ALEXANDER HUAMÁN-MERA

EVOLUTIONARY HISTORY OF Cedrela (MELIACEAE) IN CENTRAL BRAZIL

Thesis submitted to the Botany Graduate Program of the Universidade Federal de Viçosa, as part of the requirements to obtain the title of Doctor Scientiae.

VIÇOSA MINAS GERAIS – BRAZIL 2018

Ficha catalográfica preparada pela Biblioteca Central da Universidade Federal de Viçosa - Câmpus Viçosa

Т	
	Huamán-Mera, Alexander, 1983-
H874e	Evolutionary history of Cedrela (Meliaceae) in central
2018	Brazil / Alexander Huamán-Mera. – Viçosa, MG, 2018.
	viii, 85 f. : il. (algumas color.) ; 29 cm.
	Texto em inglês.
	Orientador: Luiz Orlando de Oliveira.
	Tese (doutorado) - Universidade Federal de Viçosa.
	Inclui bibliografia.
	1. Cedreleae. 2. Matas ripárias. 3. Cerrados.
	4. Filogeografia. I. Universidade Federal de Viçosa.
	Departamento de Biologia Vegetal. Programa de Pós-Graduação
	em Botânica. II. Título.
	CDD 22. ed. 583.77

ALEXANDER HUAMAN-MERA

EVOLUTIONARY HISTORY OF Cedrela (MELIACEAE) IN CENTRAL BRAZIL

Thesis submitted to the Botany Graduate Program of the Universidade Federal de Viçosa, as part of the requirements to obtain the title of Doctor Scientiae.

APPROVED: June 29th, 2018

Haddi Khel.

Haddi Khalid

Marcelo Rogalski

Marcelo Deandro Bueno

João Augusto Alves Meira Neto

liendo h

Luiz Orlando de Oliveira (Adviser)

To my parents, Mardóneo and Yolanda and my family in my country, Peru, to my own family, Yuriko and Akira, And to Scientia amabilis

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

To my wife Yuriko and my little son Alexander Akira, for their support, patient and constantly love.

To the Programa de Pós-graduação em Botânica and its professors of the Universidade Federal de Viçosa (UFV) for the new aknowlegments I acquired during my stage as doctoral student.

To Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES) and Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq) for the grants and scholarship fundings.

To my Professor Luiz Orlando de Oliviera for the guidance, dedication and especially by stimulated my interest in the Evolutionary Biology.

To Juan Manuel Díaz-Soto who unceasingly supported in fieldwork and lab work of the present study, as well as for his friendship and scientific support.

To my friends and colleagues in the Laboratory of Biologia Molecular e Filogeografia: Jefferson, Rafaela, Thaís, Thamyres, and Tiago; and to my friends who are no more in the laboratory: Érica, Hugo, Khalid, Leandro, and Thiago, for their companionship and friendship.

To my professors of the Departamento Académico de Botánica of the Universidad Nacional Pedro Ruiz Gallo: Guillermo Delgado Paredes, Consuelo Rojas Idrogo, Leopoldo Vásquez Nuñes, and Josefa Escurra Puicón for their support and teachings during my undergraduate course.

BIOGRAPHY

ALEXANDER HUAMÁN-MERA, son of Mardóneo Huamán Chávez and Yolanda Mera Cayao, was born in Chomza Alta, La Peca, Bagua, Amazonas – Peru, on July 25th 1983.

He completed his elementary education in 1996 and high school in 1999 at the "Juan Pablo Guzmán y Vizcardo Zea" high school in La Victoria, Chiclayo, Peru.

He concluded his undergraduate course in the Facultad de Ciencias Biológicas of the Universidad Nacional "Pedro Ruiz Gallo", Lambayeque – Peru, in October 2006. He also completed a specialization in Botany during his undergraduate studies. In July 2011 he obtained the Professional title of Biologist–Botanist.

In February 2014, he obtained the degree of Masgister Scientiae in Botany at the Botany Graduate Programa of the Universidade Federal de Viçosa, Minas Gerais – Brazil. His major was in the area of Systematic of Phanerogams.

In March 2014, he began as Doctoral student in the Botany Graduate Programa of the Universidade Federal de Viçosa, Minas Gerais, Brazil.

Ał	BSTRA	ACT	/ii
RF	ESUM	ν	iii
I.	GEN	VERAL INTRODUCTION	1
	1.1	The central Brazil	1
	1.2	The Neotropical genus Cedrela (Meliaceae)	1
	1.3	The hotspot Cerrado, Neotropical Forests, and tropical refugies	2
	1.4	Brazilian seasonal Forest	4
	1.5	Niche phylogenetic conservatism of Cedrela and Species Distribution Modeling (SDM)	4
II.	REF	FERENCES	6
CH TH	IAPTE IE DR	ER I: CLIMATIC FLUCTUATIONS OF TERTIARY/QUATERNARY BOUNDARY AS IVERS OF NEW LINEAGES OF Cedrela (MELIACEAE) IN THE CENTRAL BRAZIL	.9
Ał	BSTRA	ACT1	.0
I.	INT	RODUCTION1	.1
II.	MA	TERIALS AND METHODS1	.4
	2.1	Sampling Strategy and DNA extraction1	.4
	2.2	Microsatellite analyses1	.8
	2.3	cpDNA and ITS datasets Sequencing	20
	2.4	Supplementary information from GenBank2	:3
	2.5	Bayesian phylogenetic analyses	25
	2.6	Divergence dating	25
	2.7	Species Distribution Modeling (SDM)	26
III	. RES	ULTS2	27
	3.1	Analyses of microsatellite loci	27
	3.2	Bayesian phylogenetic analyses	1
	3.3	Estimated date of divergence	6
	3.4	Species Distribution Modeling (SDM)	8
IV	. DIS	CUSSION4	5
	4.1	New lineages restricted to central Brazil4	5
	4.2	Different historical origins of lineages of Cedrela4	5
	4.3	Recent wave of colonization of Cedrela brachystachya in central Brazilian plateau4	6
	4.4	Convergence of hybridization zones of Cedrela fissilis and others Cedrela lineages ranges.4	17
	4.5	Displacement of niche of the Lineage from Northern Minas Gerais4	8
	4.6	Conservation implications of current distribution of Cedrela lineages4	8
	4.7	Morphological correspondence of new Cedrela lineages4	9

SUMARY

V.	CO	NCLUSION
VI	RE	FERENCES
CH	[APT	ER II: TWO NEW SPECIES AND NEW OCCURRENCES OF Cedrela (MELIACEAE)
FR	OM (CENTRAL BRAZIL61
AE	STR	ACT62
I.	INT	FRODUCTION
II.	MA	ATERIALS AND METHODS65
	2.1	Sampling65
	2.2	Morphometric analyses
III.	RE	SULTS68
	3.1	Taxonomic treatment
	3.	1.1 Cedrela microanthus Huamán-Mera A. and Oliveira LO, sp. nov
	3.	1.2 Cedrela pandeirensis Huamán-Mera A. and Oliveira LO, sp. nov
	3.2	New occurrences of Cedrela brachystachya in central Brazil78
IV	DIS	SCUSSION
	4.1	Morphometric analyses of Cedrela microanthus79
	4.2	Morphometric analyses of Cedrela pandeirensis80
	4.3	Conservation status of new taxa of Cedrela83
V.	RE	FERENCES

ABSTRACT

HUAMÁN-MERA, Alexander, D.Sc., Universidade Federal de Viçosa, June, 2018. **Evolutionary History of Cedrela (Meliaceae) in Central Brazil**. Adviser: Luiz Orlando de Oliveira.

The genus Cedrela in Meliaceae is monophyletic and currently it comprises 18 species. Cedrela is distributed across the Neotropics and is associated with closed-canopy forests seasonal forests and moist forests – and ecotones that are adjacent to seasonal forests. The morphological delimitation of the Cedrela species is in fact extremely complicated. Biodiversity hotspots are regions known to have especially high numbers of endemic species. Two of the largest biodiversity hotspots are located in Brazil: the Cerrado and the Atlantic forest. The Cerrado is so ancient that it might pre-date the time South America split from Africa. The climatic fluctuations affected the Brazilian environments during the Late Neogene/Quaternary boundary. Thus, the center and Northeast Cerrado were likely desplaced by Caatinga expansions, but the South and West Cerrado probably remaining as refugia. Refugia could directly relate to conservatism of niche. Niche phylogenetic conservatism refers to the retention of ecological traits, despite time, among related species. The concept is being used to explain latitudinal gradients of diversity, and other spatial patterns of species distribution. The long-term environmental dynamics of paleoclimates and paleosols affected the evolution of Cedrela in temporal and climatic scales. Currently paleoclimatic data from the Quaternary is being used for elucidate the differences in the distribution among populations of the same species. Species Distribution Models (SDM) is widely used in Ecology and conservation research.

RESUMO

HUAMÁN-MERA, Alexander, D.Sc., Universidade Federal de Viçosa, junho de 2018. História Evolutiva de Cedrela (Meliaceae) no Brasil central. Orientador: Luiz Orlando de Oliveira.

O gênero Cedrela em Meliaceae é monofilético e atualmente compreende 18 espécies. Cedrela é distribuída pelos Neotrópicos e está associada a florestas de copas fechadas florestas sazonais e florestas úmidas - e ecótonos adjacentes a florestas sazonais. A delimitação morfológica das espécies de Cedrela é, na verdade, extremamente complicada. Os hotspots de biodiversidade são regiões que possuem um número especialmente alto de espécies endêmicas. Dois dos maiores hotspots de biodiversidade estão localizados no Brasil: o Cerrado e a Mata Atlântica. O Cerrado é tão antigo que pode ser anterior ao tempo em que a América do Sul se separou da África. As flutuações climáticas afetaram estructualmente os ambientes brasileiros durante o limite do Neogeno tardio com o Quaternário. Assim, o centro e o nordeste do Cerrado foram provavelmente desalojados pelas expansões da Caatinga, mas o Sul e Oeste do Cerrado provavelmente permanecem como refúgios. Refugia poderia relacionar-se diretamente ao conservadorismo de nicho. O conservadorismo filogenético de nicho refere-se à retenção de características ecológicas, apesar do tempo, entre espécies relacionadas. O conceito está sendo usado para explicar os gradientes latitudinais de diversidade e outros padrões espaciais de distribuição de espécies. A dinâmica ambiental em longo prazo de paleoclimas e paleossolos afetou a evolução de Cedrela nas escalas temporal e climática. Dados paleoclimáticos atuais do Quaternário estão sendo usados para elucidar as diferenças na distribuição entre populações da mesma espécie. Modelos de Distribuição de Espécies (SDM) são amplamente utilizados em pesquisas de ecologia e conservação.

I. GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 The central Brazil

The central Brazil is an important geographical region that is part of the central-west political region of Brazil, which groups the states of Goiás, Mato Grosso and Mato Grosso do Sul. The central Brazil is part of wide and long orogenic system known as the Tocantins Province, which includes the Brasília Belt (Pimentel, 2016). The plate tectonic movements located the central Brazil in an elevated and continuous plateau (Pimentel, 2016). The plateau of central Brazil was extensively covered by predominant vegetation of a woody savanna with a physiognomy varying from closed woodland to open grassland. This vegetal cover was prior to the human disturbances (Oliveira-Filho and Ratter, 1995)

1.2 The Neotropical genus Cedrela (Meliaceae)

The genus Cedrela (Browne, 1756) belongs to Meliaceae, order Sapindales (APG IV, 2016). The genus is monophyletic; currently it comprises 18 species (Pennington and Muellner, 2010; Köcke et al., 2015). Cedrela is distributed across the Neotropics, Northern Mexico to Northwestern Argentina to the Atlantic Forest of Eastern Brazil (Pennington and Muellner, 2010; Styles, 1981). Environmental humidity shapes the distribution of species of Cedrela, so they grow over well-drained soils to soils with high amounts of humidity. More likely, this trait would be associated to niche conservatism and the ability to spread out over environments that detains a wide range of humidity. Thus the changes in precipitations during the Miocene would be related to the diversification of the genus. The main range of diversification was located in the central Andes hotspot (Pennington and Muellner, 2010; Muellner et al., 2009; Koepke et al., 2013,). Cedrela is phylogenetically closed-related to Toona (Endl.) M. Roem., an Asian-Australian genus. The time divergence of both Cedrela and Toona was in Oligocene (~48 Mya) (Muellner et al., 2010). Cedrela is associated with closed-canopy forests - seasonal forests and moist forests - and ecotones that are adjacent to seasonal forests (Styles, 1981; Pennington and Muellner, 2010). Cedrela is characterized by monopodial trees that measure from three to 50 meters in height when they are adults. Species of Cedrela have annual reproduction. They present composite leaves, unisexual flowers, protogynous, with presence of well-developed rudiments of the opposite sex in the same flower. Plants of Cedrela have male and female flowers, the male ones have pistiloides and

rudimentary ovules, and the female ones have anthers without pollen on shorter filaments. All flowers present an androgynophore with functions of nectary and where the true or rudimentary ovary is established according to the type of flower and the petals are adnate by a central keel for at least half their lenght. Cedrela presents fruits of the capsule-type septícida with winged seeds (Gouvêa et al., 2008; Muellner et al., 2009; Pennington and Muellner, 2010). The morphological delimitation of the Cedrela species is in fact extremely complicated. The morphological analysis uses widely variable and juxtaposed characters, such as simple and multicellular non-branched hair, number of leaflets, number of secondary veins, type of phenology at the beginning of flowering in young plants, division of the calyx and capsule size (Muellner et al., 2009; Pennington and Muellner, 2010).

1.3 The hotspot Cerrado, Neotropical Forests, and tropical refugies

Biodiversity hotspots are regions known to have especially high numbers of endemic and threathened species. Remnant habitats reach just over two percent of the dry surface of the earth (Myers et al., 2000). Thirty-five regions have been declared as biodiversity hotspots around the world which nine regions occur in the new world. Two of the largest biodiversity hotspots of the new world are located In Brazil: the Cerrado and the Atlantic forest (Biodiversity hotspots revisited, conservation international, 2011). "Cerrado" is the Portuguese denomination for the plateau of central Brazil of woodlands, savannas, grasslands, and Neotropical forests such as – dry, gallery, and ciliar forests – (Klink and Machado, 2005). The Cerrado is the second largest biome in Neotropics, exceeded only by Amazonia; it includes a great part of central Brazil, but its extension reach parts of northeastern Paraguay and eastern Bolivia (Ab'Saber, 1977). According some authors the origin of the Cerrado biome is so ancient that it might pre-date the time South America split from Africa. In such a scenario, there was a prototypic form of Cerrado when the Tertiary began (~65 Mya B.P.) (Ratter et al., 1997). However, it seems probably that Cerrado biome itself as part of the South America savanas originated between 25–28 Mya B.P.; and it expanded during the Miocene-Pliocene baundary (25-2 Mya B.P.) (Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger, 2009). The Cerrado is an important biodiversity hotspot and it is part of the open diagonal formations together with the Caatinga and the Chaco (Werneck et al., 2012). The Cerrado hotspot is largely threaten by extractive human activities such as farming, agriculture, charcoal extraction, etc (Ratter et al., 1997).

