

Restriction data from chloroplast DNA for phylogenetic reconstruction: is there only one accurate way of scoring?

BIRGITTA BREMER

Received April 27, 1990; in revised version October 29, 1990

Key words: Angiosperms, *Rubiaceae*.—Chloroplast DNA, fragment analysis, restriction analysis, site analysis, Wagner parsimony.

Abstract: Information from the same restriction analysis of chloroplast DNA of 33 taxa of *Rubiaceae* was scored in four different ways, two of which were based on fragments, and two on restriction sites, and they were subsequently analysed with Wagner parsimony. The methods resulted in different phylogenetic trees. The inherent differences between the methods relate to the amount of non-homologous characters and dependent characters, but none of the methods will systematically bias the resulting cladograms. The fragment analyses are much less time-consuming, but probably less accurate, than the site analyses. The choice of method is dependent on a trade-off between accuracy and resources (time). One important recommendation is made: all phylogenetic analyses of chloroplast DNA data should be accompanied by a data matrix and contain information on how the matrix was compiled.

Cladistic methodology, combined with information from nucleic acids, has focused an increased interest on systematics, phylogeny, and evolution. In plants, perhaps the most fruitful studies have been based on restriction endonuclease data analysis of chloroplast DNA (cpDNA). Although DNA sequencing is becoming more common, restriction data from cpDNA will probably continue to be very useful for phylogenetic analysis. The usefulness of this approach is evident, above all, from the work of PALMER and coworkers (PALMER & ZAMIR 1982; PALMER & al. 1985, 1988; PALMER 1985, 1987; but also from many other studies (KUNG & al. 1982; HOSAKA & al. 1984; PERL-TREVES & GALUN 1985; SYTSMA & SCHAAL 1985; HOSAKA 1986; SYTSMA & GOTTLIEB 1986 a, b; JANSEN & PALMER 1987 a, b; RIESEBERG & al. 1988; ROSE & al. 1988; SYTSMA & SMITH 1988; SOLTIS & al. 1989; SMITH & SYTSMA 1990; SORENG & al. 1990; SYTSMA & al. 1990).

In general, restriction data are very suitable for phylogenetic analysis, as fragments or sites are discrete units; they either do or do not occur, and thus are easily coded as binary characters. However, the difference between probability of a restriction site gain and a restriction site loss (TEMPLETON 1983) is a problem with use of restriction data, and it could justify assignment of different weights to the two state changes (ALBERT & al. 1991). There has been some dispute over which parsimony principle that should be used in an analysis to handle the “gain and

loss" problem (cf. DEBRY & SLADE 1985, ALBERT & al. 1991). In Wagner analysis (PAUP package, SWOFFORD 1989, HENNIG 86, FARRIS 1988) all gains and losses are treated equally, while in Dollo analysis (PAUP package, SWOFFORD 1989, FARRIS 1977) parallel gains are not allowed. However, it is possible to use step matrices for different weighting of gains and losses (PAUP package, SWOFFORD 1989). The resulting phylogenetic pattern will depend on the choice of method (cf. JANSEN & al. 1990, BREMER & JANSEN 1991). In the present study I focus on another methodological issue, namely how the data set for phylogenetic analysis of a restriction pattern should be constructed. Is there only one accurate way of scoring data? Are there any inherent differences between the different methods of scoring? Will different scoring of data from the same molecular study, analysed with the same parsimony program, yield different cladograms? To answer the questions I have used results from a cpDNA investigation of the coffee family, *Rubiaceae* (BREMER & JANSEN 1991).

Data matrices are rarely included in publications, although there are exceptions (e.g., SYTSMAN & SMITH 1988, SORENG & al. 1990). Because of that it is usually difficult, if not impossible, to reconstruct them from the results of analyses, and impossible to find out how the scoring was done, or to reanalyze the data set. Students of restriction data usually state that they have used restriction site mutations as characters, whereas length mutations are usually not considered in most analyses (cf. PALMER & al. 1988). However, my interpretation is that site occurrences rather than mutations were scored in most of the studies published. The question of scoring patterns (occurrences) or processes (mutations), is intimately linked with the more general question of homology. I argue for the principle that characters which appear similar should be tentatively treated as homologous (Hennig's auxiliary rule, HENNIG 1966: 121), and that final hypotheses of homology and homoplasy should be identified from character distributions after the tree is constructed. The main object of the present paper is to provide an explicit comparison of four different methods for scoring restriction data. I will evaluate the methods with regard to the effort needed to produce data, the risks of incorrectly interpreting characters as homologous and including characters that are causally "dependent", and with regard to their basic assumption of inferring processes (mutations) from pattern (phylogeny). Since the methods may yield different results I will argue that the procedure of character scoring should be explicitly described, and that data matrices should be published.

