# Morphology of pollen and orbicules in some Dioscorea species and its systematic implications 

PETER SCHOLS ${ }^{1 *}$, CAROL A. FURNESS ${ }^{2}$, PAUL WILKIN ${ }^{2}$, SUZY HUYSMANS ${ }^{1}$ and ERIK SMETS FLS ${ }^{1}$<br>${ }^{1}$ Laboratory of Plant Systematics, Institute of Botany and Microbiology, K. U. Leuven, Kard. Mercierlaan 92, B-3000 Leuven, Belgium<br>${ }^{2}$ Herbarium, Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, Richmond, Surrey TW9 3AE

Received July 2000; accepted for publication October 2000


#### Abstract

Pollen and orbicule morphology of 35 Dioscorea L. species is described based on observations with light microscopy, and scanning and transmission electron microscopy. Pollen and orbicule characters are critically evaluated and discussed in the context of existing hypotheses of systematic relationships within the genus. Pollen is mostly bisulcate (sometimes monosulcate) with a perforate, microreticulate or striate sexine. Our results indicate that pollen data may be significant at sectional rank. The close relationship between sections Asterotricha and Enantiophyllum proposed by Burkill and Ayensu is supported by pollen morphology as all species investigated share bisulcate, perforate pollen with small perforations and a high perforation density. Macromorphological differences between the two compound-leaved sections Botryosicyos and Lasiophyton are also supported by pollen morphology; pollens of these two sections have very different perforation patterns. Orbicules in Dioscorea are mostly spherical and possess a smooth or spinulose surface. The latter is often correlated with a striate sexine.


© 2001 The Linnean Society of London
ADDITIONAL KEY WORDS: pollen aperture - pollen ultrastructure - sectional classification - sexine ornamentation.

## INTRODUCTION

Pollen morphological data have proved crucial to the resolution of relationships within Dioscoreales (Caddick et al., 1998). The present paper considers the systematic importance of pollen morphology within Dioscorea L., the core genus of the Dioscoreaceae.

Dioscorea consists of approximately 400 species (Wilkin, in press), growing in humid tropical and subtropical areas. The genus was divided into four subgenera, based on seed morphology, and about 60 sections (Knuth, 1924) mainly based on a few characters from floral morphology, such as the number of anthers, while micromorphological data remained poorly known. Revised hypotheses about relationships between the old and new world sections were published by Matuda (1954) and Burkill (1960), while the majority of sections recognized by Knuth were unchanged.

[^0]The need for re-evaluation of the infrageneric classification of Dioscorea using molecular and micromorphological data is indicated by recent cladistic analyses, for example by Wilkin \& Caddick (2000). Palynological data in particular are rather scarce for Dioscorea; existing publications mostly survey only a few Dioscorea species using light microscopy (LM) (for example, Selling, 1947; Kuprianova, 1948; Sharma, 1967; Erdtman, 1969; Heusser, 1971; Huang, 1972; Chávez, Ludlow-Wiechers \& Villanueva, 1991). According to these reports, pollen grains of Dioscorea are 1 -, 2- or 3 -sulcate with the longest axis ranging from 18 to $45 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.

A survey using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) (Su, 1987), described the pollen morphology of 33 Chinese Dioscorea species from five sections. Pollen grains are all bisulcate, except for those of section Stenophora (see Appendix A for authors of taxa), which are monosulcate. Su also suggested a correlation between pollen size and tuber type.

Pollen of ten Dioscorea species was described by

Caddick et al. (1998): pollen is usually bisulcate, sometimes monosulcate, and striate to perforate or finely reticulate. The mainly bisulcate pollen and a similarity in sexine sculpturing support a close relationship between Dioscorea and the other dioecious taxa Epipetrum, Rajania and Tamus (Caddick et al., 1998). Among the three hermaphrodite genera formerly included in Dioscoreaceae (Avetra, Stenomeris and Trichopus), Avetra and Trichopus have very similar pollen morphology with spinulate sculpturing (Caddick et al., 1998). Pollen grains of the closely related family Taccaceae are monosulcate (Caddick et al., 1998), as is the case in some Dioscoreaceae.

Orbicules are sporopollenin bodies in the anther locule usually produced by secretory tapeta; their function is unknown although there have been various suggestions (see Huysmans, El-Ghazaly \& Smets, 1998, 2000). Although most Dioscoreales are known to have a secretory tapetum (Wunderlich, 1954; Furness \& Rudall, 1998), orbicules have never been examined in this group.

As part of an ongoing study tracing the diversity and evolutionary relationships of members of the Dioscoreaceae, this paper aims to present a detailed description of the pollen and orbicules of 35 Dioscorea species from 26 sections, focusing particularly on pollen aperture number and sexine ornamentation (Schols, 1999). The implications of these data for the systematics of the genus are then discussed.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

## MATERIAL

Fresh material was obtained from the Living Collections of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew (HK: followed by Gardens' accession number). Dried material came from the Herbaria of the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew (K: followed by collector's name and number) and the National Botanic Garden of Belgium (BR: followed by collector's name and number). Species are listed alphabetically by section, and specimens examined with TEM are indicated by an asterisk (see Appendix).

## METHODS

$L M$. Pollen was acetolyzed for 10 min in a heating block at $90^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ using the method of Reitsma (1969) and embedded in Kaiser's glycerine jelly.

SEM. Because Dioscorea pollen is relatively thinwalled, tends to collapse and is quite difficult to prepare, each specimen was subjected to two treatments: acetolysis as for LM and critical point drying (CPD). Acetolyzed pollen was mounted on specimen stubs, dried down from $70 \%$ ethanol and micrographs were taken using digital imaging on a JEOL JSM 5800


Figure 1. Indication of the axes used in pollen grain measurements. $\mathrm{LA}=$ longest axis; $\mathrm{SEA}=$ shortest equatorial axis.
scanning electron microscope. Before CPD, mature flowers were rehydrated in Agepon wetting agent and dehydrated through an acetone series. They were critical point dried in a Balzers CPD 030 apparatus. Following CPD, anthers were removed and pollen grains were mounted on a stub with carbon strip tape. Micrographs were taken as for acetolyzed pollen. LM and SEM were carried out on dried material except for the species examined for TEM.

TEM. Fresh whole anthers were fixed in $2 \%$ glutaraldehyde in 0.05 M sodium cacodylate buffer ( pH 7.4 ) for 24 h , and post-fixed in $2 \% \mathrm{OsO}_{4}$ for 1 h . Anthers were bloc stained with uranyl acetate (1\%) for 10 min , dehydrated through an acetone series followed by propylene oxide treatment and embedded in araldite. Semithin sections were stained with thionin ( $0.1 \%$ ) and methylene blue ( $1 \%$ ) and examined using a Labophot light microscope and a Nikon AFX-II camera attachment. Ultrathin sections on copper grids were stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate. Anthers of D. schimperiana were placed in $2.5 \%$ glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer ( pH 7.2 ), de-aerated under vacuum for 1 h and fixed for $16-20 \mathrm{~h}$ at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. They were washed in cacodylate buffer, post-fixed in $1 \%$ buffered osmium tetroxide for 3 h at room temperature and washed again. Tissues were dehydrated through an ethanol series followed by three changes of $100 \%$ ethanol and embedded in LR White resin (London Resin Co., Reading, UK) in gelatin capsules. Electron micrographs were taken using a Zeiss EM906 transmission electron microscope at 80 kV .

