

EVOLUTION OF MORPHOLOGICAL NOVELTY: A PHYLOGENETIC ANALYSIS OF GROWTH PATTERNS IN *STREPTOCARPUS* (GESNERIACEAE)

M. MÖLLER^{1,2} AND Q. C. B. CRONK^{1,3,4}

¹Royal Botanic Garden, 20A Inverleith Row, Edinburgh EH3 5LR, United Kingdom

³Institute of Cell and Molecular Biology, Kings Buildings, University of Edinburgh, Mayfield Road, Edinburgh EH9 3JH, United Kingdom

²E-mail: M.Moeller@rbge.org.uk

⁴E-mail: Q.Cronk@rbge.org.uk

Abstract.—*Streptocarpus* shows great variation in vegetative architecture. In some species a normal shoot apical meristem never forms and the entire vegetative plant body may consist of a single giant cotyledon, which may measure up to 0.75 m (the unifoliate type) or with further leaves arising from this structure (the rosulate type). A molecular phylogeny of 87 taxa (77 *Streptocarpus* species, seven related species, and three outgroup species) using the internal transcribed spacers and 5.8S region of nuclear ribosomal DNA suggests that *Streptocarpus* can be divided into two major clades. One of these broadly corresponds to the caulescent group (with conventional shoot architecture) classified as subgenus *Streptocarpella*, whereas the other is mainly composed of acaulescent species with unusual architecture (subgenus *Streptocarpus*). Some caulescent species (such as *S. papangae*) are anomalously placed with the acaulescent clade. Available cytological data are, however, completely congruent with the two major clades: the caulescent clade is $x = 15$ and the acaulescent clade (including the caulescent *S. papangae*) is $x = 16$ (or polyploid multiples of 16). The genera *Linnaeopsis*, *Saintpaulia*, and *Schizoboea* are nested within *Streptocarpus*. The sequenced region has evolved, on average, 2.44 times faster in the caulescent clade than in the acaulescent clade and this is associated with the more rapid life cycle of the caulescents. Morphological variation in plant architecture within the acaulescent clade is homoplastic and does not appear to have arisen by unique abrupt changes. Instead, rosulate and unifoliate growth forms have evolved several times, reversals have occurred, and intermediate architectures are found. An underlying developmental plasticity seems to be a characteristic of the acaulescent clade and is reflected in a great lability of form.

Key words.—Gesneriaceae, phyllomorph, phylogeny, plant architecture, shoot apical meristem, *Streptocarpus*.

Received April 5, 2000. Accepted December 10, 2000.

Streptocarpus Lindley (Gesneriaceae) is a genus of about 130 species from Africa, Madagascar, and the Comoro Islands from which the familiar Cape primroses of horticulture are derived. *Streptocarpus* species are striking for their non-classical morphology (Jong 1970, 1973, 1978; Jong and Burt 1975). The acaulescent species do not form a conventional shoot apical meristem (SAM). Instead, the vegetative portion of the plant is composed of leaves that typically have continued growth of the lamina from a basal meristem and a stemlike petiole (termed a “petiolode”) formed from a petiolode meristem (an intercalary meristem extending across the base of the midrib, topographically at the level of the groove meristem). Inflorescence shoots and additional leaves arise from a groove meristem (an organogenic meristematic region on the adaxial side of the lamina base). Because these leaves are complex organs that possess up to three separate meristems and combine leaflike and stemlike features, the term “phyllomorph” has been coined for them (Jong 1973; Jong and Burt 1975). Some species (“unifoliate”) do not produce additional leaves at the groove meristem. In these species, the only aboveground vegetative growth consists of a greatly enlarged single cotyledon and associated hypocotyl/mesocotyl (mesocotyl being hypocotyl-like tissue that forms in some species after germination between the two cotyledons causing their vertical separation). This cotyledonary phyllomorph (primary phyllomorph) can be up to 0.75 m long in species such as *S. grandis*. If additional phyllomorphs are iterated from the primary and succeeding phyllomorphs, then a rosettelike plant can be produced (the “rosulate” growth form). In some rosulate species, the production of phyllomorphs can be highly regular (Jong 1978).

However, many *Streptocarpus* species produce a normal shoot system with a normal SAM initiating decussate leaf pairs (the “caulescent” species). These caulescent species may sometimes have a reduced stem axis and spiral phyllotaxis as in *Saintpaulia* or the Madagascar *Saintpaulia*-like species. Like most Old World Gesneriaceae, all *Streptocarpus* (including these caulescent species) show anisocotily; some enlargement of one cotyledon after germination. In caulescent *Streptocarpus*, there is a delay in the development of a SAM, which corresponds to the period of cotyledonary enlargement. The extreme developmental variation shown by *Streptocarpus* therefore may be prefigured by the developmental oddity of anisocotily in the Old World Gesneriaceae as a whole. Indeed, some species of *Chirita*, such as *C. micromusa* can be induced by adverse environmental conditions or short days to flower on the enlarged cotyledon without producing a stem system (Jong 1970). Such plastic caulescence is also found in *S. nobilis* (Lawrence 1943). The genus *Monophyllaea* commonly has a unifoliate habit (Cronk and Möller 1997; Tsukaya 1997), but because it belongs to a different tribe of Gesneriaceae, this is likely to be independently derived (Smith et al. 1997). Unlike *Streptocarpus*, in which there are numerous rosulate species, *Monophyllaea* does not usually iterate further phyllomorphs and the inflorescence appears to be a reduced leafy shoot (Weber 1975). In *Streptocarpus* it has been shown that anisocotily can be prevented and a shootlike structure induced even in the acaulescent species if high exogenous GA₃ is applied or if auxin transport is inhibited (Rosenblum and Basile 1984).

The genus *Streptocarpus* has long been divided into two

subgenera: the caulescent *Streptocarpella* and the acaulescent *Streptocarpus*. This division was strengthened by the discovery of a cytological difference, with subgenus *Streptocarpella* having $x = 15$ and subgenus *Streptocarpus* $x = 16$ chromosomes (Lawrence 1940). However the dividing line between the two subgenera is not always clear. Adult specimens of *S. schliebenii* have a normal stem morphology conforming to the *Streptocarpella* pattern and it was accordingly classified in that subgenus by Hilliard and Burt (1971). However, the juvenile stages of *S. schliebenii* show a phyllo-morphic pattern and the chromosome number of $x = 16$ (Milne 1975), suggesting reclassification in subgenus *Streptocarpus* (Burt 1999). Another problematic species is *S. decipiens*, in which an initial phyllomorphic morphology is succeeded by the production of a leafy stem, but, as with *S. schliebenii* the balance of morphological and cytological evidence suggests a position in subgenus *Streptocarpus* (Hilliard and Burt 1971).

The abandonment of the classical leaf/shoot dichotomy by some species of *Streptocarpus* and the existence of such a wide range of growth patterns raises questions about the evolution of morphology in the genus. A previous study using internal transcribed spacer (ITS) sequences of nuclear ribosomal DNA (nrDNA) (Möller and Cronk 1997) based on limited sampling suggested that the truly unifoliate species that were included (*S. dunnii*, *S. eylesi*, *S. wittei*) formed a single clade characterized by an approximately 40-bp deletion in ITS2, while the rosulate species formed another clade. If this clear-cut division were maintained, it would imply that the unifoliate/rosulate transition (in whatever direction) represents a unique, irreversible event. Such abrupt morphological innovation would conform to a model of evolution that proceeds by rare but major changes (e.g., Bateman and DiMichele 1994). If, however, morphological transitions within *Streptocarpus* are homoplastic (i.e., reversals have occurred and transitions are associated in the tree with species of intermediate morphology), then a different view of the evolution of this morphological innovation would be promoted. Under this model, genetically controlled developmental variability (e.g., variability in the regulation of the homeotic genes responsible for leaf and shoot determination) would allow repeated variation of form, even in fundamental morphological characters, on which selection can act. The evolution of anisocotly, varying in degree, in almost all the Old World Gesneriaceae, may be an essential precondition for further developmental plasticity. To test these ideas, we therefore wished to expand the phylogenetic analysis of the genus in order to assess in greater detail the relationships between species with different architectures.

