# A molecular phylogenetic study of Hemsleya (Cucurbitaceae) based on ITS, $r p l 16$, $\operatorname{trnH}-p s b A$, and $\operatorname{trnL}$ DNA sequences 

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#### Abstract

This paper presents the first molecular phylogeny of the genus Hemsleya using nuclear ITS and plastid $\operatorname{trnH}-p s b \mathrm{~A}, r p l 16$, and $\operatorname{trnL} \mathrm{DNA}$ sequences to examine the relationships among Hemsleya species. Phylogenetic relationships were elucidated using a combined analysis of all four datasets, however, the number of parsimony-informative characters was still insufficient to resolve all relationships. Parsimony and Bayesian trees were highly congruent. Twenty-three species of Hemsleya split into two major clades corresponding to two subgenera, i.e., subg. Graciliflorae and subg. Hemsleya. These results are partly in agreement with Li's sectional classification. However, the molecular data are inconsistent with Li's classification at the subsectional level. The molecular phylogeny revealed a striking overall correlation between the phylogenetic relationships of the species and their


[^0]geographical distribution. The Kangdian ancient landmass could be the center of origin of the genus.

Keywords Hemsleya - Molecular phylogeny • Biogeography • ITS • $\operatorname{trn} \mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A} \cdot r p l 16 \cdot \operatorname{trn} \mathrm{~L}$

## Introduction

The Cucurbitaceae is among the most extensively studied of all angiosperm families (Jeffrey 1980a, b, 1990, 2005; Wu and Chen 1985, 1986; Decker-Walters et al. 1990; Wilson et al. 1992; King et al. 1993; Ng 1993; MontesHernández and Eguiarte 2002; Kocyan et al. 2007). In spite of extensive phylogenetic research, many relationships are still unknown, especially at the infrageneric level. The genus Hemsleya Cogn. includes 24 species according to Li (1993) and is a member of tribe Zanonieae of the subfamily Nhandiroboideae (Jeffrey 2005). Most Hemsleya species are distributed in the Hengduan Mountains of the Sino-Himalayan Forest subkingdom, with a few species occurring in the Sino-Japanese Forest subkingdom (Lu 1982; Wu and Chen 1985, 1986; Li 1993). The genus has been studied by Jeffrey (1980a, b, 2005) and Wu and Chen $(1985,1986)$ using a morphological-phytogeographic approach, while Li (1993) published a monograph on the systematics and evolution of Hemsleya employing an integrative approach involving anatomical, embryological, palynological, and cytological methodologies. However, various morphological-based studies resulted in conflicting relationships among Hemsleya species and the infrageneric classifications have never been tested using molecular data.

Most members of the genus Hemsleya occupy moist and shady understory habitats in montane moist evergreen broadleaved forests. The flowers are dioecious and occur in
an inflorescence of seriate dichasia. The male flowers possess five stamens, while female flowers bear three stigmas that bifurcate at the apex. All fruits are nine- to tenribbed capsules, and seed are with or without seed-wings. Five densely imbricate petals form radiate, bow-like, and spherical, umbraculiform, or patelliform corollas. The annual herbaceous vines grow from perennial rhizomatous tubers (persistent roots in H. graciliflora), with alternate palmate compound leaves comprising 5-11 leaflets. The plants are well known for their medicinal uses ( Nie et al. 1984; Nie and Chen 1986; Dinan et al. 1997; Hano et al. 1997; Yang et al. 2000; Chiu and Gao 2003; Chen et al. 2003; Lin et al. 2003), and consequently several species are cultivated for medicinal purposes, such as H. amabilis, H. chinensis, and H. macrosperma. The medical properties of Hemsleya are exploited in the pharmaceutical industry. Anticancer activities of H. amabilis have been reported (Wu et al. 2002).

The genus Hemsleya was established in 1888 by Cogniaux ex Forbes et Hemsley (Forbes and Hemsley 1888; Jeffrey 1980a, b; Wu and Chen 1986; Li 1993) with only one species. In the following decades, few new species were reported and as a result, many botanists thought that this genus was a monotypic or an oligotypic genus until the 1980s. Many new species have been described since then. It is now considered a medium-sized genus in the Cucurbitaceae with a principal distribution in southern and southwestern China. The first complete infrageneric classification encompassed 31 species and ten varieties in four sections based on morphological characters of flowers, fruits, and seed (Wu and Chen 1985, 1986). The genus was chemotaxonomically studied by Nie and Chen (1986) and Qiu et al. (2005). Li (1993) proposed a new infrageneric classification with 24 species and 12 varieties in two subgenera: subg. Graciliflorae with only one species, and subg. Hemsleya, which was further divided into three sections: sect. Delavayanae, sect. Amabiles (including subsect. Macrocarpae, Dipterygiae, Amabiles, and Sphaerocarpae), and sect. Hemsleya (including subsect. Carnosiflorae and Chinenses).

