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Phylogenetic analysis of organellar DNA sequences in the Andropogoneae: Saccharinae

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Abstract To study the phylogenetics of sugarcane (Saccharum officinarum L.) and its relatives we sequenced four loci on cytoplasmic genomes (two chloroplast and two mitochondrial) and analyzed mitochondrial RFLPs generated using probes for COXI, COXII, COXIII, Cob, 18S+5S, 26S, ATPase 6, ATPase 9, and ATPase α (D'Hont et al. 1993). Approximately 650 bp of DNA in the intergenic spacer region between *rbcL* and *atpB* and approximately 150 bp from the chloroplast 16S rDNA through the intergenic spacer region tRNA^{val} gene were sequenced. In the mitochondrial genome, part of the 18S rRNA gene and approximately 150 bp from the 18S gene 3' end, through an intergenic spacer region, to the 5S rRNA gene were sequenced. No polymorphisms were observed between maize, sorghum, and 'Saccharum complex' members for the mitochondrial 18S internal region or for the intergenic tRNA^{val} chloroplast locus. Two polymorphisms (insertiondeletion events, indels) were observed within the 18S-5Smitochondrial locus, which separated the accessions into three groups: one containing all of the Erianthus, Eccoilopus, Imperata, Sorghum, and 1 Miscanthus species; a second containing Saccharum species, Narenga porphyrocoma, Sclerostachya fusca, and 1 presumably hybrid Miscanthus sp. from New Guinea; and a third containing maize. Eighteen accessions were sequenced for the intergenic region between *rbcL* and *atpB*, which was the most polymorphic of the regions studied and contained 52 site mutations and 52 indels, across all taxa. Within the Saccharum complex, at most 7 site mutations and 16 indels were informative. The maternal lineage of Erianthus/Eccoilopus was nearly as divergent from the remaining Saccharum complex members as it was from sorghum, in agreement with a previous study. Sequences from the rbcLatpB spacer were aligned with GENBANK sequences for

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S. M. Al-Janabi · M. McClelland · C. Petersen · B. W. S. Sobral (⊠) California Institute of Biological Research, 11099 North Torrey Pines Road, Suite 300, La Jolla CA 92037, USA wheat, rice, barley, and maize, which were used as outgroups in phylogenetic analyses. To determine whether limited intra-complex variability was caused by under sampling of taxa, we used seven restriction enzymes to digest the PCR-amplified rbcL-atpB spacer of an additional 36 accessions within the Saccharum complex. This analysis revealed ten restriction sites (none informative) and eight length variants (four informative). The small amount of variation present in the organellar DNAs of this polyploid complex suggests that either the complex is very young or that rates of evolution between the Saccharum complex and outgroup taxa are different. Other phylogenetic information will be required to resolve systematic relationships within the complex. Finally, no variation was observed in commercial sugarcane varieties, implying a world-wide cytoplasmic monoculture for this crop.

Key words Cycle sequencing · PCR · Chloroplast Sugarcane · Polyploid · *rbcL* · *atpB* · Mitochondria *Saccharum*

Introduction

Saccharum L. is part of the Saccharinae subtribe of the Andropogoneae (Watson et al. 1985, Clayton and Renvoize 1986). The Andropogoneae are frequently polyploid and many are also of great socio-economic importance (Stebbins 1956; Soltis et al. 1992). Very little is known about the speciation and evolution of polyploids even though about 50-70% of all grass species are polyploid (Stebbins 1956; Soltis et al. 1992). Furthermore, it is difficult to delimit some polyploid plant species as interspecific boundaries are unclear because of the possibility of hybridization and chromosome doubling. These biological phenomena have helped keep the taxonomy of Saccharum in a state of flux, especially at lower ranks. Mukherjee (1957) coined the term 'Saccharum complex' to refer to members of Narenga Bor, Sclerostachya (Anderss. ex Hackel) A. Camus, Erianthus Michx. section Ripidium, and Saccharum that can interbreed and in which species (1) are endemic to the Bengal-Assam-Sikkim area in India, (2) have been classified as Saccharum at one time or another, and (3) have been directly implicated in the evolution of Saccharum by various authors. More recently. Daniels and Williams (1975) included Miscanthus Anderss. section Diandra species in a revision of the complex and extended the geographic range to include the Indo-Burma-China border region. A recent taxonomy of the Andropogoneae considers Erianthus and Narenga to be synonymous with Saccharum, Eccoilopus synonymous with Spodiopogon, and Miscanthus synonymous with Miscanthidium and Sclerostachya (Clayton and Renvoize 1986). It seems that the Saccharum complex is a group of plants with their own evolutionary history. However, it remains unclear as to what has been the role of the processes of hybridization and chromosome doubling in the evolution of this complex, though there has been much speculation. In addition, it is unclear what is the main reproductive mode in nature: vegetative or sexual. The taxonomy of Saccharum has been and still is complex and controversial. Some of the controversy may stem from the use of morphological traits as such traits may be difficult to score in polyploid species that can interbreed. Furthermore, it is clear that human activities over the past 10,000 years or more have played a crucial role in the dispersal, selection, and vegetative propagation of particular genotypes of sugarcane and its relatives, including interspecific and intergeneric hybrids (Brandes 1928; Artschwager and Brandes 1958; Bellwood 1985). Studies using leaf flavonoids (Williams and Harborne 1974; Daniels et al. 1980) and leaf waxes (Smith and Martin-Smith 1978) suggest that a large amount of variability is present in some species (notably S. spontaneum and Erianthus species).

