# The Systematics and Evolution of Euphorbiaceae Tribe Plukenetieae 

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Dr. Lynn J. Gillespie

My people will sleep for one hundred years, but when they awake, it will be the artists who give them their spirit back.
-Louis Riel, 1885


Métis/Cree floral beadwork moccasin vamps on deer hide, illustrating sacha inchi (Plukenetia volubilis L.) flowers (left) and fruit (right).
-by Warren Cardinal-McTeague, Ottawa ON, 2018

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## Dedication

To my family
who's endless love and support has brought me to this stage.

Marilyn Gloria Cardinal<br>Nora Rosalie Cardinal<br>John William Cardinal

James Warren McTeague
Eleanor Marie McTeague
James Hugh McTeague

## Acknowledgements

I acknowledge that the land I stand and write these words on, and spent the last seven years living and studying on, is the unceded and unsurrendered territory of the Anishinaabe Algonquin People of Ontario and Quebec. I thank them, and the other First Nation, Inuit, and Métis people I met in Ottawa/Gatineau, for their friendship, kindness, and community.

In Canada, the subject of education would be incomplete without discussion of the Indian Residential School system. Since before Confederation (1867) until 1996, Indigenous children were forcibly removed from their families, homes, and communities to attend church and government run Residential Schools. The aim was to prevent Indigenous children from learning or practicing their language, religion, and culture, and ultimately assimilate them into colonial society. Physical and sexual abuse, disease, and malnutrition were widespread in the Residential School system, and a minimum of 6,000 children perished in the care of the government and church. Over 150,000 children survived the Residential School system, and they and their descendants are still healing from the long-term effects of intergenerational trauma.

Readers of my dissertation are strongly encouraged to examine the report of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada (www.trc.ca) and support the legacy of the commission through their 94 Calls to Action. In particular, I feel strongly about calls (11) to end the backlog of First Nations students seeking post-secondary education through adequate Federal funding (which I interpret to include support for Inuit and Métis students), and (16) to support language rights by the creation of university and college degree and diploma programs in Indigenous languages. At some point we will have a discussion about how to incorporate Indigenous knowledge and methodologies into science. In the meantime, we must work to dismantle barriers to education and encourage, support, and include diversity of all people in academia.

It is with honour and privilege that I am the first member of the Métis/nêhiyaw(Plains Cree) side of my family to pursue an extensive post-secondary education and doctoral degree. This is a bittersweet honour to carry. The opportunities I received were impossible for previous generations of my family and community, in part due to racism, social/economic disparity, and mistrust of the colonial education system. I am grateful for the hard work of my mother, her parents, and their parents before them; everything they worked towards was for the betterment of their children. Because of their sacrifices, I am able to stand where I am today. I am hopeful that more Indigenous students will receive the same opportunities. Hiy hiy, kinanâskomitin.

My doctoral program took seven years to complete, so bear with me, that's a long time with many moments and people to reflect on. First, I thank my supervisor, Dr. Lynn J. Gillespie, for her guidance, mentorship, patience, and understanding over the years. I came into your lab with much of the relevant experience, but you taught me how to write, conduct tropical field work, to pay attention to every detail, and about endless aspects of taxonomy and evolution, especially about Euphorbiaceae. You are a wealth of knowledge and a wonderful mentor.

Second, I thank the many people at the Canadian Museum of Nature who made the workplace and Ottawa/Gatineau feel like home. A big shout out goes to Paul Sokoloff for his ongoing friendship and support, both in and outside of the museum. Others include Roger Bull, Dr. Geoffrey Levin, and Dr. Jeff Saarela, for their helpful discussions. I had the pleasure of working alongside countless students and volunteers over the years, including (but not limited to): Neda Amiri, Dr. Alicia Alonso Mata, Katya Boudko, Dr. Sabina Donadio, Dr. Sharon Ebata, Claire Gilmour, Anna Ginter, Sam Godfrey, Simon Grafe, Frankie Janzen, Dr. Shan Leung, Dr. Étienne Léveillé-Bourret, Irene McKechnie, Alex Menna, Michel Paradis, Mary Ann Perron, Marianne Racine, and Cassandra Robillard. Thank-you for your friendship and company. I also thank the students and professors I met during the Organization for Tropical Studies (OTS) Tropical Plant Systematics field course (2014) and my Smithsonian Institution Predoctoral Fellowship (2015), with shout outs to Dr. Laura Frost and Erika Gardner. Lastly, special thanks go to Dr. Kenneth J. Wurdack for hosting my Predoctoral Fellowship, teaching me lab techniques, and for sharing his great enthusiasm and knowledge of the Euphorbiaceae family.

My experience in Ottawa/Gatineau would have been incomplete without the friendship and support of the Métis community. A big kinanâskomitin to Sahra MacLean, Brittany

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Of course, my whole experience changed in the summer of 2014 when I met my loving partner, François-René Dussault. From the moment we met (and I invited myself on your trip to Paris!) we have been inseparable and have shared countless adventures. You taught me the importance of living life in the moment, enjoying a healthy home cooked meal, and begrudgingly making the bed each morning. Your love and support made a world of difference, especially during last stages of my degree. Je t'aime, et je promets d'apprendre à mieux parler français. We encourage readers to live life in the moment and consider registering as an organ donor (www.beadonor.ca).

Last but not least, this would not have been possible without the love and support of my family back in Alberta. I have been far from home for too long, but their unwavering encouragement, vocal pride, and boundless love have helped me continue through the challenges. They knew I had important work to get through, and I am grateful for their patience and understanding. To my mom and dad, my sisters and brother, my aunties and uncles, my grandma and grandpa, and my kokum and mushum, thank-you so much, I love you.

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## Abstract

The aim of this dissertation is to study the systematics and evolution of Euphorbiaceae vines (tribe Plukenetieae), a diverse pantropical lineage ( $\sim 365$ species and 18 genera) composed of three morphologically distinct subtribes, Dalechampiinae, Plukenetiinae, and Tragiinae. Through the course of my research I largely resolved the evolutionary history of Plukenetieae and made broader contributions to the study of pollen and seed evolution, pantropical biogeography, and plant diversification. In chapter two I developed the first well-sampled molecular phylogeny for Plukenetieae ( 154 terminals, $\sim 93$ species, 2,207 character dataset composed of ITS and psbA$\operatorname{trnH}$ with indel gap-scored data), and determined baseline species group relationships of the tribe. Molecular phylogeny largely agreed with pollen morphology hypotheses and confirmed that the large genus Tragia was para- and/or polyphyletic and should be split into smaller genera. Analysis of pollen morphology revealed a trend towards aperture reduction and loss in Tragiinae, with four origins of weakly defined apertures and up to three origins of inaperturate pollen. In chapter three, I studied the seed size evolution of Plukenetia, a pantropical genus with large edible oil-rich seeds, by developing a near-exhaustive phylogeny ( 83 terminals, 20 of $\sim 24$ species, $5,069 \mathrm{bp}$ dataset of ETS, ITS, KEA1 introns 11 and 17, TEB exon 17, matK, $n d h F$ ) and conducting ancestral state estimation and phylogenetic regression. Seed size evolution in Plukenetia was dynamic and associated with competing selective pressures of plant size, fruit type (and inferred dispersal syndrome), and seedling ecology. In chapter four I presented a revised sectional classification of Plukenetia based on phylogeny and morphological evidence, including three new taxa from South America. Chapters three and five included biogeographical investigations on Plukenetia and Plukenetieae. Analyses revealed that pantropical disjunct distributions arose one to three times in each subtribe via periodic long-distance dispersals from the Oligocene to the Pliocene, most often from South America to Africa and then Southeast Asia. Lastly, in chapter five, I developed an improved phylogeny for Plukenetieae (289 terminals, $\sim 109$ species, 5,160 bp dataset of ETS, ITS, KEA1 intron 11, TEB exon 17, matK, $n d h F$ ) to study the influence of innovative traits (twining growth form, stinging hair defences, and pseudanthial inflorescences) on diversification in the tribe. However, increased diversification was not associated with innovative traits. Instead, diversification was associated with clades that shifted into drier open habitats, aided by habitat expansion following the Late Miocene cooling period.

## Statement of Contributions

I, Warren Cardinal-McTeague, contributed to the majority of the work performed for the completion of this dissertation. This includes the DNA sequencing lab work (extractions, amplification, sequencing, clean-up/editing, , phylogenetic analyses, biogeographic and evolutionary analyses, roughly half of the seed size measurements, and analysis of herbarium specimens for sectional and new species descriptions. I wrote the four first-author papers included in this dissertation: Chapter 2 has been published (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016), Chapter 3 is under revised submission (Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review), Chapter 4 is nearly ready for submission (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, in prep), and Chapter 5 is in its first draft (Cardinal-McTeague et al., in prep).

My PhD supervisor and external researchers also contributed to this work. Dr. Lynn J. Gillespie contributed to the overall development, direction, and review of each manuscript in the dissertation. Dr. Kenneth J. Wurdack hosted me during a three month Smithsonian Institution Predoctoral Fellowship from September to December 2015, providing invaluable laboratory training, and contributed to the project development and data collection of rare and challenging specimens of Chapters 3 and 5. Dr. Erin. M. Sigel, a former Postdoctoral Fellow at the Smithsonian Institution, developed the modified transcriptome/genome data-mining pipeline Lite Blue Devil v0.3 used in Chapter 3. All contributors provided helpful comments on the manuscripts they co-authored, and approved the final content prior to submission.

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Figure 4.1 Summary cladogram of the relationships recovered by Bayesian analysis of combined and partitioned ETS, ITS, KEA1 introns 11 and 17, TEB exon 17, matK, and $n d h F$ DNA sequence data of Plukenetia and Romanoa (modified from CardinalMcTeague et al., in review), highlighting our revised sectional classification of Plukenetia. Maximum parsimony bootstrap percentage (MPBP) and Bayesian posterior probability ( PP ) support values $>50 \%$ are indicated on each branch. Branches in bold indicate strong support ( $\geq 85 \mathrm{MPBP}$ and $\geq 0.95 \mathrm{PP}$ ). Subclade numbering system (P1-P5) follows Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie (2016). Sections in the pinnately-veined clade (P1 + P2) are indicated by light grey boxes, sections in the palmately-veined clade (P3P5) by dark grey boxes. (a-b) Leaf clearings demonstrating leaf architecture (images from Gillespie 1993): (a) P. stipellata (Gillespie 413, US); (b) P. supraglandulosa, (Granville 3626, CAY). (c-d) Scanning electron micrographs demonstrating pollen tectum morphology (images from Gillespie, 1994b): (c) P. stipellata (Gillespie 418, DAV); (d) P. loretensis (Maguire \& Politi 27371, US).

Figure 4.2 Representative staminate flower diversity of Plukenetia and its sister genus Romanoa. (a) Romanoa tamnoides (Krapovickas \& Schinini 36265, MO), stamens with slender-cylindrical filaments. (b) P. sect. Fragariopsis: P. serrata (Davidse et al. 10480, MO), anthers sessile and loosely packed on a large globose receptacle. (c-e) $P$. sect. Penninerviae: (c) P. loretensis (Freitas et al. 155, MO), anthers sessile and densely packed on a small globose receptacle; (d) P. penninervia (van der Werff et al. 3173, MO), and (e) P. supraglandulosa (Granville 3626 CAY, US), most anthers sessile and densely packed on a small globose receptacle, with a dimorphic outer whorl of $\sim 4$ stamens with filaments, and often with a 4-lobed annular nectary. (f-i) P. sect. Plukenetia: (f) $P$. polyadenia (Croat et al. 20285, MO), stamens with slender-cylindrical filaments and ligulate interstaminal nectaries; (g) P. stipellata (Cardinal-McTeague 8, CAN), stamens with slender-cylindrical filaments and small irregularly shaped interstaminal nectary segments; (h) P. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera (Woytkowski 6670, MO), stamens with slender filaments and large irregularly shaped interstaminal nectary segments; (i) $P$. volubilis (Wurdack s.n., US), stamens with short-conical filaments. (j) P. sect. Angostylidium: P. conophora (Avio et al. 1621, MO), stamens with short-conical filaments and slender-cylindrical interstaminal nectaries (in pink). (k) $P$. sect. Hedraiostylus: P. corniculata (Chin See Chung 2712, L), stamens with short-conical filaments (sometimes appearing sessile). (1) $P$. sect. Madagascarienses: $P$. madagascariensis (Villiers et al. 4889, MO), anthers more or less sessile, densely to somewhat loosely packed on an elongate receptacle. Photos (a-d, f-h, j, l) by W.Cardinal-McTeague; (i) by K.Wurdack. Line drawing (e) by Alice Tangerini, (k) by Anita Walsmit Sachs, used with permission from the Nationaal Herbarium Nederland. (Abbreviations: an = annular nectary, $\mathrm{d}=$ dimorphic filamentous stamens, in = interstaminal nectaries, $r=$ receptacle. Scale bars $=1 \mathrm{~mm}$ ).

Figure 4.3 Representative pistillate flower diversity of Plukenetia and its sister genus Romanoa. (a) Romanoa tamnoides (Krapovickas \& Schinini 36265, MO), styles 70-80\% connate into a cylindrical column. (b) P. sect. Fragariopsis: P. serrata (Davidse et al. 10480, MO), styles entirely connate into an obovoid column. (c-f) P. sect. Penninerviae: (c) P. brachybotrya (Fuentes et al. 5398, MO) and (d) P. verrucosa (Prance et al. 11255, DAV), styles entirely connate into a globose column; (e) P. loretensis (Silva et al. 4750, MO), styles entirely connate into a slender-cylindrical column, dilated at the apex; (f) $P$. penninervia (Wallnöfer et al. 5996, MO), styles entirely connate into a stout-cylindrical column. (g-k) P. sect. Plukenetia: (g) P. polyadenia (Aulestia \& Grefa 230, MO), (h) P. stipellata (Cardinal-McTeague 8, CAN), (i) P. volubilis (Wurdack s.n., US), and (j) P. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera (Woykowski 6670, MO), styles 70-95\% connate into a cylindrical column; (k) P. lehmanniana (Rangel et al. 5734, MO), styles 20-25\% connate into a cylindrical column, free style arms 2-fid near the tips. (1) $P$. sect. Angostylidium: $P$. conophora (Thomas 5455, MO), styles 75-(90)\% connate into a funnel-shaped column, free style arms conspicuously dilated and spreading. (m) $P$. sect. Hedraiostylus: $P$.
corniculata (Brink 5771, L), styles entirely connate into a depressed-globose column with cross-shaped stigmas. (n-o) P. sect. Madagascarienses: (n) P. ankaranensis (Gillespie 4076, CAN), styles entirely connate into an obconic or obovoid column; (o) $P$. madagascariensis (Andrianjafy et al. 1648, MO), styles 55-60\% connate into a cylindrical column, free style arms slender and tapered. Photos ( $\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{e}-\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{j}-\mathrm{l}$ ) by W.Cardinal-McTeague, (i) by of K.Wurdack, (n) by L.Gillespie, (o) by P.Phillipson. Line drawing (d) by Cathy Pasquale, (k) by Anita Walsmit Sachs, used with permission from the Nationaal Herbarium Nederland. (Scale bars $=1 \mathrm{~mm}$ ).

Figure 4.4 Bayesian maximum clade credibility tree based on an 84 accession nrDNA ETS dataset for Plukenetia and Plukenetiinae outgroups. Maximum likelihood bootstrap percentage (MLBP) and Bayesian posterior probability (BPP) support values $>50 \%$ are indicated on each branch. Branches in bold indicate strong support ( $\geq 80$ MLBP and $\geq$ 0.95 BPP). Subclades P1-P5 were defined in Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie (2016). Sections in the pinnately-veined clade ( $\mathrm{P} 1+\mathrm{P} 2$ ) are indicated by light grey boxes, sections in the palmately-veined clade (P3-P5) by dark grey boxes.

Figure 4.5 Plukenetia brevistyla sp. nov. (a) Branch with mature leaves, inflorescences, and fruit. (b) Capsule. (c) Pistillate flower. (d) Abaxial leaf blade with laminar extrafloral nectaries. (e) Adaxial leaf blade with basilaminar extrafloral nectaries. (f) Close-up of inflorescences. (g) Close-up of staminate cymules. (h) Staminate flower. Photos by W.Cardinal-McTeague. Source: (a, c, f-g) Lowrie et al. 30 (MO, NY); (b) Silva et al. 1150 (NY); (d-e, h) Oliveira 4513 (NY). (Abbreviations: an = annular nectary; o = ovary; s = style. Scale bars: $[\mathrm{a}]=1 \mathrm{~cm} ;[\mathrm{b}-\mathrm{h}]=1 \mathrm{~mm})$.

Figure 4.6 Plukenetia megastyla sp. nov. (a) Branch with mature leaves and inflorescences. (b) Capsule. (c) Capsule segment with seed. (d) Columella. (e) Seed, lateral view (left), ventral view (right). (f) Close-up of staminate cymules. (g) Staminate flower. (h) Pistillate flower. (i) Adaxial leaf blade with basilaminar extrafloral nectaries. (j) Abaxial leaf blade with laminar extrafloral nectaries. (k) Close-up of inflorescence. Photos by W.Cardinal-McTeague. Source: (a) G. Silva et al. 6161 (NY); (b, i-j) Plowman 8741 (NY); (c-e) Ledezma et al. 921 (CAN); (f, h, k) Nee 38682 (NY). (Abbreviations: an = annular nectary; o = ovary; s = style. Scale bars: $[\mathrm{a}]=1 \mathrm{~cm} ;[\mathrm{b}-\mathrm{k}]=1 \mathrm{~mm})$.

Figure 4.7 Distribution map of our new species in sect. Penninerviae, $P$. brevistyla and $P$. megastyla, and members of the high elevation species complex in sect. Plukenetia, $P$. carolis-vegae subsp. carolis-vegae, $P$. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera, and $P$. huayllabambana. (Map data ©2018 Google, Imagery ©2018 NASA, TerraMetrics).

Figure 5.1 Inflorescence diversity of Euphorbiaceae vines (tribe Plukenetieae). Subtribe Dalechampiinae (a-b), bilaterally symmetrical pseudanthia composed of staminate and pistillate cymules, sometimes with resiniferous glands, subtended by two large often
showy bracts: (a) Dalechampia websteri Armbr. (Cardinal-McTeague 7, CAN), (b) D. aff. tamifolia Lam. (Gillespie et al. 10658, CAN). Subtribes Plukenetiinae (c-d) and Tragiinae (e-i), racemose thyrses or racemes: (c) Plukenetia loretensis Ule (Grandez 19608, US), (d) P. volubilis L. (Wurdack s.n., US), (e) Megistostigma cordata Merr. (Davidson 12930), (f) Tragia furialis Bojer ex Prain (Gillespie et al. 10648, CAN), (g) T. urens L. (Wurdack s.n., US), (h) T. urticifolia Michx. (Wurdack s.n., US), (i) T. volubilis L. (Medeiros \& Cardinal-McTeague 556, R). Photographs by: W.Cardinal-McTeague (ab, f, i), C.Davidson (e), K.Wurdack (c-d, g-h).

Figure 5.2 Summary cladograms of the alternative backbone topologies of Plukenetieae recovered from: (a) cpDNA; (b) ETS; (c) ITS; (d) TEB exon 17. Blue nodes are congruent with the Concatenated dataset (Fig. 5.3C), yellow nodes are incongruent; grey clades with solid edges are congruent, grey clades with dashed edges are partially congruent but have alternative branching patterns. Bold branches indicate strong support ( $\geq 85 \%$ maximum likelihood bootstrap percentage [MLBP] and $\geq 0.95$ Bayesian posterior probability [BPP]); dashed branches indicate low support ( $<60 \%$ MLBP and $<0.8 \mathrm{BPP}$ ). An asterisk (*) indicates a member of the clade was not sampled. See Fig. 5.3 for an explanation of abbreviations.

Figure 5.3 Summary cladograms of the alternative backbone topologies of Plukenetieae recovered from (a-b) coalescence-based and (c) total evidence methods. (a) ASTRAL maximum quartet support (MQS) species tree topology based on Bayesian maximum clade credibility (MCC) trees from all six regions. Node support is based on 200 multilocus bootstrap replicates. (b) *BEAST MCC topology based on the reduced five region, "no-gap" dataset (177 terminals). (c) Concatenated dataset Bayesian MCC topology. Blue nodes are congruent with the Concatenated dataset (Fig. 5.3C), yellow nodes are incongruent; grey clades with solid edges are congruent, grey clades with dashed edges are partially congruent but have alternative branching patterns. Bold branches indicate strong support ( $\geq 85 \%$ Multilocus bootstrap percentage [BP] or maximum likelihood BP [MLBP] and/or $\geq 0.95$ Bayesian posterior probability [BPP]); dashed branches indicate low support ( $<60 \%$ Multilocus BP or MLBP, and/or $<0.8$ BPP).

Figure 5.4 Ancestral range estimation (ARE) on the Plukenetiaeae BEAST chronogram using BioGeoBEARS (DEC +J model). Areas of tip species are shown left of taxon names, colour-coded for the seven biogeographical areas depicted on the inset map. Boxes at each node and corner are colour-coded for the area or combined area (up to five allowed) with the highest likelihood probability. Pie charts indicate the probability of each area and are included if there was $<75 \%$ confidence for a single area. Numbers at each node indicate mean age estimates, blue bars the $95 \%$ highest posterior density (HPD) confidence interval, and yellow bars the $95 \%$ HPD of calibrated nodes estimated under constraint. Arrows on the inset map indicate the direction of major trans-oceanic range
movements, along with the mean age of the events. Arrows with dotted lines indicate ARE patterns with ambiguous reconstructions and low support.

Figure 5.5 BAMM analysis of net diversification $(r)$ and rate shifts within Plukenetieae. (a) Phylorate plot of the best rate shift configuration (out of 30) showing three significant shifts: 1. Stem of the African clade (subclade T3); 2. Stem of Tragia sect. Tragia (subclade T10); 3. Stem of the Dalechampia 5-armed clade. Colour intensity across branches is proportional to changes in net diversification. (b) Rate through time analysis of net diversification rates in Plukenetieae over the last 10 Myr at the start of the Late Miocene cooling period. Top of figure: Representation of temperature estimates through time based on global deep sea $\delta^{18} \mathrm{O}$ isotope concentration data from Zachos et al. (2001; accessed from Marcot et al., 2016).

Figure 5.6 Net diversification rates $(r)$ and character state reconstructions under the best fitting models from HISSE (see Table 5.4) for three putative innovative traits in Plukenetieae: (a) twining growth form; (b) stinging hair plant defences; and (c) bilaterally symmetrical pseudanthial inflorescences. Outer coloured lines depict net diversification rates (scales comparable between figures), and inner black and white lines indicate character state reconstructions. Histograms show the posterior distribution of net diversification rates $(r)$ and black and white bars the frequency of character states at each terminal.

Figure 5.S1 Detailed cladograms and/or phylograms of Plukenetieae from individual and combined datasets labeled with maximum likelihood bootstrap percentages (MLBP) and/or Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP): (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) $T E B$ exon 17, (e) matK, and (f) $n d h F$, (g) cpDNA, (h) Concatenated, and (i) Concatenated and fully annotated.

Figure 5.S2 Coalescence-based ASTRAL maximum quartet support (MQS) species tree of Plukenetieae based on Bayesian maximum clade credibility (MCC) topologies of all six regions, labeled with multilocus bootstrap percentage (Multilocus BP).

Figure 5.S3 Coalescence-based *BEAST maximum clade credibility (MCC) species tree of Plukenetieae based on reduced five region, "no-gap" dataset ( 177 terminals), labeled with Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP).

Figure 5.S4 Maximum clade credibility (MCC) BEAST chronogram of Plukenetieae based on the reduced six region, "one-terminal" dataset ( 147 terminals), including mean common ancestor ages and $95 \%$ highest posterior density (HPD) confidence interval bars (yellow $=$ calibrated estimate; blue $=$ free estimate ).

Figure 5.S5 Results of the BioGEOBEARS ancestral range estimations (ARE) under (a) DEC +J and (b) DEC models.

Figure 5.S6 BAMM 95\% credible shift set phylorate plots (the largest nine of 30) including the frequency (f) of each configuration in the posterior distribution.

## List of Appendices

Appendix 2.1. List of species and vouchers used in this study, arranged by: Species Authority. COUNTRY. Collector \& Number (Herbarium Code), nrITS, and psbA-trnH GenBank accession numbers. All sequences are new GenBank submissions from this study. Sequences not obtained are indicated by an em dash (-). psbA-trnH GenBank accessions that possess the inversion are indicated by an asterisk $\left({ }^{*}\right)$.

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## List of Supplemental Data

Supplemental data 3.1 Python script for Lite Blue Devil v0.3.
Supplemental data 3.2 Setting file for Lite Blue Devil v0.3.
Supplemental data 3.3 Seed size measurements for Plukenetia and Plukenetiinae outgroups.

Instructions: Upon the publication of Chapter 3, these files will be available from DataDryad (https://datadryad.org). A hard copy of each file is recorded at the end of the dissertation.

## Chapter 1

## Introduction

Systematics is the study of the classification and diversification of life on earth, past and present. It involves several intertwining disciplines in taxonomy, evolution, ecology, phylogenetics, paleobiology, and biogeography. It is a foundational science that provides important context to the field of biology, including names of organisms, how they are related to one another, and the history in which they evolved. All of this information is essential to understanding the biodiversity of the world we live in, and undeniably rely on. Our collective future is faced with growing challenges of climate change, biodiversity loss, and overpopulation, so having a strong understanding of the biological world is an asset to developing creative solutions for long-term sustainability and survival. Whether it is characterizing undescribed biodiversity to inform conservation planning, determining the drivers of organismal diversification to predict lineage expansions, or illuminating the genetic controls of valuable traits to improve food quality and production, systematics will continue to provide important contributions to scientific knowledge and the human experience.

## Relevance

The tropics, regions near the equator that are typically warm and wet year-round, harbour the richest plant biodiversity resources on the planet. They are at risk from human-driven deforestation (Gibson et al., 2011) and ecological upset from climate change (Williams et al., 2003; Brodie et al., 2012), and their loss would have negative impacts for human life on earth. As well, the tropics are the primary sources of the world's plant biodiversity (Donoghue \& Edwards, 2014), so even plants of the Canadian Arctic and Boreal forest can trace their roots to ancient tropical ecosystems and we can benefit from knowing their evolutionary history. Currently, we are faced with a challenge in understanding the diversity of the tropics: tropical ecosystems are extremely diverse and complex (Hubbell, 2013) and there are not enough people studying them in the western scientific perspective (i.e., excluding Indigenous knowledges). Most nations in the tropics are burdened with a disparity of wealth and resources from a legacy of historical and ongoing colonialism, which compounds their ability to conduct research programs on their own (although recently some progress has been made, such as international
investment in systematics and conservation training and infrastructure in Madagascar). While more work needs to be done to develop sustainable tropical research programs led by nations in the tropics, studies by non-tropical nations help to build global support networks invested in protecting and understanding the world's most incredible natural resource. In Canada, the study of tropical plant systematics is a relevant contribution to some of the most pressing questions of our time, and aids the country's profile as an active member in the international scientific community.

## Background

My dissertation contributes to the field of tropical plant systematics research by exploring the phylogeny, evolution, taxonomy, and diversification of an economically valuable but understudied lineage of tropical vines, Euphorbiaceae tribe Plukenetieae. The spurge family (Euphorbiaceae), collectively called euphorbs, includes several well-known and economically important species, such as the latex producing rubber tree (Hevea brasiliensis Müll.Arg.), castor bean (Ricinus communis L.) and physic nut (Jatropha curcas L.) oilseed crops, cassava/manioc (Manihot esculenta Crantz) edible root crops, and ornamental poinsettias (Euphorbia pulcherrima Willd. ex Klotzsch). Euphorbiaceae s.s. (Wurdack et al., 2005) contains $\sim 6,500$ species (Govaerts et al., 2015), several of which are known locally for their uses as food, medicine, building materials, and for cultural purposes. The family is characterized by typically small unisexual flowers, ovaries with one ovule per locule, and typically 3-carpellate schizocarpic capsules (i.e., a capsule that breaks into cocci or mericarps, which subsequently dehisce loculicidally) with a persistent ligneous columella (Wurdack et al., 2005). Plukenetieae belongs to subfamily Acalyphoideae, which lacks the milky or coloured latex that subfamilies Crotonoideae and Euphorbioideae are known for (Webster, 1994, 2014; Radcliffe-Smith, 2001). Plukenetieae is a diverse pantropical lineage with $\sim 365$ species and 18 genera that presents a valuable group for evolutionary studies. It is divided into three subtribes (Table 1.1): Dalechampiinae, with a single species-rich genus ( $\sim 130$ species) of stinging vines or rarely subshrubs; Plukenetiinae, with five genera ( $\sim 29$ species, most of which belong to Plukenetia) of non-stinging lianas, vines, and rarely small trees or shrubs; and Tragiinae, with 12 genera ( $\sim 206$ species, most of which belong to Tragia) of stinging vines and subshrubs, or rarely larger shrubs.

Table 1.1 Species number, growth form, and geographic distribution of genera in Euphorbiaceae tribe Plukenetieae.

| Taxon | Species | Growth form | Distribution |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| Subtribe Dalechampiinae | $\sim 130$ |  |  |
| Dalechampia L. | $\sim 130$ | Vines (subshrubs) | Pantropical, primarily New World |
| Subtribe Plukenetiinae | $\sim 29$ |  |  |
| Angostylis Benth. | 1 | Small trees/shrubs | Amazonian Brazil |
| Astrococcus Benth. | 1 | Small trees/shrubs | Amazonian Brazil and Amazonian Venezuela |
| Haematostemon Pax \& K.Hoffm. | 2 | Small trees/shrubs | Guyana and Amazonian Venezuela |
| Plukenetia L. | $\sim 24$ | Lianas, vines | Pantropical, primarily New World |
|  |  | (subshrubs) |  |
| Romanoa Trevis. | 1 | Vines | Eastern Brazil, Paraguay, and Bolivia |
| Subtribe Tragiinae | $\sim 206$ |  |  |
| Acidoton Sw. | 5 | Shrubs | Hispaniola, Jamaica |
| Bia Klotzsch | 5 | Vines | Costa Rica to South America |
| Cnesmone Blume | 12 | Vines | Southeast Asia |
| Ctenomeria Harv. | 2 | Vines | South Africa |
| Gitara Pax \& K.Hoffm. | 1 | Shrubs | Central and northwestern South America |
| Megistostigma Hook.f. | 5 | Vines | Southeast Asia |
| Pachystylidium Pax \& K.Hoffm. | 1 | Vines | Southeast Asia |
| Platygyna P.Mercier | 7 | Vines | Cuba |
| Sphaerostylis Baill. | 2 | Vines | Madagascar |
| Tragia L. | $\sim 160$ | Vines, subshrubs | Pantropical to warm temperate |
| Tragiella Pax \& K.Hoffm. | 4 | Vines | Central and Southern Africa |
| Zuckertia Baill. | 2 | Vines | Mexico and Central America |

Besides the presence of stinging hairs (notably absent in Plukenetiinae), the subtribes are distinguished by their inflorescence morphology, with specialized pseudanthial inflorescences composed of condensed staminate and pistillate cymules subtended by large involucral bracts in Dalechampiinae, or plesiomorphic racemose thyrses and racemes in Plukenetiinae and Tragiinae (Fig. 1.1).

The pollen morphology of Plukenetieae is notably diverse and possesses the greatest variation of any tribe in subfamily Acalyphoideae, if not the entire family (Gillespie, 1994b; Nowicke \& Takahashi, 2002). Pollen morphology in the tribe is especially variable in exine (semi-tectate and coarsely or finely reticulate; tectate and rugulate, foveolate, or punctate; intectate and baculate/clavate) and aperture condition (tricolporate with an endocingulate endopore, tricolpate, weakly tricolporate, weakly tri-aperturate, and inaperturate). Tragiinae pollen exhibits a trend towards aperture reduction and loss, which is intriguing given that aperture loss should reduce the effectiveness of pollen tube germination and impact reproductive fitness (Furness, 2007). The importance of pollen morphology on plant ecology and evolution is becoming more apparent (Edlund et al., 2004; Prieu et al., 2016; Williams \& Mazer, 2016)


Figure 1.1 Representative habit ( $a-c$ ) and inflorescence ( $d-f$ ) diversity for the subtribes of Plukenetieae. Dalechampiinae: (a) stinging twining vines, (d) pseudanthial inflorescence composed of pistillate and staminate cymules and resiniferous glands subtended by two white involucral bracts (Dalechampia sp.; Medeiros \& Cardinal-McTeague 562, R). Plukenetiinae: (b) non-stinging twining vines and slender lianas, (e) racemose thyrse with a proximal pistillate flower and two to three flowered distal staminate cymules in bud (Plukenetia volubilis L.; Wurdack s.n., US). Tragiinae: (c) stinging twining vines and subshrubs, (f) raceme with proximal pistillate flower and distal staminate flowers (Tragia volubilis L.; Medeiros \& Cardinal-McTeague 556, R).
suggesting studies on Plukenetieae could shed light on the selective pressures of exine type and pollen aperture reduction and loss.

Seeds of Plukenetieae are typically small and unremarkable, however the seeds of Plukenetia are notably variable in size and several species are economically valuable. At least four species of Plukenetia are traditionally cultivated for their large edible oil-rich seeds: $P$. huayllabambana Bussmann et al. (Mountain Sacha Inchi), P. polyadenia Müll.Arg. (Compadre-do-azeite), and P. volubilis L. (Sacha Inchi or Inca peanut) in South America, and P. conophora Müll.Arg. (Awusa or African walnut) in West Africa. Economic demand for these traditionally cultivated seeds is growing (Bussmann et al., 2009, 2013), and agricultural interest and research are positioning the genus to be a useful model of seed trait evolution, e.g., the effects of elevation
on seed oil profiles (Cai et al., 2012), differences in germination biology (Nwosu, 2006; Cardoso et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2016), and the genetic pathways of oil accumulation and polyunsaturated fatty acid synthesis (Wang et al., 2012; Wang \& Liu, 2014). Furthermore, while the general selective pressures of seed size are known (Leishman et al., 2000), there are surprisingly few studies demonstrating the evolutionary pressures of seed size within a clade, suggesting Plukenetia could be a useful system to study seed size evolution.

The widespread pantropical distribution of Plukenetieae is also notable and raises questions about the biogeographical history of the tribe. All three subtribes are pantropically distributed (Table 1.1), suggesting each lineage underwent parallel biogeographic processes, but potential similarities and differences are unclear. Over the past decade, biogeographic studies have flourished, providing insight into the timing and direction of ancient plant movements and information on the evolution of specific tropical biomes (e.g., the Caribbean; Nieto-Blázquez et al., 2017). Previously, pantropical distributions were thought to have developed by the vicariance of ancient Gondwanan distributions following the breakup of the continents (Raven \& Axelrod, 1974), however most evidence now supports the prevalence of frequent and numerous longdistance dispersals since the Oligocene (Renner \& Meyer, 2001; Givnish et al., 2004; Renner, 2004a; Sytsma et al., 2004; Clayton et al., 2009; Berger et al., 2016). As such, long-distance dispersal is a likely explanation for the pantropical distribution of Plukenetieae, however a formal analysis could shed light on predominant patterns, and improve our understanding of the diversification of each subtribe. Furthermore, detailed biogeography of certain genera/lineages could reveal insight into the neotropical diversification patterns, such as the significance of the Andes mountain barrier (Pérez-Escobar et al., 2017b) and the open vegetational diagonal (Costa, 2003; Werneck, 2011).

Lastly, Plukenetieae possesses three innovative traits that were likely important to the successful diversification of the tribe. The first, twining vine growth form, is present in all three subtribes (Table 1.1). Climbing growth forms are known to promote diversification by providing greater access to light gradients and ecological niches, increasing defences by exposure to a greater number of herbivores, and investing resources into productive biomass rather than support structures (Gianoli, 2004). Second is stinging hair defences, found in Dalechampiinae and Tragiinae, more prominently in the latter (Webster, 2014). Stinging hairs composed of crystalline cell(s) and irritating chemical compounds are known from four plant families,

Urticaceae, Euphorbiaceae, Loascaceae, and Hydrophyllaceae (Thurston \& Lersten, 1969). While the presence of stinging hairs is not a striking key innovation in of itself, plant defences are often associated with increased diversification rates (e.g., latex and resin, Farrell et al., 1991; defence mutualisms, Weber \& Agrawal, 2014). Third is the origin of pseudanthial inflorescences in Dalechampiinae, which includes innovations of floral symmetry and specialized pollination most often by resin collecting bees, but also fragrance and pollen collecting bees (Armbruster, 1984, 1993, Armbruster et al., 1989, 1992). Bilaterally symmetrical (or zygomorphic) flowers are known to facilitate diversification by increasing reproductive isolation through floral modifications (Sargent, 2004) as do specialized pollination syndromes and pollinator shifts (van der Niet \& Johnson, 2012). General trends of plant diversification are not yet established and there are few studies that examined how multiple innovative traits overlap, suggesting Plukenetieae could provide valuable insight.

Despite the ecological, evolutionary, and economic value of Plukenetieae, molecular phylogenetic studies of the tribe have been limited to a few representative taxa in family wide studies (Wurdack et al., 2005; Tokuoka, 2007) or in-depth studies of Dalechampia (Armbruster et al., 2009, 2013). Family-wide phylogenies have confirmed the monophyly of Plukenetieae and most of the subtribes, with the exception of one study that recovered the anomalous pairing of Dalechampia with the rare Amazonian small tree genus Astrococcus (Wurdack et al., 2005), suggesting Plukenetiinae was paraphyletic. Excluding this relationship, most evidence suggests Plukenetiinae is the earliest diverging lineage, sister to Dalechampiinae + Traginae, but taxon sampling was limited and node support was low (Wurdack et al., 2005; Tokuoka, 2007). Pollen morphology presents an alternative hypothesis, suggesting that the tricolporate pollen of Dalechampiinae is plesiomorphic for the tribe and that Plukenetiinae + Tragiinae form a monophyletic group based on the shared loss of endopores and similarities in pollen shape and size (Gillespie, 1994b). Furthermore, analysis of pollen morphology diversity proposed several novel species groups that have yet to be tested, and suggests that the large genus Tragia is likely paraphyletic (Gillespie, 1994b). As such, a detailed molecular phylogenetic investigation is needed to establish the generic and subtribal relationships within the tribe.


#### Abstract

Aims Through the course of this research portfolio, I explored the evolutionary history of tribe Plukenetieae to identify key species relationships, patterns of morphological evolution and biogeography, and general trends of plant diversification. Overall, my goals were: (1) develop a well-sampled molecular phylogeny of Plukenetieae to use as a framework for evolutionary studies; (2) establish baseline systematic relationships in the tribe, including testing species relationships based on pollen morphology; (3) study patterns of pollen exine and aperture evolution across the tribe; (4) study patterns of seed size evolution in Plukenetia, a genus with traditionally cultivated oilseed species; (5) revise the sectional classification of Plukenetia in light of molecular and morphological data; (6) reconstruct the biogeographical history of the tribe and determine patterns that resulted in pantropical disjunct distributions; and (7) investigate how multiple overlapping innovative traits (twining growth form, stinging hair plant defences, and pseudanthial inflorescences, including floral symmetry and specialized pollination biology) contributed to the diversification of the tribe.


## Motivation and approach

In chapter two, I aimed to produce the first densely-sampled molecular phylogeny for Plukenetieae and explore pollen morphology evolution. To outline the generic and subtribal relationships in the tribe, and test species groups predicted by pollen morphology (Gillespie, 1994b), I constructed a phylogeny that sampled 154 terminals ( 93 of $\sim 365$ species) and DNA sequences of the nuclear ribosomal DNA (nrDNA) internal transcribed spacer (ITS) and plastid (cpDNA) psbA-trnH intergenic spacer regions, including psbA-trnH insertion/deletion (indel) gap-scored data. I then interpreted species groups on the phylogeny using molecular clades, vegetative, floral, and pollen morphology, and geographic distribution. Pollen morphology evolution was inferred from the phylogeny, with the goal of identifying trends in exine and aperture evolution.

In chapter three, I investigated the seed size evolution and biogeography of Plukenetia. My goals were to define seed size categories in Plukenetia, estimate ancestral seed size across its phylogeny, identify the number of origin(s) of large seeds, and test the relative contribution of plant size, fruit type/dispersal mechanism, seedling ecology, fire tolerance, and biome type to seed size evolution using phylogenetic regression. I also aimed to study neotropical and
pantropical diversification patterns using ancestral range estimation (ARE). To elucidate seed size evolution and biogeographic patterns, I developed an improved molecular phylogeny for Plukenetia ( 83 terminals, 20 of $\sim 23$ Plukenetia species) using two plastid (matK, $n d h F$ ) and five nuclear (ETS [external transcribed spacer], ITS, KEA1 introns 11 and 17, TEB exon 17) markers. Both KEA1 and TEB were used for phylogenetic inference for the first time, with KEA1 identified here using the transcriptome/genome data-mining pipeline Lite Blue Devil v0.3.

In chapter four, I produced a revised sectional classification for Plukenetia and described three new taxa from South America. The taxonomic history of Plukenetia has been complicated by shifts between recognizing several smaller genera (e.g., Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a) and a single broader genus united by synapomorphic 4-carpellate ovaries (Gillespie, 1993, 2007). To accommodate the breadth of morphological variation in the expanded generic concept, three new sections were formally described. The sections are supported by molecular phylogeny and defined by a combination of androecium morphology, style morphology, fruit type, and seed size, in addition to leaf venation and pollen tectum. I also described two new species from the Amazon basin and a new subspecies from Andes of Peru based on phylogenetic and morphological evidence. A taxonomic treatment with dichotomous keys to the sections and species are included.

Lastly, in chapter five, I investigated the biogeographical history and drivers of diversification in Plukenetieae. A combination of innovative traits (such as floral symmetry, specialized pollination biology, and beneficial growth forms) and abiotic processes (such as mountain building and aridification) are known to contribute to increased diversification in plants (Sargent, 2004; Givnish et al., 2014, 2015; Hernández-Hernández et al., 2014; Reyes et al., 2015; Lagomarsino et al., 2016), but less is known about how overlapping innovative traits interact, and general trends in diversification still need to be established. Here, I tested the relative contribution of overlapping innovative traits in Plukenetieae, (i) twining growth form, (ii) stinging hair defences, and (iii) specialized inflorescence structure + pollination biology, predicting that species with all three traits would exhibit the greatest diversification rates. Second, I used ARE to reconstruct the biogeographical history of the tribe, with special attention to determining the pattern and timing of plant movements that resulted in pantropical distributions. Furthermore, it allowed me to test if the arrival to another continent was associated with enhanced diversification through adaptation to new ecological niches (e.g., Richardson et
al., 2001; Federman et al., 2015). To test these hypotheses, I developed an improved phylogeny for the tribe ( 289 terminals, 109 of $\sim 365$ Plukenetieae species) that sampled two plastid (matK, $n d h F$ ) and four nuclear markers (ETS, ITS, KEA1 intron 11, TEB exon 17). Diversification patterns were determined using both time- and trait-dependent statistical modeling.

# Chapter 2 <br> Molecular Phylogeny and Pollen Evolution of Euphorbiaceae Tribe Plukenetieae* 

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Phylogeny and pollen morphology evolution in Euphorbiaceae tribe Plukenetieae.


#### Abstract

- Background: Tribe Plukenetieae (Euphorbiaceae, Acalyphoideae) is a pantropical lineage of mostly stinging, twining vines and lianas with diverse floral and pollen morphology. To elucidate generic relationships in the tribe and examine patterns of pollen morphology evolution, we conducted phylogenetic analyses of nuclear ribosomal ITS and plastid psbA$\operatorname{trnH}$ DNA sequence and indel gap-scored data. - Results: We sampled all genera in subtribes Dalechampiinae and Tragiinae, and most in Plukenetiinae; species sampling was broad in the latter two subtribes. Our efforts produced a 2,207 character dataset of 154 terminals (representing ~93 species). Analyses of these data support the monophyly of each subtribe and weakly suggest Dalechampiinae (Dalechampia) is sister to Plukenetiinae + Tragiinae. Within Plukenetiinae, Haematostemon is resolved as sister to Romanoa + Plukenetia, and Plukenetia is divided into five subclades that mostly correspond to the current infrageneric classification. Tragiinae is resolved into an Old World lineage and a mostly New World lineage, and is divided into ten subclades also supported by floral and/or pollen morphology. Species-rich Tragia is recovered as para- or polyphyletic and intermixed with all other currently recognized Tragiinae genera. - Conclusions: The recently segregated genera, Bia, Ctenomeria, and Zuckertia, are upheld, and Gitara is resurrected from Acidoton, resulting in two new combinations: Gitara nicaraguensis and Zuckertia manuelii. Pollen aperture and exine morphology are largely correlated with phylogeny. The loss of pollen endopores is a potential synapomorphy of Plukenetiinae + Traginae, and we hypothesize that weakly defined apertures and inaperturate pollen originated independently four and three times, respectively.


## Background

Tribe Plukenetieae (Benth.) Hutch. (Euphorbiaceae, Acalyphoideae) is a diverse pantropical lineage of $\sim 17$ genera and 350 species of twining vines and lianas, scandent to erect perennial herbs and subshrubs, and rarely shrubs and small trees (Gillespie, 1994b; Webster, 1994; Radcliffe-Smith, 2001; Govaerts et al., 2015). Members of the tribe are distinguished in the family by their frequent twining habit, stinging hairs, and floral and pollen morphology. Taxa of economic or evolutionary interest that have been extensively studied include Plukenetia volubilis L. (Sacha Inchi), known for its omega-3 fatty acid oil-rich seeds (Wang et al., 2012), Tragia involucrata L., an urticant medicinal plant used in Ayurveda that has anti-microbial and antiinflammatory properties (Perumal Samy et al., 2013), and Dalechampia L., known for its unique pseudanthial inflorescence and specialized pollination biology (Webster \& Webster, 1972; Webster \& Armbruster, 1991). Broader phylogenetic relationships in the tribe are poorly known outside of Dalechampia (Armbruster et al., 2009, 2013), and morphological, palynological, and molecular evidence suggests some genera are paraphyletic (Gillespie, 1994b; Wurdack et al., 2005). Our paper presents the first comprehensively sampled molecular phylogeny of Plukenetieae and elucidates the generic relationships of its taxa and patterns of pollen morphology evolution.

Plukenetieae is differentiated in Acalyphoideae by the combination of apetalous flowers, valvate staminate sepal aestivation, unbranched styles, and frequent twining vine or liana habit (Webster, 1994, 2014; Radcliffe-Smith, 2001). Flowers are typically arranged in bisexual racemes or racemose thyrses with proximally located pistillate flowers (sometimes as a proximal pistillate branch), or in Dalechampia as a pseudanthial inflorescence of condensed unisexual pleiochasia subtended by two typically large involucral bracts (Fig. 2.1). Plukenetieae pollen is unusual in the subfamily for its considerable morphological variation. For example, aperture conditions range from tricolporate to tricolpate, weakly triporate, and inaperturate (Punt, 1962; Gillespie, 1994b; Nowicke \& Takahashi, 2002).


Figure 2.1 Representative inflorescences for the subtribes of Plukenetieae. (a) Dalechampiinae: pseudanthial inflorescence of Dalechampia sp. (Medeiros \& Cardinal-McTeague 562, R), composed of pistillate and staminate cymules and resiniferous glands subtended by two white involucral bracts (scale bar $=5 \mathrm{~mm}$ ). (b) Plukenetiinae: racemose thyrse of Plukenetia stipellata (Cardinal-McTeague 8, CAN) with proximal pistillate flower and two-to-three flowered distal staminate cymules (scale bar $=5 \mathrm{~mm}$ ). Inset, Plukenetia volubilis staminate flower. (c) Tragiinae: raceme of Tragia bahiensis (Medeiros \& Cardinal-McTeague 561, R) with proximal pistillate flower and distal staminate flowers (scale bar $=3 \mathrm{~mm}$ ). Inset, staminate flower.

Plukenetieae is currently classified into subtribes Dalechampiinae (Müll.Arg.)
G.L.Webster, Plukenetiinae Benth., and Tragiinae G.L.Webster (Webster, 1994, 2014; RadcliffeSmith, 2001). Historically, Plukenetieae consisted of genera in Plukenetiinae and Tragiinae (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919, as Acalypheae subtribe Plukenetiinae; Hutchinson, 1969; Webster, 1975), but later included Dalechampia (previously in the monogeneric tribe Dalechampieae; Müller, 1864a, 1865; Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919b; Webster, 1975) based on their shared twining habit, presence of stinging hairs, and elongate columnar styles (Webster, 1994). The diagnostic characters of the three subtribes are given in Table 2.1.

## Subtribe Dalechampiinae

Dalechampiinae is a monogeneric subtribe containing Dalechampia (Table 2.2), a pantropically distributed and species-rich genus ( $\sim 130$ species) of clambering or twining vines and slender lianas, and in rare cases subshrubs. The genus is well known for its unique and specialized pseudanthial inflorescence (Fig. 2.1A), which contributes to a suite of resin-, fragrance-, and

Table 2.1 Morphological characters for the subtribes of Plukenetieae.

| Character | Dalechampiinae | Plukenetiinae | Tragiinae |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Habit | Twining vines and slender lianas (subshrubs) | Twining vines and lianas (shrubs, small trees) | Twining vines and slender lianas, scandent or erect herbs and subshrubs (shrubs) |
| Stinging hairs | + | - | + |
| Leaves | Simple to palmately compound, unlobed to lobed | Simple, unlobed | Simple (palmately compound), unlobed to trilobed (deeply pinnately lobed) |
| Basilaminar or laminar leaf glands | - | +/- | - |
| Leaf stipels | + | +/- | - |
| Inflorescences | Pseudanthium of cymules subtended by two involucral bracts | Racemes, thyrses (glomerules) | Racemes (racemose thyrses with reduced simple cymes), sometimes with a proximal pistillate branch |
| Carpels | 3 | 3 or 4 | 3 |
| Styles | Entirely connate | Partly to entirely connate | Partly connate (entirely connate or mostly free) |
| Pollen shape | Subglobose to prolate | Suboblate to subglobose | Suboblate to globose |
| Pollen tectum | Reticulate | Perforate or reticulate | Perforate, rugulate, reticulate, or tectum absent |
| Pollen aperture | Tricolporate with endocingulate endopores | Tricolpate | Tricolpate (five-colpate), weakly tricolpate to triporate (irregularly aperturate), or inaperturate |
| Aperture margin | Even and smooth | Uneven or jagged (thickened) | Uneven or jagged |

pollen-gathering insect pollination strategies (Armbruster, 1984, 1993, Armbruster et al., 1989, 1992, 2009; Armbruster \& Baldwin, 1998).

## Subtribe Plukenetiinae

Plukenetiinae is a small subtribe of five genera and $\sim 27$ species that can be subdivided into two informal groups: the small tree and shrub genera, Astrococcus Benth., Angostylis Benth., and Haematostemon Pax \& K.Hoffm.; and the twining vine and liana genera, Plukenetia L. and Romanoa Trevis. (Table 2.2; Gillespie, 1994b). Unlike the other subtribes, species of Plukenetiinae lack stinging hairs (Webster, 1994, 2014). They are also characterized by simple unlobed leaves with basilaminar and/or scattered laminar glands, and diverse androecium and gynoecium morphology, particularly style shape and degree of connation (Gillespie, 1993, 2007). Plukenetia ( $\sim 21$ species) is the largest and only pantropically distributed genus in the subtribe (Table 2.2), and is unique in having four-carpellate ovaries and often winged or

Table 2.2 Genera of tribe Plukenetieae sensu Webster (2014), with recognition of Zuckertia following Medeiros et al. (2013), and selected outgroups with total number of species, number of species sampled, and geographic distribution.

| Taxon | Species number (species sampled) | Geographic distribution |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dalechampiinae |  |  |
| Dalechampia L. | $\sim 130$ (4) | Pantropical (primarily New World) |
| Plukenetiinae |  |  |
| Angostylis Benth. | 1-2 (0) | Amazonian Brazil |
| Astrococcus Benth. | 1 (0) | Amazonian Brazil and Amazonian Venezuela |
| Haematostemon Pax \& K.Hoffm. | 2 (1) | Guyana and Amazonian Venezuela |
| Plukenetia L. | ~21 (14) | Pantropical |
| Romanoa Trevis. | 1 (1) | E Brazil, Paraguay, Bolivia |
| Traginae |  |  |
| Acidoton Sw. | 6 (2) | Central and South America, Hispaniola, and Jamaica |
| Bia Klotzsch | 5 (2) | Costa Rica to South America |
| Cnesmone Blume | 11 (4) | SE Asia |
| Ctenomeria Harv. | 2 (1) | South Africa |
| Megistostigma Hook.f. | 5 (2) | SE Asia |
| Pachystylidium Pax \& K.Hoffm. | 1 (1) | SE Asia |
| Platygyna P.Mercier | 7 (1) | Cuba |
| Sphaerostylis Baill. | 2 (1) | Madagascar |
| Tragia L. | $\sim 150$ (50) | Pantropical to warm temperate (primarily New World and Africa) |
| Tragiella Pax \& K.Hoffm. | 4 (3) | Central and S Africa |
| Zuckertia Baill. | 2 (1) | Mexico and Central America |
| Selected Outgroups |  |  |
| Bernardia Houst. ex Mill. | $\sim 70$ (3) | North and South America |
| Caryodendron H.Karst. | 4 (2) | Central and South America |

tubercled fruits, compared to normally three-carpellate ovaries and unadorned fruits. Plukenetia was revised by Gillespie $(1993,2007)$ and includes three sections and two informal species groups (Table 2.3).

## Subtribe Tragiinae

Tragiinae is the largest subtribe of Plukenetieae and comprises a diverse lineage of $\sim 11$ genera and 195 species (Table 2.2). Genera are characterized by their often-abundant stinging hairs and may be differentiated from other subtribes by the absence of stipels or laminar glands on their leaf blade bases (Table 2.1). Growth forms in Tragiinae are diverse and consist of scandent to erect herbs and subshrubs, twining vines, slender lianas, and rarely small to large shrubs (Acidoton Sw.). Tragia L. ( $\sim 150$ species) is pantropically distributed and the sixth largest genus

Table 2.3 Infrageneric classifications (including informal species groups) of Plukenetia (sensu Gillespie, 1993, 2007) and Tragia (sensu Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a, with modifications by: Miller \& Webster, 1967; Leandri, 1971; Gillespie, 1994a; Webster, 2007, 2014). Tragia sects. Leucandra and Ratiga are regarded as synonyms of sect. Tragia (Miller \& Webster, 1967; Múlgura de Romero \& Gutiérrez de Sanguinetti, 1989), but are differentiated in our study for analytical purposes. Species circumscribed in T. sect. Leptorhachis (Klotzsch) Müll.Arg. (sensu Múlgura de Romero \& Gutiérrez de Sanguinetti, 1989) are included in sect. Leucandra. An informal group comprising the Australian species of Tragia is delineated here (previously considered in sect. Leucandra; Müller, 1865; Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a; Forster, 1994).

| Classification | Species number <br> (species sampled) | Geographic distribution |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Plukenetia | $\sim 21(14)$ | Pantropical |
| sect. Angostylidium Müll.Arg. | $1(1)$ | Tropical Central and West Africa |
| sect. Hedraiostylus (Hassk.) Müll.Arg. | $3(1)$ | S Africa and SE Asia |
| Madagascan species group | $3(2)$ | Madagascar |
| New World species group 2 | $7(5)$ | Mexico to South America |
| sect. Plukenetia | $7(5)$ | Mexico to South America |
| Tragia | $\sim 150(50)$ | Pantropical to warm temperate |
|  |  | (primarily New World and Africa) |
| sect. Agirta Baill. | $5(2)$ | Madagascar |
| Australian species group | $3(3)$ | Australia |
| sect. Lassia (Baill.) Müll.Arg. | $2(0)$ | Madagascar |
| sect. Leucandra (Klotzsch) Müll.Arg. | $12(3)$ | S U.S.A. to South America |
| sect. Leptobotrys (Baill.) Müll.Arg. | $2(2)$ | SE U.S.A. |
| subg. Mauroya Leandri | $1(0)$ | Madagascar |
| sect. Monadelphae L.J.Gillespie | $1(0)$ | Venezuela (Amazonas) |
| sect. Ratiga Müll.Arg. | $5(2)$ | Central to South America |
| sect. Tagira Müll.Arg. | $82(18)$ | Africa, Madagascar, S Asia |
| sect. Tragia | $33(20)$ | S U.S.A. to South America and |
|  |  | Caribbean |

in Euphorbiaceae s.s. (sensu Wurdack et al., 2005; APG III, 2009), following Euphorbia L., Croton L., Acalypha L., Macaranga Thouars, and Jatropha L. (Radcliffe-Smith, 2001; Govaerts et al., 2015). The sectional classification of Tragia is presented in Table 2.3. Floral and pollen morphology suggest that Tragia is paraphyletic, with the other genera of Tragiinae embedded within it (Gillespie, 1994b). Recently, three sections of Tragia were reinstated as genera, Bia Klotzsch (Webster, 2007), Zuckertia Baill. (Medeiros et al., 2013), and Ctenomeria Harv. (Webster, 2014), based on inferences from pollen morphology (Gillespie, 1994b) and phylogenetic data (Wurdack et al., 2005). The remaining genera, Acidoton, Cnesmone Blume, Megistostigma Hook.f., Pachystylidium Pax \& K.Hoffm., Platygyna P.Mercier, Sphaerostylis Baill., and Tragiella Pax \& K.Hoffm., generally have been regarded as distinct, although their relationships within the suspected paraphyletic Tragia were unclear (Gillespie, 1994b; Webster, 1994, 2014).

## Pollen morphology hypotheses

Pollen morphology is an informative taxonomic character in Euphorbiaceae and has been used extensively to guide the taxonomy of Plukenetieae (Webster, 1975, 1994, 2007, 2014). Plukenetieae pollen is especially diverse in aperture condition and exine morphology (for pollen images see Punt, 1962; Webster \& Webster, 1972; Gillespie, 1994a,b; Nowicke \& Takahashi, 2002) and is useful in differentiating among the subtribes (Table 2.1).

Interpreting pollen morphology variation has provided important hypotheses for the relationships of the Plukenetieae subtribes and genera (Gillespie, 1994b). For example, the tricolporate aperture condition of Dalechampia is shared with the majority of genera in Acalyphoideae and is presumed to be plesiomorphic in the tribe. This suggests that Plukenetiinae plus Tragiinae is monophyletic and united by the absence of endopores (Gillespie, 1994b). Aperture variation in Tragiinae provides hypotheses for the relationships of species groups and genera and strongly suggests that Tragia is paraphyletic (Gillespie, 1994b). Specific hypotheses based on pollen morphology are addressed in the discussion.

## Molecular phylogenetic hypotheses

Current molecular phylogenetic hypotheses for relationships in Plukenetieae are based on broad analyses of Euphorbiaceae, which sampled six to 11 representative species of the tribe (Wurdack et al., 2005; Tokuoka, 2007). Although taxon sampling was limited, both studies strongly supported Plukenetieae as monophyletic and sister to tribes Bernardieae + Caryodendreae. Wurdack et al. (2005) also provided the first molecular evidence that Tragia is paraphyletic and that Dalechampia is embedded within Plukenetieae (Fig. 2.2).

Molecular phylogenetic analyses have also been conducted on Dalechampia, with a focus on evolutionary and ecological questions (Armbruster \& Baldwin, 1998; Armbruster et al., 2009, 2013). The most comprehensive phylogeny (Armbruster et al., 2009, 2013) recovered strong support for an early division in Dalechampia, resulting in two major lineages defined by the number of cymule branches in the male subinflorescence (four- vs. five-armed). Species relationships were mostly well resolved within each lineage, although their taxonomic significance or concordance with the sectional classification were not discussed.

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Wurdack et al. 2005
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Figure 2.2 Hypothesis for the relationships of Plukenetieae and its close relatives, Bernardieae and Caryodendreae, based on parsimony analysis of trnL-F data (previously the best taxon sampled dataset), modified from Wurdack et al. (2005). Numbers above branches are parsimony bootstrap percentages $\geq 50 \%$; an asterisk $\left(^{*}\right)$ below branches indicates Bayesian posterior probabilities $\geq 95 \%$.

In this paper, we present the first molecular phylogeny of Plukenetieae based on dense taxon sampling, with a focus on subtribes Plukenetiinae and Tragiinae, using DNA sequences of the nuclear ribosomal DNA (nrDNA) internal transcribed spacer (ITS) and plastid (cpDNA) psbA-trnH intergenic spacer regions, including psbA-trnH insertion/deletion (indel) gap-scored data. Our objectives are to (1) elucidate the relationships of the subtribes and genera of Plukenetieae, (2) clarify generic circumscriptions and recommend taxonomic changes consistent with a phylogenetic classification based on molecular and morphological evidence, (3) evaluate evolutionary hypotheses inferred from pollen morphology, and (4) elucidate patterns of pollen aperture and exine evolution.

## Methods

## Taxon sampling for phylogenetic analysis

We sampled a total of 154 accessions representing $\sim 93$ species of Plukenetieae and selected outgroups (taxonomy and voucher data are provided in Appendix 2.1). Sampling encompassed 16 species from three of five genera in Plukenetiinae (excluding Astrococcus and Angostylis, material not available) and 70 species from all 11 genera in Tragiinae, representing approximately $39 \%$ of their combined species diversity (Table 2.2). Sampling of the large genera Plukenetia and Tragia attempted to represent their sectional diversity and geographic distribution
(Table 2.3). Plukenetia was sampled for 25 accessions (representing 14 species) and included at least one species from each of its three sections and two informal species groups. Tragia was sampled for 89 accessions (representing $\sim 50$ species) across seven sections/species groups (excluding sects. Lassia and Monadelphae, and subg. Mauroya, material not available). The remaining 14 genera were sampled for 31 accessions across 18 species (Table 2.2). In our study, sampling of Dalechampiinae was limited to four species of Madagascan Dalechampia, based on accessible material. We justify using only a few specimens given that the broader phylogeny of Dalechampia is already well known (Armbruster et al., 2009, 2013) and because the monophyly of the genus is strongly supported by its pseudanthial inflorescence synapomorphy. Five species of Bernardia Houst. ex Mill. (Bernardieae) and Caryodendron H.Karst. (Caryodendreae) were selected as outgroups to root the phylogeny, following the sister group relationships resolved by Wurdack et al. (2005).

## DNA extraction, amplification, and sequencing

Whole genomic DNA was extracted from herbarium or silica gel desiccated leaf material using a silica-based spin column method (Alexander et al., 2006) with a modified binding buffer (Starr et al., 2009). DNA was amplified on an Eppendorf EPGradientS Mastercycler using standard polymerase chain reaction ( PCR ) procedures; an initial denaturation period at $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 3 min , then 34 cycles of (i) DNA denaturing at $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 45 s , (ii) primer annealing at either $48^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (ITS) or $55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}(p s b A-t r n H)$ for 1 min , and (iii) polymerase extension at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 2 min (at $75 \% \mathrm{ramp}$ up speed), ending with a 5 min extension at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Most taxa were amplified in $15 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ reactions using Hot Start (HS) Taq DNA polymerase (BioShop, Burlington, Canada), with $\mathrm{MgCl}_{2}$ concentrations optimized at 2.5 mM for ITS and 1.5 mM for $p s b A-t r n H$. HS reactions were supplemented with 1 M betaine (Sigma Aldrich, Oakville, Canada) for ITS and $0.27 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{mL}$ of bovine serum albumin (BioShop) for psbA-trnH, to improve amplification (Kreader, 1996; Henke et al., 1997). Challenging samples were reattempted with Takara e2TAK DNA polymerase (Clontech Laboratories Inc., Mountainview, California) or AccuPower Taq PCR PreMix (Bioneer Inc., Alameda, California), following the manufacturer's instructions. The nrDNA ITS region (which in this study includes the partial 18 S ribosomal RNA [rRNA] gene, the full ITS-1, 5.8S rRNA gene, and ITS-2 regions, and partial 26 S rRNA gene) was amplified using KRC (Torrecilla \& Catalán, 2002) and AB102 (Douzery et al., 1999) primers, then
sequenced using three primers, KRC, BMBCR (Lane et al., 1985), and ITS4 (White et al., 1990), to improve coverage. Samples that did not amplify at full length were reattempted in two shorter, overlapping regions using primer pairs BMBCR/ITS2 and ITS3/ITS4 (White et al., 1990). The cpDNA psbA-trnH intergenic spacer region was both amplified and sequenced using psbA (Sang et al., 1997) and trnH ${ }^{\mathrm{GUG}}$ primers (Tate \& Simpson, 2003; Shaw et al., 2005). PCR products were treated with an exonuclease I and shrimp alkaline phosphatase procedure (MJS Biolynx Inc., Brockville, Canada) followed by Sanger sequencing reactions with BigDye Terminator v3.1 chemistry (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, California). Sequence products were cleaned with a sodium acetate/ethanol precipitation then run on an ABI 3130xl Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems) at the Laboratory of Molecular Biodiversity at the Canadian Museum of Nature. Sequence data were visualized, edited, and assembled using Geneious v6.1.5 (Biomatters Ltd., Auckland, New Zealand).

## Nucleotide alignments, inversion correction, model selection, and gap scoring

Sequences were aligned using the Geneious MAFFT plugin v7.017 (Katoh \& Standley, 2013) by implementing the auto-select algorithm with default parameters, followed by visualization and manual refinement in Geneious using a similarity criterion (Simmons, 2004). The ITS alignment had high sequence divergence, numerous one to two base pair (bp) indels, and in general was most divergent among Plukenetia sequences. The psbA-trnH alignment had low sequence divergence and high indel variation. Irregular 29-59 bp stretches of unalignable non-homologous sequences were found in psbA-trnH accessions of Plukenetia lehmanniana (Pax \& K.Hoffm.) Huft \& L.J.Gillespie, and were excluded from our alignment. Also discovered was a 32 bp inversion in $p s b A$-trnH, approximately 65-70 nucleotides downstream from the coding sequence of the $p s b A$ gene. Preliminary phylogenetic analyses indicated the inversion's conflicting sequence (relative to the alignment) was grouping 11 collectively unrelated terminals (Appendix 1) into a long branched clade, suggesting the inversion originated in multiple lineages. Given that inversions are common in non-coding regions and known to be homoplasious in the stem loop of the psbA 3' untranslated region (Štorchová \& Olson, 2007; Whitlock et al., 2010), we avoided the grouping of these samples by reverse-complementing the inverted sequence and treating the inversion event as a binary character (see Lehtonen et al., 2009 for additional discussion). Optimal models of molecular evolution for individual markers were determined using the Akaike
information criterion (AIC; Akaike, 1974) conducted through likelihood searches in JModeltest v2.1.4 at default settings (Darriba et al., 2012). Numerous indels in the psbA-trnH alignment were potentially phylogenetically informative and were gap scored using FASTGAP v1.2 (Borchsenius, 2009). FAStGAP is an automated program that implements the "simple method" of gap scoring (Simmons \& Ochoterena, 2000) on large datasets and outputs the alignment with an appended binary matrix. The 32 bp inversion character was added to the $p s b A-$ $\operatorname{trnH}$ indel gap-scored matrix, and the Markov one-rate model (Mk1) was applied to the binary data during analyses (Lewis, 2001). Data matrices are archived in the Dryad Digital Repository (https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.8nj00).

## Phylogenetic analyses

Phylogenetic relationships were inferred using Bayesian inference (BI), maximum likelihood (ML), and maximum parsimony (MP) analyses. Prior to analyzing combined data, the ITS, psbA$\operatorname{trnH}$, and $p s b A-\operatorname{trn} H+$ indel datasets were evaluated for incongruence using ML bootstrap analyses (Felsenstein, 1985b) in GARLI v2.0 (Zwickl, 2006). For each of the three matrices, two independent searches were conducted for 500 bootstrap replicates, with models of molecular evolution set to GTR $+\mathrm{I}+\Gamma$ (the general time reversible model, with rate heterogeneity incorporated by calculating the proportion of invariant sites and modeling the rates of the remaining sites from a discrete approximation to a gamma distribution, as indicated by AIC in jModeltest) and Mk1 for binary data, allowing for parameter estimation and auto-optimization. Search runs were modified to terminate automatically after 1,000 generations without topological improvement or change in likelihood score (thresholds left at default). The best trees from each pseudoreplicate were summarized as $50 \%$ majority rule consensus trees in PAUP* v4.0b10 (Swofford, 2002). The consensus trees for each dataset were then inspected for conflicting topologies using pairwise comparisons, with incongruence identified by branch conflicts with $\geq$ $85 \%$ maximum likelihood bootstrap percentage (MLBP). Since no supported topological conflicts were found, the remaining analyses were conducted on combined data, partitioned by ITS, $p \operatorname{sbA} A$ - $\operatorname{trn} H$, and indel datasets.

Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analyses were conducted in MrBAYES v3.2.2 (Ronquist et al., 2012) on combined partitioned data, allowing for independent model estimation. Two independent runs of eight-chained searches were performed for 50 million
generations, sampling every one-thousandth generation. The temperature factor was set to 0.025 (reduced from 0.2 ) to promote mixing between chains, while remaining parameters were left at default settings. Searches reached completion with an average standard deviation of split frequencies at 0.013131 . To ensure independent runs had converged, we verified that potential scale reduction factors (PSRF) were close to 1.0 and that effective sample size (ESS) values of each parameter were $>2,000$, as determined by TRACER v1.6 (Rambaut et al., 2014). A 10\% burn-in was implemented before summarizing a maximum clade credibility tree and calculating Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP).

Branch support was also assessed under MP and ML criteria using non-parametric bootstrapping. Parsimony analyses were conducted in PAUP* on a concatenated dataset with characters treated as unordered and equally weighted (Fitch, 1971). One thousand bootstrap replicates were employed, each with 10 random-addition replicates, applying tree-bisectionreconnection (TBR) swapping, saving multiple shortest trees each step (Multrees), and with each random-addition replicate limited to 1,000 trees. Maximum likelihood bootstrapping was implemented in GARLI for 1,000 pseudoreplicates on combined and partitioned data with individually estimated models. Two independent searches were initiated from randomly assembled trees (changed from stepwise) and terminated after 2,000 generations with a stable topology or likelihood score (thresholds remained at default).