On the other hand, in the same scenario of origin of South America savanas, tropical forests already existed and had increased their expansion. Thus, during the Paleogene period (~65 Mya B.P.), climatic conditions was warm and humid and this favored the enormously expansion of tropical rainforests, such conditions was similar than current. Later in the Paleocene/Eocene boundary (~56 Mya B.P.), the presence of warmer and humid environments permitted the increase of Angiosperm biodiversity as well as the presence of humid forests in South America (Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger, 2009). Probably in the Eocene/Oligocene boundary (~33 Mya B.P.), the humid forests were continue and widespread from Pacific Ocean to Atlantic Ocean that means they covered a region twice as large as current. In Brazil, with the beginning of the drier and cooler climate of the Neogene period (~23 Mya B.P.), the Neotropical forests reduced in their geographic extension and were also partially displaced. At the same time, the expansion of savannic areas had began and Neotropical forests were restricted to some specific geographical ranges such as small tributaries of main rivers (Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger, 2009; Antonelli and Sanmartin, 2011). All those factors likely took to Neotropical forest taxons to isolate in environments with more favorable climates for life. As result, the Cerrado as a large-scale biome became established in Pliocene period. With all these scenarios the distribution of species changed considerably and the extinction or establishment of new taxons took place (Hewitt, 2000).

The term refuge is often used to define relict areas of lowland forest. Refuge theory has been proposed as priority geographical places for biological conservation under historical climate reversals (Prance, 1982). The distribution of vegetation suffered displacements following the Pleistocene climatic fluctuations, which brought about glacial and warm periods and this caused the fragmentation of species ranges and the isolation of portions of the respective vegetation in ecological refuges. Their role in the conservation is due to the capacity to favor survival of biota under unfavorable conditions (Haffer, 1982; Prance, 1982; Davis et al., 2013). Main evidences for refuge model are identify in plants such as occurrences of areas of endemism within the rainforest, the presence of xerophytic plants as relicts of drier climatic periods within humid forest areas, and morphological variation of some widespread species (Prance, 1982). In the Late Neogene/Quaternary, the Brazilian environments suffered climatic fluctuation. Thus, the center and Northeast Cerrado were likely displaced by Caatinga expansions, but the South and West Cerrado (e.g. Paraná river Basin, Brasilia and Chapada dos Veadeiros) probably remaining establish and compound a unique and extensive refuge (Ab' Sáber, 1983). The savannas extended until reach the current territories of Bolivia where was indentified an extensive and unique refuge during the Pleistocene. The presence of climatic stability in the past allowed remaining as an ecological refuge (Werneck et al., 2012).

1.4 Brazilian seasonal Forest

In Brazil, the Atlantic forest is widely threatened (FUNDAÇÃO SOS Mata Atlântica; INPE 2010). The main ecosystems of the Atlantic forest are the seasonal forests. They are characterized by the dual climatic seasonality. Seasonal forests present a period of rainy season followed by a long dry period (reaching more than five consecutive months). In areas where there is no dry season, the intense winter cold, with average temperatures below 15° C, causes physiological drought (Oliveira-Filho and Fontes, 2000; Veloso et al., 1991). In South America, about 60% of the forests are highly destroyed. The causes range from climate change, habitat fragmentation, fire, population density and agriculture (Miles et al., 2006). These forests also represent a widely threatened ecosystem in countries such as Bolivia (Steininger et al., 2001). The agriculture is highly intensive in this ecosystems because of seasonal forests occur in soils highly fertiles (Oliveira-Filho et al., 1994). In the last 20 years, there has been an increase in the interest in seasonal forests, since they have been diagnosed as areas of endemism (Prado, 2000; Pennington et al., 2004).

Currently, many studies test hypotheses from shelter areas based on modeling analyzes of species distribution at multiple temporal and spatial scales with the purpose of explaining species richness and the implication of these (Wiens and Donoghue, 2004). Since climate is a major contributor to evolutionary changes in biodiversity, there are many climate models that try to infer potential new areas of distribution or point out those areas where they were distributed in the very ancient past (Erwin, 2009). In Brazil, paleoclimatic models have shown the presence of a historical forest refuge in the Atlantic forest, as well as the spatial variation of the forests along the Pleistocene (Carnaval and Moritz, 2008).

1.5 Niche phylogenetic conservatism of Cedrela and Species Distribution Modeling (SDM)

Niche phylogenetic conservatism refers to the retention of ecological traits, despite time, among related species and they assembled forming different communities that usually share common spatial distribution. The environmental gradients influence considerably in the

differentiation and distribution of conservatism across taxonomic levels. The palaeoenvironmental conditions during the radiation of the phylogenetic lineages could corroborate the current differences among environmental gradients. The concept is being used to explain latitudinal gradients of diversity, and other spatial patterns of species distribution. (Prinzing et al., 2001; Wiens and Graham, 2005; Pearman et al., 2007; Cavender-Bares et al. 2009; Wiens et al., 2010; Antonelli and Sanmartín, 2011). In Cedrela, the long-term environmental dynamics of paleoclimates and paleosols affected the evolution of this species in temporal and climatic scales Koecke et al. (2013). While the conservatism of the niche would explain the extinction of species of Cedrela that in the past were distributed in the northern hemisphere when these areas constituted tropical forests and today only present fossils of Cedrela (Muellner et al. 2010). Therefore, current conditions could also explain the restricted distribution of species in more humid environments such as those distributed in tropical forests. On the other hand, the species differed tolerating climatic shifts would be explained with events of recent speciation, showing overlapped distribution in nearby and concomitant areas.

Currently paleoclimatic data from the Quaternary is being used for elucidate the differences in the distribution among populations of the same species. Species Distribution Models (SDMs) is widely used in Ecology and conservation research. It is the process of using computer algoritms to predict geographic distributions of species which based on correlative occurences between known records and the environmental conditions at geographic localities (Phillips et al., 2006; Elith and Leathwick, 2009). SDMs contribute to know about niche displaces over time or space, for instance those displacements that occur between populations separated in geographic spaces (Pearman et al., 2007).

II. REFERENCES

Ab'Saber A.N. (1977) Os Domínios morfoclimáticos da América do Sul. Primeira Aproximação. Geomorfologia **52**, 1–21.

_____ (1983) O domínio dos cerrados: introdução ao conhecimento. Revista do Serviço Público **111**, 41–55.

Antonelli A. & Sanmartín I. (2011) Why are there so many plant species in the Neotropics? Taxon **60**, 403–414.

Biodiversity Hotspots Revisited, Conservation International (2011)

- Browne P. (1756) The Civil and Natural History of Jamaica in Three Parts. London.
- Carnaval A.C.O.Q. & Moritz C.M. (2008) Historical climate change predicts current biodiversity patterns in the Brazilian Atlantic rainforest. Journal of Biogeography **35**, 1187–1201.
- Cavender-Bares J., Kozak K.H., Fine P.V.A., & Kembel SW (2009) The merging of community ecology and phylogenetic biology. Ecology Letters **12**, 693–715.
- Davis J., Pavlova A., Thompson R., & Sunnucks P. (2013) Evolutionary refugia and ecological refuges: key concepts for conserving Australian arid zone freshwater biodiversity under climate change. Global Change Biology **19**, 1970–1984.
- Elith J. & Leathwick J.R. (2009) Species Distribution Models: Ecological Explanation and Prediction Across Space and Time. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics **40**, 677–697.
- Erwin D.H. (2009) Climate as a driver of evolutionary change. Current Biology **19**, R575–R583.
- Fundação SOS Mata Atlântica; INPE, (2010) Atlas dos Remanescentes Florestais da Mata Atlântica. Período de 2008-2010. Relatório Parcial. Fundação SOS Mata Atlântica and Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas Espaciais, São Paulo.
- Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger (2009) Tropical savannas–Introduction. In: Del Claro K, Oliveira OS, Rico-Gray V (Eds.) Tropical Biology and conservation management–Volume X: Savannas Ecosystems. EOLSS Publishers/UNESCO, Oxford, United Kingdom, 341–351.
- Gouvêa C.F., Dornelas M.M., & Rodriguez A.P.M. (2008) Floral Development in the tribe Cedreleae (Meliaceae, Sub-family Swietenioideae): Cedrela and Toona. Annals of Botany **101**, 39–48.
- Haffer J. (1982) General aspects of the refuge theory. In G.T. Prance (Ed.) Biological diversification in the tropics (pp. 6-24) New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Hewitt G.M. (2000) The genetic legacy of the Quaternary ice ages. Nature 405, 907-913
- Klink C.A. & Machado R.B. (2005) Conservation of the Brazilian Cerrado. Conservation Biology **19(3)**, 707–713.

- Koecke A.V., Muellner-Riehl A.N., Pennington T.D., Schorr G., & Schnitzler J. (2013) Niche Evolution Time and across continents: The story of Neotropical Cedrela (Meliaceae). American Journal of Botany 100(9), 1800-10.
- Köcke A.V., Muellner-Riehl A.N., Cáceres O., & Pennington T.D. (2015) Cedrela ngobe (Meliaceae), a new species from Panama and Costa Rica. Edinburgh Journal of Botany 72(2), 225–233.
- Miles L., Newton A.C., Defries R.S., Ravilious C., May I., Blyth S., Kapos V., & Gordon J.E. (2006) A global overview of the conservation status of tropical dry forests. Journal of Biogeography 33(3), 491–505.
- Muellner A.N., Pennington T.D., & Chase M.W. (2009) Molecular phylogenetics of Neotropical Cedreleae (mahogany family, Meliaceae) based on nuclear and plastid DNA sequences reveal multiple origins of "Cedrela odorata". Molecular Phylogenetics Evolution 52, 461–469.
- Muellner A.N., Pennington T.D., Koecke A.V., & Renner S.S. (2010) Biogeography of Cedrela (Meliaceae, Sapindales) in Central and South America. American Journal of Botany 97, 511–518.
- Myers N., Mittermeier R.A., Mittermeier C.G., da Fonseca G.A.B., & Kent J. (2000) Biodiversity hotspots for conservation priorities. Nature **403**, 853–858
- Oliveira-Filho A.T., Scolforo J.R.S., & Mello J.M. (1994) Composição florística e estrutura de um remanescente de floresta semidecidual montana em Lavras, MG. Revista Brasileira de Botânica **17**, 167–182.
- Oliveira-Filho A.T. & Ratter, J.A. (1995). A study of the origin of Central Brazilian forests by the analysis of plant species distribution patterns. Edinburgh Journal of Botany 52, 141-194.
- Oliveira-Filho A.T. & Fontes M.A.L. (2000) Patterns of floristic differentiation among Atlantic forests in southeastern Brazil and the influence of climate. Biotropica **32**, 793–810.
- Pennington R.T., Lavin M., Prado D.E., Pendry C.A., Pell S.K., & Butterworth C.A. (2004) Historical climate change and speciation: Neotropical seasonally dry forest plants show patterns of both Tertiary and Quaternary diversification. Philosophical Transactions Royal: Biological Sciences 359, 515–538.
- Pennington T.D. & Muerllner A.N. (2010) A monograph of Cedrela (Meliaceae). DH Books, Sherborne, UK.
- Pearman P.B., Guisan A., Broennimann O., & Randin C.F. (2007) Niche dynamics in space and time. Cell Press 23, 149–158.
- Phillips S.J., Anderson R.P., & Schapire R.E. (2006) Maximum entropy modeling of species geographic distributions. Ecological Modelling **190**, 231–259.
- Pimentel M.M. (2016) The tectonic evolution of the Neoproterozoic Brasília Belt, central Brazil: a geochronological and isotopic approach. Brazilian Journal of Geology, **46** (1), 67-82.

- Prado D.E. (2000) Seasonally dry forests of tropical South America: from forgotten ecosystems to a new phytogeographic unit. Edinburgh Journal of Botany **57**, 437–461.
- Prance G.T. (1982a) (ed.) Biological diversification in the tropics (714 P). New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Prinzing A., Durka W., Klotz S., & Brandl R. (2001) The niche of higher plants: evidence for phylogenetic conservatism. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B Biological Sciences 268, 2383–2389.
- Ratter J.A., Ribeiro J.F., & Bridgewater S. (1997) The Brazilian Cerrado Vegetation and Threats to its Biodiversity. Annals of Botany **80**, 223–230.
- Steininger M.K., Tucker C.J., Townshend J.R.G., Killeen T.J., Desch A., Bell V., & Ersts P. (2001) Tropical Deforestation in the Bolivian Amazon. Environmental Conservation 28, 127–134.
- Styles B.T. (1981) Swietenioideae. In: Pennington TD, Styles BT, eds. Flora Neotropica 28 Meliaceae. The New York Botanical Garden, 359–385.
- The Angiosperm Phylogeny Group (2016) An update of the Angiosperm Phylogeny Group classification for the orders and families of flowering plants: APG IV. Botanical Journal of Linnean Society **181**, 1–20.
- Veloso H.P., Rangel-Filho A.L.R., & Lima J.C.A. (1991) Classificação da Vegetação Brasileira, Adaptada de um Sistema Universal. Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística, Rio de Janeiro.
- Werneck F.P., Nogueira C., Colli G.C., Sites Jr. J.W., Costa G.C. (2012) Climatic stability in the Brazilian Cerrado: implications for biogeographical connections of South American savannas, species, richness, and conservation in a biodiversity hotspot. Journal of Biogeography **39**, 1695–1706.
- Wiens J.J. & Donoghue M.J. (2004) Historical biogeography, ecology and species richness. Trends in Ecology and Evolution **19(12)**, 639–644.
- Wiens J.J. & Graham C.H. (2005) Niche Conservatism: Integrating Evolution, Ecology, and Conservation Biology. Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 36, 519– 539.
- Wiens J.J., Ackerly D.D., Allen A.P., Anacker B.L., Buckley L.B., Cornell H.V., & Damschen E.I. (2010) Niche conservatism as an emerging principle in ecology and conservation biology. Ecology Letters 13, 1310–1324.

