

Molecular phylogeny of Atripliceae (Chenopodioideae, Chenopodiaceae): Implications for systematics, biogeography, flower and fruit evolution, and the origin of \mathbb{C}_4 photosynthesis 1

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- *Premise of the study*: Atripliceae (Chenopodiaceae), including *Atriplex* (300 spp.) as the largest genus of the family, are an ecologically important group of steppes and semideserts worldwide. Relationships in Atripliceae are poorly understood due to obscure and potentially convergent morphological characters.
- Methods: Using sequence variation of two chloroplast markers (rbcL gene, atpB-rbcL spacer) and one nrDNA marker (ITS) analyzed with BEAST, we investigated the systematics and biogeography of Atripliceae. We surveyed flower morphology and fruit anatomy to study the evolution of flowers and fruits in the tribe.
- Key results: Female flowers with persistent foliar cover (the diagnostic character of traditional Atripliceae) evolved three times in Chenopodioideae, in Atripliceae s.s., Axyrideae, and Spinacia. Atripliceae s.s. started to diversify during the Early Miocene in Eurasia, separating into the Archiatriplex and the Atriplex clades. The former consists of eight species-poor, disjunct, and morphologically heterogeneous genera and is likely a relictual lineage. The Atriplex clade comprises the majority of species and evolved one C4 lineage 14.1–10.5 Ma, which diversified rapidly worldwide. The C4 Atriplex entered North America during the Middle/Late Miocene and spread to South America subsequently. Australia was colonized by two C4 lineages both arriving during the Late Miocene. One of them diversified rapidly, giving rise to most Australian Atriplex species.
- Conclusions: Atripliceae s.s. comprise Archiatriplex, Atriplex, Exomis, Extriplex, Grayia, Halimione, Holmbergia, Manochlamys, Proatriplex, and Stutzia. Microgynoecium is included based on morphology but only weak molecular support. Axyris, Krascheninnikovia, and Ceratocarpus (here described as Axyrideae) and Spinacia are excluded from Atripliceae.

Key words: Archiatriplex; Atriplex; Cremnophyton; Exomis; Extriplex; Grayia; Halimione; Holmbergia; Microgynoecium; Stutzia.

The Atripliceae traditionally belong to subf. Chenopodioideae and comprise c. 330 species in 12 genera according to the most recent comprehensive treatment by Kühn et al. (1993) (Table 1). The tribe is distributed worldwide in subtropical and temperate regions and consists of annual or perennial herbs, subshrubs or shrubs found in steppes, deserts, and coastal or ruderal habitats (Table 1). Many species can tolerate saline conditions and several species are dominant elements of arid communities worldwide, e.g., shadscale (*Atriplex confertifolia*) in

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the Great Basin (Sanderson et al., 1990), zampa (A. lampa) in northwestern Patagonia (Busso and Bonvissuto, 2009), bladder saltbush (A. vesicaria) in western New South Wales and northern and eastern regions of South Australia (Groves, 1994), Oldman saltbush (A. nummularia) in southeastern Australia (Anderson, 1967; Leigh, 1994), and A. cana formations in Eurasian semideserts (Korovin, 1934; Bykov, 1965).

After Meyer (1829), who included four genera in the tribe Atripliceae (Table 2), characteristic flower morphology has been considered as the key diagnostic character for this tribe. In the majority of species, all flowers are unisexual (a few species also show some bisexual flowers), and the female flowers lack a perigon but have two subtending, paired bracteoles (hereafter referred to as bracts, after Urmi-König, 1981) that enclose the ovary. These bracts are either tightly attached to but free from each other or connate to various degrees along their margins. In fruit the bracts are persistent and variously modified. Often they develop structures that likely enhance fruit dispersal. These typical female flowers with a foliar cover have been viewed by most authors as a syndrome that characterizes a natural group (Standley, 1916; Ulbrich, 1934; Aellen, 1979; Kühn et al., 1993; Judd and Ferguson, 1999). The tribe has often been subdivided into two subtribes, Atriplicinae and Eurotiinae, according to differences in pubescence (e.g., Moquin-Tandon, 1849;

Table 1. Genera of Atripliceae and Chenopodieae and information about species number, distribution, life form and representatives in this study.

Taxon	Species number, distribution and life form	Number of sampled species for data set A (rbcL), B (atpB-rbcL spacer), C (ITS)
Chenopodieae		
Baolia H. W. Kung & G. L. Chu	1 sp., China, annual	no material available
Chenopodium L.	c. 100 spp., worldwide, annual or perennial	A = 9, $B = 11$, $C = 1$ (see Appendix 1
-	herbs, subshrubs, shrubs or small trees	for list of sampled species)
Cycloloma Moq.	1 sp., west and central North America, annual	A = 1, $B = 1$ (<i>C. atriplicifolium</i>)
Dysphania R. Br.	c. 32 spp., worldwide, annual or short-lived	A = 4, $B = 4$ (D. ambrosioides,
	perennial herbs*1	D. botrys, D. cristata, D. glomulifera)
Einadia Raf.	6 spp., Australia, New Zealand, herbaceous or weakly woody perennials	A = 1, B = 1 (E. nutans)
Holmbergia Hicken	1 sp., Paraguay, Uruguay, Argentina, climbing shrub	B = 1, C = 2 (H. tweedii)
Micromonolepis Ulbr.	1 sp., western North America, annual	A = 1, $B = 1$ (M. pusilla)
Monolepis Schrad.	5 spp., northern Siberia, western North America, South America, annuals	A = 1, $B = 1$ (M. nuttaliana)
Rhagodia R. Br.	11 spp., Australia, shrubs	A = 1, B = 2 (R. drumondii,
	11.	R. parabolica)
Scleroblitum Ulbr.	1 sp., Australia, annual	A = 1 (S. atriplicinum)
Teloxys Moq.*1	1 sp., Central Asia, annual*1	A = 1, $B = 1$ (<i>T. aristata</i>)
Atripliceae	•	
Archiatriplex G. L. Chu	1 sp., China, annual	A = 1, $B = 1$, $C = 1$ (A. nanpinensis)
Atriplex L. (incl.: Blackiella*2 Aellen,	~300 spp., worldwide, annual or	A = 19, $B = 55$, $C = 92$ (see Appendix 1
Haloxanthium Ulbr., Morrisiella*2 Aellen,	perennial herbs, subshrubs or shrubs	for list of sampled species)
Neopreissia Ulbr., Obione Gaertner,		
Pachypharynx*2 Aellen, Senniella*2 Aellen,		
Theleophyton (Hook. f.) Moq.		
Axyris L.	6 spp., Central Asia, Himalaya, west China, annuals	A = 1, $B = 1$ (A. prostrata)
Ceratocarpus L.	2 spp., East Europe, West Asia, annuals	A = 1 (C. arenarius)
Cremnophyton Brullo & Pavone	1 sp., Malta and Gozo, shrub	A = 1, $B = 2$, $C = 1$ (C. lanfrancoi)
Exomis Fenzl ex Moq.	1 sp., South to West Africa, shrub	A = 1, $B = 1$, $C = 1$ ($E. microphylla$)
Extriplex E. H. Zacharias	2 spp., western North America, annual	A = 2, $B = 2$, $C = 2$ (E. joaquinana,
	or perennial herbs	E. californica)
Grayia Hook. & Arn. (incl. Zuckia Standl.)	4 spp., western North America, shrubs	A = 2, $B = 4$, $C = 5$ (G. spinosa,
77 1:	2 F WA' 1 11 1	G. brandegeei)
Halimione Aellen	3 spp., Europe, W Asia, annuals and shrubs	A = 2, $B = 2$, $C = 4$ (H. pedunculata,
W 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	0 44 5 4 4 4 4	H. verrucifera, H. portulacoides)
Krascheninnikovia Gueldenst.	8 spp.*4, Europe, Asia, North America, subshrubs or shrubs	A = 1, $B = 2$ (K. ceratoides)
Manochlamys*3 Aellen	1 sp., South Africa, shrub	A = 1, B = 1, C = 1 (<i>M. albicans</i>)
Microgynoecium Hook. f.	1 sp., Tibet, Sikkim, annual	A = 1, $B = 1$, $C = 1$ (M . tibeticum)
Proatriplex (W. A. Weber) Stutz & G. L. Chu	1 sp., western North America, annual	C = 2 (P. pleiantha)
Spinacia L.	3 spp., North Africa, West Asia, annual or biennial herbs	A = 1, $B = 1$ (S. oleracea)
Stutzia E. H. Zacharias (Endolepis Torrey, nom. illeg.)	2 spp., western North America, annual	A = 2, B = 2, C = 3 (S. dioica, S. covillei)
Suckleya A. Gray	1 sp., western North America, annual	A = 1 (S. suckleyana)

^{*}¹ Mosyakin and Clemants (2002) and Clemants and Mosyakin (2003) expanded the circumscription of *Dysphania* comprising all glandular taxa of *Chenopodium* subg. *Ambrosia* A. J. Scott (species previously also classified as *Roubieva* Moq., *Teloxys* Moq., *Neobotrydium* Moldenke). *² Aellen (1937/1938). Aellen (1938a). *³ Aellen (1939b). *⁴ According to Heklau and Röser (2008) only one polymorphic species with two subspecies.

Volkens, 1893; Ulbrich, 1934). The circumscription of Atripliceae in earlier important treatments is summarized in Table 2. Some authors, however, included the Atripliceae into a broadly circumscribed Chenopodieae (e.g., Blackwell, 1977; Williams and Ford-Lloyd, 1974; Wilson, 1984), the species of which generally have bisexual flowers with 4–5 small tepals that are persistent but not modified in fruits.

The core genus of the tribe is *Atriplex*, which comprises 91% of the species of the tribe in its present circumscription (Table 1; Kühn et al., 1993). Most of the genera that had been classified under Atripliceae had been in or excluded from the genus at various times by different authors. Exceptions are the Central Asian monotypic genera *Archiatriplex* and *Microgynoecium*, several genera traditionally assigned to Eurotiinae (nom. illeg., now as subtrib. Axyridinae Heklau [Heklau and Röser, 2008]),

viz., Axyris, Ceratocarpus, and Krascheninnikovia, and the often overlooked genus Cremnophyton. Endolepis Torrey (nom. illeg.), Exomis Fenzl, Obione Gaertn., Halimione Aellen, Blackiella Aellen, Haloxanthium Ulbr., Morrisiella Aellen, Neopreissia Ulbr., Pachypharynx Aellen, Senniella Aellen, Theleophyton Moq., Manochlamys Aellen, Proatriplex (W. A. Weber) Stutz & G. L. Chu, and Grayia Hook. and Arn. had all been considered as congeneric with Atriplex at some stage (Tables 1, 2). In several cases, a particular morphology of the fruiting bracts was considered an important character for delimitation at the genus level. Two examples of this are the Australian genera Neopreissia and Senniella. Neopreissia was separated from Atriplex on the basis of its thick and hard fruiting bracts with a turbinate stipe at the base (Ulbrich, 1934), and Senniella was excluded from Atriplex on the basis of its united and spongy fruiting

TABLE 2. Classifications of Atripliceae

Meyer (1829)	Moquin-Tandon (1840)	Moquin-Tandon (1849)	Volkens (1893)	Ulbrich (1934)	Kühn et al. (1993)	Falkovitsh and Kovalev (2007)
Tribe Atripliceae	Tribe Spinacieae	Tribe Spinacieae Subtribe Atripliceae [=Atriplicinae]	Tribe Atripliceae Subtribe Atriplicinae	Tribe Atripliceae Subtribe Atriplicinae	Tribe Atripliceae	Subfam. Atriplicoideae Tribe Atripliceae
Atriplex	Atriplex Obione Exomis Spinacia	Attriplex Obione Theleophyton Exomis Spinacia Oxybasis (>Chenopodium) Axvris	Atriplex (Endolepis³) (incl. in Atriplex) (incl. in Atriplex) Exomis Spinacia	Atriplex Obione Theleophyton Exomis Spinacia	Atriplex (incl. in Atriplex) (incl. in Atriplex) Exomis Spinacia	Atriplex (incl. in Atriplex) (incl. in Atriplex) Exomis Spinacia
		120,12	Microgynoecium	Microgynoecium	Microgynoecium	<i>Microgynoecium</i> incl. in Chenopodioideae
			Suckleya	Suckleya Endolepis ³ Rumicastrum (>Portulacaceae)	Suckleya Endolepis ³	Endolepis ³
				Neopreissia Haloxanthium Zuckia	(incl. in <i>Atriplex</i>) (incl. in <i>Atriplex</i>) <i>Zuckia</i>	(incl. in <i>Atriplex</i>) (incl. in <i>Atriplex</i>) <i>Zuckia</i>
		Subtribe Eurotieae	Subtribe Eurotiinae	Subtrib. Eurotiinae		Tribe Eurotieae
Ceratocarpus Diotis ¹	Ceratocarpus Eurotia ²	Ceratocarpus Eurotia ² Grayia	Ceratocarpus Eurotia ² Grayia	Ceratocarpus Eurotia ² Grayia	Ceratocarpus Krascheninnikovia Grayia	Ceratocarpus Krascheninnikovia incl. in Chenopodioideae
Axyris	Axyris		Axyris	Axyris	Axyris Archiatriplex (not mentioned) (incl. in Atriplex) (incl. in Atriplex) (not mentioned) (incl. in Exomis)	Axyris Archiatriplex ⁴ Proatriplex ⁴ Senniella ⁴ Halimione ⁴ Cremnophyton ⁴ Manochlamys ⁴
	Acnida (>Amaranthaceae s.s.)					•

¹ nom illeg. (incl. *Krascheninnikovia* p.p., *Halimione* p.p.); ² nom. illeg. later corrected to *Krascheninnikovia* Gueldenst.; ³ nom. illeg. later corrected to *Stutzia* E. H. Zacharias; ⁴ classified in Atripliceae by Falkovitsh and Kovalev (2007). **Note**: The genera *Blackiella*, *Morrisiella* and *Pachypharynx* described by Aellen (1938b) were not accepted by Kühn et al. (1993) and Falkovitsh and Kovalev (2007) but included in *Atriplex*.

bracts (Aellen, 1937/1938). Because Atriplex is a rather polymorphic genus with fruiting bract morphology that has many transitional character states, the delimitation from its satellite genera has always been problematic [e.g., Senniella and Neopreissia were included in Atriplex by Wilson (1984)]. Early in the taxonomic history of Atriplex, the genus Obione Gaertn. was separated on the basis of O. muricata Gaertn. (= A. sibirica L.; Gaertner, 1791). In contrast to other Atriplex species already described at that time, Obione muricata has concrescent and sclerified bracts in the female flowers and an embryo with the radicle pointing upward. Many authors agreed with this segregation although at different taxonomic levels (i.e., genus, subgenus, or section). Sukhorukov (2006) found that the position of the radicle is strongly correlated with the degree of concrescence of the two bracts. The radicle is always orientated toward the point where the concrescent part passes into the free part. Furthermore, Sukhorukov (2006) found that the degree of concrescence of the two bracts can vary considerably within species.

