1	Genome size variation and molecular phylogeny in the genus Cheirolophus
2	Cass. : biogeographic implications.
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15	Summary
16	• Nuclear DNA amount has been assessed in 21 populations of 19 species
17	of the genus Cheirolophus, and phylogenetic analyses have been
18	performed in order to find the relationships between the species of the
19	Mediterranean Basin and those of Macaronesia.
20	• A combined analysis of nuclear ribosomal DNA ITS and ETS has been
21	performed based on Bayesian inference, and nuclear DNA amount has
22	been assesed by flow cytometry.
23	• The monophyly of the Macaronesian group and its relationship with Ch.
24	sempervirens indicate a unique colonization event of Macaronesia from
25	the continent, contraryly to the various colonizations that should have
26	occurred in the Canarian archipelago. DNA amount is significantly lower

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in the insular species than in the continental ones, and a parallelism 1 appears between the evolution of the genus Cheirolophus (colonization 2 of the islands) and the loss of DNA, probably due to the selection 3 pressure existing in the oceanic islands or to the founding effect. 4 5 6 Keywords: Asteraceae, biogeography, Cheirolophus, C-value, DNA amount, genome 7 8 size, islands, molecular phylogeny. 9 10 11 12 13 Introduction 14

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The biogeographic region of Macaronesia comprises several groups of islands: the 15 16 archipelagos of the Canary Islands, the Azores, Madeira, Cape Verde and the Selvagens 17 Islands. All of these are of volcanic origin and located in the Atlantic Ocean between the coordinates 39° 45' N, 31° 17' W and 14° 49' N, 13° 20' W. The flora of 18 19 Macaronesia is highly diverse and complex, with a considerable number of endemics. In 20 fact, oceanic islands are usually rich in endemicity, and at least 500 endemic species are 21 found in Canary Islands (González, 1992). It is believed that there is a connection 22 between the flora of this region and that of the Mediterranean Basin and north-west 23 Africa (Suda et al., 2003) and that a major role is played by the sea mounts surrounding 24 the archipelagos, which acted as bridges of dispersion and colonization in the geological 25 past, when sea levels were lower (García-Talavera, 1999). This is called the stepping-26 stone model (see Juan et al., 2000).

1 The highest biodiversity of Macaronesia is found in the Canary Islands, possibly 2 due to the great variety of habitats and the broad range of geological ages 3 (Fernandopullé, 1976; Carracedo, 1994), among other possible reasons. The Canaries 4 are the biggest and most developed archipelago of Macaronesia and form a volcanically 5 active alignment of seven islands distributed in a band near the African coast. The 6 nearest island is Fuerteventura, only 100 km from Africa. Fuerteventura is thought to 7 have been joined to Lanzarote and to other islets 18,000 years ago, forming a single 8 island only 60 km from the coast of Africa (García-Talavera, 1999). The fact that the 9 Macaronesian archipelagos, and especially the Canaries, are relatively near the African 10 continent makes them different from the other oceanic islands.

11 The genus Cheirolophus (Asteraceae, Cardueae) was originally described by 12 Cassini (1817), who based his description on some species from Centaurea L. Ever 13 since then it has been considered as an independent genus by different authors (Dostál, 14 1976; Bremer, 1994). Cheirolophus includes ca. 20 species distributed along the west 15 Mediterranean Basin and Macaronesia; some Cheirolophus have a wide distribution, 16 such as Ch. intybaceus, Ch. sempervirens and Ch. uliginosus, while approximately 17 17 are described, some of them quite recently, as endemic to the Canary Islands (Bramwell 18 & Bramwell, 2001). Only, one species is endemic to Madeira, Ch. massonianus (Lowe) 19 A. Hansen & Sunding. All Cheirolophus are shrubs, subshrubs or shrublets, excluding 20 Ch. uliginosus (Brot.) Dostál, which is a hemichryptophyte. Preliminary studies on this 21 genus (Susanna et al., 1995, 1999) upholded its monophyly with the inclusion of Ch. 22 crassifolius (Bertol.) Susanna, previoulsy named Paleocyanus crassifolius (Bertol.) 23 Dostál. Cheirolophus is regarded as a basal genus of the Centaureinae (Garcia-Jacas et al., 2001; Hellwig, 2004) and it would have diverged from this subtribe during the late 24 25 Oligocene and Miocene (Hellwig, 2004), although its speciation is relatively recent 26 (Garnatje et al., 1998; Susanna et al., 1999).

1 The performance of molecular phylogenetic analysis has long been useful in 2 tracing the origin and evolution of island endemics, as has been shown in some other Asteraceae genera, such as Robinsonia (Sang et al., 1995), Aeonium (Mes, 1995) or the 3 4 Macaronesian Argyranthemum (Francisco-Ortega et al., 1997). Sometimes, however, 5 the resolution obtained with these methods is not as high as desired. From a 6 phylogenetic perspective, three issues still remain unresolved in this group. The first is 7 the delimitation of Ch. intybaceus (Lam.) Dostál, a species with a large distribution area 8 from the south of France to the south of Spain, and embracing part of the Balearic 9 Islands. Some authors (Olivares et al., 1995, Stübing et al., 1997) have conferred the 10 status of distinct species to some populations from this area. In a previous study (Susanna et al., 1999), one of these species, Ch. grandifolius (Font Quer) Stübing, 11 Peris, Olivares & Martín did not show any molecular difference with respect to Ch. 12 13 intybaceus, on the basis of the sequences of the ITS region. In the present work, we 14 have also included another of these species, Ch. lagunae Olivares, Peris, Stübing & 15 Martín, which inhabits specific localities on the coast of Alacant (Spain). The second 16 question is the low resolution of the phylogeny within the Macaronesian group, but 17 Baldwin et al. (1998) outlined the difficulty of an accurate estimation of the phylogeny 18 of insular plants due to the low variability that the DNA regions used for the analysis 19 usually show. A combination of different data could possibly solve the phylogeny of the 20 insular taxa (Mort et al., 2002). With this purpose, the present work combines data from 21 the analysis of the ITS sequences (Susanna et al., 1999) with those from the ETS region 22 of nuclear ribosomal DNA. Finally, the third question is the clarification of the 23 phylogenetic placement of Ch. crassifolius.