For each species, the longest axis (LA) and the shortest equatorial axis (SEA) were measured from ten grains, using LM slides of acetolyzed pollen (Fig. 1). The polar and equatorial axes could only be determined by examination of the orientation of the grains at the tetrad stage, which has not been carried
out to date (Clarke \& Jones, 1981). Measurements of perforation size, perforation density, striation thickness and orbicules were carried out using NIH Image 1.62 (Rasband, 1996) on digital SEM images (Table 1). Terminology follows the international glossary (Punt et al., 1998), unless stated otherwise.
To test the correlation between pollen size and tuber type ( $\mathrm{Su}, 1987$ ) we checked the normality (Kurtosis Normality test) and equality of variances (VarianceRatio Equal-Variance test and Modified-Levene EqualVariance test) of both groups (annual vs persistent tubers). These tests confirmed equal variances and a normal distribution of data in both groups using a 0.05 confidence interval. Subsequently, a two sample equal variance $t$-test (one-tailed distribution) was carried out.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## POLLEN AND ORBICULE CHARACTERS

The 35 species examined show considerable variation in pollen and orbicule morphology. Pollen and orbicule characters are discussed below and summarized in Table 1.

## Pollen size

The range of the longest axis (LA) varies from $15 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in $D$. bulbifera to $51 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in $D$. buchananii. The average mean value for all species investigated is $27 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ (Table 1). The smallest pollen grains were found in D. bulbifera (section Opsophyton) and D. bemarivensis (section Cardiocapsa). These species have an average LA of $16.2 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and $18.4 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ respectively. Almost all species examined from sections Opsophyton, Asterotricha, Brachyandra and Enantiophyllum have pollen grains that are smaller than $32 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. In contrast, rather large pollen grains can be found within sections Rhacodophyllum, Sancocapsa and Testudinaria, with mean LA values ranging from $35-40 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. However, since the number of species examined per section is small (sometimes only one), these results need to be treated with caution and require further testing.

Measurements of the shortest equatorial axis (SEA) range from $10 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ (D. bulbifera) to $34 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ (D. sylvatica). SEA values are well correlated with LA values (Table 1). Note that SEA values might not be as reliable as LA values due to harmomegathic accommodation because the grains collapse inwards along the shortest axis. Su (1987) suggested that pollen of sections with annual tubers (namely Brachyandra, Enantiophyllum, Lasiophyton and Opsophyton) is smaller than that of almost all the sections with persistent tubers (Apodostemon, Dematostemon, Rhacodophyllum and Testudinaria). Our results seem to confirm this hypothesis. However, we examined only 16 species with
annual tubers and four species with persistent tubers, of which D. buchananii (sect. Rhacodophyllum) and D. sylvatica (sect. Testudinaria) clearly comply with this rule, both having grains that are $c .40 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. The $t$ test on the LA measurements confirms that the difference between both groups is significant ( $P=0.013$ ), although the sample sizes are low.

## Apertures

Although this term has a morphogenetic origin, apertures of Dioscorea pollen grains are usually called 'sulci'. As in Clarke \& Jones (1981), no observations of tetrads were made and consequently no definite term can be assigned to the apertures of Dioscorea until their development in the tetrad stage is examined. In this paper we will use 'sulci' for the sake of simplicity and because of the occurrence of monoaperturate pollen grains (e.g. D. membranacea), which are called monosulcate in most monocots.
Aperture orientation and aperture width are highly dependent on the hydration state of the grain. Dehydrated pollen grains tend to fold along their shortest axis, leading to more infolded apertures that look smaller and closer to each other.

Dioscorea pollen grains are relatively thin-walled, as is pollen of many monocots, and tend to collapse, especially when prepared from herbarium material for SEM. Thus observation of the apertures may be difficult with SEM, and the number of apertures was established from LM observations. Twenty-two species in this survey have bisulcate pollen, while 11 species have both monosulcate and bisulcate pollen (Table 1; Figs 2-9). When mono- and bisulcate pollen occur in one specimen, one type prevails ( $95 \%$ or more per sample). Nine species are predominantly bisulcate with a low percentage ( $5 \%$ or less per sample) of monosulcate pollen and two species are predominantly monosulcate with a low percentage ( $5 \%$ or less per sample) of bisulcate pollen. Only two species, Dioscorea lagoasanta (sect. Monadelpha) and D. membranacea (sect. Macropoda) have exclusively monosulcate pollen (Fig. 9). Bisulcate pollen predominates in the Dioscorea species examined, although monosulcate predominates in sect. Stenophora, and Monadelpha (Table 1), but sample sizes are low. Aperture number could potentially be a useful character if more taxa were examined. Studies of aperture development are needed to investigate aperture variation within and between species. The variability in aperture number encountered in this survey (both within one specimen and in a single anther) is rather uncommon for seed plants with a small number of apertures. Aperture orientation is related to the tetrad and differences in aperture number and position might be correlated with different tetrad morphologies or with other ontogenetic
Table 1. Summary of pollen and orbicule characters for all species studied. All measurements in $\mu \mathrm{m}$. Abbreviations: LA=longest axis; SEA=shortest equatorial axis. W str. = width of striations; conn. = connections between orbicules; spine = spines on the orbicule surface; /=no observations; *=not applicable

