Why Africa matters: evolution of Old World Salvia (Lamiaceae) in Africa

Maria Will* and Regine Claßen-Bockhoff

Institut für Spezielle Botanik und Botanischer Garten, Johannes Gutenberg Universität, Mainz, Germany * For correspondence. E-mail willm@uni-mainz.de

Received: 19 September 2013 Returned for revision: 10 January 2014 Accepted: 21 March 2014

†Background and Aims Salvia is the largest genus in Lamiaceae and it has recently been found to be non-monophyletic. Molecular data on Old World Salvia are largely lacking. In this study, we present data concerning Salvia in Africa. The focus is on the colonization of the continent, character evolution and the switch of pollination systems in the genus.

† Methods Maximum likelihood and Bayesian inference were used for phylogenetic reconstruction. Analyses were based on two nuclear markers [internal transcribed spacer (ITS) and external transcribed spacer (ETS)] and one plastid marker (rpl32-trnL). Sequence data were generated for 41 of the 62 African taxa (66 %). Mesquite was used to reconstruct ancestral character states for distribution, life form, calyx shape, stamen type and pollination syndrome.

† Key Results Salvia in Africa is non-monophyletic. Each of the five major regions in Africa, except Madagascar, was colonized at least twice, and floristic links between North African, south-west Asian and European species are strongly supported. The large radiation in Sub-Saharan Africa (23 species) can be traced back to dispersal from North Africa via East Africa to the Cape Region. Adaptation to bird pollination in southern Africa and Madagascar reflects parallel evolution.

• Conclusions The phenotypic diversity in African Salvia is associated with repeated introductions to the continent. Many important evolutionary processes, such as colonization, adaptation, parallelism and character transformation, are reflectedinthis comparatively small group. The data presentedinthis study can helpto understandthe evolution of Salvia sensu lato and other large genera.

Key words: Salvia, Lamiaceae, Canary Islands, character evolution, ITS, ETS, Madagascar, ornithophily, pollination, rpl32-trnL, Sub-Saharan Africa.

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the world, many Salvia spp. (Lamiaceae) are known as ornamental (e.g. S. coccinea, S. patens, S. viridis), medicinal (S. officinalis, S. miltiorhiza) and even hallucinogenic plants (S. divinorum) ([Clebsch, 2008;](#page-16-0) [Froissart, 2008](#page-16-0)). Salvia is the largest genus in the mint family, with 900– 1000 species distributed worldwide [\(Alziar, 1988– 1993](#page-16-0); Harley et al[., 2004\)](#page-17-0). Molecular studies have shown many large genera to be non-monophyletic, and this is also true for Salvia [\(Walker](#page-18-0) et al., [2004\)](#page-18-0), with respect to Dorystaechas, Meriandra, Perovskia, Rosmarinus and Zhumeria [\(Walker and Sytsma, 2007](#page-18-0)). Major clades containing Salvia spp. were named Salvia Clade I, II and 'III' Salvia (s.l.). So far, previous molecular studies have focused on New World (NW) Salvia. In contrast, Old World (OW) species have been largely disregarded ([Walker](#page-18-0) et al., [2004;](#page-18-0) [Sudarmono, 2007,](#page-17-0) [2008;](#page-17-0) [Walker and Sytsma, 2007;](#page-18-0) Jenks et al[., 2011,](#page-17-0) [2012;](#page-17-0) Li et al[., 2013\)](#page-17-0). Only seven African species were included in the genus-wide study of [Walker and](#page-18-0) [Sytsma \(2007\)](#page-18-0), which revealed that they are members of two of the three major clades proposed by the authors (Fig. [1;](#page-1-0) Clade I, 'Clade III'). In this study, Salvia 'Clade III' is paraphyletic with respect to Zhumeria majdae. Thus, we accept the south-west (SW) Asian species and Zhumeria as one clade (S. trichocalycina group; Clade III) and the East Asian species as the fourth independent evolutionary lineage (S. miltiorhiza

group; Clade IV). According to [Walker and Sytsma \(2007\)](#page-18-0), Salvia Clade I is monophyletic and covers the type species of the genus (S. officinalis; [Jarvis, 2007](#page-17-0)). We therefore refer to it as Salvia sensu stricto (s.s.).

ANNALS OF ROTANY

Sixty-two Salvia spp. occur in Africa and adjacent areas (Fig. [2;](#page-2-0) [Hedge, 1974;](#page-17-0) Santos and Fernández, 1986; [Van](#page-17-0) [Jaarsveld, 1999](#page-17-0)). Most are endemics distributed in North Africa (25 species including the Canary Island endemics), southern Africa (23 species), Madagascar (six species), East Africa and on the Arabian Peninsula (eight species). Similar distribution ranges are known for other plant genera such as Androcymbium, Senecio and Zygophyllum (Caujapé-Castells, [2001;](#page-16-0) [Colemann](#page-16-0) et al., 2003; [Bellstedt](#page-16-0) et al., 2008; Del [Hoyo](#page-16-0) et al[., 2009](#page-16-0)) and for animals, e.g. Diptera [\(Kirk-Spriggs and](#page-17-0) [McGregor, 2009\)](#page-17-0). Salvia thus appears to be another genus adapted to the similar climatic conditions occurring in North (Mediterranean area), East (East African mountains) and southern (Cape Region) Africa.

African Salvia is of special interest for addressing evolutionary questions. Species are highly diverse in habitat preferences (Fig. [3](#page-3-0)), floral morphology (shape, size, colour and stamen construction) and pollination (Fig. [4\)](#page-4-0). The only bird-pollinated species known from the Old World evolved in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) [\(Scott-Elliot, 1890;](#page-17-0) [Van Jaarsveld, 1999](#page-17-0); [Wester](#page-18-0) [and Claßen-Bockhoff, 2006](#page-18-0), [2007](#page-18-0)). The most recent classification of African Salvia was presented by [Hedge \(1974\)](#page-17-0). Based

© The Author 2014. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Annals of Botany Company. All rights reserved. For Permissions, please email: journals.permissions@oup.com

FIG. 1. Phylogenetic tree of Salvia s.l. defining the major clades ([Walker and Sytsma, 2007](#page-18-0), simplified, i.e. nodes with bootstrap values <75 % were collapsed). Strict consensus tree based on the combined analysis of trnL-F and ITS data; MP. Non-Salvia genera are highlighted (bold); NW Salvia is highlighted in light grey and OW taxa in dark grey. Numbers in parentheses, separated by slashes, indicate the number of African species and the total number of taxa in the corresponding clade in their analyses.

on distribution and morphology, he arranged 59 species in 23 species groups. However, it is not known to which degree these species groups represent natural lineages.

In the present study, we examine the monophyly of Hedge's (1974) species groups based on a phylogenetic analysis that includes two-thirds of the African species. We intend to determine the number of independent origins of African Salvia. Furthermore, the colonization of the African continent and the evolution of African Salvia, e.g. the origin of bird pollination, are reconstructed.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant material

Our analyses include 84 Salvia spp., 46 of them sequenced for the first time. We cover 41 (66 $\%$) of the 62 African species: two endemics from Madagascar, all endemics from the Canary Islands, eight species from eastern Africa and the Arabian Peninsula, 18 southern African species and 12 species restricted to North Africa, the circum-Mediterranean area and SW Asia. Accessions derived from GenBank were used to complement the data set. Voucher information and GenBank accession numbers are provided inthe Appendix. Due tothe lack of suitable plant material and/or successful PCR, some species are only represented by a sub-set of the three molecular markers.

Our sampling covers all major lineages previously identified in Salvia [\(Walker and Sytsma, 2007](#page-18-0); Fig. 1). Well-supported clades that are not the focus of this study (Clades II and IV; see [Walker](#page-18-0) [and Sytsma, 2007;](#page-18-0) [Will, 2013](#page-18-0)) are represented by a sub-set of species only. Independent accessions are included, especially for taxonomically critical and polymorphic species. Hyptis laniflora was used as the outgroup in all analyses. Nomenclature is in accordance with [Alziar \(1988–1993\)](#page-16-0) and with the International Plant Names Index [\(http://www.ipni.org/ipni/](http://www.ipni.org/ipni/), accessed 30 April 2013). The term Sub-Saharan Africa is used in the sense of [Linder \(2001\)](#page-17-0) but additionally includes the Namib–Kalahari region.