In contrast to the cosmopolitan *Atriplex* the smaller genera have rather limited distribution areas (Table 1). *Atriplex* has greatest taxonomic diversity in Australia, North America, South America, and Eurasia. In South Africa, the genus seems to be less diverse, but in this region and also in South America, a region of high diversity, the genus has not been extensively

studied so far. The evolution of C_4 photosynthesis might have played a major role in the evolutionary success of the genus because the majority of *Atriplex* species perform C_4 photosynthesis and C_4 *Atriplex* are distributed worldwide. Unlike most other groups of C_4 Chenopodiaceae, *Atriplex* has typical Kranz anatomy with a layer of bundle sheath cells surrounding each vascular bundle and radially arranged palisade cells and relatively little variation in C_4 leaf types. This atriplicoid leaf type (Carolin et al., 1975) occurs in two variants, viz. the *Atriplex halimus* and the *A. dimorphostegia* types, respectively (Kadereit et al., 2003, compare with Khatib, 1959). The latter differs in the absence of a hypodermis. With limited sampling of the genus, Kadereit et al. (2003) estimated the origin of C_4 *Atriplex* to have occurred 11.5–7.9 Ma and Zacharias (2007) estimated it to have occurred 8.4–5.7 Ma.

Molecular analyses (Kadereit et al., 2003; Müller and Borsch, 2005) show that Chenopodioideae consist of only two tribes, Chenopodieae and Atripliceae. Other tribes that were previously assigned to this subfamily by Kühn et al. (1993), viz. Beteae and Camphorosmeae, clearly do not belong to Chenopodioideae. Beteae are now recognized at subfamilial rank (Kadereit et al., 2006), and Camphorosmeae either belong to subf. Salsoloideae (Kadereit et al., 2003; Müller and Borsch, 2005; Kapralov et al., 2006; Akhani et al., 2007) or should be recognized as a

subfamily of its own (Kadereit and Freitag, 2010). Representatives of Chenopodieae and Atripliceae are somewhat intermingled in the *rbcL* phylogeny by Kadereit et al. (2003), and neither Atripliceae nor Chenopodieae in their present circumscription after Kühn et al. (1993) seem to represent natural lineages. The sampling and resolution in Kadereit et al. (2003), however, was only sufficient to uncover the possible polyphyly of Atripliceae and Chenopodium and the presence of a basal grade mainly of members of the Chenopodieae but insufficient to come up with a new classification of the subfamily. A detailed cladistic analysis based on 78 morphological characters (Flores Olvera and Davis, 2001) suggested that Atripliceae and also Atriplex are paraphyletic and that both subtribes of Atripliceae, Atriplicinae, and Eurotiinae, are polyphyletic. A limited sampling within Chenopodieae and lack of additional evidence from other data sources restrained Flores Olvera and Davis (2001) from translating their results into a new classification of the tribe. Zacharias' (2007) and Zacharias and Baldwin's (in press) molecular analyses of Atripliceae showed that neither Atriplex, as traditionally recognized, nor the North American members of Atriplex constitute a monophyletic group.

This study aims to clarify the systematics and phylogeny of Atripliceae using a complete sampling of genera traditionally assigned to Atripliceae, extensive sampling of the large genus Atriplex and a broad sampling of other genera of Chenopodioideae. Three molecular markers (rbcL gene, atpB-rbcL spacer, and ITS) were sequenced and analyzed with the program BEAST v1.4.8 (Drummond and Rambaut, 2007), which estimates topology and branch lengths simultaneously from the data using a Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) analysis. The resulting topologies and dated major splits allowed us to obtain the first general idea of the historical biogeography and diversification of the cosmopolitan Atripliceae based on molecular evidence. With the aid of the molecular trees, we aim to understand the evolution of flower and fruit morphology, especially the evolution of persistent and strongly modified fruiting bracts and the evolution of separation of sexes within the tribe. Furthermore, we will investigate the origin and age of C₄ photosynthesis in *Atriplex*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Taxon sampling—We included all genera currently recognized and traditionally assigned to Atripliceae. We used multiple samples of *Atriplex* to represent the biogeographical and morphological diversity of this large and widespread genus. Furthermore, we included most genera currently assigned to Chenopodieae with several samples of the large, polyphyletic genus *Chenopodium*.

We are in the fortunate situation that up to 50-yr-old herbarium material can be used for sequencing in Chenopodiaceae if the material was nicely dried and kept dry. Therefore, in this study, we mostly extracted DNA from herbarium material. In some cases, we used samples that were dried in silica gel, and for the Australian species of *Atriplex*, we used leaves preserved in saturated NaCl-CTAB solution supplemented with 200 mM sodium ascorbate (Thomson, 2002). Voucher information for all samples is listed in Appendix 1.

DNA extraction—For DNA extraction, the NucleoSpin plant DNA extraction kit (Macherey & Nagel, Düren, Germany) or the DNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, California, USA) was used following the manufacturer's specifications, or samples were extracted using the CTAB extraction protocol of Doyle and Doyle (1987).

Amplification and sequencing—For amplification and sequencing protocols of the *rbcL* gene, we refer to Kadereit et al. (2003) and for the *atpB-rbcL* spacer and ITS to Kadereit et al. (2005, 2006), Mavrodiev et al. (2005), and Zacharias and Baldwin (in press).

Alignment—All obtained chromatograms were edited in the program Sequencer version 4.8 (GeneCodes Corp., Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA) or ABI Prism Sequence Navigator software (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, California, USA), and partial sequences of the *rbcL* gene were assembled to a consensus sequence for each taxon. The alignment for all three markers was done manually in Sequencer 4.8 and was straightforward due to moderate sequence variation (even in the mutational hotspots of the *atpB-rbcL* spacer). Indels were not coded in the ITS data set but treated as missing data. In the *atpB-rbcL* spacer data set, only six informative indels (outside the mutational hotspots of the spacer) were coded as transversions.

Phylogeny inference and divergence time estimation—The three data sets were analyzed separately using BEAST (Bayesian Evolutionary Analysis by Sampling Trees v1.4.8; Drummond and Rambaut, 2007), which simultaneously estimates tree topology and divergence times. The BEAST.xml input files (available from the corresponding author upon request) were created with the Bayesian Evolutionary Analysis Utility v1.4.8 (BEAUti; implemented in BEAST; Drummond and Rambaut, 2007). For the rbcL and atpB-rbcL spacer analyses representatives of Corispermoideae were chosen as outgroup according to the results of Müller and Borsch (2005) and Kadereit and Freitag (2010). The ingroup was defined as monophyletic to set the root at the split between Chenopodioideae and Corispermoideae. The substitution model parameters were set to those of GTR+G+I based on the program MODELTEST 3.7 (Posada and Crandall, 1998). The relaxed Bayesian clock was implemented with rates for each branch drawn independently from a lognormal distribution (Drummond et al., 2006). A birth and death prior was set for branch lengths. In the rbcL and atpB-rbcL spacer analyses the root age was set to 57-55 Ma with the uniform prior. This calibration was done according to earlier branch dating of the Amaranthaceae/Chenopodiaceae alliance that included the reliable fossils available (Kadereit et al., 2003; Kadereit and Freitag, 2010). In the ITS analysis, the root age was set to 30-29 Ma with the uniform prior according to the results of the rbcL and atpB-rbcL spacer analyses. Other priors were in default settings and the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC; Drummond et al., 2002) was initiated on a random starting tree. The first runs were used to examine MCMC performance, and operators were adjusted as suggested by the output analysis. The final run was performed with 10000000 (rbcL) or 20000000 (atpB-rbcL spacer and ITS) iterations, a burn-in of 10% and a sample frequency of 1000. After assessing convergence in the program Tracer v1.4.1 (Rambaut and Drummond, 2007) as described in the BEAST manual (Drummond et al., 2007), the maximum clade credibility tree was summarized in the program TreeAnnotator v1.4.8 (Drummond and Rambaut, 2007) with a posterior probability (post. prob.) limit of 0.7 and summarizing mean node heights. The summary trees were edited in the program FigTree v1.2.2 (Rambaut, 2006).

Morphological and anatomical studies—Samples for morphological and anatomical studies were taken (with curatorial permission) from specimens of E, GH, K, LE, MHA, and MW or from collections made by the authors. Samples preserved in 70% ethanol from European Russia, the Mediterranean area, and Central Asia were included in the study. The fruit anatomy of numerous representatives of the tribe was studied comparatively. Anatomical sections were made by hand. Dry samples were soaked in an ethanol:glycerol:water (1:1:1) solution for several days prior to sectioning.

RESULTS

rbcL—The matrix comprised 1343 characters and 60 taxa. The three representatives of Corispermoideae were chosen as outgroup. The data set contained 229 variable sites (17.1%) of which 104 (7.7%) occurred in only one sample. The tree resulting from the analysis with BEAST is shown in Fig. 1. The rbcL analysis revealed a number of well-supported major clades within Chenopodioideae: Atripliceae, Axyrideae (trib. nov.), Chenopodieae I, Chenopodieae II, and Dysphanieae. Three species form clades on their own that cannot be assigned to any of these major clades. These are Microgynoecium tibeticum, Chenopodium urbicum, and C. coronopus. The placement of the latter two within Chenopodioideae requires further sampling because they do not group within the Chenopodieae clades. Microgynoecium tibeticum forms a well-supported clade with

Atripliceae and Chenopodieae I. A sister group relationship of *M. tibeticum* and Chenopodieae I is resolved in the *rbcL* tree, but this receives only weak support (post. prob. 0.76). Within Atripliceae a well-supported, basal split into two clades (the *Atriplex* clade and the *Archiatriplex* clade) was found. The *Atriplex* clade contains the representatives of *Halimione* and *Atriplex* (including *Cremnophyton*) as well-supported sister lineages. The *Archiatriplex* clade comprises *Archiatriplex*, *Exomis, Manochlamys, Extriplex* (gen. nov. ined.), *Grayia*, and *Stutzia* (gen. nov. ined.).

atpB-rbcL spacer—The matrix comprised 829 characters and 100 taxa. The three representatives of Corispermoideae were chosen as outgroups. The data set contained 291 variable sites (35.1%), of which 101 (12.2%) occurred in only one sample. The tree resulting from the Bayesian analysis with BEAST (Fig. 2) is largely congruent with the rbcL tree (Fig. 1). Like the rbcL analysis, the atpB-rbcL spacer analysis revealed the same major clades (Atripliceae, Axyrideae, Chenopodieae I, Chenopodieae II, and Dysphanieae) with high statistical support. The main difference between the rbcL analysis and the atpBrbcL spacer analysis is the position of the Dysphanieae. They are resolved as sister to Axyrideae plus Chenopodium urbicum in the atpB-rbcL spacer analysis (with moderate support) and as sister to a clade comprising Chenopodieae I and II, Atripliceae, Microgynoecium and Chenopodium coronopus in the rbcL analysis. Again Atripliceae are most closely related to Microgynoecium and Chenopodieae I. The three clades form a polytomy. Atripliceae are subdivided into *Atriplex* clade and *Archiatriplex* clade as in the rbcL analysis. Similar to the rbcL tree. the Atriplex clade shows a sister group relationship of Halimione and Atriplex (including Cremnophyton), and the Archiatriplex clade comprises the same genera, as well as *Holmbergia*, which was not sampled for the rbcL analysis. The Archiatriplex clade has lower support in the atpB-rbcL spacer tree than in the rbcL gene tree but has better resolution. Archiatriplex is sister to the remaining genera. Exomis, Manochlamys, and Holmbergia form a well-supported monophyletic lineage and Extriplex, Stutzia covillei (comb. nov. ined.), and Grayia form a well-supported monophyletic lineage, but Stutzia is not supported. The position of *S. dioica* (comb. nov. ined.) remains unresolved.

ITS—The aligned ITS matrix of 122 Atripliceae and Chenopodium frutescens (a representative of Chenopodieae I) as outgroup, comprised 613 base positions. Of these, 234 (38.2%) were polymorphic, and 70 (11.4%) polymorphisms occurred in only one sample. The tree resulting from the Bayesian analysis with BEAST is shown in Fig. 3. As in the cp data analyses, the same two major clades of Atripliceae are resolved, the Archiatriplex clade and the Atriplex clade. Within the Archiatriplex clade, Microgynoecium is sister to Archiatriplex plus the remaining genera. This sister group relationship receives only low statistical support (post. prob. 0.82). Archiatriplex is sister to the remaining genera. Within the latter clade, only the North American C₃ Atripliceae (Proatriplex, Grayia [including Zuckia], Extriplex, and Stutzia) receive moderate statistical support. The relationships of Exomis, Manochlamys, Holmber-

gia, and the North American C_3 Atripliceae remain unclear (Fig. 3). Within the Atriplex clade, Halimione is sister to Atriplex (including Cremnophyton). Within Halimione, the annual H. pedunculata is sister to the perennial H. portulacoides and H. verrucifera. Atriplex cana and Cremnophyton seem to form a basal grade within Atriplex. There are a number of well-supported lineages within Atriplex that will be described in detail in the discussion. Among these are the C_4 species of the genus that form a well-supported monophyletic lineage (post. prob. 0.99; Fig. 3).

The molecular clock estimates for the major splits in Atripliceae gained from the three data sets are summarized in Table 3.

Morphological and anatomical studies of flowers and fruits—The results of our survey of flower morphology and fruit anatomy are presented in Table 4. They are mostly based on our own observations, but we also considered the relevant literature as indicated in Table 4.