| Section | Species | LA | SEA | Ornam. | No. apertures | Perf. size ( $\mu \mathrm{m}$ ) | Perf/ $/ \mathrm{mm}^{2}$ | W str. ( $\mu \mathrm{m}$ ) | Orbicule diam. | Conn. | Spine |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Apodostemon | D. megacarpa | 25-(26.0)-27 | 13-(16.0)-19 | striate | 2 | * | * | 0.2 | * | * | * |
| Asterotricha | D. hirtiflora | 22-(24.2)-26 | 16-(23.6)-23 | perforate | 2 | 0.04-(0.06)-0.07 | 5.5 | * | 0.22-(0.45)-0.64 | - | - |
|  | D. schimperiana | 18-(19.5)-21 | 12-(15.0-17 | perforate | 2 | 0.08-(0.11)-0.16 | 6.0 | * | 0.38-(0.57)-0.99 | + | - |
| Botryosicyos | D. pentaphylla | 22-(23.2)-26 | 14-(15.9)-18 | perforate | 2 | 0.06-(0.10)-0.16 | 2.3 | * | 1 | - | - |
|  | D. quartiniana | 24-24.8)-25 | 15-(15.8)-17 | perforate | 2 | $0.09-(0.16)-0.32$ | 2.6 | * | 0.56-(0.93)-1.87 | - | - |
| Brachyandra | D. hexagona | 20-(21.6)-23 | 17-(17.6)-18 | striate | 2 (1) | * | * | 0.21 | 0.19-(0.38)-0.54 | - | - |
| Campanuliflorae | D. karatana | 22-(24.2)-26 | 20-(20.2)-24 | striate | 2 | * | * | 0.22 | 0.25-(0.37)-0.47 | + | + |
|  | D. maciba | 22-(23.0)-24 | 12-(14.5)-16 | striate | 2 (1) | * | * | 0.27 | $0.18-(0.26)-0.31$ | - | + |
| Cardiocapsa | D. bemarivensis | 17-(18.4)-20 | 16-(18.6)-20 | striate | 2 (1) | * | * | * | 0.16-(0.30)-46 | - | + |
| Chirophyllum | D. brachybotrya | 28-(31.8)-36 | 20-(22.0)-24 | perforate | 2 | 0.06-(0.21)-0.38 | 3.4 | * | 0.22-(0.34)-0.45 | 1 | 1 |
| Chondrocarpa | D. riparia | 25-(26.4)-29 | 15-(17.4)-19 | perforate | 2 | 0.07-(0.13)-0.21 | 5.2 | * | 0.28-(0.43)-. 68 | - | - |
| Combilium | D. esculenta | 30-(31.6)-33 | 16-(17.3)-19 | perforate | 2 | 0.09-(0.18)-0.32 | 2.6 | * | * | * | * |
| Cryptantha | D. catharinensis | 22-(24.1)-26 | 17-(20.0)-28 | striate | 2 (1) | * | * | 0.22 | 0.22-(0.38)-0.55 | + | - |
| Dematostemon | D. adenocarpa | 26-(29.0)-33 | 19-(19.8)-21 | mic. ret. | 2 | 0.14-(0.49)-0.67 | 2.4 | * | 0.32-(0.46)-0.65 | + | - |
| Enantiophyllum | D. decipiens | 20-(21.0)-22 | 15-(15.0)-22 | perforate | 2 | 0.12-(0.16)-0.22 | 3.2 | * | 0.35-(0.46)-0.63 | - | + |
|  | D. glabra | 19-(20.6)-28 | 14-(18.3)-21 | perforate | 2 | 0.05-(0.07)-0.10 | 12.0 | * | 0.41-(0.69)-0.89 | - | - |
|  | D. hamiltonii | 25-(26.2)-27 | 19-(19.7)-21 | perforate | 2 | 0.06-(0.14)-0.29 | 8.7 | * | 0.28-(0.33)-0.51 | - | - |
|  | D. praehensilis | 25-(28.7)-32 | 14-(19.0)-21 | perforate | 2 | 0.08-(0.14)-0.27 | 10.2 | * | 0.32-(0.59)-0.91 | + | - |
| Lasiogyne | D. dodecaneura | 30-(33.0)-39 | 15-(17.6)-21 | perforate | 2 (1) | 0.09-(0.20)-0.34 | 4.6 | * | 0.12-(0.27)-0.40 | - | - |
| Lasiophyton | D. dumetorum | 25-(26.2)-27 | 20-(21.7)-23 | perforate | 2 | 0.06-(0.14)-0.23 | 8.2 | * | 0.44-(0.68)-1.10 | - | - |
|  | D. dregeana | 18-(19.4)-21 | 16-(17.0)-18 | perforate | 2 | 0.05-(0.13)-0.24 | 9.2 | * | * | * | * |
| Macrocarpaea | D. preussii | 27-(31.2)-34 | 19-(22.8)-25 | perforate | 2 | 0.08-(0.20)-0.32 | 4.5 | * | $0.35-(0.57)-0.76$ | + | - |
| Macrogynodium | D. trifida | 33-(34.7)-36 | 21-(22.1)-25 | perforate | 2 | 0.09-(0.18)-0.41 | 3.6 | * | * | * | * |
| Madagascarienses | D. acruatinervis | 20-(20.5)-21 | 12-(13.7)-15 | striate | 2 (1) | * | * | 0.25 | 0.27-(0.37)-0.52 | - | + |
| Monadelpha | D. lagoa-santa | 25-(28.6)-30 | 14-(16.8)-20 | perforate | 1 | 0.10-(0.31)-0.49 | 3.0 | * | 0.23-(0.38)-0.58 | - | - |
| Opsophyton | D. bulbifera | 15-(16.2)-17 | 10-(10.2)-11 | perforate | 2 (1) | 0.05-(0.08)-0.12 | 8.8 | * | 0.39-(0.48)-0.62 | $+$ | - |
| Rhacodophyllum | D. buchananii | 42-(45.8)-51 | 22-(27.8)-33 | perforate | 2 (1) | $0.10-(0.23)-0.42$ | 3.2 | * | * | * | * |
| Sarcantha | D. amazonum | 27-(29.7)-31 | 16-(17.7)-19 | striate | 2 | * | * | 0.25 | 0.31-(0.38)-0.50 | - | + |
| Sarcocapsa | D. oaxacensis | 32-(35.0)-38 | 18-(21.8)-25 | perforate | 2 (1) | 0.09-(0.13)-0.19 | 4.7 | * | * | * | * |
| Spaerantha | D. multifora | 26-(27.5)-30 | 13-(17.5)-21 | perforate | 2 | 0.11-(0.24)-0.42 | 3.7 | * | 0.25-(0.35)-0.57 | - | - |
| Stenocorea | D. daunea | 32-(36.4)-40 | 19-(25.1)-27 | perforate | 2 | 0.14-(0.22)-0.30 | 3.2 | * | 0.49-(0.77)-1.15 | - | - |
| Stenophora | D. althaeoides | 25-(25.3)-26 | 16-(16.6)-17 | striate | 1 (2) | * | * | 0.28 | 0.20-(0.37)-0.56 | + | - |
|  | D. collettii | 35-(36.0)-39 | 21-(22.5)-25 | perforate | 1 (2) | 0.11-(0.22)-0.37 | 4.4 | * | * | * | * |
|  | D. membranacea | 20-(21.8)-24 | 13-(17.5)-20 | perforate | 1 | $0.10-(0.23)-0.36$ | 3.2 | * | 0.19-(0.33)-0.47 | - | - |
| Testudinaria | D. syluatica | 37-(40.4)-44 | 27-(30.1)-34 | perforate | 2 | 0.10-(0.20)-0.35 | 2.8 | * | $0.30-(0.52)-0.72$ | - | - |



Figures 2-9. Pollen and apertures (SEM). Fig. 2. D. catharinensis (sect. Cryptantha). Bisulcate, striate. Fig. 3. D. adenocarpa (sect. Dematostemon). Bisulcate, microticulate. Fig. 4. D. hamiltonii (sect. Enantiophyllum). Bisulcate, perforate. Fig. 5. D. decipiens (sect. Enantiophyllum). Bisculate, perforate. Fig. 6. D. preussii (sect. Macrocarpaea). Bisulcate, perforate to microreticulate. Fig. 7. D. bulbifera (sect. Opsophyton). Bisulcate, perforate. Fig. 8. D. hirtiflora (sect. Asterotricha). Bisulcate, perforate. Fig. 9. D. membranecea (sect. Stenophora). Monosulcate, perforate to microreticulate.
events, such as the position of rER strands at the tetrad stage (Furness \& Rudall, 1999a,b). TEM observations of the earliest stages of pollen ontogeny, which could clarify questions concerning aperture configuration, are currently under investigation and could also shed light on the origin of biaperturate pollen grains within the monocots.

