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**STUDYING PLANT EVOLUTION WITH
PHYLOGENETIC, MOLECULAR-CYTOGENETIC, AND
NICHE MODELING APPROACHES**

vorgelegt von

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München, 11. Oktober 2016

*meiner Familie,
Elfrun, August, und Elena*

PREFACE

Statutory declaration

Erklärung

Diese Dissertation wurde im Sinne von §12 der Promotionsordnung von Prof. Dr. Susanne S. Renner betreut. Ich erkläre hiermit, dass die Dissertation nicht einer anderen Prüfungskommission vorgelegt worden ist und dass ich mich nicht anderweitig einer Doktorprüfung ohne Erfolg unterzogen habe.

Eidesstattliche Erklärung

Ich versichere hiermit an Eides statt, dass die vorgelegte Dissertation von mir selbstständig und ohne unerlaubte Hilfe angefertigt wurde.

Alexander Rockinger, 11. Oktober 2016

(Unterschrift)

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Declaration of contribution

In this thesis, I present the results from my doctoral research, carried out in Munich from December 2013 to August 2016 under the guidance of Prof. Dr. Susanne S. Renner. My thesis resulted in three manuscripts, presented in Chapters 2 to 4, of which two have been published (Chapters 3 and 4) and one is in review (Chapter 2). For the paper in chapter 3, I contributed to the revision of material and did much of the writing while for the other two papers (Chapters 2 and 4) I generated all data and conducted all analyses myself. Writing and discussion involved collaboration with Prof. Renner. I also gave the conference talks and poster presentations listed below.

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List of publications

Peer-reviewed journal articles

ROCKINGER, A., FLORES, A.S., RENNER, S.S. In review. Clock-dated phylogeny for 48% of the 700 species of *Crotalaria* (Fabaceae–Papilionoideae) resolves sections worldwide and implies conserved flower and leaf traits throughout its pantropical range. *BMC Evolutionary Biology*.

FLORES, A.S., **ROCKINGER, A.**, SCHÜTZ-RODRIGUES, R., TOZZI, A.M.G.A. 2016. Lectotypifications and taxonomic changes in Brazilian *Crotalaria* L. (Fabaceae). *Phytotaxa* 267, 296–300.

ROCKINGER, A., SOUSA, A., CARVALHO, F.A., RENNER, S.S. 2016. Chromosome number reduction in the sister clade of *Carica papaya* with concomitant genome size doubling. *American Journal of Botany* 103: 1082–1088. [Journal cover]

Oral presentations

ROCKINGER, A. A worldwide phylogeny of the mega-diverse genus *Crotalaria* reveals ancient signal in leaf architecture, but not flowers. *International Symposium and Workshop Legume Morphology: Current knowledge and future directions*. Nov 3, 2015. Botucatu, São Paulo, Brazil

ROCKINGER, A. Progress on the mega-diverse genus *Crotalaria*. *16. Annual meeting of the Gesellschaft für Biologische Systematik (GfBS)*. Mar 19, 2015. Zoologisches Forschungsmuseum Alexander Koenig, Bonn

Poster

ROCKINGER, A. AND S. S. RENNER. What's up with the spirally twisted keel beaks in *Crotalaria* flowers? *23rd Symposium on Biodiversity and Evolutionary Biology of the German Botanical Society*, Sept 8–11, 2016, Institute of Systematic Botany and Mycology, University of Munich (LMU)

ROCKINGER, A. AND S. S. RENNER. Nested chromosome number reduction in the sister clade of *Carica papaya* (Caricaceae, Brassicales) with concomitant genome size doubling. *Chromatin Dynamics, 4th Munich Chromatin Symposium*, Mar 10–12, 2016, Biomedical Center Munich, LMU HighTech Campus Martinsried, Munich

ROCKINGER, A. AND S. S. RENNER. Does rarity leave a footprint in herbarium collections?. *International Biogeography Society: 7th Biennial Meeting*. Jan 8–12, 2015. University of Bayreuth

ROCKINGER, A. AND S. S. RENNER. Evolution of the mega-diverse genus *Crotalaria* (Fabaceae) – first results". *Radiations – Evolutionary Plant Radiations: Where, When, Why & How?* June 12–15, 2014. Universität of Zurich (UZH), Department of Systematic and Evolutionary Botany

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SUMMARY

This study uses phylogenetic, molecular-cytogenetic, and climate niche reconstruction approaches to study aspects of the evolution of two groups of flowering plants, the pantropical legume genus *Crotalaria* and the papaya family, Caricaceae. *Crotalaria*, with about 700 species worldwide, is among the largest genera of flowering plants. I constructed the first comprehensive phylogeny of this genus, including 48% of the species from all sections and the entire geographic range, to infer its expansion history and answer the question if flower and leaf traits reflect different climate niches. The Caricaceae comprise only 34 species, two in Africa and 32 in the Neotropics. Using a modern phylogenetic framework, I investigated changes in chromosome numbers and genome sizes, topics that have received much attention in related families, such as Brassicaceae, where polyploidy and genome downsizing are common.

Crotalaria is monophyletic, and molecular clock dating implies that it diverged from its closest relative, a small southern African genus, 23 to 30 Ma ago, with the crown group then beginning to diversify 18 to 29 Ma ago. My trait plotting and reconstruction of ancestral states focus on leaf types (simple and compound) and flower traits, especially keel petals and calyx lobes, which in combination have been used to distinguish eight sections of *Crotalaria*. My data support none of these sections as monophyletic, and all trait states evolved and were lost repeatedly. I used (carefully cleaned) occurrence data from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility to correlate the occurrence of simple or compound leaves with the amount and distribution of rainfall, yearly temperature, elevation, and radiation. When applying phylogenetic correction for the non-independence of inherited traits, my analyses revealed no correlation between climate and leaf type, and flower traits also appear unrelated to climate. All flowers in *Crotalaria* have a piston-type pollination mechanism in which the weight of a bee inserting its proboscis to reach the nectar at the base of the staminal tube exerts force on the keel, triggering the hairy style to emerge, which then brushes pollen through the tip of the keel and deposits it on the bee's abdomen. This corresponds to the abdominal scopa of megachilid bees, a species-rich group of pantropical distribution that includes many species pollinating *Crotalaria*. In a separate paper, I dealt with nomenclature and typification of Brazilian *Crotalaria*, proposing four new synonyms and lectotypes for eleven species.

For *Crotalaria*, I compiled information on its chromosome numbers from the literature; plotting the data on the DNA phylogeny revealed that polyploidy is limited to Neotropical and Asian species. In-depth studies of karyotype and genome size changes require living material, and most cytogenetic studies have therefore focused on temperate or herbaceous species, while tropical trees, even when economically important, have scarcely been studied. I generated chromosome counts for species representing all genera of the Caricaceae, three of which had never had their chromosomes counted. I discovered that a stepwise chromosome number reduction (descending dysploidy) from 18>16>14 has occurred in the sister clade of papaya (*C. papaya*). The Mexican *Horovitzia cnidoscoloides* has $2n = 16$ chromosomes, while the two (likewise Mexican) species of *Jarilla* examined both have $2n = 14$ chromosomes. Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization with standard rDNA probes (5S rDNA, 45S rDNA, and *Arabidopsis*-type telomeres) revealed much rDNA variation in the Caricaceae and interstitial telomeric repeats in *Jarilla*. Such interior placements of telomere DNA may be indicators for past chromosomal fusion and rearrangement. Most surprisingly, the species of *Jarilla*, despite having the lowest chromosome numbers in the family, have almost double the genome size of other Caricaceae, suggesting that the repeated chromosomal fusions were accompanied by bursts of transposon amplification. These results have implications for ongoing genome assemblies in the Caricaceae, which are ancestrally dioecious and an important model for sex chromosome evolution.

Chapter 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Plant diversity across the globe is highly unevenly distributed, whether one considers species diversity per surface area or species diversity in extant clades. Despite some mega-diverse taxa having large geographic ranges, spatially limited distribution does not necessarily lead to low rates of diversification. Examples are the genus *Inga*, which occurs throughout the Neotropics and has 300 species (Richardson *et al.* 2001), while *Alnus* has a similarly large range in the Northern hemisphere (with a few species in the Andes), but has only 35 species (Chen and Li 2004). Neither is the age of a clade decisive for its diversity; the crown group of *Inga* is c. 5.9 my old (Richardson *et al.* 2001); that of *Alnus* c. 11 my (Grimm and Renner 2013). Other examples are *Dianthus*, the crown group of which is 1.2–7 my old and has c. 300 species (Valente *et al.* 2010), and *Jarilla*, which is c. 7 my old and has 3 species (Carvalho and Renner 2012, 2013a). Such disparity in species numbers may reflect a clade's success in filling different pollinator niches, edaphic niches, or climate niches, all of which may contribute to reproductive isolation among populations, leading to species formation. Disparity in species numbers may also be due to the vagaries of geographic isolation, especially in island archipelagoes or mountainous regions (e.g., Johnson 2010: Different pollinators in South Africa; Sebastian *et al.* 2012: *Sicyos* [Cucurbitaceae]: Geographic isolation; Holstein and Renner 2011: *Coccinia* [Cucurbitaceae]: Climate and soil). Besides ecological niche differentiation and random geographic isolation, polyploidy and hybridization are well-documented reasons for speciation (Chapman and Burke 2007; Soltis and Soltis 2009; Paun *et al.* 2011). My doctoral research was aimed at exploring plant evolution and diversity at different levels, using a comparative approach and a range of methods, including microscopy, molecular cytogenetics, the inference of climate niches, and the study of flower morphology (as it relates to pollinators), with the overarching goal being to better understand species proliferation in flowering plants. I chose two plant groups of similar age, however highly differing in their species diversity, and spatial distribution, and below I briefly introduce the two groups before specifying my research questions.

1.1 Study system 1, the legume genus *Crotalaria* – phylogenetics of mega-diverse taxa

If we are to understand what may drive diversification (i.e., defined as speciation minus extinction) in flowering plants, we will need to study morphological evolution and niche occupation in both species-rich and species-poor clades. In flowering plants, there are about 50 genera (not necessarily all monophyletic) that have >500 species. Few of the 35

Table 1. The 35 genera of flowering plants with ≥ 700 species with DNA phylogenies. An asterisk marks genera for which only studies with a regional or sectional focus are available.

Rank	Family	Genus	Total species number	Species number sampled (% of total)		Study
1	Fabaceae	<i>Astragalus</i>	c. 3270	48 (c. 1%)	Scherson <i>et al.</i> (2008)	
				45 (c. 1%)	Osaloo <i>et al.</i> (2003)	
				115 (c. 4%)	Wojciechowski <i>et al.</i> (1999)	
2	Orchidaceae	<i>Bulbophyllum</i> *	c. 2032	53 (c. 3%)	Hosseini <i>et al.</i> (2012)	
				42 (c. 2%)	Smidt <i>et al.</i> (2011)	
3	Cyperaceae	<i>Carex</i>	c. 1990	100 (c. 5%)	Roalson <i>et al.</i> (2001)	
4	Rubiaceae	<i>Psychotria</i>	c. 1951	64 (c. 3%)	Nepokroeff <i>et al.</i> (1999)	
5	Euphorbiaceae	<i>Euphorbia</i>	c. 1836	352 (c. 19%)	Zimmermann <i>et al.</i> (2010)	
6	Begoniaceae	<i>Begonia</i>	c. 1484	268 (c. 18%)	Moonlight <i>et al.</i> (2015)	
				30 (c. 2%)	Dewitte <i>et al.</i> (2011)	
				30 (c. 2%)	Goodall-Copestake <i>et al.</i> (2010)	
				64 (c. 4%)	Forrest <i>et al.</i> (2005)	
				38 (c. 3%)	Forrest and Hollingsworth (2003)	
7	Orchidaceae	<i>Dendrobium</i> *	c. 1371	32 (c. 2%)	Burke <i>et al.</i> (2008)	
				75 (c. 5%)	Clemens (2003)	
8	Fabaceae	<i>Acacia</i>	c. 1353	104 (c. 8%)	Murphy <i>et al.</i> (2010)	
				11 (c. 1%)	Miller and Bayer (2001)	
				59 (c. 4%)	Robinson and Harris (1999)	
				22 (c. 2%)	Bukhari <i>et al.</i> (1999)	
9	Solanaceae	<i>Solanum</i>	c. 1250	365 (c. 34%)	Särkinen (2013)	
				102 (c. 8%)	Weese and Bohs (2007)	
				18 (c. 1%)	Bohs and Olmstead (1997)	
				36 (c. 3%)	Olmstead and Palmer (1997)	
10	Asteraceae	<i>Senecio</i>	c. 1250	186 (c. 15%)	Pelser <i>et al.</i> (2007)	
11	Euphorbiaceae	<i>Croton</i>	c. 1223	79 (c. 6%)	Berry <i>et al.</i> (2005)	
12	Orchidaceae	<i>Pleurothallis</i>	c. 1120	143 (c. 13%)	Wilson <i>et al.</i> (2013)	
13	Myrtaceae	<i>Eugenia</i> *	c. 1113	28 (c. 3%)	Van der Merwe <i>et al.</i> (2005)	
14	Piperaceae	<i>Piper</i>	c. 1055	332 (c. 31%)	Jaramillo <i>et al.</i> (2008)	
				49 (c. 5%)	Smith <i>et al.</i> (2008)	
				51 (c. 5%)	Jaramillo and Manos (2001)	
15	Primulaceae	<i>Ardisia</i> *	c. 1046	8 (c. 1%)	Ku and Hu (2014)	
16	Myrtaceae	<i>Syzygium</i>	c. 1041	80 (c. 8%)	Craven and Biffin (2010)	
				64 (c. 6%)	Biffin <i>et al.</i> (2006)	

Rank	Family	Genus	Total species number	Species	
				number sampled	Study (% of total)
17	Ericaceae	<i>Rhododendron</i>	c. 1001	85 (c. 9%)	Goetsch <i>et al.</i> (2005)
18	Melastomataceae	<i>Miconia</i>	c. 1000	216 (c. 22%)	Goldenberg <i>et al.</i> (2008)
19	Piperaceae	<i>Peperomia</i>	c. 1000	51 (c. 5%)	Samain <i>et al.</i> (2008)
				48 (c. 5%)	Smith <i>et al.</i> (2008)
20	Lamiaceae	<i>Salvia</i>	c. 946	65 (c. 7%)	Walker <i>et al.</i> (2004)
21	Ericaceae	<i>Erica</i>	c. 860	379 (c. 45%)	Pirie <i>et al.</i> (2011)
22	Balsaminaceae	<i>Impatiens</i>	c. 851	150 (c. 18%)	Yu <i>et al.</i> (2016)
				86 (c. 10%)	Janssens <i>et al.</i> (2006)
23	Cyperaceae	<i>Cyperus</i>	c. 839	39 (c. 5%)	Larridon <i>et al.</i> (2012)
				18 (c. 2%)	Muasya <i>et al.</i> (2002)
24	Phyllanthaceae	<i>Phyllanthus</i> *	c. 833	8 (c. 1%)	Wurdack <i>et al.</i> (2004)
25	Amaryllidaceae	<i>Allium</i>	c. 815	331 (c. 41%)	Li <i>et al.</i> (2010)
				100 (c. 12%)	Friesen <i>et al.</i> (2006)
26	Orchidaceae	<i>Epidendrum</i> *	c. 800	13 (c. 2%)	Pessoa <i>et al.</i> (2012)
27	Asteraceae	<i>Vernonia</i>	c. 800	—	No data found
28	Orchidaceae	<i>Lepanthes</i>	c. 800	—	No data found
29	Araceae	<i>Anthurium</i>	c. 790	102 (c. 13%)	Carlsen and Croat (2013)
30	Ebenaceae	<i>Diospyrus</i>	c. 767	119 (c. 16%)	Duangjai <i>et al.</i> (2009)
31	Moraceae	<i>Ficus</i>	c. 750	80 (c. 11%)	Ronsted <i>et al.</i> (2008)
32	Caryophyllaceae	<i>Silene</i> *	700+	14 (c. 2%)	Marais <i>et al.</i> (2011)
33	Fabaceae	<i>Indigofera</i>	700+	88 (c. 13%)	Schröre <i>et al.</i> (2003)
34	Oxalidaceae	<i>Oxalis</i> *	700+	50 (c. 7%)	Oberlander <i>et al.</i> (2009)
35	Fabaceae	<i>Crotalaria</i>	c. 700	338 (c. 48%)	Rockinger <i>et al.</i> (in review)

largest genera have been studied phylogenetically (Table 1), with only four studies having a taxon sampling >30% (Goldenberg *et al.* 2008: *Miconia* [Melastomataceae], c. 22% sampled; Jaramillo *et al.* 2008: *Piper* [Piperaceae], c. 31% sampled; Pirie *et al.* 2011: *Erica* [Ericaceae], c. 45% sampled; Li *et al.* 2010: *Allium* [Amaryllidaceae], c. 41% sampled; Särkinen *et al.* 2013: *Solanum* [Solanaceae], c. 34% sampled). Reasons for this include the difficulty of obtaining suitable material for producing a molecular phylogeny with a comprehensive taxon sampling, problems in sorting out names (of which there usually are at least twice as many as ‘accepted’ species), and insufficiently understood geographic ranges (which contributes to unclear species boundaries). These difficulties have led to the situation that most studies of clade diversification

in flowering plants have focused on small groups. Fully conscious of this, I chose one of the 35 largest genera (Table 1) as one of my two study systems, the pantropical legume genus *Crotalaria*, which has some 700 species.

Crotalaria has its center of diversity in Africa and Madagascar, where some 500 of its 700 species occur. However, the genus went through secondary radiations in Australia, India, and South America (Chapter 2). Crotalarias are annual or perennial, herbaceous or woody plants occurring mostly in open, dry habitats on well-drained soil throughout the tropics, subtropics, and southern temperate areas. About 15 species are distributed pantropically due to their use as fiber crops, cattle fodder, and to improve soil nitrogen content (Polhill 1968, 1982). With eight other predominantly southern hemisphere tribes, the Crotalarieae are part of the genistoids (Cardoso *et al.* 2012: Papilionoid-wide molecular analysis).

Common traits among genistoids are a xeromorphic habit, compound leaves with few leaflets or simple leaves, dimorphic stamens, fusion of the filaments, seeds with a hilar lobe from extension of the radicle, and an abundance of alkaloids (Crisp *et al.* 2000; Cardoso *et al.* 2012). All genistoids accumulate alkaloids, usually quinolizidine alkaloids (Van Wyk and Verdoorn 1990; Crisp *et al.* 2000), but the c. 50 (of 700) species of *Crotalaria* so far tested (Mears and Mabry 1971; Flores *et al.* 2009) instead produce hepatotoxic pyrrolizidine alkaloids (PAs). While quinolizidine alkaloids are derived from lysine and have two fused six-membered rings sharing a nitrogen molecule, pyrrolizidine alkaloids occur as complex esters and are derived from ornithine or arginine, they often occur as N-oxides. The two types of alkaloids are not known to occur in the same species (Mears and Mabry 1971; Van Wyk 2003). Hepatotoxic pyrrolizidine alkaloids are also present in *Laburnum* (Genisteae), *Lebeckia* (Crotalarieae), *Pericopsis* (Sophoreae) (Van Wyk 2003; Lewis *et al.* 2005). Recently, Irmer *et al.* (2015) showed that PA biosynthesis in *Crotalaria* depends on nodulation; plants not infected by rhizobial bacteria and therefore not having formed nodules, did not have PAs. These alkaloids can be concentrated in leaves, seeds, nectar or pollen, but the nodules have the highest concentration, and the PAs are transported from there to the above ground parts of the plant. Plant alkaloids are toxic for generalist insect herbivores (Van Dam *et al.* 1995; Hartmann and Ober 2000; Narberhaus *et al.* 2005; Ober and Kaltenegger 2009; Macel 2011), but specialized butterflies, moths, and bees can detoxify PAs, and their larvae feed on pyrrolizidine-containing leaves (the case for moths or butterflies) or nectar or pollen (the case of adult butterflies and bees or bee larvae). An example is *Utetheisa*

ornatrix, an arctiid moth that feeds on *Crotalaria* (as larva) and retains the sequestered PAs through metamorphosis into the adult stage when they are used for the insect's defense and biosynthesis of sexual pheromones (Ferro *et al.* 2006). The work by Irmer *et al.* (2015) and other studies of the chemical defenses in *Crotalaria* have proceeded without any phylogenetically-guided sampling, and indeed the phylogeny resulting from my research shows that the species analyzed for alkaloids so far do not span the diversity of the genus.

Crotalaria flowers are adapted to Megachilidae bees, a worldwide clade of some 4000 species that are grouped in two subfamilies (Fidelinae and Megachilinae), and whose scopae are restricted to the ventral surface of the abdomen. Megachilid bees are found on all continents except Antarctica, and their habitats range from arid zones to tropical rainforests and alpine regions (Gonzalez *et al.* 2012; Danforth *et al.* 2013). Specialized megachilids use the scent of PAs (previous paragraph) to find their pollen and nectar hosts. This has been studied in the Fabaceae genus *Crotalaria*, which is the main host of *Hoplitis parana* and which contains pyrrolizidine alkaloids at least in its vegetative parts and mostly in its seeds (Fletcher *et al.* 2009). This chemical specialization leads directly to the topic of the floral apomorphies of *Crotalaria*. One is a hairy style that functions in its pollination mechanism and fits with the pollen-carrying structures of Megachilidae bees (Figure 1 D; Figures 2 A2–D2). The trichomes on the upper distal section of the style push the pollen out of the keel petal and present it in a position where a bee's lower abdomen will come in contact with it. Another apomorphy of *Crotalaria* is a staminal tube with interlocking upper edges (Polhill 1982, Le Roux and Van Wyk 2012). The closest relative of *Crotalaria* is the southern African genus *Bolusia* (five species), which differs in having a helically coiled keel and a single standard petal appendage (Van Wyk *et al.* 2010; Le Roux and Van Wyk 2012; supported by my data: Chapter 2). Morphological features used to key out species groups (ranked as sections) in *Crotalaria* are the morphology of the keel beak, the lobing of the calyx, and the length of the calyx in comparison to the keel petal, the curvature of the style, shape of the stigma, and position of inflorescence (see Chapter 2 for details). There are few studies on the functioning of the flowers or on plant pollinator interactions, involving two New World (Etcheverry 2000: *C. micans*; Etcheverry 2001: *C. stipularia*; Etcheverry *et al.* 2003: *C. micans*;) and one Asian (Jacobi *et al.* 2005: *C. retusa*) species. *Crotalaria* leaves are usually compound, mostly trifoliolate and more rarely unifoliolate (a compound leaf in which only one leaflet is formed)

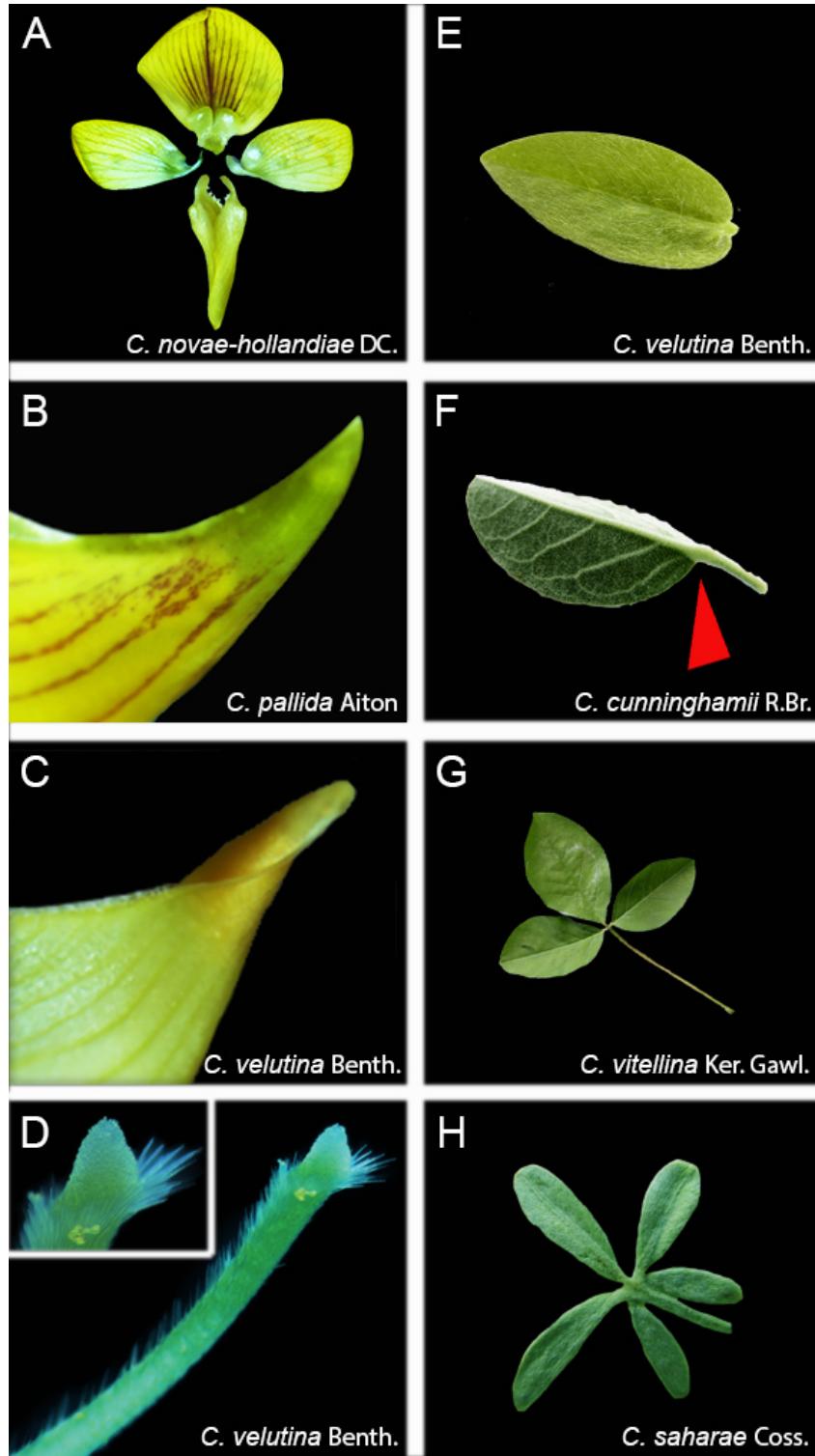


Figure 1. Flowers and leaf morphology. A) Corolla consisting of standard petal, two lateral wing petals, and the lower keel petal (here spirally twisted); B) Straight keel beak; C) Spirally twisted keel beak; D) Stylar brush and papillate stigma; E) Simple leaf; F) Unifoliolate leaf, recognizable by a ridge articulation at the base of its single leaflet (red arrow); G) Trifoliolate leaf; H) Multifoliolate leaf.

or multifoliolate (Figures 1 E–H). Simple-leaved species predominantly occur in Asia, and in the Neotropics. No analyses have been carried out on the adaptive value of the leaf types, for example, in drier or more humid habitats.

Building on the work of Bentham (1843), Harvey (1862), Baker (1914), Verdoorn (1928), Wilczek (1953a, b), Hepper (1958), Milne-Redhead (1961), Torre (1962), and Schreiber (1970), Roger M. Polhill (born in 1937 and now retired but still active at the Royal Botanic Gardens Kew), the only living taxonomist to have worked on *Crotalaria* in its entirety (albeit with less focus on the Asian, Australasian, and Neotropical species), established the currently accepted sectional classification of the genus. In its first version (Polhill, 1968), Pohlhill accepted eleven sections and eight subsections in Africa and Madagascar; species from outside these two regions were briefly mentioned but not classified. Bisby (1970) applied numeric taxonomy to *Crotalaria*. He carried out multivariate analyses on 52 floral-morphological traits measured in herbarium material representing 273 species from Africa and Madagascar. Bisby and Polhill (1973) and Polhill (1982) used the results from these analyses to revise Polhill's (1968) sections, ending up with 8 sections. All post-1982 studies have had a regional focus, such as revisions in Australia (Holland 2002), India (Ansari 2006, 2008; Subramaniam *et al.* 2013, 2015), Brazil (Flores *et al.* 2006, 2016; Flores and Tozzi 2008), and Africa and Madagascar (Le Roux *et al.* 2013, this included 11 species from other regions). The Neotropical species are the least studied, with the exception of Brazil for which Flores (2004) assigned the species occurring in Brazil to four of Polhill's (1982) sections, and evaluated the taxonomic value of chromosome numbers (available for 23 of the 31 Brazilian species) and pyrrolizidine alkaloid profiles (available for 28 of the 31 Brazilian species) (Flores *et al.* 2006, 2009). The only phylogenetic studies including molecular data are by Le Roux *et al.* (2013: 24% of the total species sampled) and Subramaniam *et al.* (2013, 2015: 10% of the total species sampled), and both had a regional focus (Table 1). In these studies, *Crotalaria* is monophyletic, with six of its eight sections para- or polyphyletic. However, the lack of comprehensive taxon sampling has hampered the understanding of phylogenetic relationships within *Crotalaria*, and especially species from Asia outside India, Australasia and the Neotropics have been widely neglected in molecular phylogenies.

Chromosome numbers and karyotype descriptions for species of *Crotalaria* have been published mostly for African and Indian species, but are scarce for the Neotropics (e.g. Boulter *et al.* 1970; Windler 1974; Mangotra and Koul 1991; Palomino and Vázquez 1991; Oliveira and Aguiar-Perecin 1999; Tapia-Pastrana *et al.* 2005; Flores *et al.* 2006). Cytogenetic studies with C-banding and FISH using standard probes have been done in 12 species from four sections. Six of these species have a straight keel beak and belong to section *Chrysocalycinae* (Mondin and Aguiar-Perecin 2011: *C. incana* with $2n = 14$) and *Hedriocarpace* (Morales *et al.* 2011: *C. lanceolata*, *C. mucronata*, *C. ochroleuca*, *C. pallida*, *C. striata*; all with $2n = 16$); the other six have spirally twisted keel beaks and belong to section *Calycinae* (*C. juncea* with $2n = 16$, *C. paulina* with $2n = 32$, *C. stipularia* with $2n = 32$) and section *Crotalaria* (*C. retusa*, *C. spectabilis*, *C. virgulata*; all with $2n = 16$) (Mondin *et al.* 2007; Mondin and Aguiar-Perecin 2011). It was found that the six species with spirally twisted keel beak had smaller chromosomes than the other six, but the work was done without a phylogenetic framework.

1.2 Study system 2, the Caricaceae – chromosomal change in modern plant systematics

Since Theodor Boveri developed the theory of chromosomal inheritance in 1909 (Baltzer 1964), biologists have been interested in chromosome numbers (Goldblatt and Lowry 2011; Rice *et al.* 2015). Methods for preparing chromosome spreads were established by Cyril D. Darlington in the 1930s, including the squashing and staining techniques still applied today. Since then, chromosome number data have become an important tool in plant systematic research (Stuessy *et al.* 2014). About 60,000 angiosperm species have had their chromosomes counted (Bennett 1998), which amounts to 19% of the estimated 352,000 species of angiosperms (The Plant List 2010, <http://www.theplantlist.org/>). Chromosome numbers in angiosperms range from $n = 2$ to $n = 320$, and can vary among closely related species or even between individuals of a population (Singh and Harvey 1975; Mandáková *et al.* 2013: *Cardamine*). In spite of occasional intra-population variation, chromosome numbers can be useful in the delimitation of species (Guerra 2008). In practice, however, the usefulness of chromosomes in species delimitation is limited by the need to have living material for staining and counting.

The most important role of chromosome number therefore is not their use in taxonomy/systematics, but instead in evolutionary biology because they allow us to infer evolutionary events, such as polyploidy (whole genome multiplication) and dysploidy (increase

or decrease of chromosome numbers involving single chromosomes). Although both phenomena play a role in karyotype evolution, polyploidization has been studied more than dysploidy, at least in plants. Dysploidy has been considered the main reason of changing chromosome numbers in animals (Imai *et al.* 2002), and it also occurs frequently in plants (Escudero *et al.* 2014). Dysploidy mostly happens through fission (gain) and fusion (loss) events: Ascending dysploidy means an increase of the chromosome number through fission, whereas decreasing dysploidy refers to a decrease in number (Guerra 2008; Sousa *et al.* 2014). These processes may be accompanied by loss of material, probably repetitive DNA, although this is still little documented. In the case of fission, a new centromere and two new telomeres have to be generated, whereas in the case of fusion of acrocentric or telocentric chromosomes one of the centromeres has to be inactivated (Schubert *et al.* 1992, 1995). Gradual dysploid reductions in chromosome numbers have been analyzed in most detail in *Arabidopsis* ($n = 8$ to $n = 5$: Yogeeswaran *et al.* 2005; Lysak *et al.* 2006) and *Cucumis* ($n = 12$ to $n = 7$: Yang *et al.* 2014).

In my study of the role of chromosomes in speciation, I used traditional chromosome counts and fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH) (Chapter 4). This staining technique utilizes fluorescent probes to detect the position and number of specific loci on a chromosome. It was introduced by Gall and Pardue (1969) and John *et al.* (1969), and initially involved the detection of radioactive DNA or RNA probes by autoradiography. Since then, speedier and safer methods have been developed that utilize haptens and fluorochromes as probes, and differently-colored fluorescent reagents also allow for simultaneous detection of multiple target sequences. The fluorescent signals are captured under a fluorescent microscope equipped with special cameras, and the pictures taken are then overlayed and analyzed with digital image software (Jiang and Gill 1994).

My study system for chromosomal evolution was the Caricaceae family, with 34 species of tropical trees and (straggling) shrubs in six genera and a crown group age of about 27 (22–33) Ma (Carvalho and Renner 2012). Caricaceae is thus about 10 Ma older than *Crotalaria*, which has 20 times more species. The family is most species-rich in the New World and has just two species on any other continent (Africa), while *Crotalaria* is most species-rich in Africa, and occurs on all continents except Antarctica. I chose to study the Caricaceae because the clade is small enough to focus on the role of chromosomal change in its evolution, something not possible in any large group because molecular-cytogenetic work is labor-intensive and requires repeated

access to living material. Such material was available in the Munich greenhouses because of the work of an earlier Ph.D. student, F.A. Carvalho, who had focused on the taxonomy, phylogenetics, and biogeography of Caricaceae (Carvalho and Renner 2012, 2013b).

Based on initial chromosome counts carried out at the start of my research, Caricaceae appear to have undergone a reduction in chromosome numbers during their evolution, and I wanted to understand this dysploidy. Most Caricaceae are dioecious, and *Carica papaya* is sometimes considered a model for studies on the evolution of sex chromosomes (Liu *et al.* 2004; Wu *et al.* 2010; Ming *et al.* 2011; Van Buren *et al.* 2015). X/Y chromosomes that appear to be homologous to the papaya X/Y chromosomes have been discovered in *Vasconcellea parviflora* (Iovene *et al.* 2015). Prior to my research, almost no cytogenetic work had been done on the family probably because Caricaceae are tropical trees (rarely stragglers). Based on comparison of whole-genome sequences of *Arabidopsis thaliana*, *Carica papaya*, *Populus trichocarpa*, and *Vitis vinifera*, Tang *et al.* (2008) proposed that the most recent common ancestor of Caricaceae underwent a polyploidization event, but within Caricaceae, no genome duplication events have been reported. Prior to my studies, fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (FISH) with 18S and 5S rDNA standard probes had been carried out on just three species, *Carica papaya*, *Vasconcellea goudotiana*, and *V. pubescens*, and BAC clones had been used to detect X/Y chromosomes in *Jacaratia spinosa* (Costa *et al.* 2008; Iovene *et al.* 2015).

1.3 Research questions in the two study systems

To advance our understanding of diversification of a mega-diverse group (especially as regards morphological change relative to niche shifts) and to discover clade relationships and ages in *Crotalaria*, I compiled a molecular phylogeny for nuclear and plastid loci, sampling as many species as possible, representing all geographic regions, sections (with their type species), and morphological variation (Chapter 2). For this purpose I combined available sequence data with new data generated by myself, mainly relying on DNA samples from herbarium specimens. Due to their underrepresentation in previous studies, I focused especially on Neotropical and Australasian species. I used molecular-clock dating and species distribution data to infer when and where the crown group of *Crotalaria* originated and how fast subgroups diversified in independent regions with similar or dissimilar conditions. In terms of trait evolution, I asked when and where morphological flower and leaf traits evolved, how conserved they are, and if

they are related to climate niches. I also tested different traits' taxonomic value by plotting them as discrete characters on DNA-based phylogenies and/or by carrying out ancestral state reconstructions. To assess the possible adaptive value of traits, I used both categorical data based on the assessment of species distribution in Köppen-Geiger climate groups and regression analyses with climate and environmental variables for species occurrence data, taking into account phylogenetic structure of the data. This allowed me to address whether flower and leaf traits are correlated with temperature, precipitation, elevation, or sun radiation (Chapter 2).

Apart from considering the evolution of *Crotalaria* on a worldwide scale, I wanted to advance the taxonomic treatment of Neotropical *Crotalaria* (c. 80), the least studied group. This part of my work involved collaboration with Andréia S. Flores from Universidade Federal de Roraima, Brazil. As part of a revision of 31 species of *Crotalaria* known from Brazil, we lectotypified 11 species names and synonymized another four (Chapter 3).

My research questions in the Caricaceae centered on the chromosome number reduction discovered during initial work. Wild plants of nine species representing all genera are cultivated in the greenhouses of the Munich Botanical Garden, which was the precondition for carrying out my research. I counted the diploid chromosome numbers of these nine species, including three species from genera that had never been the focus of any chromosomal work, namely the African *Cylicomorpha parviflora* (one of two species counted) and the Mexican *Horovitzia cnidoscoloides* (*Horovitzia* is monotypic), and *Jarilla caudata* and *J. heterophylla* (two of three species counted). The chromosome number of two of these genera, *Horovitzia* ($2n = 16$) and *Jarilla* ($2n = 14$), deviated from the other genera, and my aim was to find out what might have caused these reductions and whether they occurred in sequence. I used FISH to detect possible traces of past events of chromosomal rearrangements that have lead to lower chromosome numbers. For this purpose I used *Arabidopsis*-type telomeric probes. I also tested chromosome counts of five species in three of the other genera of Caricaceae and applied two other standard probes for 45S and 5S rDNA sites, which are highly conserved among eukaryotes. Lastly, I combined the chromosome count and FISH data with data on genome size to answer the question if chromosome number alterations are related to genome size variation, and I used a dated phylogeny to infer time and direction of changes.

Chapter 2

CLOCK-DATED PHYLOGENY FOR 48% OF THE 700 SPECIES OF *CROTALARIA* (FABACEAE–PAPILIONOIDEAE) RESOLVES SECTIONS WORLDWIDE AND IMPLIES CONSERVED FLOWER AND LEAF TRAITS THROUGHOUT ITS PANTROPICAL RANGE.