The main objective of this paper is to reconstruct a molecular phylogeny of the genus Hemsleya and to test the infrageneric classifications of Wu and Chen $(1985,1986)$ and Li (1993). In addition, we would like to address the cause of the biogeographic pattern of this Sino-Himalayan genus and to get a better understanding of the origin and evolution of the genus in relation to the uplift of the Himalayas. In this study, we sequenced the nuclear ribosomal internal transcribed spacers ( nrITS ) as well as three chloroplast regions: the rpl16 intron, the $\operatorname{trn} \mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A}$ intergenic spacer, and the $t r n \mathrm{~L}$ region. Both ITS and $\operatorname{trn} \mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A}$ have been useful in clarifying interspecific and intergeneric relationships in Cucurbitaceae (Jobst et al. 1998; Jarret and

Newman 2000; Garcia-Mas et al. 2004), particularly in the subfamily Cucurbitoideae.

## Materials and methods

Plant samples
All Hemsleya species recognized by Li (1993), except $H$. heterosperma, were sampled to represent all subsections (Wu and Chen 1986; Li 1993). Hemsleya heterosperma, distributed in Myanmar, was not sampled because of inaccessibility. We used one species of Gomphogyne and one species of Gynostemma as outgroups, as both genera are members of the subtribe Gomphogyninae and are closely related to Hemsleya (Jeffrey 1990, 2005; Li 1993; Chen 1995; Kocyan et al. 2007). Samples were collected in the wild, except for $H$. endecaphylla, which was collected from locally cultivated material (Table 1). Healthy, clean leaves were quickly dried in silica gel, and voucher herbarium specimens were deposited at the Herbarium of the Kunming Institute of Botany of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (KUN).

## DNA extraction, amplification, and sequencing

For each sample, total genomic DNA was isolated from 0.2 g silica gel-dried or 0.4 g fresh leaf material ground in liquid nitrogen using a modified CTAB method (Doyle and Doyle 1987), using 4\% CTAB and the addition of approximately $1 \%$ polyvinyl polypyrrolidone (PVP) and $2 \% \beta$-mercaptoethanol instead of $2 \%$ CTAB.

Following extraction, DNA was amplified by PCR (Saiki et al. 1988). The nrITS region includes the ITS1, 5.8 S , and ITS2 sequences and was amplified with the reverse primer ITS-4 ( $5^{\prime}$-TCC TCC GCT TAT TGA TAT GC-3') and the forward primer ITS-5 ( $5^{\prime}$-GGA AGG AGA AGT CGT AAC AAG G-3') (White et al. 1990). The $\operatorname{trn} \mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A}$ region was amplified using the method described by Shaw et al. (2005) with the forward primer $t r n H^{\text {GUG }}$ ( $5^{\prime}$-CGC GCA TGG TGG ATT CAC AAT CC-3') (Tate and Simpson 2003) and the reverse primer $p s b A\left(5^{\prime}\right.$-GTT ATG CAT GAA CGT AAT GCT C-3') (Sang et al. 1997). The rpl16 intron region was amplified following Jordan et al. (1996) with the forward primer rpl16-F71 ( $5^{\prime}$-GCT ATG CTT AGT GTG TGA CTC GTT G-3') and the reverse primer rpl16-R1516 (5'-CCC TTC ATT CTT CCT CTA TGT TG-3'). The $\operatorname{trn} \mathrm{L}$ region (including the $t r n \mathrm{~L}$ intron and the $t r n \mathrm{~L}-\mathrm{F}$ spacer) was amplified following Taberlet et al. (1991) with the forward primer ucp-c ( $5^{\prime}$-CGA AAT CGG TAG ACG CTA CG-3') and the reverse primer ucp-f ( $5^{\prime}$-ATT TGA ACT GGT GAC ACG AG-3').
Table 1 Taxa and voucher specimens of Hemsleya and outgroups used in this study

