Pollen Morphology and the Relationship of the Plumbaginaceae, Polygonaceae, and Primulaceae to the Order Centrospermae

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Pollen Morphology and the Relationship of the Plumbaginaceae, Polygonaceae, and Primulaceae to the Order Centrospermae

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## Introduction

The Centrospermae (Caryophyllales) represents one of the most controversial orders in the angiosperms. This group of at least 10 families, which in the past has been cited as one of the few natural orders based mostly on morphological characteristics, has unique N-containing pigments, the betalains, and a distinctive structure in the sieve-tube plastids. Both Cronquist (1968) and Takhtajan (1969) unite the betalain families, Aizoaceae, Amaranthaceae, Basellaceae, Cactaceae, Chenopodiaceae, Didiereaceae, Nyctaginaceae, Phytolaccaceae, and Portulacaceae, as well as two anthocyanin families, Caryophyllaceae and Molluginaceae, in the order Caryophyllales ( $\pm$  Centrospermae). Both authors include Halophytum ameghinoi Spegazzini (a betalain taxon) and the Gyrostemonaceae in this order: Cronquist (1968) treats Halophytum as a monotypic genus in the Chenopodiaceae while Takhtajan (1969) gives it family status; Cronquist regards the Gyrostemonaceae as part of the Phytolaccaceae, and Takhtajan separates it as a distinct family. Takhtajan recognizes the Tetragoniaceae as a separate family while Cronquist includes it in the Aizoaceae. *Dysphania* is treated as a member of the Chenopodiaceae by both authors; and finally Takhtajan also places the Hectorellaceae and the Bataceae in this order.

Thorne (1968) in a synopsis of angiosperm classification has placed the betalain families in a suborder, Chenopodiinae, one of two constituting the order Chenopodiales. He recognized the Gyrostemonaceae and the Halophytaceae as distinct families but treated the Molluginaceae as a subfamily in the Aizoaceae, the Achatocarpaceae as a subfamily in the Phytolaccaceae, and Dysphania as a member of the Chenopodiaceae. The other suborder, Caryophyllinae, consists of two families, the Caryophyllaceae and the Polygonaceae. The next order, Batidales, consists of only the Batidaceae, but Thorne apparently regards this family as somewhat related to the Chenopodiales since both orders are united under a superorder, Chenopodiiflorae.

Mabry, Taylor, and Turner (1963) and Behnke and Turner (1971) have treated the betalain fami-

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lies as a distinct group, separate from, yet closely allied to, the two anthocyanin families, Caryophyllaceae and Molluginaceae.

Evidence from ultrastructural research on sievetube plastids (Behnke and Turner, 1971; Behnke, 1976) and pollen morphology (Nowicke, 1975; Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976) has reinforced the close tie between the betalain families and the Caryophyllaceae and the Molluginaceae. In an investigation of these plastids (colorless leucoplasts found in the sieve-tubes) of the above-mentioned families (Behnke and Turner, 1971) and the Magnoliidae and Ranunculidae (Behnke, 1971), two main types were found: plastids accumulating only starch and designated as the S-type; and plastids accumulating at least some protein, variously deposited, and designated as the P-type. The betalain families and the Caryophyllaceae and the Molluginaceae all had the P-type plastid in which proteinaceous filaments formed a peripheral ring usually around a crystalloid. Within the above-mentioned families, Behnke (1976) was able to distinguish three groups based on the crystalloid: globular, the most common; polygonal, found in the Caryophyllaceae and in two other genera, Limeum (Molluginaceae) and Stegnosperma (Phytolaccaceae); and crystalloid-free, having only the ring, found in two families, the Amaranthaceae and the Chenopodiaceae.

Examination of the pollen of 177 species (Nowicke, 1975) by light microscopy and SEM revealed that 85% had a similar type of ektexine pattern or sculpture, which was described as spinulose and the tectum perforate, the openings described as tubules or punctae. This was the predominant ektexine pattern in every betalain family and in the Caryophyllaceae and the Molluginaceae; in some families, i.e., the Phytolaccaceae and the Molluginaceae, this pattern was the only one found. Examination of selected taxa by TEM (Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976) revealed that the predominant pollen-type in the betalain families and in the Caryophyllaceae has a similar, sometimes identical, wall structure.

Pollen of the Achatocarpaceae, Bataceae, Gyrostemonaceae, and Theligonaceae was also examined, but none of the species in these small families has the spinulose and tubuliferous/punctate ektexine described above. The Bataceae, Gyrostemonaceae, and Theligonaceae all have the starch-type plastid and lack the betalain pigments. Thus the evidence from palynology, pigmentation, and plastid structure indicates that these three families are not closely related to the Centrospermae. The relationship of the Achatocarpaceae, a family unknown with regard to pigmentation, to the Centrospermae is more obscure—the pollen morphology does not, in Nowicke's opinion (1975) support a close tie, but on the other hand the two genera that comprise the family, *Achatocarpus* and *Phaulothamnus*, do have the P-type of plastid (Behnke, 1976).

The Gyrostemonaceae have in fact been the subject of a multidisciplinary study (Goldblatt, et al., 1976) in which all lines of evidence, including cytological, argue strongly against any relationship of this family to the Centrospermae.

Although there is almost universal agreement on treating the betalain families as a closely related group, the precise definition of the order Centrospermae, i.e., to include or exclude the Caryophyllaceae and Molluginaceae, may never be resolved to everyone's satisfaction. Of more interest in view of the accumulating data on the Centrospermae (sensu lato) is the question of the derivation of the families Plumbaginaceae, Polygonaceae, and Primulaceae from this order.

Takhtajan (1969) considers the Polygonales, containing only the Polygonaceae, as near the Caryophyllales, especially the Portulacaceae and Basellaceae, and probably derived from the same stock as the Caryophyllales (Centrospermae). His views on the Plumbaginaceae are similar: nearest to Portulacaceae and Basellaceae and probably derived from the same stock as Caryophyllales. He does admit that the pollen morphology of the Plumbaginaceae is different—apparently from that of Portulacaceae and Basellaceae.

According to Cronquist (1968:185), "both the Polygonaceae and Plumbaginaceae are pretty clearly related to the Caryophyllales. Both have a single, basal, bitegmic, crassinucellate ovule in a compound, unilocular ovary, and both have trinucleate pollen. These characters are not known to occur in combination outside the subclass Caryophyllidae. The Polygonaceae are further bound to the Caryophyllales by similarities in the pollen and by a more or less transitional group of genera which are variously referred to the Caryophyllaceae or treated as a separate family, Illecebraceae. The Plumbaginaceae are somewhat more isolated but may also be derived from the Caryophyllaceae."

In one respect the system of Thorne (1968) parallels those of Cronquist (1968) and Takhtajan (1969) in that all three authors consider the Polygonaceae as related to the Caryophyllaceae. Although Thorne treats the Primulales and Plumbaginales as adjacent orders indicative of some relationship, they are far removed from the Chenopodiales, at least in his linear sequence.

Philipson (1975) in a review paper on evolutionary lines in the dicotyledons states that there is general agreement to exclude the Primulaceae from the subclass Caryophyllidae (sensu Cronquist, 1968). "Almost as universal is the acceptance of the Polygonaceae as at least peripheral to the group. The position of the Plumbaginaceae remains more debatable" (Philipson, 1975:74).

Hutchinson (1959:117) regarded the Caryophyllales (Elatinaceae, Molluginaceae, Caryophyllaceae, Ficoidaceae, and Portulacaceae) as "a prolific herbaceous group which has given rise to apetalous orders such as Polygonales, Chenopodiales, and perigynous petaliferous families as Lythrales, besides sympetalous groups as Gentianales and Primulales." The Illecebraceae are given family status and included as the only other family in the Polygonales. It is noteworthy that Hutchinson included Herniaria, Paronychia, and Scleranthus, as well as Illecebrum, among the genera listed at the end of the family description. He united the Primulaceae and Plumbaginaceae as the order Primulales, closely related to the Caryophyllaceae and perhaps the Saxifragaceae. The Primulaceae, Polygonaceae, and Plumbaginaceae contain the anthocyanin pigments, and the last two, at least, are known to have the starch-type of plastid (Behnke and Turner, 1971) and apparently the Primulaceae also has this type (Behnke, pers. comm.).

In an effort to resolve the limits and relationships of the Centrospermae, pollen of Plumbaginaceae, Polygonaceae, and Primulaceae were examined by light microscopy, SEM, and TEM. For purposes of comparison and the reader's convenience, we have included a brief discussion and a SEM and TEM of a species from several betalain families, and from the Caryophyllaceae and Molluginaceae.

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#### Materials and Methods

Pollen of 20 species in the Plumbaginaceae (Table 3), 85 in the Polygonaceae (Table 4) and 29 in the Primulaceae (Table 5) was examined by light microscopy, scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Also examined and included are 38 additional taxa from the centrospermous families (Table 2). Pollen samples were removed from herbarium material and acetolyzed according to procedure outlined in Erdtman (1966). Samples for the SEM were vacuumcoated with gold, and examined and photographed with a Cambridge Stereoscan MK IIA microscope. Samples for the TEM were incorporated into agar, dehydrated through increased concentrations of ethyl alcohol, and subsequently embedded in araldite-epon resins (Skvarla, 1973). Some pollen samples were stained in 0.125% OsO4 in 0.1 M sodium cacodylate buffer for two hours prior to agar incorporation. Thin-sections were made with diamond knives, collected on uncoated grids and stained with uranyl acetate and then lead citrate. Electron microscope observations were made with a Philips model-200 transmission electron microscope. Slides of all samples are deposited at the Palynological Laboratory, Department of Botany, Smithsonian Institution.

This study is a comparison of the pollen morphology of three families, Plumbaginaceae, Polygonaceae, and Primulaceae, with the pollen of the Centrospermae, and detailed measurements and/or descriptions are not given. The species examined are listed in Tables 2–5; the names were taken from the herbarium labels or the most recent annotations. The identifications would have to be mistaken at the level of family to be significantly misleading in this type of study, but all vouchers and geographical locations are given in Tables 2–5.

#### **Results of Pollen Analyses**

Pollen analysis of the Plumbaginaceae, Polygonaceae, and Primulaceae revealed diverse forms within each family, especially the Polygonaceae, but no distinctive pollen type(s) was common to all three families. For this reason each family will be discussed separately following a review of the Centrospermae.

#### Centrospermae

#### FIGURES 1-28

The common pollen types in the Centrospermae are illustrated in Figures 1–6: 3-colpate, pantoporate, and pantocolpate, all with a spinulose and tubuliferous/punctate ektexine. With the exception of some taxa in the Caryophyllaceae which are 3-colporoidate, the apertures in the Centrospermae pollen are simple. The most variable class of apertures is that of pantoporate. Anredera scandens (Figure 3) is usually 6-porate, with one pore on each plane of the roughly cube-shaped grain. Gymnocarpos fruticosum pollen (Figure 4), with large, sunken pores in a geometric pattern, contrasts sharply with that of Chenopodium ambrosioides (Figure 5), which has numerous small pores.

Figures 7 through 12 illustrate at high magnification ( $\times$  7500) the ektexine surface, spinulose, and tubuliferous/punctate, which characterizes the vast majority (85%) of the centrospermous taxa. *Hamatocactus septispinus* pollen (Figure 12) has the largest perforations among the species examined by SEM.

Figures 13 through 18 illustrate specialized or unusual forms, but at least one species, *Cardionema* ramosissima (Figure 16), has the typical ektexine. Two other taxa, *Psilotrichum amplum* (Figure 13), considered unusual because of the stellate aperture plates, and *Herniaria glabra* (Figure 15), in which the grains have a rare tetrahedral shape, also have the common ektexine pattern but a modified version of it—the spines and perforations are much reduced.

The internal structure of the exine in various centrospermous pollen types is illustrated in Figures 19-28. Characteristically in the centrospermous taxa, the ektexine is well developed while the endexine, with few exceptions (e.g., Mesembryanthemum variabile, Figure 19; Herniaria glabra, Figure 24), is developed only in the region of the aperture. Apertures with spine-shaped flecks of ektexine are common in the Centrospermae and in this study are illustrated by Opuntia (Figure 22), Limeum (Figure 26), and Gymnocarpos (Figure 23). Representative pollen from nine families of the Centrospermae were examined by TEM. Comparison of these data with those of earlier TEM work in the Centrospermae (Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976) allows us to expand our knowledge of this order, and a brief summary for each family is presented below.