Rockinger, A., Flores, A.S., and Renner, S.S.

BMC Evolutionary Biology, 2016 [in review]

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Clock-dated phylogeny for 48% of the 700 species of Crotalaria (Fabaceae-Papilionoideae) resolves sections worldwide and implies conserved flower and leaf traits throughout its pantropical range

--Manuscript Draft--

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Full Title:	Clock-dated phylogeny for 48% of the 700 species of Crotalaria (Fabaceae-Papilionoideae) resolves sections worldwide and implies conserved flower and leaf traits throughout its pantropical range
Article Type:	Research article
Section/Category:	Phylogenetics and Phylogeography
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Abstract:	<p>Background: With some 700 species, Crotalaria is among the angiosperm's largest genera. We sampled 48% of these species, representing all sections and geographic regions, for nuclear and plastid DNA markers to infer possible drivers of Crotalaria diversification on a clock-dated phylogeny, focusing on climate niches, flower morphology, leaf types (compound vs. simple), and polyploidy, since chromosome counts are available for about 36% of the sequenced species.</p> <p>Results: Crotalaria is monophyletic and most closely related to African Bolusia (five species) from which it diverged 23 to 30 Ma ago. The analyses reveal that keel petal and sepal morphologies, which are taxonomically important, are conserved in large clades and uncorrelated to climate as statistically assessed with bioclimate data. Compound leaves are the ancestral condition, from which simple leaves evolved a few times, also not clearly correlated with climate. With the current sampling, most of the polyploid species are in one clade and have similar flowers and leaves.</p> <p>Conclusions: Of the 16 genera of Crotalarieae, most of them centered in Africa, Crotalaria is by far the most species rich and widespread, yet its flower traits and leaf morphology are invariant in large species groups and change in chromosome numbers is limited (with current sampling). Crotalaria thus does not fit common suggestions about 'drivers' of angiosperm diversification, which tend to focus on mountain habitats, climate niches, and diversity of pollination modes.</p>
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1 **Clock-dated phylogeny for 48% of the 700 species of *Crotalaria* (Fabaceae–**
2 **Papilioideae) resolves sections worldwide and implies conserved flower and**
3 **leaf traits throughout its pantropical range**

4
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12
13 **Background:** With some 700 species, *Crotalaria* is among the angiosperm's largest
14 genera. We sampled 48% of these species, representing all sections and geographic
15 regions, for nuclear and plastid DNA markers to infer possible drivers of *Crotalaria*
16 diversification on a clock-dated phylogeny, focusing on climate niches, flower
17 morphology, leaf types (compound vs. simple), and polyploidy, since chromosome
18 counts are available for 36% of the sequenced species.

19 **Results:** *Crotalaria* is monophyletic and most closely related to African *Bolusia* (five
20 species) from which it diverged 23 to 30 Ma ago. The analyses reveal that keel petal
21 and sepal morphologies, which are taxonomically important, are conserved in large
22 clades and uncorrelated to climate as statistically assessed with bioclimate data.

23 Compound leaves are the ancestral condition, from which simple leaves evolved a
24 few times, also not clearly correlated with climate. With the current sampling, most of
25 the polyploid species are in one clade and have similar flowers and leaves.

26 **Conclusions:** Of the 16 genera of Crotalarieae, most of them centered in Africa,
27 *Crotalaria* is by far the most species rich and widespread, yet its flower traits and leaf
28 morphology are invariant in large species groups and change in chromosome numbers
29 is limited (with current sampling). *Crotalaria* thus does not fit common suggestions
30 about ‘drivers’ of angiosperm diversification, which tend to focus on mountain
31 habitats, climate niches, and diversity of pollination modes.

32 **Keywords:** Climate niches, GBIF data, molecular clock, trait evolution, flower
33 morphology, leaf architecture

1 34 **Background**
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Among the World's largest angiosperm genera, *Crotalaria* with some 700 species occupies place 35 (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_the_largest_genera_of_flowering_plants). Five of these genera have been studied with a species sampling >20% (Goldenberg *et al.* 2008: *Miconia* [Melastomataceae], 22% of 1057 species; Jaramillo *et al.* 2008: *Piper* [Piperaceae], 31% of 1055 species; Pirie *et al.* 2011: *Erica* [Ericaceae], 45% of 860 species; Li *et al.* 2010: *Allium* [Amaryllidaceae], 41% of 815 species; Le Roux *et al.* 2013: *Crotalaria* [Fabaceae], 24% of 700 species). Studies that have used sparser sampling of mega-diverse genera, for example, in *Pedicularis* (Ree 2005), *Ranunculus* (Hörandl *et al.* 2005), and *Begonia* (Moonlight *et al.* 2015), have attributed these groups' high species numbers to differentiation into pollinator niches (*Pedicularis*), habitat differentiation linked to elevation niches (*Begonia*) or a broad range of reproductive strategies (autogamy, apomixis, and vegetative growth in *Ranunculus*), and polyploidy and hybridization, which are known to contribute to speciation and diversification in plants. Studying mega-diverse clades (>500 species) is important for understanding plant evolution, especially the role of supposed 'drivers' of diversity, such as adaptations to different pollinators (May and Sargent, 2009 for a critical review) or biome and climate niche shifts. Here we focus on *Crotalaria*, a pantropical clade of woody or herbaceous species of low stature that mostly occur in open habitats at low to mid-altitudes and that have conspicuous flowers and fruits so that they are relatively easily collected and well represented in collections. The genus does not present particular taxonomic problems due to hybridization or apomixes as does, e.g., *Ranunculus* (Emadzade and Hörandl 2011), and it has benefitted from consistent taxonomic work by Roger Polhill (1968, 1982) and phylogenetic studies focusing on its African and Indian species (Le Roux *et al.* 2013; Subramaniam *et al.* 2013, 2015). Of the 700 species, about 500 occur in Africa and Madagascar, 80 in India, 20 in Australia, and 80 in the Americas (Polhill 1982; Lewis *et al.* 2005; Flores and Tozzi 2008). About 15 species are distributed pantropically due to their use as fiber crops, cattle fodder, and erosion control plants (Polhill 1968).

Crotalaria species have typical papilionoid flowers, composed of standard, wing, and keel petals (Figures 1, inset, 2). These flowers are adapted to bee pollination and especially to Megachilidae, a worldwide clade of some 4000 species (Danforth *et al.* 2013) whose pollen-carrying structures are restricted to the ventral

surface of the abdomen. This matches the ventral pollen presentation in *Crotalaria*. The only way for a bee to reach the nectary at the base of the staminal tube is by inserting its proboscis through a central channel at the base of the standard petal. Access to the nectary from the sides is blocked by bulbous or plate-like appendages at the inner base of the standard petal. Pollen transfer occurs while the nectar-drinking bee holds on to the lateral wing petals with its tarsi, depressing the flower's keel with its body weight, which causes the style to emerge from a staminal tube through the keel beak. The upper part of the style bears stiff hairs that brush or scrape pollen grains from the flower's own anthers and deposit them on the bee's abdomen (Lavin and Delgado 1990; Etcheverry 2001; Etcheverry et al. 2003; Jacobi et al. 2005; Le Roux and Van Wyk 2012). In a revision of *Crotalaria*, Polhill (1982; p. 4) mentioned that the genus could be subdivided by its flower morphology. About half the species have a slightly rostrate keel with a straight beak, bulbous appendages on the standard petal blade and on the claw, and trichomes only on one side of the style (sections *Chrysocalycinae*, *Grandiflorae*, *Hedriocarpae*; our Figure 1). The other half has flowers with a highly rostrate keel with a spirally twisted beak, plate-like appendages that do not extend to the claw, and hairs either along a single spiral line or along both sides of the style (sections *Calycinae*, *Crotalaria*, *Dispermae*). Polhill suggested that a spirally twisted keel beak might allow for a better proportioning of pollen, without indicating whether he was thinking of fewer grains on more bees or grains distributed over a longer duration of anthesis. Sections *Geniculatae* and *Schizostigma* were thought to have an intermediate type of flower (Polhill 1982). The precise function of the beak keel in pollen export during the 36–48 h of anthesis (personal observation of flowers with both keel types) is unknown, but combined with other flower traits, such as the calyx shape (Figure 1, inset), it is an important character for distinguishing sections. Fitting with their bee pollination, *Crotalaria* flowers are yellow, sometimes with red or brownish markings; only a handful of species have white, blue, or greenish flowers. An example of a green-flowered species is *C. cunninghamii*, which is endemic to Australia and is pollinated by honeyeaters (Meliphagidae) (Popic et al. 2016).

Leaves in *Crotalaria* are usually compound and mostly trifoliolate, more rarely unifoliolate, multifoliolate, or simple. The adaptive value of compound leaves is thought to lie in heat dissipation because there is greater convection than in a simple leaf of equal size, fitting with the prevalence of compound leaves in dry

1 102 habitats (Vogel 2009). Compound leaves also allow individual leaflets to change their
2 103 angle of inclination and thereby maximize diffuse light capture at microsites, with the
3 104 degree of folding also varying diurnally (Shackel and Hall 1979; Vogel 2009). Given
4 105 the still poor understanding of the adaptive significance of simple vs. compound
5 106 leaves (Vogel 2009; Warman et al. 2011), we were interested in how their occurrence
6 107 in *Crotalaria* might correlate with temperature, precipitation, elevation, or sun
7 108 radiation (Table 1).

8 109 Chromosome counts have been published for 36% of the sequenced species of
9 110 *Crotalaria* (e.g. Boulter et al. 1970; Windler 1974; Mangotra and Koul 1991;
10 111 Palomino and Vázquez 1991; Oliveira and Aguiar-Perecin 1999; Tapia-Pastrana et al.
11 112 2005; Flores et al. 2006), and 12 species from four sections have been studied with
12 113 modern molecular-cytogenetic methods, including C-banding and FISH (Mondin et
13 114 al. 2007; Mondin and Aguiar-Perecin 2011; Morales et al. 2011). This density of
14 115 chromosomal data allows us to assess the possible role of polyploidy in the evolution
15 116 of the genus.

16 117 Here we use three plastid and two nuclear gene regions to reconstruct a
17 118 phylogeny of 338 (48%) of the 700 species, sampling representatives of all sections of
18 119 *Crotalaria* and of all 15 other genera of Crotalarieae. Our aim was to resolve the
19 120 relationships among species groups and then to use phylogenograms as well as clock-dated
20 121 versions of the phylogeny to infer the relative evolutionary lability of flower traits,
21 122 leaf morphology, climate niches, and chromosome numbers in this pantropical genus.
22 123

23 124 **Results**

24 125 **Closest relatives and age of *Crotalaria*, and leaf and flower evolution in the genus**
25 126 Along with 15 other genera (with a total of some 517 species of mainly African
26 127 distribution *Crotalaria* belongs to the Crotalarieae (Lewis et al. 2005; Boatwright et
27 128 al. 2008; Cardoso et al. 2012), a placement supported here with a sampling of
28 129 representatives from all Crotalarieae genera. *Crotalaria* is monophyletic and most
29 130 closely related to the African genus *Bolusia* (5 species), followed by the monospecific
30 131 likewise African *Euchlora* (Figure 1). Inferred ages for key divergence events under
31 132 different clock models are summarized in Table 2; their 95% posterior probability
32 133 intervals overlap, suggesting that the results are robust to choice of priors. The stem
33 134 age of *Crotalaria* falls between the late Oligocene and the early Miocene, with the
34 135 divergence from *Bolusia* occurring 23 (18–28) to 30 (21–51) Ma ago (Table 2). The

1 136 deepest divergences between surviving *Crotalaria* lineages date to between 18 (14–
2 137 22) and 29 (18–42) Ma ago. The ages of other main clades are shown in Table 2.
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4 138 *Bolusia* and *Euchlora*, as well as most other Crotalarieae have a strictly African
5 139 distribution, suggesting that *Crotalaria* originated in Africa. From there, Madagascar
6 140 was reached at least 10 times (Figure 3) while Australia was reached at least five
7 141 times, both from SE Asia and apparently also from Africa, although denser species
8 142 sampling would be required to confidently infer closest African/Australian relatives.
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13 143 Within *Crotalaria*, large species groups have almost homogeneous flower
14 144 morphologies (Figure 2). Thus, bilabiate calyces are almost restricted to Asia,
15 145 Australasia, and the Neotropics and are rare in Africa (compare Figure 1 to 3,
16 146 ‘bilabiate calyx clade’), with a few reversals to equally lobed calyces, such as
17 147 predominate in Africa. Of the 338 sampled species, 177 (52%) have a spirally twisted
18 148 keel beak and belong to our ‘bilabiate calyx’ and ‘bulbous standard appendages’
19 149 clades (Figure 1). There is also a species group with truncate calyx tubes that largely
20 150 corresponds to Polhill’s (1982) section *Hedriocarpace* (most *Crotalaria* have a
21 151 campanulate calyx). Our ‘core *Chrysocalycinae*’ clade comprises most species of
22 152 Polhill’s section *Chrysocalycinae* and the *Grandiflorae* (16 species) and *Stipulosae*
23 153 (14 species). The sister relationship between *C. linearifoliolata* from Somalia and *C.*
24 154 *persica* from the Horn of Africa to the Arab Peninsula will require renewed
25 155 assessment of their morphologies; Pohlhill (1982) had placed them in his sections
26 156 *Schizostigma* and *Hedriocarpace*. Calyces shorter than keel petals are conserved in
27 157 species groups within the ‘truncate calyx tube’ and the ‘bulbous standard appendages’
28 158 clades (Figure 2).

29 159 Leaf architecture in *Crotalaria* is highly conserved, as shown by the ancestral
30 160 state reconstruction (Figure 3) and the permutation test (estimated $D = -1,26$). All five
31 161 species of the closest outgroup *Bolusia* have compound (trifoliate) leaves, while the
32 162 single species of *Euchlora*, the next closest relative, has simple leaves. Most simple-
33 163 leaved *Crotalaria* species belong to the ‘bilabiate calyx’ and the ‘core
34 164 *Chrysocalycinae*’ clades and thus are found outside Africa (compare Figures 3 and 4).
35 165 Trifoliate leaves predominate in African and Madagascan species (173 of 205
36 166 sequenced species of *Crotalaria* that occur in Africa and Madagascar have this leaf
37 167 type), while 56 of 69 sequenced Asian species have simple leaves.

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1 170 **Leaf types and climate**

2 171 Of the 279 species that could be assigned to a climate category, 23 occur in the humid
3 172 tropics, 125 in the dry tropics, 62 in the arid tropics, and 66 in mild temperate
4 173 climates (Figure 5A). We have sampled an estimated 60% of the simple leaved and
5 174 46% of the compound leaved species of *Crotalaria*. The occurrence of simple- and
6 175 compound-leaved species differs significantly between the humid tropics and the
7 176 other three climate types (all $p < 0.0002$, df 1) and slightly between arid and mild
8 177 temperate regions ($p < 0.03$, df 1; Figure 5B, Table 3). Phylogenetically uncorrected
9 178 linear regression analyses with the *glm* and *logistf* models imply that simple-leaved
10 179 species have a higher probability of occurring in climates with high precipitation
11 180 (Figure 5C). Under the phylogenetically corrected *binaryPGLMM* model, these
12 181 correlations are no longer significant due to the few evolutionary transitions in leaf
13 182 type and hence low statistical power.

14 183

15 184 **Polyplody in *Crotalaria***

16 185 We gathered chromosome numbers from the literature for 122 of the 338 sampled
17 186 *Crotalaria* species and plotted them on the phylogeny (Figure S2). The most common
18 187 number in *Crotalaria* is $2n = 16$, with 92 species of the 122 species counted having
19 188 this number. With the current sampling, most polyploids are tetraploid (assuming a
20 189 base number of 8), with $2n = 32$, and occur in the Neotropics, where they belong to
21 190 our ‘bilabiate calyx clade.’ Exceptions are *C. tweediana*, a species with $2n = 54$ and
22 191 endemic to Brazil, and *C. ferruginea* with $2n = 48$ from Southeast Asia and
23 192 Australasia, and *C. massaiensis* with $2n = 32$ from Kenya.

24 193

25 194 **Discussion**

26 195 **Phylogenetic relationships and major groups in *Crotalaria***

27 196 *Crotalaria* as traditionally circumscribed (Polhill 1968, 1982) is monophyletic.
28 197 Morphologically, the five species in the tropical African genus *Bolusia* differ from the
29 198 700 species of *Crotalaria* by having a helically (not spirally) coiled keel and a single,
30 199 rather than paired, appendages blocking the nectary access while the single species of
31 200 *Euchlora*, endemic to the Northern and Western Cape, lacks any appendages blocking
32 201 nectary access. *Bolusia* has trifoliolate leaves, while *Euchlora hirsuta* has simple
33 202 leaves. We have sampled between 25 and 79% of the species in Polhill’s (1982) eight
34 203 sections (four of them with >50% sampled, see Figure 1), and with this sampling all

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1 sections are polyphyletic. Le Roux et al.'s (2013) merging of Polhill's sections
2 *Crotalaria* and *Dispermae* (our 'bulbous standard appendages clade) is supported by
3 our results. On the other hand, eight of their eleven sections are rendered polyphyletic
4 by our increased species sampling (only their species-poor sections *Amphitrichae*
5 (four species), *Grandiflorae* (14 species), and *Stipulosae* (13 species) are
6 monophyletic). Additional file 1: Figure S1 shows the sections of Polhill and Le Roux
7 et al. plotted on our tree. A future sectional classification should probably not be
8 undertaken until at least 80% of the species are sampled (currently 48%).
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213 **Evolution of flower and leaf traits and their distribution in different climate 214 types**

215 Flower traits turned out to be uncorrelated to climate, although most of the species
216 occurring in the humid tropics have bilabiate calyces while species occurring in the
217 dry tropics mostly have equally lobed calyces (Figure 1, inset, Figure 2). That flower
218 traits are uncorrelated to climate may reflect that the main pollinators of crotalarias,
219 species in the long-tongued bee family Megachilidae, which includes over 4,000
220 species, are abundant in ecosystems from arid habitats to tropical forests (Danforth et
221 al. 2013). Other important pollinators are the pantropical carpenter bees (*Xylocopa*;
222 Etcheverry et al. 2003; Jacobi et al. 2005). All *Crotalaria* flowers (even the honey-
223 eater pollinated Australian *C. cunninghamii*; Popic et al. 2016) have the same
224 pollination mechanism in which the narrow keel beak serves as a cylinder and the
225 style acts together with the anthers as a piston. No study has compared the effect of a
226 twisted or keel beak on pollen release, and Pohlhill's (1982) suggestion that a twisted
227 keel beak might better proportion pollen release does not match the finding that
228 flowers with and without such keels have the same shorts life span and are visited by
229 some of the same bee species (*C. micans* and *C. stipularia* flowers function for c. four
230 days, Etcheverry 2001; Etcheverry et al. 2003; Jacobi et al. 2005: *C. retusa* flowers
231 for one day; own observations show that flowers last for 3-4 days in *C. pallida*, and
232 for 4-5 days in *C. cunninghamii*, *C. novae-hollandiae*, and *C. velutina*). It would be
233 worth testing whether species with spirally twisted keel beaks and those with straight
234 beaks produce different amounts of pollen; if the species with twisted beaks produced
235 fewer pollen grains, it should be selectively advantageous for them to release fewer
236 grains per bee visit.

The range map resulting from occurrences of the 183 of the 700 species of *Crotalaria* that are represented in GBIF (Figure 4, inset) illustrates the minimal range of the genus but also the highly uneven uploading of data to GBIF, with India especially underrepresented. Nevertheless, the GBIF data show that the genus occurs not only in the humid tropics (minimum temperature ≥ 18 °C; annual precipitation ≥ 25 mm (monsoon climate) / ≥ 60 mm (rain forests)), dry tropics (minimum temperature ≥ 18 °C; annual precipitation < 60 mm), and arid tropics (minimum temperature < 18 °C (cold desert and savannah) / ≥ 18 °C (hot desert and savannah)), but also in mild temperate regions (minimum temperature range 10-22 °C; annual precipitation >40 mm). Fitting with a likely origin in dry regions of Africa, the ancestral leaf type in *Crotalaria* is the compound leaf, the adaptive advantage of which is thought to lie in heat dissipation which is greater in small, thin, mobile leaflets than in simple leaves of comparable size (Vogel 2009). In addition, the mobility of leaflets in compound leaves may avoid overheating and maximize diffuse light capture (raus: Muraoka et al. 1998). The possible adaptive value of simple leaves, by contrast, is poorly understood (Warman et al. 2011). We found only four evolutionary transitions from compound to simple leaves (Figure 3) and few reversals, with a possible overrepresentation of simple leaves in more humid habitats (Figure 5A, B), although this was not upheld in the phylogenetically informed analysis. Because of their small stature and ease of cultivation, *Crotalaria* species would be suitable for much-needed experimental work on the adaptive benefits of leaf architecture (Vogel 2009; Warman et al. 2011).

Polypliody in *Crotalaria*

Tetraploidy in *Crotalaria* appears to have arisen in the common ancestor of a New World clade (crown node marked with an arrow in Additional file 2: Figure S2). Of the 46 Neotropical species in our phylogeny, 27 form a clade that is embedded within a clade of 73 mostly Asian species (the ‘bilabiate calyx’ clade). Of these 27, 18 have had their chromosome numbers counted, and all are polyploid (17 of them have $2n = 32$; one has $2n = 54$). Windler (1973) suggested that polyploidy might be related to self-compatibility, but a high rate of seed set after selfing has been documented in all three species of *Crotalaria* studied in this regard: *C. micans*, *C. retusa*, and *C. stipularia*) (Etcheverry 2001; Etcheverry et al. 2003; Jacobi et al. 2005). However, only *C. stipularia* is native to South America and tetraploid, while *C. micans* and *C.*

1 271 *retusa*, both are pantropical due to their use as fibre crops, green manure, and cattle
2 272 fodder (Polhill 1982), are diploid ($2n = 16$). Two (counted) Asian species close to the
3 273 Neotropical tetraploid clade, *C. ferruginea* and *C. humifusa*, also are tetraploids as is
4 274 *C. massaiensis* from Kenya.
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8 276 **Conclusion**
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10 277 Our aim was to resolve the main species groups of the mega-diverse pantropical
11 278 genus *Crotalaria* in order to infer the evolutionary frequency of change in its flower
12 279 traits, leaf types, and climate niches, and to obtain a first view of the possible role of
13 280 polyploidy in its evolution. The few transitions from the ancestral compound leaf
14 281 architecture to simple leaves may be associated with occurrence in climates with
15 282 higher rainfall, although this was no longer statistically supported in a
16 283 phylogenetically informed analysis. Flower morphology also is highly conserved
17 284 throughout the genus. In combination, these findings argue against pollinator niches
18 285 or climate niches as particularly important in the diversification of *Crotalaria*, while
19 286 the possible role of chromosomal change (at least in some clades) deserves further
20 287 study. *Crotalaria* therefore does not fit common suggestions about ‘drivers’ of
21 288 angiosperm diversification, which tend to focus on mountain habitats, climate niches,
22 289 and diversity of pollination modes.
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26 291 **Methods**
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28 292 **Taxon sampling, plant material, DNA extractions, PCR amplifications,**
29 293 **sequencing and alignment**
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31 294 Plant material was obtained from specimens deposited in herbaria in Munich (M and
32 295 MSB), the Museu Integrado de Roraima (MIRR), the Instituto de Botânica (SP), the
33 296 Universidade de São Paulo (SPF), the Missouri Botanical Garden (MO), the Royal
34 297 Botanic Gardens in Kew (K), and the Botanical Garden and Botanical Museum in
35 298 Berlin (B). A few samples were obtained during a field trip in May 2015 to São Paulo
36 299 and Bahia, Brazil, and two from plants cultivated in the greenhouses of the Munich
37 300 Botanical Garden. Additional file 3: Table S1 lists all sampled taxa with their voucher
38 301 information, geographic origin and GenBank (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>)
39 302 accession numbers. Total genomic DNA was extracted from 5–25 mg of leaf tissue,
40 303 using plant DNA extraction kits (NucleoSpin, Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany)
41 304 according to the manufacturer’s protocol. Polymerase chain reactions (PCR) followed
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1 standard protocols, using Taq DNA polymerase and 10 primers (Additional file 4:
2 Table S2). PCR products were purified with the ExoSap clean-up kit (Fermentas, St.
3 Leon-Rot, Germany), and sequencing relied on Big Dye Terminator kits (Applied
4 Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) and an ABI 3130 automated sequencer. In all, 26
5 chloroplast sequences (*rbcL* gene, *psbA-trnH* intergenic spacer) and 245 nuclear
6 sequences (ribosomal DNA internal transcribed spacers ITS1 and ITS 2, plus the
7 intervening 5.8 S gene, and external transcribed spacer ETS) were newly generated
8 for this study. New sequences were BLAST-searched in GenBank and then aligned
9 with MAFFT v7 (Katoh and Standley 2013) using default parameters. To take into
10 account secondary structure, the Q-INS-i multiple alignment strategy was chosen for
11 the ITS and ETS sequences. Minor alignment errors were manually adjusted in
12 Geneious v8.1.8 (Kearse et al. 2012). We first generated separate alignments for the
13 ITS region (381 species, 851 aligned positions), the ETS region (108 species, 606
14 aligned positions), the *matK* gene (135 species, 754 aligned positions), the *rbcL* gene
15 (196 species, 552 aligned positions), and the *psbA-trnH* intergenic spacer (124
16 species, 408 aligned positions). In the absence of statistical conflict (>70% maximum
17 likelihood bootstrap support) among topologies from these matrices, the datasets were
18 concatenated resulting in a matrix of 3171 aligned positions, representing 338 species
19 of *Crotalaria*, 33 species of the other 15 genera within Crotalarieae, and 23 further
20 species belonging to the core genistoid clade (Lavin et al. 2005; Cardoso et al. 2012;
21 our Additional file 3: Table S1). We sampled the eight sections of Polhill (1982) and
22 the 11 of Le Roux et al. (2013) with their type species, except for *Crotalaria clavata*
23 Wight & Arn., the type of section *Hedriocarpae* Wight & Arn., and *Crotalaria*
24 *leptocarpa* Balf.f., the type of section *Schizostigma* Polhill.
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330 Phylogenetic and trait analyses

331 Phylogenetic trees were estimated using Maximum Likelihood (ML) optimization in
332 RAxML v8.0 (Stamatakis 2014) under the GTR+Γ substitution model with four rate
333 categories. Statistical support came from bootstrapping under the same model, with
334 1000 replicates.

335 All sequenced species were scored for the following flower trait states: beak
336 of the flower keel (barely twisted = 0, spirally twisted = 1), calyx lobing (equally
337 lobed = 0, bilabiate = 1), length of the calyx compared to length of the keel (shorter
338 than keel = 0, as long as/longer than keel = 1), and diploid chromosome numbers ($2n$

1 339 = 14 = 0; $2n = 16 = 1$; $2n = 18 = 2$; $2n = 32 = 3$; $2n = 42/48 = 4$; $2n = 54 = 5$). These
2 340 traits were plotted on a phylogram. Species were also coded for leaf trait states:
3 341 simple = 0, unifoliolate = 1, trifoliolate = 2, multifoliolate = 3. For leaf type, we
4 342 carried out ancestral state reconstruction on an ultrametric tree and compared an equal
5 343 rates model wherein all transition rates among trait states are equal with a
6 344 symmetrical rate model, which implements equal rates of backward and forward
7 345 character state transition while the distinct state combinations can have distinct rates,
8 346 and an all-rates-different model. All trait state codings are shown in Additional file 5:
9 347 Table S3
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Molecular clock dating

12 350 For molecular clock dating we relied on Bayesian optimization in BEAST v1.8.2
13 351 (Drummond et al. 2012) and a reduced alignment in which we removed 162
14 352 *Crotalaria* species with very short (<0.0001) or identical branch lengths, while
15 353 maintaining the 34 outgroups. We added 23 species of other core genistoids to this
16 354 dataset to allow for fossil calibration. This resulted in a matrix of 240 species and
17 355 3,171 aligned positions, of which 183 species are crotalariae (representing all major
18 356 clades) and the rest are representatives of the core genistoids. To convert genetic
19 357 branch lengths into absolute times we applied three calibration approaches: (1) A
20 358 strict clock calibrated with the oldest known legume fossil, a seedpod from western
21 359 Wyoming that is most similar to the Sophoreae genera *Bowdichia* and *Diplostropis*,
22 360 dated to at least the Late Paleocene (56 Mya) (Herendeen and Wing 2001; P. S.
23 361 Herendeen, Chicago Botanical Garden, pers. communication 17 Feb. 2016). We
24 362 assigned this fossil to the crown node of the *Bowdichia-Diplostropis-Leptolobium*-
25 363 clade, which we used as the outgroup, with a gamma distribution of shape 1.4, scale
26 364 2.0, and offset 54, reflecting the minimum age of 56 Mya, and using a normally
27 365 distributed prior for the clock rate (this allowed 95% of the root node ages to fall
28 366 between 54.17 and 62.97). (2) Next we used an uncorrelated lognormal (UCLN)
29 367 relaxed clock model with the same fossil calibration, using a diffuse gamma
30 368 distribution of shape 0.001, scale 1000.0, offset 0.0 for the ucln.mean rate. (3) Lastly
31 369 we applied a strict clock with three unlinked partitions for the ITS, ETS, and plastid
32 370 markers, using a genome substitution rate of 0.00346 subst./site/my for the ITS region
33 371 following Kay et al. (2006: *Lupinus*) and a plastid genome rate of 0.00056
34 372 subst./site/my by Palmer (1991) for the combined plastid loci *matK*, *rbcL*, and *psbA*-

1 373 *trnH*. The substitution rate for the ETS partition was estimated, using a diffuse
2 374 gamma distribution as in approach 2. In each BEAST run, we used a pure-birth (Yule)
3 375 tree prior, the GTR+ Γ substitution model, and Monte Carlo Markov chains (MCMC)
4 376 of 100 million generations, with parameters sampled every 10,000th generation.
5 377 Tracer v1.6 (part of the BEAST package; Rambaut et al. 2014) was used to assess
6 378 effective sample sizes (ESS) for all estimated parameters. We used TreeAnnotator
7 379 v1.8.2 (part of the BEAST package) to discard 10% of the saved trees as burn-in and
8 380 to combine trees. Maximum clade credibility trees with mean node heights were
9 381 visualized using FigTree v1.4.2 (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>) and R (R
10 382 Chord Team 2015). We report highest posterior densities intervals, the interval
11 383 containing 95% of the sampled values.
12 384

21 385 **Geography, traits, climate, and chromosome numbers**

22 386 Species were area-coded according to their natural distribution range, based on
23 387 information from regional floras and taxonomic revisions (Hooker 1879; Polhill 1968;
24 388 Lee 1978; Polhill 1982; Holland 2002; Ansari 2006, 2008; Flores and Tozzi 2008;
25 389 Flores et al. 2016), and the International Legume Database and Information System
26 390 (ILDIS) (Roskov et al. 2005). We then assigned species to five major distribution
27 391 areas: Americas (North, Central, and South America, and the Caribbean); Africa and
28 392 the Middle East; Madagascar including Mauritius, Réunion, and the Seychelles; Asia
29 393 (from the east of Arabian Peninsula to Southeast Asia; and Australasia (comprising
30 394 Australia, Papua New Guinea, and Melanesia).

31 395 To assess the distribution of leaf types in different climate zones, we used a
32 396 categorical approach for which we assigned species to climate zones and also linear
33 397 regression analyses with continuous bioclimate data for georeferenced species records
34 398 coming from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (GBIF;
35 399 <http://www.gbif.org>). For the categorical approach, each species was assigned to one
36 400 of 14 climate types in the Köppen-Geiger system (Kottek et al. 2006; Peel et al. 2007;
37 401 Wilkerson and Wilkerson 2010; our Table 1), which uses a three-letter code to
38 402 categorize a ‘main climate’ (first letter), annual precipitation distribution (second
39 403 letter), and seasonal temperature (third letter). Species were assigned to the climate
40 404 type found in >70% of their range; 48 species without a determinable main climate
41 405 category were coded as NA and excluded from further analysis, resulting in 279
42 406 species assigned to a climate category. In a second step, we grouped the 14 climate

types into just four types: humid tropics (Af, Am; Table 3 for definitions), dry tropics (As, Aw), arid (BWk, BWh, BSk, BSh) and mild temperate (Cfa, Cfb, Csa, Csb, Cwa, Cwb). To test if the occurrence of simple and compound leaves differs between the four climate types, we used Pearson's chi-squared test for count data as part of the R package 'stats' (R Chore Team 2015) and posthoc pairwise comparisons with the *chisq.post.hoc* function as implied in the R package 'fifer' (Fife 2014).

For the linear regression analyses with continuous data, we queried *Crotalaria* species names in GBIF using the *gbif* function of the R-package 'dismo' (Hijmans et al. 2011) and then filtered the data by removing fossil and literature records, coordinate duplicates within a species, records with a resolution >10 km, and species with fewer than 10 georeferenced records. This resulted in a dataset of 2048 records for 183 species, listed in Additional file 5: Table S3 with their trait states. Values for climate parameters were standardized to allow for comparative analyses and were log transformed, if not normally distributed. To identify multicollinearity of predictor variables, we determined variance inflation factors by applying the *vif* function of the R package 'HH' (Heiberger 2016). To determine which climate variable is explanatory for the distribution of leaf types, we applied generalized linear models with the *glm* function of R 'stats' and compared results to logistic regression models applying Firth's correction to the likelihood by using the *logistf* function of the R package 'logistf' (Heinze et al. 2013). We also considered phylogenetic structure in our data by using a permutation test as implemented in the *phylo.d* function of the R package 'caper' (Orme et al. 2013), and the *binaryPGLMM* function of the 'ape' package (Paradis et al. 2004), which performs a linear regression for binary phylogenetic data and simultaneously estimates the strength of phylogenetic signal. For these analyses, it was necessary to simplify the leaf trait coding described under 2.2 to simple = 0 or compound = 1, with the latter trait state including trifoliolate, unifoliolate, and multifoliolate. Available chromosome numbers were complied from the literature and plotted on the phylogenetic tree.

Availability of supporting data

All the supporting data are included as additional files under: <http://www.xxxx>

441 **Additional files**

442 **Additional file 1: Figure S1.** The 8 sections of Polhill (1982) and the 11 sections of
443 Le Roux et al. (2013) plotted on a maximum likelihood tree for 372 accessions
444 representing 338 *Crotalaria* species and 33 species of the remaining 15 genera of
445 Crotalarieae based on 3171 aligned nucleotides of nuclear and plastid loci.
446

447 **Additional file 2: Figure S2.** Same maximum likelihood tree as in Figure 1 with
448 chromosome numbers for 122 species plotted on the tips and shown as bars to the
449 right. Red arrow marks the crown node of the polyploid Neotropical clade; black
450 arrows mark species in which the stages of anthesis have been studied.
451

452 **Additional file 3: Table S1.** Species used in this study with herbarium vouchers,
453 place of deposition (in a few cases also their barcodes), geographic origin, distribution
454 ranges, and GenBank accession numbers for all sequences. Type species of Polhill's
455 (1982) and Le Roux et al.'s (2013) sections are listed with the respective sectional
456 names and are marked with an asterisk. Newly sequenced species in bold. Native
457 distribution areas are marked by an (N), those where a species has been introduced by
458 an (I), and those where the status is uncertain by an (U).
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460 **Additional file 4: Table S2.** Primer sequences used in this study (listed 5'- to 3'-end)
461 and applied protocols.
462

463 **Additional file 5: Table S3.** Species list with coding of sections; distribution areas;
464 leaf and flower trait states; species' climate categories; and number of GBIF records.
465 Polhill's (1982) sections (1 = *Grandiflorae*; 2 = *Chrysocalycinae*; 3 = *Hedriocarpae*;
466 4 = *Geniculatae*; 5 = *Schizostigma*; 6 = *Calycinae*; 7 = *Crotalaria*; 8 = *Dispermae*);
467 Le Roux et al. (2013) sections (1 = *Hedriocarpae*; 2 = *Incanae*; 3 = *Schizostigma*; 4 =
468 *Calycinae*; 5 = *Borealigeniculatae*; 6 = *Crotalaria*; 7 = *Stipulosae*; 8 = *Glaucae*; 9 =
469 *Geniculatae*; 10 = *Amphitrichae*; 11 = *Grandiflorae*); distribution areas ("Region";
470 "Region 2"; "Region 3"; "Region 4") (0 = Americas (North, Central, and South
471 America, and the Caribbean); Africa and the Middle East; Madagascar including
472 Mauritius, Réunion, and the Seychelles; Asia (from the east of Arabian Peninsula to
473 Southeast Asia; Australasia (comprising Australia, Papua New Guinea, and
474 Melanesia)); leaf type (0 = simple; 1 = unifoliolate; 2 = trifoliolate; 4 =
475 multifoliolate); leaf type (binary) (0 = simple; 2 = compound); beak of the flower keel
476 ("Keel") (barely twisted = 0; spirally twisted = 1); calyx lobing (equally lobed = 0;
477 bilabiate = 1); length of the calyx compared to length of the keel ("Calyx length")
478 (shorter than keel = 0; as long as/longer than keel = 1); Köppen-Geiger categories (0
479 = Af; 1 = Am; 2 = As; 3 = Aw; 4 = BWk; 5 = BWh; 6 = BSk; 7 = BSh; 8 = Cfa; 9 =
480 Cfb; 10 = Csa; 11 = Csb; 12 = Cwa; 13 = Cwb); Köppen-Geiger major climate group
481 (0 = humid tropics [Af, Am]; 1 = dry tropics [As, Aw]; 2 = arid [BWk, BWh, BSk,
482 BSh]; 3 = mild temperate [Cfa, Cfb, Csa, Csb, Cwa, Cwb]); diploid chromosome
483 numbers ("2n"): 0 = 14; 1 = 16; 2 = 18; 3 = 32; 4 = 42/48; 5 = 54 (reference list for
484 chromosome numbers below table). NA = not available.
485

486 **Competing interests**

487 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
488

1 **489 Authors' contributions**

2 **490** AR generated the data and carried out all analyses; AR and SSR wrote the paper; ASF
3 **491** contributed material, and helped gathering chromosome and morphological trait data;
4 **492** SSR devised the project and provided financial support.

5 **493**

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8 **496** analysis, and S. G. Aninta for help with gathering trait and distribution data. We also
9 **497** thank the curators of the herbaria listed in Additional file 3: Table S1 for granting
10 **498** access to their collections.

11 **499**

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- 665 **Figure captions**
- 675
- 685 **Figure 1.** Maximum likelihood tree for 372 accessions representing 338 species of
686 *Crotalaria* and 33 species of the remaining 15 genera of Crotalarieae based on 3171
687 aligned nucleotides of nuclear and plastid sequences. Black circles at nodes represent
688 bootstrap values $\geq 70\%$, and branch colors Polhill's (1982) sections (see lower inset

for their names and species numbers). Upper inset: Morphological characters of
Polhill's sections. Photos: A. Rockinger.