CHAPTER I: CLIMATIC FLUCTUATIONS OF TERTIARY/QUATERNARY BOUNDARY AS THE DRIVERS OF NEW LINEAGES OF Cedrela (MELIACEAE) IN THE CENTRAL BRAZIL

ALEXANDER HUAMÁN-MERA¹, LUIZ ORLANDO DE OLIVEIRA^{1*}

¹Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Universidade Federal de Viçosa, Viçosa, Minas Gerais 36570-900, Brazil Corresponding author: luiz.ufv@hotmail.com

ABSTRACT

Climatic fluctuations are alternate climatic events that the Earth experimented in past geological epochs. The Tertiary and Quaternary were the most important epochs that influenced strongly in the origin, abundance, and distribution of biodiversity. Contrast periods of warmer and humid climate and cooler and arid climate played an important role of driving biodiversity in the past. These climatic fluctuations would have influenced in the shape of current diversity of plants and especially of Cedrela in central Brazil. To assesse our hypothesis we carried out both molecular analyses (microsatellite markers and DNA sequencing) and species distribution modeling (SDM) of Cedrela species. Microsatellite analysis exhibited six genetic groups (K = 6) of Cedrela within Brazil, two groups previously known and the remaining four were new. Our results suggested the remaining four groups were new and distintic genetic entities within Cedrela. Three of those four groups are phylogenetically more closely-related to clade Cedrela fissilis and the last one is more related to clade Cedrela odorata. The time of divergence of new groups of Cedrela took place between 7-2 Mya B.P. The SDM analysis showed a big dynamics of niche displacement during the Quaternary, but these would not explain the new entities. Likely, the origin of the biodiversity and endemism resulted during the Last Tertiary when the South America's climate was drier and cooler than present.

KEY WORDS: Cedreleae; Forest gallery; Riverine Forests; Cerrado; Seasonal Forests; Phylogeography; Refugia.

I. INTRODUCTION

Historical climatic fluctuations are alternate climatic events that the Earth experimented in past geological periods. The Tertiary and Quaternary (65 – 1.8 Mya) were the most important epochs that influenced strongly in the origin, abundance, and distribution of biodiversity (Hewitt, 2000; Pennington et al., 2004; Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger, 2009). Long-term periods of warm and humid tropical climate dominated almost most of the Paleogene and Eocene, and during these periods Neotropical rainforest expanded enormously in all South America. In those peridos several plant species raised and dominated Neotropics (Pennington et al., 2004; Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger, 2009). However, with the return of the Antarctic continent to the circle pole (45 - 40 Mya) and the uplift of the Andes during the Pangaea drift the Antarctic glaciations increased. In the beginning of the Oligocene onwards and overall in the Neogene, cooler to arid climates began to dominate Neotropics affecting the atmospheric circulation in the Southern Hemisphere (Gregory-Wodzicki, 2000; Antonelli et al., 2006; Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger, 2009; Lavina and Fauth, 2011). The lowering of the global temperatures and precipitations in Neotropics favored the expansion of more xeric vegetation in large parts of several central and northern parts of South America including Brazil (Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger, 2009). During this scenario, the drier and cooler climate of the Neogene reduced and partly displaced the Neotropical rainforests from central Brazil. Additionally in south of South America had the disappearance of tropical flora and decreasing in subtropical species (Parrish, 1993; Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger, 2009; Lavina and Fauth, 2011; Le Roux, 2012). Thus, the xeric vegetation was expanded as a corridor of open vegetation formations called "the diagonal of open formations" (Vanzolini, 1963). Between 25 – 2 Mya, dry forests and more open vegetation were widespread in central Brazil. At the same time, Neotropical forests were reduced to some humid stable areas such as the small tributaries of large rivers (Paraná and Sao Francisco rivers) which for that geologic time they were already existed. In that scenario, probably the widespread Neotropical forests that dominated in the Paleocene and Eocene in central Brazil were retracted as riverine forests, which were ubiquitous in water bodies throughout the growing like-savannas regions. Currently nearly all water bodies of the region are fringed by forests and are called gallery forests (Ab' Saber, 2000; Pennington et al., 2000; Oliveira-Filho and Ratter, 2002; Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger, 2009; Lavina and Fauth, 2011). In the next 3 - 2 Mya (Tertiary/Quaternary period), the climatic oscillations were more frequent. However, is a matter of controversial between researchers (Gottsberger

and Silberbauer-Gottsberger 2009). The influence of Quaternary glacial/interglacial cycles in the origin and distribution of plant species on earth is evident (Hewitt, 2000). Pollen records from tropical South America provided a general big picture of the climatic conditions during the late Quaternary. Thus, pollen records of species that compound current gallery forests suggested stable delimited areas that fringed water bodies in Quaternary periods where central Brazilian vegetation exhibited changes in their distribution, which experimented expansions and retractions (van der Hammen, 1991; Barberi et al., 2000; Bueno et al., 2017).

The Neotropics are the most biodiversity regions on earth and also harbor the highest plant biodiversity in the world (Myers et al., 2000). The Neotropical forests that assemble in central Brazil are the called gallery forests and deciduous and semideciduous forests (Oliveira-Filho and Ratter, 1995). Here, we have special attention for the gallery forest since they are part of the Neotropical seasonal forests that served as connections between Amazonian and Atlantic vegetation when the xeric vegetation expanded within central Brazil (Ab' Saber, 2000; Pennington et al., 2000; Oliveira-Filho and Ratter, 1995; Oliveira-Filho and Ratter, 2002; Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger, 2009). Likely these connection areas of gallery forests were harboring populations of species that were distributed in widespread areas before began the cooler and drier climate of the Tertiary. With the retraction of vegetation the populations of species confined to these areas were acquiring and accumulating genetic and morphological differences (Hewitt, 2000; Pennington et al., 2000; Oliveira-Filho and Ratter, 2002; Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger, 2009). Currently the endemism of plant species in gallery forests would be explained by the climatic oscillations of recent geologic period as the Quaternary and not by the Tertiary. Seemingly the lack of proper fossil records made that literature does not report specific areas of endemism for species of gallery forest from the Tertiary origin (Hooghiemstra and van der Hammen, 1998; Pennington et al., 2004). Thus, the scenario that researchers use to explained high levels of endemism and biodiversity is thanks to the climatic oscillations during the Quaternary in Brazilian vegetations (Cordeiro et al., 2017). Even it was postulated a theory of refugia for the Neotropics that was supported by Paleobotany, Geomorphology, and Geology studies, and currently even by molecular, Ecology, and climatic modeling studies (Haffer, 1982; Ramírez-Barahona and Eguiarte, 2013; Sosa and Loera, 2017). However not at all Brazilian species richness of plants had their origin in the Quaternary. Many plant species had their origin even before the beginning of the Tertiary period. It is highly probable that the main driver for the formation of plant diversity in Brazilian biomes such as Altantic Forest was the sympatric speciation because of the absent of considerable geographic barriers (Pennington et al., 2004; Gastauer et al., 2015).

The genus Cedrela is compound for two widespread accepted species, Cedrela odorata L. and Cedrela fissilis Vell. in Brazil (Pennington and Muellner, 2010). However, only C. fissilis received significant and deep attention about significant differences that populations of C. fissilis exhibit along Brazil. Studies developed in C. fissilis with molecular approaches suggested two filogenetic lineages, the Chiquitano and Atlantic, which clearly were separated by the Cerrado biome (Garcia et al., 2011; Mangaravite et al., 2016). The outcomes also suggested that C. fissilis was not monofiletic. Thus, specimens of C. balansae e C. odorata grouped together with specimens belong to the Atlantic lineage of C. fissilis clade (Garcia et al., 2011). The divergence time of both Chiquitano and Atlantic lineages took place in the Early Pliocene and Late Miocene and this is in agreetment with the intensification of diversification in the central Andes (Muellner et al., 2010, Garcia et al., 2011). An unpublished study in populations of Cedrela from the upper Parana River basin using microssatelite markers suggested three new phylogenetic lineages of Cedrela (Huamán-Mera, 2014.). These lineages would be different from those reported by Garcia et al. (2011). At least one o these lineagens was deeply studied and showed a new genetic entity for central Brazil that was treated as Cedrela brachystachya, a specialized species to wetland environments (Huamán-Mera et al., submitted). This especies was previuosly synonymized with widespread Cedrela odorata (Pennington and Muellner, 2010). Recently a new study of population genetics of a natural population of Cedrela fissilis in Northern Minas Gerais -Brazil suggested that the genetic status of this natural population would be a novel lineage. So it needs being treated with molecular and taxonomical approaches for determining its real status within Cedrela (Díaz-Soto et al., 2018).

In this study, we explored the role of the climatic fluctuations of Tertiary/Quaternary boundary in shaping the evolutionary history of diversity of lineages of Cedrela from central Brazil, as well as to evaluate the contemporary patterns of genetic and morphological diversity. In addition to assess the distribution of Cedrela lineages throughout central Brazilian environments based on historical climate modeling and the study of molecular markers. Firstly, we used microsatellite data from representative populations of either the Atlantic range or the Chiquitano range to determine the genealogical placement of Cedrela lineages sampled from central Brazil. Subsequently, we obtained DNA sequences of representative individuals of different lineages of populations from central Brazil to investigate the phylogeny placement of lineages within Cedrela and the time of divergence of the same lineages. Finally, we used the Global Position System (GPS) records of strategic individuals of different Cedrela lineages which are distributed along central Brazil to infer current and past climatic models, as well as determine possible climatic stable areas with potential conservation purpose. This study addressed the following five questions: (1) How is the genetic variability of microsatellite data of Cedrela lineages from central Brazil, the genetic material is different and unique, is sharing with lineages previously studied? (2) How the lineages of Cedrela from central Brazil are related with lineages previously established (Cedrinho, Chiquitano, and Atlantic)? (3) How the lineages of Cedrela from central Brazil are phylogenetically related to the entire genus? (4) Is there correspondence between the lineages of Cedrela from central Brazil and their morphological diversity? (5) Is there evidence of ancestral refugia for species of Cedrela within the ecosystems of central Brazil? We also present the implications of our results for the genetic conservation of Cedrela species and for the debate about the origins and distribution of Neotropical biodiversity in Tertiary/Quaternary boundary periods.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Sampling Strategy and DNA extraction

We sampled 104 specimens of Cedrela in present study. We collected leaves samples; they were dried using silica gel and kept at room temperature until further use. We focused strategic points of sampling in central Brazil. The sites were located within the Cerrado biome and also in ecotones sites among Cerrado, Atlantic Rainforest and Caatinga biomes in Brazil. Collecting trips took place in 2015, 2016 and 2017; we recorded their location using a Global Positioning System (GPS) receiver. The sites of collection were from eight: Montes Claros (MTC), Peruaçu (PER), Mata Seca (MAS), Pandeiros (two populations, PA1 and PA2), Sabonetal (SAB), and Brasilia (two populations, BR1 and BR2) (Figure 1, Table 1). We used the Terrestrial Ecoregions of the World database from the World Wildlife Fund (Olson et al., 2001) to define the associated vegetation formations that surrounded the sampling sites. Voucher specimens resulting from fieldworks were deposited in Herbarium Viçosense (VIC).

Additionally we used 386 specimens that were obtained from previous studies. These specimens belong to: (1) Cedrela fissilis (Mangaravite et al., 2016; Huamán-Mera et. al. Submitted), which distribution were located alongside Brazilian Cerrado into the previously established as Chiquitano and Atlantic ranges (García et al., 2011); (2) Cedrela brachystachya (Huamán-Mera et. al., submitted) from central Brazilian wetlands, and (3) Cedrela spp. from central Brazil also (Huamán-Mera, 2014) (Figure 1 and Table 1).

In total, we evaluated 490 specimens of genus Cedrela from 35 localities in Brazil (Figure 1 and Table 1). The sampling sites were chosen to cover most of the geographical range of the genus Cedrela.



Figure 1. Locations of populations of genus Cedrela included in the present study and their major vegetation types and Rivers. Populations were organized into three groups according to the geographic distribution: the novel Central Brazil group, and the two previously known groups, Chiquitano and Atlantic ranges that represented Cedrela fissilis). The populations of central Brazil were grouped again into two sub-groups, Central Brazil 1 with 15 populations (ANA, HD1, HD2, CEC, HD3, FR1, FR2, PRN, OES, COR, CAT, UBE, ITA, BR1, and BR2), and Central Brazil 2 with seven populations (JAN, MTC, PER, MAS, PA1, PA2, and SAB); the Chiquitino range with four populations (TOC, ALT, FIG, and POC) and the Atlantic range with nine populations (PEU, PRD, PSB, MDP, CAP, BLU, CAM, PAL, and DIA).

Table 1. Sampled populations of Cedrela, with sample size (N) and geographic coordinates. Eight populations were collected for this work. Additional dataset of Cedrela used in this work were taken from previous studies: 11 populations from Mangaravite et al. (2016), eight populations from Huamán-Mera et al. 2018 (submitted), and eight populations from Huamán-Mera (2014). Every population has information about their respective distribution range, locality and population code, sample size, and geographic coordinates.