Restriction data of cpDNA for phylogenetic analysis

Chloroplast DNA is digested with restriction enzymes and the fragments separated by gel electrophoresis. The molecule is about 150 kilobases (kb) long, and after digestion with an enzyme that recognizes six nucleotides, it is common to get about 10 to 60 different fragments. An analysis in which possessions of these fragments are used directly as characters, will be referred to as fragment "direct" analysis (FDA).

In order to reduce the risk of non-homology between similar-sized fragments of different taxa, one usually tries to localize the area of origin on the cpDNA molecule of a particular fragment. This is done by heterologous or homologous probe hybridizations. These cpDNA probes have a known size and position on

the cpDNA molecule and together they usually cover most of the cpDNA molecules. Restriction fragments of the same size and position on the cpDNA molecule can then be used as characters in a phylogenetic analysis, in the following called fragment occurrence analysis (FOA) (cf. WAUGH & al. 1990).

In some of the early studies an “unspecified fragment analysis” was used (BERTHOUS & al. 1983, CLEGG & al. 1984, ERICKSON & al. 1983). Fragment based distance analysis (NEI & LI 1979) has also been applied by some students (COATES & CULLIS 1987, LEHVÄSLAIHO & al. 1987, HANTULA & al. 1989). However, most systematists using cpDNA for phylogenetic analyses have adopted parsimony instead of distance methods, and restriction site comparison instead of fragment comparison (cf. PERLTREVES & GALUN 1985).

Restriction site comparison is very different from FOA and FDA when dealing with restriction data. The original fragment order is reconstructed as more or less detailed restriction maps and the restriction sites are then aligned and used as characters. If one taxon has a fragment of 8 kb at a particular position and another taxon has two fragments of 2 and 6 kb, respectively, at the same position, this is interpreted either as a site loss in the first taxon, or as a site gain in the latter. Length mutations (insertions or deletions) can also be identified.

There are two different methods of dealing with sites as characters. In site occurrence analysis (SOA) the pattern of restriction sites is used. The occurrence or absence of a site at a particular position is used as a character in the analysis. However, the underlying process behind the pattern causing occurrence or absence may be different: various substitutions among the six positions of the site, a deletion, or an insertion, may cause the change in site occurrence.

The other method, here called site mutation analysis (SMA), makes some assumptions about the processes. Gain or loss of a site is used as a character only when it is supposed to be caused by the same mutation. If a particular site loss is supposed to be the result of a substitution then species without the site but with a deletion within the same region should not be scored for a site loss (0) but with a question mark (?), as the suspected underlying process may be different. In several studies restriction site mutations are said to be used as characters (cf. PALMER 1988, JANSEN & al. 1990). As matrices are usually not published, the method of scoring is, however, not explicitly shown. According to the terminology in the present paper, these studies are probably SOA.

In SMA, changes that can not be homologized directly should be scored as “unknown”. Consider a hypothetical case where the outgroup and some of the ingroup taxa have two fragments 2 and 6 kb, respectively, and the remaining taxa have an 8 kb fragment. The latter taxa should be scored as 0 in the matrix, indicating a site loss mutation. But if a third taxon possesses a fragment that is only 7 kb long, the mechanism causing the loss of the site could also be a non-homologous mutation, i.e. a deletion including the site. Hence, that taxon should be scored as unknown for that site character.

Material and methods

I have compared four data sets derived from an investigation of 33 genera of the *Rubiaceae* (BREMER & JANSEN 1991). The restriction pattern was obtained by digestion with eight restriction enzymes and subsequent hybridization with 19 different heterologous probes from *Lactuca* and *Petunia*.

Table 2. FOA matrix of the 548 phylogenetically informative restriction fragments. 1 indicates presence of fragment, 0 indicates absence of fragments, and - indicates uncertainty in autoradiogram reading. Characters are restriction fragments obtained from digestion with the following enzymes Nco I (1 - 56), Bcl I (57 - 148), Hind III (149 - 217), Bam HI (218 - 297), Bst XI (298 - 357), Eco RV (358 - 419), Hae II (420 - 486), and Sac I (487 - 548)

Table with 33 columns (1-33) and 548 rows (1-548). Each cell contains a binary value (0 or 1) representing the presence or absence of a specific restriction fragment for a given enzyme and fragment number. The table is organized into 11 groups of 50 rows each, corresponding to enzymes Nco I, Bcl I, Hind III, Bam HI, Bst XI, Eco RV, Hae II, and Sac I.