METHODS

Ingroup and Outgroup Selection

We sequenced 77 species of *Streptocarpus* (Appendix). These include all those assembled over many years in the cultivated collections of the Royal Botanic Garden Edinburgh and several species that were sequenced from herbarium specimens. This represents about 60% of the genus. Although the majority of the African species have been sequenced, a considerably lower representation has been achieved of the less-

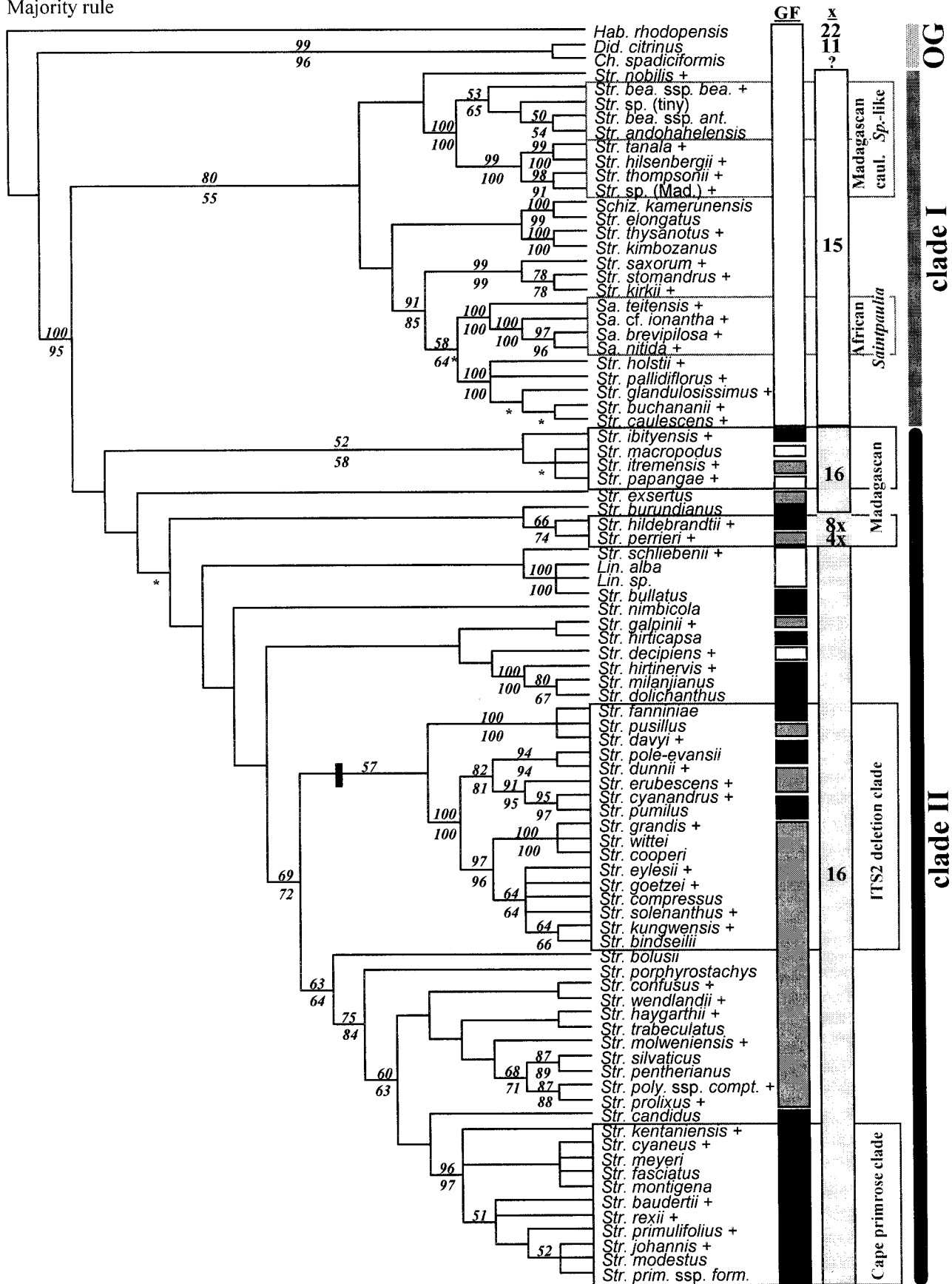
well-known Madagascan species. Two expeditions to Madagascar by M. Möller attempted to fill this gap.

Streptocarpus has been considered a natural group characterized by the twisted fruit. However, it has recently been shown that *Saintpaulia*, a genus without a twisted fruit, is a member of the *Streptocarpus* clade (Möller and Cronk 1997). *Saintpaulia* with its untwisted fruit has been traditionally placed in a genus separate from *Streptocarpus*. This finding prompted us to include other African members of the tribe Didymocarpeae in our analysis, namely *Schizoboea* (one species) and *Linnaeopsis* (two species). Twisted-fruit Gesneriaceae are also found in Asia, but these are divergent in other characters from *Streptocarpus*. However, four Asian species (*S. burmanicus*, *S. clarkeanus*, *S. orientalis*, and *S. sumatranus*) are sufficiently similar to *Streptocarpus* to have been retained in that genus pending further examination. We have obtained material of *S. orientalis* from Thailand and find that the ITS and *trnL-F* sequences are highly divergent from African *Streptocarpus* (M. Möller, Q. C. B. Cronk, K. Hellens, and J. Preston, unpubl. data). These Asian *Streptocarpus* were therefore excluded from this analysis. To root the tree unambiguously and to test the monophyly of *Streptocarpus* with respect to the African Didymocarpeae, we have chosen as outgroups three species that are morphologically dissimilar to each other and to *Streptocarpus*: *Chirita spadiciformis* and *Didymocarpus citrinus* from Asia and *Haberlea rhodopensis* from Europe.

Molecular Methods

DNA extraction, polymerase chain reaction (PCR), and DNA sequencing were performed as described previously (Möller and Cronk 1997). For extraction from herbarium specimens, a modified procedure was used: DNA was extracted using the DNeasy genomic plant DNA extraction kit (Qiagen Ltd. Dorking, Surrey, U.K.). This DNA was then additionally purified using the QIAquick PCR purification kit (Qiagen) to remove residual impurities. The complete ITS region was amplified using the modified (Gesneriaceae) primers ITS5P and ITS8P of Möller and Cronk (1997). PCR cycle parameters were set as follows after an initial denaturation step for 3 min at 94°C: denaturation for 1 min at 94°C, primer annealing for 1 min at 55°C, primer extension for 1.5 min at 72°C. After 30 cycles, a final extension step of 5 min at 72°C was added to allow completion of unfinished strands. A negative control (sterile distilled water instead of DNA) was added to each set of reactions. For some herbarium extractions booster-PCR was necessary using primers ITS1 and ITS4 (White et al. 1990), nesting inside primer sites ITS5P and ITS8P, applying the PCR conditions given above. For these samples the complete procedure, starting from DNA extraction to sequencing, was repeated twice to ensure authenticity of the fragments amplified. The spacers were sequenced in four reactions using the dye terminator cycle-sequencing ready-reaction kit (Perkin Elmer, Applied Biosystems Division, Foster City, CA), with AmpliTaq DNA Polymerase, FS, according to the manufacturer's recommendations and analyzed on an ABI377 sequencer. Forward and reverse sequences were compared for sequence confirmation (Möller and Cronk 1997). Individual sequences (GenBank

Majority rule



numbers AF316898–AF316984) and the aligned matrix (as Popset) have been submitted to GenBank.

Analytical Methods

The ITS1, ITS2, and 5.8S sequences for all 87 ingroup and outgroup taxa were aligned as described previously (Möller and Cronk 1997). Only unambiguously alignable regions were used in the analyses, with gaps treated as missing data and character states unordered. All phylogenetic analyses were conducted using PAUP versions 4.0b2a and 4 (Swofford 1998). Due to the large size of the data matrix, a three-step maximum-parsimony (MP) search strategy was implemented to optimize the search for most parsimonious trees (see Soltis and Soltis 1997). First, a heuristic search was performed with SIMPLE ADDITION sequence, TREE BISECTION-RECONNECTION (TBR), COLLAPSE (max), and MULTREES on. Second, 10,000 replicates of RANDOM ADDITION were performed, with NEAREST NEIGHBOUR INTERCHANGES (NNI) swapping, MULTREES, and STEEPEST DESCENT deactivated, terminating each replicate after saving not more than two trees of length (n). This length (n) was established empirically in the first heuristic search. Third, the saved trees were subjected to TBR swapping with MULTREES and STEEPEST DESCENT and COLLAPSE (max) on. This strategy is designed to detect multiple islands of most parsimonious trees if they exist.