Together with all the data coming from phylogenetic studies, data on genome size variation can contribute to a better understanding in the interpretation of the systematics and the evolutionary relationships within a narrow group of plants (Ohri,

1998). Genome size is an important biodiversity character, linked to many aspects in the 1 2 biology of a species (Bennett, 1998). Although the meaning of the variation in the C-3 value (i.e. genome size) is still not completely well understood (Gregory, 2001, 2005), and that it is still too soon to establish any model or to see if this parameter could have 4 5 remarkable systematic implications (only approximately 3% of angiosperm species have 6 a known C-value), its study can certainly provide valuable information in the 7 clarification of the relationships between close species. Thus, for example, Zonneveld & 8 Iren (2001) found that when many species in a genus had the same chromosome 9 numbers, differences in nuclear DNA contents proved to be effective in delimiting infrageneric divisions in a number of taxa. Thus, the study of genome size variation 10 could reveal divergence within a genus (like in Hypochaeris, Cerbah et al., 1999, or in 11 12 Musa, Lysák et al., 1999).

Hence, the objectives of the present work are: a) to obtain a molecular phylogeny from the combined data sets of the different DNA regions, b) to relate the phylogeny with the biogeographic framework of these species, and c) to use the information provided by genome size in the analysis of the phylogeny.

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18 Materials and Methods

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20 Plant material

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Table 1 shows the provenance of all the species investigated. *Petunia hybrida* cv. PxPc6 (2C=2.85pg) was used as internal standard for flow cytometric measurements. It was provided by the Institut des Sciences du Végétal, Gif-sur-Yvette (France). Voucher specimens are preserved in the herbarium BC.

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#### DNA content assessment

Although this is the first genome size study on *Cheirolophus*, the measurements were carried out following the protocols described in a previous study on *Echinops* L. and related genera (Garnatie *et al.*, 2004).

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8 DNA amplification and sequencing strategies

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10 The sequences of the ETS (external transcribed spacers) of the nuclear ribosomal DNA 11 were examined and an attempt was made to analyze the *psbA-trn*H region of the 12 chloroplastic DNA, but this did not contribute any information for the species of our 13 study.

Double-stranded DNA ETS region was amplified with the ETS 1f and 18S 2L 14 15 primers (Linder et al., 2000). The profile used for amplification is the following: initial denaturation at 95° C for 5 min followed by 30 cycles of 94° C for 45 s (denaturation), 16 50° C for 45 s (primers annealing) and 72° for 40 s (primers extension), and conclusion 17 18 with 72° C for 7 min (for completion of primer extension). Some ITS sequences for 19 several species which were not included in the previous work (Susanna et al., 1999) have been added in the present study following the methods described on the above-20 21 cited paper.

PCR products were purified with the QIAquick PCR purification kit (Qiagen, Valencia, California, U.S.A.). Both strands were sequenced with the sequencing primers ETS 1f as forward primer and 18S 2L as reverse primer. Direct sequencing of the amplified DNA segment was performed using the Big Dye Terminator Cycle sequencing v3.1 (PE Biosystems, Foster City, California, U.S.A.). Nucleotide sequencing was carried out at the Serveis Cientificotècnics of the University of
 Barcelona on an ABI PRISM 3700 DNA analyzer (PE Biosystems, Foster City,
 California, U.S.A.).

DNA sequences were edited by Chromas 1.56 (Technelysium PTy, Tewantin, Queensland, Australia) and aligned visually. This matrix is available fom the corresponding author.

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9 Data analysis

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11 Bayesian Inference Analysis

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Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulation, as implemented in MrBayes 3.0 13 14 (Huelsenbeck & Ronquist, 2001), was used for generating trees for the combined ITS 15 and ETS data set. After some exploratory analysis, we selected the HKY (Hasegawa et 16 al., 1985) and TN (Tamura & Nei, 1993) evolutionary models, comparing them through 17 a likelihood ratio test. The HKY model involves, besides the branch lengths, 4 base 18 frequencies ( $\pi_A$ ,  $\pi_C$ ,  $\pi_G$  and  $\pi_T$ ) and the ratio transitions/transversions ( $\kappa$ ). In the TN 19 model, the substitution rates can be different, so that  $\kappa$  is replaced by five rates ( $r_{CT}$ ,  $r_{CG}$ ,  $r_{\rm AT}$ ,  $r_{\rm AG}$  and  $r_{\rm AC}$ ), the other one having been fixed at 1. This leaves us with four degrees 20 21 of freedom in the likelihood ratio test.

In both models, we also allowed a proportion of constant sites and a random distribution of rates, using a gamma distribution. This gives two additional parameters, the proportion of invariant sites and the shape ( $\alpha$ ) of the gamma distributions. We ran 500,000 generations, with four chains, sampling one of each 100 generations, and discarding the first 50 trees sampled (burn-in). Then, a consensus tree was selected by

1	the majority rule. The differences between the consensus trees obtained with the two
2	models were minimal.
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4	Likelihood calculations
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6	Maximum loglikelihood values, used in the likelihood ratio test in order to compare the
7	evolutionary models examined, were calculated with PAML 3.14 (Yang, 2004).
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9	Statistical analyses
10 11	The analysis of the differences between the mean DNA amount of continental and
12	insular habitat species was performed using the phylogenetically based generalized least
13	squares (PGLS) algorithm, as implemented in the PHYLOGR R package (R Project,
14	2005).
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17	Results and Discussion
18 19	Genome size
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21	Nuclear DNA amounts of all the species studied are shown in Table 2. The
22	differences between the mean DNA amount of continental and insular Macaronesian
23	islands species of Cheirolophus were statistically significant (P<0.001) - Ch. intybaceus
24	(including Ch. grandifolius and Ch. lagunae) is regarded as a continental species
25	although some populations are present in the Balearic Islands- (Fig. 1). The mean value
26	for the species of continental distribution is 1.58 pg, ahead the 1.38 pg for those of

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insular distribution (without considering *Ch. crassifolius*, on which material has been
 impossible to acquire).

