Introgressive origin of the radiate groundsel, Senecio vulgaris L. var. hibernicus Syme: Aat-3 evidence

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A survey of allelic variation at the Aat-3 locus in Senecio squalidus and S. vulgaris revealed that the Aat-3c allele, which was present at high frequency in British populations of S. squalidus, was also common in British radiate groundsel (S. vulgaris var. hibernicus) but was rare among individuals of the non-radiate groundsel (S. vulgaris var. vulgaris) which co-occurred with var. hibernicus and was absent from British, Irish and mainland European populations monomorphic for var. vulgaris. This evidence is taken as confirmation of an introgressive origin of S. vulgaris var. hibernicus across a chromosome barrier following hybridization between S. vulgaris var. vulgaris (2n = 40) and radiate S. squalidus (2n = 20) and backcrossing to S. vulgaris var. vulgaris. Genetic analysis showed that the Aat-3 locus, which is duplicated in S. vulgaris is not linked to the ray floret locus controlling capitulum type. It is suggested that the close association between the Aat-3c allele and the radiate allele in populations of S. vulgaris polymorphic for capitulum type may be maintained by selection favouring a co-adapted complex of genes introgressed from S. squalidus, although alternative explanations are not ruled out. The introgression of the Aat-3c allele and associated genetic material from S. squalidus into S. vulgaris is likely to have enhanced the level of genetic variation present within S. vulgaris and may have been a factor that has favoured the spread of S. vulgaris var. hibernicus in Britain following its origin last century.

Keywords: introgression, isozyme variation, population genetic structure, *Senecio vulgaris, Senecio squalidus*.

Introduction

Gene exchange between species via introgressive hybridization is a well known phenomenon among plants (Anderson, 1949; Stebbins, 1959, 1969; Grant, 1981; Briggs & Walters, 1984). Several studies have utilized allozymes to demonstrate the presence of backcrossed individuals in hybrid swarms of wild plants (Levin, 1975; Ellstrand et al., 1985; Olivieri, 1985; Rollo et al., 1985; Soltis & Soltis, 1986; Arnold et al., 1990); however, there is little evidence that such individuals evolve into new taxa distributed beyond the zone of active hybridization (Heiser, 1973). One example of such an event in the genus Helianthus (Heiser, 1951), namely the origin of Helianthus annuus ssp. texanus Heiser, following introgression of genes from *H. debilis* ssp. *cucumerifolium* (Torrey and Gray) Heiser into H. annuus L., is supported by recent evidence from a study of Rieseberg et al. (1990) which

used DNA markers. However, another example in the same genus, i.e. the origin of a Californian weedy race of *H. bolanderi* following introgression of genes from *H. annuus* into a serpentine race of *H. bolanderi* (Heiser, 1949), is disputed by the allozyme and molecular evidence (Rieseberg *et al.*, 1988). Other possible examples of the evolution of stabilized introgressants in wild plants (Grant, 1950; Levin, 1963; Ornduff, 1967; Bloom, 1976; Davis, 1985) have yet to be subjected to similar detailed analysis involving genetic markers.

Within the British flora a good example of the origin of a new taxon via introgression is considered to be that of the inland radiate morph of the groundsel, *Senecio vulgaris* L. var. *hibernicus* Syme, 2n = 40 (Stace, 1987). This morph was first described in the British Isles in 1866 (Syme, 1875) from material which grew around Cork in Ireland; however, Crisp (1972) has since identified a specimen of the same variant collected from Oxford in 1832 and deposited in the herbarium at Liverpool University. The variant is believed to have originated following introgression of genes from the introduced radiate species Senecio squalidus L. (2n=20) into the common and widespread nonradiate morph of groundsel, Senecio vulgaris L. var. vulgaris L. (2n = 40). Initial evidence in support of this origin (reviewed by Stace, 1977) was based on: (i) the parallel spread of S. squalidus and S. vulgaris var. hibernicus in Britain over the past 150 years (Crisp, 1972), following the escape of S. squalidus from the Oxford Botanic Garden at the end of the 18th Century (Druce, 1927); and (ii) the presence of morphological characters in var. hibernicus, which are intermediate to those exhibited by S. squalidus and S. vulgaris var. vulgaris, e.g. leaf characters (Monaghan & Hull, 1976).

More compelling evidence for an introgressive origin of var. *hibernicus* was advanced by Ingram *et al.* (1980) who successfully synthesized several fertile radiate plants that were tetraploid (2n=40), and resembled var. *hibernicus*, by backcrossing the artificially synthesized triploid hybrid *S. vulgaris* var. *vulgaris* × *S. squalidus* (2n=30), to the female parent (var. *vulgaris*), and then selfing the products. The extreme low fertility of the triploid hybrid and the reduced fertility of the initial backcross products, led Ingram *et al.* (1980) to accept Stace's view that the origin of radiate var. *hibernicus* was a rare event and that factors other than frequent introgression must account for the rapid spread of this taxon in Britain in recent years.