Figure 2. Same maximum likelihood tree as in Figure 1 with key flower traits plotted:
Keel beak (spirally twisted; barely twisted), calyx (bilabiate; equally lobed, and length
of calyx (as long as/longer than keel/shorter than keel). Photos: A. Rockinger.

Figure 3. Maximum likelihood tree with the *Crotalaria* species' distribution areas
plotted. Blue: Americas; orange: Africa and Middle East; red: Madagascar; green:
Asia including maritime Southeast Asia; purple: Australia, Papua New Guinea, and
Melanesia. Inset: worldwide distribution of *Crotalaria* based on 22,225 georeferenced
occurrences from GBIF (<http://www.gbif.org>) representing 183 species. Due to
uneven collecting effort, India is underrepresented.

Figure 4. Ancestral state reconstruction for simple and compound (unifoliolate,
trifoliolate, and multifoliolate) leaves under an all-rates-different model, carried out
on a chronogram for 183 *Crotalaria* species, 33 species of other Crotalarieae, and 23
species of the remaining genistoids. Pie charts indicate ancestral state probabilities
and node bars 95% posterior probability intervals. The geological time scale is in
million years and follows Cohen et al. (2013 updated). The fossil seedpod most
closely resembles the genera *Bowdichia* and *Diplotropis* (Herendeen and Wing 2001).
Photo: P. S. Herendeen.

Figure 5. A) Distribution of *Crotalaria* species in main climate types (Materials and
Methods and Table 1); numbers refer to sampled species; B) Distribution of simple-
and compound-leaved species in the four climate types; C) Probability of occurrence
of simple-leafed species in relation to mean annual precipitation (AP, Bio12).

725 **Tables**

726
 727 **Table 1.** Correlation coefficient values of the generalized likelihood model (glm) and
 728 the, and variance inflation factors (VIF). Climate and environmental parameters:
 729 Mean annual temperature (MAT, BIO1), temperature annual range (TAR, BIO7),
 730 annual precipitation (AP, BIO12), precipitation seasonality (PS, BIO15), elevation
 731 (EL), average sun radiation (ASR).

Parameter	glm	logistf	VIF
MAT	0.92	0.88	1.33
TAR	1.71*	1.61	2.32
AP	3.32***	3.11	1.52
PS	-0.08	-0.09	2.03
ELE	-0.94	-0.9	1.58
ASR	-0.92	-0.88	1.85

733
 734 **Table 2.** Estimated mean node ages (Ma) for selected divergence events under
 735 different clock models. Ages are in million years, and the values in brackets are the
 736 95% posterior probability intervals.
 737

Node of interest	Fossil calibration		Substitution rate calibration
	Strict clock	Relaxed clock	Strict clock
Root	77.5 (63.8–92.4)	87.0 (58.2–122.2)	93.2 (81.0–106.1)
<i>Crotalaria</i> stem node	23.1 (18.4–27.9)	29.5 (21.4–50.6)	29.5 (26.2–33.0)
<i>Crotalaria</i> crown node	17.7 (14.3–21.5)	29.1 (18.3–42.4)	22.9 (20.5–25.4)
Chore			
<i>Chrysocalycinae</i> crown node	14.0 (12.4–19.0)	26.5 (15.8–38.5)	19.3 (16.9–21.7)
2n = 14 clade	11.7 (8.7–14.8)	29.5 (18.3–42.3)	16.5 (13.3–19.6)
Truncate calyx tube clade crown node	12.2 (9.7–15.0)	22.1 (13.0–32.0)	16.4 (14.3–18.5)
<i>Crotalaria linearifoliolata/C. persica</i> clade crown node	16.7 (13.3–20.2)	26.4 (16.5–37.8)	21.6 (19.3–24.1)
Bulbous standard appendages clade crown node	13.6 (10.5–16.7)	22.4 (13.7–32.2)	17.9 (15.3–20.6)
Bilabiate calyx clade crown node	12.4 (9.6–15.1)	20.9 (12.6–30.1)	15.7 (13.4–18.0)

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 742 **Table 3.** Köppen-Geiger climate categories and their grouping to major climate
 743 groups. Precipitation criteria depend on annual accumulated precipitation (P_{ann}),

744 monthly precipitation in driest (P_{\min}) and wettest (P_{\max}) month, for the summer and
 745 winter half-years on the hemisphere considered ($P_{s\min}$, $P_{s\max}$, $P_{w\min}$, $P_{w\max}$) and dryness
 746 threshold (P_{th} , only for Arid). Dryness threshold (mm) depends on annual temperature
 747 and annual cycle of precipitation. Temperature criteria depend on annual mean near-
 748 surface temperature (T_{ann}), monthly mean temperature of warmest (T_{\max}) and coldest
 749 (T_{\min}) months, and monthly temperature (T_{mon}). (See Kötter et al. 2006)
 750

Köppen-Geiger climate category	Main climate (first letter)	Annual Precipitation	Seasonal temperature	Major climate group
Af	Equatorial	$P_{\min} \geq 60 \text{ mm}$	$T_{\min} \geq +18^{\circ}\text{C}$	<i>Humid tropics</i>
Am		$P_{\text{ann}} \geq 25(100 - P_{\min})$		
As		$P_{\min} < 60 \text{ mm in summer}$		<i>Dry tropics</i>
Aw		$P_{\min} < 60 \text{ mm in winter}$		
Bsh	Arid	$P_{\text{ann}} > 5 P_{th}$	$T_{ann} \geq +18^{\circ}\text{C}$	<i>Arid</i>
Bsk			$T_{ann} < +18^{\circ}\text{C}$	
Bwh		$P_{\text{ann}} \leq 5 P_{th}$	$T_{ann} \geq +18^{\circ}\text{C}$	
Bwk			$T_{ann} < +18^{\circ}\text{C}$	
Cwa	Mild temperate	$P_{w\min} < P_{s\min}$ and $P_{s\max} > 10 P_{w\min}$	$T_{\max} \geq +22^{\circ}\text{C}$	<i>Mild temperate</i>
Cwb			$T_{\max} < +22^{\circ}\text{C}$ and at least 4 $T_{mon} \geq +10^{\circ}\text{C}$	
Csa		$P_{s\min} < P_{w\min}$, $P_{w\max} > 3 P_{s\min}$ and $P_{s\min} < 40 \text{ mm}$	$T_{\max} \geq +22^{\circ}\text{C}$	
Csb			$T_{\max} < +22^{\circ}\text{C}$ and at least 4 $T_{mon} \geq +10^{\circ}\text{C}$	
Cfa		neither Cs nor Cw	$T_{\max} \geq +22^{\circ}\text{C}$	
Cfb			$T_{\max} < +22^{\circ}\text{C}$ and at least 4 $T_{mon} \geq +10^{\circ}\text{C}$	

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Figure 1

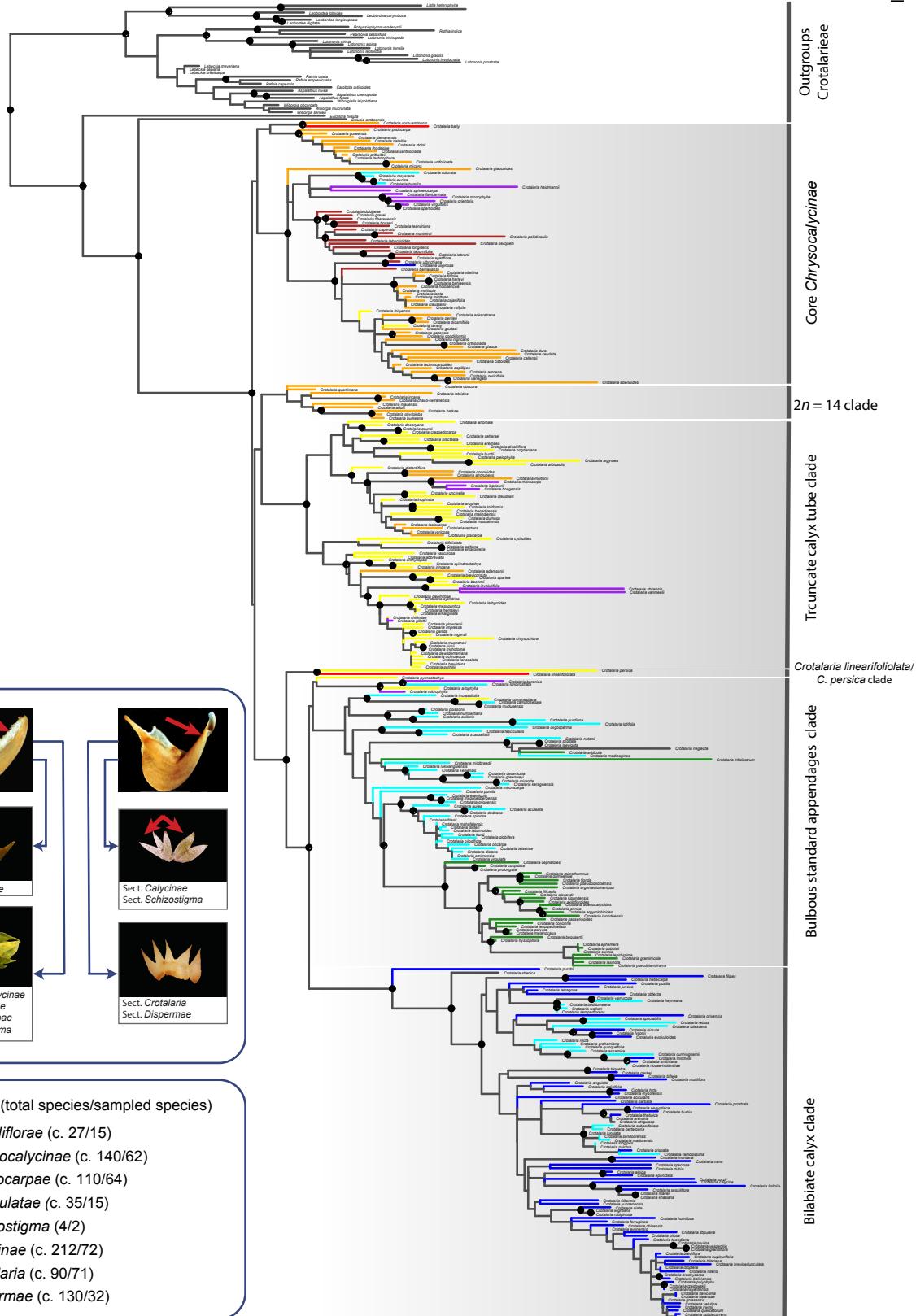


Figure 2

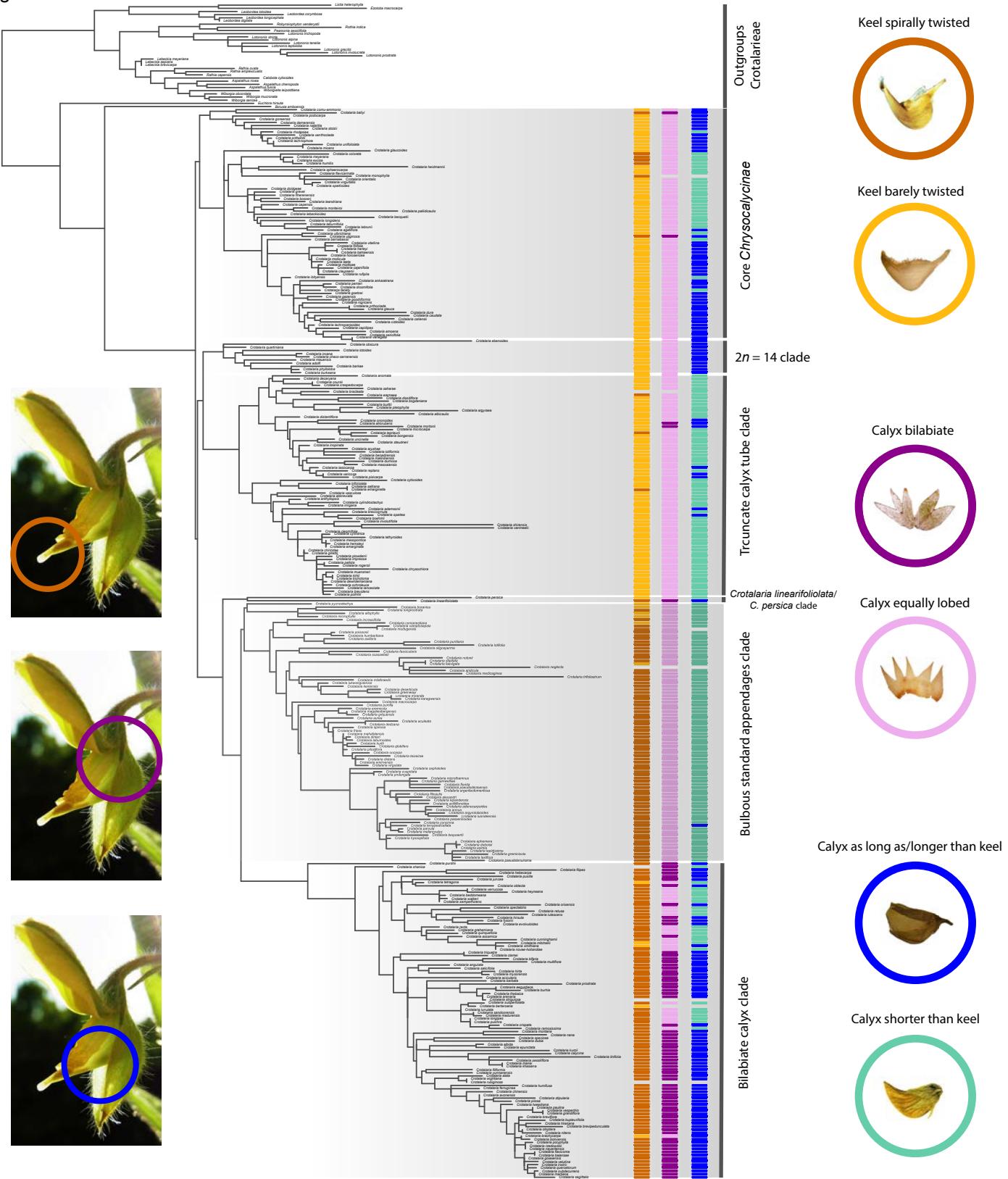
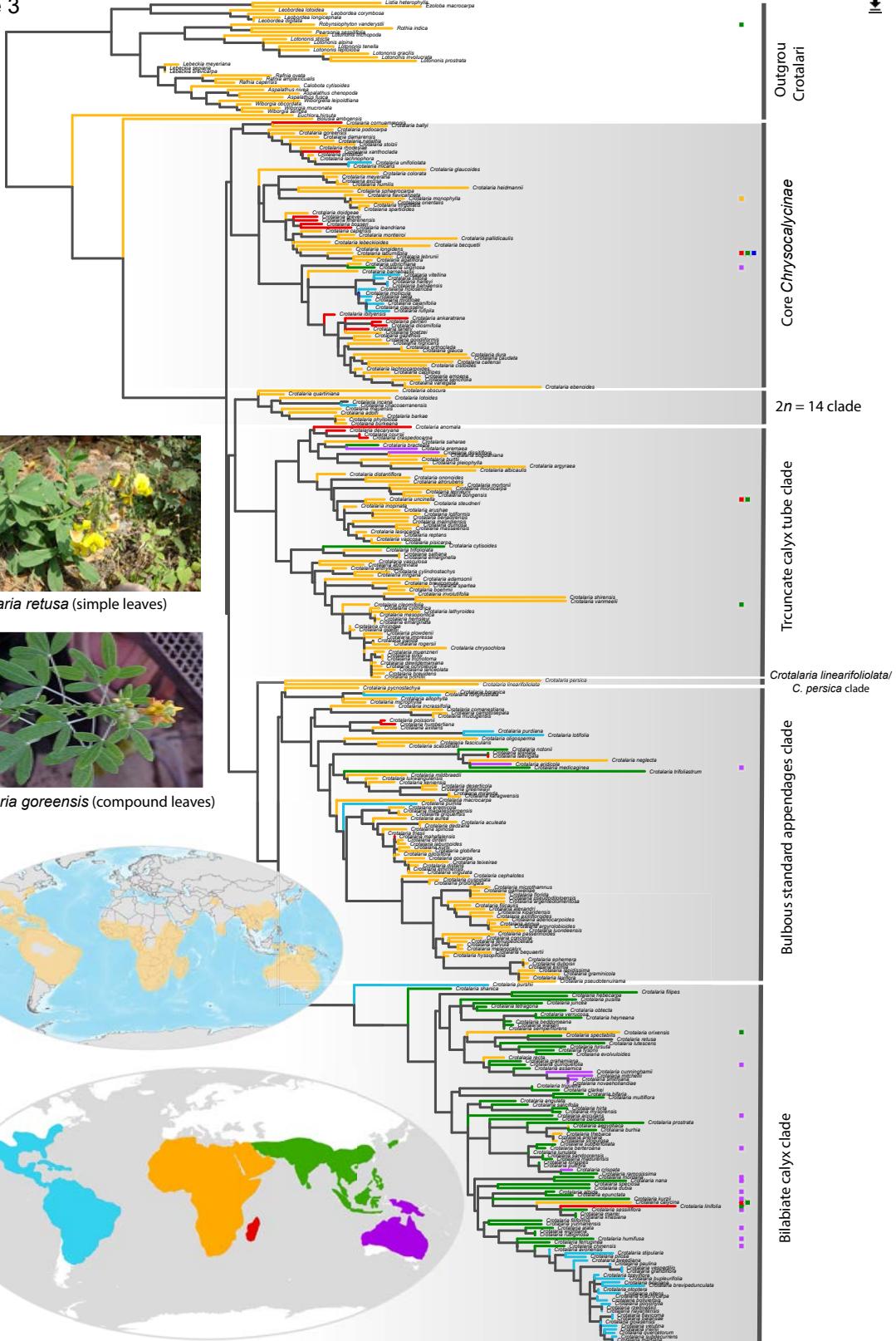


Figure 3



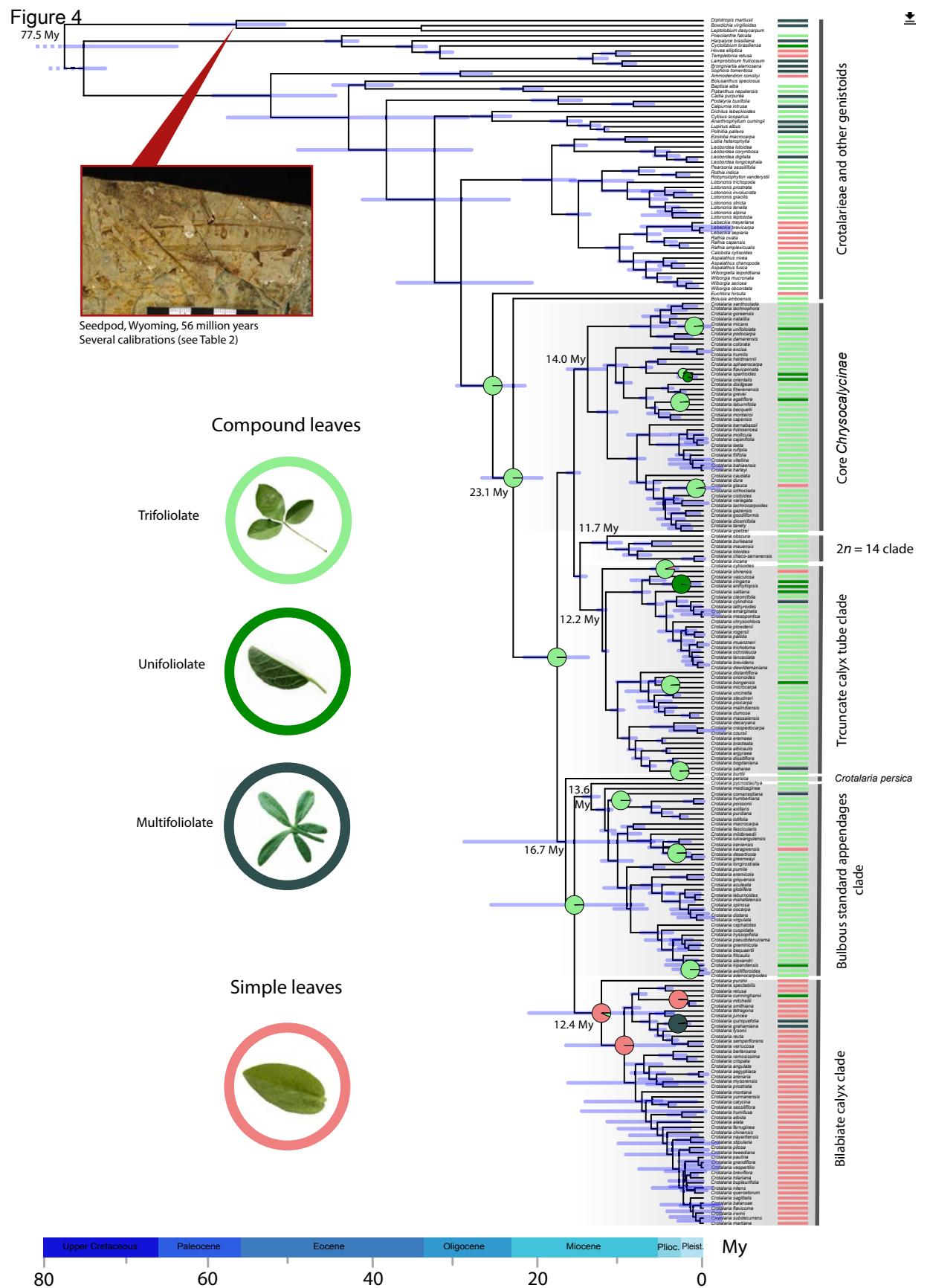
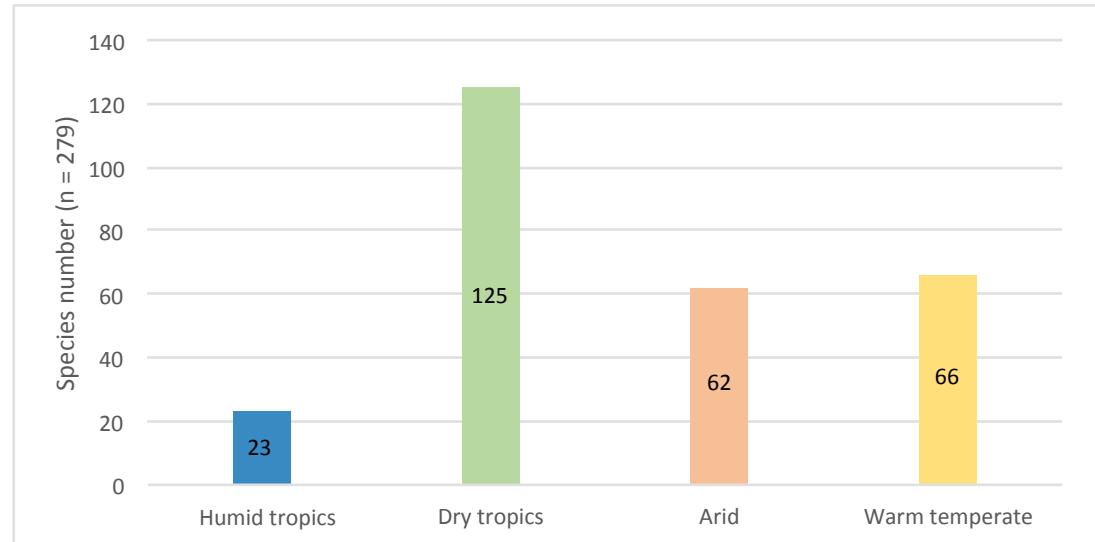
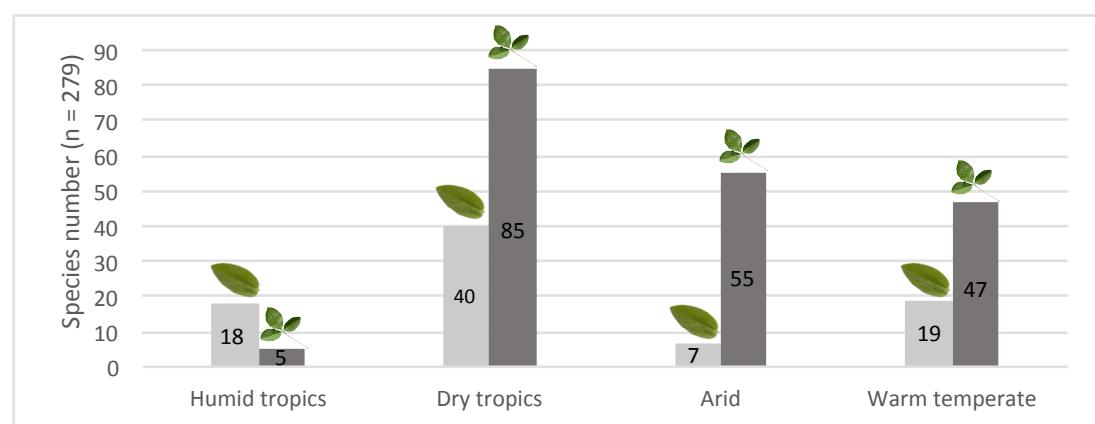


Figure 5

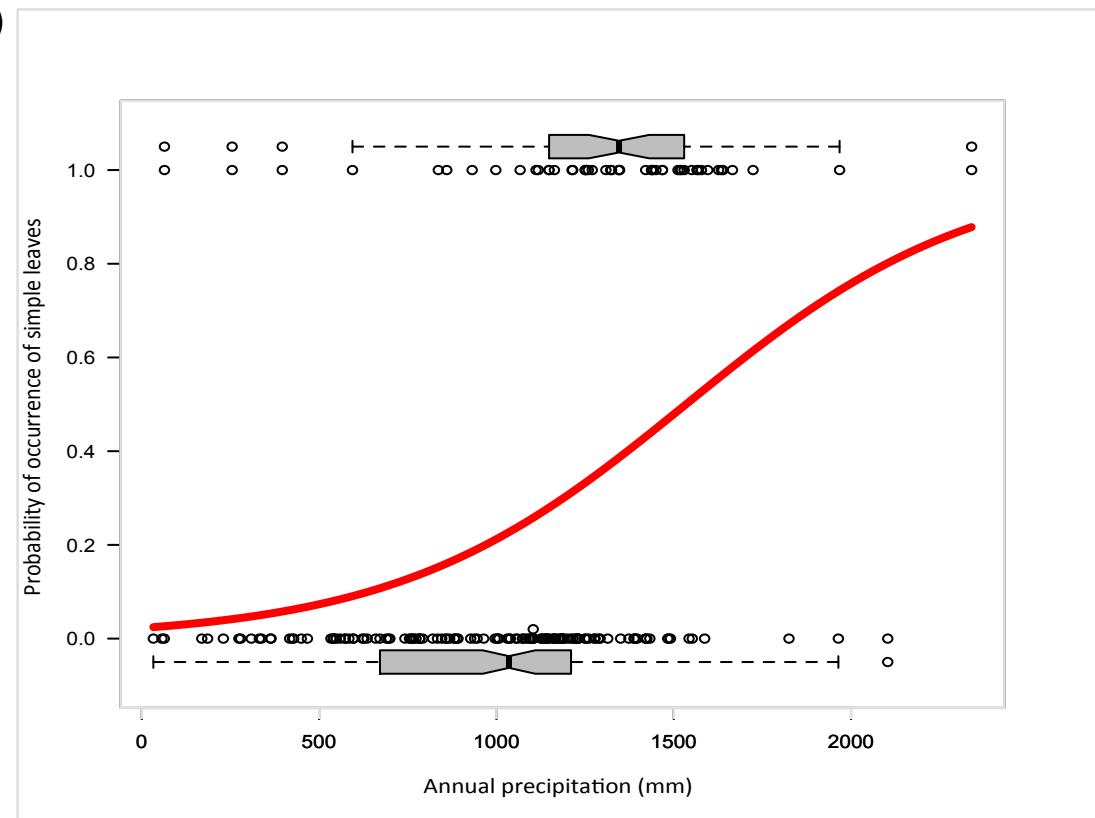
A)



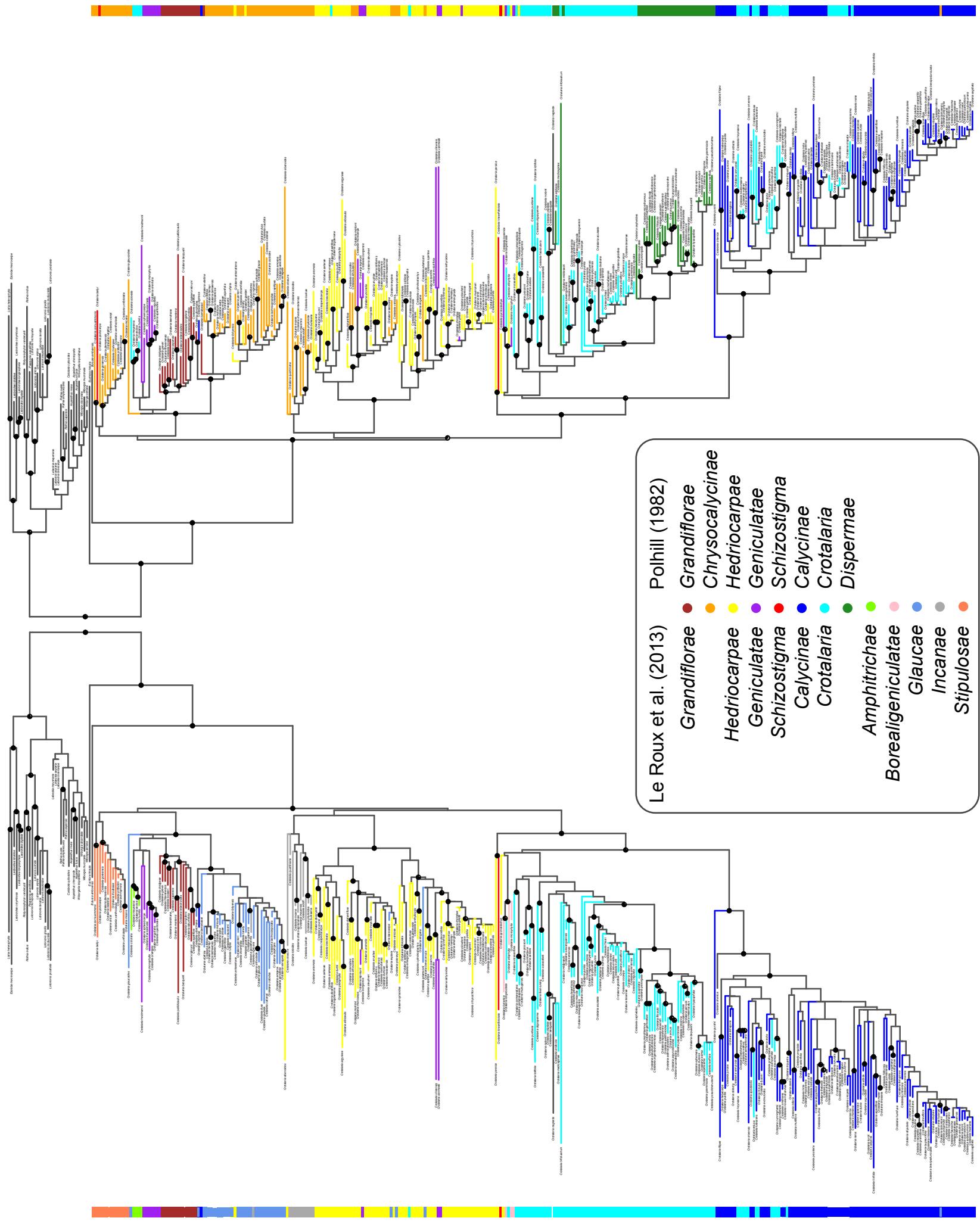
B)



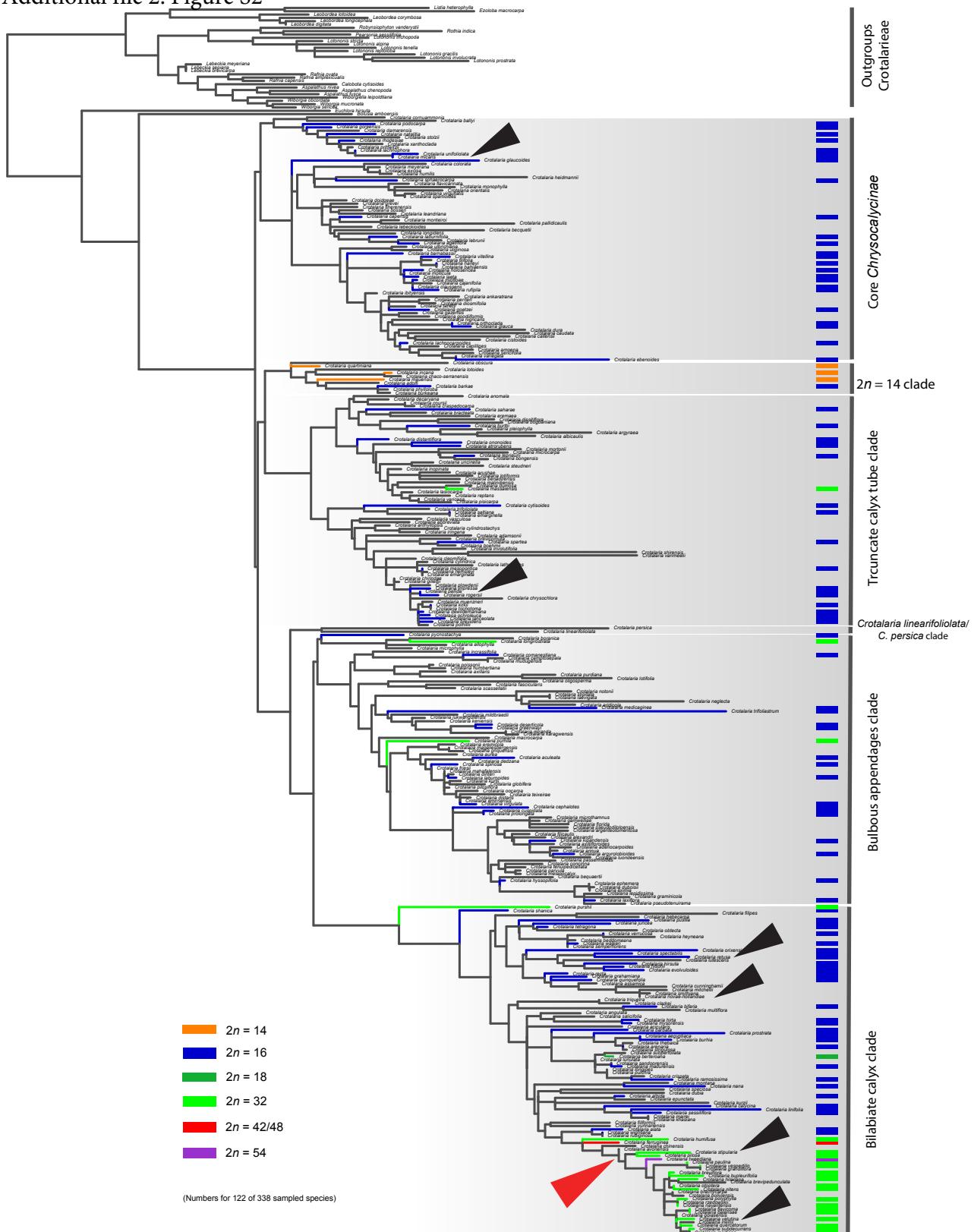
C)



Additional file 1: Figure S1



Additional file 2: Figure S2



Additional file 3: Table S1: Species used in this study with herbarium vouchers, place of deposition (in a few cases also their barcodes), geographic origin, distribution ranges, and GenBank accession numbers for all sequences.