Distribution Range	Locality (Population code)	Ν	Coordinate (Latitude/Longitude)
	Alta Floresta (ALT)*	21	-09° 53' 56,97" / -56° 09' 16,12"
Chiquitore	Figueirópolis D'Oeste (FIG)*	22	-15° 26' 43,80" / -58° 44' 25,73"
Cniquitano	Tocantins (TOC)*	9	-07° 12' 26,92" / -47° 45' 49,04"
	Poconé (POC)*	22	-16° 19' 08,50" / -56° 31' 52,50"
	Anaurilândia/ Nova Londrina/ Teodoro Sampaio (ANA)**	24	-22° 12' 51.10" / -52° 50' 37.20"
	Hidroeletrica1 (HD1)***	13	-21° 45' 52.40" / -51° 15' 47.70"
	Hidroeletrica2 (HD2)***	7	-21° 44' 52.10" / -52° 15' 41.80"
	Cecalpina (CEC)***	7	-21° 15' 26.80" / -51° 58' 24.20"
	Hidroeletrica3 (HD3)***	7	-21° 11' 07.70" / -51° 51' 51.40"
	Foz Rio Aguapei1 (FR1)***	11	-21° 08' 10.00" / -51° 47' 27.60"
	Foz Rio Aguapei2 (FR2)***	5	-21° 07' 25.10" / -51° 44' 29.70"
	Ouro Este (OES)***	18	-20° 00' 40.90" / -50° 21' 45.60"
	Paranaiba (PRN)***	15	-19° 43' 00.70" / -51° 05' 37.10"
	Corumbaiba (COR)**	11	-18° 06' 43.00" / -48° 37' 00.00"
Control	Catalão (CAT)**	16	-18° 11' 45.00" / -47° 57' 21.00"
Central	Uberlândia (UBE)**	19	-18° 58' 45.00" / -48° 02' 12.00"
	Itaporã (ITA)*	9	-22° 00' 09,68" / -54° 42' 52,59"
	Januária (JAN)*	9	-15° 11' 22,56" / -44° 12' 24,48"
	Montes Claros (MTC)	9	-16° 38' 26.05" / -43° 52' 55.16"
	Peruaçu (PER)	17	-15° 06' 59.30" / -44° 14' 29.90"
	Mata Seca (MAS)	15	-14° 50' 59.25" / -43° 59' 32.54"
	Brasilia 1 (BR1)	18	-15° 44' 23.00" / -47° 55' 49.00"
	Brasilia 2 (BR2)	9	-15° 42' 53.00" / -47° 55' 24.00"
	Pandeiros 1 (PA1)	17	-15° 33' 41.95" / -44° 48' 18.77"
	Pandeiros 2 (PA2)	15	-15° 41' 03.90" / -44° 35' 14.74"
	Sabonetal (SAB)	4	-15° 20' 15.76" / -44° 03' 46.01"

	TOTAL	490	
	Diamantina (DIA)*	13	-18° 24' 33,60" / -43° 29' 24,70"
	Palotina (PAL)*	28	-24° 18' 34,29" / -53° 54' 32,15"
	Campinhos (CAM)*	7	-25° 02' 17,00" / -49° 05' 26,00"
Auanue	Blumenau (BLU)*	18	-26° 55' 07,51" / -49° 03' 57,69"
Atlantic	Caparaó (CAP)*	36	-20° 31' 45,60"/ -41° 55' 14,10"
	Mata do Passarinho (MDP)**	7	-20° 27' 38.86" / -41° 50' 14.70"
	Parque Serra Do Brigadeiro/MG (PSB)**	10	-20° 41' 01.00" / -42° 26' 41.00"
	Parque Estadual Rio Doce (PRD)**	3	-19° 42' 48.05" / -42° 43' 55.30"
	Parque Estadual Uaimií (PEU)**	17	-20° 14' 57.41" / -43° 34' 16.76"

Legend: Additional dataset from Mangaravite et al. (2016) (*), from Huamán-Mera et al. 2018 (Submitted) (**), and from Huamán-Mera (2014) (unpublis. data) (***).

Total genomic DNA was extracted from dried leaf samples following a protocol described by Mangaravite et al. (2016), but with some modifications that were done in this study (Appendix A). The genomic DNA from each specimen has been archived in the Phylogeography and Molecular Biology laboratory at the Federal University of Viçosa, Brazil.

2.2 Microsatellite analyses

We used a genotyping approach. The genotyping approach was carried out using 11 microsatellite loci: Ced2, Ced18, Ced41, Ced44, Ced54, Ced65, Ced95, Ced131, CF26, CF66A, and CF66B. Each forward primer was labeled with either 6-FAM, HEX (MWG-Biotech, Ebersberg, Germany), or NED (Applied Biosystems, São Paulo, Brazil) fluorescence (Table 2, Figure Supplementary 1). The conditions of the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) used during genotyping were essentially those described previously by Mangaravite et al. (2016) and slightly modified by the authors of this study. We used the following PCR program: 96°C for 2 minutes; 29 cycles of denaturation temperature 94°C for 1 minute, annealing temperature 55°C for 1 minute and extension temperature 72°C for 1 minute; then one cycle of 94°C for 1 minute, 55°C for 1 minute and 72°C for 20 minutes. With this genotyping approach, we obtained 104 microsatellite data for specimens of Cedrela from eight populations: MTC, PER, MAS, PAN1, PAN2, SAB, BR1 and BR2.

Table 2.	Primers	used for	· microsat	ellite ana	lyses, v	with	locus	identificatio	on.
----------	---------	----------	------------	------------	----------	------	-------	---------------	-----

Locus	Primer Sequences (5'→3')	Array	Dye Set	NA	Allele size (pb)	Reference
Ced2	F: TTTGCTTTGAGAAACCTTGT*	(GA) ₂₀	6-FAM	28	131-241	Hernandez, et al. (2008)
	R: AACTTTCGAATTGGTTAAGG					
Ced18	F: CAAAGACCAAGATTTGATGC*	(GA) ₂₃	HEX	22	113-161	Hernandez, et al. (2008)
	R: ACTATGGGTGGCACAACTAC					
Ced41	F: TCATTCTTGGATCCTGCTAT*	$(TC)_{18}$	HEX	22	110-158	Hernandez, et al. (2008)
	R: GTGGGAAAGATTGTGAAGAA					
Ced44	F: ACTCCATTAACTGCCATGAA*	$(TG)_{14}(AG)_{17}$	6-FAM	29	162-224	Hernandez, et al. (2008)
	R: ATTTTCATTCCCTTTTAGCC					
Ced54	F: GATCTCACCCACTTGAAAAA*	$(GA)_{15}(AG)_6G(GA)_5$	6-FAM	17	172-218	Hernandez, et al. (2008)
	R: GCTCATATTTGAGAGGCATT					
Ced65	F: GAGTGAGAAGAAGAATCGTGATAGC*	(GA)7(CA)14	HEX	15	157-193	Hernandez, et al. (2008)
	R: GAGGTTCGATCAGGTCTTGG					
Ced95	F:ATTTTCATTCCCTTTTAGCC*	$(CT)_{17}(AC)_{13}$	NED	27	80-120	Hernandez, et al. (2008)
	R:TTATCATCTCCCTCACTCCA					
Ced131	F: CTCGTAATAATCCCATTCCA*	$(CT)_{16}$	NED	24	66-128	Hernandez, et al. (2008)
	R: GGAGATATTTTTGGGGGTTTT					
CF26	F: CCAAATTCCAGAGGAGAG*	$(AG/TC)_{13}$	6-FAM	26	139-187	Gandara (2009)
	R: GTTCTGCTTCATCGAAGG					
CF66A	F: CAGCAGTTCTGAAACAGTAA*	$(AG/TC)_{13}$	6-FAM	28	113-175	Gandara (2009)
	R: ATTCAGCAACTTGAGAGC					
CF66B	F: CAGCAGTTCTGAAACAGTAA*	$(AG/TC)_{13}$	6-FAM	23	199-253	Gandara (2009)
	R: ATTCAGCAACTTGAGAGC					

Note: (*) show primers fluorescently labeling. NA, number of alleles per locus, bp, base pairs

Raw microsatellite data from present study were combined with raw data that had been obtained for C. fissilis: 76 specimens from four populations of the Chiquitano range (ALT, FIG, TOC, and POC), 64 specimens from five populations from central Brazil (ITA, JAN, COR, CAT and UBE), and 139 specimens from nine populations of the Atlantic range (BLU, CAM, CAP, PAL, DIA, PRD, PEU, PSB, and MDP) (Mangaravite et al., 2016; Huamán-Mera et al., submitted); also were combined with raw data previously obtained for C. brachystachya: 24 specimens from ANA population of central Brazil (Huamán-Mera et al., submitted) and raw data obtained for Cedrela spp.: 83 specimens from eight populations from central Brazil (HD1, HD2, HD3, CEC, FR1, FR2, OUR, PRN) (Huamán-Mera, 2014). The sizes of population samples varied from 4 to 36 (Table 1). Those additional specimens from both previous studies had been genotyped with the same 11 microsatellite loci; thus, the two datasets could be combined for a joint analysis. In the combined dataset, the fragments were scored using GeneMapper version 4.0 (Applied Biosystems, São Paulo, Brazil).

We used the total 490 specimens of Cedrela. Then, the Bayesian clustering approach of Structure, version 2.3.4 (Pritchard et al., 2000; Hubisz et al., 2009) inferred the number of Bayesian groups using the Monte Carlo Markov Chain (MCMC) approach. We set runs with a burn-in period of 250,000 steps followed by 750,000 steps, with 15 independent replications. In Structure, we set K from 1–15, following previous study Huamán-Mera et al. (submitted). We used the ΔK method of Evanno et al. (2005), as implemented in Structure Harvester (Earl and VonHoldt, 2011) to find the best K (the number of Bayesian groups that best fit the data). Then, we used the software Clumpp (Jakobsson and Rosenberg, 2007) to converge the data of the 15 interactions in the best K and the software Distruct (Rosenberg, 2004) to graphically display the results. For each population, we followed Mangaravite et al. (2016) and summed the membership coefficients for all samples to obtain a diagram depicting the relative contribution of each Bayesian group we had found (best K).

2.3 cpDNA and ITS datasets Sequencing

The previous microsatellite analyses showed clearly strong different genetic groups among the populations of Cedrela in central Brazil. With this previous result, we carried out properly phylogenetic analysis. We conducted Polymerase chain reactions (PCR) and DNA sequencing using methods and primers described in Garcia et al. (2011). We sequenced from the chloroplast genome (cpDNA) the following four gene regions: AB (the intergenic spacer between trnT and the 5' exon of trnL), CD (the intron of trnL), SG (the trnS-trnG intergenic spacer), and BF (the psbB-psbT-psbN genes) (Taberlet et al., 1991; Hamilton, 1999). From the nuclear genome, we sequenced the entire internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region of the nuclear 18S-26S ribosomal RNA genes, which included the 5.8S ribosomal gene. PCR primer sequences used to amplify these genes are shown in Table 3.

Finally we used the BLAST tool (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) to compare the identity of sequences of present study with those deposited in the Genbank for Cedrela.

Target region	Primer pairs	Ta (°C)	Amplicon size (bp)	Reference
ITS	ITS4 (5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3'	58	644	White et al. 1990
	ITS.LEU (5'-GTCCACTGAACCTTATCATTTAG-3')			Baum et al. 1998
trnS-G	trnS (5'-GCCGCTTTAGTCCACTCAGC-3')	54	716	Hamilton 1999
	trnG (5'-GAACGAATCACACTTTTACCAC-3')			Hamilton 1999
psbB-T-N	psbB (5'-GTTTACTTTTGGGCATGCTTCG-3')	54	684	Hamilton 1999
	psbF (5'-CGCAGTTCGTCTTGGACCAG-3')			Hamilton 1999
trnT-L	A2 (5'-CAAATGCGATGCTCTAACCT-3')	58	918	Cronn et al. 2002
	Ac (5'-CGTAGCGTCTACCGATTTCG-3')			Taberlet et al. 1991
	C (5'-CGAAATCGGTAGACGCTACG-3')	59	598	Taberlet et al. 1991
	D (5'-GGGGATAGAGGGACTTGAAC-3'			Taberlet et al. 1991

Table 3. PCR primers with oligonucleotide sequences, optimal annealing temperatures, and expected amplicon sizes.

2.4 Supplementary information from GenBank

To we can infer the phylogenetic relationships of Cedrela from central Brazil and congeners, we supplemented our set of sequences with 20 additionally sequences available from the GenBank to represent 12 congeners that were sampled across the genus. Those sequences represented information from: (a) the two previously genealogical lineages of C. fissilis found in Brazil; (b) one species from the central Brazil: Cedrela brachystachya; (c) two species from the Argentinian Yungas: Cedrela saltensis and C. balansae; (d) two species from the southern Peruvian Andes: C. weberbaueri, C. angustifolia; (e) three species from the northern Peruvian Andes: C. nebulosa, C. kuelapensis, C. molinensis; (f) two species from the Ecuadorian Andes: C. montana and C. odorata; and (g) C. tonduzii from Costa Rica Table 4.

fable 4. Taxa, codes, origins, and GenBar	k accession numbers for specimens	used in phylogenetic analyses.
---	-----------------------------------	--------------------------------

Taxon	Code	Origen	GenBank Accessions				
		-	ITS	trnS-G	psbB-T-N	trnT-L	
Cedrela balansae C.DC	-	Argentina	FJ462473				
Cedrela balansae C.DC	-	Paraguay	FJ462474				
Cedrela balansae C.DC	CBRS2	Argentina		KT384358	KT384361	KT384356	
Cedrela brachystachya (C.DC.) C.DC.	1123	Brazil	KT316318	KT316295	KT369046	KT310249	
Cedrela brachystachya (C.DC.) C.DC.	1126	Brazil	KT316319	KT316296	KT369047	KT310250	
Cedrela brachystachya (C.DC.) C.DC.	1145	Brazil	KT316325	KT316302	KT369053	KT310256	
Cedrela brachystachya (C.DC.) C.DC.	1170	Brazil	KT316331	KT316308	KT369059	KT310262	
Cedrela brachystachya (C.DC.) C.DC.	1185	Brazil	KT316335	KT316311	KT369062	KT310265	
Cedrela fissilis Vell	AFL28	Brazil	KT316337	KT316312	KT369063	KT310266	
Cedrela fissilis Vell	CMO296	Brazil	KT316338	KT316313	KT369064	KT310267	
Cedrela fissilis Vell	RBR423	Brazil	KT316340	KT316315	KT369066	KT310269	
Cedrela fissilis Vell	VIC_177	Brazil	JF922199	JF922266	JF922162	JF922135	
Cedrela fissilis Vell	VNI_37	Brazil	JF922184	JF922262	JF922158	JF922131	
Cedrela fissilis Vell	PLA_277	Brazil	JF922179	JF922282	JF922179	JF922152	
Cedrela fissilis Vell	COL_268	Brazil	JF922233				
Cedrela fissilis Vell	SMA73	Brazil	JF922213				
Cedrela kuelapensis T.D. Penn. & A. Daza		Peru	FJ462469				
Cedrela angustifolia DC.		Peru	FJ462479				
Cedrela molinensis T.D. Penn. & Reynel		Peru	FJ462465				
Cedrela montana Moritz ex Turczaninov	MN3	Ecuador	KT316339	KT316314	KT369065	KT310268	
Cedrela nebulosa T.D. Penn. & A. Daza		Peru	FJ462460				
Cedrela odorata L.		Ecuador	FJ462464				
Cedrela saltensis Zapater & del Castillo	SSA8	Argentina	FJ462462				
Cedrela weberbaueri Harms		Peru	FJ462472				
Cedrela tonduzii C.DC.		Costa Rica	FJ462485				
Toona ciliata		Australia	FJ462488				

2.5 Bayesian phylogenetic analyses

To develop this part of our study we used the previous information generated in microsatellite analysis. We chose appropriate number of sequences for each different group generated in previous microsatellite analysis. So, two distinct datasets were assembled to carry out Bayesian phylogenetic analyses. Dataset A (N=86; 652pb) contained sequences of the ITS region only, while dataset B (N=71; 2922 pb) consisted of the concatenation of four gene regions (AB, CD, SG, and BF) of the cpDNA. Each dataset was input independently to the software MRMODELTEST v2.3 (Nylander, 2004). The Akaike Information Criterion indicated HKY+I+G (for dataset A) and GTR+I+G (for dataset B) as the best fit models among the 24 models of molecular evolution. For each dataset, Bayesian analyses were performed in MRBAYES v3.1.2 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003). The ITS dataset and the cpDNA dataset had Toona ciliata and Cedrela tonduzi as outgroups, respectively. Each analysis was carried out using two simultaneous runs of five million generations each, with one cold and three heated chains in each run; average standard deviation of split frequencies at the end of each run was near 0.01; trees were sampled once every 1,000 generations; the first 250 trees were discarded as burn-in samples. For each dataset, a 50%-majority-rule consensus tree of the two independent runs was obtained with posterior probabilities that were equal to bipartition frequencies. Final trees were visualized and edited for publication with the help of the program FigTree (Rambaut, 2009).