Studies using the tools of molecular systematics in the Saccharum complex were pioneered by Waldron et al. (1974). They used β -amylase isoenzymes as genetic markers in Saccharum and its relatives and found that collection site was correlated with banding pattern, which was proposed to indicate widespread occurrence of hybridization. The limited existing body of molecular data support a recent common ancestry for sorghum and sugarcane. Hamby and Zimmer (1988) used nuclear rRNA sequences of taxa within Poales to infer phylogeny. Their phylogenetic hypothesis showed that Sorghum and Saccharum were very closely related; in fact these had the smallest pairwise genetic distance (d=0.00611) of any two genera sampled. This is interesting because Sorghum is thought to have radiated from Africa whereas Saccharum has been suggested to have radiated from Southeastern Asia. Current taxonomy suggests that the genetic distance from Saccharum to any member of the Saccharum complex should be smaller than the Saccharum-Sorghum distance. Springer et al. (1989) analyzed the genomic organization of nuclear rDNA in Sorghum and its close relatives using restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs). They found that sorghum, sugarcane, and maize had very similar rDNA monomer sizes and restriction maps and that sorghum and sugarcane are more closely related to each other than either is to maize. Both studies used only one genotype of Saccharum, and it was a commercial interspecific hybrid (S. officinarum \times S. spontaneum hybrids). Glaszmann et al. (1990) determined RFLP variation of nuclear rDNA in some Saccharum species, commercial hybrids, one Erianthus arundinaceus accession, and one Miscanthus species. They reported 15 rDNA length variants, some of which appeared to be phylogenetically informative, though no phylogenies were inferred, possibly because most accessions studied had more than one rDNA RFLP phenotype and hybridizing fragments varied in intensity. D'Hont et al. (1993) studied organellar RFLPs in 57 accessions of Saccharum and some Saccharum complex members; they found no variation using 2 chloroplast probes that covered approximately 20% of the wheat chloroplast genome, although a single fragment was missing for the single Erianthus and Miscanthus species studied. In addition, nine mitochondrial probes yielded ten different pattern types, although no phylogenetic hypothesis was generated from their data. Sobral et al. (1994) studied chloroplast RFLPs using 32 accessions representing eight genera and 19 species with 15 restriction enzymes and 12 rice chloroplast probes that covered the rice chloroplast genome entirely. Sixty-two mapped restriction site mutations (18 informative) placed the accessions into nine clades: seven from within the Saccharinae, maize, and sorghum. Maternal lineages of Saccharum, Narenga, Sclerostachya, and Miscanthus were shown to form a monophyletic group displaying little variation, whereas *Erianthus* and *Eccoi*lopus were shown to be different from other Saccharum complex members. Because the level of polymorphism detected by previous studies was very low, we sequenced potentially polymorphic regions in the chloroplast genome to allow a finer level of phylogenetic resolution within the Saccharum complex and herein report the results.

Materials and methods

Plant materials

Plant accessions and their origins are listed in Table 1. These accessions were chosen to represent a wide range of species, and they differ in their origin and chromosome numbers; some have been studied previously (Sobral et al. 1993).

Primer design

To study cytoplasmic DNA sequence variation we chose regions in the genome that were highly conserved though interspersed with polymorphic regions. We constructed primers to the conserved regions that would amplify across regions that were expected to be polymorphic based on previous work (Zurawski et al. 1984; Salts et al. 1984; Bowman et al. 1983; Birky 1988; Zurawski and Clegg 1987) and GENBANK sequences. To study chloroplast sequence variation, primers were designed to target two loci: the intergenic spacer region between the highly conserved tRNA^{val} gene and the 16S rRNA gene, and the intergenic region between *rbcL* and *atpB*. In the mitochondrial genome the intergenic spacer region between the 18S and 5S rRNA genes was amplified as well as an internal region of the 18S gene.

Primers were designed such that a pair of external primers was flanked by a pair of internal, or nested primers. The external set was used to amplify the primary product from total DNA, and the inter-

Table 1	Plant	accessions	and	their	origin	(U	undetermined	1
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Species	Group ^a	Genotype	Origin ^b	Cytol ^c	Source ^d
Accessions used only in MRS	SP study:	· · · ·			····
Coix gigantea		IS 76-199	Indonesia	U	WC
Erianthus arundinaceus	Ripidium	SES 288	India	U	Houma
	Ripidium	Mardan	U	54	Houma
E. bengalense	Ripidium	IMP 2886	U	U	Houma
E. procerus	Ripidium	Kalimpong	U	40	Houma
E. ravennae	Ripidium	SES 372	Ū	20	Houma
Miscanthus sinensis	Diandra	NG 77-22	PNG	38	TAES
Saccharum harberi	Saretha	Katha	India	90	Houma
	Nargori	Nargori	India	124	TAES
S officingrum	Turgon	NG 57 72	DNC	12 4 90	TAES
5. Ojjičinaram	Vacaaar	ING 57-72		0U TAEC	IAES
C			80	IAES	ama
S. robusium	Teboe Salak	Teboe Salak Toewa	Celebes	90	CIC
	wau-Bulolo	NG 57-11	PNG	60	CIC
	Goroka	NG 57-208	PNG	80	HSPA
	Port Moresby	NH 1	NH	80	HSPA
S. sinense	Pansahi	Chuk Chee	U	U	TAES
	Pansahi	Uba Nanquim	U	U	TAES
S. spontaneum		NG 51-2	PNG	80	HSPA
•		SES 370	Nepal	40	HSPA
		SES 208	India	64	HSPA
		SES 113A	India	48	WC
	Aegyntiacum	Aegyptiacum	Egypt	112	WC
	negypnacam	SES 517 (Canton 1)	China	112	WC
		Okinawa	Lanon	112	WC
Saachanum on	Comm hybrid	Okillawa	Japan	112	WC
Saccharum sp.	Comm. hybrid	EK 28	Breeding	U	IAES
Saccharum sp.	Comm. hybrid	POJ 100	Breeding	U	TAES
Saccharum sp.	Comm. hybrid	POJ 28/8	Breeding	U	TAES
Saccharum sp.	Comm. hybrid	Co 206	Breeding	U	TAES
Saccharum sp.	Comm. hybrid	SP 70-1143	Breeding	U	TAES
Saccharum sp.	Comm. hybrid	CP 65-357	Breeding	U	TAES
Saccharum sp.	Comm. hybrid	CP 70-321	Breeding	U	TAES
Sclerostachya fusca		US-58-5-2	U	30	Houma
Sorghum alum			U	U	ASCL
S. bicolor		Wray	U	20	TAES
S. halepense			Ū	20	ASCI
S. plumosum		US 71-17	Ŭ	1	WC
		00/11/	0	0	we
Accessions sequenced for ent	tire <i>rhcL-atpR</i> spacer:				
Eccolorus longisetosus	the roch app space.	US 57-11-2	India	60	Houme
Frianthus kanashiori		MIA 22247	TT	U	WC
E trinii	New World	$\frac{1}{100} \frac{1}{100} \frac{1}$	Arcontino	U	WC
Minagethus siminas	New World	7 -h-minute	Argenuna	0	Houma
Miscaninus sininses		Zeorinus	U	38	IAES
Miscantnus sp.		NG //-193	U	192	Houma
Narenga porphyrocoma		US 58-4-1	U	30	TAES
Saccharum barberi	Saretha	Chunnee	India	U	TAES
S. edule	New Guinea	NH 70-23	New Hebrides	U	TAES
S. officinarum		NG 51-131	PNG	80	TAES
		Black cheribon	Java	80	TAES
S. robustum	Sanguineum	NG 28-218	PNG	70	TAES
S. sinense	Pansahi	China	U	112	WC
S. spontaneum		Coimbatorre	India	64	TAES
*		SES 561	Sudan	128	HSDA
Sorghum bicolor		Sweetchew	U	20	TAES
Vetiveria sp.		ND 81-53 (IMP0755)	20	ŴC	INDO
Zea mays		Dk77w Debalh	11	20	TAES
		Conlee 202	U	20	IAES
		Conice 202	U	40	IAES