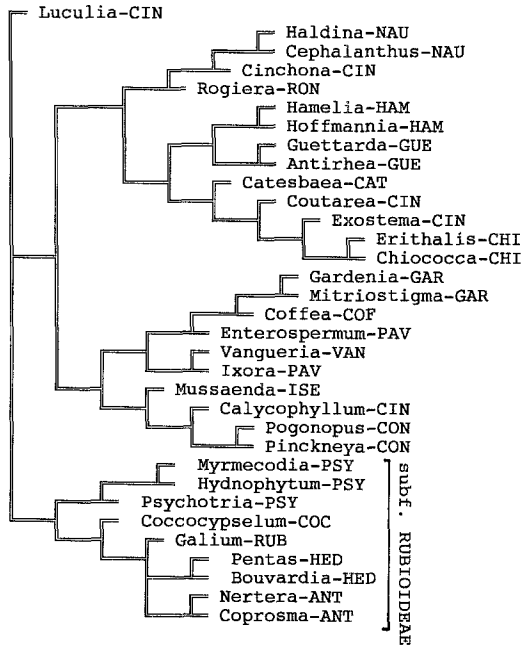


Fig. 1. A strict consensus tree from two equally parsimonious trees of *Rubiaceae*, based on restriction fragment analysis (FDA), each 1386 steps long, with a consistency index of 0.29, and a retention index of 0.56

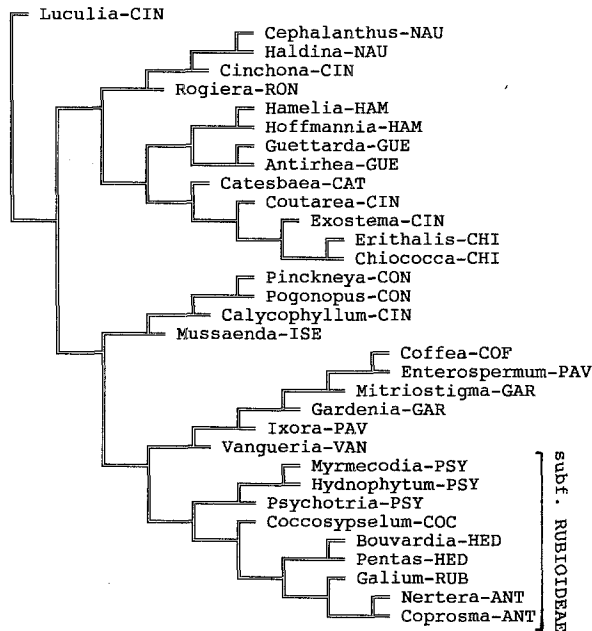


Fig. 2. A phylogenetic tree of *Rubiaceae*, based on restriction fragment analysis (FOA), 1486 steps long, with a consistency index of 0.36 and a retention index of 0.63

long, with a consistency index of 0.29 and a retention index of 0.56 (Fig. 1). The 548 phylogenetically informative fragments (FOA) resulted in one tree, 1486 steps long, with a consistency index of 0.36 and a retention index of 0.63 (Fig. 2). The site analysis (SOA) of the 161 informative sites (BREMER & JANSEN 1991) gave six equally parsimonious trees, 348 steps long with a consistency index of 0.46 and a retention index of 0.78 (Fig. 3), while the same 161 informative sites with the SMA analysis gave 60 equally parsimonious trees, 291 steps long with a consistency index of 0.53 and a retention index of 0.79 (Fig. 4).