Despite the historical, morphological and crossing evidence that favours an introgressive origin of var. *hibernicus*, it remains feasible that the variant originated following a single gene mutation in non-radiate var. *vulgaris*. Capitulum type in *S. vulgaris* (radiate v. non-radiate) is controlled by a single gene with two alleles showing incomplete dominance (Trow, 1912). As non-radiate mutants naturally occur at low frequency in some British populations of the related radiate *S. squalidus* L. (Ingram & Taylor, 1982) and *S. jacobea* L. (Harper & Wood, 1957), it is feasible that the reverse mutation might occur in *Senecio* as in certain other Compositae e.g. *Bidens cernua* L. (Stace, 1977).

The introgressive origin of var. *hibernicus* would be more certain if it were shown that along with the radiate allele, other genes specific to *S. squalidus* had been introduced into *S. vulgaris* and were now present at high frequency in var. *hibernicus*, but absent from non-radiate *S. vulgaris* material isolated from *S. squalidus*.

Here we report on a study of allozyme variation for aspartate aminotransferase (AAT) in *S. vulgaris* and *S.*

squalidus, which provides evidence that genetic material in addition to the radiate allele has been introgressed from S. squalidus into S. vulgaris. Based on this and the previous evidence reviewed by Stace (1987), we propose that the radiate variant of S. vulgaris (var. *hibernicus*) is a classic example of a taxon which originated in recent times as a stabilized introgressant, and has since become widely distributed in Britain.

Materials and methods

Seeds (achenes) or whole plants of the radiate (var. hibernicus) and non-radiate (var. vulgaris) variants of S. vulgaris were collected from 13 British populations that were polymorphic for capitulum type. Similarly, seeds or plants were collected from 15 populations that were monomorphic for non-radiate var. vulgaris (seven British populations, one Irish and seven from mainland Europe), and also from 20 British populations of S. squalidus. The locations of populations and the size of samples collected are listed in Tables 3 and 4. The distribution of British populations sampled of S. vulgaris and S. squalidus is illustrated in Fig. 1. Populations of var. vulgaris from mainland Europe were isolated from the natural distribution of S. squalidus in Europe (Alexander, 1979). Nearly all other populations of S. vulgaris grew in areas where S. squalidus also occurred or was present nearby. In most instances, plants were sampled from populations which grew on open wasteground or along the edges of paths and pavements in urban areas; however, some samples of var. vulgaris came from more natural open habitats, e.g. sand dunes (at Aberffraw) and cliff tops (on Puffin Island). The seed of each parent plant sampled was germinated to provide one offspring per mother plant for electrophoresis. Alternatively, material from individuals collected directly from the field was used for electrophoresis. On average, material from approximately 30 individuals per taxon was analysed electrophoretically per population.

Plants raised from seed, or transplanted from the field, were cultivated in a greenhouse in pots or trays containing a peat-based compost. Starch gel electrophoresis was conducted on crude protein extracts of leaf tissue. The extraction buffer was composed of 50 ml of gel buffer (see below); 37 mg KCl; 14 mg MgCl₂; 18 mg EDTA (tetrasodium); 2 ml mercaptoethanol; 0.5 ml Triton X-100; and 25 mg PVPP. Homogenates were applied to paper wicks, and enzymes were separated in 11 per cent (w/v) starch gels run at a constant voltage of 250 V. The electrode buffer was 0.192 M boric acid adjusted to pH 8.3 with lithium hydroxide (giving a final LiOH molarity of 0.03 M), while the gel buffer was composed of one part electrode buffer to nine parts of



Fig. 1 Distribution of British populations of Senecio spp. surveyed for Aat-3 variation: S. squalidus (\bullet); S. vulgaris var. vulgaris and var. hibernicus (\triangle); S. vulgaris var. vulgaris (\blacktriangle).

0.05 M Tris 0.007 M citrate, pH 8.3. Gels were stained for AAT at 37°C. The stain solution was composed of 50 ml 0.1 M Tris-HCl (pH 8.5), 18 mg α-ketoglutaric acid, 65 mg aspartic acid, 250 mg PVP, 25 mg EDTA (tetrasodium), 710 mg Na₂HPO₄, 1 mg pyridoxal-5phosphate, and 200 mg Fast Blue BB (after Gottlieb, 1973).