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	mark	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Ammodendron conollyi</i> Boiss.	N. Beliaeva and G. Proskurakova, locality unknown (RNG)	Asia (N); Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan	-	-	Ef457705	-	-
<i>Anorthophyllum curmingii</i> (Hook. & Arn.) F. phil.	A. K. Ainoouche An201, locality unknown (MAF)	South America (N): Chile	-	FJ839486	-	-	-
<i>Aspalathus chenopoda</i> L.*	R. Dahlgren and B. Peterson 350, South Africa (M)	Africa (N): South Africa	KX390757	KX371651	-	-	-
<i>Aspalathus fusca</i> Thunb.	R. Dahlgren and A. Strid 4027, South Africa (M)	Africa (N): South Africa	KX390758	-	-	-	-
<i>Aspalathus nivea</i> Thunb.	R. Dahlgren and B. Peterson 1515, South Jones NCBG-3-00, China (KUN)	Africa (N): South Africa	KX390759	KX371652	-	-	-
<i>Baptisia alba</i> (L.) Vent.*	North America (N): Canada, United States	-	AY773348	-	-	-	-
<i>Boulia amboensis</i> (Schinz) Harms	EFTs, ITS: W. Giess 10091, Namibia (M) matK, psbA-trnH: J. S. Boatwright et al. 248, South Africa (WIND) rbcL: W. Giess 10091, Namibia (K)	Africa (N): Botswana, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia	KX390760	KX371653	-	JQ067549	EU347943
<i>Bowdichia virginiana</i> Kunth*	R. T. Pennington 477, Brazil (E)	South America (N): Brazil, Colombia, Guyana, Paraguay, Surinam, Venezuela	-	-	Ef457709	-	-
<i>Bromeliaria diamosana</i> Rydb.	Hu 1120, Mexico (DAV)	North- and Central America (N): Mexico, Sonora	-	-	AF467022	-	-
<i>Calathea purpurea</i> (G. Puccio) Aiton	Cameron and Miller 12281b, locality unknown (E)	Africa (N): Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia; Middle East (N): Oman, Saudi Arabia, Yemen	-	-	Ef457710	-	-
<i>Calathea cyrtoides</i> (Berg.) Eckl. and Zeyh.*	P. Goldblatt 7197, South Africa (M)	Africa (N): South Africa	KX390761	KX371654	-	-	-
<i>Calpurnia intrusa</i> (W.T.Aiton) E.Mey.*	B.-E. van Wyk 3006, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): Lesotho, South Africa	-	AJ409914	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria abbreviata</i> Baker f.	EFTs, ITS, psbA-trnH: H. Wild 3291, Zimbabwe (M)	Africa (N): Tanzania, Congo, Zambia, Zimbabwe	KX390762	KX371655	-	KX390740	JQ041115
	rbcL: Biggod et al. 3512, Tanzania (UPS)						
<i>Cratalaria acicularis</i> Benth.	M. Ramos 462, Philippines (M)	Asia (N): Bangladesh, Burma, Cambodia, China, Hainan, India, Indonesia, Laos, Myanmar, Nepal, Philippines, Sulawesi, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam; Australia (N): Australia (I): Angola, Burundi, Ethiopia, Malawi, Rwanda, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Congo, Zambia; Indian Ocean	-	-	KX371656	-	-
<i>Cratalaria aculeata</i> De Wild.	ITS: J. M. Hildebrandt 3485, Madagascar (M)	Africa (N): Madagascar, Reunion	-	-	KX371657	-	JQ041116
<i>Cratalaria adamsonii</i> Baker f.	F. Malaisse 9506, Congo (MO)	Africa (N): Angola, Congo, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Congo, Zambia	KX390763	KX371658	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria adenocarpoides</i> Taub.	P. K. Rubarburindore 5186, Uganda (M)	Africa (N): Burundi, Rwanda, Uganda, Congo	-	KX371659	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria adolfii</i> Harms	Iversen et al. 87597, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Tanzania	-	-	JQ067163	-	JQ041117
<i>Cratalaria aegyptiaca</i> Benth.	A. Shmida s. n. [MSB75734], Israel (MSB)	Africa (N): Egypt, Somalia; Asia (N): Iran; Middle East (N): Israel, Jordan, Oman, Saudi Arabia, Sinai; United Arab Emirates, Yemen	KX390764	KX371660	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria agatiflora</i> Schweinf.	ITS: P. J. Greenway and Kenari 13648, Kenya (M)	Africa (N): Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Uganda, Zimbabwe; Asia (I): India; Australasia (I): Australia, New Zealand; South America (I): Colombia	-	KX371661	-	JQ067425	JQ041118
	mark: Fries and Fries 2047, Kenya (UPS)						

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Cratalaria alata</i> D.Don	Van Beusekom 3652, Thailand (K)	Africa (I); Tanzania; Uganda; Asia (N); Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, China, Hainan, India, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Sumatra, Thailand, Vietnam;	-	JQ067339	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria albicaulis</i> Franch.	Gilbert et al. 7358, Ethiopia (UPS)	Australasia (N); Papua New Guinea; Caribbean (U); Indian Ocean (I); Madagascar, Mauritius, Reunion; Pacific Ocean (N); Bismarck Archipelago	-	JQ067164	-	JQ067385	JQ041119
<i>Cratalaria albida</i> Roth	Ye 2606, China (M0)	Africa (N); Djibouti, Ethiopia, Somalia	-	KX371662	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria alexandri</i> Baker f.	M. G. Gilbert et al. 9201, Ethiopia (K)	Asia (N); Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, China, Hainan, India, Java, Laos, Lesser Sunda Is, Malaysia, Myanmar, Nepal, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Sulawesi, Sumatra; Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam; Australasia (N); Papua New Guinea	KX390765	KX371663	-	JQ067386	JQ041120
<i>Cratalaria aliphyllotha</i> Thulin *	Thulin et al. 7282, Somalia (UPS)	Africa (N); Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067166	-	JQ067387	JQ041121
<i>Cratalaria amoena</i> Baker	Bidgood et al. 4565, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Somalia	-	JQ067167	-	-	JQ041122
<i>Cratalaria angulata</i> Mill.	S. S. Subramanian 1068, India (DUH)	Africa (N); Angola, Tanzania, Congo, Zambia Asia (N); India, Sri Lanka	-	KP698615	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria ankaratana</i> R.Vig.	Peltier 5015, Madagascar (P)	Indian Ocean (N); Madagascar	-	JQ067282	-	JQ067498	JQ041124
<i>Cratalaria annua</i> Millne-Redh.	Bidgood et al. 4070, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Angola, Malawi, Tanzania, Congo, Zambia	-	JQ067168	-	-	JQ041125
<i>Cratalaria anomala</i> R.Vig.	Peltier 4944, Madagascar (P)	Indian Ocean (N); Madagascar	-	JQ067281	-	-	JQ041126
<i>Cratalaria anthyllipis</i> Baker	Bidgood and Vollesen 3191, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Angola, Burundi, Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, Congo, Zambia	-	JQ067169	-	-	JQ041127
<i>Cratalaria arenaria</i> Benth.	Eden Foundation 65, Niger (K)	Africa (N); Chad, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal	-	JQ067333	-	JQ067581	-
<i>Cratalaria argenteotomentosa</i> R. Wilczek	F. Malaisse 10546, Congo (M)	KX390766	KX371664	-	-	-	JQ041128
<i>Cratalaria argyraea</i> Baker	M. M. Le Roux et al. 59, Namibia (WIND)	Africa (N); Congo, Zambia	-	JQ067302	-	JQ067582	-
<i>Cratalaria argyroboides</i> Baker	Brummit 11355, Malawi (UPS)	Africa (N); Angola, Namibia	-	JQ067170	-	JQ067391	JQ041129
<i>Cratalaria aridicola</i> Domín	Forster 20850, Australia (MEL)	Australasia (N); Australia	-	JQ067293	-	JQ067506	-
<i>Cratalaria arusthae</i> Polhill	M. Richards 23729, Tanzania (M)	Africa (N); Tanzania	KX390767	KX371665	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria assamica</i> Benth.	GenBank GU396702; unvouchered	Asia (N); China, Hainan, India, Laos, Myanmar, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam	-	-	-	GU39670	-
<i>Cratalaria atrorubens</i> Benth.	R. Barth 7127, Nigeria (M)	Africa (N); Cameroon, Chad, Ghana, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sudan	-	KX371666	-	2	-
<i>Cratalaria aureo</i> Baker f.	Giess 13497, Namibia (WIND)	Africa (N); Namibia	-	JQ067157	-	-	JQ041129
<i>Cratalaria avonensis</i> Delaney & Wunderlin	K. R. De Laney 1623, USA (K)	North America (N); United States	KX390768	KX371667	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria axillaris</i> Aiton	Swenson 8, Kenya (UPS)	Africa (N); Angola, Burundi, Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Togo; Uganda, Congo, Zambia	-	JQ067171	-	JQ067392	JQ041130
<i>Cratalaria axillifloroides</i> R.Wilczek	E. A. Robinson 5246, Zimbabwe (M)	Africa (N); Congo, Zambia	KX390769	KX371668	-	-	-

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Crotalaria baiderensis</i> Windler & Skinner	Dr. Zehntner 2049, Brazil (M)	South America (N): Brazil	KX390770	KX371669	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria balansae</i> Micheli	De Barros 2561, Brazil (SP)	South America (N): Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay	KX390771	KX371670	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria balyi</i> Polhill	Gilbert and Thulin 1488, Kenya (UPS)	Africa (N): Kenya	-	JQ067172	-	JQ067393	JQ041131
<i>Crotalaria barbata</i> Wight & Arn.	ITS: Hohenacker s. n. [M-0242309], India (M) psbA-trnH: Wright 610, locality unknown (MEL)	Asia (N): India, Java	-	KX371671	-	JQ067508	-
<i>Crotalaria barkae</i> Schweinf.	H. Em et al. 1279, Togo (B)	Africa (N): Angola, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Chad, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Tanzania, Togo, Zambia, Zimbabwe	KX390772	KX371672	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria barnabassii</i> Baker f.	B.-E. van Wyk s. n., Botswana (JRAU)	Africa (N): Angola, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067322	-	-	JQ067584
<i>Crotalaria bequaertii</i> R.Wilczek	Lovett and Kayondo 490, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Congo, Malawi, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia	-	JQ067173	-	JQ067394	JQ041132
<i>Crotalaria beddomeana</i> Thoth. & A.A.Ansari	Convey et al. 5844, Australia (MEL)	Asia (N): India, Sri Lanka, Australasia (I): Australia	-	JQ067287	-	JQ067501	JQ041227
<i>Crotalaria benedictensis</i> Chiov.	Gilbert and Thulin 1151, Kenya (UPS)	Africa (N): Somalia	-	JQ067174	-	JQ067395	JQ041133
<i>Crotalaria bequaertii</i> Baker f.	ETs: E. A. Robinson 6494, Zimbabwe (M) ITS, matK, rbcL: Bidgood et al. 4439, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Angola, Congo, Malawi, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe	KX390773	JQ067175	-	-	JQ041134
<i>Crotalaria betteroana</i> DC.	S. S. Subramaniam et al. 1073, India (DUH)	Asia (N): India, Indonesia, Sri Lanka, Sumatra; Australasia (N): Papua New Guinea; Caribbean (N): Guadeloupe, Jamaica, Puerto Rico; Indian Ocean (I): Madagascar, Mauritius, Reunion, Seychelles; Pacific Ocean (I): Hawaii	-	KR673341	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria bifaria</i> L.f.	Kambale SS-1, India (DUH)	Asia (N): India, Sri Lanka	-	JQ945936	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria boehmii</i> Taub.	Bidgood et al. 3862, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Tanzania	-	JQ067176	JQ040997	-	JQ041136
<i>Crotalaria bogdanianiana</i> Polhill	Gilbert et al. 8216, Ethiopia (UPS)	Africa (N): Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Tanzania, Uganda	-	JQ067177	JQ040998	-	JQ041137
<i>Crotalaria boliviensis</i> Windler & S.G. Skinner	J. R. Word and M. Mendoza 19077, Bolivia (K) ITS: Espírito Santo Explorações Botânicas 3466, Guiné-Bissau (M) matK, psbA-trnH, rbcL: Mhoro 1020, Tanzania (UPS)	South America (N): Bolivia Africa (N): Angola, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Kenya, Liberia, Nigeria, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Congo, Zambia	KX390774	KX371673	-	KX390741	-
<i>Crotalaria borbonica</i> Baker f.	J. J. F. E. de Wilde 5935, Ethiopia (M)	Africa (N): Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia	-	KX390756	JQ040999	JQ067399	JQ041138
<i>Crotalaria bosseri</i> M.Peltier	Barthelet 1313, Madagascar (P)	Indian Ocean (N): Madagascar	KX390775	KX371674	JQ041000	KX390745	KX083394
<i>Crotalaria brachycarpa</i> Benth.	E. Ule 7200, Brazil (K)	South America (N): Brazil	-	JQ067270	-	JQ067489	JQ041140
<i>Crotalaria bracteata</i> D.C.	M. van de Bult 1282, Thailand (M)	Asia (N): Bangladesh, Bhutan, Burma, Cambodia, China, India, Laos, Myanmar, Philippines, Thailand, Vietnam	KX390776	KX371676	-	KX390742	-

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	mark	psba-trnH	rbcL
<i>Crotalaria brevicornuta</i> Pohlill	R. M. Polhill and S. Paulo 1926, Tanzania (B)	Africa (N): Tanzania	KX390777	KX371677	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria brevidens</i> Benth.	Erts. Weston 4936, Costa Rica (MO) ITS; mark; Pórcs. 8705/A, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Congo; Caribbean (I); Dominican Republic, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Puerto Rico, Virgin Is; Central America (I); Costa Rica, North America (I); United States; South America (N); Brazil	KX390778	JQ067196	JQ041001	-	JQ041141
<i>Crotalaria breviflora</i> DC.	A. S. Flores et al. 717, Brazil (MRR)	South America (N); Brazil	KX390779	KX371678	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria brevipedunculata</i> Windler	Gentry 5311, Mexico (M)	Central America (N); Mexico	-	KX371679	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria buxleurifolia</i> Cham. & Schltl.	Gutiérrez MNMIG 576, Mexico (MO)	Central America (N); Mexico	KX390780	KX371680	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria burhia</i> Benth.	V. Mozaffarian 52827, Iran (TARI)	Asia (N): Afghanistan, India, Iran, Pakistan	-	KX371681	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria burkeana</i> Benth.	Schulte 457, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): Botswana, Mozambique, South Africa, Swaziland, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067127	JQ041002	-	JQ041143
<i>Crotalaria burttii</i> Baker f.	Bidgood et al. 1028, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Kenya, Tanzania	-	JQ067181	JQ041003	JQ067402	JQ041144
<i>Crotalaria cajanifolia</i> Kunth.	P. Döbbeler 4786, Costa Rica (M)	Caribbean (U); Central America: Belize (U), Costa Rica (U), Guatemala (U), Mexico (U), Nicaragua (N), Panama (U)	-	KX371682	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria callensis</i> R. Wilczek	E. A. Robinson 6022, Congo (M)	Africa (N): Congo	-	KX371683	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria calycina</i> Schrank*	ITS; A. Loher 2405, Philippines (M) matK; rbcL; Vollesen 4501, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Angola, Burundi, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Ivory Coast, Mali, Mozambique, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia; Asia (N): Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, China, East Timor, Hainan, India, Indonesia, Laos, Lesser Sundas, Malaysia, Moluccas, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Ryukyu Is, Sri Lanka, Sulawesi, Sumatra, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam; Australasia (N); Australia, Papua New Guinea; Pacific Ocean (N); Bismarck Archipelago Africa (N); Somalia	-	KX371684	JQ041004	-	JQ041145
<i>Crotalaria camptosepala</i> Thulin	Thulin et al. 7259, Somalia (UPS)	Africa: Kenya (I), Malawi (N), Mozambique (N), South Africa (N), Swaziland (N), Zimbabwe (N); Asia (I); Nepal; Indian Ocean (I); Mauritius (I), Reunion (I); Pacific Ocean (I); New Zealand	-	JQ067182	JQ041005	-	JQ041146
<i>Crotalaria capensis</i> Jacq.	ITS; B.-E. van Wyk 1985, South Africa (JRAU) matK; Maurin et al. OM3786, South Africa (PRE) rbcL; B.-E. van Wyk 29336, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa: Kenya (I), Malawi (N), Mozambique (N), South Africa (N), Swaziland (N), Zimbabwe (N); Asia (I); Nepal; Indian Ocean (I); Mauritius (I), Reunion (I); Pacific Ocean (I); New Zealand	4	EU34788	JX905953	-	EU348034
<i>Crotalaria capillipes</i> Pohlill	Bidgood et al. 1036, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Tanzania	-	JQ067183	JQ041006	JQ067404	JQ041147
<i>Crotalaria caudata</i> Baker	Bidgood et al. 4488, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Mozambique, Nigeria, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067184	-	-	JQ041148
<i>Crotalaria cephalotes</i> A. Rich.	Bidgood et al. 3993, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Angola, Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Mali, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Sudan, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067185	-	-	JQ041149
<i>Crotalaria chaco-serranensis</i> H.G. Bach & Fonttunato	Pérez et al. 4367, Argentina (K)	South America (N): Argentina, Bolivia	KX390781	KX371685	-	KX390753	-
<i>Crotalaria chinensis</i> L.	Sorensen et al. 2254, Thailand (K)	Asia (N): Burma, Cambodia, China, Hainan, India, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Sabah, Sarawak, Sumatra, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam; Australasia (N): Papua New Guinea	-	JQ067335	-	-	-

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Cratalaria chirindae</i> Baker f.	Gereau et al. 4502, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067186	JQ041007	-	JQ041150
<i>Cratalaria chrysotricha</i> Harms	Bidgood et al. 4756, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Burundi, Cameroon, Kenya, Rwanda, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia	-	JQ067187	JQ041008	-	JQ041151
<i>Cratalaria distoides</i> Baker	Bidgood et al. 4731, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Angola, Tanzania, Zambia	-	JQ067188	JQ041009	JQ067408	JQ041152
<i>Cratalaria clarkei</i> Gamble	S. S. Subramanian 1088, India (DUH)	Asia (N): India	-	JQ945932	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria clausenii</i> Benth.	A. P. Duarte 5704, Brazil (B)	South America (N): Brazil	KX390782	KX371686	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria cleomifolia</i> Baker	Nkhomwa et al. 284, Zambia (UPS)	Africa (N): Angola, Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Guinea, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe; Asia: Malaysia (I), Vietnam (I)	-	JQ067189	JQ041010	-	JQ041153
<i>Cratalaria colorata</i> Schinz *	W. Giess 5050, Namibia (M)	Africa (N): Namibia, South Africa	KX390783	KX371687	JQ041011	KX390748	JQ041154
<i>Cratalaria amphitrichae</i> N.M. Le Roux & B.-E. van Wyk		Africa (N): Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Tanzania	-	JQ067190	JQ041012	JQ067410	JQ041155
<i>Cratalaria cananestiana</i> Volkens & Schweinf.	Mesfin and Vollesen 4311, Ethiopia (UPS)	Africa (N): Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Tanzania	KX390784	KX371688	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria concinna</i> Polhill	E. Milne-Redhead and P. Taylor 9513B, Tanzania (B)	Africa (N): Tanzania	KX390785	JQ067267	-	JQ067486	JQ041156
<i>Cratalaria cornuta-ammonis</i> R.Vig.	ETs: Du Puy and Bpiravonjiarsoa M124, Madagascar (MO)	Indian Ocean (N): Madagascar					
	ITs, psbA-trnH, rbd: D. J. Du Puy M59, Madagascar (P)	Indian Ocean (N): Madagascar	-	JQ067272	-	JQ067491	JQ041157
	Labat 2124, Madagascar (P)	Indian Ocean (N): Madagascar	-	JQ067276	JQ041013	-	JQ041158
<i>Cratalaria coursii</i> M. Peitler	Du Puy M679, Madagascar (P)	Australasia (N): Australia		KX371689	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria crasspedocarpa</i> R.Vig.	Chippendale 6848, Australia (MO)	Australasia (N): Australia		KX390786	KX371690	-	KX364158
<i>Cratalaria crispata</i> Benth.	ETs, ITS, rbd: R. Hill 295, Australia (M)	Australasia (N): Australia					
	psbA-trnH: A. Rockinger 20161, Australia (M)						
<i>Cratalaria cuspidata</i> Taub.	Bidgood et al. 3805, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Angola, Central African Republic, Nigeria, Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia	-	JQ067191	JQ041014	-	JQ041159
<i>Cratalaria cylindrica</i> A.Rich.	Gilbert and Dagne 8424, Ethiopia (UPS)	Africa (N): Ethiopia, Kenya	-	JQ067201	JQ041015	-	JQ041160
<i>Cratalaria cylindrostachys</i> Baker	ETs, ITS, R. M. Polhill and S. Paulo 1934, Tanzania (B)	Africa (N): Angola, Malawi, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe	KX390787	KX371691	JQ041016	-	JQ041161
<i>Cratalaria cytisoides</i> DC.	ITS: A. K. Pandey 910, India (DUH, M)	Asia (N): Bangladesh, Bhutan, China, India, Myanmar, Nepal, Thailand (K)	-	JN990123	-	JQ067543	-
<i>Cratalaria damorensis</i> Engl.	Schutte 463b, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): Angola, Botswana, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067141	JQ041018	JQ067361	JQ041163
<i>Cratalaria decaryana</i> R.Vig.	Lefevre 16, Madagascar (P)	Indian Ocean (N): Madagascar	-	JQ067279	JQ041019	-	JQ041164

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range		ETS	ITS	mtK	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Crotalaria deiviana</i> Polhill	R. B. Kwatha and J. L. Bakala 133, Malawi (MO)	Africa (N): Malawi	KX390788	KX371692	-	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria deserticola</i> Baker f.	Bidgood et al. 1197, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067203	JQ041020	JQ067423	JQ041165	JQ041166
<i>Crotalaria devilleiana</i> R. Wilczek	Reekmans 9292, Burundi (UPS)	Africa (N): Burundi, Cameroon, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire	-	JQ067197	JQ041021	-	-	JQ041167
<i>Crotalaria dinteri</i> Schinz	Ulrich MU443, Namibia (WIND)	Africa (N): Botswana, Namibia, South Africa	-	JQ067147	JQ041022	-	-	JQ041168
<i>Crotalaria diosmifolia</i> Benth.	Du Puy M320, Madagascar (P)	Indian Ocean (N): Madagascar	-	JQ067269	-	JQ067488	-	JQ041169
<i>Crotalaria dissitiflora</i> Benth.	Bean 12986, Australia (MEL)	Australasia (N): Australia	-	JQ067288	JQ041023	JQ067502	-	JQ041170
<i>Crotalaria distans</i> Benth.	B.-E. van Wyk 1814, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Namibia, South Africa, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067124	JQ041024	-	-	JQ041171
<i>Crotalaria distantiflora</i> Baker f.	Gilbert and Dagner 8427, Ethiopia (UPS)	Africa (N): Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania	-	JQ067204	JQ041025	JQ067424	-	JQ041172
<i>Crotalaria doeringae</i> Verdc.	B.-E. van Wyk 3042, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): South Africa	-	JQ067131	-	-	-	JQ0692942
<i>Crotalaria dubia</i> Graham	Stocks s. n. [M-0242310], India (M)	Asia (N): Bangladesh, China, India, Myanmar, Thailand	KX390789	KX371693	-	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria duboisii</i> R. Wilczek	Bidgood et al. 3984, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Zaire, Zambia	-	JQ067193	JQ041026	-	-	JQ041173
<i>Crotalaria dumosa</i> Franch.	Thulin et al. 3751, Ethiopia (UPS)	Africa (N): Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia	-	JQ067194	JQ041027	-	-	JQ041174
<i>Crotalaria dura</i> J.M.Wood & M.S.Evans	B.-E. van Wyk 4332, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): Mozambique, South Africa	-	JQ067128	JQ041028	JQ067350	-	JQ041175
<i>Crotalaria edenoides</i> (Guill. & Perr.) Walb.*	Espirito Santo Exploradores Botânicos 3509, Guinéa-Bissau (M)	Africa (N): Guinéa Bissau, Mali, Senegal	-	KX371694	-	-	-	-
Sect. <i>Chrysocalycinae</i> (Benth.) Bak.f.								
<i>Crotalaria emarginata</i> Benth.	Hedberg et al. 300, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Kenya, Tanzania	-	JQ067195	JQ041029	-	-	JQ041176
<i>Crotalaria emarginella</i> Vatke	D. Podlech 35856, Yemen (M)	Africa (N): Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan	KX390790	KX371695	-	JQ067416	-	JQ041177
<i>Crotalaria eminensis</i> Benth.	Peltier 2098, Madagascar (P)	Indian Ocean (N): Madagascar	-	JQ067273	-	-	-	JQ041178
<i>Crotalaria ephemera</i> Polhill	Bidgood et al. 3893, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Zaire, Zambia	-	JQ067202	JQ041030	JQ067422	-	JQ041179
<i>Crotalaria epunctata</i> Dalzell	Manudev 5202, India (DUH)	Asia (N): India	-	JQ945952	-	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria eremaea</i> F. Mueller	ETS, ITS, psbA-trnH: Hill 475, Australia (M)	Australasia (N): Australia	KX390791	KX371696	-	KX390746	KX357619	-
fuct: Vonow 700, South Australia (MO)								
<i>Crotalaria eremicola</i> Baker f.	Kolberg and Tholkes HK1637, Namibia (WIND)	Africa (N): Botswana, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa	-	JQ067154	JQ041031	JQ067375	-	JQ041180
<i>Crotalaria evolutioides</i> Benth.	S. S. Subramaniam 1039, India (DUH)	Asia (N): India, Sri Lanka, Vietnam	-	JN990124	-	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria excisa</i> (Thunb.) Baker f.	B.-E. van Wyk 3108, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): South Africa	-	JQ067137	JQ041032	JQ067357	-	JQ041181

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	mark	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Crotalaria goreensis</i> Guill. & Perr. *	A. N. Millar 35375, Papua New Guinea (M)	Africa (N): Angola, Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Tanzania, The Gambia, Togo, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe; Asia: India (I), Malaysia (M); Australasia (I); Australia: Papua New Guinea; Indian Ocean (I); Madagascar; Pacific Ocean (I); Bismarck Archipelago; South America (I); Brazil, French Guiana, Guyana	-	JQ067257	JQ041042	JQ067476	JQ041193
<i>Crotalaria grahamiana</i> Wight & Arn	Bean 6119, Australia (ML)	Asia (N): India; Indian Ocean (I); Madagascar, Mauritius, Reunion	JQ067294	-	JQ067507	-	-
<i>Crotalaria graminicola</i> Baker f.	Bidgood et al. 4759, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Benin, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Ghana, Tanzania, Togo, Zaire, Zambia	JQ067243	-	JQ041194	-	-
<i>Crotalaria grandiflora</i> Windler & Skinner	E. Pereira 4539 and Pabst 4920, Brazil (M)	South America (N): Brazil	KX371703	-	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria greenwayi</i> Baker f.	Abdullah et al. 321, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Kenya, Tanzania	JQ067256	-	JQ041196	-	-
<i>Crotalaria grevei</i> Drake	Allorge 2339, Madagascar (P)	Indian Ocean (N); Madagascar	JQ067268	-	JQ067487	JQ041197	-
<i>Crotalaria griquensis</i> Bolus	B.-E. van Wyk 2533, South Africa (RAU)	Africa (N): South Africa, Swaziland	JQ067134	JQ041044	JQ067354	JQ041198	-
<i>Crotalaria hadleyi</i> Windler & Skinner	A. S. Flores et al. 780, Brazil (M)	South America (N): Brazil	KX390793	KX371704	-	KX390749	KX083395
<i>Crotalaria hebecarpa</i> (DC.) Rudd	Subramaniam 1031, India (DUH)	Asia (N): India, Sri Lanka	-	JN909130	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria heidmannii</i> Schinz	M. M. Le Roux et al. 60, Namibia (WIND)	Africa (N): Angola, Botswana, Namibia, Zimbabwe	JQ067320	JQ041045	JQ067527	JQ041199	-
<i>Crotalaria hemleyi</i> Milne-Redh.	Thulin and Mhoro 3073, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Tanzania	JQ067225	JQ041046	-	JQ041200	-
<i>Crotalaria heyneana</i> Wight & Arn.	S. S. Subramaniam 1061, India (DUH)	Asia (N): India	-	JQ945942	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria hilariana</i> Benth.	A. S. Flores and R. Schütz Rodrigues 445, Brazil (MIRR)	South America (N): Brazil	KX371705	-	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria hirsuta</i> Willd.	S. S. Subramaniam and A. K. Pandey 5026, India (DUH)	Asia (N): India, Myanmar; Indian Ocean (I); Mauritius	-	KP998652	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria hirta</i> Willd.	ITS: S. S. Subramaniam and A. K. Pandey, 1092 (DUH)	Asia (N): Cambodia, India, Vietnam; Indian Ocean (I); Comoro Is, Madagascar, Mauritius, Mayotte	-	JQ945928	-	JQ067546	-
	psbA-trnH; Peltier and Peltier, locality unknown (K)	South America (N): Brazil	-	JQ067326	JQ065752	JQ067531	-
	Coradi 6050, Brazil (CE)	Indian Ocean (N): Madagascar	-	JQ067266	JQ041047	JQ067485	JQ041201
<i>Crotalaria holosericea</i> Nees & Mart.	Labat 2456bis, Madagascar (P)	Asia (N): Bhutan, India, Indonesia, Lesser Sunda Is, Malaysia, Myanmar, Nepal, Philippines, Thailand; Australasia	KX390794	-	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria humbertiana</i> M. Peltier	S. S. Subramaniam and A. K. Pandey 5029, India (M)	(N): Australia; Papua New Guinea	-	JQ067138	JQ041048	JQ067358	JQ041202
<i>Crotalaria humiliosa</i> Benth.	B.-E. van Wyk 2882, South Africa (RAU)	Africa (N): South Africa	-	JQ067217	JQ041049	-	JQ041203
<i>Crotalaria hyssopifolia</i> Klotzsch	Bidgood et al. 3737, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Burkina, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Serengeti, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zaire, Zimbabwe	-	KX390795	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria ibityensis</i> R. Vig. & Humbert	J. M. Hildebrandt 3892, Madagascar (M)	Indian Ocean (N); Madagascar	Rydling et al. 1078, Eritrea (UPS)	JQ041050	-	JQ041204	-
<i>Crotalaria impressa</i> Walp.		Africa (N): Djibouti, Ethiopia, Sudan					

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Cratalaria incana</i> L. *							
Sect. <i>incanae</i> (Benth.) Polhill	ETs: M. F. Devechii MFD176, Brazil (SPF) ITS: Thulin et al. 9114, Somalia (UPS)	Africa (U); Burundi, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire; Zambia, Zimbabwe; Asia: Bangladesh (I), China (N), India (I), Indonesia (I), Malaysia (N), Moluccas (N), Philippines (I), Singapore (I), Sri Lanka (I), Sumatra (N), Taiwan (N), Thailand (N), Vietnam (N); Australasia (I); Australia, Papua New Guinea; Caribbean (U); Anguilla, Antigua-Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Cayman Is., Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Guadeloupe, Haiti, Jamaica, Netherlands, Seward Is., Puerto Rico, St. Kitts-Nevis, St. Martin-St Bartholemew, St Vincent, Virgin Is.; Central America (U); Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama; Indian Ocean (U); Madagascar, Mauritius, Réunion; Middle East (I); Saudi Arabia, Yemen; North America (I); United States; Pacific Ocean (I); Hawaii, Marshall Is., Northern Marianas, Society Is., Solomon Is., Vanuatu; South America (U); Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, French Guiana, Galapagos, Guyana, Paraguay, Peru, Venezuela	KX390796	JQ041051	-	JQ041205	
<i>Cratalaria incrassifolia</i> Polhill	Thulin et al. 10085, Somalia (UPS)	Africa (N); Ethiopia, Somalia	-	JQ067255	JQ041052	JQ067474	JQ041206
<i>Cratalaria inopinata</i> (Harms) Polhill	Manktelow et al. 91080, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Tanzania	-	JQ067253	JQ041053	JQ067472	JQ041207
<i>Cratalaria involutifolia</i> Polhill	Bidgood et al. 4527, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Cameroon, Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia	-	JQ067249	JQ041054	-	JQ041208
<i>Cratalaria irringana</i> Harms	Bidgood et al. 3343, Irrigana (UPS)	Africa (N); Tanzania	-	JQ067218	JQ041055	-	JQ041209
<i>Cratalaria irwinii</i> Windler & S.G. Skinner	H. S. Irwin et al. 21607, Brazil (K)	South America (N); Brazil	KX390797	KX371706	-	KX390743	-
<i>Cratalaria juncea</i> L.	ETs: Chalmers 1878, Australia (M) ITS: S. S. Subramaniam et al. 1026, India (DUH) matK, psbA-trnH, rbcL: M. M. Le Roux et al. 36, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (I); Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda; Asia: Afghanistan (I), Bangladesh (I), Bhutan (I), Burma (I), Cambodia (I), China (N), India (N), Indonesia (I), Iraq (I), Iran (Java) (I), Laos (N), Lesser Sunda Is. (N), Malaysia (I), Moluccas (N), Myanmar (N), Nepal (I), Pakistan (I), Philippines (I), Singapore (I), Sri Lanka (I), Suawesi (N), Sumatra (N), Taiwan (N), Thailand (N), Uzbekistan (I), Vietnam (N); Australasia (I); Australia, Papua New Guinea; Caribbean (I); Antigua-Barbuda, Barbados, Dominica Republic, Haiti, Jamaica, Martinique (I), Puerto Rico, Virgin Is.; Indian Ocean (I); Andaman Is., Madagascar, Mauritius, Réunion, Seychelles, Pacific Ocean (I); Niue; South America (I); Brazil, Colombia, Guyana, Surinam	KX390798	JN990138	JQ041056	JQ067365	JQ041210
<i>Cratalaria karagvensis</i> Taub.	Gilbert et al. 549, Ethiopia (UPS)	Africa (N); Burundi, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire	-	JQ067228	JQ067448	JQ041212	
<i>Cratalaria keniensis</i> Baker f.	Rynan 217, Kenya (UPS)	Africa (N); Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda	-	JQ067224	JQ041059	JQ067444	JQ041213
<i>Cratalaria khasiana</i> Thoth. & A.A. Ansari	E. E. Maire s. n. [M-0242318], China (W)	Asia (N); Bhutan, India, Myanmar	KX390799	KX371707	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria kipandensis</i> Baker f.	Bidgood et al. 4060, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067223	JQ041060	-	JQ041214
<i>Cratalaria kirkii</i> Baker	Markström and Nilsson 215A, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania	-	JQ067212	JQ041061	-	JQ041215
<i>Cratalaria kurtii</i> Schinz	ETs, ITS, psbA-trnH, rbcL: Dr. Leippert 4479, Namibia (W) matK: Mannheimer CM2680, Namibia (WIND) M. van de Bult 1216, Thailand (M)	Africa (N); Namibia	KX390800	KX371708	JQ041062	KX390755	KX083398
<i>Cratalaria kurzii</i> Kurz		Asia (N); Bangladesh, China, India, Laos, Myanmar, Thailand, Vietnam	KX390801	KX371709	-	-	-

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbcl
<i>Crotalaria laburnifolia</i> L. [*] Sect. <i>Grandiflorae</i> (Bak.f.) Pojarkov	B.-E. van Wyk et al. 4630; Ethiopia (IRAU)	Africa (N); Botswana, Burundi, Chad, Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Somalia, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe; Asia (N); Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Lesser Sunda Is, Malaysia, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Australia (N); Australia; Indian Ocean; Mauritius (I); Seychelles (N)	-	JX120577	JX120589	JX120592	JX120598
<i>Crotalaria laburnoides</i> Klotsch	Borhidai et al. 85562; Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Somalia, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire; Indian Ocean; Aldabra (I), Comoro Is (N)	JQ067236	JQ041064	JQ067455	JQ041218	
<i>Crotalaria lachnocarpoides</i> Eng.	Kelbessa et al. 10; Malawi (UPS)	Africa (N); Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe	JQ067264	-	-	JQ041219	
<i>Crotalaria lachnophylla</i> A.Rich.	Lotter 2035; Mozambique (K)	Africa (N); Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Chad, Ethiopia, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Sudan, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe	JQ067316	JQ067564	-	JQ067588	
<i>Crotalaria laeta</i> Mart. ex Benth.		South America (N); Brazil	KX390802	KX371710	JQ067571	JQ067530	-
<i>Crotalaria laevigata</i> Lam.	ETs, ITS: F. A. M. Santos 18916; Brazil (M) matK, psbA-trnH: Coradiiv L 7718; Brazil (CEN)	Indian Ocean (N); Madagascar	-	JN990116	JQ041065	-	JQ041220
<i>Crotalaria lanceolata</i> E.Mey.	ETs, ITS, rbcL, psbA-trnH: A. Rockinger 20143; Brazil (M) matK, B-E. van Wyk 4329; South Africa (IRAU)	Africa (N); Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe; Asia (N); China, Taiwan; Caribbean (I); Brazil; Colombia	KX390803	KX371711	JQ067553	KX390750	KX083396
<i>Crotalaria lasiocarpa</i> Pojarkov	C. F. Paquet-Wilkes 1055; Tanzania (MO)	Africa (N); Tanzania, Zambia	KX390804	KX371712	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria latyrhoides</i> Guill. & Perr.	Espirito Santo Explorações Botânicas 3640; Guinea-Bissau (M)	Africa (N); Benin, Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Mali, Senegal, Sierra Leone	KX390805	KX371713	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria laxiflora</i> Baker	Richards 23228; Zambia (UPS)	Africa (N); Tanzania, Zambia	-	JQ067232	JQ041067	JQ067452	JQ041222
<i>Crotalaria leandriana</i> M. Petitier	Clement 2024; Madagascar (P)	Indian Ocean (N); Madagascar	-	JQ067284	JQ041068	JQ067500	JQ041223
<i>Crotalaria lebeckioides</i> Bond	ITS, matK: M. M. Le Roux and B.-E. van Wyk 104; South Africa (IRAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	JQ067321	JQ067568	-	EU348036
<i>Crotalaria lebrunii</i> Baker f.	rbcL: B.-E. van Wyk 3315e; locality unknown (IRAU); Rwburindore 2744; Uganda (UPS)	Africa (N); Kenya, Uganda, Zaire	-	JQ067250	-	JQ067469	-
<i>Crotalaria lepidissima</i> Baker f.	M. Richards 17152; Angola (B)	Africa (N); Angola, Zaire, Zambia	KX390806	KX371714	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria lepturiifolia</i> Guill. & Perr.	H. Em et al. 1850; Togo (B)	Africa (N); Angola, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Mali, Nigeria, Senegal, Sudan, Togo, Uganda, Zaire	KX390807	KX371715	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria linearifolia</i> Chiov.	Thulin and Warfa 4640; Somalia (UPS)	Africa (N); Somalia	-	JQ067221	JQ041069	JQ067441	JQ041224
<i>Crotalaria linifolia</i> L.f.	Nakaikes, n. [M-0242305]; Japan (M)	Asia (N); China, India, Myanmar, Ryukyu Is, Sri Lanka, Taiwan; Caribbean (U); Caribbean-TRP; Indian Ocean (N); Nicobar Is	KX390808	-	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria longidens</i> Verdc.	M. M. Le Roux et al. 101; South Africa (IRAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	JQ067307	JQ067557	JQ067516	JQ067599	
<i>Crotalaria longipes</i> Wight & Arn.	S. S. Subramanian 1045; India (DUH)	Asia (N); India	-	JN990113	-	-	
<i>Crotalaria longirostrata</i> Hook. & Arn.	J. Kufer 63; Guatemala (MSB)	Central America (N); Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama; North America (U); United States	KX390809	KX371716	-	-	