AIZOACEAE.—Mesembryanthemum variabile pollen (Figure 19) is considerably different from that of M. crystallinum (Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976, fig. 13) in possessing a thinner tectum and columellae, as well as an extremely thick foot layer and a narrow but consistent endexine. Mesembryanthemum, however, is a large and unsatisfactory genus and structural variation is not unexpected. The exine stratification of M. variabile bears a striking similarity to that of Boerhavia erecta of the Nyctaginaceae (Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976, fig. 30).

AMARANTHACEAE.—The pollen of this family has been shown with SEM and TEM to be highly pleomorphic (Nowicke, 1975; Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976). The exine structure of *Psilotrichum amplum* (Figure 20) extends this pleomorphism by indicating a complete absence of endexine.

BASELLACEAE.—Some pollen in this family is unique in having a cuboidal shape (Nowicke, 1975; Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976). The structure of *Anredera scandens* pollen (Figure 21), is quite different from that of *Basella alba* (Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976, fig. 19) but similar to that of *Boussingaultia gracilis* (Roland, 1968, pl. 8: fig. 4), a more typical member of the family.

CACTACEAE.—The structure of *Opuntia lindheimeri* pollen (Figure 22) is consistent with other examples of the Cactaceae. Comparison of this micrograph with one of *Alluaudia* (Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976, fig. 28) again underscores the close relationship of the Cactaceae and Didieriaceae.

CARYOPHYLLACEAE.—The two taxa examined, Gymnocarpos fruticosum (Figure 23) and Herniaria glabra (Figure 24), correspond in exine structure to that previously noted for the family (Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976, figs. 41–48). Additional comments on H. glabra will be given later.

CHENOPODIACEAE.—The exine structure of *Chenopodium ambrosioides* (Figure 25) agrees with other examples in the family: thick tectum with few spines and a thin foot layer.

MOLLUGINACEAE.—The exine structure of this family has not been previously examined. Pollen of *Limeum viscosum* (Figure 26) appears similar to the pollen of *Cometes surattensis* of the Caryophyllaceae (Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976, fig. 41), as well as to *Mesembryanthemum crystallinum* of the Aizoaceae (Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976, fig. 13). These relationships are of interest in the context of the introductory remarks concerning the Molluginaceae.

NYCTAGINACEAE.—Abronia angustifolia (Figure 27) pollen morphology differs from that of previous taxa examined by lacking an endexine. As indicated earlier (Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976), however, the Nyctaginaceae display a spectrum of exine morphology.

PORTULACACEAE.—The exine morphology of Naiocrene parvifolia (Figure 28) is similar to that of other taxa examined in the family, most notably Calyptridium umbellatum (Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976, fig. 38).

Several taxa whose placement or affinities are in dispute were also examined. Geocarpon minimum (Figure 9), the single species of this monotypic genus, has an ektexine pattern that is characteristic of the order Centrospermae, but the presence of anthocyanins would seem to restrict the family placement to Caryophyllaceae or Molluginaceae. Two more monotypic genera, Hectorella and Lyallia, have been united as a separate family, Hectorellaceae (Philipson and Skipworth, 1961), or included in the Caryophyllaceae (Eckhardt, 1964). Material of Hectorella was not available, and a pollen sample of Lyallia kerguelensis yielded only 10-12 grains, all of which were 3-colpate with a spinulose and sparsely punctate ektexine. As with Geocarpon, the pollen morphology of Lyallia appears characteristic of the Centrospermae, but inconclusive with regard to status or family affinity

since these types are of wide occurrence in the order. The evidence from plastid structure is more definitive and supports the treatment of *Hectorella* and presumably also *Lyallia* as a separate family, or at least argues for their exclusion from the Caryophyllaceae. *Hectorella* has the P-type plastid but lacks the polygonal central crystalloid that characterizes the Caryophyllaceae (Behnke, 1975).

The pollen types in Figures 15 and 16 are representative of a small group of genera that have been treated as a subtribe, the Illecebrinae, in the Caryophyllaceae (Pax and Hoffman, 1934) or given family status, the Illecebraceae (Hutchinson, 1959). Pax and Hoffman regarded the subtribe as consisting of four genera, Illecebrum, Haya, Cardionema, and Chaetonychia, while Hutchinson's concept of the Illecebraceae includes several additional genera, among them, Herniaria. Pax and Hoffman placed this particular genus in the first subtribe, Paronychiinae, with the Illecebrinae as the second. Cronquist (1968:185) regards these genera as a transitional group between the Caryophyllaceae and the Polygonaceae. Figure 15 is a single grain of Herniaria glabra and is extremely similar to those of Illecebrum verticillatum in scanning electron microscopy and light microscopy. Herniaria glabra is illustrated because the material of Illecebrum was insufficient for examination by TEM. Figure 16 is Cardionema ramosissima; material of Haya and Chaetonychia was not available.

For a detailed discussion of pollen morphology in the order Centrospermae the reader is advised to consult Nowicke (1975) and Skvarla and Nowicke (1976).

#### PLUMBAGINACEAE

#### FIGURES 29-81

Twenty species and one variety, representing nine genera (Table 3), were examined by light microscopy and SEM, and eleven of these species were sectioned and examined by TEM. In all taxa, the apertures appeared to be simple, mostly 3-zonocolpate, rarely 4- (or 5-)zonocolpate, and in one collection of *Ceratostigma willmottianum* (Figure 59) the grains were pantocolpate. The ektexine was either reticulate or verrucose, two sharply distinct morphologies with no intermediate forms. These correspond to the two pollen types noted for the family by Erdtman (1966:325); the Plumbago type, which is verrucose, and the Armeria type, which is reticulate. The Plumbago type (Figures 29-40, 59-64) has a well-defined foot layer, highly irregular columellae and a continuous tectum. Extending from the latter is another set of columellae, designated as verrucae, thicker than those below the tectum, with the terminal sculpturing appearing as fine bristles in TEM. The Armeria type (Figures 41-58) has a foot layer supporting straight, regular columellae, which are fused distally into an incomplete tectum of the reticulate configuration.

Heterostyly, frequently associated with dimorphic stigmas and dimorphic pollen grains, is a welldocumented phenomenon in the Plumbaginaceae (Baker, 1948, 1953, 1966; Dulberger, 1975; Philipp, 1974). Although the collections at the U.S. National Herbarium are too limited and valuable to permit a study of heterostyly per se, and this is not our intention, the survey of the Plumbaginaceae revealed seemingly controversial results. Neither author claims taxonomic expertise in the Plumbaginaceae, but the collection sampled in each case was similar to or within the range of variation of the remaining collections of the particular species as identified. Few specimens had sufficient numbers of open flowers to permit a designation of short- or longstyled with any degree of confidence, nor could we follow Baker's (1966) scheme of labeling the two Armeria forms "A" or "B" since this too is based on style length. However, the results in two species with the Plumbago type reinforce each other, and the pollen forms found in four species with the Armeria type reinforce each other. The following discussions apply only to the particular collections listed in Table 3 for each species, and within each major type the different grains are referred to as forms.

What appears to be the two forms in the Plumbago type pollen can be illustrated by two collections of *Ceratostigma griffithii* from China (Figures 29–32) and two collections of *Plumbago europaea* (Figures 35–38). In each species there is a form with pointed verrucae (Figures 32, 38) and a form with more rounded verrucae (Figures 30, 36). Whether these two forms actually represent dimorphic pollen and are associated with heterostyly remains to be answered, but our results agree, for the most part, with those of Erdtman (1970). Baker (1948, 1966) regarded *Ceratostigma* and *Plumbago* as having monomorphic pollen, but the similarity of the two forms makes them difficult to distinguish using only light microscopy. As a result only those species examined also by SEM have been designated as having pointed verrucae or rounded verrucae in Table 3. Collections having the pointed verrucae were found in *Plumbago rosea* (Figures 33, 34) and in *Ceratostigma willmottianum* (Figures 59–62). A collection identified as *Plumbago auriculata* (Figures 39, 40) had the more rounded verrucae.

The above reservation does not apply to the Armeria type in which the two forms are strikingly distinct even in light microscopy. The Armeria forms can be illustrated by two collections each of Armeria maritima (Figures 43-46), Limonium vulgare (Figures 51, 52), and Statice sinuata (Figures 55-58) and one collection of Statice tenella (Figures 47-50) with several unattached branches, presumably from different plants. In each of the above species there is a prominently (or coarsely) reticulate form (Figures 45-48, 51, 55, 56) and a finely reticulate form (Figures 43, 44, 49, 50, 52, 57, 58). While each form exhibits subtle interspecific differences, i.e., the coarsely reticulate grain of Armeria maritima may be slightly different from the coarsely reticulate grain in Statice sinuata, the classification of grains as to coarsely or finely reticulate could have been made without knowledge of the alternate form. The remaining Armeria types illustrated by SEM are Goniolinum collinum (Figures 53, 54) and Limonium viciosoi (Figures 41, 42). In both species the collection sampled had the coarsely reticulate form.

TEM observations corroborate the dimorphism shown by SEM. The verrucose type is represented by *Ceratostigma griffithii* (Figure 69): the fine bristle-like columellae heads correspond to the rounded verrucae illustrated in Figure 30 by SEM; in Figure 70, the verrucae have thicker bristles, and those with perfect longitudinal section illustrate the large blunt protrusion of the pointed verrucae shown in Figure 32 by SEM. In *Armeria maritima* (Figures 67, 68) and *Statice sinuata* (Figures 77–80), representative of the reticulate morphology, TEM reinforces the differences in diameter and length of the columellae between the finely and coarsely reticulate forms, and also the existence of a fine network of sporopollinen around the muri of the coarsely reticulate forms (Figure 67), which was not readily apparent in the finely reticulate forms. Our observations of A. maritima agree with the TEM investigations of Erdtman and Dunbar (1966). These workers designated the coarsely reticulate exines as "A-line" and the more finely reticulate exines as "B-line." Direct correlations in exine structure between our TEMs (Figures 67, 68) and those of Erdtman and Dunbar (1966, figs. 1, 2) are obvious.

In all samples examined the endexine pollen wall unit that characteristically occurs beneath the foot layer in the majority of angiosperm pollen grains is highly reduced in the Plumbaginaceae. We have noted its presence only in the aperture region, and, therefore, it is depicted in just a few of the transmission electron micrographs included in this report (Figures 65, 66, 68, 71, 73, 74, 80). Internal foramina in the columellae and foot-layer (Figures 65–67, 75) are also found in the Plumbaginaceae. This feature has been described in the large family Compositae by Skvarla and Larson (1965). These holes are of sporadic distribution and are most commonly noted in the Armeria pollen type.

In Ceratostigma willmottianum, a collection from India had 3-colpate grains (Figures 61, 62), and a collection from China had pantocolpate grains (Figures 59, 60). The pantocolpate grain has larger clusters of verrucae, but at high magnification,  $\times$  7500 (Figures 60, 62), the tips of the verrucae in both forms are very similar in the terminal structure. These results do not correlate with those of Ceratostigma griffithii and Plumbago europaea, but dimorphic pollen grains based on aperture structure are not unknown (Kohler, 1976). Additional samples are needed to confirm the alternate form as 3-colpate.

As stated above, this study was not intended to document or identify the species of Plumbaginaceae with dimorphic pollen. We are aware that a detailed investigation of each of the species listed in Table 3 might well reveal that a majority of these have dimorphic grains. Also, most pollen samples in this family consist of a single flower with the five anthers. This sampling technique limits damage to the specimen, but does not yield large numbers of grains.

If, especially in the Armeria types, 15 or 20 an-

thers from each collection had been examined, the larger sample might have produced results more compatible with those of previous workers. In the case of Limonium vulgare, examination of four collections (Table 3) revealed three with the coarsely reticulate form (Figure 51) and one with the finely reticulate form (Figure 52). Our coarsely reticulate form corresponds exactly with the "A" grain of Baker (1966, fig. 1), but we did not find the form which he illustrated as the alternate or "B" (1966, fig. 2) and described as bearing a pattern of small spines on the surface of the grain. In fact, the closest similarity to his "B" grain is Plumbago rosea (Figures 33, 34). It seems unlikely that both major pollen types, which are morphologically and structurally very different, would be found in one species, but our results do not exclude this possibility.