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This is the first extensive genome size investigation in the genus *Cheirolophus*, with nuclear content reports for 19 species (21 populations), which represent almost the whole genus. Before the present study only one species had been investigated from this point of view (Suda *et al.*, 2003). Our values are rather low (from 1.35 to 1.69 pg) and basically agree with the slightly larger reports by Suda *et al.* (2003).

8 The majority of authors agree with the hypothesis that ancestral species possess 9 low genome sizes (Leitch et al., 1998; Soltis et al., 2003), and others also support the 10 idea that evolutionary trend is toward increasing nuclear DNA amounts, because 11 molecular mechanisms such as amplification of retrotransposons can account for it 12 (Bennetzen & Kellogg, 1997). However, both increments and decrements have been found during evolution in different plant genera (Bennett & Leitch, 2005). In 13 14 Cheirolophus, the presumed ancestors of each group, i.e. Ch. uliginosus in the 15 Mediterranean and Ch. massonianus or Ch. sempervirens in the Macaronesian, show 16 nuclear DNA amounts slightly higher than the derived species of each of the clades. 17 Indeed, these are low C-values if compared with those of other groups of the Cardueae 18 (in Echinops, Garnatje et al., 2004; in Carthamus Garnatje et al., unpublished; in 19 Rhaponticum, Hidalgo, pers. comm.) and also if they are compared with most of the 20 known angiosperm C-values (Bennett & Leitch, 2005). Besides, Cheirolophus is 21 regarded as a basal genus of the Centaureinae (Garcia-Jacas et al., 2001; Hellwig, 22 2004). The lower genome sizes detected in the derived species with respect to their 23 ancestors could be due to evolutionary constraints such as, in the case of Cheirolophus, 24 the effect of insular selection pressures.

Some authors (Suda *et al.*, 2003) have already described this phenomenon for
other colonizer genera of oceanic islands and the fact that *Ch. massonianus* (endemic to

1 Madeira) shows 1.44 pg of DNA (the highest value of all the insular species) could 2 suggest that this colonization was previous to that of the Canary Islands (with a mean 3 nuclear DNA content of 1.38 pg). This decrease in genome size would be a consequence 4 of the founding effect, because when a species colonizes a new territory (and 5 particularly an island), it only carries a part of all the genetic information of the 6 population from which it has split (García-Talavera, 1999). Another possibility could be 7 the loss of selfish or junk DNA, which constitutes the greatest part of many plant 8 genomes and would be an unnecessary load in the stressful process of colonization. 9 These species do not own the same genetic resources of their ancestors and must rapidly 10 adapt to the new insular environments. Speciation and adaptive radiation are faster in 11 the islands than on the continent (Carlquist, 1974; García-Talavera, 1999) and a smaller 12 amount of nuclear DNA, i. e. a smaller genome size, can favour these processes.

13 Plant populations in general and particularly those of *Cheirolophus* show quite a 14 reduced size and also a reduced nuclear DNA amount as compared with continental 15 relatives. On the contrary, no decrease in genome size has been detected in the bigger 16 populations of Ch. intybaceus from the Mediterranean islands in comparison with their 17 continental counterparts. However, it is still unclear whether this is due to the 18 population size or to the kind and formation of the islands. The oceanic islands 19 analysed in this study are of volcanic origin, unlike the Mediterranean islands, and 20 species inhabiting the former are subject to higher selection pressures which can 21 provoke changes in their growing strategy (this point will be discussed later). Suda et 22 al. (2003) postulated in a recent work that insular selection pressures acting on the 23 Macaronesian archipelagos favoured small C-values (most of the species analysed in 24 that study, from diverse angiosperm families, show less than 1.6 pg of nuclear DNA 25 amount). As claimed by these authors, the smaller C-values of Macaronesian taxa 26 would be explained by two main hypotheses: a loss of DNA since those islands were

1 colonized, and the fact that ancestral species possessed small genomes and only 2 negligible changes took place during subsequent speciation processes; the 3 diversification of ancestral plant types into several related taxa being favored by 4 mechanisms such as adaptive radiation (in response to different ecological pressures) 5 and vicariance (divergence due to geographic isolation) (Crawford *et al.*, 1987).

6 As Leitch et al. (1998) have stated it seems that there is a phylogenetic component to quantitative genome size variation which must be evaluated before the 7 evolutionary significance of C-value diversity can be fully explained (Pagel & 8 9 Johnstone, 1992; Bharathan, 1996). In many cases, the lack of a clear phylogenetic framework has limited the ability to resolve the directionality of evolutionary changes 10 11 in DNA content, but recent progress in molecular biology studies has allowed the 12 analysis of genome size variation in a phylogenetic context (Bennetzen & Kellog, 1997; Wendel et al., 2002; Soltis et al., 2003; Price et al., 2005). For instance, an explicit 13 14 phylogenetic view on grass genomes resulted in clear genome size differences among 15 the monophyletic grass subfamilies (Kellogg, 1998; Gaut, 2002).

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## 17 Phylogenetic analyses

The aligned sequences data matrix, including ETS and ITS regions, of 18 Cheirolophus and the outgroups was 1616 bp long with 129 potentially informative 19 20 characters. Among evolutionary models, HKY and TN models are usually favored, 21 since the implicit assumptions in simpler models like the Jukes-Cantor (Jukes & Cantor, 22 1969). Kimura (Kimura, 1980) or Felsenstein (Felsenstein, 1984) are too simplistic. Indeed, in this study, the base frequencies, as estimated by MrBayes under the HKY 23 model (the results were quite similar under the TN model) range from 24  $\pi_A$ =0.2017±0.0175 (95% posterior probability confidence limits) to  $\pi_T$ =0.3018±0.0216. 25

Also, the estimate for the transitions/transversions ratio was κ=4.5572±1.3094, leaving
 the Felssentein model out.

