EVOLUTION OF POPULUS NIGRA (SECT. AIGEIROS): INTROGRESSIVE HYBRIDIZATION AND THE CHLOROPLAST CONTRIBUTION OF POPULUS ALBA (SECT. POPULUS)¹

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Restriction site variation in chloroplast DNA and nuclear ribosomal DNA was examined in 16 accessions from the Salicaceae comprising ten species of Populus and one outgroup species of Salix. Forty-nine restriction site mutations in the chloroplast DNAs were used to generate one most parsimonious phylogenetic tree. This tree indicates that all varieties of P. nigra (black poplars of sect. Aigeiros) have a chloroplast genome, maternally inherited, derived from the clade including the white poplars (P. alba and segregate species of sect. Populus) and divergent from the American cottonwoods of their own section. Twenty-one restriction site mutations in the nuclear ribosomal DNAs generated a single most parsimonious phylogenetic tree that indicates that the nuclear genome of P. nigra is distinct from both the white poplars and American cottonwoods. The incongruity of these independent molecular phylogenies provides evidence for an unusual origin of the black poplars. Populus alba or its immediate ancestor acted as the maternal parent in a hybridization event with the paternal lineage of P. nigra. Subsequent backcrosses to the paternal species gave rise to the extant P. nigra with a chloroplast genome of P. alba and the nuclear genome of the paternal species. These hybridization and introgression events must have pre-dated the divergence of the black poplar varieties. The biphyletic nature of the P. nigra genomes suggests that dependency on one class of molecular or morphological markers or the merging of the two kinds of data sets to derive accurate estimates of true phylogenies could be misleading in plants.

Molecular systematics for the most part assumes that DNA-based phylogenies provide reliable estimates of the actual genealogical relationships of organisms. However, DNA phylogenies might not be congruent with species phylogenies due to a number of inherent biological phenomena (Sytsma, 1990). Most important for plants is the frequent occurrence of interspecific hybridization (Raven, 1980) and subsequent backcrosses with a parental species (Anderson, 1953). These events will generate phylogenetic discrepancies in comparisons of uniparentally inherited organeller sequences (Sears, 1980; Neale, Wheeler, and Allard, 1986)

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and biparentally inherited nuclear sequences or their phenotypic expression in morphology.

In plants these discrepancies are often first evidenced in routine chloroplast DNA (cp-DNA) surveys (Palmer et al., 1983; Palmer, Jorgensen, and Thompson, 1985). Restriction site analysis of cpDNA has been particularly useful in phylogenetic analyses at the generic level in Angiosperms (Palmer and Zamir, 1982; Palmer et al., 1983, 1988; Palmer, Jorgensen, and Thompson, 1985; Sytsma and Gottlieb, 1986a, b; Sytsma and Smith, 1988; Sytsma, Smith, and Gottlieb, 1990). The chloroplast genome has a manageable size (e.g., 155 kb in Populus; Sytsma and Smith, unpublished data). Among congeneric species, cpDNA exhibits adequate levels of nucleotide divergence (to 1.5%) and low levels of convergences (less than 10%) to provide detailed and accurate phylogenetic relationships. Its maternal inheritance in most angiosperms, as in *Populus*, provides unambiguous documentation for the maternal parentage of hybrids, introgressants, and allopolyploids (Palmer et al., 1983; Palmer, Jorgensen, and Thompson, 1985; Hosaka and Hanneman, 1988; Wyatt et al., 1988; Wendel, 1989). The utilization of both cpDNA and nuclear rDNA (nrDNA) has permitted further

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clarification of the hybrid or introgressant nature of suspected species or populations (Rieseberg, Soltis, and Palmer, 1988).

In this paper we use comparative restriction endonuclease site analysis of cpDNA and nrDNA to document the unusual origin of the European black poplars (Populus nigra var. nigra, var. italica, var. betulifolia). Populus (Salicaceae) comprises 30-40 species placed into six sections (Populus, Aigeiros, Tacamahaca, Leucoides, Turanga, and Abaso) (Eckenwalder, 1977a, b). The black poplars together with the American cottonwoods (P. deltoides and P. fremontii) form sect. Aigeiros, although the two groups are placed in separate subsections, Euroasiaticae and Americanae, respectively. Section Populus includes the white poplars of central Europe, the western Mediterranean basin, Asia minor, and Mexico (subsect. Tomentosae) and the aspens of North America and Eurasia (subsect. Trepidae). Our analysis shows that the black poplars of Europe have a chloroplast genome derived from the lineage encompassing the European white poplars of sect. Populus and have no cytoplasmic affinities to the cottonwoods of their own section. The nuclear rDNA results, however, provide alternative sets of relationships. These data suggest several conclusions regarding the peculiar origin and relationships of the European black poplars.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