F_{IG.} 2. Distribution of *Salvia s.l.* on the African continent. Five regions on the continent and adjacent areas are recognized with 62 Salvia spp.: (1) the Canary Islands; (2) southern Europe/North Africa to south-west Asia; (3) East Africa/ Arabian Peninsula; (4) southern Africa; and (5) Madagascar. Distributions are based on: [Hedge \(1974\),](#page-17-0) [Codd \(1985\),](#page-16-0) Santos and Fernández (1986), [Thulin](#page-17-0) [\(1993](#page-17-0), [2009](#page-17-0)) and [Van Jaarsveld \(1999\).](#page-17-0)

DNA extraction, amplification and sequencing

For Salvia, new sequence data are presented for the internal transcribed spacer (ITS; 39 species), the external transcribed spacer (ETS; 38 species) and the plastid marker $rpl32$ -trn L^{UGA} (57 species). The latter was selected based on the results of previous primer screening (trnL-F and rpl32-ndhF). Total genomic DNA was obtained from silica-dried or herbarium leaf material. DNA was extracted according to the manufacturer's protocol for the NucleoSpin[®] plant DNA extraction kit (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany). The standard $25 \mu L$ PCR mix consisted of 2 mm MgCl₂, 200 μ m dNTPs, 1 pm primer, 0.025 U μ L⁻¹ Taq polymerase and $0.5-1.0 \mu L$ of DNA extract in the reaction buffer provided by the manufacturer of the polymerase.

The PCRs were carried out in a Biometra T3 or a PTC 100 MJ Research thermocycler using the following program: 60 s at 94 °C; followed by 35 cycles of 20 s at 94 °C, 30 s at 55 °C and 60 s at 72 °C; and a post-treatment of 80 s at 55 °C and 8 min at $72 \degree$ C for each marker. The whole ITS region was sequenced as a single piece using the ITS-A [\(Noyes and Rieseberg, 1999](#page-17-0)) and ITS-4 primers (White et al[., 1990](#page-18-0)). The ETS region was sequenced using 18S-E [\(Baldwin and Markos, 1998\)](#page-16-0) and ETS-B [\(Beardsley and Olmstead, 2002](#page-16-0)). For plastid sequences, we used the $rpl32$ and $trnL^{UGA}$ primers (Shaw *et al.*, 2007). PCR products were purified according to the manufacturers' protocols using ExoSAP-IT PCR Product Clean-up (Affymetrix UK Ltd, Wooburn Green, UK) or NucleoSpin[®]Extract II-kit (Macherey-Nagel).

Cycle sequencing was performed using ABI Prism Big DyeReady Reaction Mix (Perkin Elmer/Applied Biosystems,

Foster City, CA, USA) using the primers listed above and following the manufacturer's protocol. Products were purified with SephadexTM G50 (VWR International GmbH, Darmstadt, Germany) and sequenced on a 16-capillary ABI 3130 xl automated sequencer (Life Technologies GmbH, Darmstadt, Germany).

DNA sequence alignment and phylogenetic analyses

Sequencing was straightforward for each marker. Forward and reverse sequences were edited manually, merged into consensus sequences using SequencerTM 4.1.2. (GeneCodeCorp., Ann Arbor, MI, USA) and aligned manually in McClade4.1 [\(Maddison and Maddison, 2000\)](#page-17-0). Ambiguously alignable regions (identified manually) were excluded from analyses. The three data sets were analysed separately. In order to increase resolution, we combined nuclear and plastid data (combined data set). Partitions were defined for the combined data set before the best-fit models of nucleotide substitution were selected with jModeltest 2.1.1 [\(Darriba](#page-16-0) et al., 2012). Under the Akaike information criterion (AIC), the $GTR+I+G$ model was selected for the ITS data set and TVM+G for ETS and the plastid marker. Two tree searches, one under maximum likelihood (ML) with bootstrapping (BS; RAxML-HPC BlackBox v.7.4.4; [Stamatakis, 2006;](#page-17-0) [Stamatakis](#page-17-0) et al., 2008) and one under Bayesian inference (BI; MrBayes v.3.1.2 on XSEDE; [Ronquist](#page-17-0) [and Huelsenbeck, 2003](#page-17-0)), were performed on the CIPRES Science Gateway v.3.3 server (Miller et al[., 2010\)](#page-17-0). Since MrBayes does not allow nst $=$ 5, required for TVM+G, we chose the more complex model (nst $= 6$). For BI, we ran four Markov chains simultaneously for 10 million generations analysing the plastid and ETS data sets. Two independent runs of 40 million generations were performed for the ITS and combined data sets. Every thousandth generation was sampled. The burn-in was determined with Tracer v.1.5 implemented in BEAST. We generated 50 % majority rule consensus trees with posterior probabilities (PPs) using MrBayes v.3.1.2.

The ITS, ETS and plastid data were analysed separately to identify incongruences. To combine data without conflict, strongly supported (PP = 1.00 or \geq 92 % ML BS) incongruences were dealt with by the duplication of the corresponding individuals, with one duplicate having only ITS and ETS sequences, and one only having plastid sequences (Pirie et al[., 2008\)](#page-17-0). The absent sequences were coded as missing data ('?'). Sequences from the same or different species that were completely identical were reduced to one haplotype. In the text or figures, sequence identity is indicated by a slash separating the corresponding accessions. The existing concept of clades sensu [Walker and](#page-18-0) [Sytsma \(2007\)](#page-18-0) was adopted, except for 'Clade III'. The latter was split into two independent clades, i.e. the S. trichocalycina group (Clade III) and the S. miltiorrhiza group (Clade IV) (Fig. [1\)](#page-1-0).

Ancestral character state reconstruction

Ancestral character states were reconstructed using the MESQUITE software package v.2.75 with Fitch parsimony optimization ([Maddison and Maddison, 2011](#page-17-0)). Five characters, i.e. distribution area, life form, calyx morphology, stamen type and pollination system, were coded (Supplementary Data Table S1). Character states are based on literature research and observations.

FIG. 3. Habitat diversity of Salvia s.l. in Africa. (A) Salvia sclarea, Anatolian steppe; (B) S. viridis, Anatolia; (C) S. thermarum, fynbos Western Cape, South Africa; (D, E) S. broussonetii, basalt maritime cliffs on Tenerife (D, dotted circles), flowering plant (E); (F) S. leucodermis, Madagascar; (G) S. herbanica, rocky habitat southeast Fuerteventura, Canary Islands; (H) S. africana-lutea, coastal sand dunes in the Western Cape; (I) S. aegyptiaca, semi-arid habitat on Gran Canaria, Canary Islands. Photographs: (A, B) F. Celep, (C, H) P. Wester, (D, E, G) R. Claßen-Bockhoff, (F) B. Bytebier, and (I) M. Thulin.

Stamen classification is based on stamen types and intermediate forms introduced by [Hedge \(1974](#page-17-0), [1982](#page-17-0)): A, lower lever arm with fertile thecae; B, lower lever arm sterile; and C, lower lever arm reduced. Information on pollinators is based on the literature or personal communications, or was postulated according to character syndromes (e.g.[WesterandClaßen-Bockhoff, 2011\)](#page-18-0). In all cases, reconstructions are performed on 100 randomly sampled trees with branch lengths from the BI analyses, as well as the consensus tree (50 % majority rule) of the combined data BI analysis (Pirie et al[., 2009\)](#page-17-0). Statistical support was calculated under maximum parsimony (MP).

RESULTS

Phylogenetic analyses: nrITS (Fig. [5](#page-5-0))

The aligned length of the nuclear data set is 637 bp, 255 (40 %) of which are potentially parsimony informative. Hyptis laniflora

is found in a polytomy with (1) Collinsonia and Perilla and (2) an unresolved, weakly supported clade. Within the last of these, nine lineages are strongly supported by BI: (1) Horminum; (2) Melissa; (3) Lepechinia; (4) Perovskia; (5) Rosmarinus; (6) Clade IV; (7) Clade III plusthe genus Zhumeria; (8) atrichotomy including Meriandra, Dorystaechas and NW Salvia species (Clade II); and (9) Clade I (Salvia s.s.).

Clade IV is a well-supported clade including four East Asian and one European species (S. glutinosa). Clade III consists of a trichotomy composed of (1) S. trichocalycina, (2) S. aristata and (3) S. aegyptiaca plus S. herbanica. The American Clade II is strongly supported as part of a trichotomy with the two OW genera Meriandra and Dorystaechas. It is divided into two sub-clades, with S. chionopeplica and S. cf. chionopeplica in separate sub-clades. Clade I is only supported by BI (PP $=$ 0.99). Sub-clade I-C forms a polytomy with Clade I-A, S. *judaica* and S. *taraxacifolia*. Sub-clade I-D is sister to this clade, and the American sub-clade I-B is in turn sister to the

FIG. 4. Phenotypic diversity of Salvia s.l. in Africa. (A) Salvia verticillata; (B) S. nilotica; (C) S. disermas; (D) S. argentea; (E) S. aegyptiaca; (F) S. canariensis; (G) S. broussonetii; (H) S. herbanica; (I) S. lanceolata with Cinnyris chalybeus (southern double-collared sunbird; formerly Nectarinia chalybeus); (J) S. geminata; (K) S. taraxacifolia; (L) S. interrupta; (M) S. dolomitica; (N) S. chamelaeagneawith Xylocopa caffra (carpenter bee); (O) S. scabra; (P) S. leucodermis; (Q) S. sessilifolia; (R) S. thermarum; and (S) S. africana-lutea. Note the typical falcate upper corolla lip in bee-pollinated species (e.g. S. argentea, D) in contrast to the straight upper lip in bird-pollinated taxa (I, P-R) and the diverse floral morphologies in the Canary Islands endemics (F-H). Photographs: (A, B, C, D, F, L) M. Will, (E, H) R. Claßen-Bockhoff, (G, K, O, R, S) P. Wester, (I) R. Groneberg, (J) M. Thulin, (N) H. Technau, (P) P. B. Phillipson and (Q) D. Hannon.