| Species | Section | Subsection | Locality information | GenBank no. |  |  |  | Voucher |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | ITS | $t r n \mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A}$ | rpl16 | $t r n \mathrm{~L}$ |  |
| Subg. Graciliflorae |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Subg. Hemsleya |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| H. delavayi | Delavayanae |  | Songming, Yunnan (SH) | EF424063 | EF424068 | EF424072 | EU305236 | H. T. Li 048 |
| H. macrocarpa | Amabiles | Macrocarpae | Yongde, Yunnan (SH) | EF621652 | EF621698 | EF621632 | EU305246 | H. T. Li 003 |
| H. mitrata | Amabiles | Macrocarpae | Yongde, Yunnan (SH) | EF621650 | EF621696 | EF621630 | EU305248 | H. T. Li 052 |
| H. panlongqi | Amabiles | Macrocarpae | Gulin, Sichuan (SJ) | EF621647 | EF621693 | EF621624 | EU305251 | H. T. Li 040 |
| H. dipterygia | Amabiles | Dipterygiae | Jinxiu, Guangxi (SJ) | EF621659 | EF621704 | EF621623 | EU305237 | H. T. Li 064 |
| H. lijiangensis | Amabiles | Amabiles | Lijiang, Yunnan (SH) | EF424065 | EF424070 | EF424075 | EU305244 | H. T. Li 047 |
| H. amabilis | Amabiles | Amabiles | Songming, Yunnan (SH) | EF424066 | EF424071 | EF424074 | EU305232 | H. T. Li 060 |
| H. sphaerocarpa | Amabiles | Sphaerocarpae | Kaili, Guizhou (SJ) | EF621645 | EF621691 | EF621634 | EU305253 | H. T. Li 004 |
| H. panacis-scandens | Hemsleya | Carnosiflorae | Gejiu, Yunnan (SH) | EF621648 | EF621694 | EF621636 | EU305250 | H. T. Li 002 |
| H. omeiensis | Hemsleya | Carnosiflorae | Omei, Sichuan (SH) | EF621649 | EF621695 | EF621627 | EU305249 | H. T. Li 035 |
| H. pengxianensis | Hemsleya | Carnosiflorae | Pengxian, Sichuan (SJ) | EF621646 | EF621692 | EF621626 | EU305252 | H. T. Li 033 |
| H. turbinata | Hemsleya | Carnosiflorae | Yongde, Yunnan (SH) | EF621644 | EF621690 | EF621633 | EU305254 | H. T. Li 836 |
| H. ellipsoidea | Hemsleya | Carnosiflorae | Omei, Sichuan (SH) | EF621658 | EF621703 | EF621631 | EU305239 | H. T. Li 014 |
| H. carnosiflora | Hemsleya | Carnosiflorae | Luoping, Yunnan (SJ) | EF621661 | EF621685 | EF621635 | EU305233 | H. T. Li 001 |
| H. chengyihana | Hemsleya | Carnosiflorae | Yongde, Yunnan (SH) | EF621660 | EF621705 | EF621637 | EU305234 | H. T. Li 055 |
| H. zhejiangensis | Hemsleya | Carnosiflorae | Taishun, Zhejiang (SJ) | EF621643 | EF621689 | EF621639 | EU305255 | H. T. Li 012 |
| H. chinensis | Hemsleya | Chinenses | Omei, Sichuan (SH) | EF424064 | EF424069 | EF424073 | EU305235 | H. T. Li 023 |
| H. gigantha | Hemsleya | Chinenses | Shimian, Sichuan (SH) | EF621656 | EF621701 | EF621629 | EU305241 | H. T. Li 028 |
| H. longicarpa | Hemsleya | Chinenses | Pengxian, Sichuan (SJ) | EF621653 | EF621699 | EF621625 | EU305245 | H. T. Li 034 |
| H. macrosperma | Hemsleya | Chinenses | Zhaotong, Yunnan (SH) | EF621651 | EF621697 | EF621628 | EU305247 | H. T. Li 070 |
| H. dulongjiangensis | Hemsleya | Chinenses | Gongshan, Yunnan (SH) | EF621657 | EF621686 | EF621621 | EU305238 | YDJ 20394 |
| H. endecaphylla | Hemsleya | Chinenses | Lijiang, Yunnan (SH) | EF621655 | EF621702 | EF621638 | EU305240 | H. T. Li 049 |
| Outgroups |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Gomphogyne cissiformis |  |  | Yongde, Yunnan | EF621663 | EF621706 | EF621641 | EU305231 | H. T. Li 835 |
| Gynostemma pentaphyllum |  |  | Widespread | EF621662 | EF621687 | EF621622 | EU305230 | H. T. Li 005 |

SH Sino-Himalayan Forest subkingdom, SJ Sino-Japanese Forest subkingdom

PCR amplifications were performed in $25 \mu \mathrm{l}$ volume reactions with final concentrations of $1 \times$ buffer, 0.2 U of Taq polymerase, 2.5 mM of $\mathrm{MgCl}_{2}, 250 \mu \mathrm{M}$ of dNTPs, $0.2 \mu \mathrm{M}$ of each forward and reverse primer, and approximately 50 ng of template DNA. The thermal cycler (PE9600 or PE9700, Perkin Elmer) was programmed with an initial denaturation step of 4 min at $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$; followed by 36 cycles of 1 min at $94^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, 45 \mathrm{~s}$ at $50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}, 1 \mathrm{~min}$ at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$; and a final extension step of 7 min at $72^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. PCR products were visualized by ethidium bromide and agarose gel electrophoresis, cleaned with Wizard PCR preps DNA Purification system (Promega, Madison, WI, USA), and both strands sequenced for sequence confirmation using the same primers as used for PCR amplifications.