## Pollen morphology terminology

Pollen aperture and exine terminology follows Walker \& Doyle (1975), with Plukenetieae specific aperture terms from Gillespie (1994b) and general pollen morphology terms from Punt et al. (2007). Exine terminology varies among authors (e.g., Gillespie, 1994b; Nowicke \& Takahashi, 2002) and is defined here to avoid confusion. Exine is the outer wall of a pollen grain and is composed of the foot layer (or nexine), columellae, and, usually, an upper roof of tectum; exine with a tectum is called tectate. Exine in Plukenetieae can be tectate-perforate (tectate with perforations less than the width of the adjoining unbroken tectum), semitectate (tectate with perforations greater than width of the intervening tectum), or intectate (without an upper roof of tectum and with columellae exposed). Tectal perforations can be described as foveolate (circular perforations $\sim 0.5-1.5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ diam; intermediate between punctate and foveolate according to Punt et al., 2007), punctate (minute circular perforations $<0.2 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ diam, following Gillespie, 1994b),
or fossulate (irregularly shaped grooves), or the tectum can be rugulate (with perforations between elongate and irregularly bent tectal elements called rugae). Semitectate exine is primarily characterized by reticulate patterning, with enlarged tectal perforations called lumina and the tectal reticulum called muri. Following Gillespie (1994b), we describe semitectate exine as coarsely reticulate if lumina are $>1 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, and finely reticulate if lumina are $<1 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ (defined as microreticulate by Punt et al., 2007). In Plukenetieae, intectate exine is described as baculate (cylindrical rod-shaped) or clavate (club-shaped) columellae.

## Results

## Data set characteristics and congruence

The combined matrix comprises 2,207 characters, of which 789 are variable and 635 are parsimony informative; the ITS, $p s b A$-trn $H$, and $p s b A$ - $\operatorname{trn} H$ indel gap-scored partitions had aligned lengths of $1,000 \mathrm{bp}, 1,038 \mathrm{bp}$, and 169 characters, respectively (Table 2.4). The ITS, psbA-trnH, and psbA-trnH + indel datasets produced similar tree topologies and did not recover strongly supported conflicts ( $\geq 85 \%$ MLBP) in incongruence assessments. Thus, the ITS and psbA-trnH + indel datasets were combined in remaining analyses. Tree topologies of combined data MP, ML, and BI analyses were congruent and did not have strongly supported clade conflicts. Bayesian and ML trees were better resolved and had higher support values than the MP tree.

Table 2.4 Characteristics for individual and combined DNA sequence (ITS, $p s b A$ - $\operatorname{trn} H$ ) and $p s b A$-trnH indel gap-scored (including one hand-scored $p s b A-\operatorname{trnH}$ inversion character) datasets.

|  |  |  | Combined ITS + psbA- <br> trn + psbA-trnH |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Character | ITS | psbA-trnH | psbA-trnH <br> indels | indels |
| Genome | nrDNA | cpDNA | cpDNA | Mixed |
| Number of accessions | 143 | 138 | 138 | 154 |
| Aligned length | 1,000 | 1,038 | 169 | 2,207 |
| Average length unaligned | 855 | 544 | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ |
| \% Missing data | 4.07 | 0.57 | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ | 10.87 |
| Constant characters | 526 | 883 | 0 | 1,409 |
| Variable characters | 474 | 155 | 169 | 798 |
| Parsimony-informative |  |  |  |  |
| characters (\%) | $429(42.9 \%)$ | $102(9.8 \%)$ | $104(61.5 \%)$ | $635(28.8 \%)$ |
| Implemented model of evolution | $\mathrm{GTR}+\mathrm{I}+\Gamma$ | $\mathrm{GTR}+\mathrm{I}+\Gamma$ | Mk 1 | Partitioned |

## Phylogenetic reconstructions

The Bayesian maximum clade credibility tree is presented with MP, ML, and BI support values in Figs. 2.3A and 2.3B. Evidence of strong branch support was interpreted as $\geq 85 \%$ maximum parsimony bootstrap percentage (MPBP) and MLBP, and $\geq 95 \%$ BPP, and is indicated by bold branches on the phylogeny.

All three subtribes were resolved as monophyletic, except in MP results, where genera of Plukenetiinae were collapsed into a polytomy with Tragiinae and Dalechampiinae. In ML and BI analyses, Dalechampiinae was resolved as the earliest diverging lineage and was sister to a poorly supported clade of Plukenetiinae + Traginae (Fig. 2.3A; MLBP $=51, \mathrm{BPP}=86$ ).

Plukenetiinae and its genera were recovered as monophyletic (Fig. 2.3A; MLBP $\geq 75$, BPP $\geq 99$ ), although basal nodes of the subtribe were collapsed in MP trees. Haematostemon was resolved as the earliest diverging lineage and was sister to a moderately supported clade of Romanoa + Plukenetia (Fig. 2.3A; MLBP $=73$, BPP $=99$ ). Plukenetia was resolved into five subclades (P1-P5), which largely correlated with taxonomic section/species group concepts. Subclades were mostly strongly supported, although backbone support was poor (Fig. 2.3A). Subclades P1 and P2, together corresponding to New World species group 2, resolved in a functional polytomy with a weakly supported lineage of subclades P3-P5. The latter lineage included $P$. sect. Plukenetia (P3), $P$. sect. Angostylidium (P4), and $P$. sect. Hedraiostylus + the Madagascan species group (P5). Species relationships within the subclades had mostly strong support, except in subclade P2 (Fig. 2.3A).

Tragiinae was resolved as a monophyletic lineage with strong support (Fig. 2.3A; MPBP $=86, \mathrm{MLBP} / \mathrm{BPP}=100$ ), with the smaller genera nested throughout a para- and/or polyphyletic Tragia. Across the subtribe, ten subclades (T1-T10) were resolved with strong support (Figs. $2.3 \mathrm{~A}, 2.3 \mathrm{~B}$ ), with the exception of subclade T 3 (Fig. 2.3A; MLBP $=56$, $\mathrm{BPP}=83$ ). These subclades can be divided into two lineages based on an early split in the subtribe: (i) an exclusively Old World clade comprised of T1-T3 (Fig. 2.3A; MLBP $=71$, BPP $=98$ ); and (ii) a primarily New World clade comprised of T4-T10 (Fig. 2.3B; MPBP $=83, \mathrm{MLBP}=92, \mathrm{BPP}=$ 100).


Figure 2.3A Bayesian inference (BI) maximum clade credibility tree based on combined and partitioned ITS, psbA-trnH, and indel data of Plukenetieae and selected outgroups. Support values $>50 \%$ are indicated on each branch for maximum parsimony (MP) and likelihood (ML) bootstrap analyses, and BI Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analysis, respectively (* indicate support values of $100 \%$ ). Branches with strong support, interpreted as $\geq 85 \%$ MP and ML bootstrap percentages (MPBS and MLBS) and $\geq 95 \%$ Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP), are in bold. Clades with Old World distribution are indicated by numbered grey boxes, clades with New World distribution by black boxes. Continued in Fig. 2.3B.


Figure 2.3B Continuation of Fig. 2.3A. Bayesian inference (BI) maximum clade credibility tree based on combined and partitioned ITS, $\operatorname{psbA}$-trn $H$, and indel data of Plukenetieae and selected outgroups. Support values $>50 \%$ are indicated on each branch for maximum parsimony (MP) and likelihood (ML) bootstrap analyses, and BI Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analysis, respectively (* indicate support values of $100 \%$ ). Branches with strong support, interpreted as $\geq 85 \%$ MP and ML bootstrap percentages (MPBS and MLBS) and $\geq 95 \%$ Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP), are in bold. Clades with Old World distribution are indicated by numbered grey boxes, clades with New World distribution by black boxes.

Subclade relationships in the Old World Tragiinae clade (T1-T3) had moderate support (Fig. 2.3A; MLBP = 78 BPP = 99), and suggest that T 1 (Ctenomeria) was the earliest diverging lineage and sister to a clade of T2 (Cnesmone and Megistostigma) + T3 (Tragia sects. Agirta and Tagira, and Tragiella). Species relationships in subclades T2 and T3 had poor support.

The backbone topology of the mainly New World Tragiinae clade (T4-T10) had mostly strong support (Fig. 2.3B) and included a basal grade of T4 (Bia) and T5 (Acidoton group $1+$ Platygyna), and a strongly supported clade of T6-T10, which we refer to as the core New World Tragiinae. Relationships in the core New World clade were poorly supported, but included two groupings. The first, supported in Bayesian analyses (Fig. 2.3B; MLBP $=51, \mathrm{BPP}=100$ ), included T6 (Zuckertia), T7 (Tragia sect. Leptobotrys), and T8 (an Old World clade including Pachystylidium, Sphaerostylis, and Australian Tragia). The second, a functional polytomy (Fig. $2.3 \mathrm{~B} ; \mathrm{BPP}=86$ ), included $\mathrm{T} 9($ Acidoton group 2$)$ and $\mathrm{T} 10($ T. sect. Tragia, including sects. Leucandra and Ratiga). Species relationships in subclade T10 were well resolved, although most internal nodes were not strongly supported (Fig. 2.3B). Tragia polyandra Vell. was recovered as the earliest diverging species, and the remaining species resolved into three groups: (i) a strongly supported clade inclusive of $T$. volubilis (1) to $T$. aff. subhastata (1); (ii) a moderately supported clade $(\operatorname{MPBP}=68, \operatorname{MLBP}=88, \mathrm{BPP}=100)$ inclusive of $T$. melochioides $(1)$ to $T$. betonicifolia (1); and (iii) a moderately supported clade $(\mathrm{MPBP}=68, \mathrm{MLBP}=92, \mathrm{BPP}=100)$ inclusive of $T$. chlorocaulon (2) and T. cf. yucatanensis (1) (Fig. 2.3B).

## Discussion

The results presented here are the first comprehensively sampled phylogenetic analyses of Plukenetieae. The phylogeny of the tribe is largely consistent with current classifications (Table 2.2) and supports the monophyly of the three subtribes and most genera (excluding Acidoton, Megistostigma, Tragia, and Tragiella). Hypotheses that the smaller Tragiinae genera would be embedded within a paraphyletic Tragia (Gillespie, 1994b; Webster, 1994) are supported.

Here, we interpret the phylogeny and discuss taxonomic implications for generic and sectional circumscriptions in the tribe. We also propose minor taxonomic changes aimed towards a phylogenetic classification in Plukenetieae. A major generic revision is forthcoming and will incorporate the results of broadened molecular and morphological investigations. We also examine patterns of pollen aperture and exine evolution in the context of our phylogeny.

## Tribal and subtribal relationships

The monophyly of Plukenetieae remained strongly supported with increased taxon sampling, although our outgroup selection is currently limited and biased toward this conclusion. While the relationships of Plukenetieae and Bernardieae + Caryodendreae have been strongly supported (Wurdack et al., 2005; Tokuoka, 2007), it would be prudent to test this hypothesis with other putative close relatives, such as Adelieae and some genera of Acalypheae and Chrozophoreae (subclade A6, Wurdack et al., 2005). Frequent twining habit is one of the strongest synapomorphies of Plukenetieae, differentiating it from our sampled close relatives, Bernardia and Caryodendron, and other Acalyphoideae, which are shrubs, trees, and rarely herbs (Webster, 1994, 2014; Radcliffe-Smith, 2001).

The subtribes of Plukenetieae were monophyletic, with strong support for Dalechampiinae and Tragiinae, and moderate support for Plukenetiinae. Although our taxon sampling of Dalechampiinae is sparse ( 4 of $\sim 130$ species) and geographically limited to Madagascar, prior studies with much greater taxon sampling indicate its monophyly (Armbruster et al., 2009, 2013), as does its unique pseudanthial inflorescence. The strongly supported relationship of Dalechampia (Dalechampiinae) + Astrococcus (Plukenetiinae) embedded within the tribe (Fig. 2.1; Wurdack et al., 2005, fig. 3) previously suggested Plukenetiinae was paraphyletic. In contrast, we found moderate support for a monophyletic Plukenetiinae (MLBS = 75; BPP $=100$ ), but cannot attest to the relationship of Dalechampia with Astrococcus since the latter was not sampled in our study (however, see the section below on Plukenetiinae small tree and shrub genera for further discussion of Astrococcus).

Relationships of the subtribes are currently poorly supported (MLBS $=51 ; \mathrm{BPP}=86)$ but suggest that Dalechampiinae is sister to Plukenetiinae + Tragiinae. This relationship agrees with pollen aperture hypotheses (Gillespie, 1994b) that suggest Plukenetiinae and Tragiinae form a lineage based on the shared loss of endopores and uneven/jagged aperture margins. Previous studies recovered part of Plukenetiinae (Plukenetia and Romanoa) as the earliest diverging lineage with moderate to low support (Fig. 2.1; Wurdack et al., 2005; Tokuoka, 2007), but this may be an artifact of limited taxon and molecular sampling. Clarifying the relationships of the subtribes will be important to understanding character evolution in the tribe, particularly for the evolution of twining habit, stinging hairs, and Dalechampia's pseudanthial inflorescence.

## Generic monophyly

Most Plukenetieae genera were recovered as monophyletic, including all genera sampled in Dalechampiinae (Dalechampia) and Plukenetiinae (Haematostemon, Plukenetia, and Romanoa). These results support the synonymization of Eleutherostigma $(=P$. lehmanniana) and Vigia $(=P$. serrata) with Plukenetia (Gillespie, 1993), and reinforce the broadened circumscription of Plukenetia (Gillespie, 1993, 2007). In Tragiinae, Bia, Cnesmone, Sphaerostylis, and Zuckertia, each resolved as a clade, but were nested throughout a large para-/polyphyletic Tragia, as were Ctenomeria and Platygyna, which were sampled for one accession each. Of the remaining genera, Acidoton was polyphyletic with species resolved in distant subclades T5 and T9, Megistostigma was a paraphyletic grade at the base of Cnesmone in subclade T2, and Tragiella was non-monophyletic and embedded within a poorly resolved paraphyletic Tragia sect. Tagira in subclade T3. Pachystylidium was sampled for one accession and was embedded within a paraphyletic group of Australian Tragia species in subclade T8. These results support previous hypotheses that Tragia is paraphyletic and in need of revision (Gillespie, 1994b; Webster, 1994, 2014; Radcliffe-Smith, 2001; Wurdack et al., 2005).

## Plukenetiinae

Plukenetiinae can be tentatively subdivided into a small tree and shrub group (Haematostemon) and a twining vine and liana group (Plukenetia and Romanoa) (Gillespie, 1993, 1994b). It will be essential to include the other rare small tree and shrub genera, Angostylis and Astrococcus, in order to fully establish generic relationships in Plukenetiinae.

## PLukenetirnae small tree and shrub genera

Our only sample of the Plukenetiinae small tree and shrub genera is Haematostemon, a rare genus with two species (one sampled here) from Amazonian Venezuela and Guyana (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a; Webster, 2014). Among the small tree and shrub genera, Astrococcus and Haematostemon share four-parted staminate flowers and a unique pollen type (Gillespie, 1994b), suggesting a close relationship. Our analyses resolved Haematostemon at the base of Plukenetiinae, sister to Plukenetia + Romanoa (Fig. 2.3A). Wurdack et al.'s (2005) analyses included only Astrococcus and resolved it in a clade with Dalechampia (Fig. 2.1; MPBS $<50$, BPP $=91$ based on $\operatorname{trnL}-F ;$ MPBS $=94, \mathrm{BPP}=100$ based on $r b c L$ and $t r n L-F)$, which suggests
there may be a discrepancy with the phylogenetic position of Astrococcus/Haematostemon between our studies. ITS data of Astrococcus (K. Wurdack, unpublished data) shares 92\% sequence identity with Haematostemon compared with $72 \%$ with Dalechampia spathulata (data not shown), which suggests Astrococcus would likely resolve with Haematostemon if included in our analyses. Angostylis, a rare genus known only from a few collections, appears to be less derived than Astrococcus and Haematostemon in possessing numerous stamens ( $\sim 20$ compared to four) and pollen that lacks thickened aperture margins and elongate exine chambers characteristic of the other two genera (Gillespie, 1994b). The small tree and shrub genera are united by habit, pinnately veined oblanceolate leaves, and finely foveolate-rugulate pollen tectum (Gillespie, 1994b), which suggests they form a natural group.

## Plukenetiinae twining vine and liana genera

Plukenetia and Romanoa form a moderately supported clade in Plukenetiinae, united by twining vine and liana habit. Romanoa contains a single species distributed in southern Brazil, Bolivia, and Paraguay (Radcliffe-Smith, 2001; Jorgensen et al., 2014; Webster, 2014) and is differentiated from Plukenetia by pistillate flowers with five sepals and three carpels (Gillespie, 1993). By comparison, Plukenetia is a diverse pantropical genus with $\sim 21$ species ( 14 sampled here), and is distinct within the tribe in having pistillate flowers with four sepals and four carpels (Gillespie, 1993, 2007; Webster, 2014). Both genera have tricolpate pollen with jagged or uneven aperture margins, although irregularly foveolate and finely reticulate exine is specific to Romanoa, whereas Plukenetia has foveolate or coarsely reticulate exine (Gillespie, 1994b).

## Plukenetia (subclades P1-P5)

Subclade relationships within Plukenetia were weakly supported but hinted at three general groupings correlated with morphology and geographic distribution. The first is an unresolved, early diverging group corresponding to New World species group 2 (subclades P1 and P2) that is characterized by coarsely reticulate pollen exine (Gillespie, 1994b). The remaining species form a weakly supported clade $(\mathrm{MLBP}=62, \mathrm{BPP}=99)$ united by foveolate pollen exine that includes New World sect. Plukenetia (subclade P3) and the Old World Plukenetia lineages (subclades P4 and P5).

## Plukenetia subclade P1

Subclade P1 consists of Plukenetia serrata, a morphologically distinctive species found in southeast Brazil. Historically, P. serrata was accepted as a distinct genus, initially as Fragariopsis scandens A.St.-Hil., subsequently as the earlier described Vigia serrata Vell. (Webster, 1994; Radcliffe-Smith, 2001), based on having sessile anthers on an enlarged globose receptacle and fleshy fruits (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a). However, this taxon was combined with Plukenetia because these supposedly distinguishing androecial and fruit characteristics are found in other Plukenetia species (Gillespie, 1993). Molecular evidence provides strong support that $P$. serrata belongs in Plukenetia, although its position is poorly supported and unresolved. Pinnate leaf venation, sessile anthers, entirely connate styles, and coarsely reticulate pollen exine strongly associate $P$. serrata with New World species group 2, although fleshy fruits, enlarged staminate receptacles, presence of leaf stipels, and several pistillate flowers (up to 10 per inflorescence vs. one) differentiate $P$. serrata from the other members of the group (Gillespie, 1993).

## Plukenetia subclade P2

Subclade P2 includes the remaining members of New World species group 2 (six species excluding $P$. serrata, four sampled here), which are distributed from southern Mexico to Brazil and Bolivia (Gillespie, 1993). They are differentiated from the other New World group, $P$. sect. Plukenetia (subclade P3), by mostly elliptic, pinnately veined leaves (cordiform and three-nerved at the base in P. verrucosa Smith; not sampled); sessile anthers (all or with an outer whorl of four to five stamens with filaments); entirely connate, columnar or globose styles; exclusively dry capsular fruits; and coarsely reticulate pollen tecta (Gillespie, 1993, 1994b).

## Plukenetia subclade P3

Subclade P3 was only moderately supported but includes the strongly circumscribed Plukenetia sect. Plukenetia (seven species, five sampled here). Species of sect. Plukenetia are distributed from Mexico and the Lesser Antilles to Bolivia and Brazil and are differentiated by mostly cordate and palmately veined leaves (sometimes broadly ovate or three-nerved at the base), stamens with well-developed filaments, styles only partially fused into a cylindrical column, and pollen with foveolate exine (Gillespie, 1993). Species relationships in subclade P3 (Fig. 2.3A) do
not support the predicted close relationship of $P$. stipellata and $P$. volubilis (Gillespie, 1993) and suggest that large, fleshy indehiscent fruits are not a synapomorphy of $P$. lehmanniana and $P$. polyadenia.

## Plukenetia subclade P4

Subclade P4 contains Plukenetia conophora Müll.Arg. (the sole member of $P$. sect.
Angostylidium), a distinctive species from tropical Central and West Africa traditionally cultivated for its oil-rich seeds. Morphologically, it is most similar to species of New World sect. Plukenetia in sharing stamens with well-developed filaments, partially connate cylindrical styles, and large indehiscent fruits (Gillespie, 2007), although these similarities are possibly plesiomorphic for the P3-P5 clade.

## Plukenetia subclade P5

Subclade P5 is a strongly supported lineage including Plukenetia sect. Hedraiostylus and the informal Madagascan species group. Section Hedraiostylus contains three species (one sampled here) distributed in southern Africa ( $P$. africana Sond. and $P$. procumbens Prain) and Southeast Asia ( $P$. corniculata Sm .). They are differentiated by short styles (less than or equal to the length of their ovaries) and small capsular fruits with lenticular seeds (Gillespie, 2007). The Madagascan species group includes three species (two sampled here) that share an interesting combination of morphological characters found elsewhere in Plukenetia, for example, sessile anthers (similar to New World species group 2, except on an elongate rather than globose receptacle), medium sized fruits (intermediate between sects. Angostylidium and Hedraiostylus) with subglobose seeds, and ovate to suborbiculate leaf blades with three nerves at the base to weakly palmate venation (shared with most sections except New World species group 2) (Gillespie, 1993, 2007). Although the Madagascan species group exhibits substantial interspecies variation, it seems to be united by elongate staminate receptacles (Gillespie, 2007).

## Tragiinae (subclades T1-T10)

Tragiinae is divided into two lineages that correspond with geographic distribution, the Old World Tragiinae clade (subclades T1-T3) and the mostly New World Tragiinae clade (subclades T4-T10); these lineages have not been previously recognized, although they were recovered by

Wurdack et al. (2005; Fig. 2.1). The resolution of a group of Old World species (subclade T8) within the New World Tragiinae clade was an unexpected discovery, and suggests that Tragiinae underwent multiple dispersal and/or migration events between the New and Old World regions.

## Tragirnae subclade T1

Subclade T1 contains Ctenomeria, a recently resurrected genus with two species (one sampled here) distributed in the east coast of southern Africa (Webster, 2014). Ctenomeria was previously treated as a section of Tragia (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a), and can be distinguished from other Old World Tragia by numerous stamens (30-50), mostly free styles with papillose adaxial stigmatic surfaces, and pollen morphology. Pollen of Ctenomeria is weakly tricolpate with a finely and irregularly foveolate-reticulate tectum that extends continuously over an oftendepressed and poorly defined colpus denoted by thinner sexine, and is unique in Plukenetieae (Gillespie, 1994b).

## Tragiinae subclade T2

Subclade T2 unites the Southeast Asian genera Cnesmone (11 species, four sampled here) and Megistostigma (five species, two sampled here), which are distinguished from other Traginae genera by their cup-like staminate calyx tube and stout stamens with enlarged apiculate anther connectives (Webster, 2014). They differ from each other principally in style morphology, with thick, nearly free styles and papillose adaxial stigmatic surfaces in Cnesmone, and massively globose or clavate styles and non-papillose stigmas in Megistostigma (Airy Shaw, 1969; Webster, 1994; Qiu \& Gillespie, 2008). Both genera have weakly tricolpate pollen with apertures covered with dense sexine islands, which is a unique combination in Tragiinae (Gillespie, 1994b). However, pollen of Megistostigma has additional variability, ranging from weakly tricolpate to irregularly aperturate, and sometimes inaperturate, and often exhibits a combination of these aperture types within a single specimen (Gillespie, 1994b). Our results suggest that Megistostigma is paraphyletic, which supports previous doubts about the delineation of Cnesmone and Megistostigma primarily based on differences in style morphology (Gillespie, 1994b; L.J. Gillespie, unpubl. data). Additional species should be sampled before deciding whether, or not, to combine Megistostigma under the earlier described genus Cnesmone. Pachystylidium was thought to be a close relative of Cnesmone and Megistostigma based on
similarities in pollen morphology and Indomalaysian distribution (Gillespie, 1994b), but instead resolved in the distantly related subclade T 8 .

## Tragiinae subclade T3

Subclade T3 is comprised of a large paraphyletic Tragia sect. Tagira intermixed with species of Tragiella and Tragia sect. Agirta. Based on our phylogeny, the circumscriptions of $T$. sects. Agirta and Tagira, and Tragiella are not supported (Fig. 2.3A), although resolution and node support need improvement before taxonomic boundaries are revised.

Tragia sect. Tagira is a diverse and species-rich lineage ( $\sim 82$ species, 18 sampled here) broadly distributed in Africa, Madagascar, and South/West Asia, with its highest diversity in dry regions of Africa (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a; Radcliffe-Smith, 1987). Species of sect. Tagira are united by pinnatifid or highly dissected pistillate sepals, and to a lesser extent by partially connate styles and staminate flowers with well-developed filaments (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a). Tragiella is a small African genus (four species, three sampled here) that is morphologically similar to sect. Tagira, and is primarily differentiated by conical, funnel-shaped, or globose connate styles (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a; Webster, 2014). Tragiella and T. sect. Tagira share tricolpate pollen with scattered apertural sexine islands and coarsely reticulate tecta (Gillespie, 1994b), which would support combining these taxa.

Tragia sect. Agirta is a small lineage ( $\sim$ five species, two sampled here) endemic to Madagascar. It is differentiated from other African Tragiinae by unlobed pistillate sepals and subsessile introrse anthers (Baillon, 1858; Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a; Leandri, 1938a), which suggests that sect. Agirta might have resolved separately from sect. Tagira and Tragiella. Instead, poorly supported relationships imply that the origin of sect. Agirta is closely associated with or within the mainland African lineage. We suspect that the non-monophyly of sect. Agirta is an artifact of limited taxon sampling for the section and non-overlapping marker coverage of T. boiviniana and T. cocculifolia (Appendix 2.1).

## Tragiinae subclade T4

Subclade T4 consists of Bia, a recently resurrected segregate of Tragia with five species (two sampled here) distributed in Central and South America (Webster, 2007; Medeiros et al., 2013). Bia was previously treated as a section of Tragia (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a; Múlgura de Romero
\& Gutiérrez de Sanguinetti, 1989) but was revalidated based on molecular evidence that showed T. fallax (sect. Bia) was not most closely related to other sampled Tragia (Fig. 2.1; Wurdack et al., 2005 in trnL-F analyses only; Webster, 2007). Bia is distinguished by staminate flowers with disk glands, numerous ( $8-20$ ) stamens, and inaperturate pollen, whereas Tragia lacks staminate disk glands, has typically three stamens (rarely two or up to 23 ), and tricolpate or weakly triporate/tri-aperturate pollen (Gillespie, 1994b; Webster, 2007). Additionally, Bia possesses a distinctive inflorescence comprised of a primary staminate axis and proximal pistillate branch with multiple (5-20) pistillate flowers, which is sometimes inadequately described as a "bifurcating" inflorescence (e.g., Webster, 2007, 2014; Medeiros et al., 2013). This inflorescence type is shared with Zuckertia, and was used as morphological evidence to recombine Zuckertia (at that time, also a section of Tragia) as a section of Bia (Webster, 2007). Zuckertia forms the distantly related subclade T6, and is differentiated from Bia by several morphological features (see T6 for further discussion).

## Tragiinae subclade T5

Subclade T5 includes taxa endemic to the Greater Antilles, Acidoton group 1 and Platygyna, that are united by having globose inaperturate pollen with rugulate or reticulate tecta with broad rugae/muri, which is a unique combination in Plukenetieae (Gillespie, 1994b).

Platygyna contains seven species endemic to Cuba; P. hexandra (Jacq.) Müll.Arg., the species sampled here, is widespread, whereas the remaining species are narrowly distributed in eastern Cuba (Liogier, 1952; Borhidi, 1972). Platygyna is distinguished by characteristic oblong leaves with dentate margins and staminate flowers with 3-14 short stamens on a hairy (rarely glabrous) subglobose to convex receptacle (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a; Webster, 1994, 2014).

Acidoton contains six species of shrubs (two sampled here) distributed in the Caribbean and Central and northwestern South America. Species of Acidoton have staminate flowers with 20-60 stamens attached to a usually glabrous, concave, planar, or semi-globose receptacle (absent in A. nicaraguensis [Hemsl.] G.L.Webster), and anther connectives with tufts of minute stinging hairs (Webster, 1967, 1994, 2014). Acidoton 1 is likely to contain all of the Caribbean species with inaperturate pollen (Acidoton pollen type 2 in Gillespie, 1994b) and can be classified into species of large shrubs endemic to Jamaica (A. sect. Acidoton, A. urens Sw.) or smaller shrubs endemic to Haiti and the Dominican Republic (A. sect. Micracidoton Ule, $\sim$ four
species). The remaining species, A. nicaraguensis (Acidoton group 2 ), is found only on the mainland, and was recovered separately in subclade T9, which strongly suggests that the Caribbean and mainland species should be divided into two genera.

## Tragirnae subclade T6

Subclade T6 delineates Zuckertia, a recently resurrected segregate genus with two species (one sampled here) distributed in Mexico and Central America. Zuckertia was previously treated as a section of Tragia (Müller, 1865; Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a) and subsequently as a section of Bia (Webster, 2007), neither of which is supported by our phylogeny. Zuckertia was associated with Bia because they share inflorescences with a primary staminate axis and proximal pistillate branch with multiple flowers (Webster, 2007). Zuckertia differs by having often large ( $\geq 20 \mathrm{~cm}$ ), cordate, and sometimes three-lobed leaf blades, staminate flowers that lack disk glands and have numerous (30-40) stamens, and tricolpate pollen that is free of apertural sexine islands and has a finely reticulate tectum, whereas Bia has smaller ( $5-15 \mathrm{~cm}$ ), ovate to lanceolate, unlobed leaf blades, staminate flowers with disk glands and fewer (8-20) stamens, and inaperturate pollen with a finely reticulate or foveolate-fossulate tectum (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a; Gillespie, 1994b; Webster, 2007; Medeiros et al., 2013). A second species associated with Zuckertia was recently described from the Sierra Madre del Sur, Mexico (Steinmann \& Ramírez-Amezcua, 2013) and is discussed in the taxonomic treatment.

## Tragiinae subclade T7

Subclade T7 contains Tragia sect. Leptobotrys, a small group of two species (both sampled) distributed in the southeastern United States. Species of sect. Leptobotrys are most clearly differentiated from other New World Tragia by having two stamens rather than three or more (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a; Miller \& Webster, 1967; Gutiérrez de Sanguinetti \& Múlgura de Romero, 1986), and by weakly triporate pollen with poorly defined circular apertures covered with fragmented sexine (Gillespie, 1994b). This pollen type closely resembles those of Old World taxa resolved in the sister subclade T8 (described below). Phylogeny and pollen associations suggest that sect. Leptobotrys is distinct from other North American Tragia and could be treated as a separate genus.

## TRAGIINAE SUBCLADE T8

Subclade T8 is a heterogeneous group that includes all three Australian Tragia species (sampled here), the Southeast Asian genus Pachystylidium (one species, sampled here), and the Madagascan genus Sphaerostylis (two species, one sampled here). Pachystylidium hirsutum and T. novae-hollandiae (the only Australian species of Tragia known at the time) were thought to be closely related because they share subsessile anthers, triporate pollen with weakly defined apertures covered in dense fragments of sexine, and adjacent geographic distributions (Airy Shaw, 1969; Gillespie, 1994b). However, their association with the Madagascan Sphaerostylis perrieri Leandri was unanticipated. Upon closer investigation, we found that species of subclade T8 have staminate flowers with typically four or five unlobed sepals and subsessile anthers on a glabrous and sometimes raised receptacle (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a; Leandri, 1938b; Airy Shaw, 1969; Forster, 1994, 1997; Li \& Gillespie, 2008), which may be synapomorphies for the lineage.

## TragiInae subclade T9

Subclade T9 denotes Acidoton group 2, which includes only the widespread Central and northwestern South American species A. nicaraguensis. Acidoton nicaraguensis was originally described as Gitara, but was synonymized with Acidoton based on sharing shrub habit, numerous stamens (20-60), and minute stinging hairs on their anther connectives (Webster, 1967), although they have notably different pollen morphology (Gillespie, 1994b). Pollen of $A$. nicaraguensis is tricolpate with narrow apertures and small scattered islands of apertural sexine and a finely and irregularly foveolate-reticulate tectum, whereas Acidoton group 1 is inaperturate with a rugulate tectum. Recognition of Gitara is supported by our phylogeny and pollen morphology differences, and is discussed further in the taxonomic treatment.

## Traginnae subclade T10

Subclade T10 contains the majority of New World Tragia, including sects. Tragia ( $\sim 33$ species, 20 sampled here), Leucandra (12 species, three sampled here), and Ratiga (five species, two sampled here) sensu Pax \& Hoffmann (1919). Each section is distributed in both North and South America and they are likely united by tricolpate pollen with scattered apertural sexine islands and intectate-baculate exine (Gillespie, 1994b).

Species placed in sects. Leucandra and Ratiga (sensu Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919) are labeled on the phylogeny (Fig. 2.3B); both sections were found to be non-monophyletic and embedded in sect. Tragia. The combination of these three sections is now supported by gross morphology (Miller \& Webster, 1967; Múlgura de Romero \& Gutiérrez de Sanguinetti, 1989), pollen (Gillespie, 1994b), and molecular evidence (Fig. 2.3B), and we recognize the clade as Tragia sect. Tragia s.l. Section Ratiga was differentiated by introrse anthers and incurved stamen orientation (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a) and a more resolved and strongly supported phylogeny might show it to be a cohesive species group within sect. Tragia s.l. Section Leucandra was defined by having 4-20 stamens (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a) but has not been considered a section worthy of recognition since stamen number is a weak taxonomic character (Miller \& Webster, 1967). Species with 4-20 stamens are found in at least three different lineages in subclade T10 (see species labeled Leucandra in Fig. 2.3B), which supports sect. Leucandra is an artificial group.

Subclade T10 was resolved into four novel lineages that correspond with reproductive character variation. The earliest diverging lineage includes T. polyandra, a species defined by high and variable stamen number (17-23) and multiple (two to four) pistillate flowers on a short proximal pistillate branch. Tragia polyandra belonged to the recently resurrected sect. Leptorhachis (Klotzsch) Müll.Arg. (not recognized by Gillespie, 1994b), which was recircumscribed by Múlgura de Romero \& Gutiérrez de Sanguinetti (1989) to include species that have staminate flowers with 6-22 stamens (without disk glands) and inflorescences that frequently have a short proximal pistillate branch with two to four pistillate flowers (sometimes only one flower on a primary raceme axis). Section Leptorhachis (sensu Múlgura de Romero \& Gutiérrez de Sanguinetti, 1989) included a subset of species that were previously placed in sect. Leucandra, including T. paxii Lourteig \& O’Donnell in our phylogeny; although, with 6-10 stamens and only a single proximal pistillate flower, T. paxii is more similar to the remaining species of sect. Tragia s.l. The revised sect. Leptorhachis may have taxonomic value if it is amended to only include species with short proximal pistillate branches containing two to four pistillate flowers, which might characterize this early diverging lineage.

The three remaining lineages of subclade T10 are putatively united by inflorescences with one (or rarely two) proximal pistillate flowers. The first is a small, strongly supported clade distinguished by elongate pistillate pedicels, and comprising the $T$. volubilis L. species complex
and T. giardelliae (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a; Múlgura de Romero \& Gutiérrez de Sanguinetti, 1989). Species in the elongate pistillate pedicel clade have two to three stamens (rarely four or five), smooth to undulate stigmatic surfaces, and lack glandular trichomes. The remaining two clades are large, moderately supported, and defined by papillose adaxial stigmatic surfaces or inflorescences with stipitate-glandular trichomes. Species in these two clades typically have three stamens, although four or more stamens are also present (e.g. 6-10 stamens in T. paxii and $T$. ramosa Torr.). The defining characters of these two clades appear to be mostly mutually exclusive: species of the papillose stigma clade do not have stipitate-glandular trichomes on their inflorescences, and the glandular inflorescence clade mostly exhibits smooth to undulate (rarely subpapillose) adaxial stigmatic surfaces.

Previous sectional classifications of New World Tragia have not considered species group boundaries based on pistillate pedicel length, stigma morphology, or glandular trichomes (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a; Lourteig \& O’Donell, 1941; Miller \& Webster, 1967; Múlgura de Romero \& Gutiérrez de Sanguinetti, 1989), although these characters were commonly used in dichotomous keys. We anticipate that these four species groups will be supported following further taxon sampling, and that these reproductive characters have good potential to outline a revised infrageneric classification.

## Remarks on Tragiinae

Our phylogeny reveals that Tragia, as currently circumscribed, is para- and/or polyphyletic and intermixed with all other Tragiinae genera, and that a major revision is required to provide a generic classification that reflects monophyly and evolutionary history. One possibility is that we convert all the genera of Tragiinae into synonyms of Tragia and develop a broad subgeneric classification that emphasizes morphological diversity and phylogeny in the subtribe (e.g. Lowry et al., 2013). However, creating a large heteromorphic genus is not desirable, given that many Tragiinae genera form strongly supported lineages supported by morphology (e.g. Acidoton groups 1 and 2, Bia, Ctenomeria, Platygyna, and Zuckertia), and that Tragia could be easily divided into monophyletic genera based on existing or revised taxonomic sections (e.g. sects. Leptobotrys and Tragia s.1.). We believe that revising the genera of Tragiinae and dividing Tragia into smaller genera will result in the most functional classification for the subtribe, but
are exploring additional taxon sampling, molecular markers, and morphological characters before enacting such significant changes.

## Correlation of pollen morphology with molecular phylogeny

Relationships in Plukenetieae predicted by pollen morphology (Gillespie, 1994b) were mostly congruent with the molecular phylogeny (Fig. 2.4). Most molecular clades can be defined by a combination of aperture and exine condition, with the exception of subclades P1 and P2, which both have tricolpate pollen with uneven aperture margins and coarsely reticulate tecta, but are currently poorly resolved (Fig. 2.3A; shown as a polytomy in Fig. 2.4 when poorly supported branches are collapsed).

## EXINE MORPHOLOGY EVOLUTION

Exine condition in Plukenetieae is diverse (Punt, 1962; Gillespie, 1994b; Nowicke \& Takahashi, 2002) and does not appear to exhibit clear patterns of variation (Fig. 2.4). Tectate-perforate exine is the most common condition in Plukenetieae (Gillespie, 1994b), and is observed in nine lineages based on seven distinct morphology types. Punctate tectum is found in two distant lineages: Cnesmone and Megistostigma (T2), and a clade comprising Tragia sect. Leptobotrys (T7) and Pachystylidium and T. novae-hollandiae (T8). Foveolate tectum is observed in Plukenetia subclades P3-P5, as well as Haematostemon and Romanoa but with some modification: fossulate-foveolate in Romanoa (appearing only foveolate in Nowicke \& Takahashi, 2002; punctate by their definition), and finely foveolate-rugulate in Haematostemon (interpreted as 'microcrotonoid' by Nowicke \& Takahashi, 2002). Bia alienata Didr. (T4) has a foveolate-fossulate tectum similar to Romanoa, although other species of Bia (not sampled) are semitectate and finely reticulate (Gillespie, 1994b). Acidoton urens (Acidoton group 1, subclade T5) and some species of Platygyna (not sampled here) have rugulate tecta with broad rugae (Gillespie, 1994b, figs. 33-35, 46), whereas other species of Platygyna (e.g., P. hexandra, subclade T5) have tectate-perforate reticulate exine with broad muri that are wider than the lumina (Gillespie, 1994b, figs. 44-45). Our results support the homology between the broad muri and rugae of Acidoton group 1 and Platygyna. Acidoton nicaraguensis (Acidoton group 2, subclade T9) is characterized by a finely and irregularly foveolate-reticulate tectum, which is similar to the distantly related Ctenomeria (T1).

Semitectate exine is also common in Plukenetieae and is observed in each of the subtribes (Fig. 2.4). Coarsely reticulate tecta characterize three disparate lineages: Dalechampia, Plukenetia subclades P1 and P2, and Old World Tragiinae subclade T3, at least in Tragiella and Tragia sect. Tagira (pollen of sect. Agirta is not known). Nowicke \& Takahashi (2002) examined different specimens of Tragiella and T. sect. Tagira and determined some samples were finely reticulate. Semitectate exine with a finely reticulate tectum is found in Zuckertia (T6), as well as Bia lessertiana Baill. (not sampled here) (Gillespie, 1994b).


Figure 2.4 Summary cladogram of the relationships recovered by Bayesian analysis of combined and partitioned ITS, $\operatorname{psbA}$-trnH, and indel data of Plukenetieae and selected outgroups, with schematic pollen aperture and exine illustrations. Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP) are specified below each branch; strongly supported branches $(B P P \geq 95)$ are indicated by solid lines, moderately supported branches $(\mathrm{BPP}=85-94)$ by dashed lines, and poorly supported clades ( $\mathrm{BPP} \leq 84$ ) were collapsed. Aperture and exine conditions are referenced from Gillespie (1994b) for Plukenetiinae and Tragiinae, Nowicke \& Takahashi (2002) for Dalechampia, and Nowicke et al. (1999) for Bernardia and Caryodendron. Circles depict a single pollen aperture in equatorial view, and do not reflect features such as pollen shape, size, or exine. Squares depict exine condition with light grey for tectum and black for empty spaces (i.e. perforations, lumina, absence of tectum). Aperture and exine states are as follows (exine abbreviations: $\mathrm{TP}=$ tectate perforate; Sem. $=$ semitectate; In. = intectate): Caryodendron: tricolporate and TP (foveolate) to Sem. (finely reticulate); Bernardia: tricolporate with a margo and TP (foveolate) to Sem. (finely reticulate); Dalechampia: tricolporate with an endocingulate endopore and Sem. (coarsely reticulate); Haematostemon: tricolpate with thickened margins sometimes covered in an unbroken granulate sexinous membrane and TP (finely foveolate-rugulate); Romanoa, tricolpate and TP (fossulate-foveolate); P1 and P2: tricolpate and Sem. (coarsely reticulate); P3-P5: tricolpate and TP (foveolate); T1: weakly tri-aperturate with apertures denoted by elliptic zones of thin and often-depressed sexine and TP (finely and irregularly foveolate-reticulate); T2: weakly tricolpate or irregularly aperturate with apertures densely covered with sexine islands, sometimes inaperturate, and TP (punctate); T3: tricolpate with scattered apertural sexine islands and Sem. (coarsely reticulate, sometimes finely reticulate); T4: inaperturate and TP (foveolatefossulate); T5: inaperturate and TP (rugulate with broad rugae, or reticulate with broad muri); T6: tricolpate and Sem. (finely reticulate); T7 and T8: weakly triporate with apertures densely covered with sexine islands and TP (punctate); T9: tricolpate with scattered apertural sexine islands and TP (finely and irregularly foveolatereticulate); and T10: tricolpate with scattered apertural sexine islands and In. (baculate or clavate). Note that tricolpate pollen in Plukenetiinae and Tragiinae has uneven or jagged aperture margins.

Intectate baculate or clavate exine is unique to Tragia sect. Tragia s.l. (T10). This distinctive exine appears to be a synapomorphy that unites species previously attributed to sects. Tragia, Leucandra, and Ratiga (Gillespie, 1994b), including sect. Leptorhachis sensu Múlgura de Romero \& Gutiérrez de Sanguinetti (1989).

Our sampled close relatives of Plukenetieae, Bernardia and Caryodendron, are characterized by tectate-perforate foveolate to semitectate finely reticulate exines (described as punctate, deeply punctate, or microreticulate by Nowicke et al., 1999). Their exine conditions are hard to categorize since they are intermediate between foveolate and finely reticulate, as defined here (Nowicke et al., 1999, figs. 117-154).

It is difficult to evaluate the evolutionary history of Plukenetieae exine due the breadth of variation and absence of obvious patterns, and it is premature to do formal reconstructions until the phylogeny is more robust. One hypothesis is that a foveolate to finely reticulate exine condition (similar to Bernardia and Caryodendron) was ancestral in Plukenetieae. This would support some exines as symplesiomorphic (e.g., P3-P5 and T6) with a few exine types as closely related conditions (e.g., finely foveolate-rugulate in Haematostemon; fossulate-foveolate in

Romanoa; irregularly foveolate and finely reticulate in T1 and T9; and irregularly foveolatefossulate in T4). This hypothesized ancestral condition would suggest that several exine conditions are derived (e.g., coarsely reticulate in Dalechampia, P1 and P2, and T3; rugulate or reticulate with broad rugae/muri in T 5 ; punctate in $\mathrm{T} 2, \mathrm{~T} 7$, and T 8 ; and intectate baculate or clavate in T10).

## Pollen aperture evolution

Pollen apertures in Plukenetieae exhibit a trend towards less defined apertures and aperture loss (Gillespie, 1994b), and do not appear to be correlated with exine morphology (Fig. 2.4).
Tricolporate pollen appears to be symplesiomorphic in the tribe and is found in Dalechampia and the putative sister tribes Bernardieae and Caryodendreae. Most Acalyphoideae are also characterized by tricolporate pollen, although other potential close relatives of Plukenetieae (tribes Adelieae and Chrozophoreae pro parte of subclade A6; Wurdack et al., 2005) share a mix of tricolporate (e.g. Caperonia A.St.-Hil., Chiropetalum A.Juss., and Philyra Klotzsch) and tricolpate (e.g. Adelia L., Argythamnia P. Browne, Ditaxis Vahl ex A.Juss., Lasiocroton Griseb., and Leucocroton Griseb.) aperture conditions (Nowicke et al., 1999; Takahashi et al., 2000). Our results suggest there may have been a single transition to the absence of endopores in the ancestor of Plukenetiinae and Tragiinae, although node support is currently low.

Tricolpate pollen in Plukenetieae is characterized by uneven or jagged aperture margins, which has been hypothesized as a second synapomorphy of Plukenetiinae and Tragiinae (Gillespie, 1994b). Haematostemon and the other Plukenetiinae small tree/shrub genera (Angostylis and Astrococcus, not sampled) are distinct in having uneven and granular or gemmate aperture margins, which are thickened in Astrococcus and Haematostemon (Gillespie, 1994b).

Most lineages in Tragiinae with tricolpate pollen are also characterized by scattered apertural sexine islands. Their presence coincides with a shift in Tragiinae towards less defined apertures and inaperturate pollen, and is hypothesized to be the plesiomorphic condition of the subtribe (Gillespie, 1994b). Two distant lineages in Tragiinae are characterized by tricolpate pollen with scattered sexine islands: (i) the weakly supported clade comprised of Acidoton group 2 (T9) and Tragia sect. Tragia s.l. (T10); and (ii) T. sect. Tagira of subclade T3 (Fig. 2.4). Currently, it is unclear if Tragiella (T3) possesses apertural sexine islands since prior pollen

SEMs were imaged from acetolyzed grains, which eliminates the aperture membrane (Gillespie, 1994b; Nowicke \& Takahashi, 2002). The absence of sexine islands in Zuckertia (T6) previously supported ideas that it was one of the least derived members of Tragiinae (Gillespie, 1994b), although its embedded placement suggests this could also be secondary loss.

Pollen with apertures densely covered with sexine islands is considered to have weakly defined apertures. This condition was thought to have originated once from tricolpate pollen with scattered apertural sexine islands, initially as densely covered colpi, then evolving into weakly porate or circular apertures and apertures of irregular shape (Gillespie, 1994b, fig. 78). Contrary to this idea, we infer that apertures densely covered with sexine islands evolved in two separate lineages, one with elliptic and irregular shaped apertures in subclade T2 (Cnesmone and Megistostigma), and another with weakly porate or circular shaped apertures in the ancestor of subclades T7 (Tragia sect. Leptobotrys) and T8 (represented by Pachystylidium and T. novaehollandiae).

Inaperturate pollen was hypothesized to have evolved at least twice in Tragiinae, once via apertures densely covered with sexine islands in Old World Megistostigma, and one or more times in the New World genera Acidoton 1 (pollen type 2), Bia, and Platygyna (Gillespie, 1994b, fig. 78). It was suggested that inaperturate pollen of Acidoton 1 and Platygyna shared an origin, with an independent origin in Bia. Our phylogeny supports this hypothesis and suggests that inaperturate pollen of New World genera evolved under two possible scenarios: (i) through two independent transitions in T4 (Bia) and T5 (Acidoton 1 and Platygyna); or (ii) by a single transition in the ancestor of the New World Tragiinae clade followed by a reversal to tricolpate pollen in the core New World Tragiinae (T6-T10). The loss and recovery of pollen apertures seems like a complicated evolutionary hypothesis, but may be plausible if the phenotypic expression of apertures were influenced by a single gene, such as INAPERTURATE POLLEN1 described in Arabidopsis thaliana (Dobritsa \& Coerper, 2012). Our phylogeny confirms the separate origin of inaperturate pollen in Megistostigma (T2). We should note that Megistostigma pollen is most often weakly tricolpate or with irregularly shaped apertural areas (with apertures denoted by dense sexine islands), and is sometimes inaperturate in only some species (Gillespie, 1994b). Furthermore, individual specimens of Megistostigma often contain a range of aperture types (Gillespie, 1994b; Nowicke \& Takahashi, 2002), and the extent of variation within each
species requires further investigation. Together this suggests that inaperturate pollen evolved at least two to three times in Tragiinae.

Tragiinae contains two other forms of weakly defined apertures that were suggested to have evolved independently of other reduced aperture types (Gillespie, 1994b). Ctenomeria (T1) has weakly tri-aperturate pollen denoted by elliptical zones of thin and often-depressed sexine, which appear to be distinct from pollen with weakly defined apertures and inaperturate pollen observed in the neighbouring subclade T2 (Fig. 2.4). Tragia subg. Mauroya (not sampled here) has weakly tri-aperturate pollen with broad circular apertural areas covered with thin strands of sexine, unlike any other aperture condition in Plukenetieae (Gillespie, 1994b) and likely independently derived within or near the African and Madagascan taxa of subclade T3.

To summarize, it was initially estimated that there were three origins of weakly aperturate pollen (based on three different morphologies) and at least two origins of inaperturate pollen (Gillespie, 1994b, fig. 78). Based on a re-examination of pollen data in the context of our phylogeny, we suggest that weakly aperturate pollen emerged four times in Tragiinae: (i) Ctenomeria (T1); (ii) Cnesmone and Megistostigma (T2); (iii) the putative ancestor of T7 (Tragia sect. Leptobotrys) and T8 (confirmed in Pachystylidium and T. novae-hollandiae); and (iv) T. subg. Mauroya (not sampled here). Inaperturate pollen is hypothesized to have evolved up to three times in Megistostigma pro parte (T2), Bia (T4), and the putative ancestor of Acidoton 1 and Platygyna (T5).

Tragiinae exhibits several parallel transitions from tricolpate pollen to inaperturate and intermediate weakly defined aperture states. This suggests that the subtribe may be a useful system to explore the underlying mechanisms of aperture reduction and selective pressures for inaperturate pollen, which is a rare and poorly understood condition of eudicots (Furness, 2007; Matamoro-Vidal et al., 2012). Character optimization on a better resolved phylogeny would help elucidate putative ancestral states for the pollen of Tragiinae, and help quantify the number of transitions to weakly defined aperture and inaperturate conditions.

## Towards a revised phylogenetic classification of Plukenetieae

The combination of molecular and pollen morphology data strongly supports the para- and/or polyphyly of Tragia and the potential to divide the genus into smaller monophyletic genera. Recently resurrected genera, Bia, Ctenomeria, and Zuckertia, are supported as evolutionarily
distinct lineages and should be maintained at their current rank, resulting in a new combination for a recently described species associated with Zuckertia. In addition, we find sufficient molecular, pollen, and floral morphology evidence to reinstate the Central and northwestern South American species Acidoton nicaraguensis (Acidoton group 2, subclade T9) as Gitara, which necessitates another new combination.

## Taxonomic Treatment

Gitara Pax \& K.Hoffm., in H.G.A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr., IV, 147, XVII (Heft 85): 187. 1924.-TYPE: Gitara venezolana Pax \& K.Hoffm. 1924 = Cleidion? nicaraguense Hemsl. 1883.

1. Gitara nicaraguensis (Hemsl.) Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie, comb. nov. Cleidion? nicaraguense Hemsl., Biol. Cent.-Amer., Bot. 3: 130. 1883. Acidoton nicaraguensis (Hemsl.) G.L.Webster, Ann. Missouri Bot. Gard. 54: 191. 1967.—TYPE: NICARAGUA. Chontales: 1867-8, R. Tate 352(455) (holotype: K!; isotype: BM!).
Gitara venezolana Pax \& K.Hoffm., in H.G.A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr., IV, 147, XVII (Heft 85): 187. 1924. Acidoton venezolanus (Pax \& K. Hoffm.) G.L.Webster, Ann. Missouri Bot. Gard. 54: 191. 1967.—TYPE: VENEZUELA. Carabobo: Guaramales, camino de El Palito a San Felipe, en selvas, 15-29 May 1920, H.F. Pittier 8836 (holotype: VEN!; isotype: US!).
Gitara panamensis Croizat, J. Arnold Arbor. 26: 192. 1945.-TYPE: PANAMA. Darién: Hills between Pinogana and Yavisa, 17 Apr 1914, H.F. Pittier 6543 (holotype: A; isotypes: K!, US!).

Taxonomic Discussion-Gitara has experienced a brief, but complicated, taxonomic history. Gitara venezolana was first described as a shrubby segregate of Tragia from Venezuela (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1924). A second species (G. panamensis) was described from Central America and was distinguished by leaf shape and venation differences and smaller staminate flowers (Croizat, 1945). Gitara was then synonymized with the Caribbean genus Acidoton (Webster, 1967) based on their shrub habit (these are the only shrub taxa in Tragiinae), large number of stamens ( $\sim 20-60$ ), and tufts of small stinging hairs on their anther connectives (a putative generic synapomorphy). Cleidion? nicaraguense (Hemsley, 1883) was also determined to be the same taxon as G. panamensis and has priority as the type of the Central American species. As such, new combinations were made for the Central American (A. nicaraguensis) and South American (A. venezolanus) species, although it was suspected they were conspecific
(Webster, 1967). These taxa have since been synonymized (Webster, 1994, 2014; Gillespie, 1999). Radcliffe-Smith (2001) recognized Gitara based on differences in palynology, geographic distribution, and 'gestalt', although most recent treatments have continued to accept $A$. nicaraguensis (González, 2010; Webster, 2014).

Gitara is distinguished from Acidoton group 1 (hereafter referred to as Acidoton s.s.) by pollen morphology, staminate flower differences, and non-overlapping geographic range (Table 2.5). Shrub habit, once presumed to be a uniting character of these genera (Webster, 1967), is now implied to have evolved independently. We question if anther connective stinging hairs are unique to Acidoton s.s. and Gitara since we have observed similar minute hairs on specimens of Bia, Ctenomeria, Platygyna, and Zuckertia. Based on floral characters, Gitara is differentiated by $20-35$ stamens with minute anthers ( $0.2-0.4 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) attached to an inconspicuous receptacle, whereas Acidoton s.s. has $\sim 30-55$ stamens with larger anthers ( $1-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) attached to a conspicuous convex glabrous receptacle.

We recognize Gitara nicaraguensis as a single widespread species and provide a new combination based on the earliest recorded type.

Table 2.5 Distinguishing characters for Gitara and the sections of Acidoton.

| Character | Gitara Pax \& K.Hoffm. | Acidoton Sw. sect. Acidoton | Acidoton sect. Micracidoton Urb. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Geographic distribution | Central and NW South America | Caribbean (Jamaica) | Caribbean (Hispaniola) |
| Included species | G. nicaraguensis | A. urens | A. haitiensis, A. lanceolatus, <br> A. microphyllus, $A$. variifolius |
| Habit | Shrubs 1-5 (7) m | Shrubs 3-6 m | Shrubs 1-1.5 m |
| Leaf size | Large, 10-20 cm | Large, 8-10 cm | Small, 0.5-2 (-4.5) cm |
| Leaf margin | Serrate towards apex | Entire, sometimes with 12 large teeth or small acute lobes | Entire or rarely minutely remotely toothed |
| Staminate receptacle | Inconspicuous | Thick and elevated, concave upper surface | Short and fleshy, semiglobose or planar upper surface |
| Stamen number | 15-25 (35) | 30-60 | 24-44 |
| Anthers | Oblong, $0.2-0.4 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, thecae remain parallel post dehiscence | Narrowly oblong, 1.0-2.0 mm long, thecae often spreading post dehiscence | (Measurements not available) |
| Pollen shape | Suboblate | Globose | Globose |
| Pollen apertures | Tricolpate with narrow apertures and scattered sexine islands | Inaperturate | Inaperturate |
| Pollen tectum | Finely and irregularly foveolate-reticulate | Rugulate with broad rugae | Rugulate with broad rugae |

Zuckertia Baill., Étude Euphorb.: 495. 1858. Tragia sect. Zuckertia (Baill.) Müll. Arg., Linnaea 34: 178. 1865. Bia sect. Zuckertia (Baill.) G.L.Webster, Contr. Univ. Michigan Herb. 25: 237. 2007.-TYPE: Zuckertia cordata Baill. 1858.

1. ZuCkertia cordata Baill., Étude Euphorb.: 495. 1858. Tragia bailloniana Müll. Arg., Linnaea 34: 178. 1865. Bia cordata (Baill.) G. L. Webster, Contr. Univ. Michigan Herb. 25: 237. 2007.—TYPE: MEXICO. Tabasco: Cerros de Teapa, J. Linden s. n. (holotype: P00076087!).
2. Zuckertia manuelii (V.W.Steinm. \& Ram.-Amezcua) Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie, comb. nov. Bia manuelii V.W.Steinm. \& Ram.-Amezcua, Revista Mex. Biodivers. 84: 747. 2013.-TYPE: MEXICO. Michoacán: Municipio de Coalcomán, 34 km al sur de Coalcomán y 2.4 km al sur de río Ocorla sobre el camino a San José de la Montaña, $18^{\circ} 35^{\prime} 52^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{N}, 103^{\circ} 08^{\prime} 45^{\prime \prime} \mathrm{W}, 1,108 \mathrm{~m}, 29$ Aug 2008, V.W. Steinmann et al. 6326 (holotype: IEB; isotypes: ARIZ, MEXU, MICH).

Taxonomic Discussion-Zuckertia cordata was initially described as a monotypic genus (Baillon, 1858), but was reclassified as a section of Tragia and given the replacement name $T$. bailloniana (Müller, 1865), which would become rooted in the scientific literature (Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a; Webster \& Huft, 1988; Gillespie, 1994b; Burger \& Huft, 1995; RadcliffeSmith, 2001; González, 2010). Tragia sect. Zuckertia was briefly treated as a section of Bia (Webster, 2007) and then reinstated as a distinct genus (Medeiros et al., 2013).

Around the same time that Zuckertia was resurrected, a new species of Bia sect. Zuckertia was described from Mexico (Steinmann \& Ramírez-Amezcua, 2013). Bia manuelii has inflorescences with a primary staminate axis and proximal pistillate branch consisting of a short spike of two to four pistillate flowers, which was thought to be homologous with the elongate pistillate branches found in Bia and Zuckertia (Steinmann \& Ramírez-Amezcua, 2013). This species is associated with Zuckertia in having no staminate disk glands, similar tricolpate pollen with a finely reticulate tectum, and overlapping distribution in Mexico, whereas its stamen number (17-24) is closer in range to Bia (8-20) than Zuckertia (30-40) (Webster, 2007; Steinmann \& Ramírez-Amezcua, 2013). We agree that similarities in pollen morphology and lack of staminate disk glands support Bia manuelii as a member of Zuckertia. As such, we recognize two species of Zuckertia, adjust the definition of the genus to allow for an increased range in stamen number (17-40) and for proximal pistillate branches to be either elongate or short, and provide a new combination for this species.

APPENDIX 2.1 List of species and vouchers used in this study, arranged by: Species Authority. COUNTRY. Collector \& Number (Herbarium Code), nrITS, and psbA-trnH GenBank accession numbers. All sequences are new GenBank submissions from this study. Sequences not obtained are indicated by an em dash (-). psbA-trnH GenBank accessions that possess the inversion are indicated by an asterisk (*).

Acidoton urens Sw. JAMAICA. Thorne 48242 (MO), KP794316, —. Bernardia dodecandra (Sessé ex Cav.) McVaugh. BELIZE. Rees 176 (MO), KP794418, KP794459. B. nicaraguensis Standl. \& L.O.Williams. NICARAGUA. Stevens 30168 (MO), KP794419, KP794460. B. pulchella (Baill.) Müll.Arg. BRAZIL. Kegler 1333 (MO), KP794420, KP794461. Bia alienata (1) Didr. BOLIVIA. Carretero 1237 (MO), KP794320, KP794494*. B. alienata (2). PARAGUAY. Pérez 352 (MO), KP794318, KP794492*. B. alienata (3). PARAGUAY. Zardini 11174 (MO), KP794319, KP794493*. B. fendleri Müll.Arg. BOLIVIA. Beck 8253 (MO), KP794321, KP794495*. Caryodendron grandifolium (Müll.Arg.) Pax. ECUADOR. Korning 8502 (MO), KP794421, KP794462. C. orinocense Karst. BOLIVIA. Gentry 70541 (MO), KP794422, KP794463. Cnesmone javanica (1) Blume. THAILAND. Chamchumroon 2019 (L), KP794430, KP794498. C. javanica (2). THAILAND. Larsen 44027 (MO), KP794427, KP794496. C. javanica (3). THAILAND. Larsen 44147 (MO), KP794428, KP794497. C. laevis (Ridl.) Airy Shaw. THAILAND. Smitinand 1180 (L), —, KP794499. C. laotica (Gagnep.) Croizat, THAILAND. van Beusekom 4154 (L), KP794431, —. C. philippinensis (Merr.) Airy Shaw. PHILIPPINES. Fenix 30010 (L), KP794429, - Ctenomeria capensis (Thund.) Harv. ex Sond. SOUTH AFRICA. Hugo 2107 (MO), KP794322, KP794562*. Dalechampia bernieri var. denisiana Leandri. MADAGASCAR. Gillespie 10675 (CAN), KP794424, KP794501*. D. clematidifolia Bojer ex Baill. MADAGASCAR. Gillespie 10815 (CAN), KP794426, KP794503*. D. subternata Mull.Arg. MADAGASCAR. Gillespie 10810 (CAN), KP794425, KP794502*. D. aff. tamifolia Lam. MADAGASCAR. Gillespie 10658 (CAN), KP794423, KP794500*. Gitara nicaraguensis (1) (Hemsl.) Card.McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie. ECUADOR. Korning 47437 (MO), KP794398, —. G. nicaraguensis (2). PANAMA. Ibañez 2038 (MO), KP794397, KP794512. Haematostemon guianensis Sandwith. GUYANA. Wurdack 4350 (US), KP794434, KP794464. Megistostigma yunnanense Croizat. THAILAND. Larsen 46354 (L), KP794433, —. M. peltatum (J.J.Sm.) Croizat. THAILAND. Maxwell 87-462 (L), KP794432, —. Pachystylidium hirsutum (Blume) Pax \& K.Hoffm. THAILAND. Keer 17893 (L), KP794408, —. Platygyna hexandra (Jacq.) Müll.Arg. CUBA. Acevedo-Rodríguez 5566 (NY), KP794317, KP794504*. Plukenetia ankaranensis (1) L.J.Gillespie. MADAGASCAR. Gillespie 10697 (CAN), KP794438, KP794470. P. ankaranensis (2). MADAGASCAR. Lees s. n. (CAN), KP794437, KP794469. P. brachybotrya Müll.Arg. BOLIVIA. Araujo-M. 1722 (MO), KP794452, KP794473. P. carabiasiae J.Jiménez Ram. MEXICO. Meave 1550 (MO), —, KP794480. P. conophora Müll.Arg. CAMEROON. Nemba 434 (MO), KP794457, KP794472. P. corniculata Sm. BANGLADESH. Huq 10780 (MO), KP794439, KP794471. P. lehmanniana (1) (Pax \& K.Hoffm.) Huft \& L.J.Gillespie. ECUADOR. AcevedoRodríguez 1658 (MO), KP794443, KP794482. P. lehmanniana (2). ECUADOR. Zak 3401 (MO), KP794442, KP794481. P. loretensis Ule. PERU. Grandez 19608 (US), KP794453, KP794474. P. madagascarensis (1) Leandri. MADAGASCAR. Gillespie 4175 (CAN), KP794441, KP794467. P. madagascarensis (2). MADAGASCAR. Villiers 4899 (MO), KP794440, KP794468. P. penninervia (1) Müll.Arg. BELIZE. Atha 1001 (MO), KP794455, KP794476. P. penninervia (2). MEXICO. Martinez 10527 (MO), KP794456, KP794477. P. penninervia (3). PANAMA. McPherson 8461 (MO), KP794454, KP794475. P. polyadenia Müll.Arg. GUYANA. Wurdack 5288 (US), —, KP794483. P. serrata (Vell.) L.J.Gillespie. BRAZIL. Peixoto 4154 (MO), KP794458, KP794479. P. stipellata (1) L.J.Gillespie. COSTA RICA. Aguilar 8193 (MO), KP794448, KP794485. P. stipellata (2). COSTA RICA. Liesner 3088 (MO), KP794451, KP794487. P. stipellata (3). COSTA RICA. Morales 5342 (MO), KP794450, KP794484. P. stipellata (4). NICARAGUA. Urbina 1155 (MO), KP794449, KP794486. P. supraglandulosa L.J.Gillespie. SURINAME. Acevedo-Rodríguez 6022 (NY), 一, KP794478. P. volubilis (1) L. BOLIVIA. Nee 55162 (MO), KP794445, KP794489. P. volubilis (2). BOLIVIA. Parada 206 (MO), KP794444, KP794488. P. volubilis (3). ECUADOR. Burnham 1640 (MO), KP794446, KP794490. P. volubilis (4). PERU. Bell 93-546 (US), KP794447, KP794491. Romanoa tamnoides (1) (A.Juss.) Radcl.-Sm. BOLIVIA. Raes 177 (MO), KP794435, KP794465. R. tamnoides (2). BOLIVIA. Raes 211 (MO), KP794436, KP794466. Sphaerostylis perrieri (1) Leandri. MADAGASCAR. Gillespie 10738 (CAN), KP794413, KP794505. S. perrieri (2). MADAGASCAR.

