## Drawings of Scandinavian Plants 55-59

## Juncus L.

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55. Juncus filiformis L. 1753

Perennial, $10-60 \mathrm{~cm}$ high, with a shortnoded, horizontally creeping and sparingly branched rhizome, light or greyish green. Stems with several usually light straw-coloured basal sheaths with a short or in the uppermost one rarely up to 20 mm long lamina; withered remnants of sheaths turning dark brown. Most shoots fertile, the sterile leaf-bearing shoots usually few. Stems and leaves faintly or in dried state markedly striate from usually c. 25 subepidermal sclerenchyma strands. Cortical parenchyma layer comparatively thick, medulla consisting of rounded cells connected by an irregular network of long. thin rays. Lowest bract $(1 / 2-) 1-1.5 \times$ as long as the stem. Inflorescence $4-10$ flowered, dense, usually 1 cm or less across. Tepals $2.5-3.5 \mathrm{~mm}$, originally ovate to narrowly ovate or inner ones $\pm$ oblong, outer ones longer and apiculate to mucronate, inner ones obtuse; later, and when dried, all much changed in form due to rolling and shrivelling of the scarious margins apically. Stamens 6, c. $1 / 2$ as long as the tepals, anthers $0.5-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$, $1 / 2-2 / 3 \times$ as long as the filaments. Style c. 0.2 mm , stigmata c. 1 mm . Capsule tri-

[^0]gono-ovoidal to sphaeroidal, obtuse, with the style remaining as a mucro or falling off in ripe state, brownish green to light brown, shining, equalling outer tepals or usually slightly shorter. Seeds 0.5 mm long and c. 0.3 mm thick, $\pm$ obliquely ovoidal, reticulation partly irregular, inconspicuous and obscured by the remaining testa forming one small white appendage. Ob served chromosome number $2 \mathrm{n}=84$, but $2 \mathrm{n}=80$ also reported in literature.
$J$. filiformis is common in different types of fens and meadows and also on open soil and on shores. It has apparently developed ecotypes which have become adapted to rather different climatic and edaphic conditions and are morphologically very dissimilar. It has a wide boreal to subarctic circumpolar distribution with scattered localitics in mountains southwards to near $35^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. In Scandinavia it is common from sea level to the lower alpine region, though rare on the Baltic Islands and in the SE part of Denmark.

## 56. Juncus arcticus Willdenow 1799

Perennial, $10-40 \mathrm{~cm}$ high, with a creeping, sparingly branched rhizome of varying internode length, $\pm$ bluish green. Stems erect, rigid, with several strawcoloured to light brown or in part light

Bot. Notiser, vol. 124, 1971


Fig. 55. Juncus filiformis L. - A: Habit, $\times 0.05$. - B and C: Basal parts, $\times 0.5$. - D: Inflorescences, $\times 0.5$. - E: Tepals and slamens, $\times 10$. -F : Capsule, $\times 6$. -G : Seeds, above with, below without the testa, $\times 25 .-\mathrm{H}$ : Transect of stem below the inflorescence, $\times 30$.
chestnut-coloured basal sheaths with no or very small lamina. Most shoots fertile, sterile leaf-bearing shoots wanting or few. Stems and leaves smooth or when dried faintly and irregularly striate, without any subepidermal sclerenchyma. Medulla consisting of rounded or irregularly formed cells connected by a network of long, thin projections. Lowest bract 1/8$1 / 4$ as long as the stem. Inflorescence compact, 3 - 8 -flowered, usually less than 1 cm wide. Tepals $3-4.5 \mathrm{~mm}$, ovate
to elliptical, inner ones when young obtuse to acute, outer ones obtuse to mucronate or apiculate, in fruiting flowers all often much changed in form due to rolling of the scarious margins. Stamens 6, 1/3-1/2 $\times$ as long as the tepals, anthers $0.5-0.7 \mathrm{~mm}$, $1 / 3-1 \times$ as long as the filaments. Style c. 0.5 mm , stigmata c. 1 mm long. Capsule $3.5-4.5 \mathrm{~mm}$, equalling or exceeding the tepals, trigonoovoidal to trigonoellipsoidal, obtuse with a $0.2-0.3 \mathrm{~mm}$ long mucro, basally light, apically dark brown


Fig. 56. Juncus arcticus Willd. - A: Habit, $\times 0.05$. B: Basal part, $\times 0.5$. - C: Inflorescences, $\times 0.5$. - D: Tepals and stamens, $\times 10$. - E: Capsule, $\times 6$. - F: Seed, $\times 25$. G and H : Transects of stems below the inflorescence, $\times 30$.
to chestnut-coloured. Seeds $0.8-1.1 \mathrm{~mm}$ long and $0.3-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, $\pm$ obliquely ovoidal, reticulate from c. 25 longitudinal ridges and many faint transverse ones, but reticulation faint and also obscured by the tight testa forming very small or quite inconspicuous appendages. Reported chromosome number $2 \mathrm{n}=80$, still needing further control; chromosomes extremely small. Hybrids between this and following species probably exist. They be-
long to a widespread form series which mainly occurs in America and is in need of further study.
J. arcticus occurs in fens and on open ground. It has an aretic-montane circumpolar distribution with southern outposts, e. g. in the Alps and Altai. In Scandinavia it is unevenly distributed throughout the mountainous region and in the northernmost coastal areas.


Fig. 57. Juncus balticus Willd. - A: Habit, $\times 0.05$. - B: Basal part. $\times 0.5$. - C and D: Inflorescences, $\times 0.5$. - E: Tepals and stamens, $\times 10 .-\mathrm{F}$ and G : Capsules, $\times 6$. -H : Seed, $\times 25$. - I and K : Transects of stems below the inflorescence, $\times 30$. - C and F refer to deviating material from a locality at the Bothnian Gulf.

## 57. Juncus balticus Willdenow 1809

Perennial, $25-100 \mathrm{~cm}$ high, with a strong creeping and sparingly branching rhizome of short or intermediate internode length, plant in fresh state bluish green. Stems erect, rigid, with several light brown to straw-coloured basal sheaths with or without very tiny lamina. Most or all shoots fertile, sterile leaf-bearing shoots none or few. Stems and leaves smooth or when dried faintly and irregularly striated, without any subepidermal sclerenchyma. Medulla consisting of rounded or irregularly formed cells connected by an irregular network of thin projections, in old stems often disrupted and leaving large parts of the cavity open. Lowest bract $1 / 5-1 / 3$ as long as the stem. Inflorescence (5-) $25-60(-80)$-flowered, lax, usually $4-8$ cm across. Tepals $3.2-4.7 \mathrm{~mm}$, outer ones usually slightly longer, ovate to narrowly ovate, obtuse to mucronate or apiculate, scarious margin often considerably folded in fruiting stage. Stamens 6, $2 / 5-1 / 2 \times$ as long as the tepals, anthers $0.8-1.5 \mathrm{~mm}, 4 / 3-2 \times$ as long as the filaments. Style $0.8-1 \mathrm{~mm}$, stigmata $1.5-$ 2 mm . Capsule equalling or exceeding the outer tepals, $3-4.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ high, trigonoovoidal, apically pyramid-shaped, obtuse, usually light brown, shining, the style remaining for some time, then falling off and leaving only a mucro c. $0.2-0.3 \mathrm{~mm}$ long. Seeds $0.8-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ long and c. 0.4 mm broad, reticulate from $25-30$ longitudinal striae and numerous fainter transverse ones, but texture inconspicuous and often irregular in part of the seed. The testa hardly visible as separate in the ripe seed but forming two very small appendages. Reported chromosome number $2 \mathrm{n}=80$, still needing control, chromosomes extremely small.
J. balticus is mainly found on sandy shores, but also occurs in some rich fens. In typical form it is only found in NW. and N. Europe, but closely related forms occur e. g. in the Pyrences, in Turkey, E. Asia and in N. and S. America.


Fig. 58. Juncus ba'ticus $\times$ filiformis. -A Inflorescence, $\times 0,5$. B: Tepals and stamens. $\times 10$. - C: Capsule, $\times 6$. - D: Transect of stem below inflorescence, $\times 30$,

In Scandinavia it is unevenly distributed along the Baltic as well as the North Sea and Atlantic coasts. In the northernmost part of its area it also occurs in several inland localities. In these as well as some other northern localities deviating forms occur (cf. Fig. 57 C and F) which may have their origin in recent or former hybridisation with $J$. arcticus.


Fig. 59. Juncus arcticus $\times$ filiformis. - A: Inflorescence, $\times \mathbf{0} .5$. $-\mathbf{B}$ : Transect of stem below inflorescence. $\times 30$. -C : Tepals and stamens, $\times 10 .-\mathrm{D}$ : Capsule, $\times 6$.

## 58. Juncus balticus $\times$ filiformis

This hybrid is in most localities taller than any of its parents. It combines the large, dark flowers of $J$. balticus with the slender habit of J. filiformis. In its stem anatomy the hybrid wholly resembles $J$. balticus. As in all hybrids between species lacking and having subepidermal sclerenchyma, respectively, the lack of sclerenchyma is dominant. The anthers are poorly developed. The capsule usually develops to maturity and in some flowers it contains one or a few seeds. As these seeds are often quite normally developed, it can not be stated with certainty that only primary hybrids are present.
J. balticus $\times$ filiformis is known from several localities especially in southern Sweden. It is vegetatively vigorous and often forms large stands. It may even be dominant in fens on sand near sea level, as $\mathrm{e} . \mathrm{g}$. in the area S of the mouth of the river Lagan. By its rapidly creeping and branching rhizomes it may no doubt propagate vegetatively for considerable distances. Thus it is probably formed only rarely, so that each locality or group of localities only contains one or a few hy-
brid clones. In some cases J. balticus is not found in the actual hybrid locality. Similar cases have been reported from Britain by Stace (1970).

## 59. Juncus balticus $\times$ filiformis

This hybrid has the more slender habit of $J$. filiformis, but the bract is only $1 / 4$ $1 / 2$ as long as the stem, and the flowers are dark. The anthers are $\pm$ empty and often do not open. The capsule develops, but remains shorter than the tepals, with depressed sides due to the seeds degenerating at an early stage. Rarely do a few seeds develop to normal size, though unfilled, but no normally developed seeds have been observed. In its stem anatomy the hybrid resembles $J$. arcticus, having no subepidermal sclerenchyma.
J. arcticus $\times$ filiformis is apparently often formed where the parents meet, and it also forms local clones by vegetative propagation. Almouist (1949) lists it from several localities where J. arcticus is not known to occur.

## LITERATURE CITED

Almpuist, E. 1949. Dalarnes Flora. - Lund. Stace. C. A. 1970. Unique Juncus Hybrids in Lancashire. - Nature 226: 180-181.

# Studies of Bipolar Disjunct Species I 

## Carex

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#### Abstract

Moore, D. M. \& Chater, A. O. 1971. Studies of bipolar disjunct species I. Carex. - Bot. Notiser 124:317-334.

This is the first of a series of papers on species with widely disjunct bipolar distributions. A detailed analysis of morphological variation between northern and southern populations of 6 species of Carex shows widely differing kinds of variation within such species. In C. magellanica Lam. and C. microglochin Wahlenb, the populations are considered to be subspecifically distinct, in C. curta Gooden. varietally distinct [and the new combination Carex curta var. robustior (Blytr ex Andersson) D. M. Moore \& Chater is proposed], while in C. maritima Gunn., C. macloviana D'Unv. and C. capitata L. the differences are not taxonomically significant. No cytological differences have been detected between Northern and Southern Hemisphere populations. Possible causes for the dissimilar variation shown by these species, which all have comparable distributions, are discussed. Later papers will provide further information on the patterns of variation in bipolar species and how this can lead to a wider understanding of the evolution and distribution of geographically disjunct taxa.


## GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The affinities existing between the floras of widely separated regions of the world have long been of interest in evolutionary and phytogeographical studies. Among these floristic elements the greatest disjunction is shown by those taxa which are common to areas at high latitudes in both the Northern and Southern Hemispheres. Such 'bipolar' disjunctions appear to have been first recognized in the early decades of the last century by Willdenow, Humboldt and Schouw (see von Hofsten 1916), who believed that they resulted from parallel origins in the two
hemispheres. However, this explanation has found little support in most subsequent discussions since polytopic origin, although possible in certain circumstances (see e.g. Davis \& Heywood 1963 p. 448 ), is not generally acceptable on such a scale. In the light of modern evolutionary ideas most students of the problem have proposed that the bipolar disjunctions resulted either from long-distance dispersal over the intervening areas or by a series of shorter migrations making use of mountain ranges as 'stepping stones' through the low-latitude regions.

In his important review of the earlier
discussions on bipolar distributions Du Rietz (1940) summarized the available evidence and concluded that the disjunctions originated in the Mesozoic with the fragmentation and disappearance of more ancient transtropical highland bridges. However, Du Rietz was concerned with species, sections, genera and higher taxonomic units, the disjunction of which may be expected to result from events occurring at different periods and for which a single, all-embracing explanation seems neither called for nor likely. Whatever the timing of the disjunctions involving the higher taxonomic categories it scarcely seems plausible that the occurrence of apparently identical or closely related species at high latitudes in both hemispheres should be attributed to the period postulated by Du Rietz. When considering amphitropical disjunct distributions in the Americas Raven (1963) suggested that interchange of such plants would be easiest during the late Pliocene and Pleistocene, the most recent period when cool temperate conditions penetrated very far into low latitudes. Furthermore, this was also the time when many of the high volcanic mountains in the neotropics were raised, indeed the whole Cordilleran system in the Americas attained its present elevation then. Even during this period of maximum cold, when high latitude plants might be expected to attain their greatest extension, it should be noted that the Rocky Mountains, the Andes and the tropical mountains have never actually provided a continuous route and may be visualized as constituting a series of 'stepping stones' between which there would have to be dispersal greater than that normally shown by the species. Similar considerations undoubtedly apply in the Old World, where the Malaysian mountains have been important in the movements of bipolar groups (van Steenis 1962).

Raven (1963) made the important distinction between bipolar taxa and amphitropical groups of lower latitudes. This
is because the environmental and biolog. ical histories of the warm and cold temperate regions of the world are likely to be sufficiently different for it to be necessary to consider their floras separately when investigating the factors involved in the patterns of amphitropical distributions. Furthermore, since in general terms it may be expected that disjunctions in groups of plants at different levels of the taxonomic hierarchy have occurred at different periods, and perhaps have come about under very dissimilar sets of conditions, this should also be taken into consideration in the study of such disjunctions. It is partly for these reasons, therefore, that species showing disjunct distributions at high latitudes have been selected for the present studies. A further reason is that the application of some of the experimental techniques available is most rewarding at this level of taxonomic and genetical relationship.

This is the first in a series of papers devoted to detailed studies of as many bipolar species as possible using a variety of approaches, such as cytology, biometrical analysis, experimental hybridization, phytochemistry, etc. The intention is to obtain a body of information at the species level in order to see what patterns and trends can be derived within this bipolar element and to provide a basis for comparison with the features of other comparable geographically disjunct elements at the same and different taxonomic levels.

The exact number of such bipolar species, is, of course, constantly subject to modification in the light of taxonomic revisions, and indeed it has tended to decrease over the years. These studies will consider those cases for which there is, or recently has been, a substantial body of taxonomic opinion for including the Northern and Southern Hemisphere populations in the same species. Such species must occur at high latitudes in both hemispheres, that is attaining the areas of the Straits of Magellan (c. $52^{\circ}$ S. lat.)
and Alaska or Arctic Europe (c. $55^{\circ}$ N. lat.). Of course, many of these species penetrate into lower latitudes in both hemispheres, particularly via the Andes and Rockies, but they can generally be distinguished from the amphitropical species of warmer climates. On these criteria there appear to be about 30 species which must be included in this survey. The list, which may well need subsequent modification in the light of these studies, contains the following species: Huperzia selago (L.) Bernh., Hymenophyllum tunbridgense (L.) Sm., H. peltatum (Porr.) Desv., Koenigia islandica L., Polygonum maritimum L., Cerastium arvense L., Sagina procumbens L., Ranunculus aquatilis L., Anemone multifida Porr., Honckenya peploides (L.) Ehrh., Hippuris vulgaris L., Armeria maritima L., Gentiana prostrata Haenke, Limosella australis R. Br., Plantago maritima L., Triglochin palustre L., Catabrosa aquatica (L.) P. Beauv., Trisetum spicatum (L.) Richt., Poa glauca Vahl., Deschampsia atropurpurea (Wahlenb.) Scheele, D. caespitosa (L.) P. Beauv., D. flexuosa (L.) Trin., Calamagrostis stricta (Timm.) Koel., Phleum alpinum L., Carex capitata L., C. curta Gooden., C. macloviana D'Urv., C. magellanica Lam., C. maritima Gunn., and C. microglochin Wahlenb.

## BIPOLAR CAREX

Carex is primarily a genus of the Northern Hemisphere, with over half its species occurring in northern temperate regions. Twelve species have been reported from cool temperate regions of both hemispheres, most of them having their Southern Hemisphere populations in South America. Of these species C. nigra (L.) Reichard, C. pseudo-cyperus L., and C. riparia Curt. have not been reliably recorded from latitudes as high as $50^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$.; nor has C. marcida Boott, whose northern populations, furthermore, are separated as C. stenophylla Wahlenb. (incl. C.
eleocharis L. H. Balley). C. gayana Desv. does not reach further north than about $48^{\circ} \mathrm{N}$. in North America where, in any case, it apparently constitutes a distinct species - C. simulata Mack. (Mackenzie 1931).

Six species fulfil the requirements for bipolarity adopted above and are considered here. They are - C. maritima Gunn., C. macloviana D'Unv., C. capitata L., C. curta Gooden., C. magellanica Lam. and C. microglochin Wahlenb. All of these species are widely distributed at high latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere and all reach Tierra del Fuego in the south. One species, C. curta, is also known from montane Australia (Fig. 1 A-F).

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

The results described in this paper are largely derived from a study of herbarium material covering as wide a morphological and geographical range as possible, supplemented by field observations and cytological information. Since a major interest of this work is to determine the extent of differentiation in relation to bipolarity, we have primarily concentrated on examining variation between Northern and Southern Hemisphere populations and, to a lesser extent, that within the Southern Hemisphere. We have only considered variation among Northern Hemisphere plants where it is relevant to this principal theme.

The characters selected for detailed study in each species are those which earlier workers have indicated as useful for separating infraspecific groupings, particular attention being paid to quantitative characters. These characters include those which are most widely used in the genus and which most of the available evidence shows to be of greatest value in delimiting taxa. In every instance all characters of value on the above criteris were scored initially and then about ten of those showing the greatest differentiation were selected for further study. Wherever possible type specimens have been included in these observations.

## RESULTS

The information is presented separately for each species. The species are consid-




Fig. 2. Morphological characteristics of Northern (,$- \mathrm{N}=50$ ) and Southern ( $-\cdots, \mathrm{N}$ $=26)$ Hemisphere plants of Carex maritima. - A: Stem diameter. - B: Utricle width.
variation does not appear to fit into any significant geographical pattern.

The following characters were studied: 1. Stem-diameter; 2. Inflorescence-length; 3. Inflorescence-width; 4. Length of female glume; 5 . Width of female glume; 6. Colour of female glume; 7. Utriclelength; 8. Utricle-width. The number of flowers is omitted because detailed analysis was impracticable on herbarium material, although preliminary observations indicated that variation in this character was not significant.

In none of the 8 characters studied in detail was there any significant discontinuity in the variation pattern, but we present here (Fig. 2A, B) our results for 2 characters to indicate the sort of trends that could be seen in the variation of Northern and Southern Hemisphere material. These results confirm that the Northern and Southern Hemisphere populations of C. maritima are very similar and that there is no evidence for any infra-specific subdivision. It is interesting that the Southern Hemisphere material tends to lie in the middle of the variation pattern shown by that from the north.

This is supported by Roivainev's (1954 p. 198) observation that "Zwischen meinen feuerländischen und in Nordeuropa gesammelten Examplaren habe ich keine nennenswerte Differenzen gefunden".

Carex macloviana D'Urv.
This species was described from Port Louis, in the Falkland Islands, by D'Urville (1825). It occurs in the Southern Hemisphere in the Andes from c. $32^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ southwards to Tierra del Fuego and the Falkland Islands. In the Northern Hemisphere it occurs from N. Scandinavia through Iceland and Greenland to E. Canada, and from Alaska to Wyoming in the west; it also occurs in Hawaii and Kamchatka. K0kenthal recognized 8 varieties, differing in stem-length, leafwidth, number of spikelets, shape of glumes and utricles, etc.: only two of these are given for South America, var. thermarum (РнIL.) К0к, and var. pseudoleporina K0̈k. (K0kenthal 1909; Barros 1935). The most significant variant recorded in the Northern Hemisphere is subsp. pachystachya (Cham.) Hultén (Hulté 1942), comprising the plants from W. North America.

On the basis of the published information on variation the following characters were studied: 1. Stem-length; 2. Stem-diameter; 3. Leif-width; 4 . Inflorescence-length (as an indication of spikelet-number); 5. Length of lowest bract; 6. Sex of flowers; 7. Length of female glume; 8 . Width of female glume; 9. Utricle-length; 10. Utri-cle-width. Although in no case was there any significant discontinuity in the variation pattern there appears to be a slight differentiation between Northern and Southern Hemisphere material in characters 2, 3, 5 and 7 (Fig. 3A-D). In all these characters it is obvious that although there is an almost complete overlap between material from the two hemispheres that from the south tends to be slightly larger. Though the infraspecific taxonomy of the species in the Northern Hemisphere


Fig. 3. Morphological characteristics of Northern ( $-\mathrm{N}=102$ ) and Southern ( $\sim, \mathrm{N}=51$ ) Hemisphere plants of Carex macloviana. - A: Stem diameter. - B: Leaf width. - C: Length of the lowest bract. - D: Length of $\mathcal{q}$ glume.
remains obscure (Hultén 1958; Calder \& Taylor 1968) it is clear that there is no case for any formal separation of the Southern Hemisphere populations.

## Carex capitata L.

This species was described by Linnaeus (1759 p. 1261) from a Solander specimen, probably that from Lapland in the

Linnean Herbarium. In the Northern Hemisphere it is widespread as a circumboreal in Europe and Siberia, Greenland and Canada, extending southwards in the west to N. Mexico. In the Southern Hemisphere it occurs in S. Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego, and in the Andes between c. $32^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$, and $38^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$.

Little infraspecific variation had been noted until the work of Smith (1940) and Roivainen (1954). C. arctogena H. Smith, described from Torne Lappmark, Sweden, was distinguished from C. capitata principally by its shorter stems, smaller inflorescence, subacute female glumes and smaller utricle which is more abruptly contracted into a longer beak. It was said to occur in northern and montane Scandinavia, Greenland, NE. North America, S. Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego. Smith (1940) observed that the most pronounced arctogena characteristics were found in South American material and Roivainen (1954) described such plants from Tierra del Fuego as C. antarctogena Roiv. He appears to include all austral material in this species, which is stated to differ from C. arctogena in being stouter, having more male flowers and more (8-14) teeth on the utricle. On the other hand Hultén (1962) considered C. arctogena worthy at most of varietal rank, while Raymond (1949) was of the opinion that it is a forma of C. capitata.

The following characters were studied: 1. Stem-length; 2. Stem-diameter; 3. In-florescence-length; 4. Inflorescence-width; 5. Length of female glume; 6. Width of female glume; 7. Utricle-length; 8 . Utriclewidth; 9. Length of utricle-beak. The number of teeth on the beak of the utricle was not included because of the frequent difficulty in deciding whether a beak was smooth or toothed and in counting the teeth.

No discontinuity was found in the variation pattern, but in almost all the characters studied there was a strong tendency for the Southern Hemisphere populations to fall nearer to one extreme of the varia-
tion observed in the Northern Hemisphere, as is shown in Fig. 4 A-D. This result confirms the comments on the Southern Hemisphere populations made by Smith (1940), though it also indicates that his division of the Northern Hemisphere populations into two species is unjustified. Indeed, we concur with Hultén (1962) that C. arctogena is only varietally distinct, and we consider that the Southern Hemisphere plants also fall within this variety.

## Carex curta Gooden.

This species was described by GoodEnough (1791 p. 145), the type being specimen 1100.24 in the Linnean Herbarium, collected by Solander from Lapland and labelled "brizoides" by Linnaeus. The species has often been known as C. canescens L., the type of which is, however, a specimen of C. buxbaumii Wahlenb. (Nelmes 1951 a p. 444). A great deal of variation has been described and the actual limits of the species in the Northern Hemisphere may be hard to define. It has a circumboreal distribution, extending southwards to S. Italy, the Himalayas and the Rockies. In the Southern Hemisphere it occurs in New Guinea and SE. Australia, and in South America in the Falkland Islands and Tierra del Fuego and in the Andes at c. $40^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ and c. $35^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$. We have excluded from consideration the closely related species C. hylaea Krecz., C. arctaeformis Mack., C. lapponica O F. Lang and C. bonanzensis Brist.

The following characters were studed: 1. Stem-length; 2. Stem-diameter; 3. In-florescence-length; 4. Number of spikes; 5. Length of lowest spike; 6. Width of lowest spike; 7. Utricle-length; 8. Utriclewidth; 9. Utricle-scabridity; 10. Leafwidth; 11. Distance between lowest pair of spikes; 12. Distance between 2nd lowest pair of spikes. A preliminary analysis of the above 12 characters revealed that some evidence of a discontinuous patern was shown by 2, 7, 8 and 10 (Fig. $5 \mathrm{~A}-\mathrm{C}$ ).


B


Inflorescence Length (mm)



Fig. 4. Morphological characteristics of Northern ( $-\mathrm{N}=138$ ) and Southern ( $\ldots, \mathrm{N}=15$ ) Hemisphere plants of Carex capitata. - A: Stem diameter. - B: Length of the inflorescence. - C: Length of $\mathcal{Y}$ glume (class centres). - D: Length of utricle-beak.

Thus, despite considerable overlap, there is a tendency for Southern Hemisphere material to have a somewhat greater stemdiameter than that from the north (Fig.

5A). More pronounced, however, are the wider leaves (Fig. 5B) and wider utricles (Fig. 5C) of the Southern Hemisphere material, which also generally has a lon-


Fig. 5. Morphological characteristics of Northern (-, N=87, ©) and Southern ( $-\cdots, \mathrm{N}=$ 48, o) Hemisphere plants of Carex curta. - A: Stem-diameter. - B: Leaf-width. C: Utricle-length and width.
ger utricle (Fig. 5C). These data suggest that the material from the Southern Hemisphere can be considered as varietally distinct. The appropriate variety is C. canescens $\beta$ robustior Blytt ex Andersson, described from Scandinavia, the type being Andersson Exsicc. VII. 83. The combination under C. curta Gooden, has apparently not been made and we therefore propose it as follows:

Carex curta Gooden.var. robustior (Blytt ex Andersson) D. M. Moore \& A. O. ChaTER comb. nov. (syn. C. canescens [var.] $\beta$ robustior Blytt ex Andersson, Cyp. Scand. 57, 1894).

As well as comparing Northern and Southern Hemisphere material, that from various component geographical regions such as Australia, South America, North America, Greenland, Fennoscandia, U.S.S.R. and Europe was examined for any geographical correlations at this level.

Only in leaf-width was there any noticeable difference, since North American material showed a slight tendency to be narrower than material from other northern areas. Interestingly, Australian material accorded in almost all characters with the tendency shown by South American material, although in utricle-length and width it graded more into the Northern Hemisphere range than did most of the South American material. It is worth mentioning here that Nelmes (1951a) considered the New Guinea plant to be nearer to typical European material than is the Australian plant.

## Carex magellanica Lam.

This species was described by Lamarck ( 1792 p. 385 ) from material collected by Commerson along the Straits of Magellan. It has a northern circumpolar distribution (Hultén 1962), with extension to the mountains of C. Europe, W. Asia and south along the Rockies to Colorado, while


Fig. 6. Morphological characteristics of Northern ( $-\mathrm{N}=102, \bullet$ ) and Southern ( . . $\mathrm{N}=$ 48, o) Hemisphere plants of Carex magellanica. - A: Stem diameter. - B: Length of middle $Q$ glume. - C: Number of $q$ flowers in terminal spike. - D: Number of $\delta$ flowers in lower lateral spike.
in the Southern Hemisphere it occurs from Tierra del Fuego and the Falkland Islands north along the Andes to about $40^{\circ} \mathrm{S}$ lat. The Northern Hemisphere populations have been distinguished as $C$. paupercula Michx. or C. irrigua Wahlenb. Roivainen (1954) reported that the South American plants differ from those in the Northern Hemisphere by having dioecious upper and lateral spikes, more male flow23
ers and narrower utricles. On the basis of this Hulten (1962) separated the Northern Hemisphere material as ssp. irrigua (Wahlenb.) Hultèn.

The following characters were studied: 1. Stem-length; 2. Stem-diameter; 3. Total number of spikes; 4. Number of female flowers in terminal spike; 5. Number of male flowers in lower lateral spike; 6. Length of female glume (middle of spike);

Bot. Notiser, vol. 124, 1971
7. Width of female glume; 8. Utriclelength; 9 . Utricle-width. Of these, characters $2,4,5,6$ and 7 appeared to show the most noticeable discontinuities (Fig. 6A-. D).

It is evident that, once again, the Southern Hemisphere plants have stouter stems than those from the North, although there is considerable overlap (Fig. 6A), and the lower lateral spike has more male flowers in Southern than Northern Hemisphere plants, although again there is an overlap at 3 flowers (Fig. 6D). The three remaining characters show the major distinction between Northern and Southern Hemisphere plants, the latter having more female flowers in the terminal spike, and longer and wider female glumes. Almost $75 \%$ of the Northern Hemisphere plants have the terminal spike completely male, as compared with only $7 \%$ of Southern Hemisphere plants.

Geographical variation of characters in the Northern Hemisphere was examined by comparing material from different regions, such as Canada, U.S.A., Iceland, Fennoscandia and Europe, but none of these was morphologically closer than the others to the Southern Hemisphere material. Interestingly, material from Fennoscandia covers virtually the whole range of variation in all characters encountered in the Northern Hemisphere.

In view of the general modal difference between Northern and Southern Hemisphere populations of C. magellanica in the sex of the terminal spike and in glume-size, it seems appropriate to recog. nize them as different subspecies. We would concur with Hultén (1962), therefore, that the southern plants belong to ssp. magellanica, while those in the Northern Hemisphere are separated as ssp. irrigua (Wahlenb.) Hultén.

Carex microglochin Wahlenb.
This species, originally described from North Lapland (Wahlenberg 1803 p. 140), is widespread in the Northern Hemisphere, where it occurs from the mountains of C. Europe east to the Caucasus, Altai and Himalayas, in C. and N. Russia, N. Europe, Greenland, N. North America and south along the Rockies to Colorado. In South America the species occurs sporadically along the Andes south from Ecuador, but is most frequent at their southern limit and in Tierra del Fuego and the Falkland Islands. These southern plants have been distinguished as $C$. camptoglochin Krecz. (C. oligantha Boott non Steudel) the type of which comes from Bahia Orange on Peninsula Hoste in southern Fuegia, as C. microglochin subsp. fuegina K0k., or as C. microglochin var. oligantha (Воотт) K0к., by having tall culms, sparsely flowered spikes and long, long-stipitate utricles. Roivainen (1954) considered that two species, C. microglochin and C. oligantha, should be recognized in Tierra del Fuego, differing in utricle-length, numbers of male and female flowers and in habitat preference.

The following characters were studied: 1. Stem-length; 2. Stem-diameter; 3. Length of longest leaf; 4 . Number of male flowers; 5 . Number of female flowers; 6 . Length of largest utricle; 7. Width of largest utricle; 8. Emergent length of rhacheole; 9. Stipe-length.

The Northern and Southern Hemisphere populations did not differ in either stemor leaf-width, but in all the other 7 characters there was some differentiation (Fig. $7 \mathrm{~A}-\mathrm{F})$. There is a general tendency for the Southern Hemisphere material to have slightly stouter stems (Fig. 7A), somewhat fewer male and female flowers (Fig. 7B, C) and the rhacheole projects further

[^1]Bot. Notiser, vol. 124, 1971



Fig. 8. Morphological characteristics of plants of Carex microglochin from lower ( $\cdots, \mathrm{N}=$ 20) and higher $(-, N=35)$ rainfall areas of Tierra del Fuego and adjacent parts of southernmost South America, - A: Utricle length. - B: Number of $q$ flowers. - C: Stipe. length.
from the utricle (Fig. 7E) than in plants from the Northern Hemisphere. However, the greatest differentiation is shown in the size of the utricle and in the stipe-length, which are clearly greater in Southern Hemisphere plants (Fig. 7D, F). It seems clear that these latter characters give abundant reason for the separation of two
subspecies within C. microglochin, with lesser support from characters $2,4,5$ and 8 . The result of this would be that all Northern Hemisphere material be included in ssp. microglochin, while South American plants comprise ssp. fuegina Кок.

We have followed up Roivainen's (1954) suggestion that two species occur in Tierra del Fuego, C. microglochin being characteristic of the drier central and eastern parts of Fuegia and C. camptoglochin, with larger utricle, longer stipe and fewer male and female flowers, occurring in the higher rainfall areas of the west and south-west. From our data on this relationship (Fig. $8 \mathrm{~A}-\mathrm{C}$ ) there is a suggestion of the trend noted by RoivarNEN but the large overlap precludes recognition of two taxa on the basis of these characters.