In order to check for the concerted evolution of ITS, PCR products of the species $H$. amabilis, H. chinensis, H. lijiangensis, H. endecaphylla, and H. dulongjiangensis were cloned into Promega's pGEM-T System I vector. Ligation, transformation, and plating were carried out following the recommendations of the manufacturer with some modifications.

Cycle sequencing was carried out on PE9600 or PE9700 thermal cyclers. Each $5 \mu \mathrm{l}$ reaction contained $1 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of purified PCR product, $1 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of $0.2 \mu \mathrm{M}$ of primer, $1 \mu \mathrm{l} \mathrm{Big}$ Dye, and $2 \mu \mathrm{lddH} \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ and was run through a program of 33 cycles of $96^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $10 \mathrm{~s}, 50^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 5 s , and $60^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 4 min . Reactions were cleaned using CleanSEQ (Perkin-Elmer, Norfolk, CT) and run on an ABI PRISM 3700 DNA capillary automated sequence analyzer.

Phylogenetic analyses
DNA sequences were assembled using Lasergene analysis software (DNASTAR, Madison, WI, USA; Burland 2000). Clustal X (Thompson et al. 1997) was used to produce a basic sequence alignment, which was further corrected manually using BioEdit (Hall 1999). Gaps were coded using GapCoder (Simmons and Ochoterena 2000).

Maximum parsimony (MP) analyses were conducted using PAUP 4.0b10 (Swofford 2001). Characters were treated as unordered and unweighted. Heuristic searches were conducted with tree-bisection reconnection (TBR) branch swapping, MulTrees ON, and 10,000 random taxon addition replicates holding 20 trees at each step. Bootstrap support (BS) values for individual clades were calculated by running 1,000 bootstrap replicates of the data, with starting trees acquired by a single replicate of random stepwise addition of taxa, under TBR branch swapping, and MulTrees ON. The consistency index (CI), retention index (RI), rescaled consistency index (RC), and pairwise distances were obtained through PAUP 4.0 b 10 as the actual number of site differences excluding indels.

Bayesian analyses (BA) were conducted using MrBayes 3.12 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist 2001; Ronquist and Huelsenbeck 2003). Model parameters were determined by the Akaike information criterion (AIC) in ModelTest v3.6 (Posada and Crandall 1998) for the best fitting models of molecular evolution for each gene. The results based on the AIC test showed that the best-fit models were the TIM $+G$ model for the ITS sequences $[$ Base $=(0.19340 .3680$ $0.2742)$, Nst $=6$, Rmat $=(1.00001 .27840 .32020 .3202$ 2.7168), Rates $=$ gamma, Shape $=0.6543$, Pinvar $=0]$, the TMV + G model for the $\operatorname{trnH} \mathrm{H} p s \mathrm{~A}$ spacer [Base $=$ (0.4131 0.1335 0.1393), Nst $=6$, Rmat $=(2.38741 .5769$ 0.45310 .6652 1.5769), Rates $=$ gamma, Shape $=0.3713$, Pinvar $=0$ ], the K81uf model for the rpl16 intron [Base $=(0.27910 .16710 .1362)$, Nst $=6$, Rmat $=(1.0000$ 1.22420 .63860 .63861 .2242 ), Rates $=$ gamma, Shape $=$ 0.4051 , Pinvar $=0]$, and the TMV + G model for the $\operatorname{trn} \mathrm{L}$ region [Base $=(0.35910 .17590 .1628)$, Nst $=6$, Rmat $=$ ( 0.60981 .29780 .26221 .18661 .2978 ), Rates = gamma, Shape $=0.2978$, Pinvar $=0]$. Four independent Markov Chain Monte Carlo chains were run simultaneously and sampled every 100 generations for a total of $1,000,000$ generations. To establish the "burn-in" phase, i.e., log probability values stationarity, a plot of generations against log likelihood scores was performed using Excel 2003 (Microsoft, Redmond, WA, USA); these burn-in trees were discarded from the analysis. The majority rule consensus tree was calculated using PAUP 4.0b10 (Swofford 2001).