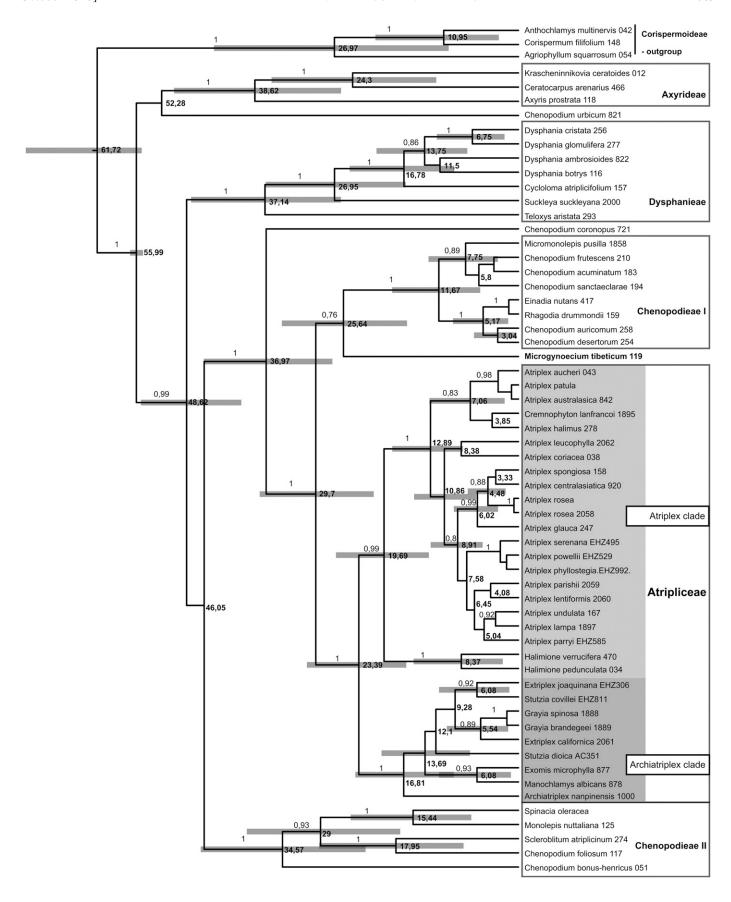
DISCUSSION

A new circumscription of Atripliceae—The molecular data presented here show congruent results concerning the phylogenetic relationships of genera traditionally assigned to Atripliceae (Figs. 1-3). The following 10 genera are part of a well-supported Atripliceae clade: Archiatriplex, Atriplex (including Blackiella, Cremnophyton, Haloxanthium, Neopreissia, Obione, Pachypharynx, Senniella, Theleophyton), Exomis, Extriplex, Grayia (including Zuckia), Halimione, Holmbergia, Manochlamys, Proatriplex, and Stutzia. The assignment of the Himalayan genus *Microgynoecium* to Atripliceae is not unambiguously supported by molecular data. Later, we make a case for the inclusion of *Microgynoecium* in Atripliceae on the basis of morphological data and weak support from the atpB-rbcL spacer and ITS (Figs. 2, 3). Three of the four genera traditionally classified as subtribe Eurotiinae, viz. Axyris, Ceratocarpus, and Krascheninnikovia (Table 2), and also Spinacia and Suckleya clearly do not belong to Atripliceae as circumscribed here. Spinacia seems to be closely related to the American and Siberian genus Monolepis, the Australian genus Scleroblitum and to representatives of Chenopodium subgenus Blitum. Suckleya is closely related to Dysphania, Teloxys, and Cycloloma. The three genera of subtribe Axyridinae (former Eurotiinae nom. illeg.) form a well-supported clade that is not closely related to any other clade of the Chenopodioideae but is part of a basal grade. Finally, Holmbergia is the only genus that was previously classified in Chenopodieae but that clearly belongs to Atripliceae.

Within Atripliceae, the molecular analyses revealed that the 10 genera listed above fall into two clades, here named the *Archiatriplex* clade and the *Atriplex* clade. These results corroborate the findings of Zacharias (2007) and Zacharias and Baldwin (in press), who showed this basal split in the tribe (with sampling focused on the American genera). The *Archiatriplex* clade consists of a large number of small genera that show great morphological diversity and a widely disjunct distribution. These are *Archiatriplex*, *Exomis*, *Extriplex*, *Grayia* (including *Zuckia*),

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Fig. 1. Phylogeny of Chenopodioideae based on *rbcL* sequence data and a BEAST analysis. Posterior probabilities higher than 0.7 are indicated above branches, estimates of node ages are given behind the respective node, and the corresponding bars represent 95% confidence intervals. For the position of fossils used for calibration, see text.



Holmbergia, Manochlamys, Proatriplex, and Stutzia (Figs. 1–3; Tables 1, 2). The Atriplex clade contains the majority of species but only two genera, Atriplex and Halimione.

Excluded genera and their position within Chenopodioideae-Spinacia-Spinacia is a small genus of annual or biennial herbs distributed in the Irano-Turanian floristic region. Spinacia oleracea is widely known as an important vegetable cultivated nearly worldwide. The placement of the genus within Atripliceae has never been doubted because it has unisexual flowers and perianth-less female flowers with two rounded, connate bracts. These bracts are stout in Spinacia, often have 2–6 teeth along their margin and have been interpreted as sepals by some authors (Eichler, 1878; Cohn, 1914; Sherry et al., 1993; Sather et al., 2005). A closer look at the anatomy of this bract or perianth cover revealed five zones (Fig. 4A): an outer epidermis, a chlorenchyma, a sclerenchymatic parenchyma orientated perpendicular to its long axis, 1-2 crystalliferous layer(s) with 1-3 rhombic monocrystals and an inner epidermis. This bract anatomy of Spinacia is more complex than the bract anatomy found in species of Atriplex so far. The bracts of Atriplex do not possess crystalliferous layer(s), the crystals are dispersed in the parenchyma and occur only as druses. Also, there is no continuous sclerenchymatic parenchyma in the bracts of Atriplex species studied so far, except for A. fera. However, in A. fera the mechanical tissue consisting of manylayered true sclereids is orientated differently indicating the parallel evolution of this feature (Fig. 4B). Interestingly, A. fera had been included in Spinacia as S. fera L. (Linné, 1764) or S. divaricata Turcz. ex Moq. [nomen] (Moquin-Tandon, 1849).

A complex bract anatomy may be one character that separates *Spinacia* from Atripliceae, but the bract anatomy of some Atripliceae groups is not known yet. Further morphological characters that support the exclusion of *Spinacia* from Atripliceae are (1) absence of bladder hairs, (2) 4–5 styles vs. 2 (or more rarely 3) as in other Atripliceae, (3) a deviating chromosome number of x = 6 instead of x = 9 (Ellis and Janick, 1960; Fedorov, 1969; Turner, 1994), (4) a different branching pattern in the reproductive part (Urmi-König, 1981), and (5) a distinct pollen morphology (Flores Olvera et al., 2006).

In the molecular trees (Figs. 1, 2), *Spinacia* is nested among representatives of *Monolepis*, *Scleroblitum*, and *Chenopodium* subgenus *Blitum*. This is a rather heterogeneous clade within Chenopodioideae with a number of intercontinental disjuncts. Neither *Chenopodium* subgenus *Blitum* nor *Monolepis* have been sufficiently sampled in this study. Therefore, the resolution of the detailed phylogenetic relationships of *Spinacia* has to await further studies.

Suckleya—Suckleya is a monotypic genus with one succulent annual species that is distributed in western North America from southern Alberta to northwestern Texas. Chu et al. (1991) classified the genus within the monogeneric subtribe Suckleyinae of Chenopodieae based on its character combination of unisexual flowers, female flowers with four tepals, and superior radicles. This new subtribe of Chenopodieae was not accepted in subsequent treatments (e.g., Kühn et al., 1993). The place-

ment of the genus in Atripliceae, however, has also been questioned in a recent palynological analysis in which this genus differed from all other genera of Atripliceae in a remarkably small pollen diameter of 13-18 µm and a comparatively small number of pores of 28–36 (Flores Olvera et al., 2006). In their molecular study of North American Atripliceae Zacharias and Baldwin (in press) initially included a sample of *Suckleya suckleyana* but excluded it from the data set because of extensive sequence divergence. They suspected that the genus is more closely related to *Chenopodium*.

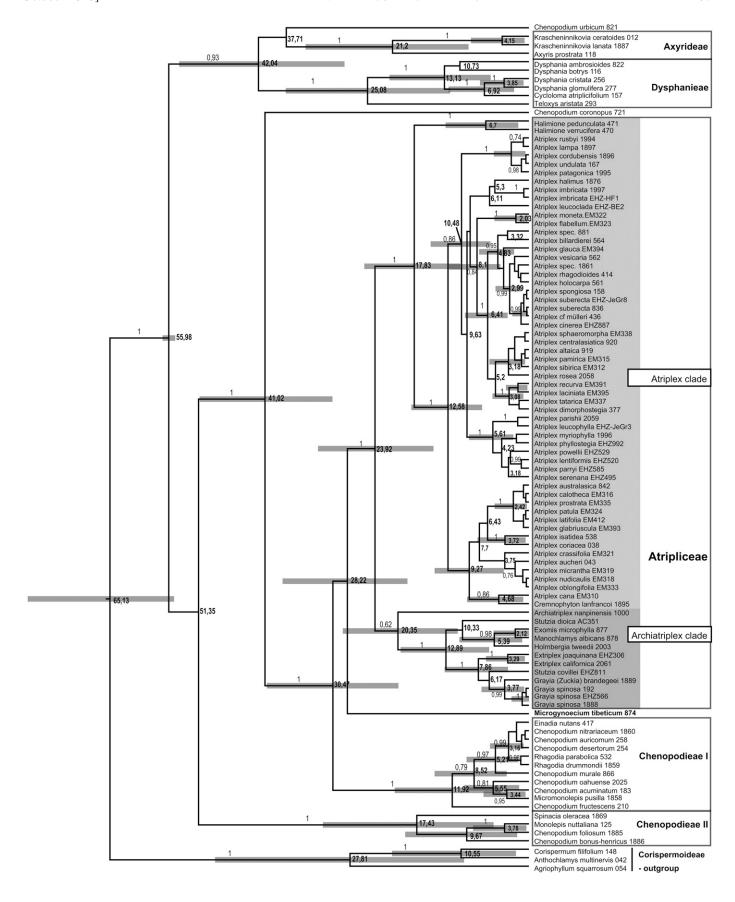
In our molecular analysis, *Suckleya* is closely related to *Dysphania*, *Cycloloma*, and *Teloxys* and therefore the exclusion from Atripliceae is clearly confirmed (Fig. 1). *Dysphania* and *Teloxys* (which is sometimes included in *Dysphania*) are characterized by the presence of typical glandular trichomes (Mosyakin and Clemants, 2002). *Suckleya*, however, has inflated unicellular trichomes (Chu et al., 1991), and *Cycloloma* has uniseriate trichomes (E. Zacharias and A. Sukhorukov, personal observation).

Axyridinae(Axyris, Ceratocarpus, and Krascheninnikovia)— Heklau and Röser (2008) conducted a morphological, morphometric, and molecular analysis of subtribe Axyridinae and found in a tree based on ITS sequence data that Axyris, Ceratocarpus and Krascheninnikovia form a well-supported clade in which Krascheninnikovia is sister to Axyris plus Ceratocarpus. This finding is only partly supported by our rbcL and atpB-rbcL data. Our molecular data support the monophyly of Axyris, Ceratocarpus and Krascheninnikovia, albeit Axyris is sister to Ceratocarpus plus Krascheninnikovia (Fig. 1). The Axyridinae are characterized by stellate hairs, which are missing in *Grayia*, a genus traditionally also classified in Eurotiinae (= Axyridinae; compare Table 1). Due to a limited outgroup sampling the position of Grayia remained unsettled in Heklau and Röser (2008). This study shows that Grayia is part of the Archiatriplex clade and therefore remains within Atripliceae and that the Axyridinae are part of the basal grade of Chenopodioideae and not of Atripliceae. The exact placement of Axyridinae within Chenopodioideae has to be clarified in further molecular studies with an improved sampling of the large and obviously polyphyletic genus *Chenopo*dium. Because of its isolated position within Chenopodioideae and because of its unique characters (stellate indumentum, absence of the "stalactites" in the outer cell walls of the testa in contrast to Chenopodieae and Atripliceae), this group is raised to tribal level, Axyrideae tribus nov. (see taxonomic

The split between Axyris and Ceratocarpus plus Krascheninnikovia is supported by flower and fruit morphology. The female flowers of Ceratocarpus and Krascheninnikovia lack a perianth, while in Axyris female flowers have a perianth that consists of three tepals. These tepals remain unchanged in the fruiting stage and do not develop into dispersal-enhancing structures. In Axyris, the pericarp adheres to the seed coat, and heterocarpy and heterospermy has been observed (Sukhorukov, 2005). Fruits on the same individual differ in the number of pericarp layers and the presence of sclereids, and the seeds differ

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Fig. 2. Phylogeny of Chenopodioideae based on *atpB-rbcL* spacer sequence data and a BEAST analysis. Posterior probabilities higher than 0.7 are indicated above branches, estimates of node ages are given behind the respective node, and the corresponding bars represent 95% confidence intervals. For the position of fossils used for calibration, see text.



in thickness of the testa. In *Ceratocarpus* and *Krascheninnikovia* the female flowers are enclosed by two bracts that persist in the fruiting stage and fall off together with the fruit. Both genera have only one fruit/seed type, the pericarp is not adherent, and the testa is always thin and consists of two simple layers (Takhtajan, 1934; Butnik, 1981, 1991; A. Sukhorukov, unpublished results).

Our study clearly indicates that the typical female flower of Atripliceae with two persistent bracts arose two times independently in Chenopodioideae: (1) in the ancestor of Atripliceae (as defined here) and (2) in the common ancestor of *Ceratocarpus* and *Krascheninnikovia* (Fig. 1).

Relationships within Atripliceae—Microgynoecium—The relationships of Microgynoecium remained unclear in our molecular analyses. The monotypic genus is either resolved as sister to Chenopodieae I (with low support; Fig. 1), as sister to Atripliceae (without support; Fig. 2), or within Atripliceae, as sister to the Archiatriplex clade (with low support; Fig. 3). The morphological data, however, point to a closer affinity to Atripliceae than to Chenopodieae I and therefore support the topology found with the atpB-rbcL spacer and with ITS. Like the majority of Atripliceae, Microgynoecium has unisexual flowers with female flowers having two bracts and no perianth (Table 4). The bracts of the female flowers enclose the ovary in the fruiting stage and are slightly enlarged (A. Sukhorukov, personal observation). The female flowers are clustered in the axil of a subtending bract. This latter character is probably a plesiomorphic character state in the Archiatriplex clade (see below) and further supports the affinity of *Microgynoecium* to *Atripliceae*.

Microgynoecium grows in alpine meadows and disturbed sites in the Himalayan and Pamir mountains (Pratov, 1972; Zhu et al., 2003). Its unique fruit morphology with an irregular detachment of the pericarp from the seed coat is also known from some species of subf. Corispermoideae (Sukhorukov, 2007b). In Chenopodiodeae, such detachment is found in *Axyris* and some species of *Chenopodium*; however, it is restricted to the upper part of the fruit (Sukhorukov, 2005; A. Sukhorukov, unpublished results).

Archiatriplex clade—The Archiatriplex clade consists of Archiatriplex, Exomis, Extriplex, Grayia (including Zuckia), Holmbergia, Manochlamys, Proatriplex, and Stutzia (Figs. 1–3; compare also the findings in Zacharias and Baldwin, in press). All these genera are either monotypic (Archiatriplex, Exomis, Holmbergia, Manochlamys, Proatriplex) or consist of a few species only (Table 1). The Archiatriplex clade shows a disjunct distribution in Central China, North and South America, and South Africa. Most genera have relatively long branches, but their relationship remains partly unsettled due to short basal branches. This disjunctly distributed, species-poor clade, that consists of relatively old and morphologically heterogeneous lineages, probably represents the remnants of a formerly widely distributed and species-rich lineage (see below). Recovering the true phylogenetic relationships within the Archiatriplex clade is most likely hampered by rampant extinction in this lineage.

