## Comparative Wood Anatomy of Ruptiliocarpon caracolito (Lepidobotryaceae)

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ABSTRACT. Wood anatomy of Ruptiliocarpon caracolito is described and compared in general to Sapindales, and specifically to Trichilia (Meliaceae) and the monotypic, African Lepidobotrys (Lepidobotryaceae). It is aberrant in all groups compared for having vestured pits. Otherwise, it is most similar to both Trichilia and Lepidobotrys. Wood anatomy does not conflict with the recognition of Ruptiliocarpon as a second genus of Lepidobotryaceae; however, the question of affinities of that family needs further investigation.

Analysis of wood anatomy is often crucial for the elucidation of relationships of taxa problematic at the generic or higher levels (cf. Hayden & Brandt, 1984; Mennega, 1984; Pennington & Styles, 1975). During the course of an investigation (Hammel & Zamora, 1993) into the affinities of a Costa Rican tree that could not be placed to family, an analysis of its wood anatomy became essential.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Microtome sections and macerations of wood of Ruptiliocarpon caracolito Hammel & N. Zamora from the trunk (Hammel & Chavarría 17965, bole ca. 17 cm diam.; MO) and from a branch (Hammel 17983, 4.5 cm diam.; MO) both from near Rincón de Osa on the Osa Peninsula of Costa Rica, of Lepidobotrys staudtii Engler (Breteler 2087, Cameroon near village Zendé, tree 15 m; Uw, WAGw), and of Trichilia lepidota C. Martius subsp. leucastera (Sandwith) Pennington (Maas 10841, Suriname, Maratakka, tree 13 cm diam.; Uw) were prepared according to standard methods (Mennega, 1982). Descriptions, counts, and measurements follow recommendations of the International Association of Wood Anatomists Committee (IAWA, 1989).

Wood Anatomy of Ruptiliocarpon caracolito general aspect

A straight-grained wood apparently without differentiation in sapwood and heartwood, color uniformly light, pinkish cream; moderately light, volume weight ca. 0.40.

MICROSCOPIC CHARACTERS (FIG. 1)

Growth rings faint, formed by a narrow zone of flattened fibers and occasionally by a 1- or 2-celled band of parenchyma. Vessels solitary for about 45%, the remainder in radial multiples of 2 or 3(-8) and a few clusters, the latter mainly on the border of the growth ring; number 5(0-12) per sq. mm, distribution somewhat irregular; perforations simple, perforation plates oblique; cross section oval to round, diameter (70-)100-140 µm, average vessel member length 860(600-1,300) µm, mostly with long, narrow tails; intervascular pits alternate, crowded, vestured, diameter 5-6.5 µm, the slits enclosed or locally confluent; vessel/ray pitting similar; resinous contents occasionally present. Fibers regularly distributed, angular in cross section, thin-walled, diameter 22-28  $\mu$ m, the walls 2.5-3.5  $\mu$ m wide; nonseptate; minute bordered pits restricted to the radial walls; length 1,000(750-1,290)  $\mu$ m. Fiber/ vessel ratio 1.16. Rays uniseriate, homogeneous or nearly so, cells procumbent, except for a marginal row of slightly higher and shorter cells, which resemble square cells; number 5-7 per mm; width 15  $\mu$ m, height 130-500  $\mu$ m, up to 21 cells high; no contents. Parenchyma as scattered strands and in fine, often interrupted, rather straight bands 1 or 2 cells wide, also paratracheal, narrow vasicentric, occasionally aliform; terminal parenchyma as a band 1 or 2(-4) cells wide. Number of bands 6-8 per mm; strands of (2-)4-8 cells. Rhombic crystals numerous in subdivided cells of the isolated strands.