Congruence among the data sets (ITS, $t r n \mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A}, r p l 16$ intron, and $t r n \mathrm{~L}$ region) was evaluated with the partition homogeneity test of Farris et al. $(1994,1995)$ implemented in PAUP 4.0b10 (Swofford 2001), using 1,000 resampling replicates under maximum parsimony, and all characters equally weighted.

We conducted MP and BA analyses on individual datasets (ITS, $\operatorname{trn} \mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A}, r p l 16$ intron, and $\operatorname{trn} \mathrm{L}$ region) and the combined dataset. Phylogenetic inferences were based on comparisons of both the MP strict consensus tree and Bayesian majority rule consensus tree.

## Results

## ITS clone sequences

Five independent clones of the ITS regions in each of five species of Hemsleya were sequenced. Among H. amabilis, H. lijiangensis, H. endecaphylla, and H. dulongjiangensis, the five sequences of each species were identical. In $H$. chinensis, there was a nucleotide difference among the five sequences. The cloned ITS sequences were used to construct a MP dendrogram, and sequences clearly grouped into subclades by species.

## Sequence comparisons

Sequence characteristics for the five datasets (ITS, $\operatorname{trnH}-$ psbA, rpl16, trnL, and the combined ITS $+t r n \mathrm{H}-$ $p s b \mathrm{~A}+r p l 16+t r n \mathrm{~L}$ matrix) are shown in Table 2. The aligned combined matrix, including coded gaps, consisted of 3,087 characters, of which 354 ( $11.5 \%$ ) were variable and $130(4.9 \%)$ were potentially parsimony informative. The ITS sequences alone showed variation at 159 of 552 sites ( $29 \%$ ), and of these 48 ( $8.7 \%$ ) were potentially informative. The $\operatorname{tr} n \mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A}$ spacer sequences possessed variation at 55 out of 495 sites ( $11.1 \%$ ), of which $24(4.8 \%)$ were potentially parsimony informative. The rpl16 intron sequence showed variation at 84 out of 1,056 sites ( $8 \%$ ), and 34 $(3.2 \%)$ were potentially informative. The $t r n \mathrm{~L}$ region sequences possessed variation at 56 out of 984 sites ( $5.7 \%$ ), of which $24(2.5 \%)$ were potentially parsimony informative.

The entire ITS region, including both spacers and the 5.8S gene, was 631 base pairs (bp) for all taxa, except for H. graciliflora, which had a sequence length of 643 bp . Alignment of this species required a total of three indels. The first two were a 10-bp and a 1-bp insertion in ITS1, and another was a 1-bp insertion in ITS2. The ITS1 region alone was 228 bp (except for H. graciliflora with 239 bp ), while the ITS2 region was 239 bp (except for H. graciliflora, which was 240 bp ). The 5.8 S gene was the most conserved region and was 164 bp long in all species sequenced. There were no variable sites in the 5.8 S gene, so it was excluded from the analyses. The trn $\mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A}$ spacer region was approximately 500 bp long, with nine indels ranging from 1 to 22 bp in length. The 22-bp insertion was an autapomorphy for $H$. graciliflora. The rpl16 intron region was approximately $1,050 \mathrm{bp}$, with a poly-A region ranging from 10 to 12 bp among all species included, as well as an 8 -bp insertion unique to $H$. macrosperma. The trnL region was about 1 kb long including eight 1-bp indels.

## Pairwise divergence

The calculated pairwise divergence values of nucleotide substitutions between all pairs of 25 taxa showed an
average of $1.59 \%$, ranging from 0.97 to $7.39 \%$. Hemsleya species had an average pairwise divergence of $0.57 \%$, ranging from 0.44 to $0.92 \%$. Subgenus Graciliflorae showed a pairwise divergence from subg. Hemsleya of $0.92 \%$, and subg. Hemsleya had an average pairwise divergence of only $0.55 \%$, ranging from 0.41 to $0.68 \%$.

Phylogenetic analyses

Separate analyses using MP and BA of the ITS, $\operatorname{trn} \mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A}$, $r p l 16$, and $t r n \mathrm{~L}$ datasets produced trees with relatively low resolution for many clades. The partition homogeneity test suggested that the four datasets were not significantly incongruent $(P=0.05)$. Furthermore, previous studies have questioned the validity of the incongruence length test (Reeves et al. 2001; Yoder et al. 2001), and it may be more reasonable to identify strongly supported topological conflict as a measure of incongruence (Wiens 1998). Therefore, the four datasets were combined for phylogenetic analyses.