^a Group=non-taxonomic grouping used by sugarcane biologists; generally related to cytological or geographic groups
^b Origin=original place of collection (Artschwager 1954; Brandes et al. 1939; Moriya 1940; Price 1968; Panje and Babu 1960)
^c Cytol=2n chromosome number (Moriya 1940; Panje and Babu 1960; Price 1957; Burner 1991; Mohan and Sreenivasan 1983)
^d Source refers to the place from which we obtained a sample. (*TAES* Texas Agricultural Experiment Station, Weslaco Texas; *Houma* US-DA Sugercane Laboratory at Houma, LA; *WC* World collection Miami FL; *HSPA* Hawaiian Sugarcane Planters Association; *CTC* Copersucar Sugarcane Technology Center collection, Piracicaba, Brazil)



Fig. 1 Oligonucleotide primers used to amplify loci for sequencing. Primer designations are as described in Materials and methods. Maps are not drawn to scale

nal or nested set of primers was used for cycle-sequencing, giving cleaner results than if the external primers were used to prime sequencing reactions. Primer sequences were checked against GEN-BANK to ensure that they did not match well at the 3' end with any structural RNAs except those in targeted regions. These primers should work with all angiosperms because we selected regions that were conserved across monocot-dicot divergence, based on current GENBANK sequences. Primer details and map positions are shown in Fig. 1, along with information about the amplified regions. The sequences of the primers are as follows (designations in parentheses correspond to those in Fig. 1):

5'-GGAAAAGTGATATCCAGCAC-3'
5'-GGCAACTTGCCCGGGGGGAAA-3'
5'-TTGAGTTGTTGTTATGGTAA-3'
5'-TATACACCCTGTGTACGTTC-3'
5'-AGTTCGAGCCTGATTATCCC-3'
5'-AAGTCATCAGTTCGAGCCTG-3'
5'-GCATGCCGCCAGCGTTCATC-3'
5'-TTGCATGTGTTAAGCATGCC-3'
5'-GACATGCGCCTAAGGAGAAA-3'
5'-GTGTTGCTGAGACATGCGCC-3'
5'-TGCCACAAAGGCCTTTGGTG-3'
5'-GTAACAAGGTAGCCGTAGGG-3'
5'-AAACACGTCTCACCGTAGTG-3'
5'-ATATGGCGCAAGACGATTCC-3'

DNA manipulations

Total DNA was extracted by the method of Honeycutt et al. (1992) and stored in aliquots at -20 °C. Working stocks were generated for polymerase chain reaction (PCR): these contained 100, 10, or 1 ng μ l⁻¹ DNA in TE (Maniatis et al. 1982). PCR was used to amplify target regions: reactions used 10–30 ng of template DNA, 0.2 mM of each dNTP, 4 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM KCl, 20 mM TRIS-HCl pH 8.8, 10 mM (NH₄)SO₄, 0.45 μ M of each primer, and 2.5 U Vent DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs, Beverly, Mass.) in a 50 μ l reaction volume. Thermal cycling was done in a System 9600 (Perkin-Elmer, Norwalk, Conn.), using the following thermal profile: 94 °C for 1 min, 60 °C for 1 min, and 72 °C for 2 min, for a total of 30 cycles. For each reaction of products.

DNA sequencing

Products positively identified on agarose gels were subjected to PCR cycle-sequencing (Ruanto and Kidd 1991) with the internal ("nested") primers (Fig. 1). For cycle-sequencing reactions, a 50 μ l cock-

tail was prepared that contained 6 mM each dNTP, 3 mM Mg⁺⁺ $1 \times Taq$ buffer (10 mM TRIS-HCl, pH 8.3, 50 mM KCl), 1 μ Ci $[^{32}P]$ dCTP (3,000 mCi mmol, NEN), 4 µM of 1 internal primer, 5 U Taq polymerase and 2 µl template from primary amplification (approximately 40 ng template). This cocktail was divided into four tubes to which ddNTPs (Pharmacia, Piscataway, N. J.) were added separately at the following final concentrations: 667 μ M ddATP, 667 μ M ddTTP, 400 µM ddCTP, 80 µM ddGTP. The ddNTP solutions were prepared in $1 \times Taq$ buffer supplemented with 2.5 mM Mg⁺⁺. These sequencing reactions were then cycled 30 times in the Gene Amp 9600 using the following temperature profile: denaturation at 95 °C for 45 s, annealing at 55 °C for 35 s, and extension at 72 °C for 75 s with a ramp of 30 s between each change of temperature. Six microliters of the sequencing reaction products were denatured by diluting 1:1 in formamide dye solution (final formamide concentration was 50%) at 85 °C for 5 min, and then 8 µl of the denatured mix was loaded on a 0.35-mm 5% polyacrylamide sequencing gel. The gel was run in 1×TBE (Maniatis et al. 1982) at a constant power of 50 W for approximately 1.5 h, then submitted to autoradiography for 24-48 h. Approximately 150-200 bp of sequence could be read using direct cycle-sequencing.