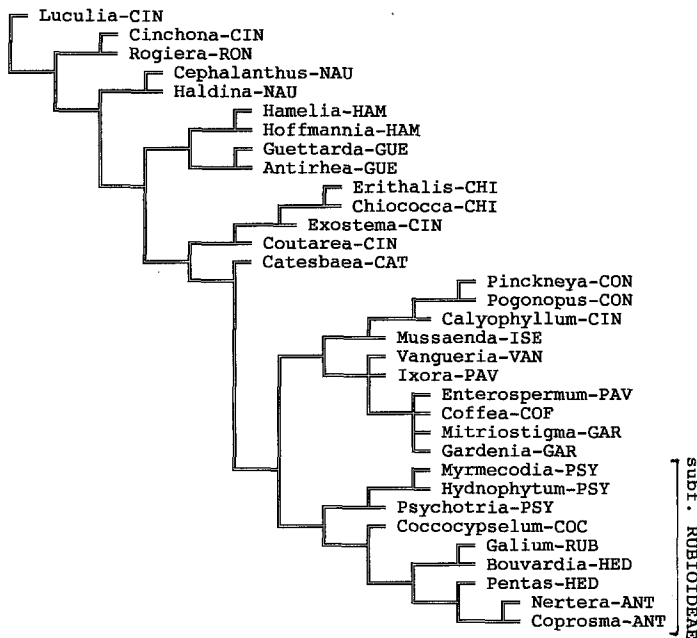


Fig. 3. A strict consensus tree from six equally parsimonious trees of *Rubiaceae*, based on restriction site occurrences (SOA), each 348 steps long, with a consistency index of 0.46 and a retention index of 0.78

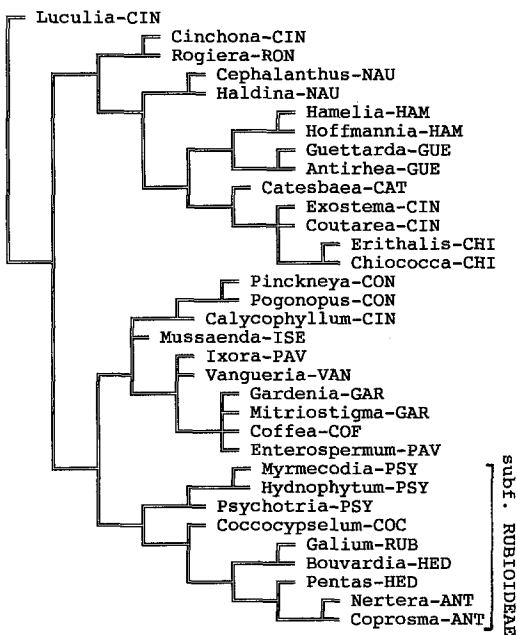


Fig. 4. A strict consensus tree from 60 equally parsimonious trees of *Rubiaceae*, based on restriction site mutations (SMA), each 291 steps long, with a consistency index of 0.53 and a retention index of 0.79

The resulting trees differ in topology. The FDA, with the two different solutions, resulted in a strict consensus tree (Fig. 1) with all branches except one, a trichotomy, resolved in dichotomies. The single FOA tree (Fig. 2) is totally resolved in dichotomies. The SOA, with the six different solutions, resulted in a strict consensus tree (Fig. 3) with one trichotomy and one tetratotomy. The SMA with the 60 different

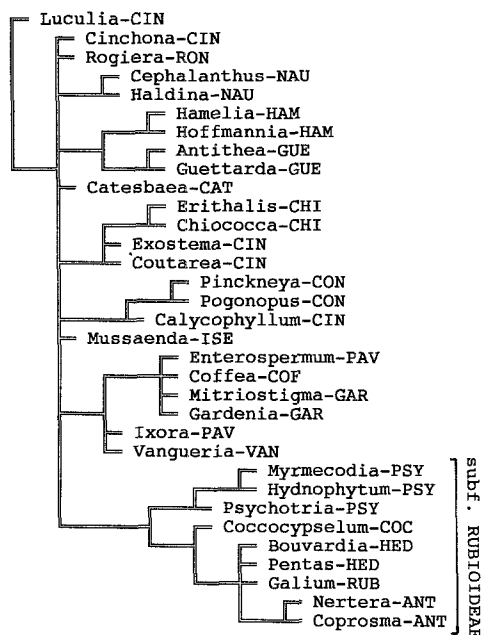


Fig. 5. A strict consensus tree for all four analyses (FOA, FDA, SOA, SMA), showing all replicated parts

possible solutions gave a consensus tree (Fig. 4) with five polytomies, of which three were trichotomies and two were tetratomies.

Despite these differences many clades were identical between the analyses. The subfamily *Rubioideae* (9 taxa) is similar in all four analyses, and many terminal clades are congruent between the four analyses. A strict consensus tree for all four analyses (Fig. 5) shows the replicated parts in all four analyses. The main differences between the trees were found in the basal branchings.