Archiatriplex—Chu (1987) discovered Archiatriplex, which is only known from a small area in northern Sichuan province of China, near Nanping. Its only species (A. nanpinensis) grows at an altitude of around 2100 m a.s.l. and was collected on the edges of bushy vegetation and on the banks of terraced farms. Chu (1987) recognized that this new genus represents a rather primitive member of the Atripliceae and pointed out that it has affinities to Microgynoecium. Both genera are small herbs and have foliaceous bracts that subtend several carpellate flowers. Archiatriplex is monoecious with the male flowers having five tepals and the female flowers having 3–4 tepals.

All the molecular trees presented here resolve *Archiatriplex* as sister to the other genera of the *Archiatriplex* clade, albeit with high statistical support only in the ITS data set (Fig. 3).

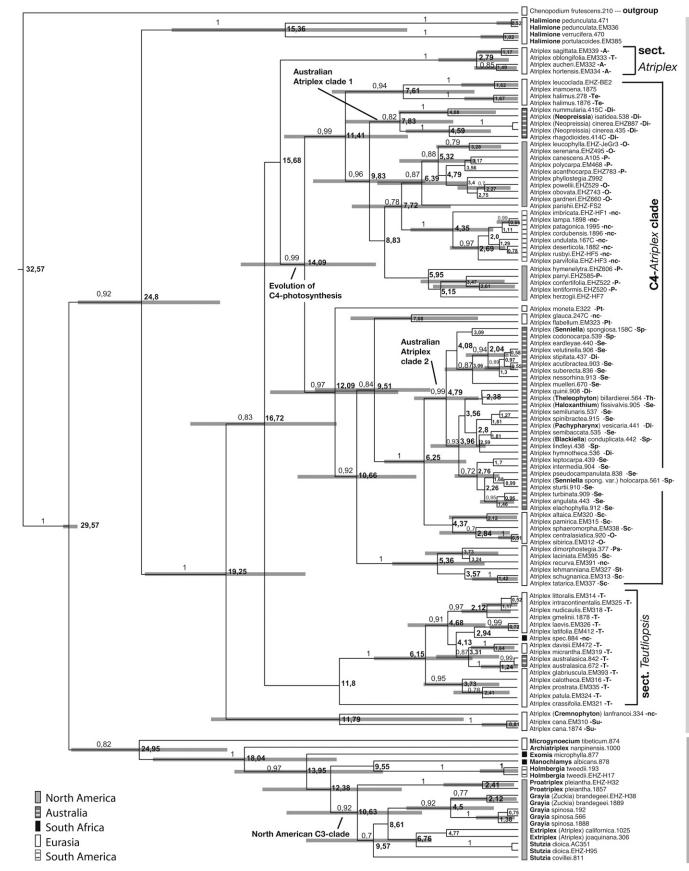
Holmbergia—Our molecular analyses showed that Holmbergia traditionally assigned to Chenopodieae (Table 2) belongs to Atripliceae. This placement supports previous molecular findings that were based on a smaller sample (Kadereit et al., 2003; Zacharias and Baldwin, in press). The assignment to Chenopodieae was based on the morphology of the female flowers in Holmbergia. These are ebracteate and have a perianth that consists of five tepals, which do not take part in fruit development. Ulbrich (1934) suspected Holmbergia to be a species of Rhagodia introduced to South America from Australia, and Scott (1978) placed Holmbergia in Rhagodiinae A. J. Scott, together with Rhagodia and Einadia from Australia and New Zealand. This new subtribe of Chenopodieae was based on the succulent pericarp and predominantly unisexual flowers. The anatomy of the pericarp is, however, different in *Rhagodia* and *Holmbergia*. While in *Rhagodia*, the pericarp has approximately three layers and is truly fleshy and spongy, the 3-5(6)-layered, undifferentiated pericarp of *Holmbergia* is dry, and the reddish appearance of the fruit is caused by the hard, dark red-brown testa (Fig. 4C). Berry-like fruits evolved several times in Chenopodiaceae in rather isolated positions. This character state does not seem to be phylogenetically informative in the family. The few berryfruited taxa of Camphorosmeae, for example, represent three independent lineages (Cabrera et al., 2009). The monophyly of Rhagodia and/or Einadia and the relationships of these genera to Australian *Chenopodium* have not been resolved with molecular data yet. Our analyses, which included only a limited sample of these groups, indicate that *Rhagodia* and *Einadia* might be nested among Australian species of *Chenopodium* (Figs. 1, 2).

The closest relative of *Holmbergia* within the *Archiatriplex* clade remains unresolved. The genus is part of a polytomy consisting of *Exomis*, *Manochlamys*, and the North American representatives of this clade in the ITS analysis (Fig. 3) and sister to *Exomis* and *Manochlamys* in the *atpB-rbcL* analysis (Fig. 2). Morphologically, *Holmbergia* does not show particular similarities to any of the other genera of the *Archiatriplex* clade.

Exomis and Manochlamys—The two monotypic South African genera Exomis and Manochlamys have been treated under Exomis by Kühn et al. (1993). While Exomis microphylla is

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Fig. 3. Phylogeny of Atripliceae based on ITS sequence data and a BEAST analysis. Posterior probabilities higher than 0.7 are indicated above branches, estimates of node ages are given behind the respective node, and the corresponding bars represent 95% confidence intervals. For the position of fossils used for calibration see text. Subgenus and section abbreviations: A = sect. *Atriplex*, At = sect. *Atriplicina*, Di = sect. *Dialysex*, O = sect. *Obione*, P = sect. *Pterochiton*, Ps = sect. *Psammophila*, Pt = subgen. *Pterotheca*, Sc = sect. *Sclerocalymna*, Se = sect. *Semibaccatae*, Sp = sect. *Spongiocarpus*, St = sect. *Stylosa*, Su = sect. *Suffruticosae*, T = sect. *Teutliopsis*, Te = sect. Teutlioides, Th = sect. Theleophyton, nc = not classified.



found as a weed in gardens and hedges, *Manochlamys* grows on rocky or sandy hillsides, sand dunes, and along roads. The sister group relationship of the two subshrubby genera is supported by the *rbcL* data (Fig. 1) with moderate statistical support. Manochlamys and Exomis differ morphologically in the following three main characters (compare Aellen, 1939b; Aellen, 1967): (1) The female flowers of Manochlamys consist of two unequal fleshy bracts that later cover the fruit and a 2–4-lobed, membraneous, small perianth, while the female flowers of Exomis are aggregated (1 to several) in the axils of two narrowlanceolate bracts. The female flowers of *Exomis* either lack a perianth or have a strongly reduced, thin, translucent ring around the ovary or two small, thin, and translucent lobes opposite the bracts. (2) The inflorescence of Manochlamys is not leafy, while that of Exomis is leafy throughout. (3) The tepals of the male and bisexual flowers are connate in Manochlamys, while they are only basally united in Exomis. The two genera also differ in fruit anatomy. Manochlamys has a thick pericarp consisting of several layers of inflated, isodiametrical cells (Fig. 4D), while Exomis has a thin pericarp (also consisting of isodiametrical cells) with papillae-shaped bladder hairs. In both genera, the cells of the exotesta have numerous drops containing tannins (Fig. 4D). We consider Manochlamys and Exomis as morphologically and molecular distinct and prefer—as had been suggested by Aellen (1939b)—to recognize both genera.

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Proatriplex—Proatriplex is a western North American annual with clusters of female flowers enclosed by a pair of subtending bracts, female flowers with a perianth, and radicles pointing downward. Weber (1950) initially included P. pleiantha within Atriplex and hypothesized that it was a primitive member of the genus, but Stutz and Chu (in Stutz et al., 1990) emphasized its distinctness when they treated Weber's subgenus, Proatriplex, at genus rank. This view was also supported by Judd and Ferguson (1999). Zacharias and Baldwin (in press) showed it to be more closely related to the other North American genera of Atripliceae and Holmbergia than to Atriplex. In our study, the ITS data resolved Proatriplex as sister to the other North American members of the Archiatriplex clade with moderate support.

Proatriplex has a distinct fruit anatomy (Fig. 4E). The pericarp is single-layered, compressed, and adheres tightly to the testa. The outer cell walls of the pericarp are thick. In cross section, the outline of the testa appears wavy, and its thickness varies between 20 and 35 μm. Such a wavy outline of the testa is uncommon in Chenopodioideae. It has been observed in *Chenopodium hybridum* and *C. simplex* in section *Grossefoveata* (A. Sukhorukov, unpublished data) but not in other members of Atripliceae. The cells of the exotesta have characteristic oblique cell wall fortifications (Fig. 4E).

Stutzia—Zacharias and Baldwin (in press) plan to replace the name Endolepis Torr. (1860), which is a later homonym of Endolepis Schleid. (1846), with Stutzia ined. These two species of Stutzia are western North American annuals with perianths in the female flowers, radicles pointing upward, and fused bracts; no other species in the Archiatriplex clade shares this combination of characters. However, the relationships of S. covillei and S. dioica to each other and to other members of the Archiatriplex clade are not well supported by the molecular data. In most analyses, they are part of the North American lineage within the Archiatriplex clade (with the exception of S. dioica in the atpB-rbcL analysis, which shows it as sister to the Holmbergia, Exomis, and Manochlamys clade but with no statistical support).

Zacharias and Baldwin (in press) showed both species to be part of a grade with other sampled members having female flowers with perianths (*Holmbergia* and *Proatriplex*), although their relationships to each other were not clear. See Zacharias and Baldwin (in press) for further discussion of the systematics of this genus.

Morphologically, *Stutzia* is very similar to *Atriplex*. One difference is the presence of a small perianth in the female flowers, which is rare in *Atriplex*. The fruit anatomy is simple (as in most species of *Atriplex*) with a thin, one-layered pericarp and a thin testa $(3-5 \mu m)$.

Extriplex—The two species of Extriplex have radicles that point laterally, 4-lobed perianths in the male flowers, perianthless female flowers, and are endemic to the California Floristic Province. The relationships of E. joaquinana (comb. nov. ined.) and E. californica (comb. nov. ined.) to each other and to other members of the Archiatriplex clade are not consistant across the molecular data. The genus has high support in the atpB-rbcL spacer tree (Fig. 2) but no support in the ITS tree (Fig. 3). The rbcL analysis places E. joaquinana as sister to Stutzia covillei with moderate support and E. californica sister to Grayia with low support (Fig. 1). The combined nrDNA and cpDNA analysis of Zacharias and Baldwin (in press) showed that Extriplex is a well-supported clade. See Zacharias and Baldwin (in press) for discussion.

Grayia (including Zuckia)—The two sampled species of Grayia are shrubs from western North America with female flowers without perianth and radicles that point downward. As shown in Zacharias and Baldwin (in press), the molecular data resolve Grayia (including Zuckia) with high support. The sister relationship of Grayia is not clear. Grayia is sister to Extriplex californica with moderate support in the rbcL tree (Fig. 1). The atpB-rbcL spacer tree does not show the sister group relationships of Grayia with support (Fig. 2). The ITS tree shows Grayia as sister to Extriplex plus S. dioica with no support (Fig. 3). Zacharias and Baldwin (in press) showed Grayia as sister to Extriplex with low support. See Zacharias and Baldwin (in press) for further discussion.

Atriplex clade—Halimione—The distinctness of the three species today either classified as *Halimione* (Aellen, 1938a) or as Atriplex sect. Halimus and Pedicellatae, which is here supported by molecular evidence, had already been recognized 190 years ago. At that time, the oblong, entire, and greyish-coated leaves and the totally concrescent bracts were regarded as diagnostic characters separating A. portulacoides [= Halimus portulacoides (L.) Dumort.], A. pedunculata [= H. pedunculatus (L.) Wallr.], and A. verrucifera M. Bieb. [= Halimus verruciferus (M. Bieb.) Claus] from other species of *Atriplex* (Gray, 1821; Wallroth, 1822; Meyer, 1833; Claus, 1851). Since then, a large number of Atriplex species have been described, and some of these show these same character states. Therefore, these characters cannot be regarded as unique in *Halimione* any longer (Sukhorukov, 2006). However, Aellen (1938a), who combined the three species under the name *Halimione*, found an excellent additional feature that separates Halimione from all other species of Atriplex. He discovered that the pericarp is tightly adherent to the adaxial side of the bracts. This diagnostic character for Halimione was validated by later studies, but-maybe for reasons of difficult assessment in the field-rarely used in floristic treatments (e.g., Grossheim, 1949; Skripnik, 1987; Nikitin and Geldikhanov, 1988; Romo, 2002).

Table 3. Results of the divergence time estimates (in Ma) calculated with program BEAST v1.4.8 (numbers given in brackets represent 95% confidence intervals)

Node	rbcL gene	atpB-rbcL spacer	ITS	Geological epoch
Stem age of Atripliceae excl. Microgynoecium	29.7 (37.9–21.2)	28.22 (38.3–18.9)	Crown age of Atripliceae	Late Oligocene
Crown group age of Atripliceae excl. <i>Microgynoecium</i> (= stem age of <i>Archiatriplex</i> clade and <i>Atriplex</i> clade)	23.4 (31.0–16.4)	23.9 (32.7–14.9)	incl. Microgynoecium set to 29 Ma	Early Miocene
Crown group age of the Atriplex clade	19.7 (26.7–13.1)	17.8 (25.5–10.7)	24.8 (29.4–19.2)	Early to Middle Miocene
(= stem age of <i>Atriplex</i> and <i>Halimione</i>)	16.0 (02.0.0.5)	20.4 (20.0.11.1)	24.0 (20.0 10.6)	F 1 4 M 111 M
Crown group age of the <i>Archiatriplex</i> clade Crown group age of <i>Atriplex</i>	16.8 (23.9–9.5) 12.9 (18.5–8.1)	20.4 (28.9–11.1) 12.6 (18.2–7.3)	24.9 (29.0–19.6) 19.3 (24.6–14.0)	Early to Middle Miocene Middle Miocene
Minimum age of C_4 photosynthesis in $Atriplex$	10.9 (15.3–6.2)	10.5 (15.2–6.0)	14.1 (18.3–9.4)	Middle to Late Miocene

In our own anatomical studies, we discovered a second synapomorphic character for *Halimione*. The seed coat of *Halimione* is thin and membranous and consists of two layers of simple, isodiametrical, translucent cells. In contrast, the seed coat of *Atriplex* consists of a hard, conspicuous testa that contains tannin and is therefore brownish and a 2–3-layered endotegmen (Fig. 4 F, G). The simple seedcoat anatomy of *Halimione* is very unusual among Chenopodioideae (compare Netolitzky, 1926; Butnik, 1981) and certainly supports its separated position within the *Atriplex* clade.