In our study, the method of data analysis (MP or BA) had no effect, and the resulting topologies were highly similar. MP and BA recovered well-resolved topologies with moderately supported branches. The MP analysis of the combined data yielded two most parsimonious trees of 630 steps ( $\mathrm{CI}=0.854, \mathrm{RI}=0.708, \mathrm{RC}=0.605$ ). The strict consensus tree was highly resolved with mostly moderate branch support (Fig. 1), as shown by the bootstrap values. The BA reached stationarity after around 80,000 generations. Thus the first 801 trees were eliminated, leaving a total of 9,200 trees in the majority rule consensus tree. The topologies of the MP and BA analyses strongly supported the monophyly of the genus Hemsleya ( $\mathrm{BS}=100 \%$; $\mathrm{PP}=100 \%$ ). In both analyses (Figs. 1, 2), the basal-most group was found to be H. graciliflora of the monotypic subg. Graciliflorae, which was sister to the monophyletic subg. Hemsleya ( $\mathrm{BS}=86 \%$; $\mathrm{PP}=100 \%$ ). Among the remainder of subgenus Hemsleya, three moderately supported clades were resolved. Clades B and C formed sister clades in relation to clade A in the analyses $(\mathrm{BS}=75 \%, \mathrm{PP}=100 \%)$.

Table 2 DNA site variation and tree statistics for the five data sets used in the phylogenetic analyses of 23 Hemsleya species and two outgroups

|  | Characters <br> $(n)$ | Variable <br> sites $(n)$ | Informative <br> sites $(n)$ | Informative <br> sites $(\%)$ | Trees $(n)$ | Tree length | CI | RI | RC |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ITS | 552 | 159 | 48 | 8.7 | 3 | 270 | 0.925 | 0.730 | 0.675 |
| $t r n \mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A}$ | 495 | 55 | 24 | 4.8 | 16 | 101 | 0.917 | 0.837 | 0.767 |
| $r p l 16$ | 1,056 | 84 | 34 | 3.2 | 1 | 138 | 0.950 | 0.882 | 0.839 |
| $t r n \mathrm{~L}$ | 984 | 56 | 24 | 2.5 | 4 | 95 | 0.853 | 0.868 | 0.740 |
| ITS + trnH-psbA + rpl16 + trnL | 3,087 | 354 | 130 | 4.9 | 2 | 630 | 0.854 | 0.708 | 0.605 |

$C I$ Consistency index, $R I$ retention index, $R C$ rescaled consistency index


Fig. 1 Strict consensus tree $(\mathrm{CI}=0.854$, $\mathrm{RI}=0.708, \mathrm{RC}=0.605)$ of the two most parsimonious trees based on combined data of four DNA regions (ITS, $t r n \mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A}, r p l 16$, and $\operatorname{trnL}$ ) for 25 taxa. Bootstrap values are shown above the branches; posterior probability values are shown below the branches. Filled circle indicates the geographical distribution belonging to Sino-Himalayan Forest subkingdom. Star indicates the only widespread species with its geographical distribution both in the Sino-Himalayan Forest subkingdom and the SinoJapanese Forest subkingdom

Within the clades, some sister pair relationships were well supported in both analyses.

Clade A, including Hemsleya panlongqi, H. zhejiangensis, H. dipterygia, H. pengxiansis, and H. longicarpa, as well as $H$. dulongjiangensis, H. sphaerocarpa, and H. carnosiflora, represents the Sino-Japanese Forest subkingdom, except for H. dulongjiangensis, which is from northwestern Yunnan, part of the Sino-Himalayan Forest subkingdom. Clade B comprises H. ellipsoidea, H. chinensis, H. gigantha, H. omeiensis, H. amabilis, H. macrosperma, and $H$. lijiangensis. The first four species are from southern Sichuan, and the last three species are from northeastern Yunnan, except $H$. lijiangensis from northwestern Yunnan. In fact, the first six species are continuous in their geographical distribution. Clade C consists of H. endecaphylla, H. chengyihana, H. mitrata, H. turbinata, H. macrocarpa, H. panics-scandens, and H. delavayi. These species are geographically restricted to southwestern Yunnan (excluding H. endecaphylla, collected from locally cultivated material in Lijiang, northwestern Yunnan). Species of clades B and C are all from the Sino-Himalayan Forest subkingdom.