Because of its length and polymorphic nature, the amplified rbcLatpB intergenic region was cloned into PCR-Script SK(⁺) vector (Stratagene, La Jolla Calif.). Two hundred nanograms of the PCR products were incubated with 50 ng of PCR-Script SK(⁺) DNA, 0.5 mM rATP, 15 U SrfI (Stratagene), 4 U T4 DNA ligase, 100 μM KOAc, 25 mM TRIS-OAc, pH 7.6, 10 mM MgOAc, and 10 µg ml⁻¹ BSA in 11 ul of total reaction volume. Single-stranded and doublestranded DNAs were used for DNA sequencing of the cloned rbcLatpB spacer region. The chain-termination method was used (Sanger et al. 1975). Sequenase v 2.0 sequencing kit (United States Biochemical, Cleveland, Ohio) was used with primer 6B (Fig. 1) for single-stranded DNA sequencing and primer 5B (Fig. 1) for doublestranded DNA sequencing, allowing the resolution of up to 500 bases in each direction. In each reaction 5 μ Ci of α -[³⁵S]-dATP (Amersham, Arlington, Ill.) was used. Sequencing reactions were resolved on 50% urea-6% polyacrylamide denaturing gels for 3-5 h at 50 W constant power. Gels were dried for 1 h at 80 °C, and autoradiography was done overnight at -70°C using X-omat-AR film (Kodak) and an intensifying screen.

Mapped restriction site polymorphism (MRSP) analysis

Site and length mutations within the *rbcL-atpB* spacer were determined in all genotypes by restriction analysis of the target region using the map of the region that was established from the DNA sequences (Ralph et al. 1993; Liston 1992). Seven restriction enzymes with 4-bp target sites [HinfI, HphI, PleI, HhaI, MboI, (NEB) SauI, EcoO109I (Stratagene)] were used according to the manufacturer's instructions. The rbcL-atpB region was first amplified by PCR following the same conditions mentioned in DNA manipulation (above) except that we included 0.2 μ Ci α -[³²P] dCTP to label the resulting fragments. This allowed visualization of the restriction fragments on high resolution polyacrylamide sequencing gels. A 2-µl aliquot of the PCR reaction was mixed with 10 µl of formamide dye and 1.5 µl was used for electrophoresis for 2.5-3 h on 6% polyacrylamide gels. The gels were then dried for 1 h at 80 °C and autoradiography was done overnight at -70 °C using X-omat-AR film (Kodak). The presence or absence of a restriction site or of a particular length mutation was scored (Table 3).

Phylogenetic analyses

DNA sequence were scored independently at least twice. Sequences were analyzed for restriction sites using DNA Strider v 1.0.1. Manual sequence alignment was done to establish the database for the phylogenetic analyses. Nucleotides were treated as individual characters and analyzed by cladistic parsimony and maximum likelihood using PAUP v 3.1.1 (Swofford 1991) and PHYLIP v 3.4 (Felsenstein 1989). Insertion/deletion events (indels) were obtained by aligning sequences in the most parsimonious way. The presence or absence of a nucleotide or group of nucleotides was scored as a unordered binary character. The resulting matrix of 719 characters, containing Table 2Classification of DNAsequences in cytoplasmic ge-nomes of sugarcane and relatedgrasses (ND not determined)

Accession	Mitochond	rion	Chlorop	last	
	3A to 4A ^a	7A ^b	6A ^c	5A ^d	1B to 2A ^e
Erianthus arundinaceus	A	ND	A	ND	ND
E. bengalense	А	ND	А	ND	ND
E. longisetosus	А	ND	А	ND	ND
E. procerus	А	ND	А	ND	ND
E. ravennae	Α	ND	Α	ND	ND
E. trinii	А	ND	А	D	ND
Imperata cylindrica	А	ND	А	ND	ND
Miscanthus sinensis	Α	А	С	С	ND
Miscanthus sp. (New Guinea)	В	ND	Α	D	ND
Narenga porphyrocoma	В	ND	Α	ND	ND
Saccharum edule	В	ND	А	Α	А
S. barberi	В	А	А	А	ND
S. officinarum	В	А	А	А	А
S. robustum	В	ND	А	ND	А
S. sinense	В	А	А	Α	А
S. spontaneum	В	А	А	Α	А
Sclerostachya fusca	В	А	А	ND	ND
Sorghum bicolor	А	Α	А	В	Α
Zea mays	С	А	В	D	А
Commercial hybrids ^f	ND	ND	А	А	А

^a All primer numbers refer to Fig. 1. Species with the same letter (A, B, or C) had the same sequence. Data is based on scoring of 1 polymorphism (a deletion/insertion event) that separated types A from B and 2 polymorphisms that separated both A and B from C. Both strands have been sequenced

^b No polymorphisms were observed between sugarcane species and outgroup species in the first 200 bases using 7A as a sequencing primer

^c Based on analysis of the first 150 bases using 6A as a primer. The two polymorphisms that differentiated the types were insertion/deletion events

^d Same as note (c) above, except 3 polymorphisms were scored

^e No polymorphisms observed between outgroups and *Saccharum* complex members. *Arabidopsis thaliana* sequence has also been determined

^f Based on evaluation of 7 accessions (Table 1), some of which are in the lineage of almost all commercial clones used by modern sugarcane growers

the nucleotide sequence and 55 indels, was analyzed with settings to ignore invariant characters. In some analyses, transitions were weighted 1.5×transversions, according to results of others from analysis of this sequence (Zurawski et al. 1984).

The analysis of mitochondrial data from D'Hont et al. (1993) was done by re-coding their data (which had been scored qualitatively) into binary characters based on the presence or absence of a restriction fragment of a particular size. As these data represent restriction enzyme sites, we weighted the costs of transformation for each character state using stepmatrices in PAUP, as described (Albert et al. 1992; Sobral et al. 1993). For these data, our method of scoring is called fragment "direct" analysis (FDA) by Bremer (1991). We are confident of homology of fragments because D'Hont et al. (1993) generated their data using Southern hybridization with nine conserved mitochondrial gene probes from wheat. However, independence of characters is violated by scoring in this manner without knowing the restriction maps of the probes (not reported by D'Hont et al. 1993).