Genetic analysis of AAT variants

Three zones of activity were detected on gels stained for AAT in both *S. squalidus* and *S. vulgaris* (Ashton, 1990). Two zones, designated as *Aat-1* and *Aat-2* were located close to each other, approximately equidistant from the origin and the anodal front. Within each of these zones a band was either present or absent depending on the individual surveyed. Individuals were frequently double-banded producing both *Aat-1* and Aat-2 isozymes, or single-banded for one or other isozymes. No individuals were found which lacked both bands. A genetic analysis (Ashton, 1990) failed to establish a simple model of inheritance for the presence/absence of Aat-1 and Aat-2 isozymes in S. squalidus and these isozymes were not investigated in the present study. In the third zone of activity, nearer to the origin (Fig.2), S. squalidus individuals exhibited either a single fast allozyme (Aat-3b), a single slow allozyme (Aat-3c), or were triple-banded possessing both allozymes and an additional intermediate allozyme. A genetic analysis (Ashton, 1990), confirmed that the Aat-3 allozymes in S. squalidus are the products of a single diallelic gene with the triple-banded phenotype representing the heterozygote.

In S. vulgaris, individuals are typically triple banded within the Aat-3 zone of activity (Ashton, 1990), although a rare six-banded phenotype also occurs (Fig.



Fig. 2 Electrophoretic phenotypes resolved for *Aat-3* in *Senecio squalidus* and *S. vulgaris*. Staining intensity of bands varied in the six-banded *Aat-3* phenotype observed in *S. vulgaris* reflecting gene dosage.

2). Three different triple-banded phenotypes have been resolved in *S. vulgaris* and are designated as *Aat-3ab*, *Aat-3ac* and *Aat-3bc* (Fig. 2). To establish the genetic basis of this variation, and also the possibility of linkage between alleles encoding *Aat-3* allozymes and those at the ray floret locus controlling capitulum type in *S. vulgaris*, a genetic analysis was conducted which involved examination of selfed offspring, and F_1 and F_2 families produced from reciprocal crosses between available radiate and non-radiate inbred lines that differed in *Aat-3* phenotype (Tables 1 and 2). Crosses were made after emasculating capitula of maternal plants using the procedure described by Ornduff

Table 1 χ^2 test for segregation ratio of genotypes for capitulum and *Aat-3* type in the F₂ s of reciprocal crosses between radiate (RR) and non-radiate (NN) *S. vulgaris* lines. Designated *Aat-3* genotypes of parents are enclosed in brackets

Parents	F ₂ genotype						$\chi^{2}_{(2)}^{\dagger}$			
Capitulum type	RR	RN	NN							
$L26$ -RR,(cc,bb) \times M2-NN,(aa,bb)	43	100	92							25.65***
$M2-NN,(aa,bb) \times L26-RR,(cc,bb)$	43	103	50							1.01
$L15$ -RR,(aa,bb) \times S2-NN,(cc,bb)	73	117	58							2.60
$S2-NN,(cc,bb) \times L15-RR,(aa,bb)$	72	113	55							3.22
$F6-RR,(cc,aa) \times B7-NN,(cc,bb)$	43	81	34							1.13
$B7-NN,(cc,bb) \times F6-RR,(cc,aa)$	81	127	57							4.80
$M12$ -RR,(cc,aa) \times M28-NN,(aa,bb)	45	90	50							0.40
$M28-NN,(aa,bb) \times M12-RR,(cc,aa)$	60	92	48							2.72
$M22$ -RR,(cc,aa) \times M29-NN,(aa,bb)	41	65	43							2.48
$M29-NN,(aa,bb) \times M22-RR,(cc,aa)$	12	24	21							4.26
$L13-RR,(cc,aa) \times M24-NN,(aa,bb)$	27	73	35							1.84
$M24-NN,(aa,bb) \times L13-RR,(cc,aa)$	13	21	11							0.38
$F5-RR,(cc,aa) \times S7-NN,(aa,bb)$	17	31	14							0.29
$S7-NN,(aa,bb) \times F5-RR,(cc,aa)$	72	92	33							16.30**
Aat-3 type	aa,bb	ac,bb	cc,bb							
L26-RR,(cc,bb) × M2-NN,(aa,bb)	60	127	56							0.63
$M2-NN,(aa,bb) \times L26-RR,(cc,bb)$	47	111	47							1.41
$L15$ -RR,(aa,bb) \times S2-NN,(cc,bb)	62	132	58							0.70
$S2-NN,(cc,bb) \times L15-RR,(aa,bb)$	57	135	56							1.96
	cc,aa	cc,ab	cc,bb							
$F6-RR,(cc,aa) \times B7-NN,(cc,bb)$	42	95	31							4.32
$B7-NN,(cc,bb) \times F6-RR,(cc,aa)$	72	167	57							6.40*
	cc,aa	cc,ab	aa,ab	aa,cc	aa,ac	bb,cc	aa,bc	ac,bb	ab,cc	$\chi^{2}_{(8)}$ ‡
M12-RR,(cc,aa) × M28-NN,(aa,bb)	13	19	18	14	32	21	11	17	12	11.92
$M28-NN,(aa,bb) \times M12-RR,(cc,aa)$	14	22	18	21	51	32	5	19	13	11.70
M22-RR,(cc,aa) × M29-NN,(aa,bb)	10	23	10	14	32	19	9	19	5	4.87
$M29-NN,(aa,bb) \times M22-RR,(cc,aa)$	3	14	3	11	9	7	4	5	3	11.17
L13-RR,(cc,aa) × M24-NN,(aa,bb)	10	20	8	18	41	26	5	19	11	5.11
M24-NN,(aa,bb) × L13-RR,(cc,aa)	3	7	2	5	16	6	3	8	3	1.94
$F5-RR,(cc,aa) \times S7-NN,(aa,bb)$	3	10	6	10	16	11	4	9	2	3.37
$S7-NN,(aa,bb) \times F5-RR,(cc,aa)$	22	22	13	30	64	18	19	29	2	23.30**