Another problematical taxon is Armeria maritima var. sibirica (Turczaninow) Lawrence. This particular variety, sometimes treated as a subspecies or even as a species, has been investigated by a number of workers, with differing, but not necessarily mutually exclusive, results. Both Baker (1966:355-356) and Philipp (1974:41) regard "sibirica" as monomorphic, having the papillate stigma and Type A pollen (coarsely reticulate form). However, in a study of collections made between longitudes 30°W and 60°E, Praglowski and Erdtman (1969) described six pollen forms, and found as many as four in a single anther. These include an "A" and "B" that correspond to our coarsely and finely reticulate forms. Of all the Plumbaginaceae examined in our study, 39 collections representing 20 species, only Armeria maritima var. sibirica had both forms within a single sample. The holdings of var. sibirica at the United States National Herbarium are mostly from Greenland and Canada, with only two from Norway. Pollen was removed from a single inflorescence on each of six collections (Table 3). The SEMs, taken at a range of low magnifications, illustrate mixtures of the finely and coarsely reticulate Armeria forms. Unfortunately this variety was examined late in the study and the micrographs could not be included here. However, two observations seem worthy of note: the coarsely reticulate form appears to be predominant, and, secondly, the distinction between the two forms is not as striking as in the other dimorphic Armeria taxa. Philipp (1974, fig. 1) illustrates grains from dimorphic Danish Armeria maritima (1974, fig. 1A,B) which agree very well with our Figures 43–46, but more importantly the two SEM's from monomorphic Greenland plants (1974, fig. 1c,D) also show a possible dilution of the distinction: the mesh of what could be the finely reticulate form (fig. 1c) is larger, and the mesh of what could be the coarsely reticu-

late form (fig. 1D) is slightly smaller. Philipp (1974:49) also cites the existence of large and small pollen grains in the hybrids between the dimorphic subspecies, *A. maritima* ssp. maritima  $\times$  ssp. elongata. The proportion of the grains varies widely; in one cyme the percentage of large grains in open flowers ranged from 45 to 90. In one plant the maximum variation between the cymes was from 24% to 90% large grains. The variation in size is not exactly comparable to the structural variation in the exine, but her results, those of Praglowski and Erdtman (1969), and ours, indicate that one plant, or even one inflorescence, is capable of producing variable or dimorphic grains.

To summarize the results of pollen analysis in this family—the striking difference in the two types designated as "Armeria" and "Plumbago," the distinction of the Plumbago type from all other pollen examined to date in these studies, the existence of the two Armeria forms within a single inflorescence raise more questions than they answer. The existence of heterostyly and dimorphic pollen grains in the Plumbaginaceae, however, in no way detracts from the conclusion of this study: None of the pollen examined in the Plumbaginaceae is similar or related to the common type found in the Centrospermae.

#### POLYGONACEAE

#### FIGURES 82-173

This is a much larger family than either the Plumbaginaceae or Primulaceae. The possibility of a relationship with the Centrospermae is more widely held and thus was examined in greater depth. The 85 species (Table 4) representing 36 genera were examined by light microscopy and SEM; 32 of these species were sectioned and examined by TEM.

The Polygonaceae are one of the most palynologically diverse families in the dicotyledons, and this extensive variation may have great taxonomic potential at all levels, particularly that of generic definition.

The aperture structure is more complex and variable than in the Primulaceae and much more so than in the Centrospermae or Plumbaginaceae. While the most common type in the Polygonaceae is 3– (rarely 4–) colporate, the endoaperture, readily delimited in light microscopy, is variable and includes some zonorate types. Also found in the family are taxa with pantoporate (Figures 113, 114, 134) and pantocolpate (Figures 112, 118, 120, 133) apertures. Some collections of 3-colporate taxa had occasional grains that were syncolporate.

The surface of the ektexine varies widely and includes tectate and nontectate (reticulate) forms. The tectate forms can be punctate (Figures 82–85); punctate-striate (Figures 94–99); prominently spinulose (Figures 133, 134); or perforate and smallspinulose (Figures 136, 138); and there are some unique types that are difficult to describe accurately in text (Figures 98, 106, 108, 110). The nontectate forms are finely to coarsely reticulate (Figures 112– 123). In some taxa the grains had one type of surface outlining the colpi, and another on the poles and mesocolpial ridges (Figures 130, 140).

The most common surface pattern is punctate. The size and distribution alone of these punctae vary widely, but an additional characteristic is present in many taxa-the punctae are connected by grooves or striae which are also variable in depth, width, and placement (Figures 89, 91, 93, 95, 97, 99). In Ruprechtia laxiflora (Figure 106), the tectum between the striae is variously upraised, producing an uneven surface. In Ruprechtia ramiflora (Figures 108, 109), the intergroove tectum is more prominently upraised. In Atraphaxis buxifolia (Figures 98, 99), the connecting striae are larger, tend to be parallel, and result in, at least superficially, a striatelike surface pattern. These distinctions are not as conspicuous in TEM (Atraphaxis, Figure 143; Ruprechtia laxiflora, Figure 171; R. pallida, Figure 172), but this, of course, is frequently the case when cross-sections are compared with surfaces having irregular variations.

Within the broad category of punctate ektexines, the following six subtypes with some representative species can be recognized:

1. Ektexine finely punctate: Chorizanthe breweri,

Eriogonum correllii, and Nemacaulis denudata (Figure 82).

2. Ektexine with clustered punctae: Centrostegia thurberi, Chorizanthe fimbriata (Figure 84), C. paniculata (Figure 85), Eriogonum parishii, and E. racemosum.

**3.** Ektexine punctate, the punctae connected by small striae: Eriogonum inflatum, E. marifolium (Figures 90, 91), E. thomasii, Mucronea californica (Figures 88, 89), Oxytheca trilobata (Figure 83).

4. Ektexine more prominently punctate-striate: Antigonum guatemalense, Calligonum comosum (Figures 94, 95), Gymnopodium antigonoides (Figures 92, 93), Harfordia macroptera (Figures 96, 97), Muehlenbeckia chilensis (Figures 102, 103), M. polybotryar, Neomillspaughia paniculata, and Triplaris americana (Figure 86).

5. Ektexine with prominent sunken punctae: Fagopyrum esculentum (Figure 87), Muehlenbeckia tamnifolia (Figures 104, 105).

6. Ektexine microreticulate: Oxygonum dregeanum, O. zeyheri, and Podopterus mexicanus (Fig. ure 132).

The subtypes listed above should be treated with reserve since the distinction between consecutive ones is not very great, particularly between subtypes 3 and 4. Also, variation within a sample made classification of some taxa arbitrary or impossible.

Observations of exine wall with TEM indicate that the six subtypes established by SEM have considerable structural diversity as well. Sixteen of these taxa were examined in sections: Chorizanthe breweri (Figure 145) and Nemacaulis denudata (Figure 157) of subtype 1, Chorizanthe paniculata (Figure 146) and Eriogonum parishii (Figure 149) of subtype 2, Eriogonum marifolium (Figure 148) and Oxytheca trilobata (Figure 158) of subtype 3, Antigonum guatemalense (Figure 142), Calligonum comosum (Figure 144), Harfordia macroptera (Figure 152) and Muehlenbeckia polybotryar (Figure 156) of subtype 4, and Muehlenbeckia tamnifolia (Figure 154) and Fagopyrum esculentum (Figure 150) of subtype 5 are all essentially similar in possessing a moderate to thick tectum, long, narrow columellae (Calligonum comosum, Figure 144, excepted), a very reduced (absent?) foot-layer, and a distinguishable endexine. The TEM's of some of the above taxa revealed an unusual characteristic that may be of phylogenetic significance: Chorizanthe spp. (Figures 145, 146), Eriogonum parishii (Figure 149), Nemacaulis (Figure 157), and Oxytheca trilobata (Figure 158) all had a tectum in which the inner face was conspicuously granular.

Two of these 16 taxa examined by TEM, Muehlenbeckia chilensis (Figure 153) and Podopterus mexicanus (Figure 160), are distinguished from the preceeding ones by a prominently developed foot layer and an endexine well developed only in the region of the aperture. Gymnopodium (Figure 151) and Triplaris (Figure 173), with a thin foot-layer and endexine, appear intermediate between the above groups.

The second most common surface pattern is a reticulum formed by larger and fewer columellae, arranged in a network and distally fused, thus producing incomplete tectum. Differences in the size and placement of the primary columellae and in the surface of the lumina produce wide varieties and some recognizable pollen types. Grains with this ektexine were 3-colpate (colporate?) (Figures 116, 122), pantocolpate (Figures 112, 118, 120), or pantoporate (Figures 113, 114). In Polygonum capitatum (Figures 122, 123) and P. dielsii (Figures 116, 117) the columellae are massive, and a high, conspicuous reticulum is the result. The lumina are larger in P. dielsii, but in both species they are almost free of any columella material. In Polygonum acuminatum (Figure 113) and P. orientale (Figures 114, 115), both pantoporate, the muri alternate with large lumina filled with smaller, free columellae. In three pantocolpate taxa, Persicaria coccinea (Figure 112), Polygonum amphibium (Figures 120, 121), and P. virginianum (Figures 118, 119), the columellae which form the reticulum are smaller in length and diameter, closely placed, and a finer reticulum results. In all three the lumina are filled with small, free columellae.

Thin-sections of *Polygonum orientale* (Figure 159), *P. dielsii* (Figure 166), *P. amphibium* (Figures 162, 163), and *P. virginianum* (Figure 169) emphasize the SEM observations.

The formation of the reticulum in the above Polygonaceae is unusual: the ridges or muri are formed by distal fusion along the midline of two rows of columellae, which are opposite or sometimes alternate, producing a "staggered" effect best illustrated in a "planar" view (Figures 115, 117).

Four species of Polygonum, P. affine (Figure 124),

P. bistorta (Figures 128, 129), P. vaccinifolium (Figures 126, 127) and P. viviparum (Figure 125), which belong, among others, to the Bistorta complex (Hedberg, 1947), and an Australian species of Muehlenbeckia, M. cunninghamii (Figures 100, 101), have an ektexine pattern that could be described as sparsely spinulose and sparsely punctate. Grains of all five taxa were 3-colporate, the endoaperture well defined. In thin-section, Muehlenbeckia cunninghamii, (Figure 155) is very similar to the other species of Muehlenbeckia examined by TEM (Figures 153, 154, 156).

It is difficult to reconcile the TEM of *P. bistorta* (Figure 164) with the sparsely spinulose and sparsely punctate ektexine depicted in SEM (Figures 128, 129). The lack of a continuous tectum may be due in part to an oblique section and perhaps to the densely packed columellae. The SEM's of *P. vaccinifolium* (Figures 126, 127), with the larger perforations in the tectum, are more compatible with the cross-section illustrated in TEM (Figure 168).

Koenigia islandica, Polygonum cyanandrium (Figures 134, 135), and P. forrestii (Figure 133) had grains that were either pantoporate or pantocolpate with a prominently spinulose ektexine. Comparison of these grains (Figures 133–135) with the common type in the Centrospermae (Figures 1–12) indicates that the above species could not be related palynologically to that order. Polygonum forrestii (Figure 167) was the most distinctive Polygonum of those examined by TEM. The exine consists of a thin endexine and an ektexine containing abundant holes or internal foramina. The surface of the tectum was composed of very large, solid spines with numerous, small projections in between.