Gillespie 10739 (CAN), KP794414, —. S. perrieri (3). MADAGASCAR. Gillespie 10742 (CAN), KP794415, KP794506. S. perrieri (4). MADAGASCAR. Labat 3441 (MO), KP794412, —. Tragia amblyodonta (Müll.Arg.) Pax \& K.Hoffm. U. S. A. B. L. 98-372 (MO), KP794376, KP794548. T. arnhemica (1) P. I. Forst. AUSTRALIA. Brennan 2016 (DNA), KP794410, KP794513. T. arnhemica (2). AUSTRALIA. Russel-Smith 5235 (DNA), KP794409, —. T. bahiensis (1) Müll.Arg. PARAGUAY. Zardini 52840 (MO), KP794378, KP794542. T. bahiensis (2). PARAGUAY. Zardini 54517 (MO), —, KP794543. T. benthamii Baker, TANZANIA. Bidgood 4648 (MO), KP794328, KP794588. T. betonicifolia (1) Nutt. U. S. A. Smith 3940 (MO), KP794364, KP794553. T. betonicifolia (2). U. S. A. Summers 9529 (MO), KP794363, KP794552. T. boiviniana Müll.Arg. MADAGASCAR. Birkinshaw 21 (MO), —, KP794579. T. brevipes (1) Pax. TANZANIA. Bidgood 4686 (MO), KP794325, KP794565. T. brevipes (2). UGANDA. Rwaburindore 4488 (MO), KP794329, KP794566. T. chlorocaulon (1) Baill. BRAZIL. Dawson 15122 (MO), KP794390, KP794519. T. chlorocaulon (2). BRAZIL. Irwin 15858 (MO), KP794391, KP794518. T. cocculifolia Prain. MADAGASCAR. Razanatsoa 250 (MO), KP794331, -. T. cordata (1) Michx. U. S. A. McDaniel 28890 (MO), KP794395, KP794529. T. cordata (2). U. S. A. Thomas 76208 (CAN), KP794394, KP794528. T. cordata (3). U. S. A. Thomas 171769 (MO), KP794396, KP794530. T. dioica (1) Sond. NAMIBIA. Seydel 5539 (MO), KP794335, KP794568. T. dioica (2). NAMIBIA. Volk 6173 (MO), KP794332, KP794567. T. durbanensis Kuntze. SOUTH AFRICA. Balsinhas 3095 (MO), KP794333, KP794569. T. finalis P.I.Forst. AUSTRALIA. Gillespie 7390 (CAN), KP794411, KP794514. T. furialis (1) Bojer ex Prain. MADAGASCAR. Gillespie 10648 (CAN), KP794342, KP794575. T. furialis (2). MADAGASCAR. Nusbaumer 2725 (MO), KP794343, KP794574. T. furialis (3). MAYOTTE. Barthlet 171 (MO), KP794341, KP794573. T. furialis (4). TANZANIA. Kayombo 5098 (MO), KP794340, KP794572. T. aff. furialis Bojer ex Prain. TANZANIA. Lovett 3707 (MO), KP794344, KP794589. T. geraniifolia (1) Klotzsch ex Baill. ARGENTINA. Krapovickas 20133 (MO), KP794368, KP794549. T. geraniifolia (2). PARAGUAY. Peña-Chocarro 2240 (MO), KP794370, KP794550. T. giardelliae M.M.Gut. \& Múlgura. ARGENTINA. Guaglianone 2994 (MO), KP794360, KP794523. T. glanduligera Pax \& K.Hoffm. MEXICO. Tenorio 21300 (MO), —, KP794540. T. hieronymi Pax \& K.Hoffm. PARAGUAY. Krapovickas 45464 (MO), —, KP794531. T. hildebrandtii (1) Müll.Arg. TANZANIA Abdallah 96/157 (MO), KP794355, KP794577. T. hildebrandtii (2). TANZANIA. Abeid 575 (MO), —, KP794576. T. jonesii Radcl.-Sm. \& Govaerts. MEXICO. Felger 85-909 (MO), KP794377, KP794539. T. laciniata (Torr.) Müll.Arg. MEXICO. Yatskievych 11-59 (MO), —, KP794561. T. laminularis (1) Müll.Arg. CÔTE D'IVOIRE. Gautier-Béguin 592 (MO), KP794349, KP794582. T. laminularis (2). CÔTE D'IVOIRE. Gautier-Béguin 959 (MO), KP794348, KP794581. T. melochioides (1) Griseb. ARGENTINA. Zuloaga 4896 (MO), —, KP794558. T. melochioides (2). BOLIVIA. Coca 50 (MO), KP794373, KP794556. T. melochioides (3). BOLIVIA. Lozano 1784 (MO), KP794372, KP794555. T. mexicana Müll.Arg. BELIZE. Peña 1029 (MO), KP794393, KP794541. T. minor Sond. SOUTH AFRICA. Balsinhas 3631 (MO), KP794338, KP794586. T. nepetifolia Cav. MEXICO. García 446 (MO), KP794366, KP794527. T. novae-hollandiae (1) Müll.Arg. AUSTRALIA. Bower S3 (CAN), KP794416, KP794515. T. novae-hollandiae (2). AUSTRALIA. Gillespie 7394 (CAN), KP794417, KP794516. T. okanyua (1) Pax. BOTSWANA. Long 386 (MO), KP794336, KP794590. T. okanyua (2). ZAMBIA. Schmidt 2323 (MO), KP794337, KP794580. T. pacifica (1) McVaugh. EL SALVADOR. Rosales 672 (MO), KP794389, KP794526. T. pacifica (2). EL SALVADOR. Sandoval 1777 (MO), KP794388, KP794525*. T. cf. pacifica McVaugh. MEXICO. Castrejón 753 (MO), KP794392, KP794524. T. paxii (1) Lourteig \& O'Donnell. ARGENTINA. Johnson 920 (MO), KP794380, KP794545. T. paxii (2). ARGENTINA. Múlgura 2307 (MO), KP794379, KP794544. T. petiolaris Radcl.-Sm. TANZANIA. Kuchar 25067 (MO), KP794354, KP794584. T. cf. petiolaris Radcl.-Sm. UGANDA. ATBP 624 (MO), KP794351, KP794585. T. pinnata (Poir.) A.Juss. ARGENTINA. Tressens 2202 (MO), KP794369, KP794551. T. plukenetii Radcl.-Sm. UGANDA. Rwaburindore 5745 (MO), KP794356, KP794578. T. polyandra Vell. ARGENTINA. Múlgura 2061 (MO), KP794375, KP794517. T. preussii Pax. CAMEROON. Nkongmeneck 1400 (MO), KP794352, KP794592. T. pungens (1) (Forssk.) Müll.Arg. ETHIOPIA. De Wilde 6406 (MO), KP794327, KP794593. T. pungens (2). SOMALIA. Bally 16026 (MO), KP794326, KP794594. T. ramosa (1) Torr. U. S. A. Hill 18339 (MO), KP794371, KP794559. T. ramosa (2). U. S. A. Ricketson 4600 (MO), KP794367, KP794560. T. rogersii Prain. SOUTH AFRICA. Ellery 92/96 (MO), KP794339, KP794595. T. rupestris Sond. SOUTH AFRICA. Venter 9666 (MO), KP794334, KP794596. T. saxicola (1) Small. U. S. A. Conell 40056
(MO), KP794386, KP794537. T. saxicola (2). U. S. A. Kral 51842 (MO), KP794387, KP794538. T. smallii (1) Shinners. U. S. A. McDaniel 28193 (MO), KP794401, —. T. smallii (2). U. S. A. McDaniel 28698 (MO) , KP794402, —. T. spathulata Benth. TOGO. Breteler 7083 (MO), KP794350, KP794583. T. aff. subhastata (1) Poepp. BOLIVIA. Serrano 6929 (MO), KP794358, KP794522. T. aff. subhastata (2). BOLIVIA. Serrano 6965 (MO), KP794357, KP794521. T. cf. subhastata Poepp. BOLIVIA. Serrano 5264 (MO), KP794359, KP794520. T. subsessilis Pax. TANZANIA. Vollesen 96/44 (MO), KP794345, KP794591. T. tenuifolia Benth. CÔTE D'IVOIRE. Gautier 2266 (MO), KP794353, —. T. uberabana Müll.Arg. ARGENTINA. Zuloaga 5785 (MO), KP794374, KP794557. T. urens (1) L. U. S. A. Anderson 7188 (MO), KP794407, —. T. urens (2). U. S. A. Kral 41155 (MO), KP794406, KP794509. T. urens (3). U. S. A. Thomas 55051 (CAN), KP794403, KP794507. T. urens (4). U. S. A. Thomas 100075 (MO), KP794404, —.T. urens (5). U. S. A. Thomas 124328 (MO), KP794405, KP794508. T. urticifolia Michx. U. S. A. Thomas 97259 (CAN), KP794365, KP794554. T. volubilis (1) L. COSTA RICA. Hammel 19108 (MO), KP794362, KP794547. T. volubilis (2). NICARAGUA. Stevens 29658 (MO) , KP794361, KP794546. T. yucatanensis (1) Millsp. GUATEMALA. Christenhusz 5678 (MO), KP794384, KP794534. T. yucatanensis (2). MEXICO. Álvarez 4398 (MO), KP794382, KP794536. T. yucatanensis (3). MEXICO. Lira 420 (MO), KP794385, KP794535. T. cf. yucatanensis (1) Millsp. GUATEMALA. Wallnöfer 5898 (MO), KP794381, KP794532. T. cf. yucatanensis (2). MEXICO. Álvarez 6623 (MO), KP794383, KP794533. Tragiella anomala (1) (Prain) Pax \& K.Hoffm. TANZANIA. Luke 11120 (MO), KP794324, KP794564. T. anomala (2). TANZANIA, Mwasumbi 16202 (MO), KP794323, KP794563. T. friesiana (1) (Prain) Pax \& K.Hoffm. ZAMBIA. Nkhoma 73 (MO), KP794346, KP794570. T. friesiana (2). ZAMBIA. Nkhoma 74 (MO), KP794347, KP794571. T. natalensis (Sond.) Pax \& K.Hoffm. TANZANIA. Massawe 519 (MO), KP794330, KP794587. Zuckertia cordata (1) Baill. COSTA RICA. González 1045 (MO), KP794399, KP794510. Z. cordata (2). MEXICO. Calzada 1544 (MO), KP794400, KP794511.

## Chapter 3

## Seed Size Evolution and Biogeography of Plukenetia (Euphorbiaceae), A Pantropical Genus with Traditionally Cultivated Oilseed Species*

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Seed size variation in Plukenetia L.

## Abstract

- Background: Plukenetia is a small pantropical genus of lianas and vines with variably sized edible oil-rich seeds that presents an ideal system to investigate neotropical and pantropical diversification patterns and seed size evolution. We assessed the biogeography and seed evolution of Plukenetia through phylogenetic analyses of a 5,069 character molecular dataset comprising five nuclear and two plastid markers for 86 terminals in subtribe Plukenetiinae (representing 20 of $\sim 23$ Plukenetia species). Two nuclear genes, KEA1 and TEB, were used for phylogenetic reconstruction for the first time. Our goals were: (1) produce a robust, timedependent evolutionary framework for Plukenetia using BEAST; (2) reconstruct its biogeographical history with ancestral range estimation in BioGeoBEARS; (3) define seed size categories; (4) identify patterns of seed size evolution using ancestral state estimation; and (5) conduct regression analyses with putative drivers of seed size using the threshold model.
- Results: Plukenetia was resolved into two major groups, which we refer to as the pinnatelyand palmately-veined clades. Our analyses suggest Plukenetia originated in the Amazon or Atlantic Forest of Brazil during the Oligocene ( 28.7 Mya ) and migrated/dispersed between those regions and Central America/Mexico throughout the Miocene. Trans-oceanic dispersals explain the pantropical distribution of Plukenetia, including from the Amazon to Africa in the Early Miocene (17.4 Mya), followed by Africa to Madagascar and Africa to Southeast Asia in the Late Miocene (9.4 Mya) and Pliocene (4.5 Mya), respectively. We infer a single origin of large seeds in the ancestor of Plukenetia. Seed size fits a Brownian motion model of trait evolution and is moderately to strongly associated with plant size, fruit type/dispersal syndrome, and seedling ecology. Biome shifts were not drivers of seed size, although there was a weak association with a transition to fire prone semi-arid savannas.
- Conclusions: The major relationships among the species of Plukenetia are now wellresolved. Our biogeographical analyses support growing evidence that many pantropical distributions developed by periodic trans-oceanic dispersals throughout the Miocene and Pliocene. Selection on a combination of traits contributed to seed size variation, while movement between forest edge/light gap and canopy niches likely contributed to the seed size extremes in Plukenetia.


## Background

Plukenetia L. (Euphorbiaceae subfamily Acalyphoideae) is a small pantropical genus of about 24 species of twining vines and lianas (in rare cases prostrate subshrubs) that represents an ideal system to study tropical biogeography and seed size evolution. Species are found throughout tropical regions of Mexico, Central and South America, Africa, Madagascar, and Southeast Asia (Gillespie, 1993, 2007), making the genus suitable for addressing questions on neotropical diversification patterns and the formation of pantropical distributions. Plukenetia seeds exhibit two main qualities that make them desirable for study. First, several species have large edible seeds that are rich in omega- 3 and omega- 6 polyunsaturated fatty acids and protein content (Akintayo \& Bayer, 2002; Chirinos et al., 2015; Mota et al., 2015), making them high-interest crops for both domestic consumption and growing international markets. Second, species of Plukenetia exhibit remarkable seed size variation for a genus (Fig. 3.1), which provides a unique opportunity to investigate the genetic controls and ecological drivers of seed size in a welldefined group of species. Presently, the phylogeny of Plukenetia, based on two molecular markers and indel gap-coded data, is missing a significant component of species diversity and requires improved resolution and branch support (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016), all of which must be addressed before evolutionary studies can take place on this clade. Here, we develop an improved phylogenetic hypothesis for Plukenetia using near-exhaustive taxon sampling across five nuclear and two plastid molecular markers, including two novel low-copy nuclear genes we developed for phylogenetic analysis. This approach allows us to produce a robust time-calibrated phylogeny to examine global patterns of plant biogeography and provide novel insight into the patterns and drivers of seed size evolution among closely related species.

Seed size is an important life-history trait related to mechanisms of dispersal, germination, seedling survival, and the overall reproductive success of plants (Leishman et al., 2000), as well as of economic interest. There have been several macroevolutionary (Moles et al., 2005b, 2007; Beaulieu et al., 2007; Eriksson, 2008; Igea et al., 2017) and microevolutionary (Gómez, 2004; Halpern, 2005; Galetti et al., 2013) seed size studies, but relatively few taxonomic groups with variably sized seeds have been identified and studied on an intermediate level among species or genera (however, see Rojas-Aréchiga et al., 2013; El-ahmir et al., 2015; Krahulcová et al., 2017). It is unclear if seed size is conserved among most closely related taxa or if it is merely a trait that has been poorly documented at that level. Here, we highlight

Plukenetia as a tractable, small-sized genus with a growing number of seed-related resources (e.g., oil composition (Akintayo \& Bayer, 2002; Chirinos et al., 2015; Mota et al., 2015), germination rate (Awodoyin et al., 2000; Nwosu, 2006; Cardoso et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2016)) that shows promise for understanding how seed size variation develops among closely related species.


Figure 3.1 Seed size variation in Plukenetia and Romanoa. (a) Plukenetia polyadenia (van der Werff 16350, MO); (b-c) P. huayllabambana (Gruhn 84, MO); (d-e) P. volubilis (Nee 35694, MO); (f-g) P. stipellata (Zambraver 1047, MO); (h) P. lehmanniana (Daniel 4943, US); (i-j). P. africana (Bartsch 1859, MO); (k-1) P. supraglandulosa (Granville 10783, US); (m-n) P. loretensis (Krukoff 1031, MO); (o-p) P. verrucosa (Barrabé \& Crozier 145, US); (q-r) Romanoa tamnoides (Zardini \& Cardozo 44939, MO). Dual orientations (face and side) for most species to show flattened lenticular shape. Source: Vouchers in parentheses. Single photograph taken with a Nikon D800.

Seed size is influenced by a number of selective pressures including seedling and shade competition, predation, dormancy/persistence, drought tolerance, fire tolerance, and dispersal mechanism (Leishman et al., 2000; Gómez, 2004; Lahoreau et al., 2006). Far less is known about how these selective pressures contribute to patterns of seed size evolution within clades. So far, we know that the seed size of Hakea (Proteaceae) is correlated with seed production and
post-fire regeneration strategy, but not fruit size, plant height, or the length of time seeds were kept on the plant (El-ahmir et al., 2015). By comparison, seed size in Aesculus (Sapindaceae) is associated with genome size (Krahulcová et al., 2017), while in cacti the drivers are not yet known but exclude the amount of light required for germination (Rojas-Aréchiga et al., 2013). Given that closely related species may exhibit phylogenetic constraints on seed size (Kang \& Primack, 1999), it appears that variation develops through a complex set of interactions between ecological selection and genetic background. Moving forward we should aim to identify the similarities and differences among the numerous contexts in which seed size variation develops.

Seeds of Plukenetia are narrowly to broadly lenticular, subglobose, or obovoid and then laterally compressed (Gillespie, 1993, 2007) (Fig. 3.1) and several traits are potentially correlated with seed size. The most notable trend is the association of smaller seeds in herbaceous vines and slender lianas, and the largest seeds in thick stemmed canopy lianas (Gillespie, 1993). In addition, smaller seeded species tend to be associated with light gap and forest edge habitats, whereas the larger seeds of canopy liana species likely germinate and establish under shaded conditions. Fruit type and inferred dispersal mechanism also show potential associations. Smaller seeds are formed in dry, likely explosively dehiscent capsules (as is typical of most euphorbs), which locally disperse high energy seeds that then can be more efficiently dispersed by scatter hoarding rodents (Forget, 1990; Jansen et al., 2002; Wang \& Yang, 2014). In contrast, larger seeds are often associated with green or brown thinly fleshed indehiscent berries, which are likely dispersed by large mammals such as primates that may carry away seeds to eat and occasionally drop a few far from the parent plant (Poulsen et al., 2002; Chapman \& Russo, 2006). Lastly, while most Plukenetia species occur in wet and seasonally moist forests, some species have transitioned into drier habitats, where we find notable seed size reduction associated with fire-prone savanna ecosystems (Gillespie, 2007).

Within Plukenetia, five species have been traditionally cultivated for food and medicine in tropical regions of the Andes ( $P$. volubilis, Sacha Inchi or Inca Peanut; $P$. carolis-vegae and $P$. huayllabambana, collectively Mountain Sacha Inchi), the Amazon (P. polyadenia, Compadre-de-azeite), and Africa ( $P$. conophora, Awusa or African walnut). Despite agricultural interests, the evolutionary origin of large edible oil-rich seeds in Plukenetia has not been hypothesized or tested. Large, sometimes oil-rich, seeds have evolved independently in other members of the family [e.g., Aleurites J.R. \& G.Forst., Caryodendron H.Karst., Hura L., Joannesia Vell., tribe

Micrandeae (Mull. Arg.) G.L.Webster, Omphalea L.], however most Euphorbiaceae have relatively small seeds. The continental separation of the cultivated species suggests there were at least two independent ancient domestication and/or semi-domestication events in Plukenetia. Since large seeded species are present in most taxonomic groupings of Plukenetia, we hypothesize that there was a single origin of large seeds in the ancestor of the genus. This hypothesis invokes at least three shifts back to smaller seeds based on the current Plukenetia phylogeny (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016). Presently, seed size concepts in Plukenetia are informal and oversimplified (e.g., "small versus large") considering the breadth of variation (Fig. 3.1). Therefore, measurement-based quantification of seed size variation could help develop a more nuanced interpretation of seed evolution.

The biogeography of Plukenetia has not been investigated but could contribute to our understanding of neotropical diversification patterns and the formation of pantropical distributions. There are currently no explicit hypotheses regarding the centre of origin of Plukenetia, but it is reasonable to predict that it diversified in South America given that the remaining genera of Plukenetiinae are endemic to that continent. Recent biogeographical analysis of subfamily Acalyphoideae (Cervantes et al., 2016) suggests the ancestor of Plukenetia was most likely distributed in Central and South America. However, that analysis included only two neotropical species of Plukenetia and used biogeographic regions that suited their focus on the Caribbean. Here, we conduct species-level biogeography using more finely parsed South American regions, which may shed light on the impacts that the Andes mountains (PérezEscobar et al., 2017b) and open vegetational diagonal (Werneck, 2011) had on species movement and diversification patterns. Moreover, biogeographical analysis of Plukenetia allows us to test the timing, directionality, and inferred method of movement (e.g., continental migration versus long-distance dispersal) that resulted in its pantropical distributions.

Under its current circumscription, Plukenetia is divided into five sections/informal species groups that are found primarily in wet or moist tropical forests (unless otherwise indicated) (Gillespie, 1993, 2007). They include: (1) sect. Plukenetia, containing about eight species from Mexico to Central and South America; (2) a second neotropical species group with about nine species, defined as New World species group " 2 " by Gillespie (Gillespie, 1993) (henceforth referred to as NWSG2); (3) sect. Angostylidium, containing P. conophora, distributed in Africa; (4) sect. Hedraiostylus, containing two species (one with an uncommon
subshrub growth form) from semi-arid savannas of Africa, and P. corniculata from Southeast Asia; and (5) an informal species group from Madagascar (Gillespie, 2007), containing three species found in dry tropical forest, with two species found exclusively on tsingy limestone. Molecular phylogenetic analysis of Plukenetieae largely supports the morphology-based classification of Plukenetia, although species group relationships need improved resolution and support (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016).

In this study, we developed a comprehensive phylogeny for Plukenetia and closely related genera in subtribe Plukenetiinae to investigate patterns of seed size evolution and biogeography. To produce a well-resolved and well-supported phylogeny, we sampled two plastid and five nuclear DNA markers, including two novel low-copy nuclear genes, one of which was identified using the modified genome/transcriptome data-mining pipeline Lite Blue DEVIL v0.3. Our goals were to: (1) develop a robust, time-calibrated phylogeny of Plukenetia for broad use as an evolutionary framework; (2) reconstruct the biogeographical history of Plukenetia and examine hypotheses of neotropical diversification and pantropical disjunct distributions; (3) empirically define seed size categories for Plukenetia; (4) perform ancestral seed size estimation to test if there was a single origin of large seeds and identify patterns of seed size variation; and (5) use phylogenetic regression with the threshold model to test putative drivers of seed size evolution.

## Methods

## Taxon sampling for phylogenetic analysis

Our taxon sampling included 86 terminals, 81 of which belong to Plukenetia (voucher information and GenBank accessions are provided in Table 3.S1). We aimed for a comprehensive survey of all known Plukenetia species and included multiple accessions of taxa with morphologically diverse species complexes (e.g., P. brachybotrya, P. penninervia, and $P$. volubilis; Gillespie, 1993) and accessions that may represent undescribed species. In total, we sampled 20 of $\sim 23$ species representing $83 \%$ of the total diversity. Species that could not be sampled were either rare and known only from type collections ( $P$. multiglandulosa, $P$. procumbens) or material was unavailable ( P. carolis-vegae). We used five accessions of two closely related taxa in Plukenetiinae (Haematostemon guianensis and Romanoa tamnoides) as outgroups (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016). The relationship of Romanoa as the sister
genus of Plukenetia is well established with molecular and morphological evidence (Gillespie, 1993; Wurdack et al., 2005; Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016).

## Genome/transcriptome data-mining for novel low-copy nuclear markers

Identification of low-copy nuclear markers largely followed a top-down approach for genome/transcriptome data-mining (Rothfels et al., 2013). This approach operates by conducting a BLAST (Altschul et al., 1990) search of a candidate gene on a designated database of genome/transcriptome sequences followed by alignment and tree building methods to screen for copy number. Potential low-copy nuclear loci were selected from a list of 1,083 highly conserved genes identified from the annotated genomes of seven angiosperm species and one moss (Zhang et al., 2012). We compiled nine previously published genome/transcriptome assemblies for six Euphorbiaceae species: the draft genomes of Jatropha curcas (Sato et al., 2011) and Ricinus communis (both coding sequence and gene) (Chan et al., 2010), five transcriptomes from the 1000 Plants Initiative (i.e., 1KP: Croton tiglium, Euphorbia mesembryanthemifolia (both juvenile and mature), Manihot grahamii, and R. communis (Matasci et al., 2014; 1000 Plants (1KP) Project, 2015)), and the seed transcriptome of Plukenetia volubilis (Wang et al., 2012) (Table 3.S2). We used the python script Lite Blue Devil (Additional files 3.1 and 3.2; modelled after Blue Devil v0.6, Rothfels et al., 2013) to detect the longest open reading frames (ORFs) in a series of query sequences (i.e., the list of 1,083 highly conserved genes), search for those ORFs within our pool of genome/transcriptome assemblies using BLAST, align the resulting hits using MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004), and conduct RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014) BestTree searches on alignments that returned four or more sequences. Lite BLUE DEVIL allows for blastn or blastp searches (Altschul et al., 1990) with specified cut-off values. We used blastn with an e-value threshold of 1e-6. Alignments of potentially low-copy loci were imported into GENEIOUS v8.1.9 (Biomatters, Auckland, New Zealand) and screened for regions of suitable size (400-750 basepairs; bp) with conserved flanking regions to facilitate primer design and amplification. Of the 1,083 candidate genes surveyed (see results), AT1G01790, an anticipated potassium ( $\mathrm{K}+$ ) efflux antiporter 1, chloroplastic gene (KEA1), demonstrated the highest potential for phylogenetic utility and was carried forward in our study.

## DNA extraction, amplification, and sequencing

Total genomic DNA was extracted from herbarium or silica gel desiccated leaf material using a DNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, U.S.A.) following the manufacturer's instructions or with a modified 12 hr proteinase K incubation (Wurdack et al., 2004, 2005). Marker selection included our newly designed regions and those with previously demonstrated phylogenetic utility in Euphorbiaceae. In total, we sampled seven markers from the nuclear and plastid genomes. The nuclear ribosomal external and internal transcribed spacers (ETS, ITS) and partial matK regions have been used within Plukenetieae (Armbruster et al., 2009; Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016), while full or partial mat $K$ and $n d h F$ regions have been broadly applied across

Euphorbiaceae and Acalyphoideae (Horn et al., 2012, 2014; van Welzen et al., 2014; Cervantes et al., 2016). Low-copy nuclear markers KEA1 introns 11 and 17 (designed here) and $T E B$ exon 17 (designed earlier by KJW) have not been previously used for phylogenetic analyses. TEB (AT4G32700) was originally screened but found unsatisfactory (i.e., erratic gene recovery) in preliminary work on broad Malpighiales phylogenetics (see Wurdack \& Davis, 2009). We also redesigned Euphorbiaceae-specific primers for ETS and matK. The ETS primers were designed from ribosomal DNA assemblies from whole genome libraries of Haematostemon guianensis run on the Ion Torrent platform (Thermo Fisher Scientific) (KJW, unpublished data). The matK primers were designed by identifying conserved regions on an alignment with representatives of Acalypha, Bernardia, Caryodendron, Ricinus, and genera from tribe Plukenetieae. Table 3.S3 outlines the primers and parameters used for amplification and sequencing (White et al., 1990; Olmstead et al., 1993; Stanford et al., 2000; Steinmann \& Porter, 2002; Beilstein et al., 2006; Cheng et al., 2016). Figure 3.S1 illustrates new or redesigned markers and their relative primer positions. PCR products were treated with an exonuclease I (Exo) and shrimp alkaline phosphatase (SAP) procedure (MJS Biolynx, Brockville, Canada) or with ExoSAP-IT (Fisher Scientific, Fair Lawn, U.S.A.), followed by Sanger sequencing with BigDye Terminator v3.1 chemistry (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, U.S.A.). Sequencing reaction products were cleaned with a sodium acetate/ethanol precipitation or Sephadex G-50 (GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences, Pittsburg, U.S.A.) and run on an ABI 3130xl Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems) at the Laboratory of Molecular Biodiversity (Canadian Museum of Nature) or at the Laboratories of Analytical Biology (Smithsonian Institution, National Museum of Natural History). All consensus sequences were assembled and edited using Geneious.

## Sequence alignment and model selection

Sequences were aligned using the auto-select algorithm of MAFFT v7.017 (Katoh \& Standley, 2013) in Geneious, then manually adjusted using a similarity criterion (Simmons, 2004).

Optimal models of molecular evolution were selected for each marker by ranking the maximum likelihood (ML) scores of 24 nucleotide substitution models under PHYML (Guindon et al., 2010) BEST tree searches using the Akaike information criterion (AIC; (Akaike, 1974)) implemented in JModelTest v2.1.10 (Darriba et al., 2012). The GTR $+\mathrm{I}+\mathrm{G}$ model was selected for ITS and $n d h F$, GTR+G for KEA1 intron 11 and matK, HKY+G for ETS, and HKY+I for KEA1 intron 17 and TEB exon 17.

## Phylogenetic analyses

Prior to conducting phylogenetic analyses on combined datasets, we tested for well-supported incongruence between individual markers using ML bootstrap analyses (Felsenstein, 1985b) conducted in Garli v2.01 on XSEDE (Zwickl, 2006) through the CIPRES ScIENTIFIC Gateway v3.3 (Miller et al., 2010) (all other analyses were run with desktop programs). For each marker we generated 500 bootstrap replicates, implementing two independent runs starting from random trees, terminating after 20,000 generations without topological improvement, and estimating the values of each model of molecular evolution. A 50\% majority-rule consensus tree was made from the optimal trees recovered from each replicate using the Consensus Tree Builder in Geneious. Individual marker bootstrap values were mapped onto the optimal ML tree recovered under the same search conditions. Topologies from individual analyses were evaluated by pairwise comparisons, searching for well-supported conflicting relationships (interpreted as $\geq 85$ ML bootstrap percentage; MLBP).

We implemented parsimony and Bayesian approaches for the analysis of concatenated datasets. Parsimony analyses were executed in PAUP* v4.0b10 (Swofford, 2002) with characters treated as unordered and equally weighted (Fitch, 1971). Branch support was evaluated using 1,000 bootstrap replicates, each with 10 random-addition replicates, applying tree-bisectionreconnection (TBR) swapping, saving multiple shortest trees each step (Multrees), with each replicate limited to the first 100 shortest trees. Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analyses were conducted in MrBAYES v3.2.2 (Ronquist et al., 2012) on concatenated datasets partitioned by marker and with independently estimated models. Two independent runs of four-
chained searches were performed for three million generations, sampling every 1,000 generations, with the remaining search parameters at their default settings. Independent runs were considered converged when the standard deviation of split frequencies were $<0.005$, potential scale reduction factors (PSRF) were near 1.0, and effective sample size (ESS) values of each parameter were > 200 (determined using Tracer v1.6 (Rambaut et al., 2014)). The first $25 \%$ of each run ( 750 trees) was discarded as burn-in prior to summarizing a maximum clade credibility tree and calculating posterior probabilities (PP).

## Divergence date estimation

Molecular dating analyses were assessed under a relaxed molecular clock using Bayesian methods in BEAST v1.8.0 (Drummond et al., 2012). XML files were prepared in BEAUTI v1.8.0 as a partitioned seven-marker dataset with independently estimated models of nucleotide evolution. We used two uncorrelated lognormal (UCLN) relaxed clock models separated into nuclear and plastid divisions, independently estimating rates of molecular evolution and rate variation parameters. The UCLN mean rate priors were set as a uniform distribution ( 0 to 1.0 e 100 ) with an initial value of 1.0. A single tree was modeled starting from a random tree and using the Yule process of speciation (Yule, 1925). Since there are no known Plukenetia fossils, we used two secondary 'time to most recent common ancestor' (TMRCA) calibration priors based on molecular dating estimates of subfamily Acalyphoideae that used three fossil calibrations (Cervantes et al., 2016). We used normal-distribution priors to constrain the root of the tree and crown of Plukenetiinae (which are the same node) to $36.43 \mathrm{Mya}(\mathrm{SD}=4.0)$ and the crown of Plukenetia to 15.21 Mya ( $\mathrm{SD}=4.0$ ). We initiated three independent MCMC runs for 21 million generations, sampling every 10,000 generations. Runs were assessed for convergence and ESS $>200$ using Tracer. When convergence and ESS thresholds were met, runs were combined after excluding the first million generations as burn-in using LogCombiner v1.8.0. A maximum clade credibility tree with mean ages was summarized in TreeAnnotator v1.8.0 with a PP limit of 0.95 .

## Ancestral range estimation

We evaluated potential historical distributions patterns using ancestral range estimation (ARE). We limited biogeographical analyses to species lineages by pruning replicate species tips off the
maximum clade credibility BEAST tree using the drop.tip function of PHYTOOLS (Revell, 2012) in R v3.3.2 (R Core Development Team, 2016). Species distributions were gathered from literature (Jiménez Ramírez, 1993; Gillespie, 1993, 2007; Gillespie \& Armbruster, 1997; Bussmann et al., 2009, 2013) and online (Global Biodiversity Information Facility, 2017; Missouri Botanical Garden, 2017) resources. We categorized six areas of distribution: (1) Mexico, Central America, and Northwestern South America (north and west of the Andes); (2) the Amazon biome, including the Guiana shield; (3) the Atlantic Forest biome (Mata Atlântica, Brazil); (4) tropical wet and semi-arid Africa; (5) Madagascar; and (6) Southeast Asia (Table 3.S4). Our neotropical areas were adapted from Morrone (Morrone, 2014) to subdivide the South American floral kingdom, whereas our paleotropical areas were largely defined by the African and Indo-Pacific floral kingdoms (Cox, 2001), except with the recognition of Madagascar as a distinct region from Africa.

We conducted ARE on the modified BEAST chronogram using the maximum-likelihood approach in BioGeoBEARS (Matzke, 2013, 2014) implemented in R. Our analyses used the dispersal-extinction-cladogenesis (DEC) model from LAGRANGE (Ree \& Smith, 2008) in addition to the founder-event parameter $(+J)$ developed in BioGeoBEARS. The +J parameter allows for "jump speciation", in which cladogenic dispersals can occur outside of the parental area. For recent and ongoing discussion over criticisms of the DEC +J model, see Ree \& Sanmartín (2018). Dispersal probabilities between pairs of areas were specified by distance for a single timeslice (Table 3.S5) following similar analyses (Buerki et al., 2011; Berger et al., 2016; Cardinal-McTeague et al., 2016; Givnish et al., 2016). To facilitate clear patterns, inferred ancestral ranges were allowed to occupy up to two areas. We conducted two independent runs with the DEC and DEC +J models and used a likelihood-ratio test to determine the model of best fit.

## Defining seed size categories

To empirically define seed size categories, we compiled seed dimension measurements (length, width, and thickness) for all species of Plukenetia using literature reports (Jiménez Ramírez, 1993; Gillespie, 1993, 2007; Gillespie \& Armbruster, 1997; Bussmann et al., 2009, 2013) and/or mature seeds of (usually) dehisced fruits from dried herbarium specimens. The dimensions were converted into estimated volumes based on the formula for an ellipsoid ( $v=4 / 3 \pi \mathrm{abc}$ ).

We used clustering analysis as an objective approach to identify seed size categories using PAST v3.14 (Hammer et al., 2001). We clustered individual seeds based on their $\log _{10}$ transformed dimension measurements using Euclidean distance and the unweighted pair-group method using arithmetic averages (UPGMA). Clusters were defined by a distance of $\sim 0.35$. We visualized the resulting clusters using a three-dimensional principal components analysis (PCA).

## Models of continuous trait evolution

We examined patterns of seed size evolution by fitting the modified BEAST chronogram with the mean $\log _{10}$ (estimated seed volumes) for each species under three models of trait evolution: (1) Brownian motion; (2) Ornstein-Uhlenbeck (OU); and (3) Early Burst (EB). Plukenetia huayllabambana was included in seed evolution analyses by using a placeholder that shared the same phylogenetic position within the nuclear tree. We fit the data to each model using the fitContinuous function in the R package GEIGER (Harmon et al., 2008) and then ranked the best model using $\Delta \mathrm{AIC}$ and Akaike weights ( $w_{i}$; (Wagenmakers \& Farrell, 2004)). We assessed the phylogenetic signal of our data with Blomberg's $K$ (Blomberg et al., 2007) and Pagel's $\lambda$ (Pagel, 1999) using the phylosig function of PHYTOOLS.

## Ancestral state estimation

We performed maximum likelihood ancestral state estimation of $\log _{10}$ (seed size volume) as a continuous character on the modified BEAST chronogram using the contMap function in PHYTOOLS. The contMap function uses ML to estimate the ancestral state of internal nodes under Brownian motion, then interpolates the states along the edges of each branch with Felsenstein's equation (3) (Felsenstein, 1985a; Revell, 2013). We also visualized seed size evolution through time by plotting the $\log _{10}$ (estimated seed volume) on the modified BEAST chronogram using the phenogram function in PHYTOOLS.

## Phylogenetic regression analyses

We used phylogenetic regression to test the correlation between seed size and five putative drivers of seed evolution: plant size, fruit type/dispersal mechanism, seedling ecology, fire tolerance, and biome type. Due to limited quantitative data, we simplified the complexity of each trait into a binary character (Table 3.S6). Plant size was divided into species with slender (0)
versus robust to thick (1) stems; fruit type/dispersal mechanism into dry and dehiscent (0) versus fleshy and indehiscent (1); seedling ecology by light gap and forest edge establishment (0) versus a shade avoidance canopy liana strategy (1); fire tolerance by species that are non-fire adapted (0) and fire adapted (1); and biome type by species that occupy wet dominate biomes ( 0 ) versus biomes with a significant dry component (1).

Correlation analyses were conducted with the threshold model (Felsenstein, 2012) using the threshBayes function in PHYTOOLS. The threshold model includes an unobserved quantitative character called the liability, where a trait is determined by whether the liability passes an arbitrary threshold. This method uses BI to measure the covariation of trait liabilities, allowing for the comparison of both continuous and discrete binary data. We ran MCMC analyses for 3 million generations sampling every $1,000^{\text {th }}$ step and applied a $20 \%$ burnin prior to summarizing posterior distribution values for the correlation coefficient $(r)$. We assessed the ESS of the coefficient using the effectiveSize function in the R package CODA (Plummer et al., 2006).

## Results

## Genome/transcriptome data-mining results

Of the 1,083 candidate conserved genes queried through Lite BLUE DEVIL, 222 were returned and six were identified as potentially appropriate low-copy markers: AT1G01790, AT1G06820, AT1G08520, AT1G13820, AT2G26680, AT3G11830, AT3G54670. We designed 12 primer pairs across those candidate genes using Plukenetia and Ricinus database sequences as templates. After preliminary tests of amplification success, low-copy status (i.e., single band and few polymorphisms), and nucleotide variation, AT1G01790 (KEA1) was identified as most suitable for use in phylogenetic reconstructions.

## Phylogenetic relationships

Table 3.1 presents dataset characteristics for each molecular marker. Comparison of individual markers' bootstrap analyses did not recover any well supported topological conflicts (Fig. 3.S2). As such, further analyses were conducted on three concatenated datasets: (i) combined plastid (cpDNA; matK, $n d h F$ ) including 74 accessions; (ii) combined nuclear (nDNA; ETS, ITS, KEA1 introns 11 and 17, TEB exon 17) including 86 accessions; and (iii) total combined (all seven markers, plastid + nuclear) including 83 accessions. The total combined matrix had an aligned

Table 3.1 Molecular dataset characteristics.

| Dataset | n ITS | n ETS | n KEA1 intron 11 | n KEA1 intron 17 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { n } T E B \text { exon } \\ & 17 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| No. terminals | 85 | 84 | 73 | 57 | 45 |
| Aligned length | 803 | 468 | 435 | 396 | 558 |
| Variable characters | 304 | 241 | 150 | 88 | 141 |
| Parsimony informative characters (\%) | 266 (33\%) | 199 (43\%) | 121 (28\%) | 68 (17\%) | 90 (16\%) |
| Nucleotide model | GTR+I+G | HKY+G | GTR+G | HKY+I | HKY+I |
| Dataset | cp matK | cp ndhF | Combined plastid | Combined nuclear | Total combined |
| No. terminals | 70 | 70 | 74 | 86 | 83 |
| Aligned length | 1,654 | 755 | 2,409 | 2,660 | 5,069 |
| Variable characters | 175 | 128 | 303 | 924 | 1,227 |
| Parsimony informative characters (\%) | 115 (7\%) | 94 (13\%) | 209 (9\%) | 744 (28\%) | 953 (19\%) |
| Nucleotide model | GTR+G | $\mathrm{GTR}+\mathrm{I}+\mathrm{G}$ | - | - | - |

length of 5,069 characters, 2,660 of nDNA and 2,409 of cpDNA (Table 3.1). Comparison of cpDNA and nDNA topologies revealed two instances of well supported conflicting topologies (Fig. 3.S3), resulting in the removal of all Plukenetia huayllabambana accessions (Téllez 4, Quipuscoa 381) and one accession of P. loretensis (Solomon 7972) from the total combined dataset. Aside from these shallow incongruences, topologies were consistent across analyses and datasets, with greatly increased node support in total combined analyses (Fig. 3.2). Hereafter, the results and discussion focus on the total combined dataset (Fig. 3.2) and refer to the Plukenetia subclade naming system established by Cardinal-McTeague and Gillespie (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016).

General relationships across subtribe Plukenetiinae are strongly supported (interpreted as maximum parsimony bootstrap percentage [MPBP] $\geq 85, \mathrm{PP} \geq 0.95$, indicated by bold branches) with only three internal nodes with low support (Fig. 3.2). Romanoa, Plukenetia, and each of the Plukenetia subclades (P1-P5) are monophyletic with strong support $(\mathrm{MPBP}=100, \mathrm{PP}=1.0)$. Plukenetia is resolved into two main clades with strong support ( $\mathrm{MPBP}=100, \mathrm{PP}=1.0$ ) that we formally name (i) the pinnately-veined clade (P1 + P2), containing NWSG2, and (ii) the palmately-veined clade (P3-P5), including sect. Plukenetia (P3) + the Old World Plukenetia lineage (P4 + P5). The latter comprises sect. Angostylidium (P4) and sect. Hedraiostylus + the Madagascar species group (P5).


Figure 3.2 Bayesian maximum clade credibility tree based on the combined seven marker (cpDNA and nDNA), 83 accession dataset for Plukenetia and Plukenetiinae outgroups. Maximum parsimony bootstrap percentage (MPBP) and Bayesian posterior probabilities (PP) support values $>50 \%$ are indicated on each branch. Branches in bold indicate strong support ( $\geq 85$ MPBP and $\geq 0.95 \mathrm{PP}$ ). Subclade numbering system (P1P5) follows Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie (2016). Inset, leaf clearings demonstrating pinnately-veined ( $P$. supraglandulosa, Granville 3626, CAY) and palmately-veined (P. stipellata, Gillespie 413, US) leaf architecture.

Species relationships are well-resolved and a majority are strongly supported (Fig 3.2). Within the pinnately-veined clade, subclade P1 ( $P$. serrata) and subclade P2 (the remaining members of NSWG2) form a strongly supported sister group ( $\mathrm{MPBP}=100, \mathrm{PP}=1.0$ ). The earliest diverging lineage of subclade $\mathrm{P} 2, P$. penninervia, is sister to two strongly supported clades composed of: (i) $P$. aff. brachybotrya $+P$. supraglandulosa; and (ii) a functional polytomy containing $P$. brachybotrya, $P$. verrucosa, and a weakly supported clade (MPBP $=70$, $\mathrm{PP}=0.59$ ) of $P$. cf. penninervia $+P$. loretensis. Within the palmately-veined clade, subclade P3 (sect. Plukenetia) is sister to P4 + P5 (the Old World Plukenetia lineage) with strong support $(\mathrm{MPBP}=94$ or $100, \mathrm{PP}=1.0)$. Sect. Plukenetia $(\mathrm{P} 3)$ is monophyletic $(\mathrm{MPBP}=100, \mathrm{PP}=1.0)$ and resolved into a successive grade of $P$. polyadenia, $P$. carabiasiae, $P$. stipellata, and $P$. lehmanniana, of which the latter is sister to $P$. cf. carolis-vegae $+P$. volubilis. The Old World Plukenetia lineage ( $\mathrm{P} 4+\mathrm{P} 5$ ) is monophyletic with strong support ( $\mathrm{MPBP}=94, \mathrm{PP}=1.0$ ), with sect. Angostylidium (P4; P. conophora) sister to sect. Hedraiostylus (P5; P. africana $+P$. corniculata) + the Madagascar species group ( P 5 ; a polytomy of $P$. ankaranensis, $P$. decidua, and $P$. madagascariensis), all with strong support $(\mathrm{MPBP}=100, \mathrm{PP}=1.0)$.

## Divergence dating

The BEAST chronogram is presented with mean age estimates and $95 \%$ highest posterior density (HPD) confidence bars for nodes with $\geq 0.95 \mathrm{PP}$ (Fig. 3.3). A simplified BEAST chronogram is illustrated in Fig. 3.S4. The crown of Plukenetiinae is estimated (under constraint) to have diverged in the Oligocene (31.94 Mya, HPD = 39.01-24.42) with Romanoa and Plukenetia diverging at 28.71 Mya (HPD = 36.0-21.12). The crown of Plukenetia (estimated under constraint) diverged in the Early Miocene (19.1 Mya, HPD $=24.11-14.07$ ) with sect. Plukenetia (P3) and the Old World Plukenetia lineage (P4 + P5) diverging at 17.39 Mya (HPD $=22.38-$ 12.62). Species of Plukenetia diverged continuously from the Middle Miocene (16.0 to 11.6 Mya) into the Pliocene ( 5.3 to 2.6 Mya ).

## Reconstructing biogeographical history

ARE analyses using the DEC and DEC +J models recovered similar overall patterns but with less resolved deep-node estimates under the DEC model. A likelihood-ratio test between the two


Figure 3.3 Ancestral range estimation on the Plukenetia BEAST chronogram using BIoGEoBEARS ( $\mathrm{DEC}+\mathrm{J}$ model). Areas of tip species are shown left of taxa names, color-coded for the six biogeographical areas depicted on the map inset. Boxes at each node and corner are color-coded for the area (or combined area, up to two allowed) with the highest maximum likelihood probability. Pie charts indicate the probability of each area and are included when there is $<75 \%$ confidence for a single area. Numbers at each node indicate mean age estimates, blue bars the $95 \%$ highest posterior density (HPD) confidence interval, and yellow bars the $95 \%$ HPD of calibrated nodes estimated under constraint. Arrows on the map indicate the general direction of range movement in Plukenetia; dashed lines indicate area reversals.
models revealed inclusion of the +J "jump speciation" parameter significantly improved likelihood scores ( $\mathrm{DEC} \operatorname{lnL}=-46.67$, $\mathrm{DEC}+\mathrm{J} \operatorname{lnL}=-27.26, \chi^{2}(1)=38.83, \mathrm{p}=4.6 \mathrm{e}-10$ ). As such, only the DEC +J results are presented (see Fig. 3.S5 for complete DEC +J and DEC outputs, and Ree \& Sanmartín [2018] for recent criticisms of the DEC +J model). The resulting parameters of the $\mathrm{DEC}+\mathrm{J}$ model included: anagenetic dispersal rate $d=1 \mathrm{e}-5$, extinction rate $e=1 \mathrm{e}-5$, and cladogenetic dispersal rate $j=0.3997152$. ARE on the Plukenetia BEAST chronogram using BioGeoBEARS is shown in Fig. 3.3, illustrating the area or combined areas with highest probability for each node and corner. Nodes/corners with low area probabilities ( $<0.75 \mathrm{PP}$ ) include pie charts depicting the proportion of probable areas (Fig. 3.3).

Biogeographical hypotheses inferred from ARE are based on several nodes with high probability, although the proportion of probable areas for the common ancestor of Plukenetia is split between two regions (Fig. 3.3). Biogeographical history at the crown of Plukenetiinae has low resolution but involved the Amazon and Atlantic Forest regions, either separately or as a combined area. The stem lineages of each genus diverged during the Oligocene (33.9 to 23.0 Mya) after becoming isolated in the Amazon (Haematostemon) or Atlantic Forest (common ancestor of Plukenetia + Romanoa) regions. The crown of Plukenetia diverged rapidly in the Early Miocene ( 23.0 to 16.0 Mya ) most probably in the Amazon or Atlantic Forest.

ARE within Plukenetia revealed frequent migrations/dispersals within the pinnately- (P1 + P2) and palmately-veined (P3-P5) clades. Two biogeographical histories are highly likely in the ancestor of Plukenetia. In one scenario, Plukenetia originated after its ancestor migrated from the Atlantic Forest into the Amazon during the Oligocene, after which the pinnately-veined clade $(\mathrm{P} 1+\mathrm{P} 2)$ diverged and returned to the Atlantic Forest in the Early Miocene. In the other scenario, Plukenetia originated in the Atlantic Forest followed by the ancestor of the palmatelyveined clade (P3-P5) migrating into the Amazon in the Early Miocene. Within the pinnatelyveined clade $(P 1+P 2)$ the ancestor of subclade P1 remained in the Atlantic Forest, while the ancestor of subclade P2 migrated/dispersed to the Amazon by the end of the Middle Miocene followed by two independent migrations/dispersals to Central and NW South America in the Late Miocene (11.6 to 5.3 Mya) and Pliocene. Within sect. Plukenetia (P3) an early diverging lineage migrated/dispersed into Central and NW South America in the Middle Miocene and subsequently diversified. The common ancestor of $P$. cf. carolis-vegae $+P$. volubilis migrated back into the Amazon during the Pliocene. The ancestor of the Old World Plukenetia lineage (P4

+ P5) most likely underwent a long-distance trans-Atlantic Ocean dispersal from the Amazon to tropical Africa during the Early Miocene. Within subclade P5 an early diverging lineage underwent a short-distance dispersal into Madagascar during the Late Miocene, with a later diverging lineage undergoing a long-distance trans-Indian Ocean dispersal to Southeast Asia in the Pliocene.


## Seed measurements and seed-size categories

In total, we sampled 122 vouchers of Plukenetia, Romanoa, and Haematostemon and produced a dataset of 212 individual seed measurements (Additional file 3.3), which are summarized for each species in Table 3.2.

Clustering analysis identified five size-based groups in Plukenetia (Fig. 3.S6) that can be classified by estimated seed volume: (S) small, 25-100 $\mathrm{mm}^{3}$; (M) medium, $100-500 \mathrm{~mm}^{3}$; (L) large, $500-3,000 \mathrm{~mm}^{3}$; (XL) extra-large $3,000-13,000 \mathrm{~mm}^{3}$; and (Max) maximum 26,000$38,000 \mathrm{~mm}^{3}$. PCA analysis revealed the first component (PC1) accounted for $95 \%$ of the observed variance, suggesting limited overlap on the x -axis is a good measure of discreteness (Fig. 3.S7). We note that other seed size categories could be defined based on clustering or PCA analysis, but these volume-based categories provide intuitive boundaries based on the seed size variation of Plukenetia. The seed size variance of most species could be attributed to a single category, with the exception of P. africana (evenly split between S and M ) and $P$. volubilis (mostly L but rarely M).

## Patterns of seed size evolution

Seed size exhibited strong phylogenetic signal under Blomberg's $K(1.0256 ; \mathrm{p}=0.001)$ and Pagel's $\lambda(0.9999 ; p=0.0004)$, with statistical values strongly suggestive of the Brownian motion model of trait evolution. AIC also identified Brownian motion as the best model of evolution ( $w_{i}=0.66$ ), rather than OU or EB ( $w_{i}=0.17$, each) (Table 3.S7).

Table 3.2 Summary of seed measurements for Plukenetia, Romanoa, and Haematostemon (min-max [mean]). Size categories: (S) small, 25-100 $\mathrm{mm}^{3}$; (M) medium, 100-500 $\mathrm{mm}^{3}$; (L) large, $500-3,000 \mathrm{~mm}^{3}$; (XL) extra-large, $3,000-13,000 \mathrm{~mm}^{3}$; (Max) maximum, 26,000-38,000 $\mathrm{mm}^{3} . \dagger=$ measurements based solely on the species description; $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}=$ seeds not known.

| Taxon | No. <br> seeds | Length <br> $(\mathrm{mm})$ | Width <br> $(\mathrm{mm})$ | Thickness <br> $(\mathrm{mm})$ | Estimated <br> volume $\left(\mathrm{mm}^{3}\right)$ | Size <br> category |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| Haematostemon guianensis | 1 | 4 | 4 | 4.5 | 38 | S |
| Sandw. |  |  |  |  |  |  |



Figure 3.4 Ancestral state estimation of $\log _{10}$ (estimated seed size volume) on the modified Plukenetia BEAST chronogram using the ContMap function of PHYTOOLS.

Maximum likelihood continuous-character ancestral state estimation (Fig. 3.4) revealed the ancestor of Plukenetiinae most likely had M seeds, with S seeds becoming established in Haematostemon and Romanoa. The ancestor of Plukenetia likely had L seeds, followed by a transition to M seeds in the ancestor of the pinnately-veined clade ( $\mathrm{P} 1+\mathrm{P} 2$ ) while retaining L seeds in the ancestor of the palmately-veined clade (P3-P5). Within the pinnately-veined clade ( $\mathrm{P} 1+\mathrm{P} 2$ ), L seeds became fixed in $P$. serrata ( P 1 ) and S seeds in the ancestor of the remaining species of NWSG2 (P2). Section Plukenetia (P3) is characterized by four independent increases (XL: P. carabiasiae, P. huayllabambana, P. lehmanniana; Max: P. polyadenia) and one
decrease (M: P. stipellata) from L seeded ancestors. The ancestor of the Old World Plukenetia lineage (P4 + P5) most likely had L seeds, with an inferred increase to XL in P. conophora (P4) and successive reductions to M and $\mathrm{S}-\mathrm{M}$ seeds in $P$. corniculata and $P$. africana, respectively (P5). Traitgram analysis recovered similar results as ML ancestral state estimation and shows repeated divergences to larger and smaller seeds through time (Fig. 3.5).


Figure 3.5 Traitgram of $\log _{10}$ (estimated seed volume) mapped on the modified Plukenetia BEAST chronogram using the phenogram function of PHYTOOLS. The colored scale on the left depicts seed size categories based on clustering analysis. On the right, representative seeds are shown in face and side view (see Fig. 3.1 for accession information).

## Correlates with seed size evolution

Phylogenetic regression under the threshold model indicate that seed size had moderate to strong positive relationships with plant size ( $r=0.72$ ), fruit type/dispersal mechanism ( $r=0.66$ ), and seedling ecology ( $r=0.57$ ), a weak negative association with fire tolerance ( $r=-0.36$ ), and negligible association with biome type $(r=-0.08)$ (Table 3.3). Plots of the posterior distribution for each coefficient $(r)$ are available in Fig. 3.S8.

Table 3.3 Results of phylogenetic regression analysis using the threshold model.

| Model | Coefficient $(r)$ mean | Coefficient $(r) 95 \%$ HPD |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Seed size $\sim$ Plant size | 0.72 | 0.39 to 0.95 |
| Seed size $\sim$ Fruit type/dispersal mechanism | 0.66 | 0.24 to 0.95 |
| Seed size $\sim$ Seedling ecology | 0.57 | 0.09 to 0.96 |
| Seed size $\sim$ Biome | -0.08 | -0.65 to 0.51 |
| Seed size $\sim$ Fire tolerance | -0.36 | -0.87 to 0.31 |

## Discussion

## Low-copy nuclear gene identification

Our approach for identifying low-copy nuclear genes was effective but only moderately successful for our purposes. We recovered six promising low-copy genes, but the limited number of genomes/transcriptomes made it difficult to assess for lineage-specific paralogy until after sequencing. PCR amplification was challenging for low-copy nuclear genes compared to multiple-copy plastid and nuclear ribosomal DNA markers, particularly for low-yield DNA extractions common in tropical herbarium specimens, which was the vast majority of our sampling ( $81 / 86$ accessions). Future applications of a top-down bioinformatics approach to marker development like the LITE BLUE DEVIL pipeline should consider the potential limitations of DNA quality and if there are sufficient genome/transcriptome resources.

Our successful candidate was $K E A 1$, a potassium $(\mathrm{K}+)$ efflux antiporter gene with putative function in maintaining $\mathrm{K}+$ homeostasis and lowering osmotic potential (Zheng et al., 2013). It belongs to the cation/proton antiporter 2 (CPA2) supergene family, which includes the diverse cation- $\mathrm{H}+$ exchanger (CHX) gene family (Brett et al., 2005). The KEA gene family is highly conserved across green plants and is divided into three subtypes each comprising a variable number of genes (Chanroj et al., 2012). Although unverified, KEA1 is likely the only gene in the KEA-Ia subtype for Ricinus communis, Plukenetia, and by extension a majority of
subfamily Acalyphoideae. At the species level, KEA1 exons are highly conserved, therefore we designed primers for two introns that had higher nucleotide variation.

Outside of our genome/transcriptome data-mining pathway, we included the single-copy nuclear gene $T E B$ for phylogenetic analysis. TEB encodes for the helicase and polymerasecontaining protein TEBICHI, which is a putative plant homolog of mammalian DNA polymerase $\theta$ and has broad function in plant DNA repair and cell differentiation (Inagaki et al., 2006). Little is known about the diversity and function of this gene in plants outside of Arabidopsis. Here we designed primers for a large and moderately variable exon, which is located outside of the functional helicase and polymerase domains of the gene.

## Phylogenetic relationships and systematic implications

Our results agree with the only other study examining the phylogenetic relationships of Plukenetia (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016) but provide a more detailed and strongly supported hypothesis for species relationships in the genus. Here, Plukenetia is resolved into two main clades, the pinnately-veined clade (P1 + P2) comprising NWSG2, and the palmately-veined clade (P3-P5) containing sect. Plukenetia (P3) + the Old World Plukenetia lineage (P4 + P5).

The pinnately- (P1 + P2) and palmately-veined (P3-P5) clades overlap in androecium and gynoecium characters, but are differentiated by pollen tectum and leaf morphology. The pinnately-veined clade $(\mathrm{P} 1+\mathrm{P} 2)$ is equivalent to NWSG2, which was defined by Gillespie (Gillespie, 1993) to include species with "entirely connate styles, all or mostly sessile anthers, pollen with reticulate tectum, small dry capsules (except $P$. serrata), and elliptic pinnatelyveined leaves (except $P$. verrucosa)". Of those characters, pollen with reticulate tectum and elliptic pinnately-veined leaves are diagnostic features. The palmately-veined clade (P3-P5) contains the remaining four sections/species groups, sect. Plukenetia, sect. Angostylidium, sect. Hedraiostylus, and the Madagascan species group, of which the latter three compose the Old World lineage. Although species of the palmately-veined clade are morphologically diverse, especially in floral variation of the Old World lineage (Gillespie, 2007), they are united by foveolate pollen tectum and cordiform, ovate, or broadly elliptic leaves with palmate or triplinerved venation (Gillespie, 1993, 2007). Sect. Plukenetia has larger pollen grains (50.5-56 x $56.5-64.5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ) than the Old World lineage ( $30.5-39 \times 36.5-45.5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ), although similar pollen size variation is found in the pinnately-veined clade (Gillespie, 1994b).

Within the pinnately-veined clade (P1 + P2) we recovered novel support that Plukenetia serrata (P1) is sister to the remaining species of NWSG2 (P2). Cardinal-McTeague and Gillespie (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016), using ITS and $\operatorname{psbA}$-trnH with insertion/deletion gapcoded data, recovered subclades P1 and P2 in a functional polytomy with the palmately-veined clade (P3-P5), causing doubt over the monophyly of NWSG2. This study strongly supports the monophyly of a pinnately-veined clade (P1 + P2) and validates Gillespie's (Gillespie, 1993) original hypothesis that reticulate pollen exine and pinnate leaf venation are synapomorphies for the lineage. Gillespie (Gillespie, 1993) also hypothesized that $P$. verrucosa was sister to the remainder of NWSG2 since it has plesiomorphic triplinerved leaves. However, here we recover $P$. verrucosa nested inside the pinnately-veined clade suggesting that its leaf morphology is a reversal to a more palmate-like condition.

Within the palmately-veined clade (P3-P5), we provide new evidence for a stronglysupported, monophyletic Old World lineage and backbone topology, where sect. Angostylidium (P4) is sister to sect. Hedraiostylus + the Madagascar species group (P5). In Cardinal-McTeague and Gillespie (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016), the monophyly of the Old World lineage was not well-supported $(\mathrm{PP}=0.87)$, which presented the possibility that sects. Plukenetia (P3) and Angostylidium (P4) could form a clade based on their similar leaf, floral, and fruit morphology (Gillespie, 2007). Alternatively, our results suggest that the shared morphology of sects. Plukenetia (P3) and Angostylidium (P4) is plesiomorphic for the palmately-veined clade (P3-P5) and that the morphology of sect. Hedraiostylus and the Madagascar species (P5) is derived.

## Putative hybridization events in Plukenetia

An unexpected result of our study was evidence for two putative hybridization events between closely related species of Plukenetia. The first is a proposed ancient or recent hybridization event that resulted in the introgression of a $P$. volubilis plastid genome into both accessions of $P$. huayllabambana (Téllez et al. 4, Quipuscoa 381). Plukenetia huayllabambana is part of a high elevation species complex related to $P$. volubilis, which also comprises $P$. carolis-vegae and $P$. cf. carolis-vegae. Plukenetia huayllabambana and P. carolis-vegae were recently described from the Amazonas region of northern Peru and are noted for the economic significance of their

Table 3.4 Diagnostic characters of the high elevation species complex (Plukenetia carolis-vegae, P. cf. carolisvegae, $P$. huayllabambana) and $P$. volubilis. Most characters were updated from species descriptions; $\dagger=$ unverified and potentially inaccurate.

| Character | P. carolis-vegae Bussmann, Paniagua \& C.Téllez | P. cf. carolis-vegae | P. huayllabambana Bussmann, C.Téllez \& A.Glenn [putative cf. carolis-vegae $\times$ volubilis] | P. volubilis L. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sampled in phylogeny | No | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| Geographic range in Peru | Amazonas | Cusco, Junin, Pasco | Amazonas, Cajamarca | Amazonas, Cusco, Junin, Loreto, Madre de Dios, Pasco, San Martin |
| Elevation | 1,850 m | 1,450-2,250 m | 1,200-2,150 | 130-900( $-1,800$ ) m |
| Leaf stipels | 1-2 thick stipels | 1-2 thick stipels | 1-2 thick stipels | 1 knob (thick stipel) |
| Staminate sepals | 4 (rarely 5) † | $\begin{aligned} & 5(\text { sometimes } 4+1 \\ & \text { very thin, rarely } 4) \end{aligned}$ | 4 | 4 |
| Staminate nectaries | Absent $\dagger$ | Large irregularly shaped segments intermixed between stamens | Large irregularly shaped segments intermixed between stamens | Absent |
| Filament length | $0.5-1 \mathrm{~mm} \dagger$ | $1-1.5(2) \mathrm{mm}$ | $0.1-0.5(1) \mathrm{mm}$ | $\sim 0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ |
| Style length | $4-7 \mathrm{~mm} \dagger$ | $5-12 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $6-7.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ | (9-) $15-35 \mathrm{~mm}$ |
| Seed size measurements (length x width x thickness) | $27 \times 25 \times 20 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 19-20 \times 17-18.6 \times \\ & 13-15.8 \mathrm{~mm} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 25-28 \times 22-27 \mathrm{x} \\ & 17-20 \mathrm{~mm} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 13-22 \times 11.8-18 \times \\ & 5-9 \mathrm{~mm} \end{aligned}$ |
| Seed size category | XL | L | XL | (M) L |

cultivated oil-rich XL seeds (Bussmann et al., 2009, 2013). In contrast, Plukenetia cf. carolisvegae appears to comprise non-cultivated populations with $L$ seeds that are widespread in the Cusco, Junín, and Pasco regions of central and southern Peru. Members of the high elevation species complex share similar morphology but their distinguishing characters are breaking down as more collections become available (Table 3.4). Our data suggests that $P$. huayllabambana is a hybrid between $P$. cf. carolis-vegae and $P$. volubilis on the basis of plastome introgression (Fig. 3.S3) and intermediate staminate floral morphology (Table 3.4). A paratype of $P$. huayllabambana (Téllez et al. 4, sampled here) possesses the introgressed plastome, which implies that the similar looking holotype was also based on hybrid material. Moving forward, we need to examine more material of the high elevation species complex from northern Peru, clarify if $P$. carolis-vegae is a naturally occurring or (semi-)domesticated species, and determine if it is distinct from the central/southern population of $P$. cf. carolis-vegae.

The second event is less clear but we infer there may have been hybridization and/or incomplete lineage sorting within subclade P2 (Fig. 3.S3). There are multiple weakly supported incongruences between the plastid and nuclear relationships of subclade P 2 , as well as a strongly supported incongruence in the placement of accession Solomon 7972. This specimen is morphologically attributed to Plukenetia loretensis (WCM, LJG, personal observations) but does not resolve with that species in either plastid or nuclear analyses. Solomon 7972 is strongly supported as belonging to the $P$. brachybotrya clade in nDNA analyses, and is unresolved but strongly-supported outside of the $P$. brachybotrya clade by cpDNA. Chromosome number is variable within individuals of $P$. volubilis (Cai et al., 2013), and high and variable ploidy levels are suspected in other Plukenetieae genera (Dalechampia and Tragia) (Miller \& Webster, 1967; Vanzela et al., 1997). Together this suggests that hybridization and possible allopolyploidization could be additional contributing factors to the incongruent relationships and evolutionary forces within Plukenetia.

## Neotropical biogeography and the origin of Plukenetia

The biogeographical history presented here is the first detailed analysis for Plukenetia and Plukenetiinae. Using secondary node calibrations based on subfamily age estimates (Cervantes et al., 2016), we find that Plukenetiinae and its genera diverged in the Oligocene ( 33.9 to 23.0 Mya) during the transitional period between the warm humid Eocene and the cooler drier Miocene (Zachos et al., 2001). By the Oligocene, the continents had already diverged and were well-separated by oceans and seas (McLoughlin, 2001), precluding a Gondwanan vicariance explanation for the pantropical distribution of Plukenetia. BIoGEOBEARS analyses indicate the ancestor of Plukenetiinae occupied a broad distribution comprising the Amazon and Atlantic Forest regions (Fig. 3.3) at a time when they likely formed a large continuous forest in the process of being divided by the open vegetation diagonal (now composed of the Chaco, Cerrado, and Caatinga biomes (Werneck, 2011)). The open vegetation diagonal is an important feature of South American biogeography that acts as a barrier for moist forest plants and animals that cannot adapt and enter the drier biome conditions. The precise timing of the open vegetation diagonal's formation is ambiguous but divergence dates between Amazon and Atlantic forest clades of suboscine birds (Batalha-Filho et al., 2013), shield frogs (Fouquet et al., 2012), and spectacled lizards (Pellegrino et al., 2011) suggest the barrier was present by the Oligocene and

Early Miocene. Yet, some plant lineages did not diversify in these open vegetation biomes until the Late Miocene and Pliocene, as is suggested by a Late Miocene radiation of orchids in the Campos Rupestres (rocky savannas) (Antonelli et al., 2010) and a Pliocene radiation of several fire-adapted genera (including Mimosa) in the Cerrado (Simon et al., 2009). Our data agree with an Oligocene origin for the open vegetation diagonal barrier (Fig. 3.3), which suggests there was a putative transitional stage between when the open vegetation diagonal barrier formed (Oligocene to Middle Miocene) and when modern Chaco, Cerrado, and Caatinga communities developed (Late Miocene to Pliocene).

Plukenetia and its sister genus, Romanoa, are suggested to have diverged in the Atlantic Forest, presumably after it was isolated from the Amazon (Fig. 3.3). Romanoa is estimated to have remained in the Atlantic Forest, while the common ancestor of Plukenetia either remained in the Atlantic Forest or migrated into the Amazon. Either scenario would invoke two dispersals or migrations between the Amazon and Atlantic Forests, which suggests that there were periodic connections across the open vegetation biogeographical barrier that allowed for biotic exchange. The marine ingression by the Paranaense Sea into northern Argentina, Paraguay, and southern Brazil (Hernández et al., 2005) may have facilitated a forest connection along its coast during the Middle and Late Miocene (originally proposed by Costa 2003). The timing of Paranaense Sea coincides with the ancestor of subclade P2 migrating from the Atlantic Forest into the Amazon (Fig. 3.3). Older migrations during the Oligocene and Early Miocene do not have geological explanations and must invoke short distance dispersals or migrations across a putative mosaic of wet forest fragments. Similar explanations exist for Pliocene and Pleistocene crossings (Costa, 2003; Batalha-Filho et al., 2013). Further examination of plant groups that exhibit an AmazonAtlantic Forest disjunction (Martini et al., 2007) could shed additional light onto the formation of the open vegetation diagonal and the timing of past biotic exchanges. We could also investigate when neighbouring wet forest plants shifted into the seasonally dry biome of the open vegetation diagonal and converge on a general pattern of its history and formation.

Following entry into the Amazon, a common biogeographical pattern of New World Plukenetia lineages was their repeated dispersal across the Andes mountain barrier and beyond into Central America and Mexico. The first transition occurred in subclade P3 (after the divergence of $P$. polyadenia) during the Middle Miocene (Fig. 3.3). At this time the Isthmus of Panama was not fully formed (Hoorn et al., 2010), implying a short-distance dispersal between

South and Central America. The second occurred in subclade P2 in the ancestor of $P$. penninervia during the Late Miocene. These patterns agree with previous indications that many plant lineages dispersed between Central and South America prior to the formation of the Isthmus of Panama (Erkens et al., 2007; Cody et al., 2010; Bacon et al., 2015).

A dispersal event across the Andes and back into the Amazon is revealed in the ancestor of Plukenetia cf. carolis-vegae and P. volubilis during the Pliocene (Fig. 3.3). The timing of reentry into the Amazon coincides with the highest uplift of the Andes and a period of rapid plant diversification along elevational gradients (Hoorn et al., 2010). Plukenetia did not rapidly diversify in response to the uplift of the Andes, but adaptation to either low-to-medium (100-800 $\mathrm{m} ; ~ P$. volubilis) or high (1500-2500 m; P. cf. carolis-vegae) elevation environments likely contributed to the speciation of those taxa. A second dispersal across the Andes, from the Amazon into northwestern South America, is inferred in $P$. cf. penninervia during the Pliocene (Fig. 3.3). Together, our data supports increasing evidence that tropical plants dispersed across the Andes mountains after achieving their maximum elevation in the Pliocene (Pérez-Escobar et al., 2017b).

## Trans-oceanic dispersals explain the pantropical distribution of Plukenetia

The pantropical distribution of Plukenetia is best explained by multiple trans-oceanic dispersal events throughout the Miocene and Pliocene (Fig. 3.3). The ancestor of the Old World lineage likely underwent a trans-Atlantic Ocean crossing from the Amazon to tropical Africa during the Early Miocene. Current hypotheses suggest recent South American and African disjunctions are the result long-distance dispersal by trade winds or tangled plant mats crossing the Atlantic Ocean on equatorial currents (Renner, 2004a). Plukenetia most likely dispersed by water along the north equatorial countercurrent, and joins the growing list of taxa that dispersed in the lessfrequently inferred direction from South America to Africa during the Miocene, e.g., Pitcairnia (Bromeliaceae) (Givnish et al., 2004, 2011), Melastomeae (Melastomataceae) (Renner \& Meyer, 2001; Renner et al., 2001; Berger et al., 2016), Vanilla (Orchidaceae) (Givnish et al., 2016), Maschalocephalus (Rapateaceae) (Givnish et al., 2004), and Erismadelphus (Vosychiaceae) (Sytsma et al., 2004; Berger et al., 2016).

We infer two further dispersal events from Africa into Madagascar and Southeast Asia within Plukenetia subclade P5 (Fig. 3.3). The Madagascar species group diverged in the Late

Miocene and likely experienced a short-distance dispersal event across the Mozambique channel from Africa, at a time when once widespread mainland rainforests were transitioning to woodlands and savanna (Jacobs, 2004). Increasing molecular evidence suggests plant diversity in Madagascar has been influenced by multiple arrivals from Africa during and since the Miocene, e.g., Uvaria (Annonaceae) (Zhou et al., 2012), Boscia, Cadaba, Thilachium (Capparaceae) (Cardinal-McTeague et al., 2016), Cyatheaceae (Korall \& Pryer, 2014), Hibisceae (Malvaceae) (Koopman \& Baum, 2008), Rubiaceae (Wikström et al., 2010), and Rinorea (Violaceae) (van Velzen et al., 2015).

The ancestor of Plukenetia corniculata most likely underwent a trans-Indian Ocean longdistance dispersal from Africa into Southeast Asia in the Pliocene (Fig. 3.3). Africa-to-Asia longdistance dispersals are still poorly understood but are indicated for several taxa starting from the Oligocene, including Begonia (Begoniaceae) (de Wilde et al., 2011), Exacum (Gentianaceae) (Yuan et al., 2005), Osbeckia (Melastomataceae) (Renner, 2004b), Eurycoma (Simaroubaceae) (Clayton et al., 2009), and Cissus (Vitaceae) (Liu et al., 2013). The Pliocene divergence of $P$. corniculata post-dates migration or step-wise dispersal via the Indian subcontinent or Eocene boreotropical forest, which emphasizes the probable role of the Indian Ocean equatorial countercurrent in transporting tangled plant mats from Africa to Southeast Asia (Schott et al., 2009; Zhou et al., 2012).

## Seed size classification and the origin of large seeds

Clustering analysis of seed dimension data provided a more objective and finely parsed seed size classification for Plukenetia (Table 3.2). The prior subjective "small versus large" informal groupings have been replaced with five discrete categories that additional seeds can be measured and compared against. The former "small" category is divided into S and M seeds, while the "large" category now comprises L, XL, and Max seeds.

Our new seed size classification allows us to present a more nuanced interpretation of seed evolution in Plukenetia (Figs. 3.4 and 3.5). We found pronounced seed size differences in both the pinnately-veined ( $\mathrm{P} 1+\mathrm{P} 2$ ) and palmately-veined (P3-P5) clades, with more variation in the latter. Our results suggest that seed size evolution can be dynamic and responsive to ecological selection, although phylogenetically conserved in some cases (e.g., pinnately-veined
subclade P2). The rest of tribe Plukenetieae is fairly uniform in having S to M seeds (data not shown), suggesting usually strict genetic controls of seed size have been relaxed in Plukenetia.

The ancestor of Plukenetia is estimated as having L seeds, suggesting there was a single origin in the genus. Under this scenario, there was likely a reduction to M seeds in the ancestor of the pinnately-veined clade ( $\mathrm{P} 1+\mathrm{P} 2$ ) followed by continued size reduction in NWSG2 (P2) and a return to L seeds in P. serrata (P1) (Fig. 3.4). The molecular mechanisms controlling seed size are not known in Plukenetia but could be studied by comparing seed transcriptomes between divergent sister group pairings.