†Test of 1:2:1 ratio.

‡Test of 1:2:1:2:4:2:1:2:1 ratio (i.e. due to disomic digenic inheritance).

Derivation of material: B (Brymbo), F (Ffrith), L (Leith), M (Methil), S (Southsea).

NB: average percentage of seed sown per F_2 family producing individuals scored was 74.7 per cent for capitulum type and 76.4 per cent for *Aat-3* type.

Table 2 Results of χ^2 contingency tests for joint segregation of alleles at ray floret locus and first *Aat-3* locus; and ray floret locus and second *Aat-3* locus in *S. vulgaris*. Designated *Aat-3* genotypes of parents are enclosed in brackets

Parents	$\chi^2_{(4)}$
First Aat-3 locus	
$L26-RR,(cc,bb) \times M2-NN,(aa,bb)$	7.62
$M2-NN$,(aa,bb) \times L26-RR,(cc,bb)	1.02
$L15$ -RR,(aa,bb) \times S2-NN,(cc,bb)	1.66
$S2-NN,(cc,bb) \times L15-RR,(aa,bb)$	3.08
M12-RR,(cc,aa) × M28-NN,(aa,bb)	0.58
$M28-NN,(aa,bb) \times M12-RR,(cc,aa)$	5.97
M22-RR,(cc,aa) × M29-RR,(aa,bb)	0.85
$M29$ -RR,(aa,bb) \times M22-NN,(cc,aa)	2.86
L13-RR,(cc,aa) × M24-NN,(aa,bb)	0.98
$M24-NN,(aa,bb) \times L13-RR,(cc,aa)$	0.77
$F5-RR,(cc,aa) \times S7-NN,(aa,bb)$	5.50
$S7-NN,(aa,bb) \times F5-RR,(cc,aa)$	4.37
Second Aat-3 locus	
$F6-RR,(cc,aa) \times B7-NN,(cc,bb)$	0.08
$B7-NN,(cc,bb) \times F6-RR,(cc,aa)$	4.40
M12-RR,(cc,aa) × M28-NN,(aa,bb)	14.03*
$M28-NN,(aa,bb) \times M12-RR,(cc,aa)$	1.80
M22-RR,(cc,aa) × M29-NN,(aa,bb)	6.97
$M29-NN,(aa,bb) \times M22-RR,(cc,aa)$	2.79
$L13-RR,(cc,aa) \times M24-NN,(aa,bb)$	3.00
$M24-NN,(aa,bb) \times L13-RR,(cc,aa)$	3.19
$F5-RR,(cc,aa) \times S7-NN,(aa,bb)$	6.71
$S7-NN,(aa,bb) \times F5-RR,(cc,aa)$	2.91

NB: $\chi^2_{(4)} = 9.49$ when P = 0.05.

(1964). Selfed and crossed capitula were enclosed in bags made of lens tissue before and following treatment until seed was set.

Results

Genetic analysis of Aat-3 variation in S. vulgaris

Selfed offspring of *S. vulgaris* lines bred true for capitulum type and *Aat-3* phenotype. Failure of each triplebanded phenotype to segregrate on selfing confirmed that the *Aat-3* locus is duplicated in *S. vulgaris* with each locus homozygous for different alleles. The F_1 offspring of all crosses bore capitula with short ray florets and exhibited a six-banded *Aat-3abc* phenotype in which the staining intensity of bands reflected gene dosage and therefore *Aat-3* genotype. A six-banded F_1 phenotype is expected for a tetraploid individual which is heterozygous for three alleles encoding a dimeric enzyme, due to the production of three intragenic heterodimers and three homodimeric allozymes. In regard to capitulum type (Table 1), a significantly distorted ratio from the expected 1:2:1 ratio was observed in two out of 14 F_2 families examined; however, in each case the ratio produced by the reciprocal cross was not significantly different from expected. The occurrence of distorted ratios is frequently observed in material of hybrid origin (Weeden & Wendel, 1989) and this may account for the distortions recorded in the present analysis. That said, no irregularities in the normal pattern of disomic monogenic inheritance have been recorded in previous genetic analyses of capitulum type in *S. vulgaris* (Trow, 1912; Hull, 1974; R. J. Abbott, unpublished observations).