FIG. 5. Analyses of the nrITS data set. Non-Salvia genera are highlighted (bold); names of accessions with identical sequences are separated by slashes; only support values [≥]75 % (BS) and [≥]0.95 (PP) are illustrated. Species distribution is indicated by different colours.

Fig. 5 Continued

remainder of Clade I. Within sub-clade I-D (seven species), S. cabulica is sister to a polytomy consisting of six lineages (Fig. [5:](#page-5-0) I-D). The two accessions of S. fruticosa do not cluster together. Six major lineages are recognized within sub-clade I-C. One lineage contains the two Canary Island endemics S. broussonetii and S. canariensis (Fig. [5](#page-5-0): I-C; green). A second lineage includes the South African endemics S. radula and S. disermas (Fig. [5](#page-5-0): I-C; magenta) along with four European species (Fig. [5](#page-5-0): I-C; beige; monophyly for each of these species is not confirmed). Sub-clade I-A is only poorly resolved. It includes exclusively African taxa restricted to SSA. Within sub-clade I-A, one strongly supported clade includes all six Madagascan accessions (2 spp.) (Fig. [5:](#page-5-0) I-A; pink). The ML analysis weakly indicates that S. sessilifolia is paraphyletic with respect to S. leucodermis. Sequences of S. leucodermis and S. sessilifolia differ only in one position (A or C) which is ambiguous (IUPAC code: M) in S. sessilifolia accession DQ667282.

ETS (Supplementary Data Fig. S1)

The alignment contains 69 accessions (53 species), 60 (44 species) representing the genus Salvia. The aligned length of the data set is 466 bp, 230 (40.4 %) of which are potentially parsimony informative. There are few major conflicts with the ITS topology. Differences concern a clade which is moderately supported by BI ($PP = 0.98$) including: (1) Clade II plus Meriandra and Dorystaechas; (2) Clade III without S. aristata (here called Clade III-A); (3) Zhumeria plus S. aristata; and (4) S. przewalskii (Clade IV represented by only one species in this data set). This clade is not supported (but also not contradicted) in the ITS analyses. The incongruence between the ITS and ETS data sets is in the position of Zhumeria. However, this difference might be based on the slightly different sampling in Clade III. Furthermore, support for a monophyletic Clade II is lacking. Instead, the three lineages of NW Salvia spp. form a polytomy with Meriandra and Dorystaechas (Supplementary Data Fig. S1].

Compared with the ITS data set, support for Clade I (Salvia s.s.) is low (PP = 0.96). The four sub-clades (sub-clades I-A through I-D) form a polytomy. Differences in the topology of sub-clade I-C are mainly based on additional accessions in the ETS data set, e.g. S. canariensis 464. The latter renders S. canariensis paraphyletic with respect to S. broussonetii, but this relationship is not strongly supported. Similarly, adding S. disermas 454 causes S. disermas to be paraphyletic with respect to S. radula. Sub-clade I-A is better resolved in the ETS than in the ITS data set. The former supports sister relationships for (1) S. cf. repens 437 and S. stenophylla and (2) S. aurita and S. dolomitica. Furthermore, S. africana-caerulea, S. albicaulis, S. chamelaeagnea and S. lanceolata \times africanacaerulea appear in a moderately supported clade not supported in ITS data ($PP = 0.98$).

$rpl32$ -trnL (Fig. [6\)](#page-7-0)

The aligned length of the plastid data set is 929 bp, with 246 (26.5 %) potentially informative nucleotide positions. Hyptis is again found in a trichotomy with Collinsonia and a strongly supported clade that includes all other accessions. The latter splits into two major lineages one only including non-Salvia samples (Horminum, Glechoma, Thymus, Clinopodium and Mentha). The second clade contains all Salvia samples and six additional genera. Melissa and Lepechinia are moderately supported (ML) as sister genera. They are found in a polytomy with two strongly supported clades.

The first includes Clade IV, sub-clades III-A, III-B, Zhumeria, Clade II and Dorystaechas, as found in the ETS data set. The

FIG. 6. Analyses of the rpl32-trnL data set. Non-Salvia genera are highlighted (bold); only support values \geq 75 % (BS) and \geq 0.95 (PP) are illustrated. Species distribution is indicated by different colours.

Fig. 6 Continued

position of Zhumeria differs from the ETS data; the genus is placed in a trichotomy with S. aristata (III-B) and the S. aegyptiaca group (III-A) based on plastid data. As in the ETS data set, the monophyly of Clade II is not supported. Instead, three sub-clades (II-A, II-B and II-C) are found in a polytomy with Dorystaechas. The most striking incongruence between nuclear and plastid data is the position of S. deserti (Fig. [6](#page-7-0); III-A). It is sister to S. aegyptiaca based on ETS data (Supplementary Data Fig. S1) but strongly supported in a sister relationship to all species nesting in sub-clade III-A based on the plastid data set (Fig. [6](#page-7-0)). In the ITS data set, S. deserti is not represented.

The second major clade consists of a trichotomy composed of Rosmarinus, Perovskia and a strongly supported Clade I (Salvia s.s.). Compared with nuclear data, the latter is better resolved, splitting into three major lineages (sub-clades): (1) I-D (topology corresponding to nuclear data); (2) I-C; and (3) I-B plus I-A. Within sub-clade I-C, neither S. sclarea (244 and JQ669373) nor S. palaestina (400 and 200) is supported as monophyletic. Sister grouping of sub-clades I-A (Africa) and I-B (America) is in conflict with ITS data (Fig. [5](#page-5-0)). Sub-clade I-Awas strongly supported bythe nuclear data, butthe relationships among its species were largely unresolved. However, its topology slightly differs. Instead of being part of a basal polytomy, S. chamelaeagnea 52 and S. africana-caerulea 230 are sister species in the plastid data set, closely related to S. aurita and S. scabra. The ITS data do not suggest any relationships for S. aurita, whereas the ETS data weakly support a sister relationship to S. dolomitica. Furthermore, in contrast to the ITS topology, different accessions of S. namaensis (78 and 435) and S. lanceolata (264 and 58) are not supported to be monophyletic based on plastid data.

Combined analyses of the nuclear and plastid data sets (Fig. 7)

The aligned length of the combined data set is 1982bp, of which 582 (29.4 %) are potentially parsimony informative. The sequence duplication approach was not suitable to resolve the conflicting placement of sub-clade I-B within Salvia s.s., which was placed either at the base of Clade I (ITS; Fig. [5](#page-5-0)) or as sister to sub-clade I-A (plastid; Fig. [6\)](#page-7-0). Thus, we used the tree with the best topology for illustration, being aware of the unresolved conflict for the two clades.

The combined tree largely reflects the topology of the plastid data set (e.g. sister relationship of sub-clade I-A and I-B), but shows better resolution and higher support within sub-clade I-A. Melissa is in a trichotomy with two clades containing Salvia spp. The first covers (1) Clade II, Dorystaechas and Meriandra, and the latter two moderately supported as sister; (2) sub-clades III-A, III-B and Zhumeria; and (3) Clade IV. The second includes Perovskia, Rosmarinus, and Salvia s.s. (Clade I). The latter is strongly supported and falls into the same three major lineages as in the plastid data set. As to subclade I-A, S. taraxacifolia is sister to all remaining taxa. Salvia nilotica splits next, followed by S. somalensis, which is sister to a large clade including only taxa from southern Africa and Madagascar. Monophyly of S. namaensis, S. repens, S. sessilifolia and S. leucodermis, each of which was represented by more than one accession, is not confirmed.

Ancestral character state reconstruction (Supplementary Data Figs S2–S6; Fig. 7)

All African areas, except Madagascar, were colonized more than once (Supplementary Data Fig. S2). The ancestral area is reconstructed as East Africa and the Arabian Peninsula for subclades of Salvia sensu lato (s.l.) (III-A; MP 100 %) and Salvia s.s. (sub-clade of I-C covering S. sclarea, S. schimperi, S. merjamie, S. disermas and S. radula; MP 89 %). Within the latter, S. disermas and S. radula point to the colonization (migration and/or dispersal) of southern Africa. A second colonization is supported for the largest lineage of sub-clade I-A, which only contains accessions from southern Africa (MP 94 %). Madagascar was most probably colonized from southern Africa (MP 64 %).