Results

Primer performance

Initially, we tested primers on Zea mays and Arabidopsis thaliana to compare the sequences amplified with those reported in GENBANK. Amplified sequences matched reported sequences. We then tested the spectrum of plant taxa in which the primers would be useful. We included two *Pinus* species (pinyon pines, kindly provided by Paul Keim, Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff), *P. edulis* and *P. californiarum* in our amplifications, in addition to the plants listed in Table 1. Generally, the primers worked well in angiosperms and poorly or not at all in pinyon pine, at least under our high stringency conditions. Primer pairs that did yield products in pinyon pine were from the mitochondrial genome and more than one fragment was amplified (not shown).

Sequence variation

The sequenced regions from representatives of the Saccharum complex were aligned with GENBANK sequences. In Table 2, these data are shown and genomes having the same scores are grouped. Our strategy was to first sequence and compare maize and sorghum with representative Saccharum genotypes (Table 2). If polymorphisms were not observed between maize and sugarcane, as in the region of the mitochondrial 18S primed by oligonucleotide 7A or the intergenic region of the chloroplast genome primed by oligonucleotides 1B and 2A, then sequencing of accessions within the Saccharum complex was not done. Cycle-sequencing of the ends of the intergenic region between *rbcL* and *atpB*, using oligonucleotides 6A and 5A, revealed some chloroplast-borne polymorphism (Table 2), so this region was cloned and sequenced in its entirety.

Accessions	S1 ^a	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S 7	S8	S9	S10	LV1 ^t	' LV2	LV3	LV4	LV5	LV6	LV7	LV8
E. kanashiori Sorghum plumosum	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0
S. officinarum (2) Coix gigantea E. arundinanceus E. bengalense Eccoilopus longisetosus E. procerus E. ravennae S. barberi (2) S. edule S. robustum (4) S. sinense (2) Vetiveria sp Saccharum sp. (7)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0
S. spontaneum (8) Miscanthus sinensis E. trinii Narenga porphyrocoma Sclerostachya fusca Imperata cylindrica	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0
Sorghum bicolor Sorghum alum Sorghum halepense	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
Zea mays	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1

Table 3 Summary of the mapped restriction site polymorphism (MRSP) study. Each group of accessions separated by a blank from the next group has the same scores as the first representative of that group. Numbers in parentheses indicate number of accessions studied

^a S1-S10: restriction sites: S1, PleI, S2, Sau96I; S3, HphI; S4, MboI; S5, EcoO109I; S6, HhaI; S7-S10, HinfI

^b LV1-LV8: length variants (position in bp based on map in Fig. 3): LV1, at position 172; LV2, at position 324; LV3, at position 346; LV4, at position 391; LV5, at position 427; LV6, 504; LV7, at position 525; and LV8, at position 544



Fig. 2 Unique restriction sites in the *rbcL-atpB* spacer. A restriction map of the spacer was created by analyzing the sequence data collected on 18 accessions. Unique sites occurred only once in the sequence

Mitochondrial polymorphisms were observed after sequencing with oligonucleotides 3A and 4A (Table 2), but the presence or absence of 2 indels were all that separated the accessions into three groups. *Erianthus/Eccoilopus* accessions showed the same mitochondrial sequence as sorghum, and a presumably hybrid, high chromosome number (2n=192) *Miscanthus* sp. from New Guinea showed the same sequence as *Saccharum/Narenga*, in agreement with previous results obtained from an analysis of chloroplast restriction site mutations (Sobral et al. 1993). Modern cane varieties, which are interspecific hybrids between *S. officinarum* and *S. spontaneum*, in which *S. officinarum* generally serves as the female, recurrent parent, did not show variability for loci sequenced in this preliminary evaluation (Table 2). This was not surprising because no variation was observed within the *Saccharum* genus.

To determine whether the limited variability observed within the *Saccharum* complex was due to an undersampling of taxa, we conducted a study using the restriction map (Fig. 3) generated by the complete sequence of the intergeneric *rbcL-atpB* region for the taxa listed in Table 1. Seven restriction enzymes were identified that revealed a



Fig. 3 Example of MRSP analysis using *Hinf*I restriction digest resolved on 6% polyacrylamide gel. * indicates accessions for which complete sequences of the *rbcL-atpB* spacer were determined, *M* pBR322 /*Hpa*II molecular weight marker

total of ten target sites within the region and eight length variants. None of the site mutations and only four of the indels were informative (Table 3). An additional 36 accessions (besides those sequenced, see Table 1) were analyzed by MRSP including 7 S. spontaneum accessions chosen to represent cyto/geographical groups and 7 commercial varieties that are in the maternal lineage of almost all sugarcane grown today. Furthermore, 4 S. robustum accessions from New Guinea, some of which have been implicated in the origin of sugarcane (Daniels and Roach 1987), were included. An example of MRSP analysis resolved on a sequencing gel is shown in Fig. 3. At this level of resolution, we obtained five groups of genotypes that each had the same score for all restriction sites and length mutations (Table 3). Although MRSP analysis cannot yield the same level of phylogenetic resolution as sequencing, it revealed that the limited variability observed within the Saccharum complex and close relatives was likely not due to undersampling of taxa, at least for this locus. This is a reasonable conclusion because the indels were more frequently polymorphic than point mutations within the ingroup taxa, and MRSP data showed products of the same length as a sequenced accession of the same species for the additional accessions analyzed.

Phylogenetic analysis

Manual alignment of 664 nucleotides from the *rbcL-atpB* spacer region yielded 52 site mutations and 55 insertion/deletion events (shown in Table 4) when all taxa were considered. Of these, only 7 site mutations and 16 insertion/deletion events were informative within the proposed *Saccharum* complex accessions (Mukherjee 1957; Daniels and Williams 1975). The greatest number of site mutations between any two *Saccharum* complex accessions was between *S. officinarum* Black Cheribon and *Narenga porphyrocoma*, which differed by 7 site mutations and had an average genetic distance difference of 0.302 (Table 5). This was the same number of site mutations observed between these 2 taxa and *Sorghum bicolor*, for which an average genetic distance of less than 0.3 was calculated.

Informative polymorphisms allowed placement of the 18 sequences into 12 terminal taxa, plus wheat, rice, and barley sequences obtained from GENBANK. DNA sequences for *S. barberi, S. edule, S. officinarum* NG 51-131, and *S. robustum* were identical, and the terminal taxon representing this group of accessions is *S. robustum*. Likewise, the two *S. spontaneum* accessions sequenced were identical, as were *S. officinarum* 'Black Cheribon' and *S. sinense*, the latter pair forming a terminal taxon represented by 'Black Cheribon'.