All four crosses for Aat-3, between the Aat-3ab and Aat-3bc phenotypes, produced F_2 families in which the segregation ratio was not significantly different from 1:2:1 (Table 1). This ratio would be expected following crosses between parental genotypes designated as Aat-*3aa,bb* and *Aat-3cc,bb* respectively. The cross between the Aat-3ac and Aat-3bc phenotypes also segregated 1:2:1 in one family, while in the F_2 of the reciprocal the expected three phenotypes were produced despite a distorted segregation ratio. A 1:2:1 segregation ratio in the F₂ of this cross would occur with parental genotypes designated as Aat-3cc, aa and Aat-3cc, bb respectively. Finally, seven of the eight crosses between the Aat-3ac and Aat-3ab phenotypes segregated nine genotypes in the F_2 in a 1:2:1:2:4:2:1:2:1 ratio as expected with parental genotypes designated as Aat-3cc, aa and Aat-3aa, bb respectively (assuming independent segregation of the two Aat-3 loci). In the remain ing F_2 family, the ratio was significantly distorted although all nine genotypes were recovered. Taken overall, the results confirm that there are two unlinked Aat-3 loci present in S. vulgaris, and that the Aat-3a allele occurs at each locus.

With two unlinked Aat-3 loci present in S. vulgaris, measurement of linkage to the ray floret locus requires consideration of each Aat-3 locus in turn. Crosses between radiate plants of Aat-3cc, bb genotype and non-radiate plants of Aat-3aa, bb genotype measure linkage between the ray floret locus and the first Aat-3 locus, while crosses between radiate individuals of Aat-3cc, aa genotype and non-radiate plants of Aat-3cc, bb genotype estimate linkage between the ray floret locus and the second Aat-3 locus. F_2 data from crosses between radiate plants of Aat-3cc, aa genotype and non-radiate plants of Aat-3aa, bb genotype provide estimates of linkage between the ray floret locus and each Aat-3 locus taken in turn. Chi-squared contingency tests of the joint segregation of capitulum type and Aat-3 type revealed no evidence of linkage between the ray floret locus and either Aat-3 locus in all except one cross examined (Table 2). In the single cross which showed significant joint segregation of capitulum type and *Aat-3* type at the second *Aat-3* locus analysed, a recombination fraction and its standard error were calculated using the maximum likelihood procedures of Allard (1956). This was performed by means of the LINKAGE-1 program of Suiter *et al.*, (1983). The recombination fraction between the pair of loci remained high, $r = 0.44 \pm 0.04$. Given the absence of significant joint segregation of the two loci in the reciprocal cross, and the results for the other crosses examined, it is concluded that the ray floret locus is not linked to either *Aat-3* locus found in *S. vulgaris*.

Genetic diversity

S. squalidus. In all populations of S. squalidus, the Aat-3c allele was more common that the alternative Aat-3b

allele (Table 3), and over all individuals surveyed its frequency was estimated to be 74 per cent. Measures of gene diversity (Nei, 1973) at the Aat-3 locus showed that within-population diversity (Hs = 0.3643)accounted for most of the total gene diversity (Ht=0.3916), between-population diversity being low (Dst = 0.0273). This pattern of diversity is expected in species that reproduce by predominant outcrossing (Hamrick & Godt, 1990). F-statistics (Wright, 1951), computed using the method of Hartl (1981), revealed that the total inbreeding coefficient (Fit = 0.2723) was greater than expected with panmixia, due largely to a deficiency of heterozygotes from expected (Fis = 0.2174), rather than genetic subdivision between populations (Fst = 0.0701). However, only in three of the 20 populations surveyed were the observed genotype frequencies significantly different from those

Table 3 Allele frequencies, observed heterozygosity (H_0) and Wright's Fixation Index (F_0) at the *Aat-3* locus in populations of *S. squalidus*