The ancestor of the palmately-veined clade (P3-P5) most likely had L seeds, which suggests that XL seeds evolved independently up to five times in sects. Plukenetia (P3) and Angostylidium (P4). Max seeds evolved once in the ancestor of P. polyadenia, the earliest diverging lineage of sect. Plukenetia (P3). Plukenetia polyadenia seeds are substantially larger than all other species (Fig. 3.1A) and are suggested to have evolved over a long period of time (since the Middle Miocene) in the Amazon. This species appears especially adapted for low light seedling establishment and uses considerable stored reserves to send out a long leafless leader (LJG, KJW, personal observations). The size, shape, and colour of $P$. polyadenia fruits and seeds are compatible with an extinct South American megafauna dispersal syndrome (Doughty et al., 2016), although its widespread distribution contradicts expected range reduction following the loss of such dispersers.

## Multiple traits correlated with seed size evolution

Our study presents, to our knowledge, one of the first analyses of seed size variation across a small, densely-sampled phylogenetic lineage ( $\sim 23$ species). While trends in seed size evolution have been studied within species (Gómez, 2004; Halpern, 2005; Galetti et al., 2013) and on a macroevolutionary scale (Moles et al., 2005b, 2007; Beaulieu et al., 2007; Eriksson, 2008), evolutionary patterns among groups of species have not been well documented. Studies on entire clades allow us to understand the context in which seed size variation develops, as well as directs future comparative research on seed ecology and genetics.

We found that seed size in Plukenetia is associated with a combination of traits (plant size, fruit type/dispersal mechanism, seedling ecology), which suggests that the evolution of substantial seed size variation relied on multiple selective pressures rather than a single driving
force. By comparison, a study of Hakea (Proteaceae), a diverse group of 150 species of small trees and shrubs that largely occur in fire-prone ecosystems in southwestern Australia, found that seed size was correlated with a different set of traits (fecundity/seed production and postfire regeneration) (El-ahmir et al., 2015). As more clade-based studies emerge we will be able to identify common trends in seed size evolution and how they relate or differ across growth forms and habitats.

## Seed size trends in Plukenetia

Within Plukenetia we observe a strong association between smaller seeds in herbaceous vines and slender lianas up to the largest seeds in thick stemmed canopy lianas (Table 3.5). Our results are consistent with broader trends in seed plants in which plant size and seed mass are strongly correlated, more so than temperature, forest cover, and dispersal mechanism (Moles et al., 2005a). One explanation is that larger plants require more time to reach reproductive maturity, which could drive selection for larger seeds with increased survival rates to reproductive age (Moles \& Westoby, 2004). However, Plukenetia species start reproducing within one or two years regardless of plant size, suggesting that other ecological factors are driving seed and plant size. Furthermore, while smaller plants may produce more seeds early on, larger plants tend to occupy more canopy space and live longer, resulting in largely equivocal total lifetime seed production (Moles et al., 2004). Comparative analysis of plant size, seed mass, lifespan, and total seed production among Plukenetia species with different seed sizes could shed more light on the association between seed and plant size.

Most Plukenetia species inhabit evergreen and seasonally moist forests, where seed size was likely driven by competing selection among plant size, dispersal mechanism, and seedling ecology. Although moist forest species of Plukenetia are widespread, they do not form a dominant component of forest vegetation or fit into early successional communities. Rather, they form a small but common element of primary and secondary forest edges and light gaps associated with treefall disturbances and natural light breaks from rivers and rocky outcrops (Table 3.5). Moist forest Plukenetia seeds have a high probability of being dispersed into shaded areas so there should be a trade-off between producing many smaller seeds that have a higher probability of being dispersed into favourable light gaps, and fewer larger seeds that may not be

Table 3.5 Traits associated with seed size for species of Plukenetia and outgroup genera (arranged by size). $\mathrm{DDF}=$ dry deciduous forest; $\mathrm{ERF}=$ evergreen rain forest; $\mathrm{SMF}=$ seasonal moist forest.

| Species/ species <br> group | Sub- <br> clade | Biome | Habitat | Growth <br> form | Stem <br> size | Fruit <br> type | Seed <br> size <br> category | Seedling <br> ecology |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| P. polyadenia | P3 | ERF | Lowland forest; <br> riparian forest | Canopy <br> liana | Thick | Fleshy | Max | Shade |
| P. conophora | P4 | ERF, <br> SMF | Lowland forest | Canopy <br> liana | Thick | Fleshy | XL | Shade |


|  |  |  | light gaps; stony soil caatinga |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NWSG2 pro parte (excluding $P$. serrata, $P$. cf. penninervia, $P$. supraglandulosa) | P2 | ERF, SMF, (DDF) | Lowland to premontane (montane) forest edges, rocky outcrops, light gaps; white sand forest | Vine to slender liana | Thin | Dry | S | Light gap |
| Haematostemon | n/a | ERF | Lowland forest; riparian forest | Small tree/ shrub | Thin | Dry | S | Light gap |

dispersed far but produce more resilient seedlings that can tolerate or avoid low light conditions (Coomes \& Grubb, 2003). The largest Plukenetia seeds are associated with canopy liana species (i.e., $P$. conophora, $P$. polyadenia), which have the added challenge of fueling seedling growth upwards to reach as much light as possible in the understory. It seems likely that movement into different niche spaces (i.e., light gap versus canopy) is the driving force of seed size extremes in Plukenetia, and that variation therein is a result of a balance between those competing selective pressures.

Biome shifts were not correlated with seed size changes, except in the transition to semiarid savannas in Plukenetia africana. In this case, increasing aridification, forest fragmentation, seasonality, and fire regimes (Jacobs, 2004) are thought to have selected for smaller plants with perennial woody rootstocks and short-lived seasonal stems (Gillespie, 2007). This smaller seasonal growth form is better adapted to survive prolonged dry seasons and facilitates resprouting after fires (Clarke et al., 2013). We recovered a weak negative association between fire tolerance and seed size, but with a sample size of one it is difficult to draw a strong conclusion. Furthermore, while there is typically a positive association between increased seed size and embryo survival in fire-prone systems (Lahoreau et al., 2006; Tavşanoğlu \& Serter Çatav, 2012; Ribeiro et al., 2015), seed size can be constrained by conflicting selective pressure from seed predation (Gómez, 2004; Tavşanoğlu \& Serter Çatav, 2012) or by a close association with plant size as is suggested by our data. We note that traits other than seed size can compensate for survival in fire-prone systems, such as seed pubescence, shape, and pericarp thickness (Gómez-González et al., 2011), although these do not appear of relevance in $P$. africana.

Dispersal syndromes in Plukenetia are not yet well-documented but can be predicted based on fruit colour, dehiscence, and seed size and content. Species with S and M seeds usually
have dry brown capsules that explosively dehisce and release their seeds to the ground below within a few meters of the parent. This fruit type is typical for Euphorbiaceae in general and is likely plesiomorphic in the genus. Assuming that all Plukenetia species have seeds with high fatty acid content, we hypothesize that S and M seeds would be secondarily dispersed by scatter hoarding rodents that preferentially search for valuable high energy seeds (Jansen et al., 2002; Wang \& Yang, 2014). Scatter hoarding is a reliable short distance dispersal mechanism in neotropical forests (Forget, 1990), which could favour smaller seeds since larger seeds are more likely to be preyed upon (Gómez, 2004). Plukenetia species with XL and Max seeds often have green or brown, thinly fleshed, indehiscent berries. These large, high energy fruits could be part of the diverse diet of larger mammals such as primates (Poulsen et al., 2002; Chapman \& Russo, 2006). If dispersed by large mammals, we suspect that a majority of XL and Max seeds would be heavily preyed upon and inefficiently dispersed, although occasionally they could be transported further distances than possible by scatter hoarding rodents. Some L and XL seeds are intermediate and have semi-indehiscent, somewhat fleshy capsules that dry slowly and eventually dehisce to disperse their seeds. In this case, they are possibly dispersed by a combination of scatter hoarding and larger mammal syndromes.

## Conclusions

Here, we identified two novel low-copy nuclear genes for phylogenetic analysis (KEA1 and $T E B$ ), resolved the backbone and a majority of the species relationships in Plukenetia, and produced a robust chronogram for time-dependent evolutionary analysis of the genus. We found support for the monophyly of two major clades, the pinnately-veined clade ( $\mathrm{P} 1+\mathrm{P} 2$ ) composed of NWSG2, and the palmately-veined clade (P3-P5) composed of sects. Plukenetia (P3), Angostylidium (P4), and Hedraiostylus + the Madagascar species group (P5). Molecular dating and biogeographical analyses suggest that Plukenetia originated in either the Amazon or Atlantic Forest of Brazil during the Oligocene. The early biogeographical history of Plukenetia is equivocal between these two areas, but suggests a general trend of migration across the open vegetation diagonal during the Oligocene and Early to Mid Miocene. Ancestors in the Amazon underwent at least two independent dispersals into Central America and Mexico prior to the formation of the Isthmus of Panama in the Mid and Late Miocene. The ancestor of $P$. volubilis and $P$. cf. carolis-vegae was the only lineage to return to the Amazon from Central and NW

South America, by an inferred dispersal over the Andes during the Pliocene. The pantropical distribution of Plukenetia is best explained by trans-oceanic long-distance dispersals, first to Africa in the Early Miocene and then independently to Madagascar and Southeast Asia, during the Late Miocene and Pliocene. We estimate that there was a single origin of $L$ seeds in the ancestor of Plukenetia. Within Plukenetia, seed size evolution is dynamic and correlated with plant size, fruit type (including inferred dispersal mechanism), and seedling ecology. Biome shifts were not associated with seed size, however, the transition to a seasonal, fire-regimented savanna recovered a weak association with seed size reduction. Quantitative seed ecology studies are needed to elaborate on the trends we identified in Plukenetia, and would serve as groundbreaking clade-based investigations into the drivers of seed size variation.

## Supplemental data (available at end of dissertation)

Supplemental data 3.1: Python script for Lite Blue Devil v0.3.
Supplemental data 3.2: Setting file for Lite Blue Devil v0.3.
Supplemental data 3.3: Seed size measurements for Plukenetia and Plukenetiinae outgroups.

Table 3.S1 Accession table for vouchers used in phylogenetic analyses (bolded text indicates new GenBank accessions; ${ }^{a}=$ silica dried specimens).

| No. | Species | Voucher | Country | ITS | ETS | $\begin{gathered} \text { KEA1 } \\ \text { intron } 11 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { KEA1 } \\ \text { intron } 17 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { TEB } \\ \text { exon } 17 \end{gathered}$ | matK | $n d h F$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Haematostemon guianensis Sandwith | Wurdack 4350 (US) ${ }^{a}$ | Guyana | KP794434 | MF502427 | - | - | MF502846 | MF502706 | MF502776 |
| 2 | Plukenetia africana Sond. | Bartsch 1859 (US) | Namibia | MF502513 | MF502431 | MF502579 | MF502651 | MF502848 | MF502710 | MF502780 |
| 3 | P. africana | Guy 2367 (MO) | Botswana | MF502514 | - | - | - | - | - | MF502781 |
| 4 | P. africana | Palomoti 1086 (MO) | Botswana | MF502515 | MF502432 | - | - | - | MF502711 | MF502782 |
| 5 | P. africana | Pope et al. 834 (MO) | Botswana | MF502516 | MF502433 | MF502580 | - | - | MF502712 | MF502783 |
| 6 | P. ankaranensis <br> L.J.Gillespie | Gillespie et al. 10697 (CAN) | Madagascar | KP794438 | MF502434 | MF502581 | MF502652 | MF502849 | MF502713 | MF502784 |
| 7 | $P$. ankaranensis | Lees s.n. (CAN) | Madagascar | KP794437 | MF502435 | - | MF502653 | MF502850 | MF502714 | MF502785 |
| 8 | P. brachybotrya Müll.Arg. | Acevedo-Rodriguez 14416 (NY) | Peru | MF502517 | MF502436 | MF502582 | MF502654 | MF502851 | MF502715 | MF502786 |
| 9 | P. brachybotrya | Araujo-M. et al. 1722 (MO) | Bolivia | KP794452 | MF502437 | MF502583 | MF502655 | MF502852 | MF502716 | MF502787 |
| 10 | P. brachybotrya | Fuentes \& Torrico 5398 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502518 | MF502438 | MF502584 | - | - | MF502717 | MF502788 |
| 11 | P. brachybotrya | Galiano et al. 6612 (MO) | Peru | MF502519 | MF502439 | - | - | - | MF502718 | MF502789 |
| 12 | P. brachybotrya | Seidel \& Vaquiata 7733 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502520 | MF502440 | MF502585 | MF502656 | MF502853 | MF502719 | MF502790 |
| 13 | P. aff. brachybotrya | Ledezma et al. 921 (CAN) | Bolivia | MF502511 | MF502428 | MF502576 | MF502649 | - | MF502707 | MF502777 |
| 14 | P. aff. brachybotrya | Sperling et al. 5873 (MO) | Brazil | MF502512 | MF502429 | MF502577 | MF502650 | MF502847 | MF502708 | MF502778 |
| 15 | P. aff. brachybotrya | Sperling et al. 6161 (CAN) | Brazil | - | MF502430 | MF502578 | - | - | MF502709 | MF502779 |
| 16 | P. carabiasiae J.Jiménez Ram. | Meave et al. 1550 (MO) | Mexico | MF502521 | MF502441 | MF502586 | - | - | MF502720 | - |
| 17 | P. cf. carolis-vegae | Calatayud et al. 2643 (CAN) | Peru | MF502527 | MF502448 | MF502592 | - | - | - | - |
| 18 | P. cf. carolis-vegae | Huamantupa et al. 6445 (CAN) | Peru | MF502528 | MF502449 | MF502593 | MF502660 | - | MF502724 | - |
| 19 | P. cf. carolis-vegae | Monteagudo et al. 14125 (MO) | Peru | MF502529 | MF502450 | MF502594 | MF502661 | - | MF502725 | MF502793 |
| 20 | P. cf. carolis-vegae | Monteagudo et al. 15252 (MO) | Peru | MF502530 | MF502451 | - | - | - | MF502726 | MF502794 |
| 21 | P. cf. carolis-vegae | Rojas et al. 3863 (CAN) | Peru | MF502532 | MF502453 | MF502595 | - | - | - | - |


| 22 | P. cf. carolis-vegae | Valenzuela et al. 5197 (CAN) | Peru | MF502534 | MF502455 | MF502597 | MF502663 | - | - | - |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 23 | P. cf. carolis-vegae | van der Werff et al. 17532 (CAN) | Peru | MF502535 | MF502456 | MF502598 | MF502664 | MF502856 | MF502729 | MF502797 |
| 24 | P. cf. carolis-vegae | Vasquez et al. 33145 (MO) | Peru | MF502536 | MF502457 | MF502599 | MF502665 | MF502857 | MF502730 | MF502798 |
| 25 | P. cf. carolis-vegae | Woytkowski 6670 (MO) | Peru | MF502537 | MF502458 | MF502600 | MF502666 | MF502858 | MF502731 | MF502799 |
| 26 | P. conophora Müll.Arg. | Hart 1621 (MO) | Democratic Republic of the Congo | MF502523 | MF502443 | MF502588 | - | - | - | - |
| 27 | P. conophora | Nemba \& Thomas 434 (MO) | Cameroon | KP794457 | MF502444 | MF502589 | MF502657 | - | MF502722 | MF502792 |
| 28 | $P$. corniculata Sm. | Huq \& Haroon 10780 (GH) | Bangladesh | MF502524 | MF502445 | MF502590 | MF502658 | MF502854 | - | - |
| 29 | P. corniculata | Huq \& Haroon 10780 (MO) | Bangladesh | MF502525 | MF502446 | MF502591 | MF502659 | MF502855 | MF502723 | - |
| 30 | P. decidua <br> L.J.Gillespie | Rakotomalaza 597 (CAN) | Madagascar | MF502526 | MF502447 | - | - | - | - | - |
| 31 | P. huayllabambana Bussmann, C.Tellez \& A.Glenn | Quipuscoa 381 (MO) | Peru | MF502531 | MF502452 | - | - | - | MF502727 | MF502795 |
| 32 | P. huayllabambana | Tellez et al. 4 (MO) | Peru | MF502533 | MF502454 | MF502596 | MF502662 | - | MF502728 | MF502796 |
| 33 | P. lehmanniana ( Pax \& K.Hoffm.) Huft \& L.J.Gillespie | Acevedo-Rodriguez \& Daly 1658 (MO) | Ecuador | KP494443 | MF502459 | MF502601 | MF502667 | MF502859 | MF502732 | MF502800 |
| 34 | P. lehmanniana | Clark 3953 (MO) | Ecuador | MF502538 | MF502460 | MF502602 | MF502668 | MF502860 | MF502733 | MF502801 |
| 35 | P. lehmanniana | Silverstone-Sopkin \& Giralda-Gesini 8019 (MO) | Colombia | MF502539 | MF502461 | MF502603 | - | MF502861 | MF502734 | MF502802 |
| 36 | P. lehmanniana | Zak \& Jaramillo 3401 (MO) | Ecuador | MF502540 | MF502462 | MF502604 | MF502669 | MF502862 | MF502735 | MF502803 |
| 37 | P. loretensis Ule | Grandez 19608 (AMAZ) ${ }^{a}$ | Peru | KP794453 | MF502463 | MF502605 | MF502670 | MF502863 | MF502736 | MF502804 |
| 38 | P. loretensis | McDaniel \& Rimachi 22451 (MO) | Peru | MF502541 | MF502464 | MF502606 | - | - | MF502737 | MF502805 |
| 39 | P. loretensis | Rimachi 5122 (MO) | Peru | MF502542 | MF502465 | MF502607 | - | - | MF502738 | MF502806 |
| 40 | P. loretensis | Solomon 7972 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502543 | MF502466 | MF502608 | - | MF502864 | MF502739 | MF502807 |
| 41 | P. loretensis | Vásquez \& Jaramillo 3283 (MO) | Peru | MF502544 | MF502467 | MF502609 | - | - | - | - |
| 42 | P. loretensis | Vasquez et al. 38069 (MO) | Peru | MF502545 | MF502468 | MF502610 | MF502671 | MF502865 | MF502740 | MF502808 |


| 43 | P. madagascarensis Leandri | Andrianjafy 1648 (CAN) | Madagascar | MF502546 | MF502469 | MF502611 | MF502672 | - | MF502741 | - |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 44 | P. madagascarensis | Gillespie 4175 (CAN) | Madagascar | MF502547 | MF502470 | MF502612 | MF502673 | MF502866 | MF502742 | MF502809 |
| 45 | P. madagascarensis | Villiers et al. 4899 (MO) | Madagascar | MF502548 | MF502471 | MF502613 | MF502674 | MF502867 | MF502743 | MF502810 |
| 46 | P. penninervia Müll.Arg. | Atha et al. 1001 (MO) | Belize | KP794455 | MF502472 | MF502614 | MF502675 | MF502868 | MF502744 | MF502811 |
| 47 | $P$ penninervia | Carnevali \& Duno 7594 (MO) | Mexico | MF502549 | MF502473 | MF502615 | MF502676 | MF502869 | MF502745 | MF502812 |
| 48 | P. penninervia | Martínez 10527 (MO) | Mexico | KP794456 | MF502474 | MF502616 | MF502677 | MF502870 | MF502746 | MF502813 |
| 49 | P. penninervia | Martinez 17705 (DAV) | Mexico | MF502550 | MF502475 | MF502617 | MF502678 | MF502871 | MF502747 | MF502814 |
| 50 | P. penninervia | McPherson 8461 (MO) | Panama | KP794454 | MF502476 | MF502618 | MF502679 | MF502872 | MF502748 | MF502815 |
| 51 | P. penninervia | Wallnöfer \& Frisch 5996 (MO) | Guatemala | MF502551 | MF502477 | MF502619 | - | MF502873 | MF502749 | MF502816 |
| 52 | P. cf. penninervia | Gentry 47799 (MO) | Colombia | MF502522 | MF502442 | MF502587 | - | - | MF502721 | MF502791 |
| 53 | P. polyadenia Müll.Arg. | Croat 20285 (MO) | Peru | MF502552 | - | - | - | - | MF502750 | MF502817 |
| 54 | P. polyadenia | Gillespie 4314 (CAN) | Smithsonian Greenhouse ex French Guiana | MF502553 | MF502478 | MF502620 | MF502680 | MF502874 | MF502751 | MF502818 |
| 55 | P. polyadenia | Wurdack 5288 (US) | Guyana | MF502554 | MF502479 | MF502621 | MF502681 | MF502875 | MF502752 | MF502819 |
| 56 | P. serrata (Vell.) <br> L.J.Gillespie | Davidse 10480 (MO) | Brazil | MF502555 | MF502480 | - | - | - | MF502753 | MF502820 |
| 57 | P. serrata | Forzza et al. 5328 (RB) | Brazil | MF502556 | MF502481 | MF502622 | MF502682 | - | MF502754 | MF502821 |
| 58 | P. serrata | Goldenberg et al. 1424 (RB) | Brazil | MF502557 | MF502482 | MF502623 | MF502683 | - | MF502755 | MF502822 |
| 59 | P. serrata | Peixoto et al. 4154 (MO) | Brazil | KP794458 | MF502483 | MF502624 | - | - | MF502756 | MF502823 |
| 60 | P. serrata | Sartori \& Pardo 11 (RB) | Brazil | MF502558 | MF502484 | MF502625 | MF502684 | - | MF502757 | MF502824 |
| 61 | P. serrata | Thomas 10221 (NY) | Brazil | MF502559 | MF502485 | MF502626 | MF502685 | - | - | MF502825 |
| 62 | P. stipellata <br> L.J.Gillespie | Aguilar 8193 (MO) | Costa Rica | KP794448 | MF502486 | MF502627 | MF502686 | MF502876 | MF502758 | MF502826 |
| 63 | P. stipellata | Cardinal-McTeague 8 (CAN) ${ }^{a}$ | Costa Rica | MF502560 | MF502487 | MF502628 | MF502687 | MF502877 | MF502759 | MF502827 |
| 64 | P. stipellata | Ibarra Manriquez \& Sinaca 1115 (MO) | Mexico | MF502561 | MF502488 | MF502629 | MF502688 | MF502878 | - | MF502828 |


| 65 | P. stipellata | Liesner 3088 (MO) | Costa Rica | KP794451 | MF502489 | MF502630 | MF502689 | MF502879 | - | MF502829 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 66 | P. stipellata | Morales \& Rojas 5342 (MO) | Costa Rica | KP794450 | MF502490 | MF502631 | MF502690 | MF502880 | MF502760 | MF502830 |
| 67 | P. stipellata | Refugio Cedillo Trigas 3510 <br> (MO) | Mexico | MF502562 | MF502491 | MF502632 | MF502691 | MF502881 | MF502761 | MF502831 |
| 68 | P. stipellata | Urbina 1155 (MO) | Nicaragua | KP794449 | MF502492 | MF502633 | MF502692 | MF502882 | MF502762 | MF502832 |
| 69 | P. supraglandulosa L.J.Gillespie | Acevedo-Rodriguez 6022 (US) | Suriname | MF502563 | MF502493 | MF502634 | MF502693 | MF502883 | MF502763 | MF502833 |
| 70 | $P$. verrucosa Sm. | Barrabe \& Crozier 145 (US) | French Guiana | MF502564 | MF502494 | MF502635 | MF502694 | MF502884 | MF502764 | MF502834 |
| 71 | P. verrucosa | Herrera \& Kaemar 10073 (CAN) | Suriname | MF502565 | MF502495 | - | - | - | - | - |
| 72 | P. verrucosa | Hoffman 5917 (US) | Suriname | MF502566 | MF502496 | MF502636 | MF502695 | MF502885 | MF502765 | MF502835 |
| 73 | P. volubilis L. | Bell 93-546 (US) | Peru | KP794447 | MF502497 | MF502637 | MF502696 | MF502886 | MF502766 | MF502836 |
| 74 | P. volubilis | Burnham \& Krings 1640 (MO) | Ecuador | KP794446 | MF502498 | MF502638 | MF502697 | MF502887 | MF502767 | MF502837 |
| 75 | P. volubilis | Carrillo \& Reyes 448 (MO) | Ecuador | MF502567 | MF502499 | MF502639 | - | - | - | - |
| 76 | P. volubilis | Huamantupa 3500 (CAN) | Peru | MF502568 | MF502500 | MF502640 | MF502698 | - | - | - |
| 77 | P. volubilis | Jaramillo et al. 1237 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502569 | MF502501 | MF502641 | MF502699 | - | MF502768 | MF502838 |
| 78 | P. volubilis | Nee 55162 (MO) | Bolivia | KP794445 | MF502502 | MF502642 | MF502700 | MF502888 | MF502769 | MF502839 |
| 79 | P. volubilis | Parada et al. 206 (CAN) | Bolivia | KP794444 | MF502503 | MF502643 | MF502701 | MF502889 | MF502770 | MF502840 |
| 80 | P. volubilis | Teran et al. 2502 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502570 | MF502504 | MF502644 | MF502702 | - | MF502771 | MF502841 |
| 81 | P. volubilis | Valenzuela 8531 (MO) | Peru | MF502571 | MF502505 | - | - | - | - | - |
| 82 | P. volubilis | Wurdack s.n. (US) ${ }^{a}$ | Smithsonian Greenhouse ex Peru | MF502572 | MF502506 | MF502645 | MF502703 | MF502890 | MF502772 | MF502842 |
| 83 | Romanoa tamnoides (A.Juss.) Radcl.-Sm. | Fuentes 1848 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502573 | MF502507 | - | - | - | - | - |
| 84 | R. tamnoides | Raes \& Terceros 177 (MO) | Bolivia | KP794435 | MF502508 | MF502646 | MF502704 | - | MF502773 | MF502843 |
| 85 | R. tamnoides | Raes et al. 211 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502574 | MF502509 | MF502647 | MF502705 | - | MF502774 | MF502844 |
| 86 | R. tamnoides | Zardini \& Chaparro 50824 <br> (MO) | Paraguay | MF502575 | MF502510 | MF502648 | - | - | MF502775 | MF502845 |

Table 3.S2 Accession table of genomes/transcriptomes used in data-mining analyses.

| No. | Taxon | Type | Assembly file | Reference |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | Croton tiglium L. | Transcriptome | VVPY_Croton_tiglium_-SOAPdenovo-Trans- <br> assembly.fa | 1KP <br> Project |
| 2 | Euphorbia <br> mesembryanthemifolia <br> Jacq. | Transcriptome | LSLA_Euphorbia_mesembryanthemifolia_juv_- <br> SOAPdenovo-Trans-assembly.fa | 1KP |
| Project |  |  |  |  |

Table 3.S3 List of molecular markers, primer sequence, and amplification/sequencing protocols.

| Name | Primer (5' to 3') | Reference | Recommended Protocol |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nuclear DNA (nDNA) |  |  |  |
| External Transcribed Spacer (ETS) |  |  |  |
| ETS F1 | GTT ATG TTT GGY GTt TCG GSA ATG CT | Designed here | Amplification and sequencing: ETS Pluk F2 + 18S $5^{\prime} \mathrm{R}$ |
| ETS F2 | ATG ATC GTT TGS TTT GGC AGG CTC | Designed here | Annealing temperature: $52^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| 18S 5' R | GAA TTA GTT CAT ACT TAC ACA TGC ATG | Designed here |  |
| Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) |  |  |  |
| ITS 5a [F] | CCT TAT CAT TTA GAG GAA GGA G | Stanford et al. 2000 | Amplification and sequencing were done for the Full region (ITS 5a + $\mathrm{u} 4)$ or in two overlapping fragments: ITS1 (ITS $5 \mathrm{a}+\mathrm{u} 2$ ) and ITS2 (ITS p3 +u 4 ). Sometimes ITS p2 and 4 were used as slightly internal sequencing primers. <br> Annealing temperature: $55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| ITS u2 [R] | GCG TTC AAA GAY TCG ATG RTT C | Cheng et al. 2016 |  |
| ITS p2 [R] | GCC RAG ATA TCC GTT GCC GAG | Cheng et al. 2016 |  |
| ITS p3 [F] | YGA CTC TCG GCA ACG GAT A | Cheng et al. 2016 |  |
| ITS u4 [R] | RGT TTC TTT TCC TCC GCT TA | Cheng et al. 2016 |  |
| ITS 4 [R] | TCC TCC GCT TAT TGA TAT GC | White et al. 1990 |  |
| KEA1 intron 11 |  |  | Amplification and sequencing: KEA1-i11 F +R Annealing temperature: $55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| KEA1-i11 F | GAA TCA GAT ATT GCK CCA TAT CGT G | Designed here |  |
| KEA1-i11 R | AGA AGC TTT GGA TCA ATA GAC ATT C | Designed here |  |
| KEAl intron 17 der |  |  | Amplification and sequencing: KEA1-i17 F +R Annealing temperature: $65^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| KEA1-i17 F | AGG TCC TTC ATA AAG TTG GTG CWG A | Designed here |  |
| KEA1-i17 R | GTG CAA GAA CAG CAG CTG CCA ACT G | Designed here |  |
| TEB exon 17 |  |  |  |
| TEB F | GCR AAG AAR TCA AGA ATG GTG CWC G | Designed here | Amplification and sequencing: TEB F + R2 Annealing temperature: $55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| TEB R1 | CTC TCY TCA TCA GGC CAM GAA TCC A | Designed here |  |
| TEB R2 | ATT SAT AGG ACC CTT CTC ACA GGC A | Designed here |  |
| Plastid DNA (cpDNA) |  |  |  |
| matK (full coding sequence) |  |  | Amplification and sequencing were designed to capture the full coding region in three overlapping fragments, an effective protocol for poor quality DNA. matK Pluk F1 + R1, F2 + R2, and F3 + R3. Annealing temperature: $55^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| matK F1 | AAT CCT CTA TCC TTG CTT CAA | Designed here |  |
| matK R1 | CTC ATG AAG AAA GAG TYG TAA TAA A | Designed here |  |
| matK F2 | AAT ACC TTA CCC CAT CCA TCT A | Designed here |  |
| matK R2 matK F3 | ATT GGA ACT ATT GTA TCG AGT TTC GTA CGG AGT CAA ATG YTA GAA | Designed here Designed here |  |
| matK R3 | CCT TAC TCG TAT ACT GTA TGA GC | Designed here |  |
| ndhF 3' (partial coding sequence) |  |  | Amplification and sequencing: ndhF $1318 \mathrm{~F}+2110 \mathrm{Ri}$ (or 1703R, to obtain a partial sequence for poorer quality samples) Annealing temperature: $49^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| ndhF 1318F | GGA TTA ACY GCA TTT TAT ATG TTT CG | Olmstead and Sweere 1994 |  |
| ndhF 1703R | GGC TCC AAT AAA YAA AGT | Beilstein et al. 2006 |  |
| ndhF 2110Ri | TCA ATT ATT CGT TTA TCA A | Steinmann and Porter 2002 |  |
| All PCR amplifications used BIOLASE DNA Polymerase (Bioline) in 15 uL reactions. Recipes included: $9.2 \mathrm{uL} \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O} ; 1.5 \mathrm{uL} 10 \mathrm{x} \mathrm{NH}_{4}$ Reaction Buffer; 0.6 uL 50 mM MgCl ${ }_{2}$ Solution [2.0mM]; 0.3 uL 10 mM dNTP Mix $[0.2 \mathrm{mM}] ; 0.375 \mathrm{uL} 10 \mathrm{uM}$ Primer (each) [ 0.25 uM ]; $1.5 \mathrm{uL} 1 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{mL}$ Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA; Sigma Aldrich) [0.1 mg/mL]; $0.15 \mathrm{uL} 5 \mathrm{U} / \mathrm{uL}$ BIOLASE DNA Polymerase [0.05U/uL]; 1uL Genomic DNA. Nuclear markers included 3uL 5M Betaine (Sigma Aldrich) [1M], in which case $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ was reduced to 6.2 uL . Thermocycler protocols followed: 3 min $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ Initiation; 35 cycles of (i) $30 \mathrm{~s} 94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ Denaturing, (ii) 1 m (see table) Annealing, (iii) $30 \mathrm{~s} 72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ Extension; $10 \mathrm{~min} 72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ Final extension. |  |  |  |

Table 3.S4 Biogeographical distribution matrix $(\mathrm{A}=$ Mexico to NW South America, $\mathrm{B}=$ Amazon/Guiana, $\mathrm{C}=$ Atlantic Forest, $\mathrm{D}=$ Tropical Africa, $\mathrm{E}=$ Madagascar, $\mathrm{F}=\mathrm{SE}$ Asia $)$.

| Taxon | A | B | C | D | E | F |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Haematostemon guianensis | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia africana | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia ankaranensis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Plukenetia brachybotrya | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia aff. brachybotrya | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia carabiasiae | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia cf. carolis-vegae | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia conophora | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia corniculata | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Plukenetia decidua | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Plukenetia lehmanniana | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia loretensis | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia madagascariensis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Plukenetia penninervia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia cf. penninervia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia polyadenia | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia serrata | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia stipellata | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia supraglandulosa | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia verrucosa | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia volubilis | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Romanoa tamnoides | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Table 3.S5 Manual dispersal matrix between biogeographical areas (adjacent $=1.0$, short-distance dispersal $=$ 0.5 , long-distance dispersal $=0.1$ ).

|  | Mex. to NW <br> South Am. <br> Amazon/ <br> Guiana | Atlantic <br> Forest <br> 0 to 35 Mya | A | B | C | Trop. Africa |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | Madagascar | SE Asia |
| :--- |
| Mex. to NW South <br> Am. |
| 1 |

Table 3.S6 Trait matrix used in phylogenetic regression analysis with seed size. Plants size ( $0=$ slender stems; $1=$ robust to thick stems $)$, seedling ecology ( $0=$ light gap or forest edge; $1=$ shade avoidance, canopy liana strategy), fruit type/ hypothesized dispersal mechanism ( $0=$ dry, dehiscent/ scatter hoarding rodents; $1=$ fleshy, indehiscent/ mammal predation), biome ( $0=$ wet dominant; $1=$ dry component), fire tolerance $(0=$ non-fire adapted; $1=$ fire adapted).

| Taxon | Plant size | Seedling <br> ecology | Fruit type/ <br> dispersal | Biome | Fire <br> tolerance |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Haematostemon guianensis | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Romanoa tamnoides | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia africana | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Plukenetia ankaranensis | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Plukenetia brachybotrya | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia aff. brachybotrya | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia carabiasiae | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia cf. carolis-vegae | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia conophora | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia corniculata | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia decidua | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Plukenetia huayllabambana | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia lehmanniana | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia loretensis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia penninervia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia cf. penninervia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia polyadenia | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia serrata | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |  |
| Plukenetia stipellata | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia supraglandulosa | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia verrucosa | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Plukenetia volubilis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  |

Table 3.S7 The best evolutionary model for seed size based on $\triangle \mathrm{AIC}$ and Akaike weights $\left(w_{i}\right)$.

| Model | $\mathrm{AIC}_{\mathrm{c}}$ | $\Delta \mathrm{AIC}$ | $w_{i}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Brownian motion | 50.03442 | 0.0 | 0.6584417 |
| Early Burst | 52.73257 | 2.69815 | 0.1708530 |
| Ornstein-Uhlenbeck | 52.73430 | 2.69988 | 0.1707053 |



Figure 3.S1 Primer map for new (KEA1 introns 11 and 17, TEB exon 17) and redesigned (ETS, matK) molecular markers.


Figure 3.S2A Shortest maximum likelihood tree for incongruence analysis of individual markers: (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) KEA1 intron 17, (e) TEB exon 17, (f) matK, and (g) ndhF. Bootstrap percentages based on 500 replicates. Well-supported branches ( $>85 \%$ maximum likelihood bootstrap percentage; MLBP) are in bold.


Figure 3.S2B Shortest maximum likelihood tree for incongruence analysis of individual markers: (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) $K E A 1$ intron 11 , (d) $K E A 1$ intron 17, (e) $T E B$ exon 17, (f) $m a t K$, and (g) $n d h F$. Bootstrap percentages based on 500 replicates. Well-supported branches ( $>85 \%$ maximum likelihood bootstrap percentage; MLBP) are in bold.


Figure 3.S2C Shortest maximum likelihood tree for incongruence analysis of individual markers: (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) KEA1 intron 17, (e) $T E B$ exon 17, (f) $m a t K$, and (g) $n d h F$. Bootstrap percentages based on 500 replicates. Well-supported branches ( $>85 \%$ maximum likelihood bootstrap percentage; MLBP) are in bold.


Figure 3.S2D Shortest maximum likelihood tree for incongruence analysis of individual markers: (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) KEA1 intron 17, (e) TEB exon 17, (f) matK, and (g) $n d h F$. Bootstrap percentages based on 500 replicates. Well-supported branches ( $>85 \%$ maximum likelihood bootstrap percentage; MLBP) are in bold.


Figure 3.S2E Shortest maximum likelihood tree for incongruence analysis of individual markers: (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) KEA1 intron 17, (e) TEB exon 17, (f) matK, and (g) $n d h F$. Bootstrap percentages based on 500 replicates. Well-supported branches ( $>85 \%$ maximum likelihood bootstrap percentage; MLBP) are in bold.


Figure 3.S2F Shortest maximum likelihood tree for incongruence analysis of individual markers: (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) KEA1 intron 17, (e) $T E B$ exon 17, (f) matK, and (g) ndhF. Bootstrap percentages based on 500 replicates. Well-supported branches ( $>85 \%$ maximum likelihood bootstrap percentage; MLBP) are in bold.


Figure 3.S2G Shortest maximum likelihood tree for incongruence analysis of individual markers: (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) KEA1 intron 17, (e) TEB exon 17, (f) matK, and (g) ndhF. Bootstrap percentages based on 500 replicates. Well-supported branches ( $>85 \%$ maximum likelihood bootstrap percentage; MLBP) are in bold.


Figure 3.S3 Bayesian maximum clade credibility tree based on (a) plastid DNA (cpDNA) two marker, 74 accession dataset, and (b) nuclear DNA (nDNA) five marker, 86 accession dataset, for Plukenetia and Plukenetiinae outgroups. Maximum parsimony bootstrap percentage (MPBP) and Bayesian posterior probability (PP) support values $>50 \%$ are indicated on each branch. Branches in bold indicate strong support ( $\geq 85$ MPBP and $\geq 0.95$ PP). Grey boxes highlight strongly supported topological incongruences.


Figure 3.S4 BEAST chronogram of Plukenetia and Plukenetiinae outgroups inferred from the combined seven marker (cpDNA and nDNA), 83 accession dataset and two normal-distribution priors (indicated in red) based on previous subfamily Acalyphoideae estimates using three fossil calibrations. Numbers at each node indicate mean age estimates, and blue bars the $95 \%$ highest posterior density confidence interval.

Fig. 3.S5(A) BioGeoBEARS DEC+J on Plukenetia ancstates: global optim, 2 areas max. $\mathrm{d}=0 ; \mathrm{e}=0 ; \mathrm{j}=0.3997$; $\mathrm{LnL}=-27.26$


Figure 3.S5A BIOGEOBEARS ancestral range estimation probabilities for each corner and node under (a) $\mathrm{DEC}+\mathrm{J}$ and (b) DEC.

Fig. 3.S5(B) BioGeoBEARS DEC on Plukenetia ancstates: global optim, 2 areas max. $d=0.034 ; e=0.0163 ; j=0 ; L n L=-46.67$


Figure 3.S5B BIoGEOBEARS ancestral range estimation probabilities for each corner and node under (a) $\mathrm{DEC}+\mathrm{J}$ and (b) DEC.


Figure 3.S6 UPGMA clustering analysis of $\log _{10}$ transformed seed dimensions (length, width, thickness) for 190 accessions of Plukenetia.


Figure 3.S7 Principal components analysis of $\log _{10}$ transformed seed dimensions (length, width, thickness) for 190 accessions of Plukenetia.


Figure 3.S8 Posterior distributions of the correlation coefficients $(r)$ between the liabilities of seed size and (a) plant size, (b) fruit type, (c) seedling ecology, (d) fire tolerance, and (e) biome type, under the threshold model.

## Chapter 4

## A Revised Sectional Classification of Plukenetia L. (Euphorbiaceae, Acalyphoideae) with Three New Taxa from South America*

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Phylogeny with updated sectional classification of Plukenetia L.


#### Abstract

- Background: We present a phylogenetic classification for Plukenetia (Euphorbiaceae subfamily Acalyphoideae) based on morphology and molecular phylogenetic studies using nuclear (ETS, ITS, KEA1 introns 11 and 17, TEB exon 17) and plastid (matK, ndhF, psbA$\operatorname{trnH}$ ) DNA sequence data. - Results/Conclusions: Plukenetia comprises 23 species divided into six sections, with three new sections, two new species, and a new subspecies described here. The circumscription of Plukenetia is unaltered from recent treatments and we continue to recognize Romanoa as a separate genus. The sections of Plukenetia correspond with the subclade system proposed by Cardinal-McTeague and Gillespie (2016): P1 = P. sect. Fragariopsis; P2 = P. sect. Penninerviae; $\mathrm{P} 3=P$. sect. Plukenetia; $\mathrm{P} 4=P$. sect. Angostylidium; and P5 $=P$. sect. Hedraiostylus $+\boldsymbol{P}$. sect. Madagascarienses. The sections are distinguished by a combination of pistillate flower number, androecium morphology, style morphology, fruit type, and seed size. We also describe two new species from the Amazon basin belonging to $\boldsymbol{P}$. sect.

Penninerviae: Plukenetia brevistyla and Plukenetia megastyla. Both new species are morphologically similar to $P$. brachybotrya and are distinguished by their style shape and size. An ETS phylogeny supports the new species as distinct. We also identify the wild progenitor of the cultivated species $P$. carolis-vegae (sect. Plukenetia) and describe it as Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera. This new subspecies differs by its smaller seeds and fruits and broader distribution in central and southern Peru. We provide keys to the sections and species of Plukenetia and designate 11 lectotypes in Plukenetia and Romanoa.


## Background

The circumscription of Plukenetia L. (Euphorbiaceae tribe Plukenetieae) has changed considerably over the last four centuries, particularly in repeated shifts between recognizing multiple genera and a single morphologically diverse pantropical genus. The genus was first named Pluknetia by French botanist Charles Plumier (1703) to honour English botanist Leonard Plukenet, who is regarded for his influential publications on New World plants, Phytographia vols. 1-4 (Plukenet, 1691a,b, 1692, 1696a) and Almagestum botanicum (Plukenet, 1696b). Plumier's name was validated by Linnaeus (1753) as Plukenetia and was chosen over a second pre-Linnaean genus from Southeast Asia, Sajor Rumph. (type = Plukenetia corniculata Sm.), which he treated as a synonym. Plukenetia now comprises 24 species of non-stinging twining lianas, vines, and rarely subshrubs. The most well-known species, P. volubilis L. (Sacha Inchi or Inca Peanut), has been traditionally cultivated in Peru for its oil-rich seeds, which have gained in popularity and consumption over the past 20 years. The genus was most recently revised by Gillespie $(1993,2007)$ and outside of those treatments three new species have been described, one from Oaxaca, Mexico (Jiménez Ramírez 1993) and two from the Andes of northern Peru (Bussmann et al., 2009, 2013). A recent phylogenetic study has resolved most relationships in Plukenetia and analyzed the historical biogeography and seed size evolution of the genus (Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review). Here, we use those phylogenetic hypotheses to present a revised sectional classification and updated species list for Plukenetia, including two new species from the Amazon basin and a new subspecies that is the wild progenitor of the cultivated species P. carolis-vegae.

Plukenetia is a member of tribe Plukenetieae, a distinctive lineage noted for its twining vine growth forms and stinging hair defences (Webster, 1994; Wurdack et al., 2005; CardinalMcTeague \& Gillespie, 2016). Plukenetia belongs to the non-stinging subtribe Plukenetiinae, which is divided into two informal groups comprising rare small tree and shrub (Angostylis, Astrococcus, and Haematostemon) and twining vine and liana genera (Plukenetia and Romanoa) (Gillespie, 1994b; Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016). The other genera of Plukenetiinae contain only one or two species each, making Plukenetia the most diverse and species-rich member of the clade. Plukenetia is readily distinguished by its 4-carpellate fruits/ovaries (compared to 3-carpellate in other Plukenetieae and most other Euphorbiaceae) and by the
presence of paired basilaminar extrafloral nectaries (sometimes called 'glands') on the adaxial surface of the leaf blade (Gillespie, 1993, 2007).

## History of generic and sectional classifications

The early taxonomic history of Plukenetia was complicated by the creation of multiple generic names for the same taxon (Table 4.1). In particular, several genera were described for $P$. corniculata Sm. (Sajor Rumph., nom. inval. pre 1753, Pterococcus Hassk., nom. cons., Hedraiostylus Hassk., Ceratococcus Meisn., nom. illeg., Sajorium Endl., nom. illeg.) and for $P$. serrata (Vell.) L.J.Gillespie (Vigia Vell., Fragariopsis A.St.-Hil., Accia A.St.-Hil., Botryanthe Klotzsch).

Table 4.1 Generic and sectional classifications of Plukenetia and Romanoa (NWSG2 = New World species group " 2 "; ${ }^{\text {a }=\text { genera described by Pax \& Hoffmann, 1919a). }}$

| Molecular phylogeny | Prior to Baillon | Baillon (1858) | Müller (1864, $1865,1866)$ | Pax and Hoffmann (1919) | Webster (1975) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Gillespie (1993, } \\ & \text { 2007) } \end{aligned}$ | This treatment |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Plukenetia subclade P1 | Vigia (Vell. 1832) <br> Fragariopsis <br> (A.St.-Hil. <br> 1840) <br> Accia (A.St.-Hil. <br> 1840) <br> Botryanthe <br> (Klotzsch <br> 1841) | Fragariopsis | Fragariopsis | Fragariopsis | Fragariopsis | NWSG2 | P. sect. Fragariopsis stat. nov. |
| Plukenetia <br> subclade <br> P2 | Plukenetia (L. 1753) | Sajorium sect. Pluknetia | $P$. sect. <br> Euplukenetia | $P$. sect. <br> Euplukenetia Apodandra ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Plukenetia | NWSG2 | $P$. sect. <br> Penninerviae sect. nov. |
| Plukenetia <br> subclade <br> P3 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Pluknetia (Plum. } \\ & \text { 1703) } \\ & \text { Plukenetia (L. } \\ & \text { 1753) } \end{aligned}$ | Sajorium sect. Pluknetia | $P$. sect. <br> Euplukenetia <br> $P$. sect. <br> Cylindrophora | $P$. sect. <br> Cylindrophora <br> Eleutherostigma ${ }^{\text {a }}$ <br> Elaeophora <br> (Ducke, 1925) | Plukenetia Eleutherostigma ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $P$. sect. <br> Plukenetia | P. sect. Plukenetia |
| Plukenetia subclade P4 | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ | $P$. sect. Angostylidium | Tetracarpidium <br> (Pax 1899) <br> Angostylidium ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Plukenetia | $P$. sect. <br> Angostylidium | $P$. sect. Angostylidium |
| Plukenetia subclade P5 | Sajor (Rumph. 1750) <br> Pterococcus <br> (Hassk. 1842) <br> Hedraiostylus <br> (Hassk. 1843) <br> Ceratococcus <br> (Meisn. 1843) <br> Sajorium (Endl. 1843) | Sajorium sect. Hedraiostylus | P. sect. Sajor <br> $P$. sect. <br> Hedraiostylus | Pseudotragia <br> (Pax 1908) <br> Pterococcus | Plukenetia | $P$. sect. <br> Hedraiostylus | $P$. sect. Hedraiostylus |
| Plukenetia subclade P5 | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ | Plukenetia | Madagascan species group | $P$. sect. <br> Madagascarienses sect. nov. |
| Romanoa | Anabaena <br> (A.Juss. 1824) <br> Romanoa (Trev. 1848) | Sajorium sect. Anabaena | $P$. sect. Anabaena | Anabaenella ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | Anabaena | Romanoa | Romanoa |

Baillon (1858) was the first to recognize a broader circumscription for Plukenetia and unified three previously distinct genera under Endlicher's (1843) illegitimate replacement name Sajorium (Table 4.1). Müller Argoviensis (1864, 1865, 1866) built on Baillon's classification but
applied it under the earliest legitimate genus, Plukenetia. Müller's work provided many of the sectional names used today (Table 4.1). However, Müller mistakenly described P. peruviana Müll.Arg., a synonym of the type species $P$. volubilis, and placed each in two different sections. The type species of Plukenetia, $P$. volubilis, was placed in sect. Euplukenetia alongside most other neotropical species known at the time ( $P$. brachybotrya, $P$. penninervia, and $P$. verrucosa). The synonym, $P$. peruviana, was placed its own sect. Cylindrophora on the basis of having a long cylindrical stylar column, despite sharing this exact morphology with P. volubilis. Even after the synonymy of $P$. peruviana with $P$. volubilis was identified, Pax and Hoffmann (1919) perpetuated this error and placed P. volubilis in sect. Cylindrophora ( $=$ sect. Plukenetia) and misapplied sect. Euplukenetia (= sect. Penninerviae sect. nov.) to a subset of neotropical species united by short connate styles and mostly pinnately-veined leaves ( $P$. brachybotrya, $P$. penninervia, $P$. verrucosa).

Both Baillon and Müller upheld Fragariopsis ( $=P$. serrata) as a distinct genus, Baillon (1858) for its unique androecium morphology, high and variable stamen count, and thick stylar columns, and Müller (1866) because it had fleshy indehiscent fruits rather than dry dehiscent capsules. High stamen number, thick stylar columns, and fleshy fruits would be shared with subsequently described species of Plukenetia, but its androecium morphology remains distinct.

Five decades after Baillon and Müller, Pax $(1899,1908)$ and Pax and Hoffmann (1919) dismantled Plukenetia and in the process described several new genera (Table 4.1). Many genera in the Pax and Hoffmann (1919) treatment were poorly defined and included obvious errors, such as placing synonyms of $P$. brachybotrya in both sect. Euplukenetia (= sect. Penninerviae sect. nov.) and their new genus Apodandra. Over time, Croizat (1941), Webster (1975, 1994), and Gillespie $(1993,1994,2007)$ challenged Pax and Hoffmann's treatment, reuniting these genera under Plukenetia on the basis of their numerous overlapping characters and synapomorphic 4-carpellate ovaries.

Analysis of leaf, floral, and pollen morphology provided many characters to develop species group hypotheses (Gillespie, 1993, 1994b, 2007), but major taxonomic changes were withheld pending molecular phylogenetic study. Recent phylogenetic analyses (CardinalMcTeague and Gillespie 2016; Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review) support many of Gillespie's hypotheses and provide a robust framework to formalize a revised classification for Plukenetia (Fig. 4.1, Tables 4.1, 4.2).


Figure 4.1 Summary cladogram of the relationships recovered by Bayesian analysis of combined and partitioned ETS, ITS, KEA1 introns 11 and 17, TEB exon 17, matK, and ndhF DNA sequence data of Plukenetia and Romanoa (modified from Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review), highlighting our revised sectional classification of Plukenetia. Maximum parsimony bootstrap percentage (MPBP) and Bayesian posterior probability (PP) support values $>50 \%$ are indicated on each branch. Branches in bold indicate strong support ( $\geq$ 85 MPBP and $\geq 0.95 \mathrm{PP}$ ). Subclade numbering system (P1-P5) follows Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie (2016). Sections in the pinnately-veined clade ( $\mathrm{P} 1+\mathrm{P} 2$ ) are indicated by light grey boxes, sections in the palmatelyveined clade (P3-P5) by dark grey boxes. (a-b) Leaf clearings demonstrating leaf architecture (images from Gillespie 1993): (a) P. stipellata (Gillespie 413, US); (b) P. supraglandulosa, (Granville 3626, CAY). (c-d) Scanning electron micrographs demonstrating pollen tectum morphology (images from Gillespie, 1994b): (c) $P$. stipellata (Gillespie 418, DAV); (d) P. loretensis (Maguire \& Politi 27371, US).

Table 4.2 Revised sectional classification of Plukenetia with species number, distribution, habitat, and growth forms of each section, including Romanoa.

| Taxon | Species | Distribution | Habitat | Growth form |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $P$. sect. Angostylidium | 1 | Central and Western Africa | Lowland forest | Canopy lianas; stems thick |
| P. sect. Fragariopsis | 1 | Atlantic Forest of Brazil | Pre-montane to montane forest edges | Lianas; stems slender to thick |
| $P$. sect. <br> Hedraiostylus | 3 | Southern Africa, Southeast Asia | Lowland forest edges and light gaps or savanna woodland on sandy soil | Vines, lianas, or herbs; stems slender, twining or procumbent |
| $P$. sect. <br> Madagascarienses | 3 | Madagascar | Forest on limestone or spiny forest scrub | Lianas; stems slender to thick |
| $P$. sect. <br> Penninerviae | 9 | Mesoamerica, Central America, northwestern and Amazonian South America, and the Lesser Antilles | Lowland to pre-montane (montane) forest edges, rocky outcrops, and light gaps or white sand forest | Vines or lianas; stems slender |
| P. sect. Plukenetia | 7 | Mesoamerica, Central America, northwestern and Amazonian South America, and the Lesser Antilles | Lowland to pre-montane forest edges, ravines, and light gaps | Vines, lianas, or canopy lianas; stems slender to thick |
| Romanoa | 1 | Atlantic Forest of Brazil and Southwest Amazon (Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay) | Lowland forest, rocky outcrops, and light gaps or stony soil caatinga | Vines or lianas; stems slender |

## Taxonomically informative characters

In the phylogeny of Cardinal-McTeague et al. (in review), Plukenetia was divided into two major clades, the pinnately-veined clade (subclades P1 + P2) and the palmately-veined clade (subclades P3-P5) (Fig. 4.1). These clades are united by their leaf blade venation, with 1 primary vein in the pinnately-veined clade (3-veined in P. verrucosa) and 3(-5) primary veins in the palmately-veined clade. The pinnately-veined clade was previously called New World species group " 2 " (sensu Gillespie 1993) and was determined to be further united by entirely connate styles, all or mostly sessile anthers, and coarsely reticulate pollen tecta. Some Old World species in the palmately-veined clade share entirely connate styles ( $P$. ankaranensis, $P$. corniculata) and sessile anthers (species in Madagascar), rendering those characters non-exclusive to the pinnately-veined clade. However, in addition to leaf venation, members of the palmately-veined clade are united by foveolate pollen tecta.

A combination of androecium morphology, style morphology, fruit type, and seed size can be used to differentiate the sections (Table 4.3). Useful androecium characters include the presence of filaments and nectaries, nectary type, and receptacle shape (Fig. 4.2). Style size and morphology varies considerably, with styles ranging from partly to entirely connate, and stylar columns either cylindrical or variously shaped (Fig. 4.3). Seeds range from "small" ( $\sim 5 \times 5 \times 4$ mm ) to "medium", "large", "extra-large", and "maximum" ( $\sim 50 \times 35 \times 30 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) sized (for more detail see Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review). Smaller seeds ("small", "medium", "large") tend to be associated with dry dehiscent capsules, while larger seeds ("large", "extra-large", "maximum") are from fleshy indehiscent berries or dry semi-dehiscent capsules.

## Methods

## Morphology

Sectional descriptions of Plukenetia build on previous treatments (Gillespie 1993, 2007) and new species descriptions (Jiménez Ramírez, 1993; Bussmann et al., 2009, 2013). Herbarium material from CAN, GH, MO, NY, and US was consulted for morphology. Pollen morphology and measurement data are based on Gillespie $(1993,1994,2007)$ and Nowicke and Takahashi (2002). Pollen morphology for new taxa were investigated by soaking staminate flowers with a simple rehydrating solution ( 100 mL water with a drop of liquid soap), isolating pollen grains
onto a glass slide, and making observations with a compound light microscope. Keys to the species of Plukenetia were modified from Gillespie (1993, 2007).

Table 4.3 Morphological differences between the sections of Plukenetia, including Romanoa.

| Taxon | Primary veins | Pistillate flowers | Staminate receptacles | Staminate nectaries | Filament length | Pollen tecta | Carpels | Style connation | Style length | Stylar column shape | Fruit type | Fruit diameter | Seed size |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $P$. sect. Angostylidium | 3 | 1-2(3) | Subglobose | Interstaminal | $<0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ | Foveolate | 4 | 75(-90)\% | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 4-7.5 \\ & \mathrm{~mm} \end{aligned}$ | Funnelshaped | Fleshy | $\begin{aligned} & 4.5-7.5 \\ & \mathrm{~cm} \end{aligned}$ | XL |
| $P$. sect. <br> Fragariopsis | 1 | 1-10 | Globose | Absent | Absent | Coarsely reticulate | 4 | Entire | $\begin{aligned} & 3-3.5 \\ & \mathrm{~mm} \end{aligned}$ | Obovoid | Fleshy | $4-5 \mathrm{~cm}$ | L |
| P. sect. Hedraiostylus | $3(-5)$ | 1 | Convex, subglobose, or globose | Absent | $<0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ | Foveolate | 4 | $\sim 70 \%$ or entire | $\begin{aligned} & 0.5- \\ & 1.8 \\ & \mathrm{~mm} \end{aligned}$ | Cylindrical <br> or <br> depressed- <br> globose | Dry | $\begin{aligned} & 1.1-2 \\ & \mathrm{~cm} \end{aligned}$ | S, M |
| $P$. sect. <br> Madagascarienses | $3(-5)$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1 \text { or } 1- \\ & 2(3) \end{aligned}$ | Ellipsoid, oblongcylindrical, or ovoidconical | Absent | Absent | Foveolate | 4 | $\begin{aligned} & 55-60 \% \\ & \text { or entire } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3.5- \\ & 16 \\ & \mathrm{~mm} \end{aligned}$ | Cylindrical or obconic or obovoid | Dry | $\begin{aligned} & 2.3-4 \\ & \mathrm{~cm} \end{aligned}$ | L |
| P. sect. <br> Penninerviae | 1(3) | 1 | Subglobose or globose | Absent or extrastaminal | Absent, sometimes with an outer whorl 0.31 mm | Coarsely reticulate | 4 | Entire | $\begin{aligned} & 0.3- \\ & 4.5 \\ & \mathrm{~mm} \end{aligned}$ | Cylindrical, depressedsubglobose, globose, obovoid, or oblongobovoid | Dry | $\begin{aligned} & 0.9-1.5 \\ & \mathrm{~cm} \end{aligned}$ | S, M |
| P. sect. Plukenetia | 3 | $\begin{aligned} & 1 \text { or } 1- \\ & 2(3) \end{aligned}$ | Convex or subglobose | Interstaminal (absent) | $0.5-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ | Foveolate | 4 | $\begin{aligned} & (20-40) \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 5.6- \\ & 35 \\ & \mathrm{~mm} \end{aligned}$ | Cylindrical | Dry or fleshy | $\begin{aligned} & \begin{array}{l} 3.5-11 \\ \mathrm{~cm} \end{array} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{M}, \\ & \mathrm{~L}, \\ & \mathrm{XL}, \\ & \mathrm{Max} \end{aligned}$ |
| Romanoa | 3-5 | 1 | Subglobose | Absent | $0.5-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ | Fossulatefoveolate | 3 | 70-80\% | $\begin{aligned} & 5.6- \\ & 10 \\ & \mathrm{~mm} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | Cylindrical | Dry | $\begin{aligned} & 1-1.7 \\ & \mathrm{~cm} \end{aligned}$ | S |

## ETS phylogeny

A phylogenetic analysis is included to demonstrate the relationships of our proposed new species $P$. brevistyla and $P$. megastyla, and subspecies $P$. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera. Only the nrDNA ETS region was successfully amplified for $P$. brevistyla, hence we show only a single marker phylogeny. Accessions of $P$. megastyla and $P$. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera were previously published as $P$. aff. brachybotrya and $P$. cf. carolis-vegae, respectively (CardinalMcTeague et al., in review; Fig. 4.1). See Cardinal-McTeague et al. (in review) for methods on DNA extraction, primers, and PCR amplification and sequencing protocols. A single sequence was manually added to the ETS alignment from Cardinal-McTeague et al. (in review, available from DataDryad), with taxon sampling of 22 out of 24 Plukenetia species.

Phylogenetic relationships were reconstructed using maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian inference (BI) through the CIPRES Science Gateway v3.3 (https://www.phylo.org). ML analysis executed 1000 rapid bootstrap replicates under default search parameters using RAxML-HPC v8 on XSEDE (Stamatakis, 2014). BI analysis was conducted in MrBayes v3.2.6 on XSEDE (Ronquist et al., 2012), implementing two independent MCMC runs, each with four chains, run for five million generations, and sampling every 1000 generations. We applied a


Figure 4.2 Representative staminate flower diversity of Plukenetia and its sister genus Romanoa. (a) Romanoa tamnoides (Krapovickas \& Schinini 36265, MO), stamens with slender-cylindrical filaments. (b) P. sect. Fragariopsis: P. serrata (Davidse et al. 10480, MO), anthers sessile and loosely packed on a large globose receptacle. (c-e) P. sect. Penninerviae: (c) P. loretensis (Freitas et al. 155, MO), anthers sessile and densely packed on a small globose receptacle; (d) P. penninervia (van der Werff et al. 3173, MO), and (e) P. supraglandulosa (Granville 3626 CAY, US), most anthers sessile and densely packed on a small globose receptacle, with a dimorphic outer whorl of $\sim 4$ stamens with filaments, and often with a 4-lobed annular nectary. (f-i) P. sect. Plukenetia: (f) P. polyadenia (Croat et al. 20285, MO), stamens with slender-cylindrical filaments and ligulate interstaminal nectaries; (g) P. stipellata (Cardinal-McTeague 8, CAN), stamens with slendercylindrical filaments and small irregularly shaped interstaminal nectary segments; (h) P. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera (Woytkowski 6670, MO), stamens with slender filaments and large irregularly shaped interstaminal nectary segments; (i) P. volubilis (Wurdack s.n., US), stamens with short-conical filaments. (j) P. sect. Angostylidium: $P$. conophora (Avio et al. 1621, MO), stamens with short-conical filaments and slendercylindrical interstaminal nectaries (in pink). (k) P. sect. Hedraiostylus: P. corniculata (Chin See Chung 2712, L), stamens with short-conical filaments (sometimes appearing sessile). (1) $P$. sect. Madagascarienses: $P$. madagascariensis (Villiers et al. 4889, MO), anthers more or less sessile, densely to somewhat loosely packed on an elongate receptacle. Photos ( $\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{f}-\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{l}$ ) by W.Cardinal-McTeague; (i) by K.Wurdack. Line drawing (e) by Alice Tangerini, (k) by Anita Walsmit Sachs, used with permission from the Nationaal Herbarium Nederland. (Abbreviations: an = annular nectary, $\mathrm{d}=$ dimorphic filamentous stamens, in = interstaminal nectaries, $\mathrm{r}=$ receptacle. Scale bars $=1 \mathrm{~mm}$ ).
single model of nucleotide evolution on an unpartitioned dataset, selected using the Akaike information criterion (AIC) following default ML Best tree searches conducted in jModelTest2 on XSEDE (Darriba et al., 2012). Independent MCMC runs were considered converged after the standard deviation of split frequencies was $<0.05$, estimated sample sizes (ESS) were $>2000$, and potential scale reduction factors (PSRF) were $\sim 1.00$. A $25 \%$ burn-in was used prior to summarizing parameter and tree statistics and a maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree.

## Distribution map

The base of a species distribution map was created using ggmap (Kahle \& Wickham, 2013) and ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009) in R. The R script is available on DataDryad (http://datadryad.org).

## Results

## Dataset characteristics and phylogenetic relationships

In total 84 accessions were included in our ETS dataset (Appendix 4.1), resulting in an aligned length of 469 characters ( 228 constant, 241 variable, 199 [42.4\%] parsimony informative). AIC identified $\operatorname{TrN}+\mathrm{I}+\mathrm{G}$ as the optimal model of molecular evolution; however, we selected the next best model that could be implemented in MrBayes, HKY+I+G (AIC delta = 1.6812). Our


Figure 4.3 Representative pistillate flower diversity of Plukenetia and its sister genus Romanoa. (a) Romanoa tamnoides (Krapovickas \& Schinini 36265, MO), styles 70-80\% connate into a cylindrical column. (b) P. sect. Fragariopsis: P. serrata (Davidse et al. 10480, MO), styles entirely connate into an obovoid column. (cf) P. sect. Penninerviae: (c) P. brachybotrya (Fuentes et al. 5398, MO) and (d) P. verrucosa (Prance et al. 11255, DAV), styles entirely connate into a globose column; (e) P. loretensis (Silva et al. 4750, MO), styles entirely connate into a slender-cylindrical column, dilated at the apex; (f) P. penninervia (Wallnöfer et al. 5996, MO), styles entirely connate into a stout-cylindrical column. (g-k) P. sect. Plukenetia: (g) P. polyadenia (Aulestia \& Grefa 230, MO), (h) P. stipellata (Cardinal-McTeague 8, CAN), (i) P. volubilis (Wurdack s.n., US), and (j) P. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera (Woykowski 6670, MO), styles $70-95 \%$ connate into a cylindrical column; (k) P. lehmanniana (Rangel et al. 5734, MO), styles 20-25\% connate into a cylindrical column, free style arms 2-fid near the tips. (1) P. sect. Angostylidium: P. conophora (Thomas 5455, MO), styles 75-(90)\% connate into a funnel-shaped column, free style arms conspicuously dilated and spreading. (m) $P$. sect. Hedraiostylus: P. corniculata (Brink 5771, L), styles entirely connate into a depressed-globose column with cross-shaped stigmas. (n-o) P. sect. Madagascarienses: (n) P. ankaranensis (Gillespie 4076, CAN), styles entirely connate into an obconic or obovoid column; (o) P. madagascariensis (Andrianjafy et al. 1648, MO), styles $55-60 \%$ connate into a cylindrical column, free style arms slender and tapered. Photos ( $\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{e}-\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{j}-1$ ) by W.Cardinal-McTeague, (i) by of K.Wurdack, (n) by L.Gillespie, (o) by P.Phillipson. Line drawing (d) by Cathy Pasquale, (k) by Anita Walsmit Sachs, used with permission from the Nationaal Herbarium Nederland. (Scale bars $=1 \mathrm{~mm}$ ).
alignment and MrBayes tree file are available on DataDryad (http://datadryad.org).
The BI maximum clade credibility tree is presented with ML bootstrap percentage (MLBP) and Bayesian posterior probability (BPP) support values in Fig. 4.4. Evidence of strong branch support was interpreted as $\geq 80 \mathrm{MLBP}$ and $\geq 0.95 \mathrm{BPP}$, indicated by bold branches. The ETS phylogeny is mostly congruent with the topology of the combined seven marker dataset recovered in Cardinal-McTeague et al. (in review), with the exception of subclade P4 moderately supported as embedded in subclade P 3 (Fig. 4.4; $\mathrm{MLBP}=69, \mathrm{BPP}=0.97$ ).

Our proposed new species were recovered as distinct lineages in subclade P2. Plukenetia brevistyla is resolved as the earliest diverging lineage in a strongly supported clade sister to $P$. penninervia $(\mathrm{MLBP}=84, \mathrm{BPP}=0.97)$. Accessions of $P$. megastyla were strongly supported as monophyletic $(\mathrm{MLBP}=100, \mathrm{BPP}=1)$ and were resolved in a weakly supported clade (MLBP = $60, \mathrm{BPP}=0.8)$ composed of a functional polytomy with the remaining species of subclade P 2 . Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera resolved into two clades in a strongly supported polytomy with $P$. volubilis $(\mathrm{MLBP}=81, \mathrm{BPP}=1.0)$. One of the clades is strongly supported $(\mathrm{MLBP}=95, \mathrm{BPP}=1.0)$ and includes accessions of the putative hybrid species $P$. huayllabambana. Note that $P$. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera was strongly supported as monophyletic when additional molecular markers were sampled (Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review).


Figure 4.4 Bayesian maximum clade credibility tree based on an 84 accession nrDNA ETS dataset for Plukenetia and Plukenetiinae outgroups. Maximum likelihood bootstrap percentage (MLBP) and Bayesian posterior probability (BPP) support values $>50 \%$ are indicated on each branch. Branches in bold indicate strong support ( $\geq 80$ MLBP and $\geq 0.95 \mathrm{BPP}$ ). Subclades P1-P5 were defined in Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie (2016). Sections in the pinnately-veined clade (P1 + P2) are indicated by light grey boxes, sections in the palmately-veined clade (P3-P5) by dark grey boxes.

## Taxonomic Treatment

Key to the genera of non-stinging vines and lianas in tribe Plukenetieae

1. Carpels 3 ; leaf blades $3-5$-veined at the base; styles partly connate into a cylindrical column, $5.6-10 \mathrm{~mm}$ long; staminate sepals 5 , stamens 10 , filaments slender-cylindrical; pollen tecta fossulate-foveolate; distributed in Bolivia, southeast Brazil, and Paraguay. Romanoa
2. Carpels 4 (sometimes $5-7$ in cultivated forms); leaf blades 1 - or $3(-5)-$ veined at the base; styles entirely connate into a cylindrical, depressed-subglobose, globose, obconic, obovoid, or oblong-obovoid column, $0.3-5.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, or partly connate into a cylindrical column, 1-35 mm long; staminate sepals $3-5$, stamens 6-60, filaments absent, short-conical, or slender-cylindrical; pollen tecta coarsely reticulate or foveolate; distributed pantropically. - Plukenetia

Plukenetia L., Sp. Pl. 1 (2): 1192. 1753.-TYPe: Plukenetia volubilis L.
Vigia Vell., Fl. Flumin. Icon. 9: t.128. 1832.—Type: Vigia serrata Vell. [= Plukenetia serrata (Vell.) L.J.Gillespie]

Fragariopsis A.St.-Hil., Leçons Bot. 426. 1840.—Type: Fragariopsis scandens A.St.-Hil. [= Plukenetia serrata (Vell.) L.J.Gillespie]
Accia A.St.-Hil., Leçons Bot. 499. 1840, nom. illeg.-TyPE: Accia scandens A.St.-Hil. [= Plukenetia serrata (Vell.) L.J.Gillespie]

Botryanthe Klotzsch, Arch. Naturgesch. (Berlin) 7: 190. 1841.-TYPE (designated by Webster 1994): Botryanthe discolor Klotzsch [= Plukenetia serrata (Vell.) L.J.Gillespie]

Pterococcus Hassk., Flora 25 (2, Bleibl.): 41. 1842, nom. cons., non Pall. 1773.-TyPE: Pterococcus glaberrimus Hassk. [= Plukenetia corniculata Sm.]
Hedraiostylus Hassk., Tijdschr. Natuurl. Gesch. Physiol. 10: 141. [~September] 1843.—Type: Hedraiostylus glaberrimus Hassk. [= Plukenetia corniculata Sm.]

Sajorium Endl., Gen. Pl. Suppl. 3: 98. [October] 1843, nom. illeg.-Type: Sajorium corniculatum (Sm.) D.Dietr. [= Plukenetia corniculata Sm.]