As part of a larger study (Smith and Sytsma, unpublished data), fresh leaf material was obtained from one species of Salix L. and 15 accessions of *Populus* representative of ten species (plus one hybrid) of three currently recognized sections of the genus (Table 1). Chloroplast DNA intraspecific site variation is extremely low in *Populus* (Smith and Sytsma, unpublished data; C. S. Prakash, Z.-X. Sun, and D. B. Wagner, personal communication), suggesting that examination of one or two accessions per species would be appropriate for phylogenetic reconstruction among species. Total DNA was extracted by a described protocol (Zimmer, Rivin, and Walbot, 1981) modified to include a 2% polyvinylpolypyrrolidone grinding buffer and a buffer/leaf powder weight ratio of 20:1. The DNAs were digested with 23 restriction endonucleases recognizing six-base nucleotide sequences and were subjected to electrophoresis in 0.7% agarose/Tris/EDTA acetate gels. After denaturation and neutralization, the fragments were blotted onto BioTrans membranes in a bidirectional fashion. Membrane filters were sequentially probed with each of 12 Pst I and two Sal I clones representing nearly the entire cpDNA genome of Petunia. Also used was one clone from Lactuca representing the small single-copy region between the inverted repeats of the cpDNA molecule. Mapped positions of these clones are provided elsewhere (Sytsma and Gottlieb, 1986b). The collinearity of the cpDNA of Salix, Populus, Petunia, and the small single-copy region of *Lactuca* and the maternal inheritance of *Populus* cpDNA has been confirmed (Sytsma and Smith, unpublished data). In addition, nuclear rDNA restriction site and fragment length variation was assessed in *Populus* by re-probing filters used in the cpDNA analysis with heterologous probes from soybean as described elsewhere (Sytsma and Schaal, 1985).

Phylogenetic analysis of cpDNA restriction site mutations was performed with the computer program "Phylogenetic Analysis Using Parsimony" (PAUP, version 2.4), developed by D. Swofford (Illinois Natural History Survey, Urbana), to reveal the shortest possible phylogenetic trees (i.e., those requiring the fewest convergent, parallel, or back-mutations). These trees were rooted (Watrous and Wheeler, 1981) by using a putative basal representative of Salix (S. exigua) as the outgroup (Dorn, 1976). The PAUP program is based on Wagner parsimony (Farris, 1970) and therefore weights equally both convergent site gains and convergent site losses. Also used was the computer program "Phylogeny Inference Package" (PHYLIP, version 2.7) with a Dollo parsimony option developed by J. Felsenstein. Dollo parsimony (Debry and Slade, 1985) discriminates against convergent site gains, invoking instead additional convergent site losses to account for the observed data. Bootstrap analysis (Felsenstein, 1985) in PHYLIP was used to place confidence levels on branches in a resulting majority rule tree. Finally, the distance algorithm of Fitch and Margoliash (1967) in PHYLIP was used to construct unrooted trees based on overall measures of cpDNA sequence divergence.

RESULTS

Phylogenetic results from cpDNA data – Approximately 342 restriction enzyme sites (sixbase sequences) were surveyed in each of the cpDNAs, for a total sample of 1.3% of the *Populus* chloroplast genome (155 kbp). Of the 342 restriction sites, 49 (14.3%) were found to be variable among the species of *Populus* examined (Table 2). The lowest incidence of change occurred within the inverted repeat, an

TABLE 1. Populus and Salix accessions assessed for cpDNA variation

Species*	Accession ^b	Voucher
Salix sect. Longifoliae Pax.		
1. Salix exigua Nuttall	wild, Madison, WI	R. L. Smith 66, 82
Populus sect. Populus subsect. Tomentosae		
2. Populus alba var. alba L.	246-84ct	1637V87
3. P. \times canescens J. E. Smith = [P. alba \times P. tremula]	720405	Ambrose 3368,3653
4. P. tomentosa Carr.	731176	Ambrose 3369,3642
5. P. guzmanantlensis Vazquez & Cuevas	wild, Mexico	Benz et al. 1184
sect. Populus subsect. Trepidae		
6. P. tremula L.	Ta-6-68	R. L. Smith 152
7. P. tremuloides Michx.	T-44-60	R. L. Smith 151
sect. Aigeiros subsect. Euroasiaticae		
8. P. nigra L. var. 'italica'	720436	
9. P. nigra var. betulifolia (Pursh) Torr	720964	
10. P. nigra L.	740551	Ambrose 3643
11. P. nigra L.	82-822	Ambrose 3649
sect. Aigeiros subsect. Americanae		
12. P. deltoides ssp. monilifera Eckenw.	720408	Ambrose 3654
13. P. deltoides ssp. deltoides Marsh	wild, Madison, WI	R. L. Smith 100
14. P. fremontii S. Watts	wild, Salt Lake City, UT	
sect. Tacamahaca		
15. P. balsamifera L.	wild, Guelph, ON	Ambrose 3640
16. P. szechuanica var. tibetica Schn.	531-57	R. L. Smith 153

^a Populus guzmanantlensis is described as a new species in Vazquez and Cuevas (1989).