Descriptive tree statistics (consistency index [CI], retention index [RI], rescaled consistency index [RC]) were derived as described previously (Möller and Cronk 1997), except using PAUP version 4.0b2a. Branch support values were obtained by fast jackknifing (JK) with 33% character deletion (10,000 replicates) and by heuristic bootstrapping (BS) with TBR and MULTREES off (10,000 replicates) (Spangler and Olmstead 1999). To examine the effect of weighting, the characters were reweighted by the mean value of the RC for each character in the most parsimonious trees that were recovered using the procedure above. An additional heuristic search was then performed, using the reweighted characters, collapsing branches with minimum length of zero. The ratio of transitions to transversions was obtained using MacClade 3.01 (Maddison and Maddison 1992).

The constraint option in PAUP was used to analyze tree length increases (over unconstrained trees) when we enforced the respective monophyly of unifoliate, rosulate, and caulescent growth forms. Heuristic search procedures were identical to the previous searches. A similar constraint strategy was applied to test the parallel origin of rosette-caulescent Madagascan *Streptocarpus* species and *Saintpaulia* species. The significance of differences between constrained and unconstrained trees was tested using the Templeton (Wilcoxon

signed-ranks) (Templeton 1983) option (TW) in PAUP (Swofford 1998). The three main growth forms were mapped onto the tree. Character mapping was performed on the single MP tree based on reweighted characters (identical in topology to the majority rule consensus tree). Both accelerated (ACCTRAN) and delayed (DELTRAN) character state optimization were employed using equal weighting of gains and losses and terminal polytomies (resulting from the collapse of zero length branches) were resolved randomly using MacClade 3.01 (Maddison and Maddison 1992). Because the MP majority rule tree, the reweighted single tree, and the ML tree (below) all have identical or nearly identical topology, this is the most appropriate phylogenetic hypothesis presently available on which to base the character mapping. However, sensitivity analyses were performed to assess the effect on character mapping of alternative resolution of the most weakly supported internal nodes and of alternative random resolution of the terminal polytomies.

All available ML models were tested using a nested hierarchical approach with Modeltest version 3.0 (Posada and Crandall 1998) under PAUP (Swofford 1998). The model with the highest score under the Akaike information criterion (AIC) was chosen: SYM + I + G. This uses a general time-reversible model with equal base frequency (SYM), variable proportions of invariable sites (I), and gamma-distributed among-site rate variation (G). As a comparison, we also tested the commonly used HKY model, which gave identical results except for some minor changes in the terminal part of the tree.

The hypothesis of a molecular clock was examined in two ways using the appropriate options in PAUP. The significance of branch length variation between clade I (subgenus *Streptocarpella*) and clade II (subgenus *Streptocarpus*) was tested using a likelihood-ratio test (Page and Holmes 1998), either on the MP tree with the highest likelihood score (without ML search routine) including all taxa or on a subset of 21 taxa (with a complete ML search) using the PAUP batch routine (www.bioss.sari.ac.uk/~frank/newton/lrtclock.nex). The branch length difference between clades I and II was estimated from the depth of subtrees (as substitutions per site) based on pruned subsets of the taxa (clade I and clade II) separately imposing a molecular clock (ML) (D. Baum, pers. comm.).

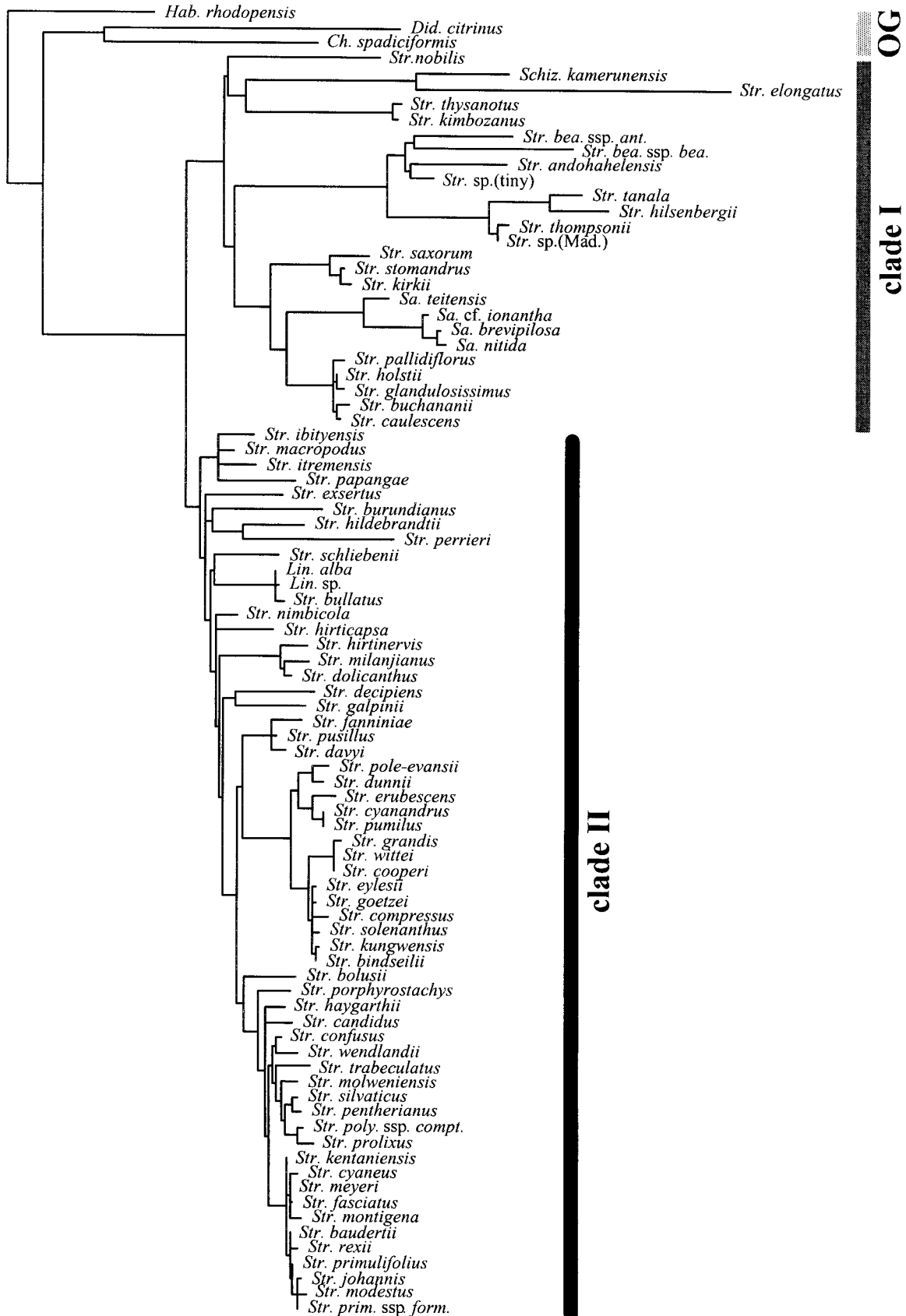
RESULTS

Sequence Characteristics and Analysis

The 87 ingroup and outgroup ITS and 5.8S sequences formed an aligned data matrix of 743 bp in length. The sequences confirm patterns already revealed in a previous anal-

←

FIG. 1. Majority-rule consensus tree of 1455 most parsimonious trees of 1107 steps, based on ITS1, 5.8S, and ITS2 sequence data. The numbers above the branches are bootstrap values, and the numbers below the branches are jackknife values. This tree is identical in topology to the single maximum-parsimony reweighted tree recovered from the weighted analysis (the polytomies result from the collapse of zero length branches). GF, growth forms defined according to the three major divisions: caulescent, white; unifoliate/plurifoliate, gray; rosulate, black; x, basic chromosome numbers and for *Streptocarpus hildebrandtii* and *S. perrieri* (x = 16), the ploidy level. The majority of species in both clades have been counted (plus sign). The black vertical bar (within the tree) indicates a shared approximately 40-bp deletion event (see text). Clade I refers to the caulescent, subgenus *Streptocarpella* clade; clade II refers to the phyllomorphic, subgenus *Streptocarpus* clade. OG are the outgroup taxa. Nodes that collapse in the strict consensus are indicated by asterisks.