Discussion

The results from the four different scoring methods yielded solutions with different topologies, resolutions, number of trees, numbers of steps, consistency and retention index values. If we had the "true" phylogeny it would be easy to decide the best method, at least in this particular case. Instead, there are two different, indirect ways of evaluating the methods. The first is to compare the results to see whether these give indications of the quality of the methods. The other way would be to analyse inherent differences between the methods. If such inherent differences exist, they are essential to consider before a certain method is chosen.

As the number of characters differs between the analyses, the number of steps for each tree is not an adequate criterion of the quality of the methods. For similar reasons, the consistency index (CI) is also not a useful indicator of quality (ARCHIE 1989, SANDERSON & DONOGHUE 1989). The CI is strongly dependent on the degree of question-marks in the matrix (in a SMA there will always be many question-marks and thus the CI will be higher), and it may also depend on the number of characters (ARCHIE 1989, although this was not found by SANDERSON & DONOGHUE 1989). The retention index (RI) of FARRIS (1989), or the homoplasy excess ratio minimum index (HERM) of ARCHIE (1989), should not be sensitive to different numbers of characters and may thus be a better criterion when evaluating different

trees. In this study the site analyses yielded distinctly higher RI values. However, the main discrepancy between the trees concerns the basal branchings. If we consider the character distribution on the trees (BREMER & JANSEN 1991, and unpubl.), we find that few characters support these branchings, and therefore they are very sensitive to small matrix changes. Even though insufficiency of data may influence the differences between the trees, there are some important inherent differences between the methods.

A difference between the SMA and the other analyses is that SMA makes some assumptions about the presumed processes (mutations), while the others are founded on scoring of pattern only.

Concerning fragment analyses (FOA, FDA) the information from large length mutations will also be used as informative characters as fragments of equal length are considered homologous. However, one must be cautious that these length mutations will not be separated from the site mutations and thus it would be impossible to give, e.g., length mutations different weight.

Without map construction there is a risk that two fragments of equal length come from different parts of the genome. In a FDA this risk is not negligible, and I would therefore avoid the FDA method. In the *Rubiaceae* study, 30% of the initially 548 informative characters were shown to be non-homologous, e.g., the fragments were from different parts of the cpDNA molecules. However, with the rather small probes normally used in a FOA (1 to 10 kb) there is a low probability that two non-homologous fragments should have exactly the same size. In the *Rubiaceae* study, including 944 different fragments, not a single one of the fragments identified directly from the autoradiogram were shown to be non-homologous between taxa after mapping. The danger of including non-homologous fragments in FOA thus seems to be over-estimated.

Another objection for using fragments as characters is that they are not "evolutionarily" independent of each other. Dependent characters should be avoided if they mirror the same "evolutionary event", i.e. if they originated from a single mutation (deletion, insertion etc.). If some characters are dependent but treated as if they were independent, the corresponding evolutionary event is assigned a higher weight than other such events. Nevertheless, both restriction sites and fragments may be dependent characters. Consider the effect of a single 200 bp deletion affecting, say, ten different sites. Scoring each distinct fragment as an independent character multiplies the effect of this single deletion ten times in the data matrix. Similarly, if restriction sites are scored, all taxa with the deletion will share ten site losses, although all dependent on a single event, the deletion. Restriction fragments are also "dependent" in a very special way. Consider a hypothetical case where an outgroup has a 10 kb fragment and two ingroup taxa share a site that has split the former 10 kb fragment into two smaller ones, 4 and 6 kb, respectively. In SOA and SMA this site is scored as a gain of one character shared by the two taxa and it will give one step in the resulting phylogenetic tree. In FDA and FOA the same site mutation will be represented as three characters (the occurrence or not of the 10 kb, 4 kb, and 6 kb fragments, respectively) in the data matrix and on the resulting tree. Since all three characters will normally be placed at the same node, they are congruent. In the cladogram, the 10 kb fragment character will be represented by a loss in the ingroup taxa, while the 4 and 6 kb fragments will be represented as gains. If the only difference between a tree built from restriction sites and one built

from fragments is that there are always three characters instead of one in the fragment tree, the resulting phylogeny would not differ between methods. However, not all site characters are represented by three fragments. In the *Rubiaceae* study there are 548 fragments and 161 sites, differing from the expected ratio 3:1. There are different reasons for the quotient not being exactly 3:1. One is that a length mutation, ignored in site analysis, will result in two characters in a fragment analysis, (one fragment representing the unmutated state and the other the mutated fragment). Another reason is that a site mutation may not be phylogenetically informative (an autapomorphy or synapomorphy for all ingroup taxa) while the surrounding fragments are informative. If we do not have restriction maps we can not determine whether a fragment is a result of a length or a point mutation, and consequently whether characters really are dependent. Since the occurring deviations (if there are any) from the 3:1 ratio in the character distribution probably are randomly distributed on the resulting tree, there is no reason to suspect that these will systematically bias the results. However, a weakly supported clade may of course be affected, and this is probably the case with the basal branchings of the *Rubiaceae*.