^b Accessions obtained from: Dr. Ray Schulenberg and Dr. Peter Vanderlinden, The Morton Arboretum, Lisle, IL 60532 (#1); Dr. John Ambrose, The University of Guelph Arboretum, Ontario Agricultural College, Guleph, Ontario, N1G 2W1, Canada (#3, 4, 8–12, 15); Dr. Bruce Benz collected near Casimiro Castillo, Sierra de Manantlán, Mexico (#5); Dr. Gary Wyckoff, Institute of Paper Chemistry, Appleton, WI 54912 (#6, 7); Dr. Betty Wullstein, State Arboretum of Utah, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT 84112 (#14); Dr. Jan Pirzio-Biroli, Washington Park Arboretum, Center for Urban Horticulture, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98195 (#16). Determinations of *Populus* (except #5) and *Salix* were made by Dr. James Eckenwalder and Dr. George Argus, respectively.

area well known for its high degree of conservatism (Palmer and Stein, 1986; Sytsma and Gottlieb, 1986b). No variation in cpDNA was seen among *P. alba, P. \times canescens, and P. tomentosa* (all white poplars), among the three varieties of *P. nigra,* or between the two subspecies of *P. deltoides.*

The proportion of base substitutions per nucleotide position, p (Nei and Li, 1979), was estimated from observed site differences for each of the possible pair-wise comparisons among the 15 accessions of Populus. These values ranged from 0 to 0.0137 (Table 3). Considering that not all members and sections of the genus are represented, the largest value is probably lower than would be found in a more comprehensive analysis. Nonetheless, the highest p value within *Populus* is intermediate in the range of infrageneric values currently known for angiosperms (Sytsma and Smith, 1988). Excluding P. alba, P. × canescens, and P. tomentosa (often not segregated out of P. alba), the lowest sequence divergence value among species (0.0010) was between morphologically similar *Populus deltoides* and *P. fremontii* (sect. *Aigeiros*), and the greatest between *P. alba* and *P. balsamifera* (sects. *Populus* and *Tacamahaca*, respectively). *Populus nigra* and *P. alba* had a relatively low p value of 0.0020.

Cladistic analysis of the 49 restriction site mutations, polarized by Salix exigua, generated a single most parsimonious Wagner tree of 54 steps requiring five convergences (Fig. 1). This tree had a rate of homoplasy of 9.3% and a consistency index (Kluge and Farris, 1969) of 90.7%. This tree has an unresolved node affecting the relative placements of Populus tremuloides, P. tremula, and the white and black poplar lineage. The European white poplars (Populus alba, P. × canescens, and P. tomentosa) form a sister group relationship with the black poplars, P. nigra, rather than with the American white poplar P. guzmanantlensis of their own subsection. A synapomorphic Hind III site mutation that aligns P. nigra with the white poplars and aspens is illustrated in Fig. 2. Populus nigra and P. alba, morphologically

No.	Enzyme	Region ^a	Size fragments (Kb) ^b		Mutated species ^c
1	Dra I	S 8	1.4 = 1.3 + 0.1		6
2	Dra I	S6/P16	3.4 = 2.1 + 1.3	*	12–14, 16
3	Dra I	S6/P16	3.4 = 2.6 + 0.8	*	6
4	Dra I	P8	8.0 + 0.3 = 8.3		6-16
5	Dra I	P10	5.5 = 4.8 + 0.7	*	2-4, 8-11
6	Dra I	P10	5.2 = 2.8 + 2.4	*	16
7	Dra I	P18	3.7 = 3.3 + 0.4	*	6
8	Dra I	P19/20	4.7 = 2.9 + 1.8		7
9ª	Dra I	P19/20	4.7 = 2.5 + 2.2		15
			2.9 = 2.5 + 0.4		
10	Kpn I	P3	4.6 + 1.6 = 6.2		12-13
11	Sma I	P10	8.8 = 5.5 + 3.3		16
12	EcoR I	P3	5.5 = 4.6 + 0.9	*	2-11
13	EcoR I	P6	5.5 = 5.0 + 0.5	*	2-4
14	Hind III	S8	11.3 = 6.6 + 4.7		2-11
15	Hind III	P3	4.1 = 3.8 + 0.3		2-4
16	Hind III	S 6	9.6 + 5.3 = 14.9		15
17	Hind III	P3	8.4 + 1.6 = 10.0		2-11, 16
18	Hind III	Ll	7.2 = 5.3 + 1.9		2-11, 16
19	Hind III	L1	15.0 + 1.1 = 16.1		2-4, 8-11
20	EcoR V	L1	14.3 + 1.5 = 15.8		15
21	EcoR V	P1/4	2.3 + 0.5 = 2.8		16
22	EcoR V	P8/10/20	9.5 = 7.5 + 2.0		2-4, 6-14, 16
23	Sst II	P6	9.5 + 6.3 = 15.8	*	16
24	Xba I	P6	4.3 + 2.2 = 6.5		2-11, 16
25	Sca I	L1	9.0 = 4.6 + 4.4		12-15
26	Sca I	S 8	13.5 = 11.3 + 2.2		15
27	Apa I	S8	18.5 + 14.5 = 33.0		15
28	ApaL I	S6/P16	8.7 + 0.9 = 9.6		7
29	Ñru I	L1	20.9 + 13.9 = 34.8		16
30	Nru I	P3	16.4 + 4.4 = 20.8		2-11, 16
31	Nru I	S6/P16	9.5 + 1.3 = 10.8		12-15
32	Nru I	S6/P16	10.8 = 8.8 + 2.0		12-13
33	Dra I	Ll	2.1 + 0.7 = 2.8	*	12-14
34	Dra I	Ll	2.6 + 0.2 = 2.8		2-11.16
35	EcoR V	P3	14.3 + 1.0 = 15.3	*	15
36	Xba I	Ll	3.7 + 1.5 = 5.2		2-11
37	EcoR I	Ll	3.2 + 1.3 = 4.5		16
38	EcoR I	L1	2.6 = 2.1 + 0.5	*	2-5, 8-11
39	EcoR I	SH	1.6 + 1.3 = 2.9		12-14
40	Dra I	P8/10/20	4.8 = 3.0 + 1.8		2-4
41	Dra I	P8/10/20	5.5 = 4.6 + 0.9		7
42	Dra I	P3	1.9 + 0.2 = 2.1		12-15
43	Sst II	P10	18.7 + 15.3 = 34		5
44	BamH I	P12	1.0 + 0.6 = 1.6		16
45	BamH I	L1	2.9 + 4.9 = 7.8	*	15
46	Hind III	P12	11.7 = 6.8 + 4.9		2-11
47	Xba I	P6	3.2 + 0.2 = 3.4		12-14
48	Sma I	P8	12.2 + 26 = 38.2		16
49	Sma I	P8	38.2 = 20 + 18.2		16