The molecular data congruently resolve *Halimione* as sister to *Atriplex* with high statistical support (Figs. 1–3). Because *Halimione* is also morphologically well defined, we recognize *Halimione* as a genus separate from *Atriplex*. The subdivision of *Halimione* into two sections as has been proposed by Sukhorukov (2006), albeit within *Atriplex*, i.e., *Atriplex* sect. *Halimus* (S. F. Gray) Sukhor. (*A. portulacoides* L., *A. verrucifera* M. Bieb.) and *Atriplex* sect. *Pedicellatae* Sukhor. (*A. pedunculata* L.), is supported by the ITS tree (Fig. 3).

Former "satellite genera" of Atriplex—The molecular analyses presented here revealed that *Obione, Blackiella, Haloxanthium, Neopreissia, Senniella,* and *Theleophyton* are best considered as congeneric with *Atriplex*. Figure 3 shows the position of these genera within *Atriplex*. For all these genera, a placement within *Atriplex* has been suggested before (Kühn et al., 1993; Table 2). *Morrisiella* (Aellen, 1937/1938; = *Atriplex morrisii* R. Anderson) was not available for this study, and *Pachypharynx* Aellen was described on the basis of gall-infected specimens (Wilson, 1984).

Obione is the largest genus segregated from Atriplex with c. 100 species worldwide. Its separation from Atriplex has been controversial (for a summary, see Flores Olvera, 2003) and is handled differently in flora treatments. However, mostly it had been recognized as a taxon either at subgenus or section level, and only few authors have accepted genus rank (e.g., Moquin-Tandon, 1840, 1849; Ulbrich, 1934; Aellen, 1938b). Obione was described by Gaertner (1791) and comprised those species that show an inverted position of the radicle of the embryo (pointing upward), whereas in Atriplex the radicle points downward or laterally. Species classified within Obione (or Atriplex sect. Obione) do not form a monophyletic group in the ITS tree (Fig. 3), which clearly documents that *Obione* or sect. Obione does not represent a natural group and that the position of the radicle is highly variable within Atriplex, just like the connation of the bracts. As pointed out already, these two characters seem to be functionally connected (compare Sukhorukov,

The monotypic genus *Theleophyton* was described by Moquin-Tandon (1849) on the basis of *Atriplex* sect. *Theleophyton*

Hook. f. The generic status was not accepted in recent treatments (e.g., Kühn et al., 1993; Wilson, 1984), but the separation on section level was accepted (Wilson, 1984). Atriplex (Theleophyton) billardierei shows the following combination of unique morphological characters that distinguishes it from all other species within the genus: (1) young leaves with watery bladder hairs, (2) male flowers with five tepals that are connate for at least half of their length, (3) connate bracts of female flowers forming an urceolate structure in fruit, and (4) a seed that is initially orientated parallel to the bracts but which twists during ripening so that it is at right angles to the bracts at maturity. The molecular data (Fig. 3) reveal that A. (Theleophyton) billardierei is nested among Australian Atriplex species of sect. Semibaccatae. Its sister group was not resolved because of low resolution in terminal branches of the Australian clade. Atriplex billardierei is a prostrate herb that grows on sandy beaches just above high tide level on the coasts of Victoria, Tasmania, and

The three Australian genera Senniella, Blackiella, and Morrisiella were all described and classified within a new subtribe Spongiocarpinae by Aellen (1937/1938). The diagnostic character of the subtribe is the connate, spongy bracts of the female flowers. All three genera were not accepted in subsequent treatments of the group (e.g., Wilson, 1984; Kühn et al., 1993). Here we sampled two representatives of Senniella (S. spongiosa var. spongiosa and S. spongiosa var. holocarpa) and one of Blackiella (B. conduplicata), which all resolve in different positions nested within the C_4 clade of Atriplex (Fig. 3), indicating that spongy fruiting bracts evolved several times independently within the C_4 clade of Atriplex.

The Australian genera *Haloxanthium* and *Neopreissia* were described by Ulbrich (1934). In Haloxanthium, Ulbrich included two species, *H. quadrivalvatum* (Diels) Ulbrich and *H.* fissivalve (F. Muell.) Ulbrich, that both differ from Atriplex in having deeply divided and elaborately lobed bracts with basal teeth that become hard during ripening (Ulbrich, 1934: fig. 195 U-W). According to Ulbrich (1934), the entire glomerulate female inflorescence is dispersed like a burweed. Our molecular results show *H. fissivalve* (= *Atriplex fissivalvis*) clearly nested within the large clade of Australian Atriplex species (Fig. 3). Closely related species cannot be inferred because of the low resolution in this part of the tree. In Neopreissia, Ulbrich included two species, N. isatidea (Moq.) Ulbrich and N. cinerea (Poir.) Ulbrich, that both have sessile bracts with a thick turbinate stipe. Both species were included in our ITS analysis. They are nested within Atriplex and appear closely related to each other. Together with A. nummularia and A. rhagodioides they form a second Australian lineage within Atriplex. Neither Haloxanthium nor Neopreissia were accepted by Wilson (1984) and Kühn et al. (1993).

TABLE 4. Survey of flower and fruit characters in genera of Chenopodioideae; data are mostly based on our own observations and those of Kühn et al. (1993), Ulbrich, (1934), Welsh (2003), and Wilson (1984).

TABLE 4. Continued.

e: no. act or ir; no.	Pistillate: no. flws/bract or bract pair; no. tepals; no. Staminate stigmas	Pistillate: no. flws/bract or	Pistillate: no
yalii yalii; air;) Ppals			Crominotes
air;) epals 1	2–6 5 (o	ebracteate; 5 tepals; 5 stamens	ual n/a ebracteate; 5 tepals; 5 stamens
air;) epals; d			
j.	practeate; 1/bract pair; tepals; $(1-)3(-5)$ stamens hyaline tepals; $3-4$ lobed	n/a ebracteate; 1/bract pair; 5 tepals; (1–)3(–5) 5 stamens hyaline tepals; 3–4 lobed	ebracteate; 5 tepals; 5 stamens
	oracteate; 1/bract pair; -5 tepals; 3 tepals -5 stamens	n/a ebracteate; 1/bract pair; 3-5 tepals; 3 tepals 2-5 stamens	ebracteate; 3–5 tepals; 2–5 stamens
air; sent	racteate; 1/bract pair; tepals; tepals absent stamen	n/a ebracteate; 1/bract pair; 2 tepals; tepals absent 1 stamen	ebracteate; 2 tepals; 1 stamen
air; sent	oracteate; 1/bract pair; tepals tepals absent	n/a ebracteate; 1/bract pair; 4 tepals tepals absent	ebracteate; 4 tepals
e; epals	5 stamens (2–)3–5 tepals	ebracteate; 3–5 tepals; perianth <5 stamens segments or lobes 3–5; stamens 5–3(–0); perianth green or hyaline, globose;	

Table 4. Continued.

				Flowers						Fruit		
					Pistillate: no. flws/bract or bract pair; no.	' 					Fruit inverted	
Taxon	Plant sex	Sex	Bisexual	Staminate	tepals; no. stigmas	Perianth in fruit a	Bract accrescence	Bract connation	Pericarp adherence	Seed position	(radicle orientation)	Miscellaneous notes
Einadia Raf.	polygamo- monoecious	terminal ebracteat flws of 4–5 cluster tepals; bisexual, 1–3 lateral ones stamens; mixillate 2 stiernass	ebracteate; 4–5 tepals; 1–3 stamens; 2 stiomas	n/a	ebracteate; 4–5 tepals, no staminodes	fruit not enveloped by perianth	n/a	n/a	pericarp membranous or succulent; adherence not known	horizontal	embryo annular	
Micromonolepis Ulbr.	monoecious	unisexual		ebracteate; (1–)2–3 tepals; 1–2 stamens	ebracteate; (1–)2–3 tepals; 2 stigmas	unchanged in fruit	n/a	n/a	adherent to the seed coat	vertical	embryo annular, radicle	seed coat with hair-like outgrowth
Monolepis Schrad. polygamo- monoeciou	. polygamo- monoecious	bisexual, some pistillate	1–3-lobed, or absent; 0–2 stamens; c)	n/a	n/a	unchanged in fruit	n/a	n/a	not adherent; loose when dry	vertical	inferior	
Rhagodia R.Br.	dioecous	unisexual	ı/a	bracts small or absent; 5 tepals; 5 stamens	bracts small or absent; tepals 5; staminodes; 2 stigmas	perianth lobes expanded in fruit	n/a	n/a	not adherent	horizontal	embryo annular	pericarp succulent with spongy cells (fruits berry-like)
Scleroblitum Ulbr.	polygamo- monoecious	terminal bisexual, others female	ebracteate; tepals 4, stamen 0 or 1	n/a	n/a	perianth cartilaginous	n/a	n/a	c.	vertical	inverted horsehoe- shaped	pericarp thick and hard, testa membranous
Spinacia L.	dioecious or monoecious	unisexual	n/a	ebracteate; 4–5 tepals; 4–5 stamens	bract-like perianth cover; 4–5 stigmas	hardened	cover	connate to the top	not adherent	vertical	superior	
Dysphanieae C <i>ycloloma</i> Moq.	polygamo- monoecious	bisexual, sometimes pistillate	ebracteate; perianth 5 lobed; stamens 5; stigmas 2-3	n/a	ebracteate; 5 tepals; 2–3 stigmas	perianth present in fruit, chartaceous with a broad horizontal annual ring	n/a	n/a	not adherent	horizontal	embryo annular	perianth segments form horizontally wings
<i>Dysphania</i> R.Br.	polygamo- monoecious	bisexual or pistillate	ebracteate; perianth segments (1–2)3–5; stamens 1–5; stigmas 2	n/a	ebracteate; (1–2)3–5 tepals; 2 stigmas	fruit enclosed by perianth	n/a	n/a	not adherent	vertical or horizontal	embryo annular, radicle lateral	

ABLE 4. Continue

				Flowers						Fruit		
Taxon	Plant sex	Sex	Bisexual	Bisexual Staminate	Pistillate: no. flws/bract or bract pair; no. tepals; no. stigmas	Perianth in Bract fruit accrescent	8	Bract connation	Pericarp adherence	Seed position	Fruit inverted (radicle orientation)	Miscellaneous notes
<i>Teloxys</i> Moq.	monoecious	bisexual or ebracteate; pistillate 3–5 perianth lobes; stamens 3–5; stigmas 2	ebracteate; 3–5 perianth lobes; stamens 3–5; stigmas	n/a	ebracteate; 3–5 tepals; 2 stigmas	unchanged in fruit	n/a	n/a	not adherent	horizontal	embryo annular, radicle lateral	
Suckleya A. Gray monoecious	monoecious	unisexual	n/a	ebracteate; 3–4 tepals; 3–4 stamens	ebracteate; 4 tepals	tepals enlarged in fruit	n/a	n/a	not adherent	vertical	embryo horse- style shoe-shaped, short radicle points	style short and wide

Atriplex hornensis, A. sagittata, A. aucheri—Dimorphic: pistillate flowers with perianth are ebracteate, pistillate flowers without perianth are between two bracts a Including: Blackiella Aellen, Haloxanthium Ulbr., Morrisiella Aellen, Obione Gaertner, Pachypharynx Aellen, Senniella Aellen, Theleophyton (Hook. f.) Moq.) ^c Terminal flowers of cluster with 3 tepals and 2 stamens; lateral flowers of cluster with 1 tepal and 1 stamen; sometimes perianth lacking and/or stamens lacking

Major lineages within Atriplex and comments on the traditional sectional division—While the resolution within Atriplex is low in the rbcL and the atpB-rbcL spacer tree (Figs. 1, 2), there are a number of well-supported clades in the ITS tree (Fig. 3). However, low statistical support of basal branches within the ITS tree makes it impossible to draw any definite conclusion of the relationships of these well-supported lineages. There is a basal polytomy consisting of the following clades: (1) Atriplex (Cremnophyton) lanfrancoi and Atriplex cana (two accessions; these two are resolved as a monophyletic group, albeit with very low support, Fig. 2), (2) Atriplex sect. Atriplex clade (4 spp.), (3) sect. Teutliopsis clade (17 species [18 accessions]), (4) C_4 clade (72 species [74 accessions]), (5) Atriplex crassifolia (Fig. 3). Although we included 100 accessions of Atriplex in the ITS data set, the genus is still not sufficiently sampled to infer an updated classification. Especially sections containing C₄ species are mostly polyphyletic and need further sampling (see below).

(1) Cremnophyton and Atriplex cana. The molecular data sets resolve the monotypic, Malta and Gozo endemic genus Cremnophyton as nested among C₃ species of Atriplex. The species probably is most closely related to A. cana, a species widely distributed in semideserts from western China to the eastern part of European Russia (Figs. 2, 3). Morphologically Cremnophyton and A. cana are not obviously similar to any other Eurasian Atriplex. Sukhorukov (2006) assumed that A. cana represents an old lineage of Atriplex, likewise Brullo and Pavone (1987) proposed that Cremnophyton represents a Tertiary (Oligocene/Miocene) relict. Although clearly resolved within Atriplex, both species branch off early within the genus (Figs. 2, 3).

Cremnophyton is a shrub and grows on limestone cliffs of Malta and Gozo (Brullo and Pavone, 1987), while A. cana is a dominant subshrub of certain plant formations in clayey, saline soils of Kazakhstanian semideserts. Leaves of Cremnophyton are spatulate and entire as in A. cana but also as in Halimione. Cremnophyton differs from all other species of Atriplex (including A. cana) by the basic chromosome number of x = 10(basic number in *Atriplex* is x = 9: Sukhorukov, 2006 and ref. therein) and by the presence of small bracts (only 1/4--1/5 the length of the petals) in male flowers (Brullo and Pavone, 1987). We found additional morphological characteristics of *Cremno*phyton. The bracts of the female flowers are sometimes unequal, the bracts adhere to the lower part of the fruit, and the radicle always points upward although the bracts are not connate along the margin. These two characters, direction of the radicle and degree of bract concrescence, have been found to be correlated in most Atriplex species with the result that the radicle points to the end of the concrescent part between the bracts (Sukhorukov, 2006). Because of its morphological and ecological distinctness, we consider Cremnophyton lanfrancoi an unmistakable species within *Atriplex* (see taxonomic part).

Morphologically, cytologically, and anatomically *A. cana* is not very different from other Eurasian species of *Atriplex*. It should, however, be noted that *A. cana* shows—in contrast to other shrubby *Atriplex* species in Eurasia—light-brown seeds with a thin (5–10 μm) outer seed coat layer.