Turning to restriction site analyses (SOA and SMA) one may note that if restriction site maps were constructed from totally sequenced DNA, we could be rather certain whether sites were homologous between taxa. However, cpDNA from two plants only have been totally sequenced (SHINOZAKI & al. 1986, OHYAMA & al. 1986), and if such sequences were available we should use these and not the restriction sites only. To construct restriction maps we have to rely on restriction enzyme digestion, fragment separation, hybridization to known cpDNA fragments, and the following estimation of where the sites belong. It is necessary to stress that the position of a site on the map is reconstructed from measurements of the surrounding fragments, so there will be no more accuracy in its position than the confidence by which the fragment lengths have been estimated.

If we construct restriction maps and use sites as characters, most problems about non-homologous or dependent characters will be eliminated since most sites are independent of each other. On the other hand, all phylogenetic information from length mutations will be lost unless we include length mutations as separate characters, which is of course possible.

What about the differences between SOA and SMA? In SOA only the pattern of restriction sites is considered (sites are treated as homologous if they occur at the same location in the genome of different taxa). In SMA also information about the inferred process, mutation, is used when scoring a character, and if we suspect different processes we would not treat them as homologous. In SOA all characters are scored, independently of each other, as 0 or 1. In SMA analysis all questionmarks (?) in the matrix will be "scored by the program" as 0 or 1 in the most parsimonious way for that particular analysis. This means that the other characters determine the "scoring". Different length mutations or base substitutions (processes) can result in the same pattern of restriction sites or fragments. We should avoid stating a priori the processes, since they belong to the possible explanations which we can use if we want to interpret homoplasy in a resulting cladogram. I would avoid SMA for these reasons.

In conclusion, the methods differ in the degree of problems with determining homology, dependent characters, and time-consumption, but none of the methods

will systematically bias the resulting cladograms. However, the methods probably differ in accuracy. When choosing between FOA and SOA I think one should consider the time and expenses. The SOA is associated with the smallest risk of error, and is thus probably most accurate. However, length mutations are usually omitted and therefore potential information is lost. Furthermore, it is a more time-consuming method than FOA and thus more expensive. In a field like systematic botany, where a vast number of taxonomical groups should be investigated, perhaps a cheaper or faster method could be accepted as long as we are aware of the weakness of the method. So far, I think most students of cpDNA for phylogenetic reconstruction have used SOA, although the method used is not clearly stated. However, as the scoring method may influence the resulting hypothesis of phylogeny, it is absolutely necessary that each published restriction analysis is accompanied by a data matrix and contains information on how the matrix was compiled. Without such additional information, it is not possible to determine the reliability, and hence value, of a study.

I am grateful to K. BREMER, O. ERIKSSON, B. MISHLER, H.-E. WANNTORP, and one anonymous reviewer for constructive criticism on the manuscript. This study was financially supported by the Swedish Natural Science Research Council.