Ceratococcus Meisn., Pl. Vasc. Gen. 2: 369. [2-4 November] 1843, nom. illeg.-TyPE: not designated

Tetracarpidium Pax, Bot. Jahrb. Syst. 26 (3-4): 329. 1899.—TyPE: Tetracarpidium staudtii Pax [= Plukenetia conophora Müll.Arg.]
Pseudotragia Pax, Bull. Herb. Boissier, ser. 2, 8: 635. 1908.-Type: Pseudotragia scandens Pax [= Plukenetia africana Sond.]

Eleutherostigma Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 11, t.3. 1919.-TyPE: Eleutherostigma lehmanniana Pax. \& K.Hoffm. [= Plukenetia lehmanniana (Pax \& K.Hoffm.) Huft \& L.J.Gillespie]

Angostylidium (Müll.Arg.) Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68):
17. 1919. Plukenetia sect. Angostylidium Müll.Arg., Flora 47: 530. 1864.—TyPE:

Angostylidium conophorum (Müll.Arg.) Pax \& K.Hoffm. [= Plukenetia conophora Müll.Arg.]
Apodandra Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 20. 1919.— Type (designated by Webster 1994): Apodandra loretensis (Ule) Pax \& K.Hoffm. [= Plukenetia loretensis Ule]
Elaeophora Ducke, Arch. Jard. Bot. Rio de Janeiro 4: 112. 1925.-TyPE: Elaeophora abutifolia Ducke [= Plukenetia polyadenia Müll.Arg.]

Notes-See (Gillespie, 2007) for genus description.

## Key to the sections of Plukenetia

1. Leaf blades 1 -veined at the base (3-veined in P. verrucosa); styles entirely connate into a cylindrical, depressed-subglobose, globose, obovoid, or oblong-obovoid column, 0.3-4.5 mm long; pollen tecta coarsely reticulate. (Pinnately-veined clade, subclades P1 + P2) (2)
2. Leaf blades 3(-5)-veined at the base; styles partly connate into a cylindrical column, 1-35 mm long (entirely connate into a depressed-globose column $0.5-0.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ in $P$. corniculata, or an obconic or obovoid column 3.5-5.5 mm in $P$. ankaranensis); pollen tecta foveolate. (Palmately-veined clade, subclades P3-P5) - (3)
3. Fruits 4-5 cm in diam, fleshy; pistillate flowers $1-10$ per inflorescence; all anthers sessile and loosely packed on a globose receptacle, receptacles 2 mm or more in diam, visible
between anthers; stipels 2, present adaxially at petiole apex; distributed in the Atlantic Forest region of Brazil. - II. P. sect. Fragariopsis
4. Fruits $0.9-1.5 \mathrm{~cm}$ in diam, dry; pistillate flowers 1 per inflorescence; all or most anthers sessile and densely packed on a globose or subglobose receptacle, receptacles less than 1 mm in diam, not visible between anthers; stipels absent adaxially at petiole apex (2 in $P$. verrucosa); distributed in Mesoamerica, Central America, northwestern and Amazonian South America, and the Lesser Antilles. - V. P. sect. Penninerviae
5. Styles $0.5-1.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, shorter than or nearly equal in length to the ovary; distributed in southern Africa and Southeast Asia. - III. P. sect. Hedraiostylus
6. Styles $3.5-35 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, longer than the length of the ovary; distributed in tropical central and western Africa, Madagascar, or the Neotropics. - (4)
7. Staminate receptacles ellipsoid, oblong-cylindrical, or ovoid-conical; anthers sessile; nectaries absent; distributed in Madagascar. - IV. P. sect. Madagascarienses
8. Staminate receptacles convex to subglobose; anthers on short-conical or slender-cylindrical filaments, $0.5-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ long; nectaries of interstaminal slender-cylindrical, ligulate, or small or large irregularly shaped segments (absent in $P$. volubilis); distributed in tropical central and western Africa or the Neotropics. - (5)
9. Stylar columns funnel-shaped, free style arms conspicuously dilated and spreading; distributed in tropical central and western Africa. - I. P. sect. Angostylidium
10. Stylar columns cylindrical, free style arms more or less uniform in thickness or tapered and erect or spreading; distributed in the Neotropics. - VI. P. sect. Plukenetia
I. Plukenetia sect. Angostylidium Müll.Arg., Flora 47: 530. 1864. Angostylidium (Müll.Arg.) Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 17. 1919.— TyPE: Plukenetia conophora Müll.Arg.

Canopy lianas, stems thick. Leaf blades 3-veined at the base. Inflorescences unisexual or functionally unisexual; staminate inflorescences racemose thyrses, staminate flowers 3-7/node
in condensed cymules, sometimes with 1-2 apparently non-functional pistillate flowers at basalmost nodes; pistillate inflorescences short racemes, pistillate flowers solitary at 1-2(3) basalmost nodes, axes mostly aborted above (rarely with a few staminate flowers in cymules).

Staminate flowers: receptacle subglobose; nectary of numerous interstaminal slendercylindrical segments; stamens 25-50, densely packed; filaments conical, $<0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$; pollen $\mathrm{P}=$ 34-38 $\mu \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{E}=41-46 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, tectum foveolate. Pistillate flowers: styles $75(-90) \%$ connate into a funnel-shaped column, entire style 4-7.5 mm. Fruits 4(5)-lobed or subglobose-quadrangular, capsule-like, fleshy but indehiscent, $4.5-7.5 \mathrm{~cm}$ in diam. Seeds broadly ovoid or subglobose, 25$29 \times 25-27 \times 25-28 \mathrm{~mm}$ ("extra-large" sensu Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review).

Distributed in tropical central and western Africa.
Discussion-Section Angostylidium corresponds to subclade P4 (Fig. 4.1) and includes a single species, $P$. conophora, from tropical central and western Africa. This Old World species/section is morphologically similar to sect. Plukenetia of the Neotropics. Both sections have staminate flowers with interstaminal nectaries (absent in $P$. volubilis of sect. Plukenetia), partly connate styles, often larger fleshy fruits (although dry fruits are just as frequent in sect. Plukenetia), and often larger seeds (usually "large" and "extra-large"). Phylogenetic analysis suggests these characters are symplesiomorphic for the palmately-veined clade (P3-P5). Section Angostylidium is differentiated by its African wet tropical distribution, functionally unisexual inflorescences, and funnel-shaped stylar column with conspicuously dilated and spreading free style arms (Fig. 4.3L).

1. Plukenetia conophora Müll.Arg., Flora 47: 530 1864. Angostylidium conophorum (Müll.Arg.) Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 17. 1919. Cleidion mannii Baker, Bull. Misc. Inform. Kew 1910 (2): 58. 1910, nom. illeg. Tetracarpidium conophorum (Müll.Arg.) Hutch. \& Dalziel, Fl. W. Trop. Afr. 1: 307. 1928.-TYPE: CAMEROON. River Cameroon, January 1863, G. Mann 2202 (lectotype designated by Gillespie 2007: K000425658!; isolectotypes: K000425659!, K000425660!).

Mallotus preussii Pax, Bot. Jahrb. Syst. 23 (4): 525. 1897. Cleidion preussii (Pax) Baker, Bull. Misc. Inform. Kew 1910 (9): 343. 1910.—TyPE: CAMEROON. Barombistation, 25 August

1890, P.R. Preuss 420 (holotype: B [destroyed]; lectotype designated here: K000252567!; isolectotype: BM000535904!).

Tetracarpidium staudtii Pax, Bot. Jahrb. Syst. 26 (3-4): 329. 1899.-Type: Cameroon. Station Johann-Albrechtschöhe, 15 January 1897, A. Staudt 802 (holotype: B [destroyed]; lectotype designated here: BM000535187!; isolectotypes: G00414564 [online!], sketch of holotype with floral fragments at K000425656!; MO1648824! [barcode MO-2289110], PH00030257 [online!]).

Notes-See Gillespie (2007) for species description.
Taxonomic Discussion-Plukenetia conophora and sect. Angostylidium were simultaneously described by Müller (1864). Subsequent authors described taxa that are now treated as synonyms, including Mallotus preussii (Pax, 1897) and the novel genus and species Tetracarpidium staudtii (Pax, 1899). Furthermore, Baker (1910) described Cleidion mannii from P. conophora syntype material ("River Cameroon", G. Mann 2202) but erroneously cited the type as "Cameroons river, G. Mann 1202" (that specimen is recorded as Pittosporum viridiflorum "mannii" Sims, "Mount Cameroon", G. Mann 1202 K000106232). Baker appears to have described Cleidion mannii from the only G. Mann 2202 sheet at Kew that was not annotated as Müller's $P$. conophora (K000425659).

The holotype of Mallotus preussii is assumed to have been in Berlin, where Pax worked and Preuss's types were housed. Presumably the type was destroyed, as such we designate a lecotype from the isotype housed at Kew, given it has abundant staminate flowers. Under a similar circumstance we designate a lectotype for Tetracarpidium staudtii, selecting the isotype with the most abundant leaf and pistillate flower material housed at the British Museum. Alois Staudt was the collection assistant of G. Zenker in Cameroon, so we assume his collections were part of Zenker's main set in Berlin.
II. Plukenetia sect. Fragariopsis (A.St.-Hil.) Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie, comb. et stat. nov. Fragariopsis A.St.-Hil., Leçons Bot. 426. 1840.—Type: Fragariopsis scandens A.St.Hil. [= Plukenetia serrata (Vell.) L.J.Gillespie]

Lianas, stems slender to thick. Leaf blades 1-veined at the base. Inflorescences bisexual racemose thyrses; pistillate flowers solitary at $1-10$ basal-most nodes; staminate flowers 2(3)/node in condensed cymules. Staminate flowers: receptacle globose; nectaries absent; stamens $10(-20)$, loosely packed (receptacle clearly visible between anthers); filaments absent; pollen $\mathrm{P}=32-46 \mu \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{E}=42-55 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, tectum coarsely reticulate. Pistillate flowers: styles entirely connate into an obovoid column, 3-3.5 mm. Fruits 4-lobed or subglobosequadrangular, capsule-like, initially fleshy, apparently indehiscent or tardily splitting, 4-5 cm in diam. Seeds subglobose, $15-15.5 \times 15.5-16 \times 15-16 \mathrm{~mm}$ ("large" sensu Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review).

Distributed in the Atlantic Forest of Brazil.
Etymology-The sectional epithet is derived from Fragaria (Latin, strawberry) and opsis (Greek, appearing like or resembling), referring to the androecium, which has the appearance of a small strawberry. We chose Fragariopsis over other possible generic names because it describes the unique androecium morphology of the section and because, historically, it was the most frequently recognized genus used for Plukenetia serrata.

Discussion-Section Fragariopsis refers to subclade P1 (Fig. 4.1) and includes a single species, $P$. serrata, from the Atlantic Forest region of Brazil. This species/section has long been recognized as distinct genus (Table 4.1), but belongs within Plukenetia due to their numerous shared characters (Gillespie, 1993) and phylogenetic relationships (Cardinal-McTeague and Gillespie 2016; Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review). Together, sects. Fragariopsis and Penninerviae constitute the pinnately-veined clade ( $\mathrm{P} 1+\mathrm{P} 2$ ), which is united by pinnate leaf venation, coarsely reticulate pollen tecta, all or mostly sessile anthers, and entirely connate styles. Section Fragariopsis is differentiated by its unique androecium composed of sessile anthers loosely packed on a globose receptacle (Fig. 4.2B), as well as by having $1-10$ pistillate flowers, "large" seeds derived from fleshy fruits, and for being distributed in the Atlantic Forest region of Brazil.
2. Plukenetia serrata (Vell.) L.J.Gillespie, Syst. Bot. 18 (4): 587. 1993. Vigia serrata Vell., Fl. Flumin. Icon. 9: t.128. 1827 publ. 29 October 1831.-TyPE: Brazil. Illustration t. 128 in Vellozo, Fl. Flumin. Icon. 9. 1827 publ. 29 October 1831.

Fragariopsis scandens A.St.-Hil., Leçons Bot. 426. 1840. Plukenetia scandens (A.St.-Hil.) Pax in Engler \& Prantl (eds.), Nat. Pflanzenfam. 3 (5): 67. 1890.—Type: Brazil. 1816-1821, A. de Saint-Hilaire 95 (lectotype designated here: P00072051!; isolectotype: P00072052!).

Accia scandens A.St.-Hil., Leçons Bot. 499. 1840, nom. illeg.-TyPE: not designated. [Likely based on the same syntypes as Fragariopsis scandens, therefore a nomenclatural synonym and an illegitimate name; one of the syntype collections, $A$. de Saint-Hilaire D 72 (P00072053!, P00072054!), is annotated as both Accia and Fragariopsis scandens, but the first name appears to be a later addition.]

Botryanthe discolor Klotzsch, Arch. Naturgesch. (Berlin) 7 (1): 191, 204. tab. 9b. 1841. Fragariopsis discolor (Klotzsch) Baill., Étude Euphorb. 498. 1858.— Type: BraziL. Sellow s.n. (holotype: B [destroyed]; lectotype designated by Gillespie 1993: P00072049!; isolectotypes: F! [fragment], HBG516131 [online!]). [Klotzsch's species Botryanthe concolor given in the same publication was not validly published]

Fragariopsis polyandrus Baill., Étude Euphorb. 498. 1858. Fragariopsis scandens var. polyandrus (Baill.) Baill., Adansonia 5: 318. 1865.-TyPE: Brazil. Rio de Janeiro, Mont. Corcovado, Sainte-Thérèse, May 1839, J.B.A. Guillemin cat. n. 798 (lectotype designated here: P00072048!; isolectotypes: G-DC! [pro parte, left specimen excluding packet; G00313646], P00072047!, P05564459 [as J.-B. Houllet cat. n. 798; online!]).

Fragariopsis warmingii Müll.Arg. in Martius (ed.), Fl. Bras. 11 (2): 338. 1874. Plukenetia warmingii (Müll.Arg.) Pax in Engler \& Prantl (eds.), Nat. Pflanzenfam. 3 (5): 67. 1890.-TyPE: BRAZIL. Minas Gerais, Lagoa Santa, E. Warming s.n. (holotype: P00072055!; isotype: F! [fragment]; probable isotype: F!).

Notes-See Gillespie (1993) for species discussion.
Taxonomic Discussion-Plukenetia serrata was first described as Vigia serrata (Vellozo, 1831) but was widely known as Fragariopsis scandens (Saint-Hilaire, 1840) until the priority of Vellozo's name was identified by Gillespie (1993). In the same publication, SaintHilaire (1840) described Accia scandens, which is likely a superfluous name for $F$. scandens based on the same syntypes. The description of Fragariopsis only includes the staminate flowers, whereas Accia is only of the pistillate flowers, however both descriptions are indicative
of $P$. serrata. Botryanthe was independently described by Klotzsch (1841) and was synonymized along with Accia under Fragariopsis by Baillon (1858). Two additional species, F. polyandrus (Baillon, 1858) and $F$. warmingii (Müller, 1874), were described, but both are treated as synonyms of P. serrata (Gillespie, 1993). Phylogenetic data indicates there is substantial nucleotide variation in $P$. serrata (Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review), suggesting its species boundaries should be reassessed with better taxon sampling across its morphological and geographical range.

Saint-Hilaire (1840) did not cite a collection number in his original species description of Fragariopsis scandens, but two of his collections, each with a duplicate, are housed at P. All four sheets have sufficient vegetative and floral material to identify the species, however, to clarify the type status we designate the best sheet (A. de Saint-Hilaire 95; P00072051) as lectotype. Remaining syntype: Brazil. Minas Gerais, 1816-1821, A. de Saint-Hilaire D 72 (P00072053!, P00072054!).

Fragariopsis polyandrus has a complicated type history. Baillon (1858) did not cite any collections or a type for $F$. polyandrus but indicated its species illustrations in Tab. XIII were based on material from Herb. Houllet (Atlas, p. 26). Baillon (1865) later cited a single specimen with F. scandens var. polyandrus, "Guillemin et Houllet (herb.), cat., n. 798", which matches J.B.A. Guillemin cat. n. 798 specimens housed at P and G-DC. To complicate matters, another collection of Fragariopsis scandens was found at Paris, J.-B. Houllet cat. n. 798. Notably, the Houllet collection includes the locality information cited by Baillon (1865), which is missing from all known J.B.A. Guillemin cat. n. 798 sheets. Guillemin and Houllet were collecting partners in Brazil and many of Guillemin's collections appear to have been brought to Paris by Houllet, who worked as the Jardinier en chef des Serres. Since the Guillemin and Houllet collections are of the same species, share the same catalogue number, and are associated together by Baillon (1865), we consider them the same collection. We designate a lectotype for $F$. polyandrus based on the specimen with the most abundant pistillate flower material.
III. Plukenetia sect. Hedraiostylus (Hassk.) Müll.Arg., D.C. Prod. 15 (2): 772. 1866.

Hedraiostylus Hassk., Tijdschr. Natuurl. Gesch. Physiol. 10: 141. 1843. Sajorium sect.
Hedraiostylus (Hassk.) Baillon, Étude Euphorb. 483. 1858.—Type: Hedraiostylus glaberrimus Hassk. [= Plukenetia corniculata Sm.]

Plukenetia sect. Sajor Müll.Arg., Linnaea 34: 159. 1865, nom. illeg.-TyPE: not designated Plukenetia sect. Pterococcus (Hassk.) Benth. \& Hook., Gen. Pl. 3, 1: 327. 1880. Pterococcus Hassk., Flora 25 (2, Bleibl.): 41. 1842, nom. cons., non. Pall. 1773.-Type: Pterococcus glaberrimus Hassk. [= Plukenetia corniculata Sm.]

Vines, lianas, or perennial herbs, stems slender, twining or sometimes procumbent. Leaf blades 3(-5)-veined at the base. Inflorescences bisexual racemes (rarely racemose thyrses); pistillate flowers solitary (rarely 2 ) at basal-most node(s); staminate flowers $1 /$ node (sometimes $1-2 /$ node in reduced condensed cymules). Staminate flowers: receptacle convex, subglobose, or globose; nectaries absent; stamens $8-20$, densely packed; filaments conical, $<0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$; pollen P $=34-40 \mu \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{E}=40-50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, tectum foveolate. Pistillate flowers: styles entirely connate into a depressed-globose or stout-cylindrical column, $0.5-1.4 \mathrm{~mm}$, or $\sim 70 \%$ connate into a stoutcylindrical column with spreading free style arms, 1.3-1.7 mm. Fruits 4-lobed capsules, dry, dehiscent, $1.1-2 \mathrm{~cm}$ in diam. Seeds broadly lenticular, $5.5-10.5 \times 5-8 \times 2.5-8 \mathrm{~mm}$ ("small" or "medium" sensu Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review).

Distributed in southern Africa and Southeast Asia.
Discussion-Section Hedraiostylus refers to a strongly supported clade within subclade P5 (Fig. 4.1) and includes three species, P. africana and P. procumbens from southern Africa and $P$. corniculata from Southeast Asia. This section is weakly defined morphologically but appears to be united by short styles $<2 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, usually shorter than the length of the ovary (although slightly longer than the ovary in $P$. procumbens), staminate flowers with short-conical filaments and lacking nectaries, smaller dry dehiscent fruits, and "small" or "medium" seeds. The southern African species are unique for growing in seasonally dry wooded savannas and have evolved thick rootstocks that facilitate resprouting after fires.

## Key to the species of Plukenetia sect. Hedraiostylus

1. Petioles $>(1-) 3 \mathrm{~cm}$; leaf blades $>(2-) 4 \mathrm{~cm}$ wide, base deeply cordate, adaxial basilaminar extrafloral nectaries 2 , stipels 2 , present adaxially at petiole apex $\sim 0.5-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ long; capsules with strap-shaped wing 6-12 mm long on each carpel lobe; distributed in Southeast Asia. - 4. P. corniculata
2. Petioles $<1 \mathrm{~cm}$; leaf blades $<3.5 \mathrm{~cm}$ wide, base obtuse to truncate, hastate, or rarely sagittate, adaxial basilaminar extrafloral nectaries (0-)2-12(-20), sometimes minute, stipels 2, present adaxially at petiole apex, $0.1-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, or absent; capsules with tubercle or wing $\leq 3 \mathrm{~mm}$ long on each carpel lobe; distributed in southern Africa. - (2)
3. Leaf blades narrowly triangular, lanceolate or linear-lanceolate, $3-8 \mathrm{~cm}$ long, base often hastate; adaxial basilaminar extrafloral nectaries ( $0-$ ) $2,0.2-0.3 \mathrm{~mm}$ in diam. - 3. $\boldsymbol{P}$. africana
4. Leaf blades elliptic or ovate, $2-4.5 \mathrm{~cm}$ long, base obtuse to rounded; adaxial basilaminar extrafloral nectaries $2-12(-20), 0.2-0.8 \mathrm{~mm}$ in diam. - 5. P. procumbens
5. Plukenetia africana Sond., Linnaea 23: 110. 1858. Pterococcus africanus (Sond.) Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 22. 1919.—Type: South Africa. Magaliesberg, auf Grasfeldern, October, C.L.P. Zeyher 1522 (holotype: S! [S-G10556]; isotypes: BM!, G00441997!, K000425662!, MEL501283 [online!]).

Plukenetia hastata Müll.Arg., Flora 47: 469. 1864.-Type: Mozambique. Between Shupanga \& Senna, Portuguese East Africa, on the Lower Zambesi, $14^{\circ}-19^{\circ}$ S, January 1859, J. Kirk s.n. (holotype: K000425661!).

Pseudotragia schinzii Pax, Bull. Herb. Boissier, ser. 2, 8: 635. 1908.-TyPE: NAmibiA. Amboland, Otjiheveta, 1886, H. Schinz 895 (holotype: G; isotypes: K001044972!, Z000085917 [online!]).

Pseudotragia scandens Pax, Bull. Herb. Boissier, ser. 2, 8: 636. 1908.-TyPE: NAmibia. Amboland, Oohama, March 1886, H. Schinz 894 (holotype: G; isotypes: K001044973! Z000085918 [online!]).

Notes-See Gillespie (2007) for species description.
Although Sonder did not explicitly cite holotypes, his types based on Ecklon and Zeyher collections from South Africa are presumed to be housed in Stockholm (Nordenstam 1980), with duplicates found in many other herbaria in Europe and Melbourne, Australia. Indeed, the specimen at Stockholm, which we consider the holotype, has the most abundant floral and fruit material and original labels.
4. Plukenetia corniculata Sm., Nova Acta Regiae Soc. Sci. Upsal. 6: 4. 1799. Pterococcus glaberrimus Hassk., Flora 25 (2): 41. 1842. Hedraiostylus glaberrimus Hassk., Tijdschr. Natuurl. Gesch. Physiol. 10: 141. 1843. Hedraiostylus corniculatus (Sm.) Hassk., Cat. Hort. Bot. Bogor. 234. 1844. Sajorium corniculatum (Sm.) D.Dietr., Syn. Pl. 5: 331. 1852. Sajorium corniculatum (Sm.) Baill., Étude Euphorb. 484. 1858, nom. illeg. Pterococcus corniculatus (Sm.) Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 22. 1919.-TyPE: IndONESIA. Amboina, Bagulae Regione, Illustration t.79, fig. 2 in Rumphius, Herb. Amboin. 1: 193. 1750.

Notes-See Gillespie (2007) for species description.
Taxonomic Discussion-Plukenetia corniculata is one of the oldest names in Plukenetia and has a complicated taxonomic history. Originally described as the pre-Linnaean Sajor volubilis (Rumphius 1750), it was included as a synonym of Plukenetia volubilis by Linnaeus (1753). Smith (1799) gave Rumphius' species its first legitimate name, P. corniculata, but four other genera would be erected for Sajor: Pterococcus (Hasskarl, 1842), Hedariostylus (Hasskarl, 1843), Sajorium (Endlicher, 1843), and Ceratococcus (Meisner, 1843). Hasskarl's first name, Pterococcus (1842), was previously published by Pallas (1773) in Polygonaceae, so he proposed the replacement name Hedraiostylus in $\sim$ September 1843 (Stafleu \& Cowan, 1979). Subsequent replacement names Sajorium and Ceratoccocus, both nomenclaturally superfluous, were published in October and 2-4 November of 1843, respectively (Stafleu \& Cowan, 1976, 1981).

Baillon (1858) first treated Hedraiostylus as a section of the illegitimate genus Sajorium [= Plukenetia], giving Hedraiostylus priority as a sectional name. The fact that Sajorium was illegitimate precludes the rejection of sect. Hedraiostylus in favour of the autonym Sajorium sect. Sajorium (ICN 2012, Art. 22.5; McNeill et al. 2012). When Müller created the first sectional classification of Plukenetia he initially erected sect. Sajor (Müller, 1865), but quickly updated it to sect. Hedraiostylus (Müller, 1866). To complicate matters, Pterococcus Hassk. was conserved over Pterococcus Pall., but as a sectional name, Hedraiostylus retains priority.
5. Plukenetia procumbens Prain, Bull. Misc. Inform. Kew 1912 (5): 240. 1912. Pterococcus procumbens (Prain) Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 23. 1919.-Type: Angola. Benhuella, Ganguella, on the Cubagano River at Princeza

Amelia, 1520 m, 27 January 1907, J. Gossweiler 2540 (holotype: BM000535903!; isotypes: COI00072615!, K000425657! [fragments with floral illustration]).

Notes-See Gillespie (2007) for species description.
IV. Plukenetia sect. Madagascarienses Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie sect. nov.-TYPE: Plukenetia madagascariensis Leandri

Lianas, stems slender to thick. Leaf blades 3(-5)-veined at the base. Inflorescences bisexual racemes or racemose thyrses; pistillate flowers solitary at $1-2$ basal-most nodes; staminate flowers $1 /$ node or $3-5 /$ node in lax or moderately condensed cymules with conspicuous and irregularly branched cyme axes. Staminate flowers: receptacle ellipsoid, oblong-cylindrical, or ovoid-conical; nectaries absent; stamens 15-60, densely or loosely packed; filaments absent; pollen $\mathrm{P}=28-41 \mu \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{E}=35-51 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, tectum foveolate. Pistillate flowers: styles entirely connate into an obconic or obovoid column, $3.5-5.5 \mathrm{~mm}$, or $55-60 \%$ connate into a cylindrical column, 8-16 mm, free style arms slender and tapered. Fruits 4-lobed capsules, dry, dehiscent, $2.3-4 \mathrm{~cm}$ in diam. Seeds broadly ellipsoid or subglobose, 13.1-18 x 11.1-17 x 11.2-17 mm ("large" sensu Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review).

Distributed in Madagascar.
Etymology - The sectional epithet is derived from the combination of Madagascar and ensis (Latin, of a place), which reflects that all the species in the section are endemic to Madagascar.

Discussion-Section Madagascarienses refers to a strongly supported clade within subclade P5 (Fig. 4.1) and includes three species endemic to Madagascar. This section was originally defined as the Madagascan species group (Gillespie, 2007) and was noted for exhibiting sessile anthers similar to the pinnately-veined clade. Style morphology is variable in the section, including both partly ( $P$. decidua, $P$. madagascariensis) and entirely connate ( $P$. ankaranensis) styles (Fig. 4.3N-O). Section Madagascarienses is differentiated by having sessile anthers on a prominently elongated receptacle (Fig. 4.2L), larger dry dehiscent fruits, "large" seeds, and for being endemic to Madagascar. All three species occur in seasonally dry
environments, either dry forest on tsingy limestone ( $P$. ankaranensis, $P$. madagascariensis) or in dry scrub ( $P$. decidua).

## Key to the species of Plukenetia sect. Madagascarienses

1. Styles entirely connate, $3.5-5.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, stylar column obconic or obovoid, free style arms absent; androecia $0.6-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, anthers 15-20; inflorescences thyrses, terminal and appearing leaf-opposed, staminate flowers in distinct cymules; glandular knobs absent at petiole apex. - 6. P. ankaranensis
2. Styles $55-60 \%$ connate, entire style $8-16 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, stylar column cylindrical, free style arms slender, tapered; androecia $1.6-4 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, anthers 18-60+; inflorescences very narrow thyrses or racemes, axillary or terminal, staminate flowers single per node or in condensed cymules; glandular knobs 1-2 at petiole apex, sometimes minute. - (2)
3. Inflorescences terminal racemes, staminate flowers single per node; bracts triangular, $1-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, sessile, eglandular; androecia $1.6-1.8 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, anthers $18-30$ on oblong-ellipsoid receptacle; leaf blades triangular-ovate or ovate. - 7. P. decidua
4. Inflorescences axillary thyrses, staminate flowers in condensed cymules; bracts lanceolate, 38 mm long, usually petiolate and 2-glandular; androecia 3-4 mm long, anthers 35-60+ on narrowly conical receptacle; leaf blades broadly ovate or orbicular. - 8. P. madagascariensis
5. Plukenetia ankaranensis L.J.Gillespie, Syst. Bot. 32 (4): 797. 2007.—Type:

Madagascar. Antsirinana Province: Special Reserve \#3, Ankarana, ca. 7 km SE of Matsaborimanga, trail between Camp Anglais and river (ca. 3 km SW Camp Anglais), [$12.917^{\circ}, 49.1^{\circ}$ ], $150 \mathrm{~m}, 28$ November 1990, L. Gillespie 4076 (holotype: MO6128360!; isotypes: CAN589544!, DAV182695!, G00386814!, K001044974!, L3784620!, NY01104761!, P00717080!, TAN!, US!; FAA preserved material at MO).

Notes-See Gillespie (2007) for species description.
7. Plukenetia decidua L.J.Gillespie, Syst. Bot. 32 (4): 798. 2007.—Type: Madagascar. SudOuest, entre Ampanihy et Itrobiky (route Ampanihy-Androka), 4 July 1958, R. Capuron 18682-SF (holotype: P00586758!; isotypes: P00586759!, P00586760!).

Notes-See Gillespie (2007) for species description.
Although barcodes were not applied to the specimens at Paris when Gillespie (2007) described $P$. decidua, the author confirms that specimen P00586758, which has the most abundant vegetative and floral material, is correctly annotated as the holotype (LJG, personal communication).
8. Plukenetia madagascariensis Leandri, Bull. Bot. Soc. France 85: 527. 1938 publ. 1939.Type: Madagascar. Bois à Morataitra, rive droite de Betsiboka, est de Maevatanana (Boeny), Mars 1899, H. Perrier 848 (lectotype designated by Gillespie 2007: P00586763!; isolectotypes: L0388568!, P00586764!, P00586765!).

Notes-See Gillespie (2007) for species description.

## V. Plukenetia sect. Penninerviae Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie sect. nov.-Type: Plukenetia penninervia Müll.Arg.

Vines or lianas, stems slender. Leaf blades 1-veined at the base (3-veined in $P$. verrucosa). Inflorescences bisexual racemose thyrses (racemes in P. brachybotrya); pistillate flowers solitary at basal-most node; staminate flowers $1-3(-5)$ /node in condensed cymules, sometimes appearing short racemose, or 1/node. Staminate flowers: receptacle globose or subglobose; nectaries absent or an extrastaminal annular ring (4-lobed, or unlobed with an uneven or undulate upper surface); stamens 6-50, anthers sessile and densely packed on the receptacle, sometimes with an outer whorl $\sim 4$ filamentous stamens; filaments absent or slendercylindrical $0.3-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ in outer whorl; pollen $\mathrm{P}=31-62 \mu \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{E}=39-76 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, tectum coarsely reticulate. Pistillate flowers: styles entirely connate into a depressed-subglobose, globose, obovoid, oblong-obovoid, stout-cylindrical, or slender-cylindrical column with a dilated apex, $0.3-4.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. Fruits 4 -lobed capsules, dry, dehiscent, $0.9-1.5 \mathrm{~cm}$ in diam. Seeds globose,
subglobose, or broadly lenticular, 4.5-7.3 x 3.7-7.1 x 3-5.2 mm, ("small" or "medium" sensu Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review).

Distributed in Mesoamerica, Central America, northwestern and Amazonian South America, and the Lesser Antilles.

Etymology-The sectional epithet is derived from penni- (Latin, feather) and -nervia (Latin, -nerved or -veined), referring to the pinnately-veined leaves exhibited by most species in the section (excluding $P$. verrucosa, which is $3-$ veined at the base).

Discussion-Section Penninerviae refers to subclade P2 (Fig. 4.1) and includes eight species widespread in the Neotropics. This section was erroneously referred to as sect. Euplukenetia by Pax and Hoffmann (1919), but that name was both invalid and incorrectly attributed to a section excluding the type species, $P$. volubilis. Section Penninerviae forms a major component of the pinnately-veined clade (P1 + P2), and is distinguished by having staminate flowers with sessile anthers densely packed on a globose receptacle (Fig. 4.2C), frequently with an extrastaminal annular nectary (Figs. $4.5 \mathrm{H}, 4.6 \mathrm{G}$ ) and/or an outer whorl of $\sim 4$ filamentous stamens (Fig. 4.2D-E). It differs from sect. Fragariopsis by having a single pistillate flower per inflorescence and "small" or "medium" seeds borne in small dry dehiscent capsules.

## Key to the species of Plukenetia sect. Penninerviae

1. Leaf blades 3 -veined at the base, base subcordate to truncate; stipels 2 , present adaxially at petiole apex; stylar column globose, subglobose, or obovoid. - 16. P. verrucosa
2. Leaf blades 1 -veined at the base, base rounded to attenuate; stipels absent adaxially at petiole apex; stylar column slender-cylindrical, stout-cylindrical, depressed-subglobose, globose, or oblong-obovoid. - (2)
3. Adaxial basilaminar extrafloral nectaries 1-5 pairs; stylar columns slender-cylindrical or stoutcylindrical. - (3)
4. Adaxial basilaminar extrafloral nectaries 1 pair; stylar columns depressed-subglobose, globose, or oblong-obovoid. - (6)
5. Stylar columns slender-cylindrical, 2.5-4.8 mm long; stamens of one type: 15-25 sessile anthers on a globose receptacle; staminate nectaries absent. - 11. P. loretensis
6. Stylar columns stout-cylindrical, 1-2(3) mm long; stamens of two types: 6-12 sessile anthers on a globose receptacle and an outer whorl of $\sim 4$ stamens with filaments; staminate nectaries annular, 4-lobed or absent. - (4)
7. Adaxial basilaminar extrafloral nectaries 3-5 pairs; young shoots and petioles densely hirsute; leaf blades hirsute abaxially. - 13. P. multiglandulosa
8. Adaxial basilaminar extrafloral nectaries 1-2(3) pairs; young shoots and petioles puberulent; leaf blades sparsely puberulous, glabrate, or glabrous abaxially. - (5)
9. Scattered laminar extrafloral nectaries absent or rarely 1-8 near margin on abaxial leaf surface only; leaf blades chartaceous to coriaceous, mostly subcoriaceous, margins distinctly serrulate and often distinctly glandular; inflorescences $1-3 \mathrm{~cm}$ long (to 6 cm only in Colombia). - 14. P. penninervia
10. Scattered laminar extrafloral nectaries numerous, present on both leaf surfaces; leaf blades chartaceous, margins minutely serrulate, appearing undulate, never distinctly glandular; inflorescences $2-8 \mathrm{~cm}$ long. - 15. P. supraglandulosa
11. Stylar columns globose; stamens: 30-50 sessile anthers; staminate nectaries absent. - 9. P. brachybotrya
12. Stylar columns depressed-subglobose or oblong-obovoid; stamens: 16-30 sessile anthers, sometimes $\sim 3$ basal-most stamens on short filaments; staminate nectaries an annular ring with an uneven or undulate upper surface, sometimes $3-$ segmented or absent. - (7)
13. Stylar columns depressed-subglobose, $0.3-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ long; staminate sepals 3 , often recurved at anthesis; stamens 16-20 usually sessile anthers, sometimes $\sim 3$ basal-most stamens with short filaments; petioles generally of uniform thickness and colour; fruit carpels usually unornamented, sometimes with a short tubercle. - 10. P. brevistyla
14. Stylar columns oblong-obovoid, $2.6-4.4 \mathrm{~mm}$ long; staminate sepals $3-4$, incurved to spreading at anthesis; stamens 20-30 sessile anthers; petioles with thickened, often purplish pulvinus-like regions at base and apex; fruit carpels usually with a short tubercle, sometimes unornamented. - 12. P. megastyla
15. Plukenetia brachybotrya Müll.Arg., Linnaea 34: 158. 1865. Apodandra brachybotrya (Müll.Arg.) J.F.Macbr., Publ. Field Columb. Mus., Bot. Ser., 13 (3a, 1): 117. 1951.Type: Peru. Peruvia, "Herb. Pavon" likely H. Ruiz \& J. Pavón s.n. (holotype: G-BOIS! [G00441995]; isotypes: G! [G00441996], G-DC! [G00313654]).

Plukenetia buchtienii Pax, Repert. Spec. Nov. Regni Veg. 7: 110. 1909. Apodandra buchtienii (Pax) Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 21. 1919.— Type: Bolivia. Charopompa bei Mapiri, 570 m, November 1907, O. Buchtien 1962 (lectotype designated by Gillespie 1993: US00096450!; isolectotypes: NY00273178!, Z000019739! [online!]).

Notes-See Gillespie (1993) for species discussion.
Müller cited the protologue of $P$. brachybotrya as "hb. Pavon! in hb. Boiss." suggesting the holotype was a Pavon collection housed in Boissier's herbarium. Given that there is only one such sheet in Boissier's herbarium (now housed at G), we maintain that it is a holotype and not in need of lectotypification.
10. Plukenetia brevistyla Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie sp. nov.-TyPE: BRAZIL. Amazonas, km 320 on Manaus-Humaitá road, 16 September 1980, S.R. Lowrie, B. Lowy, D. Coelho, M. Morreira, \& V.M. de Souza 30 (holotype: MO2926690!; isotypes: CAN!, NY!, US!).

Similar to P. brachybotrya Müll.Arg. and P. megastyla Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie, but with a short depressed-subglobose stylar column, $0.3-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ long.

Monoecious slender lianas; stems erect or twining; older stems dull light grey-brown or straw-coloured, to $\sim 5 \mathrm{~mm}$ in diam, striate or weakly striate, glabrate with patches of exfoliating cuticle; younger stems smooth to striate, sparsely puberulous. Leaves alternate, evergreen; stipules narrowly triangular to deltoid, $0.4-1.1 \mathrm{~mm}$, persistent; petioles generally of uniform thickness and colour, $0.4-3 \mathrm{~cm}$, glabrate except sparsely puberulous when young, often with exfoliating cuticle; blades simple, narrowly elliptic to elliptic or oblanceolate, sometimes oblongelliptic, $4.2-19.9 \times 1.9-7.4 \mathrm{~cm}$, subcoriaceous, both surfaces glabrate except sparsely puberulous on abaxial major veins when very young, base cuneate or obtuse, sometimes attenuate, margins
remotely serrulate, apex usually cuspidate, sometimes acuminate, tip $0.4-1.4 \mathrm{~cm}$; primary veins 1-nerved at the base, secondary veins brochidodromous, (4)5-6(7) on each side of the midrib, tertiary veins percurrent and somewhat reticulate near the midrib; stipels and glandular knobs absent adaxially at petiole apex; adaxial basilaminar extrafloral nectaries 2 , narrowly oblongelliptic to elliptic, oblong-obovate to broadly obovate, or round-deltoid (rarely circular or irregularly obovate), $1.3-3 \times 0.4-1.8 \mathrm{~mm}$; abaxial laminar extrafloral nectaries (2-)4-7(-14) per side, $0.2-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$ in diam, near the margins on distal $2 / 3 \mathrm{rds}$ of the blade, adaxial laminar nectaries absent. Inflorescences axillary, bisexual racemose thyrses (often appearing unisexual due to protogynous development), $0.5-3.5 \mathrm{~cm}$ long, $1-2 /$ axil; peduncles absent; axes glabrate to sparsely puberulous; staminate bracts ovate to broadly ovate, $0.5-0.9 \mathrm{~mm}$, glabrate to puberulous (sometimes only on the central vein and margin); pistillate bracts ovate, $0.6-0.9 \mathrm{~mm}$, glabrate to puberulous (sometimes only along the margin); staminate flowers numerous, distal, 1-2(3)/node in reduced and condensed cymules (rarely proximal cymules bisexual with a terminal pistillate flower); pistillate flowers 1, basal (may appear to arise from the leaf axil), or rarely $2-3$, 1 /node in proximal bisexual cymules, usually fallen or in fruit when staminate flowers are at or near anthesis. Staminate flowers: pedicel (2.5)9-13 mm at anthesis, sparsely to densely puberulous; bud subglobose to ovoid, apex rounded; sepals 3 , often recurved at anthesis, ovate, $1.2-1.5 \mathrm{x}$ $0.8-1 \mathrm{~mm}$, apex obtuse, abaxial surface sparsely to moderately puberulous (sometimes only near the apex); receptacle globose, fully covered with anthers; nectary an extrastaminal annular ring, sometimes appearing lobed or $3-$ segmented, or not evident; androecium subglobose, $0.5-0.6 \mathrm{x}$ $0.6-0.8 \mathrm{~mm}$, stamens $16-20$, filaments absent (rarely present, stout, $<0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, on $\sim 3$ basalmost stamens), anther sacs ellipsoid, dehiscing longitudinally. Pistillate flowers: pedicel 3-12.5 mm , glabrate to sparsely puberulous; sepals 4 , triangular to broadly triangular, sometimes lanceolate, $0.5-0.7 \times 0.3-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$, glabrate to sparsely puberulous; ovary 4-lobed, $0.8-2 \times 1.3-$ 3.4 mm , lobes rounded and laterally compressed, glabrate except often puberulous along midline of the lobe, conspicuous wings or tubercles absent; styles 4, entirely connate into a depressedsubglobose column, wider than long, sometimes donut-shaped, with a central dimple when young, $0.3-1 \times 0.6-1.8 \mathrm{~mm}$, unlobed distally, glabrate; stigmas 4 , pale yellow or golden-brown when dry, round-deltoid (appearing clover-shaped as a group), $0.3-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ each, smooth. Fruits 4-lobed capsules, $0.5-0.8 \times 0.9-1.3 \mathrm{~cm}$, surface verrucose, glabrate to very sparsely puberulous, each carpel subglobose, usually unornamented, sometimes with a short tubercle, $0.9-1.1 \mathrm{~mm}$;


Figure 4.5 Plukenetia brevistyla sp. nov. (a) Branch with mature leaves, inflorescences, and fruit. (b) Capsule. (c) Pistillate flower. (d) Abaxial leaf blade with laminar extrafloral nectaries. (e) Adaxial leaf blade with basilaminar extrafloral nectaries. (f) Close-up of inflorescences. (g) Close-up of staminate cymules. (h) Staminate flower. Photos by W.Cardinal-McTeague. Source: (a, c, f-g) Lowrie et al. 30 (MO, NY); (b) Silva et al. 1150 (NY); (d-e, h) Oliveira 4513 (NY). (Abbreviations: an = annular nectary; o = ovary; $\mathrm{s}=$ style. Scale bars: $[\mathrm{a}]=1 \mathrm{~cm} ;[\mathrm{b}-\mathrm{h}]=1 \mathrm{~mm})$.
stylar columns persistent, depressed-subglobose with conspicuous clover-shaped stigmas, glabrate; pedicels $8.5-15 \mathrm{~mm}$. Seeds not seen.

Pollen-Tricolpate, oblate spheroidal $(\mathrm{P} / \mathrm{E}=0.88-1.0)$, polar axis $29.1-32.7 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, equatorial axis 29.1-37.1 $\mu \mathrm{m}$; amb subcircular; colpi broad, margins uneven and jagged; tectum coarsely reticulate (voucher: Lowrie et al. 6161 MO ).

Etymology-The specific epithet is derived from brevi- (Latin, short or small) and -styla (Latin, -styled), and refers to the short stylar column that differentiates it from other neotropical species.

Distribution, Habitat, and Phenology - Known from the Rio Jarí region of northern Pará and a single collection from east-central Amazonas (Fig. 4.7), suggestive of a more widespread distribution in the central and eastern Amazon basin. Slender lianas climbing 3-6 m in terra firme rainforest, elevation not recorded (estimated $<100 \mathrm{~m}$ ). Flowering and fruiting specimens collected from July to October.

Discussion-Plukenetia brevistyla is morphologically similar to $P$. megastyla but differs by having short depressed-subglobose stylar columns, $0.3-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ long (Fig. 4.5), petioles with more or less uniform thickness (sometimes darker in colour at the base and apex), and subcoriaceous leaf blades, compared to thick oblong-obovoid stylar columns, $2.6-4.4 \mathrm{~mm}$ long (Fig. 4.6), petioles with thickened, often purplish, pulvinus-like regions at the base and apex, and thick-chartaceous leaf blades in P. megastyla. Both species are distributed in the Amazon basin with $P$. brevistyla near the main stem of the Amazon River and $P$. megastyla along the southern boundary of the region (Fig. 4.7). The ETS phylogeny resolved $P$. brevistyla as an early diverging lineage in sect. Penninerviae, distinct from P. megastyla (Fig. 4.4). Both P. brevistyla and $P$. megastyla are vegetatively similar to $P$. brachybotrya, but the latter differs in its short massive globose stylar columns, $2-2.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long (Fig. 4.3C), solitary staminate flowers (compared to condensed cymules), and primarily western Amazon distribution.

Staminate flowers of $P$. brevistyla show variation that falls within the typical range of sect. Penninerviae. All have sessile anthers densely packed on a globose or subglobose receptacle; however, variation was noted in the presence of a nectary and outer whorl of stamens with short filaments. An annular nectary was either consistently (Lowrie et al. 30) or variably present (Silva 2392). A third collection (Oliveira 4513) had a distinctly 3-lobed annular nectary
and an outer whorl of $\sim 3$ stamens with very short filaments. Additional collections are needed to understand this variation in staminate flower morphology.

The NY sheet of Lowrie et al. 30 is unusual for having inflorescences with 2-3 pistillate flowers arising from the basal-most node, as well as for having proximal bisexual cymules that terminate with a pistillate flower. Remaining sheets of the same collection (CAN, MO, US) have a single pistillate flower per inflorescence, which is typical for the species.

The collection Oliveira 3603 (NY01461552) co-occurs with P. brevistyla near Monte Dourado, Pará, but differs by having oblong-elliptic leaf blades and petioles with slightly thickened pulvinus-like regions at the base and apex, which is more typical of $P$. megastyla. There is insufficient floral material to confidently determine its identification, but we tentatively place this collection with $P$. brevistyla based on its location.

Specimens Examined—Brazil.—PARÁ: Rio Jarí, Monte Dourado, ao lado do Campo de Aviação, Oliveira 4513 (NY); Rio Jarí, Monte Dourado, Silva 1105 (CAN, NY, US); Jari, Estrada do Munguba, km 10, Silva 2392 (NY).
11. Plukenetia loretensis Ule, Verh. Bot. Vereins Prov. Brandenburg 50: 81. 1908.

Apodandra loretensis (Ule) Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 21. 1919.—Type: Peru. Iquitos, April 1903, E. Ule 6837 (holotype: B [destroyed]; lectotype designated here: L0137704 [online!]; isolectotypes: F0042476F! [fragment ex G], G00441994! [photo at F, neg. number 24572!], HBG515850 [online!], MG006665 [online!]).

Notes-See Gillespie (1993) for species discussion and Gillespie and Armbruster (1997) for species description. We report two additions to the distribution given in Gillespie (1993): Colombia (Idrobo 9020) and Pará, Brazil (Ramos 1105).

The holotype was destroyed at B so a new lectotype is designated from isotype material housed at L . The specimen we selected as lectotype has the most abundant and intact floral and vegetative material among the isotypes.
12. Plukenetia megastyla Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie sp. nov.-Type: Bolivia. Depto.

Santa Cruz, Prov. Guarayos (formerly Prov. Nuflo de Chavez), 4 km N of Perseverencia,
[-14.683 ${ }^{\circ}$, $-62.800^{\circ}$ ], $275 \mathrm{~m}, 9$ September 1990, M. Nee 38682 (holotype: NY02286564!; isotype: MO3816603!).

Similar to P. brachybotrya Müll.Arg. and $P$. brevistyla Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie, but differs by having an oblong-obovoid stylar column with a truncate apex, $2.6-4.4 \mathrm{~mm}$ long. Monoecious vines to slender lianas; stems erect or twining; older stems light brown and tan when dry, to $\sim 5 \mathrm{~mm}$ in diam, striate, glabrate; younger stems smooth to striate, puberulous. Leaves alternate, evergreen; stipules narrowly triangular to deltoid, $0.3-1 \mathrm{~mm}$, persistent; petioles with thickened, often purplish, pulvinus-like regions at the base and apex, entire petiole $0.7-3.5 \mathrm{~cm}$, glabrate except sparsely puberulous when young; blades simple, narrowly elliptic to elliptic, oblong-elliptic, oblanceolate-elliptic, or obovate-elliptic (rarely ovate-elliptic), 7-19.8 x $1.8-7.5 \mathrm{~cm}$, thick-chartaceous, both surfaces glabrate except sparsely puberulous on abaxial major veins when very young, base cuneate to obtuse, margins remotely serrulate, apex usually cuspidate, sometimes acuminate or attenuate, tip $0.4-1.6 \mathrm{~cm}$; primary veins 1 -nerved at the base, secondary veins weakly brochidodromous, 5-7(-9) on each side of the midrib, tertiary veins percurrent, sometimes reticulate towards the midrib; stipels and glandular knobs absent adaxially at petiole apex; adaxial basilaminar extrafloral nectaries 2 , narrowly to broadly oblong-elliptic, obovate, round-deltoid, or sometimes irregularly obtriangular, rarely with an additional smaller nectary above, $1.0-2.4 \times 0.4-1.7 \mathrm{~mm}$; abaxial laminar extrafloral nectaries (3-)6-14 per side (rarely absent), near the margins on distal 9/10th to $4 / 5$ th of the blade, $0.2-0.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ in diam, adaxial laminar nectaries absent. Inflorescences axillary, bisexual racemose thyrses, $0.6-3 \mathrm{~cm}$, $1(2) /$ axil; peduncles absent (rarely $0.2-0.3 \mathrm{~mm}$ ); axes very sparsely to moderately puberulous throughout (sometimes more puberulous distally); staminate bracts ovate to broadly ovate, $0.4-$ 1.1 mm , puberulous (sometimes only along the margins and at the apex); pistillate bracts ovate, sometimes deltoid, ( $0.3-$ ) $0.7-1 \mathrm{~mm}$, sparsely to densely puberulous; staminate flowers numerous, distal, 1-3(4)/node in condensed cymules (appearing short racemose if 3-4 flowers); pistillate flowers 1, basal (may appear to arise from the leaf axil), usually fallen or in fruit when staminate flowers are at or near anthesis. Staminate flowers: pedicel $12.8-14.8 \mathrm{~mm}$ at anthesis, sparsely puberulous (densely when young); bud subglobose to ovoid, sometimes depressed and wider than long, apex rounded; sepals $3-4$, incurved to spreading at anthesis, ovate to broadly ovate, $1-2.4 \times 0.5-1.7 \mathrm{~mm}$, apex obtuse, abaxial surface sparsely to moderately puberulous;


Figure 4.6 Plukenetia megastyla sp. nov. (a) Branch with mature leaves and inflorescences. (b) Capsule. (c) Capsule segment with seed. (d) Columella. (e) Seed, lateral view (left), ventral view (right). (f) Close-up of staminate cymules. (g) Staminate flower. (h) Pistillate flower. (i) Adaxial leaf blade with basilaminar extrafloral nectaries. (j) Abaxial leaf blade with laminar extrafloral nectaries. (k) Close-up of inflorescence. Photos by W.Cardinal-McTeague. Source: (a) G. Silva et al. 6161 (NY); (b, i-j) Plowman 8741 (NY); (c-e) Ledezma et al. 921 (CAN); (f, h, k) Nee 38682 (NY). (Abbreviations: an = annular nectary; o = ovary; s = style. Scale bars: [a] $=1 \mathrm{~cm} ;[\mathrm{b}-\mathrm{k}]=1 \mathrm{~mm})$.
receptacle subglobose to globose, fully covered with anthers; nectary an extrastaminal annular ring, upper surface sometimes undulate or uneven; androecium subglobose, $0.6-0.9 \times 0.8-1.3$ mm , stamens 20-30, filaments absent, anther sacs ellipsoid, dehiscing longitudinally. Pistillate
flowers: pedicel 12.9-24.7 mm, glabrate to sparsely puberulous; sepals 4, triangular, sometimes deltoid to broadly triangular, $0.5-1.2 \times 0.4-0.7 \mathrm{~mm}$, puberulous; ovary 4 -lobed, $0.8-1.7 \times 1-2$ mm , lobes rounded and laterally compressed, glabrate except puberulous along midline of the lobe, conspicuous wings or horns absent; styles 4, entirely connate into an oblong-obovoid column, $2.6-4.4 \times 2.6-3.7 \mathrm{~mm}$, base constricted and $0.9-1.6 \mathrm{~mm}$ wide, apex truncate, with a central dimple when young, unlobed distally, glabrate; stigmas 4 , light yellow-brown/tan or purple-red when dry, round-deltoid to circular, 0.8-1.1(2) mm each, smooth. Fruits 4-lobed capsules, $0.7-1.1 \times 1-1.6 \mathrm{~cm}$, surface irregularly verrucose, glabrous or glabrate, each carpel lobe subglobose, usually with a short tubercle $0.4-1.4 \mathrm{~mm}$, sometimes unornamented; stylar columns persistent, oblong-obovoid, apex truncate and dilated; pedicels (12)25-35 mm long. Seeds broadly lenticular, laterally compressed, elliptic to circular in outline, 4.8-5.2 x 5-5.9 x 3.8-4.2 mm, surface light to golden brown, sometimes with dark brown irregular splotches, weakly rugulose; testa persistent.

Pollen-Tricolpate, oblate spheroidal ( $\mathrm{P} / \mathrm{E}=0.88-1.1$ ), polar axis $32.9-45 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, equatorial axis 31-51 $\mu \mathrm{m}$; amb subcircular; colpi broad, margins uneven and jagged; tectum coarsely reticulate (voucher: Sperling et al. 6161 CAN).

Etymology-The specific epithet is derived from mega- (Greek, large or great) and -styla (Latin, -styled), and refers to the large stylar columns that differentiate this from similar species.

Distribution, Habitat, and Phenology - Known from two disjunct ranges in the southern Amazon basin: (i) Brazil, in southeastern Pará; and (ii) Bolivia, in eastern Beni and Santa Cruz, and Brazil, in western Mato Grosso (Fig. 4.7). Slender lianas climbing on trees in terra firme rainforest with high canopy, growing in primary or disturbed primary forest along trails or forest
edges, on flat lands or low hills from 140-738 m. Flowering and fruiting specimens collected from February to November in Pará and August to November in Mato Grosso and Bolivia.

Discussion-Plukenetia megastyla is morphologically similar to P. brevistyla but differs by having thick oblong-obovoid stylar columns, 2.6-4.4 mm long (Fig. 4.6), petioles with thickened, often purplish, pulvinus-like regions at the base and apex, and thick-chartaceous leaf blades, compared to short depressed-subglobose stylar columns, $0.3-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ long (Fig. 4.5), petioles with more or less uniform thickness (sometimes darker in colour at the base and apex), and subcoriaceous leaf blades in $P$. brevistyla. Additionally, the annular nectary of $P$. megastyla appears to be consistently present (Fig. 4.6G), whereas the nectary of $P$. brevistyla is variable and can be annular, 3-lobed, or not evident. Both species are distributed in the Amazon basin, with $P$. megastyla along the southern boundary of the region and $P$. brevistyla near the main stem of the Amazon River (Fig. 4.7). A previous molecular phylogeny based on two plastid ( $m a t K, n d h F$ ) and five nuclear (ETS, ITS, KEA1 introns 11 and 17, TEB exon 17) markers resolved $P$. megastyla (referred to as $P$. aff. brachybotrya; Ledezma et al. 921, Sperling et al. 5873,6161 ) in a strongly supported clade with $P$. supraglandulosa (Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review; summarized in Fig. 4.1). The ETS phylogeny of this study recovered P. megastyla in a poorly resolved polytomy within sect. Penninerviae, distinct from P. brevistyla (Fig. 4.4). Both $P$. megastyla and $P$. brevistyla are vegetatively similar to $P$. brachybotrya, but the latter differs in its short massive globose stylar columns, $2-2.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long (Fig. 4.3C), solitary staminate flowers (compared to condensed cymules), and primarily western Amazon distribution.

Sperling et al. 5873 (NY1461553) is unusual for having an aberrant pistillate flower with a slender-cylindrical stylar column and dilated apex. A younger pistillate flower on the sheet appears to have the typical oblong-obovoid stylar column.

Specimens Examined-Bolivia.-BENI: Prov. Iténez, Canton Mateguá, Campamento móvil Cerro Azul ubicado a 30 km de la Comunidad de Tiquin, $\left[-13.816^{\circ}\right.$, $\left.-62.761^{\circ}\right]$, Ledezma et al. 921 (CAN, MO6057037).—SANTA CRUZ: Prov. Velasco, Los Fierros, la senda hacia la meseta adentro bosque alto, $\left[-14.558^{\circ},-60.861^{\circ}\right]$, Jardim et al. 3336 (MO04850338). Brazil.Mato Grosso: Mun. Vila Bela da Santíssima Trindade, 41 km NNW of Pontes e Lacerda on BR364 to Vilhena, [-14.950 $\left.{ }^{\circ},-59.583^{\circ}\right]$, Thomas et al. 4732 (NY010064912).—PARÁ, Mun. Conceição do Araguaia, range of low hills ca. 20 km west of Redenção, near São João and Troncamento Santa Teresa, approx. [-8.050 $\left.{ }^{\circ},-50.167^{\circ}\right]$, Plowman et al. 8741 (NY01461555);

Mun. Conceição do Araguaia, 100 km south of Redenção on road (PA-150) to Barreiras dos Campos, Fazenda Inajaporã between Rio Inajazinho and Rio Inajá, approx. [-8.750 $\left.{ }^{\circ},-50.417^{\circ}\right]$, Plowman et al. 8908 (NY01461551); Serra dos Carajás, 1-4 km along road from camp AZUL toward AMZA camp N-1, [-6.100 ${ }^{\circ}$, $\left.-50.283^{\circ}\right]$, Sperling et al. 5873 (MO4249342, NY1461553);

Serra dos Carajás, $2-10 \mathrm{~km}$ southeast of ferry crossing on Rio Itacaiúnas, $\left[-5.917^{\circ},-50.483^{\circ}\right]$, Sperling et al. 6161 (CAN, MO4247783, NY, US).


Figure 4.7 Distribution map of our new species in sect. Penninerviae, P. brevistyla and $P$. megastyla, and members of the high elevation species complex in sect. Plukenetia, $P$. carolis-vegae subsp. carolis-vegae, $P$. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera, and P. huayllabambana. (Map data ©2018 Google, Imagery ©2018 NASA, TerraMetrics).
13. Plukenetia multiglandulosa Jabl., Mem. New York Bot. Gard. 17 (1): 143. 1967.Type: Venezuela. Amazonas: Cerro Parú, base of escarpment southward from camp 2 km, 1,800 m, 12 February 1951, R.S. Cowan \& J.J. Wurdack 31400 (holotype: NY00273179!; isotypes: F0057060F [online!], NY00273180!, US00096451!).

Notes-See Gillespie (1993) for species discussion.
14. Plukenetia penninervia Müll.Arg., Linnaea 34: 158. 1865.-Type: Venezuela. Near Biscaina, $3000 \mathrm{ft}[\sim 900 \mathrm{~m}], 1860$, A. Fendler 2412 (lectotype designated here: G-DC! [G00313655; photo at F!, neg. number 7110]; isolectotypes: GH000486692!, GOET003663 [online!], K000600747!, PH00030713 [online!]).

Plukenetia angustifolia Standl., Publ. Field Columb. Mus., Bot. Ser., 4 (8): 314. 1929.—Type:
Honduras. Lancetilla Valley, near Tela, Department of Atlántida, 20-600 m, 6 December 1927-20 March 1928, P.C. Standley 56708 (holotype: F! [V0057059F]; isotypes: A!, K!, US00096449!). [This name was published alongside two paratypes: $H$. von Tuerckheim 11.372, and A. Schipp 156 (GH [HUH00048690; online!], K000600751 [online!]). The original description did not indicate the holotype but a specimen annotated as such was deposited at Standley's home herbarium at F.]

Notes-See Gillespie (1993) for species discussion.
Taxonomic Discussion-A recent phylogenetic study (Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review) resolved $P$. penninervia in two distinct clades (Fig 4.1). The first group, composed of accessions of typical P. penninervia from Mesoamerica and Central America, was strongly supported as sister to the remaining species of sect. Penninerviae. The second was a single accession from Chóco, Colombia (referred to as $P$. cf. penninervia), which was well supported as sister to $P$. loretensis. Specimens of $P$. cf. penninervia are distinguished by having 3-6 flowers per staminate cymule (appearing distinctly short racemose), as well as by having staminate flowers with an annular nectary and pistillate flowers with a stout-cylindrical stylar column and noticeably dilated apex. By comparison, typical $P$. penninervia has $1-3$ staminate flowers per condensed cymule, lacks a staminate annular nectary, and has a stout-cylindrical stylar column
with an undilated apex (Gillespie 1993). Plukenetia cf. penninervia likely represents a new species and will be described in the officially published version of this treatment.

To complicate matters, there is evidence of a putative ancient hybridization event that resulted in the introgression of the ancestral plastid genome of $P$. cf. penninervia $+P$. loretensis into southern populations of $P$. penninervia. In nDNA analyses, McPherson 8461 (Panama) forms a strongly supported clade with other Mesoamerican and Central American $P$. penninervia, whereas in cpDNA analyses it is resolved as sister to an intermixed clade of $P$. cf. penninervia and P. loretensis with moderate support (Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review; Fig. 3.S3). It is unclear if the Venezuelan populations of $P$. penninervia share the same putative hybridization event. Additionally, weakly supported incongruence between both individual genes and nuclear and plastid datasets are more frequent in sect. Penninerviae than in other sections (Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review), suggesting incomplete lineage sorting could be an additional obstacle to resolving the relationships of the $P$. penninervia complex.

Two syntypes were listed in the description of $P$. penninervia, A. Fendler 2412 from Venezuela and a "hb. Pavon" collection from Mexico (Müller 1865). Ruiz and Pavón collected exclusively in Chile and Peru, suggesting the Mexican specimen came from a different collector. Madrid has five sheets of $P$. penninervia under Sessé \& Mociño 4212, which is a likely candidate for the Mexican syntype. At the time of writing, it is not known if a specimen of Sessé \& Mociño 4212 is housed at Müller's working herbarium, G. Although the Mexican syntype is likely identified, we designate $A$. Fendler 2412 as the lectotype given that it is explicitly cited and includes fruits and seeds associated with the species description (notably absent on all Sessé \& Mociño 4212 sheets). All sheets of $A$. Fendler 2412 are of similar limited quality, so we lectotypify the specimen at G-DC since it was likely Müller's selected type. Remaining syntype: Mexico. "hb. Pavon", likely M. Sessé \& J. Mociño 4212 (MA602300 [online!], MA602301 [online!], MA602302 [online!], MA602303 [online!], MA602304 [online!]).
15. Plukenetia supraglandulosa L.J.Gillespie, Syst. Bot. 18 (4): 598. 1993.—Type: French GUIANA. Sommet Tabulaire, zone centrale, versant occidental, ca. 40 km SE de Saül, 650 m, 27 August 1980, J.-J. de Granville 3626 (holotype: US00433067!; isotypes: CAY!, U0002068!, US00646987!).

Notes—See Gillespie (1993) and Gillespie and Armbruster (1997) for species descriptions. Described originally from French Guiana and Amapá, Brazil (Gillespie 1993), a recent collection (Clark \& Hoffman 622 US) extends the range west to Guyana.
16. Plukenetia verrucosa Sm., Nova Acta Regiae Soc. Sci. Upsal., ser. 2, 6: 4. 1799.—Type: Suriname. Linn. Collection of Surinam plants, No. 146 (holotype: LINN-HS 1489.1 [online!]).

Plukenetia volubilis L.f., Suppl. Pl. 421. 1781 publ. April 1782, nom. illeg.-TyPE: Suriname. Herb. Alstroemeri 1848, C.G. Dahlberg s.n. (holotype: S09-18958 [online!]).
Plukenetia integrifolia Vahl, Eclog. Amer. 3: 43. 1807.-Type: Guyana. Demerari, J.P. von Rohr 86 (holotype: C10011347 [online!]).

Notes- See Gillespie (1993) and Gillespie and Armbruster (1997) for species descriptions.

Taxonomic Discussion-Linnaeus f. (1781 publ. 1782) was the first to suggest there was second species of Plukenetia from the Neotropics when he described the novel morphology of a new collection of $P$. volubilis from Surinam. However, there was no indication that Linnaeus $f$. meant for this to be a new species and it appears that he was expanding the concept of $P$. volubilis with the morphological variation found in Suriname (Dalberg s.n. S). Regardless, if we treat $P$. volubilis L.f. as a new species, it would be a homonym of $P$. volubilis L. and therefore illegitimate. As such, Smith (1799) was the first to to provide a legitimate name, P. verrucosa Sm., for the new species from Suriname. Smith (1799) recognized that the description of $P$. volubilis in Linnaeus f.'s Supplementum Plantarum (1781 publ. 1782) was associated with $P$. verrucosa, but by convention, type status would be conferred to the specimen listed in Smith's herbarium (Linn. collection of Surinam plants No. 146 LINN-HS).

## VI. Plukenetia sect. Plukenetia-Type: Plukenetia volubilis L.

Sajorium sect. Pluknetia Baillon, Étude Euphorb. 483. 1858, nom. illeg. Type: not designated Plukenetia sect. Cylindrophora Müll.Arg., Linnaea 34: 157. 1865.—Type: Plukenetia peruviana Müll.Arg. [= Plukenetia volubilis L.]

Lianas or canopy lianas, stems slender to thick. Leaf blades 3-veined at the base. Inflorescences bisexual racemose thyrses (rarely racemes); pistillate flowers solitary at 1-2(3) basal-most nodes; staminate flowers (1-2)3-10/node in condensed cymules, glomerules, or moderately condensed cymules with conspicuous and irregularly branched cyme axes (rarely 1/node). Staminate flowers: receptacle conical or globose; nectaries of interstaminal slendercylindrical, ligulate, or small or large irregularly shaped segments (absent in P. volubilis); stamens 12-40, densely packed; filaments short-conical or slender-cylindrical, $0.5-2 \mathrm{~mm}$; pollen $\mathrm{P}=48-60 \mu \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{E}=53-69 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, tectum foveolate. Pistillate flowers: styles (20-40)70-95\% connate into a cylindrical column, 5.6-13.4(-35) mm. Fruits 4(-7)-lobed or subglobosequadrangular capsules, dry, dehiscent or semi-dehiscent, (1.6-)2.5-10 cm in diam, or subglobose-quadrangular berries, fleshy, indehiscent, $3.5-11 \mathrm{~cm}$ in diam. Seeds broadly lenticular to lenticular (ovoid or triangular-ovoid in P. polyadenia), 10-34.3(49-56) x 8-27(3337) x (2.5-9) 14-36 mm ("medium", "large", "extra-large", or "maximum", sensu CardinalMcTeague et al., in review).

Distributed in Mesoamerica, Central America, northwestern and Amazonian South America, and the Lesser Antilles.

Discussion-Section Plukenetia refers to subclade P3 (Fig. 4.1) and includes six species distributed in the Neotropics. The section is morphologically similar to sect. Angostylidium but differs in its neotropical distribution and having cylindrical stylar columns with free style arms that are more or less uniform in thickness or tapered and erect or spreading (Fig. 4.3G-K). Section Plukenetia is also distinct in having staminate flowers with long slender-cylindrical filaments and interstaminal nectaries (although with short-conical filaments and without nectaries in $P$. volubilis), and exhibiting the widest range of fruit type (dry or fleshy, and dehiscent, semi-dehiscent, or indehiscent) and seed size ("medium" to "maximum" sized).

## Key to the species of Plukenetia sect. Plukenetia

1. Styles (9-)15-35 mm long; filaments short-conical, $\sim 0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long; interstaminal nectaries absent. - 23. P. volubilis
2. Styles $4-12 \mathrm{~mm}$ long; filaments slender-cylindrical, $0.5-1.5(2) \mathrm{mm}$ long; interstaminal nectaries present (small and sometimes overlooked in P. stipellata). - (2)
3. Fruits $1.6-3 \mathrm{~cm}$ diam, dry; interstaminal nectaries of small irregularly shaped segments; stipels 2 and glandular knob absent adaxially at petiole apex. - 22. P. stipellata
4. Fruits $2.5-11 \mathrm{~cm}$ diam, dry or fleshy; interstaminal nectaries slender-cylindrical, ligulate (strap-shaped), or large irregularly shaped segments; stipels $0-2$ and glandular knob 0 or 1 adaxially at petiole apex. - (3)
5. Interstaminal nectaries of large irregularly shaped segments; leaves: lateral primary veins arching towards the margins $\leq 1 / 2$ the length of the blade, stipels $1-2$ and glandular knob absent adaxially at petiole apex; typically growing in montane rainforest (580-)12802440 m. - (4)
6. Interstaminal nectaries slender-cylindrical or ligulate (strap-shaped); leaves: lateral primary veins arching towards the apex $\geq 1 / 2$ the length of the blade, stipels absent and glandular knob 1 adaxially at petiole apex; growing in lowland to pre-montane rainforest $0-1000 \mathrm{~m}$ (montane rainforest to 2100 m in P. lehmanniana). - (6)
7. Fruits $2.8-3.7 \mathrm{~cm}$ in diam, seeds "large", $19.2-19.6 \times 17-18.5 \times 13-15.7 \mathrm{~mm}$; staminate sepals 5 , usually of equal size but sometimes one much narrower, rarely 4 ; distributed in central and southern Peru (Cusco, Junín, Pasco). - 18a. P. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera
8. Fruits 4-10 cm in diam, seeds "extra-large", 27-50 x 25-40 x 15-35 mm; staminate sepals 45; distributed in northern Peru (Amazonas, Cajamarca). - (5)
9. Filaments $0.5-1$ (perhaps to $\sim 1.8$ ) mm long; staminate cymules densely packed on inflorescence, axis not clearly visible. - 18b. P. carolis-vegae subsp. carolis-vegae
10. Filaments $0.1-0.5(1) \mathrm{mm}$ long; staminate cymules loosely packed on inflorescence, axis clearly visible. - 19. P. huayllabambana
11. Styles $20-40 \%$ connate, column 3-6 mm long, free style arms 3-6 mm long; fruits squarish in profile; distributed north and west of the Andes in the Pacific coastal and montane regions of Colombia and Ecuador. - 20. P. lehmanniana
12. Styles $70-95 \%$ connate, column $3-14 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, free style arms $1-2.5(3) \mathrm{mm}$ long; fruits ovoid in profile; distributed south and east of the Andes in the Amazon basin, the Guianas, and eastern Venezuela, or in southern Mexico. - (7)
13. Seeds broadly lenticular, "large" to "extra-large", 24-27 x 21-27 x 14-16 mm; fruits 5.8-7 cm in diam, capsules, at least semi-dehiscent; styles $12-14 \mathrm{~mm}$ long; distributed in southern Mexico. - 17. P. carabiasiae
14. Seeds ovoid, "maximum" sized, 49-56 x 33-37 x 30-36 mm; fruits 5-11 cm in diam, berries, indehiscent; styles 3-8 mm long; distributed in the northern Amazon basin, the Guianas, and eastern Venezuela. - 21. P. polyadenia
15. Plukenetia carabiasiae J.Jiménez Ram., Anales Inst. Biol. Univ. Nac. Autón. México, Bot. 64 (2): 55. 1993.-Type: Mexico. Oaxaca: Distrito Tuxtepec, Municipio San Felipe Usila, Cerretera de Arroyo Tambor a Cerro Verde, [17.833,$\left.~-96.467^{\circ}\right], 500 \mathrm{~m}, 9$ April 1992, J. Ismael Calzada 17733 (holotype: FCME; isotype: MEXU).