3 Thus, the analysis was restricted to HKY and TN models. A proportion of 4 invariant sites was allowed, giving an estimate of about an 50% invariance in both 5 models. Maximum loglikelihood values were -2578.57 and -2571.04, respectively. The 6 likelihood ratio test yields a significance level of P=0.0047, suggesting the use of the 7 TN model. Moreover, the rates of substitution vary by a factor of 2, both among 8 transitions and transversions. Nevertheless, the phylogeny trees were almost identical, 9 the only changes being found in branch lengths and posterior probabilities. Only the TN 10 tree, with posterior probabilities included, is presented here (Fig. 2).

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## 12 Monophyly of the genus Cheirolophus

The analyses based on Bayesian inference (Fig. 2) support the monophyly of this genus, *Ch. crassifolius* included (PP=1.00), which had already been evidenced in a previous study based on the analysis of the ITS region (Susanna *et al.*, 1999). The tree shows a great distance between the genus *Cheirolophus* and the outgroup (*Centaurea iconiensis* and *C. hajastana*). It is obvious, then, that these are not species close enough to *Cheirolophus*, although the goal is not the delimitation of the genus, which is clear, as previously stated, but the clarification of the relationships at the infrageneric level.

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## 21 Position of Ch. uliginosus and Ch. crassifolius

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All the topologies obtained show that within *Cheirolophus* there are two welldefined clades and also two species, *Ch. crassifolius* and *Ch. uliginosus*, which are not included in any supported clade. Although these species do not show a clear position, all the topologies based on BI point out that *Ch. uliginosus* would be the sister group of

the remaining species (PP=1.00). It is likely to be an ancestral species within the genus. 1 2 These findings support the most recent hypotheses, which state that woodiness is a 3 secondary character (Barber et al., 2002 in Sideritis) and that small, herbaceous and least woody species occupy a basal position in their genera (Mes & Hart, 1996). In this 4 5 sense, this species is the only one of the whole genus which is a hemichryptophyte, the 6 remaining species being woody and some of them in fact being shrubs of considerable 7 height, such as Ch. arboreus or Ch. arbutifolius. Cheirolophus uliginosus shows the highest nuclear DNA amount of the genus (1.69 pg). As previously stated, ancestral 8 9 species are believed to possess small genomes (Leitch et al., 1998; Soltis et al., 2003). This species seems to be the ancestor of this group, and the fact that it has the highest 10 genome size does not contradict this hypothesis, because the nuclear DNA content in 11 12 question is still quite a decreased amount.

13 Concerning Ch. crassifolius, the other species with an unclear phylogenetic 14 position, the Bayesian analysis points out that it could be a sister group of the clade 15 constituted by the Macaronesian and Mediterranean species, but only with a PP=0.54. 16 This species is endemic to the islands of Malta and Gozo (Mediterranean Basin) and 17 both its geographical distribution and position in the tree suggest that it could be a 18 relictual species, as proposed in a previous study (Susanna et al., 1999). Moreover, 19 nucleotidic evidence could also support the hypothesis of a relictual nature of this 20 species: the ETS region of the genus Cheirolophus shows a deletion of 478 bp with 21 respect to the outgroups, while Ch. crassifolius shows a deletion of 464 bp. This could 22 possibly be as a result of two subsequent deletions, and the second evolutionary event 23 (the second deletion) could have taken place when the remaining Cheirolophus had still 24 not separated from Ch. crassifolius. Assuming this hypothesis to be correct, this species 25 should be the subject of further research.

1 Mediterranean clade

2 Within this clade (PP=1.00) two groups can be observed (Fig. 2). On the one 3 hand, the assembling of Ch. mauritanicus (a species from Morocco, only known from 4 one location) with Ch. intybaceus complex (PP=1.00) and, on the other hand, that of Ch. 5 tananicus with Ch. benoistii (PP=1.00, both species growing in Morocco, with a more 6 restricted distribution than the former). These two later species had already been related 7 in previous studies (Garnatje et al., 1998, Susanna et al., 1999), while the link between 8 Ch. mauritanicus and Ch. intybaceus had not yet been found before in those analyses. 9 Morphological characteristics do not agree with this grouping. Vargas et al. (1999) 10 observed in their study on Saxifraga that some species from North Africa had been 11 isolated and evolved independently from those of the Iberian Peninsula. These authors 12 believed that the Mediterranean sea acted as a barrier for some groups of plants of 13 Europe and North Africa. These Cheirolophus species could have undergone a similar 14 process.

Hitherto, the ITS analysis (Susanna *et al.*, 1999) had grouped *Ch. mauritanicus* with *Ch. sempervirens*, but with quite a weak support (the first species had previously been described as a variety of the second, with which it presented high morphologic affinity). However, with the addition of the ETS sequence data, this grouping varies (Fig. 2) and it seems now clear that *Ch. sempervirens* is in the origin of the Macaronesian group (PP=0.99).

Another interesting result observed within the Mediterranean clade is the assembling of three species previously included in *Ch. intybaceus*. The population of Formentera (segregated as *Ch. grandifolius*), appears in the trees as a sister group of the two remaining species (Fig. 2), with a PP value of 1.00. If this is a true species, distinct from *Ch. intybaceus*, then it is probably undergoing a differentiation process, because although some morphological differences can be observed, nuclear DNA amount is

exactly the same as that of the continental *Ch. intybaceus* and there is no nucleotidic
 variability in the studied regions. Speciation and differentiation processes, however, can
 take place without any detectable change in genome size (Bennett & Leitch, 2005).