Pairwise genetic distances computed in PAUP from analysis of the character matrix are shown in Table 5. Branch-and-bound searches, sometimes weighting transitions 1.5×transversions (Zurawski et al. 1984), yielded 79

Node	11111111111111111111111222333333333333
	113444678801233334557778889999902280011123445667788801122244789900222333351112223344455666677777777777777777778888888888899999999
	14730573578508045638945715625789099082456159849020785195672449033445603892137126175671756789012345678890123456789012345678901234567890123456789012345678901234567890123456788901234567890123456789012345678901234567890123456789012345678901234567890123456789012345678901234567890123456789012345678901234567889012345678890123456788901234567889012345678898888898888888888888888888888888888
O. sativa	TACTCTCACCTAAT?CTTC??TACTCTTGGGAGCATAGTTAGGTCGGCCGCCTGCTCGGCGAGATCTTGCGTTTATACGC101111111101000011101010111010011110110
H. vulgare	$\label{eq:construct} T^2 \\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ $
T. aestivum	T??GTCGATAAGA?TTTCC??TTTTCTTAGCCTTGTGCCCAGGTCAACCGCGCCTCCTTTG??CAATAGACTCCGCCTATACTC1110001100110110110101010101000000000
Zm DeKalbW77	AGAGTCGGCCAGACCTC?TTT?CCCCGATACTAGCGTGCTC?T7GCAACTACACCGGC?TTGGGT??CAAGAA?CGGCGTCTACGTGT11111011011011000011000011010110000110000
E. kanashiori	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC?TCCTTAGCCCGATACTAGCGTGCTCTTATCAACCACCTCG?TTGGGT?????CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT1111100001111110000111110000111100001010
E. longisetosus	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC?TCCTTAGCCCGATACTAGCGTGCTCTTAACCACCTCG?TTGGGT?????CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT1111100001111000011110001010100010101010
E. trinii	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC?TCCTTAGCCGATACTAGCGTGCTCTTATCAACCACCTCG?TTGGGT?????CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT1111100001011110000101110000101100001010
S. barberi	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC?TCCTTAGCCGATACTAGCGTGCTC?TATCAACCACCTCG?TTGGGT?????CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT1111100001011111000011010010101000101010
Sorghum bicolor	a GaGTCGGCCAGAC7TCCTTAGCCCGATACTAGCGTGCTC7TATCAACCACGCTTC77TCGGAT77ATTCGAATGGCGTGT111110000101111100001101010101010101
S. edule	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC?TCCTTAGCCCGATACTAGCGTGCTC?TATCAACCACCTCG?TTGGGTT????CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT111110000111110000110100101010101010
So. NG51-131	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC?TCCTTAGCCGATACTAGCGTGCTC?TATCAACCACCTCG?TTGGGTT????CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT1111100001011110000110100101010001010101
S. robustum	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC?TCCTTAGCCCGATACTAGCGTGCTC?TATCAACCACCTCG?TTGGGTT?????CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT1111100001101000110100101010001010101
S. spontaneum C	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC?TCCTTAGCCCGATACTAGCGTGCTC?TATCAACCACCTCG?TTGGGT?????CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT111100001011111000011011010001010101
S. spontaneum S	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC?TCCTTAGCCGGATACTAGCGTGCTC?TATCAACCACCTCG?TTGGGT?????CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT1111100001011111000011011010101000101010
Vetiveri spp.	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC?TCCTTAGCCGGATACTAGCGTGCTC?TATCAACCACCTCG?TTGGGTGA???CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT111110000110100011010010100101011011011
So. B Cheribon	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC7TCCTTAGCCCCGCTACTAGCTGCTC?TATCAACTACACCGCG7777???CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT11111000010110100011010001010100001110000
S. sinense	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC?TCCTTAGCCGCTACTAGCGTGCTC?TATCAACTACACCGCG?TTGGGT?????CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT1111100010111100001100010001010100001110000
Narenga Bor	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC?TCCTTAGCCCGATACTAGCGAGCTC?TATCAACCAACCCTCG?TTGGGT?????CGAACGGG?TCTACGTGT1111100001111100001101111000110101101011010
Miscanthus sp.	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC7TCCTTTGCCCGATACTAGCGTGCTC?TATCAACCACCTCGGTTGGGT?????CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT1111100010111110000110111000011010001010
M. sinensis Z	AGAGTCGGCCAGAC7TCCTAAGCCGATACTAGCGTGCTC7TATCAACCACCTCG7TTGGGT?????CGAACGGCGTCTACGTGT1111101001011111000011011110000101101000101

Table 4 Input data matrix for PAUP. Numbers in header refer to character number in the data matrix. Node refers to taxon designation in trees (Fig. 4)