TABLE 2. Restriction site mutations within Populus cpDNA

^a Probe positions are described elsewhere (Sytsma and Gottlieb, 1986b).

^b Where possible, mutations are listed with plesiomorphic state first followed by the apomorphic state. An asterisk indicates mutations that could not be polarized with the outgroup.

^c Species are numbered as in Table 1.

^d Restriction site mutation occurs at both ends of the inverted repeat flanking the large single copy region and subsequently reveals two contrasting restriction fragment patterns.

distinct species traditionally placed in separate sections of the genus (sects. *Aigeiros* and *Populus*, respectively) (Eckenwalder, 1977a, b), share a more recent common ancestral cytoplasm than either does with any of the remaining species. The close relationship of *P*. *nigra* and *P. alba* was also supported by the 87 trees one, two, and three steps longer than the most parsimonious trees. Dollo parsimony yielded a single most parsimonious tree requiring 55 steps. This tree was topologically congruent to the most parsimonious Wagner

TABLE 3. Nucleotide divergence values (given as $100 \times p$) for chloroplast DNA (upper right matrix) and nuclear rDNA
(bottom left matrix) in Populus. Accessions numbered as in Table 1. Chloroplast DNA divergence values between
Populus and Salix were not determined

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.
2.	8.0	_	0.0	0.0	0.34	0.49	0.49	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	1.27	1.27	1.16	1.37	1.06
3.	8.0	0.0	—	0.0	0.34	0.49	0.49	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	1.27	1.27	1.16	1.37	1.06
4.	8.0	0.0	0.0	_	0.34	0.49	0.49	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	1.27	1.27	1.16	1.37	1.06
5.	8.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.34	0.34	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.95	0.95	0.85	1.06	0.90
6.	8.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	_	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	1.06	1.06	0.95	1.16	0.85
7.	8.3	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0		0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	1.06	1.06	0.95	1.16	0.85
8.	5.8	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	_	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.95	0.95	1.06	1.16	0.85
9.	5.8	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	0.0	_	0.0	0.0	0.95	0.95	1.06	1.16	0.85
10.	5.8	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	0.0	0.0	-	0.0	0.95	0.95	1.06	1.16	0.85
11.	5.8	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	_	0.95	0.95	1.06	1.16	0.85
12.	7.2	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	4.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1		0.0	0.10	0.70	1.11
13.	7.2	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	4.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	0.0	_	0.10	0.70	1.11
14.	7.2	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	4.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1	0.0	0.0	_	0.60	1.00
15.	7.7	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	3.7	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	_	1.32
16.	7.7	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	3.7	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	0.0	

tree but additionally resolved the aspens, *P. tremuloides* and *P. tremula*, as a monophyletic group. At 56 steps, two additional Dollo trees were generated that were topologically congruent to the most parsimonious Wagner tree but differed in the relative placements of *P. tremuloides*, *P. tremula*, and the white and black poplar lineage.