- 4 On the other hand, the population from Alacant (Ch. lagunae) is present in all 5 the trees constituting a clade with Ch. intybaceus (PP=0.92), a morphologically quite 6 similar species, although their ETS sequences show some divergences. The main 7 difference observed between them is the plant habit, quite procumbent in Ch. lagunae. 8 This plant also grows this way when cultivated, hence, the idea that this form would be 9 a consequence of the kind of habitat should be rejected. It would be interesting to know 10 whether this trait disappeared after some generations. Olivares et al. (1995) refer to 11 many quantitative characters in the description of this species (which inhabits coastal 12 loamy cliffs, on rocky, weakly consolidated substrata), but some of these traits, such as 13 leaf size, are subject to variation. The sequence analysis does not allow a definite 14 conclusion as to whether these are truly different species or not. Thus, for the sake of 15 clarification, a more extensive study of these taxa is required, embracing their whole 16 distribution and also including Ch. mansanetianus Stübing, Peris, Olivares & Martín, 17 also segregated from Ch. intybaceus (which is endemic to the Cabo de Gata, Andalusia, 18 Spain, Stübing et al., 1997).
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20 Cheirolophus sempervirens and the Macaronesian group

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The tree based on the TN model (Fig. 2) shows a clade formed by the Macaronesian group and *Ch. sempervirens* (PP=0.99). As previously explained this species is probably at the origin of the Macaronesian group. It is distributed along the centre and the south of Portugal, some localities from the south of the Iberian Peninsula, and the south of Italy (Dostál, 1976), and there are also some populations in Algeria,

probably a relict of a past wider North African distribution from which this species could have colonized the Macaronesian archipelagos. However, it is not discardable that such colonization could have taken place from the westernmost part of the Iberian Peninsula, although it is farther from the islands than the African continent. In this sense, Percy *et al.* (2002) observed that within some genera, the species from Madeira were more closely related to those of Mediterranean origin than to those from Morocco.

7 The Macaronesian group, sensu stricto, appears as monophyletic (PP=1.00), as is found for other plant groups (Barber et al., 2000, Francisco-Ortega et al., 2002), and 8 9 this would point to a single colonization of Macaronesia by this genus. Similarly, 10 Vargas et al. (1999) also found a single colonization event of Madeira by Saxifraga 11 species from the Eurosiberian region. Moreover, Silvertown (2004) postulated that large endemic plant taxa found on oceanic archipelagos were frequently monophyletic, 12 13 indicating that they originated from a single colonization event. It seems that this could 14 be a consequence of the process of colonization, because the success of the first 15 colonizers avoids the establishment of others arriving later through niche pre-emption 16 and interspecific competition. Carine et al. (2004) found that niche pre-emption is 17 responsible for the limited number of colonisations into the region but, conversely, their 18 results suggest that there have been multiple colonizations of the Macaronesia and a 19 back-colonization of the continent.

Our results do not prove whether Madeira or the Canary Islands were first colonized, but a trend in all the trees indicates that *Ch. massonianus* is the sister group of the clade formed by the species from the Canary Islands. Nuclear DNA amount of this species (1.44 pg) is somewhere between that of *Ch. sempervirens* (1.59 pg) and the mean of the Canarian group (1.38 pg), which agrees with the appreciable genome size loss detected in the species from oceanic islands with respect to their continental counterparts. Considering a probable African origin for the colonization, it is difficult to

believe that Madeira was colonized before the Canary Islands. On the other hand, the possibility of an Iberian origin it is not so surprising, although there is a considerable distance between both territories. In this sense, Muñoz *et al.* (2004) found more floristic similarities between places connected by wind highways than between geographically closer places, supporting the idea that wind can act as a powerful vehicle of dispersion.

Barber et al. (2000) observed that the insular taxa of Sideritis formed a 6 7 monophyletic group, and this would mean that only one colonization event of the 8 islands took place. Moreover, the same authors found that the genus was most likely 9 introduced in Madeira from the Canarian archipelago, probably due to the presence of a 10 great biological/floristic diversity in these islands. Francisco-Ortega et al., 1999 found 11 in the Asteriscus alliance at least two colonizing events of Macaronesia from North 12 Africa, and postulated that the derived position of these species suggested a recent 13 colonization process of Macaronesia, contrary to the hypothesis upholding the idea of 14 an ancient origin of Macaronesian flora (Bramwell, 1972, 1976, 1985). Similarly, the 15 study of Helfgott et al. (2000) on the Bencomia alliance (Rosaceae) contradicts the 16 premise that Macaronesian flora would be a relictual fragment of a widespread Tertiary 17 subtropical European flora.

18 Canarian Cheirolophus species do not constitute a monophyletic group 19 (PP=0.70), so that a single colonization event by this genus in these islands can be 20 discarded. There is a low resolution within the Canarian group, as other authors have 21 also detected in some plant genera (Sang et al., 1994 in Dendroseris; Mort et al., 2003 22 in Tolpis), a circumstance that could support the theory of a fast adaptive radiation taking place in the insular environments. The species from the island of Tenerife (Ch. 23 24 tagananensis excluded) form a well-supported clade in the BI analysis (PP=0.99, Fig. 25 2), and the species from the remaining Canarian Islands form another clade, but weakly 26 supported (PP=0.74). Therefore it is possible that two introductions, or even three (Fig.

1 2), took place in the colonization of the Canary Islands. Likewise, Fuertes-Aguilar et al. 2 (2002) also observed in Lavatera that two introductions took place in the Canary 3 Islands, one probably being very recent, because the species is located in a derived clade 4 together with the Mediterranean species. Francisco-Ortega et al. (2001, 2002) did not 5 find any clade restricted to a single island, and therefore it appears that inter-island 6 colonization was the main avenue for speciation in these two archipelagos. According to 7 those authors, Tenerife is likely the ancestral island for species endemic to the five 8 westernmost islands, this one and Gran Canaria, La Gomera, El Hierro and La Palma, 9 and this would also seem to be the case of the genus Cheirolophus. This last-named 10 genus inhabits locations of similar ecology in the different islands of the archipelago, i. 11 e., usually rocky and slightly humid places, with the presence of small water trickles. 12 Francisco-Ortega et al. (1996) found that interisland colonization between similar 13 ecological zones may be one of the primary factors involved in the evolution of the 14 endemic flora of oceanic archipelagos.