After studying 5 Northern and 3 Southern Hemisphere plants Kukkonen (1970) suggested that anatomical differences exist between material referred to C. microglochin and C. camptoglochin. Examination of a wider sample (12 Northern and 11 Southern Hemisphere plants), whilst not confirming the validity of all the characters used by him, does generally support his findings. Thus, Northern Hemisphere material is anatomically distinguishable from most, but not all, Southern Hemisphere material. The southern plants having a similar anatomy to ssp. microglochin show some tendency to be closer to it than do the other Southern Hemisphere plants in stipe-length, number of female flowers and utricle size, but there is a considerable overlap which precludes formal separation at present. Furthermore, the two anatomically different groups exhibit no discernible differences in climatic or ecological requirements and can be virtually sympatric in southern Fuegia. In a situation of modal separation of two subspecies, such as is encountered here, some plants similar to the Northern Hemisphere taxon will be found in the south but there is clearly a

Table 1. Chromosome numbers in bipolar Carex species.

| Species | Hemisphere | $2 n$ | References |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| capitata L. | N | 50 | Heilborn 1928, Löve \& Löve 1953. |
| [as arctogena] | N | 50 | Jorgensen et al. 1958, Löve \& Löve 1966. |
| curta Goonen. | N | 56 | Jorgensen et al. 1958, Lode \& Löve 1948. |
|  | S | 56 | Moore 1967. |
| macloviana D'Urv. | N | 82 | Böcher 1938. |
|  |  | 86 | Heilborn 1939, Jongensen et al. 1958, Löve \& Löve 1956. |
| magellanica Lam. | N | 58 | Heilborn 1928, Favarger 1959. |
|  | S | 58 | Moore unpub. (Tierra del Fuego). |
| maritima Guns. | N | 60 | Holmen 1952, Jorgensen et al 1958, Lobve \& Löve 1942, 1956, Löve \& Ritchie 1966. |
| microglochin Wahlenb. | N | 58 | LOve \& LOve 1942, 1956. |
|  | S | 58 | Moore unpubl. (Tierra del Fuego). |

need for further information on the causes of the anatomical variation and a continued search for features correlated with the rather abrupt discontinuity shown by the anatomical characters.

## CHROMOSOME STUDIES

Chromosome numbers are known for material of all six species from the Northern Hemisphere, although in most cases only from one or two localities. Southern Hemisphere material of three species has been studied cytologically and in each case the chromosome number is the same as that reported from the Northern Hemisphere. These data are summarized in Table 1. It has not been possible to examine chromosome pairing in artificial hybrids between material from the two hemispheres to see whether structural changes in the chromosomes have occurred or to determine whether cytogenetic barriers to gene flow are present.

## DISCUSSION

It has long been accepted by students of speciation and evolution that geographical separation is a major factor in disrupting the patterns of gene flow and is therefore involved to a considerable extent in the differentiation of such separated populations. In relation to bipolar
distributions this differentiation is shown by genera such as Caltha, Chrysosplenium, Euphrasia and Litorella, in which the Northern and Southern Hemisphere populations have diverged sufficiently to be clearly distinguished as distinct species, in some cases belonging to different sections. On the other hand, the bipolar species listed in the introduction have not diverged to any comparable extent, at least with regard to taxonomically recognizable characters, while the genus Empetrum may be cited as an example occupying an intermediate position in that the Northern and Southern Hemisphere populations, although traditionally referred to distinct species, have been shown to be only modally different (e.g. Moore et al. 1970). Such differences in the extent of differentiation between taxa having comparable disjunct distributions can be considered to result from substantial differences in the speed of their non-geographical evolutionary processes (e.g. LÖve 1967 p. 325), from differences in the age of the disjunction (e.g. Raven 1963 p. 157) or from some combination of these factors.

The six taxa considered in this paper all belong to a single genus, albeit not to the same subgenus, and they have been selected on fairly stringent distributional criteria. It is interesting, therefore, that
even within such a restricted group we find a rather wide variation in the extent to which there is differentiation between the Northern and Southern Hemisphere populations. Thus, in Carex magellanica and C. microglochin they are subspecifically distinct, in C. curta they are varietally distinct, while in the remaining three species no formal taxonomic separation can be made, only slight differences being found in C. capitata and C. macloviana and virtually none in C. maritima. Interestingly, in every case, even where the difference is slight, the Southern Hemisphere plants tend to be more robust than those from the Northern Hemisphere, particularly in stem-diameter and some floral characters. The reasons for this are not clear and it will be interesting to see whether a similar tendency is found in bipolar species belonging to other genera and, if so, with what environmental or biological features they may be correlated. In Carex the available information (Rorvainen 1954; Moore unpub.) suggests that the species occupy very similar habitats in the Northern and Southern Hemispheres.

If the various degrees of differentiation between Northern and Southern Hemisphere populations shown by the Carex species are due to their dissimilar rates of evolution then one must conclude that the evolutionary processes were most rapid in C. microglochin and C. magellanica, and progressively slower in C. curta, C. capitata and C. macloviana, with C. maritima showing relative stability. However, the latter two species, for example, show a considerable amount of variation in the Northern Hemisphere, where their evolution does not seem to have proceeded at an unusually low rate. If, on the other hand, the age of the discontinuity is of major importance in the differentiation, then the data suggest that these six Carex species have crossed the tropics at different times, C. microglochin and C. magellanica being the earliest migrants and C. maritima the most recent. As noted
above, (p. 318) the most likely period for amphitropical migration seems to be during the Late Pliocene and Pleistocene and if the movements of the different species took place at intervals during this period then it could be suggested that the northern and southern populations of C. magellanica and C. microglochin have taken anything up to $3,000,000$ years to diverge into different subspecies while C. maritima has shown virtually no divergence during at least the 10,000 years since the Pleistocene. The possibility of post-Pleistocene migration of C. maritima cannot be discounted, but this would involve very long distance dispersal since the northern and southern cool temperate regions have generally moved further apart during this period.

At this juncture it is not proposed to go any further into these various possibilities until we have collected more information on these and other bipolar species. It should be noted, however, that even within this group of species, belonging to the same genus and having very similar bipolar distributions, the major geographical discontinuity across the low latitudes is not constantly correlated with any correspondingly major discontinuity in the variation pattern. In this respect it is simply as though the Southern Hemisphere distribution was another outlier of the main range. All six Carex species have their widest distribution in the Northern Hemisphere, where C. maritima, C. macloviana and C. capitata show greater variation in most characters than in the Southern Hemisphere. This would be consistent with the usual view (c. g. Raven 1963 p. 155 ) that the species migrated from the north. However, C. microglochin, for which an austral origin has been postulated (Nelmes 1951b), does show greater variation in the Southern Hemisphere; but C. curta and C. magellanica are similarly more variable in the Southern Hemisphere and there seems little doubt that these two species evolved in
the Northern Hemisphere where their closest relatives occur.

In warm temperate America a taxonomically heterogencous group of amphitropical species has been shown to display various stages of both morphological and cytogenetical differentiation (Moore and Raven 1970), and this may be considered an analogous situation to the one we are considering here. Our cytological data for the Carex species are confined to observations on chromosome numbers, which show no amphitropical differences, and the difficulty of obtaining artificial hybrids in this genus suggests that we will not easily obtain information on cryptic cytogenetical changes. However, such data can be obtained more readily from bipolar species in other genera and it should be possible eventually to gather a broadly based body of information on the biologically important characteristics of these taxa. Such data will permit a clearer understanding of the processes responsible for the patterns of variation in bipolar species and how these are related to the general problem of evolution and distribution in taxa showing wide geographical disjunction.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The senior author is grateful to the Royal Society of London for the award of a government grant-in-aid to carry out the field work. We are indebted to the directors of the following herbaria for the loan of material in their care: Botanical Museum, Copenhagen; Botanical Museum, Helsinki; Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew; Department of Botany. The University, Leicester; Naturhistoriska Riksmusect, Stockholm: University Institute of Systematic Botany, Uppsala; Smithsonian Institution, Washington. We are also indebted to the members of the 1970 - 71 M.Sc. class in Plant Taxonomy at the University of Reading for their anatomical study of Carex microglochin.

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# Northerly Localities for three Aquatic Plants, Lemna trisulca L., Ceratophyllum demersum L., and Myriophyllum spicatum L. 

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#### Abstract

Holmpuist, C. 1971. Northerly localities for three aquatic plants, Lemna trisulca L., Ceratophyllum demersum L., and Myriophyllum spicatum L. - Bot. Notiser 124: 335-342.

Three aquatic plants, Lemna trisulca L., Ceratophyllum demersum L., and Myriophylfum spicatum L. have been found north of their known distribution range on several localities in northern Alaska and northwestern Canada. The new records are accounted for geographically and ecologically. It is suggested that more records will be available once a more systematic search for aquatic plants in arctic areas is performed.


During six summers investigation of the invertebrate fauna of about one hundred lakes of northern Alaska and northwestern Canada, some vascular plants were also taken in the bottom dredge. Some of these seemed of special interest since they were found north of their known distribution range. The three species are Lemna trisulca L., Ceratophyllum demersum L. and Myriophyllum spicatum L. The survey, which was undertaken over the period from 1961 to 1970, has been sponsored by the Arctic Institute of North America under contractual arrangements with the Office of Naval Research, Washington, D.C., and by the Naval Arctic Research Laboratory, Barrow, Alaska.

The localities for the three species are seen in Table 1 and Figs. 1-3. All physico-chemical data from the various sampling occasions are given. They may be of use in a possible future analysis of the ecological demands of the topical plants at their northern border of occur-
rence. It must be remembered, though, that the records given represent only single samples. They are not absolute, but they give a fair idea about the conditions of the lake at a certain date. Not least the temperatures are correlative to date and weather, as shown by the records for Caribou Lake, S. Crossley Lake and the lake at about $68^{\circ} \mathrm{N} 139^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$ sampled in August 1969. There had been heavy snowfalls on the days immediately preceding the visit to these lakes. A scrutiny of Table 1 also tells that the absence of a record from a sampling occasion is not invariably evidence of nonexistence of a topical species in the topical locality. Mostly only one or two dredge hauls were made during each visit to a lake. For instance, the first visit to Lake Narvakrak in the Noatak River valley in 1964 yielded only Lemna trisulca of the three topical species, the second in 1968 also Myriophyllum, and finally the third in 1970 gave Ceratophyllum as well.

In manuals, all three species are said
to oceur in shallow quiet water. This statement fits the present records well. If any tendency can be read from Table 1 , it is that Myriophyllum seems to be met with in deeper lakes than are Lemna and Ceratophyllum, though not exclusively so. Myriophyllum was also taken in some more northerly lakes than were the other two (Figs. 1-3). Ceratophyllum has not yet been found north of the Brooks Range, viz. on the northern exposures of the Arctic Slope of Alaska. The latter fact is not significant, though, since S. Crossley Lake of northwestern Canada, where Ceratophyllum was taken in abundance, is not sheltered to the north by a mountain range either.

Hultén, in his Atlas of Vascular Plants in NW Europe (1950), referred the three topical species to "Boreal-circumpolar plants lacking large gaps in their area". The meaning of the word boreal is just northerly but has been used largely and often quite loosely to indicate a kind of climatic distribution, viz. cold-temperate climate. The word was used, among others, in denoting a period of the postglacial time in Scandinavia having a summer-dry maritime climate (ef. Magnusson, Granlund \& Lundqvist 1949). In phyto- and zoogeographical sense it is used for northerly areas south of the tree-line. It will not be denied that the three aquatic plants now found in more northerly localities in the main have what is called a boreal distribution. Of more interest are the local climatic conditions which these plants encounter in this northern area, called aretic and subarctic.

Naturally, the climate and length of the vegetation period are of importance for the occurrence of the various species, but the winter conditions are of equal importance for their survival. The lakes in Table 1 are all, except the last one, within the area of continuous permafrost. This does not mean, though, that all lakes of such an area are underlaid by permafrost. It has been stated that a body of water deeper than the maximum thickness of
the developing ice has an unfrozen zone beneath to a depth in correlation to the depth of the lake and the amount of unfrozen water (Brewer 1958; Lachenbruch, Brewer, Greene \& Marshall 1962). Lakes deeper than about 2 m do not freeze to the bottom on the Arctic Slope of Alaska. Location and exposure of a lake influence the thickness of the ice cover. As to the present survey, it is doubtful that Aniralik Lake will freeze solid in the winter. Depths much greater than the one noted are unlikely, since moose were seen grazing almost as far as the middle of the lake. The two lakes at Umiat may be at the bounds of freezing solid.

Most probably nothing is known about the frost-hardiness and the minimum temperatures endured by the three topical species, and yet these factors are of great importance for the survival of species reaching thus far north. It was noted for Aniralik Lake that a large amount of the Lemna and Potamogeton found on the sampling date (July 27) looked dead and at the beginning of decay. The date of breaking up of the ice that year (1970) is not known for this area, but on the Arctic Slope it did not occur until the first half of July. At least Lemne and Ceratophyllum are not supposed to overwinter in the area, as do more hardy seeds. Even in milder countries, such as Sweden, flowers are rare things. Lemna overwinters as such, but Ceratophyllum develops special winter buds with rather tough, tight leaves. These buds sink to the bottom for the winter period. My riophyllum was never found flowering in the area either, and also here propagation may proceed through shoots. Myriophyllum taken on September 19, 1970, in Niglaktak Lake and a lake further east also showed winter buds with tighter leaves than other buds.

The summer climate of the lakes in Table 1 may be quite warm at times, and the shallow water is apt to warm up fairly quickly. For instance, the shallow

Fig. 1. Lemna trisulce. Dots $=$ records of the present survey. Circles $=$ records from Hulten (1968)

Bot. Notiser, vol. 124, 1971
 the species has been recorded by Terasmae \& Cratg (1958) at c. $64^{\circ} \mathrm{N} 102^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$ and Hultén (1968) at c. $63^{\circ} \mathrm{N} 114^{\circ} \mathrm{W}$.
Fig.

Bot. Notiser, vol. 124, 1971

Fig. 3. Myriophyllum spicatum. For legends see Fig. 1.


Bot. Notiser, vol. 124, 1971

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| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Aniralik Lak، } \\ & 68^{\circ} 12^{\prime} \mathrm{N} \cdots \cdots \\ & 159^{\circ} 50^{\prime} \mathrm{W} \cdots \end{aligned}$ | 13 |
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| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Summit (Elea } \\ & 68^{\circ} 10^{\prime} \mathrm{N} \\ & 151^{\circ} 45^{\prime} \mathrm{W} \end{aligned}$ | 650 |
| $\begin{aligned} & 68^{\circ} 12^{\prime} \mathrm{N} \\ & 139^{\circ} 23^{\prime} \mathrm{W} \end{aligned}$ |  |

$\stackrel{\text { ※ }}{\underset{\sim}{2}}$


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Aniralik Lake showed a surface temperature of $20^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ on July 27, 1970 ; next in the Table is a lake close to the Sagavanirktok River with $17.5^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ on July 17, 1968, and there is a lake in the lower Noatak River valley with $14^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ on August 2, 1964, and $15^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ as late as August 21, 1968. All the lakes of Table 1 lie a good way from the coast, and the summer in the inland of northern Alaska may be quite sunny and warm. The vegetation period may be short, though, viz. about three months, and the winters rather cold. Still it is hard to find any reasons why for instance Ceratophyllum could not live north of the Brooks Range in lakes of $2-3 \mathrm{~m}$ depth, as well as in Aniralik Lake and Lake Narvakrak on the southern slope of the Range, or in S. Crossley Lake some way east of the Mackenzie River Delta. It may be added that S. Crossley and Narvakrak Lakes are situated at the northern limit of trees, Aniralik Lake north of it. The reason why no other records of the three plants are available throughout my survey of about one hundred lakes of the area may be that generally deeper lakes were sought, as well as the deeper parts of every lake, and plants were not the main object of my survey.

In 1958, Terasmae \& Craig reported on fossil Ceratophyllum from an area east of Great Slave Lake in Canada, viz. at $64^{\circ} 19^{\prime} \mathrm{N} 102^{\circ} 41^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$. Because the northernmost record at that time in North America obviously was from $59^{\circ} 14^{\prime} \mathrm{N}$ $11^{\circ} 34^{\prime} \mathrm{W}$, they drew some conclusions on a warmer climate in the Great Slave Lake area at the time of deposition, viz. $5000-$ 6000 years B.P. They also stated that the topical area at that time had forests. It could well be that the actual area was warmer than it is today. However, HulTÉN in his Flora of Alaska and Neighboring Territories (1968 p. 451) marked a recent locality on the northern side of Great Slave Lake as well as at the Telon

River, and the recent finding of Ceratophyllum in S. Crossley Lake at $68^{\circ} 33^{\prime} \mathrm{N}$ also shows that the climate of the Great Slave Lake area of today could not be blamed for the scanty records here. With the experience of six summers' field work on the lakes in northern Alaska and northwestern Canada, I would rather say that shortage of investigations is the reason. Hulten's distribution maps of the three topical species ( 1968 pp. 282, 451, 684) are also based on occasional records from lakes rather than a systematical survey, quite naturally, since such a survey would make a task of its own, not too easy to perform in a country without roads and without a boat on every lake. A few localities of the present survey are included in Hulten's maps and the rest were later passed on to him as well for use in other contexts. Once a more systematic search for aquatic plants in arctic areas is performed, I think the picture of their distribution will change, just as it has done for some invertebrate animals.

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# Studies on Parmelia Subgenus Xanthoparmelia (Lichenes) in South Africa 

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#### Abstract

Hale, M. E.. Jr. 1971. Studies on Parmelia subgenus Xanthoparmelia (Lichenes) in South Africa. - Bot. Notiser 124:343-354.

The evolutionary trends in morphology and chemistry of Parmelia subgenus Xanthoparmelia are discussed. Africa has a higher proportion of biogenetically "primitive" acids (hypoprotocetraric, protocetraric acids) and greater morphological diversity than are present in the North American and Australian populations. Twelve new species from South Africa are described: $P$. almbornii, $P$. atroventralis, $P$. diadeta, $P$. dichromatica, $P$. encrustans, $P$. frondosa, $P$. heterodoxa, $P$. hyporhytida, P. lecanorica, P. neocongensis, P. quintaria, and P. subdomokosii.


## INTRODUCTION

Parmelia subgenus Xanthoparmelia is especially well represented in Africa with about 50 species, at least 30 of them endemic to South Africa. This compares with 29 species for all of North America and 100 on the world level. While I have been able to examine all type specimens in Xanthoparmelia and study the very extensive collections made by Almborn, Höeg, and others, it is still too early to make a definitive treatment of the African species. Further collecting and ideally field studies must be made. This preliminary report presents some generalizations on the taxonomy and evolution of the subgenus and descriptions of 12 new species.

I wish to give special thanks to Dr. Ove Almbonn, whose large collections have provided a sound base for the lichen flora of South Africa. Dr. S. Kurorawa helped with early crystal tests of many of the specimens cited but all of them have now been analysed with thin-layer chromatography [Brink. mann pre-coated plates using two solvent systems: benzene-dioxane-acetic acid (90:25: 4) and hexane-ether-formic acid $(9: 4: 1)$, sprayed with $10^{\circ} \% \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{SO}_{4}$ and heated for 10 minutes at $\left.110^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right]$.

Specimens of Xanthoparmelia contain yellow usnic acid in the cortex (excepting a few "albino" strains), are usually collected on rocks in drier areas, and have a simple but highly plastic morphology. Growth form in some of the species can be influenced rather significantly by environment, and since the group as a whole inhabits pioneer, desert, and even alpine habitats, environmentally induced morphological modifications can be troublesome indeed for the taxonomist. Given the problems of unstable morphology and dearth of such taxonomically useful characters as cilia and rhizine variation, one cannot blame lichenologists for exploring the possible application of chemistry to the systematics of Xanthoparmelia. Chemistry is a distinctive, easily identifiable character, particularly now that we have thin-layer chromatography. While slavish reliance on chemistry may lead to a rather uninspired kind of one-character taxonomy, one can achieve a more comprehensive understanding of the biology and evolution of lichens by using chemistry in combination with other traits than would
ever be possible by using only external morphology without chemical tests.

There are three major areas, South Africa, Australia, and North America, with a high concentration of species which seem to have evolved more or less independently in chemistry and morphology. Both South America and Asia have fewer species and much less diversity for reasons not at once obvious. Lowland tropical areas are practically devoid of Xanthoparmelia species, while the Arctic has a unique assemblage of species, $P$. centrifuga (L.) Ach., P. incurva (PERs.) Ach., P. separata Th. Fr., and P. subcentrifuga Oxner, all of which contain alectoronic acid and are geographically remote from the rest of the subgenus.

## MORPHOLOGICAL EVOLUTION

The main lines of morphological evolution are in adnation and configuration of the lobes, ranging from subcrustose to umbilicate in adnation and from conspersoid (short, rotund lobes; cf. Fig. 1 D) to stenophylloid (long, narrow lobes; cf. Fig. 3 A) in lobation. For example, a large series of species in Africa are remarkable in having very close to nearly suberustose adnation: $P$. adhaerens Nyl., $P$. conspersula Nyl., P. encrustans Hale (Fig. 2 A), P. domokosii GyEl., and P. worcesteri Stein. \& Zahl. More distinctly foliose but still very closely appressed are $P$. congensis Stein and $P$. neocongensis Hale (Fig. 2 D). Of these species only $P$. congensis occurs outside of Africa. At the other extreme we find $P$. hottentotta (Ach.) Ach. an umbilicate endemic that may even be regarded as a separate genus, and closely related $P$. frondosa Hale (Fig. 2 B). Neither the Australian or American populations have such extremes in development. Australia, however, does share with Africa the rapid evolution of narrow or stringy-lobed suberect species with a black lower surface and without or with very sparse rhizines. In Africa we have as examples of this $P$. benopszyana Gyel., $P$.
constrictans Nyl., $P$. eradicata (Nyl.) Gyel., P. hypoleia Nyi., P. hypoprotocetrarica Kurok., P. tananarivensis Gyel., and P. suberadicata des Abb. In Australia there are P. cheelii Gyel., P. dichotoma Moll. Arg., and P. furcata Moll. Arg. No such types are known in North America, where instead there is a trend toward "vagans" type lobation with suberect unattached convoluted lobes and a pale lower surface, as in P. chlorochroa Tuck., P. wyomingica (Gyel.) Hale (basionym: P. digitulata var. wyomingica Gyel., Ann. Mycol. 36: 277, 1938), and P. vagans Nul. [and in the steppes of Russia the classical P. camtschadalis (Ach.) Ach.]. Convoluted growth forms in Africa ( $P$. amphixanthoides Stein. \& Zahl.) and in Australia (P. australiensis Cromb., P. convoluta Kremplh., and $P$. subdistorta Kurok.) are by comparison much rarer.

Another unusual morphological development in the African population is strong maculation or white spotting in the cortex, seen most clearly in the $P$. hottentotta group (cf. Fig. 2 B) but in more normally foliose P. hypoleia NvL.., P. hypoprotocetrarica Kurok., and $P$. conturbata var. exornata Zahl. This trait is lacking in North America and occurs in only one Australian species, P. notata Kurok. (Kurokawa et al. 1971). These maculae are correlated with disruptions in the algal layer, the color contrast between algaefilled areas and algae-free areas accounting for the white-spotted effect. The full significance of maculation is not yet clear, whether for example it has any physiological function, but it seems to be a consistent, taxonomically valuable character in Parmelia.

## CHEMICAL EVOLUTION

The comparative biogenesis of lichen acids is a new but slowly developing field. Unfortunately the poor growth of lichen fungi in culture has hampered progress here, but much indirect evidence based on comparative biochemistry and taxo-
nomic information, is already at hand (Culberson \& Culberson 1970). C. Culberson (1969), for example, postulates that depsidones are not necessarily derived from depsides. This is corroborated in part by data which show that "primitive" lichen genera and families produce mostly beta-orcinol depsidones whereas more "advanced" groups in the same genus or family often produce more depsides and fewer depsidones (see Hale 1966). As a matter of fact, the preponderance of $\mathrm{P}+$ depsidones in Xanthoparmelia and its simple morphology both mark the group as the least advanced subgenus in Parmelia.

The African population of Xanthoparmelia is unusual in two respects. For one, it has three species that are $\mathrm{C}+$ red, $P$. aborcesteri Stein. \& Zahl., $P$. lecanorica Hale, both with lecanoric acid, and $P$. heterodoxa Hale with olivetoric acid, indicating evolution of a small group of species on a higher plane than $\mathrm{P}+$ red species. Secondly, hypoprotocetraric acid, a P-depsidone closely related to and apparently biogenetically less advanced than protocetraric acid, is widespread. It occurs in six species: P. domokosii Gyel.., P. encrustans Hale, P. hypoprotocetrarica Kurok., $P$. neocongensis Hale, $P$. subdomokosii Hale, and P. weberi Hale. Two protocetraric acid-containing counterparts are known: $P$. hypoprotocetrarica- $P$. hypoleia, and $P$. subdomokosii- $P$. dichromatica. Protocetraric acid also occurs in $P$. schenckiana MOLL. ABg. and $P$. austroafricana Stirt.

American species are generally characterized by populations with the stictic acid complex (stictic, constictic, and norstictic acids) or salazinic acid. Protocetraric acid is unknown in North America and hypoprotocetraric acid is known only in the rather rare $P$. weberi Hale. Lecanoric acid occurs in the rare P. lecanorica Hale, which also occurs in South Africa. Of considerable significance, however, is the production of psoromic acid in at least two species, $P$. kurokawae Hale and $P$.
psoromifera Kurok. If hypoprotocetraric acid is correctly assumed to be biogenetically "primitive," then psoromic acid must rank as biogenetically advanced among the $\mathrm{P}+$ depsidones.

Australia stands alone as the center of distribution for species containing norlobaridone, a $\mathrm{P}-, \mathrm{KC}+$ red substance that probably ranks much higher biogenetically than any of the $\mathrm{P}+$ depsidones. It occurs in the widespread $P$. scabrosa Tayl. (ranging northward to Japan and with sporadic occurrence even in South Africa) and in $P$. australiensis Сromb., $P$. dichotoma MOll. Arg., P. filarszkyana Gyel., P. furcata MCll. Arg., P. metamorphosa Gyel., P. subdistorta Кurok., and P. thamnioides Kurok., all Australian endemics (Kurokawa 1969). An acid related to hypoprotocetraric acid, 4-0. methylhypoprotocetraric acid, has been discovered in one Australian species, $P$. notata Kurok. (Kurokawa et al. 1971), but both hypoprotocetraric and protocetraric acid appear to be lacking on this continent.

The chemical evidence, interpreted broadly and tentatively, would place the South African population lowest on the evolutionary scale and therefore closest to the ancestral stock of Xanthoparmelia. Western North America would seem somewhat more divergent because of the presence of psoromic acid, while a very small gene pool for hypoprotocetraric and lecanoric acids has persisted. Australia has been isolated the longest time because of the high concentration of species with norlobaridone. In morphological diversity and speciation Africa ranks first by a wide margin, followed by Australia and North America.

## NEW SPECIES

Parmelia almbornii Hale, sp. nov.
Thallus laxe adnatus, saxicola, 6-9 cm latus, marginem versus flavicans, centro obscurascens, lobis linearibus, elongatis,
divaricatis, circa 1 mm latis, dichotome furcatis, tenue nigromarginatis, superne nitidus, emaculatus, isidiis sorediisque destitutus, cortex superior $12-14 \mu$ crassus, stratum gonidiale $20-25 \mu$ crassum, medulla alba, $150-180 \mu$ crassa, cortex inferior $10 \mu$ crassus, subtus castaneus, sparse rhizinosus, rhizinis $1-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ longis, attenuatis, castaneis. Apothecia ignota. Cortex K-, P—, medulla K-, P + intense rubro-aurantiaca, acidum usnicum, acidum fumaroprotocetraricum continens

HOLOTYPE: Near Upper Cableway Station, on rocks, 3000 ft ., Table Mountain, Distr. Cape, Cape Province, South Africa, O. Almborn 1728, 4 August 1953 (LD; isotypes in TNS, US). - Fig. 1 A.

Parmelia almbornii is one of the more distinctive Table Mountain endemics although it was only first collected by AlmBORN in 1953. The chemistry is rather unusual since other similarly narrowlobed species, such as $P$. eradicata (Nym.) Gyel., usually contain salazinic acid or related depsidones. These species, too, differ in having a black lower surface nearly devoid of rhizines and do not form the firm flattened pulvinate mats so characteristic of $P$. almbornii.

SPECIMENS EXAMINED: Distr. Cape, near Upper Cableway Station, Almborn 1729; Table Mountain, Kofler (LD), Degelius SA-296, SA-319 (DEG).

## Parmelia atroventralis Hale, sp. nov.

Thallus adnatus, terricola vel humicola, subpulvinatus, $2-4 \mathrm{~cm}$ latus, viridi-flavicans, lobis angustis, linearibus, $1-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ latis, congestis, imbricatis, valde nigromarginatis, superne planus, nitidus, emaculatus, sorediis isidiisque destitutus, cortex superior $8-12 \mu$ crassus, stratum gonidiale $20-40 \mu$ crassum, continuum, medulla alba, $75-120 \mu$ crassa, cortex inferior $12 \mu$ crassus, subtus niger, sparsissime rhizinosus, rhizinis crassis, simplici-
bus. Apothecia ignota. Cortex K-, medulla $\mathrm{K}-\mathrm{P}-, \mathrm{C}-, \mathrm{KC}-$, acidum aliphaticum ignotum (acidum protolichestericum?) et acidum usnicum continens.

HOLOTYPE: Black Mt., $10,000 \mathrm{ft}$., Distr. Qachas Nek, Basutoland, L. KofLER, 6 Feb. 1963 (LD; isotype in US). -Fig. 1 B.

The strong black margins of the lobes suggest an exposed alpine habitat for this species. It is unlike any other African species in lobe configuration. In chemistry it is similar to $P$. subdecipiens Vain., a lowland species with a pale lower surface. The type specimen represents the only collection so far.

## Parmelia diadeta Hale, sp. nov.

Thallus arcte adnatus, saxicola, usque ad 5 cm latus, obscure flavicans, lobis linearibus, confluentibus, $1.0-1.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ latis, superne nitidus, aetate rimosus, emaculatus, isidiatus, isidiis cylindricis, simplicibus, cortex superior $6-8 \mu$ crassus, stratum gonidiale $10-15 \mu$ crassum, medulla alba, $60-80 \mu$ crassa, cortex inferior 6 - $8!t$ crassus, subtus niger, modice rhizinosus, rhizinis nigris, simplicibus. Apothecia rara (holotypus sterilis), adnata, circa 1 mm diametro, sporis $4-5 \times$ $7-9 \mu$. Cortex $\mathrm{K}-, \mathrm{P}-$, medulla $\mathrm{K}+\mathrm{ru}$ bescens, $\mathrm{P}+$ intense aurantiaca, acidum salazinicum et acidum usnicum continens.

HOLOTYPE: On boulders near road, 2 miles NE of Potsdam, Distr. East London, Cape Province, South Africa, O. Almborn 10683, 24 Nov. 1953 (LD; isotype in US).

Superficially $P$. diadeta (Fig. 1 C) seems to be close to $P$. congensis Stein but the lobes are larger and not so tightly adnate. Chemically these species are distinct, $P$. congensis producing stictic acid along with constictic and norstictic acids. On the other hand, $P$. diadeta is much smaller

[^2]

Fig. 1.
than $P$. tinctina Mail. \& Gille., a widespread species with similar chemistry but with thicker almost subglobose isidia. $P$. diadeta is rather common in Africa from Uganda to the Cape growing in fairly sheltered habitats. There is no obvious nonisidiate counterpart.

SPECIMENS EXAMINED; U g a n da, Distr. Karamoja, southern slopes of Mt. Moroto. Swinscow 2U35/5 (US). South Africa: Transvaal, Distr. Heidelberg, Vereeniging, HOZEG, 4 Jan. 1930 (TRH) , - Natal, Distr. Lions River, Boschfontein Forest, Almborn 8644 (L.D): Distr. Impendhle, Upper Umkomaas, HÖEG, 6 Oct. 1929 (TRH) ; Distr. Pietermaritz. burg, Natal Table Mountain. Aluborn 8563 (LD); Distr, Mtunzini, Thlobenyana Hill, Hóg. 11 Sept. 1929 (TRH), - Cape Province: Distr. Oudtshoorn, 5 miles N of Cango Caves, Almborn 4301 (LD).

Parmelia dichromatica Hale, sp. nov.
Thallus adnatus, saxicola, $4-8 \mathrm{~cm}$ latus, flavescenti-viridis, lobis subirregularibus, contiguis, $2-5 \mathrm{~mm}$ latis, aetate rugosis vel late plicatis, superne opacus, emaculatus, isidiis sorediisque destitutus, pyenidiis numerosis, cortex superior 12 $15 \mu$ crassus, stratum gonidiale $30-40 \mu$ crassum, medulla alba et praecipue circa pyenidia intense purpurea, $120-150 u$ crassa, cortex inferior $12-15 \mu$ crassus, subtus pallide castaneus, modice rhizinosus, rhizinis simplicibus, pallidis. Apothecia numerosa, adnata, $3-5 \mathrm{~mm}$ diametro, sporis octonis, $5 \times 7-8 \mu$, microconidiis $1 \times 5-7 \mu$. Cortex $\mathrm{K}-, \mathrm{P}-$, medulla alba $\mathrm{K}-\mathrm{P}+$ aurantiaca, medulla pigmentacea $\mathrm{K}+$ purpurascens, acidum protocetraricum, acidum usnicum et materiam pigmentaceam ignotam continens.