Fig. 2 One of the two most parsimonious trees as a phylogram. Branch lengths are shown above the branches

## Discussion

DNA sequences from several different genes, gene regions, and genomes, including nuclear and chloroplast sequences, have been extensively employed to determine relationships at both higher and lower taxonomic levels in Cucurbitaceae (Ganal and Hemleben 1986; Jobst et al. 1998; Zhang et al. 2006). Comprehensive molecular phylogenetic studies have been carried out on many genera within the family (Sanjur et al. 2002; Chung et al. 2003, 2006; Clarke et al. 2006), but mostly in subfamily Cucurbitoideae and a few in subfamily Nhandiroboideae, and none involving the genus Hemsleya.

The combined analyses of nuclear ribosomal ITS and chloroplast $t r n \mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A}$ spacer, $r p l 16$ intron, and $t r n \mathrm{~L}$ region sequences proved to be very useful in resolving species relationships within Hemsleya. In spite of the poorly resolved trees produced by analyses of individual data sets, combined analyses of the four DNA regions recovered highly resolved topologies. Several studies have previously shown that better resolution and support for phylogenetic topologies is achieved by increasing the number of characters (Soltis et al. 1998; Graybeal 1998; Hillis 1998;

Bremer et al. 1999; Wortley et al. 2005). The current study is in agreement with those studies.

Although the present sequence data did not resolve all relationships among Hemsleya species, the different phylogenetic analyses conducted (MP, BA) resulted in congruent trees that supported the monophyly of the genus Hemsleya with respect to the two outgroup genera chosen (Jeffrey 1990, 2005; Li 1993). The trees were well resolved and had moderately supported topologies. In the Bayesian analysis, the topologies received stronger support values. Some studies (Rannala and Yang 1996; Suzuki et al. 2002; Wilcox et al. 2002) have shown that Bayesian posterior probability values are almost always higher than parsimony bootstrap values for a given node, as the posterior probability value is dependent on the model, the data, and the priors. Therefore, the Bayesian topology should be interpreted with more caution. Similarly, the bootstrap analysis also has the limitation of resampling to consistently underestimate true nodal support (Hillis and Bull 1993; Wilcox et al. 2002). Thus, in this study, we interpreted our results in the light of both bootstrap and posterior probability values.

In general, the ITS region and the trnH-psbA spacer can provide enough informative sites for phylogenetic analyses. The ITS region was able to resolve phylogenetic relationships among species of the subfamily Cucurbitoideae (Jobst et al. 1998). Furthermore, trnH-psbA spacer has been discussed as one of the barcoding regions (Kress et al. 2005; Vischi et al. 2006; Kress and Erickson 2007). However, neither provided enough informative sites in Hemsleya. Separate ITS, trnH-psbA, rpl16, and trnL datasets did not provide enough informative sites among Hemsleya species. Despite using a combined analysis of four datasets, the number of parsimony-informative characters was still insufficient to resolve all relationships among species of Hemsleya. Some subclades did not receive bootstrap support higher than $80 \%$.

There may be two reasons for the unresolved relationships in our phylogenetic study of Hemsleya. First, the genus may be of relatively recent origin. The genus Hemsleya may have originated at the transition of the Paleogene and Neogene (Li 1993). The rather low values in pairwise divergence (about 0.55\%) among subg. Hemsleya and the short branches in one of the two most parsimonious trees (Fig. 2) also suggests that subg. Hemsleya may be a more recent split from subg. Graciliflora.

The other possible explanation is interspecific hybridization and polyploidy. Hybridization could lead to chloroplast capture among taxa. Consequently, this would be detectable as incongruence between nuclear and chloroplast phylogenies. However, the $t r n \mathrm{H}-p s b \mathrm{~A}, ~ r p l 16$ intron, and $t r n \mathrm{~L}$ region had few informative sites and produced poorly resolved trees; thus they are unable to provide clear
evidence of hybrid origins. Hemsleya can be easily hybridized in cultivation ( Li 1993 ), however, there is no empirical evidence for the hybrid origin of any of the species in the wild. Although the current geographic distribution and isolation of most Hemsleya species tends to discourage hybridization (with the exception of the widespread $H$. graciliflora), dioecism and xenogamy of all species tends to favor outcrossing; thus the chance for hybridization may exist. Moreover, plants of H. turbinata, H. macrocarpa, H. chengyihana, and H. mitrata are distributed in adjacent areas, increasing the potential for hybridization among those species. The variable somatic chromosome numbers, ranging from $4 n=28$ (tetraploid) to $6 n=42$ (hexaploid) (Li 1993), could be indicative of hybridization and polyploidy. However, polyploidy has not been evaluated in Hemsleya species by experimental studies.