Notes-See Jiménez Ramírez (1993) for species description. This species was described after Gillespie (1993) and is known only from a few collections from the Tuxtepec district of Oaxaca, Mexico (J. Ismael Calzada 16965 FCME, 17733 FCME, MEXU; Meave et al. 1550 MO4786568!, MO6030707!). It appears to be morphologically similar to $P$. polyadenia but with smaller, at least semi-dehiscent fruit, "large" to "extra-large" broadly lenticular seeds, and longer styles. The staminate flower morphology of $P$. carabiasiae is not yet known.
18. Plukenetia carolis-vegae Bussmann, Paniagua \& C.Téllez, Econ. Bot. 67 (4): 388. 2013.-TyPe: Peru. Amazonas: Provincia de Rodríguez de Mendoza, Distrito Leymebamba [as "Limabamba"], finca of Sr. Rodríguez in Monte Allegre, [-6.586", $77.532^{\circ}$ ], 1854 m, 19 August 2012, R. Bussmann et al. 17132 (holotype: HAO (not seen); isotypes: MO6605774 [sheet 1 of 2; online!], MO6605775 [sheet 2 of 2; online!]; INBIAPERU [Instituto para el Desarrollo Local Sostenible y la Conservación Biológica y Cultural Andino-Amazónica, Trujillo]). [The two isotype sheets at MO could not be
found at the time of writing. They are mistakenly labelled as holotypes according to images on Tropicos.org]

Discussion-Together, P. carolis-vegae and P. huayllabambana form the high elevation species complex sister to $P$. volubilis. Members of the species complex grow in high elevation montane rainforest in the Andes, 1280-2440 m, and possess staminate flowers with large irregularly shaped interstaminal nectary segments, short styles partly connate into a cylindrical column usually $<10 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, larger fruits and seeds, $\sim 3-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ diam and "large" or "extralarge", and 1-2 thick stipels at their petiole apex. They differ by having typically 5 staminate sepals, longer filaments (0.5)1-1.5(2) mm long, and inflorescences densely packed with staminate cymules in $P$. carolis-vegae, compared to 4 staminate sepals, shorter filaments $0.1-$ $0.5(1) \mathrm{mm}$ long, and loosely packed with staminate cymules in $P$. huayllabambana.

There are at least two subspecies within P. carolis-vegae. The species was first described based on a cultivated form (subsp. carolis-vegae), which we infer was derived from natural populations (subsp. nectarifera subsp. nov.), as is suggested by its very large fruits and seeds and only being found in cultivation (Bussmann et al., 2013). Since the cultivated form differs in morphology and ecology from the natural populations, a new taxon appears warranted. Here, we choose the rank of subspecies because it follows the convention of other cultivated species, such as maize (Zea mays L. subsp. mays derived from natural populations of $Z$. mays subsp. parviglumis Iltis \& J.F.Doebley) and manioc (Manihot esculenta Crantz subsp. esculenta derived from natural populations of M. esculenta subsp. flabellifolia (Pohl) Cif.). The subspecies differ by fruit and seed size, 4-10 cm diam and "extra-large" in subsp. carolis-vegae and 2.8-3.7 cm in diam and "large" in subsp. nectarifera, but are similar in other morphological aspects.

18a. Plukenetia carolis-vegae Bussmann, Paniagua \& C.Téllez subsp. Carolis-vegae.

Distribution, Habitat, and Phenology-Presently only known from its type collection from the Amazonas region of northern Peru (Fig 4.7). Twining lianas 4-6 m long, in cultivation at 1855 m . Flowering and fruiting specimen collected in August.

Discussion-We hypothesize that subsp. carolis-vegae is a cultivated form derived from natural populations of subsp. nectarifera. Subspecies carolis-vegae is only known from its type
specimen (Bussmann et al. 17132), which was collected from a farmer's field. It is distinguished by its larger fruits and seeds but overlaps with subsp. nectarifera in all other morphological characters. The original description of subsp. carolis-vegae characterized its filaments as relatively short, $0.5-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, and its staminate flowers as lacking nectaries, but the type illustration (Bussmann et al. 2013, fig. 1C) suggests its filaments can be as long as $\sim 1.8 \mathrm{~mm}$ and that large irregularly shaped nectary segments are present. The MO isotype sheets of subsp. carolis-vegae could not be located at the time of writing, but are needed to verify these staminate morphology characters.

Subspecies carolis-vegae is very similar to $P$. huayllabambana. Both taxa are primarily distributed in the Rodríguez de Mendoza Province in northern Peru (Fig. 4.7), have large fruits $4-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ in diam with "extra-large" seeds, and appear to be fully or semi-domesticated with possible reintroductions into forests adjacent to farmland. Subspecies carolis-vegae differs by having longer filaments, $0.5-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ long (perhaps as long as $\sim 1.8 \mathrm{~mm}$ ) and inflorescences densely packed with staminate cymules. By comparison, $P$. huayllabambana has short filaments, $0.1-0.3 \mathrm{~mm}$ long in its type description (Bussmann et al. 2009) and $0.4-0.5(1) \mathrm{mm}$ long in a specimen we independently measured (Quipuscoa 381 MO5294603), and inflorescences loosely packed with staminate cymules.

18b. Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie subsp. nov.-
Type: To be determined in official publication.

Similar to Plukenetia carolis-vegae Bussmann, Paniagua \& C.Téllez subsp. carolis-vegae but with smaller fruits and seeds and found in natural/non-cultivated populations from central and southern Peru.

Monoecious vines or lianas; stems erect. Leaves alternate, evergreen; stipules triangular, $1-2 \mathrm{~mm}$, persistent; petioles 3-6.5 cm; blades simple, ovate to broadly ovate, $9-13.5 \times 4.2-9 \mathrm{~cm}$, chartaceous, adaxial surface puberulent with veins puberulous, abaxial surface puberulent with major veins pubescent, base truncate to subcordate, margins minutely serrulate, apex acuminate, tip 0.9-1.2 cm; primary veins 3-nerved at the base, secondary veins weakly brochidodromous, 4-6 originating from the midrib near the middle and apex, tertiary veins percurrent; stipels $1-2$ adaxially at petiole apex, ligulate, $0.6-1 \mathrm{~mm}$; adaxial basilaminar extrafloral nectaries 2 ,
narrowly-elliptic to subcircular, $1-2 \times 0.5-1 \mathrm{~mm}$; adaxial laminar extrafloral nectaries not absent or $1-2,0.4-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$ in diam, abaxial laminar nectaries absent or $1-2$, remote, $0.2-0.3 \mathrm{~mm}$ in diam. Inflorescences axillary, bisexual racemose thyrses, 2-12 cm, 1/axil; peduncles $3.5-8 \mathrm{~mm}$; staminate bracts narrowly triangular, $0.5-1 \mathrm{~mm}$; pistillate bracts deltoid to broadly deltoid, $0.5-1$ mm ; staminate flowers numerous, distal, $3-7 /$ node in condensed cymules; pistillate flowers $1-3$, basal. Staminate flowers: pedicel $1-2.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ at anthesis, puberulous; bud subglobose, apex rounded; sepals (4)5, spreading to reflexed at anthesis, ovate, $2.5-3.5 \times 1.5-2.5 \mathrm{~mm}$, usually of equal size but sometimes 1 much narrower, apex acute, abaxial surface sparsely puberulous; receptacle convex to subglobose; androecium subglobose, $0.6-0.9 \times 0.8-1.3 \mathrm{~mm}$; interstaminal nectaries large irregularly shaped segments; stamens 25-35, filaments slender-cylindrical, $1-$ $1.5(2) \mathrm{mm}$, anther sacs ellipsoid, dehiscing longitudinally. Pistillate flowers: pedicel 1.3-2.9 mm ; sepals 4 , narrowly triangular to lanceolate, $1.1-1.4 \times 0.3-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$; ovary 4 -lobed, $0.8-1.6 \mathrm{x}$ $0.9-1.4 \mathrm{~mm}$, lobes rounded and laterally compressed, conspicuous wings or horns absent; styles 4, partly connate into a cylindrical column, $6.6-15.6 \times 1.2-2.2 \mathrm{~mm}, 4-$ lobed distally, free style lobes erect or spreading, $1.2-2.2 \mathrm{~mm}$, sometimes slightly $2-$ fid; stigmas 4 , smooth to shortpapillose. Fruits 4-lobed capsules, 1.8-2.3 x $3-3.4 \mathrm{~cm}$, surface microverrucose, glabrescent, each carpel lobe subglobose, carinate, keel $0.5-1.4 \mathrm{~mm}$; stylar columns persistent, often broken off; pedicels $7-10 \mathrm{~mm}$ long. Seeds broadly lenticular, laterally compressed, elliptic-circular in outline, $17-19.3 \times 17.5-18.5 \times 13.4-15.9 \mathrm{~mm}$, surface dull golden brown or light to dark brown, with irregular ridges and reticulations; testa persistent.

Etymology-The specific epithet is derived from nectari- (Latin, nectary) and -fera (Latin, -bearing), referring to the large irregularly shaped interstaminal nectary segments, which differentiates members of the high elevation species group (P. carolis-vegae subsp. carolisvegae, $P$. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera, and $P$. huayllabambana) from all other species of Plukenetia.

Distribution, Habitat, and Phenology - Known from two disjunct populations from central (Junín and Pasco) and southern (Cusco) regions of Peru (Fig. 4.7). Twining vines and lianas climbing to 10 m in primary and secondary montane forest, sometimes partly disturbed and along roadsides, forest edges, or riparian forest, (580-)1280-2440 m. Flowering specimens collected in February, March and May through September, fruiting specimens from September through February.

Discussion-P. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera is morphologically similar to subsp. carolis-vegae but differs primarily by its smaller fruits and seeds. Subspecies nectarifera is also widespread in central and southern Peru and found in natural habitats, while subsp. carolis-vegae is narrowly distributed in northern Peru and so far only known in cultivation.

Specimens Examined-Peru.-CuSCO: La Convención, Dist. Santa Ana, Poromate, 2118 m, [-12.917 $\left.{ }^{\circ},-72.783^{\circ}\right]$, 16 June 2003, Calatayud et al. 1470 (CAN, MO); La Convención, Dist. Vilcabamba, Espiritupampa, 1544 m, [-12.914 $\left.{ }^{\circ},-72.212^{\circ}\right]$, 23 July 2004, Calatayud et al. 2643 (CAN, MO); La Convención, Dist. Santa Ana, Tunquimayo, 2110 m, [-12.909,$\left.~-72.813^{\circ}\right]$, 20 September 2004, Calatayud et al. 2746 (MO04837341, MO04837342); La Convención, Distrito Santa Ana, Localidad Tunquimayo, $2007 \mathrm{~m},\left[-12.907^{\circ},-72.821^{\circ}\right], 19$ October 2007, Farfán et al. 1820 (CAN, MO); La Convención, Dist. Echarati, Monte Cristo, 1447 m, [-13.5º , $72.317^{\circ}$ ], 29 July 2005, Huamantupa et al. 6445 (CAN, MO); Ca. 5 km N of Aguas Calientes (km. 116 on railroad), ca. $2000 \mathrm{~m}, 7$ June 1977, Solomon 3166 (MO2637789); La Convención, Dist. Occobamba, Santa Elena, 1995 m, $\left[-12.45^{\circ},-72.167^{\circ}\right], 24$ February 2005, Valenzuela et al. 5197 (CAN, MO); La Convención, Dist. Santa Ana, Bosque del Chuyapi, 2100 m, [-12.949º, $72.785^{\circ}$ ], 19 July 2006, Valenzuela et al. 7297 (CAN, MO); La Convención, Dist. Ocobamba, Versalles, Santa Elena, 1942 m, [-12.783 ${ }^{\circ}$, $\left.-72.305^{\circ}\right]$, 24 November 2007, Valenzuela et al. 10453 (CAN, MO); La Convención, Distrito Santa Ana, Tunqui Mayo, 1870 m, [-12.901º, $72.762^{\circ}$ ], 2 November 2007, Vasquez et al. 33145 (MO).—Junín: Yaupi, dept. Junin, 1600 m, 19 July 1961, Woytkowski 6670 (MO2154072).—Pasco: Oxapampa, Distrito Huancabamba, Zona de Amortiguamiento del Parque Nacional Yanachaga-Chemillén, sector Tunqui, 1753 m , [-$10.287^{\circ},-75.523^{\circ}$ ], 13 September 2007, Castillo et al. 965 (CAN, MO); Cordillera Yanachaga, E of Oxapampa, lumber road to Chacas microwave station, 10 km E of main road, 2040-2110 m, [-$\left.10.583^{\circ},-75.25^{\circ}\right]$, 2 March 1982, Gentry \& Smith 35906 (MO2983786); Oxapampa, Distrito Oxapampa, Parte alta de la quebrada San Luis, 2440 m, [-10.565,$\left.~-75.345^{\circ}\right], 30$ May 2007, Monteagudo et al. 14125 (CAN, MO); Oxapampa, Distrito Huancabamba, Parque Nacional Yanachaga-Chemillén, Sector Tunqui, $1790 \mathrm{~m},\left[-10.289^{\circ},-75.518^{\circ}\right], 22$ September 2007, Monteagudo et al. 15253 (CAN, MO); Oxapampa, Dist. Villa Rica, Palma Centro Bocaz, camino a Alto Atarraz-Zona de Amortiguamiento, Parque Nacional Tanachaga-Chemillén, 1515 m , [10.65우 , -75.193$], 14$ January 2005, Ortiz et al. 191 (CAN, MO); Oxapampa, Distrito Villa Rica, Localidad Centro Bocaz, $1280 \mathrm{~m},\left[-10.633^{\circ},-75.167^{\circ}\right]$, 17 September 2003, Perea et al. 282
(CAN, MO); Oxapampa, Dist. Oxapampa, Abra Villa Rica, $2000 \mathrm{~m},\left[-10.4^{\circ},-75.183^{\circ}\right], 26$ August 2005, Rojas et al. 3863 (CAN, MO); Oxapampa, Distrito Pozuzo, Camino de Puente Victoria hacia la Comunidad Nativa Alto Lagarto, $700 \mathrm{~m},\left[-10.1^{\circ},-75.433^{\circ}\right], 29$ September 2007, Rojas et al. 4648 (MO6126857); Oxapampa, Dist. Palcazú, Comunidad Nativa de Alto Lagarto, $700 \mathrm{~m},\left[-10.199^{\circ},-75.356^{\circ}\right], 3$ December 2007, Rojas et al. 4827 (CAN, MO); Oxapampa, Dist. Pozuzo, Alto Lagarto a Puente Victoria, $700 \mathrm{~m},\left[-10.1^{\circ},-75.433^{\circ}\right]$, 28 December 2007, Rojas \& Ortiz 5152 (CAN, MO); Oxapampa, Dist. Palcazú, Comunidad nativa Alto Lagarto - Reserva Comunal Yanesha., $584 \mathrm{~m},\left[-10.152^{\circ},-75.392^{\circ}\right], 30$ October 2009, Rojas \& Ortiz 7102 (CAN, MO); Oxapampa, Road from Oxapampa to San Alberto, $2250 \mathrm{~m},\left[-10.533^{\circ},-75.35^{\circ}\right], 20$ June 2003, van der Werff et al. 17532 (CAN, MO); Oxapampa, Along old road Oxapampa-Villa Rica, $2000 \mathrm{~m},\left[-10.633^{\circ},-75.367^{\circ}\right]$, 25 June 2003, van der Werff et al., 17759 (CAN, MO), 17760 (CAN, MO); Oxapampa, Distrito Bermudez, Bosque Protección San Matias-San Carlos, Sector Unión-Shimaki, $1382 \mathrm{~m},\left[-10.75^{\circ},-74.917^{\circ}\right]$, 12 February 2003, Vasquez et al. 27906 (MO5709828).
19. Plukenetia huayllabambana Bussmann, C.Téllez \& A.Glenn, Nordic J. Bot. 27 (4): 313. 2009.-TyPe: Peru. Región Amazonas: Provincia de Rodríguez de Mendoza, El CedroCruzpata, $\left[-6.404^{\circ},-77.449^{\circ}\right], 1676 \mathrm{~m}, 5$ July 2008, C. Téllez, C. Vega, and L. Cabrera 2 (holotype: INBIAPERU [Instituto para el Desarrollo Local Sostenible y la Conservación Biológica y Cultural Andino-Amazónica, Trujillo]; isotype: K001089689 [online!]). [The isotype was originally published as housed at MO (Bussmann et al., 2009), but only one sheet of a different collection (Téllez et al. 4 MO6116702!) incorrectly labeled as an isotype could be found. The isotype has since been found at Kew (Téllez et al. 2 K001089689 [online!]) and it appears to be the isotype that was originally deposited at MO ("Ex Herbarium" MO6116701).]

Discussion-Together, P. huayllabambana and P. carolis-vegae form the high elevation species complex sister to $P$. volubilis. Members of the species complex grow in high elevation montane rainforest in the Andes, 1280-2440 m, and possess staminate flowers with large irregularly shaped interstaminal nectary segments, short styles partly connate into a cylindrical column usually $<10 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, and $1-2$ thick stipels at their petiole apex. Members of the species
complex also have larger fruits and seeds, $4-10 \mathrm{~cm}$ diam and "extra-large" seeds in $P$.
huayllabambana and $P$. carolis-vegae subsp. carolis-vegae, and 2.8-3.7 cm in diam and "large" seeds in $P$. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera.

This species is a putative hybrid between $P$. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera $\times P$. volubilis, which is supported by the presence of a $P$. volubilis plastid genome in accessions of $P$. huayllabambana (Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review; Fig. 3.S3) and their intermediate staminate floral morphology. Both $P$. huayllabambana and $P$. volubilis have 4 staminate sepals and stamens with short filaments, $0.1-0.5(1) \mathrm{mm}$ long, compared to typically 5 staminate sepals and longer filaments, (0.5)1-1.5(2) mm long, in P. carolis-vegae.
P. huayllabambana is distributed in the Amazonas and Cajamarca regions of northern Peru (Fig. 4.7). It is known from only a few collections, mostly in the Rodríguez de Mendoza Province, but is likely more common in cultivation. Its staminate flowers were originally described as having 5 (rarely 4) sepals and [nectary] disc absent (Bussmann et al., 2009), but our observations found 4 staminate sepals, short filaments, $0.4-0.5(1) \mathrm{mm}$ long, and the presence of large irregularly shaped interstaminal nectary segments (Quipuscoa 381 MO5294603). The original type illustration only shows an immature staminate flower dissected from a bud, and the staminate flower at anthesis is aberrant and likely from a non-euphorb species (Bussmann et al. 2009, figs. 1J and 1H, respectively).

## Specimens Examined—Peru.—Amazonas: Chachapoyas District, Distrito

 Leymebamba, Los Chichos/San Lucas, 2150 m , [-6.701º, -77.586 ${ }^{\circ}$, 19 June 2000, Gruhn et al. 84 (MO6406258); Rodriguez de Mendoza District, Michina, $1608 \mathrm{~m},\left[-6.378^{\circ},-77.527^{\circ}\right]$, 5 June 2008, Téllez et al. 4 (MO6116702).-CAJAMARCA: San Ignacio, Distrito San José de Lourdes, Villarrica, Nororiental del Marañón RENOM, 1200-1420 m, [-4.917º $\left.-78.833^{\circ}\right]$, 28 October 1995, Quipuscoa 381 (MO5294603).20. Plukenetia lehmanniana (Pax \& K.Hoffm.) Huft \& L.J.Gillespie, Syst. Bot. 18 (4): 584. 1993. Eleutherostigma lehmannianum Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 11, t.3. 1919.-Type: Colombia. Nariño, Ricaurte, 1000-1400 m, F.C. Lehmann 5158 (holotype: B [destroyed]; lectotype designated by Gillespie 1993: K000600748!; isolectotype: K000600749!).

Plukenetia chapoensis Croizat, Caldasia 2: 431. 1944.-Type: ColombiA. Boyaca, region of Mt. Chapón, $3600 \mathrm{ft}, 29$ June 1932, A.E. Lawrance 276 (holotype: A00048691!; isotypes: BM!, F [V0057061F; online!], F [V0057062F; online!], K000600750!, MO!, NY00579365!, US00386091!).

Notes-See Gillespie (1993) for species discussion.
21. Plukenetia polyadenia Müll.Arg. in Martius (ed.), Fl. Bras. 11 (2): 334. 1874. Elaeophora polyadenia (Müll.Arg.) Ducke, Arch. Jard. Bot. Rio de Janeiro 5: 146. 1930.—TyPE: Peru. Maynas, E.F. Poeppig 2385 (2585?) (lectotype designated here: W [photo at F!, neg. number 32544]; isolectotypes: F! [fragment], G00441993! [fragment]; possible isotypes (labeled as Poeppig 2585): HAL0140191 [online!], NY00273181!).
Elaeophora abutifolia Ducke, Arch. Jard. Bot. Rio de Janeiro 4: 112. 1925. Plukenetia abutifolia (Ducke) Pax \& K.Hoffm. in Engler \& Prantl (eds.), Nat. Pflanzenfam., ed. 2, 19c: 141. 1931.-Type: Brazil. Breves Antonio Lemos, margem inundada do Rio Tajapuru, 5 May 1923, A. Ducke s.n., RB 17893 (lectotype designated here: RB00283479 [online!]; isolectotypes: G00441992 [online!], IAN50621 [online!], K000600770 [online!], P00645482!, S [S-R-10641; online!], U0002066 [online!], US1442272 [online!]).

Notes-See Gillespie (1993) for species discussion and Gillespie and Armbruster (1997) for species description.

There is sufficient ambiguity over the type of $P$. polyadenia to warrant designating a lectotype. The specimen at Geneva, where Müller worked, is limited to a leaf and inflorescence fragment, suggesting the detailed type description was based on additional material. The specimen at Vienna is a likely candidate given that Poeppig's types are often housed there (Stafleu \& Cowan, 1983), however we cannot assume that Müller based his description on that specimen. Since the holotype is unclear, we designate a lectotype based on the specimen from Vienna, which has the most abundant floral and vegetative material.

Of the three syntypes cited in the protologue of Elaeophora abutifolia, A. Ducke s.n., RB 17893 has the best floral material. Overall, the Utrecht specimen (now housed at Leiden) most clearly demonstrates the pistillate morphology, but by convention we lectotypify the original
syntype housed in Ducke's herbarium at the Jardim Botânico do Rio de Janeiro. Remaining syntypes: BraZil. Pará: Belém Marutucú, capoeira úmida, 18 October 1923, A. Ducke s.n., RB 17892 (RB00283480 [online!]); São Félix do Xingu Estrada da Victório ao Forte, 21 April 1924, J.G. Kuhlmann 2051, RB 17895 (RB00724931 [online!], RB00287343 [online!], S [S-R-10855; online!], U0002067!).
22. Plukenetia stipellata L.J.Gillespie, Syst. Bot. 18 (4): 588. 1993.—Type: Costa Rica. Herederia: Finca La Selva, OTS Field Station on the Río Puerto Viejo, just E of junction with the Río Sarapiqui, $\left[10.400^{\circ},-84.000^{\circ}\right], 100 \mathrm{~m}, 13$ September 1983, L.J. Gillespie 413 (holotype: US00432786!; isotypes: CR!, MO!, NY00022625!; FAA preserved material at US!).

Notes-See Gillespie (1993) for species description.
23. Plukenetia volubilis L., Sp. Pl. 1 (2): 1192. 1753. Sajorium volubile (L.) Baill., Étude Euphorb. 483. 1858.-Type: West Indies. Illustration t. 13 (lower half) in Plumier, Nov. Pl. Amer. 1703.

Plukenetia peruviana Müll.Arg., Linnaea 34: 157. 1865.-Syntypes: Peru. hb. Pavon (G!, GDC! [G00313656; photo at F!, neg. number 7111]); Prov. Maynas, E.F. Poeppig 2110 (not seen).

Plukenetia macrostyla Ule, Verh. Bot. Vereins Prov. Brandenburg 50: 80. 1908.-Type: Brazil. Amazonas: Rio Juruá sup., September 1901, E. Ule 5864 (holotype: B [destroyed]; lectotype designated here: G00441991! [photo at F!, neg. number 24573]; isolectotypes: F! [fragment], HBG515849 [online!], MG005766 [online!]).
Fragariopsis paxii Pittier, J. Wash. Acad. Sci. 19: 351. 1929.—Type: Venezuela. Hacienda Puerto La Cruz, Coastal Range, 1000 m, 28 August-4 September 1918, H. Pittier 8109 (holotype: VEN6906 [online!]; isotype: GH00048014!, US00096452!).

Notes-See Gillespie (1993) for species discussion and Gillespie and Armbruster (1997) for species description.

Taxonomic Discussion-The $P$. volubilis species complex includes a main group of typical $P$. volubilis, plus two smaller groups that differ in morphology and phylogeny and may warrant their own taxonomic rank. The first is an open savanna species group found on the Moxos Plains of Bolivia. This group has broad leaf blades with subcordate bases similar to the typical moist or wet forest $P$. volubilis, but differs in its habitat, generally thicker leaf blades, and smaller seeds/fruit ("medium" compared to "large" sensu Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review). Accessions of the open savanna group (known only from Nee 55162 MO and Parada et al. 206 CAN, MO) form a strongly supported clade sister to the remaining moist or wet forest $P$. volubilis (Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review), suggesting this group could represent a distinct taxon on the basis of ecology and phylogeny. Floral morphology of the open savanna group is not yet known and additional collections are needed to verify if there are sufficient characters to warrant a new species.

The second is a mid-elevation species group from the Andes of Bolivia and Peru. Individuals in this group are found at higher elevations, (200)500-900(1800) m, than the typical moist or wet forest species group (usually to 500 m ). The mid-elevation group is known from many collections across Bolivia (Jaramillo et al. 1237 MO [208 m]; Teran et al. 2006 MO [800 $\mathrm{m}]$; Teran et al. 2502 MO [1800 m]) and Peru (Foster \& Wachter 7404 MO [500-600 m]; Gentry et al. 40071 MO [830-900 m]; Huamán. 188 MO [290 m]; Huamantupa et al. 3500 MO [780 m]; Nùñez 13775 MO [640 m]; Rojas et al. 4349 MO [ 800 m ], 4593 MO [ 800 m ], 5222 MO [600 m], $5525 \mathrm{MO}[1500 \mathrm{~m}], 5665 \mathrm{MO}[600 \mathrm{~m}], 8491 \mathrm{MO}$ [500 m]; Rojas \& Ortiz 6726 MO [500 m]; Valenzuela et al. 8531 MO [739 m], 9242 MO [1200 m], 10968 MO [1000 m], 12029 MO [375-635 m]; van der Werff et al. 18445 MO [700 m]). These collections are differentiated by their narrower leaf blades and cuneate or truncate bases, compared to broader leaf blades with subcordate or cordate bases in typical $P$. volubilis. Other characters such as style length and fruit/seed size share the same breadth of variation observed in the typical $P$. volubilis group. Phylogenetic analyses suggest mid-elevation accessions (Huamantupa et al. 3500, Jaramillo et al. 1237, Teran et al. 2502, Valenzuela et al. 8531) form a strongly supported clade embedded within typical P. volubilis (Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review). Although the midelevation group appears to form a cohesive lineage within $P$. volubilis, it exhibits considerable geographical overlap and gradation of leaf shape characters with the typical lowland moist and
wet forest group, and might be better recognized as an ecological variant without taxonomic status.

Additional work is needed to clarify species group boundaries in the $P$. volubilis complex. Future studies should test the resolution of our proposed groups with improved taxon sampling across the geographic range of $P$. volubilis, specifically from the central and eastern Amazon basin, the Guianas, and the Lesser Antilles.

The presumed holotype of $P$. macrostyla was destroyed in Berlin. Although each of the isotypes are in good condition and demonstrate exemplary pistillate flowers, we lectotypify the specimen at Geneva since it includes staminate flowers near anthesis.

Romanoa Trevis., Sagg. Algh. Coccot. 99. 1848. Anabaena A.Juss., Euphorb. Gen. 46, 1824, nom. rej., non. Bory ex Bornet \& Flahault 1888. Sajorium sect. Anabaena (A.Juss.) Baill., Étud. Euphorb. 484. 1858. Plukenetia sect. Anabaena (A.Juss.) Müll.Arg., Linnaea 34: 158. 1865. Anabaenella Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 27. 1919.—TyPE: Anabaena tamnoides A.Juss. [= Romanoa tamnoides (A.Juss.) Radcl.-Sm.]

Taxonomic Discussion-The genus Romanoa Trev. 1848 is the earliest published replacement name for Anabaena A.Juss. 1824, nom. rej., after the well-known genus of cyanobacteria, Anabaena Bory ex Bornet \& Flahault 1888, was conserved. The replacement name Anabaenella Pax \& K.Hoffm. 1919 was used for much of the $20^{\text {th }}$ century until the lesserknown Romanoa was re-discovered by Punt (1962) and nomenclaturally corrected by RadcliffeSmith (1980). Romanoa was briefly treated as a synonym of Plukenetia, first as Sajorium sect. Anabaena (Baillon, 1858) then Plukenetia sect. Anabaena (Müller, 1865), but has often been regarded as a separate genus for having plesiomorphic 3-carpellate ovaries, compared to 4carpellate in Plukenetia. Pollen morphology further supported the recognition of Romanoa (Gillespie, 1994b) and molecular phylogeny suggests they are distinct and form sister genera (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016).

1. Romanoa tamnoides (A.Juss.) Radcl.-Sm., Kew Bull. 34 (3): 589. 1980. Anabaena tamnoides A.Juss., Euphorb. Gen. 115, t.15. 1824. Sajorium tamnoides (A.Juss.) Baill.,

Étude. Euphorb. 484. 1858. Plukenetia tamnoides (A.Juss.) Müll.Arg., Linnaea 34: 158. 1865. Anabaenella tamnoides (A.Juss.) Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 27. 1919. Anabaenella tamnoides var. genuina Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 27. 1919, nom. illeg.-Type: Brazil. Brésil, 1819, Leandro di Saccramento s.n. (lectotype designated here: P00645483 [online!]).
Croton scandens Vell., Fl. Flumin. Icon. 10: t.72. 1831.-TyPE: illustration in t. 72.
Plukenetia sinuata Ule, Bot. Jahrb. Syst. 42 (2-3): 217. 1908. Anabaenella tamnoides var. sinuata (Ule) Pax \& K.Hoffm. in A.Engler (ed.), Pflanzenr. IV, 147, IX (Heft 68): 27. 1919. Romanoa tamnoides var. sinuata (Ule) Radcl.-Sm., Kew Bull. 34 (3): 589. 1980.— Type: Brazil. Bahia: Serra do Sāo Ignacio, February 1907, E. Ule 7445 (holotype: B [destroyed]; lectotype designated here: L0137705!; isolectotype: HBG515848 [online!]). [Both isotypes have abundant floral material; our selected lectotype also includes fruit.]

Taxonomic Discussion-Originally, two syntypes were designated for Anabaena tamnoides, "Species unica brasiliensis (in Herb. Mus. et J.)" (Jussieu 1824, p. 47), which refer to Leandro di Saccramento s.n. (P [P0064583]) and herb. Dombey s.n. (P-JU [P00678933]). Radcliffe-Smith (1980) inaccurately cited Dombey s.n. as the holotype of $A$. tamnoides, which did not qualify as a valid lectotype designation. Both sheets are relatively poor in quality, herb. Dombey s.n. with better preserved leaves and a 3-carpellate fruit, and Leandro di Saccramento s.n. with degraded leaves but more abundant floral material, including intact stylar columns. We select Leandri di Saccramento s.n. as the lectotype since it demonstrates the distinctive pistillate floral morphology of the species and genus. Remaining syntype: Brazil. Brésil, herb. Dombey s.n. (P-JU [P00678933; online!]).

Both syntype collections of Anabaena tamnoides were annotated as "Plukenetia occidentalis" Leandro (in mss.). Jussieu (1824) and Baillon (1858) listed P. occidentalis as a synonym of $A$. tamnoides; however, neither case resulted in valid publication of that name (ICN 2012, Art. 36.1; McNeill et al. 2012).

Appendix 4.1 List of species and vouchers used in the ETS phylogeny (Fig. 5.4), arranged by: Species Authority. COUNTRY. Collector \& Number (Herbarium Code), GenBank accession number. Most sequences are from Cardinal-McTeague et al. (in review); a single new ETS sequence is published for $P$. brevistyla Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie sp. nov., indicated by an asterisk (*).

Ingroup: Plukenetia africana Sond. Botswana. Palomoti 1086 (MO), MF502432; Pope et al. 834 (MO), MF502433. NAMIBIA. Bartsch 1859 (US), MF502431. P. ankaranensis L.J.Gillespie. MADAGASCAR. Gillespie 10697 (CAN), MF502434; Lees s.n. (CAN), MF502435. P. brachybotrya Müll.Arg. BoliviA. Araujo-M. et al. 1722 (MO), MF502437; Fuentes \& Torrico 5398 (MO), MF502438; Seidel \& Vaquiata 7733 (MO), MF502440. PERU. Acevedo-Rodriguez 14416 (NY), MF502436; Galiano et al. 6612 (MO), MF502439. P. brevistyla Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie sp. nov. BRAZIL. Lowrie et al. 30 (MO), MH119142*. P. carabiasiae J.Jiménez Ram. Mexico. Meave et al. 1550 (MO), MF502441. P. carolis-vegae Bussmann, Paniagua \& C.Téllez. PERU. Calatayud et al. 2643 (CAN), MF502448; Huamantupa et al. 6445 (CAN), MF502449; Monteagudo et al. 14125 (MO), MF502450; Monteagudo et al. 15252 (MO), MF502451; Rojas et al. 3863 (CAN), MF502453; Valenzuela et al. 5197 (CAN), MF502455; van der Werff et al. 17532 (CAN), MF502456; Vasquez et al. 33145 (MO), MF502457; Woytkowski 6670 (MO), MF502458. P. conophora Müll.Arg. DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF THE CONGO. Hart 1621 (MO), MF502443. CAMEROON. Nemba \& Thomas 434 (MO), MF502444. P. corniculata Sm. BANGLADESH. Huq \& Haroon 10780 (MO), MF502446. P. decidua L.J.Gillespie. MADAGASCAR. Rakotomalaza 597 (CAN), MF502447. P. huayllabambana Bussmann, C.Téllez \& A.Glenn. Peru. Quipuscoa 381 (MO), MF502452; Téllez et al. 4 (MO), MF502454. P. lehmanniana (Pax \& K.Hoffm.) Huft \& L.J.Gillespie. ColombiA. Silverstone-Sopkin \& GiraldaGesini 8019 (MO), MF502461. ECUADOR. Acevedo-Rodriguez \& Daly 1658 (MO), MF502459; Clark 3953 (MO), MF502460; Zak \& Jaramillo 3401 (MO), MF502462. P. loretensis Ule. BoliviA. Solomon 7972 (MO), MF502466. Peru. Grandez 19608 (AMAZ), MF502463; McDaniel \& Rimachi 22451 (MO), MF502464; Rimachi 5122 (MO), MF502465; Vásquez \& Jaramillo 3283 (MO), MF502467; Vasquez et al. 38069 (MO), MF502468. P.
madagascarensis Leandri. MADAGASCAR. Andrianjafy 1648 (CAN), MF502469; Gillespie 4175 (CAN), MF502470; Villiers et al. 4899 (MO), MF502471. P. megastyla Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie sp. nov. BoliviA. Ledezma et al. 921 (CAN), MF502428. BRAZIL. Sperling et al. 5873 (MO), MF502429; Sperling et al. 6161 (CAN), MF502430. P. penninervia Müll.Arg. Belize. Atha et al. 1001 (MO), MF502472. Guatemala. Wallnöfer \& Frisch 5996 (MO), MF502477. MEXICO. Carnevali \& Duno 7594 (MO), MF502473; Martínez 10527 (MO), MF502474; Martinez 17705 (DAV), MF502475. PANAMA. McPherson 8461 (MO), MF502476. P. cf. penninervia. COLOMBIA. Gentry 47799 (MO), MF502442. P. polyadenia Müll.Arg. GUYANA. Wurdack 5288 (US), MF502479. Smithsonian Greenhouse ex French Guiana. Gillespie 4314 (CAN), MF502478. P. serrata (Vell.) L.J.Gillespie. BRAZIL. Davidse 10480 (MO), MF502480; Forzza et al. 5328 (RB), MF502481; Goldenberg et al. 1424 (RB), MF502482; Peixoto et al. 4154 (MO), MF502483; Sartori \& Pardo 11 (RB), MF502484; Thomas 10221 (NY), MF502485. P. stipellata L.J.Gillespie. Costa RICA. Aguilar 8193 (MO), MF502486; Cardinal-McTeague 8 (CAN), MF502487; Liesner 3088 (MO), MF502489; Morales \& Rojas 5342 (MO), MF502490. MEXICO. Refugio Cedillo Trigas 3510 (MO), MF502491; Ibarra Manriquez \& Sinaca 1115 (MO), MF502488. NiCARAGUA. Urbina 1155 (MO), MF502492. P. supraglandulosa L.J.Gillespie. SURINAME. Acevedo-Rodriguez 6022 (US), MF502493. P. verrucosa Sm. French Guiana. Barrabe \& Crozier 145 (US), MF502494. SURINAME. Herrera \& Kaemar 10073
(CAN), MF502495; Hoffman 5917 (US), MF502496. P. volubilis L. Bolivia. Jaramillo et al. 1237 (MO), MF502501; Nee 55162 (MO), MF502502; Parada et al. 206 (CAN), MF502503; Teran et al. 2502 (MO), MF502504. ECUADOR. Burnham \& Krings 1640 (MO), MF502498; Carrillo \& Reyes 448 (MO), MF502499. Smithsonian Greenhouse ex Peru. Wurdack s.n. (US), MF502506. Peru. Bell 93-546 (US), MF502497; Huamantupa 3500 (CAN), MF502500; Valenzuela 8531 (MO), MF502505.

Outgroup: Haematostemon guianensis Sandwith. GUYANA. Wurdack 4350 (US), MF502427. Romanoa tamnoides (A.Juss.) Radcl.-Sm. BoliviA. Fuentes 1848 (MO), MF502507; Raes \& Terceros 177 (MO), MF502508; Raes et al. 211 (MO), MF502509; Paraguay. Zardini \& Chaparro 50824 (MO), MF502510.

## Chapter 5

# Biome Shifts, Not Innovative Traits or Biogeography, Drive Diversification Rates of Pantropical Euphorbiaceae Vines (Tribe Plukenetieae)* 

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Trait-dependent diversification analyses of Euphorbiaceae tribe Plukenetieae.


#### Abstract

- Background: Plant diversity is often enhanced by biotic traits (e.g., specialized growth forms, floral symmetry, and pollination syndromes) and/or abiotic processes (e.g., mountain building, aridification).While specific drivers of diversification are known, general patterns and processes still need to be established, including how multiple innovative traits interact. - Methods: We studied the contribution of overlapping innovative traits, including twining growth form, stinging hair defences, and pseudanthial inflorescences (including floral symmetry and specialized pollination biology), as well as biogeographic history, on the diversification of pantropical Euphorbiaceae vines (tribe Plukenetieae). We developed a comprehensive time-calibrated phylogeny of Plukenetieae to use as a framework for estimating ancestral ranges and identifying time and trait-dependent shifts in diversification. - Results: The early diverging relationships of the tribe were incongruent among datasets and remain unresolved. The pantropical distribution of Plukenetieae was best explained by multiple, periodic long-distance dispersals through the Oligocene to Pliocene. We detected 2-3 rate shifts during the Late Miocene cooling period, none of which were associated with innovative traits. We inferred that diversification rates increased in clades that shifted out of tropical moist forests into drier open habitats, sometimes spurred by habitat expansion. - Conclusions: Contrary to our expectations, neither biogeography nor innovative traits were directly associated with diversification in the tribe. Our study highlights the importance of biome shifts and climate-mediated habitat expansions in diversification processes.


## Background

A major goal of evolutionary biology is to understand the generation and maintenance of biodiversity. In recent years, botanical research has identified several processes associated with increased diversification, most notably the evolution of biotic traits such as specialized growth forms, plant defences, floral symmetry modifications, specialized pollination, alternative photosynthetic pathways (i.e., CAM and $\mathrm{C}_{4}$ ), and whole genome duplications (WGD) (Farrell et al., 1991; Gianoli, 2004; Sargent, 2004; Quezada \& Gianoli, 2011; Silvestro et al., 2013; Bouchenak-Khelladi et al., 2014; Givnish et al., 2014; Horn et al., 2014; Weber \& Agrawal, 2014; Breitkopf et al., 2015; Tank et al., 2015; Roalson \& Roberts, 2016; Serrano-Serrano et al., 2017). However, a growing number of abiotic drivers have also been described, such as arid landscapes, elevational gradients, and mountain building (Drummond, 2008; Loera et al., 2012; Bouchenak-Khelladi et al., 2014; Spriggs et al., 2014; Reyes et al., 2015; Sundue et al., 2015; Lagomarsino et al., 2016; Pérez-Escobar et al., 2017a). It is becoming clear that these traits are context specific and not always associated with increased species diversity, and that often a combination of traits are driving diversification processes.

Recent studies found that diversification rates increased in many lineages by a combination of traits/processes, such as CAM photosynthesis and tank habit in bromeliads (Silvestro et al., 2013), plant height and bird/bat pollination in cacti (Hernández-Hernández et al., 2014), WGD and phytochemical innovation in plant defences in the mustard-oil order (Edger et al., 2015), and elevational gradients and mountain building in concert with bird pollination and seed dispersal in Andean bellflowers (Lagomarsino et al., 2016). Broad analyses of the diverse orchid and bromeliad families (Givnish et al., 2014, 2015) recovered the important interaction between key landscapes like mountains and trait innovations such as epiphytism, specialized pollination, and distinctive morphology (i.e., orchid pollinia or bromeliad tank habit). The influence of the abiotic environment and biome shifts is also becoming apparent (Donoghue \& Edwards, 2014) and may even be more significant than innovative traits. For example, in Proteaceae, a morphologically and ecologically diverse lineage in the southern hemisphere, species diversity is most strongly correlated with entry into arid Mediterranean biomes, rather than floral symmetry modifications (Reyes et al., 2015). Biogeographic history can also be an important factor, although in many cases increased diversification appears to be associated with secondary biotic and abiotic drivers encountered in new regions (e.g., Richardson et al., 2001;

Federman et al., 2015). Moving forward, we should characterize regional and global patterns and processes of diversification across a greater number of groups, with the aim of identifying general trends that can serve as predictive frameworks for ecology and conservation research and the maintenance of present and future biodiversity.

Here, we aim to disentangle the interactive effects of overlapping key innovations within a single clade, using Euphorbiaceae vines (tribe Plukenetieae) as a study system. Plukenetieae (subfamily Acalyphoideae) is a pantropically distributed clade of $\sim 330$ species of morphologically diverse vines and lianas, less frequently subshrubs, and rarely shrubs and small trees (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016). The tribe includes three distinct groups, the nonstinging subtribe Plukenetiinae ( $\sim 29$ species), subtribe Dalechampiinae ( $\sim 130$ species) with unique pseudanthial inflorescences, and the species-rich stinging vine subtribe Tragiinae ( $\sim 200$ species). All of the subtribes are pantropically distributed and have their greatest diversity in the Neotropics, although Tragiinae stands out for its high species richness in Africa. Plukenetieae is unique in Euphorbiaceae for the combination of twining growth form and stinging hair defences. It also has diverse floral morphology, including inflorescences that range from racemes or racemose thyrses in Plukenetiinae and Tragiinae, to bisexual pseudanthia with large, bilaterally symmetrical involucral bracts in Dalechampinae (Fig. 5.1). Dalechampinae is also well known for its specialized pollination biology associated with resin, fragrance, and pollen pollinator reward systems, floral/pollinator defences, and shifts between specialized and generalized syndromes (Armbruster et al., 2009 and references therein). Given its pantropical distribution and possession of multiple innovative traits, Plukenetieae presents an ideal group to examine the interaction of biogeography and potential drivers of diversification.

The goals of our study are to develop the first well-sampled, time-calibrated phylogeny of Plukenetieae and apply several statistical models to investigate patterns of biogeography and diversification in the group. Specifically, we test if three innovative traits, (i) twining habit, (ii) stinging hair defences, and (iii) bilaterally symmetrical pseudanthial inflorescences, contributed to increased diversification in Plukenetieae. We also reconstruct the tribe's biogeographic history to test if entry into new continents is associated with diversification, as well as identify patterns that resulted in pantropical distributions. We predict that there should be an additive effect of innovative traits, and that dispersal into new continents enhanced diversification through adaptation to new ecological niches. Our aim is to determine how innovative traits and


Figure 5.1 Inflorescence diversity of Euphorbiaceae vines (tribe Plukenetieae). Subtribe Dalechampiinae (a-b), bilaterally symmetrical pseudanthia composed of staminate and pistillate cymules, sometimes with resiniferous glands, subtended by two large often showy bracts: (a) Dalechampia websteri Armbr. (CardinalMcTeague 7, CAN), (b) D. aff. tamifolia Lam. (Gillespie et al. 10658, CAN). Subtribes Plukenetiinae (c-d) and Tragiinae (e-i), racemose thyrses or racemes: (c) Plukenetia loretensis Ule (Grandez 19608, US), (d) P. volubilis L. (Wurdack s.n., US), (e) Megistostigma cordata Merr. (Davidson 12930), (f) Tragia furialis Bojer ex Prain (Gillespie et al. 10648, CAN), (g) T. urens L. (Wurdack s.n., US), (h) T. urticifolia Michx. (Wurdack s.n., US), (i) T. volubilis L. (Medeiros \& Cardinal-McTeague 556, R). Photographs by: W.Cardinal-McTeague (a-b, f, i), C.Davidson (e), K.Wurdack (c-d, g-h).
biogeography, either individually or combined, contributed to increased diversification in this lineage.

## Methods

## Taxon sampling and DNA methods

In total we sampled 289 terminals representing $\sim 33 \%$ of the species diversity of Plukenetieae, $\sim 10 \%$ of Dalechampiinae (13/130), $\sim 79 \%$ of Plukenetiinae (23/29), $\sim 35 \%$ of Tragiinae ( $73 / 206$ ), including representatives of most genera except the rare monotypic Amazonian genera Angostylis Benth. and Astrococcus Benth. (Table 5.1; Table 5.S1). Our sampling included all or most taxonomic sections of Plukenetia and Tragia (Cardinal-McTeague and Gillespie, 2016), and representative lineages of Dalechampia (Armbruster et al., 2009). We assembled molecular DNA datasets for four nuclear (ETS, ITS, KEA1 intron 11, TEB exon 17) and two plastid (matK, $n d h F$ ) regions, with a total aligned length of 5,160 bp (Table 5.2). DNA extraction, amplification, sequencing methods, and alignment protocols followed Cardinal-McTeague et al. (in review). Outgroup sampling included nine species from Plukenetieae's sister clade, including Bernardieae, Caryodendreae, and Avellanita (Wurdack et al., 2005; Cervantes et al., 2016). Finally, four representatives from Acalyphoideae subclade A6 (Wurdack et al., 2005) were used to root the phylogeny. All newly created sequences were deposited in GenBank and voucher information for all accessions is available in Table 5.S1.

## Phylogenetic analysis and alternative topologies

Prior to analyzing combined datasets we searched for well supported incongruence among individual markers using maximum likelihood (ML) bootstrap analyses (Felsenstein, 1985b). We initiated 1000 rapid bootstrap replicates under the default model and search parameters in RAxML-HPC2 on XSEDE (Stamatakis, 2014; all XSEDE programs were run through the CIPRES SCIENTIFIC GATEWAY v3.3, Miller et al., 2010) and compared consensus trees for strongly supported conflicting relationships (interpreted as $\geq 85$ ML bootstrap percentage; MLBP). Preliminary assessment revealed several moderately to strongly supported conflicting topologies along the backbone of the phylogeny (Fig. 5.S1), prompting us to examine the competing hypotheses in greater detail.

Table 5.1 Genera of tribe Plukenetieae and its sister group (including tribes Bernardieae, Caryodendreae, and Avellanita).

| Taxon | Species <br> number | Species <br> sampled | Proportion <br> sampled | Geographic distribution |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| Dalechampinae |  |  |  |  |
| Dalechampia L. | $\sim 130$ | 13 | 0.1 | Pantropical |
| Plukenetinae | 1 |  |  |  |
| Angostylis Benth. | 1 | 0 | 0 | Amazonian Brazil |
| Astrococcus Benth. |  | 0 | 0 | Amazonian Brazil and |
| Haematostemon Pax \& | 2 | 1 | 0.5 | Amazonian Venezuela |

We reconstructed four alternative topologies (ETS, ITS, TEB, and a cpDNA dataset composed of $m a t K+n d h F$ ), including the concatenated dataset with all six regions for comparison, using Bayesian inference (BI) through MrBAyES v3.2.3 on XSEDE (Ronquist et al., 2012). Optimal models of nucleotide evolution were determined using JMODELTEST2 on XSEDE (Darriba et al., 2012) under default settings. Four-chained Metropolis-coupled Markov chain Monte Carlo ([MC] $]^{3}$ ) analyses were run for 5 million generations sampling every $1000^{\text {th }}$ generation, with the temperature parameter reduced to 0.005 promote swapping among chains. Runs were considered converged when the standard deviation of split frequencies were $<0.01$, potential scale reduction factors were near 1.0, and effective sample size (ESS) values of each
parameter were $>200$ (determined by TRacer v1.6; Rambaut et al., 2014). The first $25 \%$ of each run ( 1,250 trees) was discarded as burn-in prior to summarizing posterior probabilities (PP) on the maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree. We calculated RAxML bootstrap values for the cpDNA and concatenated datasets using the same search parameters as above.

To assess whether the four alternative backbone topologies had significantly worse likelihood scores than the concatenated dataset we employed the approximately unbiased (AU) test (Shimodaira, 2002, 2004) in CONSEL v0.2 (Shimodaira \& Hasegawa, 2001). We calculated the site likelihood inputs for CONSEL by constraining the backbone of the concatenated dataset to each of the alternative topologies (ETS, ITS, TEB exon 17, and cpDNA; Fig 5.2), using the best of two unpartitioned default ML searches from GARLI v2.01 (Zwickl, 2006).

## Coalescence-based species tree estimation

To reconcile the discordant relationships among gene trees we applied coalescent-based methods, which were designed to address incomplete lineage sorting and hybridization commonly encountered in phylogenomic data (Degnan \& Rosenberg, 2009). Although species tree estimation is more accurate with higher gene sampling (e.g., Mirarab \& Warnow, 2015; Sayyari \& Mirarab, 2016), these methods provide a useful comparison with our concatenated data.

First, we used quartet-based species tree estimation in ASTRAL-III v5.5.6 (Mirarab et al., 2014; Mirarab \& Warnow, 2015; Zhang et al., 2018). The quartet method takes unrooted gene trees and searches for the topology with the most shared quartets (i.e., bifurcations before and after each branch), and it allows for incomplete taxon sampling between trees (Mirarab et al., 2014). We searched for the maximum quartet support (MQS) species tree using the Bayesian MCC trees estimated from all six individual regions, and evaluated node uncertainty using 200 multilocus bootstrap replicates (Seo et al., 2005; Seo, 2008; Mirarab et al., 2014) starting from the pool of 1000 rapid bootstrap trees calculated for each region by RAxML.

Second, we used a Bayesian application of the multispecies-coalescence model (*BEAST; Heled \& Drummond, 2010) in BEAST v1.8.4 on XSEDE (Drummond \& Rambaut, 2007; Suchard \& Rambaut, 2009). *BEAST is computationally demanding for large datasets so we conducted analyses on a reduced dataset with 177 terminals and no missing data (Table 5.2). KEA1 intron 11 was excluded because it was missing sequence data for the entire Old World

Tragiinae clade (subclades T1-T3). We ran the multispecies coalescence model on unlinked site, clock, and tree models, and estimating each parameter throughout the run. Site models were specified by AIC and we implemented uncorrelated log-normal relaxed clock models, a Yule species tree prior (Yule, 1925), and piecewise constant population size prior. We ran four independent runs for 100 million generations, sampling every $10,000^{\text {th }}$ generation, and evaluated parameter convergence and ESS using Tracer. Runs that converged were combined using LoGCombiner v1.8.4 on XSEDE after excluding the first $10 \%$ of trees as a burn-in ( 1,000 trees), and then summarized a MCC tree with mean node heights using TreeAnnotator v1.8.4 on XSEDE (Drummond \& Rambaut, 2007).

Given that topological conflicts along the backbone could be attributed to phylogenetic uncertainty (see results), and that there was broad congruence among the rest of the tree, we conducted the remaining analyses on the concatenated dataset.

## Divergence date estimation

Molecular dating was conducted in BEAST under similar parameters as the *BEAST analyses, except where noted. The concatenated dataset was reduced to one terminal per species or divergent lineage (Table 5.2), tree models were linked, and the tree prior was set to a birth-death process (Gernhard, 2008). No fossils are known from Plukenetieae or the outgroups sampled, so we applied secondary node calibrations based on a dating analysis of subfamily Acalyphoideae that used three reliable fossil calibrations (Cervantes et al., 2016). The calibration priors were set as normal distributions approximated to the $95 \%$ highest posterior density (HPD) estimates from Cervantes et al. (2016). We constrained the root of the tree (the crown of subclades A6 + A7 + A8 sensu Wurdack et al., 2005) to 59.29 Mya ( $\mathrm{SD}=5.3$ ), the divergence node of Plukenetieae and its sister group to 45.39 Mya ( $\mathrm{SD}=5.3$ ), and the crown age of Plukenetieae to 36.53 Mya ( $\mathrm{SD}=4.5$ ). We initiated two independent MCMC runs for 50 million generations, sampling every 5,000 generations. After assessing for convergence, a 20\% burn-in (2000 trees) was applied to each run and an MCC tree was annotated with common ancestor age heights.

## Ancestral range estimation

We used ancestral range estimation (ARE) to reconstruct potential biogeographic histories of the tribe. Species distributions were gathered from herbarium labels, literature (Radcliffe-Smith,

1987, 2001; Webster, 2014; Levin \& Gillespie, 2016), and online resources (GBIF, https://www.gbif.org; Tropicos, http://www.tropicos.org). In total, we categorized seven areas (Table 5.S2): (1) South America, including Central America and tropical Mesoamerica; (2) arid, subtropical, and warm temperate North America; (3) the Caribbean islands; (4) Africa, south of the Saharo-Arabian area; (5) Madagascar; (6) Southeast Asia, including tropical South Asia; and (7) Australasia. Inclusion of unoccupied areas like temperate North America, Eurasia and Antarctica, did not affect ARE (data not shown) and were excluded. Most species were coded by the area they occupied, except for Madagascan accessions of Dalechampia, which we coded to represent the full distribution of the Old World Dalechampia clade (Armbruster \& Baldwin, 1998; Armbruster et al., 2009).

ARE was conducted on the BEAST MCC chronogram using the maximum-likelihood approach of the BioGeoBEARS package (Matzke, 2013, 2014) in R v3.3.2 (R Core Development Team, 2016). Our analyses used the dispersal-extinction-cladogenesis (DEC) model from Lagrange (Ree \& Smith, 2008) in addition to the founder-event parameter $(+\mathrm{J})$ from BioGeoBEARS. The +J parameter allows for "jump speciation", in which cladogenic dispersals can occur outside of the parental area. For recent and ongoing discussion over criticisms of the DEC + J model, see Ree \& Sanmartín (2018). Dispersal probabilities between pairs of areas were specified by distance for two timeslices (Table 5.S3) following similar analyses (Buerki et al., 2011; Berger et al., 2016; Cardinal-McTeague et al., 2016; Givnish et al., 2016), and ancestral ranges were permitted to occupy up to five areas. We conducted independent runs under the DEC and $\mathrm{DEC}+\mathrm{J}$ models and used a likelihood-ratio test to determine the model of best fit.

## Time-dependent diversification analysis

We used BAMM v2.5.0 (Rabosky, 2014) to estimate speciation $(\lambda)$, extinction ( $\mu$ ), and net diversification $(r)$ rates, and identify shifts in diversification rates across the branches of the Plukenetieae phylogeny. BAMM uses a reversible jump Markov chain Monte Carlo (rjMCMC) BI approach to explore numerous models of lineage diversification and detect rate heterogeneity. BAMM can also account for non-random taxon sampling by specifying the proportion of terminals sampled for each clade. The proportion of species we sampled for each designated terminal (Table 5.S4) was based on counts from published sources (Radcliffe-Smith, 2001;

Webster, 2014; Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016; Levin \& Gillespie, 2016) with updates based on personal knowledge of missing and undescribed diversity (Table 5.1).

We determined our initial priors using the R package BAMMTools v2.1.6 (Rabosky et al., 2014) and then ran two independent four-chained (MC) ${ }^{3}$ runs for 5 million generations sampling every $2,500^{\text {th }}$ step, with additional replicates exploring the effect of the Poisson rate prior equal to 10,1 , or 0.1 expected shifts. We tested for run convergence by plotting log likelihood scores following a $10 \%$ burn-in. After convergence was confirmed, we proceeded to analyze the first run and checked for sufficient ESS using the R package coda v0.19-1 (Plummer et al., 2006). Using BAMMtools, we calculated BayesFactors to determine the model of best fit, made phylorate plots of both the $95 \%$ credible set of rate shifts and best rate shift configuration, and plotted speciation, extinction, and net diversification rates through time.

There is debate over some theoretical and practical aspects of BAMM (Moore et al., 2016; Rabosky et al., 2017). Major criticisms include sensitivity of the posterior distribution to the Poisson rate prior and claims that BAMM's likelihood function is incorrect because it does not account for rate shifts that occurred on extinct lineages (Moore et al., 2016). While most of these concerns have been refuted (Rabosky et al., 2017), we acknowledge the limitations of current time-dependent diversification models and aim to confirm any results with alternative (i.e., trait-dependent) models.

## Trait-dependent diversification analysis

We modeled the impact of trait evolution on Plukenetieae diversification by estimating net turnover $(\tau=$ speciation + extinction $)$ and extinction fraction $(\varepsilon=$ extinction/speciation $)$ rates using the Hidden State Speciation and Extinction model (HiSSE; Beaulieu \& O'Meara, 2016). The HiSSE model is an important improvement of the Binary State Speciation and Extinction model (BiSSE; Maddison et al., 2007) because it accommodates the possibility that high diversification rates associated with a focal trait could be attributed to unmeasured/hidden traits within a subset of the clade (Beaulieu \& O'Meara, 2016).

Our traits of interest, growth form ( $0=$ erect, $1=$ twining $)$, plant defence $(0=$ nonstinging, $1=$ stinging $)$, and inflorescence type ( $0=$ non-pseudanthium, $1=$ pseudanthium ), were coded using herbarium specimens and taxonomic treatments (Radcliffe-Smith, 1987, 2001; Webster \& Armbruster, 1991; Gillespie, 1993, 2007; Gillespie \& Armbruster, 1997; Cardinal-

McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016; Levin \& Gillespie, 2016) (Table 5.S5). To overcome incomplete taxon sampling in our phylogeny, we randomly attached terminals to notably species rich but under-sampled lineages of the BEAST MCC tree using the R package PHYTOOLS (Revell, 2012). Phylogenetic uncertainty introduced by this approach has a smaller effect on detecting rate shifts than inaccurate estimates from incomplete sampling (Kuhn et al., 2011). We added 36 terminals to Bernardia, 33 to Tragiinae subclade T3, and in Dalechampia, 41 to the 5-armed clade and 24 to the 4 -armed clade, such that their sampling proportion was equal to $\sim 0.65$, the highest sampling we achieved for a species-rich lineage (Tragiinae subclade T10).

Analyses were conducted in the R package HISSE (Beaulieu \& O'Meara, 2016), where we explored 24 models of trait-dependent diversification (Table 5.S6) with a sampling fraction of 0.60. We included the BiSSE and HiSSE models, as well as two Character Independent (CID) null models, which explicitly assume binary traits evolved independently and that diversification rates vary across the tree (Beaulieu \& O'Meara, 2016). We determined the model of best fit for each trait using the Akaike information criterion (Akaike, 1974) with transformed Akaike weights $\left(w_{i}\right)$ (Wagenmakers \& Farrell, 2004), and used the best fitting model to reconstruct ancestral states and net diversification rates using the 'MarginRecon' and 'plot.hisse.states' functions. Currently, there are performance issues with the 'MarginRecon' function under the CID-4 model, as such the second best model was implemented where indicated.

## Results

## Molecular phylogeny and incongruence

Our study produced 923 new DNA sequences (191 ETS, 84 ITS, 105 KEA1, 143 TEB, 195 matK, and $205 n d h F$ ) resulting in a total aligned length of 5,160 bp. Dataset characteristics for each alignment are presented in Table 5.2.

The phylogenies recovered by individual nuclear marker and combined cpDNA datasets (Fig. 5.2) were generally consistent with previous phylogenetic studies (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016; Cervantes et al., 2016). Although each dataset recovered moderately to strongly supported topological conflicts along the backbone of the phylogeny, species relationships within major clades were generally congruent (Fig. 5.S1). The backbone topology of the cpDNA dataset was most similar to that of the Concatenated dataset, which supports Dalechampiinae as sister to

Table 5.2 Molecular datasets and their characteristics.

| Dataset | n ETS | n ITS | ```n KEAl intron 11``` | $\begin{aligned} & \text { n } T E B \text { exon } \\ & 17 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | cp matK |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| No. terminals | 275 | 281 | 178 | 188 | 262 |
| Marker recovery | 0.95 | 0.97 | 0.62 | 0.65 | 0.91 |
| Aligned length | 538 | 873 | 481 | 579 | 1,835 |
| Variable characters | 428 | 520 | 340 | 446 | 613 |
| Parsimony informative characters (\%) | $\begin{aligned} & 404 \\ & (75 \%) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 472 \\ & (54 \%) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 289 \\ & (60 \%) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 361 \\ & (62 \%) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 422 \\ & (23 \%) \end{aligned}$ |
| Nucleotide model | GTR+I+G | GTR+I+G | GTR+I | GTR+G | GTR+I+G |
| Dataset | cp $n d h F$ | cpDNA | Concatenated | *BEAST (nogaps) | BEAST (oneterm.) |
| No. terminals | 275 | 279 | 289 | 177 | 147 |
| Marker recovery | 0.95 | 0.93 | 0.84 | 1.0 | 0.87 |
| Aligned length | 854 | 2,689 | 5,160 | 4,599 | 5,158 |
| Variable characters | 340 | 953 | 2,687 | 2,124 | 2,615 |
| Parsimony informative characters (\%) | $\begin{aligned} & 245 \\ & (29 \%) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 667 \\ & (25 \%) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2,193 \\ & (43 \%) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1,735 \\ & (38 \%) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 1,905 \\ & (37 \%) \end{aligned}$ |
| Nucleotide model | GTR+I+G | - | - | - | ( |
| Combined regions | - | matK, ndhF | All six regions | Excluding KEA1 | All six regions |



Figure 5.2 Summary cladograms of the alternative backbone topologies of Plukenetieae recovered from: (a) cpDNA; (b) ETS; (c) ITS; (d) TEB exon 17. Blue nodes are congruent with the Concatenated dataset (Fig. 5.3C), yellow nodes are incongruent; grey clades with solid edges are congruent, grey clades with dashed edges are partially congruent but have alternative branching patterns. Bold branches indicate strong support ( $\geq 85 \%$ maximum likelihood bootstrap percentage [MLBP] and $\geq 0.95$ Bayesian posterior probability [BPP]); dashed branches indicate low support ( $<60 \%$ MLBP and $<0.8 \mathrm{BPP}$ ). An asterisk $\left(^{*}\right.$ ) indicates a member of the clade was not sampled. See Fig. 5.3 for an explanation of abbreviations.

Tragiinae (KEAl had the same topology but is missing data for the entire Old World Tragiinae clade, subclades T1-T3). The ITS topology was most divergent and recovered Plukenetia and Dalechampia outside of the Plukenetieae + Bernardieae/Caryodendreae clade (Fig. 5.2C). There was elevated GC content in the ITS region of Plukenetia (63\%) and Dalechampia (57\%) compared to the rest of the tribe and our sampled outgroups (54\%), suggesting DNA saturation and long-branch attraction are causing the irregular topology. The AU test revealed that among the competing backbone topologies only ITS was statistically different ( $P<0.0002$; Table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Results of the approximately unbiased (AU) test examining if enforced competing gene tree backbone topologies are significantly worse than the unconstrained Concatenated dataset.

| Topology | $-\operatorname{lnL}$ | AU $P$-value | Conclusion |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cpDNA | -62317.4 | 0.218 | not reject |
| ETS | -62322.6 | 0.119 | not reject |
| ITS | -62397.0 | $\mathbf{0 . 0 0 0 2}$ | reject |
| TEB exon 17 | -62307.2 | 0.456 | not reject |
| Unconstrained | -62303.5 | 0.748 | not reject |

Coalescence-based species tree methods identified nodes of uncertainty on the backbone of the Plukenetieae phylogeny (Fig. 5.3). The ASTRAL MQS species tree (Fig. 5.S2) recovered the same topology as ETS, but multilocus bootstrap support at the crown of the tribe is so low that it should be interpreted as a polytomy. The *BEAST MCC species tree (Fig. 5.S3) resolved a unique topology with low to moderate support along the backbone; the crown was also collapsed to a functional polytomy. Overall, our phylogenetic analyses suggest there is substantial uncertainty among the early diverging relationships of the tribe, but that none of the combined datasets are statistically different enough to be rejected ( $P$-values $>0.05$; Table 5.3). As such, we proceeded with the remaining analyses using the Concatenated dataset, recognizing that our results are conditional on this topology and that certain nodes may need to be reassessed if a strongly supported alternative topology is produced.

## Divergence date estimation and biogeography

Results of the divergence date estimation analyses are presented in Fig. 5.S4. Based on our secondary calibrations from Cervantes et al. (2016), we estimate that the crown of Plukenetieae diverged in the late Eocene, c. 34.8 Mya ( $95 \%$ HPD: 29.5-40.1 Mya). Dalechampiinae and Tragiinae diverged shortly after in the Oligocene, c. 32.8 Mya (95\% HPD: 27.7-38.2 Mya). The crown groups of major lineages diverged throughout the Miocene, starting with New World


Figure 5.3 Summary cladograms of the alternative backbone topologies of Plukenetieae recovered from (ab) coalescence-based and (c) total evidence methods. (a) ASTRAL maximum quartet support (MQS) species tree topology based on Bayesian maximum clade credibility (MCC) trees from all six regions. Node support is based on 200 multilocus bootstrap replicates. (b) *BEAST MCC topology based on the reduced five region, "no-gap" dataset ( 177 terminals). (c) Concatenated dataset Bayesian MCC topology. Blue nodes are congruent with the Concatenated dataset (Fig. 5.3C), yellow nodes are incongruent; grey clades with solid edges are congruent, grey clades with dashed edges are partially congruent but have alternative branching patterns. Bold branches indicate strong support ( $\geq 85 \%$ Multilocus bootstrap percentage [BP] or maximum likelihood BP [MLBP] and/or $\geq 0.95$ Bayesian posterior probability [BPP]); dashed branches indicate low support ( $<60 \%$ Multilocus BP or MLBP, and/or $<0.8 \mathrm{BPP}$ ).

Tragiinae subclades T4-T10 c. 20.4 Mya (95\% HPD: 16.4-24.5 Mya), Old World Tragiinae subclades T1-T3 c. 20.3 Mya (95\% HPD: 15.8-24.8 Mya), Dalechampia c. 15.8 Mya ( $95 \%$ HPD: 12.3-19.6 Mya), and Plukenetia c. 14.1 Mya (95\% HPD: 11.2-16.9 Mya). Most species diversity appears to have accumulated during the Pliocene and Pleistocene (5.33-0.01 Mya).

ARE analyses under the DEC and DEC +J models recovered similar overall patterns (complete outputs are available in Fig. 5.S5). A likelihood-ratio suggests the DEC +J model significantly improved likelihood scores ( $\mathrm{DEC} \operatorname{lnL}=-196.43$, $\mathrm{DEC}+\mathrm{J} \operatorname{lnL}=-189.85, \chi^{2}(1)=$ 13.17, $\mathrm{p}<0.0003$ ), as such only the $\mathrm{DEC}+\mathrm{J}$ results are discussed (Fig. 5.4). The resulting parameters of the DEC +J model included: anagenetic dispersal rate $(d)=0.0182$, extinction rate $(e)=1 \mathrm{e}-5$, and cladogenetic dispersal rate $(j)=0.0273$.

The ancestor of Plukenetieae was strongly supported as distributed in Central and South America (Fig. 5.4). There were four major long-distance dispersals (LDD) to the Old World, starting with the ancestor of the Old World Tragiinae subclades T1-T3 in the Oligocene (c. 24.1


Figure 5.4 Ancestral range estimation (ARE) on the Plukenetiaeae BEAST chronogram using
BioGEoBEARS (DEC +J model). Areas of tip species are shown left of taxon names, colour-coded for the seven biogeographical areas depicted on the inset map. Boxes at each node and corner are colour-coded for the area or combined area (up to five allowed) with the highest likelihood probability. Pie charts indicate the probability of each area and are included if there was $<75 \%$ confidence for a single area. Numbers at each node indicate mean age estimates, blue bars the $95 \%$ highest posterior density (HPD) confidence interval, and yellow bars the $95 \%$ HPD of calibrated nodes estimated under constraint. Arrows on the inset map indicate the direction of major trans-oceanic range movements, along with the mean age of the events. Arrows with dotted lines indicate ARE patterns with ambiguous reconstructions and low support.