2.6 Divergence dating

To estimate the time of divergence among the different genetic groups of Cedrela in Brazil, we used the relaxed clock method as implemented in BEAST v1.8.4 (Drummond and Rambaut, 2007). The BEAST analysis assumes evolutionary models and for chose the best evolutionary model we followed as implemented by Garcia et al. 2011. For unrevealing the position in the phylogeny of Cedrela of our different genetic groups, we merged part of our data (ITS dataset A) with interspecific data from Genbank accessions (Appendix B). We chose one sequence for each different genetic group, one sequence for Cedrela brachystachya, and four sequences from congeners obtained in this study (Cedrela angustifolia, C. kuelapensis, C. molinensis and C. montana). Then, we combined our data with the ITS dataset of Cedrela congeners. Our final dataset used in BEAST analyses contained a total of 36 sequences: 34 for the tribe Cedreleae (31 sequences of Cedrela and three of Toona) and one sequence of each of the two outgroups, Khaya anthotheca and Swietenia macrophylla. The Akaike Information Criteria (Akaike, 1973) in MrModeltest 2.3 (Nylander, 2004) indicated GTR+I+G to be the best-fit model of molecular evolution. We performed in BEAUTi v1.8.4 software (Drummond and Rambaut, 2007) the conversion of nexus file obtained previously from our ITS data into *xml input file used in BEAST. For BEAUTi parameters we followed as Garcia et al. (2011), the molecular clock model was chosen the uncorrelated log-normal relaxed clock option. Yule process speciation was used as the tree prior. We calibrated the BEAST analysis with the following normally distributed priors: the date of the most recent common ancestor (MRCA) of Cedreleae was set to 48.6 million years ago (Mya) (Reid and Chandler 1933; Chandler 1964), with an SD of 1; the date of the MRCA of Cedrela set to 33.62 Mya (Meyer and Manchester, 1997), with an SD of 1; and the date of the MRCA of Khaya and Swietenia was set to 22.5 Mya (Castañeda-Posadas and Cevallos-Ferriz, 2007), with an SD of 1. The analysis was run for 10 million generations, with samples taken every 2000 generations. These settings ensured that both model parameters and time estimates were sampled adequately (Effective Sample Size, ESS, values were well above 500 for all statistics in Tracer 1.5).

2.7 Species Distribution Modeling (SDM)

Additionally, we carried out species distribution models (SDMs) analyses for different groups of genus Cedrela in central Brazil. We use occurrences of Cedrela across central Brazil. Some of those occurrences were obtained in present study and others took from Huamán-Mera (2014). At least five to ten points are enough to predict a SDM in MAXENT when dealing with small sites occurrences (Hernandez et al., 2006). Then we built models of distribution for current conditions (0 kya pre-industrial), midHolocene (6 kyr BP), LGM (21 kyr BP), and Last Interglacial (LIG, 120-140 kyr BP) periods.

The suitable areas for the current potential distribution were modeled with Maxent v.3.4.1 (Phillips and Dudik, 2008). Environmental data were obtained for all geographical coordinates (19 standard BIOCLIM variables; Hijmans et al., 2005). We used climatic layers with a resolution of 30s (1 km spatial resolution) and cropped to the range of Brazil. To avoid overparameterization of SDM due to redundant variables (Dormann et al., 2013), the correlations between bioclimatic variables were assessed and those with presumed reduced biological relevance (r>.9) (Werneck et al., 2012; Bueno et al., 2017). Palaeoclimatic data represent downscaled climate data from simulations with Global Climate Models (GCMs)
based on the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5; Taylor et al., 2012). For the LIG model, the Otto-Bliesner et al. (2006) approach was used, and for LGM and Holocene, the Community Climate System Model—CCSM4 was employed (Gent et al., 2011). All geographic information system (GIS) analyses were performed in ArcGIS v.10 (ESRI, 2011). All bioclimatic layers are available in the WorldClim website (www.worldclim.org). The final selected variables were 13 (TableS2).

The models were evaluated randomly separating the occurrence points into training (75% of data) and testing (25% of data) data sets and then constructed each model ten times and averaged the output to produce the final results. Then we performed an analysis that evaluates the performance of the model using a single value, the area under the curve (AUC) (Phillips et al., 2006).

To infer potential areas of climatic stability for each of the four groups of Cedrela from central Brazil during the Quaternary, the four climatic projections were summed using the raster calculator tool in ArcGIS v.10 (ESRI, 2011) and then the resulting layer was reclassified to show only the areas of high ecological stability. These combined maps depicted historically stable areas, which we considered to be potential refugia.

III. RESULTS

3.1 Analyses of microsatellite loci

We assessed the Bayesian analysis of population structure and it showed the presence of six genetically different groups (best K=6) (Figure 2). Two groups split according to the geographic placement previously known as East lineage or Chiquitano range (green in color) and West lineage or Atlantic range (blue in color) (Garcia et al., 2011). The remaining four outstanding groups were denominated as follow: the red group corresponded to Cedrela brachystachya samples, an ecologically specialized and taxonomically revalidated species of Cedrela from upper Parana River Basin (Anaurilândia/MG, ANA) (Huamán-Mera et al., submitted). In present study, we discovered more places of distribution for this species (Populations FR1, BR1 and BR2), afterwards we denominated as "Cedrinho" group. The yellow group corresponded to populations distributed in a place that we denominated as "Hidroelétrica" group with three populations (HD1, HD2 and HD3). The orange group was denominated as "Iturama" group; this group has two populations (Paranaíba/MS, PRN and Ouro Este/SP, OES). The populations PRN and OES showed individuals with only admixture genetic information from the others groups, just a bit more than 50% of individuals showed an

assignment proportion over 98% of the genetic information of the orange group strictu sensu. The last genetic group, the purple group, had populations located in Northern Minas Gerais state so we denominated as "Norminas" group. The populations that grouped inside this group were JAN, MTC, PER, MAS, PA1, PA2 and SAB. With our new microsatellite data we covered a larger sampling area and we established the current bordering of Cedrela groups within central Brazil.

All populations of the six lineages sharing genetic information among them, they showed high assignment proportion in each peculiar population. For instance, the four populations from Chiquitano range showed an assignment proportion over 86% in the first group, depicted in green, and the remaining 14% was sharing among red, yellow, orange, purple and blue lineages; the nine populations from Atlantic range showed an assignment proportion over 81% in the second group, depicted in blue, and over 18% of assignment proportion was sharing in red, yellow, orange, purple and green groups (Figure 2 B and C). In the other hand, in central Brazil, we observed the four remaining groups highly structured and others populations sharing proportional genetic information from all the six groups found in present study. For instance, the four populations (ANA, FR1, BR1 & BR2) from "Cedrinho" group showed an assignment proportion over 96.7%, depicted in red, and the remaining 3.3% was sharing among the other groups. The three populations (HD1, HD2 & HD3) from "Hidroelétrica" group showed an assignment proportion 88%, depicted in yellow, and the remaining 12% was sharing among the other groups. The "Iturama" group is compound by individuals inside the populations PRN and OES, this group is compound by 33 individuals, but only 17 individuals formed the fifth group, ten individuals in PRN population and seven individuals in OES population. The 17 individuals joined together showed an assignment proportion over 95%, depicted in orange, and the remaining 5% was sharing among blue, green and yellow groups. The remaining 16 individuals of the Iturama group showed admixture assignment proportion from the other groups. The seven populations from the "Norminas" group showed an assignment proportion over 88%, depicted in purple, and the remaining 12% was sharing among the other five groups. Moreover, in the central range, we observed populations sharing proportional genetic information from the two major groups (Chiquitano and Atlantic), six populations (CEC, FR2, COR, CAT, UBE & ITA) showed over 31.6% of assignment proportion corresponding to Chiquitano range information and over 50.5% corresponding to Atlantic lineage information, the remaining 17.9% of assignment proportion corresponding to the others groups (red, yellow, orange and purple in color). Finally, we found less proportion of genetic signature of each four groups in all populations of present study, for instance, the less proportion of genetic signature of "Cedrinho" group in the remaining populations ranged from 0.2% (MTC) to 10% (CAT) of assignment proportion, the less proportion of genetic signature of "Hidroelétrica" group in the other populations ranged from 0.4% (FR1 and BR1) to 11% (CEC and PSB), the less proportion of genetic signature of "Iturama" group in the other populations ranged from 0.4% (HD3, BR2, MTC, PA1) to 18% (CEC) and the less proportion of genetic signature of "Norminas" group in the other populations ranged from 0.3% (ANA) to 12% (BLU).



Figure 2. Clustering analyses and the geographic distribution of populations of Cedrela. (A) The best K (K=6) was calculated according to the ΔK method (Evanno et al. 2005). (B) Plot of the clustering analysis in the STRUCTURE software (Pritchard et al. 2000), showing the two lineages of Cedrela fissilis (west lineage, green; east lineage, blue), the population ANA that belongs to Cedrela brachystachya (coded red) plus the populations FR1, BR1, and BR2 that depicted in coded red also, the lineage Hidroelétrica (coded Yellow), the lineage Iturama (coded Orange), and the lineage Norminas (coded puple). Along the x-axis, each vertical bar represents a sampled individual; along the y-axis, membership coefficient of a sample for a lineage represents the fraction of its genome that has ancestry in that lineage. (C) The geographical origin of each population and lineage contribution to contemporary gene pools. Each pie diagram represents the sum of membership coefficients for all samples from that population. Circle size is proportional to population sizes. (Refer to Figure 1 and Table 1 for population codes).

3.2 Bayesian phylogenetic analyses

We obtained 88 sequences from the specimens distributed along central Brazil and use to evaluate phylogenetic relationships. For ITS region, we obtained 17 sequences from the "Cedrinho" group, four sequences from the "Hidroelétrica" group, five sequences from the "Iturama" group, and 17 sequences from the "Norminas" group. For cpDNA dataset, we obtained 15 sequences from the "Cedrinho" group, five sequences from the "Hidroelétrica" group, five sequences from the "Hidroelétrica" group, five sequences from the "Iturama" group, and 20 sequences from the "Norminas" group. Also we obtained 30 sequences for four species of Cedrela from the northern and southern Peruvian Andes. 19 ITS sequences for: (a) six specimens of Cedrela angustifolia; (b) three specimens of C. montana (Table 4). And 11 cpDNA dataset sequences for the same four species of Cedrela described above: (a) two specimens of Cedrela angustifolia; (b) two specimens of C. kuelapensis; (c) one specimens of C. molinensis and (d) six specimens of C. montana.

We recovered Bayesian phylogenetic trees for Cedrela from central Brazil (Figure 3, for the ITS region; Figure 4 for the cpDNA dataset) that showed both well-supported nodes (PP >90% on most of the nodes). The Bayesian tree for the ITS region (Figure 3) split Toona ciliata from Cedrela; within Cedrela, C. tonduzii (from Central America distribution) and C. angustifolia and C. montana (from Northern South America distribution) occupied the most basal positions. The "Cedrinho" group formed, all 17 specimens, a tip clade together with ITS sequences of Cedrela brachystachya (PP= 100%), this was not a surprise because our BLAST analysis showed an identity of 100% with accessions range from KT316316 to KT316336, which belong to Cedrela brachystachya (Huamán-Mera et al., submitted), also the "Cedrinho group" grouped together with C. saltensis, C. nebulosa, and C odorata to form a highly supported sub-clade (PP=100%). The "Iturama" group grouped with sequences of C. fissilis from Atlantic range (Accessions CMO_296 and SMA73) and C. balansae from Argentina and Paraguay to form a well-supported sub-clade (PP=100%). Our BLAST analysis showed an identity of 99% with Genbank accessions of C. fissilis, KT316338 and C. balansae, FJ462473. All four specimens of "Iturama" group formed a tip clade (PP=100%). The Norminas group grouped with the sub-clade formed by specimens of Iturama group, C. fissilis from the Atlantic range (Accessions CMO_296 and SMA73) and C. balansae, a well-supported subclade (PP=98%). Our BLAST analysis showed an identity of 99% with Genbank accessions of C. fissilis from Atlantic range such as JF922189 and JF922188. The last group, the

"Hidroelétrica" group grouped together with specimens of C. fissilis from Chiquitano range to form a well-supported sub-clade (PP=99%). Our BLAST analysis showed an identity of 99% with accessions of C. fissilis such as JF922245 or JF922241.



Figure 3. Bayesian phylogeny (consensus tree) resulting from the ITS dataset, showing the relationships between the four new groups of Cedrela from central Brazil and 12 congeners, with Toona ciliata used as outgroup. Also we are included new sequences of Andean Cedrela (Cedrela angustifolia, C. kuelapensis, C. molinensis, and C. montana). Branch lengths are drawn to scale; nodal support values are given as posterior probabilities (%) above the branches (when > 80%). Scale bar corresponds to the expected number of substitutions per site. See Table 4 for the additional information about the accession numbers.