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Cratalaria latifolia</i> L.* Sect. <i>Cratalaria</i> M.M. Le Roux & B.-E. van Wyk	I. Urban 3650, Puerto Rico (M)	Caribbean (U); Caribbean-TRP; Central America (N); Honduras, Mexico	-	KX371717	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria latiformis</i> Milne-Redh.	Ryman 94, Kenya (UPS)	Africa (N); Kenya	JQ067234	JQ041070	JQ067453	JQ041225	
<i>Cratalaria latoides</i> Benth.	M. M. Le Roux et al. 47, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N); Botswana, South Africa, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067299	JQ067551	JQ067590	
<i>Cratalaria lukwanguensis</i> Harms	Borhidii et al. 85142, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Kenya, Tanzania	-	JQ067211	JQ041071	JQ041226	
<i>Cratalaria lumulata</i> Wight & Arn.	R. Wight 615, India (M)	Asia (N); India, Sri Lanka	-	KX371718	-	-	
<i>Cratalaria luondeensis</i> R.Wilczek	Iversen et al. 87691, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Mozambique, Tanzania, Zaire	-	JQ067237	-	-	JQ041228
<i>Cratalaria lutescens</i> Dalzell	Fernandes 560, India (K)	Asia (N); India	-	JQ067337	-	JQ067542	-
<i>Cratalaria macrocarpa</i> E. Mey.	Stirton 11885, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N); South Africa, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067126	JQ041072	-	JQ041229
<i>Cratalaria madurensis</i> Wight & Arn.	S. S. Subramaniam and A. K. Pandey 1015, India (DUH)	Asia (N); India; Indian Ocean (I); Reunion	-	KP986266	-	-	
<i>Cratalaria magaliestherensis</i> A.S.Flores & Sch.Rodr.	B.-E. van Wyk 1729, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	JQ067132	-	-	JQ0692943
(<i>Cratalaria brachycarpa</i> (Benth.) Burtt. Davy ex Verdoorn)	Miller 6166, Madagascar (P)	Indian Ocean (N); Madagascar	-	JQ067280	-	JQ067496	JQ041230
<i>Cratalaria mahafalensis</i> R.Vig.	He 483, China (M)	Asia (N); China	KX390810	KX371719	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria mairei</i> H.Lev.	Thulin et al. 7643, Somalia (UPS)	Africa (N); Kenya, Somalia	-	JQ067263	JQ041073	JQ041231	
<i>Cratalaria malindiensis</i> Polhill	A. S. Flores and R. Schütz Rodrigues 983, Brazil (M)	South America (N); Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay	-	KX371720	-	JQ067482	-
<i>Cratalaria martiana</i> Benth.	Jansell 4571, Kenya (UPS)	Africa (N); Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Uganda	-	JQ067226	JQ041074	JQ067446	JQ041232
<i>Cratalaria massaiensis</i> Taub.	Ryman 132, Kenya (UPS)	Africa (N); Kenya, Tanzania	-	JQ067235	JQ041075	-	JQ041233
<i>Cratalaria mouensis</i> Baker f.	Chantaranothai and Parnell 90/759, Thailand (K)	Asia (N); Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Burma, China, India, Indonesia, Java, Laos, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam; Australasia (N); Australia, Papua New Guinea; Indian Ocean (N); Laccadive Is., Middle East (U); Oman	-	JQ067334	-	JQ067539	-
<i>Cratalaria medicaginea</i> Lam.* Sect. <i>Dispermae</i> Wight & Arn.	Bidgood et al. 3595, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Tanzania	-	JQ067247	JQ041076	-	JQ041234
<i>Cratalaria melanacryx</i> Polhill	Rwaburindore 2340, Uganda (UPS)	Africa (N); Burundi, Entral African Republic, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire; Asia (I); Indonesia	-	JQ067215	JQ041077	-	JQ041235
<i>Cratalaria mesopontica</i> Taub.	Williamson 3378, Namibia (JRAU)	Africa (N); Namibia, South Africa	-	JQ067136	JQ067356	JQ041236	
<i>Cratalaria meyerana</i> Steud.			-	JQ041078			

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Crotalaria micans</i> Link	A. S. Flores et al. 675, Brazil (MIRR)	Africa (I); Zaire; Asia (I): Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Nepal, Philippines, Sabah, Sri Lanka, Sumatra, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam; Australia (I); Australia, Papua New Guinea; Caribbean (N); Dominica, Guadeloupe, Martinique, Montserrat, St Kitts-Nevis, St Vincent, Trinidad and Tobago; Central America (N); Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama; Indian Ocean (I); Madagascar, Reunion; Pacific Ocean (I); Bismarck Archipelago, Fiji, Hawaii, Niue, Western Samoa; South America (N); Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, French Guiana, Guyana, Paraguay, Peru, Surinam, Uruguay, Venezuela	-	KX371721	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria microcarpa</i> Benth.	ITS: Bidgood et al. 3341, Tanzania (UPS) ETS: E. A. Robinson 6430, Zambia (M)	Africa (N): Angola, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Chad, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sudan, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe	KX390811	JQ067222	JQ041079	JQ067442	JQ041237
<i>Crotalaria microphylla</i> M. Vahl	Thulin 11016, Somalia (UPS)	Africa (N); Chad, Djibouti, Egypt, Ethiopia, Mauritania, Niger, Somalia, Sudan; Middle East (N); Saudi Arabia, Yemen	-	JQ067239	JQ041080	JQ067458	JQ041238
<i>Crotalaria microthamnus</i> R. Wilczek	Bidgood et al. 3726, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Zaire, Zambia	-	JQ067227	JQ041081	JQ067447	JQ041239
<i>Crotalaria mildrediae</i> Baker f.	C. Kayombo 596, Tanzania (MO)	Africa (N); Ethiopia, Rwanda, Uganda, Zaire	KX390812	KX371722	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria mittoae</i> A.S.Flores & A.M.G.Azevedo	Konishi et al. 12_02, Brazil (M)	South America (N); Brazil	KX390813	KX371723	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria miranda</i> Millne-Redh.	Bidgood et al. 3970, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Tanzania, Zambia	-	JQ067245	JQ041082	JQ067464	JQ041240
<i>Crotalaria mitchellii</i> Benth.	R. Hill 319, South Australia (M)	Australasia (N); Australia	KX390814	KX371724	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria mollifolia</i> Kunth.	N. Arsène s. n. [M-0242304], Mexico (M)	Central America (N); El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico	KX390815	KX371725	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria monophylla</i> Germish.	Burrows and Turpin 12245, South Africa (LYD)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	JX120581	JX120590	-	JX120602
<i>Crotalaria montana</i> Roth.	Clarkson 3044, Australia (SP)	Asia (N); Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Java, Laos, Malaysia, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam; Australia (N); Australia, Papua New Guinea; Pacific Ocean (N); Bismarck Archipelago	-	KX371726	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria monteiroi</i> Baker f.	Schutte 83, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N); Mozambique, South Africa, Swaziland, Zimbabwe	KX390816	KX371727	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria mortonii</i> Hepper	H. Em et al. 2044, Togo (B)	Africa (N); Ghana, Ivory Coast, Togo	-	JQ067129	JQ041083	JQ067351	JQ041241
<i>Crotalaria mudugensis</i> Thulin	Wieland 4618, Somalia (UPS)	Africa (N); Somalia [African species, full distribution range uncertain]	-	JQ067241	JQ041084	-	JQ041242
<i>Crotalaria muenzneri</i> Baker f.	Bidgood et al. 362, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Tanzania	-	JQ067220	JQ041085	-	JQ041243
<i>Crotalaria multiflora</i> (Arn.) Benth.	Hepper 4590, Sri Lanka (K)	Asia (N); India, Sri Lanka	-	JQ067336	-	JQ067541	-
<i>Crotalaria mysorensis</i> Roth	Haines 5573, India (K)	Asia (N); Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Java, Lesser Sunda Is, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka	-	JQ067340	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria nana</i> Burm.f.	S. S. Subramaniam et al. 1063, India (M)	Asia (N); Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Myanmar, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Vietnam; Australia (N); Australia; Caribbean (I); Jamaica; Indian Ocean (N); Nicobar Is	-	KX371728	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria natititla</i> Mierser	M. M. Le Roux et al. 99, unknown locality (JRAU)	Africa (N); Angola, Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe; Middle East (N); Yemen	-	JQ067304	JQ067554	JQ067362	JQ041244
<i>Crotalaria nayaritensis</i> Windler	Gabriel 4521, Mexico (MO)	Central America (N); Mexico	KX390817	KX371729	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria neglecta</i> Wight & Arn.	O. Anders 8989, Afghanistan (M)	Asia (N); Afghanistan [full distribution range uncertain]	-	KX371730	-	-	-

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Cratalaria nigricans</i> Baker	Bidgood et al. 4580, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Malawi; Mozambique, Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia	-	JQ067251	JQ041086	JQ067470	JQ041245
<i>Cratalaria nitens</i> Kunth	Plant cultivated in the Munich Botanical Garden as accession 01/1448 and vouchered, specimen [M-0242317] at (M)	Central America (N); Belize, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico; South America (N); Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Guyana, Paraguay, Peru	KX390818	KX371731	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria notata</i> Wight & Arn.	S. S. Subramanian and A. K. Pandey 11248, India (M)	Asia (N); India	-	KX371732	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria novae-hollandiae</i> DC.	ITS: A. Rockinger 201534, Australia (M) matK, rbcL: Forster and Booth 24198, Australia (MEL)	Australasia (N); Australia	-	KX371733	JQ041087	-	JQ041246
<i>Cratalaria obscura</i> DC.	B.-E. van Wyk 2933, South Africa (RAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	JQ067142	JQ041088	JQ067363	JQ041247
<i>Cratalaria obtecta</i> Wight & Arn.	S. S. Subramanian et al. 1056, India (DUH)	Asia (N); India	-	JN990134	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria ochroleuca</i> G. Don	Valis JFM 4933, Brazil (CEN)	Africa (N); Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe; Asia (I); China; Australasia (I); Australia, Papua New Guinea; Indian Ocean (I); Madagascar; North America (I); United States; South America (I); Brazil	-	JQ067323	JQ067570	-	-
<i>Cratalaria oligosperma</i> Polhill	Thulin et al. 7745, Somalia (UPS)	Africa (N); Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia	-	JQ067231	JQ041089	JQ067451	JQ041248
<i>Cratalaria ononoides</i> Benth.	Thulin and Mhoro 2874, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Ethiopia, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe; Asia (I); China; Australasia (I); Australia, Papua New Guinea; Indian Ocean (I); Madagascar; North America (I); United States; South America (I); Brazil	-	JQ067330	JQ067577	JQ067536	JQ067593
<i>Cratalaria oocarpa</i> Baker	Gereau and Kayombo 4797, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania	-	JQ067219	-	JQ067439	JQ041249
<i>Cratalaria orientalis</i> Verd.	M. M. Le Roux et al. 91, South Africa (RAU)	Africa (N); Botswana, Namibia, South Africa, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067313	JQ067561	-	JQ067594
<i>Cratalaria oxensis</i> Wildt.	Mesfin and Kagnew 1598, Ethiopia (UPS)	Africa (N); Ethiopia; Asia (N); India, Philippines	-	JQ067260	-	JQ067479	JQ041250
<i>Cratalaria orthoclada</i> Baker	Hedren et al. 665, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N); Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Kenya, Malawi, Nigeria, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia	-	JQ067259	-	JQ067478	JQ041251
<i>Cratalaria opterata</i> Benth.	A. S. Flores and R. Schütz Rodrigues 1002, Brazil (MIRR)	South America (N); Brazil	KX390819	KX371734	-	-	-

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Cratalaria pallida</i> Guill. & Perr.	B.-E. van Wyk 4331, South Africa (IRAU)	Africa (N): Angola, Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, São Tomé and Príncipe, Senegal, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Suda, Swaziland, Tanza, Togo, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe; Asia (N): Bangladesh, Bhutan, Brunei, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Jaya, Laos, Lesser Sunda Is., Malaysia, Moluccas, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sabah, Sarawak, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Sumatra, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam; Australasia (I): Australia, New Caledonia, Papua New Guinea; Caribbean (I): Dominica, Jamaica, Martinique, Montserrat, Puerto Rico, St. Kitts-Nevis, St. Vincent, Trinidad and Tobago; Central America (N): El Salvador, Nicaragua; Indian Ocean: Andaman Is. (N), Chagos Archipelago (U), Christmas Is. (I), Madagascar (U), Mauritius (I), Nicobar Is (N), Seychelles (I); Pacific Ocean (I); Bismarck Archipelago, Bougainville, Easter Is., Fiji, Guam, Hawaii, Marshall Is., Niue, Northern Marianas, Society Is., Solomon Is., Tonga, Tubuai Is., Vanuatu, Western Samoa; South America (I); Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Guyana, Peru, Venezuela	-	JQ067305	JQ067555	-	JQ067595
<i>Cratalaria pallidicaulis</i> Harms	Nyasisi 498, Zimbabwe (UPS)	Africa (N): Mozambique, Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067254	-	-	JQ0692940
<i>Cratalaria parvula</i> Baker	Bidgood et al. 3775, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Malawi, Nigeria, Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia	-	JQ067246	JQ041090	-	JQ041252
<i>Cratalaria passerinoides</i> Taub.	Bidgood et al. 3591, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia	-	JQ067248	JQ041091	JQ067467	JQ041253
<i>Cratalaria paulina</i> Schrank	A. S. Flores et al. 856, Brazil (MIRR)	Africa (I): Ethiopia, Kenya, Zimbabwe; Caribbean (I): Guadeloupe, Martinique; South America (N): Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Venezuela	-	KX390820	KX371735	-	KX390744
<i>Cratalaria perrieri</i> R.Vig.	Du Puy Ma69, Madagascar (P)	Indian Ocean (N): Madagascar	-	JQ067271	JQ041092	JQ067490	JQ041254
<i>Cratalaria persica</i> (Burm.f.) Merr.	V. Moazzafarian 58261, Iran (TARI)	Africa (N): Djibouti, Ethiopia, Socotra, Somalia; Asia (N): Iran, Pakistan; Middle East (N): Oman, South Yemen, United Arab Emirates	-	KX390821	KX371736	-	KX390747
<i>Cratalaria phyllodoba</i> Harms	Mhoro 868, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Tanzania	-	JQ067252	JQ041093	-	JQ041255
<i>Cratalaria pilosa</i> Mill.	Costa N 2242, Brazil (CEN)	Caribbean (U); Caribbean-TRP; Central America (N): Costa Rica, Mexico, Panama; South America (U): Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Venezuela	-	JQ067329	JQ067575	-	JQ067596
<i>Cratalaria pilosiflora</i> Baker	Brummitt and Syngre WC104, Malawi (UPS)	Africa (N): Malawi	-	JQ067265	JQ041094	-	JQ041256
<i>Cratalaria pisicarpa</i> Baker	Strohbach BS5993, Namibia (WIND)	Africa (N): Angola, Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067153	JQ041095	JQ067374	JQ041257
<i>Cratalaria pleiophylla</i> Polhill	Thulin and Warfa 4697, Somalia (UPS)	Africa (N): Ethiopia, Somalia	-	JQ067242	-	JQ067461	JQ041259
<i>Cratalaria plowdenii</i> Baker	Gilbert and Thulin 38, Ethiopia (UPS)	Africa (N): Ethiopia; Middle East (N): Yemen	-	JQ067244	JQ041097	-	JQ041260
<i>Cratalaria podocarpa</i> DC.	M. M. Le Roux et al. 68, Namibia (WIND)	Africa (N): Angola, Botswana, Chad, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Senegal, South Africa, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067300	-	JQ067511	JQ067598
<i>Cratalaria poissonii</i> R.Vig.	Labat 3631, Madagascar (P)	Africa (N): Madagascar	-	JQ067277	JQ041098	JQ067495	JQ041261
<i>Cratalaria polhillii</i> Thulin	Zemedie and Birhanu 555, Ethiopia (UPS)	Africa (N): Ethiopia	-	JQ067233	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria polyphylla</i> L. Riley	R. McNaught 13777, Mexico (K)	Central America (N), Mexico	-	KX371738	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria pritzwitzii</i> Baker f.	Bidgood et al. 3597, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Angola, Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia	-	JQ067240	JQ041099	-	JQ041262
<i>Cratalaria prolongata</i> Baker	E. A. Robinson 6658, Zambia (M)	Africa (N): Angola, Malawi, Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia	-	KX371739	-	-	-

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Cratalaria prostrata</i> Willd.	S. S. Subramanian et al. 902, India (DUH)	Asia (N): Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Sulawesi, Thailand, Vietnam	-	JQ945953	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria pseudodiloensis</i> R.Wilczek	F. Moreno 272, Angola (M)	Africa (N): Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia	-	KX371740	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria pseudotenuiflora</i> Torre	Bidgood et al. 3590, Tanzania (UPS)	Africa (N): Angola, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Senegal, Sudan, Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia	-	JQ067209	JQ041100	-	JQ041263
<i>Cratalaria pulchra</i> Andrews	S. S. Subramanian and A. K. Pandey 5070, India (M)	Asia (N): India; Indian Ocean (I): Mauritius	KX390822	KX371741	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria pumila</i> Ortega	ETs, ITS: M. Subieta 248, Bolivia (M)	Caribbean (N): Caribbean-TRP; Central America (U): Belize, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Mexico, Nicaragua; North America (N): United States; South America (N): Argentina, Bolivia; Ecuador, Galapagos, Peru, Venezuela	KX390823	KX371742	AY386867	-	-
<i>Cratalaria purdiana</i> Senn	C. D. Adams II_904, Jamaica (M)	Caribbean (U): Caribbean-TRP; Central America (N): Mexico; South America (N) Colombia	-	KX371743	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria purshii</i> DC.	Radford 25035, USA (K)	North America (N): United States	-	JQ067342	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria pusilla</i> Heyne ex Roth (DC.)	S. S. Subramanian and A. K. Pandey 3427, India (M)	Asia (N): India	-	KX371744	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria pycnostachya</i> Benth.	ITS: D. Podlech 36420, Yemen (MSB); matK: Hohlein A9_K1267, Kenya (EA)	Africa (N): Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda; Middle East (N): Yemen	-	KX371745	KR735006	-	-
<i>Cratalaria quartiniana</i> A.Rich.	I. Friis et al. 3768, Ethiopia (B)	Africa (N): Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sudan, Tanzania, Zaire; Middle East (N): Saudi Arabia, Yemen	-	KX371746	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria queretorum</i> Brandegee	H. von Türkheim 2016, Guatemala (M)	Central America (N): Guatemala, Mexico, Nicaragua	-	KX371747	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria quinquefolia</i> L.	S. S. Subramanian 1060, India (DUH)	Asia (N): Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Irian Jaya, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Nepal, Philippines, Sabah, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Sulawesi, Sumatra, Thailand, Vietnam; Australasia (N): Australia, Papua New Guinea, Caribbean (I): Antigua-Barbuda, Barbados, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Guadeloupe, Haiti, Jamaica, Martinique, Trinidad and Tobago; Indian Ocean (I): Mauritius, Pacific Ocean (I): Bismarck Archipelago, Fiji, Northern Marianas, Samoa, Solomon Is., Vanuatu; South America (I): Guyana, Surinam	-	JQ945943	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria ramosissima</i> Roxb.	Powell 1585, Jamaica (MO)	Asia: India (N), Vietnam (I); Caribbean (I): Jamaica	-	KX371748	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria recta</i> A.Rich.	M. M. Le Roux 42, South Africa (RAU)	Africa (N): Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Nigeria, Rwanda, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	KX371749	JQ041102	JQ067367	JQ041266
<i>Cratalaria reptans</i> Taub.	H. J. Schieben 2470, Tanzania (M)	Africa (N): Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe	KX390824	-	-	-	-

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Crotalaria retusa</i> L.	ETs, ITS, A. Rockinger 20142, Brazil (M) psbA-trnH: Costa N2410, Brazil (CEN)	Africa (U); Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Kenya, Liberia, Mali, Mozambique, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Socotra, Somalia, Tanzania, Uganda; Asia (N): Bangladesh, Bhutan, Brunei, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Kalimantan, Laos, Lesser Sunda Is., Malaysia, Moluccas, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sarawak, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Sumatra, Thailand, Vietnam; Australasia (N): Australia, Papua New Guinea; Caribbean (I); Anguilla, Antigua-Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Cayman Is., Cuba, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Guadeloupe, Haiti, Jamaica, Martinique, Montserrat, Netherlands Leeward Is., Puerto Rico, St Kitts-Nevis, St Lucia, St Martin-St Barthlemy, St Vincent; Laccadive Is., Madagascar, Maldives, Mauritius, Réunion, Rodrigues, Seychelles; Middle East (N): Oman, Saudi Arabia, Yemen; North America (I); United States; Pacific Ocean: Bismarck Archipelago (N), Fiji (I), Hawaii (I), Marquesas (I), Northern Marianas (I), Samoa (I), Society Is. (I); South America (I); Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, French Guyana, Guyana, Peru, Surinam, Venezuela Africa (N); Malawi; South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe	KX390825	KX371750	-	JQ067529	-
<i>Crotalaria rhodesiae</i> Baker f.	Robinson 5141, Zimbabwe (M)	Africa (N): Malawi, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe	KX390826	-	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria rogersii</i> Baker f.	Madsen et al. 1502, Senegal (MO)	Africa (N): Malawi, South Africa, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JX120582	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria rubiginosa</i> Willd.	S. S. Subramaniam et al. 1091, India (DUH)	Asia (N): India, Indonesia, Sri Lanka	-	JQ945954	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria rufipila</i> Benth.	A. S. Flores et al. 424, Brazil MIRR	South America (N): Brazil	KX390827	KX371751	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria rzedowskii</i> J.Espinosa	Ventura 2552, Mexico (MO)	Central America (N): Mexico	-	KX371752	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria sagittalis</i> L.	Beck 21186, Bolivia (M)	Caribbean (N): Cuba; Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica, Puerto Rico; Central America (N): Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama; North America (N): United States; South America (N): Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Peru, Venezuela	KX390828	KX371753	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria saharae</i> Coss.	S. Abrahamczyk SA608, Morocco (M)	Africa (N): Algeria, Libya, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Niger, Western Sahara	KX390829	-	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria salicifolia</i> Wight & Arn.	S. S. Subramaniam 1079, India (DUH)	Asia (N): India	-	JQ945949	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria saltitans</i> Andr.	ITs, Kazmi et al. 65, Somalia (M) matK: Chuang 4723, Taiwan (ASU)	Africa (N): Djibouti, Ethiopia, Kenya, Somalia, Sudan; Middle East (N): Oman, Yemen	KX390830	KX371754	JQ619981	-	-
<i>Crotalaria sandwicensis</i> Gamble	J. Fernandes 344, India (K)	Asia (N): India	KX390831	KX371755	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria scassellatii</i> Chiov.	Kokwaro 1694, Kenya (UPS)	Africa (N): Kenya, Somalia	-	JQ067206	-	JQ067426	-
<i>Crotalaria semperflorens</i> Vent.	S. S. Subramaniam 1037, India (DUH)	Asia (N): India	-	JN990111	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria sericeifolia</i> Harms	Strohbach BS5717, Namibia (WIND)	Africa (N): Angola, Namibia	-	JQ067152	JQ041104	JQ067373	JQ041267
<i>Crotalaria sessiliflora</i> L.	Sorensen et al. 6261, Thailand (K)	Asia (N): Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, China, East Timor, India, Indonesia, Irian Jaya, Japan, Korea, Laos, Lesser Sunda Is., Malaysia, Moluccas, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Ryukyu Is., Sulawesi, Sumatra, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam; Australasia (N): Papua New Guinea	-	JQ067338	-	JQ067544	-
<i>Crotalaria shanica</i> Lace	Garrett 1461, Thailand (K)	Asia (N): Myanmar, Thailand	KX390832	KX371756	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria shirensis</i> (Baker f.) Milne-Redh.	F. J. Breteler 440b, Cameroon (M)	Africa (N): Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe	KX390833	-	-	-	-

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Cratalaria smithiana</i> A.T.Lee	Boorman s.n., Australia (MEL)	Australasia (N); Australia	-	JQ067290	-	JQ067503	-
<i>Cratalaria sparteo Baker</i>	E. A. Robinson 3469, Zambia (M)	Africa (N); Angola, Burundi, Cameroon, Malawi, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe	KX390834	KX371757	-	KX390751	-
<i>Cratalaria spartooides</i> DC.	Lutombi and Strohbach DL149, Namibia (WIND)	Africa (N); Botswana, Namibia, South Africa	-	JQ067149	JQ041105	-	JQ041268
<i>Cratalaria speciosa</i> Roth.	R. Wight 679, India (B)	Asia (N); India; Pacific Ocean (I); Mauritius	KX390835	KX371758	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria spectabilis</i> Roth.	ETs: R. Wight 589, India (M) ITS: S. S. Subramanian and A. K. Pandey 1099, India (DUH) matK, rbcL: Abbott 18302, locality unknown (FLAS)	Africa (I); Kenya, Mali, Tanzania; Asia (N); Bangladesh, China, East Timor, India, Malaysia, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Taiwan, Thailand; Australasia (I) Australia, New Caledonia, Papua New Guinea; Caribbean (I); Bahamas, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Guadeloupe, Jamaica, Martinique, Puerto Rico, St Lucia; Central America (I); Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama; Indian Ocean: Andaman Is (N), Madagascar (I), Mauritius (I), Reunion (I); North America (I); United States; Pacific Ocean (I); Gilbert Is, Hawaii; Marquesas, Northern Marianas, Society Is; South America (I); Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Peru, Venezuela	KX390836	JN90112	KJ772689	-	KJ773415
<i>Cratalaria sphaerocarpa</i> Perr. ex DC.* Sect. <i>Geniculatae</i> Polhill	Schutte 450, South Africa (RAU)	Africa (N); Angola, Botswana, Central African Republic, Chad, Lesotho, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067139	JQ041106	-	JQ041269
<i>Cratalaria spinosa</i> Hochst.	D. Podlech 36399, Yemen (M)	Africa (N); Angola, Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Senegal, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia; Middle East (N); Yemen	KX390837	KX371759	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria steudneri</i> Schweinf.	M. M. Le Roux et al. 80, Namibia (WIND)	Africa (N); Angola, Botswana, Ethiopia, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Sudan, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JQ067314	JQ067522	JQ067600	-
<i>Cratalaria stipitata</i> Wight & Arn.	S. S. Subramanian 1050, India (DUH)	Asia (N); India	-	KP998669	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria stipularia</i> Desv.	ETs, ITS ST. G. Beck 6687, Bolivia (M) matK, psbA-trnH: Valls JFV1996; Brazil (CEN)	Caribbean (I); Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Guadeloupe, Haiti, Jamaica, Martinique, Puerto Rico, St Lucia, St Vincent; South America (N); Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, French Guiana, Guyana, Paraguay, Peru, Surinam, Venezuela	KX390838	KX371760	JQ067573	JQ067532	-
<i>Cratalaria stoltzii</i> (Baker f.) Polhill	L. C. Leach 10720, Zimbabwe (M)	Africa (N); Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zaire, Zimbabwe	KX390839	-	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria striolosa</i> Balf. f.	Mears 87, Yemen (B)	Africa (N); Socotra	KX390840	KX371761	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria subdecurrens</i> Mart. ex Benth.	A. S. Flores et al. 861, Brazil (MIRR)	South America (N); Brazil	KX390841	KX371762	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria subperfolata</i> Wight	S. S. Subramanian and A. K. Pandey 1035, India (DUH)	Asia (N); India	-	KP698635	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria tanety</i> Du Puy, Labat & H.E.	Du Puy W128, Madagascar (P)	Indian Ocean (N); Madagascar	-	JQ067278	JQ041107	-	JQ041271
<i>Cratalaria tekeirae</i> Torre	Hochobes and Lutombi SS389, Namibia (WIND)	Africa (N); Namibia	-	JQ067156	JQ041108	JQ067378	JQ041272
<i>Cratalaria tenuipedicellata</i> Baker f.	E. A. Robinson 3494, Zambia (M)	Africa (N); Zaire, Zambia	KX390842	KX371763	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria tetragona</i> Andrews	ETs: C. D. Adams 6420, Jamaica (M) ITS: A. K. Pandey 10017, India (DUH)	Asia (N); Bangladesh, Bhutan, China, India, Laos, Myanmar, Nepal, Thailand, Vietnam; Caribbean (I); Jamaica, St Vincent; Indian Ocean (I); Mauritius	KX390843	JN90110	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria thebaica</i> (Delle) DC.	J. Léonard 4862, Libya (M)	Africa (N); Chad, Egypt, Sudan; Middle East (N); Saudi Arabia	-	KX371764	-	-	-

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Cratalaria trifoliolata</i> Bojer	ITS: P. O. Schallert 153, USA (M) matK, psbA-trnH rbcL: file GenBank Chen et al. PS0226MT01'	Africa: Kenya (I); Mozambique (N), São Tome and Príncipe (I); Tanzania (N); Asia (I); China, East Timor, India, Indonesia, Iran, Java, Kalmantan, Malaysia, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Sumatra, Taiwan, Vietnam; Australasia (I); Australia, Papua New Guinea; Caribbean: Antigua-Barbuda, Barbados, Dominican Republic, Guadeloupe, Jamaica, Martinique, Puerto Rico, St Lucia; Central America (I); El Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica; Indian Ocean (I); Madagascar, Mauritius, Réunion, Seychelles; North Pacific Ocean; Bismarck Archipelago (N); Nauru (I); South America (I); Brazil, Peru	-	KX371765	HM04950	GU39670	GQ436334.
<i>Cratalaria trifoliolata</i> Bak.f.	Unknown collector [Botanical Survey of India] s. n. [W-0242-324], India (M) I. Friis et al. 15074, Ethiopia (C)	Asia (N); Bhutan, India; Pacific Ocean (I); Northern Marianas Africa (N); Ethiopia	KX390844	-	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria triquetra</i> Dalzell	S. S. Subramanian et al. 3419, India (DUH)	Asia (N); East Timor, India, Indonesia, Lesser Sunda Is, Sri Lanka	KX390845	KX371766	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria tweediana</i> Benth.	JFM 4263, Brazil (CEN)	South America (N); Brazil	-	JQ067328	JQ067574	JQ067574	-
<i>Cratalaria ulbrichiana</i> Harms	Giess and Loutit 14197, Namibia (IRAU)	Africa (N); Namibia, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JX120580	-	-	JX120580
<i>Cratalaria uliginosa</i> C.C.Huang	Wagner 351, India (M)	Asia (N); China, India	KX390846	KX371767	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria uncinella</i> Lam.	Lewis 574, Madagascar (F)	Africa (N); Mozambique, Tanzania; Asia (N); China, India, Malaysia, Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam; Indian Ocean (N); Madagascar, Mauritius, Réunion	-	JQ067274	-	-	JQ067493
<i>Cratalaria unifoliolata</i> Benth.	L. S. Kinoshita et al. 26, Brazil (M)	South America (N); Brazil	KX390847	KX371768	-	-	KX390754
<i>Cratalaria vanmeelii</i> R.Wilczek	M. R. 24297, Tanzania (M)	Africa (N); Tanzania, Zambia	KX390848	KX371769	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria varicosa</i> Polhill	R. D. Box 133, Tanzania (K)	Africa (N); Tanzania	KX390849	KX371770	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria variegata</i> Baker	E. A. Robinson 5616, Zimbabwe (M)	Africa (N); Angola, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe	KX390850	KX371771	-	-	-
<i>Cratalaria vasculosa</i> Benth.	Stirton 11796, South Africa (IRAU)	Africa (N); Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zimbabwe; Asia (I); India; Indian Ocean (I); Mauritius	-	JQ067140	JQ041109	JQ067360	JQ041273
<i>Cratalaria velutina</i> Benth.	ETs, ITS, A. S. Flores et al. 850, Brazil (MIRR)	South America (N); Brazil	-	KX077952	JQ067578	-	JQ067601
<i>Cratalaria verrucosa</i> L.	matK, rbcL: Thomas et al. 5911, Brazil (K)	Africa (I); Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Uganda, Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, East Timor, India, Indonesia, Laos, Lesser Sunda Is, Malaysia, Myanmar, Nepal, Philippines, Sabah, Sri Lanka, Sulawesi, Sumatra, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam; Australasia (I); Australia, Papua New Guinea; Caribbean: Anguilla (I), Bahamas (N), Barbados (I), Cayman Is (I), Cuba (I), Dominica (I), Dominican Republic (I), Grenada (I), Guadeloupe (I), Haiti (I), Jamaica (I), Martinique (I), Montserrat (I), Netherlands Leeward Is (I), Puerto Rico (I), St. Kitts-Nevis (I), St. Lucia (I), St. Martin-Saint Barthélemy (I), St. Vincent (I); Central America (I); Belize, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Panama; Indian Ocean (I); Aldabra, Laccadive Is, Madagascari, Mauritius, Réunion, Seychelles; North America (U); United States; Pacific Ocean (I); Bismarck Archipelago; New Zealand, Niue, Society Is; Eastern Samoa; South America (I); Brazil, Colombia, French Guiana, Guyana, Surinam	-	JN990109	JQ041110	-	JQ041274
<i>Cratalaria vespertilio</i> Benth.	L. S. Kinoshita et al. 11182, Brazil (M)	South America (N); Brazil	KX390851	KX371772	-	-	-

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	matK	psbA-trnH	rbCL
<i>Crotalaria virgulata</i> Klotzsch	Schutte 451, South Africa (JRAU) B.-E. van Wyk 3060, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zaire, Zambia; Zimbabwe; Australia (U); Australia; South America (I); Brazil Africa (N): Namibia, South Africa	-	JQ067133	JQ041111	JQ067353	JQ041275
<i>Crotalaria virgulatis</i> DC.			JQ067143	JQ041112	-	-	JQ041276
<i>Crotalaria vitellina</i> Ker. Gawl.	M. F. Devechti MFD272, Brazil (SPF)	Caribbean (N): Caribbean-TRP; Central America (N): Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama; South America (N): Brazil, Colombia, Venezuela Asia (N): India, Sri Lanka	KX390852	KX371773	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria walkeri</i> Arn.	S. S. Subramanian et al. 1022, India (DUH)	Asia (N): India, Sri Lanka	-	JN90108	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria wightiana</i> Wight & Arn.	S. S. Subramanian et al. 1013, India (DUH)	Indian Ocean (N): Madagascar	-	JG945947	-	-	-
<i>Crotalaria xanthoclada</i> Benth.	Labat 2008, Madagascar (P)	Asia (N): China	-	JQ067283	JQ667487	-	JQ692941
<i>Crotalaria yunnanensis</i> Franch.	Forrest 28564, China (MO)	South America (N): Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay	KX390853	KX371774	-	-	-
<i>Cyclodium brasiliense</i> Benth. *	Ratter et al. 7431, locality unknown (E)	Africa (I): Canary Is., Madeira, Soth Africa; Asia (I): China, India, Japan, Russia in Asia; Australasia (I): Australia, Tasmania; Europe (N): Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Corsica, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia in Europe, Sardena, Slovakia, Slovenia, Switzerland, Ukraine, Yugoslavia; Indocean (I): Madagascar; North America (I): Canada, United States; Pacific Ocean (I): Antipodes Is., Chatham Is, Hawaii, New Zealand; South America (I): Argentina, Bolivia, Chile	-	AF287637	-	-	-
<i>Cytisus scoparius</i> (L.) Link	Unknown collector [MAF148134], Spain (MAF)	Africa (I): Canary Is., Madeira, Soth Africa; Asia (I): China, India, Japan, Russia in Asia; Australasia (I): Australia, Tasmania; Europe (N): Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Corsica, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia in Europe, Sardena, Slovakia, Slovenia, Switzerland, Ukraine, Yugoslavia; Indocean (I): Madagascar; North America (I): Canada, United States; Pacific Ocean (I): Antipodes Is., Chatham Is, Hawaii, New Zealand; South America (I): Argentina, Bolivia, Chile	-	AF351119	-	-	-
<i>Dicilus lebeckioides</i> DC. *	Schutte 151, locality unknown (JRAU)	Africa (N): Botswana, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zimbabwe	-	EU34789	-	-	-
<i>Diploploptis martiusii</i> Benth. *	Beck et al. 166, Brazil (US)	South America (N): Brazil, Colombia, Peru, Venezuela	-	AY553711	4	-	-
<i>Euchlora hispida</i> (Thunb.) Druce *	J. S. Boatwright 233, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): South Africa	-	JQ067345	-	-	-
<i>Ezoloba macrocarpa</i> (Eckl. & Zeyh.) B.-E. van Wyk & Boatwr.*	Helme 2076, South Africa (NBG)	Africa (N): South Africa	-	FMB7593	-	-	-
<i>Hapaloxe brasiliensis</i> Benth.	R. Schütz Rodrigues 1153, Brazil (RB)	South America (N): Brazil	-	KJ028470	5	-	-
<i>Hovea elliptica</i> (Sm.) DC.	M. D. Crisp 8924, locality unknown (CANB)	Australasia (N): Australia; Pacific Ocean (I): New Zealand	-	AF287640	-	-	-
<i>Lamprabolium fruticosum</i> Benth. *	Clarkson and Neldner 827; locality unknown (K)	Asia (I): India; Australasia (N): Australia	-	GQ25008	-	-	-
<i>Lebeckia brevicarpa</i> M.M.le Roux & B.-E. van Wyk	M. M. Le Roux et al. 4, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): South Africa	-	0	0	-	EU347933
<i>Lebeckia meyeriana</i> Eckl. & Zeyh.	B.-E. van Wyk 3009, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): South Africa	-	EU34785	0	-	EU347905
<i>Lebeckia sepiaria</i> (L.) Thunb.	M. M. Le Roux et al. 10, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): South Africa	-	EU34785	7	-	EU347936
<i>Leborda corymbosa</i> (E.Mey.) B.-E. van Wyk & Boatwr.	J. C. Scheepers 699, South Africa (M)	Africa (N): South Africa, Swaziland	-	KX390854	3	-	-
<i>Leborda digitata</i> (Harv.) B.-E. van Wyk & Boatwr.	ITS: B.-E. van Wyk 2350, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): South Africa	-	EU34777	-	-	EU348057
<i>Leborda longicephala</i> (B.-E. van Wyk) B.-E. van Wyk & Boatwr.	rbcl: B.-E. van Wyk 2342, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N): South Africa	2				
<i>Leborda 320, South Africa (M)</i>	M. Koekemoer 320, South Africa (M)	Africa (N): South Africa		KX390855	KX371776	-	-