We detected some groupings within the Canarian clade in our study, but with no support. As maintained by Barret (1996), for most plant groups on remote oceanic islands extreme genetic bottlenecks must have been involved in their evolutionary history. However, the occurrence of such events and their evolutionary significance is poorly understood. Likewise, Francisco-Ortega *et al.* (1997), based on the low levels of nucleotide sequence divergence found in *Argyranthemum*, suggested that this genus originated and radiated recently, and this could also be the case of *Cheirolophus*.

Aside from this, the clade including all the species from the other islands (PP=0.74), namely *Ch. junonianus* and *Ch. arboreus* from the island of La Palma, *Ch. arbutifolius* and *Ch. falcisectus* from Gran Canaria and *Ch. gomerhytus* from La Gomera, shows that the length of the branches agrees with the geological ages of the

different islands, so longer branches correspond to those species inhabiting the older
 islands and therefore they have experienced a greater differentiation process.

3

4 Habit of insular plants

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6 The insular woody habit occurs in several angiosperm families, among them the 7 Asteraceae, as an adaptation to climatic and other factors (Böhle *et al.*, 1996). In their 8 study on *Echium*, these authors hypothesized that selection for successful pollination 9 could account for the woodiness (longevity) as well as for the candelabrum-like habit, 10 and observed large inflorescences in the insular, insect-pollinated species, in an 11 environment where insects would be expected to be rare, noting that the resulting 12 increase in size may have provided additional advantage in niche competition among 13 initial colonizers. Likewise, Fuertes-Aguilar et al. (2002) postulated that woodiness in 14 Lavatera was a secondary character originated as an adaptation to the insular 15 conditions. According to Hellwig (2004), Cheirolophus may be an old group within 16 Centaureinae, but speciation may have occurred not too long ago. While only a few 17 relictic species grow in the western Mediterranean region, Cheirolophus radiated on the 18 Canary Islands, where some species have developed the candelabrum-like habit, and 19 also some, such as Ch. arboreus and Ch. arbutifolius, have acquired an arborescent, 20 woodier habit, than those from the continent, as can be deduced from their specific 21 names. Moreover, they produce large amounts of quite big capitula with gorgeous 22 flowers in Macaronesia, while the continental Cheirolophus (Ch. benoistii, Ch. 23 intybaceus, Ch. uliginosus) present smaller flowers. Similar findings have been reported 24 by Mort et al. (2002) in their study centred on the Crassulaceae. Helfgott et al. (2000) in 25 Bencomia alliance (Rosaceae) considered that plant size and woodiness increased in the 26 insular taxa in comparison with their continental relatives, contrary to what other

authors had stated. It is common, for example, for herbaceous colonists to speciate into
a wide variety of growth forms, including shrubs and trees, and for species to radiate
into new habitats (Carlquist, 1974; Givnish, 1998). To add to this, Panero *et al.* (1999)
found that 65% of endemic species of the genus *Pericallis* that were originary from
some Atlantic archipelagos were also woody. Additionally, according to Kim *et al.*(1996) woodiness increased in the islands in the genus *Sonchus*.

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#### 8 Appearance of the genus in the islands

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As stated before, the results from our analyses bring ambiguous data on the 10 11 order of colonization of the Canary Islands. The fact that there are no Cheirolophus 12 representatives in the islands of Lanzarote and Fuerteventura, the two nearest to the 13 continent and also among the most ancient (between 15 and 21 M.y.), does not 14 necessarily mean that they had never been there, because they could have been 15 extinguished due to volcanic activity or to the special climatic conditions of these 16 islands. Mean annual precipitation in these islands, which were united 18,000 years ago, 17 seldom exceeds 150 mm, and the presence of winds from the Sahara is quite usual there, 18 frequently carrying dust particles, another weather incident to consider (García-19 Talavera, 1999). Plants from these islands could be recent groups because of their 20 proximity to the continent and they could also function as the link between Macaronesia 21 and Africa, an entry or departure point for their dispersion.

As claimed by Carracedo (1994) the eastern Canary Islands volcanoes may have been active since the late cretaceous. According to their eruptive activity, Tenerife, La Palma, Lanzarote and Hierro, have had eruptions in historic time (<500 year) and are volcanically active; Fuerteventura and Gran Canaria had Quaternary volcanism, while no evidence of Quaternary volcanism has been found in La Gomera. This would

probably explain why *Cheirolophus* habitually colonizes the most ancient places of the islands, and this is fairly noticeable in the island of Tenerife, where some species are found over basaltic mountains of the Tertiary, such as *Ch. tagananensis* at the Anaga coasts and *Ch. canariensis* in the southern sector of the Teno Mountains (Bramwell & Bramwell, 2001).

Finally, from the information obtained with the phylogenetic trees, no
recolonization from the islands to the continent can be deduced. The same results were
found by Böhle *et al.* (1996), who also considered it curious that no continental *Echium*species studied was a descendant of any of the island inhabitants. It would seem, then,
that there was no fruitful recolonization of the continent.

11

#### 12 Conclusions

13

Differences between mean nuclear DNA amounts of insular (1.38 pg) and continental (1.58 pg) species are statistically significant and this has been related to the adaptation leading to the colonization process of oceanic islands.