(2) Atriplex sect. Atriplex (formerly sect. Dichospermum (Ulbrich, 1934)) seems to represent a natural group of annual C_3 species (Fig. 3). According to Sukhorukov (2006), it contains three species, A. hortensis (type species of the section), A. sagittata, and A. aucheri. Atriplex sect. Atriplex is supported here. Atriplex oblongifolia is classified in Atriplex sect. Teutliopsis

(Sukhorukov, 2006). Here we find that this species is closely related to species of *Atriplex* sect. *Atriplex*. Traditionally, *Atriplex* sect. *Atriplex* is characterized by containing annual species with large hastate leaves and two types of female flowers. One type has two bracts and vertically orientated seeds and the other has 3–5 tepals and horizontally orientated seeds. In *A. oblongifolia*, only the first type of female flowers occurs. The placement of this species in the type section was already proposed by Schwarz (2003) based on molecular data. This tree topology implies that the second female flower type was probably lost in *A. oblongifolia*. Also in *A. sagittata*, the reduction of the second type of female flowers sometimes occurs (Sukhorukov, 1999).

(3) Atriplex sect. Teutliopsis also contains annual C₃ species. The inflorescences consist of mixed female and male flowers without a spatial separation of the sexes. There is only the perianthless type of female flowers; female flowers with a perianth occur very rarely in this group (Gustafsson, 1986; Medvedeva, 1996). The two bracts are only connate up to half of their length in fruit and remain herbaceous (Aellen, 1939a; Sukhorukov, 2006). Atriplex sect. Teutliopsis represents a well-supported, natural group. The inclusion of A. davisii, a formerly poorly known species, in this group is supported by morphological data (Sukhorukov, 2007a; Sukhorukov and Danin, 2009).

(4) The C_4 clade is well supported and contains the majority of *Atriplex* species (Fig. 3). The Eurasian species of this clade belong to several different sections (namely sect. *Sclerocalymma*, sect. *Psammophila*, sect. *Stylosa*, sect. *Pterochiton* and sect. *Obione*). These sections were separated, for example, by growth form, the degree of connation of the two bracts, and seed morphology and color. None of these sections seems to represent a natural group.

There are two distinct Australian lineages within the C₄ clade; these are named Australian Atriplex clade 1 and clade 2 (Fig. 3). Australian Atriplex clade 1 contains four species, A. cinerea, A. isatidea, A. nummularia, and A. rhagodioides. These are all large and widespread shrubs that belong to Atriplex sect. *Dialysex* and have been considered closely related by previous authors (Wilson, 1984, Aellen 1937/1938). Other morphologically similar species that have not been sampled here such as Atriplex incrassata F. Muell. or A. amnicola Paul G. Wilson, might belong to this clade, too. The Australian Atriplex clade 2 consists of 27 species classified in four different sections, viz. sect. Spongiocarpus, sect. Semibaccatae, sect. Dialysex, and the monotypic sect. *Theleophyton*. Section *Spongiocarpus*, sect. Semibaccatae, and sect. Dialysex are clearly polyphyletic. Thirty-one of 57 endemic species of Australian Atriplex were sampled for this study. Although this already represents a broad sampling, more variable markers and an increased sampling are needed to understand the phylogeny of *Atriplex* in Australia.

The American species and the Australian Atriplex clade 1 are sister to each other in a well-supported clade within the C_4 clade (Fig. 3). The American species belong to sect. *Obione* and sect. Pterochiton. Section Pterochiton is polyphyletic. Within the American clade, there are two North American lineages (one is well supported) and one well-supported South American lineage. The ITS and chloroplast results are not congruent; increased taxonomic sampling is necessary to understand the relationships amongh the American Atriplex lineages.

The molecular data suggests that the traditional sections of the C_4 species are largely polyphyletic and that a revised classification of the C_4 species of *Atriplex* is needed. Such a revision, however, needs a better resolved and sampled molecular tree.

(5) Atriplex crassifolia. Aellen (1939a) classified A. crassifolia with A. patula in sect. Crassifolia. Later the species was included in sect. Teutliopsis (Sukhorukov, 2006). We are unaware of distinct morphological characters that would justify a separation from sect. Teutliopsis.

Biogeography of Atripliceae and the evolution of C_4 -photosynthesis—Like other subfamilies of Chenopodiaceae studied with molecular data (Suaedoideae: Schütze et al. [2003]; Betoideae: Hohmann et al. [2006]; Salicornioideae: Kadereit et al., [2006]; Camphorosmoideae: Kadereit and Freitag, 2010). Atripliceae seem to have their roots in Eurasia. *Microgynoecium* is distributed in Tibet, Himalaya, and Pamir, and the early branching clades of both major lineages of Atripliceae, the Atriplex clade and Archiatriplex clade, are also distributed in Eurasia (Fig. 3). In the Archiatriplex clade, this is Archiatriplex, which occurs in China, and in the Atriplex clade, these are Halimione, Atriplex cana, and Cremnophyton, and the Atriplex C3 clades, which are (mostly) distributed in Eurasia. The Atripliceae started to diversify during the Early Miocene (Table 3). The Atriplex clade and the Archiatriplex clade both are distributed worldwide—in Eurasia, North and South America, South Africa, and Australia (the latter only in the Atriplex clade). However, although of the same age, the two clades differ fundamentally in terms of internal divergence times and species diversification.

The Archiatriplex clade comprises only 12 spp., eight of them found in North America. The North American species seem to form a monophyletic clade (North American C_3 clade). Archiatriplex split from the rest of the clade c. 20.4–16.8 Ma. The relationships of Exomis, Manochlamys, Holmbergia, and the North American C_3 clade remain unresolved (see above). North America was either reached from South America or from South Africa, or its closest relative in Eurasia went extinct. North America was probably reached by the North American C_3 clade c. 12–10 Ma (Figs. 1–3). It likely slightly predates the arrival of the North American Atriplex C_4 lineage, which arrived c. 9 Ma (Fig. 3).

The *Atriplex* clade comprises c. 300 spp., the majority of them belonging to the C_4 lineage of *Atriplex*. The C_4 pathway likely arose only once in *Atriplex* (Fig. 3), and this C_4 lineage diversified, spread, and radiated on different continents. Branch dating of the molecular trees presented here shows that C_4 photosynthesis arose in *Atriplex* at least 14.1–10.9 Ma (Table 3). This dating of the C_4 origin in *Atriplex* supports the current view that the increased aridity and seasonality of the Miocene climate enhanced the origin of C_4 lineages (Osborne and Beerling, 2006; Behrensmeyer et al., 2007; Huang et al., 2007; Kürschner et al., 2008).

Australia was reached by C₄ Atriplex two times independently, once from Central Asia between 6.3 and 4.8 Ma, and once from Eurasia or America between 9.8 and 7.8 Ma (Fig. 3). The younger Australian *Atriplex* lineage (clade 2 in Fig. 3) radiated after its arrival on the continent and comprises most of the Australian species (G. Kadereit, unpublished results). The older Australian Atriplex lineage seems to comprise only a few species (clade 1 in Fig. 3). The arrival of Atriplex in Australia during the late Miocene agrees with the recent finding that the largest sthenurines kangaroo (*Procoptodon goliah*) was a browse specialist for *Atriplex* (Prideaux et al., 2009). The sthenurines kangaroos originated during the late Miocene and reached their highest diversity during the Pliocene spreading into the newly developing arid landscapes (Prideaux, 2004). The ITS tree presented here indicates that also the species-rich Australian Atriplex lineage radiated during the Pliocene (Fig. 3).

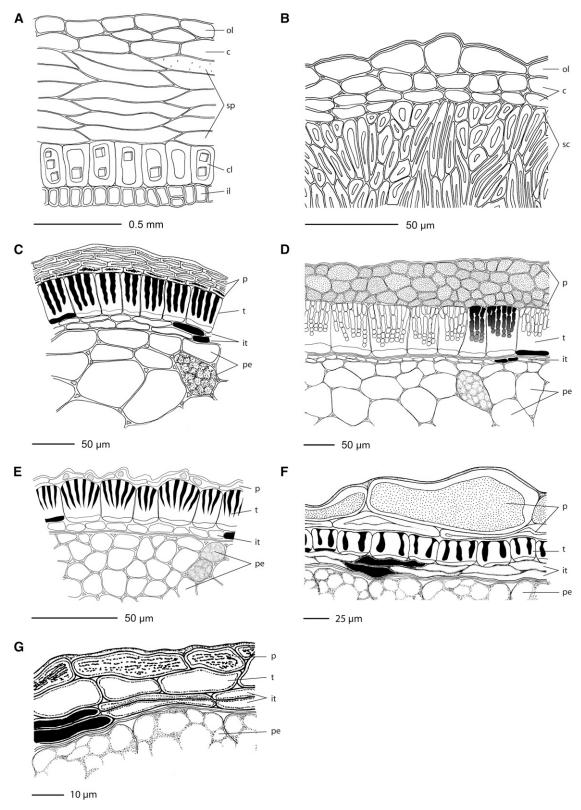


Fig. 4. Bract cover of (A) Spinacia oleracea and (B) Atriplex fera. Fruit/seed anatomy of (C) Holmbergia tweedii, (D) Manochlamys albicans, (E) Proatriplex pleiantha, and (F, G) Atriplex centralasiatica with evident heterospermy ([F] red seed, [G] yellow seed, pericarp deleted). Abbreviations: c, chlorenchyma; cl, crystalliferous layer; il, inner layer; it, integumental tepatum; ol, outer layer; p, pericarp; pe, perisperm; sc, sclerenchyma; sp, sclerencymatic parenchyma; t, testa.

According to the ITS tree (Fig. 3), the Americas were reached by the C_4 *Atriplex* only once, either from Eurasia or Australia between 9.8 and 8.8 Ma. The tree topology does not allow us to specify the area of origin; however, we consider a northern hemisperical origin as more likely. South America may have been reached several times independently from North America (between 7.7–4.4 Ma and 6.0–5.2 Ma; Fig. 3). The American lineages radiated after their arrival on the continents.

Evolution of flower and fruit morphology in Chenopodioideae—Dioecy occurs in Spinacia, Rhagodia, Grayia, Exomis, and Atriplex (Table 4). From the scattered position of dioecious taxa in Chenopodioideae, mostly within clades that are predominantly monoecious or polygamo-monoecious, it seems obvious that dioecy evolved multiple times in the subfamily. The separation of sexes within the inflorescence is a common condition in Chenopodioideae, and it seems likely that the spatial differentiation of male and female inflorescence parts in monoecious taxa also evolved multiple times (cf. Kondorskaya, 1984). Many genera are either strictly monoecious or have mixed inflorescences with bisexual and unisexual flowers (Table 4). In contrast to this, species with exclusively bisexual flowers are relatively uncommon in Chenopodioideae and occur mainly in Chenopodium and Dysphania. Traditionally, Atripliceae were defined by unisexual flowers. Because this condition evolved several times in Chenopodioideae, viz. in Atripliceae, Axyrideae, Suckleya, Spinacia, and Rhagodia (compare Table 4), further characters are required to morphologically define the tribe. The second traditional character used to define Atripliceae is perianthless female flowers with a foliar cover of two bracts that persist and are modified during fruit ripening and become a constitutive part of the diaspores. There are a few species that have female flowers with a perianth (Table 4), but in Atripliceae as circumscribed here the perianthless female flowers with a foliar cover of two bracts are certainly the most common character state. However, in a few lineages, viz. Microgynoecium, Archiatriplex, and Proatriplex, one bract or a pair of bracts subtend a cluster of female flowers. Because these genera probably represent old, relictual groups, it is tempting to speculate that a cluster of female flowers per bract could be the plesiomorphic condition of flower morphology in Atripliceae. However, this will be difficult to prove because of the unstable position of Microgynoeceum in the trees and the rare occurrence of this character state in Chenopodioideae. Alternatively, it might represent an apomorphic condition that evolved independently in these lineages. The molecular analysis presented here revealed that female flowers with a persistent foliar cover evolved not only in Atripliceae, but also in the ancestor of Ceratocarpus and Krascheninnikovia and in Spinacia. These three lineages show distant positions from each other in the molecular trees, indicating that female flowers with a persistent foliar cover evolved three times independently in Chenopodioideae. Axyrideae (as defined here) are readily distinguished from Atripliceae by their characteristic indumentum of stellate hairs and by the absence of "stalactites" in the outer periclinal cell walls of the testa. A closer look at Spinacia revealed that it differs from Atripliceae in a set of prominent morphological and anatomical characters (see above) that further support its position outside the tribe.

Most representatives of Atripliceae have a 1- or few-layered and undifferentiated pericarp in the ripe fruits. However, members of the *Archiatriplex* clade seem to be comparatively diverse in fruit anatomy. They differ in the adherence of the pericarp to

the seed coat and in the number of cell layers in the mature pericarp (Table 4). In contrast, the pericarp of the *Atriplex* clade is invariably simple (Fig. 4F). Within the Atriplex clade, Halimione evolved a pericarp that is tightly adherent to a thin, membraneous testa (cf. Wunderlich, 1967; see above). In perennial Atriplex, the testa is normally thick and hard. In some annual species of Atriplex, heterospermy evolved. This character is found in several groups of Chenopodioideae (evident heterospermy in Axyris: Sukhorukov, 2005; latent heterospermy in Eurasian Chenopodium: A. Sukhorukov, pers. observation). In Atripliceae, a vertical orientation of the embryo is the predominant character state. A horizontal position has evolved in Atriplex (within sect. Atriplex) and in Grayia independently (Table 4). The rotation of the embryo orientation (radicle pointing upward, laterally or downward) likely arose in connection with a highly variable degree of bract connation multiple times in Atripliceae.

TAXONOMIC CONCLUSIONS

The results of this study made the following three taxonomic conclusions nescessary:

(1) Atripliceae C. A. Mey.

The tribe Atripliceae is accepted here, albeit with a modified generic compilation. The following genera are included: *Archiatriplex*, *Atriplex*, *Exomis*, *Extriplex*, *Grayia*, *Halimione*, *Holmbergia*, *Manochlamys*, *Microgynoecium*, *Proatriplex*, *Stutzia*. The subfamily status Atriplicoideae Falkovich and Kovalev (Falkovich and Kovalev, 2007) is not accepted here. The inclusion of *Blackiella*, *Haloxanthium*, *Neopreissia*, *Obione*, *Pachypharynx*, *Senniella*, and *Theleophyton* in *Atriplex* is supported by our results, while the inclusion of *Halimione* is rejected. The inclusion of *Cremnophyton* in *Atriplex* is proposed.

(2) Atriplex lanfrancoi (Brullo & Pavone) G. Kadereit et Sukhor., comb. nov.

Basionym: *Cremnophyton lanfrancoi* Brullo et Pavone, Candollea 42(2): 622 (1987).

(3) Tribe Axyrideae (Heklau) G. Kadereit & A. Sukhor., comb. & stat. nov.