— 0.01 substitutions / site

ysis (Möller and Cronk 1997) in that ITS2 is more length variable than ITS1. Numerous indel events have occurred, the most notable of which is an approximate 40-bp deletion characteristic of 17 species in one clade (Fig. 1). Secondary structure analyses (data not shown) reveal that this deletion corresponds to the end of arm one of the ITS2 RNA folding conformation. Due to alignment ambiguities, 100 characters had to be excluded, including a 77-bp section in ITS2 containing the 40-bp deletion site. Of the 643 unambiguously alignable characters, 364 (56.6%) were variable, of which 262 (40.5%) were potentially informative in parsimony analysis. The sequence divergence ranged from 0.0% (e.g., *S. cyanandrus*–*S. pumilus*) to 24.3% (*Streptocarpus hilsenbergerii*–*S. elongatus*) between ingroup taxa and from 12.1% (*Haberlea rhodopensis*–*S. schliebenii*) to 25.8% (*Chirita spadiciformis*–*S. elongatus*) between ingroup and outgroup taxa. The transition/transversion ratio (Ti/Tv) from the MP analysis was 1.8 across the whole matrix. The ML tree (ln = 6638.09) is almost completely congruent with the MP strict consensus tree (1455 most parsimonious trees of length 1107 steps) except for the position of *S. nobilis*, which in the ML tree is sister to a clade comprising the African species *S. kimbozanus*, *S. thysanotus*, *S. elongatus*, and *Schizoboea kamerunensis*. In the MP tree *S. nobilis* is sister to the Madagascan caulescent clade. The MP trees have a CI of 0.503, RI of 0.753, and, therefore a RC of 0.379. Reweighting recovered a single MP tree identical in topology to Figure 1 (CI = 0.725, RI = 0.866, RC = 0.628).

Clade Structure of *Streptocarpus*

The majority of the caulescent *Streptocarpus* species form a single well-supported (BS = 80, JK = 55) clade (clade I, the “*Streptocarpella* clade”; see Figs. 1, 2). Two other genera, *Saintpaulia* and *Schizoboea*, are nested within this clade. The Madagascan caulescent species (including the *Saintpaulia*-like species) form a single subclade nested within the African caulescent species (the “Madagascan caulescent clade”) (BS = 100, JK = 100). Within caulescent clade I, the *Saintpaulia*-like (rosette-caulescent) growth form has arisen twice, once in the genus *Saintpaulia* (BS = 100, JK = 100) and once in the Madagascan *Saintpaulia*-like species (BS = 53, JK = 65). Constraining these two clades to be monophyletic results in a significantly less parsimonious tree (extra 28 steps), significant at the $P < 0.0001$ level in a Templeton (Wilcoxon signed-rank) test (Templeton 1983).

The remainder of the ingroup form a single clade in all the most parsimonious trees (Fig. 1) and a single remaining clade is also recovered by ML analyses (Fig. 2). There is, however, no meaningful bootstrap support for this grouping, and further data is needed to confirm the existence of this provisional clade (clade II, the “subgenus *Streptocarpus* clade”). The subgenus *Streptocarpus* clade is overwhelmingly acaulescent, but a few caulescent growth forms do occur, notably *Streptocarpus papangae*, *S. macropodus*, and *S.*

schliebenii; these species will be discussed below. Sister to the remainder of the subgenus *Streptocarpus* clade is a clade of Madagascan rosulate polyploids (see below) and the caulescent species *S. papangae* and *S. macropodus* (the “subgenus *Streptocarpus* basal clade”). Also supported in the analysis is a southern African clade of 40 rosulates and unifoliates (BS = 69, JK = 72), which includes two subclades, an “ITS2 deletion clade” (BS = 57, JK = <50), comprising the 17 species with an approximate 40-bp deletion in their ITS2 sequences (positions 491–535 in the aligned matrix) and a “Cape primrose clade” (BS = 96, JK = 97), which includes the most southerly distributed species and those species (notably *S. rexii*) from which the Cape primroses of commerce have been principally derived. Other notable groupings include the grouping of the genus *Linnaeopsis* with *S. bullatus* (BS = 100, JK = 100) and a “polyploid clade,” the grouping of *S. perrieri* (4x) and *S. hildebrandtii* (8x) (BS = 66, JK = 74). There is morphological, cytological, and partial sequence evidence that *S. variabilis* (6x) also belongs in this clade. *Streptocarpus variabilis* has been excluded from this analysis because difficulties with amplification and sequencing have led to only partial sequence data being available.

As noted above, morphology is not perfectly congruent with the major clade structure because caulescent species such as *S. papangae*, *S. macropodus*, and *S. schliebenii* occur with the acaulescent, subgenus *Streptocarpus* clade. However, cytological data (Skog 1984) is perfectly congruent with the postulated clade structure: All the members so far cytologically examined in the *Streptocarpella* clade have $x = 15$, whereas all the members of the subgenus *Streptocarpus* clade so far examined have $x = 16$ (or polyploid multiples of 16). This applies even to *S. papangae* (Jong and Möller 2000) and *S. schliebenii* (Milne 1975). The major clades show some geographical patterning. The *Streptocarpella* clade is mainly tropical African or Madagascan. The crown group of the subgenus *Streptocarpus* clade is South African, whereas the basal members of this clade tend to be Madagascan or tropical African. This is suggestive of a north-to-south migration of the genus within Africa.

Constrained Trees and Character Mapping

Unconstrained MP trees had a length of 1107 steps, and when the monophyly of unifoliate and rosulate taxa is enforced, the tree length increased by 74 steps (6.7%; TW: $P < 0.0001$). Constraining the tree topology to force monophyly of all three major growth forms increased tree length by 77 steps (7.0%; TW: $P < 0.0001$). When the growth forms were constrained individually to be monophyletic, all resultant trees were significantly longer (TW: $P < 0.0001 - 0.0003$). The greatest increase was observed for rosulates (65 steps, 5.8%; TW: $P < 0.0001$). An approximate indication of the frequency of transitions between morphological types was obtained by character mapping (Fig. 3). The topology

←

FIG. 2. Maximum-likelihood tree (ln = -6638.09) showing branch lengths, based on ITS1, 5.8S, and ITS2 sequence data. Clade I indicates the caulescent, subgenus *Streptocarpella* clade; clade II indicates the phyllocladous, subgenus *Streptocarpus* clade (see text); OG are the outgroup taxa.