Hedberg (1947), in a classic study of pollen morphology in the genus *Polygonum*, sensu lato, recognized ten pollen types for which he gave descriptions and listed species. He segregated *Polygonum convolvulus* (Figures 140, 141), *P. cristatum*, and *P. dumetorum* as slightly aberrant forms of his Tiniaria type. These three species have almost identical pollen grains: 3-colporate with a zonorate endoaperture, the ektexine echinate near the colpi and psilate at the poles and the mesocolpial regions. The above characteristics make the grains distinct, not only from the more typical Tiniaria pollen, but from the remaining species examined in the present study. This particular morphology is

paralled by that of Polygonella fimbriata (Figure 130) and closely related species (Horton, 1963. 181-183): both groups have grains with similar apertures and a dimorphic ektexine in which the two surface patterns have the same distribution. Examination of P. convolvulus in TEM (Figure 165) revealed a remarkably uniform tectum (throughout the psilate area of the ektexine) and foot layer, underlain by a prominent endexine. This rare combination of well-developed foot layer and endexine was also found in Polygonella (Figure 161), which reinforces the parallel exomorphologies. Polygonum cilinode, P. cuspidatum, and P. multiflorum, which Hedberg lists as typical Tiniaria, have 3-colporate grains and a uniform ektexine, punctate-striate or prominently punctate.

Four species of *Rumex* were examined: *R*. aquaticus, R. acetosa (Figures 138, 139), R. acetosella, and R. scutatus, all of which had a perforate and very finely and evenly spinulose ektexine (Figure 139). Two species of Emex had an ektexine (Figure 136) similar to that of Rumex, but with a distinctive aperture structure. The ectoaperture is very reduced in length, and its polar margins almost coincide with those of the endoaperture. The close similarity of the ektexine in *Emex* and Rumex and its restricted occurrence reinforce Dammer's (1893) consecutive placement of the two genera. Comparison of the ektexine of Rumex (Figure 139) with the common Centrospermae type (Figures 7-12) indicates that there is not a close relationship between the two groups. The section of Rumex acetosa (Figure 170) reveals a thin exine in which the columellae and especially the footlayer-endexine unit are greatly reduced.

The ektexine of seven species in the large New World genus Coccoloba illustrates a continuous variation. All taxa are 3-colporate, and Coccoloba cordata (Figures 110, 111) has an ektexine best described as columnar-pyramidal on a base of randomly oriented small rods; C. barbeyana has an ektexine similar to Ruprechtia ramiflora (Figures 108, 109); C. diversifolia is similar to Calligonum comosum (Figures 94, 95); Coccoloba venosa and C. obovata are prominently punctate; and C. parimensis has a microreticulate ektexine similar to Podopterus mexicanus (Figure 132) and Polygonella polygama (Figure 131), but with slightly smaller lumina. The internal morphology of *Coccoloba cordata* pollen (Figure 147) also appears unique for the family. The ektexine surface consists of prominent irregular protuberances supported by a moderately thick tectum underlain by notably reduced columellae, greatly thickened foot-layer, and an extremely thin endexine, if any.

The genus Lastarriaea has been regarded as consisting of two endemic species, L. chilensis Remy in Chile, and L. coriacea (Goodman) Hoover in Baja and Southern California. The California taxon has been treated as L. chilensis ssp. californica Gross, or as a species of Chorizanthe, C. coriacea Goodman, who had to select another specific epithet since "californica" was already applied. The pollen of Lastarriaea chilensis (Figure 137), L. coriacea, and Chorizanthe species (Figures 84, 85) are all very similar, 3-colporate with a punctate ektexine. This is the most common morphology in the family, however, and the similarity does not necessarily indicate that Lastarriaea is congeneric with Chorizanthe or is closely related. For the same reason, the close similarity of the pollen in the two species of Lastarriaea does not, a priori, indicate a single species. Careful observation of the floral morphology when sampling for pollen, however, revealed that the flowers of the plants from Chile and from California are nearly identical in structure. Goodman (1934), in a revision of the North American species of *Chorizanthe* that included the California taxon, described the genus as having nine stamens, rarely six or three. The California and Chilean species of Lastarriaea have only three stamens.

Within limits of the taxa investigated (Table 4), a number of pollen types were found in only one species, and such cases are discussed separately here.

Polygonella fimbriata (Figure 130). Grains 3colporate, the endoaperture zonorate; the tectum variable: finely punctate in the region of the colpus, conspicuously reticulate at the mesocolpial ridges and more so at the poles. The TEM also indicates that *P. fimbriata* is distinctive for the family. This conclusion is based on the presence of a well-developed foot-layer and a thickened endexine (Figure 161), two characteristices that were rarely combined. See also the earlier discussion of *Polygonum convolvulus* and allied species.

Polygonella polygama (Figure 131). Grains 3colporate, the endoaperture zonorate, the nexine thickened at the margins; the ektexine  $\pm$  microreticulate.

Comparison of the major subdivisions of the Polygonaceae (Dammer, 1893; Roberty and Vautier, 1964; Reveal and Howell, 1976) with pollen morphology reveals little correlation. This lack of correlation is due primarily to two complementary phenomena: the wide distribution of the punctatestriate pollen type, which cuts across subfamily and tribal lines, and the wide array of pollen types within one genus, Polygonum. Thus far, the pollen morphology would support Reveal's concept (Reveal and Howell, 1976) of the subfamily Eriogonoideae. Twelve of the 13 genera that he assigned to this subfamily, have been examined by light microscopy and/or SEM, and all are 3-colporate with either punctate or punctate-striate ektexines, the most common pollen type in the Polygonaceae. However, an unusual characteristic illustrated by TEM, a granular inner surface of the tectum, is known thus far to be restricted to the Eriogonoideae: Chorizanthe (Figures 145, 146); Eriogonum (Figures 148, 149); Nemacaulis (Figure 157); Oxytheca (Figure 158). Another genus in this subfamily, Harfordia (Figure 152), is slightly granular. Examination of additional genera by TEM might well reinforce the value of this characteristic and also the validity of the subfamily.

#### PRIMULACEAE

#### FIGURES 174-200

Twenty-nine species (Table 5) representing 22 genera were examined by light microscopy and SEM, and 9 of these were sectioned and examined by TEM.

The structure of the aperture in the Primulaceae is more complex than in the Plumbaginaceae and in the Centrospermae. If the number is three or four, the apertures are generally compound, and the endoaperture is easily seen in light microscopy. A number of taxa with 3-colporate grains had a bridge over the endoaperture formed by the extension of the two lateral margins of the colpus (Figures 175, 180–184). One species, *Lysimachiopsis hillebrandia*, had 4-colporate grains in which each side of an endoaperture frequently terminated in a V-shaped process. Sometimes the V from one endoaperture and that of the adjacent one formed the outline of a diamond. Grains with 5-8 apertures, e.g., some *Primula* species, are generally zonocolpate (Figure 186). In some taxa, e.g., *Cortusa matthioli L.* (Figure 188), the colpi fuse at the poles to form a triangular apocolpial field.

Different surface patterns were due largely to variation in the perforation of the tectum. In some grains the surface was finely punctate (Lysimachia hybrida, Figure 175; Douglasia montana, Figure 182), in others prominently punctate (Coris monspeliensis, Figure 174; Cyclamen neopolitanum, Figure 184), irregularly perforate (Naumbergia thrysiflora, Figure 176), or microreticulate (Hottonia palustris, Figure 185; Primula veris, Figures 186, 187; Omphalogramma vinciflorum, Figure 191). Still others (Lysimachia terrestris, Figure 177; Stimpsonia chamaedryoides, Figures 178, 179) might be described as finely reticulate. Additionally, in some grains the tectal perforations were most pronounced in the mesocolpial regions (Coris, Figure 174; Naumbergia, Figure 176; Lysimachia terrestris, Figure 177; Anagallis, Figure 183).

Transmission electron microscopy indicates a variability of exine structure within the family. Most taxa examined have a well-developed footlayer and tectum, e.g., Anagallis (Figure 192), Glaux (Figure 194), Naumbergia (Figure 196), Omphalogramma (Figure 197),  $\pm$  short columellae, e.g., Glaux (Figure 194), Naumbergia (Figure 196), and an endexine that is massive in the region of the colpus and thinner but still prominent in the mesocolpial regions, e.g., Anagallis (Figure 192), Glaux (Figure 194), Naumbergia (Figure 196), Omphalogramma (Figure 197), Stimpsonia (Figure 199). In Lysimachia hybrida (Figure 195) the irregular tectum, incomplete columellae, and possibly the extensive endexine, are due to oblique section. Two species of Primula, P. officinalis (Figure 198) and P. veris (Figure 200), are exceptional, the foot-layer seemingly absent.

Heterostyly and dimorphic pollen grains are known to occur in the Primulaceae. Punt, et el. (1974) acknowledge this condition in some species of *Primula* and in *Hottonia palustris*, as well as dimorphic pollen grains in *Trientalis europaea*, due apparently to polyploidy. In *Glaux maritima* the collection of *Redfield s.n.* from Maine was distinct enough from that illustrated by Punt, et al.

(1974, pl. 14: figs. 1, 2) that the identification of Redfield s.n. was rechecked and verified, but still a second sample, Haakana s.n. from Finland, was examined, and these grains were more similar to those illustrated by Punt, et al. (1974). The differences in Glaux pollen may be due to heterostyly, not reported in the literature to our knowledge, or the pollen grains of this species may be simply rather variable. There are also some differences between our illustration of Hottonia palustris (Figure 185) and that of Punt, et al. (1974, pl. 4: figs. 11, 12; pl. 5: figs. 1-6), but the distinctly prolate shape shown in Figure 185 may be an artifact of preparation, i.e., collapse. We acknowledge the existence of heterostyly in the Primulaceae and dimorphic pollen (as in the Plumbaginaceae) but did not want the present study to be diluted by a detailed examination of this phenomenon. Whether it is the long- or short-styled form that is illustrated for Hottonia, Primula, and other Primulaceae, both authors feel strongly that the alternate form will not be shown to have the ektexine characteristic of so many of the centrospermous taxa (Figures 1-12). For detailed descriptions and measurements, the reader is advised to consult the article by Punt, et al. (1974).

# **Discussion and Conclusions**

Of the three families examined in this study, the Polygonaceae is the most frequently considered as being related to the Centrospermae. Of the families that comprise this order, the Caryophyllaceae appears to be the most likely family from which the Polygonaceae could be derived or related to, since both have the anthocyanin pigments. The data from plastid structure, however, does not support a relationship between the Polygonaceae and Caryophyllaceae; the Caryophyllaceae not only have the protein or P-type plastid characteristic of the Centrospermae, but the plastids have a central crystalloid with a distinctive polygonal shape Behnke, 1976:42); the Polygonaceae have the more common starch or S-type plastid, but admittedly this characterization is based on a small number of species.

The data presented in this palynological study indicate that the Polygonaceae and Caryophyllaceae are not related. Although the Polygonaceae is a large and palynologically diverse family, examination of 85 species representing 36 genera (Figures 82-173), revealed no pollen types similar to those in the Caryophyllaceae. (For additional information on Caryophyllaceae, see Nowicke, 1975; Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976). The pollen data do not support a relationship between the subtribe Illecebrinae (Caryophyllaceae) or the larger Illecebraceae and any of the Polygonaceae examined in this study. The grains of Illecebrum verticillatum are almost identical to those of Herniaria glabra (Figure 15): in both species the pollen has a distinctive tetrahedal shape with a large aperture on each of the three (four?) faces. Cardionema ramosissima (Figure 16) has pantoporate grains, roughly cube-shaped and with a spinulose and tubuliferous/punctate ektexine. The unusual grains of Illecebrum verticillatum and Herniaria glabra have not been found in any other taxa examined to date, including those remaining in the order Centrospermae, as well as the Plumbaginaceae, Polygonaceae, and Primulaceae. These results would support Hutchinson's (1959) inclusion of Herniaria in the Illecebraceae, but not necessarily the family status since the remaining species examined, including another species of Herniaria, H. hirsuta, all have a common pantoporate grain.

An argument could be raised that the pollen of the Bistorta complex in Polygonum (Figures 124-129) and that of Muehlenbeckia cunninghamii (Figures 100, 101) provide some evidence for a relationship to the Centrospermae. However, we think it much more likely that the occurrence of this ektexine surface in a limited number of species is a reflection of the enormous palynological diversity in the Polygonaceae: ektexines that are  $\pm$  psilate, punctate, punctate-striate, conspicuously spinulose, perforate with small spines, microreticulate, finely reticulate to coarsely reticulate; apertures that are porate, pantocolpate or colporate with variable endoapertures; and grains that are probably unique (limited to the Polygonaceae), such as those of Polygonella fimbriata (Figure 130) and related species, Polygonum convolvulus (Figures 140, 141) and related species, or Coccoloba cordata (Figures 110, 111).