References

- ARCHIE, J. W., 1989: Homoplasy excess ratios: new indices for measuring levels of homoplasy in phylogenetic systematics and a critique of the consistency index. — *Syst. Zool.* **38**: 253–269.
- ALBERT, V. A., MISHLER, B. D., CHASE, M. W., 1991: Character-state weighting for restriction site data in phylogenetic reconstruction, with an example from chloroplast DNA. — In SOLTIS, D., SOLTIS, P., DOYLE, J., (Eds.): *Plant molecular systematics*. — New York: Chapman & Hall (in press).
- BERTHOUE, T., MATTHIEU, C., VEDEL, F., 1983: Chloroplast and mitochondrial DNA variation as indicator of phylogenetic relationships in the genus *Coffea* L. — *Theoret. Appl. Genet.* **65**: 77–84.
- BREMER, B., JANSEN, R. K., 1991: Comparative restriction site mapping of chloroplast DNA implies new phylogenetic relationships within *Rubiaceae*. — *Amer. J. Bot.* (in press).
- CLEGG, M. T., BROWN, A. H. D., WHITFIELD, P. R., 1984: Chloroplast DNA diversity in wild and cultivated barley: implication for genetic conservation. — *Genet. Res.* **43**: 339–343.
- COATES, D., CULLIS, C. A., 1987: Chloroplast DNA variability among *Linum* species. — *Amer. J. Bot.* **74**: 260–268.
- DEBRY, R. W., SLADE, N. A., 1985: Cladistic analysis of restriction endonuclease cleavage maps within a maximum-likelihood framework. — *Syst. Zool.* **34**: 21–34.
- ERICKSON, L. R., STRAUS, N. A., BEVERSDORF, W. D., 1983: Restriction patterns reveal origins of chloroplast genomes in *Brassica* amphiploides. — *Theoret. Appl. Genet.* **65**: 201–206.
- FARRIS, J. S., 1977: Phylogenetic analysis under Dollo's law. — *Syst. Zool.* **26**: 77–88.
— 1988: Hennig 86. Version I.5 [computer software and manual]. — Port Jefferson Station, New York: (publ. by author).
- 1989: The retention index and the rescaled consistency index. — *Cladistics* **5**: 417–419.
- HANTULA, J., UOTILA, P., SAURA, A., LOKKI, J., 1989: Chloroplast DNA variation in *Anemone s. lato* (*Ranunculaceae*). — *Pl. Syst. Evol.* **163**: 81–85.

- HENNIG, W., 1966: Phylogenetic systematics. — Urban: University of Illinois Press.
- HOSAKA, K., 1986: Who is the mother of the potato? — Restriction endonuclease analysis of chloroplast DNA of cultivated potatoes. — *Theoret. Appl. Genet.* **72**: 606–618.
- OGIHARA, Y., MATSUBAYASHI, M., TSUNEWAKI, K., 1984: Phylogenetic relationship between the tuberous *Solanum* species as revealed by restriction endonuclease analysis of chloroplast DNA. — *J. Genet. (Japan)* **59**: 349–369.
- JANSEN, R. K., PALMER, J. D., 1987a: Chloroplast DNA from lettuce and *Barnadesia* (*Asteraceae*): structure, gene localization, and characterization of a large inversion. — *Curr. Gent.* **11**: 553–564.
- — 1987b: A chloroplast DNA inversion marks an ancient evolutionary split in the sunflower family (*Asteraceae*). — *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **84**: 5818–5822.
- HOLSINGER, K. E., MICHAELS, H. J., PALMER, J. D., 1990: Phylogenetic analysis of chloroplast DNA restriction site data at higher taxonomic levels: an example from the *Asteraceae*. — *Evolution* (in press).
- KUNG, S. D., ZHU, Y. S., CHEN, K., 1982: *Nicotiana* chloroplast genome. III. Chloroplast DNA evolution. — *Theoret. Appl. Genet.* **61**: 73–79.
- LEHVÄSLAIHO, H., SAURA, A., LOKKI, J., 1987: Chloroplast DNA variation in the grass tribe *Festuceae*. — *Theoret. Appl. Genet.* **74**: 298–302.
- NEI, M., LI, W. H., 1979: Mathematical model for studying genetic variation in terms of restriction endonucleases. — *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **76**: 5269–5273.
- OHYAMA, K., FUKUZAWA, H., KOHCHI, T., SHIRAI, H., SANO, T., SANO, S., UMESONO, K., SHIKI, Y., TAKEUCHI, M., CHANG, Z., AOTA, S., INOKUCHI, H., OZEKI, H., 1986: Chloroplast gene organization deduced from complete sequence of liverwort *Marchantia polymorpha* chloroplast DNA. — *Nature* **322**: 572–574.
- PALMER, J. D., 1985: Comparative organization of chloroplastomes. — *Ann. Rev. Genet.* **19**: 325–354.
- 1987: Chloroplast DNA evolution and biosystematic uses of chloroplast DNA variation. — *Amer. Naturalist* **130**: S6–S29.
- JANSEN, R. K., MICHAELS, H. J., CHASE, M. D., MANHART, J. A., 1988: Chloroplast DNA variation and plant phylogeny. — *Ann. Missouri Bot. Gard.* **75**: 1180–1206.
- JORGENSEN, R. A., THOMSON, W. F., 1985: Chloroplast DNA variation and evolution in *Pisum*: patterns of change and phylogenetic analysis. — *Genetics* **109**: 195–213.
- ZAMIR, D., 1982: Chloroplast DNA evolution and phylogenetic relationships in *Lycopersicon*. — *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **79**: 5006–5010.
- PERL-TREVES, R., GALUN, E., 1985: The *Cucumis* plastome: physical map, intrageneric variation and phylogenetic relationships. — *Theoret. Appl. Genet.* **71**: 417–429.
- RIESEBERG, L. D., SOLTIS, D., PALMER, J. D., 1988: A molecular reexamination of introgression between *Helianthus annuus* and *H. bolanderi* (*Compositae*). — *Evolution* **42**: 227–238.
- ROSE, R. J., SCHLARBAUM, S. E., SMALL, E., JOHNSON, L. B., 1988: Chloroplast genomic variation and phylogeny in *Medicago* section *Intertextae*. — *Canad. J. Bot.* **66**: 1352–1358.
- SANDERSON, M. J., DONOGHUE, M. J., 1989: Patterns of variation in levels of homoplasy. — *Evolution* **43**: 1781–1795.
- SHINOZAKI, K., OHME, M., TANAKA, M., WAKASUGI, T., HAYASHIDA, N., MATSUBAYASHI, T., ZAITA, N., CHUNWONGSE, J., OBOKATA, J., YAMAGUCHI-SHINOZAKI, K., OHTO, C., TORAZAWA, K., MENG, B. Y., SUGITA, M., DENO, H., KAMOGASHIRA, T., YAMADA, K., KUSUDA, J., TAKAIWA, F., KATO, A., TOHDOH, N., SHIMADA, H., SUGIURA, M., 1986: The complete nucleotide sequence of the tobacco chloroplast genome: its gene organization and expression. — *EMBO J.* **5**: 2043–2049.
- SMITH, R. L., SYTSA, K. J., 1990: Evolution of *Populus nigra* (sect. *Aigeiros*): introgressive hybridization and the chloroplast contribution of *Populus alba* (sect. *Populus*). — *Amer. J. Bot.* **77**: 1176–1187.