	-	2	3	4	5	9	7	8	6	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1 O. sativa	19	0.455	0.440	0.542	0.556	0.549	0.556	0.553	0.575	0.556	0.556	0.556	0.553	0.553	0.530 0	0.576	0.576	0.603	0.549	0.561 0.496
2 II. vaigare 3 T. aestivum	26	1 4	+01.0	0.504	0.477	0.485	0.492	0.488	0.511	0.488	0.488	0.488	0.488	0.488	0.512	0.512	0.512	0.539	0.485	0.496
4 Z. mays	71	66	65		0.162	0.154	0.177	0.131	0.189	0.131	0.131	0.131	0.146	0.146	0.169	0.115	0.115	0.186	0.146	0.162
5 E. kanashiori	74	62	62	21	1	0.037	0.030	0.030	0.105	0.030	0.030	0.030	0.015	0.015	0.067	0.075	0.075	0.083	0.045	0.045
6 E. longisetosus	73	63	63	20	ŝ	Ι	0.052	0.022	0.098	0.022	0.022	0.022	0.037	0.037	0.045	0.067	0.067	0.105	0.067	0.067
7 E. trinii	74	64	64	23	4	7	I	0.045	0.120	0.045	0.045	0.045	0.030	0.030	0.082	0.090	0.090	0.098	0.060	0.060
8 S. barberi	73	63	63	17	4	ю	9	I	0.075	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.015	0.015	0.037	0.045	0.045	0.083	0.045	0.045
9 Sorghum bicolor	<i>LL</i>	67	67	25	14	13	16	10	ł	0.075	0.075	0.075	0.090	0.090	0.113	0.105	0.105	0.136	0.105	0.105
10 S. edule	74	63	63	17	4	ę	9	0	10	I	0.000	0.000	0.015	0.015	0.044	0.045	0.045	0.083	0.045	0.045
11 So NG51-131	74	63	63	17	4	Э	9	0	10	0	l	0.000	0.015	0.015	0.044	0.045	0.045	0.083	0.045	0.045
12 S. robustum	74	63	63	17	4	m	9	0	10	0	0	T	0.015	0.015	0.044	0.045	0.045	0.083	0.045	0.045
13 S. spontaneum C	73	63	63	19	2	S	4	7	12	6	7	6	1	0.000	0.052	0.060	0.060	0.068	0.030	0.030
14 S. spontaneum S	73	63	63	19	2	ŝ	4	2	12	2	0	7	0	Ι	0.052	0.060	0.060	0.068	0.030	0.030
15 Vetiveri spp.	71	99	99	22	6	9	11	ŝ	15	9	9	9	٢	L	1	0.082	0.082	0.120	0.082	0.082
16 So. B Cheribon	76	99	99	15	10	6	12	9	14	9	9	9	×	8	11	I	0.000	0.083	0.060	0.060
17 S. sinense	76	99	<u>6</u> 6	15	10	6	12	9	14	9	9	9	×	×	11	0	1	0.083	0.060	0.060
18 Narengapor	79	69	69	24	11	14	13	11	18	11	11	11	6	6	16	11	11	I	0.068	0.068
19 Miscanthus sp.	73	63	63	19	9	6	8	9	14	9	9	9	4	4	11	×	8	6	I	0.030
20 M. sinensis Z	74	64	64	21	9	6	8	9	14	9	9	9	4	4	11	8	8	6	4	1
^a Below diagonal: absolut	te distar	ices; ab	ove diag	ional: m	can dist	ances (a	djusted	for miss	ing data	(). Dista	nces we	re calcu	ated as	describe	bd in PA	UP 3.1.	1 (Swof	ford 199)1)	

Table 5 Pairwise genetic distances^a between taxa

equally parsimonious trees. A 50% majority rule consensus of these trees is shown in Fig. 4A. Topology of the consensus tree was unaffected by weighting transitions in relation to transversions. The phylogenetic hypothesis shown indicates that sorghum, maize, rice, wheat, and barley occupied outgroup positions, as expected, and that the ingroup, composed of Saccharum complex accessions, was monophyletic and displayed extremely low sequence variability. Furthermore, a strict consensus tree showed "raking" of the ingroup although a clear separation of Erianthus and Vetiveria was maintained (Fig. 4B; see also Table 4). If indels were ignored, then sequences from E. kanashiori, E. trinii, S. barberi, S. edule, S. officinarum NG 51-131, S. robustum, both S. spontaneum accessions, and Vetiveria sp. were the same. Phylogenetic analysis was also conducted using only maize as an outgroup. Under these conditions, six equally parsimonious trees were obtained (not shown). These trees preserved the general topology of the trees shown in Fig. 4.

Forty point mutations between maize and barley allowed us to calculate the nucleotide substitution rate in this region. Assuming a divergence time between maize and barley of 50 million years ago (mya) (Zurawski et al. 1984), we calculated a rate of 1.2×10^{-9} substitutions/site per year. This is almost the same as that calculated by others (Zurawski et al. 1984; Doebley and Stec 1992). If we assume a constant rate of substitution among all the lineages in this study, then it would appear that the entire *Saccharum* complex is very young and that the common maternal ancestor of *Sorghum* and the *Saccharum* complex may have existed about 5 mya (Fig. 4C).

The re-coding of mitochondrial data in D'Hont et al. (1993) as 16 binary characters (14 polymorphic) (FDA, Bremer 1991) allowed collapsing of the 53 accessions studied into 10 taxa, defined by 9 informative characters and 5 uninformative ones. Representative accessions, for which there were no missing data, were used as input for phylogenetic analyses in which characters were unordered (Wagner tree, not shown). Phylogenetic analysis yielded a single most parsimonious unrooted tree found by an exhaustive PAUP search. There were 20 trees that were one step longer and 178 trees that were two steps longer (not shown). Five thousand bootstrap resamplings of these data yielded very low confidence limits (not shown) because very few characters were informative within Saccharum. Unfortunately, accessions studied by D'Hont et al. (1994) and Sobral et al. (1993) were different, so that a joint analysis of all the data could not be conducted.

Discussion

Sobral et al. (1994) showed that there is little variation within the chloroplast genomes of the *Saccharum* complex by scanning the genome with 15 restriction enzymes and 12 probes that covered the entire chloroplast genome. The present study, although limited to a few loci, confirms those results and is also in agreement with the results of D'Hont





Fig. 4A–C Phylogenetic hypothesis generated by analysis of *rbcL-atpB* sequences. **A** Fifty percent majority rule of 79 equally parsimonious trees generated from analysis of 664 nucleotides and 55 insertion/deletion events scored as unordered binary characters (1,0); *numbers* on branches refer to number of times (in percentage) in the 79 trees in which the bifurcation was supported. **B** Semistrict consensus of 79 trees, as in **A**. **C** Example of 1 of the 79 equally parsimonious trees, represented as a phylogram in which branch lengths (shown above lines) are proportional to genetic distances calculated in PAUP. In these trees, the following terminal taxa represent more than one accession: *Z. mays* (2 genotypes sequenced); *S. robustum* = *S. barberi* = *S. edule* = *S. officinarum* NG 51-131; *S. officinarum* Black Cheribon = *S. sinense*

et al. (1993). Therefore, it is clear that the limited variability of maternal genomes in the Saccharum complex is not due to the study of a limited number of accessions, limited number of loci, or an artifact of the studies. Furthermore, cultivated sugarcane displayed no detectable chloroplast diversity, also in agreement with Sobral et al. (1994), suggesting a world-wide cytoplasmic monoculture for sugarcane. This is in contrast to the situation in the closely related annual Sorghum bicolor (Duvall and Doebley 1990), for which cytoplasmic diversity has been demonstrated and shown to be at least as great as the diversity we have revealed among Saccharum complex members. The amount of chloroplast variation that the current and previous studies (Sobral et al. 1994; D'Hont et al. 1993) have revealed within the Saccharum complex is similar to the amount of chloroplast variation found within Zea or Sorghum (summarized in Soltis et al. 1992), two other Andropogoneae.