## DISCUSSION

Preliminary analysis of wood samples of Ruptiliocarpon suggested a relationship to Meliaceae by way of a very close match to the genus Trichilia. This was in agreement with Hammel and Zamora's independent conclusion that Ruptiliocarpon seemed to belong to Sapindales. Although they found that

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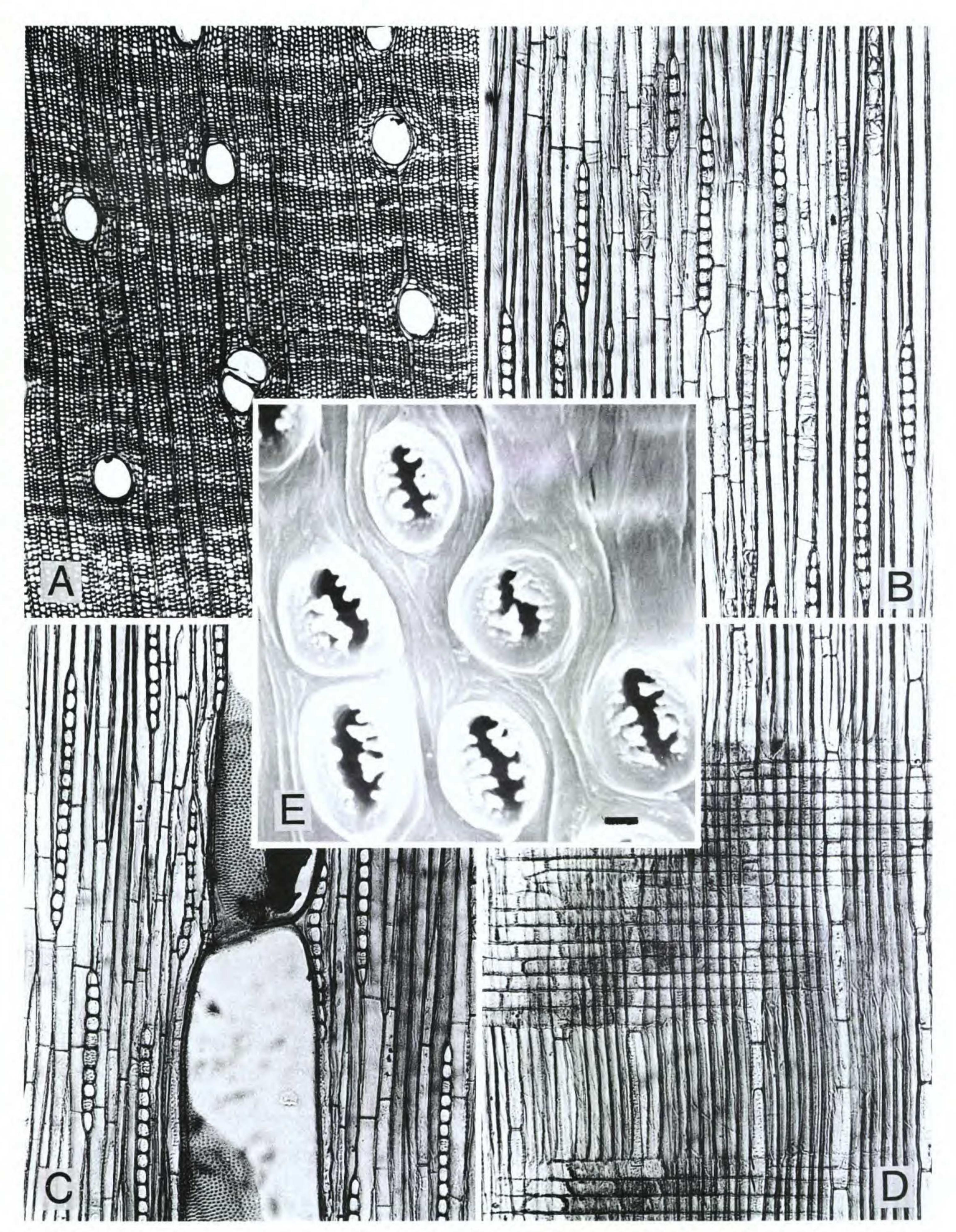