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	mark	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Leobordea lotoidaea</i> Del. *	B.-E. van Wyk et al. 4204, locality unknown (JRAU)	Africa (N); Algeria, Angola, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Djibouti, Egypt, Ethiopia, Kenya, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Namibia, South Africa, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, Zimbabwe; Asia (N); India, Iran, Pakistan; Middle East(N); Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Yemen	-	EU34776 5	-	-	EU348003
<i>Leptolobium dasycarpum</i> Vogel*	L., P. de Queiroz 13973, Brazil (HUEFS) ITS: O. H. Volk 5172, Namibia (M) rbcl: B.-E. van Wyk et al. 4207, locality unknown (JRAU)	South America (N); Brazil Africa (N); Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zaire, Zambia, Zimbabwe	-	JX124514	-	-	EU348012
<i>Litsea heterophylla</i> E. Mey. *	B.-E. van Wyk 1478, locality unknown (JRAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	KX390856 KX371777	-	-	
<i>Lotononis alpina</i> (Eckl. & Zeyh.) B.-E. van Wyk	J. P. H. Acocca 19746, South Africa (M)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	AM26244 6	-	-	
<i>Lotononis gracilis</i> Benth.	ITS: B.-E. van Wyk 2873, locality unknown (JRAU) rbcl: J. S. Boatwright et al. 116, locality unknown (JRAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	KX390857 KX371778	-	-	EU347997
<i>Lotononis involucrata</i> (P.J.Bergius) Benth.	J. S. Boatwright et al. 185, South Africa (M)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	EU34780 5	-	-	EU347997
<i>Lotononis leptoloba</i> Bolus	ITS: J. S. Boatwright et al. 115, locality unknown (JRAU)	Africa (N); Namibia, South Africa	-	EU34775 7	-	-	EU348077
<i>Lotononis prostrata</i> (L.) Benth.	J. S. Boatwright et al. 116, locality unknown (JRAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	EU34780 8	-	-	EU348054
<i>Lotononis stricta</i> (Eckl. & Zeyh.) B.-E. van Wyk	ITS: B.-E. van Wyk 1718, locality unknown (JRAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	EU34779 3	-	-	EU348091
<i>Lotononis tenella</i> Eckl. & Zeyh.	Ecklon 1282, South Africa (B)	Africa (N); Lesotho, South Africa	-	KX371779	-	-	
<i>Lotononis trichopoda</i> (E. Mey.) Benth.	L. C. C. Liebenberg 7741, South Africa (M)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	KX390858 KX371780	-	-	
<i>Lupinus albus</i> L.*	C. Gröger 1401, Greece (M)	Africa (N); Algeria, Egypt, Kenya, Libya, Tanzania; Asia (I); Azerbaijan, China, Gruzia, India, Kirgizstan, Pakistan; Europe: Albania (N), Austria (I), Azores (I), Belarus (I), Bulgaria (N), Czech Republic (I), France (I), Germany (I), Great Britain (I), Greece (N), Hungary (I), Italy (I), Kirti (N), Lithuania (I), Moldova (I), Portugal (I), Romania (I), Russia in Europe (I), Sardegna (I), Slovakia (I), Spain (I), Switzerland (I), Turkey in Europe (I), Ukraine (I), Indian Ocean (I); Mauritius; Middle East: east Aegean Is (N), Israel (U), Jordan (U), Lebanon (I), Syria (I); Turkey in Asia (N); North America (I); United States, Pacific Ocean (I); New Zealand; South America (I); Argentina, Brazil	-	KX371781	-	-	
<i>Personaria sessilifolia</i> (Harv.) Dummer*	M. Weigend 2307, South Africa (M)	Africa (N); South Africa, Swaziland, Zimbabwe	-	KX390859 KX371782	-	-	
<i>Piptanthus nepalensis</i> Sweet*	Wang 0121, China (KUN)	Asia (N); Bhutan, China, India, Myanmar, Nepal; Europe (I); Great Britain	-	AF215922	-	-	
<i>Podalyria buxifolia</i> Willd.	J. S. Boatwright and Magee 34, South Africa (JRAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	AM26149 6	-	-	
<i>Poecilanthe falcatifolia</i> (Vell.) Heringer	De Lima 2, Brazil (RI)	South America (N); Brazil	-	AF467492	-	-	

Species name	Voucher information and geographical origin	Species distribution range	ETS	ITS	mark	psbA-trnH	rbcL
<i>Pothilia pollens</i> C.H.Stirt.	ITS: B.-E. van Wyk 2128 (RAU) rbcl: B.-E. van Wyk 2708, locality unknown (RAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	AM26245 3	-	-	EU347958
<i>Rajnia amplexiculis</i> Thunb.*			KX390860	KX371783	-	-	
<i>Rajnia capensis</i> (L.) Druce	P. Goldblatt 4026, South Africa (M)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	EU34774 2	-	-	
<i>Rajnia ovata</i> E.Mey.	J. S. Boatwright and Mage 26, South Africa (RAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	AJ744941	-	-	
<i>Roldiniphyton vanderystii</i> R.Wilczek*	Campbell and B.-E. van Wyk 128, South Africa (RAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	EU34787 8	-	-	EU347952
<i>Rothia indica</i> (L.) Druce	Lisowski 20326, locality unknown (K)	Africa (N); Angola, Zaire, Zambia	KX390861	-	-	-	
<i>Sophora tormentosa</i> L.*	Rattler s. n. [M-0242323], India (M)	Asia (N); India, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Sri Lanka, Vietnam; Australasia (U); Australia	-	AY725482	-	-	
	B. Skyes CHR 569752, Cook Islands. Plant in cultivation and not vouchered; Kate Boardman, database manager at Allan Herbarium, 18 July 2016, pers. communication	Africa (U); Ghana, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Mozambique, Nigeria, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Togo; Asia (N); Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Java, Malaysia, Moluccas, Myanmar, Pakistan, Philippines, Sabah, Sarawak, Sri Lanka, Sulawesi, Sumatra, Taiwan, Thailand, Vietnam; Australasia (N); Australia, Papua New Guinea; Caribbean (N); Bahamas, Cayman Is., Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica, Central America (N); Belize, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Indian Ocean (U); Andaman Is., Laccadive Is., Madagascar, Maldives, Mauritius, Nicobar Is., Rodriguez, Seychelles; North America (N); United States; Pacific Ocean (N); Bismarck Archipelago, Fiji, Gilbert Is., Marquesas, Marshall Is., Northern Marianas, Society Is., Solomon Is., Solomon Islands, South America (N); Argentina, Brazil, Colombia					
<i>Templetonia retusa</i> (Vent.) R.Br. *	M. D. Crisp 8996, Australia (CANB)	Australasia (N); Australia	-	AF287636	-	-	
<i>Wiborgia mucronata</i> (L.f.) Druce	S. Sointi s. n. [M-0242325], South Africa (M)	Africa (N); South Africa	KX390862	KX371784	-	-	KX083399
<i>Wiborgia obcordata</i> (P.J.Bergius) Thunb.*	J. S. Boatwright et al. 98, South Africa (RAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	EU34774 8	-	-	EU347972
<i>Wiborgia sericea</i> Thunb.	J. S. Boatwright et al. 124, South Africa (RAU)	Africa (N); South Africa	-	EU34775 5	-	-	EU347968
<i>Wiborgiella lepolitiana</i> (Schltr. ex R.Dahlgren) Boatw. & B.-E.van Wyk*	H. C. Taylor 11787, South Africa (M)	Africa (N); South Africa	KX390863	KX371785	-	-	KX083400

Additional file 4: Table S2: Primer sequences used in this study (listed 5'- to 3'-end) and applied protocols

Protocol	Reactants		Treatments			
	Gene or spacer region	Primer sequence (reference)	Pre-melt	Amplification	Final extention	Amplification cycles
PCR	<i>rbcL</i>					
		600f ATTATGCGTTGGAGAGACCG (Kocyan et al. 2007)	95°C (3 min)	95°C (30 sec) + 52°C (1 min) + 68°C (1 min)	68°C (10 min)	39
		800r CAATAACRGCATGCATYGCACGRT (Kocyan et al. 2007)				
	<i>psbA-trnH</i>					
		<i>psbA</i> GTTATGCATGAACGTAATGCTC (Sang et al. 1997)	95°C (3 min)	95°C (30 sec) + 52°C (1 min) + 68°C (1 min)	68°C (10 min)	39
	ITS region	<i>trnH</i> CGGGCATGGATTCAAAATC (Sang et al. 1997)				
		1 TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG (White et al. 1990)	95°C (3 min)	95°C (30 sec) + 54°C (1 min) + 68°C (1 min)	68°C (10 min)	39
		2 GCTCGTTCTCATCGATGC (White et al. 1990)				
		3 GCATCGATGAAGAACGCAGC (White et al. 1990)				
	ETS region	4 TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC (White et al. 1990)				
		28IF TGCTTCCATTGCTTGCTTGCCT (Cubas et al. 2010) (Genistae)	95°C (3 min)	95°C (30 sec) + 54°C (1 min) + 68°C (1 min)	68°C (10 min)	39
		18S-IGS GAGACAAGCATATGACTACTGGCAGGATCAAACCAG (Baldwin and Markos 1998)				
ExoSAP cleaning	For 4.0 µl PCR product: 0.03 µl Exonuclease I 0.3 µl Shrimp Alkaline Phosphatase		37°C (15 min) + 80°C (15 min) + 4°C (4 min)	-	-	-
	For every 3 µl ExoSAP cleaning product: 1.0 µl Big Dye, 1.5 µl sequencing buffer 5x, and 0.5 µl primer					
Cycle reaction (BigDye Terminator v3.0)			96°C (1 min)	96°C (10 sec) + 55°C (15 sec) + 60°C (4 min)		35

Additional file 5: Table S3. Species list with coding of sections; distribution areas; leaf and flower trait states; species' climate categories; number of GBIF records; and chromosome numbers

Species name	Sections Pohill (1982)	Sections Le Roux et al. (2013)	Region	Region	Region	Region	Leaf type	Leaf type binary	Keel	Calyx lobing	Calyx length	Köppen-Geiger categories	Köppen-Geiger major climate group	GBIF occurrences	2n
<i>Aspalathus chenopoda</i>	NA	NA	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Aspalathus fuscata</i>	NA	NA	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Aspalathus nivea</i>	NA	NA	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Bolusia amboensis</i>	NA	NA	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Calobota cylindroides</i>	NA	NA	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria abbreviata</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria aciculans</i>	6	4	3	4	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	26
<i>Crotalaria aculeata</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	58
<i>Crotalaria adamsonii</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria adenocarpoides</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	12	NA
<i>Crotalaria adolfii</i>	2	2	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	NA
<i>Crotalaria aegyptiaca</i>	6	4	1	NA	NA	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	5	63
<i>Crotalaria agatiflora</i>	1	11	1	NA	NA	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	147
<i>Crotalaria alata</i>	6	4	3	4	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	151
<i>Crotalaria albicaulis</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	2
<i>Crotalaria albitida</i>	6	4	3	4	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	157
<i>Crotalaria alexandri</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	20
<i>Crotalaria allophylla</i>	3	5	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria amara</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria angulata</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	11
<i>Crotalaria ankaranatra</i>	2	8	2	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	NA
<i>Crotalaria annua</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	3
<i>Crotalaria anomala</i>	3	1	2	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria anthyllopsis</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	23
<i>Crotalaria arenaria</i>	6	4	1	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	13
<i>Crotalaria argenteoamentosa</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3
<i>Crotalaria argyreia</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	2	30
<i>Crotalaria argyroboloides</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria aridicola</i>	8	6	4	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	2	130
<i>Crotalaria aristae</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria aristae</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	78
<i>Crotalaria assamica</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria atrorubens</i>	2	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	20
<i>Crotalaria aurea</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria avonensis</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria avolans</i>	7	7	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria axillifloroides</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	3	16
<i>Crotalaria baetica</i>	2	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria bahaensis</i>	1	11	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	2	16
<i>Crotalaria balansae</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	3	30
<i>Crotalaria ballyi</i>	5	7	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria barbata</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria barkae</i>	2	2	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria barnabassii</i>	1	11	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria bequaertii</i>	1	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	3	30
<i>Crotalaria beddomeana</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	NA

Species name	Sections Pohlill (1982)	Sections Le Roux et al. (2013)	Region 2	Region 3	Region 4	Leaf type	Leaf type binary	Keel lobing	Calyx length	Köppen-Geiger categories	Köppen-Geiger major climate group	GBIF occurrences	2n
<i>Crotalaria benedirensis</i>	3	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	7	2	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria bequaertii</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	1	12	3	25	NA
<i>Crotalaria bertioides</i>	7	6	3	4	NA	0	0	0	NA	NA	NA	24	2
<i>Crotalaria bifaria</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria boehmii</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	0	0	0	0	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria bogdaniana</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	1	28	NA
<i>Crotalaria boliviensis</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria bongensis</i>	4	1	1	NA	NA	1	1	0	0	1	1	36	NA
<i>Crotalaria baranica</i>	4	5	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	5	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria bossieri</i>	1	11	2	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	8	3	NA
<i>Crotalaria brachycarpa</i>	2	6	0	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria bracteata</i>	3	1	3	NA	NA	2	1	NA	NA	1	3	13	NA
<i>Crotalaria brevicornuta</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	1	1	0	0	1	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria brevidens</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	84	1
<i>Crotalaria breviflora</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	8	3	NA
<i>Crotalaria brevipedunculata</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria bipinnatifolia</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	NA	55	3
<i>Crotalaria buritia</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	5	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria burkeana</i>	2	2	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	7	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria burttii</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	17	1
<i>Crotalaria cajanifolia</i>	2	1	0	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	NA	238	NA
<i>Crotalaria callensis</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	3	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria calycina</i>	6	4	1	2	3	NA	0	1	1	0	0	0	1
<i>Crotalaria campostepala</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	1	1	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria capensis</i>	1	11	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	8	3	NA
<i>Crotalaria caprifolia</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	7	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria caudata</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	12	3	28
<i>Crotalaria cephalotes</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	1	0	3	1	120
<i>Crotalaria chaco-serranensis</i>	2	2	0	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	7	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria chinensis</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	24
<i>Crotalaria capitipes</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria callitrichoides</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	3	39	NA
<i>Crotalaria chrysotricha</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	5	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria cistoides</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	7	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria clarkei</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	3	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria clausenii</i>	2	1	0	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	NA	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria cleomifolia</i>	3	1	1	3	NA	3	1	0	0	1	3	82	NA
<i>Crotalaria colorata</i>	7	10	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	0	5	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria comanstiana</i>	3	6	1	NA	NA	3	1	0	0	1	7	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria concinna</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria cornu-ammonis</i>	2	7	2	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	NA	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria coursei</i>	3	1	2	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	8	3	42
<i>Crotalaria crassipedocarpa</i>	3	1	2	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	9	3	NA
<i>Crotalaria crispa</i>	6	4	4	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	3	1	193
<i>Crotalaria cunninghamii</i>	7	6	4	NA	NA	1	1	1	0	1	7	2	683

Species name	Sections Pohlill (1982)	Sections Le Roux et al. (2013)	Region	Region	Region	Region	Leaf type	Leaf type binary	Keel	Calyx lobing	Calyx length	Köppen-Geiger categories	Köppen-Geiger major climate group	GBIF occurrences	2n
<i>Crotalaria cuspidata</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	1	11	1
<i>Crotalaria cylindrica</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	7	2	2	18	NA
<i>Crotalaria cylindrostachys</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	1	1	0	0	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria cytoides</i>	3	1	3	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	NA	NA	NA	25	1
<i>Crotalaria damarensis</i>	2	7	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	7	2	2	58	NA
<i>Crotalaria decaryana</i>	3	1	2	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	39	NA
<i>Crotalaria dictyna</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	12	3	3	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria deserticola</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	1	81	1
<i>Crotalaria devillemaniana</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	1	45	1
<i>Crotalaria dinteri</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	5	2	2	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria diosmifolia</i>	2	8	2	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	13	3	3	40	NA
<i>Crotalaria distitiflora</i>	3	1	4	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	7	2	2	329	NA
<i>Crotalaria distans</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	7	2	2	96	NA
<i>Crotalaria distantiflora</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	1	32	1
<i>Crotalaria doligaeae</i>	1	11	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	7	2	2	18	NA
<i>Crotalaria dubia</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	12	3	3	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria duboissii</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	12	3	3	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria dumosa</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	5	2	2	11	NA
<i>Crotalaria dura</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	3	1	1	34	NA
<i>Crotalaria ebenoides</i>	2	1	1	NA	NA	1	1	0	0	0	NA	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria emarginata</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	2	1	1	31	NA
<i>Crotalaria emarginella</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria eminensis</i>	7	6	2	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria ephemera</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	12	3	3	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria epunctata</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	3	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria eremaea</i>	7	6	4	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	NA	1068	NA
<i>Crotalaria eremicola</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	5	2	2	33	NA
<i>Crotalaria evolutoides</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria excisa</i>	7	10	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	9	3	3	46	NA
<i>Crotalaria eximia</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	1	14	NA
<i>Crotalaria fascicularis</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria ferruginea</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	160	4
<i>Crotalaria fiberrensis</i>	1	11	2	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	1	50	NA
<i>Crotalaria filiculmis</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	12	3	3	14	NA
<i>Crotalaria filiformia</i>	2	NA	0	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	NA	33	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria filiformis</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria filipes</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	3	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria flavicarinata</i>	4	9	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	7	2	2	20	NA
<i>Crotalaria flavigena</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	3	1	1	10	1
<i>Crotalaria flavidora</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	1	0	12	3	3	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria friesii</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	12	3	3	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria fysoni</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	3	1	1	10	1
<i>Crotalaria gamwelliae</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	12	3	3	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria gatzensis</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	NA	12	NA	NA	NA

Species name	Sections Pohlill (1982)	Sections Le Roux et al. (2013)	Region	Region	Region	Leaf type	Leaf type binary	Keel lobing	Calyx length	Köppen-Geiger categories	Köppen-Geiger major climate group	GBIF occurrences	2n
<i>Crotalaria gilletii</i>	4	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria glauca</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	0	0	0	0	3	1	194	1
<i>Crotalaria glaucoidea</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	NA	NA	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria glauifera</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	9	3	78	NA
<i>Crotalaria goetzei</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	12	3	10	1
<i>Crotalaria goiacensis</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	0	0	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria godififormis</i>	2	2	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	3	1	1	75
<i>Crotalaria goreensis</i>	2	7	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	3	1	459
<i>Crotalaria grahamiana</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	3	1	1	0	1	3	1	40
<i>Crotalaria graminicola</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	50	NA
<i>Crotalaria grandiflora</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	3	29	NA
<i>Crotalaria greenwayi</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	36
<i>Crotalaria grevei</i>	1	11	2	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	55
<i>Crotalaria griffensis</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	2	20	NA
<i>Crotalaria harleyi</i>	2	1	0	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	3	1	24
<i>Crotalaria hebecarpa</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	3	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria heidmannii</i>	4	9	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	5	2	33
<i>Crotalaria hemsleyi</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria heyneana</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	3	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria hilariana</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	3	30	NA
<i>Crotalaria hirsuta</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	3	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria hirta</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	7	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria holosericea</i>	2	1	0	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	2	1	103
<i>Crotalaria humbertiana</i>	7	6	2	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	7	2	19
<i>Crotalaria humiliosa</i>	6	4	3	4	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	44
<i>Crotalaria humilis</i>	7	10	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	5	1	1	3
<i>Crotalaria hyssopifolia</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	91
<i>Crotalaria ibityensis</i>	3	1	2	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria impressa</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	NA	NA	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria incana</i>	2	2	5	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	5	2	1	1136
<i>Crotalaria incrassifolia</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	5	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria inopinata</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria involutifolia</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	0	0	0	0	12	3	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria irtingana</i>	3	1	0	NA	NA	1	1	0	0	1	3	1	10
<i>Crotalaria invilii</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria juncea</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	321
<i>Crotalaria kargvensis</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	0	0	1	0	3	1	13	NA
<i>Crotalaria keniensis</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	40
<i>Crotalaria khasiana</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria kipandensis</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	1	1	0	1	12	3	25	1
<i>Crotalaria juncea</i>	6	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	NA
<i>Crotalaria kirkii</i>	3	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	2	NA
<i>Crotalaria kurtii</i>	6	4	3	4	NA	0	0	1	1	7	2	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria kurzii</i>	6	11	1	2	3	4	2	1	0	12	3	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria laburnifolia</i>	1									1	3	1	348

Species name	Sections Pohlill (1982)	Sections Le Roux et al. (2013)	Region	Region	Region	Region	Leaf type	Leaf type binary	Keel	Calyx lobing	Calyx length	Köppen-Geiger categories	Köppen-Geiger major climate group	GBIF occurrences	2n
<i>Crotalaria laburnoides</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	1	62	1
<i>Crotalaria lachnocarpoides</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	3	1	1	105	1
<i>Crotalaria lachnophora</i>	2	7	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	3	1	1	64	1
<i>Crotalaria laeta</i>	2	8	0	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	3	1	1	18	1
<i>Crotalaria levigata</i>	3	1	2	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria lanceolata</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	3	1	1	442	1
<i>Crotalaria lasiocarpa</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	3	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria latyrhoides</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	1	34	NA
<i>Crotalaria laxiflora</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	1	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria leandriana</i>	1	11	2	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	9	3	3	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria lebeckioides</i>	1	11	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	6	2	2	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria lebrunii</i>	1	11	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria lepidissima</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria lepteurii</i>	4	9	1	NA	NA	1	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria linearfoliata</i>	5	3	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	1	0	5	2	2	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria linifolia</i>	6	4	2	3	NA	0	0	0	1	0	NA	NA	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria longidens</i>	1	11	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	7	2	2	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria longipes</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	0	1	3	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria longirostrata</i>	7	6	0	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	173
<i>Crotalaria latifolia</i>	7	6	0	NA	NA	2	1	1	1	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	11
<i>Crotalaria latifolia</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria latiformis</i>	3	2	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	13	3	3	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria latoides</i>	2	7	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	7	2	2	50	NA
<i>Crotalaria lukwangulensis</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	1	31	NA
<i>Crotalaria lunulata</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	0	1	3	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria luondeensis</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria lutescens</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	0	1	3	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria macrocarpa</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	8	3	3	17	NA
<i>Crotalaria madurensis</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	0	1	3	1	1	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria magaliesbergensis</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria matafensis</i>	7	6	2	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	7	2	2	13	NA
<i>Crotalaria mairei</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria malindiensis</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	2	1	1	11	NA
<i>Crotalaria maritima</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	3	1	1	60	3
<i>Crotalaria massaiensis</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	1	24	3
<i>Crotalaria mauenensis</i>	2	2	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	0	9	3	3	16	0
<i>Crotalaria medicaginea</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1559	1
<i>Crotalaria melanocalyx</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	13	3	3	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria mesopontica</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	1	47	1
<i>Crotalaria meyerana</i>	7	10	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	4	2	2	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria micans</i>	2	7	0	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	8	3	3	662	1
<i>Crotalaria microcarpa</i>	4	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	1	187	NA
<i>Crotalaria microphylla</i>	4	5	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	0	5	2	2	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria microthamnus</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	3	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria mildbraedii</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	9	3	3	15	NA

Species name	Sections Pohlill (1982)		Sections Le Roux et al. (2013)		Region		Region		Leaf type		Leaf type binary		Keel lobing		Calyx length		Köppen-Geiger categories		Köppen-Geiger major climate group		GBIF occurrences		2n	
	Sections Pohlill (1982)	Sections Le Roux et al. (2013)	Region	Region	Region	Region	Region	Region	leaf	type	leaf	type	Keel	lobing	Calyx	length	Köppen-Geiger categories	Köppen-Geiger major climate group	GBIF occurrences		2n			
<i>Crotalaria miottoae</i>	2	8	0	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	3	3	1	NA	NA	NA	1		
<i>Crotalaria miranda</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	3	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA		
<i>Crotalaria mitchellii</i>	3	1	4	NA	NA	NA	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	319	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria mollicula</i>	2	NA	0	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	108	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria monophylla</i>	4	9	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria montana</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	1077	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria monteiroi</i>	1	11	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	117	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria mortonii</i>	2	1	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	1	0	0	1	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria mudugensis</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	1	1	0	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria muenzneri</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	11	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria multiflora</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria myorense</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	NA	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	30	1	NA			
<i>Crotalaria nigrans</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria nana</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	1	207	3	NA			
<i>Crotalaria natallitiae</i>	2	7	1	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	1	178	1	NA			
<i>Crotalaria novae-hollandiae</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	23	3	NA			
<i>Crotalaria neglecta</i>	NA	NA	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria nigricans</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	1	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria nitens</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0			
<i>Crotalaria notabilis</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	NA	2	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria novae-hollandiae</i>	7	6	4	NA	NA	NA	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	7	2	2	2	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria obscura</i>	2	2	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	3	3	1	37	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria obtecta</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria ochroleuca</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	105	1	NA			
<i>Crotalaria oligosperma</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	5	2	2	2	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria ononoides</i>	2	1	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	1	116	1	NA			
<i>Crotalaria oocarpa</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	9	3	3	1	26	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria orientalis</i>	4	9	1	NA	NA	NA	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	7	2	2	2	19	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria orixensis</i>	6	4	1	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria orthodala</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	1	15	1	NA			
<i>Crotalaria ototropa</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria pallida</i>	3	1	5	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	1092	1	NA			
<i>Crotalaria pallidicaulis</i>	1	11	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	12	3	3	1	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria panuia</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	12	3	3	1	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria poseynioides</i>	8	6	0	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria paulina</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	8	3	3	1	69	3	NA			
<i>Crotalaria pertieri</i>	2	8	2	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	9	3	3	1	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria persica</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	5	2	2	2	15	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria phyllobola</i>	2	2	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria pilosa</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	1	122	3	NA			
<i>Crotalaria pilosiflora</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	12	3	3	1	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria pisicarpa</i>	2	1	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	7	2	2	2	46	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria pleiophylla</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	NA	3	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria plowdenii</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	13	3	3	1	12	NA	NA			
<i>Crotalaria podocarpa</i>	2	7	1	NA	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	7	2	2	2	122	1	NA			

Species name	Sections Pojarkov (1982)		Sections Le Roux et al. (2013)		Region 2	Region 3	Region 4	Leaf type	Leaf type binary	Keel lobing	Calyx length	Köppen-Geiger categories	Köppen-Geiger major climate group		GBIF occurrences	2n
	Sections Pojarkov (1982)	Sections Le Roux et al. (2013)	Region	Region									2			
<i>Crotalaria poisonii</i>	7	6	2	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	1	NA	NA	10	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria poliflilli</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	0	NA	NA	NA	3	1
<i>Crotalaria polyphylla</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	0	1	1	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria prittwitzii</i>	2	7	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	3	1	1	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria prolongata</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	1	12	3	3	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria prostrata</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	18	1
<i>Crotalaria pseudoditroploensis</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	1	3	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria pseudotenuirama</i>	8	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	1	1	0	3	1	1	25	NA
<i>Crotalaria pulchra</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	0	1	0	3	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria pumila</i>	7	6	0	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	1	NA	NA	NA	465	3
<i>Crotalaria puririiana</i>	7	6	0	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	1	NA	NA	12	NA	12
<i>Crotalaria pusillii</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	18	3	3
<i>Crotalaria pusilla</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	0	1	1	0	3	1	1	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria pyrostachya</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	0	13	3	3	84	1
<i>Crotalaria quartifolia</i>	2	2	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	0	0	NA	NA	0	NA	0
<i>Crotalaria queretorum</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	71	3	3
<i>Crotalaria quinquefolia</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	3	1	1	0	1	0	NA	NA	35	1	1
<i>Crotalaria ramosissima</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	3	1	1	247	1
<i>Crotalaria recta</i>	4	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	1	0	1	3	1	1	142	1
<i>Crotalaria reptans</i>	2	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria retusa</i>	7	6	5	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	12	3	3	1108	1
<i>Crotalaria rhodesiae</i>	2	7	1	NA	NA	3	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria rogersii</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	24	1
<i>Crotalaria rubiginosa</i>	NA	NA	3	NA	NA	0	0	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria rufipila</i>	2	1	0	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	15	1
<i>Crotalaria redovskii</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria sagittalis</i>	6	4	0	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	1	571	3
<i>Crotalaria saharae</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	3	1	0	0	1	0	NA	NA	13	1	1
<i>Crotalaria salicifolia</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	1	1	0	1	0	3	1	1	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria saltana</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	0	5	2	2	NA	NA
<i>Crotalaria sandonensis</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	0	0	1
<i>Crotalaria sasshellati</i>	7	6	1	NA	NA	2	1	1	0	1	1	2	1	1	145	1
<i>Crotalaria sempervirens</i>	7	6	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	11	NA	17
<i>Crotalaria smithiana</i>	2	8	1	NA	NA	2	1	0	0	1	0	7	2	2	NA	231
<i>Crotalaria sessiliflora</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	1	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria sibirica</i>	NA	NA	3	NA	NA	0	0	2	1	1	1	NA	NA	145	1	1
<i>Crotalaria shirensis</i>	4	9	1	NA	NA	0	0	0	1	0	1	NA	NA	17	NA	17
<i>Crotalaria spectabilis</i>	3	1	4	NA	NA	0	0	0	1	0	1	NA	NA	222	1	1
<i>Crotalaria speciosa</i>	3	1	1	NA	NA	0	0	0	1	0	1	7	2	2	NA	187
<i>Crotalaria spectabilis</i>	7	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	12	3	3	222	1
<i>Crotalaria sphaerocarpa</i>	4	9	1	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	1	NA	1
<i>Crotalaria spinosa</i>	6	4	3	NA	NA	0	0	1	1	0	1	NA	NA	1	NA	1

Chapter 3

LECTOTYPIFICATIONS AND TAXONOMIC CHANGES IN BRAZILIAN *CROTALARIA* L. (LEGUMINOSAE).

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Lectotypifications and taxonomic changes in Brazilian *Crotalaria* L. (Leguminosae)

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As part of a revision of the species of *Crotalaria* L. (Papilioideae, Crotalarieae) occurring in Brazil, eleven lectotypifications are proposed for: *Crotalaria acutiflora* Benth., *Crotalaria depauperata* Mart. ex Benth., *Crotalaria holosericea* Nees & Mart., *Crotalaria holosericea* var. *grisea* Benth., *Crotalaria laeta* Mart. ex Benth., *Crotalaria leptophylla* Benth., *Crotalaria rufipila* Benth., *Crotalaria unifoliolata* Benth., *Crotalaria vitellina* Ker-Gawl., *Crotalaria vitellina* var. *glabrata* Benth., and *Crotalaria vitellina* var. *minor* Benth. Four new synonyms are also proposed.

Keywords: Crotalarieae, Fabaceae, Neotropics, Papilioideae, synonym, taxonomy, typification

Introduction

The pantropical genus *Crotalaria* Linnaeus (1753: 714) comprises approximately 700 species and together with 15 other genera belongs to the mainly African tribe Crotalarieae (Van Wyk 2005; Boatwright *et al.* 2011). Forty-two species are recorded for Brazil, of which 31 are native and 17 endemic (Flores & Tozzi 2008). The morphological key features of *Crotalaria* are a rostrate keel, a hairy style, monadelphous androecium and dimorphic stamens in a 5+5 configuration, paired callosities on the standard petal blade and claw, inflated pods, and simple or compound (unifoliolate, digitately tri- or multifoliolate) leaves (Polhill 1982; Flores & Tozzi 2008; Le Roux *et al.* 2013).

During his taxonomic treatment of *Crotalaria* for the Flora Neotropica, the late Donald Windler (1940–2012) studied the collections of several European herbaria in which he assigned material as lectotypes. However, neither his floristic treatment nor the lectotypifications have been published. As part of a revision of Brazilian *Crotalaria* we propose eleven lectotypifications, adopting the lectotypification assignments made by Windler (as noted on his determination labels) that we found reasonable. However, in some cases we differ from his assignments. We also have synonymized four names in the course of this work.

Crotalaria grandiflora Bentham (1839: 429).

Crotalaria acutiflora var. *grandiflora* (Benth.) Bentham (1859: 23).

Type:—BRAZIL. “Near Cercado”, s.d., J.B.E. Pohl 1124 (holotype W0052805!).

Crotalaria divaricata Bentham (1839: 429), *syn. nov.*

Type:—BRAZIL. “Rio Reazon”, s.d., J.B.E. Pohl s.n. (holotype K000500583!; isotypes FV0077377!, NY00006683!).

Crotalaria acutiflora Bentham (1843: 482).

Lectotype (designated here):—BRAZIL. “Chapada Santa Cruz”, 1836, J.B.E. Pohl s.n. (K000500593!).

Lectotype image: <http://specimens.kew.org/herbarium/K000500593>.

In the protologue of *Crotalaria acutiflora*, Bentham (1843) mentioned material collected by Pohl and Vauthier in Brazil as “*C. breviflora*, Benth. in *Herb. Mus. Vind. MS. non DC.*”. While the material of Vauthier could not be found, the Pohl material

in K and W was analyzed. Windler assigned the material W0052804 as lectotype of *C. acutiflora*. We disagree with this choice, however, as this material comprises two specimens mounted on one sheet, stating three collection numbers (“2898, 1125 and 1123”), and three locations (“*Chapada S. Cruz, Megaponte & S. Luzia*”). This makes the mutual assignment of specimens, collection numbers, and locations impossible. On the other hand, the material in the K herbarium (K000500593) is unambiguous by stating only one location and collection number. In addition, it carries Bentham’s handwriting and, in agreement with the protologue, was labeled “*C. breviflora* Herb. Mus. Vin.”. Thus, we hereby designate this material as lectotype.

Windler & Skinner (1982) considered *Crotalaria acutiflora* and *C. grandiflora* as a single taxon, while Bentham (1859) had treated *C. grandiflora* as a variety of *C. acutiflora*, and considered *C. divaricata* as a distinct species. His distinction was based on vegetative pubescence, being sericeous in *C. acutiflora* and tomentose in *C. divaricata*. Studying the type material led us to the conclusion that the different types of pubescence are not sufficiently distinguishable to segregate two different taxa. We therefore synonymize *C. divaricata* under *C. grandiflora*.

***Crotalaria holosericea* Nees & Martius in Wied-Neuwied *et al.* (1824: 26).**

Lectotype (designated here):—BRAZIL. “Circa Barra da Vareda”, s.d., *M. Wied-Neuwied s.n.* (BR6584061!; isolectotype BR8423450!).

Lectotype image: <http://www.br.fgov.be/RESEARCH/COLLECTIONS/HERBARIUM/detail.php?ID=440743>.

Crotalaria holosericea var. *grisea* Bentham (1859: 30).

Lectotype (designated here):—BRAZIL. “In prov. Piauhiensis campis prope Oeiras et alibi”, s.d., *C.F.P. Martius s.n.* (M0187170!).

Lectotype image: <http://plants.jstor.org/stable/10.5555/al.ap.specimen.m0187170>.

In the protologue of *Crotalaria holosericea*, Nees & Martius (1824: 26) cited material from the locations “*Circa Barra da Vareda*” and “*in campis Provinciae Piauhiensis*”. No material from the latter location could be found, but the locality stated on the identification label of the Wied-Neuwied syntype in the BR herbarium (BR6584061) “*Barra da Vareda, in prov. Min. confin. orient.*” agrees with the original description. In accordance with Windler’s assignment, we designate it here as lectotype.

Bentham (1859) defined *Crotalaria holosericea* var. *grisea* as an intermediate form between *C. clauseni* and *C. holosericea*. The description was based on the following syntypes: Brazil, “*in prov. Piauhiensis campis prope Oeiras et alibi: M.*” (collected by Martius), and “*circa Oeiras frequens et ad rivulum prope Boa Esperanza: Gardner 2104 et 2105*”. In agreement with Windler’s assignment, we designate the collection of Martius as lectotype since it displays most completely the defining morphological characters.

***Crotalaria laeta* Martius ex Bentham (1859: 30).**

Crotalaria vitellina var. *laeta* (Mart. ex Benth.) Windler & S.G. Skinner (1982: 186).

Lectotype (designated here):—BRAZIL. “Prov. Piauhy. Brasilia tropica”, 1839, *G. Gardner 2103* (K000187675!; isolectotypes BM000900983!, L0005768!, P02731906!).

Lectotype image: <http://specimens.kew.org/herbarium/K000187675>.

In the protologue of *Crotalaria laeta*, Bentham (1859) mentioned two collections: “*Habitat in pascuis amoensis serenis prov. Piauhiensis: M*” and “*Gardner n. 2103*”. Windler assigned the material in M (collected by Martius) as lectotype. Although this material actually corresponds to *C. laeta*, it was also included by Bentham (1859) among the syntypes of *C. vitellina* var. *glabrata*. As the material of Gardner in K most closely resembles the original description and is more complete as it has flowers and fruits, we designate it here as lectotype.

***Crotalaria maypurensis* Kunth (1824: 403).**

Type:—VENEZUELA. “*Crescit in ripa Orinoci, prope Maypures*”, s.d., *A.J.A. Bonpland & F.W.H.A. von Humboldt s.n.* (holotype P00660097!).

Crotalaria depauperata Martius ex Bentham (1859: 30).

Crotalaria maypurensis var. *depauperata* (Mart. ex Benth.) Windler & Skinner (1982: 186).

Lectotype (designated here):—BRAZIL. “*in Chapada prope Capelinha ejusdem prov.*”, s.d., *A. de St. Hilaire 193* (K000500581!).

Lectotype image: <http://specimens.kew.org/herbarium/K000500581>.

Crotalaria leptophylla Bentham (1839: 430).

Lectotype (designated here):—GUYANA. “Savannahs of the Rupunoony”, s.d., *R. Schomburgk s.n.* (K000500566! [specimen on the right side of sheet]).

Lectotype image: <http://specimens.kew.org/herbarium/K000500566>.

Crotalaria depauperata was described on the basis of four collections: “*Habitat in alpestribus tractus Adamantini Serra de S. Antonio dicti prov. Minarum: M.*”, “*in Chapada prope Capellinha ejusdem prov.: A. de St. Hilaire*”, “*in prov. Goyazensis campis arenosis; Gardner 4113*”, and “*ad Ribeirão da Prata: Pohl*”. All this material has been located and analyzed. Avendaño (2011) assigned the St. Hilaire material in K (K000500581) as lectotype of *C. depauperata*, referring to the additional specimen identification “lectotype” label assigned by Windler in 1980. We agree with this assessment and thus here formalize the choice of this material as lectotype of *C. depauperata*.

In his original description, Bentham (1839) cited the following syntypes for *Crotalaria leptophylla* “*Savannahs of the Rupunoony. Schomburgk.*” and “*On the Rio Preto, in Brasil. Pohl.*” The Pohl material has not been located, but we have studied Schomburgk’s collections in the Kew herbarium. Windler assigned the material K000500565 as lectotype of *C. leptophylla*. We disagree with this assignment since the material K000500566 is the single specimen with the exact locality given in the protologue stated on its identification label. Therefore we here designate the latter material as lectotype.

Crotalaria rufipila Bentham (1859: 28).

Lectotype (designated here):—BRAZIL. “In saxosis Serra da Piedade” s.d., *L. Riedel 586* (K000500557! [specimen on the right side of sheet]).

Lectotype image: <http://specimens.kew.org/herbarium/K000500557>.

Bentham (1859) cited the syntypes “*Habitat in prov. Minarum district Adamantium: Gardn. n. 4505.*”, “*in saxosis Serra da Piedade: Riedel*”, “*in campis editis ad Ouro Preto: M.*”, and “*in eadem prov.: A. de St. Hilare*”. In 1980, Windler labeled the collection of Riedel, deposited in K (K000500557, specimen on the right side of sheet), as his choice for the designation of a lectotype of *C. rufipila*, which we formally designate here.

Crotalaria unifoliolata Bentham (1839: 430).

Lectotype (designated here):—BRAZIL. “Near Oretiro”, s.d., *J.B.E. Pohl 1078* (K000500552!; isolectotype W0057044!).

Lectotype image: <http://specimens.kew.org/herbarium/K000500552>.

Bentham (1839) referred to two collections when describing this species: “*Brasil. Schücht*” and “*Near Oretiro. Pohl*”. The Schücht material could not be located. The Pohl material was found in the herbaria K and W. Windler assigned the material in K (K500552) as lectotype of *C. unifoliolata*. In agreement with Windler’s previous assignment, we designate it here as lectotype.

Crotalaria vitellina Ker-Gawler (1820: 447).