The Bayesian tree based on cpDNA dataset (Figure 4) exhibited additional details about the phylogenetic relationships of specimens of different genetic groups of Cedrela from central Brazil and its congeners. Specimens from the "Cedrinho" group grouped in different clades, but the groups that formed were from the same geographic distribution. For instance, specimens from FR1 population formed a sub-clade with the sub-clade where two specimens of C. brachystachya (1123 and 1126) and at the same time these two sub-clades formed other sub-clade related to specimens of C. fissilis from Chiquitano range. On the other hand specimens of BR1 and BR2 populations grouped in the clade where specimens of Iturama group formed a sub-clade. Others specimens of C. brachystachya (1145, 1170 and 1185) grouped together with C. balansae and C. saltensis. Specimens of "Hidroelétrica" group formed a tip clade and were related to specimens of FR1 population from the "Cedrinho" group. They altogether formed a sub-clade which was related to specimens of C. brachystachya (1123 and 1126). Specimens of "Iturama" group, mentioned above, formed a sub-clade related to specimens of BR1 and BR2 populations. Specimens of the last group "Norminas" group grouped all together and formed a sub-clade with the sub-clade formed between specimens of BR1 and BR2 and specimens of "Iturama" group.



Figure 4. Bayesian phylogeny (consensus tree) resulting from the cpDNA dataset, showing the relationships between the four new groups of Cedrela from central Brazil and 9 congeners, with Cedrela tonduzii used as outgroup. Also we are included new sequences of Andean Cedrela (Cedrela angustifolia, C. kuelapensis, C. molinensis, and C. montana). Branch lengths are drawn to scale; nodal support values are given as posterior probabilities (%) above the branches (when > 80%). Scale bar corresponds to the expected number of substitutions per site. See Table 4 for the additional information about the accession numbers.

3.3 Estimated date of divergence

The BEAST analysis output a maximum clade credibility tree (Figure 5). We chose five sequences from our new different groups (BR1_2000 and C. brachystachya 1145 from the "Cedrinho" group; HD-30H from the "Hidroelétrica" group; OUR_742 from the "Iturama" group; and PA1_2249 from the "Norminas" group) for BEAST analysis, which were more representative among all sequences. The BEAST analysis grouped the sequences of Cedrela species into seven greatest groups, two Central America clades and five South America clades. Current distribution of South America clades ranges randomly from Andes in the West to Atlantic forest in the East. Also our maximum clade credibility tree showed an important clade, the denominated Cedrela fissilis-Cedrela odorata crown (PP = 100%). These major crown split into two minor Crowns, the Cedrela odorata crown and the Cedrela fissilis crown, and its divergence time took place about 22.4 Mya. The divergence time for Cedrela odorata crown took place about 19.6 Mya and is compound by sequences of Cedrela species with current different geographic distribution from Central America to South America, mostly in Andes distribution. The sequences BR1_2000 and FJ316325 that belong to Cedrela brachystachya grouped into the Cedrela odorata crown and formed a strongly supported subclade (PP= 100%) together with C. nebulosa, C. saltensis and C. odorata from Ecuador. The divergence time between the sequence BR1_2000 and C. brachystachya, and congeners from this sub-clade took place about 6.9 Mya. The crown Cedrela fissilis formed a strongly supported sub-clade (PP=97%), its divergence time took place about 14.6 Mya and is compound by sequences of Cedrela species distributed from Amazonian to Atlantic forest, including the Cerrado domain. The sequences PA1_2249, OUR_742 and HD_30 grouped within the crown Cedrela fissilis, in the previously denominated Cedrela fissilis West and East lineages (Garcia et al., 2011), two strongly supported sub-clades (PP = 100%) which divergence time took place about 11.7 Mya. The sequences OUR_742 and PA1_2249 grouped within the East group together with C. fissilis (SMA73) and C. balansae (FJ462473) from Argentina. The sequence PA1_2249 took the basal placement in this sub-clade and its time divergence took place about 5.9 Mya, on the other hand the divergence time of the sequence OUR_742 took place about 2.3 Mya. The sequence HD_30 grouped within the West group together with two sequences of C. fissilis (JF922233 from Brazil and FJ462475 from Peru), the Beast analysis suggested that the divergence time of sequence HD_30 took place about 6.4 Mya.



Figure 5. Maximum clade credibility tree for the nuclear ITS region across Cedrela, estimated with BEAST. GenBank accession numbers are listed in Appendix B; nodal support values are given as posterior probabilities (%) above the branches (shown when >90%). Grey bars at nodes are the 95% highest probability density (HPD) for the age of that node (shown along x axis). Colour code: blue, East group; green, West group; red, Cedrinho group; purple, Norminas group; orange, Iturama group; yellow, Hidroelétrica group. Geographical distribution is as represented only for South America clades. Mean ages in millions of years (Mya) and the corresponding 95% HPD for Cedreleae, Cedrela, Cedrinho group, Norminas group, Iturama group, Hidroelétrica group, and C. fissilis West and East group are as shown.

3.4 Species Distribution Modeling (SDM)

The Species Distribution Modeling (SDM) suggested significant changes in the suitability and distribution ranges of three groups of Cedrela from central Brazil across the Quaternary. The average test AUC (Area Under the receiver operating Curve) values of the models were above 0.9, so the quality of the models showed that samples and background predictions generated by MaxEnt were in agreement. We considered records for the "Cedrinho" group and C. brachystachya as the same group (24 occurrences in total), for the "Hidroelétrica" group (29 occurrences), for the "Iturama" group (16 occurrences), and for the "Norminas" group (103 occurrences).

The dynamic of niche displacements are related to expansions and contractions of niche distribution for each of the new four groups of Cedrela from central Brazil. Thus, the maximum contraction for "Cedrinho" group occurred during the warm periods, in the LIG and Current periods (Figure 6A & 6D). During the LIG the distribution of "Cedrinho" group almost disappeared when compare with the distribution of Current period; it would be considering a partial retraction. In contrast, the models suggest important expansions of the distribution of "Cedrinho" group during the LGM and Mid-Hol (Figure 6B and 6C). This expansion would have reached new populations of "Cedrinho" group discovered in present study, such as FR1, BR1 and BR2 populations. The dynamic contraction-expansions of "Cedrinho" group distribution across Quaternary are mostly restricted to central-southern Cerrado biome. The raster calculator tool of ArcGis software predicted the isolated and climatically stable areas with high suitability for "Cedrinho" group which showed until three multiple potential refugia for this species. The three refugia are: Central-southern Cerrado; near Pantanal Biome; and west-Northern Bahia state inside Caatinga Biome. The most important was the first area because showed a considerable geographic extension (Figure 10A).

Thee Hidroelétrica group, exhibited gradually retraction of its current distribution to LIG period and also displacement from current position in central Brazil to west until reach the southern Pantanal biome in Brazil (Figure 7 A-D). The raster calculator tool of ArcGis software displayed two potential refugia for Hidroelétrica group, one in central-Southern Cerrado biome and this overlapped with one of the three potencial refugia of "Cedrinho" group. The last one is located in the Southern Pantanal Biome in border with Paraguay country (Figure 10B).



Figure 6. Predicted occupancy of suitable areas of "Cedrinho" group in central Brazil during past and current environmental conditions: A. the Last Interglacial (LIG, 120–140 kya BP); B. the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, 21 kya BP); C. the Mid-Holocene (6 kya BP); and under Current climate (0 kya, pre-industrial)]. Predictions were based on ecological niche models of climatic preferences using the MaxEnt algorithm (Phillips et al. 2006). Black lines represent the borders of Brazilian states. With more quantity of occurrences, the model exhibited similar occupancy to previous study (Huamán-Mera et al. Submitted)



Figure 7. Predicted occupancy of suitable areas of "Hidrolétrica" group in central Brazil during past and current environmental conditions: A. the Last Interglacial (LIG, 120–140 kya BP); B. the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, 21 kya BP); C. the Mid-Holocene (6 kya BP); and under Current climate (0 kya, pre-industrial)]. Predictions were based on ecological niche models of climatic preferences using the MaxEnt algorithm (Phillips et al. 2006). Black lines represent the borders of Brazilian states.

The "Iturama" group, showed the maximum coverage of distribution in the current period in contrast with the periods in the past. In the past, the distribution of Iturama group exhibited a reduction in the LIG period, in this period the niche disappeared completely if we compared with the more recent periods. In the LIG period only a reduced area was observed in Northeastern Brazil (Figure 8 A-D). The raster calculator tool of ArcGis software displayed a large potential refugium for Iturama group and a small refugium distributed surrounded the large. The large potential refugium is located in the Southeastern Brazil in the border of Sao Paulo state with Mato Grosso do Sul, Parana and Minas Gerais states (Figure 10C).

The "Norminas" group exhibited an interested dynamic of distribution across Quaternary. For instance; in current period the population of "Norminas" group showed a restricted distribution and limited to the geographic coordinates taken in our fieldwork (Figure 9D); in past periods such as Holocene and LGM, the distribution of "Norminas" group displayed an increase of the area of geographic distribution (Figure 9 B-C), even the distribution also displaced to Northeastern Brazil in smaller proportion. The most interesting situation occurred when the MaxEnt software modeled the LIG period, the distribution of "Norminas" group was totally displacement from current geographic distribution to the Northeastern Brazil. In the LIG period the geographic distribution was displacement and restricted to Piauí, Ceará, Rio Grande do Norte and Paraíba states in Brazil. The current geographic circumscription of "Norminas" group was totally absent in LIG period (Figure 9A). However the raster calculator tool performed in ArcGis software displayed one potential refugium for "Norminas" group, which is limited to its current distribution, in Northern Minas Gerais State in Brazil and always associated to Sao Francisco River (Figure 10D).

It is important to notice that the dynamics of distribution of Cedrela from central Brazil during Quaternary are strictly related to the Parana River Basin and Sao Francisco River Basin, in this point specifically related to Pandeiros and Peruacu rivers.



Figure 8. Predicted occupancy of suitable areas of "Iturama" group in central Brazil during past and current environmental conditions: A. the Last Interglacial (LIG, 120–140 kya BP); B. the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, 21 kya BP); C. the Mid-Holocene (6 kya BP); and under Current climate (0 kya, pre-industrial)]. Predictions were based on ecological niche models of climatic preferences using the MaxEnt algorithm (Phillips et al. 2006). Black lines represent the borders of Brazilian states.



Figure 9. Predicted occupancy of suitable areas of "Norminas" group in central Brazil during past and current environmental conditions: A. the Last Interglacial (LIG, 120–140 kya BP); B. the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, 21 kya BP); C. the Mid-Holocene (6 kya BP); and under Current climate (0 kya, pre-industrial)]. Predictions were based on ecological niche models of climatic preferences using the MaxEnt algorithm (Phillips et al. 2006). Black lines represent the borders of Brazilian states.



Figure 10. Predicted regions of historical climatic stability for the fourth groups of genus Cedrela in the central Brazil across the Quaternary, based on summing the predicted occupancy of suitable areas of the fourth groups. Maps are given for (A) the Cedrinho group, (B) the Hidrolétrica group, (C) the Iturama group, and (D) the Norminas group. Areas in red are those where the groups of Cedrela are predicted to occur at all four time periods, and represent postulated refugial areas. Black lines represent the borders of current Brazilian states.

IV. DISCUSSION

4.1 New lineages restricted to central Brazil

This study investigated restricted populations of Cedrela, which are located within riverine forests such as gallery forests, ecotonal areas (Atlantic forest, Cerrado, and Caatinga) and wetland environments, all of them kind of semidecidual forests that are located towards central Brazil. In previous studies developed by Garcia et al. 2011 and Mangaravite et al. 2016 raised an initial hypothesis by which populations of Cedrela distributed in small blocks of seasonal forest within central Brazil would exhibit only hybrid individuals. These hybrid individuals would be grouped into small blocks that would be product of the admixture of historical events of reconnection of both West and East lineages of C. fissilis. However our results suggested that the small blocks of seasonal forests assembled in riverine forests sheltered populations with different genetic pools from C. fissilis lineages. There also were individuals which were product of the admixture of both West and East lineages of C. fissilis. We unrevealed three new lineages of Cedrela and in addition we discovered more populations of the previous revalidated Cedrela brachysthacya (Huamán-Mera et al., Submitted), all of them from central Brazil (Figure 1 and 2).

4.2 Different historical origins of lineages of Cedrela

The time of divergence of species of Cedrela was annotated in the Oligocene/Early Miocene with and intensification in the Late Miocene and Early Pliocene (Pennington and Muellner, 2010; Muellner et al., 2009). In Brazil, the time of divergence of Cedrela fissilis into West and East lineages took place about 10 Mya (Late Miocene/Early Pliocene), this overlaps with the historical period in which the diversification of Cedrela intensified (Muellner et al., 2009; García et al., 2011). But, it would probably have two different historical events had driven this diversification of Cedrela in Neotropics. The first one, the influence of the Andes uplift would be directly the responsible for the diversification of Cedrela in Cedrela in Central America and northern South America. Diverse effects of the Andes uplift such as – source of new high-elevation habitats, a vicariate barrier or as generator of new environmental conditions – was involved in Cedrela diversification and was demonstrated in significant previous studies with others genera (Antonelli et al., 2006; Pennington et al., 2010; Antonelli and Sanmartín, 2011; Luebert and Weigend, 2014). The second one, the

combinations of both the Andes uplift and the climatic fluctuations of the Neogene would be responsible for the split of C. fissilis into West and East groups. When central Brazil became drier and cooler the xeric vegetation began dominating the landscapes and the widespread seasonal forests were restricted to alongside current-like Cerrado and within them populations of C. fissilis which would have diverged (Wolfe, 1971; Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger, 2009). It is in this second scenario that present new lineages discovered in central Brazil fit in. The time of divergence of new lineages of Cedrela from central Brazil (Figure 5), match with the hypothesis of intensification of divergence of Neotropical Cedrela of Muellner et al. (2009) and it is likely that sympatric speciation forces were linked to the divergences of Cedrela in central Brazil (Gastauer et al., 2015).