Reconstruction of the ancestral life form (Supplementary Data Fig. S3) revealed that three of the four defined growth forms evolved several times in parallel. Only some crown groups can clearly be characterized by this character, e.g. Clade IV (MP 100 %: perennial herbs), Clade III-A (MP 100 %; dwarf shrubs) and the clade consisting of S. *canariensis* and S. broussonetii (sub-clade I-C; MP 100 %; shrubs). For the clade containing Clades II, III and IV, herbaceous growth most probably reflects the ancestral state (MP 72 %). Clade IV includes exclusively herbaceous perennials, while its sister group is characterized by shrubby growth (MP 94 %). Within this clade, dwarf shrubby growth is a synapomorphy for

sub-clade III-A (Fig. 7). A character transformation from herbaceous to shrubby growth is also found in Salvia s.s. (sub-clade I-A), and a reversal back to herbaceous growth is found for S. repens and S. stenophylla nesting within the same clade. Clade II (including Dorystaechas hastata and Meriandra bengalensis) appears to be originally shrubby. However, our study underrepresents the diversity of growth forms in this large NW clade, which includes shrubs, perennials, annuals and trees. The SW Asian species (sub-clade III-A, S. aristata and Zhumeria) show two different trends, one towards a suffruticose life form (S. aristata) and one towards dwarf shrubby growth (III-A).

A thick-textured, non-expanding calyx represents the ancestral state in each of the major Salvia clades (MP 100 %) (Supplementary Data Fig. S4). Expanding calyxes with widely diverging lips, which are papery and often coloured, evolved several times in parallel, not only in Salvia (sub-clades I-A, I-C and I-D) but also in Zhumeria (Fig. 7).

For stamen construction, type A with a fertile theca at the lower lever arm is strongly supported as the ancestral state in sub-clade III-A and Salvia s.s. (Supplementary Data Fig. S5). Within the latter, stamen type B evolved in sub-clade I-C and in I-A. Furthermore stamen type C is found in S . *namaensis* in sub-clade I-A (Fig. 7). The same reduction of the lower lever arm is found in Rosmarinus officinalis, which is not closely related to S. namaensis.

Melittophily, bee pollination, is reconstructed as the ancestral pollination system for each clade, except for sub-clade I-B (Supplementary Data Fig. S6). The latter is represented by only two species, one of them assumed to be ornithophilous and the other psychophilous ([Wester and Claßen-Bockhoff,](#page-18-0) [2011\)](#page-18-0). Thus, its ancestral character state remains ambiguous. Bird-pollinated flowers evolved repeatedly in the NW (Clade II and sub-clade I-B) and in the OW sub-clade I-A (Fig. 7). Within the latter, at least two pollinator shifts are suggested (Supplementary Data Fig. S6; Fig. 7), one by the Madagascan sub-clade and another by two South African species forming a clade (S. lanceolata and S. africana-lutea). A third switch to bird pollination might be represented by S. thermarum from South Africa. Two of the sampled accessions are found in a derived position of a melittophilous lineage (MP 60 %; Fig. 7).

DISCUSSION

Our study confirmsthe non-monophyly of both Salvia s.l. and the African Salvia spp. [\(Walker](#page-18-0) et al., 2004). We also confirm that all African species are restricted to two of the four major lineages of Salvia (Clades I and III; Fig. 7).

Interspecific relationships in African Salvia: species groups sensu Hedge

Subgeneric classification of the genus is based on morphology and distribution ([Bentham, 1832 – 1836](#page-16-0), [1848](#page-16-0), [1876;](#page-16-0) [Briquet,](#page-16-0)

FIG. 7. Analyses of the combined data set. Non-Salvia genera are highlighted (bold); GenBank accessions are marked with an asterisk (*); for taxa with only one or two markers, the corresponding marker is given after the taxon name and extraction number. Uncapitalized letters (m, f) indicate taxa described after the revision of African Salvia ([Hedge, 1974\);](#page-17-0) classification in the corresponding species group is based on morphology and the corresponding species description [\(Santos and](#page-17-0) Fernández, 1986; [Thulin, 1993](#page-17-0), [2009](#page-17-0); [Van Jaarsveld, 1999](#page-17-0)). For detailed information about ancestral character reconstruction see also Supplementary Data Table S1 and Figs S2–S6.

[1897\)](#page-16-0). [Hedge \(1974\)](#page-17-0) established 23 'species groups' to address relationships among African Salvia spp. and their affinities beyond the continent. For four of these groups, molecular data can be used to discuss their monophyly.

The two taxa placed in species group V (S. disermas and S. radula) form a clade within sub-clade I-C (Fig. [7\)](#page-10-0). Both species occur in southern Africa but do not overlap in their distribution (Fig. [9E](#page-13-0): 26, 34). They have similar flower morphology but differ in flowering time and indumentum ([Hedge, 1974\).](#page-17-0) We confirm monophyly of this group and, based on ETS and combined data sets, find some support for Hedge's (1974) idea that S. *radula* could be a subspecies of S. *disermas* (Supplementary Data Table S1).

Species group F originally included three African species ([Hedge, 1974\).](#page-17-0) The two species included in this study (S. aegyptiaca and S. deserti) form a cladewith four more recently described species (Fig. [7](#page-10-0); III-A), all of which are adapted to arid or semi-arid habitats. Except for the widespread S. aegyptiaca (Fig. [10C](#page-14-0): 10), they are all local endemics, e.g. in East Africa and the Arabian Peninsula (S. areysiana, S. bariensis and S. geminata) or Fuerteventura (S. herbanica) (Fig. [9](#page-13-0)B: 9; C: 12, 13, 15, D: 14). As the clade is well supported by synapomorphies, e.g. growth as dwarf shrubs with simple, revolute leaves, straight upper corolla lips with exposed stamens and minute flowers [\(Hedge, 1974](#page-17-0); Santos and Fernández, 1986; [Scholz, 1993;](#page-17-0) [Thulin, 1993,](#page-17-0) [2009\)](#page-17-0), we not only confirm monophyly of species group F but extend it to include at least the six sampled species. Based on the unique character syndrome, more species are likely to be included in this species group ([Bokhari and Hedge, 1977;](#page-16-0) M. Will and R. Claßen-Bockhoff, unpubl. data). Furthermore, our data confirm the close relationship proposed for African and SW Asian Salvia ([Davis and](#page-16-0) [Hedge, 1971;](#page-16-0) [Hedge, 1974\)](#page-17-0).

In contrast, relationships forthemonospecific species groups H and N were not predicted before. While Hedge (1974) supposed that the allies of S. canariensis (H) occur in southern Africa, he described S. broussonetii (N) as a relict species without any close ally. However, our data point to a close relationship between these two endemics from the Canary Islands (Fig. [7\)](#page-10-0).

Morphological characters used for classification: stamen types

Stamen morphology was used by [Walker and Sytsma \(2007\)](#page-18-0) to distinguish two major lineages within Clade I. However, our analysis clearly shows that stamen morphology is much more variable. Character state reconstruction revealed that stamen type A (Supplementary Data Fig. S5) is the ancestral state for Clade III-A and Salvia s.s. (Clade I). Consequently, the reduction of the lower lever arm evolved several times in parallel. In Salvia s.s.(Fig. [8](#page-12-0)), sub-clade I-A coversthewhole range of stamen modifications described in African Salvia (Fig. [8](#page-12-0); [Hedge, 1974\)](#page-17-0), including the rare stamen type C (S. namaensis). In the OW, this stamen modification is only known from the Eurasian S. verticillata group (four species), which is also part of Salvia s.s. (Clade I; [Will, 2013\)](#page-18-0), but not closely related to S. namaensis from SSA. A third species with stamen type C and the same ontogeny as S. verticillata is Rosmarinus officinalis (unpubl. res.). Parallel evolution is thus evident (Supplementary Data Fig. S5), restricting the use of stamen types to lower taxonomic levels.

Floristic links of Salvia spp. in North Africa

Salvia spp. distributed in North Africa are clearly members of two different clades (Fig. [7;](#page-10-0) I-A and III-A). Based on the molecular data, they show many floristic links to southern Europe, SW Asia, East and southern Africa (Fig. [5\)](#page-5-0). One example is S. taraxacifolia, a relict species endemic to the High Atlas, Morocco ([Hedge, 1974\).](#page-17-0) It is most closely related to East (S. nilotica and S. somalensis) and southern African species (Fig. [7;](#page-10-0) I-A). Our data suggest dispersal from North to East Africa followed by a second dispersal to southern Africa. Salvia taraxacifolia and the two East African species are adapted to mesic habitats, whereas their southern African relatives prefer arid habitats (Fig. [9E](#page-13-0)–G). This indicates that the common ancestor of sub-clade I-A might have been adapted to mesic conditions and that within the large SSA radiation (subclade I-A),adaptationto aridlocalities evolvedin southernAfrica.

