help identify clades that are robust to specifics of the alignment. The greater differences we observed among analytical methods (distance, parsimony, and Bayesian) suggests that type of analysis used and the analysis parameters need to be considered carefully.

The present study identified a series of strongly supported clades, some of which correspond to recognized genera or generally accepted groups of genera. In other cases, recognized genera such as Bidens and Coreopsis do not form monophyletic groups. Our results suggest that many of the morphological traits used to classify relationships within this group, such as floral and fruit characteristics, are too labile to produce a robust phylogeny. If our conclusions are corroborated with an independent phylogeny (such as from plastid sequences), taxonomic changes will be necessary in several groups. A well-corroborated phylogeny will also allow a detailed assessment of morphology to determine whether there are characters which exhibit greater phylogenetic utility than those which have previously been used. While the phylogeny from ITS sequences identified clades with strong support, it did not provide good resolution of relationships among the basal clades, that is, the spine of the tree shows little resolution. This suggests that there was an early and rapid radiation of the clades, and it may require using multiple phylogenetic markers exhibiting different rates of evolution to better resolve relationships in this group.

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## Appendix A

Characters and matrix used by Ryding and Bremer (1992), numbered according to the original paper. Missing traits were characters that were invariant in the Coreopsideae taxa we examined, and thus were not included in our analyses. Categories of characters (e.g., vegetative and floral) were designated for this study. Some genera from Ryding and Bremer (1992) were combined in this matrix (see Section 2).

## Vegetative characters

1. Herbs, subshrubs or climbers (0). Large shrubs or trees (1).
2. Perennial herbs, shrubs or trees (0). Annual herbs (1).
3. Leaves opposite or whorled (0). Leaves alternate (1).
4. Leaves pinnately or ternately lobed or compound, petiolate or not (0). Leaves simple, distinctly petiolate, entire or dentate only (1).
5. Leaves without secretory cavities (0). Leaves with secretory cavities (1).

## Floral characters

9. Capitula heterogamous, radiate (0). Capitula homogamous, discoid or ligulate (1).
10. Ray florets female, fertile or sterile (0). Ray florets neuter (1).
11. Disc florets 5-lobed (0). Disc florets 4-lobed (1).
12. Disc florets with a bifid style, perfect or occasionally functionally male (0). Disc florets with an entire style, functionally male (1).
13. Disc florets without partial or complete median bundles (0). Disc florets with partial or complete median bundles (1).
14. One secretory canal beside corolla veins (0). Two secretory canals beside corolla veins (1).
15. Secretory canal in apical appendage of anthers long and narrow, extending almost up to the tip (0). Secretory canal in apical appendage of anthers short and widened at the apex (1).
16. Collar of stamens over two times as long as the basal lobes of the anthers (0). Collar of stamens less than two times as long as the basal lobes of the anthers (1).
17. Style branches with 2 stigmatic lines (0). Style branches with the entire surface stigmatic (1).
18. Style with 2 veins (0). Style with 4 veins (1).
19. Ovule without branched trace (0). Ovule with branched trace (1).

## Fruit characters

26. Cypselas with less than 8 wall bundles (0). Cypselas with 8 or more wall bundles (1).
27. Cypselas without secretory canals (0). Cypselas with secretory canals (1).
28. Cypselas equal, or disc cypselas broader than ray cypselas (0). Cypselas heteromorphic; ray cypselas broad and flattened, winged; inner cypselas linear, not winged (1).
29. Cypselas of ray florets neither cartilagineous nor winged (0). Cypselas of ray florets cartilagineous or winged (1).
30. Cypselas of disc florets only slightly compressed (0). Cypselas of disc florets strongly compressed (1).
31. Cypselas of disc florets neither cartilagineous nor winged (0). Cypselas of disc florets cartilagineous or winged (1).
32. Cypselas of disc florets apically not beaked (0). Cypselas of disc florets apically beaked (1).
33. Pappus in cypselas of fertile ray florets with prominent awns (0). Pappus in cypselas of fertile ray florets minute, or completely absent (1).
34. Pappus in disc floret cypselas (if present) of 4 scales (0). Pappus in disc floret cypselas (if present) of 2-4 awns (1). Pappus in disc floret cypselas (if present) of 6-16 awns in 2 groups at distal angles of cypselas (2).
35. Pappus awns in disc floret cypselas, if barbellate to hairy, then antrorsely so (0). Pappus awns in disc floret cypselas, if barbellate, then retrorsely so (1).
36. Pappus awns without secretory canal (0). Pappus awns with secretory canal (1).

## Photosynthetic character

37. Plants without Kranz syndrome (0). Plants with Kranz syndrome (1).

|  | 1 | 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 9 | 12 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 37 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Bidens | 0/1 | 0/1 | 0 | 0/1 | 0 | 0/1 | 0/1 | 0/1 | 0 | 0 | ? | 0/1 | 0/1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0/1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Chrysanthellum | 0 | 0/1 | 1 | 0 | ? | 0 | ? | 0 | 0 | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | 0 | 0/1 | 1 | 0/1 | 0/1 | 1 | 1 | - | ? | 1 |
| Coreocarpus | 0 | 0/1 | 0 | 0 | ? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0/1 | 1 | 1 | ? | 0 |
| Coreopsis | 0 | 0/1 | 0 | 0/1 | ? | 0 | 0/1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | 0 | 0/1 | 0 | 0 | ? | ? | ? | 0 | 1 | 0/1 | 0/1 | 0 | 0/1 | 1 | 0 | ? | 0 |
| Cosmos | 0 | 0/1 | 0 | 0 | ? | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | ? | ? | - | - | 0 | 0 | 1 | - | 1 | 0/1 | ? | 0 |
| Dahlia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | - | 1 | 0 | 0 | ? | ? | ? | - | - | 0 | 0 | 0 | - | 1 | - | ? | 0 |
| Dicranocarpus | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | ? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | - | 0 | - | - | 0 | ? | - | - | ? | ? |
| Ericentrodea | 0/1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | 0/1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | 0 | 1 | 0/1 | 0 | ? | ? | ? | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | ? | ? |
| Fitchia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | ? | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | - | 1 | 0 | 0 | - | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Glossogyne | 0 | 0/1 | 0/1 | 0/1 | ? | 0/1 | 0 | 0/1 | 0 | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0/1 | ? | ? |
| Goldmonella | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | ? | 0 | ? | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | ? | ? | 0 | 0 | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | 0 | 0 | 1 | - | ? | 0 |
| Henricksonia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | ? | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | - | ? | ? |
| Heterosperma | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | ? | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | ? | ? | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | ? | 0 |
| Hidalgoa | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | - | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | - | ? | - | - | 0 | 0 | - | - | 1 | 0 |
| Isostigma | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | ? | 0/1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | ? | ? | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Narvalina | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Oparanthus | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | ? | ? | ? | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0/1 | ? | 0/1 | 0 | 0 | - | - | 1 | ? |
| Petrobium | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | - | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | ? | ? | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | - | - | 1 | 0 | 0 | - | 1 | - | 1 | 0 |
| Thelesperma | 0 | 0/1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0/1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | - | - | ? | 0 | 0 | - | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |

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