It is also clear that a diversity of structural forms exist in the Polygonaceae. These observations parallel the sculpturing pleomorphism illustrated by SEM. The TEM reveals wide variation in the development of two layers—the endexine and footlayer. The endexine can be absent (apparently) as in *Podopterus* (Figure 160), thin but recognizable as in *Chorizanthe paniculata* (Figure 146), well developed as in *Atraphaxis* (Figure 143) and *Nemacaulis* (Figure 157), and greatly enhanced as in *Eriogonum* spp. (Figures 148, 149). The foot-layer has a similar range of variation: from apparently absent in *Chorizanthe breweri* (Figure 145) and *Nemacaulis* (Figure 157) to prominently thickened in *Coccoloba cordata* (Figure 147) and *Podopterus* (Figure 160), with many intermediate stages represented in other taxa.

Another unusual characteristic is the granular inner surface of the tectum found in a number of closely related genera: *Chorizanthe* spp. (Figures 145, 146), *Eriogonum* (Figure 149), *Nemacaulis* (Figure 157), and *Oxytheca* (Figure 158).

While the tectum tends to be thin in the above taxa, in others, *Fagopyrum* (Figure 150) and *Triplaris* (Figure 173), it is much thicker.

The structure of the exine in the Bistorta complex of *Polygonum* (Figures 164, 168), densely packed columellae, is unique in all the taxa examined with TEM in this study or previously (Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976) and thus diminishes the possibility that the Centrospermae and the Polygonaceae could be linked by this group. In fact, it seems quite notable that in spite of the diverse exine structures in this family, there is very little similarity to the Centrospermae.

The spinulose and punctate ektexine surface found in the Polygonaceae or in the Centrospermae, for that matter, is simple enough to have arisen independently in any of these taxa. However, the significance attached to this ektexine in the Centrospermae is that in every betalain family, as well as in the Caryophyllaceae and Molluginaceae, the overwhelming majority of the species examined had pollen grains with a spinulose and tubuliferous/ punctate ektexine, which, moreover, were sometimes identical between families. Insofar as pollen structure is concerned, a more defensible relationship could be proposed between the Polygonaceae and any dicot family with a preponderance of punctate ektexines. Pollen grains with a prominently reticulate ektexine are widely (and randomly?) distributed among dictoyledon families, but this may be due to parallel evolution and does not necessarily mean that these families are related to each other or to the Polygonaceae.

This study reinforces current opinion (Cronquist, 1968; Philipson, 1975:74; Takhtajan, 1969:220) that the Primulaceae are not related to nor derived from the Centrospermae. According to Cronquist (1968:177, 223) the only special feature in common between the Caryophyllales (Centrospermae) and the Primulales is the free-central placentation. The results of pollen analysis indicate that the ancestors and/or relatives of the Primulaceae are not in the centrospermous families. Although the pollen of the Primulaceae exhibits some variation (Figures 174–200), none of the taxa examined had grains with a counterpart in the Centrospermae.

Unlike the Primulaceae, the Plumbaginaceae are still regarded as being related to the Centrospermae (Takhtajan, 1969:215), although Cronquist (1968: 185) refers to the family as "somewhat more isolated but may also be derived from the Caryophyllales" and Philipson (1975:74) considers the Plumbaginaceae-Centrospermae relationship as more debatable (than that of the Polygonaceae-Centrospermae). The pollen of the Plumbaginaceae (Figures 29-81) consists of the two major types, designated previously as Armeria and Plumbago, each of which can be dimorphic in heterostyled species. This results in four distinctive types, all 3- (or 4-) colpate (Ceratostigma willmottianum and Limoniastrum monopetalum notwithstanding): finely and coarsely reticulate Armeria forms (Figures 41-58), and pointed-verrucae and rounded-verrucae

Plumbago forms (Figures 29-40). Admittedly the two forms of the Plumbago type are based on results from only two species, but the Plumbago ektexine type has not been found in any other taxon in this study or in earlier related ones (Nowicke, 1975; Skvarla and Nowicke, 1976). The coarsely reticulate form of the Armeria type has a superficial resemblance to some reticulate grains in the Polygonaceae, but the formation of the muri in the Polygonaceae is distinctive, alternate duplibaculate (Figures 112-117, 122, 123), versus simplibaculate in the Armeria forms (Figures 41-58). In reticulate grains found in the Centrospermae and in the Polygonaceae (Figures 113-116), the lumina usually have at least some free columellae (or bacula), whereas in both Armeria forms (Figures 42, 44, 46, 48, 51, 55, 56), the lumina are consistently free of any columellar material (the data of Praglowski and Erdtman, 1969, notwithstanding).

In the Plumbaginaceae the pollen data, plastid structure, and pigmentation (unless the tie is to the Caryophyllaceae and/or Molluginaceae) suggest that this family is not related to the Centrospermae and that its phylogenetic position needs to be reevaluated.

Like the Plumbaginaceae, the Primulaceae has the anthocyanin pigments, and has the starch type plastid structure (Behnke, pers. comm.). However, most authors (Cronquist, 1968; Philipson, 1975; Takhtajan, 1969) do not regard the Primulaceae as related to the Centrospermae and the pollen data presented here reinforces that view.

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#### TABLE 1 .-- Results of pollen analysis of taxa examined for ektexine characteristics

Taxa	Species	Genera	Spinulose + Tubuliferous/ Punctate	Other
Plumbaginaceae Polygonaceae Primulaceae Betalain families	20 85 29	9 36 22	0 4? 0	21 81 29
and Molluginaceae	217		184	33

TABLE 2.—Centrospermae specimens examined, arranged alphabetically by family (pollen types I, II, and III are 3-colpate, pantoporate, and pantocolpate respectively, all with a spinulose and tubuliferous or punctate ektexine; Spec. = specialized, any type not included in I-III)

Taxa	Collector	Location	Pollen description	Figure numbers
AIZOCEAE				
Geocarpon minimum Mackenzie Mesembryanthemum variabile Haworth Tetragonia arbuscula Fenzl	Palmer 5517 Walther s.n. Bayliss 2171	Missouri California S. Africa	II I I	9 1, 8, 19
AMARANTHACEAE				
Achyranthes aspera L. Chamissoa altissima (Jacquin) H.B.K. Dicraurus altermifolius (Watson) Uline & Bray. Psilotrichum amplum Suessenguth Ptilotus corymbosum Gaudichaud-Beaupre P. obovatum Gaudichaud-Beaupre	Philipson 10510 Curtiss 269 Carter et al. 2061 Burger 3248 Pritzel 58 Lazarides 4333	New Zealand Cuba Mexico Ethiopia Australia Australia	11 11 11 11 11 11	13, 20

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# TABLE 2-Continued

Taxa	Collector	Location	Pollen description	Figure numbers
BASELLACEAE				
Anredera scandens Moquin	Nelson 1666	Mexico	II	3, 21
CACTACEAE				
Borzicactus tenuiserpens (Rauh & Backeberg) Kimnach	Hutchison & Wright	Peru	I	11
Hamatocactus setispinus Britton & Rose Opuntia lindheimeri Engelmann	Pratt 9483 Griffiths 9031	Texas Texas	III Spec.	12 17, 22
CARYOPHYLLACEAE				
Achyronychia cooperi A. Gray Cardionema ramosissima A. Nelson & Macbride Gymnocarpos fruticosum Persoon Hermiaria glabra L. H. hirsuta L. Illecebrum verticellatum L. Pollichia campestris Aiton Silpene armeria L.	Parker et al. 7768 Fosberg 22540 Chevallier 28 Staszkiewicz in Plantae Poloniae, 527 Mandaville 139 MO 176804 Wood 591 Klein 2621	Arizona Ecuador Algeria Poland Saudi Arabia France S. Africa Brazil	II II Spec. II Spec. II II	16 4, 23 15, 24
A. Gray Tunica stricta (Bunge) Fischer & Meyer	Thorne 15254 Goloskokov s.n.	Florida USSR	II II	14
CHENOPODIACEAE Chenopodium ambrosioides L	Guinea 112	Spain	II	5,25
HECTORELLACEAE				
Lyallia kerguelensis Hooker	Transit of Venus Expd.	New Zealand	II	
MOLLUGINACEAE				
Limeun viscosum Fenzl Mollugo oppositifolius L.	Seydel 751 Gandhi 2092	SW Africa India	I I	2, 7, 26
NYCTAGINACEAE				
Abronia angustifolia Greene	Peebles & Harrison 3949	Arizona	Spec.	18, 27
Bougainvillea peruviana H.B.K Mirabilis alipes Watson Selinocarpus diffusus A. Gray	Hutchison 1415 Atwood 4550 Wooton s.n.	Peru Utah New Mexico	Spec. II II	
PHYTOLACCACEAE				
Agdestis clematidea Mocino & Sesse Microtea muypurensis (H.B.K.) G. Don Stegnosperma cubense A. Richardson	Pringle 3276 Bang 1589 Goldsmith 99	Mexico Bolivia Mexico	I II I	
PORTULACACEAE				
Lenzia chamaepithys Philippi Lewisia columbiana (Howell) Robinson Montia meridensis Friedrich Naiocrene parvifolia (Moquin) Rydberg	Johnston 6091 Jones 214 Hammen 1194 Applegate 2556	Argentina Idaho Colombia Oregon	I I Spec. III	6, 10, 28

TABLE 3.—Plumbaginaceae specimens examined (all 3-colpate except as noted; A = Armeria type, AC = coarsely reticulate Armeria form, AF = finely reticulate Armeria form, P = Plumbago type, PP = pointed verrucae Plumbago form, PR = rounded verrucae Plumbago form)

Species	Collector	Location	Pollen description	Figure numbers
Acantholimon glumaceum Boissier	Unknown collector	Cultivated Hort. Brussels	AC	
A. olivieri Jaubert & Spach	Koelz 15794	Iran	AC	65,66
A. phrygium Boissier Armeria maritima (Miller)	Bornmuller 5511	Turkey	AF	,
Willdenow	Mathiesen & Pedersen s.n.	Denmark	AC	45, 46, 67
	Svenson s.n.	'Scandinavia'	AF	43, 44, 68
	Thedenius s.n.	Sweden	AC	
A. maritima var. sibirica				
(Turczaninow) Lawrence	Bartlett 147	Greenland	А	
	Calder 2014	Canada	А	
	Cody 1794	Greenland	А	
	Ekblaw 610	Greenland	A	
	Lindager s.n.	Greenland	A	
	Stein 175	Greenland	A	
A. scabra Pallas Ceratostiama ariffithii	H. Smith s.n.	Sweden	AC	
C. B. Clarke	Rock 6577	China	PP	31, 32, 70
	Rock 11578	China	PR	29, 30, 69
C. minus Stapf	Schneider 2584	China	P	
C. willmottianum Stapf	Kingdon-Ward 12530 MO	India	PP	61, 62
-	Wilson 1373	China	PP1	59, 60, 71
Dyerophytum africanum				
(Lamarck) O. Kuntze	Goldblatt 2250 MO	S. Africa	PR	
	Werdermann & Oberdieck 594	S. Afríca	Р	63, 64, 72
	Seyel 4025 MO	Namibia	р	
Goniolimon collinum				
(Grisebach) Boissier Limoniastrum guyonianum	Rechinger f. 10375	Greece	AC	53, 54, 73
Durieu de Maisonneuve	Chevallier 82	Algeria	AF_	74
L. monopetalum Boissier	Puech s.n.	France	AC <sup>2</sup>	
Limonium viciosoi Pau	Vicioso s.n.	Spain	AC	41, 42, 75
L. vulgare Miller	Holm-Nielsen s.n. MO	Denmark	AF	52
-	Hubbard 13206 MO	Britain	AC	
	Moss MO	Britain	AC	
	Lawalree 3820 MO	Belgium	AC	51
Plumbago auriculata				
Lamarck	Bayliss 1187 GH	S. Africa	PR	39, 40
	Bayliss 3106 MO	S. Africa	Р	
P. europaea L	Raine s.n. GH	'Almunarro'	PP	37, 38
	Sporiks s.n. GH	Persia	PR	35, 36
P. rosea L	Urban 5490 GH	Puerto Ríco	PP	33, 34
P. scandens L	Woytkowskí 5592	Peru	P	76
Statice sinuata L	Maire & Wilczek 1048	Morocco	AF	57, 58, 77, 78
	Vaccari 495	Greece	AC	55, 56, 79, 80
S. tenella Turczaninow	Chaney 517	Mongolia	AC	47, 48, 81
	Chanev 517a	Mongolia	AF	49 50