The majority rule bootstrap tree utilizing 500 replicates was also identical to the most parsimonious Wagner tree (bootstrap confidence levels are provided in Fig. 1). Confidence levels are sensitive to and dependent on the fineness of resolution of the tree (Sanderson, 1989); i.e., the greater the number of closely related species added to a study and defined within a specific clade, the lower the confidence levels for each branch within this clade. Therefore, an iterative bootstrapping analysis was done to place confidence levels on the lineage comprising Populus nigra and the P. alba group at more inclusive levels. The confidence level of this lineage increased from 66% to 96% with the exclusion of the P. guzmanantlensis (Fig. 1a) and to 100% with the additional exclusion of the aspens (Fig. 1b). Although bootstrap analysis does not place P. nigra as the sister group to P. alba with statistical confidence, the analysis does place *P. nigra* within the white poplar subsection with 96% confidence and within sect. Populus with 100% confidence. Thus, the close relationship of P. nigra and P. alba (and other members of sect. Populus) relative to the cottonwoods are maintained by Wagner and Dollo parsimony and bootstrap analysis.

Phylogenetic analysis based on sequence divergence gave results exactly concordant to those based on parsimony. This was demonstrated by utilizing p values in the Fitch and Margoliash algorithm of PHYLIP to generate one unrooted tree (Fig. 3) that minimized the average percentage standard deviation (% S.D. = 5.70) between calculated and observed values of p. This unrooted tree is topologically identical to the most parsimonious Wagner tree (Fig. 1). Thus, a tight congruence of results exists between Wagner parsimony, Dollo parsimony, bootstrap analysis, and distance analyses which strengthens our preliminary maternal or cytoplasmic phylogeny for *Populus*.

Alternative less parsimonious topologies were examined by utilizing both Wagner par-



Fig. 1. The shortest Wagner parsimony tree of 54 steps using 49 chloroplast DNA restriction site mutations. Gray area represents the unresolved trichotomy. Mutations are numbered according to Table 2. Gains and losses of sites are indicated by + and -, respectively. Parentheses indicate convergences. A large number of other site mutations (many of which could not be precisely inferred in side-by-side comparisons) separated *Salix exigua* from all other *Populus* species and are not shown at the base of the tree. Two convergent site mutations occur between *Salix* and specific lineages within *Populus*. These mutations are arbitrarily ordered relative to *Salix*. Confidence levels for each lineage from bootstrap analysis are shown as percents. This Wagner tree is topologically congruent to the shortest Dollo tree.



Fig. 2. Restriction fragment pattern for *Salix* and *Populus* illustrating a synapomorphic site mutation placing all varieties of *P. nigra* (black poplars of sect. *Aigeiros*) with the white poplars and aspens of sect. *Populus*. The autoradiogram depicts *Hind* III fragments probed with *Petunia* clone S8. A restriction site gain (relative to *Salix* and other species of sects. *Aigeiros* and *Tacamahaca*) within the 11.3-kb fragment generates two fragments of 6.6 and 4.7 kb.



Fig. 3. Unrooted Fitch and Margoliash tree for *Populus* using nucleotide divergence values (p) for chloroplast DNA. Numbers represent calculated distances. This is the unrooted tree with the smallest average percent standard deviation of calculated distances from observed distances. Gray area represents the unresolved trichotomy. This unrooted tree is topologically congruent to the Wagner parsimony tree in Fig. 1. Arrow indicates the position of the root from both midpoint rooting and parsimony analysis.

simony and analyses of overall measures of sequence divergence. When *Populus nigra* is placed basal to the members of sect. *Populus*, rather than coupled with *P. alba*, two additional steps must be invoked by Wagner parsimony, and the average % S.D. of the corresponding unrooted Fitch and Margoliash tree increases to 10.3. Furthermore, when *P. nigra* is realigned to the base of its own section (*Aigeiros*), 14 additional steps are required by Wagner parsimony, and the average % S.D. of the Fitch and Margoliash tree increases to 27.5, nearly five times the minimum value.

Phylogenetic results from nuclear rDNA – Restriction site variation was screened for 22 of the 23 enzymes used in the cpDNA analysis; the Pst I site variations were too difficult to interpret due to poor cutting of nrDNA. Five of 22 enzymes did not cut within the nrDNA

No.	Restriction enzyme	Site mutation	Mutated ^a species
1	Dra I	Loss	2-16
2	EcoR V	Gain	12-14
3	Xba I	Gain	2-6, 12-14
4	ApaL I	Loss	2-16
5	Sph I	Loss	2-16
6	Sph I	Gain	2–7
7	Sst I	Loss	2–7
8	Sst I	Loss	2-16
9	Bgl I	Gain	2-16
10	Bgl I	Gain	2-16
11	Hind III	Loss	2-16
12	Hind III	Loss	2-15
13	EcoR I	Loss	2-16
14	EcoR I	Gain	8-11
15	EcoR I	Gain	15-16
16	Pvu II	Gain	2–7
17	Pvu II	Gain	12-16
18	Pvu II	Loss	2–16
19	Xho I	Loss	2–16
20	Xho I	Loss	7, 15–16
21	BstE II	Gain	16

 TABLE 4. Restriction site mutations in nuclear rDNA of Populus relative to Salix exigua

^a Species are listed by number as shown in Table 1.

repeat of Populus and Salix. A total of 32-37 restriction sites were surveyed in the nrDNA of each accession. From these, 21 restriction site mutations were scored using 12 enzymes that exhibited variation (Table 4). Length variation in the intergenic spacer was observed within and among accessions, but this variation was not used in the phylogenetic analysis nor did it affect the interpretation of site variation. Nuclear rDNA p values ranged from 0 to 0.083 (Table 3). Salix to Populus divergence averaged 0.072 (0.058-0.083), and within Populus divergence averaged 0.022 (0-0.042). The Populus nrDNA divergence values are two to three times larger than those reported for nrDNA within one lineage of Lisianthius (Sytsma and Schaal, 1985).