- SOLTIS, D. E., SOLTIS, P. S., NESS, B. D., 1989: Chloroplast-DNA variation and multiple origins of autopolyploidy in *Heuchera micrantha* (*Saxifragaceae*). — *Evolution* **43**: 650–656.
- SORENG, R. J., DAVIS, J. I., DOYLE, J. J., 1990: A phylogenetic analysis of chloroplast DNA restriction site variation in *Poaceae* subfamily *Pooideae*. — *Pl. Syst. Evol.* **172**: 83–97.
- SWOFFORD, D. L., 1989: PAUP, Phylogenetic analysis using parsimony. Version 3.0 [computer software and manual]. — Champaign, Illinois: Illinois Natural History Survey.
- SYTSMA, K. J., GOTTLIEB, L. D., 1986 a: Chloroplast DNA evidence for the derivation of the genus *Heterogaura* from *Clarkia* (*Onagraceae*). — *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **83**: 5554–5557.
- 1986 b: Chloroplast DNA evolution and phylogenetic relationships in *Clarkia* sect. *Peripetasma* (*Onagraceae*). — *Evolution* **40**: 1248–1262.
 - SCHAAL, B. A., 1985: Phylogenetics of the *Lisianthus skinneri* (*Gentianaceae*) species complex in Panama using DNA restriction fragment analysis. — *Evolution* **39**: 594–608.
 - SMITH, J. F., 1988: DNA and morphology: comparisons in the *Onagraceae*. — *Ann. Missouri Bot. Gard.* **75**: 1217–1237.
 - – GOTTLIEB, L. D., 1990: Phylogenetics in *Clarkia* (*Onagraceae*): restriction site mapping of chloroplast DNA. — *Syst. Bot.* **15**: 280–295.
- TEMPLETON, A. R., 1983: Phylogenetic inference from restriction endonuclease cleavage site maps with particular reference to the evolution of humans and the apes. — *Evolution* **37**: 221–244.
- WAUGH, R., VANDE VEN, G. T. W., PHILLIPS, M. S., POWELL, W., 1990: Chloroplast DNA diversity in the genus *Rubus* (*Rosaceae*) revealed by Southern hybridization. — *Pl. Syst. Evol.* **172**: 65–75.

Address of the author: Dr BIRGITTA BREMER, Department of Systematic Botany, Uppsala Universitet, Box 541, S-75121 Sweden.

Accepted October 29, 1990 by F. EHRENDORFER