Mya). AREs for this node were split between Africa and Southeast Asia, although there was a slightly higher probability for Africa. Under that scenario, there was subsequent movement from Africa to Southeast Asia in the ancestor of subclade T2 in the Early Miocene (c. 20.3 Mya). The second LDD occurred within Plukenetia from Central and South America to Africa in the Middle Miocene (c. 12.9 Mya ) and then from Africa to Southeast Asia in the Pleistocene (c. 2.3 Mya). The third LDD suggests an anomalous route from North America to Australia in subclades T7 + T8 in the Late Miocene (c. 8.4 Mya ), followed by Australia to Madagascar in the Pliocene (c. 5.1 Mya). The fourth LDD event occurred in the 5-armed clade of Dalechampia from Central and South America to Africa during the Pliocene (c. 4.7 Mya ).

ARE also identified several short-distance dispersal (SDD) events and repeated migrations between North and South America. First, there was a SDD from Central and South America into the Caribbean in the ancestor of subclade T5 in the Early Miocene (c. 19.4 Mya). There were also at least three other recent and minor arrivals into the Caribbean in each of the subtribes during the Pleistocene ( $2.58-0.01 \mathrm{Mya}$ ). Second, SDD events from Africa to Madagascar were recovered in each of the subtribes, including at least three events in Tragiinae, all of which occurred from the Late Miocene (c. 6.2 Mya ) into the Pleistocene (c. 1.1 Mya). Lastly, movement from Central and South America into North America started in the ancestor of subclade $\mathrm{T} 7+\mathrm{T} 8$ in the Late Miocene (c. 11.3 Mya ). There were also numerous migrations between those regions in subclade T10 from the Late Miocene (c. 7.7 Mya) through to the Pleistocene (c. 1.1 Mya).

## Diversification analyses

Time-dependent diversification analyses in BAMM support rate heterogeneity in Plukenetieae. Exploring alternative poissonRatePriors resulted in similar estimates and shift configurations, as such we present the BAMMTOOLS recommended prior of 1.0. The best rate shift configuration


Figure 5.5 BAMM analysis of net diversification $(r)$ and rate shifts within Plukenetieae. (a) Phylorate plot of the best rate shift configuration (out of 30) showing three significant shifts: 1 . Stem of the African clade (subclade T3); 2. Stem of Tragia sect. Tragia (subclade T10); 3. Stem of the Dalechampia 5-armed clade. Colour intensity across branches is proportional to changes in net diversification. (b) Rate through time analysis of net diversification rates in Plukenetieae over the last 10 Myr at the start of the Late Miocene cooling period. Top of figure: Representation of temperature estimates through time based on global deep sea $\delta^{18} \mathrm{O}$ isotope concentration data from Zachos et al. (2001; accessed from Marcot et al., 2016).
identified three shifts that occurred in the Late Miocene (11.6-5.33 Mya): shift 1 along the stem of subclade T3 (African clade; $r=0.58$ events/Myr; $95 \% \mathrm{HPD}=0.28-0.89$ ), shift 2 along the stem of subclade T10 (Tragia sect. Tragia; $r=0.29$ events/Myr; $95 \%$ HPD $=0.15-0.42$ ), and shift 3 along the stem of the Dalechampia 5-armed clade ( $r=0.66$ events/Myr; 95\% HPD $=$ $0.18-1.10$ ) (Fig. 5.5). The $95 \%$ credible set of rate shifts included 30 configurations with rate shifts in similar positions on the phylogeny (Fig. 5.S6). Excluding Dalechampiinae and Tragiinae, the background net diversification rate was relatively constant through time ( $r=0.12$ events/Myr; 95\% HPD = 0.08-0.16).

Trait-dependent diversification analyses in HiSSE suggest that neither growth form, plant defence, or inflorescence type were associated with increased diversification in Plukenetieae. HiSSE analyses of each putative innovative trait rejected the standard BiSSE model of diversification and performed best under hidden-state and character independent (CID) models (Table 5.S6). Ancestral state estimations under the best fitting model(s) determined by $\Delta \mathrm{AIC}$ and Akaike weights (Table 5.4) resulted in similar shift placements as the BAMM analyses. Shift 1 and shift 3 were recovered in plant defence and inflorescence type models, while the best growth form model resulted in a relatively constant diversification rate across the phylogeny (Fig. 5.6).

Table 5.4 Best fitting models of trait-dependent diversification for growth form, plant defence, and inflorescence type, based on $\Delta \mathrm{AIC}$ and Akaike weights $\left(w_{i}\right)$. Traits with multiple models of good fit ( $\Delta \mathrm{AIC}<2$ ) are shown. Models used for 'MarginRecon' analysis are indicated by an asterisk (*); note that reconstructions under CID-4 are currently not permitted, so the second best model was used for inflorescence type.

| Best model | Type | Net turnover ( $\tau$ | Extinction fraction ( $\varepsilon$ ) | Transition rate (q) | np | - $\ln \mathrm{L}$ | AIC | $\Delta \mathrm{AIC}$ | $w_{i}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Growth form: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Model 21* | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0,$ <br> all other $q$ 's equal | 7 | -772.0 | 1558.0 | 0.00 | 0.982 |
| Plant defence: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Model 17* | HiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $\begin{aligned} & q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0, \\ & \text { all other } q \text { 's equal } \end{aligned}$ | 9 | -664.5 | 1347.0 | 0.00 | 0.517 |
| Model 8 | CID-4 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 6 | -667.6 | 1347.3 | 0.03 | 0.445 |
| Inflorescence type: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Model 8 | CID-4 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 6 | -664.9 | 1341.9 | 0.00 | 0.947 |
| Model 6* | CID-2 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -670.4 | 1348.7 | 6.86 | 0.031 |



Figure 5.6 Net diversification rates $(r)$ and character state reconstructions under the best fitting models from HISSE (see Table 5.4) for three putative innovative traits in Plukenetieae: (a) twining growth form; (b) stinging hair plant defences; and (c) bilaterally symmetrical pseudanthial inflorescences. Outer coloured lines depict net diversification rates (scales comparable between figures), and inner black and white lines indicate character state reconstructions. Histograms show the posterior distribution of net diversification rates $(r)$ and black and white bars the frequency of character states at each terminal.

## Discussion

Increased plant diversification is often associated with key biotic traits (e.g., specialized growth forms, floral symmetry modifications, specialized pollination biology; Gianoli, 2004; Sargent, 2004; Givnish et al., 2014; Hernández-Hernández et al., 2014; Serrano-Serrano et al., 2017) and abiotic processes (e.g., mountain building, aridification; Bouchenak-Khelladi et al., 2014; Reyes et al., 2015; Lagomarsino et al., 2016; Pérez-Escobar et al., 2017), but regional and global diversification trends still need to be established. Our study investigates the drivers of diversification in the pantropically distributed clade of Euphorbiaceae vines (tribe Plukenetieae), and explores the effects of multiple overlapping innovative traits. Contrary to our expectations, innovative traits and biogeography were not directly associated with increased diversity. Instead, we suspect that biome shifts and climate-driven landscape changes played an important role in diversification of the tribe.

## Early history of the tribe unresolved

Here, we produced the largest phylogeny of Plukenetieae and developed a temporal framework for investigating biogeographical history and shifts in diversification rates. Increased taxon and molecular sampling resulted in well supported species relationships consistent with previous hypotheses (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016), but the backbone of the tribe was strongly incongruent among nuclear and plastid datasets (Fig. 5.2). Recent phylogenies of Plukenetieae recovered either a functional polytomy of the subtribes (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016), or sampled only plastid regions and recovered the same topology of Plukenetiinae sister to Dalechampiinae + Tragiinae (Cervantes et al., 2016). Results of coalescence-based species tree methods (based on relatively limited molecular sampling) highlight that early branching patterns of the tribe are very poorly supported (Fig. 5.3). Incongruence is likely the result of incomplete lineage sorting among nuclear genes, compounded by saturation in ITS, suggesting that greater character sampling and coalescence-based methods using phylogenomics would be an efficient approach to resolving the backbone of the tribe.

## Pantropical distributions the result of steady periodic dispersals

The biogeographical history presented here is the first detailed analysis of Plukenetieae, and includes near complete sampling of the biogeographic diversity in the tribe, except for finer details within Dalechampiinae (Fig. 5.4). Using secondary node calibrations based on subfamily age estimates (Cervantes et al., 2016), we find that the crown of the tribe diverged at the end of the Eocene (c. 34.8 Mya) when the warm Eocene climate was rapidly transitioning into the cooler Oligocene (Zachos et al., 2001). The subtribes diverged by the Oligocene (33.9-23.0 Mya) and were most likely distributed in Central and South America (Fig. 5.4). In the Oligocene, the modern continents had mostly formed and were separated by seas and oceans (McLoughlin, 2001), precluding a Gondwanan vicariance hypothesis for pantropical distributions.

The pantropical distribution of Plukenetieae is best explained by LDDs that started in the Oligocene and continued steadily into the Pleistocene (Fig. 5.4). Major patterns include LDDs from Central and South America to Africa in each of the subtribes, during the Oligocene in Tragiinae, the Miocene in Plukenetiinae, and the Pliocene in Dalechampiinae. These patterns add to the growing number of lineages that dispersed in the less frequent direction from the

Neotropics to Africa, presumably along the Atlantic equatorial countercurrent (Renner \& Meyer, 2001; Renner et al., 2001; Givnish et al., 2004, 2011, 2016; Sytsma et al., 2004; Berger et al., 2016). There is ambiguity in the ARE of Old World Tragiinae (subclades T1-T3), which suggests that a LDD from Central and South America into Southeast Asia was also likely (Fig. 5.4). However, most dataset topologies suggest the South African genus Ctenomeria (subclade T1) was the earliest diverging lineage in Old World Tragiinae (subclades T1-T3) (Figs. 5.2 and 5.3), which otherwise might support a LDD to Africa. In either scenario, there was an inferred migration between Africa and Southeast Asia during the Early Miocene (c. 20.3 Mya), which could have been facilitated by tropical forest connections between Africa and West Asia (Zhou et al., 2012). By comparison, recent Pleistocene movement (c. 2.3 Mya) of Plukenetia from Africa to Southeast Asia is best explained by LDD across Indian Ocean countercurrents (CardinalMcTeague et al., in review), as is suggested in several other plant groups (Renner, 2004b; Yuan et al., 2005; Clayton et al., 2009; de Wilde et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2013).

The most anomalous biogeographic pattern we recovered was a LDD from North America to Australia in the ancestor of Tragiinae subclades T7 + T8 (Fig. 5.4). Subclade T7 includes two species of subshrubs endemic to the southeastern USA, whereas subclade T8 contains about five species of tropical vines distributed primarily in Australia and Southeast Asia. A LDD directly from the Southeast USA to eastern Australia seems unlikely, but could have been possible through the Central American seaway prior to the formation of the Isthmus of Panama. Alternatively, the ancestor could have been more widespread in North America and possibly Central America, dispersing from a more likely location on the west coast, and then becoming isolated in the Southeast USA. North American and Australian disjunctions are uncommon but have been noted in the aquatic genus Myriophyllum (Chen et al., 2014). Within subclade T8 there was a second LDD from Australasia to Madagascar across the Indian Ocean during the Pliocene (c. 5.1 Mya). Trans-Indian Ocean LDDs from Southeast Asia/Australasia to Madagascar are indicated in many plant lineages (Michalak et al., 2010; Renner et al., 2010; Viljoen et al., 2013).

Besides global plant migration patterns, analysis of Plukenetieae revealed regional biogeographic patterns in the Caribbean, Madagascar, and subtropical North America (Fig. 5.4). First, there was a SDD from Central and South America into the Caribbean in the ancestor of the Tragiinae Caribbean clade (subclade T5) in the Early Miocene (c. 19.4 Mya), followed by recent
minor arrivals in each of the subtribes during the Pleistocene (2.58-0.01 Mya). A Miocene entry into the Caribbean is consistent with other euphorb lineages (Cervantes et al., 2016), as well as orchids, bromeliads, and a majority of endemic Caribbean seed plant genera (Givnish et al., 2011; Nieto-Blázquez et al., 2017; Pérez-Escobar et al., 2017a). Second, there were numerous SDDs from Africa to Madagascar through the Late Miocene and Pliocene, with one to three events in each of the subtribes. Repeated entries into Madagascar since the Miocene is emerging as a dominant biogeographic pattern for the island (Koopman \& Baum, 2008; Wikström et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2012; Korall \& Pryer, 2014; van Velzen et al., 2015; Cardinal-McTeague et al., 2016). Lastly, there were several interchanges between Central and South America and subtropical North America in New World Tragiinae (subclades T4-T10) from the Miocene into the Pleistocene. Transitions from tropical to temperate American biomes are noted in the Paleocene and Eocene in Anacardiaceae (Weeks et al., 2014) and Miocene in Rubiaceae (Janssens et al., 2016), suggesting out-of-tropic transitions have been ongoing since the Paleocene and perhaps intensified as cooling increased in the Late Miocene.

## Biome shifts, not innovative traits, associated with increased diversity

Contrary to our expectations that innovative traits would exhibit additive effects on species diversification, we found two to three shifts in Plukenetieae that were not directly associated with the specified traits or biogeography. Time-dependent BAMM analyses found three rate shifts that occurred in the Late Miocene in the African clade (subclade T3; shift 1) and Tragia sect. Tragia (subclade T10; shift 2) of Traginae and in the Dalechampia 5-armed clade (shift 3) of Dalechampiinae (Fig. 5.5). Trait-dependent HiSSE analyses recovered two of the same shifts, in the African clade (subclade T3) and the Dalechampia 5-armed clade (Fig. 5.6). Our results provide insight into the nuanced interaction between innovative traits and diversification, and support the influence of biome shifts and climate change on plant diversification.

Biome shifts are the most likely driver of the 'hidden' diversification shifts in Plukenetieae. Species with the largest rate shifts (shifts 1 and 3 ) occur primarily in a mix of seasonal and semi-arid open tropical/subtropical habitats, like wooded savannas, grasslands and scrublands (Radcliffe-Smith, 1987; Armbruster et al., 2009; Urtecho, 2016), compared to evergreen and moist tropical forests in the rest of the tribe. Increased diversification associated with arid and open habitats is found in other lineages like Proteaceae (Reyes et al., 2015),

Verbenaceae (Olmstead, 2013), and caesalpinioid legumes (Souza-Neto et al., 2016). Species in Tragia sect. Tragia (shift 2) inhabit a mix of seasonal tropical, subtropical, and temperate open habitats, including arid deserts (Múlgura de Romero \& Gutiérrez de Sanguinetti, 1989; Urtecho, 2016). Greater variability and reversals in biome preference could be one reason why net diversification rates were lower in shift 2 . Future studies could identify stronger patterns of biome-associated diversification by reconstructing ancestral biomes and habitats across the tribe.

Climate change and open habitat expansion likely contributed to diversification rate increases in Plukenetieae. Rate shifts occurred during the Late Miocene when open and arid biomes expanded across the globe, suggesting that Plukenetieae diversification was aided by emerging ecological opportunities. This effect is especially apparent in African Traginae (shift 1), where Late Miocene and Pliocene expansion of savannas coincides with a notable upswing in diversification rates (Fig. 5.5B). In this case, biogeographic history was not directly associated with increased diversification since the ancestor of African Tragiinae arrived in Early Miocene (c. 20.3 Mya) and did not diversify until open and drier landscapes became dominant, although arrival to Africa was an important precursor. American grasslands were established by the start of Miocene (Edwards et al., 2010) and as a result may have provided fewer novel ecological opportunities than Africa and produced lower diversification rates in Tragia sect. Tragia (shift 2 ). Our results reinforce growing evidence that, in certain contexts, abiotic processes associated with niche expansion (e.g., mountain building, increasing aridity and open habitat expansion) had a positive effect on plant diversification. We note that other potential abiotic drivers of diversification, Andes mountain building in Plukenetia and shifts to cold temperature tolerance in Tragia, were not associated increased species-richness. Furthermore, rapid evolution of floral and plant defences in the Dalechampia 5-armed (e.g., nocturnal closure of involucral bracts, glochidial spines on pistillate sepals, resin secretion by leaves, stipules, and bracts) is likely a contributing factor of its increased diversification rates (Armbruster et al., 2009).

## Conclusion

Biogeographic analyses revealed that pantropical distributions formed by steady periodic LDDs through the Oligocene to Pleistocene, and that dispersals were not directly associated with diversification. Contrary to our expectations, we did not find that increased diversification in Plukenetieae was associated with any of the overlapping innovations in twining growth form,
stinging hair defences, and bilaterally symmetrical pseudanthial inflorescences. Instead, increased species richness was driven in two to three subclades that appear to have shifted biomes from primarily moist tropical forests to drier open habitats. Diversification in these subclades was likely enhanced by climate change and the expansion of arid and open habitats associated with the Late Miocene and Pliocene cooling.

Table 5.S1 Accession table with voucher information for taxa used in phylogenetic analyses.

| No. | Taxon | Voucher | Country | ETS | ITS | KEA1 <br> intron 11 | $\begin{gathered} T E B \text { exon } \\ 17 \end{gathered}$ | matK | $n d h F$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Acidoton microphyllus Urban | Liogier 14216 (NY) | Dominican Republic | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 2 | Acidoton urens Sw. | Webster 8184 (DAV) | Jamaica | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 3 | Acidoton urens | Thorne 48242 (MO) | Jamaica | GenBank | KP794316 | - | - | - | GenBank |
| 4 | Adenophaedra grandofolia (Klotzsch) Müll.Arg. | Valaverde 48 (NY) | Costa Rica | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | - | GenBank |
| 5 | Bernardia dodecandra (Sessé ex Cav.) McVaugh | Rees 176 (MO) | Belize | GenBank | KP794418 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 6 | Bernardia nicaraguensis Standl. \& L.O.Williams | Cardinal-McTeague 2 (CAN) | Costa Rica | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 7 | Bernardia nicaraguensis | Stevens 30168 (MO) | Nicaragua | GenBank | KP794419 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 8 | Bernardia pulchella (Baill.) Müll.Arg. | Kegler 1333 (MO) | Brazil | GenBank | KP794420 | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 9 | Bernardia scabra Müll.Arg. | Pirani et al. 2935 (CAN) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 10 | Bia alienata Didr. | Stevens et al. 31232 (MO) | Paraguay | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 11 | Bia alienata | Pérez 352 (MO) | Paraguay | GenBank | KP794318 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 12 | Bia alienata | Zardini 11174 (MO) | Paraguay | GenBank | KP794319 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 13 | Bia alienata | Carretero 1237 (MO) | Bolivia | GenBank | KP794320 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 14 | Bia fendleri Müll.Arg. | Webster 23296 (DAV) | Peru | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 15 | Bia fendleri | Seidel and Hezog 7516 (DAV) | Bolivia | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 16 | Bia fendleri | Beck 8253 (MO) | Bolivia | GenBank | KP794321 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 17 | Bia lessertiana Baill. | Webster 25586 (DAV) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 18 | Bia cf. lessertiana | Noblick 3117 (DAV) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 19 | Caperonia palustris (L.) <br> A.St.-Hil. | Wurdack D073 (US) | USA | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 20 | Caryodendron angustifolium Standl. | (Scott Armbruster) | Costa Rica | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 21 | Caryodendron grandifolium (Müll.Arg.) Pax | Korning 8502 (MO) | Ecuador | GenBank | KP794421 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 22 | Caryodendron janeirense Müll.Arg. | Pinto et al. 122 (RB) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |


| 23 | Caryodendron orinocense Karst. | Gentry 70541 (MO) | Bolivia | - | KP794422 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 24 | Caryodendron orinocense | Grandez 19528 (AMAZ) | Peru | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 25 | Cnesmone javanica Blume | Chamchumroon 2019 (L) | Thailand | GenBank | KP794430 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 26 | Cnesmone javanica | Huq 10189 (US) | Bangladesh | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | - | GenBank |
| 27 | Cnesmone javanica | Larsen 44027 (MO) | Thailand | GenBank | KP794427 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 28 | Cnesmone javanica | Larsen 44147 (MO) | Thailand | GenBank | KP794428 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 29 | Cnesmone laevis (Ridl.) Airy Shaw | Smitinand 1180 (L) | Thailand | - | - | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 30 | Cnesmone laotica (Gagnep.) Croizat | van Beusekom 4154 (L) | Thailand | GenBank | KP794431 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 31 | Cnesmone tonkinensis (Gagnep.) Croizat | Gillespie et al. 7406 (CAN) | Vietnam | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 32 | Ctenomeria capensis (Thunb.) Harv. ex Sond. | Balkwill and Balkwill 10715 (MO) | South Africa | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 33 | Ctenomeria capensis | Hugo 2107 (MO) | South Africa | GenBank | KP794322 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 34 | Dalechampia aff. tamifolia Lam. | Gillespie et al. 10658 (CAN) | Madagascar | - | KP794423 | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 35 | Dalechampia aristolochiifolia Kunth | (Scott Armbruster) | Greenhouse ex Peru | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 36 | Dalechampia bernieri var. denisiana Leandri | Gillespie et al. 10675 (CAN) | Madagascar | - | KP794424 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 37 | Dalechampia clematidifolia Bojer ex Baill. | Gillespie et al. 10815 (CAN) | Madagascar | GenBank | KP794426 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 38 | Dalechampia dioscoreifolia Peopp. | (Scott Armbruster) | Costa Rica | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 39 | Dalechampia scandens L. | Silva et al. 1165 (CAN) | Brazil | GenBank | - | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 40 | Dalechampia sp. (Field) | Medeiros and CardinalMcTeague 555 (R) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 41 | Dalechampia sp. (River) | Medeiros and CardinalMcTeague 562 (R) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 42 | Dalechampia sp. (Serra Jua) | Medeiros et al. \# (R) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 43 | Dalechampia spathulata (Scheidw.) Baill. | (Scott Armbruster) | Greenhouse ex Mexico | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 44 | Dalechampia subternata Müll.Arg. | Gillespie et al. 10810 (CAN) | Madagascar | - | KP794425 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |


| 45 | Dalechampia tiliifolia Lam. | (Scott Armbruster) | Costa Rica | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
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| 46 | Dalechampia websteri Armbr. | Cardinal-McTeague 7 (CAN) | Costa Rica | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 47 | Dalechampia websteri | (Scott Armbruster) | Costa Rica | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 48 | Ditaxis argothamnoides (Bertol. ex Spreng.) Radcl.Sm. \& Govaerts | Wurdack D105 (US) | USA | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 49 | Gitara nicaraguensis (Hemsl.) <br>  <br> L.J.Gillespie | Berg et al. 729 (CAN) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 50 | Gitara nicaraguensis | Stevens 33392 (MO) | Nicaragua | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 51 | Gitara nicaraguensis | Ibañez 2038 (MO) | Panama | GenBank | KP794397 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 52 | Gitara nicaraguensis | Korning 47437 (MO) | Ecuador | GenBank | KP794398 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 53 | Haematostemon guianensis Sandwith | Wurdack 4350 (US) | Guyana | MF502427 | KP794434 | - | MF502846 | MF502706 | MF502776 |
| 54 | Lasiocroton bahamensis Pax \& K.Hoffm. | Wurdack D058 (US) | Cult. USA, <br> Fairchild <br> Tropical <br> Garden <br> 66629b | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | FJ670013 | FJ670084 |
| 55 | Megistostigma peltatum <br> (J.J.Sm.) Croizat | Maxwell 87-462 (L) | Thailand | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | - | - |
| 56 | Megistostigma yunnanense Croizat | Larsen 46354 (L) | Thailand | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 57 | Pachystylidium hirsutum (Blume) Pax \& K.Hoffm. | Keer 17893 (L) | Thailand | GenBank | KP794408 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 58 | Pachystylidium sp. Philippines | Kulju 4 (CAN) | Philippines | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 59 | Philyra brasiliensis Klotzsch | Webster 25536 (NY) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 60 | Platygyna hexandra (Jacq.) Müll.Arg. | Acevedo-Rodríguez 5566 (NY) | Cuba | GenBank | KP794317 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 61 | Platygyna hexandra | HAJB 81903 (MICH) | Cuba | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 62 | Platygyna hexandra | HAJB 81961 (MICH) | Cuba | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 63 | Platygyna parvifolia Alain | HAJB 81826 (MICH) | Cuba | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 64 | Plukenetia africana Sond. | Palomoti 1086 (MO) | Botswana | MF502432 | MF502515 | - | - | MF502711 | MF502782 |
| 65 | Plukenetia africana | Bartsch 1859 (US) | Namibia | MF502431 | MF502513 | MF502579 | MF502848 | MF502710 | MF502780 |


| 66 | Plukenetia africana | Pope et al. 834 (MO) | Botswana | MF502433 | MF502516 | MF502580 | - | MF502712 | MF502783 |
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| 67 | Plukenetia ankaranensis L.J.Gillespie | Gillespie et al. 10697 (CAN) | Madagascar | MF502434 | KP794438 | MF502581 | MF502849 | MF502713 | MF502784 |
| 68 | Plukenetia ankaranensis | Lees s.n. (CAN) | Madagascar | MF502435 | KP794437 | - | MF502850 | MF502714 | MF502785 |
| 69 | Plukenetia brachybotrya Müll.Arg. | Araujo-M. et al. 1722 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502437 | KP794452 | MF502583 | MF502852 | MF502716 | MF502787 |
| 70 | Plukenetia brachybotrya | Galiano et al. 6612 (MO) | Peru | MF502439 | MF502519 | - | - | MF502718 | MF502789 |
| 71 | Plukenetia brachybotrya | Fuentes and Torrico 5398 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502438 | MF502518 | MF502584 | - | MF502717 | MF502788 |
| 72 | Plukenetia brachybotrya | Acevedo-Rodriguez 14416 (NY) | Peru | MF502436 | MF502517 | MF502582 | MF502851 | MF502715 | MF502786 |
| 73 | Plukenetia brachybotrya | Seidel and Vaquiata 7733 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502440 | MF502520 | MF502585 | MF502853 | MF502719 | MF502790 |
| 74 | Plukenetia carabiasiae J.Jiménez Ram. | Meave et al. 1550 (MO) | Mexico | MF502441 | MF502521 | MF502586 | - | MF502720 | - |
| 75 | Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera Card.McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie | Valenzuela et al. 5197 (CAN) | Peru | MF502455 | MF502534 | MF502597 | - | - | - |
| 76 | Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera | Huamantupa et al. 6445 (CAN) | Peru | MF502449 | MF502528 | MF502593 | - | MF502724 | - |
| 77 | Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera | Rojas et al. 3863 (CAN) | Peru | MF502453 | MF502532 | MF502595 | - | - | - |
| 78 | Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera | van der Werff et al. 17532 (CAN) | Peru | MF502456 | MF502535 | MF502598 | MF502856 | MF502729 | MF502797 |
| 79 | Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera | Calatayud et al. 2643 (CAN) | Peru | MF502448 | MF502527 | MF502592 | - | - | GenBank |
| 80 | Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera | Woytkowski 6670 (MO) | Peru | MF502458 | MF502537 | MF502600 | MF502858 | MF502731 | MF502799 |
| 81 | Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera | Vasquez et al. 33145 (MO) | Peru | MF502457 | MF502536 | MF502599 | MF502857 | MF502730 | MF502798 |
| 82 | Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera | Monteagudo et al. 14125 (MO) | Peru | MF502450 | MF502529 | MF502594 | - | MF502725 | MF502793 |
| 83 | Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera | Monteagudo et al. 15252 (MO) | Peru | MF502451 | MF502530 | - | - | - | MF502794 |
| 84 | Plukenetia cf. penninervia | Gentry et al. 47799 (MO) | Colombia | MF502442 | MF502522 | MF502587 | - | MF502721 | MF502791 |
| 85 | Plukenetia conophora Müll.Arg. | Hart 1621 (MO) | Democratic <br> Republic of Congo | MF502443 | MF502523 | MF502588 | - | - | - |


| 86 | Plukenetia conophora | Nemba and Thomas 434 (MO) | Cameroon | MF502444 | KP794457 | MF502589 | - | MF502722 | MF502792 |
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| 87 | Plukenetia corniculata Sm. | Huq and Haroon 10780 (GH) | Bangladesh | MF502445 | MF502524 | MF502590 | MF502854 | - | - |
| 88 | Plukenetia corniculata | Huq and Haroon 10780 (MO) | Bangladesh | MF502446 | MF502525 | MF502591 | MF502855 | MF502723 | - |
| 89 | Plukenetia decidua <br> L.J.Gillespie | Rakotomalaza 597 (CAN) | Madagascar | MF502447 | MF502526 | - | - | - | - |
| 90 | Plukenetia huayllabambana Bussmann et al. | Tellez et al. 4 (MO) | Peru | MF502454 | MF502533 | MF502596 | - | MF502728 | MF502796 |
| 91 | Plukenetia huayllabambana | Quipuscoa 381 (MO) | Peru | MF502452 | MF502531 | - | - | MF502727 | MF502795 |
| 92 | Plukenetia lehmanniana ( Pax \& K.Hoffm.) Huft \& L.J.Gillespie | Silverstone-Sopkin and Giralda-Gesini 8019 (MO) | Colombia | MF502461 | MF502539 | MF502603 | MF502861 | MF502734 | MF502802 |
| 93 | Plukenetia lehmanniana | Clark 3953 (MO) | Ecuador | MF502460 | MF502538 | MF502602 | MF502860 | MF502733 | MF502801 |
| 94 | Plukenetia lehmanniana | Zak and Jaramillo 3401 (MO) | Ecuador | MF502462 | MF502540 | MF502604 | MF502862 | MF502735 | MF502803 |
| 95 | Plukenetia lehmanniana | Acevedo-Rodriguez and Daly 1658 (MO) | Ecuador | MF502459 | KP494443 | MF502601 | MF502859 | MF502732 | MF502800 |
| 96 | Plukenetia loretensis Ule | Grandez 19608 (AMAZ) | Peru | MF502463 | KP794453 | MF502605 | MF502863 | MF502736 | MF502804 |
| 97 | Plukenetia loretensis | McDaniel and Rimachi 22451 (MO) | Peru | MF502464 | MF502541 | MF502606 | - | - | MF502805 |
| 98 | Plukenetia loretensis | Vásquez and Jaramillo 3283 (MO) | Peru | MF502467 | MF502544 | MF502609 | - | - | GenBank |
| 99 | Plukenetia loretensis | Rimachi 5122 (MO) | Peru | MF502465 | MF502542 | MF502607 | - | MF502738 | MF502806 |
| 100 | Plukenetia loretensis | Solomon 7972 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502466 | MF502543 | MF502608 | MF502864 | - | MF502807 |
| 101 | Plukenetia loretensis | Vasquez et al. 38069 (MO) | Peru | MF502468 | MF502545 | MF502610 | MF502865 | MF502740 | MF502808 |
| 102 | Plukenetia madagascarensis Leandri | Villiers et al. 4899 (MO) | Madagascar | MF502471 | MF502548 | MF502613 | MF502867 | MF502743 | MF502810 |
| 103 | Plukenetia madagascarensis | Andrianjafy 1648 (CAN) | Madagascar | MF502469 | MF502546 | MF502611 | - | MF502741 | - |
| 104 | Plukenetia madagascarensis | Gillespie 4175 (CAN) | Madagascar | MF502470 | MF502547 | MF502612 | MF502866 | MF502742 | MF502809 |
| 105 | Plukenetia megastyla Card.McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie | Sperling et al. 5873 (MO) | Brazil | MF502429 | MF502512 | MF502577 | MF502847 | MF502708 | MF502778 |
| 106 | Plukenetia megastyla | Sperling et al. 6161 (CAN) | Brazil | MF502430 | - | MF502578 | - | MF502709 | MF502779 |
| 107 | Plukenetia megastyla | Ledezma et al. 921 (CAN) | Bolivia | MF502428 | MF502511 | MF502576 | - | - | MF502777 |


| 108 | Plukenetia penninervia | Martinez 17705 (DAV) | Mexico | MF502475 | MF502550 | MF502617 | MF502871 | MF502747 | MF502814 |
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| Müll.Arg. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |


| 131 | Plukenetia supraglandulosa L.J.Gillespie | Acevedo-Rodriguez 6022 (US) | Suriname | MF502493 | MF502563 | MF502634 | MF502883 | MF502763 | MF502833 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 132 | Plukenetia verrucosa Smith | Barrabe and Crozier 145 (US) | French Guiana | MF502494 | MF502564 | MF502635 | MF502884 | MF502764 | MF502834 |
| 133 | Plukenetia verrucosa | Herrera and Kaemar 10073 (CAN) | Suriname | MF502495 | MF502565 | - | - | - | - |
| 134 | Plukenetia verrucosa | Hoffman 5917 (US) | Suriname | MF502496 | MF502566 | MF502636 | MF502885 | MF502765 | MF502835 |
| 135 | Plukenetia volubilis L. | Bell 93-546 (US) | Peru | MF502497 | KP794447 | MF502637 | MF502886 | MF502766 | MF502836 |
| 136 | Plukenetia volubilis | Huamantupa 3500 (CAN) | Peru | MF502500 | MF502568 | MF502640 | - | - | - |
| 137 | Plukenetia volubilis | Valenzuela 8531 (MO) | Peru | MF502505 | MF502571 | - | - | - | - |
| 138 | Plukenetia volubilis | Jaramillo et al. 1237 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502501 | MF502569 | MF502641 | - | MF502768 | MF502838 |
| 139 | Plukenetia volubilis | Teran et al. 2502 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502504 | MF502570 | MF502644 | - | MF502771 | MF502841 |
| 140 | Plukenetia volubilis | Wurdack s.n. (US) | Smithsonian Greenhouse ex Peru | MF502506 | MF502572 | MF502645 | MF502890 | MF502772 | MF502842 |
| 141 | Plukenetia volubilis | Carrillo and Reyes 448 (MO) | Ecuador | MF502499 | MF502567 | MF502639 | - | - | GenBank |
| 142 | Plukenetia volubilis | Burnham and Krings 1640 (MO) | Ecuador | MF502498 | KP794446 | MF502638 | MF502887 | MF502767 | MF502837 |
| 143 | Plukenetia aff. volubilis | Parada et al. 206 (CAN) | Bolivia | MF502503 | KP794444 | MF502643 | MF502889 | MF502770 | MF502840 |
| 144 | Plukenetia aff. volubilis | Nee 55162 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502502 | KP794445 | MF502642 | MF502888 | MF502769 | MF502839 |
| 145 | Romanoa tamnoides (A.Juss.) Radcl.-Sm. | Raes and Terceros 177 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502508 | KP794435 | MF502646 | - | MF502773 | MF502843 |
| 146 | Romanoa tamnoides | Raes et al. 211 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502509 | MF502574 | MF502647 | - | MF502774 | MF502844 |
| 147 | Romanoa tamnoides | Zardini and Chaparro $50824 \text { (MO) }$ | Paraguay | MF502510 | MF502575 | MF502648 | - | MF502775 | MF502845 |
| 148 | Romanoa tamnoides | Fuentes 1848 (MO) | Bolivia | MF502507 | MF502573 | - | - | - | GenBank |
| 149 | Sphaerostylis perrieri Leandri | Labat 3441 (MO) | Madagascar | GenBank | KP794412 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 150 | Sphaerostylis perrieri | Gillespie 10738 (CAN) | Madagascar | GenBank | KP794413 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 151 | Sphaerostylis perrieri | Gillespie 10739 (CAN) | Madagascar | GenBank | KP794414 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 152 | Sphaerostylis perrieri | Gillespie 10742 (CAN) | Madagascar | GenBank | KP794415 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 153 | Tragia aff. furialis Bojer ex Prain | Lovett 3707 (MO) | Tanzania | GenBank | KP794344 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 154 | Tragia aff. pacifica | Sandoval 1777 (MO) | El Salvador | GenBank | KP794388 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |


| 155 | Tragia aff. subhastata | Serrano 6965 (MO) | Bolivia | GenBank | KP794357 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
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| 156 | Tragia aff. subhastata | Serrano 6929 (MO) | Bolivia | GenBank | KP794358 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 157 | Tragia amblyodonta <br> (Müll.Arg.) Pax \& K.Hoffm. | B.L. 98-372 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794376 | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 158 | Tragia arabica (Müll.Arg.) <br> Baill. ex Prain | Burger 3592 (US) | Ethiopia | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 159 | Tragia arnhemica P.I.Forst. | Brennan 2016 (DNA) | Australia | GenBank | KP794410 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 160 | Tragia arnhemica | Russel-Smith 5235 (DNA) | Australia | GenBank | KP794409 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 161 | Tragia bahiensis Müll.Arg. | Medeiros and CardinalMcTeague 561 (R) | Brazil | - | - | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 162 | Tragia baroniana Prain | Gillespie 10723 (CAN) | Madagascar | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 163 | Tragia baroniana | Gillespie 10748 (CAN) | Madagascar | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 164 | Tragia benthamii Baker | Bidgood 4648 (MO) | Tanzania | GenBank | KP794328 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 165 | Tragia betonicifolia Nutt. | Summers 9529 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794363 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 166 | Tragia betonicifolia | Smith 3940 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794364 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 167 | Tragia biflora Urb. \& Ekman | Liogier 16491 (NY) | Dominican <br> Republic | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 168 | Tragia boiviniana Müll.Arg. | Birkinshaw 21 (MO) | Madagascar | GenBank | - | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 169 | Tragia brevipes Pax | Bidgood 4686 (MO) | Tanzania | GenBank | KP794325 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 170 | Tragia brevipes | Rwaburindore 4488 (MO) | Uganda | GenBank | KP794329 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 171 | Tragia caperonoides Pax \& K.Hoffm. | Zardini and Gamarra $59470 \text { (MO) }$ | Paraguay | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 172 | Tragia cearensis Pax \& K.Hoffm. | Medeiros et al. \# (R) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 173 | Tragia cearensis | Medeiros et al. \# (R) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 174 | Tragia cearensis | Medeiros et al. \# (R) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 175 | Tragia cf. bahiensis | Zardini 52840 (MO) | Paraguay | - | KP794378 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 176 | Tragia cf. bahiensis | Zardini 54517 (MO) | Paraguay | - | - | GenBank | - | - | GenBank |
| 177 | Tragia cf. cocculifolia | McPherson and van der Werff 16441 (CAN) | Madagascar | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 178 | Tragia cf. pacifica | Castrejón 753 (MO) | Mexico | GenBank | KP794392 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 179 | Tragia cf. petiolaris | ATBP 624 (MO) | Uganda | GenBank | KP794351 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 180 | Tragia cf. pohlii | Irwin 5514 (NY) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |


| 181 | Tragia cf. subhastata | Serrano 5264 (MO) | Bolivia | GenBank | KP794359 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
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| 182 | Tragia cf. volubilis | McDaniel and Rimachi 19854 (MO) | Peru, Loreto | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 183 | Tragia cf. yucatanensis | Wallnöfer 5898 (MO) | Guatemala | GenBank | KP794381 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 184 | Tragia cf. yucatanensis | Álvarez 6623 (MO) | Mexico | GenBank | KP794383 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 185 | Tragia chlorocaulon Baill. | Dawson 15122 (MO) | Brazil | GenBank | KP794390 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 186 | Tragia chlorocaulon | Irwin 15858 (MO) | Brazil | GenBank | KP794391 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 187 | Tragia chlorocaulon | Medeiros et al. \# (R) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 188 | Tragia cocculifolia Prain | Razanatsoa 250 (MO) | Madagascar | GenBank | KP794331 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 189 | Tragia cordata Michx. | McDaniel 28890 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794395 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 190 | Tragia cordata | Thomas 171769 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794396 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 191 | Tragia cordata | Thomas 76208 (CAN) | USA | GenBank | KP794394 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 192 | Tragia dinteri Pax | Seydel 2830 (L) | Namibia | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 193 | Tragia dioica Sond. | Volk 6173 (MO) | Namibia | GenBank | KP794332 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 194 | Tragia dioica | Seydel 5539 (MO) | Namibia | GenBank | KP794335 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 195 | Tragia durbanensis Kuntze | Balsinhas 3095 (MO) | South Africa | GenBank | KP794333 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 196 | Tragia finalis P.I.Forst. | Gillespie 7390 (CAN) | Australia | GenBank | KP794411 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 197 | Tragia furialis Bojer ex Prain | Kayombo 5098 (MO) | Tanzania | - | KP794340 | - | - | - | GenBank |
| 198 | Tragia furialis | Barthlet 171 (MO) | Mayotte | - | KP794341 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 199 | Tragia furialis | Nusbaumer 2725 (MO) | Madagascar | GenBank | KP794343 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 200 | Tragia furialis | Gillespie 10648 (CAN) | Madagascar | GenBank | KP794342 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 201 | Tragia furialis | Gillespie 10700 (CAN) | Madagascar | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 202 | Tragia geraniifolia Klotzsch ex Baill. | Krapovickas 20133 (MO) | Argentina | GenBank | KP794368 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 203 | Tragia geraniifolia | Peña-Chocarro 2240 (MO) | Paraguay | GenBank | KP794370 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 204 | Tragia giardelliae M.M.Gutiérrez \& M.E.Múlgura | Mulgura 399 (NY) | Argentina | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | - | - |
| 205 | Tragia giardelliae | Guaglianone 2994 (MO) | Argentina | GenBank | KP794360 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 206 | Tragia glanduligera Pax \& K.Hoffm. | Tenorio 21300 (MO) | Mexico | - | - | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |


| 207 | Tragia hieronymi Pax \& K.Hoffm. | Krapovickas 45464 (MO) | Paraguay | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 208 | Tragia hieronymi | Mendoza 474 (NY) | Bolivia | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 209 | Tragia hildebrandtii Müll.Arg. | Abdallah 96/157 (MO) | Tanzania | GenBank | KP794355 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 210 | Tragia jonesii Radcl.-Sm. \& Govaerts | Felger 85-909 (MO) | Mexico | GenBank | KP794377 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 211 | Tragia laciniata (Torr.) Müll.Arg. | Yatskievych 11-59 (MO) | Mexico | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 212 | Tragia laminularis Müll.Arg. | Gautier-Béguin 959 (MO) | Côte d'Ivoire | GenBank | KP794348 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 213 | Tragia laminularis | Gautier-Béguin 592 (MO) | Côte d'Ivoire | GenBank | KP794349 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 214 | Tragia melochioides Griseb. | Zuloaga 4896 (MO) | Argentina | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 215 | Tragia melochioides | Lozano 1784 (MO) | Bolivia | GenBank | KP794372 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 216 | Tragia melochioides | Coca 50 (MO) | Bolivia | GenBank | KP794373 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 217 | Tragia melochioides | Denham et al. 300 (SI) | Uruguay | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 218 | Tragia mexicana Müll.Arg. | Peña 1029 (MO) | Belize | GenBank | KP794393 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 219 | Tragia minor Sond. | Balsinhas 3631 (MO) | South Africa | GenBank | KP794338 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 220 | Tragia nepetifolia Cav. | García 446 (MO) | Mexico | GenBank | KP794366 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 221 | Tragia novae-hollandiae Müll.Arg. | Gillespie 7394 (CAN) | Australia | GenBank | KP794417 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 222 | Tragia novae-hollandiae | Bower S1 (CAN) | Australia | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 223 | Tragia okanyua Pax | Schmidt 2323 (MO) | Zambia | GenBank | KP794337 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 224 | Tragia okanyua | Long 386 (MO) | Botswana | GenBank | KP794336 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 225 | Tragia pacifica McVaugh | Rosales 672 (MO) | El Salvador | GenBank | KP794389 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 226 | Tragia paxii Lourteig \& O'Donnell | Múlgura 2307 (MO) | Argentina | GenBank | KP794379 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 227 | Tragia paxii | Johnson 920 (MO) | Argentina | GenBank | KP794380 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 228 | Tragia petiolaris Radcl.-Sm. | Kuchar 25067 (MO) | Tanzania | GenBank | KP794354 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 229 | Tragia petiolaris | Greenway and Polhill $11556 \text { (L) }$ | Tanzania | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 230 | Tragia pinnata (Poir.) A.Juss. | Tressens 2202 (MO) | Argentina | GenBank | KP794369 | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 231 | Tragia plukenetii Radcl.-Sm. | Rwaburindore 5745 (MO) | Uganda | GenBank | KP794356 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |


| 232 | Tragia plukenetii | Burger 3768 (US) | Ethiopia | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 233 | Tragia pohlii Müll.Arg. | Eiten 4836 (UBC) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 234 | Tragia polyandra Vell. | Múlgura 2061 (MO) | Argentina | GenBank | KP794375 | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 235 | Tragia preussii Pax | Nkongmeneck 1400 (MO) | Cameroon | GenBank | KP794352 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 236 | Tragia pungens (Forssk.) Müll.Arg. | De Wilde 6406 (MO) | Ethiopia | GenBank | KP794327 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 237 | Tragia pungens | Bally 16026 (MO) | Somalia | GenBank | KP794326 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 238 | Tragia pungens | Spellenberg 7547 (L) | Yemen | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 239 | Tragia ramosa Torr. | Hill 18339 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794371 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 240 | Tragia ramosa | Ricketson 4600 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794367 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 241 | Tragia rogersii Prain | Ellery 92/96 (MO) | South Africa | GenBank | KP794339 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 242 | Tragia rupestris Sond. | Venter 9666 (MO) | South Africa | GenBank | KP794334 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 243 | Tragia saxicola Small | Conell 40056 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794386 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 244 | Tragia saxicola | Kral 51842 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794387 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 245 | Tragia smallii Shinners | McDaniel 28193 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794401 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 246 | Tragia smallii | McDaniel 28698 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794402 | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 247 | Tragia sp. aff. Zuckertia | Meier 1269 (MO) | Venezuela | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 248 | Tragia sp. Merida | Ortega s.n. (CAN) | Mexico | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 249 | Tragia sp. peltate | Aroujo-M. et al. 2315 (MO) | Bolivia | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 250 | Tragia sp. Ratiga | Rodriguez and Tejada 2150 (MO) | El Salvador | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 251 | Tragia sp. Tagira | Harder and Bingham 2582 (CAN) | Zambia | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 252 | Tragia sp. nov. Fanambana | Gillespie 10671 (CAN) | Madagascar | - | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 253 | Tragia sp. nov. Fanambana | Ranirison and Nusbaumer 456 (G) | Madagascar | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 254 | Tragia sp. nov. Razakamalala | Razakamalala 2878 (MO) | Madagascar | GenBank | GenBank | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 255 | Tragia sp. nov. Sahaka | Gillespie 10681 (CAN) | Madagascar | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 256 | Tragia spathulata Benth. | Breteler 7083 (MO) | Togo | GenBank | KP794350 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 257 | Tragia subsessilis Pax | Vollesen 96/44 (MO) | Tanzania | GenBank | KP794345 | - | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 258 | Tragia tenuifolia Benth. | Gautier 2266 (MO) | Côte d'Ivoire | GenBank | KP794353 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |


| 259 | Tragia tiverneana Leandri | Rakotozafy et al. 55 (CAN) | Madagascar | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 260 | Tragia tiverneana | Hanitrarivo 325 (CAN) | Madagascar | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 261 | Tragia tristis Müll.Arg. | Anderson 9117 (NY) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 262 | Tragia uberbana Müll.Arg. | Zuloaga 5785 (MO) | Argentina | GenBank | KP794374 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 263 | Tragia urens L. | Thomas 55051, 1745, 830 (CAN) | USA | GenBank | KP794403 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 264 | Tragia urens | Thomas 100075 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794404 | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 265 | Tragia urens | Thomas 124328 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794405 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 266 | Tragia urens | Kral 41155 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794406 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 267 | Tragia urens | Anderson 7188 (MO) | USA | GenBank | KP794407 | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 268 | Tragia urens | Mayfield 2006 (MO) | USA | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 269 | Tragia urens | Abbott 22604 (MO) | USA | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank |
| 270 | Tragia urticifolia Michx. | Thomas 97259 (CAN) | USA | GenBank | KP794365 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 271 | Tragia volubilis L. | Stevens 29658 (MO) | Nicaragua | GenBank | KP794361 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 272 | Tragia volubilis | Hammel 19108 (MO) | Costa Rica | GenBank | KP794362 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 273 | Tragia volubilis | Medeiros and CardinalMcTeague 556 (R) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 274 | Tragia volubilis | Medeiros and Cardinal- <br> McTeague 563 (R) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 275 | Tragia volubilis | Stevens and Montiel 34954 (MO) | Nicaragua | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 276 | Tragia volubilis | Peñarando et al. 651 (MO) | Bolivia | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 277 | Tragia volubilis | Villalobos et al. 1251 (MO) | Bolivia | GenBank | GenBank | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 278 | Tragia volubilis | Medeiros et al. \# (R) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 279 | Tragia volubilis | Medeiros et al. \# (R) | Brazil | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 280 | Tragia yucatanensis Millsp. | Christenhusz 5678 (MO) | Guatemala | GenBank | KP794384 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 281 | Tragia yucatanensis | Lira 420 (MO) | Mexico | GenBank | KP794385 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 282 | Tragia yucatanensis | Alvarez 4398 (MO) | Mexico | GenBank | KP794382 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 283 | Tragiella anomala (Prain) Pax \& K.Hoffm. | Mwasumbi 16202 (MO) | Tanzania | GenBank | KP794323 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 284 | Tragiella anomala | Luke 11120 (MO) | Tanzania | GenBank | KP794324 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |


| 285 | Tragiella friesiana (Prain) Pax \& K.Hoffm. | Nkhoma 74 (MO) | Zambia | GenBank | KP794347 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 286 | Tragiella natalensis (Sond.) Pax \& K.Hoffm. | Massawe 519 (MO) | Tanzania | GenBank | KP794330 | - | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 287 | Zuckertia cordata Baill. | González 1045 (MO) | Costa Rica | GenBank | KP794399 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 288 | Zuckertia cordata Baill. | Calzada 1544 (MO) | Mexico | GenBank | KP794400 | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |
| 289 | Zuckertia manuelii (V.W.Steinm. \& Ram.Amezcua) Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie | Steinmann et al. 6303 (CAN) | Mexico | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank | GenBank |

Table 5.S2 Biogeographical distribution matrix for BıoGEOBEARS analyses of Plukenetieae ( $\mathrm{A}=$ Central + South America, $\mathrm{B}=$ North America, $\mathrm{C}=$ Caribbean, $\mathrm{D}=$ Africa + South Arabia, $\mathrm{E}=$ Madagascar, $\mathrm{F}=$ South + Southeast Asia; $\mathrm{G}=$ Australasia).

| No. | Taxon | A | B | C | D | E |  | G |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Acidoton microphylla | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 2 | Acidoton urens | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 | Adenophaedra grandifolia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 4 | Bernardia dodecandra | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 | Bernardia nicaraguensis | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | Bernardia pulchella | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 7 | Bernardia scabra | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 | Bia alienata | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | Bia cf. lessertiana | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 10 | Bia fendleri | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 11 | Bia lessertiana | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 12 | Caperonia palustris | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 13 | Caryodendron angustifolia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 14 | Caryodendron grandifolium | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 15 | Caryodendron janeirense | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 16 | Caryodendron orinocense | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 17 | Cnesmone javanica | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 18 | Cnesmone laevis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 19 | Cnesmone laotica | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 20 | Cnesmone tonkinensis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 21 | Ctenomeria capensis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 22 | Dalechampia aff. tamifolia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |  | 0 |
| 23 | Dalechampia aristolochiifolia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 24 | Dalechampia bernieri var. denisiana | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |  | 0 |
| 25 | Dalechampia clematidifolia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |  | 0 |
| 26 | Dalechampia dioscoreifolia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 27 | Dalechampia pernambucensis | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 28 | Dalechampia sp. 311 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 29 | Dalechampia sp. 363 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 30 | Dalechampia sp. 364 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 31 | Dalechampia spathulata | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 32 | Dalechampia subternata | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |  | 0 |
| 33 | Dalechampia tiliifolia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 34 | Dalechampia websteri | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 35 | Ditaxis argothamnoides | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |


| 36 | Gitara nicaraguensis | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 37 | Haematostemon guianensis | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 38 | Lasiocroton bahamensis | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 39 | Megistostigma peltatum | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 40 | Megistostigma yunnanense | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 41 | Pachystylidium hirsutum | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 |
| 42 | Philyra brasiliensis | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 43 | Platygyna hexandra | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 44 | Platygyna parvifolia | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 45 | Plukenetia aff. volubilis | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 46 | Plukenetia africana | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 47 | Plukenetia ankaranensis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 48 | Plukenetia brachybotrya | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 49 | Plukenetia carabiasias | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 50 | Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 51 | Plukenetia cf. penninervia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 52 | Plukenetia conophora | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 53 | Plukenetia corniculata | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 54 | Plukenetia decidua | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 55 | Plukenetia huayllabambana | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 56 | Plukenetia lehmanniana | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 57 | Plukenetia loretensis | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 58 | Plukenetia madagascariensis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 59 | Plukenetia megastyla | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 60 | Plukenetia penninervia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 61 | Plukenetia polyadenia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 62 | Plukenetia serrata | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 63 | Plukenetia stipellata | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 64 | Plukenetia supraglandulosa | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 65 | Plukenetia verrucosa | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 66 | Plukenetia volubilis | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 67 | Romanoa tamnoides | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 68 | Sphaerostylis perrieri | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 69 | Tragia chlorocaulon | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 70 | Tragia aff. pacifica | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 71 | Tragia aff. subhastata | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 72 | Tragia aff. volubilis | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 73 | Tragia aff. Zuckertia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 74 | Tragia amblyodonta | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |


| 75 | Tragia arabica | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 76 | Tragia arnhemica | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 77 | Tragia baroniana | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 78 | Tragia benthamii | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 79 | Tragia bentonicifolia | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 80 | Tragia biflora | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 81 | Tragia boiviniana | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 82 | Tragia brevipes | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 83 | Tragia caperonioides | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 84 | Tragia cearensis | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 85 | Tragia cf. bahiensis | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 86 | Tragia cf. pacifica | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 87 | Tragia cf. petiolaris | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 88 | Tragia cf. volubilis | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 89 | Tragia chlorocaulon | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 90 | Tragia chlorocaulon | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 91 | Tragia cocculifolia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 92 | Tragia cordata | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 93 | Tragia dinteri | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 94 | Tragia dioica | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 95 | Tragia dioica | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 96 | Tragia durbanensis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 97 | Tragia finalis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 98 | Tragia furialis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 99 | Tragia geraniifolia | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 100 | Tragia giardelliae | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 101 | Tragia hieronymi | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 102 | Tragia hildebrandtii | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 103 | Tragia jonesii | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 104 | Tragia laciniata | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 105 | Tragia laminularis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 106 | Tragia melochioides | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 107 | Tragia melochioides | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 108 | Tragia mexicana | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 109 | Tragia minor | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 110 | Tragia natalensis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 111 | Tragia nepetifolia | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 112 | Tragia novae-hollandiae | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 113 | Tragia okanyua | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |


| 114 | Tragia pacifica | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 115 | Tragia paxii | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 116 | Tragia petiolaris | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 117 | Tragia pinnata | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 118 | Tragia plukenetii | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 119 | Tragia polyandra | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 120 | Tragia preussii | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 121 | Tragia pungens | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 122 | Tragia ramosa | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 123 | Tragia ramosa | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 124 | Tragia rogersii | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 125 | Tragia rupestris | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 126 | Tragia saxicola | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 127 | Tragia smallii | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 128 | Tragia sp. Merida | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 129 | Tragia sp. nov. Fanambana | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 130 | Tragia sp. nov. Razakalamala | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 131 | Tragia sp. nov. Sahaka | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 132 | Tragia sp. peltate | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 133 | Tragia sp. Philippines | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 134 | Tragia sp. Tagira | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 135 | Tragia spathulata | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 136 | Tragia subsessilis | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 137 | Tragia tenuifolia | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 138 | Tragia tiverniana | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 139 | Tragia uberabana | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 140 | Tragia urens | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 141 | Tragia urticifolia | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 142 | Tragia volubilis | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 143 | Tragia yucatanensis | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 144 | Tragiella anomala | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 145 | Tragiella friesiana | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 146 | Zuckertia cordata | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 147 | Zuckertia manuelii | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Table 5.S3 Manual dispersal matrix between biogeographical areas for two time periods for BIOGEOBEARS analyses of Plukenetieae $($ adjacent $=1.0$, short-distance dispersal $=0.5$, long-distance dispersal $=0.1$ ).
$\left.\begin{array}{llllllll}\hline & \begin{array}{l}\text { Neotropics }+ \\ \text { South }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { North } \\ \text { America }\end{array} & \text { Caribbean } \\ \text { Modern Day } \\ \text { America }\end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l}\text { Africa } \\ \text { South Arabia }\end{array}\right)$

| Tropical fragments 60-30 Mya | Central South America A | North <br> America <br> B | Caribbean C | Africa + <br> South Arabia <br> D | Madagascar <br> E | South + <br> Southeas <br> Asia <br> F | Australasia <br> G |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Central + South America | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| North America | 0.5 | 1 | - | - | - | - |  |
| Caribbean | 0.5 | 0.5 | 1 | - | - | - | - |
| Africa + South Arabia | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 1 | - | - | - |
| Madagascar | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.5 | 1 | - | - |
| Southeast Asia | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 1 | - |
| Australasia | 0.5 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 1 |

Table 5.S4 Proportion of extant species sampled per designated terminal for BAMM analysis of Plukenetieae.

| No. | Taxon | Terminal | Proportion of terminal sampled |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Acidoton microphylla | Acid | 0.4 |
| 2 | Acidoton urens | Acid | 0.4 |
| 3 | Adenophaedra grandifolia | Aden | 0.25 |
| 4 | Bernardia dodecandra | Bern | 0.057 |
| 5 | Bernardia nicaraguensis | Bern | 0.057 |
| 6 | Bernardia pulchella | Bern | 0.057 |
| 7 | Bernardia scabra | Bern | 0.057 |
| 8 | Bia alienata | Bia | 0.8 |
| 9 | Bia cf. lessertiana | Bia | 0.8 |
| 10 | Bia fendleri | Bia | 0.8 |
| 11 | Bia lessertiana | Bia | 0.8 |
| 12 | Caperonia palustris | Cape | 0.029 |
| 13 | Caryodendron angustifolia | Cary | 0.667 |
| 14 | Caryodendron grandifolium | Cary | 0.667 |
| 15 | Caryodendron janeirense | Cary | 0.667 |
| 16 | Caryodendron orinocense | Cary | 0.667 |
| 17 | Ctenomeria capensis | Cten | 0.5 |
| 18 | Dalechampia aff. tamifolia | Dale | 0.108 |
| 19 | Dalechampia aristolochiifolia | Dale | 0.108 |
| 20 | Dalechampia bernieri var. denisiana | Dale | 0.108 |
| 21 | Dalechampia clematidifolia | Dale | 0.108 |
| 22 | Dalechampia dioscoreifolia | Dale | 0.108 |
| 23 | Dalechampia pernambucensis | Dale | 0.108 |
| 24 | Dalechampia sp. 311 | Dale | 0.108 |
| 25 | Dalechampia sp. 363 | Dale | 0.108 |
| 26 | Dalechampia sp. 364 | Dale | 0.108 |
| 27 | Dalechampia spathulata | Dale | 0.108 |
| 28 | Dalechampia subternata | Dale | 0.108 |
| 29 | Dalechampia tiliifolia | Dale | 0.108 |
| 30 | Dalechampia websteri | Dale | 0.108 |
| 31 | Ditaxis argothamnoides | Dita | 0.013 |
| 32 | Tragia sp. Merida | GenMer | 1 |
| 33 | Tragia sp. peltate | GenPel | 1 |
| 34 | Tragia aff. Zuckertia | GenZuc | 1 |
| 35 | Gitara nicaraguensis | Gita | 1 |
| 36 | Haematostemon guianensis | Haem | 0.25 |
| 37 | Lasiocroton bahamensis | Lasio | 0.019 |


| 38 | Tragia smallii | LepSma | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 39 | Tragia urens | LepUre | 1 |
| 40 | Plukenetia brachybotrya | P2 | 0.778 |
| 41 | Plukenetia cf. penninervia | P2 | 0.778 |
| 42 | Plukenetia loretensis | P2 | 0.778 |
| 43 | Plukenetia megastyla | P2 | 0.778 |
| 44 | Plukenetia penninervia | P2 | 0.778 |
| 45 | Plukenetia supraglandulosa | P2 | 0.778 |
| 46 | Plukenetia verrucosa | P2 | 0.778 |
| 47 | Pachystylidium hirsutum | PacHir | 1 |
| 48 | Philyra brasiliensis | Phil | 1 |
| 49 | Platygyna hexandra | Plat | 0.286 |
| 50 | Platygyna parvifolia | Plat | 0.286 |
| 51 | Plukenetia africana | PluAfr | 0.5 |
| 52 | Plukenetia ankaranensis | PluAnk | 1 |
| 53 | Plukenetia aff. volubilis | PluBol | 1 |
| 54 | Plukenetia carabiasias | PluCar | 1 |
| 55 | Plukenetia conophora | PluCon | 1 |
| 56 | Plukenetia corniculata | PluCor | 1 |
| 57 | Plukenetia decidua | PluDec | 1 |
| 58 | Plukenetia huayllabambana | PluHua | 1 |
| 59 | Plukenetia lehmanniana | PluLeh | 1 |
| 60 | Plukenetia madagascariensis | PluMad | 1 |
| 61 | Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera | PluNec | 1 |
| 62 | Plukenetia polyadenia | PluPol | 1 |
| 63 | Plukenetia serrata | PluSer | 1 |
| 64 | Plukenetia stipellata | PluSti | 1 |
| 65 | Plukenetia volubilis | PluVol | 1 |
| 66 | Romanoa tamnoides | Roma | 1 |
| 67 | Cnesmone javanica | SEAsia | 0.353 |
| 68 | Cnesmone laevis | SEAsia | 0.353 |
| 69 | Cnesmone laotica | SEAsia | 0.353 |
| 70 | Cnesmone tonkinensis | SEAsia | 0.353 |
| 71 | Megistostigma peltatum | SEAsia | 0.353 |
| 72 | Megistostigma yunnanense | SEAsia | 0.353 |
| 73 | Sphaerostylis perrieri | SphPer | 1 |
| 74 | Tragia arabica | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 75 | Tragia baroniana | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 76 | Tragia benthamii | Tagira | 0.33 |


| 77 | Tragia boiviniana | Tagira | 0.33 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 78 | Tragia brevipes | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 79 | Tragia cf. petiolaris | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 80 | Tragia cocculifolia | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 81 | Tragia dinteri | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 82 | Tragia dioica | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 83 | Tragia dioica | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 84 | Tragia durbanensis | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 85 | Tragia furialis | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 86 | Tragia hildebrandtii | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 87 | Tragia laminularis | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 88 | Tragia minor | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 89 | Tragia natalensis | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 90 | Tragia okanyua | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 91 | Tragia petiolaris | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 92 | Tragia plukenetii | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 93 | Tragia preussii | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 94 | Tragia pungens | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 95 | Tragia rogersii | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 96 | Tragia rupestris | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 97 | Tragia sp. nov. Fanambana | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 98 | Tragia sp. nov. Razakalamala | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 99 | Tragia sp. nov. Sahaka | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 100 | Tragia sp. Tagira | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 101 | Tragia spathulata | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 102 | Tragia subsessilis | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 103 | Tragia tenuifolia | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 104 | Tragia tiverniana | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 105 | Tragiella anomala | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 106 | Tragiella friesiana | Tagira | 0.33 |
| 107 | Tragia arnhemica | TraArn | 1 |
| 108 | Tragia biflora | TraBif | 1 |
| 109 | Tragia finalis | TraFin | 1 |
| 110 | Tragia chlorocaulon | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 111 | Tragia aff. pacifica | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 112 | Tragia aff. subhastata | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 113 | Tragia aff. volubilis | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 114 | Tragia amblyodonta | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 115 | Tragia bentonicifolia | Tragia | 0.586 |


| 116 | Tragia caperonioides | Tragia | 0.586 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 117 | Tragia cearensis | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 118 | Tragia cf. bahiensis | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 119 | Tragia cf. pacifica | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 120 | Tragia cf. volubilis | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 121 | Tragia chlorocaulon | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 122 | Tragia chlorocaulon | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 123 | Tragia cordata | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 124 | Tragia geraniifolia | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 125 | Tragia giardelliae | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 126 | Tragia hieronymi | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 127 | Tragia jonesii | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 128 | Tragia laciniata | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 129 | Tragia melochioides | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 130 | Tragia melochioides | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 131 | Tragia mexicana | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 132 | Tragia nepetifolia | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 133 | Tragia pacifica | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 134 | Tragia paxii | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 135 | Tragia pinnata | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 136 | Tragia polyandra | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 137 | Tragia ramosa | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 138 | Tragia ramosa | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 139 | Tragia saxicola | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 140 | Tragia uberabana | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 141 | Tragia urticifolia | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 142 | Tragia volubilis | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 143 | Tragia yucatanensis | Tragia | 0.586 |
| 144 | Tragia novae-hollandiae | TraNov | 1 |
| 145 | Tragia sp. Philippines | TraSp | 1 |
| 146 | Zuckertia cordata | ZucCor | 1 |
| 147 | Zuckertia manuelii | ZucMan | 1 |

Table 5.S5 Trait matrix for HISSE analysis of Plukenetieae: Growth form $(0=$ non-twining; $1=$ twining $)$, plant defences ( $0=$ non-stinging; $1=$ stinging ), pseudanthial inflorescences ( $0=$ non-pseudanthial; $1=$ pseudanthial). Accessions with a number were randomly added to the BEAST maximum clade credibility tree to balance undersampled clades (see methods).