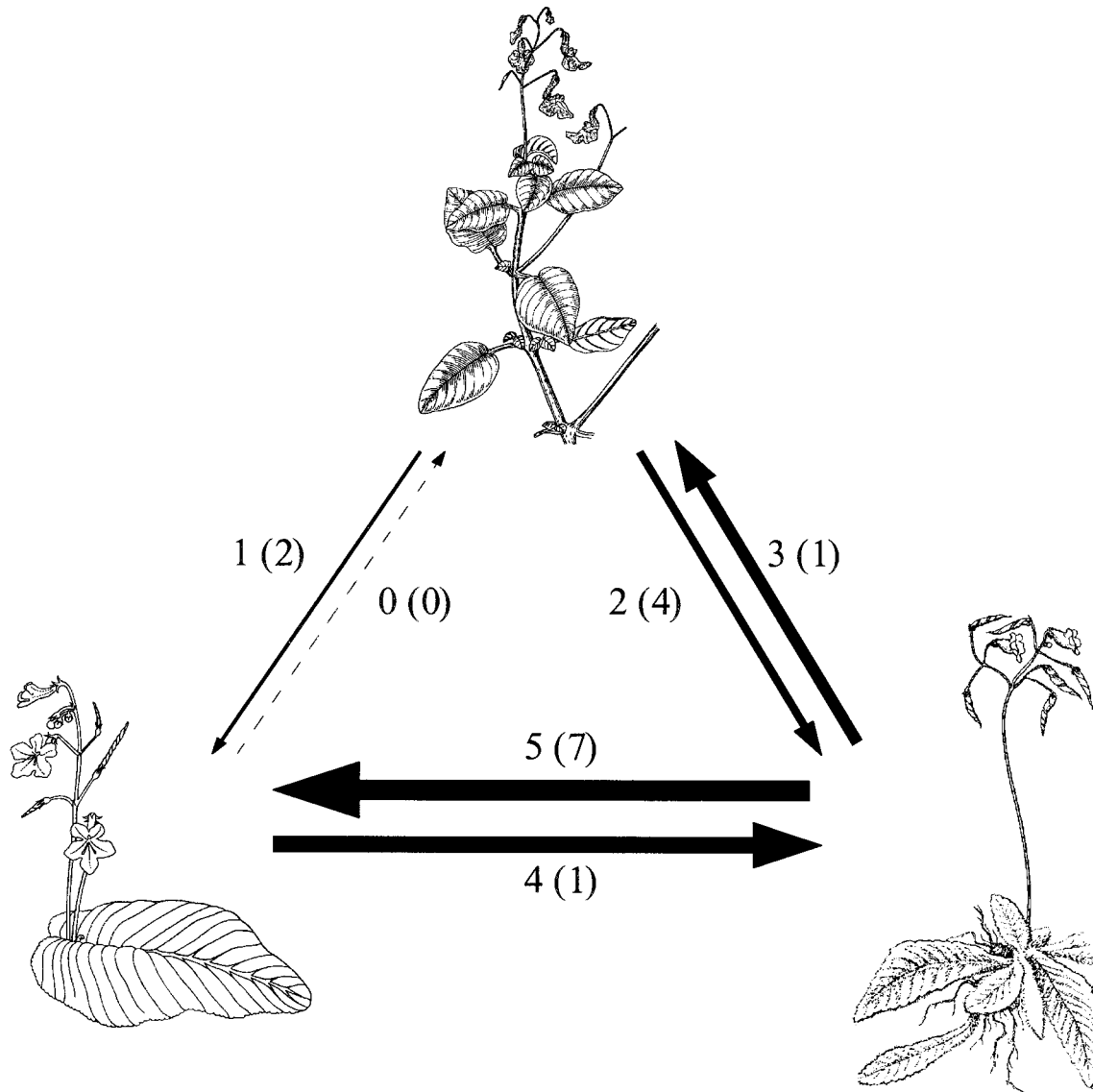


FIG. 3. Representatives of the three major growth forms (unifoliolate/plurifoliolate [left], caulescent [top], and rosulate [right]) connected by arrows showing hypothetical evolutionary transitions of the taxa included. The width of the arrow indicates the frequency of transitions using ACCTRAN optimization (the figures using DELTRAN optimization are given in parentheses) based on the maximum-parsimony majority rule consensus tree. Plant drawings are modified from Hilliard and Burt (1971) and Humbert (1971).

of the single most parsimonious reweighted tree (identical to that of the majority rule consensus, Fig. 1) is used as the best supported phylogenetic hypothesis presently available. Under this phylogenetic hypothesis, all growth forms appear to have multiple origins (Fig. 3). Investigation of the effect of the collapse and alternative resolution of weak nodes (asterisks in Fig. 1) did not reveal major changes to the numbers of transitions and all growth forms appear to have multiple origins even under these alternative resolutions.

Molecular Clock

The hypothesis that the ITS region of *Streptocarpus* has evolved in a clocklike fashion was rejected after tests on the single complete tree ($\chi^2 = 280.08$, $P = 0.001$) and the ML search on a subset ($\chi^2 = 120.15$, $P = 0.001$) were performed.

Inspection of the ML subtrees reveals that the branch lengths in the subgenus *Streptocarpella* clade are 2.44 times longer than the branches in the subgenus *Streptocarpus* clade. Apparently ITS molecular evolution has been progressing, on average, more than twice as fast in subgenus *Streptocarpella* than in subgenus *Streptocarpus*. This could be due to acceleration in clade I, deceleration in clade II, or both.

DISCUSSION

Three Other Genera Are Nested within *Streptocarpus*

The genus *Streptocarpus* is conveniently defined as African and Madagascan gesneriads with a twisted fruit. For this reason, members of the *Streptocarpus* lineage that have lost their twist have been placed in other genera. The molecular

data suggest that this loss of twist has occurred three times in Africa independently, with the genera *Saintpaulia*, *Schizoboea*, and *Linnaeopsis* being nested within *Streptocarpus*. *Linnaeopsis*, as well as having lost its twist, appears to have reverted to caulescence within the acaulescent clade along with *Streptocarpus schliebenii*. The possible reversion to caulescence in *S. papangae* (suggested by ACCTRAN optimization only) is a separate event. We have discussed the evolution of *Saintpaulia* elsewhere (Möller and Cronk 1997). *Schizoboea kamerunensis*, like *Saintpaulia*, belongs in the caulescent clade. It has a disjunct distribution in east and west Africa, thus providing a potential biogeographical link between the east African caulescents such as *Streptocarpus saxorum* and the west African caulescents such as *S. elongatus*. It would be interesting to sample *Schizoboea kamerunensis* from both ends of its range in order to test the monophyly of this species.

Nuclear Ribosomal DNA Has Evolved 2.44 Times Faster in Subgenus Streptocarpella than in Subgenus Streptocarpus

Molecular clock tests indicate considerable rate variation in the evolution of nrDNA, with the caulescent clade being on average 2.44 times faster. *Streptocarpus elongatus* is on the longest branch, and thus appears to be the fastest evolving lineage. We observe from herbarium specimens that *S. elongatus* frequently produces flowers when very small, with only one or two pairs of leaves. As a diminutive epiphyte from the relatively aseasonal rain forests of Cameroon, *S. elongatus* may have several generations per year. Even the larger caulescents commonly flower abundantly six months after sowing (at least in cultivation). In contrast, species in the acaulescent clade commonly take longer to build phyllomorphs robust enough to sustain flowering. Some unifoliate, such as *S. dunnii*, also require vernalization for inflorescence formation. In the wild these factors may translate into a three- or four-year period before flowering (Hilliard and Burt 1971). Thus, it is the plants with the faster life cycle that have the higher rate of molecular evolution (cf. Gaut et al. 1996).

All Three Major Growth Forms Have Multiple Origins in Streptocarpus

As noted in the Results, cytology is completely congruent with the two major putative clades, but morphology is not. The formal subdivision of the genus by Fritsch (1894, p. 151) into three sections (*Unifoliati*, *Rosulati*, and *Caulescentes*) based solely on morphology is not tenable. Forcing the monophyly of morphological types significantly increased parsimony tree lengths (by 77 steps). In the acaulescent clade there are two apparent independent origins of a caulescent habit: *S. papangae* and *S. schliebenii*. In addition, there are some pseudocaulescent species, such as *S. fanniniae*, which although phyllomorphic, iterate numerous long petiolodes and so come to resemble caulescent plants. Furthermore, inspection of Figure 1 shows that unifoliate and rosulate plants are mixed in an apparently haphazard way on the tree, implying that there have been several evolutionary transitions from unifoliate to rosulate and vice versa. Optimization (using both ACCTRAN and DELTRAN models on unweighted

transitions) of the distribution of the three major growth forms on the majority-rule consensus tree (using MacClade) is shown in Figure 3. ACCTRAN optimization suggests that the caulescent form is primitive and that there have been two transitions from caulescent to rosulate, five transitions from rosulate to unifoliate, and four transitions from unifoliate to rosulate. The suggestion by Hill (1938) that the original growth form in *Streptocarpus* was acaulescent (and that the caulescent species represent secondary developments from this) is not borne out. However, some reversion to caulescence from acaulescent species has definitely occurred. It is also interesting to note that one caulescent species is conditionally unifoliate—a state of affairs also found in species of *Chirita* (e.g., *Chirita micromusa*). It is therefore not impossible that the conditional unifoliate/caulescent habit (as in *S. nobilis*) may be primitive.

The existence of evolutionary transitions from rosulate to unifoliate is interesting in the light of Oehlkers's (1964) finding that the unifoliate habit seems to result from two recessive alleles. Oehlkers took this to imply that the unifoliate may have arisen by loss of function mutations from a rosulate progenitor with the dominant alleles. Such a transition appears to have occurred several times and accords with the notion that evolution in *Streptocarpus* proceeds by recessive mutations of major effect in developmental genes. However, the existence of unifoliate to rosulate transitions is evidence against this idea (as reversing a loss of function mutation is likely to be difficult). The suggestion by Hilliard and Burt (1971) that the unifoliate form precedes the rosulate (on the grounds that a caulescent to unifoliate transition, by paeodomorphosis, represents a developmentally more plausible change) is not directly supported by our phylogeny (Figs. 1, 3). The apparent frequency of unifoliate to rosulate transitions, however, means that this cannot be ruled out. It is certainly true that the formation of an abscission zone on the leaf blade of all African acaulescents, implies a unifoliate ancestor because this characteristic makes greater ecological sense in unifoliate (unifoliate cannot regulate leaf area by abscising whole leaves). Alternatively, as the rosulate habit is dominant, the restoration of this habit in unifoliate lineages may be due to introgression of the relevant genes by hybridization with rosulate plants. Hybrids between growth forms are readily produced under cultivation. What is clear, however, is that the numerous transitions between growth forms of the taxa analyzed is indicative of the intrinsic lability of form present in *Streptocarpus*. The adaptive and developmental significance of this is discussed below.