Microsporogenesis in Dioscorea is of the simultaneous type with tetrahedral and decussate tetrads, as in other members of Dioscoreaceae examined, and in Stenomeridaceae and Taccaceae in Dioscoreales (Caddick et al., 1998; Furness \& Rudall, 1999b, 2000). Simultaneous microsporogenesis is less common in monocots than the successive type, with predominantly tetragonal tetrads, although it characterizes some groups (Furness \& Rudall, 1999b, 2000).

Monosulcate pollen is generally accepted to be the plesiomorphic character state within the monocots (Dahlgren, Clifford \& Yeo, 1985; Furness \& Rudall, 1997, 1999a). The transition from a single distal sulcus to multiaperturate pollen grains has occurred in numerous groups within the monocots such as Alismatales (Zavada, 1983; Blackmore \& Crane, 1998). In Dioscorea, monosulcate pollen predominates in the basal section Stenophora, while less basal sections, such as Enantiophyllum and Lasiophyton, are characterized by bisulcate pollen grains. Trisulcate pollen, as reported by Erdtman (1969), was not found in the species examined in this survey.

## Sexine ornamentation

All Dioscorea species examined have either perforate, striate or microreticulate ornamentation. Of the 35 species, 25 have a perforate sexine, nine are striate and only one species, $D$. adenocarpa, has a microreticulate sexine. The two major ornamentation patterns were compared using SEM and TEM (Figs 16, 17, 27, 28) The striate pattern is formed by supratectal striae in D. karatana (Figs 16, 17).

## Striate ornamentation

Striate pollen is present in the following sections: Apodostemon, Brachyandra, Campanuliflorae, Cardiocapsa, Cryptantha, Stenophora, Madagascarienses and Sarcantha (Figs 10, 17). All five Malagasy endemic species and only three of the 11 New World species in this survey are characterized by a striate sexine. (Appendix; Table 1). The width of the striae ranges from 0.20 to $0.28 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. In D. bemarivensis (sect. Cardiocapsa) and D. arcuatinervis (sect. Madagascarienses), the striations are arranged in concentric circles (Figs 12, 13).

The striate ornamentation of $D$. althaeoides (sect. Stenophora) (Fig. 15) is somewhat surprising, because the other two members of Stenophora in this survey
(D. collettii and D. membranacea) both have a perforate sexine (Fig. 26), however, D. althaeoides has perforations between the striae. These also occur in $D$. catharinensis (sect. Cryptantha) (Fig. 14) (see pp. 310). A comparison of pollen grain size (length in ( $\mu \mathrm{m}$ ) of striate and perforate pollen is presented (Fig. 18). The LA of striate pollen grains clearly shows less variation than the LA of the perforate species: the striate pollen is more uniform in size. The smaller number of striate species ( $N=9$ ) cannot be the sole explanation for this fact.

Striate pollen is considered to be rare within the monocots (van der Ham, Hetterscheid \& van Heuven, 1998). The striate sexine in all Malagasy species examined could be an adaptation to a specific Malagasy pollinator. Unfortunately, little is known about pollination in Dioscorea. Barroso et al. (1974) gave an overview of the pollination of about 12 Dioscorea species in South America, of which some are pollinated by Meliponini, a tribe of stingless bees, perhaps a species of Hypotrigona. More pollination data, especially for the African and Malagasy Dioscorea species, are required to help interpret pollen morphology within the genus.

## Variation in perforate sexine patterns

Much variation was found in both perforation size and perforation density (Figs 19-26). Perforation sizes range from $0.04 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ (in D. hirtiflora) (Fig. 23) to $0.67 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ (in D. adenocarpa) (Fig. 24); the average value is $0.18 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Small perforations are common in section Enantiophyllum and in some species (e.g. D. decipiens) (Fig. 5) the sexine ornamentation is rather punctate. D. hamiltonii (sect. Enantiophyllum) has a specific 'barnacle like' perforation pattern that was not found elsewhere (Fig. 25).

Perforation density (number of perforations $\mu \mathrm{m}^{-2}$ ) in particular, seems to characterize some sections, especially when combined with perforation size. In most species, the perforations are evenly distributed on the pollen surface, which makes perforation density an accessible character. Note that both characters are partially dependent: large perforations result in a low perforation density. Most perforate species have a perforation density below $5 \mu_{\mathrm{m}^{-2}}$ (Table 1). Sect. Enantiophyllum however, is characterized by a high perforation density (more than $8 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{-2}$ ), for example, D. hamiltonii (Fig. 25). Dioscorea decipiens is the only exception in this section ( $3 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{-2}$ ). Sect. Asterotricha also has a fairly high perforation density ( $5-6 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{-2}$ ) (e.g. D. hirtiflora, Fig. 23). D. dumetorum (Fig. 20) and D. dregeana, both members of sect. Lasiophyton, a compound-leaved section, are characterized by a perforation density of more than $8 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{-2}$, compared with D. quartiniana (Fig. 19) and D. pentaphylla of the


Figures 10-17. Striate sexine patterns. All SEM, except Fig. 17 TEM. Fig. 10. D. megacrapa (sect. Apodostemon) Striate sexine with striae running in two directions. Fig. 11. D. maciba (sect. Campanuliflorae). Striate sexine. Fig. 12. D. arcuatinveris (sect. Madagascarienses). Striations are arranged in concentric polygons. Fig. 13. D. bemarivensis (sect. Cardiocapsa). Striations are arranged in concentric polygons. Fig. 14. D. catharinensis (sect. Cryptantha). Striate sexine with tightly connected striations. Fig. 15. D. althaeoides (sect. Stenophora). Striate sexine with tightly connected striations. Small perforations are visible between the striae. Figs 16, 17. D. karatana (sect. Campanuliforae). Fig. 16. Striate sexine with striae running in different directions. Fig. 17. Section through striate sexine. $\mathrm{C}=$ columellae, $\mathrm{F}=$ footlayer, $S=$ striae, $T=$ tectum .


Figure 18. Comparison between pollen size and ornamentation. For each pollen size class (LA in $\mu \mathrm{m}$ ) the number of species are indicated per ornamentation type (■, striate: $N=9$; 圖, perforate: $N=26$ ).
compound-leaved section Botryosicyos, which have a value of $c .3 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{-2}$ for this character.

## Wall stratification and ultrastructure

The ultrastructure of the pollen exine was observed with LM in all 35 species and with TEM in four species (D. dumetorum, D. karatana, D. schimperiana and D. sylvatica) (Figs 17, 27-31). The wall structure of Dioscorea pollen is always tectate-columellate. There is only minor variation in exine thickness ( $1-2 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ). In D. sylvatica, the exine consists of a nexine of $c .0 .3 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, collumellae of $0.4-0.5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and a perforate tectum of $0.6 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. As a consequence, the exine is $c .1 .4 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ thick (Fig. 28). D. karatana, a species with a striate sexine, has an exine $c .1 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ thick. It consists of a nexine of $0.2 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, columellae of $0.3 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and a tectum of $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, supporting supratectal striae $c .0 .4 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ thick (Fig. 17).