The Macaronesian group is monophyletic, and this could mean a single 17 18 colonization event of Macaronesia by this genus. Ch. massonianus shows an 19 intermediate C-value, between continental and insular species, suggesting a former 20 colonization of Madeira from the continent. Additionally, Ch. sempervirens appears 21 related to the Macaronesian group; therefore, this species could be at the origin of this 22 colonization process. Conversely, the Canarian group is not monophyletic; hence, we 23 suppose more than one colonization event of the archipelago. Finally, the species from 24 the island of Tenerife, with the exception of Ch. tagananensis, constitute a single clade, 25 while all the representatives of this genus from all the other islands are grouped in another clade; thus, there has been more speciation in Tenerife (probably because of a
 higher diversity of habitats in this island).

3

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1 Figure	captions
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Figure 1. Box and whisker plot comparing nuclear DNA amount of continental vs.insular species.

- 6 Figure 2. Consensus tree produced by Bayesian inference. Posterior probabilities equal
- 7 or above 0.5 are indicate at the branches.

- 1 Table 1. Origin, herbarium vouchers, and GenBank accession numbers of the species
- 2 studied. The accessions marked with an asterisk (\*) were only used to assess the nuclear

# 3 DNA amount.

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Species	Collection data and herbarium voucher	GenBank accession number	GenBank accession number
DL		ITS1, ITS2	ETS
Rhaponticoides hajastana (Tzvelev) M. V. Agab. & Greuter	Armenia, Talin: between villages Pokr Artik and Bagravan, Susanna 1587 et al. 26. VIII. 1995 (BC).	AF041281	AF041263
Rhaponticoides iconiensis (HubMor.) M. V. Agab. & Greuter	Turkey, Ala Dag: track above the of Demir Kazk. Ertugrul 1761, 7. VIII. 2003 (BC).	AF041280	AF041256
Cheirolophus arboreus (Webb & Berth.) Holub	Spain, Canary Islands, La Palma; San Andrés y Sauces, Susanna 1425, 29.VII.1990 (BC).	AF021147, AF021164	AF041257
Ch. arbutifolius (Svent.) Kunkel	Spain, Canary Islands, Gran Canaria: Agaete, Los Berrazales, Susanna 1420, 25.VII.1990 (BC).	AF041279	AF041258
Ch. benoistii (Humbert) Holub	Morocco, Ksar es Souk: S side of Tizi n'Talrhem, Garnatje, Susanna 1787 & Vilatersana, 17.VI. 1997 (BC). Morocco, Ksar es Souk: S side of Tizi n'Talrhem, Hidalgo & Romo 12699, 19.VII.2004 (BC)*.	AF045415, AF079945	AF041249
Ch. burchardii Susanna	Spain, Canary Islands, Tenerife: between Buenavista and Teno, Susanna 1430, 6.VII.1990 (BC).	AF021145, AF021162	AF041250
Ch. canariensis (Brouss. ex Willd.) Holub	Spain, Canary Islands, Tenerifé: Masca ravine, <i>Garnatje 1 &amp; Luque</i> , VIII, 1996 (BC).	AF021151, AF021168	AF041253
Ch. crassifolius (Bertoloni) Susanna	Malta: Botanical Garden of la Valetta	AF021157, AF021174	AF041252
Ch. falcisectus Montel. & Moral.	Spain, Canary Islands, Gran Canaria: above san Nicolás de Tolentino, old road to Mogán, Susanna 1422, 25.VII, 1990 (BC).	AF021146, AF021163	AF041255
Ch. gomerythus (Svent.) Holub	Spain, Canary Islands, La Gomera: near Agulo, San Marcos ravine, Susanna 1426, 4.VII.1990 (BC).	AF021149, AF021166	AF041259
Ch. grandifolius	Spain, Balearic Islands, Formentera: mount Sa Mola, Freixenet, VIII.1988 (BC). Balearic Islands, Formentera: La Mola Garnatje & Vilatersana V-411, 18.IV.2005 (BC).*	AF041282	AF041261
<i>Ch. intybaceus</i> (Lam. ) Dostái	Spain, Alacant: between Alcoy and Pego, km 40, near Benirrama, Garcia- Jacas & Susanna 1249, 5.VIII.1988 (BC). Spain, Balearic Islands, Eivissa: Cala d'Albarca, Garnatje & Vilatersana V- 400, 14.IV.2005 (BC).*	AF021152, AF021169	AF041276
<i>Ch. junonianus</i> (Svent.) Holub	Spain, Canary Islands, La Palma: Fuencaliente, volcano of San Antonio, Susanna 1423, 28.VII.1990 (BC).	AF021148, AF021165	AF041284
<i>Ch. lagunae</i> A.Olivares, J.B.Peris, G.Stübing & J.Martín	Spain, Alacant, Xàvia: Cap Prim, 31SBC5894 Garnatje & Vilatersana 442, 20.V.2005 (BC).	AF041283	AF041289
Ch. massonianus (Lowe) O. Eriksson & al.	Portugal, Botanical Garden of Madeira (BC).	AF021143, AF021160	AF041287
Ch. mauritanicus (Font Quer) Susanna	Morocco, Tetouan : mount Tissouka above Chefchaouen, Molero, Romo 4617 & Susanna, 20. VI. 1988 (BC).	AF021155, AF021172	AF041291
Ch. metlesicsii Montel.	Spain, Canary Islands, Tenerife: Arafo, Affavingo ravine, Susanna 1427, 6.VII.1990 (BC).	AF021150, AF021167	AF041293
Ch. sempervirens (L. ) Pomel	Portugal, Faro : 4 km from N of Monchique, Garcia-Jacas & Susanna 1218, 28.VII.1988 (BC).	AF021156, AF021173	AF041294
Ch. taganensis (Svent.)	Spain, Canary Islands, Tenerife:	AF021144, AF021161	AF041295