HOLOTYPE: Mt. Thabanchu, $5500-$ 7000 ft ., Orange Free State, South Africa, O. A. Hö́eg, 12 August 1929 (TRH; isotype in LD). - Fig. 1 D.

The most conspicuous feature of this conspersoid lichen is the development of spots of a deep wine red anthraquinone in the medulla, mostly near pyenidia. At least two pigments are involved but neither has been identified yet. No other

Parmelia has this trait, although similar pigments are found throughout the medulla in $P$. endomiltoides NyL. and $P$. violacea Kurok. This thick rugose thallus with a pale brown lower surface brings to mind P. subdomokosii Hale, which is P- (hypoprotocetraric acid) and has no pigment. These two species are obviously closely related, but $P$. dichromatica is quite rare in the Cape region where $P$. subdomokosii is common. Both are common in Basutoland.

SPECIMENS EXAMINED; South Africa: Basutoland, Masite Mtn.. Hewitt, 1929-30; summit of Masite Mtn., Hewitt, 1929-"0 (TRH); Distr. Leribe, Oxbow Valley, Kofler 3-11-2922a. (LD) ; Distr. Maseru, Blue Moun. tain Pass, Maluti Range, 2900 m , Kofler, 2 June 1963 (LD, US); Distr. Qachas Nek, 6 miles from Ramat-seliso, Kofler, 13 Nov, 1963 (LD) ; Mokhotlong, Kofler, 7 Feb. 1963 (LD); - Orange Free State, Fauresmith, Henhici, 1939 (PRE), - Cape Province, Distr. Middleburg, Rosmead, HöEg, 3 Dec. 1929 (TRH).

Parmelia encrustans Hale, sp. nov.
Thallus arcte adpressus, centrum versus fere subcrustosus, saxicola, $3-6 \mathrm{~cm}$ latus, viridi-flavescens, lobis subirregularibus, brevibus, circa 1 mm latis, planis vel mox convexis, congestis, superne nitidus, emaculatus, isidiis sorediisque destitutus, cortex superior fragilis, $10-12 \mu$ crassus, stratum gonidiale $40 \times 90 \mu$ altum, medulla circa $80 \mu$ crassa, cortex inferior $10-12 \mu$, subtus pallide castaneus, modice rhizinosus, rhizinis simplicibus. Apothecia numerosa, adnata, sporis octonis, $6 \times 8 \mu$; pyenidia numerosa, microconidiis $1 \times 5 \mu$. Cortex $\mathrm{K}-, \mathrm{P}-$, medulla alba $\mathrm{K}-, \mathrm{C}+, \mathrm{KC}+$ pallide aurantio-flavescens, acidum hypoprotocetraricum et materiam ignotam continens.

HOLOTYPE: On rocks, between O'okiep and Springbok, Distr. Namaqualand, Cape Province, South Africa, O. Almbors 4792. 15 Sept. 1953 (LD; isotype in US) . - Fig. 2 A.

Parmelia encrustans is very closely related to $P$. domokosii GyEL. in chemistry
and external morphology but differs in having a consistently pale lower surface. The two species have never been collected together in the same locality, though both are rather common in Cape Province.

SPECIMENS EXAMINED: Cape Province: Distr. Clanwilliam, Pakhuis Pass, Almborn 4530 (LD, US) ; Distr. Montagu, Langeberg Mountains, Maas Geesteranus 6726 (L); Distr. Namaqualand, between O'okiep and Springbok, Almbors 4787 (LD); Distr. Laingsburg, $18 \mathrm{~km} S$ of Laingsburg, Almborn 5773 (LD, US) ; Distr. Cape, near Kloof Nek, Table Mountain, Degelius SA-122 (DEG).

## Parmelia frondosa Hale, sp. nov.

Thallus suberectus, saxicola, $5-8 \mathrm{~cm}$ latus, rigidus, coriaceus, flavescenti-viridis, lobis subirregularibus, elongatis, 3-5 mm latis, superne nitidus, valde albomaculatus, apicem versus pyenidiis numerosis, isidiis sorediisque destitutus, cortex superior $11-14 \mu$ crassus, stratum gonidiale $25-75 \mu$ crassum, interruptum, medulla alba, circa $250 \mu$ crassa, cortex inferior $10-11 \mu$ crassus, subtus castaneus, apicem versus modice rhizinosus, rhizinis crassis, simplicibus vel sparse dichotome divisis, basin versus nudus, cartilagineus. Apothecia numerosa, adnata, $3-5 \mathrm{~mm}$ diametro, sporis $3-4 \times 7-8 \mu$; pyenidia numerosa, microconidiis $1 \times 6-7 \mu$. Cortex $\mathrm{K}-\mathrm{P}-$, medulla alba $\mathrm{K}+$ flavescens, $\mathrm{P}+$ aurantiaca, acidum sticticum et acidum usnicum continens.

HOLOTYPE: On rocks at edge of stream, Upper Witels Kloof, Distr. Ceres, Cape Province, South Africa, EsterhuySEN 21848, 8 October 1953 (BOL; isotypes in LD, US). - Fig. 2 B.

This remarkable lichen is related to $P$. hottentotta (ACH.) Ach., the well known Cape endemic. $P$. hottentotta, itself a rather variable species, differs in these respects: rhizines very dense, black, and usually simple, projecting out almost as cilia in a black fringe around lobe margins; apothecia ciliate; and chemical constituent norstictic acid. Both species have tough leathery thalli and conspicuous white maculae in the cortex. The Macowan
specimen seen is tentatively identified as $P$. frondosa; the chemistry agrees but rhizines are almost completely lacking.

SPECIMEN EXAMFNED; Cape Province, Distr. Cape, MacOwan, Herb. Musei AustroAfricani 46972 (SAM).

Parmelia heterodoxa Hale, sp. nov,
Thallus arcte adnatus, saxicola, orbicularis, $1.0-1.5 \mathrm{~cm}$ diametro, viridi-flavicans, lobis linearibus, angustis, circa 0.5 mm latis, contiguis, superne planus, emaculatus, isidiis sorediisque destitutus, cortex superior $10-12 \mu$ crassus, stratum gonidiale $10-15 \mu$ crassum, medulla alba, $40-50 \mu$ alta, cortex inferior $10-12 \mu$ crassus, subtus niger, sparse rhizinosus, rhizinis nigris, simplicibus. Apothecia ignota. Cortex $\mathrm{K}-, \mathrm{P}-$, medulla $\mathrm{K}-, \mathrm{P}-$, $\mathrm{C}+, \mathrm{KC}+$ rubescens, acidum olivetoricum (?) et acidum usnicum continens.

HOLOTYPE: On rocks, Natal Table Mountain, Distr. Pietermaritzburg, South Africa, O. Almborn 8595, 30 October 1953 (LD; isotype in US). - Fig. 2 C.

This species, known only from the type collection, is unusual in chemistry and the small size. Only one other $\mathrm{C}+$ acid is known in Xanthoparmelia, lecanoric acid. Olivetoric acid, tentatively identified on TLC plates, is probably biogenetically unrelated to lecanoric acid, and for this reason $P$. heterodoxa may represent a separate line in the chemical evolution of the subgenus, perhaps comparable to norlobaridone or alectoronic acid. Although the thallus is very small, the lobes are discrete and can be freed from the sandstone substrate with a needle. Other species with lobes less than 1 mm wide, such as $P$. congensis Stein and $P$. conspersula NyL., are very tightly appressed and cannot be removed intact from the substrate.

## Parmelia hyporhytida Hale, sp. nov.

Thallus adnatus vel subadscendens, saxicola, $5-8 \mathrm{~cm}$ latus, viridi-flavescens, lobis linearibus, divaricatis, $2-4 \mathrm{~mm}$ la-


Fig. 2.
tis, isidiis sorediisque destitutus, superne planus, opacus, emaculatus, cortex superior $25 \mu$ crassus, stratum gonidiale 20 $30 \mu$ crassum, medulla alba, $130-150 \mu$ alta, cortex inferior $20-28 \mu$ crassus, subtus niger vel centrum versus castaneus, valde rugosus, rhizinis nullis vel sparse evolutis, simplicibus. Apothecia cupuliformia, usque ad 8 mm diametro, sporis $4-5 \times 6-8 \mu$. Cortex $\mathrm{K}-, \mathrm{P}-$, medulla $\mathrm{K}+$ rubescens, $\mathrm{P}+$ intense aurantiaca, acidum salazinicum et acidum usnicum et rarius "chalybeizans unknown" continens.

HOLOTYPE: On rocks N of Clanwilliam, Distr. Clanwilliam, Cape Province, South Africa, L. Kofler, 15 Sept. 1963 (LD; isotype in US). - Fig. 3 A .

This remarkable species is characterized by the suberect habit and a black nearly bare rugose lower surface. A habitat photograph with Mattick no. 7 shows the species with ascending lobe tips covering large boulders in open semidesert areas. Its growth form is somewhat similar to P. hypoleia Nyl., another desert lichen which differs in having protocetraric acid, a smooth lower surface, and heavy maculation in the upper cortex. The chemistry of P. hyporhytida is not constant. Salacinic acid is the diagnostic component but the "chalybeizans" unknown may or not be present. This unknown occurs in $P$. chalybeizans (Stein. \& Zahlbr.) Gyel., an unrelated species; it forms a streak above and covering salacinic on TLC plates. It is whitish fluorescent on the plates under UV light.

SPECIMENS EXAMINED: Cape Province: Distr. van Rhynsdorp, Kofler, 1963 (c. fr.) (LD); Distr. Namaqualand, Bitterfontein area, Kofler, 15 Sept. 1963 (LD); Komas-chochland-Pad, 10 Meilen landeinwarts, Mattick 7 (M, US).

Parmelia lecanoriea Hale, sp. nov.
Thallus adnatus, saxicola, $3-5 \mathrm{~cm}$ latus, viridi-flavicans, lobis subirregulari-
bus, congestis, superne planus vel rugosus, emaculatus, isidiis sorediisque destitutus, cortex superior $24-26 \mu$ crassus, stratum gonidiale $25-45 \mu$ crassum, medulla circa $120 \mu$ crassa, cortex inferior $10-12 \mu$ crassus, subtus niger, modice rhizinosus, rhizinis simplicibus, nigris. Apothecia adnata, $2-3 \mathrm{~mm}$ diametro, sporis octonis, $5 \times 9-10 \mu$, microconidiis $1 \times 5-6 \mu$. Cortex $\mathrm{K}-, \mathrm{P}-$, medulla $\mathrm{K}-, \mathrm{P}-, \mathrm{C}+$, $\mathrm{KC}+$ rubescens, acidum lecanoricum et acidum usnicum continens.

HOLOTYPE: Northeast of Clanwilliam, Pakhuis Pass, Cape Province, South Africa, O. Almborn 4531, 12 Sept. 1953 (LD: isotype in US). - Fig. 3 B.

Parmelia lecanorica is distinguished by the presence of lecanoric acid, a very rare substance in subgenus Xanthoparmelia known previously only in $P$. worcesteri Stein. \& Zahlbr., a subcrustose species. The conspersoid habit of $P$. lecanorica reminds one of P. hypopsila Mčll. Arg., a rare species in Africa containing stictic and norstictic acids. The remarkable occurrence of the species in western United States is not entirely unexpected. Two other African species occur in North America: P. subdecipiens Vain. (P-, protolichesterinic acid) and $P$. weberi Hale (hypoprotocetraric acid).

SPECIMENS EXAMINED: South Africa: Cape Province: Distr. Clanwilliam, 9 miles S of Clanwilliam. Almborn 4945 (LD). Un it ed States: Texas: 15 miles SE of Casa Piedra, Wire Gap, Presidio Co., Hubricht B912 (F).

Parmelia neocongensis Hale, sp, nov.
Thallus arcte adnatus, saxicola, $1-2$ cm latus, viridi-flavescens, lobis sublinearibus, contiguis, $0.5-1.0 \mathrm{~mm}$ latis, nig. romarginatis, superne planus, aetate transversim fissus, opacus, isidiatus, isidiis densis, cylindricis, simplicibus, 0.6 mm diametro, $0.5-1.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ altis, cortex superior $10-12 \mu$ crassus, stratum gonidiale $15-20 \mu$ crassum, medulla alba, $90-120 \mu$

[^3] about $1.5 \times$.


Fig. 3.
crassa, cortex inferior $10-12 \mu$ crassus, subtus niger, modice rhizinosus, rhizinis simplicibus. Apothecia usque ad 1 mm diametro, sporis octonis, $3-4 \times 7-8 \mu$. Cortex $\mathrm{K}-, \mathrm{P}-$, medulla $\mathrm{K}-, \mathrm{C}+, \mathrm{KC}+$ pallide aurantio-flavescens, acidum hypoprotocetraricum et materiam ignotam continens.

HOLOTYPE: On granite, Zimbabwe, Rhodesia, O. A. HöEg, 2 Feb. 1930 (LD; isotypes in US, TRH). - Fig. 2 D.

This species appears to be morphologically identical with $P$. congensis Stein., which contains the stictic acid complex. The isidia in $P$. neocongensis, however, are generally better developed than in $P$. congensis. Additional collections may bring other differences to light. TLC plates show hypoprotocetraric acid and associated unknowns. This species is known only from the type collection in Rhodesia.

## Parmelia quintaria Hale, sp. nov.

Thallus adnatus, saxicola, $3-8 \mathrm{~cm}$ latus, viridi-flavescens, lobis sublinearibus, $1-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ latis, subdivaricatis vel congestis, superne planus, emaculatus, isidiis sorediisque destitutus, cortex superior $10-14 \mu$ crassus, stratum gonidiale circa $30 \mu$ crassum, medulla alba, $90-110 \mu$ alta, cortex inferior $10-12 \mu$ crassus, subtus castaneus, pro parte nigricans, sparse rhizinosus, rhizinis simplicibus. Apothecia (holotypus sterilis) adnata, $1-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ diametro, sporis octonis, $4-5 \times 7-9 \mu$. Cortex $\mathrm{K}-, \mathrm{P}-$, medulla alba $\mathrm{K}+$ rubescens, $\mathrm{P}+$ pallide aurantia, acidum usnicum et materiam ignotam continens.

HOLOTYPE: On marine rocks, Hottentots Huise, Distr. Cape, Cape Province, South Africa, O. Almborn 950, 23 July 1953 (LD; isotypes in TNS, US). - Fig. 3 C.

Parmelia quintaria is morphologically rather variable. The holotype has congested, linear, almost divaricate lobes,
while some of the other specimens have shorter lobes and a more conspersoid habit. It would appear to be related to P. hypopsila Müll. Arg., but the lower surface is bare and shiny toward the tips, becoming sparsely to moderately rhizinate toward the center. The most unusual character for the species is the chemistry as seen on TLC plates, five spots, one usnic acid, the other four brilliant orange or purplish with $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{SO}_{4}$. Mr T. Esslinger (in litt.) has found the same unknowns in a specimen of Melanoparmelia from western North America. None of them have yet been identified. Parmelia quintaria was collected at least twice on seashore rocks, a habitat it seems best developed in.

SPECIMENS EXAMINED: Cape Prov,: Distr. Cape. Hottentots Huise, Almborn 963b (LD) ; near Caltex Garage, Camps Bay, Almborn 4398 (c. fr.) (LD); near Kloof Nek. Camps Bay Road, Almborn 830 (LD); Banty Bay, Degelius SA-37 (DEG).

## Parmelia subdomokosii Hale, sp, nov.

Thallus adnatus, saxicola, $5-7 \mathrm{~cm}$ latus, flavescenti-virescens, lobis subirregularibus, contiguis, $2-5 \mathrm{~mm}$ latis, superne planus, nitidus, aetate valde rugosus, isidiis sorediisque destitutus, cortex superior $15-18 \mu$, stratum gonidiale $30-$ $35 \mu$, medulla alba, $150-200 \mu$, cortex inferior $12 \mu$ crasstis, subtus pallide castaneus, modice rhizinosus, rhizinis simplicibus, pallidis. Apothecia numerosa, usque ad 8 mm diametro, sporis octonis, $4-5 \times$ 6 - $8 \mu$. Cortex K -, P -, medulla alba, K -, $\mathrm{P}-, \mathrm{C}+, \mathrm{KC}+$ pallide aurantia, acidum hypoprotocetraricum, acidum usnicum et materiam ignotam continens.

HOLOTYPE: Small hill exposed to the sun, 7 miles $W$ of Heidelberg, Distr. Swellendam, Cape Province, South Africa, O. A. HöEg, 12 June 1929 (TRH; isotypes in LD, US). - Fig. 3 D.

[^4]The distinguishing features of this common lichen are the adnate conspersoid habit and pale lower surface. The chemical constituent, hypoprotocetraric acid and associated unknowns, is unusual and accounts for the P - reaction. A very similar species, P. dichromatica Hale, produces the biogenetically more advanced protocetraric acid ( $\mathrm{P}+$ red) in addition to an anthraquinone pigment. $P$. encrustans Hale, with identical P- chemistry, is appressed and has narrow lobes but is otherwise closely related. P. subdomokosii is apparently widespread in Cape Province.

SPECIMENS EXAMINED: South Africa: Orange Free State, Distr. Thabanchiu, Mt. Thabanchiu, Hörg, 12 Aug. 1929 (TRH); 5 miles W of Ladybrand, 2000 m , Mass Geesteranus 6524 (L). - Natal, Botha's Hill. Höeg, 15 Aug. 1929 (TRH). - Basutoland. Distr. Maseru, near Blue Mountain Pass, Kofler, 2 June 1963 (LD): Distr. Qachas Nek, Black Mountain, Kofler, 9 Feb, 1963 (LD). - Cape Province, Distr. Clanwilliam,

N of Clanwilliam, Kofler. 15 Sept. 1962 (LD) ; Distr. van Rhynsdorp, Kockenaap, Kofler, 16 Sept. 1963 (LD); Distr. Calitzdorp. Calitzdorp-Kruisrivier, Maas Geesteranus 6703 (L) ; Div, Namaqualand, Kofler, 18 Sept. 1963 (LD); Distr. Cape, Camps Bay, near Caltex Garage, Almborn 4396 (LD); Distr. Uitenhage, HÖEG, 6 July 1929 (TRH); Distr. Oudtshoorn. Cango Caves, Arnell. 1449,1451 (LD).

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# Lithospermum Goulandriorum Rech. f., eine neue, bemerkenswerte Art der griechischen Flora 

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#### Abstract

Rechinger, K. H. 1971. Lithospermum Goulandriorum Rech. f., eine neuc, bemerkenswerte Art der griechischen Flora. - Bot. Notiser 124: 355-358.

Lithospermum Goulandriorum Rech. f., a distinct new species, is described from Mt. Tymphi in Epirus, N. Greece. The subdivision of Lithospermum and related genera is discussed.


## Lithospermum Goulandriorum Rech. f.,

 sp. nov.Perenne, saxicolum. Rhizoma pluriceps, verisimiliter verticale, caules et foliorum rosulas plures emittens; collum parce atrisquamosum et cataphyllis nonnullis lanceolatis, acutis, herbaceis, $10-15 \mathrm{~mm}$ longis comosum. Folia rosularia petiolo $2-4 \mathrm{~cm}$ longo suffulta; lamina lanceolata, usque ad 15 cm longa, $1.2-2 \mathrm{~cm}$ lata, utrinque longe aequaliter attenuata, apice acuta, in sicco membranacea, atriviridis, plana; costa mediana subtus paulum prominens, brunnescens; nervi laterales tenuissimi, angulo acuto a costa mediana abeuntes, saepe vix visibiles; indumentum utrinque subaequale, e pilis albidis antrorsis brevibus strigulosis, nodulo nudo insidentibus consistens. Caulis folia basalia non usque ad summum duplo superans, arcuato-ascendens, foliatus, infra inflorescentiam non ramosus; indumentum e pilis simplicibus quam in foliis longioribus mollioribus, in parte inferiore caulis patulis, in superiore $\pm$ antrorsis nodulis non insidentibus consistens. Folia caulina quam basalia multoties minora, inferiora lanceolata, basi attenuata sessilia, media increscentia, ovato-lanceolata basi subsemiamplexicaulie, summa decres-
centia in bracteas anguste lanceolatas calyces aequantes transeuntia. Inflorescentia cincinnata, conferta, post florendum non elongata. Flores breviter pedicellati. Calyx florifer $5-7 \mathrm{~mm}$ longus, fructifer paulo accrescens, in lacinias anguste lineari-subulatas sursum sensim longe attenuatas divisus; indumentum calycis antrorse strigulosum, in marginibus laciniarum quam in facie densius. Corolla rotata infundibularis 15 mm longa, 8-9 mm diametro, in vivo amoene cyanea (e collectore), in sicco haud mutata, extus sparse appresse pilosa, tubo in limbum sensim ampliato, lobis $\pm 5 \mathrm{~mm}$ longis, late rotundatis; corolla infra faucem secus nervum medianum cuiusque lobi leviter subplicato-impressa, impressionibus omnibus aequalibus; impressio c. $5 \times 2 \mathrm{~mm}$, intus leviter prominens, pallescens, secus nervum medianum minutissime papillosa, basi distinctius rotundatomarginata. Antherae omnes aequa altitudine c. 1.5 mm supra basin tubi insertae, filamentis brevissimis vix visibilibus, vix ultra 1 mm longae, 0.5 mm latae, thecis apice minute apiculatis. Germen quadrisulcatum; stylus distinctus, supra stigma quadrilobum in apiculum brevem productus. Fructus submaturus cum stylo


Fig. 1. Lithospermum Goulandriorum Rech. f. - Holotypus.
$4 \times 2.3 \mathrm{~mm}$, compresso-ovoideus, laevissimus, laccatus, albido-nitidissimus, erectus, in stylum brevem leviter curvatum subabrupte attenuatus, latere interno carinatus.

Graecia, Epirus: Montes Tymphi, in praeruptis calc. ad austro-orientem lacus Bot. Notiser, vol. 124, 1971

Drakolimin, $1900-2000 \mathrm{~m}, 12$.VII. 1969, E. Stamatiadou 7244 (holotypus W, isotypus herb. Goulandris).

Nach den Merkmalen der Korolle und der Frucht läßt sich die neue Art der Sektion Margarospermum Reichb. der Gattung Lithospermum im weiteren Sinne


Fig. 2. Lithospermum Goulandriorum Rech. F. - A: Kelch. - B: Korolle ausgebreitet. C: Gynoecium. - D: Klause von innen. E: Klause von der Seite.
einordnen. Nach der engeren, von Joнnstos (1954) inaugurierten Fassung der Gattung Lithospermum wūrde diese Sektion zur Gattung Buglossoides Moench gehören. Die Sektion Margarospermum umfaßt bisher nur vier sehr deutlich voneinander verschiedene Arten, nämlich Lithospermum purpureo-cocruleum L. (westliches \& südliches Europa ostwärts bis Nordpersien), L. Zollingeri A. DC. (China, Japan, Korea), L. calabrum Tenore (Süditalien) und L. Gastoni Benth. ex DC. (französische Westpyrenäen). Bei allen deutlich ausgeprägten Verschiedenheiten im Einzelnen stimmen diese vier Arten vegetativ in wesentlichen Zügen miteinander überein. Sie treiben nämlich aus einer kürzeren oder längeren horizontalen Grundachse ausschließlich steif aufrechte, $\pm$ dicht mit nach oben hin an Größe
zunchmenden Blättern besetzte Blütensprosse, jedoch keine Blattrosetten. Im Gegensatz dazu ist Lithospermum Goulandriorum durch eine offenbar vertikale Grundachse gekennzeichnet, die groß- und reichblāttrige Blattrosetten und bogig aufsteigende, mit viel kleineren Blättern besetzte Blütensprosse entsendet. Die neue Art entspricht in dieser Hinsicht genau gewissen, in Südosteuropa endemischen Arten der Gattung Alkanna, wie ich sie ausführlich beschrieben habe (RECHINGER 1965) und steht somit vegetativ in scharfem Gegensatz zu allen übrigen Arten von Lithospermum. Auch ökologisch steht die neue Art als Chasmophyt in der Gattung Lithospermum offenbar isoliert. Die große, leuchtend blaue, aus einer weiten Röhre allmählich in den breit trichterigen Saum übergehende Korolle mit ihren flach nach innen vorgewölbten, am unteren Rande etwas schārfer bogig begrentzten Einstülpungen, die blasser gefärbt und längs des Mittelnerves der Koroll-Lappen fein papillōs sind, lassen sich immerhin als eine Abwandlung des für Lithospermum bezw, Buglossoides Sect. Margarospermum charakteristischen Korollbaues deuten. Die Ausbildung eines winzigen, sterilen Spitzchens über der Narbe und die kurz bespitzten Antherenfächer sowie die glatte, glänzende Oberflächenbeschaffenheit der Frucht des Lithospermum Goulandriorum fügen sich gut in den Rahmen der Sektion Margarospermum. Bei L. purpureo-cocruleum, L. Zollingeri und $L$. calabrum ist das Nüßchen glatt und oben abgerundet. Nur bei $L$. Gastoni ist es rugos und geschnäbelt. Somit ist $L$. Goulandriorum mit seinen glatten und geschnäbelten Nüßchen, ebenso wie mit den feineren Details der Korolle und seiner vegetativen Eigentümlichkeiten einzigartig.

Die Entdeckung dieser prächtigen neuen Art, die einen der bemerkenswerten Endemiten der nordgriechischen Flora darstelit, ist Frau Elli Stamatiadou zu verdanken, die in drei Jahren bereits mehr als 10.000 Nummern Herbarpflan-
zen für das Botanische Museum Goulandris gesammelt hat, und der die Entdeckung mehrerer neuer Arten zu verdanken ist. Die neue Art ist den Mäzenen der griechischen Botanik, Herrn Angelos und Frau Niki Goulandris gewidmet. Diskussionen mit Herrn Univ. Doz. Dr. H. Riedl verdanke ich Anregungen, Frau Dr. Helene Schiman-Czeika die Blütenanalyse und Zeichnung.

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# New Species of Bupleurum from Turkey 

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#### Abstract

Snogerup, S. 1971. New species of Bupleurum from Turkey. - Bot. Notiser 124: 359-375.

Eight new annual Bupleurum species are described from Turkey, viz. B. pendikum Snog., B. dadisii Snog., B. turcicum Snog.. B. orientale Snog., B. eginense (Wolff) Snog., B. lycaonicum Snog., B. zoharii Snog., and B. polyactis Post ex Snog. The affinities of the new species are briefly commented on.


## INTRODUCTION

During the preparation of an account of the annual Bupleurum species for Davis' Flora of Turkey, it proved necessary to accept 8 new species. As it is not possible to publish new taxa in the Flora, they are briefly presented here. Comments on allied species are kept rather short, because a full revision is planned for the near future. In the citation of localities the grid system and vilayet names are used according to the system introduced by Davis (1965).

The sectional nomenclature is as yet insufficiently investigated and some future changes in the subdivision of the genus seem necessary. For these reasons I prefer not to give any sectional names with the new species but only point out their probable closest relatives.

I avoid using the term bracteol commonly accepted in British floras for the involucellar leaves, because they are not bracteols in the correct morphological sense of that term. Instead, I take up the term bractlet often found in American literature.

## THE ENDEMISM IN BUPLEURUM

All the species described below have rather limited distribution areas. $B$. pen-
dikum and $B$. davisii are known only from one locality each. Up to the present a number of $\pm$ local endemics are known among annual Bupleurum species, e. g. B. Wittmanii Steven, B. schistosum Woron., B. capillare Boiss., B. erubescens Boiss., B. pulchellum Boiss. \& Heldr., B. aira Snog., B. Sintenisii Asch. \& Urb., B. dichotomum Boiss., B. anatolicum Hub,-Mor. \& Reese, B. Wolffianum Bornm., and B. Postii Wolff. All these local endemics occur in common place habitats like phrygana, dry grassland and rocky slopes. The distribution of these biotopes is wide and comparatively continuous in the area in question, Greece, Cyprus, Anatolia, Transcaucasia and W. Iran. The local distribution may be caused by the restricted dispersal of the seeds, which are comparatively heavy and in most species lack specialized means of dispersal. The most widespread annuals of the genus, e. g. B. rotundifolium L . and $B$. odontites L. (syn. B. Fontanesii Guss.), belong to an element of old segetal weeds and have probably reached large parts of their distribution areas with early cultivation.

All the annuals of Bupleurum show rather constant and distinct, though often small, differences, and intergradations are very rare. No hybrids, either natural or experimental, are known. Thus sterili-


Fig. 1. Bupleurum pendikum Snog. - A: Habit, $\times 0.5$. - B: Bracts, $\times 6$. - C: Bractlets, $\times$ 6. - D: Petals, $\times 24$. - Type collection.
ty barriers are probably strong and rapidly built up.

## Bupleurum pendikum Snogerup, sp, nov. (Fig. 1)

I. thracicum Velen. sensu Post \& Aznavour in sched, et Dörfler Herb. Norm. 5074 non Velenovsky 1892.

Typus: Aznavour leg. 8. 7. 1906 (M holotypus, LD, W, GB, PRC, JE, C, G, FI).

Annuum, gracile. Caulis raro ultra $15-25$ cm altus, a basi pseudodichotome ramosissimus, ramis tenuibus erectopatentibus vel subarcuatim adscendentibus. Umbellae numerosae, 3 -radiatae, radiis suberectis valde inaequalibus. Involucri phylla 3, anguste ovata usque lanceolata, $4-8 \mathrm{~mm}$ longa, margine anguste membranacea, subtiliter serrulata. apice in aristam $1-1.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ longam producta. Involucelli phylla $5.5-7.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ longa. lanceolata, margine et ad nervum medium subtiliter serrulata, acuminata, in aristam $1-1.5$ mm longam producta, 3 -nervia, nervis parce venulosis, maxima parte scariosa, semipellucida, ad nervos et inter venulas partim herbacea. Petala ovato-oblonga, margine integra vel subintegra, superne obtuse quadridentata. nervo crasso percursa, lobulo inflexo infra medium valde angustato apice iterum dilatato, bifurcato instructa. Fructus oblongus, $2.2-2.4 \mathrm{~mm}$ longus, juga filiformia.

Annual, 15-25 or rarely up to 40 cm high, erect, from near the base pseudodichotomously branched. Branches secondarily branched, usually with 2-3 well-developed umbels each. First leaves imperfectly known, small, soon withering, from a sheathy base petiolated, lamina probably lanceolate to narrowly lanceolate. Cauline leaves from an amplexicaul base linear to very narrowly lanceolate, $2-5 \mathrm{~cm}$ long, $0.5-1.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, narrowly apiculate, finely serrate especially at apical parts of margin and ventral midrib. Upper leaves successively shorter, uppermost ones very narrowly ovate. Umbel rays 3 , or rarely in single umbels 2 or $4,3-15 \mathrm{~mm}$, very unequal, at flowering time divergent, in fruit all erect, crowded. Bracts 3 , equal, $1 / 2-2 / 3$ as long as as longest umbel ray, $(4-) 6-7(-8)$ mm long, $0.7-1.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, narrowly ovate to lanceolate, aristate with a $1-1.5$ mm long awn, finely serrate at margin
and midrib, especially in the apical parts, 3 -veined with inconspicuous veinlets, herbaceous between the veins and in a narrow field outside them, scarious margin c. 0.15 mm broad. Bractlets $5.5-7.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $1.2-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, higher than the flowers and enclosing them before and after the flowering, lanceolate, aristate with a $1-1.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long arista, serrate like the bracts, 3 -veined with few veinlets especially between the apical parts of the veins, small external veinlets rarely present. Bractlets in their major part scarious, semipellucid, herbaceous only at the base, along the veins and apically between the strongest vienlets in fruit often purplish. Umbellules usually 6 - 8 -flowered, pedicels $0.5-1.5 \mathrm{~mm}$, subequal. Petals $0.9-1.0 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $0.4-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, from a slightly ovate base narrowing, then again wider apically, their sides quite entire or with small, blunt irregularities, upper bend with 2 lateral projections and 2 low ones near the middle, often partly finely granulose-papillulose, median vein strong though thin, inflexed lobe $0.7-0.8 \mathrm{~mm}$, tapering to $0.15-0.2$ mm breadth, apically bifid, c. 0.3 mm wide, its lobes often irregularly lobulate. Petal colour not exactly known, probably yellow, turning white when dried. Anthers c. 0.3 mm long and equally broad, filaments c. 0.5 mm . Mature stylopodium 0.6 -0.7 mm broad, its base c. 0.2 mm high, broader than the ovarium, in fruit shriveling, narrower. Styles late developing, $0.4-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, longer than the stylopodium radius. Ripe mericarp 2.2-2.4 mm long, $0.9-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad and 0.7 mm thick, rounded prismatic to almost ellipsoidal, smooth but slightly glaucous, blackish brown, ridges filiform, commissural surface flat with a narrow furrow.

The name is formed from the name of the village Pendik, in the neighbourhood of which both the known collections were made.