White lines are visible at the bottom of the footlayer, which could indicate there is some endexine in this layer (Fig. 28). Endexine is often reduced or absent in monocots (Zavada, 1983; El-Ghazaly, 1993; Furness \& Rudall, 1997). The endexine of $D$. polygonoides was described as thin and granular, similar to the endexine of Zea mays L. (Poaceae) (Zavada, 1983).
Intine was observed which thickens beneath the sulci in all four species examined using TEM, ranging from $0.2 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in the non-apertural regions to $1.8 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ below the sulci (Figs 29, 30). Intine channels of about $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ diameter are embedded in the entire intine, but concentrated beneath the apertures, of all four species. In TEM sections, these channels appear in a honeycomb pattern, especially in D. dumetorum (Fig. 34). A thick intine below the apertures serves as a barrier against dehydration and infection by microorganisms (Thanikaimoni, 1986) and provides the
necessary enzymes for pollen tube growth. These enzymes are stored together with antigens in radial channels as seen in TEM sections (Figs 30, 34). The intine inclusions occur in the form of radially orientated vesicles and may arise from protoplasmic protrusions, according to studies on the development of Triticum aestivum L. pollen (El-Ghazaly \& Jensen, 1986).

## Pollen cytoplasm

Pollen is dispersed at the binucleate stage (Fig. 32), which is common in monocots, except for Alismatiflorae and Commeliniflorae which are trinucleate and Ariflorae which have both types (Dahlgren \& Clifford, 1982; Grayum, 1986). Starch grains are abundant in D. sylvatica (Fig. 31), while mature pollen grains of $D$. dumetorum possess mainly lipid droplets, both in the cytoplasm and on the pollen surface (Fig. 35). Broader sampling for starch or lipid could possibly be useful for Dioscorea at the infrageneric level. Among aroids, $73 \%$ of genera studied contained starch in the pollen, the rest being starch-free; thus starch was found to be a useful character within the Araceae (Grayum, 1985). Pollen of some monocot families contains starch, although there are some conflicting results and further work is required (see discussion in Rudall \& Furness, 1997).

## Orbicules

Twenty-seven out of 34 species examined have orbicules in the anther locule, ranging in size from 0.12 to $1.90 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Seven species lack orbicules, thus orbicule presence/absence may be a useful systematic character. Orbicule size (diameter in $\mu \mathrm{m}$ ) was compared between striate and perforate pollen (Fig. 36). The mean orbicule size of all striate species ranges from 0.26 to $0.38 \mu \mathrm{~m}$, while in perforate species the orbicule size ranges from 0.27 to $0.93 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. The size range of orbicules in striate and perforate species overlaps, but perforate species can have orbicules which are larger than those of striate species: the size range is larger for perforate species. However, this observation may not be significant due to the small sample size. Most species have spherical orbicules (Figs 37, 41-46), rarely they are elliptical ( $D$. daunea) or irregular shaped ( $D$. quartiniana, D. schimperiana) (Figs 38-40). Some species have small spines on the orbicule surface ( $D$. amazonum, D. arcuatinervis, D. catharinensis, D. decipiens, D. karatana and D. maciba), which is frequently correlated with a striate pollen sexine (Figs 45, 50, 51). Thin threads between orbicules occur in $D$. adenocarpa, D. althaeoides, $D$. bemarivensis, $D$. bulbifera, $D$. catharinensis, D. karatana, D. praehensilis, D. preussii and D. schimperiana (Fig. 43). Small granules occur together with orbicules in D. dumetorum (Fig. 42).


Figures 19-26. Perforate sexine patterns. All SEM. Fig. 19. D. quartiniana (sect. Botryosicyos). Perforate sexine with tiny perforations and a very low perforation density. Perforations not evenly scattered. Fig. 20. D. dumetorum (sect. Lasiophyton). Perforate to microregulate sexine with small elongated perforations and a high perforation density. Fig. 21. D. preussii (sect. Macrocarpaea). Perforate sexine. Fig. 22. D. esculenta (sect. Combilium). Perforate sexine with evenly spaced perforations. Fig. 23. D. hirtiflora (sect. Asterotricha). Perforate sexine with small perforations. Fig. 14. D. adenocarpa (sect. Dematostemon). Microreticulate sexine. Fig. 25. D. hamiltonii (sect. Enantiophyllum). Perforate sexine with small perforations and a high perforation density. Perforations are surrounded by an elevated, irregular rim, resembling barnacles. Fig. 26. D. membranecea. (sect. Stenophora). Perforate sexine.


Figures 27-35. D. sylvatica (sect. Testudinaria). Fig. 27. Perforate sexine, uneven tectum with small, round perforations often situated in grooves (SEM). Fig. 28. Section of perforate sexine with footlayer, collumellae, and tectum. Note the white lines below the footlayer (arrow), possibly indicating the presence of the endexine (TEM). $\mathrm{C}=$ columellae, $\mathrm{F}=$ footlayer, $T=$ tectum. Fig. 29. Oblique section through a bisulcate pollen grain, filled with vesicles and starch grains. Thick channeled intine (I) below the sulci (S) (TEM). Fig. 30. Detail of 29. Radial intine channels (arrowed). Fig. 31. Starch grains in the pollen cytoplasm. Fig. 32. D. schimperiana (sect. Asterotricha). Longitudinal section through the anther. Binucleate, biaperturate pollen grains surrounded by tapetal remnants (LM). Figs 33-35. D. dumetorum (sect. Lasiophyton). Fig. 33. Bisulcate pollen grain against the locule wall, which is covered with orbicules (SEM). Fig. 34. Radial intine channels are arranged in a 'honeycomb' pattern (TEM). Fig. 35. Ultrastructure of a bisulcate pollen grain. Thick intine below the sulci, and many lipid droplets in the cytoplasm (TEM).


Figure 36. Comparison between orbicule size and pollen ornamentation. For each orbicule size class (diameter in $10^{-2} \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ) the number of species are indicated per pollen ornamentation type ( $\square$, striate: $N=8$; 圖, perforate: $N=$ 18).

TEM observations revealed that orbicules are present on the inner and outer tangential walls and on the radial walls of the tapetum (Fig. 48). Considerable variation was found in orbicule ultrastructure. Most orbicules possess a core that is slightly more electronlucent. In D. sylvatica one small depression (and sometimes more) occurs in almost every orbicule causing the latter to be somewhat irregularly shaped (Figs 47, 49, 50). The ultrastructure of the orbicules of $D$. sylvatica somewhat resembles that of Lilium (Clement \& Audran, 1993) sharing an electron-lucent core and a more electron-dense orbicule wall with depressions or notches that reach to the orbicule core. The walls of Lilium orbicules, however, shows more bulges and Lilium orbicules are bigger (c. $2.5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ) than those of $D$. sylvatica $(c .0 .6 \mu \mathrm{~m})$. The orbicules of $D$. dumetorum are similar to those of $D$. sylvatica but lack a notch. In Dioscorea karatana, the only species with striate pollen where orbicules were examined using TEM, the orbicules have a more heterogeneous ultrastructure, containing electron dense parts, and small spines on the orbicule surface (Figs 51, 52).