4.3 Recent wave of colonization of Cedrela brachystachya in central Brazilian plateau

A recent study focused on the ecological specialization of a riparian species, Cedrela brachystachya, turned special attention on the mechanisms of speciation during historical climatic fluctuations of the Quaternary and additionally it was unrevealed the restricted distribution of C. brachystachya (Huamán-Mera et al., Submitted). However in present study we unrevealed that currently the population ANA which belongs to C. brachystachya (Huamán-Mera et al., Submitted) grouped together with populations such as FR1, BR1, and BR2 in microsatellite analysis (Figure 2, see Table 1 for name population). There is also a morphological correspondence among them (See chapter II). The populations FR1, BR1, and BR2 are geographically so distant from population ANA, but all together grouped. No other populations grouped together with these populations spite of we sampled other populations which were geographically located between the populations described above. For instance, ANA and FR1 populations are separated by 200 km, FR1 and BR1-BR2 by 700 km, and ANA and BR1-BR2 by 900 km (Figure 1). It was so surprise to know that the populations BR1 and BR2 settled down in Brasilia DF, in central Brazilian plateau were related to populations ANA and FR1. Moreover, our SDM (Species Distribution Modeling) analysis for the current period showed no niche linkage between populations (Figure 6D). However, when we modeled the past climatic periods we found a recent connection during the Quaternary climatic fluctuations between populations (Figure 6A-C) and it was reflected in the divergence of time between representative individuals of populations ANA and BR1 (~1 Mya B.P.) (Figure 5). Probably populations were connected when the Cerrado biome contracted its niche distribution and allowed the expansion of Seasonal forests in central Brazil (Bueno et al., 2017). Our results agreed with the hypothesis that the Quaternary climatic fluctuations contributed to shaping current distribution of either Neotropical or tropical plant species (Hmeljevski et al., 2017; Buzatti et al., 2017; Ordonez and Svenning, 2017; Liang et al., 2018; Silva et al., 2018). Finally the three populations (FR1, BR1, and BR2) were new records of C. brachystachya in central Brazilian plateau.

4.4 Convergence of hybridization zones of Cedrela fissilis and others Cedrela lineages ranges.

Natural hybridization plays an important role in the evolution of many taxonomic groups. In presence of historical events such as climatic fluctuations, the mechanism how natural hybridization acted is by the creation of recombinants from interspecific mating between divergent parental taxa when they come into geographic contact (Soltis and Soltis 2009; Whitney et al., 2010; Taylor et al., 2015). As a previous study exhibited, there are some small blocks of neotropical seasonal forest within central Brazil where some populations would detain gene pools entirely from parental source of both West and East ranges of C. fissilis by which they form hibridization zones of C. fissilis (Garcia et al., 2011; Mangaravite et al., 2016; Oliveira et al., Submitted) identified three possible locals of hybridization for Cedrela in Brazil. The possible admixture took place when both lineages of C. fissilis reconnected likely when the contraction of the Cerrado occurred and seasonal forests expanded reconnecting both Amazon and Atlantic forests during the Quaternary climatic fluctuations (Garcia et al., 2011; Sobral-Souza et al., 2015; Mangaravite et al., 2016; Bueno et al., 2017; Buzatti et al., 2017). Our results suggested that there is a convergence of admixture of gene pools within the individuals regardless of their grouping in populations in central Brazil. In most cases, individuals detained the most proportion assignment of both lineages of C. fissilis in the same individual (Hybrid individuals from populations COR, CAT, UBE, ITA, FR2) and in less proportion the remaining four lineages in other cases (Figure 2). In this geographical scenario we found the four new lineages converging together with hybrid individuals. Moreover the populations of the novel lineages existed long time ago in the geological time in this geographical scenario (Figure 5). On the contrary the zones where we found hybrid individual of C. fissilis probably allowed the reconnections of populations from the West and East group which joined in a common point of central Brazil in a recent past from nowadays (Figure 1 and 5). On the other hand the quaternary climatic fluctuations did not alter the genetic signature of C. brachystachya because of conservatism of niche which maintained its crucial

and current characteristics. C. brachystachya could develop an ecological specialization to different and antagonistic environments which is surrounded by a big one (Huamán-Mera et al. (Submitted). This fact had completed millions years ago before the onset of the climatic fluctuations of the Quaternary period (Figure 5) (Wiens et al., 2010).

4.5 Displacement of niche of the Lineage from Northern Minas Gerais

In a previous study a population with 18 individuals randomly sampled from blend of ecosystems of Northern Minas Gerais and denominated as "Pandeiros" (PAN) exhibited a different genealogical placement of what was expected. It did not fit within the genetic variation expected for either the east lineage or the west lineage of C. fissilis (Días-Soto et al., 2018). With that premise we increased the sample size for Northern Minas Gerais areas (Figure 1) and confirmed the different genealogical placement established previously ((Días-Soto et al., 2018). As well as our results of molecular data, our SDM analysis showed unexpected outcomes contrary to the others lineages of Cedrela from central Brazil. Lineage "Norminas" exhibited a displacement of niche throughout the Quaternary climatic fluctuations (Figure 12 A-D). This event was not observed in the SDM analysis of others lineages. The niche of "Norminas" displaced from Northeast in the LIG period (Figure 12A) to Southwest until reach the Current period (Figure 12D), though the stable climatic areas for "Norminas" lineage remained established within the current distribution (Figure 13). Probably the niche behaved like this because of the displacement of largest biomes such as the Atlantic forest Cerrado and Caatinga at the same time what Quaternary climatic oscillations beginning (Carnaval and Moritz, 2008; Bueno et al., 2017; Kock et al., 2017). The initial hypothesis about the presence of hybrid zones product of the admixture of both west and East lineages of C. fissilis within small blocks of seasonal forest in central Brazil (Garcia et al., 2011; Mangaravite et al., 2016). It had being extended to the Northeastern Brazil, in states of Paraíba, Pernambuco, and Piauí, where also were identified a hybrid zone of C. fissilis (Oliveira et al., submitted). In the beginning, the presence of this hybrid zone wanted to explain the origin and displacement of "Norminas" lineage, however the event of speciation of this lineage took place in the late Miocene (Figure 5) and not during the quaternary climatic oscillations where Hybrid zone would tale origin (Oliveira et al., submitted).

4.6 Conservation implications of current distribution of Cedrela lineages

Spite of three of four new lineages partakes of current geographic distribution (Figure 6D, 8D, and 10D) they do not share genetic information (Figure 2), as well as with the remaining fourth lineages "Norminas" group (Figure 2 and 9D). Notwithstanding stability of Quaternary climate could supply the accumulation and maintenance of diversity in Cedrela lineages as it happened with other groups (Carnaval et al., 2009, Werneck et al., 2012). The lack of admixture of genetic signatures among new lineages would explain by the different overlapped niche that each lineage developed before the beginning of called climatic stability. In most of lineages, current overlapped distribution would respond to the stability of overlapped niches (Haffer, 1982), which would shape stable areas of distribution of Cedrela throughout Quaternary displacement of central Brazilian vegetation (Bueno et al., 2017). Unfortunately according to our results the SDM climatically stable areas are mostly outside the current Brazilian protected areas (Figures 7, 9, 11, and 13). We identified only some exceptions, for instance in the "Cedrinho" group only the populations BR1 and BR2 are located in the Federal District (at National Park of Brasilia). Other exception is the "Norminas" group from Northern Minas Gerais which most of the populations are located inside protected areas such as Pandeiros River Basin Environmental Preservation Area, Peruaçu Caves National Park, and Mata Seca State Park.

4.7 Morphological correspondence of new Cedrela lineages

The morphological distinction of species in Cedrela is extremely complicated (Muellner et al., 2009). The complete distinction is validated by the analysis of morphological characters that in Cedrela need to be overlapping to reach a valid taxonomical determination (Muellner et al., 2009; Pennington and Muellner, 2010). There are until eight overlapping morphological characters used in Cedrela (see chapter II) (Muellner et al., 2009; Pennington and Muellner, 2010). Although Cedrela fissilis showed cryptic behavior within its populations in both west and east groups (García et al., 2011), the specimens of Cedrela could be treated morphologically with the supporting of molecular resolution and give us a good determination for new taxa within Cedrela. The new lineages have high correspondence between morphology and molecular features and it was represented in the description of new taxa for Cedrela (See chapter II for more information).

V. CONCLUSION

- ✓ The genetic pool that exhibited populations of Cedrela lineages from central Brazil is different and unique. We found three new lineages of Cedrela, and confirmed more populations of Cedrinho group (Cedrela brachystachya) in central Brazilian plateau.
- ✓ There are some geographical sites within riverine forests where some individuals are sharing genetic information with lineages previously studied (Cedrinho, Chiquitano, and Atlantic). Also we showed that there are places in central Brazil that exhibit hybrid zones. Populations of COR, CAT, UBE, and ITA showed individuals with mostly admixture of Chiquitano and Atlantic lineages.
- ✓ Nuclear and Chloroplast sequences suggested that new Cedrela lineages either they originated during independent speciation events or derivate within a phylogenetic cluster. Cedrela brachystachya placed within the crown Cedrela odorata and the remaining three lineages placed within the crown Cedrela fissilis. Lineage "Hidroelétrica" placed within the west group and lineages "Iturama", and "Norminas" within the East group of the crown C. fissilis. The events of speciation occurred between 7 2 Mya B.P.
- ✓ There is correspondence between the morphology of lineages and the genetic identity i.e. each lineages exhibited particular morphology features which were different each other. Cedrela brachystachya was morphologically treated previously (Huamán-Mera et al., submitted). Only two of the remaining three lineages were morphologically treated in chapter two of present thesis.
- ✓ Probably there is ancestral refugia for lineages of Cedrela in central Brazil, which had originated in the riverine forests of Tertiary and remain stable and isolated from other blocks of forests during Quaternary climatic fluctuations.



Supplementary Material

Figure Supplementary 1. Representative Imagens of scoring microsatellite peaks in different systems of Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR). We showed the combination of PCR systems and primers [Simplex (Ced 44; Ced66), Duplex (Ced26-Ced18), and Multiplex (Ced2-Ced65-Ced131)]. Were chosen the samples more representatives for present figure. The fluorescence dye set is represented on the right.

TableS1. 13 bioclimatic variables selected by MaxEnt in present study.

Code	Bioclimatic variables
Bio 1	Annual mean temperature
Bio 2	Mean temperature diurnal range
Bio 3	Isothermality
Bio 4	Temperature seasonality
Bio 5	Max temperature of warmest month
Bio 7	Temperature anuual range
Bio 8	Mean temperature of wettest quarter
Bio 12	Annual precipitation
Bio 13	Precipitation of wettest month
Bio 14	Precipitation of driest month
Bio 15	Precipitation seasonality
Bio 17	Precipitation of driest quarter
Bio 19	Precipitation of coldest

Taxon	Code	Origen	GenBank number
			ITS Accessions
Cedrela balansae C.DC	-	Argentina	FJ462473
Cedrela brachystachya (C.DC.) C.DC.	1145	Brazil	KT316325
Cedrela dugesii	-	Mexico	FJ462483
Cedrela fissilis Vell	COL_268	Brazil	JF922233
Cedrela fissilis Vell	SMA73	Brazil	JF922213
Cedrela fissilis Vell	-	Peru	FJ462475
Cedrela kuelapensis T.D. Penn. & A. Daza	-	Peru	FJ462469
Cedrela angustifolia DC.	-	Peru	FJ462479
Cedrela molinensis T.D. Penn. & Reynel	-	Peru	FJ462465
Cedrela moroensis T.D. Penn.	-	El Salvador	FJ462486
Cedrela montana Moritz ex Turczaninov	MN3	Ecuador	KT316339
Cedrela nebulosa T.D. Penn. & A. Daza	-	Peru	FJ462460
Cedrela odorata L.	-	Belize	FJ462467
Cedrela odorata L.	-	Brazil	FJ462471
Cedrela odorata L.	-	Ecuador	FJ462464
Cedrela odorata L.	-	El Salvador	FJ462468
Cedrela oaxacensis C.DC. & Rose	-	Mexico	FJ462480
Cedrela saltensis Zapater & del Castillo	SSA8	Argentina	FJ462462
Cedrela salvadorensis Standl.	-	Costa Rica	FJ462484
Cedrela weberbaueri Harms	-	Peru	FJ462472
Cedrela tonduzii C.DC.	-	Costa Rica	FJ462485
Toona ciliata	-	Australia	FJ462488
Toona sinensis 1	-	-	FJ462490
Toona sinensis 2	-	-	FJ462491
Swietenia macrophylla	-	-	DQ861609
Khaya anthotheca	-	-	DQ861608

TableS2. Taxa, codes, origins, and GenBank accession numbers for specimens used in time of divergence.

Appendix section

Appendix A. Modificated protocol for extraction of nucleic acids from Herbarium samples. Modificated from Arbeláez-Cortes et. al (2007) and Doyle & Doyle (1990).

- 1. Prepare buffer CTAB 2X (without Proteinase K, neither B-mercaptoetanol) in a recipient resistant to high temperatures; then heating until 60°C using a water bath, considering that is used 1 ml of buffer in each sample.
 - 1.1 Proteinase K is inactive at temperatures above 37°C.
- For macerating, take a microbute of 2 ml and add the leaf tissue (100-200 mg) inside, then add 0,0175g of PPV together with two metal beats for each sample. After maceration takes out the metal beats to avoid oxidation.
- 3. From the initial preparation of buffer CTAB 2X (without Proteinase K, neither Bmercaptoetanol), take 600 μ l and add to the microtubes where the leaf tissue were macerated, then leave the microtubes in a water bath at 60° C for 15 min.
- Lower the temperature of the water bath to 37 °C and add the remaining 400 μl of buffer CTAB 2X (herein, with Proteinasa K and B-mercaptoetanol) to the microtubes, leave in water bath at 37°C during 40 min. Shake gently during five minutes every 10 min.
- Now, add 800 µl of cloroformo:alcohol isoamilico (24:1), in a shaker mix gently for 15 min and then centrifuge at 12000 rpm for 15 min.
- 6. Transfer the supernatant to a new 1.5 ml microtube, add cold isopropanol equivalent to 2/3 of the recovering volume of supernatant, also Acetato de sodio (3M pH5.2) equivalent to 1/10 of the recovering volume of supernatant. Mix and leave precipitating in freezer at -4°C for an hour.
- Centrifuge to 12000 rpm for 15 min and discard the supernatant, the microtubes must leave drying up in a paper towel.
- For washing the pellets, add 500 μl of cold ethanol 70% to the dry microtubes and then centrifuge at 12000 rpm for five min.
- 9. Repeat previous step, in this time using cold etanol 95%. After the last step drying up the microtubes in a paper towel.
- Prepare TE (10mM Tris:1mM EDTA:RNAsa 40 ug/ml), then add 50–100 μl of TE in each microtube.