Lectotype (designated here):—[Illustration in] Ker Gawler (1820: pl. 447) “The drawing was taken in the hothouse at the nursery of Messrs. Colville, in the King’s Road, Chelsea, where the plant flowers freely and produces seed”, “We are informed that this plant has been only lately introduced from the Brazils”.

Lectotype image: [http://www.biodiversitylibrary.org/page/130909#page/41 mode/1up](http://www.biodiversitylibrary.org/page/130909#page/41	mode/1up).

Crotalaria vitellina var. *glabrata* Bentham (1859: 29), *syn. nov.*

Lectotype (designated here):—BRAZIL. “Sta Catharina”, 1820, *A. de St. Hilaire 1719 (catal. C2)*. (P00758473!).

Lectotype image: <http://mediaphoto.mnhn.fr/media/1441328962671FhOX5W197q7K3Hia>.

Crotalaria vitellina var. *minor* Bentham (1859: 29), *syn. nov.*

Lectotype (designated here):—BRAZIL. “Serra de Araripe”, 1839, *G. Gardner 2411* (K000187977!).

Lectotype image: <http://specimens.kew.org/herbarium/K000187977>.

Crotalaria vitellina var. *oblongifolia* Bentham (1859: 29), *syn. nov.*

Type:—BRAZIL. “In Brasilia orientali”, 1845, *F.C. Raben s.n.* (holotype not located; isotype C10012078!).

According to Ker-Gawler (1820), the description of *Crotalaria vitellina* was based on a cultivated plant originating from Brazil. However, Ker-Gawler did not cite a type collection and no original plant material of *C. vitellina* has been located. We consider the colored illustration (1820: pl. 447) in the protologue to represent part of the original material of *C. vitellina*. It is assumed that the plate is the only surviving original material and we hereby designate it as lectotype.

Bentham (1859) described three varieties of *C. vitellina*, based on the size and pubescence of legume, and leaflet form. He characterized *C. vitellina* var. *glabrata* by having glabrous legumes (vs. sericeous-pubescent in *C. vitellina* var. *vitellina*), *C. vitellina* var. *minor* by its oval or oboval and obtuse leaflets, numerous smaller flowers, and legumes of 1.6–2.2 cm in length (vs. oval-lanceolate leaflets and legumes of 2.5–3.75 cm in *C. vitellina* var. *vitellina*), and *C. vitellina* var. *oblongifolia* by having oblong and obtuse leaflets (vs. oval-lanceolate leaflets in *C. vitellina* var. *vitellina*). Bentham (1859) mentioned numerous smaller flowers in *C. vitellina* var. *minor* and “*flores mediocres v. inter minores*” in *C. vitellina* var. *vitellina*, but no flower size was provided in his description.

Examining a large set of specimens of *C. vitellina* throughout its neotropical distribution range, neither completely glabrous nor mature pods shorter than 2 cm were found. Pods generally are puberulent (with few short and adpressed trichomes) or glabrescent, and 2–3 cm in length. In addition, the leaflet form varies between oblong and elliptic in the same individual (elliptic being predominant). As we have not been able to detect additional diagnostic characters for each variety, we thus recognize a single taxon, *C. vitellina*, and place the three Bentham varieties in synonymy.

In his description of *C. vitellina* var. *glabrata*, Bentham (1859) cited various syntypes: “*ad Rio Jequetinhonha et in prov. Matto Grosso: Pohl*”, “*prope Paratinga prov. S. Pauli*”, “*in pascuis amoensis prov. Piauiensis: M*” and “*ad S. Catharina et prope Rio de Janeiro (forma foliolis majoribus): St. Hilaire*”. We do not agree with Windlers assignment of a flowering collection of Pohl s.n. “*ad Rio Jequetinhonha*” in the K herbarium (K000500542) as the lectotype of *C. vitellina* var. *glabrata*, because this specimen does not have fruits (glabrous pods are the only defining character of this variety). The syntypes collected by Martius and St. Hilaire have glabrescent fruits, whose short trichomes are mostly found near their base and apex. All Martius syntypes correspond to *C. laeta* by having wings shorter than the keel (in *C. vitellina* wings are as long as or longer than the keel). Among the material of Saint Hilaire deposited in P are several specimens from Rio de Janeiro that cannot be clearly assigned as original material. However, one specimen from the state Santa Catarina was labeled “*C. vitellina* var. *latifolia*” by Bentham. This variety is unpublished and Bentham supposedly referred to this material in the protologue as “*forma foliolis majoribus*” from Saint Hilaire’s collection. Furthermore, this specimen includes mature seed pods. We therefore designate it here as the lectotype of *C. vitellina* var. *glabrata*.

When describing *C. vitellina* var. *minor*, Bentham (1859) cited the following collections: “*in prov. Minarum: Claussen*”, “*In locis saxosis ejusdem prov.: St Hilaire*”, “*in prov. Rio de Janeiro prope Macahe et Praya Grande Gardner n. 1930*” and “*in prov. Cearensi prope Crato: Gardner n. 2411*”. In agreement with Windler’s previous assignment, we designate the Gardner material in K (K000187977) as lectotype of this variety.

Bentham (1859) described *C. vitellina* var. *oblongifolia* based on the material “*In Brasilia orientali: Raben (specimen mancum)*”. We understand that the material analyzed by Bentham is an incomplete or a poorly preserved specimen. On the other hand, it was found in C herbarium a complete and well-preserved specimen collected by Raben in Brazil. This specimen has oblong leaflets similar to that described by Bentham for *C. vitellina* var. *oblongifolia*. We assume that it is an isotype of this variety and the holotype remains to be located.

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Chapter 4

CHROMOSOME NUMBER REDUCTION IN THE SISTER CLADE OF *CARICA PAPAYA* WITH CONCOMITANT GENOME SIZE DOUBLING.

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Chromosome number reduction in the sister clade of *Carica papaya* with concomitant genome size doubling¹

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Premise of the Study: Caricaceae include six genera and 34 species, among them papaya, a model species in plant sex chromosome research. The family was held to have a conserved karyotype with $2n = 18$ chromosomes, an assumption based on few counts. We examined the karyotypes and genome size of species from all genera to test for possible cytogenetic variation.

Methods: We used fluorescent in situ hybridization using standard telomere, 5S, and 45S rDNA probes. New and published data were combined with a phylogeny, molecular clock dating, and C values (available for ~50% of the species) to reconstruct genome evolution.

Key Results: The African genus *Cylicomorpha*, which is sister to the remaining Caricaceae (all neotropical), has $2n = 18$, as do the species in two other genera. A Mexican clade of five species that includes papaya, however, has $2n = 18$ (papaya), $2n = 16$ (*Horovitzia cniodescoloides*), and $2n = 14$ (*Jarilla caudata* and *J. heterophylla*; third *Jarilla* not counted), with the phylogeny indicating that the dysploidy events occurred ~16.6 and ~5.5 million years ago and that *Jarilla* underwent genome size doubling (~450 to 830–920 Mbp/haploid genome). Pericentromeric interstitial telomere repeats occur in both *Jarilla* adjacent to 5S rDNA sites, and the variability of 5S rDNA sites across all genera is high.

Conclusions: On the basis of outgroup comparison, $2n = 18$ is the ancestral number, and repeated chromosomal fusions with simultaneous genome size increase as a result of repetitive elements accumulating near centromeres characterize the papaya clade. These results have implications for ongoing genome assemblies in Caricaceae.

Key Words: Brassicales; Caricaceae; descending dysploidy; FISH; genome size doubling; interstitial telomere repeats

On the basis of gene synteny, the ancestor of all Caricaceae, a small family in the order Brassicales, underwent a single whole-genome duplication event (Tang et al., 2008), and chromosome numbers (Rice et al., 2015) and genome sizes (Gschwend et al., 2013) appear to have been stable since. In the related family Brassicaceae, of about the same age but with 10 times as many species, there is evidence of much transposable element amplification and polyploidy, yet a narrow range of small genome sizes over long evolutionary time periods (Lysak et al., 2009). In addition, synteny suggests that Brassicaceae have undergone at least three ancestral polyploidization events (Tang et al., 2008); there are no data for any within-Cariaceae genome duplications yet. The assumption of stability in chromosome number and genome size, however, is based on data from just three (*Carica*, *Jacaratia*, and

Vasconcellea) of the family's six genera. Genome size stability cannot be extrapolated from chromosome number variation or the other way around, as recently documented again for *Carex* (Escudero et al., 2015).

The six genera of Caricaceae comprise 34 species occurring in tropical Africa and Central and South America (Carvalho, 2013 onward). Papaya (*Carica papaya*) is an important tree crop (FAO, 2016) that originated in southern Mexico, and molecular data show that its sister clade consists of the monotypic genus *Horovitzia*, endemic to southern Mexico, and *Jarilla*, three species of herbs endemic to Mexico and Guatemala (Carvalho and Renner, 2012, 2013). Sister to all New World Caricaceae is an African genus (*Cylicomorpha*) with two species. A draft of the papaya genome became available in 2008 (Ming et al., 2008), and since then, considerable effort has gone into understanding the sex chromosomes of *C. papaya* (Liu et al., 2004; Wu et al., 2010; VanBuren et al., 2015). Using 22 BACs distributed along the papaya X and Y chromosome, Iovene et al. (2015) identified homologous chromosome pairs in *Jacaratia spinosa* and *Vasconcellea parviflora*.

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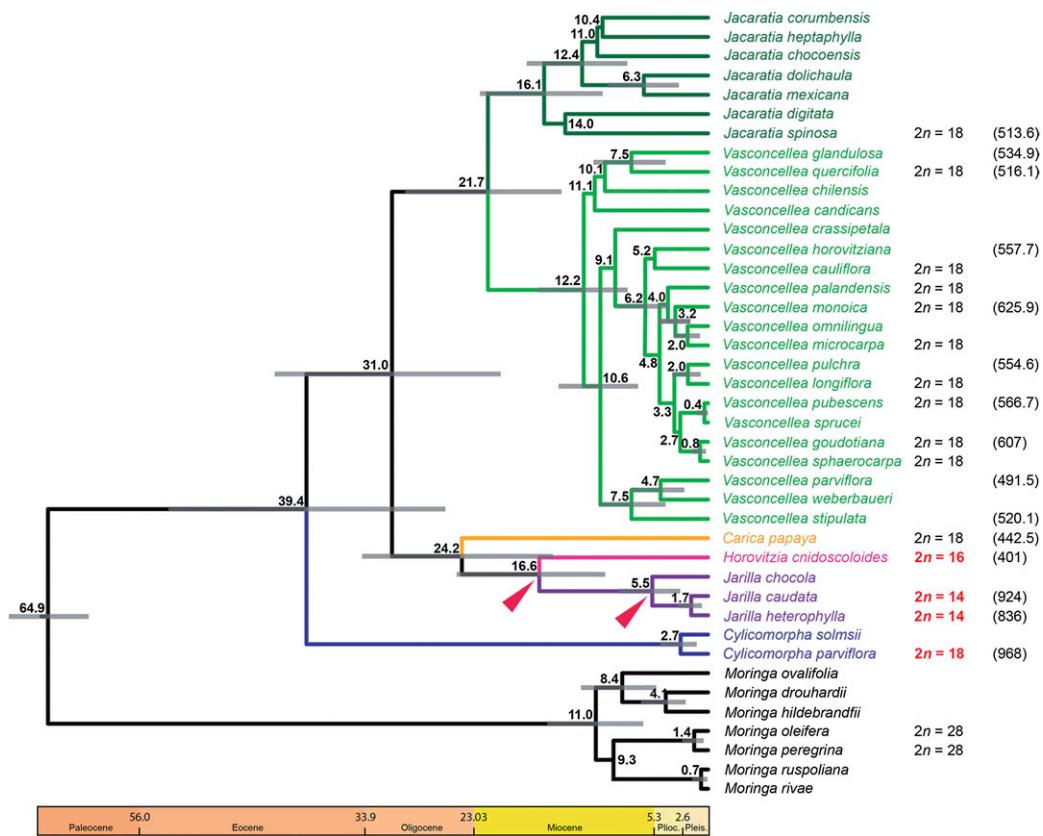


FIGURE 1 Evolutionary relationships within Caricaceae. Branch lengths are proportional to time, and values at nodes indicate divergence times in million years, with bars indicating 95% posterior probability intervals. Chromosome numbers of species with newly counted chromosome numbers are in bold and in red. Chromosome numbers for *Moringa oleifera* are from Silva et al. (2011) and the Chromosome Counts Database (Rice et al., 2015), and for *Moringa peregrina* from Nazari et al. (2012). Values in brackets refer to genome size ranges in millions of base pairs (Mbp) per haploid genome. Arrowheads indicate inferred events of descending dysploidy. The geological time scale is million years and follows Walker et al. (2012).

In spite of the focus on Caricaceae as a model group for the evolution of sex chromosomes, the family has received little attention from molecular cytogeneticists, perhaps because of its assumed conservativeness. Five species have been studied with FISH; Costa et al. (2008) found variation in the number and position of 18S and 5S rDNA sites between *C. papaya*, *V. goudotiana*, and *V. pubescens* (under its synonym *V. cundinamarcensis*), and Iovene et al. (2015), using several BAC clones that were previously mapped to the papaya X/Y chromosomes, found that the presumed sex chromosomes of *J. spinosa* are homomorphic and pair completely. In other species, chromosomes had been counted with traditional means, and all were reported to have a diploid number of $2n = 18$ (Appendix S1, see Supplemental Data with the online version of this article). The remaining three genera have never been studied, yet are disproportionately important because, respectively, they represent the deepest divergence in the Caricaceae (*Cylicomorpha*) and the sister clade to *Carica*. We here used a molecular-clock-dated phylogeny for all species of Caricaceae to infer the direction and timing of changes in chromosome number (with our new data now available for 50% of the species) and FISH to test for the presence of interstitial telomere repeats (ITRs) in species with reduced chromosome numbers, as a possible indication of recent chromosomal fusions. Interstitial telomere repeats have been used as footprints of

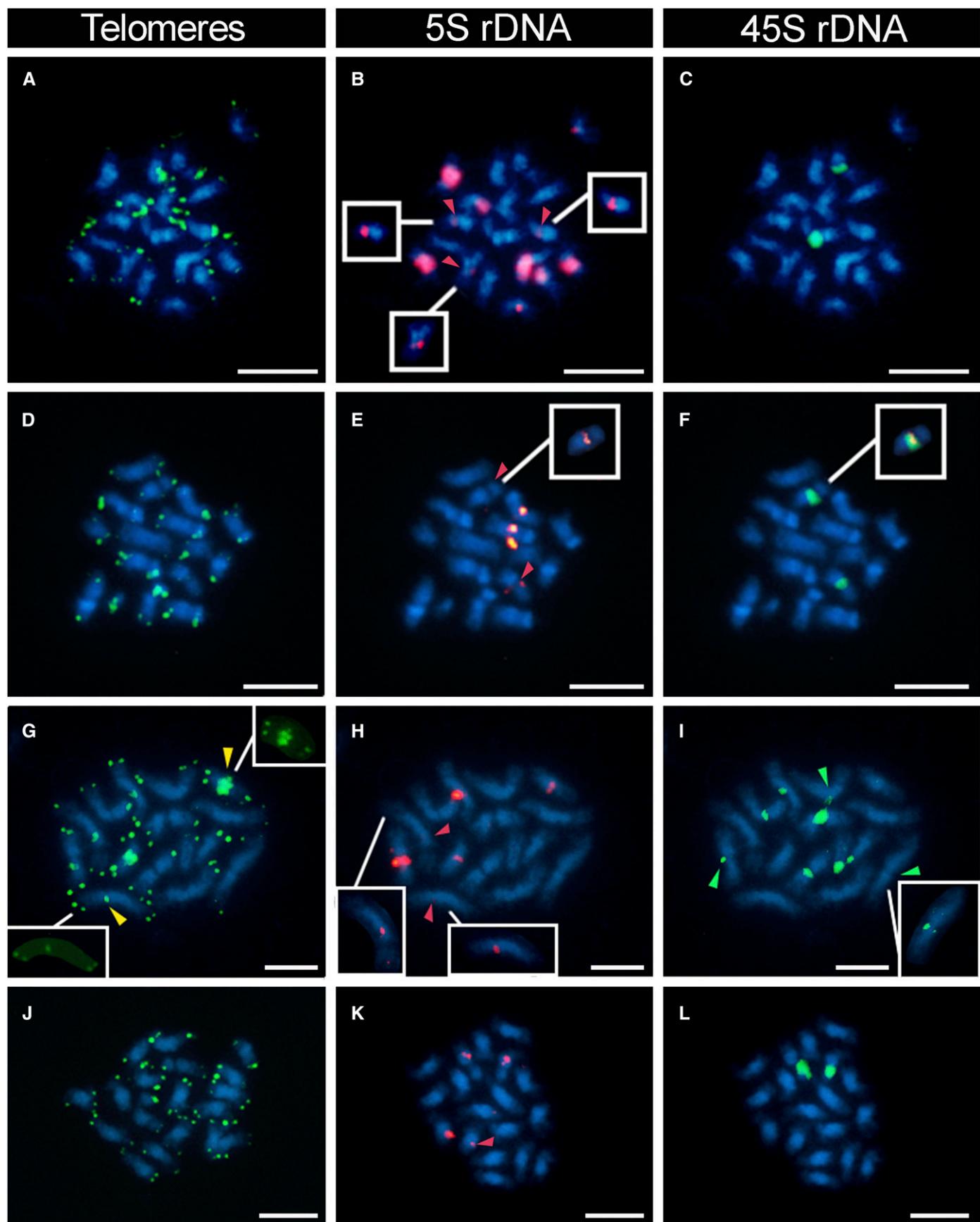
(evolutionarily recent) chromosome fusion in angiosperms and gymnosperms, such as in the legume *Vicia faba*, the Malvaceae *Sideritis montana*, in *Solanum*, in species of the Araceae genus *Typhonium*, and in *Picea* and *Pinus* (Presting et al., 1996; Schmidt et al., 2000; He et al., 2013; Sousa et al., 2014; Sousa and Renner, 2015). We also tested the expectation that genome sizes in Caricaceae would stay within a narrow range (as in Brassicaceae; Lysak et al., 2009), given the absence of polyploidy in the family and the apparent stability of chromosomal homology across some of their genera (Iovene et al., 2015).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Phylogenetic analysis, molecular clock dating—A molecular phylogeny was generated as done by Carvalho and Renner (2012), using a matrix that includes one accession of each of the 34 species of Caricaceae and seven species of *Moringa* as outgroups. The matrix consisted of five plastid loci (*trnL-trnF*, *rpl20-rps12*, *psbA-trnH* intergenic spacers, *matK* and *rbcL* genes) and one nuclear marker

(the ribosomal DNA internal transcribed spacers ITS1 and ITS2, plus the intervening 5.8S gene) and had 4711 aligned positions. Trees were inferred under maximum likelihood (ML) optimization in RAxML v8.0 (Stamatakis, 2014), using the GTR + Γ substitution model with four rate categories. Bootstrapping under ML used 1000 replicates.

Molecular clock dating relied on the uncorrelated lognormal relaxed clock model implemented in the program BEAST v1.8.0 (Drummond et al., 2012). We again used the GTR + Γ substitution model, a pure-birth (Yule) tree prior, and a Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) chain length of 200 million generations, sampling every 10,000th generation. Log files were examined in the program Tracer v1.6 (Rambaut et al., 2014) to assess convergence and to confirm that effective sampling sizes for all parameters were larger than 200, indicating that MCMC chains were long enough to reach stationarity. The obtained trees were summarized with the program TreeAnnotator v1.8.0, with a 10% burn-in. A maximum credibility tree was then analyzed in the program FigTree v1.4.2 (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>). The divergence of the Caricaceae/Moringaceae has been estimated in three large-scale studies (of flowering plants and of Brassicaceae) that used fossil calibrations (Wikström et al., 2001: 59 million years ago (Ma) (58–61); Beilstein et al., 2010: 69 Ma (105–38); Bell et al., 2010: 67 Ma (45–86)). We



therefore assigned a normally distributed prior with a mean of 65 Ma and a standard deviation of 2 Ma to this node.

Plant material—Wild-collected seeds from Brazil, Mexico, and Kenya of *Carica papaya*, *Cylicomorpha parviflora*, *Horovitzia cnidoscoloides*, *Jacaratia spinosa*, *Jarilla caudata*, *J. heterophylla*, *Vasconcellea cauliflora*, *V. monoica*, and *V. quercifolia* were germinated between 2012 and 2013, and seedlings were cultivated in the greenhouses of the Munich Botanical Garden. Vouchers have been deposited in the Munich herbarium (M) and are listed in Appendix S1.

Preparation of chromosome spreads—Root tips were collected from potted plants between 08:30 and 11:00 hours and pretreated with 70 ppm cycloheximide (Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany) in 2 mM 8-hydroxyquinoline for 2.5 h at room temperature, and for an additional 2.5 h at 4°C to increase the number of metaphase cells (Tlaskal, 1979), then fixed in freshly prepared 3:1 (v/v) ethanol/glacial acetic acid at room temperature overnight, and stored at -20°C until use. Spreads of mitotic metaphase chromosomes were prepared by air-dry dropping as described by Aliyeva-Schnorr et al. (2015), with the following modifications: Fixed root tips were digested with 1% cellulase (w/v; Onozuka RS; Serva, Heidelberg, Germany), 0.4% pectolyase (w/v; Sigma, St. Louis, Missouri, USA), 0.4% cytohelicase (w/v; Sigma) in citric buffer, pH 4.8 for 2 h 50 min at 37°C in a humid chamber, and the freshly prepared fixative consisted of 1:1 (v/v) methanol/glacial acetic acid.

FISH and DNA probes—FISH was performed as described by Sousa et al. (2013) with the inclusion of an ethanol series of 70–90–100%, 2 min each, after the final washes. For localization of the 5S and 45S rDNAs, we used the 18S–5.8S–25S rDNA repeat unit of *Arabidopsis thaliana* in the pBSK+ plasmid, labeled with digoxigenin-11-dUTP (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) by nick translation and a 349-bp fragment of the 5S rRNA gene repeat unit from *Beta vulgaris* cloned into pBSK+ (Schmidt et al., 1994) and labeled with biotin-16-dUTP (Roche) by PCR. Telomere repeats were visualized with the *Arabidopsis*-type telomere probe amplified according to Ijdo et al. (1991) using the oligomer primers (5'-TTTAGGG-3')₅ and (5'-CCCTAAA-3')₅, labeled with digoxigenin-11-dUTP by nick translation. Slides were first analyzed with the probes for telomeres and 5S rDNA. They were then destained and rehybridized with 45S rDNA. At least 20 metaphases and prometaphases were analyzed, except for *Carica papaya* and *Cylicomorpha parviflora* for which at least 10 were analyzed. For *Jarilla caudata* and *Vasconcellea quercifolia*, slides were first analyzed with the 5S and 45S rDNA probes, then destained and rehybridized with the telomere probe. Since little material was available for these last two species (2–7 metaphases analyzed), we show them only in Appendix S2 (see online Supplemental Data). Images were taken with a Leica

DMR microscope equipped with a KAPPA-CCD camera and the KAPPA software. They were optimized for best contrast and brightness using Adobe (San Jose, California, USA) Photoshop CC 2014.

RESULTS

Genome size and chromosome number change in light of the phylogeny—A species of the African genus *Cylicomorpha* (*C. parviflora*) has the largest genome (968 Mbp/haploid genome) in the family, while most New World species have smaller and similar genome sizes (Fig. 1; Appendix S1). The 5-species clade of *Carica*, *Horovitzia*, and *Jarilla* has undergone a dramatic genome size doubling in one of its members, the genus *Jarilla*, while *Carica* and *Horovitzia* have slightly smaller genomes than most other Caricaceae.

Chromosome numbers, descending dysploidy, and distribution of FISH signals, including interstitial telomere repeats—Diploid chromosome numbers of *Carica papaya*, *Cylicomorpha parviflora*, *Jacaratia spinosa*, *Vasconcellea cauliflora*, *V. monoica*, and *V. quercifolia* were confirmed or newly established as $2n = 18$. *Horovitzia cnidoscoloides* has $2n = 16$, and *Jarilla caudata* and *J. heterophylla* have $2n = 14$ (Figs. 2, 3; online Appendices S1–S3). All Caricaceae have submetacentric and metacentric chromosomes, and in species with $2n = 18$ chromosomes, they are of similar size. *Horovitzia cnidoscoloides* ($2n = 16$) has two pairs of chromosomes that are smaller than the remaining six pairs (Fig. 2D–F). The karyotypes of *J. caudata* and *J. heterophylla* ($2n = 14$) each consist of one smaller and six larger chromosome pairs (Fig. 2G–I; Appendix S2A–C). In all species, centromeres, subterminal, and terminal regions are weakly stained or DAPI negative, while pericentromeric and interstitial regions are stained more brightly. Chromosomes of *Carica papaya*, *Horovitzia cnidoscoloides*, *Jacaratia spinosa*, and *Vasconcellea monoica* have strong heterochromatic blocks stained intensely.

The distribution of FISH signals among the nine studied species is summarized in Appendix S3. The number of 5S rDNA sites is variable, ranging from 15 pericentromeric signals in as many chromosomes in *Vasconcellea quercifolia* (Appendix S2E) over six major sites in three pairs and four minor sites in two others in *Carica papaya* (Fig. 2B; Costa et al., 2008 found only six such sites) to four sites in two chromosome pairs in *Horovitzia cnidoscoloides* (Fig. 2E) to just two subterminal sites in one pair in *Cylicomorpha parviflora* (Fig. 3H).

The number of 45S rDNA sites is less variable, with *Carica papaya* (Fig. 2C), *Cylicomorpha parviflora* (Fig. 3I), *Horovitzia cnidoscoloides* (Fig. 2F), *Jacaratia spinosa* (Fig. 2L), and *Vasconcellea cauliflora* (Fig. 3C) all having two sites in one chromosome pair

FIGURE 2 Detection of telomeres and 5S and 45S rDNA signals by FISH in chromosomes of (A–C) *Carica papaya* ($2n = 18$), (D–F) *Horovitzia cnidoscoloides* ($2n = 16$), (G–I) *Jarilla heterophylla* ($2n = 14$), and (J–L) *Jacaratia spinosa* ($2n = 18$). Yellow arrowheads indicate a strong and a weak interstitial telomere repeat (ITR); red arrowheads indicate weak 5S rDNA signals; green arrowheads indicate weak 45S rDNA signals. Insets in G show chromosomes with strong and weak ITRs without being overlapped with DAPI. Insets in B, E, H, I show weak 5S or 45S rDNA signals treated with a differential brightness and contrast. Inset in F shows overlap of adjacent 5S and 45S rDNA signals. The 5S signals were detected with Cy3-conjugated streptavidin (red), and 45S and telomeric signals were detected with FITC-conjugated antidigoxigenin (green). Chromosomes were counterstained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI). Scale bars = 5 μm.

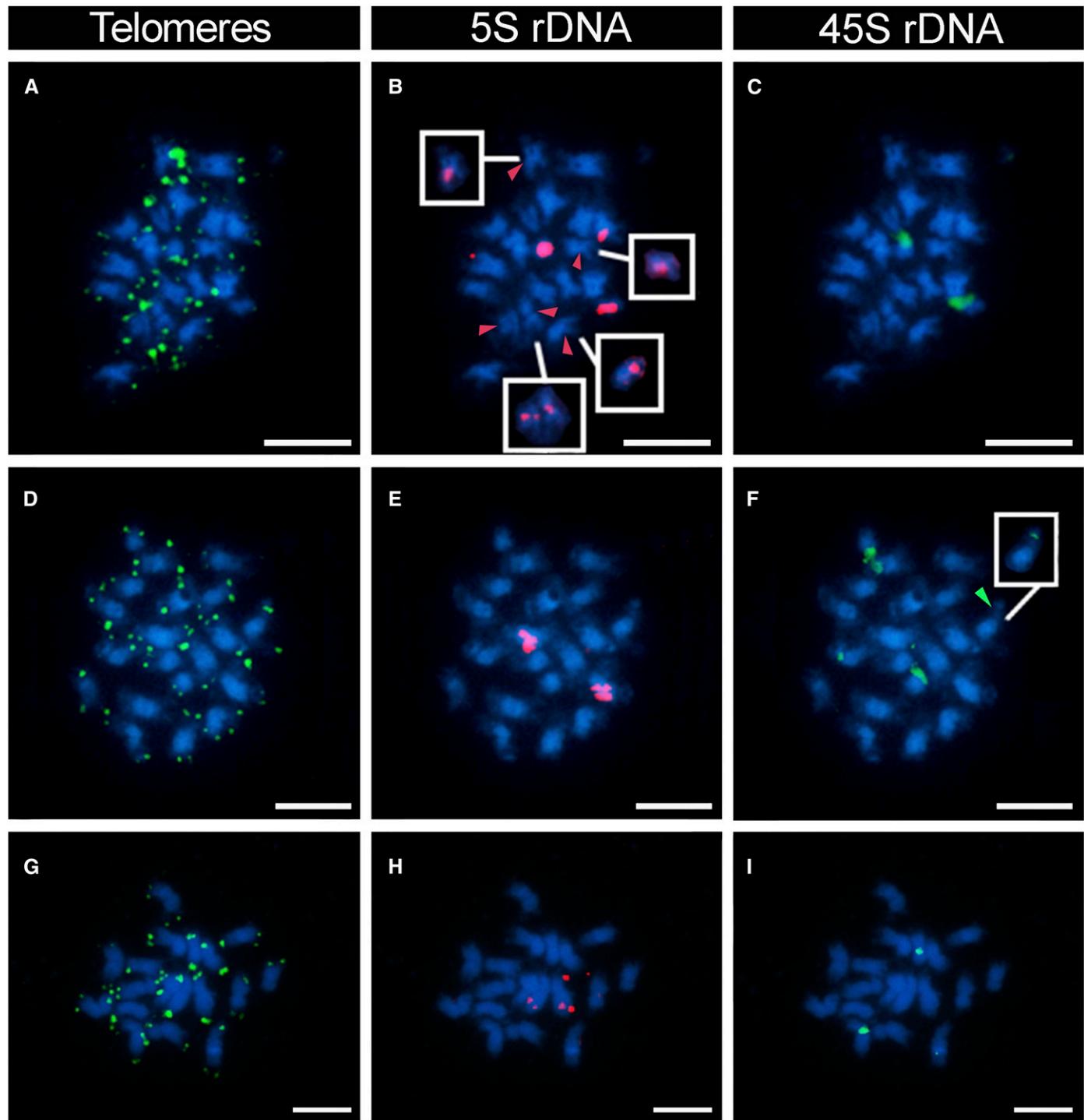


FIGURE 3 Detection of telomeres and 5S and 45S rDNA signals by FISH in chromosomes of (A–C) *Vasconcellea cauliflora* ($2n = 18$), (D–F) *Vasconcellea monoica* ($2n = 18$), and (G–I) *Cylicomorpha parviflora* ($2n = 18$). Red arrowheads indicate weak 5S rDNA signals; green arrowheads indicate weak 45S rDNA signals. Insets in B and F show weak 5S or 45S rDNA signals treated with a differential brightness and contrast. The 5S signals were detected with Cy3-conjugated streptoavidin (red), and 45S and telomeric signals were detected with FITC-conjugated antidigoxigenin (green). Chromosomes were counterstained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI). Scale bars = 5 μm .

(Appendix S2). *Vasconcellea monoica* (Fig. 3F) and *V. quercifolia* (Appendix S2F) have four sites, *Jarilla caudata* (Appendix S2C) has six, and *J. heterophylla* (Fig. 2I) has eight. In *H. cniodescoloides*, sites are adjacent to the small 5S rDNA sites (Fig. 2F, inset), and sites

syntenic to 5S rDNA sites occur in *Jacaratia spinosa* (Fig. 2K, L), *Jarilla caudata* (Appendix S2B, C), *J. heterophylla* (Fig. 2H, I), *Vasconcellea cauliflora* (Fig. 3B, C), and *V. quercifolia* (Appendix S2E, F).

Telomere signals at terminal loci were present in all species (Fig. 2A, D, G, J; Fig. 3A, D, G; Appendix S2A, D), and the two *Jarilla* species with $2n = 14$ both have pericentromeric ITRs. *Jarilla heterophylla* has six ITRs, which correspond to the number and position of 5S rDNA sites (Fig. 2G, H). *Jarilla caudata* has at least four ITRs, also corresponding to 5S rDNA sites (Appendix S2A, B), and there seem to be six weaker sites; however, due to a lack of sufficient plant material, we can only confirm four ITRs.

DISCUSSION

Descending dysploidy and the temporal decay of interstitial telomere arrays—From the distribution of chromosome numbers on the phylogeny (Fig. 1), it is clear that $2n = 18$ is the ancestral number, with sequential descending dysploidy from 18 to 16 to 14 in the 5-species-large papaya clade. We were unable to obtain material of the third species of *Jarilla*, *J. chocola* (also endemic in Mexico), but the other two species of this genus have $2n = 14$ (Fig. 2G–I; Appendix S2A–C), and the dysploidy from 16 to 14 could thus have occurred in the common ancestor of the genus, which lived about 5.5 Ma, while the preceding dysploidy, from 18 to 16, occurred in the common ancestor of *Jarilla* and *Horovitzia*, which diverged from each other about 16.6 Ma (Fig. 1). Descending dysploidy is relatively common (Lysak, 2014), with well-studied examples in herbaceous Brassicaceae (Yogeeswaran et al., 2005; Lysak et al., 2006; Mandakova and Lysak, 2008; Cheng et al., 2013), *Oxalis* (Vaio et al., 2013), *Cucumis* (Yang et al., 2014), Melianthaceae (Pellicer et al., 2014), and Araceae (Sousa et al., 2014; Sousa and Renner, 2015), but we have not found another instance of descending dysploidy (from 18 to 16 to 14) in a clade of trees and perennial climbers.

The presence of ITRs in the pericentromeric regions of at least two chromosome pairs in *Jarilla caudata* (Appendix S2A) and in three pairs in *J. heterophylla* (Fig. 2G) suggests chromosome rearrangements. Plausible rearrangement scenarios are end-to-end fusions, inversions, and translocations, including parts of chromosomes merging into the pericentromeric region of others (Schubert and Lysak, 2011; Yang et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015). Large mainly heterochromatic ITRs in pericentromeric regions are known from mammals and plants (Presting et al., 1996; Bolzán and Bianchi, 2006; Ruiz-Herrera et al., 2008; He et al., 2013; Majerová et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2014), and it is thought that they are prone to breakage and rearrangements, fostering their amplification and redistribution together with adjacent satellite repeats, which are abundant in pericentromeric regions (Theuri et al., 2005; He et al., 2013). Repeats are thought to become enriched near former break- and ligation points (Yang et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015). The high variability of 5S rDNA copies in Caricaceae and their adjacency to the ITRs in both *Jarilla* species also suggest that these sites are linked to the amplification of repetitive elements; most angiosperms have just two 5S sites (Roa and Guerra, 2015). The lack of ITRs in *Horovitzia cnidoscoloides*, which diverged roughly 16.6 Ma, could be explained by the decay of these repeats over time, while they are still detectable in the younger *Jarilla* lineage (roughly 5.5 Myr).

Lowest chromosome numbers correlate with genome size doubling—Contrary to our expectation that genome sizes in Caricaceae would stay within a relatively narrow range (as in Brassicaceae; Lysak et al., 2009), which would have fit the absence of polyploidy in the Caricaceae and the apparent homology of at least

one chromosome pair across two distantly related genera (Iovene et al., 2015), we discovered that the species with the lowest chromosome number have genomes that are twice as large as those of their closest relatives (Fig. 1; Appendix S1). Since there is no evidence of polyploidy, the increase in genome size likely is due to massive bursts in transposon amplification. A possible mechanism is that transposable elements (TEs) “escape” repression and elimination mechanisms by integrating preferentially in or near centromeres (Theuri et al., 2005; Luo et al., 2012). Such TEs, for example, the chromoviruses Tekay, Galadriel, CRM, and Reina, vary greatly in abundance even in very closely related species (Piednoël et al., 2013). The genome size doubling in the common ancestor of *J. caudata* and *J. heterophylla* matches the amplification of telomeric satellite repeats that we observed in their pericentromeric regions, perhaps with an accompanying increase of TEs. Regardless of the causes of the immense DNA increase, it likely contributed to further chromosomal rearrangements and the dysploidy from 18 to 16 to 14.

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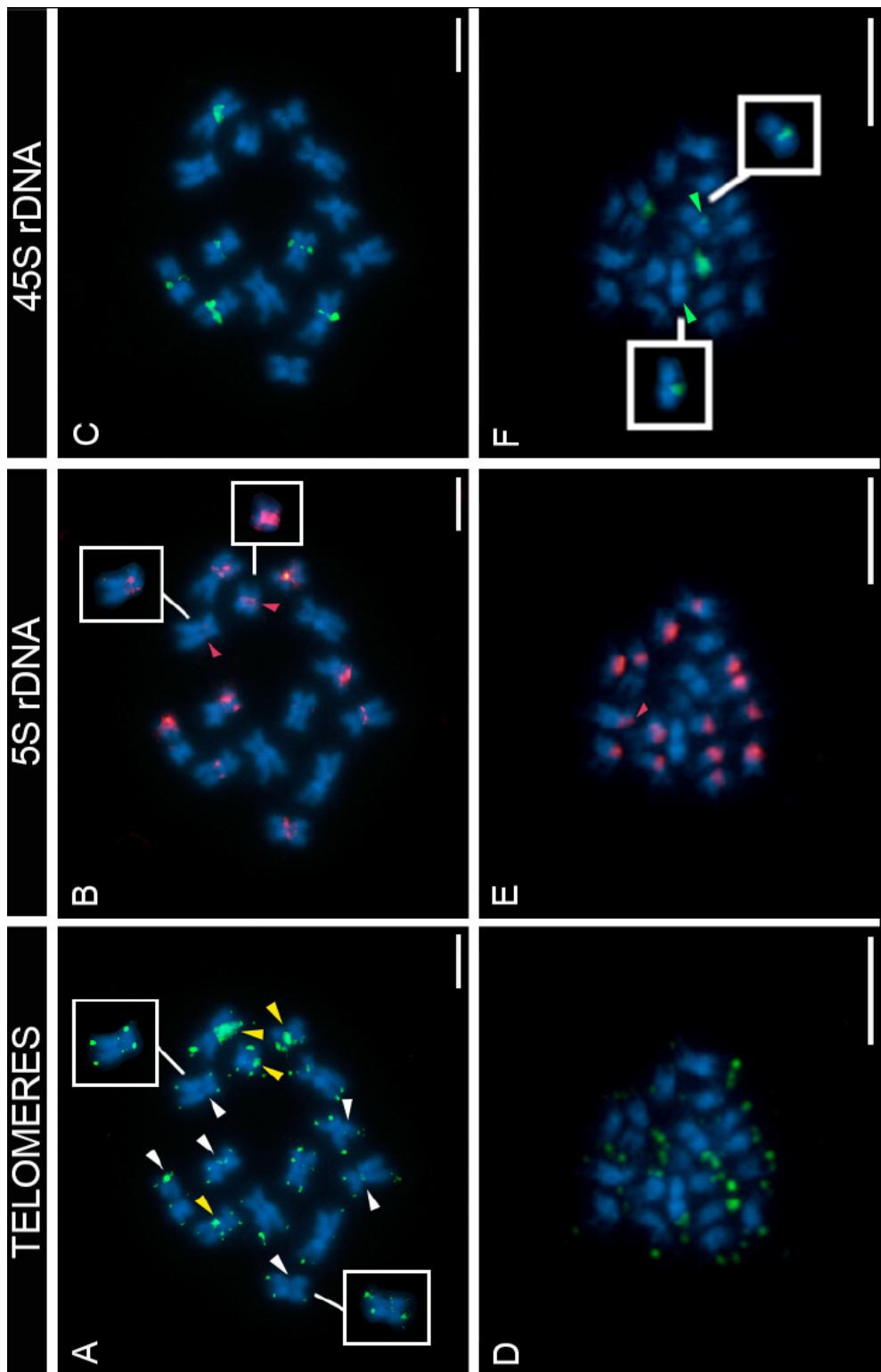


Fig. S1. Detection of telomeres, 5S and 45S rDNA signals by FISH in chromosomes of: A–C, *Jarilla caudata* ($2n = 14$); D–F, *Vasconcellea quercifolia* ($2n = 18$). Yellow arrowheads indicate clear ITR signals; white arrowheads indicate potential weak ITRs; red arrowheads indicate weak 5S rDNA signals in B and a chromosome with a signal while its homologue lacks a signal in E; green arrowheads indicate weak 45S rDNA signals. Insets in A show weak 45S rDNA signals. Insets in B and F show weak 5S or 45S rDNA signals treated with a differential brightness and contrast. Insets in B and F show weak 5S or 45S rDNA signals treated with Cy3-conjugated streptavidin (red), and 45S and telomeric signals were detected with FITC-conjugated anti-digoxigenin (green). Chromosomes were counterstained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI). Scale bars = $5 \mu\text{m}$

Table S1. Chromosome numbers and C-values (genome sizes in millions of base pairs (Mbp) per haploid genome) for the 20 species of Caricaceae so far studied.