## SYSTEMATIC DISCUSSION

At present, evolutionary relationships within Diosconea are unclear and much new data are required, both molecular and morphological (for example, Wilkin, 2000). A complete picture of the pollen evolution within the genus is some way off, although several current taxonomic hypotheses are supported by the pollen data. Some of the sections (sensu Knuth, 1924 and Burkill, 1960) are discussed below. Note that, for most sections, pollen of only one or a few species was
observed. Further sampling is needed to strengthen conclusions about taxonomic relationships.

## Sections Cardiocapsa, Madagascarienses, Campanuliflorae and Brachyandra

These four Malagasy sections are represented by five species in this survey, all characterized by a striate sexine, with average values for LA $18 \mu \mathrm{~m}-24 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. The width of the striae is also very similar: all are $c .0 .2 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. Moreover, all five species have orbicules of almost identical size (c. $0.35 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ ) and a spinulose orbicule surface (Figs 45,50 ), except for $D$. hexagona, which has a smooth orbicule surface. As mentioned above, the striate pattern could be an adaptation to an endemic Malagasy pollinator. In that case, it is possible that the striate pattern originated more than once in several Malagasy sections. A more parsimonious explanation, however, is that all four Malagasy sections are closely related (Burkill, 1960), which would suggest that the striate pattern originated only once in their common ancestor, but this requires further testing. $D$. bemarivensis and $D$. arcuatinervis from sections Cardiocapsa and Madagascarienses respectively, have striate pollen with the striations arranged in distinct concentric circles (Figs 12, 13). Both these Malagasy sections were considered to be closely related by Burkill (1960), who placed them close to each other in his diagram of relationships.

## Sections Botryosicyos and Lasiophyton

Both sections Botryosicyos and Lasiophyton contain compound-leaved species and for that reason the two sections were thought to be closely related (Uline, 1897). Pollen of both sections is bisulcate and perforate with small perforations. Their perforation density, however, is clearly different: pollen of section Lasiophyton is characterized by a high perforation density (c. $8 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{-2}$ ), while pollen of section Botryosicyos has a very low perforation density (c. $3 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{-2}$ ) (Figs 19, 20). This difference in pollen morphology supports the observed differences in $r b c \mathrm{~L}$ sequence data and vegetative morphology (Wilkin, 1999; Wilkin \& Caddick, 2000). The sections can be easily distinguished by their leaf morphology: section Lasiophyton is characterized by possessing three leaflets, each with three to seven main veins and section Botryosicyos has three to five or more leaflets, each with a single main vein (Wilkin, 1999).

## Sections Enantiophyllum and Asterotricha

A close relationship between sections Enantiophyllum and Asterotricha based on macromorphological characters was proposed by Burkill (1960) and supported


Figures 37-44. Orbicules on the locule wall (SEM). Fig. 37. D. althaeoides (sect. Stenophora). Spherical orbicules. Fig. 38. D. glabra (sect. Enantiophyllum). Elliptical orbicules. Fig. 39. D. daunea (sect. Stenocorea). Elliptical orbicules. Fig. 40. D. quartiniana (sect. Botryosicyos). Irregularly shaped orbicules. Fig. 41. D. dumetorum (sect. Lasiophyton). Anther wall with endothecium (E), and tapetal remnants covered with orbicules. Fig. 42. D. dumetorum (sect. Lasiophyton). Detail of 41. Note the small granules (arrow) between the spherical orbicules. Fig. 43. D. bulbifera (sect. Opsophyton). Spherical orbicules, sometimes connected by threads (arrows). Fig. 44. D. catharinensis (sect. Cryptantha). Spherical orbicules.


Figures 45-52. Orbicules. Fig. 45. D. amazonum (sect. Sarcantha). Spiny orbicules on the locule wall (SEM). Fig. 46. D. dodecaneura (sect. Lasiogyne). Small spherical orbicules on the locule wall (SEM). Figs 47-50. D. sylvatica (sect. Testudinaria). Fig. 47. Orbicules with one or two notches (arrows) (SEM). Detail of 47 (inset) (SEM). Fig. 48. Section showing part of the intine, beneath an aperture and orbicules with one or two notches (TEM). Fig. 50. Detail of 49. Orbicules with one or two notches (arrows). Figs 51, 52. D. karatana (sect. Campanuliflorae). Fig. 51. Spiny orbicules (SEM). Fig. 52. Section through spiny orbicules (arrows) (TEM).
by N'Kounkou (1994). Both sections (which are righttwining) have exclusively bisulcate and perforate pollen with small perforations and a high perforation density ( $5-8 \mu_{\mathrm{m}^{-2}}$ in sect. Asterotricha and more than 8 perforations $\mu^{-2}$ in sect. Enantiophyllum). Orbicules always have a smooth surface.
D. decipiens, traditionally accepted as a member of section Enantiophyllum, deviates by having a low perforation density and spinulose orbicules. Recent molecular data also suggest that $D$. decipiens may not be a member of section Enantiophyllum (P. Wilkin, pers. comm.).

## Sections Stenophora and Cryptantha

The three species studied from section Stenophora have very different pollen ornamentation: $D$. membranacea and $D$. collettii have perforate sexines with large perforations, while $D$. althaeoides has a striate sexine (with perforations between the striae). This is rather surprising because it is the only Asian species in this survey with striate pollen, while its relatives in section Stenophora (D. membranacea and D. collettii) are perforate. D. tenuipes and D. poilanei, two section Stenophora species surveyed by Su (1987) are also perforate.

All three species, however, are mainly monosulcate; in $D$. althaeoides and $D$. collettii a low percentage of bisulcate pollen grains was found. D. tenuipes and $D$. poilanei have been described as exclusively monosulcate (Su, 1987).

Pollen and orbicules of D. althaeoides and D. catharinensis (section Cryptantha) are very similar (Figs $14,15)$. Both species have a perforations between the striae, which may indicate some degree of plasticity in the development of the sexine ornamentation; this requires further work. These observations support the hypothesis of Ayensu (1972) that sections Cryptantha and Macropoda (which was merged in Stenophora by Burkill, 1960) are closely related based on their vascular anatomy. Perforate pollen was reported in $D$. regnelli of section Cryptantha (Barroso et al., 1974). Both sections obviously possess striate and perforate pollen. The striate pattern in D. althaeoides could be an example of convergent evolution implying that a striate sexine has independent Asian, Malagasy and South American origins. Further research on the distribution and ultrastructure of striate pollen is needed to establish the homology of this character state.

## Sections Combilium and Macrocarpaea

A relationship between these sections was proposed by Ayensu (1972). They both have bisulcate pollen with small perforations (c. $20 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ diameter) and a rather low perforation density (less than $5 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{-2}$ ) (Figs 21, 22). Both sections have T-shaped hairs (Knuth, 1924).

## Genus Tamus

Tamus has been recognized as a separate genus within Dioscoreaceae, placed close to Dioscorea and Rajania (Dahlgren et al., 1985). Recent cladistic analyses based on morphological and molecular data suggest that Tamus is nested within Dioscorea making the latter genus paraphyletic (Caddick et al., 2000). This is supported by palynological data (Clarke \& Jones, 1981; Caddick et al., 1998; this paper). The pollen morphology of Tamus communis does not differ significantly from the Dioscorea species sampled in this survey. We have, however, no observations from Tamus orientalis, another member of this small genus.