Adaptive Morphological Evolution in Streptocarpus

It is characteristic of the Old World Gesneriaceae that their seedlings exhibit continued growth of one cotyledon (by basal meristematic activity) and the delayed formation of a plumule. Burt (1970) suggested that this "anisocotly" is an adaptation to the growth of *Streptocarpus* in deep shade while possessing small dust-like seeds with almost no endosperm. Such growth is advantageous where light is a limiting factor, as the production of photosynthetic area instead of stem structures is more efficient. However, the delay of SAM development and the continued growth of the cotyledon requires

an uncoupling of the strict developmental linkage between meristematic activity and the shoot apex. This uncoupling may be a preadaptation underlying the evolutionary lability of form in *Streptocarpus*. It may result from gain-of-function dominant mutations in plant-meristem-determining genes such as shootmeristemless (*stm*) (Long et al. 1996). Where conditions are extreme, it may be advantageous to delay plumar growth indefinitely while further developing a meristematic cotyledon. This would either result in a unifoliate form or, if the cotyledon can produce further leaves, a rosulate form. The production of further leaves is reminiscent of weak loss of function mutations at the *stm* locus in *Arabidopsis*. These have phenotypes in which further leaves are produced on the hypocotyl (Barton and Poethig 1993). The suppression of further leaves by subsequent (recessive) mutations could also give rise to the unifoliate growth form.

The unifoliate forms are photosynthetically efficient by having no self-shading or stem production. However, they die after a single burst of flowering. Rosulate forms are perennial and can flower over many years. The interplay of reproductive strategy and photosynthetic economy in different ecological niches will favor different growth forms. Lawrence (1958) suggested that the unifoliate and rosulate species have different ecological preferences, and very broadly this is probably true. However, rosulates and unifoliate are often to be found growing together (Hilliard 1966; Hilliard and Burt 1971). In Madagascar, *S. itremensis* (unifoliate) and *S. ibityensis* (rosulate) can be found adjacent to each other. It should be noted, however, that even though they are growing together and thus have the same habitat preference, they may be occupying different niche space, particularly in reproductive features (i.e., the "regeneration niche," Grubb 1977) to which the different growth forms may contribute. It seems that *Streptocarpus* species have an intrinsic developmental lability that has allowed the differentiation of morphologies adapted to different environmental conditions.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Streptocarpus morphology has many pitfalls and the authors thank B.L. Burt, O.M. Hilliard, and K. Jong for their wisdom and guidance. We also thank H. Sluiman and J. Preston for their technical support; S. Scott, D. Mitchell, and J. Main for the maintenance and expansion of the Gesneriaceae collection; and the Royal Botanic Garden Edinburgh for provision of research facilities. We thank A. Randrianjafy, G. Rafamontanantsoa, and S. Irapanarivo (PBZT) for logistical support during plant collecting in Madagascar. We thank N. Preston, Institute of Cell and Molecular Biology, University of Edinburgh, for assistance with sequencing. D. Baum and two anonymous reviewers provided many helpful comments and suggestions on the manuscript. The receipt of a Leverhulme Trust Award no. F/771/B and expedition funds from the Davis Expedition Fund, University of Edinburgh; the Carnegie Trust for the Universities of Scotland; the Percy Sladen Memorial Fund; and a research grant from the Systematics Association are gratefully acknowledged.

LITERATURE CITED

- Barton, M. K., and R. S. Poethig. 1993. Formation of the shoot apical meristem in *Arabidopsis thaliana*: an analysis of development in the wild type and in the shootmeristemless mutant. *Development* 119:823–831.
- Bateman, R. M., and W. A. DiMichele. 1994. Saltational evolution of form in vascular plants: a neoGoldschmidian synthesis. Pp. 63–102 in D. S. Ingram and A. Hudson, eds. *Shape and form in plants and fungi*. Academic Press, London.
- Burt, B. L. 1970. Studies in the Gesneriaceae of the Old World. XXXI. Some aspects of functional evolution. *Notes R. Bot. Gard. Edinb.* 30:1–10.
- . 1999. Letter. *The Gloxinian* 49:15–17.
- Cronk, Q. C. B., and M. Möller. 1997. Strange morphogenesis—organ determination in *Monophyllaea*. *Trends Plant Sci.* 2: 327–328.
- Fritsch, K. 1894. Gesneriaceae. Pp.133–185 in A. Engler and K. Prantl, eds. *Die natürlichen Pflanzenfamilien IV*. Vol. 3b. W. Engelmann, Leipzig, Germany.
- Gaut, B. S., B. R. Morton, B. C. McCaig, and M. T. Clegg. 1996. Substitution rate comparisons between grasses and palms: synonymous rate differences at the nuclear gene *Adh* parallel rate differences at the plastid gene *rbcL*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 93:10274–10279.
- Grubb, P. J. 1977. The maintenance of species-richness in plant communities: the importance of the regeneration niche. *Biol. Rev.* 52:107–145.
- Hill, A. W. 1938. The monocotyledonous seedlings of certain dicotyledons with special reference to the Gesneriaceae. *Ann. Bot. (N.S.)* 2:127–144.
- Hilliard, O. M. 1966. Studies in *Streptocarpus*. *J. S. Afr. Bot.* 32: 87–123.
- Hilliard, O. M., and B. L. Burt. 1971. *Streptocarpus*, an African plant study. University of Natal Press, Pietermaritzburg, South Africa.
- Humbert, H. 1971. Gesnériacées, famille 180. Pp. 47–163 in J. F. Leroy, ed. *Flore de Madagascar et des Comores*, Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris.
- Jong, K. 1970. Developmental aspects of vegetative morphology in *Streptocarpus*. Ph.D. diss. University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, Scotland.
- . 1973. *Streptocarpus* (Gesneriaceae) and the phyllomorph concept. *Acta Bot. Neerl.* 22:244–5.
- . 1978. Phyllomorphic organization in rosulate *Streptocarpus*. *Notes R. Bot. Gard. Edinb.* 36:369–396
- Jong, K., and B. L. Burt. 1975. The evolution of morphological novelty exemplified in the growth patterns of some Gesneriaceae. *New Phytol.* 75:297–311.
- Jong, K., and M. Möller. 2000. New chromosome counts in *Streptocarpus* (Gesneriaceae) from Madagascar and the Comoro Islands and their taxonomic significance. *Plant Syst. Evol.* 224: 173–182.
- Lawrence, W. J. C. 1940. The genus *Streptocarpus*. *J. R. Hort. Soc.* 65:17–22.
- . 1943. Photoperiodism in *Streptocarpus*. *Gardeners' Chronicle*, Ser. 3, 113:156.
- . 1958. Studies on *Streptocarpus* Lindl. V. Speciation and gene systems. *Heredity* 12:333–356.
- Long, J. A., E. I. Moan, J. J. Medford, and M. K. Barton. 1996. A member of the knotted class of homeodomain proteins encoded by the STM gene of *Arabidopsis*. *Nature* 379:66–69.
- Maddison, W. P., and D. R. Maddison. 1992. *MacClade*. Vers. 3.01. Sinauer, Sunderland, MA.
- Milne, C. 1975. Chromosome numbers in the Gesneriaceae. V. *Notes R. Bot. Gard. Edinb.* 33:523–525.
- Möller, M., and Q. C. B. Cronk. 1997. Origin and relationships of *Saintpaulia* (Gesneriaceae) based on ribosomal DNA internal transcribed spacer (ITS) sequences. *Am. J. Bot.* 84:956–965.
- Oehklers, F. 1964. Cytoplasmic inheritance in the genus *Streptocarpus*. *Adv. Genet.* 12:329–370.
- Page, R. D. M., and E. C. Holmes. 1998. *Molecular evolution; a molecular approach*. Blackwell Science Ltd., Oxford, England.