MATERIAL REVISED: A2/A Kocacli: In collibus graminosis prope Pendik. 8.7. 1906. Aznavour. (partly as Dörfler Herb. Norm.


Fig. 2. Distributions according to revised material. - : Bupleurum apicalatum Friv. ■: B. pendikum SNOG.- : B. sulphureum Boiss. \& Bal.
5074). Typus (M, LD, W, G, GB, PRC, JE, C, G, FI). - A2/A Kocaeli; Entre Pendik et Dolaiba, 16.6. 1895. AzNsvour (G).
$B$. pendikum was labelled, by its collector as well as in Dörflers Herb. Normale, as Bupleurum thracicum Velenovsky (1892). This name, however, is a synonym of $B$. flavum Forskĩl (1775), as revised in SNogerup (1962), and thus not relevant for the species from Pendik. In his monograph of the genus, Wolff (1910) did not mention the material, which he most probably never studied.
B. pendikum seems to be most closely related to $B$. apiculatum Friv. of the northern Balkan Peninsula and to B. sulphureum Boiss. \& Bal. of the Anatolian inland. The distributions of the 3 species are given in Fig. 2. B. pendikum differs from $B$. apiculatum, e.g. in having only 3 bracts and 3 umbel rays, whereas B. apiculatum has $4-5$ bracts and $6-7$ rays. There are also differences in the size and general habit of the plants, in the form and size of bracts and bractlets, and in the size of the fruit, which is $2.2-2.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ in $B$. pendikum but only $1.8-2.1 \mathrm{~mm}$ in B. apiculatum. The new species is distinguished from $B$. sulphureum by smaller and narrower bracts and by its 3 umbel rays, the umbels of $B$. sulphureum being
usually 4 -rayed. The petals of $B$. pendikum have entire sides and only few papillae of the bend, whereas those of $B$. sulphureum have irregularly serrate sides and an irregularly lobed and papillose bend. The best key character, however, is the form and texture of the bractlets, which are narrower, mainly scarious, with few veinlets in B. pendikum, broader and mainly herbaceous with many welldeveloped veinlets in B. sulphureum. The mentioned characters make determination rather easy, but the 3 species are nevertheless similar. B. pendikum, with an intermediate geographical position, is also morphologically intermediate in some characters, e.g. in habit and in petal form. Thus I find it most probable that the 3 species mentioned are differentiated products from a common ancestral stock.
B. pendikum also has certain similarities to B. gracile D'Unv, of the southern Aegean area, e.g. in the mainly scarious bractlets and the general habit. It is, however, very unlike that species in the long aristae and comparatively well-developed veinlets of its bractlets as well as in the form of its petals and in the small number of umbel rays.

## Bupleurum davisii Snogerup, sp. nov.

 (Fig. 3)Typus: Turkey, C3 Antalya: Bozburun Dag between Tazli yayla and Tozlu Dere, 1600 m . Davis 15721 ( E holotypus, K ).

Annuum. 10-15 cm altum, pseudodichotome ramosum. Folia $1-4 \mathrm{~cm}$ longa, angustissime obovata, infegra, uninervia, mucronata. Umbellae paucae, pedunculo $10-35$ mm longo suffultae, 2 - 3 -radiatae, radiis inaequilongis, $3-5 \mathrm{~mm}$ longis. Involucri phylla normaliter $2,0.5-5 \mathrm{~mm}$ longa. Involucelli phylla $5,3.5-4 \mathrm{~mm}$ longa, $1.5-1.8$ mm lata, obovata, obtusa, mucronata, trinervia. maxima parte herbacea. Umbellulae 45 -florae, pedicelli $0.5-1 \mathrm{~mm}$. Petala $0.45-$ 0.55 mm , nervo tenui percursa, lobulo inflexo lato bifido instructa. Antherae 0.3 mm longae, stylopodium $0.4-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ latum, styli 0.2 mm longi. Fructus $2-2.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ longus, rotundato-oblongus, laevis, juga filiformia vel inconspicua.


Fig. 3. Bupleurum davisii Snog. - A: Habit, $\times 0.5 .-$ B: Petal, $\times 24$. - C: Bracts, $\times 6$. - D: Bractlets, $\times 6$. - Type collection.

Annual, $10-15 \mathrm{~cm}$ high, erect, sparingly pseudodichotomously branched. Cotyledons linear, c. 15 mm long. First leaves petiolated, narrowly elliptical to obovate. Cauline leaves $10-35 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $1.5-3$ mm broad, very narrowly obovate, entire, gradually changing from obtuse to acute, most of them with a small whitish mucro, with one strong vein. Upper leaves successively smaller and more oblong. Umbel stalks $10-35 \mathrm{~mm}$. Umbel rays $2-3,3-$ 15 mm , very unequal, in main umbels shorter than the stalk, angular and often slightly scabrid. Bracts 2, equal to very unequal, or in lateral umbels only $1,0.5$ -5 mm long, $0.3-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, elliptical to narrowly ovate or ovate, entire or slightly serrate apically, 3 -veined. Bractlets $5,3.5-4 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $1.5-2.0 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, obovate, obtuse with a $0.1-0.2$ mm long mucro, entirely or in their major part herbaceous, in fruit $\pm$ violet apically, usually with a c. 0.2 mm broad scarious margin, finely scabrid at apical part of
margin, veins 3 , uniting near the top, veinlets inconspicuous. Well-developed umbellules $4-5$-flowered, pedicels $0.5-1$ mm . Petals $0.45-0.55 \mathrm{~mm}, 0.4-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, with a narrow midrib, smooth and entire, inflexed lobe broad, bifid. Anthers 0.3 mm and equally broad, filaments $c$. 0.6 mm . Stylopodium $0.45-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, styles c. 0.2 mm . Fruit $2-2.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $0.9-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, rounded, smooth, ridges filiform, vittae 6,2 in commissural surface, 1 in each dorsal field.

The name is formed in honour of the type collector, Dr. P. H. Davis, Editor of the Flora of Turkey, who noted the material as probably belonging to an undescribed species.
B. davisii is known only from the type collection. Probably it is a local endemic, like its closest relatives $B$. erubescens Boiss. and B. pulchellum Boiss. \& Heldr., both endemics of the Antalya region. $B$. davisii is most easily distinguished from both by its herbaceous bractlets, those of


Fig. 4. Bupleurum turcicum Snog. - A: Habit, $\times 0.5$ - B: Petal, $\times 24$, - C: Bractlets, $\times 6,-\mathrm{D}$; Bracts, $\times 6$, Zohary et. al. 117731.
the other two species being scarious, semipellucid with more veins and veinlets. This group of endemics seems to be most closely related to B. Karglii VIs, and B. capillare Borss. of W . and Central Balkans, but they also show more distant similarities to $B$. aleppicum Borss, of the Mesopotamian region.

## Bupleurum turcicum Svogerup, sp. nov.

 (Fig. 4)Typus: Zohary 942 (HUJ holotypus).
Annuum, $5-15 \mathrm{~cm}$ altum, pseudodichotome ramosum. Folia anguste linearia. Umbellae normaliter 5-15, 3-4-radiatae, radiis pedunculo brevioribus. Involucri phylla 3-4, $2.5-10 \mathrm{~mm}$ longa, anguste ovata, margine subtiliter serrulata. radiis breviora, acutissima. Involucelli phylla illis conformia, 5 , $3-8 \mathrm{~mm}$ longa. Umbellulae $5-8$-florac, pedicelli inaequales, $0.3-2 \mathrm{~mm}$. Petala $0.8-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ longa, superne papilloso-exasperata, late cu cullata, lobulo inflexo lato bifido instructa. Fructus 3 mm longus, ubique papillis vesciculiformibus majusculis in series longitudinales dispositis obtectus, papillae $0.4-0.65 \mathrm{~mm}$ altac, apice non vel parum dilatatae, minute papillulosae.

Annual, $5-15 \mathrm{~cm}$ high, sparsely pseudodichotomously branched, usually with 5-15 developed umbels. Cotyledons linear, c. 8 mm long. First leaves imperfectly known, small and soon withering, from a wide sheathy base probably petiolated. Cauline leaves $1-5(-7) \mathrm{cm}, 1-$ 1.5 mm broad, $\pm$ linear, with a narrowly acuminate, sharp-pointed apex, often with somewhat convolute margin or $\pm$ rolled, slightly scabrid at apical parts of margin and midrib, veins inconspicuous. Umbel stalks up to 35 mm , those of main umbels $10-35 \mathrm{~mm}$. Umbel rays in well developed umbels $3-4,5-25 \mathrm{~mm}$, in main umbels $\pm$ considerably shorter than the stalk. Bracts $3-4,2.5-10 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $0.4-1 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, thick, $\pm$ keeled, sharply acuminate, their margins scabrid apically. Bractlets $5,3-8 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $0.4-0.8$ mm broad, like the bracts. Umbellules 5 - 8 -flowered, pedicels $0.3-2 \mathrm{~mm}$, unequal. Petals $0.8-1 \mathrm{~mm}, 0.7-0.9 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, from a narrow base broadly obovoidal, broadly cucullate, with pointed, often $0.1-0.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ high papillae especi-

Table 1. Differences between Bupleurum turcicum and B. papillosum.

|  | B. turcicum | B. papillosum |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Plant height (cm) | $5-15$ | $10-30$ |
| Rays of central umbels, | $5-25$, | $25-100$, |
| length (mm) | shorter than stalk | longer than stalk |
| Number of bracts | $3-4$ | 3 |
| Length of bracts (mm) | $2.5-10$ | $5-30$ |
| Length of bractlets (mm) | $3-8$ | $3-20$ |
| Petal size (mm) | 0.8-1.0 | $1-1.2$ |
| Anther length (mm) | $0.4-0.5$ | $0.5-0.6$ |
| Fruit size (mm) | $3-4$ | $2.5-3$ |
| Fruit papillae | $0.4-0.65 \mathrm{~mm}$, micropapillulose, not or slightly expanded | $0.6-1 \mathrm{~mm}$, almost smooth, apically expanded to $c .0 .5 \mathrm{~mm}$ width |

ally at the bend, inflexed lobe broad, markedly bifid. Anthers $0.4-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$, filaments c. 0.8 mm . Stylopodium cupformed, $0.8-1.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, styles 0.7 0.8 mm , longer than stylopodium radius. The upper margin of the ovarium in flower forming a papillose substylopodium, no longer visible in fruit. Fruit c. 3 mm long, fruit surface densely covered with rows of $0.4-0.65 \mathrm{~mm}$ high, hollow, white papillae, papillae not or only slightly expanding apically, 0.25 mm or less broad, especially in their apical part covered with $0.01-0.02 \mathrm{~mm}$ high papillulae.

The name is formed from the country name of Turkey, because this species is no doubt restricted to the typical steppe areas of inner Anatolia.

Material REvISED: B4 Ankara: NE. shore of Tuz Gölü, at northernmost extension, 905 m , Darrah 170 (E), - B4 Ankara: 86 km sW of Sungurlu, 930 m . Zohary et al. 117731 (HUJ). - B5 Nigde: 5 km E Aksaray, 1100 m . Sorger $70-39-9$ (Herb. SorGER). - B3 Afyon: 35 km S Cifteler, 1000 m , Sorger 68-48-5 (Herb, Sorger). - C2 Denizli: about 10 km W of Denizli, Zohary 942. Typus (HUJ).

According to collectors' information, $B$. turcicum is a plant of the C. Anatolian steppes and saline areas, and it seems to have a comparatively wide distribution in spite of the fact that it was not collected until 1962. It is no doubt closely related
to B. papillosum DC. of the Mesopotamian steppes, which it resembles in the fruit ornamentation and the form of the petals as well as in general habit. There are, however, differences in a number of characters, as summarized in Table 1. B. turcicum is most easily distinguished from B. papillosum by its shorter umbel rays, which are 25 mm or less and shorter than the stalk in the main umbels. In B. papillosum the rays of the main umbels are $25-100 \mathrm{~mm}$ and longer than the stalk. The fruit papillae in B. papillosum are apically expanded to a width of c. 0.5 mm and lack the micro-papillae typical of B. turcicum.

Bupleurum orientale Snogerup, sp, nov. (Fig. 5)

Typus: Sintenis 916 p.p. 12.9. 1880 (LD holotypus, Herb. Hurer-Morath).

Annuum, $40-70 \mathrm{~cm}$ altum. Caulis erectus, a basi ramosus, ramis clongatis, erectopatentibus usque ascendentibus. Folia anguste linearia, integra vel minute serrulata. Umbellae numerosae, variabiliter evolutae, pedunculo usque ad 30 mm longo suffultae, 1 - 3 -radiatae, radiis inaequilongis, in umbellis centralibus $15-25 \mathrm{~mm}$ longis. Involucri phylla 3. 1.5-3 mm longa, anguste ovata, integra vel apice minute serrulata, illis involucelli conformia, 5 , $1.7-3 \mathrm{~mm}$ longa. Umbellulae centrales 5-6florae, pedicelli valde inaequales, $0.2-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ longi. Petala $0.4-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$, rotundata. superne papillulosa, lobulo inflexi e basi lata


Fig. 5.
But. Notiser, vol. 124, 1971
angustato instructa. Fructus $1.7-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ longus, rotundatus, papillis subeylindricis albicantibus $0.1-0.15 \mathrm{~mm}$ altis obtectus, juga filiformia.

Annual, $40-70 \mathrm{~cm}$ high, with an erect main stem, much branched from near the base, branches long and slender, erectopatent to ascending. Cotyledons not seen. First leaves imperfectly known, soon withering, probably the first ones short, $\pm$ oblong, next ones broad-petiolated with a lanceolate lamina. Cauline leaves $3-10$ cm long, $2-3 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, lower ones very narrowly obovate to linear, apiculate, upper ones successively smaller and changing to narrowly lanceolate and narrowly ovate, margin entire or very finely serrulate, veins parallel, midvein strongest, veinlets thin, anastomosing. Umbels numerous, variously developed. Umbel stalks short or up to 30 mm , in terminal umbels $15-30 \mathrm{~mm}$. Umbel rays $1-3$, in terminal umbels usually 3 , very unequal, $0-25 \mathrm{~mm}$, in terminal umbels the longest $15-25 \mathrm{~mm}$, often slightly scabrid. Bracts $3,1.5-3 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $0.5-1$ mm broad, narrowly ovate, acuminate, entire or very finely scabrid at apical parts of margin and midrib, herbaccous, usually 3 -veined. Bractlets in well-developed umbellules 5 , equalling the highest flowers or slightly lower, $1.7-3 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $0.5-0.8 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, like the bracts. Welldeveloped umbellules 5 - 6 -flowered, pedicels very unequal, $0.2-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ long. Petals $0.4-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $0.4-0.55 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, rounded, entire. Midvein dark, narrow, continuing on lobe to its narrowest part, the bend with a $\pm$ marked median bulb, inflexed lobe $1 / 2-4 / 5$ as long as the limb, abruptly narrowing to a breadth of 0.15 0.2 mm , apically truncate but not considerably broader, petal surface with small blunt papillae, especially on the bend, or almost smooth. Anthers $0.30-0.35 \mathrm{~mm}$ and about equally broad, filament 0.5 0.6 mm . Stylopodium $0.5-0.65 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad,
styles c. 0.2 mm , shorter than the stylopodium radius. Ripe mericarp $1.7-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, c. 0.8 mm broad, rounded, ridges filiform or quite inconspicuous, fruit surface densely covered with $0.1-0.15 \mathrm{~mm}$ high, blunt, $\pm$ cylindrical, light papillae, commissural surface also slightly papillose, with a narrow furrow.

The name $B$. orientale is chosen because of its distribution along the eastern shores of the Mediterranean, which is also eastern compared to related species of the B. tenuissimum group.

MATERIAL REVISED: Turkey; C3 Antalya: Finike, freshwater marsh by sea. Schultz 151 (E). - C5 Seyhan: Karatas area, S of Adana, sand dunes. Findlay 270 (E). - C6 Hatay: Lake of Antiochia, marshes dry in summer. Eig \& Zohary, 1931 (HUJ).

Palestine: Jaffa, low ground, 1 m . Meyers \& Dinsmore 3441 (LD). - Sharon, Atlith, banks of salt pans. Zohary, Fl. Terr, Isr. Exs. 556 (LD, Herb. Huber-Morath, W).

Cyprus: Salzsteppe bei Larnaka, 12.91880. Sintenis 916 p.p. Typus (LD, Herb. HuberMorath). - Salzsteppe bei Larnaka, 8. 1880. Sintenis 916 p.p. (LD, G). - Distr. Famagusta, in locis salsis inter Prasdio et Konuklia, 1939. Lindberg (LD). - Distr. Famagusta, in campo arenoso juxta mare prope opp. Famagusta, 1939. Lindberg (LD).

According to the above list of localities, $B$. orientale is known from Palestine, Cyprus and S. Anatolia. It could be expected in neighbouring territories and from more localities. It should be pointed out that I have not seen the entire HUJ material of this group.
$B$. orientale was usually labelled by its collectors under synonyms of $B$. euboeum Beauv. [Syn. B. gracile (M.B.) DC. sensu auct. mult. non M.B.] Its fruit, however, is quite different from that of B. euboeum and $B$. tenuissimum. In the form of the papillae it forms a transition between the $B$. tenuissimum group and the B. letucochladum group of the S. Mesopotamian region. The other species of the B. tenuissimum group have $\pm$ confluent rugulae instead of papillae.

Fig. 5. - Bupleurum orientale SNog. - A: Apical part of specimen, $\times 0.5$. - B: Bract, $\times 6 .-$ C: Bractlet, $\times 6 .-\mathrm{D}:$ Petal, $\times 24 .-\mathrm{A}$ C: Sintenis 916, D: Findlay 270.


Fig. 6. Bupleurum eginense (Wolff) SNOG. - A: Major part of fruiting inflorescence, $\times 0.5$. - B: Part of inflorescence with central umbel, $\times 0.5$. - C: Bract, $\times 6$. - D: Bractlet. $\times 6 .-$ E: Petal, $\times 24 .-A, C$, and $D:$ Hubeh-Morath 15259, B and E: Sintenis 2351.

Bupleurum eginense (Wolff 1910 pro f.) Svogerup, stat. nov. (Fig. 6)
B. Koechelii Fenzl. f. eginense Wolff in Engl. Pflanzenr. 43 (IV. 228) p. 94 (1910).

Typus: Sintenis 2351/1890 (G lectotypus. FI, W, E, LD).

Annuum, 20-40 cm altum, a medio pseudodichotome ramosum. Caulis et rami flexuosi. Folia anguste linearia. Umbellae paucae, terminales pedunculo $10-15 \mathrm{~mm}$ longo suffultae, 2-6-radiatae, radiis subaequalibus, 10 -20 mm longis. Involucri phylla 2-5, 2.5-$4(-7) \mathrm{mm}$ longa, anguste ovata. acuminata. integra, illis involucelli conformia, 5, 1.5-2 mm longa. Petala $0.4-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$, lobulo in-
flexo lato bifido instructa. Antherae 0.2-0.3 mm longae, stylopodium $0.55-0.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ latum, styli $0.2-0.25 \mathrm{~mm}$ longi. Fructus $3.5-4 \mathrm{~mm}$ longus, prismaticus, retusus, papillulis c. 0.02 mm altis dense obtectus, juga rugulosa.

Annual, $20-40 \mathrm{~cm}$ high, much pseudodichotomously branched in upper part, stem and branches slightly flexuose. Branches next to terminal umbels developed, side umbels preceded by $2-3$ reduced ones. Cotyledons not seen. First leaves imperfectly known, small and soon withering, at least some of them petio-

Table 2. Variation in the Bupleurum koechelii group.

|  | B. lycaonicum | B. koechelii | B. eginense | B. dichotomum |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Branches below central umbels | developed | reduced | developed | developed |
| Umbel rays, number | $4-8$ | $4-6$ | $2-6$ | 2-4 (-5) |
| Umbel rays, length (mm) | $10-20$ | $5-8$ | $10-20$ | $10-25$ |
| Flowers per umbellule. | (4-) 5-7 | $6-8$ | $2-5$ | $1-6$ |
| Pedicel length (mm) | $0.2-2$ | $0.8-2.5$ | $0.5-2$ | $1-3$ |
| Petal size (mm) | $0.4-0.5$ | 0.75-0.9 | $0.4-0.6$ | c.0.5 |
| Anther length (mm) | $0.2-0.25$ | $0.4-0.5$ | $0.2-0.3$ | c.0.3 |
| Stylopodium bredth (mm) | $0.55-0.7$ | $1-1.2$ | 0.55-0.7 | $0.55-0.65$ |
| Style length (mm) | $0.2-0.3$ | c.0.4 | $0.2-0.25$ | $0.15-0.2$ |
| Fruit size (mm) | c. 3 | $>2.5$ | $3.5-4$ | 3 |
| Fruit surface . | $\pm$ granulose | $\pm$ granulose | papillose, <br> ridges <br> rugulose | granulose |

lated. Cauline leaves $2-8 \mathrm{~cm}, 2-3 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, approximately linear, upper ones successively smaller and changing to very narrowly ovate. Stalks of terminal umbels $10-15 \mathrm{~mm}$, their rays $2-6,10-20 \mathrm{~mm}$, slightly unequal, smooth. Bracts $2-5$, $2.5-5(-7) \mathrm{mm}$ long, $0.3-0.5(-1) \mathrm{mm}$ broad, narrowly ovate, acuminate, entire, with 1 strong and 2 fainter veins, veinlets inconspicuous. Bractlets $5,1.5-2.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $0.3-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, like the bracts. Umbellules $(1-) 2-5$-flowered, pedicels unequal, $0.5-2 \mathrm{~mm}$. Petals $0.4-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$, inflexed lobe $1 / 2-2 / 3$ as long as limb, broad, slightly bifid. Anthers $0.2-0.3 \mathrm{~mm}$, filaments c. 0.6 mm . Stylopodium $0.55-$ 0.7 mm wide, styles $0.2-0.25 \mathrm{~mm}$. Fruit $3.5-4 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, prismatic, retuse, ridges finely rugulose, fruit surface densely covered by small, c. 0.02 mm high, whitish papillae.

I find it most correct to accept the name given by WolfF under the rank of forma, but have provided it with a new diagnosis, as the old one could hardly be regarded as correctly describing or distinguishing B. eginense.

MATERIAL REVISED: B6 Sivas: Distr. Gürün, Gürün - Pinarbasi, Kalkschutt 11 km W Gülner Gürün, 1740 m , Huber-Morath 15259 (Herb. Hub.-Mor.). - B7 Erzincan: Egin, in declivibus saxosis ad Euphratem. Sintenis 2351/1890. Typus (G, FI, W, E, LD).

- C6 Hatay: Amanus Mts.. ascent to Achayi Zarkoun from the Karakisieh side, 800-1000 m, pinetum halepense, 1932. Eig \& Zohary (HUJ).
B. eginense is probably closely related to B. koechelii Fenzl, B. lycaonicum Snog. and B. dichotomum Borss. It is strictly distinguished by its large, papillose fruit. In the ornamentation of the fruit surface it even approaches the $B$. leuchochladum and B. tenuissimum groups. About the B. koechelii group see further p. 371 and Table 2.

According to the collectors' information, B. eginense is a plant of dry, rocky or stony slopes, flowering during the dry period in June and July.

## Bupleurum lycaonicum SNOGERUP, sp. nov.

 (Fig. 7)Typus: Huber-Morath 8058 (Herb. Hub,MOR, holotypus, LD).

Annuum, $15-35 \mathrm{~cm}$ altum, superne pseudodichotome ramosum. Caulis et rami sub umbellis terminalibus flexuosi. Folia anguste linearia, acuminata, margine integra vel apice tantum scabriuscula. U'mbellac paucae, terminales, pedunculo $10-25 \mathrm{~mm}$ longo suffultae, $4-8$-radiatae, radiis subaequalibus 10 -20 mm longis. Involucri phylla 5, 2.5-6 mm longa, anguste ovata, acuminata, integra. illis involucelli conformia, $5,2-4 \mathrm{~mm}$ longa. Umbellae 4-7-florae, pedicelli inaequales, $0.2-1.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ longi. Pefala $0.35-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$,

integra vel superiore minute papillulosa, lobulo inflexo lato bifido instructa. Antherae $0.2-0.25 \mathrm{~mm}$ longae, stylopodium $0.55-0.7$ mm latum, styli 0.25 mm longi. Fructus c . 3 mm longus, prismaticus, retusus, minute granuloso-papillosus, juga filiformia.

Annual, $15-35 \mathrm{~cm}$ high, in upper part pseudodichotomously branched, stem and branches flexuose below the terminal umbels, branches next to terminal umbel developed, side umbels preceded by $2-4$ reduced ones. Cotyledons linear, c. 10 mm . First leaves small, soon withering, from a sheathy base all linear or some inconspicuously petiolated with a long petiole and narrow lamina. Cauline leaves 2-7 cm long, $1-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, approximately linear, sharply acuminate, entire or very finely scabrid at apical part of the margin, veins marked, veinlets inconspicuous. Stalks of terminal umbels $10-25 \mathrm{~mm}$, rays $4-8,10-20 \mathrm{~mm}$, subequal, equalling the stalk or shorter, Bracts 5, 2.5-6 mm long, $0.5-0.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, narrowly ovate, acuminate, entire, 3 -veined. Bractlets 5, $2-4 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $0.5-0.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, like the bracts. Umbellules 4-7-flowered, pedicels unequal, $0.2-1.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. Petals $0.35-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ high, $0.45-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, with high margins at the bend, smooth or with small papillae especially at the bend, purplish, inflexed lobe c. $3 / 4$ as long as limb, broad, bifid. Anthers $0.2-0.25$ mm , filaments $0.5-0.7 \mathrm{~mm}$. Stylopodium $0.55-0.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, styles c. 0.25 mm . Fruit not seen ripe, c. 3 mm , rounded prismatic, retuse, ridges filiform, fruit surface very finely granulose-papillose.

The name $B$. lycaonicum is formed from the old provincial name Lycaonia.

MATERIAL REVISED: C4 Konya: BozkirHadim, Gök Cay Tal, 54 km nach Bozkir, 1250 m . Huber-Morath 8058. Typus (Herb. Hubs.-Mor., LD). - C4 Konya; Karaman Ermenek, 73 km nach Karaman, 1500 m. Huber-Morath 8057 (Herb. Hub.-Mor.). C4 Konya: 13 km W Konya, bei der Wasserleitung hinter dem Elektrizitātswerk, 1170 m .

Huber-Morati 8055 (Herb. Hub.-Mor.). C4 Icel: Mut-Kirobasi, 23 km nach Mut. 1260 m. Huber-Morath 9822 (Herb. Hub,-Mor.).

According to the collectors' information, $B$. lycaonicum grows in dry forest and macchia, but also in scree, between 1000 and 1500 m , flowering in June.
B. lycaonicum is no doubt closely related to B. kocchelii Fenzl, to which it was first referred by its collector, but it is still more similar to $B$. eginense (WOLFF) Snog. The 3 mentioned species and B. dichotomum Boiss. from Hatay, NW. Syria form a series of closely related species of restricted distribution. Their morphological relationships are illustrated in Table 2. WolfF (1910) treated B. dichotomum as a variety of $B$. trichopodum Boiss. \& Spr., but it seems to have much more in common with the other species mentioned above.

Bupleurum zoharii SNOGERUP, sp. nov. (Fig. 8)

Typus: Eig \& Zohary 12.8. 1931 (HUJ holotypus).

Annuum (vel bienne). Caulis (25-) $50-70$ cm vel altior, a basi ramosus, ramis longis profunde ramulosis, umbellis numerosissimis, vel raro planta minora, apice parce ramosa. Folia anguste linearia. Umbellae pedunculo $5-20 \mathrm{~mm}$ longo suffultae, 5-9 (-11). radiatae, radiis aequalibus vel subaequalibus $3-8 \mathrm{~mm}$ longis. Involucri phylla $4-5,2.5-$ 5 mm longa, radiis breviora, anguste ovata, acutissima, margine scabriuscula, illis involucelli conformia, $5.2 .5-3.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ longa. Um. bellulae (6-) 9-11-florae, pedicelli $0.9-1.5$ mm longi, subacquales. Petala $0.45-0.55 \mathrm{~mm}$. late rotundata, lobulo inflexo lato bifido instructa. Antherae $0.3-0.4 \mathrm{~mm}$, stylopodium $0.6-0.8 \mathrm{~mm}$ latum, styli $0.4-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ longi. Fructus $1.6-2 \mathrm{~mm}$ longus, rotundato-prismaticus, glaucescens.

Annual or perhaps biennial, (25-) 50 -70 cm and probably higher, often with an up to 5 mm thick, $\pm$ woody basal stem part, usually branched from the base, branches long and secondarily branched,

Fig. 7. Bupleurum lycaonicum Snog. - A: Habit, $\times 0.5$, B; Bracts, $\times 6$. - C: Bractlets, $\times 6 .-\mathrm{D}:$ Petal, $\times 24 .-\mathrm{A}-\mathrm{C}:$ Type collection, D: Huber- Morath 9822.


Fig. 8.
umbels numerous. Rarely small specimens only apically branched, with few umbels. Leaves very imperfectly known, usually many basal leaves developed, withering before flowering. Lower leaves probably linear, $1.5-3 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, upper ones successively smaller and those of the ultimate inflorescence parts more like the bracts, leaf margin finely scabrid. Umbel stalks $5-20 \mathrm{~mm}$. Terminal umbels 5-9 (-12). rayed, rays equal or slightly unequal, 3.5 -8 mm , in largest umbels much shorter than the stalk, $\pm$ sharply angular. Bracts (4-) $5,2.5-5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $0.4-0.8 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, shorter than the rays, narrowly ovate, acuminate with a distinct, pointed tip, scabrid at margin and ventral midrib, only the midrib marked, often two inconspicuous side ribs. Bracteoles $2.5-3.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $0.4-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, like the bracts. Umbellules (6-) 9-11-flowered, pedicels $0.9-1.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. Petals $0.4-0.55 \mathrm{~mm}$, $0.5-0.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, rounded, with a wide bend and a broad bulb of the bend and a broad dark midfield, inflexed lobe broad, bifid. Anthers $0.3-0.4 \mathrm{~mm}$, filaments $0.7-0.8 \mathrm{~mm}$. Stylopodium $0.6-0.8 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, styles $0.4-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$, usually longer than the stylopodium radius. Fruit 1.6 $2 \mathrm{~mm}, 0.55-0.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad and about equally thick, rounded prismatic, dark brown, glaucous, ridges filiform, commissural surface flat with a narrow furrow, vittae 6,2 in the commissural side and one in each dorsal field.

The name is formed in honour of one of the type collectors, professor Zohary, who collected much interesting material of annual Bupleurum species.

MATERIAL REVISED: C5 Icel/Seyhan: Plain between Mersina and Adana, 12.8. 1931. Eig \& Zohary, Typus (HUJ). - C5 Icel: Env. of Mersina, 18.8. 1931. Eig \& Zohary (HUJ). - C5 Seyhan: Wegrand 10 km W Zeyhan, 30 m . Huber-Molath 15248 (Herb. Hub-Mor.). - C6 Seyhan: Near Hasanbeyli, 914 1219 m . Darrah 639 (E). - C6 Hatay: S of Paias (near Alexandretta), 10.8. 1931. Eig \& Zohary (HUJ).
B. zoharii occurs in different $\pm$ open habitats of the Cilician lowland, such as fields, roadsides and macchias. It is probably most closely related to B. kurdicum Borss., a relatively widespread species of the Mesopotamian area. The easiest distinguishing character is the relative length of the umbel rays, which are markedly unequal and usually much longer in B. kurdicum. B. kurdicum also has a wider stylopodium $(0.5-0.8 \mathrm{~mm})$ and larger fruit (more than 2.5 mm long). Usually it also has longer bracts and bractlets but is less profusely branched and has a smaller number of umbels.

The bases of large B. zoharii specimens show a great number of leaf scars and remnants of large leaf bases. Thus, the species has probably often a long period of development as a rosette plant before the large flowering branches are formed. Perhaps that means that it can grow as a winter biennial, but there are no indications that it has perennated through more than one flowering period. Probably the leaves formed during the rosette stage are rather large, but their form and size can not be estimated from the remnants present. Further field observations and collections of young plants are highly desirable.

The collection Huber-Morath 15248 contains only small, normally annual, apically branched specimens, but in floral characters it seems so like the other $B$. zoharii collections that I find it neccessary to include it here.

Bupleurum polyaetis POST ex Snogerup, sp. nov. (Fig. 9)

Typus: Post 438 ( G holotypus).
Annuum, $30-70 \mathrm{~cm}$ altum vel altius. Caulis erectus, ramis longis, parce ramulosis. Folia anguste linearia, margine scabriuscula. Umbellae pedunculo $10-45 \mathrm{~mm}$ longo suffultae, 6 - 13 -radiatae, terminales 10 - 13 -radiatae, radiis valde inaequalibus $5-22 \mathrm{~mm}$ longis, tenuissimis. Involucri phylla 5, 3-7.5 mm longa, anguste ovata, margine scabriuscula,

Fig. 8. Bupleurum zoharii Snog. - A: Part of a large specimen, $\times 0.5$. -B : Bracts, $\times 6$. - C: Bractlets, $\times 6 .-\mathrm{D}:$ Petal, $\times 24$. Material coll. Eig \& Zohary 18. 8. 1931.