Phylogenetic analysis of the 21 nrDNA restriction site mutations using Wagner parsimony (in PAUP) generated a single shortest tree (Fig. 4) of 24 steps (CI = 0.875). This tree has an unresolved trichotomy of three main lineages: 1) sect. Populus; 2) sects. Tacamahaca and Aigeiros (minus P. nigra); and 3) P. nigra. Three equally short trees of 26 steps were obtained with Dollo parsimony. A consensus tree of these three trees is similar to the Wagner parsimony tree (Fig. 4). The Dollo consensus tree places the lineage composing P. balsamifera and P. szechuanica as a fourth lineage radiating out from the unresolved basal node in *Populus* rather than as the sister group to the American cottonwoods.



Fig. 4. The shortest Wagner parsimony tree of 24 steps using 21 nuclear rDNA restriction site mutations. Gray area represents the unresolved trichotomy. Mutations are numbered according to Table 4. Gains and losses of sites are indicated by + and -, respectively. Parentheses indicate convergences. Eleven site changes separating *Salix exigua* and all species of *Populus* are arbitrarily ordered relative to *Salix*. The consensus tree of three equally short Dollo trees places the lineage of *P. balsamifera* and *P. szechuanica* as a fourth radiation from the unresolved polychotomy.

The major discrepancies apparent between the nuclear rDNA and cpDNA phylogenies are the placements of P. nigra and P. szechuanica. The latter is examined in more detail in a broader survey of *Populus* (Smith and Sytsma, unpublished data). In contrast to the cpDNA results, P. nigra does not have a nuclear genome similar to that found in the P. alba lineage. All the white poplars and aspens of sect. Populus are united by three site mutations indicating that they form a monophyletic lineage. *Populus nigra* does not share these mutations and also contains its own unique site mutation. The American cottonwoods (P. deltoides and P. fremontii) form their own lineage by sharing three site mutations. The nuclear genome (and chloroplast genome) of *Populus nigra* is thus distinct from that found in these other species placed in its own section. Although the exact alignment of the three main lineages (sect. Populus, sect. Aigeiros subsect. Americanae and sect. Tacamahaca, and P. nigra) is unresolved, P. nigra is distinct in its nuclear genome from sect. Populus from which its chloroplast genome is derived and from sect. Aigeiros subsect. Americanae to which it has morphological resemblance and with which it has been taxonomically placed (as subsect. Euroasiaticae).

DISCUSSION

Hybridization in Populus—Numerous examples of natural or spontaneous hybridization in *Populus* are documented or proposed (Eckenwalder, 1977a, b, 1982, 1984a, b, c; Spies and Barnes, 1982; Barnes and Pregitzer, 1985); however, widespread interspecific hybridization, although commonly associated with Populus, is generally limited to infrasectional crosses or intersectional crosses between sects. Aigeiros and Tacamahaca (Zsuffa, 1973; Ronald, 1982). Populus exhibits strong intersectional incompatibility barriers, the cellular and molecular bases of which have not yet been fully characterized (Villar, Gaget, and Dumas, 1986). A variety of artificial manipulations have been developed which successfully bypass these barriers and greatly expand the number of possible crosses. These include applications of mentor pollen, compatible pollen extracts, and treatments of incompatible pollen and nonreceptive stigmas with solvents (Knox, Willing, and Pryor, 1972; Zsuffa, 1973; Whitecross and Willing, 1975; Guries and Stettler, 1976; Willing and Pryor, 1976; Stettler, Koster, and Steenackers, 1980). It is an underlying presumption in the taxonomic literature that the relative crossability of poplars (especially where these crosses are spontaneous) is a reflection of their genetic similarity and, therefore, can form a basis on which to infer taxonomic affinities. As introgression/hybridization are likely to have played a significant role in the evolution of Populus, phylogenies based exclusively on maternally inherited DNA (e.g., cpDNA) or on biparentally inherited DNA (e.g., nrDNA) may not, individually, adequately reflect the true genealogy of the species (Sytsma, 1990).