In both the MP and BA analysis of the combined datasets, we recovered topologies in which $H$. graciliflora was the basal-most group of Hemsleya (Fig. 1). These topologies are in agreement with the subgeneric division of the genus by Li (1993). Li (1993) defined Hemsleya with two subgenera, Hemsleya and Graciliflorae, mainly on the basis of the presence or absence of tubers, respectively. The single species of subg. Graciliflorae ( $H$. graciliflora), widespread at altitudes below 800 m , was found to be sister to all other species of subg. Hemsleya. Based on the morphology of flowers and seed, subgenus Hemsleya is divided into three sections: sect. Delavayanae (with patelliform corollas and suberose seed-wings), sect. Amabiles (with radiate corollas), and sect. Hemsleya (with patelliform, umbraculiferous, or spherical corollas and no seed-wings). At the sectional level, the topologies partly corresponded to the classification of Li (1993). However, species of sect. Amabiles and sect. Hemsleya are nested in clades A, B, and C, implying that both sections are polyphyletic. For instance, in clade C, H. turbinata (sect. Hemsleya) was resolved as sister to $H$. macrocarpa (sect. Amabiles) with BS of $100 \%$. In clade A, H. zhejiangensis (sect. Hemsleya) and H. dipterygia (Sect. Amabiles) were resolved as sister species with BS of $83 \%$. The type species of sect. Amabiles, H. amabilis, is clustered with most species of sect. Hemlseya, including the type species H. chinensis in clade B, but with low BS support. At the subsectional levels, molecular data only weakly supported the traditional classification of Li (1993). Clades B and C reflected subsect. Chinenses and subsect. Carnosiflorae respectively, however, the members of subsections were not the same as Li's classification.

However, while the molecular tree does not completely agree with the current morphological classification, the topology correlates well with the geographical distribution of the species. Floristic divisions of Wu and Wu (1998)
suggest that the forest area in the East Asiatic Floristic Kingdom can be divided into three subkingdoms: the SinoJapanese Forest subkingdom, the Sino-Himalayan Forest subkingdom, and the Qinghai-Xizang Plateau subkingdom. Each clade in our analysis occupies a distinct geographical distribution, isolated from other clades (Fig. 3). All species of clades B and C are distributed in the Sino-Himalayan Forest subkingdom, while those in clade A occur in the Sino-Japanese Forest subkingdom, with the exception of H. dulongjiangensis in northwestern Yunnan (part of the Sino-Himalayan Forest subkingdom).

All of the basal clades occur in the Sino-Himalayan Forest subkingdom, including the basal-most species, H. graciliflora (which is distributed across the two subkingdoms). It is therefore likely that the eastern part of the Sino-Himalayan Forest subkingdom, in which more than $70 \%$ of the genus is distributed ( Li 1993 ), is the center of diversification and speciation of Hemsleya. This area was located in the Kangdian ancient landmass (Zhou 1984). Furthermore, there has been no great geologic and climatic change in the Kangdian ancient landmass since the Tertiary (Zhou 1984; Wu 1984, unpublished), so this could also be the center of origin of Hemsleya. This conclusion is in agreement with Li (1993) and Chen (1995). With a
southeast to northeast Yunnan and south Sichuan continuum within clades B and C, respectively, along with several distribution zones of the Sino-Japanese Forest subkingdom, a bidirectional expansion from the Kangdian ancient landmass may have occurred. If clades B and C truly are the sister group of clade A, this may indicate that diversification in the Sino-Himalayan Forest subkingdom is parallel to diversification in the Sino-Japanese Forest subkingdom. However, diversification in the Sino-Himalayas is higher as a result of the much stronger influence of the uplift of the Himalayas. It seems, therefore, that geography may be a better indicator of phylogenetic relationships within the genus than habit, flower morphology, or seed morphology.

The analyses of ITS, $\operatorname{trnH}-p s b \mathrm{~A}, \operatorname{rpl} 16$, and $\operatorname{trn} \mathrm{L}$ sequences provide the first molecular phylogeny of the genus Hemsleya and offer insights into the relationships among its species. However, the gene regions used were unable to resolve all phylogenetic relationships within Hemsleya. Thus, additional studies utilizing gene regions with higher rates of nucleotide substitutions are needed to fully resolve and support the species relationships. Nevertheless, this study provides new interpretations of the systematics and evolutionary relationships within the genus


Fig. 3 The geographical distribution of Hemsleya. Map showing the distribution of clades. Black dashed line divides the Sino-Himalayan Forest subkingdom and Sino-Japanese Forest subkingdom. The
rectangle represents the diversity and speciation centers of Hemsleya and also the main body of the Kangdian ancient landmass

Hemsleya and demonstrates that geography, habitat, and other ecological factors may predominantly act as vital driving forces in the evolution of Hemsleya.

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