## CONCLUSIONS

Palynological characters are useful in investigating relationships within and between sections of Dioscorea. Hypotheses previously proposed by Knuth (1924), Burkill (1960) and Ayensu (1972), for example, are supported by our limited pollen data, which also provide some support for more recent hypotheses of relationship based on cladistic analysis of morphological and molecular data:
(1) The macromorphological distinction between the compound leaved sections Lasiophyton and Botryosicyos is supported by differences in pollen sexine ornamentation.
(2) Pollen morphology indicates support for the close affinity between sections Asterotricha and Enantiophyllum, and sections Combilium and Macrocarpaea.
(3) The pollen of Tamus communis falls within the range of pollen morphological variation of Dioscorea.

The pollen characters examined here will be of value in future combined analyses with other morphological and molecular data, which will also shed light on pollen evolution within Dioscorea. A pollen morphological study of more than 60 additional Dioscorea species is in progress. Developmental studies of pollen apertures, for example, are also in progress to investigate the homologies of character states discussed in this paper. Additionally, both these morphological and developmental studies are being expanded to include Taccaceae, a family which is closely related to Dioscoreaceae (Caddick et al., 1998, 2000).

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to Professor Dr J. Billen, Dr Eric Schoeters, Pierre Schols, Marcel Verhaeghen and Anja Vandeperre for technical assistance. Suzy Huysmans is a Postdoctoral Fellow of the Fund for Scientific

Research, Flanders (Belgium). Peter Schols holds a research grant from IWT (no. 991293). This research is supported by a grant from the Research Council of K. U. Leuven (OT/97/23).

## REFERENCES

Ayensu ES. 1972. Dioscoreales. In: Metcalfe C, ed. Anatomy of the monocotyledons, vol. 6. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1-182.
Barroso GM, Sucre D, Guimarães EF, Carvalho LF de, Valente MC, Dames e Silva J, Bonzani da Sila J, Timno Rosenthal FR, Barrosa CM, Roseira AN, Barth ON, Barbosa OM, Barbosa AF. 1974. Flora de Guanabara. Familia Dioscoreaceae. Sellowia 25: 9-256.
Blackmore S, Crane PR. 1998. The evolution of apertures in the spores and pollen grains of embryophytes. In: Owens SJ, Rudall PJ, eds. Reproductive biology in systematics, conservation and economic botany. Kew: Royal Botanic Gardens, 159-182.
Burkill IH. 1960. The organography and the evolution of the Dioscoreaceae, the family of the yams. Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society 56: 319-412.
Caddick LR, Furness CA, Stobart KL, Rudall PJ. 1998. Microsporogenesis and pollen morphology in Dioscoreales and allied taxa. Grana 37: 321-336.
Caddick LR, Rudall PJ, Wilkin P, Chase MW. 2000. Yams and their allies: systematics of Dioscoreales. In: Wilson KL, Morrison DA, eds. Systematics and evolution of monocots. Proceedings of the $2^{\text {nd }}$ International Monocot Conference. Melbourne: CSIRO, 475-487.
Chávez RP, Ludlow-Wiechers B, Villanueva G. 1991. Flora Palinológica de la Reserva de la Biosfera de Sian Ka'an, Quintana Roo, México. Mexico: Centro de Investigaciones de Quintana Roo.
Clarke GCS, Jones MR. 1981. Dioscoreaceae. The Northwest European pollen flora, 23. Review of Palaeobotany and Palynology 33: 45-50.
Clément C, Audran JC. 1993. Orbicule wall surface characteristics in Lilium (Liliaceae). An ultrastructural and cytochemical approach. Grana 32: 348-353.
Dahlgren RMT, Clifford HT. 1982. The monocotyledons: a comparative study. London: Academic Press.
Dahlgren RMT, Clifford HT, Yeo PF. 1985. The families of the monocotyledons. Structure, evolution and taxonomy. Berlin: Springer-Verlag.
El-Ghazaly G. 1993. Development of endexine in pollen grains of some monocots. Abstracts, Fifteenth International Botanical Congress. Yokohama: Japan, 27.
El-Ghazaly G, Jensen WA. 1986. Studies of the development of wheat (Triticum aestivum) pollen. Grana 25: 1-29.
Erdtman G. 1969. Handbook of palynology - An introduction to the study of pollen grains and spores. Copenhagen: Munksgaard.
Furness CA, Rudall PJ. 1997. Systematics of Acorus: ovule and anther. International Journal of Plant Sciences 158: 640-651.

Furness CA, Rudall PJ. 1998. The tapetum and systematics in monocotyledons. Botanical Review 64: 201-239.
Furness CA, Rudall PJ. 1999a. Inaperturate pollen in monocotyledons. International Journal of Plant Sciences 160: 395-414.
Furness CA, Rudall PJ. 1999b. Microsporogenesis in monocotyledons. Annals of Botany 84: 475-499.
Furness CA, Rudall PJ. 2000. The systematic significance of simultaneous cytokinesis during microsporogenesis in monocotyledons In: Wilson KL, Morrison DA, eds. Systematics and evolution of monocots. Proceedings of the $2^{\text {nd }}$ International Monocot Conference. Melbourne: CSIRO Publishing, 189-193.
Grayum MH. 1985. Evolutionary and ecological significance of starch storage in pollen of the Araceae. American Journal of Botany 72: 1565-1577.
Grayum MH. 1986. Phylogenetic implications of pollen nuclear number in Araceae. Plant Systematics and Evolution 151: 145-161.
Heusser CJ. 1971. Pollen and spores of Chile. Arizona: University of Arizona Press.
Huang T-C. 1972. Pollen flora of Taiwan. Taiwan: National Taiwan University, Botany Department Press.
Huysmans S, El-Ghazaly G, Smets E. 1998. Orbicules in angiosperms. Morphology, function, distribution, and relation with tapetum types. Botanical Review 64: 240-272.
Huysmans S, El-Ghazaly G, Smets E. 2000. Orbicules in angiosperms: still a well hidden secret of the anther. In: Nordenstam B, El-Ghazaly G, Kassas M, Laurent TCX, eds. Plant systematics for the $21^{\text {st }}$ century. Vol. 77, chapter 17. Wenner-Gren International Series, 201-212.

- Knuth R. 1924. Dioscoreaceae. In: Engler A, ed. Das Pflanzenreich IV. 43. Reprinted 1957, Engelmann HR (Cramer J). Leipzig: W. Engelmann.