<sup>1</sup> Pantocolpate

<sup>2</sup> 4-5 zonocolpate

# TABLE 4.—Polygonaceae specimens examined (3C = 3-colporate, PC = pantocolpate, PP = pantoporate)

Species	Collector	Location	Pollen description	Figure numbers
Afrobrannichia erecta Hutchison & Dalziel	Baldwin 11489	Liberia	3C, punctate	
Meisner	Laughlin 2635	Mexico	3C, punctate-striate	142
Jaubert & Spach Brunnichia cirrhosa Banks	Woronow s.n. Biltmore Herb, 1678 B	USSR Alabama	3C, striate-punctate 3C, punctate-striate	98, 99, 143
Calligonum comosum L'Heritier Centrostegia thurberi	Mandaville 69	Saudi Arabia	3C, punctate-striate	94, 95, 144
A. Gray Chorizanthe breweri S.	Hoover 4373	California	3C, clustered punctate	
Watson	Hoover 11393	California	3C, finely punctate	145
C. fimbriata Nuttall	Wiggins 9908	Mexico California	3C, clustered punctate	84
C. membranacea Bentham	Bruce 155 Bro Claudo Josoph 2007	Chilo	3C pupctate	85 146
Chorizonthe Sp.	Simon 289	Chile	3C, punctate	00, 140
Coccoloba barbeyana Lindau.	Schunke 76	Peru	3C, deeply punctate- striate	
C. cordata Chamisso	Hatschbach et al. 13352	Brazil	3C, columnar-pyramidal	110, 111, 147
C. diversifolia Jacquin	Bro. Clemente s.n.	Cuba	3C, punctate-striate	
C. obovata H.B.K	Duke 4988	Panama	3C, prominently punctate	
C. parimensis Bentham	Ducke 1289	Brazil	3C, microreticulate	
C. swartzii Meisner	Webster et al. 10296	Bahamas	3C, punctate-striate	
C. venosa L Dedeckera eurekensis	Harris & Britton 10756	Jamaica	30, punctate	
Reveal & Howell Emex australis Steinheil	Reveal et al. 3909 Scheepers 928 MO	California S. Africa	3C, punctate 3C, perforate and	
	Seydel 2975	SW Africa	3C, perforate and	136
E. spinosa (L.) Campdera	Koelz 14304	Iran	3C(?), perforate and spinulose	
Eriogonum correllii Reveal. E. inflatum Torrey &	Reveal & Davidse 883	Texas	3C, finely punctate	
Fremont E. marifolium Torrey &	Gentry 14437	Mexico	3C, clustered punctate	
A. Gray	Holmgren & Reveal 2706	Oregon	3C, finely punctate- striate	90, 91, 148
E. parishii S. Watson	Wiggins & Demaree 4913	Mexico	3C, clustered punctate	149
E. racemosum Nuttall	Eggleston 5847	Colorado	3C, clustered punctate	
E. thomasıı Torrey Fagopyrum esculentum	Jones s.n.	California	30, punctate-striate	07 150
Gilmania luteolum	Braun s.n.	Unio	30, deeply punctate	87, 150
(Coville) Coville Gymnopodium antigonoides	Gilman 1520	California	3C, punctate	
(Kobinson?) Blake	Gaumer & Sons 23207 Goldman 743	Mexico Mexico	3C, punctate-striate 3C, punctate-striate	92, 93, 151
(Bentham) Greene & Parry. Hollisteria lanata S.	Wiggins 7601	Mexico	3C, punctate-striate	96, 97, 152
Watson	Hoover 3496	California	3C, punctate	
Koenigia islandica L	Koelz 6424	India	PP, spinulose	
Lastarriaea chilensis Remy.	Worth & Morrison 16270 UC	Chile	3C, punctate	
	Worth & Morrison 16338 UC	Chile	3C, punctate	137
L. COrtacea (Goodman)	Leiberg 2260	Colifor 1	20	
Mucronea californica	Howell 32083	California	30, punctate 30, punctate	
Bentham	Grinnell s.n.	California	3C, finely punctate-	88, 89
Muehlenbeckia chilensis			GLITALE	
Meisner	E. & M. Holway 199	Chile	3C, punctate-striate	102, 103, 153
M. cunninghamii Mueller	Aston 984	Australia	3C, sparsely spinulose and punctate	100, 101, 155
	Constable 18440	Australia	3C, sparsely spinulose and punctate	
	Lazarides 5745	Australia	3C, sparsely spinulose and punctate	

## TABLE 4-Continued

Species	Collector	Location	Pollen description	Figure numbers
M. polybotryar Meisner M. tamnifolia (HBK) Meisner.	Pritzel 399 Balls 5804	Australia Ecuador	3C, punctate-striate 3C, punctate-striate	156 104, 105, 154
Neomillspaughia paniculata (Donnell-Smith) Blake	Edwards P 675	Honduras	3C, punctate-striate	
Nemacaulis denudata Nuttall	Cleveland s.n.	California	3C, finely punctate	82, 157
Oxygonum atriplicifolium Martelli	Piemeisel & Kephart 56	Kenya	3C, punctate and microreticulate	
0. dregeanum Meisner	Bayliss 4515	S. Africa	3C, microreticulate	
0. zeyheri Sonder	Galpin 13075	S. Africa	3C, microreticulate	
Oxyria digynia (L.) Hill	Neilson 902	Canada	<pre>3 colpate-very thin walled</pre>	
Oxytheca dendroidea			HULLOG	
Nuttall	Eastwood & Howell 7353	Nevada	3C, finely punctate- striate	
	Wagenknecht 18118	Chile	3C, finely punctate-	
0. luteola Parry	Pringle s.n.	California	3C, finely punctate-	
	Walther 14379	California	3C, finely punctate-	
0 naniokić Barry	C & W Review 993	California	Striate 30 pupetato	
0. trilobata A. Gray	Abrams 3807	California	3C, finely punctate-	83, 158
Pensicania coccinea Greene	Eastwood 1427	California	PC, fipely reticulate	112
Podopterus mexicanus Kunth.	Langlassi 922	Mexico	3C, microreticulate	132, 160
(Elliot) Horton	Ward & Smith 2236	Florida	3C, finely punctate and reticulate	130, 161
P. polygama (Ventenat)				
Engelmann & A. Gray	Bright 6309	S. Carolina	3C, microreticulate	131
P. affine D. Don	Staunton et al. 1328	Brazil Nepal	3C, finely punctate and	124
D	Burry 20	Tadiana	spinulose	100 101 160 160
P. amphibium L P. bistorta L	Cantlon & Gillis 57-439	Alaska	3C, finely punctate and spinulose	120, 121, 102, 103
	Cantlon & Malcolm 580085	Alaska	3C, finely punctate and spinulose	128, 129, 164
	Calder & Billard 3833	Canada	3C, finely punctate and	
			spinulose	
P. capitatum D. Don P. cilinode Michaux	Tsiang 4503 Hardin 722	China N. Carolína	3C, reticulate 3C, finely punctate-	122, 123
			striate	
P. convolvulus L P. cristatum Engelmann	Horr & McGregor E495	Kansas	3C, psilate and spinulose	140, 141, 165
& Gray P. cuspidatum Siebold &	Graham 25	Texas	3C, psilate and spinulose	
Zuccarini	Makino 13368	Japan	3C, deeply punctate	
P. cyanandrium Diels	Rock 5935	China	PP, spinulose	134, 135
P. dielsii Leville (?)	Henry 9379	China	3C, coarsely reticulate	116, 117, 166
P. aumetorum L	Makino 13491 Deck 9607	Japan	3C, psilate and spinulose	100 167
P. JOHNESCH Diels	Makino 15020	Japan	PC, spinulose	133, 167
P. orientale L.	Johnson s.n.	New York	PP reticulate	114 115 159
P. vaccinifolium Wallich	Koelz 976	India	3C. punctate	126, 127, 168
P. virginianum L	Standley 8342	Missouri	PC, finely reticulate	118, 119, 169
P. viviparum L	Alm s.n.	Sweden	3-4C, very finely spinulose	125
Pteropyrum aucheri			~	
Jaubert & Spach Pterostegia drymarioides	Rechinger 27660	Pakistan	3C, punctate-striate	
Fischer & Meyer	Gillespie 5495	Arizona	3C, punctate-striate	
Rheum delavayi Franchet	Rock 16256	China	3C, punctate	
kumex acetosa L	Greuter & Hainard 567	Switzerland	3(-4)C, perforate and spinulose	138, 139, 170
R. acetosella L	Rouleau 67	Canada	3(-4)C, perforate and spinulose	

Species	Collector	Location	Pollen description	Figure numbers
R. aquaticus L	Heikkinen s.n.	Finland	3(-4)C, perforate and spinulose	
<i>R. crispus</i> L	Standley 18083	Montana	3C, perforate and spinulose	
<i>R. scutatus</i> L	Pfister 1158/2	France	3C, perforate and spinulose	
Ruprechtia laxiflora Meisner	Hatschbach 13161	Brazil	3C, deeply punctate- striate	106, 171
R. pallida Standley R. ramiflora (Jacquin)	Newman 17	Mexico	3C, perforate-rugulose	107, 172
Meyer	Haught 3914	Colombia	3C, deeply punctate- striate	108, 109
Symmeria paniculata Bentham Triplaris americana L	Ducke 650 MO Pittier 12204	Brazil Venezuela	3C, ± psilate 3C, punctate- striate	86, 173

TABLE 4—Continued

Species	Collector	Location	Pollen description	Figure numbers
Anagallis linifolia L	Reverchon 388	Spain	3C, prominently punctate	183, 192
Androsace septentrionalis L.	Tarleton 8	Alaska	3C, punctate	
Apochoris pentapetala Duby	Zimmermann 257	China	3C, microreticulate	
Araisanara wittsteinii R. Wagner	Greenway & Kanuri 15044	Kenya	3C, punctate	
Centunculus pentandrus R.	no			
Brown	Standley 12941	Florida	3C. microreticulate	
Coris monspeliensis L	Tidestrom 13554	France	3C. sculptured & psilate	174, 193
Cortusa matthioli L Cyclamen neapolitanum	Koelz 4994	India	3-syncolporate, granular	188
Tenore	Stefani s.n.	Corsica	3C, punctate	184
Dionysia mira Wendelbo	Mandaville 3600	Oman	6-8 zonocolpate, deeply punctate	
Dodecatheon alpinum				
(A. Gray) Greene	Maguire & Holmgren 26449	Oregon	3C, punctate-granular	180, 181
Douglasia montana A. Gray	Thompson 13766	Idaho	3C, punctate	182
Glaux maritima L.	Haakana s.n.	Finland	3C, punctate-striate	
	Redfield s.n.	Maine	3C, irregularly punctate- striate	190, 194
Hottonia palustris L	Cernohorsky & Krajina 286	Czechoslovakia	3C, microreticulate	185
Lysimacnia ciliata L	Cronquist & Jones 5956	Idaho	3C, psilate-finely punctate	
L. hybrida Michaux L. terrestris (L.) Britton,	Leonard & Killip 871	Maryland	3C, finely punctate	175, 195
Stern & Poggenberg Lysimachiopsis hillebrandii	Mac Kenzie 2720	New Jersey	3C, microreticulate	177
Heller Naumbergia thyrsiflora	Degener 21278 MO	Hawaii	4C, punctate-psilate	
(L.) Reichenbach	Andersen s.n.	Norway	3C, irregularly microreticulate	176, 196
Omphalogramma vincaeflora				
Franchet	Rock 3573	China	3C, microreticulate	191, 197
Primula farinosa L	St. John 90675	Quebec	<pre>4-syncolporate, microreticulate</pre>	
P. incisa Franchet	Rock 17474	China	3C, microretículate	
P. officinalis (L.) Jacquin.	Ludera s.n.	Poland	6-8 zonocolpate, microreticulate	198
P. veris L	Charpin et al. s.n.	France	6-10 zonocolpate, microreticulate	186, 187
	Skvortsoc s.n.	USSR	6-8 zonocolpate, microreticulate	200
P. vulgaris Hudson	Pfister s.n.	Switzerland	6-8 zonocolpate, microreticulate (many abnormal grains)	
Samolus ebracteatus Kunth	Francis 8a	Florida	3C, punctate	
Soldanella alpina L	Treffer, 1362 in Flora Exsiccata Austro-	Austria	3-colpate (syncolpate?), scabrate-spinulose	189
S. austriaca Vierhapper	Keller s.n.	Austria	3-colpate (syncolpate?),	
Stimpsonia chamaedruoides C			scaprace-spinutose	
Wright Trientalis americana	Ying Hu 10001	Hong Kong	3C, finely reticulate	178, 179, 199
(Persoon) Pursh	Palmer 1370	Canada	3C, punctate	

TABLE 5.—Primulaceae specimens examined (3C = 3-colporate, 4C = 4-colporate)

NUMBER 37



FIGURES 1-6.—Centrospermae pollen, SEM: 1, Aizoaccae, Mesembryanthemum variabile Haworth, equatorial view,  $\times$  4100; 2, Molluginaccae, Limeum viscosum Fenzl, equatorial view,  $\times$  3900; 3, Basellaceae, Anredera scandens Moquin,  $\times$  3550; 4, Caryophyllaceae, Gymnocarpos fruticosum Persoon,  $\times$  3350; 5, Chenopodiaceae, Chenopodium ambrosioides L.,  $\times$  3600; 6, Portulacaceae, Naiocrene parvifolia (Moquin) Rydberg,  $\times$  1900. (Photo reduced to 81½ percent.)