Figure 1. Ruptiliocarpon caracolito Hammel & N. Zamora. —A. Transverse section, ×45. Vessel and parenchyma distribution. —B. Tangential longitudinal section, ×112. Uniseriate rays and parenchyma strands, partly with crystals. —C. Tangential longitudinal section, ×112. A vessel member with a lump of gum. —D. Radial longitudinal section, ×112. Homogeneous to weakly heterogeneous rays. All from Hammel & Chavarría 17965. —E. Vestured intervascular pitting; Hammel 17983.

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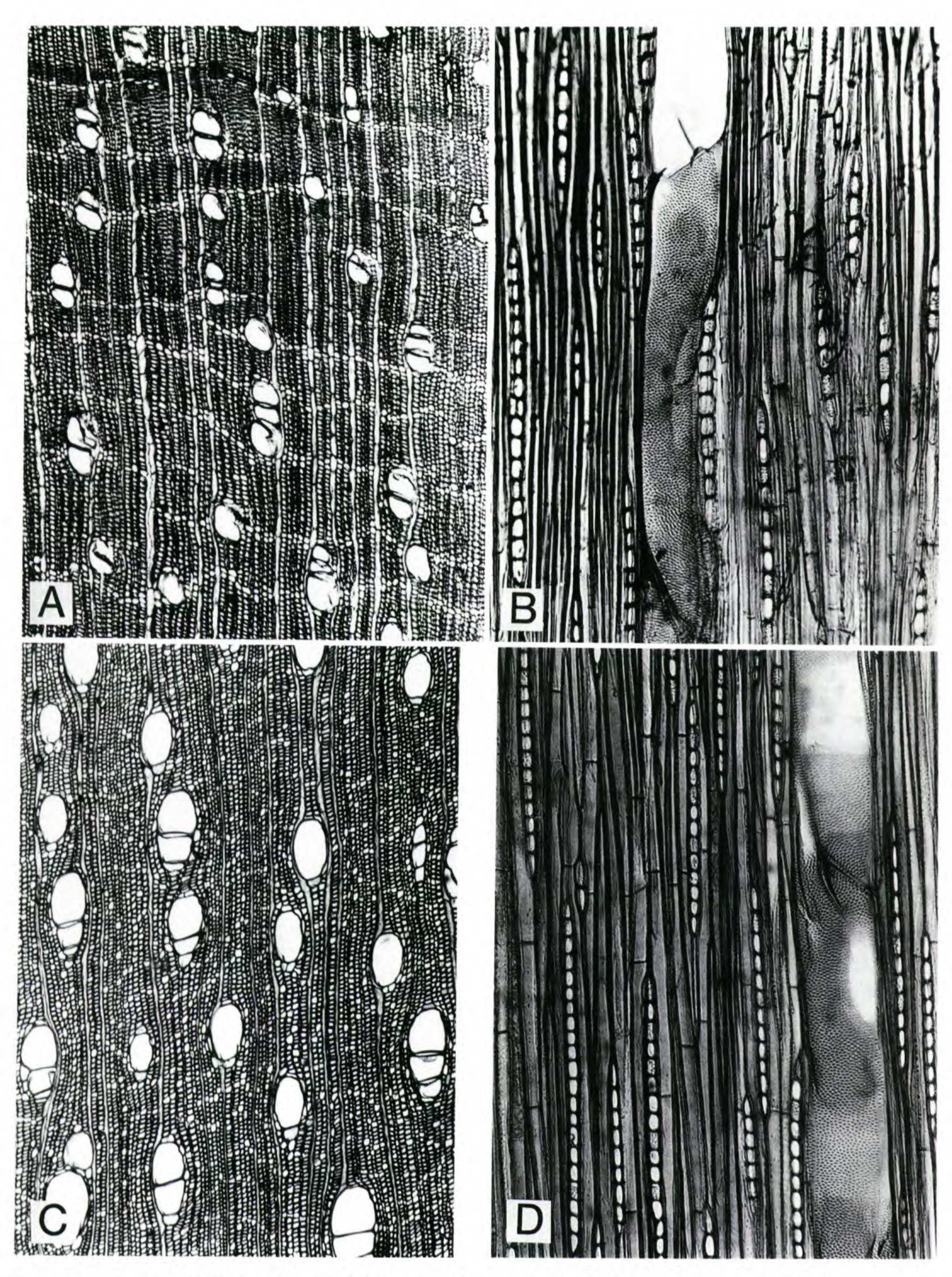