Fig. 9. Bupleurum polyactis Post ex Snog. - A: One of the largest branches, $\times 0.5$. B: Bracts, $\times 6$. - C: Bractlets, $\times 6$. - D: Petal, $\times 24$. - Type collection.
Bot. Notiser, vol. 124, 1971
acutissima, illis involucelli conformia, 4-5, $2.5-5 \mathrm{~mm}$ longa. Umbellulae laterales $10-$ 13-florae, centrales minores. pedicelli $1.2-2$ mm longi subaequales. Petala $0.45-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. laevia, lobulo inflexo lato bifido instructa. Antherae 0.35 mm , stylopodium $0.6-0.75 \mathrm{~mm}$ latum, styli $0.4-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$ longi. Fructus maturus non visus, 1.2 mm vel longior, rotun-dato-prismaticus, laevis.

Annual, $30-70 \mathrm{~cm}$ and probably higher, main stem conspicuous, branches long, moderately branched, branches next to main umbels developed, side umbels preceded by usually 2 reduced ones. Cotyledons not seen. First leaves small, soon withering, probably petiolated. Cauline leaves at least up to 5 cm long and 1.5 mm broad, first ones very narrowly obovoidal, gradually changing to $\pm$ linear, very finely scabrid at margin and upper part of ventral midrib, with a pointed tip, uppermost ones narrowly ovate, successively smaller and more like the bracts. Umbel stalk $10-45 \mathrm{~mm}$. Umbel rays $6-13$, in main umbels $10-13$, $5-22 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, very unequal, thin, in main umbels $\pm$ considerably shorter than the stalk. Bracts $5,3-7.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $0.4-$ 1.2 mm broad, narrowly ovate, with a long, thin, pointed tip, often $\pm$ keeled, with a strong midrib and often 2 weaker lateral ones, marginally scabrid. Bractlets $4-5,2.5-5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, $0.4-0.6$ mm broad, like the bracts. Outer umbellules 10-13-flowered, central ones often reduced, pedicels $1.2-2 \mathrm{~mm}$. Petals 0.45 $-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}, 0.6-0.7 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, smooth. midvein broad, dark, inflexed lobe broad,
bifid. Anthers c. 0.35 mm , filaments 0.7 0.8 mm . Stylopodium $0.6-0.75 \mathrm{~mm}$ broad, styles $0.4-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$, longer than the stylopodium radius. Ripe fruit not seen, 1.2 mm or probably slightly longer, smooth, $\pm$ rounded prismatic, oil ducts 2 in commissural side and 1 in each interjugal side.

The name was proposed by Post in a pencil note to the type collection.

MATERLAL REVISED: C5 Seyhan: Adana to Missis, 2.7. 1906. Post 438. Typus (G). C4 Icel: 2 km N Mut (Karaman), 290 m . Sorger 66-18-20 \& 66-19-30 (Herb. Sorger),
B. polyactis is a plant of the Cilician lowland. It is easily recognised by its many thin and very unequal umbel rays. Its relationships are not quite clear; it has similarities to the $B$. koechelii group on the one hand, but also to B. zoharii and $B$. kurdicum on the other.

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# Chromosome Numbers in Plants from the Canary Islands 

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#### Abstract

Bramwell, D., Humphries, C. J., Murray, B. G. \& Owens, S. J. 1971. Chromosome numbers in plants from the Canary Islands. - Bot. Notiser 124:376-382.

The chromosome numbers have been determined for twenty seven species of flowering plants from the Canary Islands. Of these, eight species and the genus Vieraca Webs were hitherto unknown cytologically. In general our observations agree with those of previous workers, but in Centaurea arguta a new count of $2 \mathrm{n}=31(30+1)$ is recorded.


## INTRODUCTION

The flora of the Canary Islands comprises some 1750 species of which approximately 450 have been studied cytologically. Particular attention has been paid to the endemic species of which there are about 500 , previous workers having determined the chromosome numbers of about half of these. The present contribution deals with 28 species, nine of which have not previously been studied cytologically. Our study tends to confirm earlier reports (Borgen 1970, Larsen 1963) on the low level of polyploidy in the flora since we found only one species to be polyploid.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chromosome counts were made from material collected by D. Bramwell in the Canary Islands during the period October 1968 to August 1969, and from spontaneous seed supplied by the Jardin de Aclimatación de Plantas de la Orotava. Tenerife and Oslo Botanic Garden, Norway, Voucher specimens are preserved in the Herbarium of the University of Reading (RNG).

Somatic counts were made from root tips which were pretreated in a saturated solu-
tion of paradichlorobenzene for two hours, fixed in acetic alcohol ( $1: 3$ ), stained in basic fuchsin and squashed in acetic orcein. Meiosis was studied in pollen mother cells fixed in acetic alcohol and squashed in acetic orcein. The drawings were made with the aid of a Zeiss camera lucida at a magnification of $1600 \times$.

## RESULTS

## Monocotyledoneae

## AMARYLLIDACEAE

Pancratium canariense Ker. Gawl. ex Webb \& Berth. - $2 \mathrm{n}=22$ (Fig. 1 A ).

Seed collection: Tenerife, Punta de Teno. 7-1969 D. Bramwell.

This endemic geophyte is recorded from the xerophytic zone on each of the Canary Islands. The same number is reported by Borgen (1969) for material from Gran Canaria.

## GRAMINEAE

Briza maxima L. - $2 \mathrm{n}=14$ (Fig. 1 D).
Spontancous seed received from Orotava Botanic Garden, originating from Tenerife, Orotava.

This is a fairly common weed in the Canary Islands. Larsen (1954) recorded the same number from Canarian material.

Briza media L. - 2n=14 (Fig. 1 C).
Spontaneous seed received from Orotava Botanic Garden, originally from Tenerife, Orotava.

The only record for the occurrence of this species in the Canary Islands is to be found in the Orotava Seed list for 196670 and it seems to be a recent introduction. The chromosome number and the morphology of plants raised from seed confirm the material's identity. The same number is widely reported from Europe.

## IRIDACEAE

Iris foctidissima L. - $2 \mathrm{n}=40$ (Fig. 1 E).
Seed collection: Tenerife, Icod el Alto. 5-1969 D. Bramwell.

This is the first report of the chromosome number of this species based on Canarian material and it agrees with counts made by Simonet (op. div.) for European material.

## LILIACEAE

Androcymbium psammophilum Svent. (syn. A. fuerteventurae Kunkel \& Sunding $)-2 \mathrm{n}=18$ (Fig. 1 B ).

Seed collection: Fuerteventura, Corralejos. 5-1969 D. Bramwell..

This is a very rare endemic confined to the sand dunes of the northern region of Fuerteventura. The same chromosome number was reported by Borgen (1970) under the name A. fuerteventurae.

## Dicotyledoneae

## BORAGINACEAE

Echium giganteum L. fil. - $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ (Fig. $1 \mathrm{~F})$.

Sced collection: Tenerife, San Jose. 4-1969 D. Bramwell.

This confirms the somatic chromosome number reported by Michaelis (1964) and Bobgen (1970). Satellites were observed by us on two chromosomes.

Echium leacophacum Webr ex Sprague \& Hutchinson - $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ (Fig. 1 G ).

Sced collection: Tenerife, Valle de San Andrés. 11-1968 D. Bramwell.

This species only occurs in the Anaga region of Tenerife and was previously unknown cytologically.

Echium simplex DC. - 2n=16 (Fig. 1 H).
Seed collection: Tenerife, Bajamar. 61969 D. Bramwell.
E. simplex is a monocarpic rosette plant found only on coastal cliffs between Bajamar and Taganana on the north-east coast of Tenerife. This is the first report of its chromosome number.

Echium strictum L. fil. - 2n=16 (Fig. 1 1).

Seed collection: Tenerife, Cruz de Taganana. 6-1969 D. Bramwell.

The same chromosome number is recorded for material from Gran Canaria and Tenerife by Borgen (1969), Larsen (1960) and Michaelis (1964). This is the most widespread species of the genus in the Canaries.

Echium strictum L. fil. subsp. exasperatum (Webb) Bramwell. - $\mathrm{n}=8$ (Fig. $1 \mathrm{~J})$.

Seed collection: Tenerife, Teno. 7-1969 D. Bramwell.

This subspecies, known only from the area west of Buenavista on the north coast of Tenerife, has not previously been studied cytologically.

## COMPOSITAE

Centaurea arguta Nees - $2 \mathrm{n}=30+1$ (Fig. 1 M).

Seed collection: Tenerife, Montaña de Diego Hernadez 7-1969 D. Bramwell.

Larsen (1960) and Michaelis (1964) report $2 \mathrm{n}=30$ for this species but in our

material we have observed in addition a supernumerary chromosome; such supernumerary chromosomes are well known in the genus (Fröst 1954).

Centaurea tagananensis Svent. - $2 \mathrm{n}=45$ (Fig. 1 N ).

Seed collection: Tenerife, Roque las Animas, Taganana. 8-1969 D. Bramwell.

This very rare endemic species occurs only on basalt cliffs near Taganana on the north coast of Tenerife. It is a member of the Macaronesian section Cheirolophus and the chromosome number $2 \mathrm{n}=$ 45 , though previously recorded in the genus, is new for this section.

Centaurea webbiana Sch. Bip. - $2 \mathrm{n}=32$ (Fig. 1 L ).

Spontaneous material received from the Orotava Botanic Garden originating from Tenerife, E1 Guincho.

This rare endemic species from the north coast of Tenerife is found in the region between Puerto de la Cruz and Icod. It is a member of the section Cheirolophus and was previously uninvestigated. The same chromosome number has been recorded in other members of the section, e.g. C. arbutifolia Svent. (Borgen 1969).

Argyranthemum foeniculaceum Wers $\mathrm{n}=9$ (Fig. 2 D).

Spontaneous material received from Orotava Botanic Garden originating from Tamaimo, Tenerife.

This species is found only in the subalpine zone of the south-west region of Tenerife. Our findings confirm previous work by Harling (1951), Larsen (1960) and Borgen (1969).


Fig. 2. First meiotic metaphase (A, C-E) and mitotic chromosomes (B) of A: Argyranthemum grandiflorum, B: A. canariense, C: A. anethifolium, D: A. foeniculaceum, E: A. callichrysum - Scale $1 \mu$.

Argyranthemum frutescens (L.) Sch. Bıp. var. frutescens - $\mathrm{n}=9$ (Fig. 3 F ).

Spontaneous material from Orotava Botanic Garden originating from San Filipe, Tenerife.

This confirms previous counts of $\mathrm{n}=9$ and $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ by Larsen (1960).

Argyranthemum frutescens (L.) Sch. Bip. var. crithmifolium (Link) Pitard $\mathrm{n}=9$ (Fig. 3 D).

Spontaneous material from Orotava Botanic Garden originating from Sta. Ursula, Tenerife.

Fig. 1. Mitotic chromosomes (A-I, K-N) and first meiotic metaphase (J) of A: Pancratium canariense, B: Androcymbium psammophilum, C: Briza media, D: B. maxima, E: Iris foctidissima, F: Echium giganteum, G: E. lencophaeum, H: E. simplex, I: E. strictum, J: E. strictum ssp. exasperatum. K: Sideritis gomerae, L: Centaurea webbiana, M: C. arguta, N: C. tagananensis. - Scale 1 .


Fig. 3. A: Mitotic chromosomes (A) and first meiotic metaphase ( $\mathrm{B}-\mathrm{F}$ ) of A: Argyranthemum haouarytheum, B: A. haouarytheum, C: Chrysanthemum coronarium, D; Argyranthemum frutescens var. crithmifolium, E: A. frutescens var. gracilescens, $\mathrm{F}:$ A. frutescens var. frutescens. - Scale $1 \mu$.

Normal meiosis occurred in $90^{\circ} / \%$ of cells examined while the remaining $10 \%$ showed a single quadrivalent and seven bivalents. The quadrivalent appeared as a ring or chain. LARSEN (1960) and BORGEN (1969) report $\mathrm{n}=9$ and $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ for this variety.

Argyranthemum frutescens Sch. Bip. var. gracilescens (Christ.) Humphries - $\mathrm{n}=$ 9 (Fig. 3 E).

Seed collection: Tenerife, Candelaria. 11-1968 D. Bramwell.

The only pervious record for this species is a somatic count of $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ by Borgen (1969).
Bot. Notiser, vol. 121, 1971

Argyranthemum anethifolium Webr $\mathrm{n}=9$ (Fig. 2 C).

Seed collection: Tenerife, Cañada del Portillo. 10-1968 D. Bramwell.

Harling (1951) and Linder and LamBERT (1965) have previously recorded $\mathrm{n}=$ 9 and Larsen (1960) and Borgen (1969, 1970) $2 \mathrm{n}=18$.

Argyranthemum callichrysum (Svent.) Humphries - $\mathrm{n}=9$ (Fig. 2 E ).

Seed collection: Gomera, Roque de Agando. 6-1969 D. Bramwell.

The chromosome number of this rare Gomeran endemic was previously unreported.

Argyranthemum canariense (Sch. Bip.) Humphries - $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ (Fig. 2 B).

Seed received from Hortus "Llano de la Piedra", Gran Canaria.

LARSEN (1960) and Borgen (1969) both report $2 \mathrm{n}=18$.

Argyranthemum grandiflorum (Willd.) Humphries (syn. Chrysanthemum coronopifolium Steud.) - $\mathrm{n}=9$ (Fig. 2 A ).

Seed collection: Tenerife, Buenavista. 6-1969 D. Bramwell.

A somatic count of $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ is reported by Larsen (1960) for C. coronopifolium.

Argyranthemum haonarytheum Bramweli. \& Humphries - $2 \mathrm{n}=18, \mathrm{n}=9$ (Fig. 3 B).

Seed collection: La Palma, Casa de la Cumbrecita. 6-1969 D. Bramwell.

This species was previously unknown cytologically.

Chrysanthemum coronarium $\mathrm{L} .-\mathrm{n}=9$ (Fig. 3 C).

Seed received from Oslo Botanic Garden, Norway; originating from Lanzarote, Arieta.
$15 \%$ of cells examined showed a single quadrivalent and seven bivalents.


Fig. 4. Mitotic chromosomes (A, B, D, F) and first meiotic metaphase (C, E) of A: Vieraca laevigata, B: Gonospermum gomerae, C: Crepis canariensis, D: Lotus emeroides, E: Ruta oreojasme, F: Todaroa aurea. - Scale $1 \mu$.

Crepis canariensis (Sch. Bip.) BabC. (syn. C. lowei Sch. Bip. var. canariensis Sch. Bip.) $-n=4$ (Fig. 4 C).

Spontancous material from Orotava Botanic Garden originating from Lanzarote, Famara.

This species is endemic to the eastern Canary Islands and the somatic number $2 \mathrm{n}=8$ has also been recorded by Babcock and Cameron (1934), Babcoce and Jenhins (1943) and Borgen (1970).

Gonospermum gomerae Bolle - $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ (Fig. 4 B).

Seed collection: Gomera, Roque Carno, Vallehermoso. 6-1969 D. Bramwell.

This endemic species, of the upper xerophytic zone, has been investigated by

Larsen (1963) and Borgen (1969) who report the same number.

Vieraca lacoigata Werb $-2 \mathrm{n}=16$ (Fig. 4 A).

Seed collection: Tenerife, Punta de Teno. 7-1969 D. Bramwell.

Vieraea Webr is an endemic, monotypic genus of the tribe Inuleae found only in the north-west region of Tenerife. The genus is related to Jasonia and Pulicaria and the same chromosome number, $2 \mathrm{n}=$ 16 , is frequent in the latter genus. It is a succulent-leaved shrub which grows as a chasmophyte in crevices on basalt cliffs between 50 and 400 metres. The genus was previously uninvestigated cytologically.

## LABIATAE

Sideritis gomerae De NoE $-2 \mathrm{n}=16$ (Fig. 1 K ).

Seed collection: Gomera, Bco. la Villa. 6-1969 D. Bramwell.

Of eighteen species of Sideritis from the Canary Islands the chromosome number of only one, $S$. soluta Webb $2 \mathrm{n}=36$, (LarSEN 1960), is known.

## LEGUMINOSAE

Lotus emeroides Murray (syn. L. borzii Pitard) - $2 \mathrm{n}=28$ (Fig. 4 D).

Seed collection: Gomera, Cerco de Armas. 6-1969 D. Bramwell.

This confirms previous counts of this Gomeran endemic (Larsen 1958, 1960; Grant 1965; Borgen 1970).

## RUTACEAE

Ruta oreojasme Webr - $\mathrm{n}=18$ (Fig. 4 E ).
Seed collection: Gran Canaria, Valle de Fataga. 3-1969 D. Bramwell.

Three species of Ruta are endemic to the Canary Islands but none of them has previously been investigated cytologically. Ruta oreojasme is confined to the island of Gran Canaria, where it occurs as a cliff plant in the dry southern region.

## UMBELLIFERAE

Todoroa aurea PArl. - $2 \mathrm{n}=22$ (Fig. 4 F). Seed collection: Tenerife, Punta de Teno. 4-1969 D. Bramwell.

The same chromosome number is recorded for $T$. montana, the only other Canarian species of this genus (Larsen 1960).

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to thank Professor V. H. Heywood and Dr. D. M. Moore for
assistance with the preparation of the manuseript.

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# Chromosome Numbers in the South African Genus Aspalathus L. (Fabaceae) 

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#### Abstract

Dahlgren, R. 1971. Chromosome numbers in the South African genus Aspalathus L. (Fabaceae). - Bot. Notiser 124: 383-398.

Chromosome counts have been made for 149 taxa among 133 species of Aspalathus L.. which constitutes about half of the total number of species known. The commonest chromosome number in the genus is $2 \mathrm{n}=18$, which was found in all but 17 species. In 15 species the number was found to be $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ or ca. 16 and in 2 species $2 \mathrm{n}=14$. In one species, A. uniflora, one of the subspecies proved to have $2 \mathrm{n}=14$ and the other $2 \mathrm{n}=16$; promotion to species rank may be necessary. In a couple of species the chromosome number is probably $2 \mathrm{n}=20$, but no certain counts above $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ were obtained. The number $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ is probably the original one in the genus, and is found also in related genera. The numbers lower than $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ are scattered within Aspalathus and species with these numbers have probably evolved along several different lines.


## INTRODUCTION

The genus Aspalathus L. is endemic in the Cape Province and Natal, South Africa. It has been monographically treated in a number of papers in Opera Botanica and this series.

Chromosome numbers for 61 taxa of Aspalathus have been given previously in Dahlghen 1963, 1967 a and b , and 1968 $\mathbf{a}, \mathrm{b}$, and c .

In the present survey chromosome numbers are given for 149 taxa ( 133 species). All chromosome slides of Aspalathus, including those studied previously and published in the mentioned works, have been examined in order to obtain as much information as possible on the chromosome numbers in the genus. Some of the previous statements (for A. abietina, capensis and nudiflora) published have been specified or changed here as a result of ampler material.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

The investigations have been made mainly on two series of cultivations, A and D.

Series A was investigated in South Africa between August 1965 and March 1966. It is the largest and consisted of 294 numbered collections of seedlings or young plants selected from plants growing under identifiable adult shrubs of Aspalathus species. Plants were only collected when there were no doubts about their connection with the adult specimens, branches of which were usually collected and pressed for use as voucher specimens. The seedlings were dug up carefully together with the soil without serious harm to the root system and put direct into pots. They were taken by van to the nursery of the National Botanic Gardens, Kirstenbosch, were they were placed under the management of competent gardeners.

The plants were individually watered and kept in semi-shade in the open. Repeated control of the absence of weeds was made. Root-tip fixations with Navashin-Karpechenko fixative were carried out in the early morning hours, the young plants having been relatively cool during the night. The tempera-

\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Taxon \& Voucher \& Code no. \& Collecting site \& \(2 \mathrm{n}=\) \& Previous record in Dahlgiten \\
\hline \multirow[t]{7}{*}{\begin{tabular}{l}
A. abictina Thunb. \\
A. acanthes Eckl. \& ZEYH. \\
A. acanthiloba R. Dahlgir. \\
A. acanthoclada R. Dahlgr. \\
A. acanthophylla Eckl. \& Zeyh.
\end{tabular}} \& \& \& Paarl Div. 6 miles W of French Hoek \& 14 \& 1968 a p. 185 \\
\hline \& D. \& S. 3594 \& A \(117{ }^{*}\) \& Paarl Div.: 6 miles Wiles SSW of Muis Kraal \& 18 \& \\
\hline \& D. \& S. 4638 \& A 286 \& Riversdale Div.: 2 taledon Div.: Pass to Stenbras Water Works \& 18 \& \\
\hline \& D. \& S. 3312 \& \(\begin{array}{lr}\text { A } \& 80 \\ \text { D } \& 3\end{array}\) \& Worcester Div.: 3 miles W of Worcester \& 18 \& \\
\hline \& D. \& S. 4950 \& D
A 203 \& Malmesbury Div.: 5-10 miles S of \& 8 \& \\
\hline \& \& A 20 \& Malmesbury Cape Flats 4 miles E of A \& 18 \& \\
\hline \& D. \& S. 4954 \& D 4 \& Bellville Div.: Cape Flats NE of Bredasdorp \& 18-20 \& 1968 a p. 45 \\
\hline \multirow[t]{12}{*}{\begin{tabular}{l}
A, aciloba R. Dahlgr. \\
A. aculeata Thunb. \\
A. acuminata Lam. ssp, acuminata ... \\
ssp. pungens (Thunb.) R. Dahlgr. \\
ssp. pungens ('Thunr.) R. Dahler.
\end{tabular}} \& D. \& S. 4179 \& A 188
A 89

c \& Paarl Div.: 7 miles ENE of Fisantekraal Stn. \& 18 \& <br>
\hline \& D. \& S. 3888
D. \& S. 2876 \& A 39 \& Mossel Bay Div.: 8 miles NNW of \& 18 \& <br>
\hline \& \& \& Hartenbosstrand \& 18 \& 1968 a p. 227 <br>
\hline \& \& A 65 \& Worcester Div.: Du 5 miles S of Clanwilliam \& 18 \& <br>
\hline \& D. \& S. 3271 \& A 77 \& Clanwilliam Div.: 15 mile W of Gordon's Bay \& 18 \& <br>
\hline \& D. \& S. 4310 \& A 224 \& Somerset ${ }^{\text {W }}$ ( Div.: 4 miles NE of Clanwilliam \& 18 \& <br>
\hline \& D. \& S. 4463 \& A 263 \& Clanwilliam Div.: Pakhuis Pass, E of Klein \& \& <br>
\hline \& D. \& S. 4464 \& A 264 \& Kliphuis \& 18

18 \& $$
\begin{array}{ll}
1968 \text { a } & \text { p. } 227 \\
1968 \text { a } & \text { p. } 233
\end{array}
$$ <br>

\hline \& D. \& S. 3978 \& A 145 \& Tulbagh Div.: Near Romans River \& 18 \& 1968 a p. 229 <br>
\hline \& D. \& S. 3849
D. \& S. 4958 \& $\begin{array}{lr}\text { A } & 131 \\ \text { D } & 8\end{array}$ \& Clanwillam Div.: Malmesbury Div.: Mamre Hills W of \& \& 1968 a p. 229 <br>

\hline \& D. \& S. 4958 \& \& Papkuilsfontein ${ }^{\text {P }}$ \& $$
\begin{aligned}
& 18 \\
& 18
\end{aligned}
$$ \& 1968 a p. 59 <br>

\hline \& D. \& S. 4627 \& A 284
d
231 \& Riversdale Div.: 3 miles N of Mambe
Malmesbury Div.: Just E of Mamre \& 18 \& 1968 a p. 25 <br>

\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{| A. acutiflor |
| :--- |
| A. albens 1 |} \& D. \& S. 4331 \& A 231 \& Malmesbury Div.: Just E of Mamre \& 18 \& <br>

\hline \& D. \& S. 4331 \& D 11 \& Knysna Div.: Hills at Brenton, opposite \& \& <br>

\hline \multirow[t]{2}{*}{A. alopecurus Burch. ex} \& D. \& S. 4663 \& A 292 \& Knysna \& $$
\begin{aligned}
& 18 \\
& 18
\end{aligned}
$$ \& 1968 c Pp. <br>

\hline \& D. \& S. 4177 \& A 186 \& Caledon Div.: 14 miles \& \& $44-45$ <br>
\hline A. alpestris (BENTH.) \& D. \& S. 4870 \& D 12 \& Uniondale Div.: 10 miles SW of \& \& <br>
\hline \multirow[t]{4}{*}{A. angustifolia (Lam.) R. Dahlgr. ssp angustifolia} \& . D. \& S, 4219 \& A 196 \& Caledon Div:: Base of Pilaarkop, Riversonderend Mts. \& 18 \& <br>
\hline \& D. \& S. 4304 \& A 220 \& Swellendam Div.: Near Strawberry \& 18 \& 1968 c p. <br>
\hline \& \& \& Paarl Div.: 2 miles E of Suider Paarl \& 18 \& <br>
\hline \& D. \& S. 3443 \& D 14 \& Riversdale Div.: 2 miles W of Still Bay \& \& <br>
\hline A. arenaria R. Dahlgr. \& D. \& S. 2324 \& \& Bridge \& \& <br>
\hline
\end{tabular}

Bot. Notiser, vol, 124, 1971



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Riversdale Div．： 3 miles W of Still Bay
Bridge
Caledon Div．：Villiersdorp region． 1 mile NE
of Rusfontein
Clanwilliam Div．： 8 miles NNW of
Clanwilliam
Paarl Div．：Bottom of Du Toit＇s Kloof，W side
Paarl Div．：Bottom of Du Toit＇s Kloof，W side Clanwilliam Div．：Top of Cederberg Pass，E of Algeria
Clanwilliam Div，： 10 miles N of Citrusdal Caledon Div．：NE of Little Hangklip Mt．
Bredasdorp Div．： 7 miles WNW of Elim
Caledon Div.: Base of Pilaarkop,
Riversonderend Mts．
Cape Peninsula：Spontaneous at
Kirstenbosch
Bredasdorp Div．： 2 miles E of Kathoek
Knysna Div．：Brenton，opposite Kinysna
Ceres Div．： 2 miles SW of the top of Gydo
Pass
Swellendam Div．：Bontbok National Park
Swellendam Div．：Bontbok National Park
Caledon Div．：Top of Houw Hoek Pass
Bredasdorp Div．：$S$ side of Soetanysberg．
near top
Caledon Div．：$N$ of Hawston
Caledon Div．：N of Hawston
Caledon Div．：Betty＇s Bay
Worcester Div．：E of Worcester on road to
Robertson
Robertson Div．： 3 miles $S$ of Bonnievale
Worcester Div．：$S W$ outskirts of Worcester
 Kirstenbosch Botanic Gardens，cultivated
Cape Peninsula：Red Hill Cape Peninsula：Red Hill
Caledon Div．： 1 mile E of
Cape Peninsula： $1 / 2$ mile NE of Cirkels Vlei Cape Peninsula： $1 / 2$ mile NE of Cirkels Vlei
Cape Peninsula：Signal Hill Caledon Div．： 2 miles NNE of Cape Hangklip Worcester Div．：Du Toit＇s Kloof， 1 mile $\mathbf{E}$ of tunnel
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A．asparagoides L．FIL．ssp．asparagoi－
A．aristifolia R．Dahlge．
A．aspalathoides（L．）R．DAhLGR．
\＆bdapol6uol＇dss＇ג3N＇A bsol／？q＇I
biflora E．Mey．ssp．longicarpa
Dahlgr．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．
bracteata Thunb．
A．caledonensis R ．Dahlgr．
A．callosa L ．
A．candicans AIT．
capensis（Walp．）R．Dahlgr．
carnosa BERG．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．．






| A. divaricata Thune ssp. div | D. \& S. 3857 <br> D. \& S. 4357 <br> D. \& S. 4933 | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{A} \\ & \mathrm{~A} \\ & \mathrm{D} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 134 \\ 237 \\ 32 \end{array}$ | Piketberg Div.: Versfeld Pass, upper part Somerset W Div.; Top of Sir Lowry's Pass Bellville Div.: 3 miles $S$ of Tigerberg |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ssp. horizontalis R. Dahlgr. | D. \& S. 4247 | A | 204 | Malmesbury Div.: 6 miles N of Malmesbury |
| A. ericifolia L. ssp. ericifolia | D. \& S. 3350 | A | 88 | Caledon Div.: 5 miles N of Hawston |
|  | D, \& S. 3436 | A | 95 | Caledon Div.: 4 miles ESE of Grabouw |
|  | D. \& S. $40+4$ | A | 155 | Cape Peninsula; 2 miles SE of Simonstown |
|  | D. \& S. 4358 | A | 238 | Somerset W Div.: Top of Sir Lowry's Pass |
| ssp. minuta R. Dahlgr. | D. \& S. 3117 | A | 59 | Tulbagh Div.: Nieuwe Kloof |
|  | [D. \& S. 8448 | A | 105 | Worcester Div.: Du Toit's Kloof, 1 mile E of tunnel |
|  | D. \& S. 4020 | A | 153 | Paarl Div.; French Hoek Pass, W side |
| A. excelsa R. Dahlgr. | D. \& S. 3417 | A | 93 | Caledon Div.: $11 / 2$ miles E of Mossel River |
|  | D. \& S. 3656 | A | 119* | Calcdon Div,: Mossel River |
|  |  | A | 122 | Caledon Div.: Hermanus |
| A. filicaulis Eckl. \& Ze | D. \& S. 4148 | A | 183* | Ceres Div.: S spur of Skurfdeberg |
|  | D. \& S. 4386 | A | 241 | Ceres Div.: S spur of Skurfdeberg |
| A. flexuosa Thunb. | D. \& S. 2776 | A | 31 | Malmesbury Div.: The Towers Farm, S of Darling |
|  | D. \& S. 3122 | A | 61 | Tulbagh Div.: Near Tulbagh Road (Bergville) |
|  | D. \& S. 4349 | D | 36 | Malmesbury Div.; Just outside Malmesbury. <br> NW side |
|  | D. \& S. 4399 | D) | 37 | Worcester Div.: 4 miles NW of Worcester |
| A. florifera R. Daillgr. | D. \& P. 1339 |  | B | Riversdale Div.: Garcia's Pass, S entrance |
|  | D. \& S. 3106 | A | 53 | George Div.: E of George, bridge at Kaaimans River |
| A. forbesii Harv. | D. \& P. 1307 |  | B | Caledon Div.: Betty's Bay, Old Whaling Stn. |
|  | - | A | 8 | Caledon Div.: 4 miles S of Stanford |
|  |  | A | 9 | Caledon Div.: 4 miles S of Stanford |
|  | D. \& S. 3933 | D | 39 | Caledon Div.: E end of Hangklip Mt. |
| A. frankenioides DC. | D. \& S. 3086 | A | 50 | Albany Div.: 1 mile W of Coldspring |
| A. fusca Thunb. | D. \& S. 3727 | A | 123 | Caledon Div.: Paardeberg, 7 miles E of Stanford |
| A. gateata E. Mey. | D. \& S. 3850 | A | 132 | Clanwilliam Div.: Top of Grey's Pass, E side |
|  | D. \& S. 4449 | D | 41 | Clanwilliam Div.: Near top of Grey's Pass |
| A. glabrescens R. Dahligr. | D. \& S. 2943 | A | 42 | George Div.: N entrance of Outeniqua Pass |
| A. globulosa E. Mey. | D. \& S. 3928 | A | 136 | Caledon Div_: $21 / 2$ miles $W$ of Betty's Bay |
| A. grobleri R. Dahlgr. | D. \& S. 4191 | A | 191 | Bredasdorp Div.: 1 mile W of Potberg Farm |
| A. heterophylla L. FIL. ssp. hete phylla | D. \& S. 3842 | A | 129 | Clanwilliam Div.: 10 miles N of Citrusdal |
| A, hirta E. Mey. ssp. hirta . . . . | D. \& S. 4894 | D | 45 | Riversdale Div.: Just N of Garcia's Pass, Muis Kraal |


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| 1963 P | p. 232; |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1968 b | P. 189 |
| 1988 b p. 177 |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & 1968 \text { a } \\ & 1967 \text { p. } 31 \\ & \text { p. } 151 \end{aligned}$ |  |
|  |  |
| 1968 a p. 285 |  |
| 1963 P. 232 |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & 1968 \text { a } \\ & 76-77 \end{aligned}$ |  |
| 1968 c | c P. 105 |




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| $\begin{aligned} & \approx \\ & \text { \% } \\ & \text { Q } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \frac{9}{6} \\ & \underline{6} \end{aligned}$ |



ture however, proved not always to have been low enough to produce a desirable contraction of chromosomes.

By the time of our departure from South Africa in 1966, about 135 species of Aspalathus were growing in the nursery gardens at Kirstenbosch. Of these many are extremely rare in nature and had previously been collected onily on one or a few isolated occasions.

Series $D$ derives from ca. 90 collections of seeds made in the field during the same period. Voucher specimens were generally collected from the same shrubs. The seeds were sown in the green-houses of the Botanical Gardens, Lund. Root-tip fixation was carried out with Navashin-Karpechenko fixative after cooling over-night at a temperature of $+2^{\circ}-4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.

Besides, some not numbered seedlings were grown in South Africa. They are marked with A only. Some seed collections, marked with B, were made during a botanical tour in South Africa $1956-57$. Plants from these were grown in the green-houses in Lund. Chromosome counts of them are also included here.