			Allele frequency			
Population	National Grid Reference	Sample size	b	с	H_0	F_0
England						
Banbury	SP463404	50	0.34	0.66	0.360	+0.198
Birmingham	SP092876	21	0.31	0.69	0.333	+0.220
Darlington	NZ296146	15	0.33	0.67	0.000*	+1.000
Dartford	TQ555743	25	0.32	0.68	0.400	+0.081
Derby	SK362356	44	0.30	0.70	0.455	-0.094
Kingston-u-Thames	TQ191691	48	0.16	0.84	0.312	-0.185
Oxford	SP505065	46	0.33	0.67	0.434	+0.011
St Helens	SJ524926	46	0.22	0.78	0.304	+0.108
Stoke-on-Trent	SJ886407	49	0.09	0.91	0.184	-0.102
Warwick	SP286655	44	0.48	0.52	0.500	-0.010
Wigan	SD594034	36	0.18	0.82	0.250	+0.155
York	SE612518	26	0.40	0.60	0.500	- 0.037
Scotland						
Glasgow	NS534671	34	0.19	0.81	0.206	+0.334
Edinburgh	NT268765	44	0.15	0.85	0.252	+0.008
Methil	NT376995	26	0.35	0.65	0.453	- 0.020
Wales						
Cardiff	ST173733	22	0.32	0.68	0.000*	+1.000
Mochdre	SH813774	26	0.42	0.58	0.308	+0.370
Wrexham						
Brymbo	SJ296539	33	0.15	0.85	0.182	+0.293
Rhostyllen	SJ312492	27	0.31	0.69	0.259*	+0.399
Southsea	SJ306515	25	0.00	1.00	0.000	+1.000
Total		687	0.26	0.74	0.303	+0.213

Allele frequencies have been rounded up to two decimal places.

*Observed genotypic frequencies significantly different from expectation under Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium (P < 0.05).

$$\left(s=1-\frac{1-F}{1+F}\right)$$

This value is unexpectedly high given the very low automatic selfing ability previously reported for *S. squalidus* (Gibbs *et al.*, 1975). Spatial substructuring of populations or assortative mating are alternative factors which might lead to a deficiency of heterozygotes in *S. squalidus* populations; these factors, together with the direct estimation of outcrossing rates in the wild, will require investigation in future.

S. vulgaris. Because the Aat-3a allele appears to occur at both Aat-3 loci in S. vulgaris it is not possible to determine the exact genotype of an individual containing this allele from its isozyme phenotype. The analysis of Aat-3 diversity in S. vulgaris is restricted, therefore, to an examination of phenotype frequencies. All populations monomorphic for the non-radiate morph (var. vulgaris) were monomorphic for the Aat-3ab phenotype (Table 4). This phenotype was also predominant (frequency 0.97) among non-radiate plants in populations polymorphic for capitulum type, being fixed in 8 of 13 polymorphic populations surveyed. In contrast, var. hibernicus was monomorphic for the Aat-3ac phenotype in one population (at Methil), and in nine of the remaining 12 populations surveyed, was polymorphic for Aat-3 phenotype. None of the populations surveyed contained individuals which produced a single-banded phenotype, i.e. were homozygous for the same allele at each duplicated locus. Taken over all individuals surveyed, it was apparent that whereas the Aat-3c allele was common in var. hibernicus, it was very rare among individuals of var. vulgaris which cooccurred with var. hibernicus, and was absent from British, Irish and mainland European populations monomorphic for var. vulgaris. In populations polymorphic for capitulum type, both S. vulgaris variants exhibited a marked deficiency of observed free heterozygotes, i.e. six-banded phenotypes at the Aat-3 locus (Table 4), indicating a high level of inbreeding.

Discussion

The results of the survey of allozyme variation for AAT in S. squalidus and S. vulgaris has provided strong evidence that the radiate variant of S. vulgaris var. hibernicus (2n=40) originated following introgression of genetic material across a chromosome barrier from S. squalidus (2n = 20) into the non-radiate S. vulgaris (2n = 40). The Aat-3c allele which occured at high frequency in S. squalidus (74 per cent of 687 plants surveyed), was also common in S. vulgaris var. hibernicus (present in 47 per cent of 351 plants tested), but was rare among individuals of var. vulgaris which co-occurred with var. hibernicus (3 per cent of 384 plants examined), and was absent from populations monomorphic for var. vulgaris (428 plants tested). Taken together with the historical, morphological, and crossing evidence previously reported (Stace, 1977; Ingram et al., 1980), this genetic evidence can be taken as confirmation of an introgressive origin of S. vulgaris var. hibernicus.

Introgression of the Aat-3c allele from S. squalidus into S. vulgaris could have proceeded along two pathways. Either via backcrossing following the formation of a triploid F_1 hybrid (2n = 30), as postulated and demonstrated previously for the introgression of the ray floret allele into S. vulgaris (Ingram, 1978; Ingram et al., 1980), or alternatively via backcrossing following the formation of a tetraploid F_1 hybrid (2n = 40). Fusion of an unreduced S. squalidus gamete with a normal gamete of S. vulgaris var. vulgaris would produce a tetraploid F_1 which is likely to exhibit higher pollen fertility than a triploid F_1 and thus facilitate introgression more easily. Currently it is not possible to state with certainty along which of these two pathways introgression has proceeded, and it is feasible that both pathways were involved in the transfer of the Aat-3c allele from S. squalidus. The fact that the Aat-3a allele has remained absent from S. squalidus in Britain, although common in S. vulgaris, is evidence against introgression proceeding from S. vulgaris into S. squalidus.