Kuprianova LA. 1948. Pollen morphology and phylogeny of the monocotyledons. Trudy Boranicheskogo Instituta Akademii Nauk SSSR series 1. Flora Sistematika 7: 163-262.
Matuda E. 1954. Las Dioscoreas de México. Anales del Instituto Biológica de la Universidad México 24: 279-390.
N'Kounkou JS. 1994. Analyses phylogénetiques des Dioscorea (Dioscoreaceae) d'Afrique centrale (Congo, Zaïre, Rwanda, Burundi). Fragmenta Floristica et Geobotanica 39: 401-416.
Punt W, Blackmore S, Nilsson S, Le Thomas A. 1998. Hoen P, ed. Pollen and Spore Terminology. Internet version available at (http://www.biol.ruu.nl/ ~ palaeo/glossary/.
Rasband W. 1996. NIH Image 1.62. Software for Image analysis (Macintosh).
Reitsma T. 1969. Size modifications of recent pollen grains under different treatments. Review of Palaeobotany and Palynology 69: 23-47.
Schols P. 1999. Pollen- en orbiculemorfologie van Dioscorea (Dioscoreaceae). Unpublished licentiate thesis, Instituut voor Plantkunde en Microbiologie, K. U. Leuven (in Dutch).
Selling OH. 1947. Studies in Hawaiian pollen statistics. Part II. The pollens of the Hawaiian phanerograms. Bishop Museum Special Publication 38. Honolulu, Hawaii: Bishop Museum.

Sharma M. 1967. Pollen morphology of Indian monocotyledons. Journal of Palynology Special Volume. Lucknow: Palynological Society of India.
Su P. 1987. Pollen morphology of Dioscorea in China. Acta Phytotaxonomica Sinensis 25: 357-365.
Thanikaimoni G. 1986. Pollen apertures: form and function. In: Blackmore S, Ferguson IK, eds. Pollen and spores: form and function. London: Academic Press, 119-136.
Uline EB. 1897. Dioscoreaceae. In: Engler A, Prantl K, eds. Natürlichen Pflanzenfamilien, Nachträge zu II, 5. Leipzig: W. Engelmann, 80-87.
van der Ham RWJM, Hetterscheid WLA, van Heuven BJ. 1998. Notes on the genus Amorphophallus (Araceae) - 8. Pollen morphology of Amorphophallus and Pseudodracontium. Review of Palaeobotany and Palynology 103: 95-141.
Wilkin P. 1999. A revision of the compound leaved yams
(Dioscorea; Dioscoreaceae) of Africa. Kew Bulletin 54 (1): 19-39.
Wilkin P. Dioscoreaceae of South-Central Africa. Kew Bulletin (in press).
Wilkin P, Caddick LR. 2000. Palaeotropical compoundleaved yams (Dioscoreaceae: Dioscorea): monophyly and relationships. In: Wilson KL, Morrison DA, eds. Systematics and evolution of monocots. Proceedings of the $2^{\text {nd }}$ International Monocot Conference. Melbourne: CSIRO Publishing, 497-504.
Wunderlich R. 1954. Über das Antherentapetum mit besonderer Berücksichtigung seiner Kernzahl. Österreichische Botanische Zeitschrift 101: 1-63.
Zavada MS. 1983. Comparative morphology of monocot pollen and evolutionary trends of apertures and wall structures. Botanical Review 49: 331-379.

| Section | Species | Collector and number | Country |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Apodostemon Uline | D. megacarpa Gleason | K: Forest Dept. of Brit. Guyana 4284 | Guyana |
| Asterotricha Uline | D. schimperiana Hochst. | K: Wilkin \& Tawakai 763 | Malawi |
|  | D. schimperiana Hochst.* | HK: 1995-1458 |  |
|  | D. hirtiflora Pax | K: White 6302 | Zambia |
| Botryosicyos (Hochst.) Uline | D. pentaphylla L. | K: Boulanger 1109 | Thailand |
|  | D. quartiniana Rich. | K: Archbold 1087 | Tanzania |
| Brachyandra Uline | D. hexagona Baker | K: Wilkin et al. M960 | Madagascar |
| Campanuliflorae Burkill \& H. Perr. | D. karatana Wilkin | K: Wilkin et al. M947 | Madagascar |
|  | D. karatana Wilkin* | HK: 1998-0515 |  |
|  | D. maciba Jum. \& H. Perr. | K: Wilkin et al. M964 | Madagascar |
| Cardiocapsa Uline | D. bemarivensis Jum. \& H. Perr. | K: Phillipson 3027 | Madagascar |
| Chirophyllum Uline | D. brachybotrya Poepp. | K: Comber 462 | Chile |
| Chondrocarpa Uline | D. riparia Knuth \& Schomb. | K: Smith 3485 | Guyana |
| Combilium Prain \& Burkill | D. esculenta Burkill | K: Beguin 2093 | Mollucas |
| Cryptantha Uline | D. catharinesis R. Knuth | K: Dusen 7856 | Brazil |
| Dematostemon Griseb. | D. adenocarpa Mart. | K: Heringer et al. 5101 | Brazil |
| Enantiophyllum Uline | D. decipiens Hook. f. | K: Wilkin 860 | Thailand |
|  | D. glabra Roxb. | K: Wilkin 892 | Thailand |
|  | D. hamiltonii Hook. f. | K. Wilkin et al. 886 | Thailand |
|  | D. praehensilis Benth. | K: Pawek 7980 | Malawi |
| Lasiogyne Uline | D. dodecaneura Vell. | K: Tessmann 6113 | Brazil |
| Lasiophyton Uline | D. dumetorum (Kunth) Pax | K: Wilkin \& Tawakali 786 | Malawi |
|  | D. dumetorum (Kunth) Pax* | HK: 1995-1455 |  |
|  | D. dregeana (Kunth) Pax | BR: Schlieben 7601 | S. Africa |
| Macrocarpaea Uline | D. preussii Pax | K: Pilz 1801 | Nigeria |
| Macrogynodium Uline | D. trifida L. f. | K: Philcox \& Freeman 4668 | Brazil |
| Madagascarienses Burkill \& H. Perr. | D. arcuatinervis Hochr. | K: Caddick et al. 309 | Madagascar |
| Monadelpha Uline | D. lagoa-santa Uline ex R. Knuth | K: Seidel \& Carrizole 7825 | Bolivia |
| Opsophyton Uline | D. bulbifera L . | K: Wilkin 864 | Thailand |
| Rhacodophyllum Uline ex R. Knuth | D. buchananii Benth. | K: Biegel 2893 | Zimbabwe |
| Sarcantha Uline | D. amazonum Mart. ex Griseb. | K: Maas et al. 2679 | Guyana |
| Sarcocapsa Uline | D. oaxacensis Uline | K: Solinas 6182 | Mexico |
| Spaerantha Uline | D. multiflora Mart. | K: Krapovickas 35458 | Brazil |
| Stenocorea Prain \& Burkill | D. daunea Prain \& Burkill | K: Middleton \& Parnell 1468 | Thailand |
| Stenophora R. Knuth | D. althaeoides R. Knuth | K: ACE 493 | China |
|  | D. collettii Hook. f. | K: ACE 382 | China |
|  | D. membranacea Pierre | K: Middleton \& Parnell 1468 | Thailand |
| Testudinaria Uline | D. sylvatica Eckl. | K: Chase 7939 | Zimbabwe |
|  | D. sylvatica Eckl.* | HK: 1994-796 |  |

[^1]
[^0]:    * Corresponding author.

    E-mail: peter.schols@bio.kuleuven.ac.be

[^1]:    *Specimens examined with TEM.