The floristic links between North Africa and southern Europe already proposed by [Hedge \(1974\)](#page-17-0) (Fig. [7](#page-10-0); sub-clade I-C) were confirmed by the close relationship of S. interrupta (SW Morocco; Fig. [10B](#page-14-0): 56) and *S. candelabrum* (southern Spain; Fig. [10B](#page-14-0)). Both are thermophilic and partly overlap in their dis-tribution (Fig. [10B](#page-14-0); Rosúa and Blanca, 1986, [1990](#page-17-0)). They have a similar habit (divided leaves, most of them at the base of the stem), conspicuous, elongated inflorescences and the same chromosome number $(2n = 14)$ ([Hedge, 1974](#page-17-0); Rosúa and [Blanca, 1985,](#page-17-0) [1990\)](#page-17-0). Salvia interrupta is considered as a Tertiary relict which was more widely distributed when the climate was more mesic (Rosúa and Blanca, 1990). Both species are obviously derived from a common, probably mesic-adapted, ancestor. Their relationship might reflect allopatric speciation probably triggered by different edaphic factors in the corresponding habitats.

The strongly supported sister relationship of S. *daghestanica* (Caucasus) and S. phlomoides subsp. phlomoides (North Africa and southern Europe; Fig. [10](#page-14-0)B: 47) reflects floristic links between the Mediterranean and SW Asia. Since contact between the African and Eurasia floras should have increased during the Messinian Salinity Crisis in the late Miocene [5.96– 5.33 million years ago (Mya)], plant colonization across the Mediterranean is expected to have occurred often during this time frame (Caujapé-Castells and Jansen, 2003). We assume that this 'route' was also used repeatedly by Salvia. We thus support the hypothesis of [Davis and Hedge \(1971\)](#page-16-0) that the SW Asian origin of some NW African species was triggered by a westward shift of Irano-Turanian elements.

Repeated colonization of the Canary Islands and long-distance dispersal in Salvia

The Macaronesian flora is composed of endemics derived from an ancient Tertiary relict flora and more recently introduced species (e.g. [Helfgott](#page-17-0) et al., 2000; Manen et al[., 2002;](#page-17-0) Carine et al[., 2004](#page-16-0)). This general pattern also appears to hold for the Macaronesian S. canariensis, S. broussonetii and S. herbanica (Fig. [9](#page-13-0)B: 7-9). Since the three species clearly differ in their morphology (Fig. [4F](#page-4-0)-H) and habitat preference (Fig. [3D](#page-3-0), G), they were never expected to be closely related ([Hedge, 1974;](#page-17-0) Carine et al[., 2004](#page-16-0)). However, S. canariensis and S. broussonetii are sister species forming one clade within

FIG. 8. Trends in the evolution of stamen types in African representatives of Salvias.s. (Clade I). Proceeding from the ancestral stamentype A, the hypothetical stamen evolution is illustrated. Stamen of S. whitehousei modified after [Whitehouse \(1949\)](#page-18-0), S. interrupta modified after Rosúa and Blanca (1986), schemata of all other stamens modified after [Hedge \(1974\)](#page-17-0); filament (medium grey); connective (light grey); theca (dark grey); stamen types (in circles; $\pm A$ = reduced type A); and clades (I-A to I-D) represented by the species are given above the branches; scale $bar = 5$ mm.

FIG. 9. Distribution of African Salvia spp. (except North Africa and circum-Mediterranean area). (A) Madagascar: (1) S. cryptoclada; (2) S. leucodermis; (3) S. parvifolia; (4) S. perrieri; (5) S. porphyrocalyx; (6) S. sessilifolia. (B) Canary Islands: (7) S. broussonetii; (8) S. canariensis; (9) S. herbanica; (10) S. aegyptiaca; (11) S. verbenaca. (C, D) East Africa and Arabian Peninsula: (12) S. areysiana; (13, black asterisk) S. bariensis; (14) S. deserti; (15) S. geminata; (16) S. merjamie; (17) S. nilotica; (18) S. schimperi; (19) S. somalensis. (E–G) southern Africa: (20) S. africana-caerulea; (21) S. africana-lutea; (22) S. albicaulis; (23) S. aurita; (24) S. chamelaeagnea; (25) S. dentata; (26) S. disermas; (27) S. dolomitica; (28) S. garipensis; (29, black asterisk) S. granitica; (30) S. lanceolata; (31) S. muirii; (32) S. namaensis; (33) S. obtusata; (34) S. radula; (35) S. repens; (36) S. runcinata; (37) S. scabra; (38) S. schlechteri; (39) S. stenophylla; (40, white asterisk) S. thermarum; (41) S. triangularis; (42) S. tysonii. Based on [Codd \(1985\)](#page-16-0), [Hedge \(1974\),](#page-17-0) [Santos and Ferna´ndez \(1986\)](#page-17-0), [Thulin \(1993](#page-17-0), [2009](#page-17-0)) and [Van Jaarsveld](#page-17-0) [\(1999\)](#page-17-0). Note the overlapping distributions of species in southern Africa (Fig. [7](#page-10-0)E–G) and the disjunct area of S. stenophylla (39) and S. disermas (26).

F1G. 10. Distribution of Salvia spp. from North Africa and the circum-Mediterranean area. (A–C) (10) S. aegyptiaca; (11) S. verbenaca; (43) S. argentea; (44) S. barrelieri; (45) S. fruticosa; (46) S. lavandulifolia; (47) S. phlomoides; (48) S. sclarea; (49) S. spinosa; (50) S. viridis; (51) S. algeriensis; (52) S. balansae; (53) S. chudaei; (54) S. dominica; (55) S. gattefossei; (56) S. interrupta; (57) S. jaminiana; (58) S. lanigera; (59) S. mouretii; (60) S. palaestina; (61) S. pseudojaminiana; (62) S. taraxacifolia. Based on [Hedge \(1974\);](#page-17-0) the distribution of S. sclarea on the Iberian Peninsula is based on Rosúa and Blanca (1986). Note the overlapping distribution of S. phlomoides (47) and S. candelabrum (endemic to the Iberian Peninsula, indicated by 'x'; based on Rosúa and Blanca (1986).

sub-clade I-C (Figs 5 and 7). The proposed allies of S. *canariensis* [\(Hedge, 1974\)](#page-17-0) are not closely related to these two species, thus contradicting Hedge's (1974) hypothesis of a link between the Canary Island and southern African Salvia.

In contrast, *S. herbanica* is found in a different clade (Fig. [7;](#page-10-0) III-A) and has clear links to species from East Africa and the Arabian Peninsula. Our findings indicate the non-monophyly of the Canary Island endemics and support the hypothesis of repeated dispersals to the archipelago from different mainland sources [\(Emerson](#page-16-0) et al., 2000; Arnedo et al[., 2001;](#page-16-0) [Fuertes-Aguilar](#page-16-0) et al., 2002; Carine et al[., 2004](#page-16-0), and references therein; [Vargas, 2007](#page-17-0)).

The colonization of the Canary Islands raises the question of how dispersal might have taken place. The question of how (if at all) Salvia might be adapted to long-distance dispersal (LDD) is not yet answered. For the Canary Islands, the proximity to the African continent might have eased dispersal. The oldest islands, Lanzarote and Fuerteventura, are presently 100 km from the coast of North Africa [\(Francisco-Ortega](#page-16-0) et al., 2000; Acosta et al[., 2005\)](#page-16-0), but at some periods during the last 20 million years they were probably much closer (García-[Talavera, 1997\)](#page-17-0). García-Talavera (1997) suggested that the volcanic sea mounts served as 'stepping stones' when the sea level dropped during glacial periods. In addition, recent studies have assumed convective updraft to be the key mechanism for LDD of even heavy diaspores [\(Nathan](#page-17-0) et al., 2002; [Tackenberg](#page-17-0) et al., [2003](#page-17-0)). Long-distance dispersal to the archipelago mediated by wind is conceivable for *S. herbanica*, *S. aegyptiaca* and their potential common ancestor. Salvia aegyptiaca is distributed within the area of the Saharan Air Layer, a westward-directed wind of comparably high velocity [\(Carlson and Prospero, 1972;](#page-16-0) [Tackenberg](#page-17-0) et al., 2003)

East Africa and the Arabian Peninsula as 'melting pots' for Salvia

East African Salvia is found in three independent clades (Fig. [7](#page-10-0); III-A, I-C and I-A) and consequently has various floristic links beyond the continent.