Figure 2. A, B. Trichilia lepidota C. Martius subsp. leucastera (Sandwith) Pennington. —A. Transverse section, ×45. Vessel and parenchyma distribution. —B. Tangential longitudinal section, ×112. Intervascular pitting and uniseriate rays. Both from Maas 10841. C, D. Lepidobotrys staudtii Engler. —C. Transverse section, ×47. Vessel and parenchyma distribution. —D. Tangential longitudinal section, × 120. Uniseriate rays, intervascular pitting, crystal-bearing parenchyma strand (left side). Both from Breteler 2087.

certain features of the fruits of Burseraceae resemble those of Ruptiliocarpon, vessels with large pits, septate fibers, and scarce parenchyma are salient features of Burseraceae that characterize their difference from Ruptiliocarpon and eliminate that family from consideration as a close relative. Three Sapindalean families, Sapindaceae, Hippocastanaceae, and Meliaceae, have members with wood that superficially resembles that of Ruptiliocarpon. In Sapindaceae, which like Meliaceae has great diversity in wood structure, the genus Talisia shows a remarkable similarity to Trichilia (Mennega, 1972) and therefore with Ruptiliocarpon (see below). The main difference is the occurrence of septate fibers in Talisia, in particular in the species with thinwalled fibers. Billia (Hippocastanaceae) is comparable to Ruptiliocarpon but here more numerous dissimilarities occur; these include a different parenchyma distribution with mainly rather wide conspicuous terminal bands and hardly any diffuse strands, random occurrence of septate fibers, and shorter vessel members.

Among Sapindales, the closest match to Ruptiliocarpon is Trichilia of the Meliaceae. Superficial examination of the branch sample suggested a similarity to Trichilia (Fig. 2A, B), and that impression was confirmed in detail on closer study of cross sections. Wood characteristics of Ruptiliocarpon such as nonseptate fibers, small intervascular pits, uniseriate wood rays that are weakly heterogeneous and not over 20 cells high, parenchyma in narrow wavy bands and partly aliform-confluent, several strands with rhombic crystals, and normal strands of 4-8 cells are features present in Trichilia according to older and more recent literature (e.g., Pennington & Styles, 1975). In a study of wood samples from the Guianas, Klaassen (1988) confirmed the above features for nine species of Trichilia and also recorded a vessel member length of 550-760  $\mu$ m, fiber length of 870-1,300  $\mu$ m, very similar to those for Ruptiliocarpon.

One important feature, vesturement of the vessel pits, that was discovered later in this analysis and reconfirmed with SEM (Fig. 1E) does not coincide with Trichilia or with any other Meliaceae (Kribs, 1930; Record & Hess, 1943; Metcalfe & Chalk, 1950). A reference in Metcalfe & Chalk (1983) to a report of vestured pits in Meliaceae is an error; the original paper (Kanazawa, 1968) does not make that claim. It is remarkable, here, that just as overall vegetative appearances of Ruptiliocarpon suggest Leguminosae (see discussion in Hammel & Zamora, 1993), many of the wood characters, including vestured pits, are also in accordance with that family.