Species	Chromosome number; voucher	Genome size; voucher	References for the chromosome number; those for C-values are marked by an *
<i>Carica papaya</i> L.	2n = 18; A. Rockinger 2015/7 (M) 2n = 18; none 2n = 18; none 2n = 18; none	372 Mbp; none	This study Simmonds (1954) Datta (1970) Joshi and Ranjekar (1982) *Arumuganathan and Earle (1991) Costa et al. (2008)
	2n = 18; none 2n = 18; none 2n = 18; none	318 Mbp; none 442.5 Mbp; HCAR 320	Damasceno et al. (2009) *Araújo et al. (2010) *Gschwend et al. (2013)
<i>Cylicomorpha parviflora</i> Urb.	2n = 18; Mark Nicholson s.n. (M)	968 Mbp; none	This study; *R. Ming, pers. comm. Aug. 2013
<i>Horovitzia cniodescoloides</i> (Lorence & Torres Colín, R.) V.M.Badillo	2n = 16; A. Rockinger 2015/5 (M)	401 Mbp; none	This study; *R. Ming, pers. comm. Aug. 2013
<i>Jacaratia spinosa</i> (Aubl.) A.DC.	2n = 18; A. Rockinger 2015/6 (M) 2n = 18; none 2n = 18, HCAR 227	513.6 Mbp; HCAR 227	This study Kumar and Srinivasan (1944) Silva et al. (2012) *Gschwend et al. (2013)
<i>Jarilla caudata</i> (Brandegee)	2n = 14; F.A. Carvalho 2240 (M)	924 Mbp; none	This study; *R. Ming, pers. comm. Standl. Aug. 2013
<i>Jarilla heterophylla</i> (Cerv. ex La Llave) Rusby	2n = 14; F.A. Carvalho 2239 (M)	836 Mbp; none	This study; *R. Ming, pers. comm. Aug. 2013
<i>Vasconcellea cauliflora</i> (Jacq.) A.DC.	2n = 18; F.A. Carvalho 2242 (M) 2n = 18; none		This study Caetano et al. (2008)

Species	Chromosome number; voucher	Genome size; voucher	References for the chromosome number; those for C-values are marked by an *
<i>Vasconcellea glandulosa</i> A.DC.		534.9 Mbp; HCAR 300	*Gschwend et al. (2013)
<i>Vasconcellea goudotiana</i> Triana & Planch.	2n = 18; none 2n = 18; none 2n = 18; none 2n = 18; HCAR 167		De Zerpa (1959) Costa et al. (2008) Caetano et al. (2008) Silva et al. (2012) *Gschwend et al. (2013)
<i>Vasconcellea horovitziana</i> (V.M.Badillo) V.M.Badillo	2n = 18; none	607 Mbp; HCAR 167	
<i>Vasconcellea longiflora</i> (V.M.Badillo) V.M.Badillo	2n = 18; none	557.7 Mbp; HCAR 305	*Gschwend et al. (2013)
<i>Vasconcellea microcarpa</i> (Jacq.) A.DC.	2n = 18; none		Caetano et al. (2008)
<i>Vasconcellea monoica</i> (Desf.) A.DC.	2n = 18; F.A. Carvalho 2243 (M) 2n = 18; none 2n = 18; none	625.9 Mbp; HCAR 171	De Zerpa (1959) This study De Zerpa (1959) Damasceno et al. (2009) *Gschwend et al. (2013)
<i>Vasconcellea palandensis</i> (V.M.Badillo, Van den Eynden & Van Damme) V.M.Badillo	2n = 18; none		Caetano et al. (2008)
<i>Vasconcellea parviflora</i> A.DC.		491.5 Mbp; HCAR 180/179	*Gschwend et al. (2013)
<i>Vasconcellea pubescens</i> A.DC.	2n = 18; none 2n = 18; none 2n = 18; none	566.7 Mbp; HCAR 46 554.6 Mbp; HCAR 267	Costa et al. (2008) Caetano et al. (2008) Damasceno et al. (2009) *Gschwend et al. (2013) *Gschwend et al. (2013)
<i>Vasconcellea pulchra</i> (V.M.Badillo)			

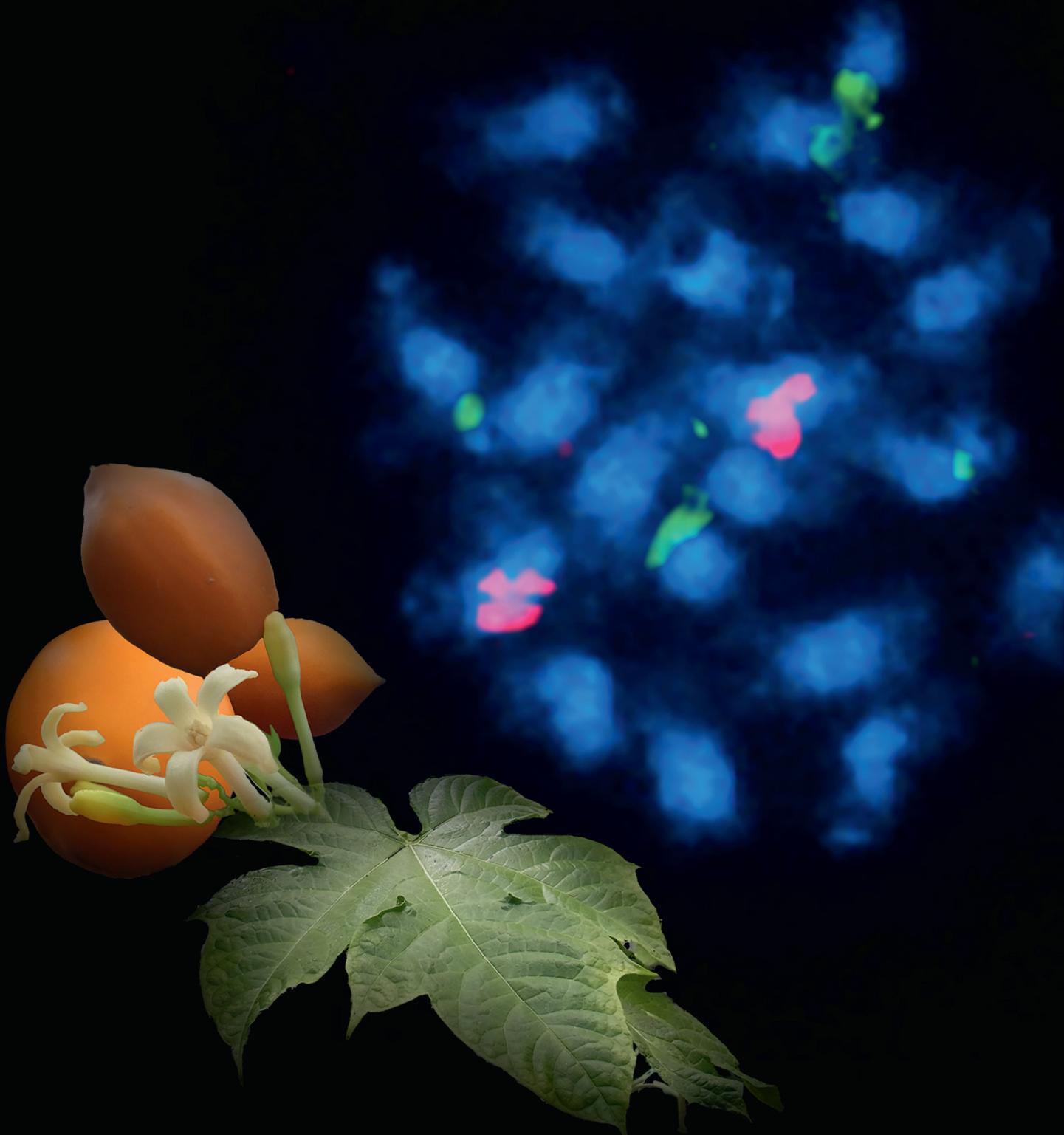
Species	Chromosome number; voucher	Genome size; voucher	References for the chromosome number; those for C-values are marked by an *
<i>Vasconcellea quercifolia</i> A.St.-Hil.	2n = 18; F.A. Carvalho 2241 (M)		This study
	2n = 18; HCAR 226		Silva et al. (2012)
	2n = 18; RS3586	516.1 Mbp; HCAR 226	Bernardello et al. (1990) *Gschwend et al. (2013)
<i>Vasconcellea sphaerocarpa</i> (García-Barr. & Hern.Cam.) V.M.Badillo	2n = 18; none		Caetano et al. (2008)
<i>Vasconcellea stipulata</i> (V.M.Badillo) V.M.Badillo		520.1 Mbp; HCAR 177	*Gschwend et al. (2013)

Table S2. FISH results for nine species representing the six genera of Caricaceae. All species have telomere signals at both ends of all their chromosomes, and the table therefore only lists interstitial telomere repeats (ITRs). Asterisks mark syntetic and squares adjacent sites.

Species name	2n	Number / position of ITRs	Number / position of 5S rDNA sites	Number / position of 45S rDNA sites
<i>Carica papaya</i>	18	None (Fig. 2A)	10 / pericentromeric (Fig. 2B)	2 / pericentromeric (Fig. 2C)
<i>Cylicomorpha parviflora</i>	18	None (Fig. 3G)	2 / subterminal (Fig. 3H)	2 / pericentromeric (Fig. 3I)
<i>Horovitzia cnidoscoloides</i>	16	None (Fig. 2D)	4 (of which 2■) / pericentromeric (Fig. 2E)	2■ / pericentromeric (Fig. 2F)
<i>Jacaratia spinosa</i>	18	None (Fig. 2J)	4 (of which 2*) / pericentromeric (Fig. 2K)	2* / pericentromeric (Fig. 2L)
<i>Jarilla caudata</i>	14	4–10■ / pericentromeric (Fig. S1A)	10 (of which at least 4■ and at least 4*) / pericentromeric (Fig. S1B)	6 (of which at least 4*) / pericentromeric (Fig. S1C)
<i>Jarilla heterophylla</i>	14	6■ / pericentromeric (Fig. 2G)	6■ / pericentromeric (Fig. 2H)	8 (of which 2*) / pericentromeric (Fig. 2I)
<i>Vasconcellea cauliflora</i>	18	None (Fig. 3A)	8 (of which 2*) / pericentromeric (Fig. 3B)	2* / pericentromeric (Fig. 3C)
<i>Vasconcellea monoica</i>	18	None (Fig. 3D)	4 (duplication) / pericentromeric (Fig. 3E)	4 / pericentromeric (Fig. 3F)
<i>Vasconcellea quercifolia</i>	18	None (Fig. S1D)	15 (of which 2*) / pericentromeric (Fig. S1E)	4 (of which 2*) / pericentromeric (Fig. S1F)

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Chapter 5

GENERAL DISCUSSION

5.1 Phylogenetic relationships and divergence times in *Crotalaria*

Since I began my work on *Crotalaria* in December 2013, three other studies on the genus that relied on molecular sequence data have come out. Two of them deal with Indian *Crotalaria* (Subramaniam *et al.* 2013, 2015) and both present phylogenies based on nuclear and chloroplast sequences for 10% of the 700 species of *Crotalaria*, including roughly 52% of the total Indian species. The authors focused on the evolution of morphological traits, such as shape of the keel beak and leaves, and combined these data with pod anatomical traits to revise the sectional placement of Indian *Crotalaria*. They synonymized section *Crotalaria* subsection *Bracteatae* under section *Calycinae* (all sections are marked in Chapter 2, Figure 1 and authors of all sections are in Chapter 2, additional file 3: Table S1). A paper by Le Roux *et al.* (2013) is based on a nuclear and chloroplast phylogeny for 24% of the 700 species, and including only two Neotropical, three Asian, and two Australasian species. Even with this limited sampling, the authors raised three subsections of Pohlhill's (1982) section *Chrysocalycinae* to sectional rank (*Glaucae*, *Incanae*, and *Stipulosae*), sank subsection *Chrysocalycinae* into section *Hedriocarpace*, section *Dispermae* into section *Crotalaria*, and introduced two new sections, *Amphitrichae* and *Borealigeniculatae* (Chapter 2, additional file 1: Figure S1).

For my doctoral research, I built on these studies by adding new sequences for a DNA phylogeny that now samples 338 species (48%), representing all distribution areas and all but one sectional type species. The 140 newly sequenced species are mostly from Asia, Australasia, and the Neotropics; 59 species are from Africa and Madagascar. To rigidly test the monophyly of *Crotalaria*, I generated sequence data for 17 species from the remaining Crotalarieae, which had not been represented in previous molecular studies, so that my outgroup sampling includes all the tribe's 16 genera (Chapter 2, additional file 3: Table S1). For molecular clock analyses, I sequenced an additional species of the other core genistoids. I relied on two nuclear markers as the backbone of my phylogeny, the ITS and ETS region. To improve the resolution, I combined the nuclear sequences with additional chloroplast sequences, namely for the *matK* and *rbcL* genes, and the *psbA-trnH* intergenic spacer. In all, I generated 271 sequences in the course of this study. This resulted in a phylogeny of six well-supported main clades (Chapter 2, Figure 1). I named these clades according to characteristics suitable for distinguishing them readily, and for this I found floral morphological characters and chromosome numbers to be most useful; I focused on characters that are found in most members of a clade and absent in most species belonging to

other clades. As expected in such a species-rich group, no single distinguishing character is shared by all species of any larger clade and lacking in all species of all other clades. As noted by Polhill (1982), a reticulate pattern of interspecific variation of morphological characters pervades the genus, and species can only be grouped by a combination of several characters. Thus, all his sections are defined by character combinations. Le Roux *et al.* (2013) adapted this approach when defining their revised classification of *Crotalaria*. My enhanced species sampling renders eight of the 11 sections of Le Roux *et al.* (2013) polyphyletic (see Chapter 2, additional file 1: Figure S1), and in my view another revision of the sectional classification should await a species sampling of at least 70–80%.

The deepest split within *Crotalaria*, dating to 18–29 Ma, is between the ‘core *Chrysocalycinae*’ clade and the other five clades. This clade harbours most sampled species belonging to Polhill’s section *Chrysocalycinae*, most sampled species of section *Geniculatae*, and all sampled species of section *Grandiflorae*. Most species from Madagascar and most Neotropical species with trifoliolate leaves also belong to this clade. The remainder of clades can be divided into two subclades, one consisting of the ‘ $2n = 14$ ’ clade and the ‘truncate calyx tube’ clade, and the other comprising the ‘*Crotalaria linearifoliolata/C. persica*’ clade, the ‘bulbous standard appendages’ clade, and the ‘bilabiate calyx’ clade (Chapter 2, Figure 1). Species of the ‘ $2n = 14$ ’ clade belong to Polhill’s section *Chrysocalycinae* subsection *Incanae* and most of them share the same diploid chromosome number, which is the rarest number occurring in the species of *Crotalaria* that have been studied (see *Chromosome numbers in Crotalaria*). Most species of the ‘truncate calyx tube’ clade share this calyx type and are distributed in Africa, with the exception of two species occurring in Asia, two species endemic to Australia, and a clade of four Madagascan species (Chapter 2, Figures 1 and 3). The ‘*Crotalaria linearifoliolata/C. persica*’ clade comprises two species with distinct morphological traits and similar distribution range, reaching from the Horn of Africa to Arabia. The ‘bulbous standard appendages’ clade includes the majority of species from Polhill’s section *Crotalaria* and all species from his section *Dispermae*, both predominantly African with few species in Asia, Australasia, and the Neotropics. The ‘bilabiate calyx’ clade comprises most of both the Asian and Neotropical species, with the latter being embedded within the Asian species. With few exceptions, species in this clade have simple leaves and flowers with a bilabiate calyx and a spirally twisted keel beak (Chapter 2, Figure 1 (inset); Figures 1 C, E in the *General Introduction*).

With the sampling of 48% of the 700 species of *Crotalaria*, and all other 15 genera of Crotalarieae, *Crotalaria* is strongly supported as monophyletic. Its closest relative is *Bolusia*, with currently five accepted species occurring in tropical Africa south of the equator, and the next closest relative is monotypic *Euchlora* from South Africa. *Bolusia* is morphologically similar to *Crotalaria*, but differs by having a helically coiled keel (Van Wyk *et al.* 2010). Polhill (1968, 1982) suggested a close relationship between *Bolusia* and *Crotalaria*, seeing *Crotalaria cornu-ammonis* from Madagascar, which has an unusually curved keel beak, as ‘prototype’ for the floral morphology of *Bolusia*. Indeed, the phylogeny reveals *C. cornu-ammonis* with its basal position close to *Bolusia amboensis* (Chapter 2, Figure 1). It will be interesting to sample the four other species of *Bolusia* to test the monophyly of that genus.

5.2 Flower and leaf trait evolution in *Crotalaria*

Plotting and ancestral state reconstruction of morphological flower and leaf traits revealed that species-rich groups in *Crotalaria* have almost homogeneous morphological traits, even though each trait has evolved multiple times in the genus (Chapter 2, Figures 2 and 4). Polhill (1968, 1982) was the first to note that about half of the genus has flowers with non-twisted keel beaks, while the rest has flowers with spirally twisted keel beaks. In total, c. 350 species have flowers with spirally twisted keel beaks and 350 species have flowers with straight keel beaks. While most of the species with straight-beaked flowers occur in Africa, most flowers with a twisted beak are distributed throughout Asia, Australasia, and the Neotropics. Bilabiate calyces only occur in species with spirally twisted keel beaks and are almost restricted to Asian and Neotropical species and, with a few exceptions, correlate with simple leaves. Leaf types also are highly conserved, with trifoliolate leaves being most common and predominating in African and Madagascan species, and most simple leaved species belonging to the Asian-Australasian-Neotropical ‘bilabiate calyx’ clade. While multifoliolate leaves occur frequently in Fabaceae and are also found in other genistoids (Chapter 2, Figure 4), only few species of *Crotalaria* have this leaf type. Unifoliolate leaves also occur with low frequency, and neither leaf type seems to be related to geography or ecology. Champagne *et al.* (2007) inferred that the ancestral leaf type in legumes is the compound leaf, and this seems to be true also in *Crotalaria*.

Since *Crotalaria* is mega-diverse, has a pantropical distribution and is well represented in collections, it provides a suitable group for studying parameters putatively related to its high

diversification rate and success in niche adaptation. However, because of the lack of a phylogenetic framework no study prior to mine has addressed these questions. My phylogeny is well-resolved and has a comprehensive and representative taxon sampling in terms of distribution and morphology by sampling between 25–79% of the species in Polhill's (1982) eight sections (four of them with >50% sampled, Chapter 2, Figure 1) and c. 60% of the simple leaved and c. 46% of the compound leaved species. Based on this sampling, I decided to assess the distribution of *Crotalaria* in climate space and to address the question how leaf and flower morphology is correlated with temperature, precipitation, elevation, and sun radiation. For this purpose, I carried out regression analyses with available species distribution data from GBIF; in total, my dataset contained 22,225 occurrence records for 183 species of *Crotalaria*, reflecting the genus' entire distribution range, with India slightly undersampled and Australia slightly oversampled. Results showed no correlation with flower morphology, which in hindsight may be explained by all *Crotalaria* flowers being adapted to ventrally-pollen collecting bees (but see *Future research questions on flower functionality in Crotalaria*).

By contrast, regression analyses revealed a correlation between annual precipitation and leaf morphology: With increasing annual precipitation, simple leaved species tend to occur with a higher probability than species with compound leaves (Chapter 2, Figure 5 C). This result was also supported by a categorical approach based on Köppen-Geiger climate categories, in which I assigned the species represented in my phylogeny to four main climate categories: humid tropics, dry tropics, arid zones, and mild temperate regions (Chapter 2, Figures 5 A, B). The results confirmed Polhill's (1968, 1982) observations, that crotalarias are most frequent in the dry tropics, but newly reveal that simple-leaved species are slightly overrepresented in the humid tropics. With a regression model that took phylogenetic structure of the data into account, these results were no longer significant, as expected from the strong clustering of most simple-leaved species in the 'bilabiate calyx' clade, resulting in too few independent origins of simple leaves to infer any correlation with climate parameters (Chapter 2, Figure 4). While morphogenesis and evolutionary patterns of simple- and compound-leaved species have been assessed in angiosperms (e.g. Efroni *et al.* 2010; Geeta *et al.* 2011), their adaptive value under environmental conditions remains poorly understood and studied. Givnish (1978) proposed the 'cheap throwaway branch hypothesis', by which he referred to the idea that compound leaves would be beneficial under conditions of competition for light (requiring constant replacement of older

leaves in the dark understory of tropical rain forests) because their long rhachis would enable them to function like a branch with multiple simple leaves, yet they would be less costly because no formation and support of woody tissue is required. However, this idea hardly applies to herbaceous and openland species such as crotalariae.

5.3 Chromosome numbers in *Crotalaria*

Chromosome numbers are known for 122 (36%) of the 338 sampled species of *Crotalaria*, and I have plotted these on the phylogenetic tree (Chapter 2, additional file 2: Figure S2) because I wanted to use chromosome numbers as one possible trait to characterize natural groups in the genus (even though this trait is difficult to use in practice because it requires living material for counting). The predominant diploid number in *Crotalaria* is $2n = 16$ (92 species of the 122 counted species have this number). The lowest known number is $2n = 14$ and occurs only in species belonging to my ‘ $2n = 14$ ’ clade. With the current sampling, with exception of *C. massaiensis* from Kenya, polyploidy is limited to Asian and Neotropical species, and most polyploids occur in the Neotropics and belong to the ‘bilabiate calyx’ clade and are tetraploids with $2n = 4x = 32$.

Among the Neotropical species, *C. tweediana*, with $2n = 54$ and endemic to Brazil, may be a septaploid with subsequent fusion or loss of two chromosomes. Another species with an atypical chromosome number is the Asian *C. ferruginea*, which may be a hexaploid with $2n = 6x = 48$ (Mangotra and Koul 1979). Both *C. ferruginea* and *C. tweediana* are nested within the Asian and Neotropical tetraploids of the ‘bilabiate calyx’ clade. Windler (1973, 1974), who hypothesized that the Neotropical tetraploids diverged from Asian *Crotalaria* and reached the Neotropics via long distance dispersal, suggested that polyploidy in the Neotropical species might be related to self-compatibility because genetic incompatibility mechanisms can break down in polyploids (Paun *et al.* 2011). The phylogeny confirms that 27 of the 46 sampled Neotropical species form a clade (crown node marked with an arrow in Chapter 2, additional file 2: Figure S2) that is embedded within a clade of 73 mostly Asian species, and 18 of these 27 Neotropical species are known to be polyploids. However, polyploidy may have arisen already in Asia since the two (counted) Asian species that are closest to the Neotropical clade are also tetraploids.

5.4 Taxonomic treatment of Neotropical *Crotalaria*

Although the species of *Crotalaria* occurring in Brazil are well studied (Flores *et al.* 2006, 2008, 2009, 2016), the remaining Neotropical *Crotalaria* remain the least studied group within the genus. Windler (1973, 1974) recognized 74 species for the Neotropics from southern North America to Paraguay (Chapter 2, Figure 3 (maps)), 59 of them native, while Le Roux *et al.* (2013) give numbers of 64 species for South America and 34 for Central and North America. My contributions to a revision of Brazilian *Crotalaria* are summarized in Chapter 3. The Brazilian savannah (cerrado) probably harbors the greatest species number within the Neotropics. We currently recognize 42 species, of which 31 are native, and 17 endemic, and we propose eleven lectotypifications and four synonymizations. Mexico has been reported as another center of diversity in the Neotropics (Windler 1974; Le Roux *et al.* 2013), however, no recent taxonomic treatments for Central and North America are available. A revision for the entire Neotropical region should be undertaken, especially to clarify the delimitation of a few wide-ranging and polymorphic species, which have only been considered in regional floras, such as *C. rotundifolia* and *C. sagittalis*.

5.5 Chromosome numbers and genome size alterations in Caricaceae

In my research on the chromosomes of Caricaceae I was able to retrieve the chromosome numbers for nine species from all six genera. The numbers of three genera had been unknown before: African *Cylicomorpha* ($2n = 18$), which is sister to all Neotropical Caricaceae, and *Horovitzia* and *Jarilla*, which are sister to *Carica papaya* (Chapter 4, Figure 1). My counts confirm the diploid number $2n = 18$ for the remaining genera *Carica*, *Jacaratia*, and *Vasconcellea*, and have revealed an unexpected chromosome number reduction (decreasing dysploidy) in the closest relatives of papaya, *Horovitzia* ($2n = 16$) and *Jarilla* ($2n = 14$), which happened stepwise between 17 and 6 Ma ago. From the phylogeny, $2n = 18$ clearly is the ancestral chromosome number. While dysploidy is not unusual in plants, and has happened also in the closely related Brassicaceae (e.g. Yogeswaran *et al.* 2005: *Arabidopsis*; Cheng *et al.* 2013: *Brassica rapa*), there have been no reports on other cases of stepwise chromosome number reductions ($18 > 16 > 14$). The most interesting aspect of this reduction is that the species of *Jarilla* have the lowest chromosome numbers, yet the second (*J. caudata*: 924 Mbp) and third (*J. heterophylla*: 836 Mbp) largest genomes in Caricaceae; *Cylicomorpha parviflora* (968 Mbp) has

the largest genome. These genomes are around twice the size of those of other Caricaceae (Chapter 4, Table S1), and this finding is unexpected because there is no evidence of polyploidization events.

The reasons for the chromosome number reduction with simultaneous genome size increase in Caricaceae remain unclear. However, my FISH experiments shed light on the potential mechanisms behind these phenomena: The detection of interstitial telomeric repeats (ITRs) in pericentromeric regions of *Jarilla caudata* and *J. heterophylla* suggests chromosomal rearrangements, such as fusions and fissions, and these events might have involved telomeric satellite repeats becoming enriched in pericentromeric regions (Chapter 4, Figures 2 and S1). These and possibly other linked transposable elements may have caused the massive genome size increase.

5.6 Future research questions on flower functionality in *Crotalaria*

While flower morphology has been important for grouping the many species of *Crotalaria*, flower functionality and plant pollinator interactions have been studied in merely two Neotropical species (Etcheverry 2001: *C. stipularia*, keel beak spirally twisted; Etcheverry 2000 and Etcheverry *et al.* 2003: *C. micans* (today pantropical), keel beak not twisted) and one other pantropical species of presumably Asian origin (Jacobi *et al.* 2005: *C. retusa*, keel beak not twisted). These studies showed that during the 36–48 h of anthesis, all species pass through the same floral developmental stages, with the outer and inner set of anthers dehiscing at different points of time. One day before flower opening (which occurs early in the morning), the outer (antisepalous) anthers release their pollen into the keel (Figures 2 B1, B2). Bees that visit the open flower, sit on the closed keel, holding onto the outer side of the wing petals with their tarsi; the outer petal surface has a roughened surface that allows for a better hold of the tarsi (Figure 2a). When inserting its proboscis to reach the nectar at the base of the staminal tube (Figure 2b), the bee's weight exerts force on the keel, which causes the style to emerge and brush out the pollen through the tip of the keel and depositing it on the bee's abdomen. The megachilid bee *Megachile crotalariae* (=*Pseudocentron crotalariae*) pollinates *C. micans*, *C. retusa*, and *C. stipularia* (Etcheverry 2001; Etcheverry *et al.* 2003, Jacobi *et al.* 2005), indicating that a spirally twisted keel does not exclude or attract particular types of bees. In addition to the style, the growing antisepalous anthers also push pollen from the antisepalous anthers towards the tip of the

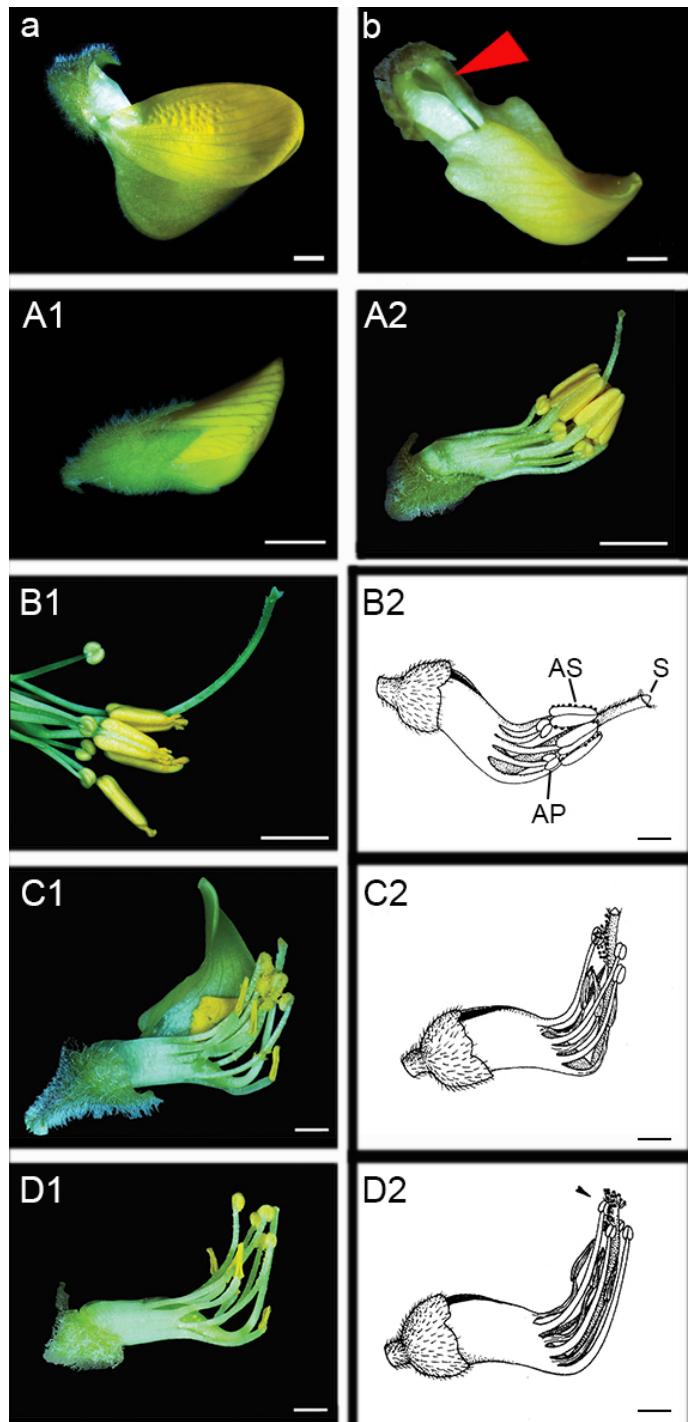


Figure 2. Flower traits and development in *Crotalaria novae-hollandiae*. a) Foot holds for the bees' tarsi (calyx and standard removed); b) Staminal tube with aperture granting access to nectar (red arrow); calyx, standard, and wings removed; A1) Early budstage; A2) Early budstage with corolla and calyx removed; B1 and B2) One day before anthesis, day 1: dehiscence of the antisepalous stamens (AS); C1 and C2) Day 2: Growing of filaments towards the stigma (S) and dehiscence of the antipetalous stamens (AP); D1 and D2) Day 3: Self pollination. Drawings in B2, C2, and D2: *C. stipularia*, modified from Etcheverry (2001). Bars = 1 mm.

keel (Figures 2 C1, C2). Sometime during the 36–48 h-long anthesis, the stigma becomes receptive, allowing for selfing (Figures 2 D1, D2). Experimental and genetic work is needed to assess the contribution of outcrossed versus selfed pollen in *Crotalaria*.

In cultivated plants of three species, I observed the same flower development within the same time frame: *C. novae-hollandiae* (endemic to Australia; keel beak spirally twisted), *C. pallida* (native to Africa, but now pantropical; keel beak not twisted), and *C. velutina* (endemic to Brazil; keel beak spirally twisted). The phylogenetic positions of the five species studied so far are indicated in Figure 3. Polhill (1982) suggested that the twisted beak, which is correlated with higher positioned appendages, restricted to the blade of the standard petal, and in many species also with bilabiate calyces (Figure 3), may require greater effort from the pollinator (i.e., a stronger, heavier bee) to reach the nectar. The twisted keel beak may also result in less pollen being released per visit, allowing for the distribution of pollen onto more individuals, but since all *Crotalaria* flowers have the same short duration of anthesis this cannot be the full explanation. It still needs to be tested whether species with spirally twisted keel beaks and those with non-twisted beaks produce different amounts of pollen and also when exactly their stigmas become receptive. If the species with twisted beaks produced fewer pollen grains, it should be selectively advantageous for them to release fewer grains per bee visit.

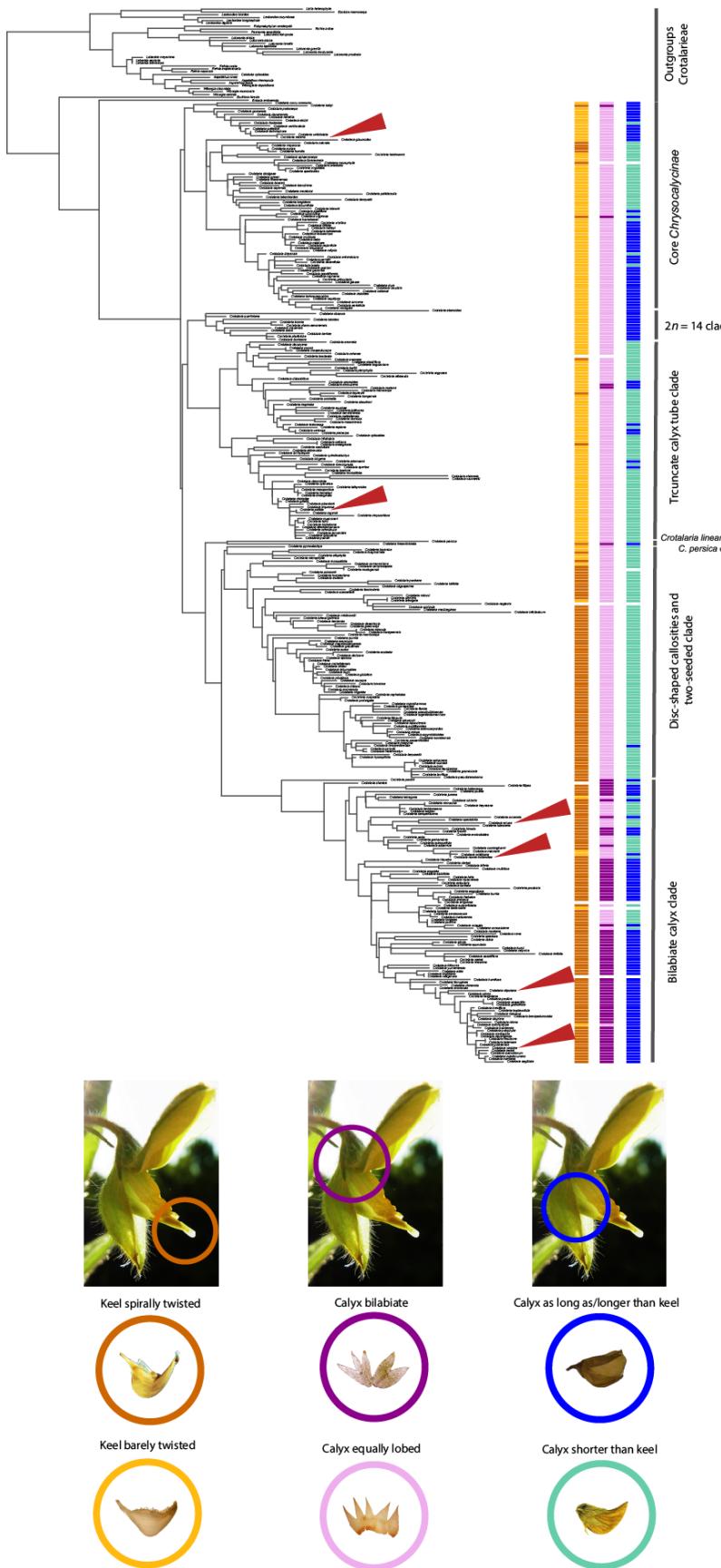


Figure 3. Maximum likelihood tree for 372 accessions representing 338 species of *Crotalaria* and 33 species of the remaining 15 genera of Crotalarieae based on 3171 aligned nucleotides of nuclear and plastid sequences, with key flower traits plotted: Keel beak (spirally twisted; not twisted), calyx (bilabiate; equally lobed), and length of calyx (as long as/longer than keel; shorter than keel). Arrows: species studied by Etcheverry (2000, 2001), Etcheverry *et al.* (2003), Jacobi *et al.* (2005), and by myself.

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