All the material was stained in crystal violet. In most cases repeated fixations were carried out, and more than half of the counts were made in more than one slide. There are generally 3 or more counts for each collection,

All voucher specimens are deposited in the Botanical Museum, Lund (LD).

## DISCUSSION

It is apparent from the above table, that $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ is the commonest number in the genus Aspalathus, and that in the material studied $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ is restricted to 15 species, and $2 \mathrm{n}=14$ to 2 species. Besides, there is one species, A. uniflora, in which the numbers $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ and $2 \mathrm{n}=14$ were found in each of the two subspecies.

As $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ is the commonest number in Aspalathus. As it is also the number found in species of the related genera Lebeckia and Wiborgia (Dahlgren 1967 b) I consider it highly probable that $x=9$ is the primary basic number in these genera. The number $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ has been found in the only species studied of Rafnia, a morphologically somewhat specialized ge-
nus. This number would then be secondary.

It can now be of interest to investigate the grouping of the species with $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ and $2 \mathrm{n}=14$. Generalizing broadly, they may represent one of the following alternatives, or a combination of these:

1. one or a few natural groups of species in the genus, or
2. several mutually dissimilar groups of species, or finally
3. a number of randomly distributed single species with no apparent connection with one another.

As will be apparent from the following comments, the results mainly support the second alternative.

In regard to the division of the Aspalathus species into subgenera and "groups" based on morphological similarity, DaHlGREN (1963) will be followed with some slight modifications.

Although several collections have been studied of some species and subspecies, there is generally only one or a few collections of each. More than one chromosome number was found only in one collection (of A. pallidiflora with $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ and 18). Apart from this species and apart from A. uniflora, where the material studied of the two subspecies have different numbers, there is no certain documentation of more than one chromosome number in any of the species. The following discussion should be judged from these premises.

Subgenus Purpureipetala (=the Aspalathus nigra group). All of the species studied - A. forbesii, submissa, nigra, cephalotes, and barbigera - were found to have the number $2 \mathrm{n}=18$.

Subgenus Triplobractea ( $=$ the A. triquetra group). Only two collections of $A$. galeata have been cytologically studied. Both were found to have $2 \mathrm{n}=16$.

Subgenus Aspalathus. This subgenus comprises the main part of the genus and contains numerous groups of species. Among them $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ is most frequently
occurring, but $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ has been found in certain species or groups of species.

The number $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ was found in $A$. desertorum, which forms its own group. In the obviously interrelated A. aculeata, A. chenopoda, A. ciliaris, and A. cymbiformis groups - where the ala and carina claws are adherent to the staminal sheath and the bracts are often trifoliolate - all the species studied have the number $2 \mathrm{n}=18$. This also proved to be the case in the more or less similar A. prostrata, A. pallescens, and A. asparagoides groups and also in the smaller-flowered A. parviflora and A. ericifolia groups, the latter having several common species.
A. calcarata is similar to the species of the two latter groups, but has larger fruits, prominently spur-like leaf bases. and different petal shape. The chromosome number was found to be $2 \mathrm{n}=16$.

In the A. pinea group (sensu Dahlgren 1967 a), A. uniflora is interesting in that it was found to have two numbers, $2 \mathrm{n}=$ 16 in 3 samples of ssp. willdenowiana, and $2 \mathrm{n}=14$ in 3 samples of ssp. uniflora. The two subspecies prove to be rather distinct except for some intermediates in the northernmost parts, and it may be necessary to reconsider using the previous specific rank (i.e. as A. uniflora L. and A. willdenowiana Benth.). The cytological evidence apparently favours such treatment. The eastern forms of ssp, willdenowiana, which unlike the western forms lack yellow pigments in the petals and have a claw-like legume, have the same chromosome number.
A. macrocarpa and filicaulis, both with long, many-sceded legumes, were shown to have the number $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ in spite of showing similarities in leaf as well as flower features with A. uniflora and $A$. macrantha, the latter having $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ in the material studied.

In the many common species of the A. laricifolia group, $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ is the usual number, but in A. laricifolia and hirta some slides seem to show a higher number, $2 \mathrm{n}=$ ca. 20, although the contraction of chromosomes in these particular cases has not been sufficient to allow a proper count to be made. In the 4 similar species of the A. longifolia group the number was found to be $2 \mathrm{n}=18$.

While among the species with flat, trifoliolate leaves most species proved to have the number $2 \mathrm{n}=18$, i.e. A. vulpina, caledonensis, oblongifolia, ternata, tridentata, villosa, heterophylla, quinquefolia, rugosa and cytisoides, the species of the A. stenophylla group investigated have the number $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ or ca. 16. Three species of the latter group, A. aspalathoides, stenophylla and marginata, were studied. These species probably have a common origin.
A. sericea, which has flat leaves, but is widely different from the species of the A. stenophylla group, similarly proved to have $2 \mathrm{n}=16$.
A. decora is similar to A. macrantha especially in regard to the vegetative characters, but differs in floral details and has the chromosome number $2 \mathrm{n}=18$. This also applies to all the material taken

Fig. 1. Somatic metaphase plates in Aspalathus L. A-P with $2 \mathrm{n}=18, \mathrm{Q}-\mathrm{Y}$ with $2 \mathrm{n}=16$. and $Z-X$ with $2 n=14$. - A: A. aculeata (A 89). - B: A. asparagoides (A 198). - C: A. decora (A 75) - D: A. excelsa (A 119). - E: A. filicaulis (A 183). - F: A. hispida ssp. hispida (A 251). - G: A. macrocarpa (A 245). - H; A. pinguis ssp. australis (D 60). - I: A. quinquefolia ssp. virgata (D 62). - J: A. rugosa ssp. rugosa (A 67). - K: A. spinosa ssp. spinosa (D 74). - L: A. tridentata ssp. rotunda (D 77). - M: A. tylodes (A 165). - N: A. villosa (A 178). - O: A. vulpina (A 142). - P: A. zeyheri (A 279). - Q: A. aspalathoides (A 86). - R: A. calcarata (A 274). - S: A. costulata (A 253). - T: A. descrtorum (A 174). - U: A. dianthopora ( D 30 ). - V: A. marginata (A 195). - X : A. sericea ssp. sericea (A 157)- Y: A. uniflora ssp. willdenowiana (D 80) - Z: A. abietina (A 117). - A: A. arida ssp, arida (A 151). - X: A. uniflora ssp. uniflora (A 127). - The scale is the same for all plates. Differences in chromosome contraction make comparison between the karyotypes irrelevant.


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from the species of the A. carnosa group, where the bract is united with the pedicel for some distance, as it is in A. decora. Within the A. carnosa group, material from A. capensis, carnosa, excelsa, fusca, and subulata has been studied. Re-examination of ample material taken from A. capensis has given the number $2 \mathrm{n}=18$, not $2 \mathrm{n}=\mathrm{ca} .16$ as given in Dahlgren 1963.
A. collosa and tylodes, forming the A . callosa group, both have $2 \mathrm{n}=18$. Unfortunately the A. aciphylla group is not represented in may material. Information concerning chromosome number in this group would be of interest as the species are morphologically similar to the A . carnosa group as well as to the A. arida and A. pachyloba groups.

In A. arida, all three subspecies of which are represented in the investigation, the chromosome number is as low as 2 n $=14$. (Certainly there is no close connection between A. arida and A. uniflora ssp. uniflora, which also has $2 \mathrm{n}=14$; the karyotypes are also different.) In material taken from A. costulata and pallidiflora of the A. pachyloba group, the number found was $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, although in the latter species 1 have also noted $2 \mathrm{n}=18$. In $A$. pachyloba I found $2 \mathrm{n}=18$. The chromosome number $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ also occurs in $A$. dianthopora, which is similar to A. arida as well as to the species of the A. pachyloba group.

In the A. tuberculata, A. candicans, A. pinguis, A. spinosa, A. recurva, A. sanguinea, A. frankenioides, A. acutiflora, and A. nivea groups the chromosome numbers were invariably found to be $2 \mathrm{n}=18$. This was also the case in A. retroflexa and juniperina of the A. juniperina group, but in A. chrysantha, a species endemic on the Piketberg and which resembles forms of A. juniperina, the number was unexpectedly found to be $2 \mathrm{n}=16$. This is probably an isolated case of reduction in chromosome number.

In two plants of A. abietina studied, the chromosome number found was $2 \mathrm{n}=$ 14. A previous count on inferior slides,
$2 \mathrm{n}=18$ (Dahlgren 1968 a ) has proved to be incorrect. Further studies of this species would be desirable. Possibly the species, which is at present placed next to A. astroites (which has $2 \mathrm{n}=18$ ) in my revision, is more closely allied to the somewhat similar A. arida group.

Of the A. pedicellata group, all species of which have relatively large, somewhat inflated, smooth, and hard legumes, 3 species are included in the present study, all with the chromosome number $2 \mathrm{n}=\mathbf{1 6}$. Here, as in the A. stenophylla group, the species with this low chromosome number have probably evolved along a common line of evolution.

In all the species within the large A . divaricata group that were investigated the chromosome number has invariably been found to be $2 \mathrm{n}=18$. This is also the case with the material taken from the A. bracteata and A. lanata groups and in the groups with flat simple leaves, previously treated as the genus Borbonia.

Subgenus Eeklonella (=the A. diffusa group). The single species, A. diffusa, is represented in the material studied. The chromosome number is approximately $2 n$ $=18$.

Subgenus Nortieria (=the A. linearis group). Numerous plants of cultivated $A$. linearis ssp. linearis, the Rooibos tea plant, have been studied. All had $2 \mathrm{n}=18$, as did a collection of A. linearis ssp. Iatipetala from the Swellendam Division.

Subgenus Rafnioides (=the A. nudiflora group). The single species, A. nudiflora, is represented in the investigation. It was shown to have $2 \mathrm{n}=18$, as do most species of the genus. In Dahlgren 1968 e the number was reported as being $2 \mathrm{n}=20$ due to marked constrictions on a chromosome pair.

Within Aspalathus $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ accordingly occurs as follows:

1. in subgenus Triplobractea (A. galeata)
2. in the A. stenophylla group
3. in A. sericea
4. in species of the A. pachyloba group and in A. dianthopora
5. in the A. pedicellata group
6. in a number of species with the leaf base prolonged into a spine or spur: $A$. desertorum, A. calcarata and A. uniflora ssp. willdenowiana, and in A. macrantha, which is similar to A. uniflora. It is doubtful whether these "leaf base spur species" have close evolutionary connection with one another. In other species with leaf base spines, e.g. A. aculeata, the chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=18$.
7. in the two isolated cases A. chrysantha and intricata.

The number $2 \mathrm{n}=14$ occurs in the following:

1. in A. arida
2. in A. abietina
3. in A. uniflora ssp. uniflora

Of these species A. uniflora doubtless represents a separate line of reduction of chromosome number, whereas there is possibly a closer connection between the former two species.

## GENERIC CONSIDERATIONS

Two conspicuous features can be noted in the case of Aspalathus:

1. total absence of polyploidy (apart from odd cases of endopolyploidy) as far as hitherto known
2. change in basic number, probably $x=9 \rightarrow x=8(\rightarrow x=7)$, which has ocurred in several independent groups of species or in individual species.

Within Fabaceac in the narrow sense, polyploidy is rather common, and there is probably no genus of a size comparable to Aspalathus (and equally well known) which lacks polyploidy entirely. Psoralea (which is possibly heterogeneous) may represent such a case, as the only numbers known are $2 \mathrm{n}=20$ and 22. Similarly Crotalaria commonly displays the chromo-
some number $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, though a few species have $2 \mathrm{n}=32$. In Cytisus the polyploid number $2 \mathrm{n}=48$ dominates, and in Ulex the polyploidy is even more pronounced.

Aspalathus is not closely related to any of the genera mentioned. In the genera Lebeckia and Wiborgia, which are among those most closely related to Aspalathus, polyploidy has not been found in the (relatively small) material studied.

In spite of the probable absence of polyploidy, different populations of several species exhibit conspicuous differences in floral size - e.g. within A. quinquefolia, acuminata, carnosa, aciphylla, and citrina. The investigation includes examples of extremes in floral size for several such species.

Variation in the basic number as in Aspalathus is common in larger genera in Fabaceae. Thus in Trifolium $\mathrm{x}=5,6,7$, 8 , or $9, x=8$ being the commonest number found, in Medicago $x=7,8$, or 9 similarly with $\mathrm{x}=8$ as the commonest number, and in Lotus $\mathbf{x}=6$ and 7, both numbers being frequent.

In the genera of tribus Genisteae (in a wide sense) the chromosome numbers are less well known and the variation in basic number within the genera less pronounced. Crotalaria has almost invaribly $\mathrm{x}=8$ and Genista $\mathrm{x}=12$ (or 6). Aspalathus shows greater variation in basic chromosome number than do most other genera of Genisteae that have so far been cytologically investigated.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank Professor H. B. Rycrort, and his staff at National Botanic Gardens, Kirstenbosch, among others Mr J. Marals and Mr G. Feinauer. It is thanks to their generosity and kind support that this investigation has been possible. During the work in South Africa I was fortunate to receive the Smuts Memorial Fellowship. This was of great help to me and my associate in the field, Dr A. Strid, Lund, whom I wish to thank for help and companionship. Mrs M. Petersson has kindly checked the manuscript.

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# Studies in the Aegean Flora XIX 

## Notes on Alyssum and Some Other Genera of Cruciferae

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#### Abstract

Persson, J. 1971. Studies in the Aegean flora XIX. Notes on Alyssum and some other genera of Cruciferae. - Bot. Notiser 124:399-418.

Somatic chromosome numbers of 15 species of Cruciferae from the Aegean region are reported. For eight species the chromosome number have not been previously recorded. One deviates from an earlier record.

New records are: Alyssum foliosum Bohy \& Chaub, $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, Alyssum fulvescens Sibth. \& Sm. $2 \mathrm{n}=16$. Alyssum smyrnaeum Meyer $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, Alyssum strigosum Banks \& SoL. $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, Alyssum umbellatum Desv. $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, Alyssum siculum Jord. $2 \mathrm{n}=48$, Cardamine graeca L. $2 \mathrm{n}=18$, Iberis spruneri Jord. $2 \mathrm{n}=14$, Ricotia cretica Botss. \& Heldr. $2 \mathrm{n}=28$.

Variation and taxonomy in some critical groups, especially the A/yssum minus complex, and Aurinia saxatilis are discussed.

Alyssum siculum Jord. is reestablished. It is a perfectly good species occurring in Sicily, Peloponnisos and Crete.


## MATERIAL AND METHODS

The present investigation is based mainly upon material collected in Greece between 1957 and 1970 by the author and colleagues from the Department of Plant Taxonomy, Lund.

Plants were cultivated in greenhouses in the Botanical Garden, Lund. After pretreatment for about 15 hours at $2-4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, root tips were fixed in the Svalōf modification of Navashin-Karpechenko, cut by means of microtome (sections $12 \mu$ ), and stained in crystal violet. The drawings were made with the aid of a camera lucida.

For morphologic analysis material from the following herbaria has been studied (abbreviations according to Lanjouw and StafLEU 1964): E, FI, G, LD, W and WU. I am most indebted to be directors and curators of these institutes.

Voucher specimens are preserved in the Botanical Museum, Lund (LD).

The following abbreviations of collectors names are used: $\mathrm{D}=\mathrm{P}$. H . Davis, $\mathrm{G}-\mathrm{H}=\mathrm{E}$. Gathorne-Hardy, $\quad \mathrm{N}=\mathrm{B}$, Nordenstam, $\mathrm{P}=$ J. Persson, $\mathrm{R}=\mathrm{H}$. Runemark, $\mathrm{S}=\mathrm{S}$. SnogeRUP.

## Alyssoides cretica (L.) Medicus

Alyssoides cretica is restricted to Crete and the Aegean islands, as shown in the distribution map in Runemark, Snogerup \& Nordenstam (1960). A new locality was found in 1966 on the island of Ofidusa, west of Astipalea ( R \& P 22769). The species grows on precipices of hard calcareous rocks.

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, which has been reported earlier by Contandriopoulos (1970). The chromosomes are rod-shaped with a length of $1.8-2.2 \mu$ and a breadth of about $0.4 \mu$ (Fig. 3 A ).

## CYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED MATERIAL:

Greece. Nom. Dodecanesos. Astipalea, NE of Baia di Caminacia, SW-part of Mt. Cutella ( $\mathrm{R} \& \mathrm{~N}$ 15289).

-     - S of Baia della Sabbia, 5-150 m s.m. (R \& N 15106).


## Alyssoides utriculata (L.) Medicus

Alyssoides utriculata is a variable species occurring in Italy, south-eastern Europe, western and northern Turkey.

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, and the karyotype closely resembles that of A. cretica. This number has previously been reported by Contandriopoulos (1970).

## GYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED MATERiaL: <br> Jugoslavia. Makedonija. The narrow gorge of Vardar, S of Negotino (R \& S 21493).

## ALYSSUM L.

Alyssum has been delimited in accordance with Dudley in his revision of the Alyssum species of the Orient (1964 a, 1964b, 1965a). The species investigated are all annuals, viz., A. foliosum, A. fulvescens, A. minus, A. smyrnaeum, A. strigosum, A. umbellatum (all belonging to sect. Alyssum), A. alyssoides (sect. Psilonema [Meyer] Hooker fil.), and lastly, A. siculum, which with respect to morphological and cytological characteristics is an intermediate between the sections mentioned.

As far as the investigated species are concerned there is a distinct difference in chromosome shape between the two sections (elliptic chromosomes in A. alyssoides, elliptic and rod-shaped in A. siculum and rod-shaped in the other species).

A detailed morphological analysis has been carried out as some of the species are difficult to delimit and extremely variable, apparently because of an almost obligate self-pollination, leading to distinguishable populations consisting of one or a few pure lines.

## Alyssum foliosum Bory \& Chaur.

Alyssum foliosum is a rare, polymorphic species known from about 20 localities in southern Greece, Crete, west-
ern Anatolia, Cyprus and some Aegean islands (Fig. 1). Vegetative characters like pubescense and leaf-shape are highly variable. Modificative plasticity is obviously considerable and to this an essential part of the variation can be assigned, but a high variability is shown also in nonmodificative characters. In Flora of Turkey 1. Dudley ( 1965 b) distinguishes two varieties, viz., var. foliosum and var. megalocarpum Hal.

The given characters are:
Fruits $3-4.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long and wide; racemes condensed, $1-2 \mathrm{~cm}, 10$ - or less -fruited ............... . var. foliosum Fruits $5-7 \mathrm{~mm}$ long and wide; racemes elongated, $3-4 \mathrm{~cm}$, more than 10 fruited . . . . . . . . . var. megalocar pum

Of the mentioned characters, fruit-size on the whole can be relied upon as there is little variation within populations. The length of the racemes and the number of fruits are of limited value as they vary widely and cannot be correlated to fruitsize. In large-fruited populations specimens with only 5-10 fruits can be found together with many-fruited specimens, the variation apparently being due to environmental factors. In the small-fruited form, specimens with up to 20 fruits and rather long racemes occur. Furthermore there does not seem to be any correlation between fruit-size and distribution.

In the limited material available to me at a suitable stage of development, I have found the sepals of var. megalocarpum (4 collections) to be early deciduous. In var. foliosum I have noted 3 collections with persistent and 4 with deciduous sepals. There is also a considerable variation in size of petals, length and shape of the appendages of the shorter stamens (Fig. $2 \mathrm{~A}-\mathrm{C})$, length of styles, etc. This variation between material from different areas cannot be taxonomically evaluated on the limited material as yet available. However, as the species during greenhouse conditions develops more or less cleistog.


Fig. 1. Distribution of Alyssum foliosum according to investigated herbarium material. Outside the map A. foliosum is known from Cyprus.
amous flowers, a high rate of self-pollination is probable in nature too. Therefore, the variation pattern found may to a great extent have its origin in local differentiation resulting in populations consisting of pure lines.

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, and the chromosomes are rod-shaped with a length of $1.5-1.8 \mu$ and a breadth of $0.3-0.4 \mu$ (Fig. 3 B ). No earlier records are known to the author.

## CYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED material:

Greece. Nom. Samos. Ikaria, 1 km SE of the peak of Mt. Melissa, $700-900 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. ( R \& S 12637).

- Samos, $1-3 \mathrm{~km}$ W of Marathokampos. $250-350 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& S 19172).


## Alyssum fulvescens Sibth. \& Sm

Alyssum fulvescens occurs on the east Aegean islands and in western Anatolia.

A record by Sibthorp from Peloponnisos needs confirmation, as in no other case is the species known to occur west of the phytogeographical borderline between the Cyclades and the east Aegean islands (cf. Rechinger 1949). The east Aegean material is quite homogeneous and belongs to var. fulvescens (silicula glabrous).

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, and the karyotype is closely similar to that of A. foliosum (Fig. 3 C). No previous records are known to the author.

## CYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED MATERIAL:

Grece. Nom. Samos. Samos, 3-4 km W of Marathokampos, $350-450 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& S 19602).

-     - the E-promontory of Mt. Kerki, 600 $-800 \mathrm{~m} . \mathrm{s} . \mathrm{m}$. (R \& S 19306).
— - - the E-promontory of Mt. Kerki, 800
-1200 m s.m. (R \& S 19370).


## The Alyssum minus Complex

In the group of species which has earlier been treated by most botanists as Alyssum campestre sensu lato, one of the components is A. minus (L.) Rothm. and the rest are A. strigosum Banks \& Sol. and A. hirsutum Bieb.

This group has been extensively investigated by DUDLEy (1964a). According to him, A. minus is distinguished from the other two species in having a monomorphic indumentum of the siliculae consisting of small stellate hairs, while $A$. strigosum and A. hirsutum have a di-
morphic indumentum consisting of, in addition to stellate hairs, equally bifurcate or, in the latter case, simple sometimes unequally bifurcate hairs. A. minus var. micranthum (Meyer) Dudley has stellate fruit-hairs with unequal rays, two of which are longer and ascending, thereby appearing furcate. It might therefore be confused with A. strigosum. However, other characteristics, such as longer, often hairy style and the, at maturity, horizontal to ascending pedicels of $A$. minus var. micranthum can also be used in separating it from A. strigosum, which has a glabrous style and divergent-spreading pedicels. Still, on individuals without developed fruits these characters can hardly be observed. In such cases Dudley (1964 a) points to another characteristic of A. minus, namely a monomorphic indumentum on the pedicels, but I have found that this is not always true. In my opinion the shape and size of petals and appendages of the shorter stamens are more reliable characters. A. minus has petals which are entire to emarginate and gradually attenuate towards the base, and the appendages of the shorter stamens are about half as long as the filaments (Fig. 2 I). The petals of A. strigosum ssp. strigosum are emarginate and somewhat constricted at the middle, and the appendages are $3 / 4$ to $4 / 5$ as long as the filaments (Fig. 2 G). The third species, A. hirsutum, can in a similar (young) stage easily be identified by the prescence of a wing-like appendage also on the longer stamens (Fig. 2 H ).

## Key to the species

1. Fruit indumentum monomorphic, of stellate hairs. Petals $2-3 \mathrm{~mm}$ long, gradually attenuate towards the base . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . A. minus
2. Fruit indumentum dimorphic, of tuberculate simple or furcate, and stellate hairs. Petals somewhat constricted at the middle or more than 3 mm long.
3. Tuberculate fruit hairs simple or unequally bifurcate. All filaments with winglike appendages
A. hirsutum
4. Tuberculate fruit hairs equally bifurcate, Long filaments wingless.
5. Sepals early deciduous. Bifurcate fruit hairs stiff, $0.4-0.8 \mathrm{~mm}$ long. Petals $\pm$ constricted at the middle. $2.5-3.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long ............... A. strigosum ssp. strigosum
6. Sepals persistent. Bifurcate fruit hairs $\pm$ sericeous, $0.8-1.6 \mathrm{~mm}$ long. Petals gradually attenuate towards the base, $3.0-4.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ long . . . . . . . . . A. strigosum ssp. cedrorum


Fig. 2. Petals and short stamens. - A C: Alyssum foliosum. - D: A. smyrnacum. E: A. fulvescens. - F: A. strigosum ssp. cedrorum, - G: A. strigosum ssp. strigosum. H: A. hirsutum (also long stamen). - I; A. minus. - J-L: A. siculum. - M: A. alyssoides. A: Greece, Attica, Heldreich, 5.4. 1892. - B: Turkey, Menderes Dagh, Sintenis 223. C: Greece, Samos, D 1662K. - D: Gr., Naxos, R 374. - E: Gr., Kalimnos. R 19096. F: Turkey, Mersin, D 26489. - G; Iran, Mazanderan, Wendelbo 253. - H: Turkey, Antalya, D 35262. - I: Portugal, Estremadura, DA Cunha 1888. - J: Greece, Chelmos, Halacsy, 15.4. 1893. - K: Gr.. Erimanthos, cult. P $160-1 .-$ L: Italy, Sicily, Ross 802.

- M: Poland, Bolkenhain, Sintenis, 28.5. 1876.


## Alyssum minus (L.) Rothm.

Alyssum minus is distributed in southern and eastern Europe, northern Africa and southwestern Asia, often as a weed.

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, agreeing with earlier reports on the chromosome number of $A$. campestre (JA. retzky 1932, Manton 1932, Gardé \&

Malheiros-Gardé 1953, Böcher \& LarSEN 1958). The karyotype is very similar to that of A. foliosum (Fig. 3 E).

## CYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED MATERIAL:

Greece. Nom. Cyclades. Paros, 1 km N of the peak of Prof. Elias, $550 \mathrm{~m} 5 . \mathrm{m}$. (R \& S 12726).
— -- E of the peak of Prof. Elias, 700 m s.m. (R \& S 12378).

- Nom. Samos. Ikaria, 1 km N of Ag. Nikolaos, $50-150 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& S 6190).
-     - Ag. Nikolaos S of Evethelo, 80120 m s.m. (R \& S 6790).
- Samos, the E-promontory of Mt. Kerki, $800-1200 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& S 19370).
-     - S-precipices of Mt. Kerki, N of Ag. Kiriaki (R \& S 19519).
-     - $-3-4 \mathrm{~km} \mathrm{~W}$ of Marathokampos. $350-450 \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{~s} . \mathrm{m}$. (R \& S 19131).
- Nom. Lasithion (Crete). Sitia, Mt. Spathi, N-NW-slope, $850-1150 \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{~s} . \mathrm{m}$. (R \& S 18304).
-     -         - the slope above Dri, $450-750 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& S 17151).
-     -         - the valley of Leopetra. 0-150 m s.m. (R \& S 19446).
- ... - 2 km S of the town of Ag. Nikolaos, $0-20 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& S 17486).


## Alyssum smyrnaeum Meyer

Alyssum smyrnaeum occurs on the east Aegean islands, in western Turkey (also the European part) and Galatia, and has recently been collected on Crete by Greuter and the island of Naxos (Cyclades) by Runemark. (coll. nos. R 332, R 374 and R 746 mistaken for Alyssum foliosum in Runemark, Snogerup \& Nordenstam 1960).

It is probably closely related to A. fulvescens, but easily distinguished by its shorter racemes, shorter styles, and by the size and shape of petals and appendages of the shorter stamens (Fig. 2 D, E).

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, and the karyotype closely resembles that of A. foliosum. No earlier records are known to the author.

## CYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED material:

Grecee. Nom. Cyclades. Naxos, W-slope of Fanari Oros, 1 km NE of Moni, $700-750$ m s.m. (R \& S 11947).

## Alyssum strigosum Banks \& Sol.

Alyssum strigosum is very similar and probably closely related to A. minus. It is widely distributed in southern and eastern Europe, northern Africa and the Near East eastwards to Afghanistan. Although occurring in the surrounding areas it seems to be totally lacking in the Cyclades. DUDLEY (1964a) has distinguished two subspecies, viz., ssp. strigosum and ssp. cedrorum (Schott \& Kotschy) Dudley.

Ssp. cedrorum is found mainly in southern Anatolia, extending into northeastern Anatolia and Cyprus (Fig. 4). According to Dudley, "this taxon was originally thought to be a species distinct from A. strigosum, but the presence of a large number of intermediate specimens from Anatolia and Cyprus (mostly occurring within the range of ssp. cedrorum) indicates that subspecific rank is more appropriate" (Dudley 1964a). Four of the nine collections which Dudley in Flora of Turkey 1 (1965) classified as intermediates have been available to me, and I found all incorrectly determined.

The collections are:
Turkey. Prov. Tunceli. Tunceli to Pülïmïr, $1000 \mathrm{~m} . \mathrm{s} . \mathrm{m}$. (D 29215).

- Prov. Gaziantep. S of Kizilhisardere, 750 m s.m. (D 28008).
- Prov. Eskisehir. Sivrihisar to Eskisehir. 900 m s.m. (D 36046).
- Prov. Burdur. Yesilova to Denizli, 1100 m s.m. (D 35308).

The two first mentioned collections are quite typical A. strigosum ssp. cedrorum, and the other two are A. hirsutum Bies.

However, in other material available to me (about 100 collections) a few collections, especially material from Cyprus, appeared to be intermediate between the two taxa. and this fact points to the sub-


Fig. 3. Somatic metaphases in sections of root tips. - A: Alyssoides cretica, $2 \mathrm{n}=16$. B: Alyssum foliosum, $2 \mathrm{n}=16$. - $\mathrm{C}:$ Alyssum fulvescens, $2 \mathrm{n}-16$. - $\mathrm{D}:$ Alyssum strigosum ssp. strigosum, $2 \mathrm{n}=16$. $-\mathrm{E}:$ Alyssum minus, $2 \mathrm{n}=16$. - $\mathrm{F}-\mathrm{G}:$ Alyssum siculum $2 \mathrm{n}=48$. - H: Alyssum alyssoides, $2 \mathrm{n}=32$. - I : Alyssum umbellatum, $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, - J: Aurinia saxatilis ssp , orientalis, $2 \mathrm{n}=16$. -K : lberis spruncri, $2 \mathrm{n}=14 .-\mathrm{L}$ : Cardamine graeca, $2 \mathrm{n}=18$.
specific rank as being the most appropriate (differences between the two subspecies summarized in Table. 1).

There seems to be a very high rate of self-fertilization in this species (full seedsetting on isolated specimens). This may be one of the factors that make intermediate specimens quite rare although the distribution area of ssp. cedrorum is completely covered by that of ssp. strigosum.

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, and the karyotype is very similar to that of A. foliosum and A. minus (Fig. 3 D).

## GYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED Material:

Ssp. strigosum:
Greece. Nom. Dodecanesos. Karpathos, Saria, the valley N of Ormos Armiro ( R \& S 7656).


Fig. 4. Distribution of Alyssum strigosum ssp. cedrorum (dots) and intermediates between A. strigosum ssp. strigosum and ssp. cedrorum (triangles), according to investigated herbarium material.

## Ssp. cedrorum:

Turkey. Prov, Burdur. Burdur-Anatalya, 5 miles from Bucak, $720 \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{s.m}$. (D 35694a).

## Alyssum umbellatum Desv.

Alyssum umbellatum is a widespread species in the East Mediterrancan area, where it often occurs as a weed.

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, and the karyotype is very similar to that of the other investigated species of sect. Alyssum (Fig. 3 1). No previous records are known to the author.

## CYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED MATERIAL:

Greece. Nom. Cyclades, Naxos, the slope of Fanari Oros, NE of Moni, 500 m s.m. (R \& S 11956).

- Ios, between Chora and Profitis Elias, $150-300 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R 2370).
- Nom. Samos. Ikaria, the pass W of Mt. Melissa, $700-900 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& N 16326).


## Alyssum alyssoides (L.) L.

Alyssum alyssoides is distributed throughout most of Europe, northern Africa, Russia and eastwards to India, mostly as an annual weed, and is also

[^5]naturalized in the United States, Canada and Argentine. It seems to be absent from most of Greece, except the northernmost part of the mainland. Reports from southern Greece probably originate in confusion with $A$. siculum or $A$. minus.

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=32$, agreeing with earlier reports (Jaretzky 1928, Manton 1932, Tischler 1934, Böcher \& Labsen 1958, Bonnet 1963, Mulligan 1964). The chromosomes are all of about equal size, more or less elliptical and about $0.8 \mu$ long and about $0.4 \mu$ broad (Fig. 3 H ).

The chromosome number $2 \mathrm{n}=16$, given by Contandriopoulos (1970) for A. alyssoides var. depressum from lowland localities on Attica and Crete, is probably due to confusion with one of the species of sect. Alyssum. No Greek collections of A. alyssoides var. depressum are known to me, and moreover the pollen size of the true var. depressum from Hungary and Romania is the same as for var. alyssoides, making it plausible that the former, like the latter, is tetraploid $(2 \mathrm{n}=32)$.

## CYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED MATERIAL:

Greece. Nom. Pieria. Olympos, monastery of Petras, $350-500 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R 21374).