- Posada, D., and K. A. Crandall. 1998. Modeltest: testing the model of DNA substitutions. *Bioinformatics* 14:817–818.
- Rosenblum, I. M., and D. V. Basile. 1984. Hormonal regulation of morphogenesis in *Streptocarpus* and its relevance to evolutionary history of the Gesneriaceae. *Am. J. Bot.* 71:52–64.
- Skog, L. E. 1984. A review of chromosome numbers in the Gesneriaceae. *Selbyana* 7:252–273.
- Smith, J. F., J. C. Wolfram, K. D. Brown, C. L. Carroll, and D. S. Denton. 1997. Tribal relationships in the Gesneriaceae: evidence from DNA sequences of the chloroplast *genendhF*. *Ann. MO. Bot. Gard.* 84:50–66.
- Soltis, D. E., and P. S. Soltis. 1997. Phylogenetic relationships in Saxifragaceae *sensu lato*: a comparison of topologies based on 18S rDNA and *rbcL* sequences. *Am. J. Bot.* 84:504–522.
- Spangler, R. E., and R. G. Olmstead. 1999. Phylogenetic analysis of Bignoniaceae based on the cpDNA gene sequences *rbcL* and *ndhF*. *Ann. Missouri Bot. Gard.* 86:33–46.
- Swofford, D. L. 1998. PAUP*: phylogenetic analysis using parsimony (*and other methods). Vers. 4. Sinauer Associates, Sunderland, MA.
- Templeton, A. R. 1983. Phylogenetic inferences from restriction endonucleases cleavage site maps with particular reference to the evolution of humans and apes. *Evolution* 37:221–244.
- Tsukaya, H. 1997. Determination of the unequal fate of the cotyledons in the one-leaved plant *Monophyllaea*. *Development* 124:1275–1280.
- Weber, A. 1975. Beiträge zur Morphologie und Systematik der Klugieae und Loxonieae (Gesneriaceae) I. Die Spross- und Infloreszenzorganisation von *Monophyllaea* R. Br. *Bot. Jahrb. Syst.* 95:174–207.
- White, T. J., T. Bruns, S. Lee, and J. Taylor. 1990. Amplification and direct sequencing of fungal ribosomal RNA genes for phylogenetics. Pp. 315–322 in M. A. Innis, D. H. Gelfand, J. J. Sninsky, and T. J. White, eds. PCR protocols. Academic Press, London.

Corresponding Editor: D. Baum

APPENDIX

Accessions of 77 *Streptocarpus* taxa, together with species of *Saintpaulia*, *Schizoboea*, *Linnaeopsis*, and three outgroup taxa (*Haberlea rhodopensis*, *Didymocarpus citrinus*, and *Chirita spadiciformis*) examined for ITS1, 5.8S, and ITS2 sequence variation. The wider distribution, of those species present in more than one country, is indicated in parentheses. GenBank accession numbers refer to the ITS sequences stored in GenBank.

Taxon	Origin (distribution)	RBGE acc. no. ¹	GenBank acc. no.
<i>Haberlea rhodopensis</i> Friv.	Ex cult. (Europe, Greece)	1975 4106	AF316900
<i>Didymocarpus citrinus</i> Ridl.	Malaya, Parlis Stae, N. side of Kedat Peak (Malaysia)	1983 0510	AF316899
<i>Chirita spadiciformis</i> W. T. Wang	Smithsonian Institution 94-087 (China)	1995 1205	AF316898
<i>Schizoboea kamerunensis</i> (Fritsch) B. L. Burtt	Ex herb. (E): Burundi; Muramuya, Mt. Teza (Cameroon, Fernando Po, Burundi, Zaire, Tanzania)	No 6693	AF316901
<i>Linnaeopsis</i> sp. nov.	Ex herb. (E): Tanzania; Uluguru Mts. above Morogoro town, Palata ridge	8656/c	AF316932
<i>Linnaeopsis alba</i> (E. A. Bruce) B. L. Burtt	Ex herb. (E): Tanzania; Uluguru Mts. above Morogoro town, NW side of Lupanga ridge	86106/D	AF316933
<i>Saintpaulia brevopilosa</i> B. L. Burtt	Tanzania; Kanga forest, Mt. Kanga (Nguru Mts.)	1970 0909	AF316924
<i>Saintpaulia</i> cf. <i>ionantha</i> H. Wendl.	Tanzania; Tanga, Sigi River	1971 0860	AF316923
<i>Saintpaulia nitida</i> B. L. Burtt	Tanzania; Nguru Mts.	1992 3186	AF316925
<i>Saintpaulia teitensis</i> B. L. Burtt	Ex herb. (E): Kenya; Coast Region, Teita Hills, Mbololo forest	C 3771	AF316922
<i>Streptocarpus andohahelensis</i> Humbert	Madagascar; Tulear, Ranomafana-Col de Beampingaratra	1997 2885	AF316903
<i>Streptocarpus baudertii</i> L. L. Britten	E. Cape, Transkei (South Africa)	1996 1858A	AF316978
<i>Streptocarpus beampingaratreensis</i> Humbert ssp. <i>antambolorum</i> Humbert	Madagascar; Tulear, Ranomafana-Col de Beampingaratra	1997 2887	AF316902
<i>Streptocarpus beampingaratreensis</i> Humbert ssp. <i>beampingaratreensis</i>	Madagascar; Tulear, Ranomafana-Col de Beampingaratra	1997 2884	AF316905
<i>Streptocarpus bindseilii</i> Eb. Fisch.	Rwanda; S. Nyakabuye	ex Bonn	AF316960
<i>Streptocarpus bolusii</i> C. B. Clarke	Ex herb. (E): South Africa; Natal, Mt. Ngeli (Natal, E. Cape)	C 5115	AF316961
<i>Streptocarpus buchananii</i> C. B. Clarke	Ex Cult. (AGGS), (Malawi, S. Tanzania, N. Mozambique)	1997 2911	AF316919
<i>Streptocarpus bullatus</i> Mansf.	Ex herb. (E): Tanzania; Uluguru Mts., E. of Nagari Peak	C 6297	AF316942
<i>Streptocarpus burundianus</i> Hilliard and B. L. Burtt	Ex herb. (E): Burundi; NE corner of Lake Tanganyika	C 8336	AF316940
<i>Streptocarpus candidus</i> Hilliard	South Africa; Natal, Zululand, Ngome forest	1977 1204	AF316965
<i>Streptocarpus caulescens</i> Vatke	Tanzania; Uluguru Mts., Morogoro region (Tanzania, Kenya)	1971 1199	AF316920
<i>Streptocarpus compressus</i> B. L. Burtt	Ex herb. (E): Tanzania, Songea Distr., Matengo Hills, Luihi Kiteshi	C 2965	AF316957
<i>Streptocarpus confusus</i> Hilliard ssp. <i>lebomboensis</i> Hilliard and B. L. Burtt	South Africa; Natal, Nr Hluhluwe game reserve, Makowe Mt. (Natal, Transvaal, Swaziland, Mozambique)	1991 2546	AF316966
<i>Streptocarpus cooperi</i> C. B. Clarke	South Africa, Natal, Nkandla Distr., Andeni forest (Natal, Orange Free State)	1993 3029	AF316954

APPENDIX. Continued.