Salvia merjamie (sub-clade I-C; Fig. [9](#page-13-0)D: 16) is a frequent and extremely variable species in the montane forest belts from Ethiopia to Zimbabwe ([Hedge, 1974\)](#page-17-0). It is part of a strongly supported (ITS) clade with two widely distributed species from SW Asia. Salvia merjamie is moderately supported (ML) as the sister to S. verbenaca 141 from Turkey. Both are polymorphic, occasionally have cleistogamous flowers and share the chromosome number of $2n = 42$, which is uncommon in Salvia ([Reese, 1957;](#page-17-0) [Gadella](#page-17-0) et al., 1966; [Hedge, 1974](#page-17-0); [Hedberg and Hedberg, 1977;](#page-17-0) [Haque and Ghoshal, 1980;](#page-17-0) [Codd, 1985](#page-16-0); [Vogt and Aparicio,](#page-18-0) [1999;](#page-18-0) Foley et al[., 2008\)](#page-16-0).

Salvia nilotica (sub-clade I-A; Fig. [9D](#page-13-0): 17) has a broader distribution range than S. merjamie. [Hedge \(1974\)](#page-17-0) assumed that S. nilotica was a distinct, taxonomically isolated species but also discussed its similarities with species restricted to the eastern Cape. With S. taraxacifolia and S. somalensis, S. nilotica is found in a basal position of sub-clade I-A, suggesting a dispersal from North to southern Africa via East Africa. The relationship of S. nilotica and the African members of section Heterosphace Benth. proposed by [Hedge \(1974\)](#page-17-0) is confirmed, since all of these species are placed in the same sub-clade (I-A).

Salvia deserti (sub-clade III-A; Fig. [9](#page-13-0)D: 14) is an endemic of the Egyptian and Arabian deserts ([Boulos, 2008](#page-16-0); [Hedge, 1974;](#page-17-0) [Migahid, 1978](#page-17-0)). It is morphologically and genetically distinct from Salvia s.s. Incongruences detected in nuclear and plastid data support a hybrid origin of this species.

Pollinator diversity and evolution of bird pollination in Sub-Saharan Africa

Based on flower morphology, bees are seen asthe mostimportant pollinators in Salvia overall ([Wester and Claßen-Bockhoff,](#page-18-0) [2006,](#page-18-0) [2011\)](#page-18-0). This was also assumed for the African and in particular for the southern African species ([Hedge, 1974\)](#page-17-0). However, only a limited number of field observations confirm this view, e.g. the first report of small bees on S. africanacaerulea [\(Marloth, 1908\),](#page-17-0) data on Anthophora diversipes ([Goldblatt](#page-17-0) et al., 2000a, [b](#page-17-0)), and observations of Xylocopa caffra, Amegilla spp., further solitary bees and honey-bees by P. Wester, R. Claßen-Bockhoff and H. Technau (pers. comm.).

Flowers with long tubes and freely accessible pollen were expected to be pollinated by long-tongued insects, e.g. flies. This pollinator guild is characteristic for South Africa, especially in the western Cape Region ([Goldblatt and Manning, 2000\)](#page-17-0). [Potgieter and Edwards \(2001,](#page-17-0) [2005\)](#page-17-0) assumed that S. scabra and S. repens are pollinated by long-tongued flies (Stenobasipteron wiedemanni and Prosoeca spp.), but field observations are still lacking.

Although bird pollination is quite frequent in NW Salvia ([Wester and Claßen-Bockhoff, 2007](#page-18-0)), the only known ornithophilous Salvia spp. in the OW appear in southern Africa ([Wester and Claßen-Bockhoff, 2006](#page-18-0)). Three, S. lanceolata, S. thermarum and S. africana-lutea, are restricted to southern Africa (Fig. [4](#page-4-0)I, R, S). Probably two more (S. leucodermis and S. sessilifolia; Fig. [4](#page-4-0)P, Q) occur in Madagascar. Our data confirm that ornithophily evolved repeatedly in the NW (Fig. [7](#page-10-0)), but also indicate at least two pollinator shifts from bee to bird pollination in Africa (Supplementary Data Fig. S6). Most probably, this pollination system evolved three times in parallel within sub-clade I-A: (1) in the Madagascan sub-clade; (2) in the S. africana-lutea and S. lanceolata clade; and (3) in S. thermarum. Including species adapted to bee, bird and, most probably, long-tongued fly pollination, sub-clade I-A represents a further example of a monophyletic lineage having undergone pollinator-driven diversification in southern African (e.g. [Van](#page-17-0) [der Niet and Johnson, 2012;](#page-17-0) Sun et al[., 2014](#page-17-0); [Van der Niet](#page-17-0) et al[., 2014](#page-17-0)).

In bird-pollinated species, bees are largely excluded from nectar access but not from collecting pollen. They might therefore trigger hybridization between bird- and bee-pollinated species [\(Van Jaarsveld, 2002;](#page-17-0) P. Wester, University of Düsseldorf, Germany, pers. comm.), e.g. in S. africanacaerulea. The species is morphologically well adapted to bee pollination but is also occasionally pollinated by birds [\(Wester,](#page-18-0) [2013\).](#page-18-0) It might be a species in which the exploitation of a food plant by pollinators (birds) can be observed even though both species are not yet perfectly adapted to each other ([Thomson](#page-17-0) [and Wilson, 2008\)](#page-17-0). Thus, S. africana-caerulea might represent an example of a pollinator shift in progress (Rodríguez-Gironés and Santamaría, 2004).

Conclusions

African Salvia is non-monophyletic. Continental Africa, the Canary Islands, East Africa and the Arabian Peninsula were each colonized repeatedly. The morphological diversity of African sage results from independent dispersals from different mainland sources and diversification in the diverse African environment. Parallel evolution played an important role for the evolution of stamen types, calyx enlargement and pollination syndrome. These data can even be transferred to Salvia s.l. for which similar trends have been observed.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

[Supplementary data are available online at www.aob.oxford](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1) [journals.org and consist of the following. Table S1: character](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1) [states coded for the ancestral character state reconstruction](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1) [with references. Figure S1: analyses of the ETS data set \(ML](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1) [and BI\). Figure S2: reconstruction of the ancestral distribution](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1) [of Sub-](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1)Saharan African Salvia[. Figure S3: ancestral character](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1) [state reconstruction of the life form in Sub-Saharan African](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1) Salvia[. Figure S4: ancestral character state reconstruction of](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1) [the calyx morphology in Sub-Saharan African](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1) Salvia. Figure [S5: ancestral character state reconstruction of the stamen morph](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1)[ology in Sub-Saharan African](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1) Salvia. Figure S6: ancestral char[acter state reconstruction of the pollination syndrome in](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1) [Sub-Saharan African](http://aob.oxfordjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1093/aob/mcu081/-/DC1) Salvia.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Dirk Albach (Oldenburg), Safi Bagherpour (Ankara), Benny Bytebier (KwaZulu-Natal), Ferhat Celep (Nevsehir), Ahmet El-Banhawy (Ismailia/Redding), Ahmed Kahraman (Ankara), Alexander P. Sukhorukov (Moscow), Mats Thulin (Uppsala) and Petra Wester (Düsseldorf) for sampling, and the following herbaria for offering plant material: ACECR (Iran), B, E, EA, GOET, HUH, M, MJG, MO, MPU and MW. Photographs were kindly provided by Ferhat Celep, Rafael N. B. Groneberg (Mainz), Dylan Hannon (San Marino, CA), Peter B. Phillipson (Paris), Hen Technau, Mats Thulin and Petra Wester. We thank Berit Gehrke and Michael D. Pirie (both Mainz) for assistance with data analyses, and Natalie Schmalz, Abigail J. Moore (Providence, RI) and two anonymous reviewers for helpful comments to improve the manuscript. This work was supported by the DFG (Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft; Cl $81/10-1$) and the Fachbereich Biologie (Universität Mainz).