## Alyssum siculum Jordan

Erect or decumbent annual, 2-5 ( -9 ) cm . Indumentum of adpressed stellate hairs. Leaves obovate to linear-lanceolate. Inflorescence rarely branched. Fruiting raceme short, sometimes nearly subumbellate, $0.5-2(-3) \mathrm{cm}$. Pedicels $1.5-3.5$ mm , erectopatent. Sepals $2-2.5 \mathrm{~mm}$, falling before ripening of the fruit. Petals pale yellow, $\pm$ gradually attenuate towards the base, entire to emarginate, 2-3 mm . Filaments of the shorter stamens in most cases with connate appendages. Nectaries erect, peg-like, c. 0.5 mm . Style $0.5-1 \mathrm{~mm}$, glabrous or with few stellate hairs. Siliculae 3-4×3-4 mm, orbicular, with indumentum of adpressed stellate

Table 1. Differences between the two subspecies of Alyssum strigosum.

|  | ssp. strigosum | ssp. cedrorum |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |


| Size of siliculae (length) (breadth) | $\begin{aligned} & 3.5-5.0 \times 4.0-6.0 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=4.36 \quad \mathrm{~s}= \pm 0.45 \mathrm{n}=35 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=4.53 \mathrm{~s} \pm 0.45 \mathrm{n}=35 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 4.0-5.5 \times 4.0-5.5 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=4.66 \quad \mathrm{~s}= \pm 0.48 \quad \mathrm{n}=17 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=4.71 \quad \mathrm{~s}= \pm 0.47 \mathrm{n}=17 \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sepals | Early deciduous | Persistent |
| Petals | Emarginate, more or less constricted at the middle (Fig. 2 G). | Emarginate to biloded, gradually attenuate towards the base or somewhat constricted at the middle (Fig. 2 F). |
| (length) | $\begin{aligned} & 2.4-3.3 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=2.84 \mathrm{~s}= \pm 0.26 \mathrm{n}=20 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 3.2-4.4 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=3.62 \mathrm{~s}= \pm 0.36 \mathrm{n}=11 \end{aligned}$ |
| Style (length) | $\begin{aligned} & 0.5-1.2 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=0.74 \mathrm{~s}= \pm 0.16 \mathrm{n}=37 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.8-1.4 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=1.03 \mathrm{~s}- \pm 0.15 \mathrm{n}=17 \end{aligned}$ |
| Tuberculate fruithairs (length) | $\begin{aligned} & 0.4-0.8 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=0.55 \mathrm{~s}= \pm 0.13 \mathrm{n}=37 \\ & \text { Hairs stiff. } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.8-1.6 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=1.18 \mathrm{~s}= \pm 0.22 \mathrm{n}=15 \end{aligned}$ <br> Hairs more or less sericeous. |

hairs, valves equally inflated with flattened margins. Seeds $1.4-1.9 \mathrm{~mm}$, narrowly winged. - Pollen-size $26-30 \mu$. - Chromosome number $2 \mathrm{n}=48$. - Flowering period: May-June.

NEOTYPE: Italy. Sicily. In arenosis montosis. Madonie. IV - VI 1913. H. Ross Herbarium Siculum No. 802, in Herb. Bot. Lund (LD).

## LOCALITY LIST:

Italy. Sicily. Palermo alla Pizzuta, V 1879, Gandoger 1302 (LY). - It. Sicily. Montium Madoniarum praeserlim in Pizzo Antenna. $1700-1930 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. 21.7. 1874. Gabriel Strobl. (BM). - It. Sicily. In arenosis montosis. Madonie. IV-VI 1913, H. Ross Herbarium Siculum 802 (LD). - Greece. Crete. Mt. Psiloriti. Hochebene Nidha, 28.V. 1904, Dörfler 774a (W). - Gr. Akhaia. Aroania, 3.5 km SSW of Zarouchla, $1700-1800 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. 2.8 . 1968, P 1756 (LD). - Gr. Akh. Panachaikon, 3 km E of Pournarokastron, $1300-1500 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. 5.6. 1969, P 2305 (LD) . - Gr. Akh. Erimanthos, 1.5 km E of Kalentsion, 1400 m s.m. 4.6. 1969, P 2176 (LD). - Gr. Akh. Erimanthos, 3 km E of Kalentsion, $1700-1875 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m., cult.. P 160 (LD). - Gr. Argolis. Oligyrtos, 2.5 km E of Kandihla. $1500-1625 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. 9.7. 1968, P 931 (LD). - Gr. Arkadia. Chelmos, 1500 m s.m. 20.6. 1893, Halicsy (LD. W). - Gr. Ark. Mainalon, 4 km NWV of 28

Kardaras, 1600-1650 г. $\mathrm{s} . \mathrm{m} .31 .5$, 1969, P 2078 (LD). - Gr. Ark. Mainalon, 3 km NW of Kardaras, $1600-1700 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. 3.7. 1968 P 598 (LD). - Gr. Ark. Mainalon, 5 km NW of Kardaras, $1630-1680$ m s.m. 2.9. 1970, P 4110 (LD). - Gr. Ark. Parnon, Megala Tourla, 3.5 km W of Kastanitsa. $1500-1550$ m s.m. 6.9. 1970, P 4192 (LD). - Gr. Elis. Astra, 2 km NW of Lambia, $1450-1550 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. 24.7. 1938, P 1220 (LD). - Gr. Korinthia. Kyllene, 3 km NW of Bousion, $1600-1700 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. 14.7. 1968, P 1096 (LD). - Gr. Kor. Livadaki, 2.5 km ESE of Zarouchla, 1800 m s.m., cult., P 162 (LD).- Gr. Laconia. Parnon, 4 km WNW of Kosmas, $1550-1600 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. 26.6. 1968, P 261 (LD). - Gr. Lac. Parnon, 6.5 km NE of Vamvakou, $1770-1934 \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{s.m}$. 6.7. 1968, P 852 (LD). - Gr. Beotia. Par. nassos. 10 km N of Arachova, 1500 m s.m. 25.7. 1971, P (LD). - Gr. Evritania. Kauki. 17 km NW of Karpenision, 1600 m s.m. 28.5. 1971, P (L.D). - Gr. Phocis. 10 km N of Amfissa, 1000 m s.m. 23.5. 1971, P (LD). Gr. Ph. Lidorikiou, 10 km SE of Lidorikion. $1500-1600 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. 25.5. 1971, P (LD).

Alyssum siculum was described by Alexis Jordan (1864) using spontancous material from Sicily in addition to progeny cultivated in France. This taxon has been neglected by most botanists or treated as a synonym for Alyssum alyssoides (L.) L.

Bot. Notiser, vol, 121, 19:1


Fig. 5. Habit of Alyssum siculum Jond. - A: Greece, Mainalon, P 2078. - B: Gr., Parnon, P 852.

During my investigations of the mountain flora of Peloponnisos a small species of Alyssum, superficially similar to a dwarf A. alyssoides was found on most of the mountains (Fig. 5). The plant had already been collected by Halicsy on the mountain Chelmos on Peloponnisos in 1893. Due to its dwarf habit and the contracted fruiting raceme he described it as A. calycinum L. var. pumilum Halicsy (1894). However, in my opinion all characters are well in accordance with the original description of A. siculum by JorDAN (original material or other specimens from Jordan's herbaria inquired for unsuccessfully in LY, P, K, BM). This fact, together with the occurence of other collections from Sicily (cf. locality list) which in all characters (viz., short racemes, small petals, appendages on the filaments
of the shorter stamens, pollen size ete.) is very similar to the Greek material, strongly indicates that A. calycinum var, pumilum is conspecific with Jordan's taxon.

Concerning A. alyssoides, this taxon seems to be totally lacking on Sicily. Furthermore, the chromosome number of A. siculum is $2 \mathrm{n}=48$, whilst A. alyssoides has $2 \mathrm{n}=32$. The former species nearly always has a more or less well developed appendage on the filaments of the shorter stamens, whilst the latter always has slender, unappendaged filaments. This character is of great interest as it is a keycharacter for the two sections Psilonema (C. A. Mever) Ноok. (filaments slender, wingless, edentate and unappendaged) and Alyssum (filaments stouter, winged and/or dentate, and'or appendaged). A. siculum is obviously intermediate between the two

Table 2. Comparison between Alyssum alyssoides, A. siculum and A. minus in some characters.

|  | A. alyssoides | A. siculum | A. minus |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sepals | persistent | deciduous after some time | early deciduous |
| Petals | somewhat constricted below limb (Fig. 2 M ). $3-5 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $\pm$ gradually attenuate towards the base (Fig. $2 \mathrm{~J}-\mathrm{L}), 2-3 \mathrm{~mm}$ | gradually attenuate towards the base (Fig. <br> 2 1), 2-3.5 mm |
| Filaments of short stamens | without appendages (Fig. 2 M ) | with or without appendages (Fig. $2 \mathrm{~J}-\mathrm{L}$ ) | with appendages (Fig. 2 I) |
| Nectaries | peg-like $0.6-1.0 \mathrm{~mm}$ | peg-like $0.3-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$ | triangular 0.1 mm |
| Style | $0.3-0.6 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $0.5-1.0 \mathrm{~mm}$ | $0.7-1.4 \mathrm{~mm}$ |
| Pollen-size | 21.7-24.1 $\mu$ | 26.2- 0.50 | 26.4-30.6 $\mu$ |
| 2n | 32 | 48 | 16 |

sections in this respect. In most other characters except habit it is intermediate between the tetraploid A. alyssoides of sect. Psilonema and the diploid A. minus of sect. Alyssum, both annuals (Table 2). Diagrams, showing the variation in total plant height, raceme length, pedicel length, length of nectaries, length of style, size of petals and pollen-grains of A. siculum and A. alyssoides, respectively, are given in Fig. 6. It seems quite probable that the hexaploid A. siculum is an allopolyploid between two species from the different sections.

In his revision of the Alyssum of sect. Meniocus and sect. Psilonema Dudley (1965) considers Alyssum calycinum L. var. pumilum Hal. to be conspecific with Alyssum alyssoides (L.) L. var. depressum (Schur) Dudley, an assumption with which I cannot agree. Alyssum alyssoides var. depressum is in my opinion only a phenotypically stable dwarf-form of $A$. alyssoides occurring on some mountains in Hungary and Romania. This is supported by similarities in floral characters and pollen size.

CYTOLOGY: While A. alyssoides has 32 small, more or less elliptical chromosomes (Fig. 3 H ), and A. minus (Fig. 3 E) (and other investigated species of sect.

Alyssum) 16 rod-shaped chromosomes of about twice the size, A. siculum has 48 chromosomes of varying size: c. 16 longer, rod-shaped and the rest more or less elliptical (Fig. 3 F, G). Thus, both number and morphology of the chromosomes support the theory of the latter being an allopolyploid between species from the two sections.

DISTRIBUTION AND ECOLOGY: A. siculum is distributed on mountains of Sicily, southern Greece and Crete (Fig. 7). On Peloponnisos it occurs on dry slopes and deserted fields on most of the mountains, mostly at altitudes from 1500 to 1800 m s.m.

VARIATION: A. siculum is probably to a great extent self-pollinating. The populations are rather homogeneous but variation between populations is pronounced, especially in size and shape of the appendages of the shorter stamens. In populations from Mt. Chelmos, no or only an extremely minute appendage can be found, but on all the other mountains of Peloponnisos the filament of the shorter stamens has an appendage varying from a little tooth (mt. Kyllene) to a well developed wing (Mt. Erimanthos) (Fig. 2 J-K).



Fig. 6.


Fig. 7. The known distribution of Alyssum siculum.

## CYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED MATERIAL:

Greece. Nom. Akhaia. Erimanthos, 3 km E of Kalentsion, $1700-1875 \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{~s} . \mathrm{m}$. (cult. P 160).

- _Chelmos, 3.5 km SSW of Zarouchla, $1700-1800 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (P 1756).
- Nom. Korinthia. Livadaki. 2.5 km ESE of Zarouchla, 1800 m s.m. (cult. P 162).
- Kyllene, 3 km NW of Bousion. $1600-$ 1700 m s.m. (P 1096).
- Nom. Argolis. Oligyrtos, Skiadis, 2.5 km E of Kandhila, 1500-1625 m s.m. (P 931).
- Nom. Arcadia. Mainalon. 3 km NW of Kardaras, $1600-1700 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (P 598).
- Parnon, Megala Tourla, 6.5 km NE of Vamvakou, 1700-1934 m s.m. (P 852).


## Aurinia saxatilis (L.) DESV.

Aurinia saxatilis is a strongly polymorphic species. Size, shape and pubescence of the leaves, size and shape of the siliculae, length of styles, pedicels etc. vary considerable. Due to this great variation, the taxon has often been divided into different species and subspecies. In
his treatment of Aurinia, Dudley ( 1964 c ) has distinguished three subspecies, viz., ssp. saxatilis, ssp. orientalis (Ard.) DudLEY and ssp. megalocarpa (Hausskn.) DUDLEEV. I agree with the division into three subspecies but cannot confirm the measurements which DuDley gives as a basis for separating ssp. megalocarpa from ssp. orientalis (not even on material examined by himself), nor the distribution he gives for these two subspecies. For comparision the measurements of several morphological characters according to Dudiey (A) and the present author (B) are given in Table 3 (all measurements in mm ).

It seems quite obvious that Dudley has overestimated the differences in length of pedicels and size of petals of the two subspecies. It is true that the mean values of ssp. megalocarpet are higher than those of ssp. orientalis, but the degree of overlapping is too high to give these characters the value of key-characters.

Fig. 6. Comparision between Alyssum a'yssoides and A. siculum. - A: Total plant height. - B: Fruiting raceme length. - C: Pedicel length. - D: Style length. - E: Length of nectaries. - F: Size of pollen (breadth). One scale unit $-3.88 \mu$. - G: Length (vertical axis) and breadth (horizontal axis) of petals. - A. alyssoides (rings), A. siculum (triangles). Every measurement represents one individual.

Table 3. Comparison between Au. saxatilis ssp. orientalis and ssp. megalocarpa (ef. text, p. 411).

Ssp. orientalis

|  | A | B |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| siliculae | $3.5-6 \times 4-7$ | $3.5-5.5 \times 3.5-6.0$ |
| pedicels | $4-10$ | $5-10$ |
| styles | $1-1.5$ | $0.6-1.4$ |
| petals | $3-4(-4.5) \times 1.5-2$ | $3.5-5.0 \times 1.5-3.0$ |
| wing of seeds | $0.4-0.5$ | $0.3-0.7$ |

Ssp. megalocarpa

|  | $A$ | $B$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| siliculae | $6-12 \times 8-15$ | $6.0-9.0 \times 6.5-10.0$ |
| pedicels | $(7) 10-20$ | $7-13$ |
| styles | $(1.5) 2-2.5$ | $1.1-2.5$ |
| petals | $(4.5) 6-7 \times(2) 2.5-3.5$ | $4.0-6.0 \times 2.5-3.2$ |
| wing of seeds | $(0.5) 0.7-1$ | $0.7-1.1$ |

## KEY TO THE SUBSPECIES:

1. Siliculae elliptical or obovate, $3.5-5(-6) \times 2.5-4(-5) \mathrm{mm}$, always longer than broad, obtuse or acute. Style $0.3-0.8 \mathrm{~mm}$. Seed-wing $0.3-0.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. Margins of rosette leaves entire, sinuate or sparsely dentate (never pinnatifid) ............. ssp. saxatilis
2. Siliculae orbicular or oblate, $3.5-9 \times 3.5-10 \mathrm{~mm}$. usually wider than long, emarginate or truncate. Style $0.6-2.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. Seed-wing $0.3-1.1 \mathrm{~mm}$. Margins of rosette leaves sometimes entire but mostly dentate or pinnatifid
3. Siliculae $3.5-5.5 \times 3.5-6.0 \mathrm{~mm}$. Style $0.6-1.4 \mathrm{~mm}$. Seed-wing $0.3-0.7 \mathrm{~mm}$
$\qquad$
4. Siliculae $6-9 \times 6.5-10 \mathrm{~mm}$. Style $1.1-2.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. Seed-wing $0.7-1.1 \mathrm{~mm}$.
ssp. megalocarpa

## SSP. SAXATILIS

Distribution and habitat: Widespread on calcareous substrates in central and south-eastern Europe, extending eastwards to Ukraine (Fig. 8).

## SSP. ORIENTALIS

Distribution and habitat: Chasmophyte on calcareous substrates in the Balkans and western part of Anatolia, extending northwards into Bulgaria and Romania (Fig. 8). Specimens intermediate in morphology between ssp. saxatilis and ssp. orientalis are found in the area where the two subspecies overlap (in the northern Balkans). The occurrence of intermediates indicate that subspecific rank will be most appropriate.

Au, saxatilis ssp. orientalis has been reported to occur in Dalmatia and Istria
(cf., e.g. Hayek 1924), but this is questionable. My opinion is that there has ben a confusion between Aurinia leucadaea (Guss.) Koch and Au. saxatilis. At least the specimens available to me ( 8 collections) from Dalmatia and Istria have appeared to belong to Au. leucadaea, although determined as Au. saxatilis by the collectors. An. leucadaea is strongly polymorphic, and some specimens can be rather similar to Au. soxatilis, but the occurrence of $4-6$ ovules in each loculus and the inflated siliculae of the former makes identification rather easy (Au. saxatilis has only 2 ovules in each loculus and almost flat siliculae).

## SSP. MEGALOCARPA

Distribution and habitat: Chasmophyte on calcareous substrates in the Aegean,
the west coast of Anatolia and southern Italy (Fig. 9).

The distribution in the Aegean indicates that ssp. megalocarpa can be reffered to a relic group of chasmophytic plants which have found refuges on maritime cliffs. Great similarities in distribution in this area are shown by the Dianthus arboreus complex, Senecio bicolor (Willd.) ToD. (belonging to the Senecio cineraria complex) and Helichrysum orientale (L.) DC.

Taking the distribution in southern Italy also into consideration, it is obvious that ssp. megalocarpa is a contribution to a group of Aegean chasmophytes with west or central Mediterranean affinitics. Other species belonging to this group are Anthyllis aegea Turr. versus Anthyllis barba-jovis Boiss., Silene fruticosa L., Cephalaria squamiflora (Sieber) GreuTER, the complexes of Brassica cretica Lam. s.I. and Scabiosa cretica L. s.l. (cf. Davis 1953).

The present distribution of ssp. megalocarpa gives reason to surmise a wider distribution in earlier times, also comprising the coastal regions of western Turkey, the Peloponnisos and the Ionian islands. Due to large-scale introgression with ssp. orientalis, ssp. megalocarpa has disappeared from these regions, surviving only on the isolated Aegean islands and in southern Italy. This is supported by the great variability shown in the populations from, for instance, the Ionian islands, consisting of both large- and small-fruited specimens and all kinds of intermediates, whereas the more isolated populations of ssp. megalocarpa and the inland populations of ssp. orientalis both show a low degree of variability (Fig. 10).

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ (Fig. 3 J), and the chromosomes are rodshaped with a length of $1.6-1.9 \mu$ and a breadth of $0.3-0.4 \mu$ (similar to the investigated material of Alyssum sect. Alyssum). The material examined for chromosome number belongs to all three subspecies, which in this respect showed no di-
ferrences. The same chromosome number has been reported by Jabetzky (1932), Manton (1932), Laibach (1907), Bakšay in Löve \& Löve (1961), Bonnet (1963) and Contandriopoulos (1970).

## CYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED MATERIAL:

Ssp. saxatilis:
Czechoslovakia. Moravia meridionalis colles Pavlovske kopce, $400-500 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (cult. P 86).

Ssp. orientalis:
Jugoslavia. Macedonija. Negotin, Demir Kapu, ( R \& S 21484).
Greece. Nom. Larisa. 5 km SW of Farsala, (R \& S 21905).

- Nom. Phocis. 5 km N of Itea, 20 m s.m. (R \& S 21216).
- Nom. Korinthia. Akrokorinth, 300-400 m s.m. (R \& S 20359).

Turkey. Prov. Denizli. Denizli-Acipayama, 25 km from D., $860 \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{s.m}$. (D) 35340 ).

Ssp. megalocarpa:
Greece. Nom. Piracus. Kithira, W of Diakos. tis, 50 m s.m. (R \& S 20827).

- Kithira, the cliffs of the old fort at Chora Kithira ( R \& S 20809).
- Kithira, E-exposed cliffs S of Diakos. tis (R \& S 20845).
- Nom. Cyclades. Amorgos, cliffs S of the village of Langada ( S 20242).
-     - Amorgos, Krikelas, S-precipice, 500 m s.m. (R \& S 12259).
-     - Anafi, Kalamos, $0-400 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& N 14856).
- Nom. Chios. Chios, behind Vrontados (GH 474).
- Nom. Samos. Samos, mt. Kerki, 400- 800 m s.m. (R \& S 19602).
- Nom. Dodecanesos. Cos, small gorge about 3 miles beyond Pili on Kardamena road, $250-300 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (G-H 404).

Intermediates Between ssp, orientalis and ssp. megalocarpa:
Greece. Nom. Laconia. E-exposed cliffs facing the sea SW of Gerolimni, $0-50 \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{~s} . \mathrm{m}$. (R \& S 20690).

- Narrow valley 3 km NNW of the village of Kampos ( N of Neapolis) ( R \& S 20777).


Fig. 8. The distribution of Aurinia saxatilis ssp. saxatilis (triangles), ssp. orientalis (dots) and intermediates (squares).


Fig. 9. The distribution of Aurinia saxatilis ssp. megalocarpa (dots) and intermediates between ssp. megalocarpa and ssp. orientalis (triangles).

- Nom. Cephalonis. Kephallinia, W of Poros (S 23780).
- Kephallinia, $0.5-2 \mathrm{~km} \mathrm{~S}$ of Assos, $10-200 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (S 23654).

Cardamine graeca L.
Cardamine graeca is distributed in southern Europe from Corsica and eastwards, north-western Africa, Caucasia, Crimea, Turkey, Lebanon and northern Iran.

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=18$, indicating the basic number $x=9$, not previously reported within the genus (Fig. 3 L). Manton (1932) reported the chromosome number $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ for Cardamine graeca. The chromosomes are all of about equal size, elliptical, about $0.8 \mu$ long and $0.4 \mu$ broad.

## CYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED MATERLAL:

Greece. Nom. Samos. Samos, the SW-side of mt . Kerki, $400-800 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& S 19663).

- Samos, S of Vurliotes. N-exposed cliffs of Ag. Elias, $400-900 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& S 19914).
- Nom. Lasithion (Crete). Sitia, the NW-side of mt . Spathi, $700-800 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& S 18390).
- Sitia, the NW-side of mt. Spathi, $850-$ 1150 m s.m. (R \& S 18376).


## Cardamine hirsuta L.

Cardamine hirsuta is widespread in Europe and also occurs as a weed in most parts of the world.

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=16$ agreeing with earlier report; (Mantos 1932, Tischler 1934, Banach in SkalińSKA 1950, Banach-POGAN 1955, LÖVE \& LOVE 1956, LOVKVIST 1956, 1957. Pritchard 1957, Larsen 1960, Mulligan 1965, Gadella \& Kliphuis 1966).

The karyotype is, except for the different basic number, similar to that of $C$. graeca.

## CYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED MATERIAL:

Greece. Nom. Cyclades. Naxos, 2 km E of Mytria (R 520).

- Naxos, 3 km S of Komiaki, 650 m s.m. (R 687).
- Naxos, 2 km SSW of Filoti, 300-350 m s.m. (R 910).
- Nom. Samos. Samos, the valley of Leka, 200-400 m s.m. (R \& S 18917).
-     - Samos, the E-part of Mt. Kerki, 8001200 m s.m. (R \& S 19354).


## Iberis spruneri Jord.

In the Balkan peninsula as well as in Anatolia a number of annual or biennial montane and alpine species of Iberis occur. The taxonomy of this group is badly in need of revision (cf. Hedge 1965 in Flora of Turkey 1, and Meikle 1954). One of the components is Iberis spruneri distributed in southern Greece and western Anatolia. Material from Samos, in accordance with Hedge (l.c.) determined as I. spruneri, has been cytologically investigated.

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=14$ (Fig. 3 K ), and the chromosomes are rodshaped, $2.0-2.5 \mu$ long and about $0.4 \mu$ broad, with one pair of satellites. In Flora Europaea 1 (1964) this taxon has, by Pinto da Silva and Amaral Franco, been included in 1 . prutii Tineo, which was recorded to have $2 \mathrm{n}=22$ by Manton (1932).

## CYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED MATERIAL.

Greece. Nom. Samos. Samos, S-slopes of Mt. Kerki, 400-800 m s.m. (R \& S 19585).

- Samos, 1 - 3 km W of Marathokampos, $250-350 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& S 19203).


## Ricotia cretica Boiss. \& Heldr.

The genus Ricotia L. has been monographed by Burtt (1951). It consists of 9 annual and perennial species occurring from Crete to Iraq and Transcaucasia. Ricotia cretica is an annual herb growing in screes in western and the extreme east of Crete.

The chromosome number is $2 \mathrm{n}=28$, and the chromosome are all of about equal size, elliptical, $0.8 \mu$ long and $0.4 \mu$ broad.

The same number was reported for $R$. lunaria DC. by Manton (1932), indicating the basic number $x=7$ in agreement with basic number of the other genera of subtribus Lunariinae.

## CYTOLOGICALLY INVESTIGATED MATERIAL:

Greece. Nom. Lasithion (Crete). Sitia, between Achladia and Paraspori, 200 m s.m. (R \& S 18533).

-     - Sitia, SW of Leopetra, $0-300 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& S 18472).
- Sitia, Achladia, $200-325 \mathrm{~m}$ s.m. (R \& S 17855 ).

Fig. 10. Fruits of Aurinia saxatilis. - A-B; ssp. saxatilis. - C-D ; intermediates between ssp. saxatilis and ssp. orientalis. - E-L: ssp. orientalis. - M-Q: intermediates between ssp, orientalis and ssp. megalocarpa. - R - O: ssp. megalocarpa.
A: Czechoslovakia, Bratislava, Labransky, 23.5. 1884. - B: Hungary, Budaörs, Steinitz, 29.5. 1881. - C-D: Jugoslavia, Pirot, Rechinger 16036. - E: Romania, Varciorova, Degen 3268. - F: Bulgaria, Mezdra, Hruby 2192. - G: Jugoslavia, Negotino, R 21485. - H: Ju., Gjefgjeli, Rechinger 1525. - I: Grecee, Alexandroupolis, Rechinger 6048. J: Gr., Lithochorion, Sintenis 1156. - K: Gr., Acropolis, Sintenis 15. - L: Turkey, Izmir, Balansa, 1854. - M: Greece, Kephallinia, S 23610. - N: Gr., Kephallinia, S 23780. - O: Gr., Kerkyra, S 27841. - P: Gr., Kerkyra, S 23551. - Q: Gr., Kerkyra, S 23856. R: Turkey, Ephesos, Bornmiller 9083, - S: Grece, Chios, G-H 474. - T: Gr.. Samos, R \& S 19724. - U: Gr., Kos, Rechinger 7981. - V: Gr., Amorgos, R \& S 20242. - X: Gr., Anafi, R \& N 14856. - Y: Gr., Crete, Kidonia, Greuter S 3301. - Z: Gr., Kithira, S 20809. - A: Italy, Campania, Philippis, 10.6. 1948. - Ã: It., Calabria, 4.5, 1872. O. It., Basilicata, Fiort, 7.6. 1913.

Bot. Notiser, vol. 124. 1971













Fig. 10.

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## Göte Turesson In Memoriam

GÖTE WILHELM TURESSON was born in Malmō in 1892 and went to school at first in Malmö and later on in the neighbouring town of Lund. As a schoolboy he was quite intelligent but rather obstinate and oppositional which led to conflicts with his teachers. Finally, when he had reached the age of 20 , he stated with dismay that the Swedish school system was no good. Consequently, he emigrated to the United States, where he was received by his aunt who lived in Spokane, Washington, not far from Seattle.

After a year of hard struggle with various incidental employments in order to save money for his future activity Turesson matriculated at the State University of Washington in Seattle. Especially when considering his previous school problems in Sweden, his career at the American university was surprisingly rapid and successful. In 1914 he became a bachelor of science and one year later he acquired the master of science degree. He also got appointments as assistant, at first at the Department of Systematical Botany of the University, and later on at the Department of Physiological Botany.

In order to understand how this rapid development could be possible, it is necessary to realize that the childhood of young GÖTE was not only characterized by his oppositional tendencies but also by early positive influences of decisive importance. His father, Jöns Turesson, was a school-master with strong biolog. ical interests. Even before the age of ten, Göte made excursions with his father, collecting plants as well as butterflies, and quite early it was considered self-evident that Göte should become a botanist.

In 1915 he returned from America to Sweden, and in 1916 he matriculated at the University of Lund where he became
a licentiate of botany in 1921. In the following year he defended his doctor's thesis and became a docent of botany. Before that he had temperary employments as assistant at the University institutes of Systematical as well as Physiological Botany and also at the Institute of Genetics.

While still a schoolboy Göte Turesson published three small botanical articles, but his real scientific production was commenced in the United States with one ecological and one mycological paper. Another paper was a rather comprehensive plant-biological work, mainly concerning "skunk cabbage" (Lysichiton camtschatcense) and its role in the plant communities of bogs.

After his return to Sweden Turesson at first continued his mycological work and wrote a comprehensive paper on the fungus flora in the intestinal tract of animals and humans. He also demonstrated that certain diseases in honey bees are caused by toxic substances produced by mould fungi. Turesson wrote a series of articles on bee diseases and became a well-known and often consulted bee-doctor.

By and by, however, this field of work had to give place to more central research projects with flowering plants. As early as in 1917 the genecological main line of his research work may be discerned in a paper on plagiotropism in sea shore plants. Turesson discovered that prostrate plant-forms comprised hereditary prost-rate-forms as well as purely environmental modifications and that these two categories may be represented even within the same Linnean species.

1922 is an important year in Turesson's scientific production. In this year his doctoral thesis, "The genotypical response of the plant species to the habitat",
was published and also two interesting forerunners. The first one deals with the development of the new science of plant sociology. In contrast to leading plant sociologists Turesson realized that plant species are by no means uniform but are composed of races with different ecology. In the second forerunner-article Turesson reported that the plant species are composed of different ecological units with different appearance and physiological properties. These so-called ecotypes are genotypically adapted to different habitats or climatic areas.

In the doctoral thesis all the empirical data, obtained from a large number of plant species, were accounted for. Living plants of these species had been collected from different habitats and were then cultivated and analysed in a garden belonging to the Institute of Genetics of the University of Lund.

Turesson realized that he had opened up a new and essential field of research, and in 1923 he published a declaration of program under the title "The scope and import of genecology". In this declaration he stressed that, so far, ecological research had been carried out without realization of the fact that there is a hereditary differentiation within species. Hence, the work initiated concerning the subdivision of species into genotypically different edaphic and climatic types represented a new phase in ecological research.

In numerous papers, approximately up to the middle of the nincteen thirties, Turesson presented the results of his large research program. This work was carried through with a remarkable strength and energy with regard to the collection of the large material as well as its detailed analysis in the experimental garden. Special attention was also devoted to the occurrence of characteristic physiological differences between the ecotypes - a work in part carried out at research institutes in Munich and Vienna.

The collection trips were at first limited to the province of Scania, South Sweden,
but were by and by extended to all Sweden, and then to other countries and continents, including Siberia, United States and Canada.

In 1934 Turesson - as the sole European - was invited to attend the annual meeting of the Carnegie Institution of Washington which was this year held in Palo Alto, California. The specific research department of the Carnegie Institution located at Palo Alto was devoted to genecology, and the leader of this research group was the Danish-born biologist Jens Clausen. His research program was very much in line with Turesson's pioneer work and also included cytotaxonomy and experimental taxonomy.

Among the numerous publications following Turessos's journeys and expeditions a paper from 1925, "The plant species in relation to habitat and climate", is of special importance because it stresses the occurrence of parallel ecotypes in different species (e.g. oecotypus campestris, arenarius, salinus, subalpinus, alpinus etc.). Another paper, from 1930, "The selective effect of climate upon the plant species", contains other essential results concerning characteristic features in the genecological differentiation between widely separated flora regions (atlantic versus continental, northern versus southern regions etc.).

Besides the central concept ecotype, Turesson also introduced several other terms which chiefly concern the delimitation of different kinds of species from each other. In this connection he criticized the tendency of contemporary plant taxonomists to describe all plant forms that can be distinguished morphologically and are truebreeding as separate species. Especially among apomicts these criteria may lead to absurdities. Turessos, instead, proposed and defined the concept agamospecies which corresponds to natural species among plants with sexual reproduction.

For Göte Turesson the time from 1922 to 1927 , when he was a docent of botany


Fig. 1. Göte Turessos together with a student on an excursion to W. Jutland in September, 1970. Photo: Mats Gustafsson.
at the Lund University, was a very intensive and productive period that also involved personal happiness. In 1922 he married Benedicte Lehmann, and in 1924 their son Per Jöran was born. In 1927 Turesson left Lund and took up a position as chief plant breeder at the Weibullsholm Plant Breeding Institute in Landskrona. His breeding work with oats, rye and potatoes lasted four years but was abruptly terminated in 1931, when Turesson and three of his colleagues decided to leave their positions on account of a disagreement with the administrative leaders
of Weibullsholm. Turesson then returned to the University of Lund where he got a position as "research docent". His new period of basic research work in genecology was, however, soon disturbed by a long and complicated period of competition for the chair of systematic botany in Lund. He was not appointed to this position but in 1935 he became professor of systematical botany and genetics at the Agricultural College of Sweden in Uppsala.