Taxon	Origin (distribution)	RBGE acc. no. ¹	GenBank acc. no.
<i>Streptocarpus cyanandrus</i> B. L. Burtt	Ex herb. (E): Zimbabwe; Inyanga Downs	C 3674	AF316947
<i>Streptocarpus cyaneus</i> S. Moore	Swaziland; Mbabane, Sebebe Mts. (Swaziland, South Africa: Natal)	1991 1950	AF316975
<i>Streptocarpus davyi</i> S. Moore	Ex herb. (E): Swaziland; Mbabane	C 5174	AF316946
<i>Streptocarpus decipiens</i> Hilliard and B. L. Burtt	Ex herb. (E): South Africa; E. Transvaal	6000	AF316938
<i>Streptocarpus dolichanthus</i> Hilliard and B. L. Burtt	Ex herb. (E): Malawi; Mt. Mulanje, Litelenya Plateau	J. D. and E. G. Chapman 8496	AF316937
<i>Streptocarpus dunnii</i> Hook.f.	Swaziland; N. Mbabane (Swaziland, South Africa: Transvaal)	1994 1745	AF316951
<i>Streptocarpus elongatus</i> Engl.	Ex herb. (E): Nigeria; Taraba State, Mambila plateau, NgeNyaki forest (Cameroon, São Thomé, Nigeria)	Spurrier 705	AF316913
<i>Streptocarpus erubescens</i> Hilliard and B. L. Burtt	Ex herb. (E): Malawi; Ndirandi Mts. (Malawi, Moçambique)	C 5108	AF316949
<i>Streptocarpus exsertus</i> Hilliard and B. L. Burtt	Ex herb.: Kenya, Lolokwe Mt., NE slopes of Onulbeys	Gilbert 5358	AF316939
<i>Streptocarpus eylesii</i> S. Moore ssp. <i>eylesii</i>	Zimbabwe; Mt. Nyangoi (Tanzania, Zambia, Malawi, Zimbabwe)	1993 2790	AF316955
<i>Streptocarpus fanninia</i> Harv.	South Africa; Natal, Lion's River distr., Bridgewood, Dargle	1977 1324	AF316944
<i>Streptocarpus fasciatus</i> T. J. Edwards and C. Kunhardt	Ex cult.: South Africa (Transvaal)	1996 2086	AF316977
<i>Streptocarpus galpinii</i> Hook.f.	Ex herb. (E): Swaziland; Mbabane (South Africa: Transvaal, Swaziland)	C 5154	AF316943
<i>Streptocarpus glandulosissimus</i> Engl.	Ex cult. (Congo, Rwanda, Rurundi, Uganda, Tanzania, Kenya)	1965 2118	AF316918
<i>Streptocarpus goetzei</i> Engl.	Ex cult. (Tanzania, Moçambique, Malawi)	1997 2033	AF316956
<i>Streptocarpus grandis</i> N. E. Br.	South Africa: Natal, Zululand, Ngome forest (South Africa: Natal, Zimbabwe, Moçambique)	1977 1210	AF316952
<i>Streptocarpus haygarthii</i> N. E. Br. ex C. B. Clarke	South Africa, Natal, mid-Illovo (South Africa: Natal, E. Cape)	1993 3030	AF316964
<i>Streptocarpus hildebrandtii</i> Vatke	Ex cult. (PBZT) (Madagascar)	1997 2891	AF316930
<i>Streptocarpus hilsenbergii</i> R. Br.	Madagascar; Mandrake Valley, 70 km from Tana	1963 1505	AF316907
<i>Streptocarpus hirticapsa</i> B. L. Burtt	Zimbabwe; Chimanimani National Park	1993 2793	AF316962
<i>Streptocarpus hirtinervis</i> C. B. Clarke	Ex herb. (E): Malawi, Mt. Mulanje	C 8233	AF316935
<i>Streptocarpus holstii</i> Engl.	Ex cult. (Tanzania, E. Usambara Mts.)	1959 2272	AF316917
<i>Streptocarpus ibityensis</i> Humbert	Madagascar; Antananarivo, Mt. Ibity	1993 2867	AF316926
<i>Streptocarpus itremensis</i> B. L. Burtt	Madagascar; Antananarivo, Mt. Ibity	1997 2889	AF316928
<i>Streptocarpus johannis</i> L. L. Britten	South Africa; Natal (South Africa: Natal, E. Cape)	1969 0450	AF316981
<i>Streptocarpus kentaniensis</i> L. L. Britten and Story	South Africa; Cape Province, E. Transkei, Kei Mouth	1992 3050	AF316974
<i>Streptocarpus kimbozanus</i> B. L. Burtt	Ex herb. (E): Tanzania; Kimboza forest reserve	C 8334	AF316911
<i>Streptocarpus kirkii</i> Hook.f.	Tanzania; Tanga Region, E. Usambara Mts. (Kenya: Teita Hills; Tanzania: Uluguru Mts.)	1994 1332	AF316916
<i>Streptocarpus kungwensis</i> Hilliard and B. L. Burtt	Ex herb.: Tanzania, W. slopes of Musenabantu	C 4673	AF316959
<i>Streptocarpus macropodus</i> B. L. Burtt	Ex herb. (E): Madagascar	Lewis et al. 1043	AF316927
<i>Streptocarpus meyeri</i> B. L. Burtt	South Africa; E. Cape Province	1996 1800A	AF316976
<i>Streptocarpus milanjanus</i> Hilliard and B. L. Burtt	Malawi; Mt. Mulanje	C 8227	AF316936
<i>Streptocarpus modestus</i> L. L. Britten	South Africa; Transkei, Magwa Falls	1994 3058	AF316982
<i>Streptocarpus molweniensis</i> Hilliard	Ex herb. (E): South Africa; Natal, Molveni River, Everton	C 4013	AF316968
<i>Streptocarpus montigena</i> L. L. Britten	Ex herb. (E): South Africa; E. Cape, top of Katberg Pass	C 4788	AF316980
<i>Streptocarpus nimbicola</i> Hilliard and B. L. Burtt	Ex herb. (E): Malawi, Mt. Mulanje	C 5364	AF316934
<i>Streptocarpus nobilis</i> C. B. Clarke	Ex cult. (W. tropical Africa)	1966 1728	AF316912
<i>Streptocarpus pallidiflorus</i> C. B. Clarke	Tanzania; Arusha Reg., Masai Distr., Longido Mts., Longido Stream	1969 1121	AF316921
<i>Streptocarpus papangae</i> Humbert	Madagascar; Tulear, Col de Beampingaratra, Maloto River	1997 2886	AF316929
<i>Streptocarpus pentherianus</i> Fritsch	Ex cult. (South Africa: Transvaal, Swaziland, Natal)	1997 2034	AF316971
<i>Streptocarpus perrieri</i> Humbert	Madagascar; Antananarivo, Angavo near Ankazo-be	1997 2892	AF316931

APPENDIX. Continued.

Taxon	Origin (distribution)	RBGE acc. no. ¹	GenBank acc. no.
<i>Streptocarpus pole-evansii</i> Verd.	Ex cult. (Transvaal)	1996 1908	AF316950
<i>Streptocarpus polyanthus</i> Hook. ssp. <i>comptonii</i> (Mansf.) Hilliard	South Africa; E. Cape, Transkei, Nsikasa (South Africa: Transvaal, Swaziland, Natal)	1992 3045	AF316972
<i>Streptocarpus porphyrostachys</i> Hilliard	South Africa; E. Cape, Transkei, Mkabati nature reserve (South Africa: E. Cape, Natal)	1990 2311	AF316963
<i>Streptocarpus primulifolius</i> Gand. (blue)	South Africa, SW Cape, Table Mt.	1966 0432	AF316983
<i>Streptocarpus primulifolius</i> Gand. ssp. <i>formosus</i> Hilliard and B. L. Burt	South Africa; Natal (South Africa: E. Cape, Na- tal)	1992 3046	AF316984
<i>Streptocarpus prolixus</i> C. B. Clarke	South Africa, Natal, Pinetown Distr., Everton	1977 2035	AF316973
<i>Streptocarpus pumilus</i> B. L. Burt	Zimbabwe, Domboshawa	1993 2787	AF316948
<i>Streptocarpus pusillus</i> Harv. ex C. B. Clarke	Ex herb.: South Africa, Natal, Anne Rennie's Mountain sunset farm, Bulwer (Lesotho, South Africa: Natal, Orange Free State, E. Cape)	Kew (1983 1816)	AF316945
<i>Streptocarpus rexii</i> Lindl.	South Africa, Cape Province, Grahamstown, Foraway Estate (South Africa: E. Cape, Natal)	1987 0333	AF316979
<i>Streptocarpus saxorum</i> Engl.	Tanzania, Usambara, Tanga region (Kenya: Teita Hills; Tanzania: Nguru, Uluguru Mts.)	1972 1499	AF316914
<i>Streptocarpus schliebenii</i> Mansf.	Ex herb. (E): Tanzania, Ukaguru Mts.	C 8433	AF316941
<i>Streptocarpus silvaticus</i> Hilliard	South Africa; Natal Province, Lion's River Distr., Karkloof range, Benvie (South Africa: E. Cape, Natal)	1991 2181	AF316970
<i>Streptocarpus solenanthus</i> Mansf.	Malawi (Tanzania, Zambia, Malawi, Zimbabwe)	1997 2037	AF316958
<i>Streptocarpus</i> sp. (Madagascar)	Madagascar, Fianarantsoa, Itremo Massif	1993 1445	AF316909
<i>Streptocarpus</i> sp. (tiny)	Madagascar, Maloto river, 430 m	1997 2895	AF316904
<i>Streptocarpus stomandrus</i> B. L. Burt	Tanzania, Nguru Mts.	1971 1392	AF316915
<i>Streptocarpus tanala</i> Humbert	Madagascar; Tulear, Analaro, Andranohela River	1997 2882	AF316906
<i>Streptocarpus thompsonii</i> R. Br.	Ex cult. (AGGS) (Madagascar)	1994 1334	AF316908
<i>Streptocarpus thysanothus</i> Hilliard and B. L. Burt	Ex herb.: Tanzania; Morogoro Distr., Kimboza	1997 3246	AF316910
<i>Streptocarpus trabeculatus</i> Hilliard	Ex cult. (South Africa: E. Cape, Natal)	1997 2032	AF316969
<i>Streptocarpus wendlandii</i> Sprenger	Natal; Mtunzini Distr., Ngoye forest	1997 0108	AF316967
<i>Streptocarpus wittei</i> De Wild.	Malawi, Rumpi Distr., Nyika (Congo, Zambia, Malawi)	1987 1695	AF316953

¹ These numbers were also used as voucher numbers.