Basionym: tribe Atripliceae, subtribe Axyridinae Heklau, Taxon 57(2): 572 (2008).

Typus: genus Axyris L., Sp. Pl. 979 (1753).

Included genera: Axyris L., Ceratocarpus L., Krascheninnikovia Gueldenst.

= subtribe Eurotiinae Moq. (sub Eurotieae) in DC., Prodr. 13(2): 119 (1849), nom. illeg.

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APPENDIX 1. Species sampled, voucher information, laboratory numbers and GenBank accessions. Sequences generated for this study are written in boldface. Herbarium abbreviations follow those of the Index Herbariorum. Abbreviations: Co., County; cult., cultivated; Nat., National; Prov., Province; SE, southeast.

Taxon, laboratory number, voucher (Herbarium), GenBank accession for (1) rbcL gene (2) atpB-rbcL spacer and (3) ITS; if more than one sample was used for a species then this is indicated by sample 1 and sample 2.

Agriophyllum squarrosum (L.) Moq., chen 054, H. Freitag 28.196a (KAS), SE Russia, Prov. Astrakhan, (1) AY270051, (2) HM587612; Anthochlamys multinervis Rech.f., chen 042, H. Freitag 13.979 (KAS), Iran, Kavir Nat. Park near Mobarakiyeh, (1) AY270056, (2) HM587613; Archiatriplex nanpinensis G.L. Chu, chen 1000, Downie 759 (ILL), China, Langkang, Nanping, Sichuan, (1) HM587580, (2) HM587614, (3) HM587476; Atriplex acanthocarpa (Torr.) S. Watson, EHZ-783, E. Zacharias 783 (UC), USA, New Mexico, Hidalgo Co., (3) HM587477; Atriplex acutibractea Anderson, chen 903, S. Jacobs 9340 (NSW), Australia, (3) HM587478; Atriplex altaica Sukhor., EM320/chen 919, B. Shishkin & al., 08.1931 (MW), Russia, Altai, Kosch-Agach, (2) HM587615, (3) HM587479; Atriplex angulata Benth., chen 443, S. Jacobs 9113 (NSW), Australia, N. Far W. Plains, Stephens Creek, (3) HM587480; Atriplex aucheri Moq., sample 1: chen 043, H. Freitag 30.101 (KAS), Uzbekistan, c. 60 km SW Tashkent at road to Gulistan, (1) HM587581, (2) HM587616, sample 2: EM332, A. Sukhorukov & al. s.n., 04.2000 (MW), Russia, prov. Astrakhan, Kharabali, (3) **HM587481**; Atriplex australasica Moq., sample 1: chen 842, S. Jacobs 9268 (NSW), Australia, NSW Central Coast, Broken River, Gerroa, (1) HM587582, (2) HM587617, (3) HM587482, sample 2: chen 672, S. Jacobs 9233, (NSW), Australia, NSW North Coast, North Creek Rd., (3) **HM587483**; Atriplex belangeri (Moq.) Boiss., EM 399, M. Nazarov 13457, 08.1930 (MW), Kazakhstan, Ber-Kazan, (3) HM587484; Atriplex billardierei Hook. f., chen 564, A. M. Buchanan 13863 (NSW), Australia, Planter Beach, Cockle Creek, (2) HM587618, (3) HM587485; Atriplex calotheca (Rafn) Fries, EM316, N. Shvedchikova 08.1988 (MW), Latvia, Mersrags, (2) HM587619, (3) HM587486; Atriplex cana C.A. Mey., sample 1: chen 1874, B. Neuffer 8890 (OSBU), Russia, Bazkumtschak, (3) HM587487, sample 2: EM310, A. Sukhorukov & A. Seregin R-64, 09.2002 (MW), Russia, prov. Volgograd, Elton (2) HM587620, (3) HM587488; Atriplex canescens (Pursh) Nutt., Borsch, Müller & Pratt 3431 (B, ISC), USA, Texas, Hwy 180 close to junction Hwy 375, (3) HM587489; Atriplex centralasiatica Iljin, chen 920, M. Lomonosova 190 (MW), IX.2001, Kazakhstan, distr. Tarbagatay, (1) HM587583, (2) HM587621, (3) HM587490; Atriplex cinerea Poir., sample 1: chen 435, S. Jacobs 9071 (NSW), Australia (3) HM587491, sample 2: EHZ-887, Kuschel 325 (UC), Australia, Victoria (cult. at UCBG), (2) HM587622, (3) HM005864; Atriplex codonocarpa Paul G. Wilson, chen 539, S. Jacobs 9166 (NSW), Australia, WA Carnarvon, Babbage Is., (3) HM587492; Atriplex conduplicata F. Muell., chen 442, S. Jacobs 9112 (NSW), Australia, N. Far W. Plains, Stephens Creek, (3) HM587493; Atriplex confertifolia (Torr. & Frém.) S. Watson, EHZ-522, E. Zacharias 522 (UC), USA, Utah, Garfield Co., (3) HM587494; Atriplex cordubensis Gand. & Stuck, chen 1896, K. Kubitzki 08-16 (HBG), Argentina, prov. Salta, San Carlos, (2) HM587623, (3) HM587495; Atriplex coriacea Forssk., chen 038, H. Freitag 19.596 (KAS); Egypt, Eastern desert, Wadi Hof (1) AY270045, (2) HM587624; Atriplex crassifolia Ledeb., EM321, M. Lomonosova & A. Sukhorukov 09.2000 (MW), Rusia, Novosibirsk prov., Karasuk, (2) HM587625, (3) HM587496; Atriplex davisii Aellen, EM472, H. Freitag & Adiguezel 09.1997 (MW), Turkey, Amasya, (3) HM587497; Atriplex deserticola Phil, chen 1882,

R. Greissl 701-04, (MJG), Chile, Toconao, (3) HM587498; Atriplex dimorphostegia Kar. & Kir., chen 377, M. Al-Dosari 1839 (KTUH), Kuwait, Al-Subiyah, (2) HM587626, (3) HM587499; Atriplex eardleyae Aellen, chen 440, S. Jacobs 9101 (NSW), Australia, N. Far W. Plains, Umberumberka Reservoir. (3) HM587500: Atriplex elachophylla F. Muell., chen 912, S. Jacobs 9353 (NSW), Australia, (3) HM587501; Atriplex flabellum Bunge ex Boiss., EM 323, N.N. Kaden et al. 69500, 08.1969 (MW), Kirghizia, Osh, (2) HM587627, (3) HM587502; Atriplex fissivalvis F. Muell., chen 905, S. Jacobs 9343 (NSW), Australia, N. Far W. Plains, Fowlers Gap, (3) HM587503; Atriplex gardneri (Moq.) D. Dietr., EHZ-660, E. Zacharias 660 (UC), USA, Utah, Salt Lake Co., (3) HM587504; Atriplex glabriuscula Edmondston, EM 393, A. Schulz s.n. (LE), Latvia (2) HM587628, (3) HM587505; Atriplex glauca L., sample 1: chen 247, H. Freitag 31.3.2001 (KAS), Spain (1) HM587584, (3) HM587506, sample 2: EM394, V. Botschantzev 09.1964 (LE), Egypt, Cairo (2) HM587629; Atriplex gmelinii C.A. Mey, chen 1878, H. Freitag 35.134 (KAS), S Korea, Jeollanam prov., Muan, (3) HM587507; Atriplex halimus L., sample 1: chen 278, J. Hensen s.n., 31.03.01 (KAS), Salinas Santa Palo, SE Spain, (1) AY270059, (3) HM587508, sample 2: chen 1876, G. Kadereit & J.W. Kadereit 2006/23 (MJG), Spain, Almeria, Sierra de Alhamilla, (2) HM587630, (3) HM587509; Atriplex herzogii Standl., EHZ-HF7, S. Beck 22678 (KAS, LPB), Bolivia, Oruro Dept., Cercado Prov., (3) HM587510; Atriplex holocarpa F. Muell., chen 561, S. Jacobs 9189 (NSW), Australia, WA Austin, near Wiluna, (2) HM587631, (3) HM587511; Atriplex hortensis L., EM334, A. Sukhorukov 09.1998 (MW), Russia, Moscow, Pechatniki, (3) HM587512; Atriplex hymenelytra (Torr.) S. Watson, EHZ-606, E. Zacharias 606 (JEPS), USA, California, Invo Co., (3) HM587513; Atriplex hymenotheca Moq., chen 536, S. Jacobs 9145 (NSW), Australia, WA Avon, Koorda, (3) HM587514; Atriplex imbricata D. Dietr., chen 1997/EHZ-HF1, S. Beck 21609 (KAS, LPB), Bolivia, Potosí Dept., Daniel Campos prov., salar de Myuni, (2) HM587632. (3) HM587515: Atriplex inamoena Aellen, chen 1875, B. Neuffer 3565 (OSBU), Egypt, Wadi 1b, (3) HM587516; Atriplex intermedia Anderson, chen 904, S. Jacobs 9342 (NSW), Australia, N. Far W. Plains, Stephens Creek, (3) HM587517; Atriplex intracontinentalis Sukhor., EM325, M. Lomonosova & A. Sukhorukov 09.2000 (MW), Kazakhstan, Ayaguz, (3) HM587518; Atriplex isatidea Moq., chen 538, S. Jacobs 9164 (NSW), Australia, (2) HM587633, (3) HM587519; Atriplex laciniata L., EM395, Oellgaard 07.1966 (MW), Dania, Laeso, (2) HM587635, (3) HM587520; Atriplex laevis C.A. Mey., EM326, A. Sukhorukov 09.1997 (MW), Russia, Moscow, Pechatniki, (3) HM587521; Atriplex lampa (Gilles ex Moq.) D. Dietr., chen 1897, K. Kubitzki 08-23, Argentina, San Juan prov., Las Flores, (1) HM587585, (2) HM587634, sample 2: chen 1898, K. Kubitzki 08-18, Argentina, Catamarca prov., Hualfin, (3) HM587522; Atriplex latifolia Wahlenb., EM412, V.V. Timofeeva 1673, 09.2002 (MW), Russia, Karelia, Kop, (2) HM587636, (3) HM587523; Atriplex lehmanniana Bunge, EM327, K. Shatov & T. Efimova 07.1969 (MW), Turkmenistam, Baba-Durmaz, (3) HM587524; Atriplex lentiformis (Torr.) S. Watson, sample 1: chen 2060, G. Kadereit 2009/26, USA, California, South San Francisco Bay, Newark, (1) HM587586, sample 2: EHZ-520, E. Zacharias 520 (UC), USA, Utah, Washington Co., (2) HM587637, (3) HM005872; Atriplex leptocarpa F. Muell., chen 439, S. Jacobs 9100 (NSW), Australia, N. Far W. Plains, Umberumberka Reservoir, (3) HM587525; Atriplex leucoclada Boiss.,

EHZ-BE2, B. Ertter 18793 (UC), Iran, Hamadan, (2) HM587638, (3) HM005860; Atriplex leucophylla D. Dietr., sample 1: chen 2062, G. Kadereit 2009/38 (MJG), USA, California, Point Reyes, Limantour Beach (1) HM587587, sample 2: EHZ-JeGr3, J. Greenhouse s.n. (JEPS), USA, California, Santa Barbara Co., (2) HM587639, (3) HM587526; Atriplex lindleyi Moq., chen 438, S. Jacobs 9099 (NSW), Australia, N. Far W. Plains, Broken Hill, (3) HM587527; Atriplex littoralis L., EM314, N. Shvedchikova 08.1988 (MW), Latvia, Tuya, (3) HM587528; Atriplex micrantha C.A. Mey., EM319, A. Sukhorukov s.n., 10.1997 (MW), Russia, prov. Volgograd, Pallasovka, (2) HM587640, (3) HM587529; Atriplex moneta Bunge ex Boiss., EM322, T. Efimova & K. Shatov 08.1969 (MW), Turkmenistan, Baba-Durmaz, (2) HM587641, (3) HM587530; Atriplex muelleri Benth., sample1: chen 436, S. Jacobs 9083 (NSW), Australia, (2) HM587642, sample2: chen 670, S. Jacobs 9227 (NSW), Australia, QLD, Maranoa, Roma, (3) HM587531; Atriplex myriophylla Phil., chen 1996, S. Beck 11128 (KAS, LPB), Bolivia, prov. Murillo, La Paz Cota Cota, (2) HM587643: Atriplex nessorhina S.W.L. Jacobs, chen 913, S. Jacobs 9354 (NSW), Australia, N. Far W. Plains, Peery Lake, (3) HM587532; Atriplex nudicaulis Bogusl., EM318, V. Vekhov 09.1972 (MW), Russia, Karelia, Poyakonda, (2) HM587644, (3) HM587533; Atriplex nummularia Lindl., chen 415, G. M. Towler 323 (NSW), Australia, (3) HM587534; Atriplex oblongifolia Waldst. & Kit., EM333, A. Sukhorukov 09.1997 (MW), Russia, Volgograd, (2) HM587645, (3) HM587535; Atriplex obovata Moq., EHZ-743, E. Zacharias 743 (UC), USA, Utah, San Juan Co., (3) HM587536; Atriplex pamirica Iljin, EM315, I.A. Raikova 08.1953 (LE), Tajikistan, Chechekty (2) HM587646, (3) HM587537; Atriplex parishii S. Watson, sample1: chen 2059, G. Kadereit 2009/13 (MJG), USA, California, Alameda, Livermore, (1) HM587588, (2) HM587647, sample 2: EHZ-FS2, F. Sproul s.n. (JEPS), USA, California, Riverside Co., (3) HM587538; Atriplex parryi S. Watson, EHZ-585, E. Zacharias 585 (JEPS), USA, California, San Bernardino Co., (1) HM587589, (2) HM587648, (3) HM587539; Atriplex parvifolia Kunth, EHZ-HF3, S. Beck 14369 (KAS, LPB), Bolivia, Oruro Dept., Cercado Prov., (3) HM587540; Atriplex patagonica D. Dietr., chen 1995, F.-G. Schröder s. n., Argentina, Patagonia, Chubut, Salina Chica, (2) HM587649, (3) HM587541; Atriplex patula L., sample 1: (1) X15925, sample (2): EM324, A. Sukhorukov 10.2005 (MW), Russia, prov. Tambov, Michurinsk, (2) **HM587650**, (3) **HM587542**; *Atriplex phyllostegia* (Torr. ex S. Watson) S. Watson, EHZ-992, E. Zacharias 992 (UC), USA, Nevada, Churchill Co., (1) HM587590, (2) HM587651, (3) HM005870; Atriplex polycarpa S. Watson, E468, J. Webber (H), USA, California, (3) HM587543; Atriplex powellii S. Watson, EHZ-529, E. Zacharias 529 (UC), USA, Utah, Wayne Co., (1) **HM587591,** (2) **HM587652**, (3) **HM587544**; Atriplex prostrata Boucher ex DC., EM335, A. Sukhorukov 09.2002 (MW), Russia, Moscow, (2) HM587653, (3) HM587545; Atriplex pseudocampanulata Aellen, chen 838, S. Jacobs 9243 (NSW), Australia, S. Far W. Plains, Balranald, (3) HM587546; Atriplex quinii F. Muell., chen 908, S. Jacobs 9349 (NSW), Australia, N. Far W. Plains, Tibooburra, (3) HM587547; Atriplex recurva d'Urv., EM391 anonym (LE), Greece, Euboaea, (2) HM587654, (3) HM587548; Atriplex rhagodioides F. Muell., chen 414, G. M. Towler & S. Jacobs 322 (NSW), Australia, NSW Central Coast, cultivated: Mount Annan Bot. Garden, (2) HM587655, (3) HM587549; Atriplex rosea L., (1) X55831, chen 2058, G. Kadereit 2009/11, USA, California, Alameda, Livermore, (1) HM587592, (2) HM587656; Atriplex rusbyi Britton, chen 1994, EHZ-HF5, S. Beck 11335 (KAS), Bolivia, La Paz Dept., Murillo Prov., (2) HM587657, (3) HM005865; Atriplex sagittata Borkh., EM339, A. Sukhorukov 05.2000, (MW), Russia, Moscow, Pechatnik, (3) HM587550; Atriplex schugnanica Iljn, EM313, S.S. Ikonnikov 24, 09.1954 (MW), Tadiikistan, Sumvo, (3) HM587551; Atriplex semibaccata Moq., chen 535, S. Jacobs 9130 (NSW), Australia, NSW, Southern Tablelands, Willis, (3) HM587552; Atriplex semilunaris Aellen, chen 537, S. Jacobs 9151 (NSW), Australia, WA, Coolgardie, Moores Lake, (3) HM587553; Atriplex serenana A. Nelson ex Abrams, EHZ-495, E. Zacharias 495 (UC), USA, California, Tulare Co., (1) HM587593, (2) HM587658, (3) HM005868; Atriplex sibirica L., EM312, L. Volosnova 08.1982 (MW), Russia, Kaluga prov., (2) HM587659, (3) HM587554; Atriplex sphaeromorpha Iljin, EM338, 338A, A. Sukhorukov 09.2001 (MW), Kazakhstan, Dshanybek, (2) HM587660, (3) HM587555; Atriplex spinibractea Anderson, chen 915, S. Jacobs 9362 (NSW), Australia, North Western Plains, Nevertire, (3) HM587556; Atriplex spec., chen 884, L. Mucina 6929/1 (MJG) South Africa, Eastern Cape, Gamtoos River, (3) HM587557; Atriplex spongiosa F. Muell., chen 158, Hort.Bot. Berg. Stockholm 117; 0006303, (1) AY270060, (2) HM587661, (3) HM587558;