Such a discrepancy is apparently involved with Populus alba and P. nigra, species with very similar chloroplast genomes but distinctive nuclear rDNAs. A pronounced sexual incompatibility exists between these two species. This incompatibility of sect. *Populus* with *P*. nigra extends as well to all members of sects. Aigeiros and Tacamahaca (Ronald, 1982). In contrast, P. nigra readily produces viable crosses with P. deltoides and P. fremontii of its own section and with P. trichocarpa of sect. Tacamahaca (Stout and Schreiner, 1933; Pauley, 1949; Zsuffa, 1973; Eckenwalder, 1982), the latter a section closely related to sect. Aigeiros (Eckenwalder, 1977b). Therefore, the most problematic crosses for P. nigra appear to be with the immediate members of its own cpDNA-based lineage, especially P. alba. Only with solvent treatments and with P. alba as the maternal parent can P. nigra and P. alba be crossed today (Willing and Pryor, 1976; Ronald, 1982; Villar et al., 1987).

Relationship of Populus nigra and P. alba – Prior systematic studies in Populus have included a diverse array of technical approaches: hybrid indices, portrayals of morphological characters (vegetative or reproductive) via bivariate scatter diagrams, analyses of secondary compounds (flavonoids and phenolic glycosides), ecological factors (growth habit, habitat, phenology), experimental genetics (hybridization studies, progeny testing), and both phenetic and cladistic analyses of morphological and chemical characters (Eckenwalder, 1977a, b, 1984b, c). Such studies have overwhelmingly placed P. nigra near the American cottonwoods and separate from the white poplars and aspens of sect. Populus, a segregation maintained by every infrageneric treatment of the genus (Duby, 1828; Spach, 1841; Hartig, 1851; Bugała, 1967; Eckenwalder, 1977b).

Members of sect. Populus are distinguished from P. nigra by a relative immunity to certain leaf rust organisms; e.g., Melampsora medusae (North America) and M. larici-populina (Europe), both known to infect members of sects. Aigeiros (including P. nigra) and Tacamahaca, but only rarely attacking the aspens and white poplars of sect. Populus (Bingham, Hoff, and McDonald, 1972; Ostry and McNabb, 1986). A phenetic analysis of leaf and stem characters in four of the Populus sections generated a set of relationships congruent with traditional schemes based on floral, fruit, and crossability characters (Hu, Crovello, and Sokal, 1985). In that study, sect. Aigeiros stands as a distinct group with the black poplars of subsect. Euroasiaticae situated in the midst of subsect. Americanae. A 3-D principal components ordination of this same data set places *Populus* nigra intermediate to the American cottonwoods (subsect. Americanae) and sect. Tacamahaca, relationships previously hypothesized for these groups based on floral characteristics and crossing relationships (Eckenwalder, 1977b). Only with flavonoids has there been a suggestion of a relationship between the black and white poplars. In an extensive chemotaxonomic study of Populus, a dendrogram generated by cluster analysis of flavonoid similarity values revealed that P. alba var. alba is most similar to P. nigra (Eckenwalder, 1977b). Furthermore, among species of sects. Aigeiros, Tacamahaca, and Populus, only P. alba and P. nigra share the phenolic glycoside isolariciresinol (Thieme and Benecke, 1970a, b).

Evolution of Populus nigra—Our phylogenetic results for maternally (cpDNA) and biparentally (nrDNA) inherited molecules reveal a sister group relationship of the cytoplasm of all European black poplars to the European

(but not American) white poplars and not to the American cottonwoods, yet a divergent relationship of the nuclear genome of the black poplars to both the white poplars and cottonwoods. The results suggest that the genomes of *Populus nigra* are a combination of at least two different species. Two scenarios for the evolution of P. nigra are possible. The first scenario would have P. nigra misplaced taxonomically and as actually derived from within sect. Populus subsect. Tomentosae. But, subsequent to its split in Eurasia from the white poplars or their immediate ancestor, P. nigra hybridized with a species outside sect. Populus that contributed the nuclear genome via introgression. This scenario is unlikely for a number of reasons. It would predict the presence of a species with a P. nigra-like nuclear genome (as seen by nrDNA analysis) distinct from those seen in sects. Populus, Aigeiros (exclusive of P. nigra), and Tacamahaca. In a larger preliminary analysis of the genus Populus, the nrDNA pattern of P. nigra is still distinctive and occupies an isolated position in the genus (Smith and Sytsma, unpublished data). The placement of P. nigra within one clade of subsect. Tomentosae is also not supported by the weight of classical morphological, chemical, and crossing studies. Morphological characters of fertile parts (stigma dilation and lobing, disk shape, capsule shape, stamen number) and of vegetative parts (bracts of pistillate aments, compression of petioles, viscidness of overwintering terminal buds) provide no evidence of a relationship of *P. nigra* to *P.* alba, but rather a relationship to the cottonwoods. Although all these characters have not been analyzed in a cladistic manner (Eckenwalder, 1984b, c), placement of *P. nigra* as the sister taxa to *P. alba*, or other white poplars, would necessitate invoking a considerable amount of morphological convergence of P. *nigra* to the cottonwoods.