| No. | Taxon | Growth form | Plant defences | Pseudanthial inflorescence |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Acidoton microphylla | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 2 | Acidoton urens | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 3 | Adenophaedra grandifolia | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 | Bernardia - 01 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 | Bernardia-02 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | Bernardia-03 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 7 | Bernardia-04 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 | Bernardia-05 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | Bernardia-06 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 | Bernardia-07 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 11 | Bernardia-08 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 | Bernardia - 09 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 13 | Bernardia - 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 14 | Bernardia-11 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 15 | Bernardia-12 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 16 | Bernardia-13 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 17 | Bernardia-14 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 18 | Bernardia-15 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 19 | Bernardia-16 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 20 | Bernardia-17 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 21 | Bernardia-18 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 22 | Bernardia-19 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 23 | Bernardia - 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 24 | Bernardia - 21 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 25 | Bernardia-22 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 26 | Bernardia-23 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 27 | Bernardia-24 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 28 | Bernardia-25 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 29 | Bernardia-26 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 30 | Bernardia-27 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 31 | Bernardia-28 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 32 | Bernardia - 29 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 33 | Bernardia - 30 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 34 | Bernardia-31 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 35 | Bernardia - 32 | 0 | 0 | 0 |


| 36 | Bernardia - 33 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 37 | Bernardia-34 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 38 | Bernardia - 35 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 39 | Bernardia - 36 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 40 | Bernardia dodecandra | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 41 | Bernardia nicaraguensis | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 42 | Bernardia pulchella | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 43 | Bernardia scabra | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 44 | Bia alienata | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 45 | Bia cf. lessertiana | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 46 | Bia fendleri | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 47 | Bia lessertiana | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 48 | Caryodendron angustifolia | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 49 | Caryodendron grandifolium | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 50 | Caryodendron janeirense | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 51 | Caryodendron orinocense | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 52 | Cnesmone javanica | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 53 | Cnesmone laevis | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 54 | Cnesmone laotica | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 55 | Cnesmone tonkinensis | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 56 | Ctenomeria capensis | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 57 | Dal 4-armed clade - 01 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 58 | Dal 4-armed clade - 02 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 59 | Dal 4-armed clade - 03 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 60 | Dal 4-armed clade - 04 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 61 | Dal 4-armed clade - 05 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 62 | Dal 4-armed clade - 06 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 63 | Dal 4-armed clade - 07 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 64 | Dal 4-armed clade - 08 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 65 | Dal 4-armed clade - 09 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 66 | Dal 4-armed clade - 10 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 67 | Dal 4-armed clade - 11 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 68 | Dal 4-armed clade - 12 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 69 | Dal 4-armed clade - 13 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 70 | Dal 4-armed clade - 14 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 71 | Dal 4-armed clade - 15 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 72 | Dal 4-armed clade - 16 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 73 | Dal 4-armed clade - 17 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 74 | Dal 4-armed clade - 18 | 1 | 1 | 1 |


| 75 | Dal 4-armed clade - 19 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 76 | Dal 4-armed clade - 20 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 77 | Dal 4-armed clade - 21 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 78 | Dal 4-armed clade - 22 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 79 | Dal 4-armed clade - 23 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 80 | Dal 4-armed clade - 24 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 81 | Dal 5-armed clade - 01 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 82 | Dal 5-armed clade - 02 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 83 | Dal 5-armed clade - 03 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 84 | Dal 5-armed clade - 04 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 85 | Dal 5-armed clade - 05 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 86 | Dal 5-armed clade - 06 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 87 | Dal 5-armed clade - 07 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 88 | Dal 5-armed clade - 08 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 89 | Dal 5-armed clade - 09 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 90 | Dal 5-armed clade - 10 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 91 | Dal 5-armed clade - 11 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 92 | Dal 5-armed clade - 12 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 93 | Dal 5-armed clade - 13 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 94 | Dal 5-armed clade - 14 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 95 | Dal 5-armed clade - 15 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 96 | Dal 5-armed clade - 16 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 97 | Dal 5-armed clade - 17 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 98 | Dal 5-armed clade - 18 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 99 | Dal 5-armed clade - 19 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 100 | Dal 5-armed clade - 20 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 101 | Dal 5-armed clade - 21 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 102 | Dal 5-armed clade - 22 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 103 | Dal 5-armed clade - 23 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 104 | Dal 5-armed clade - 24 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 105 | Dal 5-armed clade - 25 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 106 | Dal 5-armed clade - 26 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 107 | Dal 5-armed clade - 27 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 108 | Dal 5-armed clade - 28 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 109 | Dal 5-armed clade - 29 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 110 | Dal 5-armed clade - 30 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 111 | Dal 5-armed clade - 31 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 112 | Dal 5-armed clade - 32 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 113 | Dal 5-armed clade - 33 | 1 | 1 | 1 |


| 114 | Dal 5-armed clade - 34 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 115 | Dal 5-armed clade - 35 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 116 | Dal 5-armed clade - 36 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 117 | Dal 5-armed clade - 37 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 118 | Dal 5-armed clade - 38 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 119 | Dal 5-armed clade - 39 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 120 | Dal 5-armed clade - 40 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 121 | Dal 5-armed clade - 41 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 122 | Dalechampia aff. tamifolia | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 123 | Dalechampia aristolochiifolia | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 124 | Dalechampia bernieri var. denisiana | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 125 | Dalechampia clematidifolia | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 126 | Dalechampia dioscoreifolia | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 127 | Dalechampia pernambucensis | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 128 | Dalechampia sp. 311 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 129 | Dalechampia sp. 363 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 130 | Dalechampia sp. 364 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 131 | Dalechampia spathulata | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 132 | Dalechampia subsessilis | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 133 | Dalechampia tiliifolia | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 134 | Dalechampia websteri | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 135 | Gitara nicaraguensis | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 136 | Haematostemon guianensis | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 137 | Megistostigma peltatum | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 138 | Megistostigma yunnanense | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 139 | Pachystylidium hirsutum | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 140 | Platygyna hexandra | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 141 | Platygyna parvifolia | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 142 | Plukenetia aff. volubilis | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 143 | Plukenetia africana | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 144 | Plukenetia ankaranensis | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 145 | Plukenetia brachybotrya | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 146 | Plukenetia carabiasias | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 147 | Plukenetia carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 148 | Plukenetia cf. penninervia | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 149 | Plukenetia conophora | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 150 | Plukenetia corniculata | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 151 | Plukenetia decidua | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 152 | Plukenetia huayllabambana | 1 | 0 | 0 |


| 153 | Plukenetia lehmanniana | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 154 | Plukenetia loretensis | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 155 | Plukenetia madagascariensis | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 156 | Plukenetia megastyla | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 157 | Plukenetia penninervia | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 158 | Plukenetia polyadenia | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 159 | Plukenetia serrata | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 160 | Plukenetia stipellata | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 161 | Plukenetia supraglandulosa | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 162 | Plukenetia verrucosa | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 163 | Plukenetia volubilis | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 164 | Romanoa tamnoides | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 165 | Sphaerostylis perrieri | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 166 | Tra Subclade T3-01 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 167 | Tra Subclade T3-02 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 168 | Tra Subclade T3-03 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 169 | Tra Subclade T3-04 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 170 | Tra Subclade T3-05 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 171 | Tra Subclade T3-06 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 172 | Tra Subclade T3-07 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 173 | Tra Subclade T3-08 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 174 | Tra Subclade T3-09 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 175 | Tra Subclade T3-10 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 176 | Tra Subclade T3-11 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 177 | Tra Subclade T3-12 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 178 | Tra Subclade T3-13 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 179 | Tra Subclade T3-14 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 180 | Tra Subclade T3-15 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 181 | Tra Subclade T3-16 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 182 | Tra Subclade T3-17 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 183 | Tra Subclade T3-18 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 184 | Tra Subclade T3-19 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 185 | Tra Subclade T3-20 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 186 | Tra Subclade T3-21 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 187 | Tra Subclade T3-22 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 188 | Tra Subclade T3-23 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 189 | Tra Subclade T3-24 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 190 | Tra Subclade T3-25 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 191 | Tra Subclade T3-26 | 0 | 1 | 0 |


| 192 | Tra Subclade T3-27 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 193 | Tra Subclade T3-28 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 194 | Tra Subclade T3-29 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 195 | Tra Subclade T3-30 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 196 | Tra Subclade T3-31 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 197 | Tra Subclade T3-32 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 198 | Tra Subclade T3-33 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 199 | Tragia aff. pacifica | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 200 | Tragia aff. subhastata | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 201 | Tragia aff. volubilis | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 202 | Tragia aff. Zuckertia | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 203 | Tragia amblyodonta | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 204 | Tragia arabica | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 205 | Tragia arnhemica | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 206 | Tragia baroniana | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 207 | Tragia benthamii | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 208 | Tragia bentonicifolia | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 209 | Tragia biflora | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 210 | Tragia boiviniana | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 211 | Tragia brevipes | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 212 | Tragia caperonioides | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 213 | Tragia cearensis | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 214 | Tragia cf. bahiensis | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 215 | Tragia cf. pacifica | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 216 | Tragia cf. petiolaris | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 217 | Tragia cf. volubilis | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 218 | Tragia chlorocaulon | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 219 | Tragia chlorocaulon | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 220 | Tragia chlorocaulon | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 221 | Tragia cocculifolia | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 222 | Tragia cordata | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 223 | Tragia dinteri | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 224 | Tragia dioica | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 225 | Tragia dioica | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 226 | Tragia durbanensis | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 227 | Tragia finalis | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 228 | Tragia furialis | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 229 | Tragia geraniifolia | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 230 | Tragia giardelliae | 1 | 1 | 0 |


| 231 | Tragia hieronymi | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 232 | Tragia hildebrandtii | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 233 | Tragia jonesii | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 234 | Tragia laciniata | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 235 | Tragia laminularis | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 236 | Tragia melochioides | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 237 | Tragia melochioides | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 238 | Tragia mexicana | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 239 | Tragia minor | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 240 | Tragia natalensis | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 241 | Tragia nepetifolia | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 242 | Tragia novae-hollandiae | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 243 | Tragia okanyua | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 244 | Tragia pacifica | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 245 | Tragia paxii | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 246 | Tragia petiolaris | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 247 | Tragia pinnata | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 248 | Tragia plukenetii | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 249 | Tragia polyandra | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 250 | Tragia preussii | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 251 | Tragia pungens | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 252 | Tragia ramosa | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 253 | Tragia ramosa | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 254 | Tragia rogersii | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 255 | Tragia rupestris | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 256 | Tragia saxicola | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 257 | Tragia smallii | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 258 | Tragia sp. Merida | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 259 | Tragia sp. nov. Fanambana | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 260 | Tragia sp. nov. Razakalamala | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 261 | Tragia sp. nov. Sahaka | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 262 | Tragia sp. peltate | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 263 | Tragia sp. Philippines | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 264 | Tragia sp. Tagira | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 265 | Tragia spathulata | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 266 | Tragia subsessilis | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 267 | Tragia tenuifolia | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 268 | Tragia tiverniana | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 269 | Tragia uberabana | 0 | 1 | 0 |


| 270 | Tragia urens | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 271 | Tragia urticifolia | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 272 | Tragia volubilis | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 273 | Tragia yucatanensis | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 274 | Tragiella anomala | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 275 | Tragiella friesiana | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 276 | Zuckertia cordata | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 277 | Zuckertia manuelii | 1 | 1 | 0 |

Table 5.S6 The fit of alternative models of trait-dependent diversification in Plukenetieae, with best models selected by $\Delta$ AIC and Akaike weights ( $w_{i}$ ) in bold.

| Growth Form: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Model No. | Model Type | Net turnover ( $\tau$ ) | Extinction fraction ( $\varepsilon$ ) | Transition rate (q) | np | $\operatorname{lnL}$ | AIC | $\triangle \mathrm{AIC}$ | $w_{i}$ |
| 1 | BiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's free | 6 | -801.6 | 1615.2 | 57.20 | 0.000 |
| 2 | BiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon 0=\varepsilon 1$ | $q$ 's free | 5 | -803.5 | 1617.0 | 59.01 | 0.000 |
| 3 | BiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -803.6 | 1617.3 | 59.26 | 0.000 |
| 4 | BiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon 0=\varepsilon 1$ | $q$ 's equal | 4 | -803.9 | 1615.9 | 57.90 | 0.000 |
| 5 | CID-2 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -786.1 | 1582.2 | 24.20 | 0.000 |
| 6 | CID-2 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 4 | -788.8 | 1585.5 | 27.53 | 0.000 |
| 7 | CID-4 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 9 | -775.5 | 1568.9 | 10.94 | 0.004 |
| 8 | CID-4 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 6 | -779.7 | 1571.4 | 13.41 | 0.001 |
| 9 | HiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 9 | -787.8 | 1593.7 | 35.67 | 0.000 |
| 10 | HiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 6 | -790.6 | 1593.2 | 35.17 | 0.000 |
| 11 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 1 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -798.3 | 1606.6 | 48.62 | 0.000 |
| 12 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 4 | -796.5 | 1600.9 | 42.92 | 0.000 |
| 13 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $q$ 's equal | 7 | -790.2 | 1594.3 | 36.34 | 0.000 |
| 14 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -790.7 | 1591.3 | 33.34 | 0.000 |
| 15 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $q$ 's equal | 7 | -788.0 | 1590.0 | 31.96 | 0.000 |
| 16 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -791.6 | 1593.3 | 35.29 | 0.000 |
| 17 | HiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 9 | -775.7 | 1569.4 | 11.39 | 0.003 |
| 18 | HiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 6 | -779.9 | 1571.8 | 13.77 | 0.001 |
| 19 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 1 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 5 | -790.5 | 1591.0 | 33.01 | 0.000 |
| 20 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 4 | -790.7 | 1589.4 | 31.42 | 0.000 |
| 21 | HiSSE | $\boldsymbol{\tau 0} \mathbf{A}=\boldsymbol{\tau} 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon 0 A}=\boldsymbol{\varepsilon 0 B}$ | $\boldsymbol{q} 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{B0B}=0$, all other $\boldsymbol{q}$ 's equal | 7 | -772.0 | 1558.0 | 0.00 | 0.982 |
| 22 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 5 | -778.8 | 1567.6 | 9.63 | 0.008 |
| 23 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 7 | -786.8 | 1587.7 | 29.66 | 0.000 |
| 24 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 5 | -786.7 | 1583.5 | 25.46 | 0.000 |


| Plant Defences: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Model No. | Model Type | Net turnover ( $\tau$ ) | Extinction fraction (8) | Transition rate (q) | np | $\operatorname{lnL}$ | AIC | $\triangle \mathrm{AIC}$ | $w_{i}$ |
| 1 | BiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's free | 6 | -686.8 | 1385.6 | 38.59 | 0.000 |
| 2 | BiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon 0=\varepsilon 1$ | $q$ 's free | 5 | -692.1 | 1394.3 | 47.26 | 0.000 |
| 3 | BiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -687.6 | 1385.1 | 38.12 | 0.000 |
| 4 | BiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon 0=\varepsilon 1$ | $q$ 's equal | 4 | -688.0 | 1384.1 | 37.09 | 0.000 |
| 5 | CID-2 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -672.3 | 1354.6 | 7.62 | 0.011 |
| 6 | CID-2 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 4 | -676.3 | 1360.6 | 13.57 | 0.001 |
| 7 | CID-4 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 9 | -667.7 | 1353.3 | 6.35 | 0.022 |
| 8 | CID-4 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 6 | -667.6 | 1347.3 | 0.30 | 0.445 |
| 9 | HiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 9 | -685.4 | 1388.8 | 41.80 | 0.000 |
| 10 | HiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 6 | -685.8 | 1383.6 | 36.61 | 0.000 |
| 11 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 1 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -694.3 | 1398.6 | 51.57 | 0.000 |
| 12 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 4 | -694.1 | 1396.2 | 49.21 | 0.000 |
| 13 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $q$ 's equal | 7 | -686.9 | 1387.8 | 40.77 | 0.000 |
| 14 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -687.4 | 1384.8 | 37.85 | 0.000 |
| 15 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $q$ 's equal | 7 | -685.4 | 1384.9 | 37.90 | 0.000 |
| 16 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -690.4 | 1390.7 | 43.75 | 0.000 |
| 17 | HiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $\boldsymbol{q}$ 's equal | 9 | -664.5 | 1347.0 | 0.00 | 0.517 |
| 18 | HiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 6 | -675.2 | 1362.4 | 15.45 | 0.000 |
| 19 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 1 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 5 | -673.6 | 1357.2 | 10.18 | 0.003 |
| 20 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 4 | -675.4 | 1358.8 | 11.78 | 0.001 |
| 21 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 7 | -684.5 | 1383.0 | 35.96 | 0.000 |
| 22 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 5 | -685.3 | 1380.6 | 33.61 | 0.000 |
| 23 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 7 | -681.4 | 1376.8 | 29.77 | 0.000 |
| 24 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 5 | -682.9 | 1375.9 | 28.89 | 0.000 |


| Inflorescence Type: |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Model No. | Model Type | Net turnover ( $\tau$ ) | Extinction fraction ( $\varepsilon$ ) | Transition rate (q) | np | $\operatorname{lnL}$ | AIC | $\triangle \mathrm{AIC}$ | $w_{i}$ |
| 1 | BiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's free | 6 | -689.6 | 1391.1 | 49.25 | 0.000 |
| 2 | BiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon 0=\varepsilon 1$ | $q$ 's free | 5 | -695.8 | 1401.5 | 59.63 | 0.000 |
| 3 | BiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -689.4 | 1388.7 | 46.83 | 0.000 |
| 4 | BiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon 0=\varepsilon 1$ | $q$ 's equal | 4 | -689.2 | 1386.4 | 44.48 | 0.000 |
| 5 | CID-2 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -674.9 | 1359.7 | 17.85 | 0.000 |
| 6 | CID-2 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 4 | -670.4 | 1348.7 | 6.86 | 0.031 |
| 7 | CID-4 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 9 | -665.7 | 1349.5 | 7.60 | 0.021 |
| 8 | CID-4 | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 6 | -664.9 | 1341.9 | 0.00 | 0.947 |
| 9 | HiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q$ 's equal | 9 | -676.7 | 1371.4 | 29.51 | 0.000 |
| 10 | HiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 6 | -685.6 | 1383.3 | 41.38 | 0.000 |
| 11 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 1 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -694.3 | 1398.6 | 56.76 | 0.000 |
| 12 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 4 | -692.2 | 1392.4 | 50.54 | 0.000 |
| 13 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $q$ 's equal | 7 | -689.2 | 1392.4 | 50.56 | 0.000 |
| 14 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -689.1 | 1388.3 | 46.40 | 0.000 |
| 15 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $q$ 's equal | 7 | -671.2 | 1356.4 | 14.58 | 0.001 |
| 16 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q$ 's equal | 5 | -673.8 | 1357.6 | 15.73 | 0.000 |
| 17 | HiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's free | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 9 | -679.0 | 1376.0 | 34.11 | 0.000 |
| 18 | HiSSE | $\tau$ 's free | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 6 | -678.3 | 1368.6 | 26.68 | 0.000 |
| 19 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 1 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 5 | -679.5 | 1369.0 | 27.13 | 0.000 |
| 20 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 4 | -692.1 | 1392.3 | 50.40 | 0.000 |
| 21 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 7 | -689.7 | 1393.4 | 51.48 | 0.000 |
| 22 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 0 \mathrm{~B}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 5 | -688.0 | 1386.1 | 44.19 | 0.000 |
| 23 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $\varepsilon 0 \mathrm{~A}=\varepsilon 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 7 | -674.2 | 1362.4 | 20.57 | 0.000 |
| 24 | HiSSE | $\tau 0 \mathrm{~A}=\tau 1 \mathrm{~A}$ | $\varepsilon$ 's equal | $q 0 \mathrm{~B} 1 \mathrm{~B}=0, q 1 \mathrm{~B} 0 \mathrm{~B}=0$, all other $q$ 's equal | 5 | -682.6 | 1375.3 | 33.39 | 0.000 |



Figure 5.S1A Detailed cladograms and/or phylograms of Plukenetieae from individual and combined datasets labeled with maximum likelihood bootstrap percentages (MLBP) and/or Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP): (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) TEB exon 17, (e) matK, and (f) ndhF, (g) cpDNA, (h) Concatenated, and (i) Concatenated and fully annotated.


Figure 5.S1B Detailed cladograms and/or phylograms of Plukenetieae from individual and combined datasets labeled with maximum likelihood bootstrap percentages (MLBP) and/or Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP): (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) TEB exon 17, (e) matK, and (f) $n d h F$, (g) cpDNA, (h) Concatenated, and (i) Concatenated and fully annotated.


Figure 5.S1C Detailed cladograms and/or phylograms of Plukenetieae from individual and combined datasets labeled with maximum likelihood bootstrap percentages (MLBP) and/or Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP): (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) TEB exon 17, (e) matK, and (f) $n d h F$, (g) cpDNA, (h) Concatenated, and (i) Concatenated and fully annotated.


Figure 5.S1D Detailed cladograms and/or phylograms of Plukenetieae from individual and combined datasets labeled with maximum likelihood bootstrap percentages (MLBP) and/or Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP): (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) $T E B$ exon 17, (e) matK, and (f) $n d h F$, (g) cpDNA, (h) Concatenated, and (i) Concatenated and fully annotated.


Figure 5.S1E Detailed cladograms and/or phylograms of Plukenetieae from individual and combined datasets labeled with maximum likelihood bootstrap percentages (MLBP) and/or Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP): (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) TEB exon 17, (e) matK, and (f) ndhF, (g) cpDNA, (h) Concatenated, and (i) Concatenated and fully annotated.


Figure 5.S1F Detailed cladograms and/or phylograms of Plukenetieae from individual and combined datasets labeled with maximum likelihood bootstrap percentages (MLBP) and/or Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP): (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) TEB exon 17, (e) matK, and (f) $n d h F$, (g) cpDNA, (h) Concatenated, and (i) Concatenated and fully annotated.


Figure 5.S1G Detailed cladograms and/or phylograms of Plukenetieae from individual and combined datasets labeled with maximum likelihood bootstrap percentages (MLBP) and/or Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP): (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) TEB exon 17, (e) matK, and (f) $n d h F$, (g) cpDNA, (h) Concatenated, and (i) Concatenated and fully annotated.


Figure 5.S1H Detailed cladograms and/or phylograms of Plukenetieae from individual and combined datasets labeled with maximum likelihood bootstrap percentages (MLBP) and/or Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP): (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEA1 intron 11, (d) TEB exon 17, (e) matK, and (f) $n d h F$, (g) cpDNA, (h) Concatenated, and (i) Concatenated and fully annotated.


Figure 5.S1I Detailed cladograms and/or phylograms of Plukenetieae from individual and combined datasets labeled with maximum likelihood bootstrap percentages (MLBP) and/or Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP): (a) ETS, (b) ITS, (c) KEAl intron 11, (d) TEB exon 17, (e) matK, and (f) ndhF, (g) cpDNA, (h) Concatenated, and (i) Concatenated and fully annotated. Bold branches indicate strong support ( $\geq 85 \%$ maximum likelihood bootstrap percentage [MLBP] and $\geq 0.95$ Bayesian posterior probability [BPP]).


Figure 5.S2 Coalescence-based ASTRAL maximum quartet support (MQS) species tree of Plukenetieae based on Bayesian maximum clade credibility (MCC) topologies of all six regions, labeled with multilocus bootstrap percentage (Multilocus BP).


Figure 5.S3 Coalescence-based *BEAST maximum clade credibility (MCC) species tree of Plukenetieae based on reduced five region, "no-gap" dataset (177 terminals), labeled with Bayesian posterior probabilities (BPP).


Figure 5.S4 Maximum clade credibility (MCC) BEAST chronogram of Plukenetieae based on the reduced six region, "one-terminal" dataset ( 147 terminals), including mean common ancestor ages and $95 \%$ highest posterior density (HPD) confidence interval bars (yellow = calibrated estimate; blue = free estimate).


Figure 5.S5A Results of the BIoGEOBEARS ancestral range estimations (ARE) under (a) DEC +J and (b) DEC models.


Figure 5.S5B Results of the BIoGEOBEARS ancestral range estimations (ARE) under (a) DEC +J and (b) DEC models.


Figure 5.S6 BAMM 95\% credible shift set phylorate plots (the largest nine of 30 ) including the frequency (f) of each configuration in the posterior distribution.

## Chapter 6

## Conclusions

The aim of my dissertation was to resolve the evolutionary history of a diverse but underutilized clade of tropical vines, Euphorbiaceae tribe Plukenetieae. Through the use of molecular phylogenetics and statistical analysis, we now have a strong understanding of the species relationships, pollen evolution, biogeographical history, and drivers of diversification in Plukenetieae. I also investigated the molecular phylogeny and drivers of seed size evolution in Plukenetia, one of the first small, well-characterized clades with notable seed size variation, and presented a revised sectional classification for the genus including three new taxa. Together, my research illuminated general trends of biogeography, seed evolution, and diversification, while contributing a vast amount of phylogenetic information on Plukenetieae, which positions the tribe as a useful system for future studies in pollen, seed, and biome evolution.

Prior to chapter two, there was a relatively limited understanding of the species group relationships in Plukenetieae. Previous research outlined that the tribe formed a monophyletic group (Wurdack et al., 2005; Tokuoka, 2007), but generic boundaries were not yet tested and pollen morphology suggested traditional circumscriptions were paraphyletic (Gillespie, 1994b). Furthermore, the pollen morphology diversity found in Plukenetieae is uncommon and presented a convenient model to study pollen exine and aperture evolution. Using molecular phylogenetics and statistical inference, I produced the first densely-sampled phylogeny of Plukenetieae and described novel species group relationships based largely on phylogeny, morphology, and geographic location (Cardinal-McTeague \& Gillespie, 2016). Although certain nodes of the phylogeny were poorly supported (e.g., early diverging relationships), many subclades were strongly supported and provided a foundation for future research on the tribe. One of our main conclusions was that Tragia was para- and/or polyphytletic and should be divided into smaller monophyletic genera. In terms of pollen morphology, exine evolution was dynamic, sporadic, and without obvious trends. Within Tragiinae, aperture evolution exhibited several parallel transitions from tricolpate pollen to inaperturate and intermediate weakly defined aperture states. This suggests Tragiinae may be a useful system to explore the underlying mechanisms of aperture reduction and selective pressures for inaperturate pollen, which is a rare and poorly understood condition of eudicots (Furness, 2007; Matamoro-Vidal et al., 2012). Moving forward,

I aim to produce a revised generic classification for Tragiinae, including a new infrageneric classification for the New World clade of Tragia sect. Tragia (s.1.). Future comparative studies of pollination biology, floral development, and pollen germination between Tragiinae (small pollen with trends in aperture reduction and loss) and Dalechampia (large pollen with welldeveloped apertures) could illuminate the evolutionary processes that favoured divergent strategies of pollen size, aperture type, and germination efficiency.

In chapter three, I conducted one of the first investigations into the drivers of seed size evolution in a small sized clade (Plukenetia, $\sim 23$ species). Prior to this, macro- and microevolutionary pressures of seed size evolution were known (Gómez, 2004; Moles et al., 2005b, 2007; Halpern, 2005; Beaulieu et al., 2007; Eriksson, 2008; Galetti et al., 2013; Igea et al., 2017) but had rarely been demonstrated within clades (although see El-ahmir et al., 2015). Our findings suggest that seed size evolution was dynamic and correlated with plant size, fruit type (including inferred dispersal mechanism), and seedling ecology. Biome shifts were not associated with seed size, however, the transition to a seasonal, fire-regimented savanna recovered a weak association with seed size reduction. In general, a combination of selective pressures appeared to be necessary to develop seed size variation in Plukenetia. The same selective pressures are not apparent in other members of the tribe, which may account for their constrained smaller sized seeds. Plukenetia is now well-positioned to serve as a model for seed size evolution. For instance, transcriptomic comparison of differently sized species could identify genes and pathways involved with seed size and oil biosynthesis, which could be beneficial in developing improved oilseed crops. Furthermore, quantitative seed ecology studies could elaborate on the evolutionary trends we identified in Plukenetia, aided by the growing number of studies documenting oil content and germination rates in the edible oilseed species (Awodoyin et al., 2000; Akintayo \& Bayer, 2002; Nwosu, 2006; Cardoso et al., 2015; Chirinos et al., 2015; Mota et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2016).

In chapter four I present a revised sectional classification for Plukenetia, including the description of three new taxa from South America. The classification was largely built on previous morphological evidence outlined by Gillespie (1993, 1994, 2007), but was informed and supported by the molecular phylogenies developed in chapters two and three (CardinalMcTeague \& Gillespie, 2016; Cardinal-McTeague et al., in review) and updated morphological descriptions. We now recognize six sections in Plukenetia, which are distinguished by a
combination of pistillate flower number, androecium morphology, style morphology, fruit type, and seed size. I also described two new species from the Amazon basin, $P$. brevistyla and $P$. megastyla, which is a small indicator of how much biodiversity is still undescribed in that region. The newly described $P$. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera is significant because it settles part of the complicated taxonomic history of the Plukenetia high elevation species complex. Previously described species in this complex, P. huayllabambana and P. carolis-vegae, are traditionally cultivated oilseed crops with substantial economic potential due to their extra-large oil-rich seeds (Bussmann et al., 2009, 2013). We determined that these cultivated species are likely derived from natural populations (P. carolis-vegae subsp. nectarifera) that have smaller fruits and seeds. Understanding the evolutionary history of the high elevation species complex could be useful for future crop development and provide insight into the history of plant domestication by the Incas.

Chapters three and five included biogeographical analyses and discussion of neotropical and pantropical diversification patterns. Over the past decade, biogeographical studies have concluded that a majority of pantropical distributions developed through long-distance dispersals since the Late Oligocene (28.1 Mya) (Renner \& Meyer, 2001; Renner et al., 2001; Givnish et al., 2004, 2011; Sytsma et al., 2004; Renner, 2004b; Yuan et al., 2005; Clayton et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2013; Berger et al., 2016). Our results in Plukenetia (chapter three) and Plukenetieae (chapter five) confirm this trend and highlight the role of long-distance dispersals out of Central and South America throughout the Oligocene to Pleistocene. We also recovered an anomalous long-distance dispersal from North America to Australia in the Late Miocene (c. 8.4 Mya), which has only been identified at least one other time, in the opposite direction, in the aquatic genus Myriophyllum (Chen et al., 2014). Within Plukenetia we found evidence for connections between the Atlantic Forest of Brazil and the Amazon during the Oligocene and Miocene, which is some of the first evidence of plants migrating across the open vegetational diagonal (Werneck, 2011). The Central American seaway between Central and South America, and the uplift of the Andes, were also found to be relatively poor biogeographic barriers that were frequently overcome by dispersal (Erkens et al., 2007; Cody et al., 2010; Bacon et al., 2015; Pérez-Escobar et al., 2017b). Looking forward, studies on the biogeography of Tragia sect. Tragia s.l. (subclade T10) could shed additional light on the formation of amphitropical disjunctions between temperate regions of North and South America (Simpson et al., 2017).

Lastly, in chapter five I aimed to investigate the relative contribution of innovative traits on the diversification rates in Plukenetieae. A combination of biotic traits (e.g., floral symmetry, specialized pollination biology, and beneficial growth forms) and abiotic processes (e.g., mountain building, aridification) have been associated with increased diversification in plants (Gianoli, 2004; Sargent, 2004; Spriggs et al., 2014; Reyes et al., 2015; Roalson \& Roberts, 2016; Lagomarsino et al., 2016; Serrano-Serrano et al., 2017). Although the same set of traits are not always beneficial across groups, a combination of traits and processes have often been found to increase lineage diversification (Silvestro et al., 2013; Givnish et al., 2014, 2015; HernándezHernández et al., 2014; Lagomarsino et al., 2016). Our study expanded on this subject by exploring the interactions of multiple overlapping innovative traits (twining growth form, stinging hairs, and inflorescence structure), with the expectation that species with all three traits would experience the highest diversification rates. Contrary to our ideas, we found three major shifts that were not associated with any of the innovative traits. Instead, increased species richness was driven in two to three subclades that appear to have shifted biomes from primarily moist tropical forests to drier open habitats. Diversification in these subclades was likely enhanced by climate change and the expansion of arid and open habitats associated with the Late Miocene and Pliocene cooling. Other plant groups were found to have diversified alongside the expansion of arid and open habitats (Bouchenak-Khelladi et al., 2010; Hammer et al., 2015; Reyes et al., 2015) or fire-prone $\mathrm{C}_{4}$ grasslands (Simon et al., 2009; Bouchenak-Khelladi et al., 2014; Linder, 2014), suggesting it was a significant process of plant diversification. Future studies should investigate how other climate-mediated biome expansions/contractions affected plant diversification, with the goal of anticipating shifts in biodiversity anthropogenic climate change.

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## Supplemental Data

## Supplemental data 3.1 Python script for Lite Blue Devil v0.3.

```
#!/usr/bin/python
print
print """
```

```
Lite Blue Devil
version 0.3 blastn or blastp
inspired by BLast Utility and sequence Extraction DEVIsed by Li Written by E. M. Sigel
```

```
If you use Lite Blue Devil or a modified version of it, please cite:
Cardinal-McTeague WM, Wurdack KJ, Sigel EM, Gillespie LJ. Seed size evolution and biogeography of Plukenetia (Euphorbiaceae), a pantropical genus with traditionally cultivated oilseed species. BMC Evolutionary Biology
Programs used by Lite Blue Devil:
Cock PJ, Antao T, Chang JT, Chapman BA, Cox CJ, Dalke A, et al. Biopython: freely available Python tools for computational molecular biology and bioinformatics. Bioinformatics. 2009;25:1422-1423.
Edgar RC. MUSCLE: Multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high throughput. Nucleic Acids Res. 2004; 32:1792-7.
Rothfels CJ, Larsson A, Li FW, Sigel EM, Huiet L, Burge DO, et al. Transcriptome-mining for single-copy nuclear markers in ferns. PLoS One. 2013;8:e76957.
Stamatakis A. RAxML version 8: A tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-analysis of large phylogenies. Bioinformatics. 2014;30:1312-3.
```


## !"!

print
\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\# \#*YOU NEED TO HAVE PYTHON, BIOPYTHON, MUSCLE, and RAXML (Sequential) INSTALLED*
\#load in the python/biopython modules
import re \#Regular expression
import sys \#For using arguments
import subprocess
import os
import shutil
import csv
from Bio.Blast.Applications import NcbiblastnCommandline
from Bio. Blast.Applications import NcbitblastnCommandline
from Bio.Align.Applications import MuscleCommandline
from Bio. Phylo.Applications import RaxmlCommandline
from Bio import SeqIO
from Bio import AlignIO
from Bio. SeqRecord import SeqRecord
from Bio.Blast import NCBIWWW, NCBIXML
from Bio import AlignIO
from Bio.Alphabet import IUPAC, Gapped
\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#
\#Change the below paths to accommodate the locals of your versions of Muscle and RaxML
\#You can comment out this section if the paths in your path file (e.g., .bash_profile)
muscle_exe= '/Users/scripts/muscle'
raxml = '/Users/scripts/standard-RAxML-master/raxmlHPC'
\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#
\#state the Usage instructions
if len(sys.argv) < 2:
sys.exit("'""
You need to provide the bluedevil_settings file
Usage: litebluedevil.py litebluedevil_settings file
Example: litebluedevil.py litebluedevil_settings_phytochrome.txt
litebluedevil_settings file: This file allows you to modify up all major parameters and set up the run. See the bluedevil_settings_template.txt for details. Note the file name must start with
'bluedevil_settings', for the program to recognize it.
"'"')
elif len(sys.argv) >3:
sys.exit("'""

You need to provide the bluedevil_settings file
Usage: litebluedevil.py litebluedevil_settings file
Example: litebluedevil.py litebluedevil_settings_phytochrome.txt

```
litebluedevil_settings file: This file allows you to modify up all major parameters and set up the run,
```

See the bluedevil_settings_template.txt for details. Note the file name must start with
'bluedevil_settings', for the program to recognize it.
""")
\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#\#
\#If the bluedevil_settings file is provided, take in the parameters, and make output file names
elif sys.argv[1].startswith('litebluedevil_settings'):
settings = open(sys.argv[1], 'ru')
for line in settings:
line = line.strip(' \t\n\r')
line = line. replace(' ', '')
line = line.replace('\t', '')
line $=$ line.split('\#') [0]
setting_line = line.find('=')
if setting_line != -1:
setting = line.split('=')
setting_name $=$ setting [0]
setting_argument = setting[1]
if setting_name == 'Blast_type':
Blast_type = setting_argument
elif setting_name == 'Max_blast_hits':
Max_hits = setting_argument
Max_hits = int(Max_hits)
elif setting_name == 'Query_sequence_file_name':
Seq_query = setting_argument
elif setting_name == 'Transcriptome_list':
Transcriptome_list = setting_argument.replace(' ', ''). replace('\t',
elif setting_name == 'BLAST_E_value':
BLAST_E_value = setting_argument
elif setting_name == 'RaxmL_Tree':
RaxmL_Tree = setting_argument
Blast_results_filename = Seq_query.split('.')[0]+'_blast_results.txt'
 \#open up the query fasta file, create a dictionary for each query sequence, and
print '\nReading '+Seq_query+'...'
Query_infile = open(Seq_query, "rU")
\#\#make a dictionary of the input/query fasta file, such that gene name is the key and the parsed fasta record is the value
\#\# gene name : parsed fasta record
\#\#This dictionary will be used to make a copy of the input query fasta file in each trancriptome database folder
input_fasta_Dict = SeqIO.to_dict(SeqIO.parse(Query_infile, "fasta"))
\#print input_fasta_Dict
\#print 'XXXXXXX'
\#\#Make an empty nested dictory that will hold all the query gene and hit sequence data you are about to generate
\#\#query_genes_Dict = \{'query_gene_1_id':\{'hit_sequence_1_id': 'hit sequence_1', 'hit_sequence_2_id': 'hit sequence_2'\}, 'query_gene_2_id':\{'hit_sequence_1_id': 'hit sequence_1', 'hit_sequence_2_id': 'hit
sequence_2' $\left.{ }^{\prime}\right\}$
\#\#query_genes_Dict = \{'rbcL': \{'Cystopteris_rbcl': 'ATGACGTAA', 'Polypodium_rbcl': 'ATGACGTGG'\}, 'trnGR':
\{'Cystopteris_trnGR': 'TTTNCGAT', 'Polypodium_trnGR': 'ATTTACGAT'\}\}
all_query_genes_Dict $=\{ \}$
\#\# populate the query_genes_DICT with the names of the query genes (called by their fasta record id)
Query_infile = open(Seq_query, "rU")
for record in SeqIO.parse(Query_infile, "fasta"):
query_name = str(record.id)
query_sequence = str(record.seq)
all_query_genes_Dict[query_name] = \{\}
\#print all_query_genes_Dict
\# Then enter the query_name: query_sequence as the first entry under
all_query_genes_Dict[query_name]
all_query_genes_Dict[query_name] [query_name] = query_sequence
\#print alľ_query_genes_Dict

```
#################################################################################################
#copy the query file to each transcriptome folder and blast query file against the transcriptome
if Blast_type == 'blastn' or Blast_type == 'blastp':
    for transcriptome in Transcriptome_list:
            #Go to each transcriptome folder
            os.chdir(transcriptome)
    #identify the transcriptome database
    TranscriptomeID = transcriptome
    TranscriptomeDB = TranscriptomeID + '.fa'
SQD1_input.txt
    SeqIO.write(input_fasta_Dict.values(), Seq_query, 'fasta')
    #os.chdir('..')
    #Blastn or blastp the query sequences against the transcriptome
    if Blast_type == 'blastn':
                            print '\nBlasting ' + Seq_query + ' against ' + TranscriptomeID + '...\n'
                            Blast_results_file = Seq_query.split('.')[0]+'_blastn_results.txt'
        #print TranscriptomeDB
    blastn_cline = NcbitblastnCommandline(cmd='blastn', query=Seq_query,
db=TranscriptomeDB, out=Blast_results_file, evalue=BLAST_E_value, outfmt = 6, max_target_seqs = Max_hits)
                    stdout, stderr = blastn_cline()
    elif Blast_type == 'blastp':
        print '\nBlasting ' + Seq_query + ' against ' + TranscriptomeID + '...\n'
        Blast_results_file = Seq_query.split('.')[0]+'_blastp_results.txt'
        #print TranscriptomeDB
        blastp_cline = NcbitblastpCommandline(cmd='blastp', query=Seq_query,
db=TranscriptomeDB, out=Blast_results_file, evalue=BLAST_E_value, outfmt = 6, max_target_seqs = Max_hits)
                        stdout, stderr = blastp_cline()
                            #Open the blast output file, find the names of the subject/hit sequences and add then to
the appropriate query_gene_Dict
    blast_hits_file = open(Blast_results_file, 'rU')
    csvreader = csv.reader(blast_hits_file, delimiter='\t')
    for row in csvreader:
            query_name = row[0]
            subject_name = row[1]
            if query_name in all_query_genes_Dict:
                            all_query_genes_Dict[query_name][subject_name] = []
#print all_query_genes_Dict
    #print 'XXXXXXXX'
    blast_hits_file.close()
    #Open the transcriptome/genome fasta file and add subject/hit sequences to
all_query_genes_Dict
    transcriptome_fasta_Dict = {}
    transcriptome_fasta_file = open(TranscriptomeDB, 'rU')
    for record in SeqIO.parse(transcriptome_fasta_file, 'fasta'):
                    record_id = str(record.id)
                    record_seq = str(record.seq)
                            transcriptome_fasta_Dict[record_id] = record_seq
#print len(transcriptome_fasta_Dict)
    for query_name in all_query_genes_Dict:
            for subject_name in all_query_genes_Dict[query_name]:
                if subject_name in transcriptome_fasta_Dict:
                        #print subject_name
                            all_query_genes__Dict[query_name][subject_name] =
                            #all_query_genes_Dict[query_name][subject_name] =
transcriptome_fasta_Dict[str(subject_name.record)]
    #print all_query_genes_Dict
    #print ' XXXXXXXXX\overline{XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX'}
    os.chdir('..')
else:
    print "\n****ERROR: PLEASE SPECIFY blastn OR blastp IN YOUR litebluedevil_settings FILE****\n"
#print all_query_genes_Dict
###############################################################################################
#Create a fasta file of all subject/hit sequences for each query gene
##make a folder and make a fasta file for each query gene that has one or more hits
```

```
alignment_list = []
for query_name in all_query_genes_Dict:
    if len(all_query_genes_Dict[query_name]) > 1:
                directory = str(query_name)
                alignment_list.append(directory)
                #make the folder if it does not already exist
                if not os.path.exists(directory):
                    os.makedirs(directory)
    #make the fasta file in each folder
    query_fasta_file = str(query_name)+'.fasta'
    with open(os.path.join(directory, query_fasta_file), 'wb') as fasta_file:
                            #sort subject/hit sequences alphabetically and then write them to the fasta
file
                            for subject_name,subject_seq in
sorted(all_query_genes_Dict[query_name].items()):
                                    fasta_file.write('>'+subject_name+'\n'+subject_seq+'\n')
                            fasta_file.close()
################################################################################################
#Create an alignment for each output fasta file using muscle
#for alignments >3 sequences, the convert each output alignment fasta file to relaxed phylip format
#and generate a fast ML tree in Raxml
for query_name in alignment_list:
    print 'aligning sequences for query '+query_name+'...'
    os.chdir(query_name)
    infile = query_name+'.fasta'
    alignment_file_= query_name+'.aligned.fasta'
    muscle_cline = (MuscleCommandline(muscle_exe, input = infile, out = alignment_file))
    #make the alignment and output the alignment file
    stdout, stderr = muscle_cline()
    #convert the output alignment fasta file to relaxed phylip format for build an nexus ML tree
    if RaxmL_Tree == 'yes':
        outfile = query_name+'.aligned.phy'
        alignment = AlignIO.read(alignment_file, "fasta")
        if len(alignment) > 3:
            #submitt the phylip alignment to raxml to build a ML tree
            print "building ML tree in raxml"
            tree_outfile = query_name+'.aligned.tre'
            if B
                #raxml_cmd = raxml +' -f a -p 12345 -x 12345 -N 100 -o %s -m GTRCAT
-s %s -n %s' % (query_name, alignment_file, tree_outfile)
                            raxml_cmd = raxml +' -f d -p 12345 -o %s -m GTRCAT -s %s -n %s' %
(query_name, alignment_file, tree_outfile)
                            print("raxml cmd: %s" % (raxml_cmd,) )
                            result = subprocess.call(raxml_cmd, shell=True)
                        if result != 0:
                            raise Exception("raxml failed")
                            print("raxml failed, continuing to next gene ...")
    os.chdir('..')
```


## Supplemental data 3.2 Setting file for Lite Blue Devil v0.3.

```
#blastn or blastp
Blast_type = blastn
#max number of hits from each blast database (e.g. transcriptome, genome, EST library)
Max_blast_hits = 10
#the name of your input fasta file (i.e. the fasta sequences for which you want to find blast hits);
nucleotide for blastn and peptide for blastp
Query_sequence_file_name = query_sequences.txt
#List of folders containing the blast databases that will be searched; databases should be nucleotide for
blastn and peptide for blastp
Transcriptome_list = Transcriptome1, Transcriptome2, Transcriptome3, Transcriptome4, Transcriptome5,
Transcriptome6, Transcriptome7, Transcriptome8
#The E-value threshold as a decimal value
BLAST_E_value = 0.000001
# yes = build a Raxml ML tree for an alignment of > 3 sequences; no = do not build a tree
RaxmL_Tree = yes
```

Supplemental data 3.3 Seed size measurements for Plukenetia and Plukenetiinae outgroups.

| No. | Genus | Species | Voucher | Country | ID | L | W | T | Vol |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Haematostemon | guianensis | Wurdack 4350 (US) | Guyana | KJW | 4 | 4 | 4.5 | 37.7 |
| 2 | Plukenetia | aff. brachybotrya | Ledezma et al. 921 (CAN) 3 | Bolivia | WCM | 5.6 | 4.8 | 3.9 | 54.89 |
| 3 | Plukenetia | aff. brachybotrya | Ledezma et al. 921 (CAN) 4 | Bolivia | WCM | 5.6 | 4.9 | 4.1 | 58.91 |
| 4 | Plukenetia | aff. brachybotrya | Ledezma et al. 921 (MO) 1 | Bolivia | WCM | 5.5 | 4 | 3.25 | 37.44 |
| 5 | Plukenetia | aff. brachybotrya | Ledezma et al. 921 (MO) 2 | Bolivia | WCM | 5.5 | 4.5 | 3.5 | 45.36 |
| 6 | Plukenetia | africana | Bains s.n. (K) | South Africa | LGB | 7.5 | 6.5 | 3.7 | 94.44 |
| 7 | Plukenetia | africana | Guy 2367 (MO) 1 | Zimbabwe | WCM | 6 | 7 | 3 | 65.97 |
| 8 | Plukenetia | africana | Guy 2367 (MO) 2 | Zimbabwe | WCM | 5.5 | 7 | 3 | 60.48 |
| 9 | Plukenetia | africana | Guy 2367 (MO) 3 | Zimbabwe | WCM | 6 | 6.5 | 3 | 61.26 |
| 10 | Plukenetia | africana | Guy 2367 (MO) 4 | Zimbabwe | WCM | 6.5 | 6.5 | 3 | 66.37 |
| 11 | Plukenetia | africana | Guy 2367 (MO) 5 | Zimbabwe | WCM | 6.5 | 6.5 | 3 | 66.37 |
| 12 | Plukenetia | africana | Guy 2367 (MO) 6 | Zimbabwe | WCM | 7 | 7.5 | 4 | 109.96 |
| 13 | Plukenetia | africana | Guy 2367 (MO) 7 | Zimbabwe | WCM | 6.5 | 7 | 3.5 | 83.38 |
| 14 | Plukenetia | africana | Guy 2367 (MO) 8 | Zimbabwe | WCM | 6.5 | 7 | 3.5 | 83.38 |
| 15 | Plukenetia | africana | Pinter 666 (BM) 1 | Namibia | LGB | 8 | 7.5 | 4 | 125.66 |
| 16 | Plukenetia | africana | Pinter 666 (BM) 2 | Namibia | LGB | 6 | 5.5 | 4 | 69.12 |
| 17 | Plukenetia | africana | Plowman 1928 | Zambia | LGB | 6.8 | 6 | 3 | 64.09 |
| 18 | Plukenetia | africana | Schinz 894 | Namibia | LGB | 7.2 | 7.5 | 4 | 113.1 |
| 19 | Plukenetia | africana | Thompson 2 (MO) | Mozambique | WCM | 6 | 5 | 3 | 47.12 |
| 20 | Plukenetia | africana | Wild 4759 (COMB) | Botswana | LGB | 6.3 | 5.7 | 2.5 | 47.01 |
| 21 | Plukenetia | africana | Wild 7049 (K) | Botswana | LGB | 7 | 6 | 3.5 | 76.97 |
| 22 | Plukenetia | africana | Winter 4018 (K) 1 | Namibia | LGB | 7.5 | 7 | 4 | 109.96 |
| 23 | Plukenetia | africana | Winter 4018 (K) 2 | Namibia | LGB | 6 | 5.5 | 4 | 69.12 |
| 24 | Plukenetia | ankaranensis | Gillespie 40761 | Madagascar | LGB | 15 | 16.375 | 15 | 1929.13 |
| 25 | Plukenetia | ankaranensis | Gillespie 40762 | Madagascar | LGB | 18 | 16.375 | 17 | 2623.62 |
| 26 | Plukenetia | ankaranensis | Gillespie 40763 | Madagascar | LGB | 16.5 | 17 | 16 | 2349.91 |
| 27 | Plukenetia | ankaranensis | Gillespie 40764 | Madagascar | LGB | 16.5 | 16 | 14 | 1935.22 |
| 28 | Plukenetia | ankaranensis | Gillespie 40765 | Madagascar | LGB | 16.5 | 16.5 | 15.5 | 2209.52 |
| 29 | Plukenetia | ankaranensis | Gillespie 40766 | Madagascar | LGB | 16.5 | 16 | 15 | 2073.45 |
| 30 | Plukenetia | brachybotrya | Croat 4732 (MO) | Brazil | WCM | 6 | 5 | 5 | 78.54 |
| 31 | Plukenetia | brachybotrya | McDaniel et al. 21461 (MO) | Peru | WCM | 6 | 5 | 4.5 | 70.69 |
| 32 | Plukenetia | brachybotrya | Rimachi 4015 (MO) | Peru | WCM | 6 | 5 | 5 | 78.54 |
| 33 | Plukenetia | brachybotrya | Ule 9539 (NY) | Peru | LGB | 5.5 | 5.5 | 4 | 63.36 |
| 34 | Plukenetia | brachybotrya | Woytkowski 5399 (MO) | Peru | WCM | 5 | 4 | 4 | 41.89 |
| 35 | Plukenetia | carabiasiae | Jimenez Ramirez 1993 | Species description MIN | null | 24 | 21 | 14 | 3694.51 |
| 36 | Plukenetia | carabiasiae | Jimenez Ramirez 1993 | Species description MAX | null | 27 | 27 | 16 | 6107.26 |
| 37 | Plukenetia | carolis-vegae | Bussmann et al. 17132 (MO) | Peru | WCM | 27 | 25 | 20 | 7916.81 |
| 38 | Plukenetia | cf. carolis-vegae | Ortiz et al. 191 (CAN) | Peru | WCM | 19.6 | 18.5 | 15.7 | 2980.75 |
| 39 | Plukenetia | cf. carolis-vegae | Vasquez et al. 33145 (CAN) | Peru | WCM | 19.2 | 17 | 13 | 2221.73 |
| 40 | Plukenetia | conophora | Bouquet 2460 (P) | Democratic Republic of the Congo | LG | 27 | 27 | 28 | 10687.7 |
| 41 | Plukenetia | conophora | Ekwe and Ihemje 2013 | Species description | null | 25 | 25 | 25 | 8181.23 |
| 42 | Plukenetia | conophora | Gillet s.n. (P) | Democratic Republic of the Congo | LG | 29 | 27 | 25 | 10249.45 |
| 43 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Chin See chung 2712 (L) | Malaysia (Borneo) | LG | 9 | 7 | 5.6 | 184.73 |
| 44 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Clemes 21257 (US) 1 | ? | LGB | 10 | 7.6 | 6 | 238.76 |


| 45 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Clemes 21257 (US) 2 | ? | LGB | 9.6 | 7.5 | 6 | 226.19 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 46 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Grashoff 587 (BO) | Indonesia (Sumatra) | LG | 10 | 6 | 8 | 251.33 |
| 47 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Griffith (K) | India | LG | 9 | 7 | 4 | 131.95 |
| 48 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Griffith 4716 (K) 1 | Malaysia | LG | 8.5 | 7 | 5 | 155.77 |
| 49 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Griffith 4716 (K) 2 | Malaysia | LG | 9.5 | 8 | 6 | 238.76 |
| 50 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Griffith 4716 (K) 3 | ? | LGB | 10 | 8 | 5.5 | 230.38 |
| 51 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Griffith 4716 (K) 4 | ? | LGB | 8.5 | 7 | 5 | 155.77 |
| 52 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Keith T22 (K) | ? | LGB | 8.6 | 6.8 | 5 | 153.1 |
| 53 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Kirton (T22) | Malaysia | LG | 9 | 7 | 5 | 164.93 |
| 54 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Koorders 40372 (L) | Indonesia (Java) | LG | 8.5 | 7 | 5 | 155.77 |
| 55 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Koorders 41507 (L) | Indonesia (Java) | LG | 9 | 7 | 5.3 | 174.83 |
| 56 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Koorders 41509 (L) | Indonesia (Java) | LG | 8 | 7 | 4.8 | 140.74 |
| 57 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Koorders 41720 (L) | Indonesia (Java) | LG | 9 | 7.5 | 5.5 | 194.39 |
| 58 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Larsen et al. 552 (L) | Thailand | LG | 10.5 | 8 | 6 | 263.89 |
| 59 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Lorleck 517 (K) | India | LG | 9 | 7 | 5 | 164.93 |
| 60 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Meyer 7319 | Indonesia (Sumatra) | LGB | 10 | 8 | 5.7 | 238.76 |
| 61 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Ramos 24086 (K) 1 | Philippines | LG | 10 | 8 | 6.3 | 263.89 |
| 62 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Ramos 24086 (K) 2 | Philippines | LG | 9.5 | 7.5 | 5.5 | 205.19 |
| 63 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Ramos 24086 (K) 3 | Philippines | LGB | 10 | 8 | 6.5 | 272.27 |
| 64 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Ramos 24086 (K) 4 | Philippines | LGB | 10 | 7 | 5.5 | 201.59 |
| 65 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Ramos 24086 (K) 5 | Philippines | LGB | 9 | 7 | 6 | 197.92 |
| 66 | Plukenetia | corniculata | s.coll. 517 (K) | ? | LGB | 10 | 7 | 5 | 183.26 |
| 67 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Smythies 14073 (K) | Malaysia (Borneo) | LG | 8.5 | 7 | 5.7 | 177.58 |
| 68 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Winkler 3096 (L) | Indonesia (Borneo) | LG | 10 | 8 | 5.6 | 234.57 |
| 69 | Plukenetia | corniculata | Zollig 3167 (NY) | Indonesia (Java) | LGB | 8 | 6.5 | 4.5 | 122.52 |
| 70 | Plukenetia | decidua | Decary 3253 (P) 1 | Madagascar | LGB | 13.1 | 11.1 | 11.2 | 852.73 |
| 71 | Plukenetia | decidua | Decary 3253 (P) 2 | Madagascar | LGB | 13.1 | 11.2 | 11.8 | 906.5 |
| 72 | Plukenetia | huayllabambana | Gruhn et al. 84 (MO) | Peru | WCM | 28 | 27 | 20 | 6627.02 |
| 73 | Plukenetia | huayllabambana | Tellez et al. 4 (MO) | Peru | WCM | 25 | 22 | 17 | 4895.65 |
| 74 | Plukenetia | lehmanniana | Gentry 9701 (MO) | Ecuador | LGB | 34.27 | 24 | 30 | 12919.49 |
| 75 | Plukenetia | lehmanniana | Gentry et al. 24724 (MO) | Ecuador | LGB | 28 | 20 | 24 | 7037.17 |
| 76 | Plukenetia | lehmanniana | Zak and Jaramillo 3401 (MO) | Ecuador | WCM | 29.98 | 21 | 24 | 7911.54 |
| 77 | Plukenetia | loretensis | Fanshaw 7179 (G) | Guyana | LGB | 5.2 | 4.8 | 3.6 | 47.05 |
| 78 | Plukenetia | loretensis | Freitas et al. 155 (MO) 1 | Brazil | WCM | 5.25 | 4.25 | 4.25 | 49.65 |
| 79 | Plukenetia | loretensis | Freitas et al. 155 (MO) 2 | Brazil | WCM | 5 | 4 | 3.75 | 39.27 |
| 80 | Plukenetia | loretensis | Liesner 3475 (MO, NY) | Venezuela | LGB | 6 | 5.1 | 4.9 | 78.51 |
| 81 | Plukenetia | loretensis | Liesner and Funk 16526 (MO) | Venezuela | WCM | 6 | 5 | 5 | 78.54 |
| 82 | Plukenetia | loretensis | Maguire and Politi 27371 | Venezuela | LGB | 4.8 | 4.8 | 4 | 48.25 |
| 83 | Plukenetia | loretensis | Plowman et al. 12298 (CAN) | Brazil | WCM | 5.1 | 4.7 | 4.2 | 52.71 |
| 84 | Plukenetia | loretensis | Rimachi 5122 (MO) 1 | Peru | WCM | 4.75 | 4.5 | 4 | 44.77 |
| 85 | Plukenetia | loretensis | Rimachi 5122 (MO) 2 | Peru | WCM | 4.5 | 4 | 4 | 37.7 |
| 86 | Plukenetia | loretensis | Solomon 7972 (MO) | Bolivia | WCM | 4.5 | 4 | 3 | 28.27 |
| 87 | Plukenetia | loretensis | Vasquez 3208 (MO) 1 | Peru | WCM | 4.75 | 4.25 | 3.5 | 37 |
| 88 | Plukenetia | loretensis | Vasquez 3208 (MO) 2 | Peru | WCM | 4.75 | 4.5 | 3.25 | 36.37 |
| 89 | Plukenetia | penninervia | Al Gentry 8180 (MO) | Belize | WCM | 5 | 6 | 4 | 62.83 |
| 90 | Plukenetia | penninervia | Atha et al. 1001 (MO) 1 | Belize | WCM | 5.75 | 5 | 4 | 60.21 |
| 91 | Plukenetia | penninervia | Atha et al. 1001 (MO) 2 | Belize | WCM | 5.5 | 5.25 | 4.25 | 64.26 |
| 92 | Plukenetia | penninervia | Elias Contreras 8361 (MO) | Guatemala | WCM | 5 | 6 | 5 | 78.54 |


| 93 | Plukenetia | penninervia | Fendler 2412 (MO) | ? | LGB | 5.5 | 5.5 | 4 | 63.36 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 94 | Plukenetia | penninervia | G. Carnevali and R. Duno 7594 (MO) | Mexico | WCM | 5 | 6 | 5 | 78.54 |
| 95 | Plukenetia | penninervia | Steyermark and Espinuza 112709 (MO) | Venezuela | LGB | 6 | 5 | 5 | 78.54 |
| 96 | Plukenetia | penninervia | Wilmer Diaz 1742 (MO) | Venezuela | WCM | 5 | 6 | 5 | 78.54 |
| 97 | Plukenetia | cf. penninervia | Cardenas 1903 (MO) | Colombia | WCM | 7 | 6.3 | 5 | 115.45 |
| 98 | Plukenetia | cf. penninervia | Cardenas 1903 (MO) | Colombia | WCM | 7 | 6.5 | 5.2 | 123.88 |
| 99 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection | ? (CAY or US?) | LGB | 55 | 36 | 36 | 37322.12 |
| 100 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 1 | ? | LGB | 52 | 34 | 32 | 29623.12 |
| 101 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 10 | ? | LGB | 50.5 | 33 | 30 | 26177.32 |
| 102 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 11 | ? | LGB | 51 | 35 | 32 | 29907.96 |
| 103 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 12 | ? | LGB | 52 | 36 | 33.5 | 32835.93 |
| 104 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 13 | ? | LGB | 49 | 33.5 | 30.5 | 26214.37 |
| 105 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 14 | ? | LGB | 56 | 36.5 | 34 | 36388.02 |
| 106 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 15 | ? | LGB | 52 | 35 | 32.5 | 30970.87 |
| 107 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 16 | ? | LGB | 50 | 34 | 32 | 28483.77 |
| 108 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 17 | ? | LGB | 49 | 33 | 31 | 26246.44 |
| 109 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 2 | ? | LGB | 51 | 33 | 32.5 | 28639.54 |
| 110 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 3 | ? | LGB | 51 | 36 | 33 | 31723.8 |
| 111 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 4 | ? | LGB | 52 | 34.5 | 33 | 30998.09 |
| 112 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 5 | ? | LGB | 51.5 | 34 | 34 | 31171.93 |
| 113 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 6 | ? | LGB | 49.5 | 34.5 | 32.5 | 29060.71 |
| 114 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 7 | ? | LGB | 50.5 | 37 | 34 | 33263.71 |
| 115 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 8 | ? | LGB | 53 | 37 | 34.5 | 35423.81 |
| 116 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Feuillet collection (FG) 9 | ? | LGB | 50.5 | 33.5 | 33 | 29231.34 |
| 117 | Plukenetia | polyadenia | Gillespie 4314 (CAN) | Guyana | WCM | 50 | 35 | 32 | 29321.53 |
| 118 | Plukenetia | serrata | Guedes et al. 2330 (RB) | Brazil | DM | 15 | 16 | 16 | 2010.62 |
| 119 | Plukenetia | serrata | RB 556564 | Brazil | DM | 15.5 | 15.5 | 15 | 1886.92 |
| 120 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Aguilar 8193 (MO) 1 | Costa Rica | WCM | 10.5 | 8 | 4.5 | 197.92 |
| 121 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Aguilar 8193 (MO) 2 | Costa Rica | WCM | 10.5 | 8.5 | 4 | 186.92 |
| 122 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Calderon 4809 (A) | Mexico | LGB | 12 | 11 | 2.5 | 172.79 |
| 123 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Cedillo Trigos 3510 (MO) | Mexico | WCM | 14 | 11 | 4 | 322.54 |
| 124 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Churchill et al. 4149 (MO) | Panama | WCM | 11 | 8 | 5 | 230.38 |
| 125 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Davidse and Herrera 31266 (MO) 1 | Costa Rica | LGB | 10 | 9.5 | 4.3 | 213.89 |
| 126 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Davidse and Herrera 31266 (MO) 2 | Costa Rica | LGB | 10 | 9.5 | 4.5 | 223.84 |
| 127 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Davidson 6734 (US) | Costa Rica | LGB | 11 | 10 | 2.5 | 143.99 |
| 128 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Davidson et al. 6734 (MO) 1 | Costa Rica | LGB | 11.5 | 9.5 | 3.6 | 205.93 |
| 129 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Davidson et al. 6734 (MO) 2 | Costa Rica | LGB | 11.5 | 9.5 | 4 | 228.81 |
| 130 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Duke 99941 | ? | LGB | 13.5 | 12 | 5 | 424.12 |
| 131 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Duke 99942 | ? | LGB | 13.5 | 11.5 | 5 | 406.44 |
| 132 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Grayum 3511 (MO) 1 | Costa Rica | LGB | 11.3 | 10 | 5 | 295.83 |
| 133 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Grayum 3511 (MO) 2 | Costa Rica | LGB | 10.7 | 8.9 | 4.7 | 234.35 |
| 134 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Grayum 8737 (MO) 1 | Costa Rica | LGB | 11 | 9.5 | 5.2 | 284.52 |
| 135 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Grayum 8737 (MO) 2 | Costa Rica | LGB | 11.6 | 10 | 5.2 | 315.83 |
| 136 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Grayum et al. 8731 (MO) | Costa Rica | WCM | 11 | 9 | 4 | 207.35 |
| 137 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Hammell 16933 (MO) 1 | Costa Rica | LGB | 11.1 | 10 | 6 | 348.72 |
| 138 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Hammell 16933 (MO) 2 | Costa Rica | LGB | 11.6 | 10.3 | 5 | 312.8 |
| 139 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Jimenez 3611 (MO) 1 | Costa Rica | LGB | 11 | 9 | 4.6 | 238.45 |
| 140 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Jimenez 3611 (MO) 2 | Costa Rica | LGB | 11 | 9.3 | 4.9 | 262.46 |


| 141 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Liesner 2086 (US) | Costa Rica | LGB | 14 | 13 | 5 | 476.47 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 142 | Plukenetia | stipellata | McDowel 241 (MO) 1 | Costa Rica | WCM | 12 | 9 | 4 | 226.19 |
| 143 | Plukenetia | stipellata | McDowel 241 (MO) 2 | Costa Rica | WCM | 12 | 9.5 | 5 | 298.45 |
| 144 | Plukenetia | stipellata | McDowel 241 (MO) 3 | Costa Rica | WCM | 11.5 | 9 | 4 | 216.77 |
| 145 | Plukenetia | stipellata | McDowel 241 (MO) 4 | Costa Rica | WCM | 11.5 | 9.5 | 4.5 | 257.41 |
| 146 | Plukenetia | stipellata | McDowell 821 (GH) | Costa Rica | LGB | 11 | 9.5 | 5 | 273.58 |
| 147 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Morens and Sandino 14657 (MO) | Nicaragua | LGB | 11.5 | 10 | 5 | 301.07 |
| 148 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Pennell 4584 (NY) 1 | Colombia | LGB | 13 | 11.5 | 6 | 469.67 |
| 149 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Pennell 4584 (NY) 2 | Colombia | LGB | 14 | 12 | 5.5 | 483.81 |
| 150 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Pennell 4584 (NY) 3 | Colombia | LGB | 13 | 11.5 | 5.5 | 430.53 |
| 151 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Pittier 324 (US) | Guatemala | LGB | 13 | 13 | 5.2 | 460.14 |
| 152 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Refugio 3510 (MO) | Mexico | WCM | 13.5 | 11.75 | 4.5 | 373.75 |
| 153 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Refugio 3510 (MO) | Mexico | WCM | 13.5 | 12 | 4.75 | 402.91 |
| 154 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Robels 1132 (MO) | Costa Rica | LGB | 12 | 10 | 5 | 314.16 |
| 155 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Rueda et al. 9777 (MO) | Nicaragua | WCM | 12 | 9 | 5 | 282.74 |
| 156 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Smith 1651 (US) | Guatemala | LGB | 13.7 | 13.5 | 5 | 484.2 |
| 157 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Solheim and Reisfiell (NY) | Mexico | LGB | 12 | 11 | 5 | 345.58 |
| 158 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Sperry 803 (GH) | Costa Rica | LGB | 11 | 8 | 4.5 | 207.35 |
| 159 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Stevens 12095 (MO) | Nicaragua | WCM | 12 | 10 | 5 | 314.16 |
| 160 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Stevens 23837 (MO) 1 | Costa Rica | LGB | 10.5 | 9 | 5.1 | 252.35 |
| 161 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Stevens 23837 (MO) 2 | Costa Rica | LGB | 10.5 | 9 | 5 | 247.4 |
| 162 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Stevens 6357 (MO) 1 | Nicaragua | LGB | 10.7 | 9.6 | 4.7 | 252.79 |
| 163 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Stevens 6357 (MO) 2 | Nicaragua | LGB | 11.3 | 9.3 | 4.6 | 253.11 |
| 164 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Stevens 6357 (MO) 3 | Nicaragua | LGB | 11.6 | 9.7 | 4.7 | 276.9 |
| 165 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Zambrano (MO) 1 | Mexico | LGB | 12.7 | 12.1 | 4.7 | 378.17 |
| 166 | Plukenetia | stipellata | Zambrano (MO) 2 | Mexico | LGB | 13 | 12.1 | 4.7 | 387.1 |
| 167 | Plukenetia | supraglandulosa | Granvilla et al. 10783 (U, DAV, CAY) 1 | French Guiana | LGB | 7.3 | 7.1 | 4.6 | 124.84 |
| 168 | Plukenetia | supraglandulosa | Granvilla et al. 10783 (U, DAV, CAY) 2 | French Guiana | LGB | 7.3 | 6.8 | 4.8 | 124.76 |
| 169 | Plukenetia | supraglandulosa | Granvilla et al. 10783 (U, DAV, CAY) 3 | French Guiana | LGB | 7 | 6.8 | 4.7 | 117.14 |
| 170 | Plukenetia | verrucosa | BW 993 | Suriname | LGB | 6 | 5.5 | 4 | 69.12 |
| 171 | Plukenetia | verrucosa | Herrera and Koemar 10073 (CAN) 1 | Suriname | WCM | 6 | 5.5 | 4 | 69.12 |
| 172 | Plukenetia | verrucosa | Herrera and Koemar 10073 (CAN) 2 | Suriname | WCM | 6 | 5 | 3.5 | 54.98 |
| 173 | Plukenetia | verrucosa | Herrera and Koemar 10073 (MO) 3 | Suriname | WCM | 5.25 | 5.5 | 4 | 60.48 |
| 174 | Plukenetia | verrucosa | Herrera and Koemar 10073 (MO) 4 | Suriname | WCM | 6 | 5.5 | 4 | 69.12 |
| 175 | Plukenetia | verrucosa | Irwin 48796 | Brazil | LGB | 6 | 5 | 4 | 62.83 |
| 176 | Plukenetia | verrucosa | LBB 3565 | Suriname | LGB | 6 | 3.7 | 5 | 58.12 |
| 177 | Plukenetia | verrucosa | Melinson (P) 1 | French Guiana | LGB | 6 | 5 | 3.6 | 56.55 |
| 178 | Plukenetia | verrucosa | Melinson (P) 2 | French Guiana | LGB | 6 | 5 | 4 | 62.83 |
| 179 | Plukenetia | verrucosa | Pulle 221 | Suriname | LGB | 6 | 5 | 3.6 | 56.55 |
| 180 | Plukenetia | volubilis | Aplund 14129 (US) | Peru | LGB | 20 | 17 | 8 | 1424.19 |
| 181 | Plukenetia | volubilis | Gentry et al. 63257 (MO) | Peru | WCM | 17 | 14 | 5 | 623.08 |
| 182 | Plukenetia | volubilis | Krukoff 10082 (A) | Bolivia | LGB | 17 | 16 | 9 | 1281.77 |
| 183 | Plukenetia | volubilis | M. Monigatti and F. Diaz V. 309 (MO) 5 carpels | Peru | WCM | 22 | 18 | 8 | 1658.76 |
| 184 | Plukenetia | volubilis | Mexia 7265 (US) | Peru | LGB | 20 | 17 | 7 | 1246.17 |
| 185 | Plukenetia | volubilis | Nunez 13775 (MO) 1 | Peru | WCM | 16.35 | 15.25 | 7.2 | 939.98 |
| 186 | Plukenetia | volubilis | Nunez 13775 (MO) 2 | Peru | WCM | 16.4 | 14.8 | 6.9 | 876.91 |
| 187 | Plukenetia | volubilis | Nunez 13775 (MO) 3 | Peru | WCM | 16.6 | 15.6 | 7.5 | 1016.93 |
| 188 | Plukenetia | volubilis | Parada et al. 206 (CAN) | Bolivia | WCM | 14.5 | 13.5 | 7.5 | 768.71 |


| 189 | Plukenetia | volubilis | Philip et al. 1582 (US) | Colombia | LGB | 16 | 15 | 7.5 | 942.48 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 190 | Plukenetia | volubilis | Teran et al. 2502 (MO) 1 | Bolivia | WCM | 13.5 | 14.25 | 6.5 | 654.73 |
| 191 | Plukenetia | volubilis | Teran et al. 2502 (MO) 2 | Bolivia | WCM | 13 | 11.75 | 6 | 479.88 |
| 192 | Plukenetia | volubilis | Timana 979 (MO) | Peru | WCM | 18 | 16 | 6.5 | 980.18 |
| 193 | Plukenetia | volubilis | Vasquez et al. 22376 (MO) | Peru | WCM | 17 | 15 | 8 | 1068.14 |
| 194 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini 45104 (MO) | Paraguay | WCM | 8 | 6 | 4 | 100.53 |
| 195 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini 50824 (MO) | Paraguay | WCM | 8 | 5 | 3 | 62.83 |
| 196 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 44921 (CAN) 1 | Paraguay | WCM | 7.6 | 5.7 | 4.2 | 95.27 |
| 197 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 44921 (CAN) 2 | Paraguay | WCM | 7 | 5.4 | 4 | 79.17 |
| 198 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 44921 (CAN) 3 | Paraguay | WCM | 7.3 | 5.8 | 3.9 | 86.46 |
| 199 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 44921 (CAN) 4 | Paraguay | WCM | 7 | 5.4 | 3.8 | 75.21 |
| 200 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 44939 (CAN) 1 | Paraguay | WCM | 6.9 | 5.3 | 4.1 | 78.51 |
| 201 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 44939 (CAN) 2 | Paraguay | WCM | 6.9 | 5.7 | 4.1 | 84.43 |
| 202 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 44939 (CAN) 3 | Paraguay | WCM | 6.7 | 5.3 | 3.4 | 63.22 |
| 203 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 44939 (CAN) 4 | Paraguay | WCM | 7.6 | 6 | 4.2 | 100.28 |
| 204 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 44939 (CAN) 5 | Paraguay | WCM | 7.6 | 5.4 | 4.1 | 88.1 |
| 205 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 44939 (CAN) 6 | Paraguay | WCM | 7.6 | 5.5 | 3.8 | 83.17 |
| 206 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 44939 (CAN) 7 | Paraguay | WCM | 7.4 | 5.9 | 4.1 | 93.73 |
| 207 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 44939 (CAN) 8 | Paraguay | WCM | 7 | 5.6 | 3.7 | 75.94 |
| 208 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 45093 (CAN) 1 | Paraguay | WCM | 7.8 | 5.9 | 4 | 96.38 |
| 209 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 45093 (CAN) 2 | Paraguay | WCM | 7.4 | 5.8 | 3.8 | 85.4 |
| 210 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 45093 (CAN) 3 | Paraguay | WCM | 7.3 | 5.5 | 3.9 | 81.99 |
| 211 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 45104 (CAN) 1 | Paraguay | WCM | 7.5 | 6 | 4 | 94.25 |
| 212 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 45104 (CAN) 2 | Paraguay | WCM | 6.6 | 5.4 | 3.7 | 69.05 |
| 213 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 45104 (CAN) 3 | Paraguay | WCM | 6.3 | 5.6 | 3.8 | 70.2 |
| 214 | Romanoa | tamnoides | Zardini and Cardozo 45104 (CAN) 4 | Paraguay | WCM | 7.2 | 5.7 | 3.8 | 81.66 |

ID (person who conducted measurements) abbreviations: DM (Debora Medeiros), LG (Lynn Gillespie Syst.Bot. 2007 notes), LGB (Lynn Gillespie blue binder notes), KJW (Kenneth J. Wurdack), WCM (Warren Cardinal-McTeague).


[^0]:    Appendix 4.1. List of species and vouchers used in the ETS phylogeny (Fig. 4.4), arranged by: Species Authority. COUNTRY. Collector \& Number (Herbarium Code), GenBank accession number. Most sequences are from Cardinal-McTeague et al. (in review); a single new ETS sequence is published for $P$. brevistyla Card.-McTeag. \& L.J.Gillespie sp. nov., indicated by an asterisk (*).