FIGURES 7-12.—Centrospermae pollen, SEM: 7, Molluginaceae, Limeum viscosum, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500; 8, Aizoceae, Mesembryanthemum variabile, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500; 9, Aizoaceae, Geocarpon minimum Mackenzie, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500; 10, Portulacaceae, Naiocrene parvifolia,  $\times$  7500; 11, Cactaceae, Borzicactus tenuiserpens (Rauh & Backeberg) Kimnach, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500; 12, Cactaceae, Hamatocactus setispinus Britton & Rose, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500. (Photo reduced to 76½ percent.)



FIGURES 13-18.—Centrospermae pollen, SEM: 13, Amaranthaceae, Psilotrichum amplum Sussenguth, × 4000; 14, Caryophyllaceae, Siphonychia americana (Nuttall) Torrey & A. Gray, × 4600; 15, Caryophyllaceae, Herniaria glabra L., × 6000; 16, Caryophyllaceae, Cardionema ramosissima A. Nelson & Macbride, × 5500; 17, Cactaceae, Opuntia lindheimeri Engelmann, × 840; 18, Nyctaginaceae, Abronia angustifolia Greene, equatorial view, × 2870. (Photo reduced to 81 percent.)



FIGURES 19-23.—Centrospermae pollen, TEM: 19, Aizocaceae, Mesembryanthemum variabile, the foot layer is extremely thickened and is underlain by a thin but consistent endexine; the break in the endexine at extreme right may be a ruptured area; 20, Amaranthaceae, Psilotrichum amplum, an endexine is entirely absent; the thin-layered aperture contains a large pointed fragment of ektexine; 21, Basellaceae, Anredera scandens, a wedge of endexine is prominent beneath the colpus, but in the mesocolpial regions it is less distinct and has an electron density similar to that of the foot layer; however, the endexine is fibrillar and the inset (arrows) shows the fibrils to at least superficially resemble unit membranes; 22, Cactaceae, Opuntia lindheimeri, section is through one of the large apertures (Figure 17) with numerous flecks of ektexine; 23, Caryophyllaceae, Gymnocarpos fruticosum, it is difficult to distinguish a foot layer or endexine; the inset suggests that there are two layers with an irregular separation. (Scales equal 1  $\mu$ m.)



FIGURES 24–28.—Centrospermae pollen, TEM: 24, Caryophyllaceae, Herniaria glabra, an irregular but notable endexine is characteristic of this taxon; the absence of spines or perforations in a section is consistent with the surface depicted by SEM (Figure 15); 25, Chenopodiaceae, Chenopodium ambrosioides, the equatorial section and that contained in the inset (polar section) indicate a thin foot-layer, a highly irregular and granular endexine, and "internal foramina-like" openings in the thickened tectum; 26, Molluginaceae, Limeum viscosum, micrograph includes sections through mesocolpial (upper) and apertural (lower) regions; aperture has numerous flecks of ektexine; 27, Nyctaginaceae, Abronia angustifolia, the irregular structures are due to an oblique section through a coarsely reticulate ektexine; an endexine is not evident in this taxon; 28, Portulacaceae, Naiocrene parvifolia, the endexine is evident in the aperture region while in the mesocolpial regions it is either reduced or absent. (Scales equal  $l_{\mu}m$ .)



FIGURES 29-34.—Plumbaginaceae pollen, SEM. Ceratostigma griffithii C. B. Clarke: 29, equatorial view, × 1250; 30, ektexine surface, × 7500 (29, 30, Rock 11578, rounded verrucae Plumbago form); 31, equatorial view, × 1450; 32, ektexine surface, × 7500 (31, 32, Rock 6577, pointed verrucae Plumbago form). Plumbago rosea L.: 33, equatorial view, × 1500; 34, ektexine surface, × 7500 (33, 34, pointed verrucae Plumbago form). Photo reduced to 74 percent.)



FIGURES 35-40.—Plumbaginaceae pollen, SEM. Plumbago europaea L.: 35, polar view,  $\times$  1700; 36, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500 (35, 36, Sporiks s.n. GH, rounded verrucae Plumbago form); 37, polar view,  $\times$  1700; 38, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500 (37, 38, Raine s.n. GH, pointed verrucae Plumbago form). Plumbago auriculata Lamarck: 39, polar view,  $\times$  1250; 40, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500 (39, 40, Bayliss 1187 GH, rounded verrucae Plumbago form). (Photo reduced to 761/2 percent.)



FIGURES 41-46.—Plumbaginaceae pollen, SEM. Limonium viciosoi Pau: 41, equatorial view,  $\times$  1250; 42, ektexine surface,  $\times$  3000 (coarsely reticulate Armeria form). Armeria maritima (Miller) Willdenow: 43, equatorial view,  $\times$  1150; 44, ektexine surface,  $\times$  5000 (43, 44, Svenson s.n., finely reticulate Armeria form); 45, polar view,  $\times$  1250; 46, ektexine surface,  $\times$  3000 (45, 46, Mathiesen & Pedersen s.n., coarsely reticulate Armeria form). (Photo reduced to 77 percent.)



FIGURES 47-52.—Plumbaginaceae pollen, SEM. Statice tenella Turczaninow: 47, polar view,  $\times$  1500; 48, ektexine surface,  $\times$  5000 (47, 48, Chaney 517, coarsely reticulate Armeria form); 49, polar view,  $\times$  1500; 50, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500 (49, 50, Chaney 517a, finely reticulate Armeria form). Limonium vulgare Miller: 51, ektexine surface,  $\times$  5000 (Lawalree 3820 MO, coarsely reticulate Armeria form); 52, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500 (Holm-Nielsen s.n. MO, finely reticulate Armeria form). (Photo reduced to 79 percent.)



FIGURES 53-58.—Plumbaginaceae pollen, SEM. Goniolimon collinum (Griscbach) Boissier: 53, polar view,  $\times$  1600; 54, ektexine surface,  $\times$  5000 (coarsely reticulate Armeria form). Statice sinuata L.: 55, polar view,  $\times$  1500; 56, ektexine surface,  $\times$  4000 (55, 56, Vaccari 495, coarsely reticulate Armeria form); 57, polar view,  $\times$  1550; 58, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500 (57, 58, Maire & Wilczek 1048, finely reticulate Armeria form). (Photo reduced to 76 percent.)



FIGURES 59-64.—Plumbaginaceae pollen, SEM. Ceratostigma willmottianum Stapf: 59,  $\times$  1150; 60, ektexine surface,  $\times$  5000 (59, 60, Wilson 1373, pantocolpate Plumbago form); 61, polar view,  $\times$  1300; 62, ektexine surface,  $\times$  5000 (61, 62, Kingdon-Ward 12530 MO, 3-colpate Plumbago form). Dyerophytum africanum (Lamarck) O. Kuntze: 63, polar view,  $\times$  2000; 64, ektexine surface,  $\times$  5000 (Werdermann & Oberdieck 594, pointed? verrucae Plumbago form). (Photo reduced to 791/2 percent.)



FIGURES 65-68.—Plumbaginaceae pollen, TEM. Acantholimon olivieri Jaubert & Spach: 65, oblique section in aperture region; note thin but distinct endexine and random internal foramina (small holes) in the ektexine; 66, oblique section emphasizing thin endexine (arrow) and numerous internal foramina (coarsely reticulate Armeria form). Armeria maritima: 67, a fine network of sporopollinen surrounds the muri and the inset, a tangential section, clarified this interpretation and correlates with images obtained from SEM (Figures 44 and 46); arrows point to internal foramina partially filled with electron dense material (Mathiesen & Pedersen s.n., coarsely reticulate Armeria form); 68, in this section of an aperture the endexine is evident although highly fragmented; note that the outer surface of the muri appears somewhat ridged due to an off-center cut through the smaller spines (Svenson s.n., finely reticulate Armeria form). (Scales equal 1  $\mu$ m.)



FIGURES 69-74.—Plumbaginaceae pollen, TEM. Ceratostigma griffithii: 69, the section is somewhat oblique and therefore the two levels of columellae appear incomplete; note that the terminal portions of the incompletely depicted outer collumellae consist of fine bristle-like structures; the endexine is absent in the mesocolpial areas (Rock 11578, rounded verrucae Plumbago form); 70, morphology similar to Figure 69 except that the terminal portion of outer columellae appears more massive (Rock 6577, pointed verrucae Plumbago form). C. wilmottianum: 71, note thin, plate-like endexine (arrow) in aperture region (Wilson 1373, pantocolpate Plumbago form). Dyerophytum africanum: 72, radial section illustrates characteristics of inner columellae, smaller in diameter but almost equal in length to the outer columellae (Werdermann & Oberdieck 594, pointed? verrucae Plumbago form). Goniolimon collinum: 73, in contrast to Figures 69-72, all one form or the other of the Plumbago type, this section illustrates the single layer of columellae characteristic of the Armeria type; the foot layer has perforations but at the present time they are not considered to be internal foramina; arrow points to endexine in the region of the aperture; the granular material surrounding the outer part of the exine appears to be acetolysis resistant and is thought to be a component of the anther rather than the pollen wall (coarsely reticulate Armeria form). Limoniastrum guyonianum Durieu de Maisonneuve: 74, arrows point to endexine in regions of apertures (finely reticulate Armeria form). (Scales equal 1  $\mu$ m.)



FIGURES 75-81.—Plumbaginaceae pollen, TEM. Limonium viciosoi: 75, arrows indicate internal foramina in ektexine; the lower part of the foot layer is somewhat lamellar and may be a thin endexine (coarsely reticulate Armeria form). Plumbago scandens L.: 76, oblique section (rounded? verrucae Plumbago form). Statice sinuata: 77, very oblique section; 78, section  $\pm$  tangential (77, 78, Maire & Wilczek 1048, finely reticulate Armeria form); 79, section  $\pm$  tangential; 80, note fragmented but visible endexine (79, 80, Vaccari 495, coarsely reticulate Armeria form). Statice tenella: 81, oblique section, fragmented area on right indicates aperture region (Chaney 517, coarsely reticulate Armeria form). (Scales equal 1  $\mu$ m.)



FIGURES 82-87.—Polygonaceae pollen, SEM: 82, Nemacaulis denudata Nuttall, mesocolpial view,  $\times$  3100; 83, Oxytheca trilobata A. Gray, mesocolpial view,  $\times$  1850; 84, Chorizanthe fimbriata Nuttall, mesocolpial view,  $\times$  1950; 85, C. paniculata Bentham, equatorial view,  $\times$  2750; 86, Triplaris americana L., equatorial view,  $\times$  2650; 87, Fagopyrum esculentum Moench, equatorial view,  $\times$  1600 (Photo reduced to 771/2 percent.)