Holub	Taganana, roque de las Ánimas, Garnatje 3 & Luque, VIII.1996 (BC).		
Ch. tananicus (Maire) Holub	Morocco, Agadir: 1 km S of the Tizi n'Test, Garcia-Jacas, Susanna 1395 & Vallès, 11.VII.1990 (BC).	AF021153, AF021170	AF041296
Ch. teydis (Ch. Smith) G. López	Spain, Canary Islands, Tenerife: El Teide, boca de tauce, Susanna 1429, 6.VII.1990 (BC).	AF041283	AF041297
<i>Ch. uliginosus</i> (Brot. ) Dostál	Spain, Huelva: Mazagón, El Loro, Garcia-Jacas, Julià, J. M. Montserrat 1875, Susanna & Veny, 6.VII.1988 (BC).	AF021154, AF021171	AF041298

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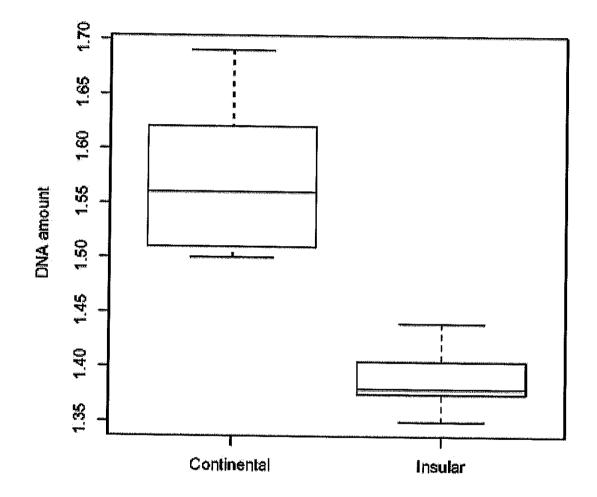
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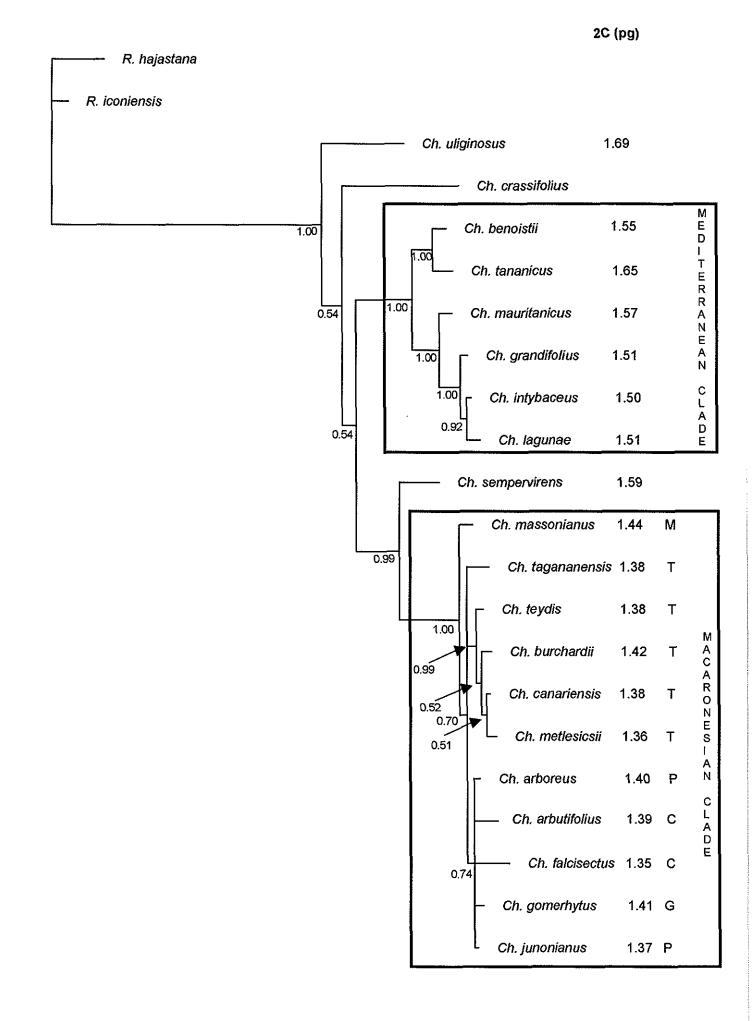
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Table 2. Nuclear DNA content and other characters of the populations studied.

Species	$2C \pm SD (pg)$	2C (Mbp)	Distribution
Cheirolophus arboreus	$1.40 \pm 0.02$	1369.20	Insular
Ch. arbutifolius	$1.39 \pm 0.02$	1359.42	Insular
Ch. benoistii	$1.55 \pm 0.02$	1515.90	Continental
Ch. burchardii	$1.42 \pm 0.03$	1388.76	Insular
Ch. canariensis	$1.38 \pm 0.04$	1349.64	Insular
Ch. falcisectus	$1.35 \pm 0.03$	1320.30	Insular
Ch. gomerythus	$1.41 \pm 0.04$	1378.98	Insular
Ch. grandifolius	$1.51 \pm 0.03$	1476.78	Cont/Insu
Ch. intybaceus Alacant	$1.50 \pm 0.02$	1467.00	Cont/Insu
Ch. intybaceus Eivissa	$1.51 \pm 0.02$	1476.78	Cont/Insu
Ch. junonianus	$1.37 \pm 0.02$	1339.86	Insular
Ch. lagunae	$1.51 \pm 0.01$	1476.78	Continental
Ch. massonianus	$1.44 \pm 0.02$	1408.32	Insular
Ch. mauritanicus	$1.57 \pm 0.03$	1535.46	Continental
Ch. metlesicsii	$1.36 \pm 0.01$	1330.08	Insular
Ch. sempervirens	$1.59 \pm 0.02$	1555.02	Continental
Ch. taganensis	$1.38 \pm 0.02$	1349.64	Insular
Ch. tananicus	$1.65 \pm 0.01$	1613.70	Continental
Ch. teydis	$1.38 \pm 0.03$	1349.64	Insular
Ch. uliginosus	$1.69 \pm 0.01$	1652.82	Continental

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