Atriplex stipitata Benth., chen 437, S. Jacobs 9095 (NSW), Australia, N. Far W. Plains, W of Cobar, (3) HM587559; Atriplex sturtii S.W.L. Jacobs, chen 910, S. Jacobs 9351 (NSW), Australia, N. Far W. Plains, Tibooburra, (3) HM587560; Atriplex suberecta I. Verd., sample 1: EHZ-JeGr8, J. Greenhouse s.n. (JEPS), USA, California, Los Angeles Co., (2) HM587662, sample2: chen 836, S. Jacobs 9240 (NSW), Australia, South Western Plains, Lake Cargellico, (2) HM587663, (3) HM587561; Atriplex tatarica L., EM337, A. Sukhorukov s.n., 09.2002, (MW), Russia, Moscow, (2) HM587664, (3) HM587562; Atriplex turbinata (R. Anderson) Aellen, chen 909, S. Jacobs 9350 (NSW), Australia, N. Far W. Plains, Tibooburra, (3) **HM587563**; Atriplex undulata (Moq.) D. Dietr., chen 167, M. E. Múlgura 2005 (SI, KAS); Argentina, La Pampa, (1) AY270061, (2) HM587665, (3) HM587564; Atriplex velutinella F. Muell., chen 906, S. Jacobs 9345 (NSW), Australia, N. Far W. Plains, Cobham Lake, (3) HM587565; Atriplex vesicaria Heward ex Benth., chen 562, S. Jacobs 9202 (NSW), Australia, Western Australia, Eucla, (2) HM587666; Atriplex vesicaria Heward ex Benth. subsp. macrocystidia Parr-Sm., chen 441, S. Jacobs 9103 (NSW), Australia, S. Far W. Plains, Broken Hill, (3) HM587566; Axyris prostrata L., chen 118, G. & S. Miehe 96-140-04; Gobi Altai, Mongolei (Hb. Miehe, KAS), (1) AY270062, (2) HM587667; Ceratocarpus arenarius L., chen 466, H. Freitag 33.017 (KAS), Russia, Tuva Rep., 15 km SSE Kyzyl (1) HM587594; Chenopodium acuminatum Willd., chen 183, G. & S. Miehe 96-060-5 (Hb. Miehe, KAS), Mongolia, Gobi Altai, (1) AY270077, (2) HM587668; Chenopodium auricomum Lindley, chen 258, S. Jacobs 8655 (NSW); Australia, New South Wales, North Western Plains (1) AY270078, (2) HM587669; Chenopodium bonus-henricus L., chen 051 and 1886, grown at Bot. Gard. Mainz, Germany (MJG), (1) AY270079, (2) HM587670; Chenopodium coronopus Moq., chen 721, Bot. Garden Berlin-Dahlem seed sample 687 (MJG), leg. Royl 6823, Spain, Canary Is., La Palma, Puerto Naos/El Remo, (1) HM587595. (2) HM587671: Chenopodium desertorum (J. Black) J. Black subsp. anidiophyllum (Aellen) Paul. G. Wilson, chen 254, S. Jacobs 8650 (NSW); Australia, New South Wales, North Western Plains, (1) AY270042, (2) HM587672; Chenopodium foliosum Asch., sample 1: chen 117, (1) AY270081, sample 2: chen 1885, W. Hilbig s.n. (HAL), W Mongolia, Aimak, Charchiraa, w. of Ulaangom, (2) HM587673; Chenopodium frutescens C.A. Mey., chen 210, A. Korolyuk s.n. (NS), 23.6.2000; Tuva, Russia, (1) AY270082, (2) HM587674, (3) HM587567; Chenopodium murale L., chen 866, W. Licht 5801 (MJG), Italy, Gargano, (2) HM587675; Chenopodium nitrariaceum (F. Muell.) Benth., chen 1860, S. Jacobs 9212 (NSW, MJG), Australia, NSW, near Balranald, (2) HM587676; Chenopodium oahuense (Meyren) Aellen, chen 2025, S. Carlquist 2085 (UC), USA, Hawaii, Kamuela, (2) HM587677; Chenopodium sanctae-clarae Johow, chen 194, (1) AY270043; Chenopodium urbicum L., chen 821, Bot. Garden Berlin-Dahlem seed sample 694 leg. Raus 242 (MJG), Greece, Aegean Sea, Nomos Evviva, (1) HM587596, (2) HM587678; Corispermum filifolium C.A. Mey. ex A.K. Becker, chen 148, H. Freitag 28.702 (KAS), Turkey A6 Samsun prov., near Bafra, (1) AY270084, (2) HM587679; Cremnophyton lanfrancoi Brullo & Pavone, chen 1895, H. C. Weber s. n., Malta, Sliema, (1) HM587597, (2) HM587680, (3) HM587568; Cycloloma atriplicifolium J.M. Coult., chen 157, Bot. Garden Kassel, seeds from Hort. Bot. Berg. Stockholm 116; 0006302 (KAS), (1) HM587598, (2) HM587681; Dysphania ambrosioides (L.) Mosyakin & Clemants, chen 822, Bot. Garden Berlin-Dahlem seed sample 683 leg. Royl 6394 (MJG), Portugal, Azores, Sao Miguel, Ribeira Grande Lagoa das Fogo, (1) HM587599, (2) HM587682; Dysphania botrys (L.) Mosyakin & Clemants, chen 116, Freitag & Adigüzel 28.769 (KAS), Turkey, C4 Konya, road to Karapinar, AY270080, (2) HM587683; Dysphania cristata (F. Muell.) Mosyakin & Clemants, chen 256, S. Jacobs 8653 (NSW), Australia, North Western Plains, New South Wales, (1) AY270046, (2) HM587684; Dysphania glomulifera (Nees) Paul G. Wilson, chen 277, S. Jacobs 8738 (NSW) Australia, New South Wales, North Western Plains, (1) AY270086, (2) HM587685; Einadia nutans (R. Br.) A.J. Scott, chen 417, G.M. Towler 325 (NSW), Australia, central coast, cultivated Mt. Annan Botanical Garden (1) HM587600, (2) HM587686; Exomis microphylla (Thunb.) Aellen, chen 877, L. Mucina 081200/3 (MJG), South Africa, Western Cape prov., Darling, (1) HM587601, (2) HM587687, (3) HM587569; Extriplex californica (Moq.) E.H. Zacharias, sample1: chen 2061, G. Kadereit 2009/37 (MJG), USA. California, Point Reyes, (1) HM587602, (2) HM587688, sample 2: EHZ-1025, E. Zacharias 1025 (JEPS), USA, California, San Mateo Co. (3) HM005850; Extriplex joaquinana (A. Nelson) E.H. Zacharias, EHZ-306, E. Zacharias 306, USA, California,

Contra Costa Co., (1) HM587603, (2) HM587689, (3) HM005852; Grayia brandegeei A. Gray, sample 1: chen 1889, J. Coles s. n. (COLO), USA, Colorado, Mesa, (1) HM587604, (2) HM587690, (3) HM587570, sample 2: EHZ-H38, N. Holmgren, J. Reveal & C. LaFrance 2133 (UC), USA, Utah, Garfield Co., (3) HM005845; Grayia spinosa (Hook.) Moq., sample 1: chen 192, Larkesto s. n. (BM), USA, California, Nevada, (2) HM587691, (3) HM587571, sample 2: EHZ-566, E. Zacharias 566 (UC), USA, Utah, Tooele Co., (2) HM587692, (3) HM005843, sample 3: chen 1888; B. Neely 4244 (COLO), USA, Colorado, Mouth of Gates of Lodore, (1) HM587605, (2) HM587693, (3) HM587572; Halimione pedunculata (L.) Aellen, sample 1: chen 034, G. Kadereit 2000/202 (MJG); Denmark, Kattegat, (1) AY270093, sample 2: chen 471, H. Freitag 33094 (KAS), Russia, Novosibirsk, 20 km north of Karasuk, (2) HM587694, (3) HM587573, sample 3: EM336, A. Sukhorukov 09.2002 (MW), Russia, prov. Volgograd, Elton, (3) HQ008274; Halimione portulacoides (L.) Aellen, EM385, A. Sukhorukov s.n., 11.2006 (MW), Cyprus, Larnaca, (3) HM587574; Halimione verrucifera (M. Bieb.) Aellen, chen 470, H. Freitag 33.092 (KAS), Russia, Novosibirsk, Karasuk, (1) HM587606, (2) HM587695, (3) HM587575; Holmbergia tweedii Speg., sample 1: chen 2003, A. Krapovickas & C.L. Cristobal 24545 (P), Argentina, Corrientes prov., Saladas rio Santa Lucia, (2) HM587696, sample 2: EHZ-H17, A. Krapovickas & A. Schinini 39143 (UC), Bolivia, (3) HM005842; Krascheninnikovia ceratoides (L.) Gueldenst., B. Dickoré 12752; Nanga Parbat area, Pakistan (Hb. Dickoré, KAS), chen 012, (1) AY270105, (2) HM587697; Krascheninnikovia lanata (Pursh) A. Meeuse & A. Smit, chen 1887, B. Nelson 23554 (USCH, HAL 100339), USA, New Mexico, San Miguel County, Santa Fe Nat. Forest, (2) HM587698; Manochlamys albicans (Soland. in Ait.) Aellen, chen 878, L. Mucina 200900/4 (MJG), South Africa, RSA, Northern Cape prov., Namaqua N, P., Kamieskroon,

(1) HM587607, (2) HM587699, (3) HM587576; Microgynoecium tibeticum Hook.f., sample 1: chen 119, B. Dickoré 4284 (Hb. Dickoré, KAS), China, Tibet, Quinghai, (1) AY270107, sample 2: chen 874, G. & S. Miehe 03-059-11 (hb. Miehe, KAS), China, Xizang (Tibet), Tso basin s of Raka Tsangpo Tsabasang, (2) HM587700, (3) HM587577; Micromonolepis pusilla (Torr. ex S. Watson) Ulbr., chen 1858, A. Tiehm 11763 (NSW), USA, Nevada, Humboldt River, (1) HM587608, (2) HM587701: Monolepis nuttalliana Greene, chen 125, Bot, Garden Kassel. seeds from Univ. Hohenheim (KAS), (1) AY27010, (2) HM587702; Proatriplex pleiantha (W.A. Weber) Stutz & G.L. Chu, sample 1: chen 1857, W. A. Weber 7651 (NSW), USA, Colorado, SW Towaoc, (3) HM587578, sample 2: EHZ-H32, R. Spellenberg & R. Corral 8185 (UC), USA, New Mexico, San Juan Co., (3) HM005836; Rhagodia drummondii Moq., sample 1: chen 159, N. Schmalz 194 (52) (MJG); Western Australia, Hayden, (1) AY270124, sample 2: chen 1859, S. Jacobs 9131 (NSW), Australia, Western Australia, near Meckering, (2) HM587703; Rhagodia parabolica R. Br., chen 532, S. Jacobs 9208 (NSW), (2) HM587704; Scleroblitum atriplicinum (F. Muell.) Ulbr., chen 274, (1) AY858611; Spinacia oleracea L., (1) Zurawski et al. (1981), chen 1869, G. Kadereit s.n. (MJG), cult. at Botanical Garden University Mainz, (2) HM587705; Stutzia covillei (Standl.) E.H. Zacharias, EHZ-811, E. Zacharias 811 (UC), USA, Nevada, Nye Co., (1) HM587609, (2) HM587706, (3) HM005839; Stutzia dioica (Nutt.) E.H. Zacharias, sample1: AC351, L. Welp 6269 (NY), (1) HM587610, (2) HM587707, (3) HM587579, sample 2:EHZ-H95, C. Porter 9071 (UC), USA, Wyoming, Weston Co., (3) HM005838; Suckleya suckleyana Rydb., chen 2000; J. E. Larson 6492, USA, New Mexico, Tres Piedras, (1) HM587611; Teloxys aristata (L.) Moq., chen 293, B. B. Neuffer & H. Hurka 11.727 (Hb. Hurka, KAS), Mongolia, Ulaanbaatar, (1) AY270140, (2) HM587708;