FIGURES 88–93.—Polygonaceae pollen, SEM: 88, Mucronea californica Bentham, equatorial view,  $\times$  2525; 89, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500; 90, Eriogonum marifolium Torrey & A. Gray, equatorial view,  $\times$  3250; 91, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500; 92, Gymnopodium antigonoides (Robinson?) Blake, equatorial view,  $\times$  2425 (Goldman 743); 93, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500 (Goldman 743). (Photo reduced to 76 percent.)



FIGURES 94–99.—Polygonaceae pollen, SEM: 94, Calligonum comosum L'Heritier, equatorial view,  $\times$  2500; 95, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500; 96, Harfordia macroptera (Bentham) Greene & Parry, equatorial view,  $\times$  3050; 97, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500; 98, Atraphaxis buxifolia Jaubert & Spach, equatorial view,  $\times$  2800; 99, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500. (Photo reduced to 84 percent.)



FIGURES 100–105.—Polygonaceae pollen, SEM: 100, Muehlenbeckia cunninghamii Mueller, equatorial view,  $\times$  2730 (Aston 984); 101, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500 (Aston 984); 102, M. chilensis Meisner, equatorial view,  $\times$  3570; 103, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500; 104, M. tamnifolia (H.B.K.) Meisner, equatorial view,  $\times$  3600; 105, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500. (Photo reduced to 831/2 percent.)



FIGURES 106–111.—Polygonaceae pollen, SEM: 106, Ruprechtia laxiflora Meisner, equatorial view,  $\times$  3400; 107, R. pallida Standley, equatorial view,  $\times$  2500; 108, R. ramiflora (Jacquin) Meyer, equatorial view,  $\times$  2700; 109, ektexine surface,  $\times$  5000; 110, Coccoloba cordata Chamisso, equatorial view,  $\times$  2520; 111, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500. (Photo reduced to 79 percent.)



FIGURES 112-117.—Polygonaceae pollen, SEM: 112, Persicaria coccinea Greene,  $\times$  1575; 113, Polygonum acuminatum Kunth,  $\times$  1575; 114, P. orientale L.,  $\times$  1600; 115, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500; 116, P. dielsii Leville(?), oblique view, colpus horizontal in lower half,  $\times$  2200; 117, ektexine surface, colpus in center,  $\times$  5000. (Photo reduced to 76 percent.)



FIGURES 118–123.—Polygonaceae pollen, SEM: 118, Polygonum virginianum L.,  $\times$  2000; 119, ektexine surface,  $\times$  5000; 120, P. amphibium L.,  $\times$  1400; 121, ektexine surface, colpus lower right,  $\times$  5000; 122, P. capitatum D. Don, polar view,  $\times$  2500; 123, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500. (Photo reduced to 771/2 percent.)



FIGURES 124–129.—Polygonaceae pollen, SEM. Polygonum affine D. Don: 124, equatorial view,  $\times$  2200. P. viviparum L.: 125, slightly oblique equatorial view,  $\times$  1700. P. vaccinifolium Wallich: 126, equatorial view,  $\times$  1900; 127, ektexine surface  $\times$  5000. P. bistorta L.: 128, mesocolpial view,  $\times$  2300; 129, ektexine surface,  $\times$  5000 (128, 129, Cantlon & Malcolm 580085). (Photo reduced to 83 percent.)



FIGURES 130–135.—Polygonaccae pollen, SEM: 130, Polygonella fimbriata (Elliot) Horton, mesocolpial view,  $\times$  3400; 131, P. polygama (Ventenat) Engelmann & A. Gray, equatorial view,  $\times$  5750; 132, Podopterus mexicanus Kunth, equatorial view,  $\times$  2970; 133, Polygonum forrestii Diels,  $\times$  2900; 134, P. cyanandrium Diels,  $\times$  3600; 135, ektexine surface,  $\times$  8500. (Photo reduced to 74 percent.)



FIGURES 136-141.—Polygonaceae pollen, SEM: 136, *Emex australis* Steinheil, equatorial view,  $\times$  2990 (Seydel 2975); 137, Lastarriaea chilensis Remy, mesocolpial view,  $\times$  3400 (Worth & Morrison 16338 UC); 138, Rumex acetosa L., equatorial view,  $\times$  4400; 139, ektexine surface,  $\times$  10,000; 140, Polygonum convolvulus L., mesocolpial view,  $\times$  3050; 141, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500. (Photo reduced to 781/2 percent.)



FIGURES 142-149.—Polygonaceae pollen, TEM: 142, Antigonon guatemalense Meisner, the endexine is narrow and plate-like; 143, Atraphaxis buxifolia, section somewhat oblique but endexine is thick and partially lamellar; 144, Calligonum comosum, the tectum and columellae are well developed but the foot layer is greatly reduced; 145, Chorizanthe breweri S. Watson, the tectum is thin and the lower part highly globular; the foot layer is reduced (or absent?) and the endexine narrow but uniform; 146, C. paniculata, this section is very similar to that of Figure 145, but there is a very thin foot layer and endexine; 147, Coccoloba cordata, section somewhat oblique; foot layer is extremely thick while the columellae and tectum are of smaller dimensions; extending from the tectum are large, irregularly shaped components; a vestigial endexine is suggested but additional work is necessary for confirmation; 148, Eriogonum marifolium, foot layer is very reduced as in Figures 144 and 145, but the endexine appears massive due largely to section through aperture; 149, E. parishii, S. Watson, very similar to Figure 145. (Scales equal 1  $\mu$ m.)



FIGURES 150-156.—Polygonaceae pollen, TEM: 150, Fagopyrum esculentum, the section is similar to Antigonon guatemalense (Figure 142) in the thickened tectum with funnel-like depressions (Figure 87), reduced foot layer, and thin but recognizable endexine; 151, Gymnopodium antigonoides, the endexine is not clearly evident in this somewhat oblique view, but, the inset of a section including the colpus reveals uniform endexine (Goldman 743); 152, Harfordia macroptera, section through the colpus with prominent endexine; the lower surface of the tectum is irregular (Figures 145, 146, 149, 157, 158); 153, Muehlenbeckia chilensis, except for the aperture regions the endexine is highly reduced; 154, M. tamnifolia, the endexine appears to be more uniform than in Figure 153; 155, M. cunninghamii, the tectum is thick with few perforations and the highly lamellar endexine and foot layer are approximately equal in thickness (Aston 984); 156, M. polybotryar Meisner, section somewhat oblique; the foot layer reduced and endexine prominent. (Scales equal 1  $\mu$ m.)



FIGURES 157-165.—Polygonaceae pollen, TEM: 157, Nemacaulis denudata, the section illustrates several characteristics of the punctate type, i.e., tectum with granular lower surface, very reduced foot layer, and an endexine which at least in the region of the colpus is very prominent; 158, Oxytheca trilobata, same as 157, the double arrows indicate the extremely thin foot layer, single arrows indicate acctolysis resistant material, which can be readily mistaken for exine layering; 159, Polygonum orientale, long columellae fused at the apex to form the muri alternate with smaller free columellac in the lumina (Figures 114, 115); a thin endexine can be recognized in the aperture region to the left; 160, Podopterus mexicanus, an endexine cannot be recognized but the lower part of the foot layer appears to consist of a thin, less electron-dense zone; 161, Polygonella fimbriata, the section reveals a well-developed foot layer and thickened endexine, an unusual combination in the family; 162, Polygonum amphibium, section at right angle through muri; 163, P. amphibium, section parallel through murus; 164, P. bistorta, section, which includes entire pollen grain, is oblique; the densely packed columellae are rare and limited to Bistorta complex (Cantlon & Malcolm 580085); 165, P. convolvulus, section through polar region where tectum is psilate; this taxon and Polygonella fimbriata (Figure 161) are the only two in which both the foot layer and endexine are well developed; this supports their parallel exomorphology observed in SEM (Figures 130, 140, 141) and discussed in text. (Scales equal I µm.)



FIGURES 166-173—Polygonaceae pollen, TEM: 166, Polygonum dielsii, section  $\pm$  oblique, solid tectum indicates section is through muri; 167, P. forrestii, the most distinctive member of the genus in TEM; the endexine is thin, the ektexine contains abundant holes or internal foramina, and the tectum is composed of very large, solid spines on an irregular or granular base; 168, P. vaccinifolium, very similar to Figure 164, densely packed columellae and also a member of the Bistorta complex; 169, P. virginianum, the discontinuous tectum reflects reticulate sculpture; 170, Rumex acetosa, the foot layer is either greatly reduced or absent; endexine thickness and rupture indicate colpus; 171, Ruprechtia laxiflora, foot layer is consistent and well developed; arrows point to what appears to be a lamellar endexine in colpial region; 172, R. pallida, similar to Figure 171 but endexine somewhat better developed; the accumulation of apparent foot layer material in colpus region is unusual; 173, Triplaris americana, similar to Figure 151, thickened tectum, thin foot layer and endexine. (Scales equal 1  $\mu$ m.)



FIGURES 174–179.—Primulaccae pollen, SEM: 174, Coris monspeliensis L., equatorial view, × 2500; 175, Lysimachia hybrida Michaux, equatorial view, × 5000; 176, Naumbergia thyrsiflora (L.) Reichenbach, mesocolpial view, × 4620; 177, Lysimachia terrestris (L.) Britton, Stern, & Poggenberg, mesocolpial view, × 4400; 178, Stimpsonia chamaedryoides C. Wright, equatorial view, × 3200; 179, ektexine surface, × 7500. (Photo reduced to 72 percent.)



FIGURES 180-185.—Primulaceae pollen, SEM: 180, Dodecatheon alpinum (A. Gray) Greene, equatorial view,  $\times$  4000; 181, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500; 182, Douglasia montana A. Gray, meso-colpial view,  $\times$  4250; 183, Anagallis linifolia L., equatorial view,  $\times$  3900; 184, Cyclamen neapolitanum Tenore, mesocolpial view,  $\times$  6500; 185, Hottonia palustris L., equatorial view,  $\times$  5250. (Photo reduced to 78 percent.)



FIGURES 186–191.—Primulaceae pollen, SEM: 186, Primula veris L., oblique view,  $\times$  3200; 187, ektexine surface,  $\times$  7500 (186, 187, Charpin et al. s.n.); 188, Cortusa matthioli L., polar view with triangular apocolpial field,  $\times$  5000; 189, Soldanella alpina L., equatorial view,  $\times$  6060; 190, Glaux maritima L., equatorial view,  $\times$  4300 (Redfield s.n.); 191, Omphalogramma vincaeflora Franchet, equatorial view,  $\times$  3550. (Photo reduced to 76 percent.)

FIGURES 192-195.--Primulaceae pollen, TEM: 192, Anagallis linifolia, a uniform endexine is notable as is the prominent foot layer; 193, Coris monspeliensis, the section includes the entire grain and reflects the variation of the sculpture as seen in SEM (Figure 174); the endexine is greatly thickened in the region of the apertures; 194, Glaux maritima, the foot layer and endexine are both prominent and approximately equal in thickness (Redfield s.n.); 195, Lysimachia hybrida, the oblique section enhances the thickness of the foot layer and endexine. (Scales equal 1  $\mu$ m.)



FIGURES 196-200.—Primulaceae pollen, TEM: 196, Naumbergia thrysiflora, thickened tectum is supported by reduced columellae on a well-defined foot layer and prominent endexine; 197, Omphalogramma vincaeflora, similar to Figure 196 except for more massive columellae; 198, Primula officinalis (L.) Jacquin, in contrast to all other taxa of Primulaceae examined in TEM, those in the genus Primula are without a foot layer; however in light microscopy and SEM, the samples appeared at least partially sterile; 199, Stimpsonia chamaedryoides, oblique section of entire grain illustrating consistent foot layer, and an endexine that is massive in aperture regions and thin but recognizable in the mesocolpial areas; 200, Primula veris L., see Figure legend 198 (Skvortsoo s.n.). (Scales equal 1  $\mu$ m.)