In fact, in Record's (1944) key one is led to a choice between Trichilia with vascular pits less than 4  $\mu$ m wide and Leguminosae with pits more than 4  $\mu$ m; Ruptiliocarpon, with pits 5–6.5  $\mu$ m in diameter, should key to Leguminosae. On the other hand, vessel members in legumes are seldom over 500  $\mu$ m (Baretta-Kuipers, 1981; Metcalfe & Chalk, 1950; Reinders-Gouwentak & Rijsdijk, 1968), whereas in Ruptiliocarpon the length ranges from 600 to 1,300  $\mu$ m. In any case, floral and fruit characters of Ruptiliocarpon must eliminate Leguminosae from consideration (Hammel & Zamora, 1993; Tobe & Hammel, 1993).

Ruptiliocarpon differs from Trichilia on the basis of wood anatomy primarily because of the vesturing of the vascular pits, a feature not reported for Meliaceae (nor any other Sapindales). Presence or absence of this feature has long been considered constant for a given family or genus. The few exceptions include the tribe Bauhinieae in Leguminosae, which lacks vestured pits, otherwise present in the family; Bridelia, the only Euphorbiaceae with vestured pits (Mennega, 1987); and certain species of Prunus from China (Zhang & Baas, 1992), a genus that otherwise lacks vestured pits. It may be that the exceptions are too many and that we should no longer attribute such great value to this feature as a condition sine qua non in assigning a given taxon to a family or genus, but it does add, importantly, to the list of characters suggesting that Ruptiliocarpon does not belong in Trichilia or even in Meliaceae.

On the eve of describing Ruptiliocarpon as a monotypic genus in its own family within Sapindales, congruence in a majority of vegetative, floral, and fruit characters with Lepidobotrys, an African monotypic genus in its own family, was discovered (Hammel & Zamora, 1993; Hammel, pers. comm.). Examination of wood of Lepidobotrys staudtii Engler (Fig. 2C, D) also revealed a close conformity to the wood of Ruptiliocarpon. Apart from the absence of vestured pits in Lepidobotrys, the main difference is found in the more diffuse parenchyma in the latter species. In wood anatomy Trichilia and Lepidobotrys appear to differ and agree with Ruptiliocarpon in similar ways, but the preponderance of other evidence favors a relationship with Lepidobotrys (Hammel & Zamora, 1993). The question of where the affinities of Lepidobotryaceae (Lepidobotrys and Ruptiliocarpon) lie remains open. The historical alignment of Lepidobotryaceae in the Linaceae complex or in Oxalidaceae was discussed by Van Welzen & Baas (1984) based on a leaf anatomical study. Since leaf anatomy proved neutral

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with respect to the question, they saw no reason to differ from the generally accepted preference for its placement in Oxalidaceae. However, the wood structure of Lepidobotrys, poorly known at the time Van Welzen & Baas published their analysis (cf. Metcalfe & Chalk, 1950: 272), is in several respects entirely different from that of Averrhoa, one of the few woody members of Oxalidaceae. The Linaceae complex comprises several mainly woody families with a rather great diversity of structure. From literature and personal knowledge of the wood structure of genera belonging to these families, a close relationship of Lepidobotryaceae with that complex seems improbable. For a well-founded statement, comparative research of a much broader scope than this paper would be necessary. The present study, along with accumulated knowledge (cf. Mennega, 1987), suggests that a relationship to the Sapindales or to Euphorbiaceae, as proposed by Hammel & Zamora (1993), should also be considered. Wood anatomy alone does not support or eliminate the possibility that Lepidobotryaceae may lie close to Euphorbiaceae. Although most of the wood anatomical characters present in Lepidobotryaceae are manifested among the genera of Euphorbiaceae in subfamily Phyllanthoideae, they are not found together in any one genus. Also, rays in Phyllanthoideae woods are decidedly heterogeneous, whereas those of Lepidobotryaceae are homogeneous or nearly so.

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