The radiate variant of S. vulgaris differs markedly from the non-radiate form in mating system. In populations polymorphic for capitulum type, non-radiate var. vulgaris normally outcrosses at a rate of ≤ 1 per cent, whereas radiate var. hibernicus shows between 3 and 35 per cent outcrossing (Marshall & Abbott, 1982, 1984a). This difference has been attributed, in part, to (i) the pistillate ray florets of radiate plants outcrossing at higher frequencies than the hermaphroditic disc florets of which non-radiate capitula are entirely composed (Marshall & Abbott, 1984b); and (ii) greater relative attractiveness of radiate capitula to pollinators due to the presence of ray florets (Abbott & Irwin, 1988). Because of its greater outcrossing rate, var. hibernicus is subject to a 'cost of outcrossing' in populations polymorphic for capitulum type (Fisher, 1941; Maynard-Smith, 1978; Lloyd, 1979); despite this disadvantage, however it has spread widely in Britain since its origin in the 19th century (Stace, 1977). Elsewhere, Abbott (1986) and Abbott & Horrill (1991) have suggested that the success of the radiate variant is likely to stem from the beneficial effects of other genes introgressed into *S. vulgaris* along with the radiate allele, and now stabilized in var. *hibernicus*, rather than any direct benefits of increased outcrossing *per se*, e.g. a reduction in inbreeding depression (Charlesworth & Charlesworth, 1987). The occurrence of the *Aat-3c* allele in var. *hibernicus*, provides evidence that a specific gene other than the radiate allele has been introgressed into the taxon at one locus and, as a result, the variant shows an increased level of allelic variation at this locus.

A surprising result to emerge from the genetic analysis of *Aat-3* variation in *S. vulgaris* was the presence of the 'a' allele at both Aat-3 loci within the species. It would follow that some individuals homozygous for the 'a' allele at each locus and producing therefore a singlebanded phenotype would be expected to have been detected in the survey of Aat-3 variation in wild material. In no instance, however, were such individuals found (Table 4). If the Aat-3ab phenotype is produced only by the Aat-3aa,bb genotype while the Aat-3ac phenotype is produced only by the Aat-3cc,aa genotype [as indicated by the genetic analysis (Table 1)], then segregation of the Aat-3aa,aa genotype would not occur in populations of non-radiate S. vulgaris var. vulgaris (all of which are monomorphic for the Aat-3ab phenotype), but should occur in those populations polymorphic for capitulum type which contain the Aat-

Table 4 Aat-3 phenotype frequencies in S. vulgaris var. vulgaris (V) and var. hibernicus (H)

Population		Variant	Sample size	Phenotype frequency			
	National Grid Reference			ab	ас	bc	abc
Polymorphic for var. vi	<i>llgaris</i> and var. <i>hibern</i>	icus					
England							
Birmingham	SP045835	V	50	1.00	—		_
		Н	50	1.00			
St Helens	SJ524944	V	40	1.00		<u> </u>	
		H	40	0.85	0.12	0.03	
Scotland							
Glasgow (i)	NS578664	v	25	1.00		_	_
5 (7		Н	25	1.00	_		
Glasgow (ii)	NS534671	V	25	1.00	_		
		Н	25	0.44	0.48	0.08	_
Grangemouth (i)	NS913823	V	25	0.96	_	0.04	
		Н	25	0.32	0.68	<u> </u>	_
Grangemouth(ii)	NS977814	v	25	1.00			—
		Н	25	1.00	_		—
Edinburgh	NT268765	V	27	0.92	0.04	0.04	
		Н	25	0.28	0.08	0.64	_
Methil	NT376995	V	32	1.00	_		_
		H	36		1.00		
Wales							
Mochdre	SH822781	v	20	1.00	_		
	011012101	Ĥ	24	0.08	0.88	0.04	
Wrexham				0,000	0.00	010 1	
Brymbo SJ296:	SJ296539	v	38	0.87	0.03	0.03	0.07
		Н	21	0.38	0.33	0.29	
Ffrith SJ286	SJ286556	V	10	1.00			_
		Н	16		0.87	0.13	_
Rhostyllen SJ3124	SJ312492	V	23	0.96	_	0.04	_
		Н	15	0.73		0.27	_
Southsea	SJ306515	v	44	0.96	_	0.02	0.02
		Н	24	0.25	0.17	0.50	0.08
Total		v	384	0.971	0.005	0.013	0.011
		Н	351	0.533	0.336	0.125	0.006