We observed frequent insertion/deletion events (indels) in the *rbcL-atpB* spacer region (Fig. 3), which is in agreement with Zurawski and Clegg (1987), who showed that this type of mutation is a common feature of chloroplast noncoding regions. Indels were more useful than point mutations in separating members within the *Saccharum* complex from each other but were insufficient to provide clear phylogenetic resolution, as can be seen from the trees in Fig. 4. Rapid rates of indels (with respect to site mutation) in noncoding regions of the chloroplast have been used to help obtain phylogenetic resolution among closely related genotypes of *Pennisetum* and *Cenchrus* (Zurawski and Clegg 1987). The *rbcL-atpB* spacer region should be particularly useful in providing phylogenetic resolution at the genus level in most cases, although within a cytoplasmically invariant group as the *Saccharum* complex, they did not provide sufficient resolution.

Sequenced mitochondrial loci were nearly invariant within Saccharum complex members, supporting conclusions drawn from the analysis of the chloroplast regarding the maternal lineages studied herein. In addition, Miscanthus sp. NG 77-193, which is presumed to be of hybrid origin because of its high chromosome number, displayed the same mitochondrial type as Saccharum species, whereas M. sinensis showed a different type (Tables 1, 2). This further substantiates the possibility of intergeneric hybridization in the wild, as now chloroplast and mitochondrial sequences of this accession have been shown to be the same as those of Saccharum, although we cannot exclude polymorphism within Miscanthus as an alternative explanation because of the limited number of accessions studied.

Mitochondrial sequences provided little resolution between the Saccharum complex and sorghum. Sorghum is one of the closest non-complex relatives of these plants. Data from D'Hont et al. (1993) was used for phylogenetic reconstruction following a scoring scheme proposed by Bremer (1991), called FDA, although the input data in this case violate the assumption of independence of characters. No outgroup species were included in the analysis of D'Hont et al. (1993). However, on the basis of the conclusions of Sobral et al. (1994), Erianthus may be an appropriate outgroup species and was therefore used in our analysis of their data. Mitochondrial probes revealed a larger amount of variability present in S. spontaneum, than in other Saccharum complex accessions, although many of the other accessions were probably hybrid in origin; either artificial or, presumably, naturally occurring. Large variability in S. spontaneum is in agreement with morphological, geographical, and chemotaxonomic data (Daniels and Roach 1987). One grouping within S. robustum accessions from Papua New Guinea, representing different cytological, morphological, and chemotaxonomical types, was also identified by these probes and may support exclusion of 2n=60 forms of *S. robustum* in the evolution of *S. officinarum* (2n=80). More intra-complex variability needs to be uncovered before within-complex relationships can be understood. The mitochondrial genome may be useful in providing clues.

It may be surprising that taxa within the Saccharum complex, which contain plants with diverse chromosome number and proposed geographic origin actually display such little variation within their chloroplast genome. This may be caused by the relatively recent evolution of the complex, although other explanations are possible. It has been shown that morphological variation within a species and chloroplast DNA sequence variation do not necessarily correlate (Soltis et al. 1992), although some authors have considered many of these genera to be synonomous (Clayton and Renvoize 1986). On purely speculative grounds, it is tempting to imagine that some differences among these plants, despite large variations in ploidy, may be due to a few genes with large effects, such as has been observed for some morphological variation between cultivated maize and teosinte (Doebley and Stec 1991). If such were the case, it could be that small numbers of genes, possibly with large effects, account for the variation in sucrose levels, even though this is continuous in most commercial crosses (unpublished data).

Previous results revealed a distinct chloroplast genome in the *Erianthus/Eccoilopus* species (Sobral et al. 1994). The present results clearly separate Erianthus/Eccoilopus accessions from Saccharum for chloroplast and mitochondrial loci. Sobral et al. (1993) suggested that Erianthus/Eccoilopus should be removed from the informal taxonomic grouping known as the Saccharum complex based on a variety of nuclear and cytoplasmic evidence. If the entirety of the molecular data is examined, including other loci and the mitochondrial data of D'Hont et al. (1993), it is highly suggestive of evolutionary differentiation between lineages of Erianthus/Eccoilopus and those of the remainder of the complex. Separation may have occurred almost as long ago as the Saccharum-sorghum separation. This is interesting because current taxonomy suggests that Erianthus is synonymous with Saccharum (Clayton and Renvoize 1986). It is also notable that Erianthus is the only example within the Saccharum complex that has New World species.

Nucleotide sequence divergence rates calculated for the separation of the maize-barley clades were similar to those obtained by a more extensive analysis of this region (Zurawski and Clegg 1984). If a molecular clock is assumed, it suggests that the *Saccharum* complex is young indeed. Branch lengths in any of the 79 equally parsimonious solutions of the data, calibrated using the maize-barley divergence time of 50 mya, suggest that the common ancestor of *Sorghum* and *Saccharum* complex lineages existed less than 5 mya. However, rate differences have been shown between palms and annual species and vegetative growth was invoked as a possible explanation for the dif-

ferent evolutionary rates (Wilson et al. 1990). We cannot differentiate between different rates of evolution and the recent evolution of the complex using our data alone.

S. spontaneum has the widest geographic range of the Saccharum complex members, excluding Erianthus, and some of its populations may provide additional clues to the origin of the polyploid complex. With respect to S. spontaneum, it is perhaps interesting to note that at least 1 S. spontaneum genotype, and presumably other members of the species, displays random chromosome pairing and assortment, typical of autopolyploid species, and may be an auto-octaploid species (Al-Janabi et al. 1993; Da Silva et al. 1993). This suggests that repeated autopolyploidization, perhaps superimposed on early allopolyploidization events, may be an important evolutionary force in the speciation of plants within the Saccharum complex. Studies are underway to substantiate the nature of chromosome pairing and assortment in other species within Saccharum. Further collecting in strategic regions is warranted, especially because of eroding habitats.

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