LITERATURE CITED

- Acosta J, Uchupi E, Muñoz A, Herranz P, Palomo C, Ballesteros M. 2005. Geologic evolution of the Canarian Islands of Lanzarote, Fuerteventura, Gran Canaria and La Gomera, and comparison of landslides at these islands with those at Tenerife, La Palma and El Hierro. In: Clift P, Acosta J, eds. Geophysics of the Canary Islands. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer, $1-40$.
- Alziar G. 1988–1993. Catalogue synonymique des Salvia L. du monde (Lamiaceae). I à VI. Biocosme Mésogéen, Nice 5: 87–136; 6: 79–115; 6: 163– 204; 7: 59–109; 9: 413–497; 10: 33–117.
- Arnedo MA, Oromí P, Ribera C. 2001. Radiation of the spider genus Dysdera (Araneae, Dysderidae) in the Canary Islands: cladistic assessment based on multiple data sets. Cladistics 17: 313–353.
- Baldwin BG, Markos S. 1998. Phylogenetic utility of the external transcribed spacer (ETS) of 18S–26S rDNA: congruence of ETS and ITS trees of

Calycadenia (Compositae). Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 10: $A19 - 463$

- Beardsley PM, Olmstead RG. 2002. Redefining Phrymaceae: the placement of Mimulus, tribe Mimuleae, and Phryma. American Journal of Botany 89: 1093– 1102.
- Bellstedt DU, van Zyl L, Marais EM, et al. 2008. Phylogenetic relationships, character evolution and biogeography of southern African members of Zygophyllum (Zygophyllaceae) based on three plastid regions. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 47: 932-949.
- Bentham G. 1832–1836. Salvia. In: Bentham G, ed. Labiatarum genera et species: or, a description of the genera and species of plants of the order Labiatae with their general history, characters, affinities, and geographical distribution. London: J. Ridgway and Sons, 190–312.
- Bentham G. 1848. Labiatae. In: De Candolle A, ed. Prodromus systematis naturalis regni vegetabilis 12. Paris: Treuttel and Würtz, 262–358.
- Bentham G. 1876. Labiatae. In: Bentham G, Hooker JD, eds. Genera plantarum 2. London: Reeve and Co., 1160– 1196.
- Bokhari MH, Hedge IC. 1977. Anatomical observations on a desert group of Salvia species. Notes from the Royal Botanical Garden, Edinburgh 35: $377 - 389$
- Boulos L. 2008. Flora and vegetation of the deserts of Egypt. Flora Mediterranea 18: 341–359.
- Briquet J. 1897. Labiatae. In: Engler A, Prantl K, eds. Die natürlichen Pflanzenfamilien nebst ihrer Gattungen und wichtigen Arten. Leipzig: Engelmann, 183–380.
- Carine MA, Russell SJ, Santos-Guerra A, Francisco-Ortega J. 2004. Relationships of theMacaronesian and Mediterranean floras: molecular evidence for multiple colonizations into Macaronesia and back-colonization of the continent in Convolvulus (Convolvulaceae). American Journal of Botany 91: 1070– 1085.
- Carlson TN, Prospero JM. 1972.The large-scale movement of Saharan Air outbreaks over the Northern Equatorial Atlantic. Journal of Applied Meteorology 11: 283-297.
- Caujapé-Castells J, Jansen RK. 2003. The influence of the Miocene Mediterranean desiccation on the geographical expansion and genetic variation of Androcymbium gramineum (Cav.) McBride (Colchicaceae). Molecular Ecology 12: 1515–1525.
- Caujape´-Castells J, Jansen RK, Membrives N, Pedrola-Monfort J, Montserrat JM, Ardanuy A. 2001. Historical biogeography of Androcymbium Willd. (Colchicaceae) in Africa: evidence from cpDNA RFLPs. Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society 136: 379–392.
- Clebsch B. 2008. The new book of salvias: sages for every garden. Cambridge: Timber Press.
- Codd LE. 1985. Salvia. In: Leistner OA, ed. Flora of Southern Africa. Lamiaceae. Pretoria: Botanical Research Institute, Department of Agriculture and Water Supply, 79–101.
- Coleman M, Liston A, Kadereit JW, Abbott RJ. 2003. Repeat intercontinental dispersal and Pleistocene speciation in disjunct Mediterranean and desert Senecio (Asteraceae). American Journal of Botany 90: 1446– 1454.
- Darriba D, Taboada GL, Doallo R, Posada D. 2012. jModelTest 2: more models, new heuristics and parallel computing. Nature Methods 9: 772–772.
- Davis PH, Hedge IC. 1971. Floristic links between NW Africa and SW Asia. Annalen des Naturhistorischen Museums in Wien 75: 43–57.
- Del Hoyo A, García-Marín JL, Pedrola-Monfort J. 2009. Temporal and spatial diversification of the African disjunct genus Androcymbium (Colchicaceae). Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 53: 848– 861.
- Emerson BC, Oromí P, Hewitt GM. 2000. Interpreting colonisation of the Calathus (Coleoptera: Carabidae) on the Canary Islands and Madeira through the application of the parametric bootstrap. Evolution 54: 2081– 2090.
- Foley MJY, Hedge IC, Möller M. 2008. The enigmatic Salvia tingitana (Lamiaceae): a case study in history, taxonomy and cytology. Willdenowia – Annals of the Botanic Garden and Botanical Museum Berlin-Dahlem 38: 41– 59.
- Francisco-Ortega J, Santos-Guerra A, Kim S-C, Crawford DJ. 2000. Plant genetic diversity in the Canary Islands: a conservation perspective. American Journal of Botany 87: 909 –919.
- Froissart C. 2008. La connaissance des sauges. Aix-en-Provence, France: Edisud.
- Fuertes-Aguilar J, Ray MF, Francisco-Ortega J, Santos-Guerra A, Jansen RK. 2002. Molecular evidence from chloroplast and nuclear markers for

multiple colonizations of Lavatera (Malvaceae) in the Canary Islands. Systematic Botany 27: 74–83.