	National Grid Reference	Variant	Sample size	Phenotype frequency			
Population				ab	ac	bc	abc
Monomorphic for var.	vulgaris					_	
Britain							
England							
London	TQ349807	V	45	1.00		—	
Workington	NX994295	v	40	1.00			_
Scotland							
Dundee	NO394295	V	45	1.00	—	_	_
Kirriemuir	NO388533	V	27	1.00		_	<u></u>
St Andrews	NO510165	V	100	1.00	—	—	_
Wales							
Aberffraw	SH366656	V	10	1.00	_	_	<u></u>
Puffin Island	SH653824	V	10	1.00	-	_	
Ireland							
Glengariff		V	26	1.00	—	-	_
Mainland Europe							
France							
Pont Croix (Britta	any)	V	21	1.00		_	—
Poland							
Warsaw		V	29	1.00	_	_	
Spain							
Bejar		V	19	1.00	<u> </u>		
Matalascanas		V	37	1.00	—	_	
Switzerland							
Basel		V	11	1.00	_		—
Grindelwald		v	4	1.00		_	_
Interlaken		v	4	1.00	_		
Total		V	428	1.00		_	_

Table 4 Continued

3ab and Aat-3ac phenotypes. The absence of the Aat-3aa, aa genotype from these latter populations remains a puzzle, unless the genotype exhibits low relative fitness or there is a lack of crossing between the Aat-3ab and 3ac phenotypes in the wild.

Assuming that individuals of S. vulgaris var. vulgaris in populations which are monomorphic for non-radiate capitulum type are all of Aat-3aa, bb genotype, then it is of interest to speculate on how the Aat-3a allele became established at the second Aat-3 locus as in the Aat-3cc, aa genotype. Although mutation cannot be ruled out, the most likely explanation is that during the introgressive origin of var. hibernicus, recombination between homoeologous chromosomes occurred and resulted in the transfer of the 'a' allele between the two Aat-3 loci in S. vulgaris. In this respect, it is of interest that multivalent formation, which provides opportunities for recombination to occur between homoeologous chromosomes, has been recorded by Ingram (1977, 1978) at meiosis in the artificially synthesized triploid hybrid between S. vulgaris and S. squalidus and also in the backcross progeny to S. vulgaris.

Finally, in view of the close association recorded between the Aat-3c allele and the radiate allele in populations of S. vulgaris polymorphic for capitulum type, it is somewhat surprising that neither Aat-3 locus was found to be linked to the ray floret locus. Because the maternal outcrossing rate of the radiate morph resulting from intermorph crosses can reach 35 per cent in some polymorphic populations, it may have been anticipated that the Aat-3c allele would be more common in non-radiate plants (i.e. those which cooccur with the radiate morph) than was recorded. It is possible that the strong association which is present between the Aat-3c and ray floret alleles is maintained by selection favouring a co-adapted complex of genes that has been introgressed from S. squalidus. Alternatively, or in addition, there may be positive assortative mating between genotypes at the Aat-3 locus which would greatly reduce the rate of transfer of the Aat-3c allele from var. hibernicus to var. vulgaris. The rarity with which six-banded heterozygotes at the Aat-3 locus were recorded in wild polymorphic populations (Table 4) lends some support to this second possibility.

In conclusion, it is worth considering whether var. hibernicus may have originated via introgression more than once in Britain. In the wild, the triploid F_1 hybrid is produced at very low frequencies in areas where S. squalidus and S. vulgaris co-occur (Marshall & Abbott, 1980); nevertheless such hybrids, verified by cytological analysis, have been reported from several locations throughout Britain (Stace, 1977; Brettell & Leslie, 1978; Marshall & Abbott, 1980; Taylor, 1984). Records of the putative tetraploid F₁ hybrid in Britain are less frequent and have been reported only twice (Crisp, 1972; Taylor, 1984). Early backcross products are likely to resemble S. vulgaris var. hibernicus quite closely (at least when the triploid hybrid is involved), but with reduced fertility and perhaps a more intermediate and less stable phenotype (Ingram et al., 1980). Consequently, they are likely to be overlooked in natural populations. The only detailed survey, to date, of the possible occurrence of early backcross individuals in the wild, is that of Crisp (1972) on herbarium material collected in the British Isles from the mid-19th century to 1930. Crisp (1972) identified what appeared to be early backcrossed products at four locations: i.e. around Oxford, at Cork (Ireland), the Bristol/Cardiff area and the north-east Wales/Cheshire area. Within each of these areas, var. hibernicus was present before 1900, and it is feasible that in each case a separate origin of the taxon had occurred. Based on Crisp's findings, therefore, it would seem that var. hibernicus may have originated independently via introgression at several different locations in Britain during the past 150 years or so, following local hybridization between S. vulgaris var. vulgaris and S. squalidus. More precise evidence is required on this point, however, before such a conclusion is readily accepted.

Acknowledgements

Part of this research was conducted while PAA was in receipt of a postgraduate research studentship funded by the NERC. We are grateful to Christine Wilson for providing seed of *S. vulgaris* from Warsaw. We also wish to thank an anonymous reviewer whose constructive comments greatly improved the original manuscript.

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