The second scenario would have Populus nigra, as it now exists, as derived from an ancient hybridization event in Eurasia, involving an ancestor or relative of P. alba as the maternal (cpDNA) donor, and the immediate ancestor of P. nigra ("pre" P. nigra) as the paternal donor. The discrepancy between the maternal and nuclear phylogenies involving the placement of P. nigra strongly implicates subsequent backcrossing (introgression) of the hybrid to its paternal ancestor. The weight of earlier studies using morphology and other characteristics might argue that this "pre" P. nigra had a nuclear genome related to the American cottonwoods. In this case, the unusual nature of present-day P. nigra rDNA (rel-

ative to the white poplars and cottonwoods) would have to be explained by rapid evolution of rDNA by some molecular phenomena operating to promote rapid turnover and subsequent homogenization of the gene family (Zimmer et al., 1980; Dover, 1982). Alternatively, because the nuclear rDNAs of P. nigra accessions do not fall within any of the examined lineages, it could be argued that "pre" P. nigra might not be related to either the American cottonwoods or the white poplars (nor to any extant lineage so far examined). The exact relationships of the hypothesized paternal ancestor of the black poplars to extant species within *Populus* must await additional information obtained from other nuclear encoded DNAs, such as restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs) (see Keim et al., 1989). In any case, these putative hybridization and introgression events must have predated the divergence of the black poplar varieties, as all varieties of Populus nigra have the same chloroplast genome and nuclear rDNA array.

This second scenario would predict the presence (extant or extinct) of a species or populations ("pre" *P. nigra*) with a "lost" *P. nigra* chloroplast genome. Two central Asian poplars, *Populus sosnowskyi* Grossh. and *P. usbekistanica* Kom., while perhaps mere taxonomic segregates of *P. nigra*, could conceivably still harbor the cpDNA-type "lost" following an ancient *P. alba* \times "pre" *P. nigra* cross. It is important to note that *P. alba* \times *P. nigra* crosses can now only be performed (using solvent washes) with *P. alba* as the maternal source and thus also as the contributor of the chloroplast genome for the hybrid.

In summary, the very similar nature of the chloroplast DNAs in *Populus nigra* and *P. alba*, the very distinctive nuclear rDNA of P. nigra, and the weight of previous classical morphological, chemical, and crossing studies strongly support the second scenario as the most probable for the evolution of the black poplars. The phylogenetic analysis would thus indicate that: 1) the immediate ancestor of P. nigra ("pre" *P. nigra*) occupied a position either within sect. Aigeiros or possibly outside sects. Aigeiros, Tacamahaca, and Populus; 2) it served as the male parent in a cross with P. alba or a related species in Eurasia thereby gaining the P. alba chloroplast genome; 3) the resulting hybrid progeny, acting as the female parent, backcrossed with "pre" P. nigra thereby effectively losing or minimizing the expression of the P. alba nuclear genome; and 4) subsequent progeny, bearing the P. alba cytoplasmic genome, ultimately diverged into the various extant varieties of black poplar in Europe and Asia. The demonstration with nuclear-encoded RFLPs that unidirectional introgression has occurred between *P. fremontii* and *P. angustifolia* in overlap zones (Keim et al., 1989) strengthens the proposed model for the evolution of the black poplars.

The continued presence of Populus nigra in Europe has come into question. Recently, in Europe, "pure" P. nigra has been displaced from its native habitat by spontaneous hybridization with numerous cultivars of P. × canadensis extensively utilized in forestry (Bialobok, 1973; Zsuffa, 1973; Mohrdiek, 1983). Populus \times canadensis is the progeny of P. deltoides \times P. nigra crosses (known also as *P.* × *euramericana*) and is produced only unilaterally, with P. deltoides always acting as the maternal (cpDNA) donor (Villar et al., 1987). It remains to be seen, owing to both the unilateral hybridization phenomena between these species and the maternal inheritance of chloroplasts within the genus, whether the cpDNA genome of P. nigra is currently being extirpated from sexually reproducing populations in Europe. If so, this could serve as a working model for the hypothesized ancient introgressive origin of the black poplars outlined above.

Systematic implications – Phylogenetic discrepancies between maternally inherited genomes and biparentally inherited genomes or with biological species boundaries have been noted for both plants and animals (Ferris et al., 1983; Palmer et al., 1983; Powell, 1983; DeSalle and Giddings, 1986; Sytsma, 1990). These studies have postulated hybridization and unilateral introgression to account for such discrepancies, although matriarchal lineage sorting (Neigel and Avise, 1986) has not been ruled out. The confounding effect of these events on estimates of phylogenetic relationships is particularly great in plants and suggests that exclusive use of characters from just morphology, chloroplast DNA, or the nuclear genome can give rise to errors in phylogenetic reconstruction. Moreover, this study emphasizes the need for caution when analyzing phylogenetically informative characters when they are derived from different sources (e.g., morphology, chloroplast DNA, and nuclear DNA). These results argue against the combination of distinct sets of characters as suggested by Hillis (1987) for morphological and molecular data sets. Instead, this study argues for preliminary separate analyses for each character set, with subsequent examination and explanations of congruence or discordance (Sytsma, 1990).

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