- Gadella TWJ, Kliphuis E, Mennega EA. 1966.Chromosome numbers of some flowering plants of Spain and S-France. Acta Botanica Neerlandica 15: 484–489.
- García-Talavera F. 1997. Las Canarias orientales y la vecina costa Africana en el holoceno Eres 7: 55–63.
- Goldblatt P, Manning JC. 2000. The long-proboscid fly pollination system in Southern Africa. Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden 87: 146-170.
- Goldblatt P, Bernhardt P, Manning JC. 2000a. Adaptive radiation of pollination mechanisms in Ixia (Iridaceae: Crocoideae). Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden 87: 564– 577.
- Goldblatt P, Manning JC, Bernhardt P. 2000b. Adaptive radiation of pollination mechanisms in Sparaxis (Iridaceae: Ixioideae). Adansonia, série 3 $22:57-70.$
- Haque MS, Ghoshal KK. 1980. Karyotypes and chromosome morphology in the genus Salvia Linn. Cytologia 45: 627 –640.
- Harley RM, Atkins S, Budantsev AL, et al. 2004. Labiatae. In: Kadereit JW, ed. The families and genera of vascular plants 7, Lamiales. Berlin: Springer, 167-282.
- Hedberg I, Hedberg O. 1977. Chromosome numbers of afroalpine and afromontane angiosperms. Botaniska Notiser 130: 1 –24.
- Hedge IC. 1974. A revision of Salvia in Africa including Madagascar and the Canary Islands. Notes from the Royal Botanical Garden, Edinburgh 33: 1–121.
- Hedge IC. 1982. Salvia. In: Davis PH, ed. Flora of Turkey. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 400–461.
- Helfgott DM, Francisco-Ortega J, Santos-Guerra A, Jansen RK, Simpson BB. 2000. Biogeography and breeding system evolution of the woody Bencomia alliance (Rosaceae) in Macaronesia based on ITS sequence data. Systematic Botany 25: 82-97.
- Jarvis C. 2007. Order out of chaos. Linnaean plant names and their types. London: The Linnean Society of London in association with the Natural History Museum.
- Jenks AA, Walker JB, Kim S-C. 2011. Evolution and origins of the Mazatec hallucinogenic sage, Salvia divinorum (Lamiaceae): a molecular phylogenetic approach. Journal of Plant Research 124: 593-600.
- Jenks A, Walker J, Kim S. 2012. Phylogeny of New World Salvia subgenus Calosphace (Lamiaceae) based on cpDNA (psbA-trnH) and nrDNA (ITS) sequence data. Journal of Plant Research 126: 483–496.
- Kirk-Spriggs AH, McGregor G. 2009. Disjunctions in the Diptera (Insecta) fauna of the Mediterranean province and southern Africa and a discussion of biogeographical considerations. Transactions of the Royal Society of South Africa 64: 32–52.
- Li QQ, Li MH, Yuan QJ, Cui ZH, Huang LQ, Gen XP. 2013. Phylogenetic relationships of Salvia (Lamiaceae) in China: evidence from DNA sequence datasets. Journal of Systematics and Evolution 51: 184–195
- Linder HP. 2001. Plant diversity and endemism in sub-Saharan tropical Africa. Journal of Biogeography 28: 169-182.
- Maddison WP, Maddison DR. 2000. MacClade: analysis of phylogeny and character evolution, version 4.0. Sunderland, MA: Sinauer Associates.
- Maddison WP, Maddison DR. 2011. Mesquite: a modular system for evolutionary analysis. Version 2.75. http://mesquiteproject.org [accessed March 15th 2013].
- Manen JF, Boulter MC, Naciri-Graven Y. 2002. The complex history of the genus Ilex L. (Aquifoliaceae): evidence from the comparison of plastid and nuclear DNA sequences and from fossil data. Plant Systematics and Evolution 235: 79– 98.
- Marloth R. 1908. Some observations on entomophilous flowers. South African Journal of Science 4: 110–113.
- Migahid AM. 1978. Salvia. In: Migahid AM, ed. Migahid and Hammouda's Flora of Saudi Arabia. Riyadh: Riyadh University, 464–465.
- Miller MA, Pfeiffer W, Schwartz T. 2010. Creating the CIPRES Science Gateway for inference of large phylogenetic trees. Proceedings of the Gateway Computing Environments Workshop (GCE), 14 November 2010. New Orleans, LA, 1-8. [available from [http://www.phylo.org/portal2/](http://www.phylo.org/portal2/login!input.action) [login!input.action\]](http://www.phylo.org/portal2/login!input.action).
- Nathan R, Katul GG, Horn HS, et al. 2002. Mechanisms of long-distance dispersal of seeds by wind. Nature 418: 409–413.
- Noyes RD, Rieseberg LH. 1999. ITS sequence data support a single origin for North American Astereae (Asteraceae) and reflect deep geographic divisions in Aster s.l. American Journal of Botany 86: 398-412.
- Pirie MD, Humphreys AM, Galley C, et al. 2008. A novel supermatrix approach improves resolution of phylogenetic relationships in a comprehensive sample of danthonioid grasses. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 48: 1106– 1119.
- Pirie MD, Humphreys AM, Barker NP, Linder HP. 2009. Reticulation, data combination, and inferring evolutionary history: an example from Danthonioideae (Poaceae). Systematic Biology 58: 612-628.
- Potgieter CJ, Edwards TJ. 2001. The occurrence of long, narrow corolla tubes in southern African Lamiaceae. Systematics and Geography of Plants 71: $493 - 502$.
- Potgieter CJ, Edwards TJ. 2005. The Stenobasipteron wiedemanni (Diptera, Nemestrinidae) pollination guild in Eastern Southern Africa. Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden 92: 254– 267.
- Reese G. 1957. Über die Polyploidiespektren in der nordsaharischen Wüstenflora. Flora 144: 608-634.
- Rodríguez-Gironés MA, Santamaría L. 2004. Why are so many bird flowers red? PLoS Biology 2: 1515–1519.
- Ronquist F, Huelsenbeck JP. 2003. MrBayes 3: Bayesian phylogenetic inference under mixed models. Bioinformatics 19: 1572–1574.
- Rosúa JL, Blanca G. 1985. Notas caríosistemáticas de la sección Salvia del género Salvia L. (Lamiaceae). Anales del Jardín Botánico de Madrid 42: 101-112.
- Rosúa JL, Blanca G. 1986. Revisión del género Salvia L. (Lamiaceae) en el Mediterráneo occidental: la sección Salvia. Acta Botanica Malacitana 11: $227 - 271$.
- Rosúa JL, Blanca G. 1990. Acerca de la distribucion de la seccion Salvia en la region mediterranea occidental y sus relaciones de vicarianza con el este del mediterraneo. Lagascalia 15: 137–143.
- Santos A, Fernández M. 1986. Salvia herbanica spec. nova (Labiatae) en la flora de Fuerteventura (I. Canarias). Lazaroa 9: 51-54.
- Scholz S. 1993. Nuevos datos acerca de Salvia herbanica Santos et Fernandez (Lamiaceae). Vieraea 22: 29–34.
- Scott-Elliot GF. 1890. Ornithophilous flowers in South Africa. Annals of Botany 4: 265–280.
- Shaw J, Lickey EB, Schilling EE, Small RL. 2007. Comparison of whole chloroplast genome sequencesto choose noncoding regions for phylogenetic studies in angiosperms: the tortoise and the hare III. American Journal of Botany 94: 275– 288.
- Sudarmono HO. 2007. Speciation process of Salvia isensis (Lamiaceae), a species endemic to serpentine areas in the Ise-Tokai district, Japan, from the viewpoint of the contradictory phylogenetic trees generated from chloroplast and nuclear DNA. Journal of Plant Research 120: 483–490.
- Sudarmono HO. 2008. Genetic differentiations among the populations of Salvia japonica (Lamiaceae) and its related species. Hayati Journal of Biosciences 15: 18–26.
- Sun M, Gross K, Schiestl FP. 2014. Floral adaptation to local pollinator guilds in a terrestrial orchid. Annals of Botany 113: 289– 300.
- Stamatakis A. 2006. RAxML-VI-HPC: maximum likelihood-based phylogenetic analyses with thousands of taxa and mixed models. Bioinformatics 22: 2688– 2690.
- Stamatakis A, Hoover P, Rougemont J. 2008. Rapid bootstrap algorithm for the RAxML Web-Servers. Systematic Biology 75: 758-771.
- Tackenberg O, Poschlod P, Kahmen S. 2003. Dandelion seed dispersal: the horizontal wind speed does not matter for long-distance dispersal – it is updraft! Plant Biology 5: 451-454.
- Thulin M. 1993. Salvia (Labiatae) in the mountains of northern Somalia. Opera Botanica 121: 145–148.
- Thulin M. 2009. Salvia geminata sp. nov. with remarkable stamen arrangement from southern Yemen, with notes on S. areysiana (Lamiaceae). Nordic Journal of Botany 27: 336-338.
- Thomson JD, Wilson P. 2008. Explaining evolutionary shifts between bee and hummingbird pollination: convergence, divergence, and directionality. International Journal of Plant Sciences 169: 23– 38.
- Van Jaarsveld EJ. 1999. Salvia thermara, a new species from the Western Cape, South Africa. Bothalia 29: 100–102.
- Van Jaarsveld EJ. 2002. South African sages. Veld and Flora 88: 102-104.
- Van der Niet T, Johnson SD. 2012. Phylogenetic evidence for pollinator-driven diversification of angiosperms. Trends in Ecology and Evolution 27: 353– 361.
- Van der Niet T, Peakall R, Johnson SD. 2014. Pollinator-driven ecological speciation in plants: new evidence and future perspectives. Annals of Botany 113: 199– 212.
- Vargas P. 2007. Are Macaronesian islands refugia of relict plant lineages?: a molecular survey. In: Weiss S, Ferrand N, eds. Phylogeography of

southern European refugia. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer, $297 - 314.$

- Vogt R, Aparicio A. 1999.Chromosome numbers of plants collected during Iter Mediterraneum IV in Cyprus. Bocconea 11: 117– 169.
- Walker JB, Sytsma KJ. 2007. Staminal evolution in the genus Salvia (Lamiaceae): molecular phylogenetic evidence for multiple origins of the staminal lever. Annals of Botany 100: 375–391.
- Walker JB, Sytsma KJ, Treutlein J, Wink M. 2004. Salvia (Lamiaceae) is not monophyletic: implications for the systematics, radiation, and ecological specializations of Salvia and tribe Mentheae. American Journal of Botany 91: 1115– 1125.

Wester P. 2013. Sunbirds hover at flowers of Salvia and Lycium. Ostrich 84: 27–32.

Wester P, Claßen-Bockhoff R. 2006. Bird pollination in South African Salvia species. Flora - Morphology, Distribution, Functional Ecology of Plants 201: 396– 406.

- Wester P, Claßen-Bockhoff R. 2007. Floral diversity and pollen transfer mechanisms in bird- pollinated Salvia species. Annals of Botany 100: 401–421.
- Wester P, Claßen-Bockhoff R. 2011. Pollination syndromes of New World Salvia species with special reference to bird pollination. Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden 98: 101 –155.
- White TJ, Bruns T, Lee S, Taylor JW. 1990. Amplification and direct sequencing of fungal ribosomal RNA genes for phylogenetics. In: InnisM, Gelfand D, Sninsky J, White T, eds. PCR protocols: a guide to methods and applications. Orlando, FL: Academic Press, 315–322.
- Whitehouse E. 1949. Revision of Salvia section Salviastrum Gray. Field and Laboratory 17: 151 –165.
- Will M. 2013. Old World Salvia morphological and molecular evidence for its evolution and non-monophyly. PhD thesis, Johannes Gutenberg University, Mainz, Germany.

APPENDIX: PLANT MATERIAL INCLUDED IN THIS STUDY

Continued 81 Continued

acc. no., accession number; locality: origin from natural habitats confirmed; ACECR, Iranian Academic Center for Education Culture and Research; BG HH, Botanical Garden Hamburg (Germany); cult., cultivated; PSL METU, Plant Systematics Lab. Department of Biological Sciences, Middle East Technical University, Ankara (Turkey); RBGE, Royal Botanical Garden Edinburgh (UK); herbarium acronyms according to Index Herbariorum.