During the first years in Uppsala Turesson was much burdened by admini-
strative duties - especially the construction and equipment of an institute and the selection of suitable co-workers. He was also much engaged in the establishment of a new genecological garden.

Concerning Turesson's rescarch work during the Uppsala period the following main features may be mentioned. In the nineteen forties he and his co-workers produced a series of polyploids in various cultivated plants. The best results were represented by tetraploid strains of red clover and alsike clover. Especially the latter one deserves attention since it probably represents the very first case of an experimentally induced autotetraploid of real economical importance.

Investigations on various apomicts had been started by Turesson during his period in Lund. The first papers of this kind concerned Festuca ovina, which comprises sexual races as well as more or less obligately viviparous forms. In this material an autotetraploid series of chromosome numbers was detected, ranging from diploidy to hexaploidy. Turesson was also interested in the occurrence of apomictic microspecies in Alchemilla, and in papers during the period 1943 to 1958 he demonstrated that these microspecies are heterogenous and comprise many different biotypes. Another apomictic complex, investigated by Turesson and his wife, is the collective species Hieracium pilosella. This complex comprises sexual as well as more or less aposporous types with chromosome numbers ranging from 18 to 63.

Göte Turessos's last years in Uppsala were in several respects very burdening, and hence it was with relief that he reached the pension age in 1959. He was then happy to return to Lund and lived there in 12 additional years. Though Turesson had not any more the great scientific force of his early manhood a favourable effect of the return to his native province became obvious. Among other things this new flourishing led to the comprehen-
sive investigation of the Hieracium pilosella group.

Even as late as in the autumn of 1970 Turesson, together with some young botanists from Lund, made a collection trip to Jutland and had once more the pleasure of strolling around in the natural vegetation, making observations and collections. On account of a serious liver disease his strength was, however, clearly reduced and on the 30th of December, 1970, GöTE Turesson died quietly in his home. During his last illness he was quite aware that his time would soon be up but he met the unavoidable without fear and with a scientific mind. He realized that life and death are only different aspects of the same basic biological phenomenon - a phenomenon that man shares with all other organisms in this world.

GƠte Turesson was a very dynamic person whose manifestations of power and drastic mode of expression were sometimes very striking. With advancing age, his personality became progressively milder, and to his close friends it had all the time been clear that he possessed gentle and charming strings on which, however, he did not like to play in his earlier days. During his golden age he used his oppositional mind and his great intellectual force for clearing new scientific paths, and, indeed, this led to results of fundamental importance.

Arne Muntzing

## PUBLICATIONS BY GÖTE TURESSON

(List prepared by Mrs. Madeleine Gustafs. son)

1909 En jätteask i Skâne. - Fauna och Flora, p. 99.
1910 Tjānstgör morkullan under sin flyttning sásom Goodyera repens fröspridare? Genmäle. - Ibid., p. 40-41.
1912 Nägra adventivväxter frăn Skâne. Svensk Bot. Tidskr. 6:95-96.
1914 Slope exposure as a factor in the disstribution of Pseudotsuga taxifolia in arid parts of Washington. - Bull. Torrey Bot. Club 41: 337-345.

1915 Penicillium avellaneum, a new ascusproducing species. - Mycologia 7(5): 284-287 (together with C. Thom).
1916 Lysichiton camtschatcense (L.) Schott, and its behavior in sphagnum bogs. Amer. Journ. Bot. 3: 189-209.
1916 The presence and significance of moulds in the alimentary canal of man and higher animals. - Svensk Bot. Tidskr. 10: 1-27.
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1917 Mykologiska Notiser. I. Ett fall ay Aspergillusmykos hos bin. - Bot. Notiser, p. 269-271.
1917 Om plagiotropi hos strandviixter. Ibid. P. $273-296$.
1918 Binas sjukdomar. - in A. Holm, Handbok i biskötsel, Ed. 2. p. 189-210.
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1921 Om olika slag av utsot hos bin. - Bitidningen (Nov.), p. 233-234.
1922 Bisjukdomar under âr 1921. - Ibid. (Febr.), p. 24-26.
1922 Till fragan om bipestsjukdomarnas bekämpande. - Ibid. (Oct.), p. 251-255.
1922 Växtsamhällslärans utveckling. - Bot. Notiser, p. 49-68.
1922 The species and the variety as ecological units. - Hereditas $3: 100-113$,
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1922 Ober den Zusammenhang zwischen Oxydationsenzymen und Keimfähigkeit in verschiedenen Samenarten. - Bot. Notiser. p. 323-335.
1923 The scope and import of genecology. Hereditas 4: 171-176.
1924 Bisjukdomarnas uppträdande i vàrt land och ătgärder för deras bekämpande. K. Landtbruksakad. Handl. Tidskr., p. 1-15 (together with K. E. Sandberg and S. M. Tullberg).

1925 The plant species in relation to habitat and climate. - Hereditas 6:147-236.
1925 Studies in the genus Atriplex I. - Lunds Univ. Arsskr. N.F. Avd. 2, $21(4) ; 1-15$.
1926 Die Bedeutung der Rassenökologie für die Systematik und Geographie der Pflanzen. - Feddes Repert. Spec. Nov. Regni Veg. Beiheft 41:15-37.
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1926 Studien über Festuca ovina L. I. - He. reditas 8: 161-206.
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1927-1931 A number of brief reports about breeding results at Weibullsholm Plant Breeding Institute, Landskrona. - Weibulls Arsbok (together with H. Ericson).
1928 Castration experiments in Hieracium umbellatum L. and Leontodon autumnalis L. - Svensk Bot. Tidskr. 22: 250260.

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1930 Studien über Festuca ovina L. II. Chromosomenzahl und Viviparie. - Ibid. 13: 177-184.
1930 The selective effect of climate upon the plant species. - Ibid. 14:99-152.
1930 Zur Frage nach der Spontanitat von Betonica officinalis L. in Schweden. Bot. Notiser, p. $495-506$.
1930 Genecological units and their classificatory value. - Svensk Bot. Tidskr. 24: $511-518$.
1931 Studien üher Festuca ovina L. III. Weitere Beiträge zur Kenntnis der Chromosomenzahlen viviparer Formen Hereditas 15: 13-16.
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1931 Field studies and experimental methods in taxonomy. - Hereditas 15:1-12 (together with A. MOntzing and 0 . Tedin).
1931 The geographical distribution of the alpine ecotype of some Eurasiatic plants. - Ibid. 15: 329-346.

1932 Trapa natans L. im Altai-Gebiet. - Bot. Notiser, p. 177-190.

1932 Die Genenzentrumtheori und das Entwicklungszentrum der Pflanzenart Ibid. 2 (6): $1-11$.
1932 Die Pflanzenart als Klimaindikator. K. Fysiogr. Sällsk. Lund Förh. 2(4): 1-35.
1933 Zur Rassenökologie von Adonis vernalis L. - Bot. Notiser, p. 293-304.

1933 Bemötande av nagra punkter i professor N. Heribert Nilssons "Sic et non." 9 pp. Lund.
1933 Professuren i systematisk botanik vid Lunds universitet. Ett inlagg. - 25 pp . Lund.
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1933 Ille faciet. Till belysning av professor Nordhagens sakkunnigutlătande vid atterbesāttandet av professuren i växtbiologi i Uppsala. - 16 pp . Lund.
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1936 Rassenökologie und Pflanzengeographie. Einige kritische Bemerkungen. - Bot. Noliser, p. 420-437.
1938 Chromosome stability in Linnean species. - Ann. Agr. Coll. Sweden 5: 405416.

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1943 Chromosome doubling and cross combinations in some Cruciferous plants. Ann. Agr. Coll. Sweden 11: 201-206 (together with H. Nordenskiöld).

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1958 Observations on some clones and clone progenies in Alchemilla alpina L. Ibid. 111: 159-164.
1960 Experimental studies in Hieracium pilosella L. I. Reproduction, chromosome number and distribution. - Hereditas 46: 717-736 (together with B. Turesson).
1961 Habitat modifications in some widespread plant species. - Bot. Notiser 114: 435-452.
1962 Results of colchicine doubling in the red, alsike and white clover. - Agri Hort. Genet. 20: 111-135.
1963 Observations on chromosome number and reproduction in some Piloselloids. - Bot. Notiser 116: 157-160 (together with B. Tunesson).
1963 Sedum anglicum Huds. funnen pả Christiansō. - Ibid. 116: 105-100.
1964 Sedum anglicum Huds. på Christiansō. - Ibid. 117: 426-427.

1966 Genecological notes on Allium schoenoprasum L. - Trans. Bot. Soc. Edinb. $40(2): 181-184$.

## Botanical Literature

C. T. Ingold: Fungal Spores. Their Liberation and Dispers a l. - Clarendon Press: Oxford University Press 1971. 302 pp, 199 figs. Price \& 4,00 .

For many problems concerning fungi the interest is concentrated on their spores. As fungi are enormously rich in species and the adaptations for effective reproduction are countless, the knowledge of spores, their structure and behaviour is an extremely wide domain. The English mycologist, professor C. T. INGOLD has studied the subject intensely for some fourty years and is since long the great authority of the branch. His books "Dispersal in Fungi" and "Spore Liberation" reached a wider circle of readers than only mycologists by profession, and became appreciated and much used textbooks i.a. for university students of botany. Instead of new editions of these books he has now published a larger one, which in several respects is an enlargement and continuation of the earlier works. Even if this new publication is larger, it has the same character of a popular book in the best sense of the word, where the scientific material is presented in a very readable and varied form. Even the choice of chapter titles tells of a wish to tickle the reader's curiosity, e.g. chapter 8 "Gasteromycetes, or Nature tries Again" and chapter 9 "Blow-off, Splashoff, and Shake-off".

From the index it is apparent that the author, when ordering the material, in the choice between a taxonomical arrangement and a disposition from pure biological principles (concerning ecology, dispersal technics a.s.o.), has tried both. Hence he has achieved the possibility to show that within one and the same taxonomical group there are adaptations in
several different directions but also that similar adaptations may be found within groups that for good reasons are regarded as very distantly related. To quote an example, the Mucoraceae have got a chapter of their own. Among them dispersal mechanisms of different kinds are encountered. Airborn, dry spores are the most common type of diaspores, but in many cases there is secreted together with the spores a sticky liquid as an adaptation to epizootic dispersal. Water-born spores occur in Mucoraceae and at last there are some well-known cases of explosive ejection of sporangia (Pilobolus) or conidia (Entomophthora).

The spore dispersal in Basidiomycetes is as a rule uniformly based on copious production of air-born spores. One group among them, however, takes up a special position, viz. Gasteromycetes, to which Ingold devotes a chapter of their own. Among them a long series of adaptations can be found. The majority of them have air-born spores, and different methods for the liberation of the spores are encountered. The dispersal by means of flies in Phallaceae is striking and well-known. The same is true of the formation and active dispersal of the peridiols in Nidulariaceae. Still more effective active ejection of the spore mass has developed in the genus Sphaerobolus. Among Gasteromycetes there is even a case of dispersal by water which seems very strange in this group, which in its entirety appears to be adapted to dry climates. The reason why among Gasteromycetes, so many different ways of dispersal can be found is with certainity that the group is not a natural taxon but delimited through characteristics which are correlated to the adaptations. The dispersal mechanisms have evidently developed within different groups
of Basidiomycetes and the development has in many cases reached so far that the starting point has become obscure. Like many other mycologists, Ingold adheres to the idea that Gasteromycetes is a polyphyletic group with several roots among Hymenomycetes, above all Agaricales. Attempts made to arrange systems for fungi based on natural relationships meet with very great difficulties. Adaptations to parasitic or saprophytic way of living have among fungi, as well as among many other groups of organisms, caused strong reductions of vegetative organs. In reproduction fargoing adaptations have taken place, with augmented efficiency as a result, e.g. in the formation of spores and their liberation. Embryonal stages, which could have given clues to the pathways of evolution, lack in fungi. As no information can be expected from fossils, it is clear that a system, which is natural throughout, is something that mycologists dare have very little hope about. To be able to evaluate available facts, good knowledge of the function of the structures is necessary for the taxonomists. For them Ingold's work is of outstanding importance. There are still, however, structures and qualities in spores which are little known as to their function, e.g. surface structures, or chemical characteristics like the amyloid reaction.

The chapter on the spores in air arises interest and is much to the fore Spores form an important ingredient in the contents of particles in the air. By means of different tools they can be captured from air currents. Dispersal over very long distances is no doubt possible for many groups of fungi with resistant spores, e.g. many types of Fungi imperfecti, Mucoraceae, Gasteromycetes, Uredineae, Ustilagineae.
"Fungal Spores" is not only a very instructive book, it is besides very readable and entertaining and well worth a studium by all who have a deeper interest in biology. It is certainly not an exhaustive reference work as the space of it is limi-
ted, but it gives not least through its ample bibliography guidance to further studies in the speciality. The numerous illustrations are very well done and in most cases original.

Johy Eriksson

Jacot Guillarmod, Amy: Flora of Lesotho (Basutoland). - Verlag von J. Cramer, Lehre. 1971. (Flora et Vegetatio Mundi III). 474 pp ., cloth-bound. DM. 150.-

The check list of plants from Lesotho by Mrs. Jacot Guillarmod of Grahamstown, South Africa, has finally appeared, viz. as third volume of the series, 'Flora et Vegetatio Mundi', published by Cramer. It is a fine volume, containing much useful information on a very interesting corner of Southern Africa, but no illustrations. This small country, which was known as Basutoland under British rule until it gained independence in 1966, is largely mountainous and includes the highest mountain of Southern Africa (Thabana Ntlenyana, 3480 m s.m.). The eastern boundary follows the summit of the Drakensberg range, which is phytogeographically significant as part of an important pathway for north- and southward migrations and as a refugium and evolutionary centre for various plant groups. Hence, the knowledge of flora and vegetation of this region is essential to an understanding of South African phytogeography.

The present work aims at providing as complete as possible a check list of plants found within the present boundaries of Lesotho. The only previous work covering roughly the same region is Phillips' 'Flora of the Leribe Plateau and Environs', published in 1917 and now naturally largely outdated. The present list includes 1537 species of flowering plants. The list of thallophytes is very preliminary and will certainly stimulate further col-
lecting. In addition to the accepted Latin names, frequently used synonyms, are cited. All collections known are enumerated, with indication of their location. Also, the South African distribution outside Lesotho is often stated. The author has taken much time and trouble to trace all important collections available in South African as well as European herbaria. Foremost among earlier collectors was Mrs. A. Dieterlen, who as the wife of a French missionary spent about forty year, in the country around the turn of the century. Her specimens are preserved in Strasbourg, Paris, Pretoria, Cape Town, and various other herbaria, and they formed the basis of Phillips' work (see above). In addition, the author herself has during many years of exploration assembled the most important collection of Lesotho plants, numbering between three and four thousand specimens.

Naturally, the check list will continuously require amendments and additions due to taxonomic progress and further collecting. It must be remembered, that roads in Lesotho are scarce and mainly concentrated to the lowlands in the west. Much of the interior is accessible only by long and tiresome travels on horseback, as the reviewer knows from personal experi ence in 1963 (not 1965 as stated on p. 64).

Taxonomic literature is well covered up to 1968 , when the manuscript seems to have been finished. One omission was incidentally spotted, viz. Senecio ulopterus Thellung, which was described on a collection from Basutoland. Since the manuscript left the author's hand, numerous taxonomic changes have been brought forward, including the description of several new species. Also, some genera can now be excluded, viz. Hertia (the collection cited belongs to Euryops montanus), Petalactella (sunk in Ifloga), Metzlera (species transferred to Lobelia), and Schizocarpus (included, albeit hesitatingly, in Scilla). Furthermore, Spaeralcea should be substituted by Anisodontea, and Dan-
thonia should be replaced by two new genera, Karroochloa and Merxmuellera.

The check list makes up about half of the volume. The rest contains, inter alia, biographical notes on collectors, a brief statistical analysis of the flora, a Sotho glossary, vernacular names and a chapter on native uses of plants. And especially the introductory chapters on history, topography, climate, land usage, and ecology provide fine reading and an excellent introduction to the natural history of Lesotho.

Pressure from population and cattle is severely affecting the land, causing soil erosion and threatening the natural water supplies. Erosion has already for decades been a serious problem in the country, and although some steps have been taken to prevent further damage (like compulsory contour ploughing), much remains to be done in the field of nature conservation. Whole plant communities as well as individual species are in danger of extinction. The author's statement that Aloe polyphylla is the only endemic species of Lesotho is almost certainly an understatement. The reviewer can immediately add Euryops inops, and others will probably come to light.

The need for ecological surveys as a basis for better land usage and meaning. ful conservation is rightly stressed by the author. With her own pioneer work on the flora and vegetation of Lesotho she has laid the necessary foundation for future study and provided a useful source of information for all interested in the natural setting and conditions of Basotho life.

Bertil Nordenstam

Rechinger, K. H.: Flora Iranica. Fasc. 58 - 89 (1969-71). - Akademische Druck- u. Verlagsanstalt, Graz, Austria.

The steady progress of 'Flora Iranica' is one of the delectations of contemporary botany. Several of the some thirty fascic-
les under review are quite small (Lentibulariaceae, Sparganiaceae, Celastraceae, Amaryllidaceae, Typhaceae, etc.), while others contain more capacious contributions (Valerianaceae, Salicaceac, Capparidaceac, Geraniaceae, Crassulaceae, Asclepiadaceae, Juncaceae, Alliaceae, and Fagaceae). Finally there are two massive volumes, viz. Rosaceae I and Gramineae.

As it happens, few large genera with significant endemism in the area are represented this time, Allium being the most notable exception. Instead, the degree of endemism is very low in most larger genera involved, like Bromus ( 44 species: 4 endemic), Poa (40:3), Stipa (39:5), Geranium (35: 1), Juncus (28: 1), Salix (27: 2), and Valerianella (24:0). Somewhat higher proportions are found in Agropyron (61: 13), Alchemilla (32: 15), and Potentilla (51: 19). Allium, however, presents a different picture. It is the largest and phytogeographically most important genus in this set of the flora. The author is P . Wendelbo, who treats the Alliaceae as distinct from the Liliaceac. Of the 139 Allium species so far known from the area, no less than 64 are endemic there, and this number may be expected to increase with more extensive collecting. Obviously this genus (which comprises about 600 species in all) has important centres within the area, especially in the steppe regions of Central and East Afghanistan together with adjacent parts of West Pakistan and in West and South Iran. The taxa in the former centre seem to have mainly Central Asiatic affinities, and those of the latter areas show largely Mediterranean connections.

Apropos family taxonomy it may be noted, that Paconiaceae is treated as distinct from Ranunculaceae, but Neurada is kept in the Rosaceae and Biebersteinia in the Geraniaceae.

Eight authors contribute to the Rosaceac volume, which covers 32 genera. Only Rosa has been left out, in prospect of some future fascicle labelled Rosaceae II. It might have been advisable to administrate

Cotoneaster likewise. The envisaged revision was not delivered in time, and a substitute was compiled from literature and insufficient material at hand. The result is a very preliminary treatment (comprising 25 species). Crataegus, too, is somewhat provisionally treated. A narrow species concept has been adopted, and 21 species are recorded from the area. The Rubi of the area likewise pose serious taxonomic problems awaiting a satisfactory solution. Potentilla comprises 51 species, when some insufficiently known species are excluded. The majority of the 12 endemic species belong to sect. Persicae.

In the Prunoideae, Prunus itself is taken in a narrow sense, and Armeniaca, Persica, Amygdalus, Cerasus, Padus, and Laurocerasus are accordingly treated as separate genera. From a phytogeographical point of view Amygdalus is of special interest, showing a pronounced centre in the Iranian highlands. About half the genus, or 21 species, occur in the Flora Iranica' area, and 12 of these are endemic.

The grass volume (by N. L. Bor) is the hitherto largest single contribution in the series. It contains 573 text pages, concluded by 72 plates of masterly drawings ( 60 of which have earlier been published in 'Flora of Iraq'). There are 772 grass species belonging to 156 genera. The degree of endemism is remarkably low (in comparison to, e.g., South Africa), and not a single genus is endemic to the area. Melderes has contributed substantially to the treatment of tribus Triticeac, and it is interesting to note, that he no longer favours a splitting of Agropyron into small, "Nevskian" units, like Elytrigia, Roegneria, etc. Agropyron s.lat is maintained as distinct from Elymus, however, in spite of the occurrence within the area of $\times$ Agroelymus and E. Trinii Meld., a species formerly referred to Agropyron on account of the solitary spikelets.

As usual, the general distribution outside the area is indicated for species and lower categories. Trifling inexactitudes and errors here - like the citation of

Potentilla gelida from Scandinavia - shall not belittle the value of this additional information.

The grass drawings have already been mentioned, and there are many other commendable illustrations. The exquisite colour photographs of live Allium inflorescences are beyond praise, and the analytical drawings accompanying the same genus are most useful. Photographs of herbarium specimens are in the reviewer's opinion generally inferior to drawings, but they can be quite adequate for trees (in this case Anacardiaceae, Fagaceae, Aceraceae), but less so for herbs like Potentilla, Geranium and the Crassulaceac.

Interspersed in the text occur, as before, very initiated commentaries on taxonomic and nomenclatural matters. E.g., in connection with Festuca, Dr. Bor has sensible things to say about the wealth of infraspecific names and categories. Faced with 519 subordinate taxa under Festuca ovina, among which $F$. ovina ssp. eu-ovina var. vulgaris subvar. niphobia f. crassior is just one albeit horrifying example, the author makes a strong plea for a simplified and more rational nomenclature.

Bertil Nordenstam

Plant Life of South-West Asia. Edited by P. H. Davis, P. C. Harper, \& I. C. Hedge. Published by the Botanical Society of Edinburgh, 1971, at the University Press, Aberdeen. $\mathbf{x}+335 \mathrm{pp}$.

Since World War II plant taxonomists at Edinburgh have directed much attention to the flora of south-west Asia. The "Flora of Turkey" under publication is a well known result of these activities. Another is the present volume, being a record of the papers presented at a symposium held in June, 1970, in connection with the Tercentenary celebrations of the Royal Botanic Garden, Edinburgh.

The symposium was attended by 72 participants from about 18 countries. The volume contains 21 papers, supplemented
by discussions and concluding editorial comments. The geographical delimitation is less narrow than implied by the title. Areas treated include Greece, especially the Aegean, and the West Himalayas, and some papers have a still broader outlook. There is also a wide coverage as to subject. Although phytogeography and biosystematics are the major themes, items like the origin of crop plants and problems of plant conservation are also discussed. Thought-provoking issues include the concept of 'reproductive drift' advanced by Runemark, the 'Anatolian Diagonal' recognized by Edinburgh workers on the flora and phytogeography of Turkey, an astute comparison of the five 'Mediterranean' floras of the world (RAveN), and an adroit outline of the evolution in South-West Asian Rubiaceae (Ehrendorfer). It is impossible here to review or even mention all papers they are all worth reading, many aptly illustrated, and some contain very stimulating reflections on topics of considerable general or special interest.

## Bertil. Nordenstam

Savage, Jay M.: Evolution, 2nd ed. Modern Biology Series. - Holt, Rinchart and Winston, London 1971. 152 pp., 46 figures.

The first edition of Evolution by SAvage appeared in 1963. The second edition has been substantially revised and the chapters dealing with The Genetic Basis of Evolution, Genetic Drift, and The Rise of Man have been rewritten. The eleven chapters of the book are divided into three parts: Introduction, The Fundamental Evolutionary Process, and Evolutionary Divergence.

The book provides a good introduction to evolution, especially in the chapters dealing with Probability and Genetics, Population Genetics, The Role of Natural Selection, and Evolution above the Species Level.

Much emphasis is placed on the process of genetic drift as a major factor in evolution. On p. 113 the author speaks of drift in asexual organisms. However, it is debatable whether or not the term "drift" is the correct one for establishment of random mutations in asexual groups of organisms.

On p. 100 the author uses the term "chromosomal incompatibility" to explain the sterility of the $\mathrm{F}_{1}$ offspring when two particular species of Rana are crossed. This term seems too limited; the more general "genetic incompatibility" would be preferable.

The symbol N , used by the author to represent the basic number of chromosomes in organisms, is not the one most commonly used in modern European literature. The symbol $x$ has long been used for the basic number, and there is certainly an urgent need for uniformity. Furthermore, the author has used N for different purposes on different occasions. For instance, in Fig. 2-1 and Fig. 2-2 he uses N first for the basic number of chromosomes: here $\mathrm{N}=2$, which is the same as the haploid number of chromosomes in this particular case. In the same figures he then uses N for replicated chromosomes: in this case $\mathrm{N}=4$. That is, he does not distinguish between chromosomes and chromatids. This must be regarded as a serious disadvantage in an elementary textbook of evolution where ordinary cell division should be clearly presented.

On p. 24 the author says that chromosomes presumably contain one long DNA molecule. In fact, chromosomes contain a fairly large number of DNA molecules, at least in organisms above the level of Bacterium. Each organism seems to have a characteristic number of DNA molecules in its chromosomes.

The examples are with very few exceptions taken from zoology, a disadvantage for students mainly interested in plants and plant evolution, eventhough the main processes of evolution are similar in all organisms. Furthermore, most examples
have understandably been taken from organisms indigenous to America, a fact that reduces the value of the book to European students not familiar with these organisms.

Provided due consideration is given to these objections the book can be recommended for use by students at university level.

## Bengt Bentzer

Culberson, Chicita F.: Chemical and botanical guide to lichen products. - The University of North Carolina Press. Chapel Hill 1969. XI + 628 pp. Price $\$ 12.50$ (cloth).

- : Supplement to "Chemical and botanical guide to lichen products." - The Bryologist 73:2. 1970. 200 pp. Price 84.00.

It is a wellknown fact that lichens often produce chemical compounds which are not present in other groups. Some of them have been of economic importance since ancient times, e.g., the manna lichen, Lecanora esculenta, the litmus lichens, Rocella spp., and various species known as dye lichens. Several of these were described in a classical treatise by Westring, "Svenska lafvarnas färghistoria" (Colour history of the Swedish lichens) (1805-1809). Towards the turn of the past century many lichen compounds had been isolated, named and often provided with summaric chemical formulae. This knowledge was summarized in a classical work by Zopf, "Die Flechtenstoffe" (1907), which described the chemical properties of more than two hundred compounds.

In the 1930's the Japanese botanist and chemist Asahina developed a new technique to identify the major lichen metabolites by microchrystallizations. A long series of papers by him and his students brought accelerated progress toward the elucidation of the structural formulae of lichen compounds. Old and new informa-
tion was presented by Asahina and Shibata, "Chemistry of lichen substances" (1954), another milestone in the history of lichen chemistry.

The last two decades have seen several new methods, e.g., paper chromatography, thin-layer chromatography and gas chromatography, which have vastly increased our knowledge of the structure of previously unidentified lichen compounds. Dr. Chicita Culberson (Dept. of Botany, Duke University, Durham, N. Carolina, U.S.A.) has summed up all information available at present in a magnificent volume. It is needless to state that this is a standard work indispensible to all serious lichenologists.

An introductory chapter "Lichen and fungal products" brilliantly summarizes the pathways of lichen chemistry including what is known of the biogenesis of lichen substances. The chapter "Chemical guide to lichen products" lists some 300 substances and their occurrence in species of lichens and fungi. Chemical and physical data are presented in a lucid way. A brief chapter "Chemical summary of the genera" reveals several correlations between occurrence of lichen substances and the traditional lichen systematics at generic or family level, but the many problems arising in this field are not discussed in detail.

The last and most comprehensive chapter is called "Botanical guide to lichen products". It lists c. 2000 lichen species which have been recorded in literature (prior to 1968) as containing "lichen substances". In several species only one substance is known, whereas some well investigated lichens, e.g., Cetraria islandica, Cladonia rangiferina and Peltigera canina, have been reported to contain some 15 25 different substances or elements. The name list includes a considerable number of synonyms with references to accepted names, a fact which will make the volume still more useful to the lichen taxonomist. To the merits of this book should be
added the exhaustive lists of literature references at the end of each chapter.

Since Nylander (1867) introduced potassium hydroxide and calcium hypochlorite as colour tests to distinguish between related lichen species, most lichenologists have found these "chemical characters" to be a useful aid in taxonomy, moreover as they are often combined with morphological differences. In the 1930', Asahina introduced paraphenylenediamine for the same purpose. For some decades there was an inflation of "chemical species" often without any correlation to morphology. Somewhat analogous ideas have been met with in cytotaxonomy, where some authors have regarded any difference in chromosome number as sufficient for distinguishing a species. In both cases a natural reaction has followed against too narrow a species concept.

Culberson has presented a wealth of clear and critical information on lichen substances, but she has wisely left the interpretation of species and other taxa to the taxonomists.

The rapid progress in lichen chemistry is illustrated by the fact that a supplement containing a large amount of additional information (up till 1968 or 1969) has been issued soon after the publication of the main work. We may hope that Dr. Culberson will continue this exellent way of surveying and presenting new material to the benefit of chemists as well as taxonomists.

## Ove Almborn

Hale, M. E.: The Lichens. - Pictured Key Nature Series "How to know . . .". W. C. Brown Co., Dubuque (Iowa) 1969. 266 pp., 428 illustrations (black-and-white). Price $\$ 3.00$ (spiralbound), \$ 3.75 (cloth).

Dr. Mason E. Hale (Dept. of Botany, Smithsonian Institution, Washington D.C., U.S.A.) is known not only as a skilful monographer of the lichen genus Par-
melia (cf. review in Bot. Notiser 1966 p. 471, and article in present fascicle) but also as the author of excellent semipopular works on lichens, "Lichen Handbook" (1961) and "Biology of Lichens" (1967). These were reviewed in Bot. Notiser 1963 p. 110 and 1968 p. 136, respectively. The "Lichen Handbook" contained a fairly brief chapter on the lichen flora of North America ( N . of Mexico). This flora has now been enlarged to an attractive booklet presenting a major part of macrolichens known from this area.

The 27 introductory pages give brief information on morphology, terminology, chemical tests, "how to collect and study lichens", uses of lichens, and a condensed bibliography. The bulk of the work consists of dichotomous keys to some 350 species of the more common larger lichens of North America. In addition, some 225 rarer species are discussed briefly under the major species of the key. Every major species has got an illustration (either a photograph or a drawing) in the text and a distribution map at a very reduced scale. Most of the illustrations, especially some photographs, are outstanding, whereas a few others are somewhat vague and give little help for identification. It should be admitted that most lichens are very difficult objects for the black-andwhite photographer.

The choice has been restricted to foliose, fruticose and some squamulose lichens. Some species of Lecanora, Rinodina and Placopsis with more or less distinctly lobed margins have been included in the key, whereas the true crustose lichens which form the major part of the lichen
flora are omitted. Some genera, e.g., Collema, Ramalina and Usnea, whose taxonomy is still uncertain, have been summarized rather broadly. Dr. Hale has accepted part of the many new genera established (or reestablished) in recent time, e.g., Dirinaria, Platismatia, Cetrelia, Hypogymnia and Pseudevernia. Others have been rejected, e.g., Heterodermia, Pycnothelia, Lasallia (and other segregates from Umbilicaria s.lat.).

The only taxonomic unit dealt with is the species. No subspecific taxa have been recognized. It is a wellknown fact, also to the trained lichenologist, that several lichen "species" are difficult to delimit as they show transitions to other species. Dr. Hale's treatment of some cases of this kind reflects the varying species concept met with in lichen taxonomy. Peltigera praetextata is recorded as a species but with the remark "Less common than $P$. canina and intergrading with it." Under Usnea dasypoga there is mentioned an "obvious intergradation with $U$. ceratina and other isidiate-sorediate species". The two chemotypes of Thamnolia vermicularis are listed as species but (correctly, in the reviewer's opinion) characterized as "chemical variants".

A student of European lichens will find much useful information in this well-organized volume. He should remember, however, that perhaps half of the number of species recorded by Dr. Hale from N. America do not occur in Europe, whereas a corresponding number of macrolichens fairly common in Europe are not found in N. America.

Ove Almborn

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Nilsson is responsible for the drawings and Snogerup for the text.
    29

[^1]:    Fig. 7. Morphological characteristics of Northern ( $-, \mathrm{N}=62, \bullet$ ) and Southern ( $\ldots, \mathrm{N}=$ 53, o) Hemisphere plants of Carex microglochin. - A: Stem diameter. - B: Number of $ㅇ$ flowers. - C: Number of $\delta$ flowers. - D: Stipe-length. - E: Emergent length of rhacheole (class centres) . - F: Utricle-length and width.

[^2]:    Fig. 1. Photographs of typical specimens. - A: Parmelia almbornii Hale (holotype). -
    B: $P$. atroventralis Hale (holotype). - C: $P$. diadeto Hale (Almborn 8b44). - D: $P$. dichromatica Hale (holotype). - Enlargement about $1.5 \times$.

[^3]:    Fig. 2. Photographs of holotype specimens. - A: Parmelia encrustans Hale. - B: P. frondosa Hale. - C: P. heterodoxa Hale. - D: P. neocongensis Hale. - Enlargement

[^4]:    Fig. 3. Photographs of holotype specimens. - A: Parmelia hyporhytida Hale. - B: P. lecanorica Hale, - C: P. quintaria Hale. - D: P. subdomokosii Hale. - Enlargement about $1.5 \times$.

[^5]:    Bot. Notiser, vol. 124, 1971