10.1 Incubate the samples at 37°C for 35 min, and then keep in a freezer at -20°C.

11. For visualization of the quality of extracted DNA, it is recommended to use a gel of agarose 1.0%. Run at 90-100V.

11.1 Proportion of recommended cocktail: $2\mu l$ of ADN + $1,25\mu l$ of Blue 6X + $4,25\mu l$ of water.

Composition of the protocol

2g
0,1%
$60 \mu g/ml$
1,4M
20mM
100mM

VI. REFERENCES

- Ab'Saber A.N. (2000) O suporte geo-ecológico das florestas beiradeiras (ciliares). In:
 R.R. Rodrigues & H.F. Leitão-Filho (Eds.), Matas ciliares: conservação e recuperação (pp. 15–25). Fapesp, Universidade de São Paulo, São Paulo.
- Antonelli A., Nylander J.A.A., Persson C., & Sanmartín I. (2006) Tracing the impact of the Andean uplift on Neotropical plant evolution. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 106, 9749–9754.
- Antonelli A. & Sanmartín I. (2011) Why are there so many plant species in the Neotropics? Taxon **60**, 403–414.
- Arbeláez-Cortes E., Castillo-Cárdenas M.F., Toro-Perea N., & Cárdenas-Henao H. (2007) Genetic structure of the red mangrove (Rhizophora mangle L.) on the Colombian Pacific detected by microsatellite molecular markers. Hydrobiologia 583(1), 321– 330.
- Barberi M., Salgado-Labouriau M.L., & Suguio K. (2000) Paleovegetation and paleoclimate of "Vereda de Águas Emendadas", central Brazil. Journal of South American Earth Sciences 13, 241–254
- Baum D.A., Small R.L., & Wendel J.F. (1998) Biogeography and floral evolution of baobabs (Adansonia, Bombacaceae) as inferred from multiple data sets. Systematic Biology 47,181-207.
- Bueno M.L., Pennington R.T., Dexter K.G., Kamino L.H.Y., Pontara V., Neves D.M., Ratter J.A., & Oliveira-Filho A.T. (2016) Effects of Quaternary climatic fluctuations on the distribution of Neotropical savanna tree species. Ecography 40, 403–414.
- Buzatti R.S.O., Lemos-Filho J.P., Bueno M.L., & Lovato M.B. (2017) Multiple Pleistocene refugia in the Brazilian cerrado: evidence from phylogeography and climatic nichemodelling of two Qualea species (Vochysiaceae). Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society 185, 307–320.
- Carnaval A.C., Hickerson M.J., Haddad C.F.B., Rodrigues M.T., & Moritz C. (2009) Stability predicts genetic diversity in the Brazilian Atlantic forest hotspot. Science 323, 785–789.
- Carnaval A.C. & Moritz C. (2008) Historical climate modelling predicts patterns of current biodiversity in the Brazilian Atlantic forest. Journal of Biogeography **35**, 1187–1201.
- Castañeda-Posadas C. & Cevallos-Ferriz S.R.S. (2007) Swietenia (Meliaceae) flower in Late Oligocene early Miocene amber from Simojovel de Allende, Chiapas, Mexico. American Journal of Botany **94**, 1821–1827.
- Chandler M.E.J. (1964) The lower tertiary floras of southern England. Bulletin of the British Museum of Natural History. Geology **12**, 1–51.
- Cordeiro L.S., de Araújo F.S., Koch I., Simões A.O., Martins F.R., & Loiola M.I.B. (2017) Paleodistribution of Neotropical species of Erythroxylum (Erythroxylacea) in humid and dry environments. Acta Botanica Brasilica **31**(**4**), 645–656.

- Cronn R.C., Small R.L., Haselkorn T., & Wendel J.F. (2002) Rapid diversification of the cotton genus (Gossypium: Malvaceae) revealed by analysis of sixteen nuclear and chloroplast genes. American Journal Botany 89, 707–725.
- Diaz-Soto J.M., Huamán-Mera A., & de Oliveira L.O. (2018) Population genetics of Cedrela fissilis (Meliaceae) from an ecotone in central Brazil. Tree Genetics and Genomes **14(73)**, 1–19.
- Dormann C.F., Elith J., Bacher S., Buchmann C., Carl G., Carré G., García-Marquéz J.R., Gruber B., Lafourcade B., Leitão P.J., Münkemüller T., McClean C., Osborne P.E., Reineking B., Schröder B., Skidmore A.K., Zurell D., & Lautenbach S. (2013) Collinearity: a review of methods to deal with it and a simulation study evaluating their performance. Ecography 36, 27–46.
- Doyle J.J. & Doyle J.L. (1990). Isolation of plant DNA from fresh tissue. Focus **12**, 13–15
- Drummond A.J. & Rambaut A. (2007) BEAST: Bayesian evolutionary analysis by sampling trees. BMC Evolutionary Biology **7**, 214.
- Evanno G., Regnaut S., & Goudet J. (2005) Detecting the number of clusters of individuals using the software STRUCTURE: a simulation study. Molecular Ecology **14**, 2611–2620.
- Earl D.A. & VonHoldt B.M. (2012) Structure Harvester: a website and program for visualizing STRUCTURE output and implementing the Evanno method. Conservation Genetics Resources 4, 359-361.
- ESRI (2011) ArcGIS Desktop: Release 10. Redlands: Environmental Systems Research Institute.
- Gándara F.B. (2009) Diversidade genética de populações de Cedro (Cedrela fissilis Vell. Meliaceae) no Centro-Sul do Brasil, Tesis Doctoral, Escuela Superior de Agricultura, Universidad de San Pablo, Brasil.
- Garcia M.G., Silva R.S., Carniello M.A., Veldman J.W., Rossi A.A.B., & Oliveira L.O. (2011) Molecular evidences of cryptic speciation, historical range expansion, and recent intraspecific hybridization in the Neotropical seasonal forest tree Cedrela fissilis (Meliaceae). Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 61, 639–649.
- Gastauer M., Saporetti-Junior A.W., Magnago L.F.S., Cavender-Bares J., & Meira-Neto J.A.A. (2015). The hypothesis of sympatric speciation as the dominant generator of endemism in a global hotspot of biodiversity. Ecology and Evolution **5**, 5272–5283.
- Gent P.R., Danabasoglu G., Donner L.J., Holland M.M., Hunke E.C., Jayne S.R., Lawrence D.M., Neale R.B., Rasch P.J., Vertenstein M., Worley P.H., Yang Z.L., & Zhang M. (2011) The community climate system model version 4. Journal of Climate 24, 4973–4991.
- Gottsberger and Silberbauer-Gottsberger (2009) Tropical savannas –Introduction. In: K. del Claro, O.S. Oliveira & V. Rico-Gray (Eds.), Tropical Biology and conservation management–Volume X: Savannas Ecosystems. EOLSS Publishers/UNESCO, Oxford, United Kingdom, 341–351.

- Gregory-Wodzicki K.M. (2000) Uplift history of the central and northern Andes: A review. Geological Society of American Bulletin **112**, 1091–1105.
- Hamilton M.B. (1999) Four primer pairs for the amplification of chloroplast intergenic regions with intraspecific variation. Molecular Ecology **8**, 521–523.
- Haffer J (1982) General aspects of the Refuge Theory. In: G.T. Prance (Ed.), Biological diversification in the tropics (pp. 6–24). New York, NY: Colombia University Press.
- Hewitt G. (2000) The genetic legacy of the Quaternary ice ages. Nature 405, 907–913.
- Hernández G., Buonamici A., Walker K., Vendramin G.G., Navarro C., & Cavers S. (2007) Isolation and characterization of microsatellite markers for Cedrela odorata L. (Meliaceae), a high value neotropical tree. Conservation Genetics 9, 457–459.
- Hernandez P.A., Graham C.H., Master L.L., & Albert D.L. (2006) The effect of sample size and species characteristics on performance of different species distribution modeling methods. Ecography 29, 773–785.
- Hijmans R.J., Cameron S.E., Parra J.L., Jones P.G., & Jarvis A. (2005) Very high resolution interpolated climate surfaces for global land areas. International Journal of Climatology **25**, 1965–1978.
- Hooghiemstra H. & van der Hammen, T. (1998) Neogene and Quaternary development of the Neotropical rain forest: the forest refugia hypothesis, and a literature overview. Earth–Science Review **44**, 147-183.
- Huamán-Mera A. (2014) Structure and genetic diversity of Cedrela (Meliaceae) on the upper Parana river. Unpublished M.Sc. Dissertation, Universidade Federal de Viçosa.
- Huamán-Mera A, do Vale V.S., Meira-Neto J.A.A., & de Oliveira L.O. (2018) Cedrela brachystachya (Meliaceae), an ecological specialized treelet from the riparian ecosystems of Central Brazil. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Hmeljevski K.V., Nazareno A.G., Bueno L.M., dos Reis M.S., & Forzza R.C. (2017) Do plant populations on distinct inselbergs talk to each other? A case study of genetic connectivity of a bromeliad species in an Ocbil landscape. Ecology and Evolution 7(13), 4704–4716.
- Hubisz M.J., Falush D., Stephens M., & Pritchard J.K. (2009) Inferring weak population structure with the assistance of sample group information. Molecular Ecology Resources 9, 1322–1332.
- Jakobsson M. & Rosenberg N.A. (2007) CLUMPP: a cluster matching and permutation program for dealing with label switching and multimodality in analysis of population structure, version 1.1. Bioinformatics **23**, 1801–1806.
- Koch R., Almeida-Cortez J.S., & Kleinschmit B. (2017) Revealing areas of high nature conservation importance in a seasonally dry tropical forest in Brazil: Combination of modelled plant diversity hot spots and threat patterns. Journal for Nature Conservation 35, 24–39.
- Lavina E.L. & Fauth G. (2011) Evolução geológica da América do Sul nos últimos 250 milhões de anos. In: C.L.B. de Carvalho & E.A.B. Almeida (Eds.), Biogeografia da América do Sul: Padrões & Processos. Editora Roca Ltda., Sao Paulo, Brasil, 3–13.

- Le Roux J.P. (2012) A review of Tertiary climate changes in southern South America and the Antarctic Peninsula. Part 2: Continental conditions. Sedimentary Geology (247–248), 21–38.
- Liang H., Feng Z., Pei B., Li Y., & Yang X. (2018) Demographic expansion of two Tamarix species along the Yellow River caused by geological events and climate change in the Pleistocene. Scientific Reports **8**, 60.
- Luebert F. & Weigend M. (2014) Phylogenetic insights into Andean plant diversification. Frontiers in Ecology and Evolution **2**, 1–17.
- Mangaravite E., Vinson C.C., Rody H.V.S., García M.G., Carniello M.A., Silva R.S., & Oliveira L.O. (2016) Contemporary patterns of genetic diversity of Cedrela fissilis (Meliaceae) offer insight into the shaping of seasonal forests in eastern South America. American Journal of Botany 103(2), 307–316.
- Myers N., Mittermeier R.A., Mittermeier C.G., da Fonseca G.A.B., & Kent J. (2000) Biodiversity hotspots for conservation priorities. Nature **403**, 853–858.
- Meyer H.W. & Manchester S.R. (1997) The Oligocene bridge creek flora of the John Day Formation, Oregon. University of California Publications in Geological Sciences, vol. 141. University of California Press, Berkeley, California, USA.
- Muellner A.N., Pennington T.D., Koecke A.V., & Renner S.S. (2010) Biogeography of Cedrela (Meliaceae, Sapindales) in Central and South America. American Journal of Botany **97**, 511–518.
- Muellner A. N., Pennington, T. D., & Chase MW. (2009). Molecular phylogenetics of Neotropical Cedreleae (mahogany family, Meliaceae) based on nuclear and plastid DNA sequences reveal multiple origins of "Cedrela odorata". Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 52, 461–469.
- Nylander J.A.A. (2004) MrModeltest v2. Computer Program Distributed by the Author. Evolutionary Biology Centre, Uppsala University.
- Oliveira-Filho A.T. & Ratter, J.A. (1995). A study of the origin of Central Brazilian forests by the analysis of plant species distribution patterns. Edinburgh Journal of Botany **52**, 141-194.
- Oliveira-Filho A.T. & Ratter J.A. (2002) Vegetation physiognomies and woody flora of the Cerrado Biome. In: P.S. Oliveira and R.J. Marquis (Eds.), The Cerrados of Brazil (pp. 91-120). New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Oliveira L.O., Llerena-Gordillo S.A., Salinas-Aponte N., Segovia-Salcedo C., Vinson C.C., Carniello M.A., Silva R.S., Garcia M.G., Werneck F., Zelener N., & Fornes L. F. (2018). Successive waves of colonization dispersed Cedrela (Meliaceae) from central Andes into eastern South America. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- Olson D.M., Dinerstein E., Wikramanayake E.D., Burgess N.D., Powell G.V.N., Underwood E.C., D'amico J. a., Itoua I., Strand H.E., Morrison J.C., Loucks C.J., Allnutt T.F., Ricketts T.H., Kura Y., Lamoreux J.F., Wettengel W.W., Hedao P., & Kassem K.R. (2001) Terrestrial Ecoregions of the World: A New Map of Life on Earth. BioScience, **51**, 933–938.

- Ordonez A. & Svenning J-Ch. (2017) Consistent role of Quaternary climate change in shaping current plant functional diversity patterns across European plant orders. Scientific Reports **7**, 42988.
- Otto-Bliesner B.L., Marshall S.J., Overpeck J.T., Miller G.H., & Hu A., CAPE Last Interglacial Project members (2006) Simulating arctic climate warmth and icefield retreat in the last interglaciation. Science **311**, 1751–1753.
- Parrish J.T. (1993) Climate of the supercontinent Pangea. Journal of Geology **101**, 215–233.
- Pennington R.T., Prado D.A., & Pendry C. (2000) Neotropical seasonally dry forests and Pleistocene vegetation changes. Journal of Biogeography **27**, 261–273.
- Pennington R.T., Lavin M., Prado D.E., Pendry C.A., Pell S.K., & Butterworth C.A. (2004) Historical climate change and speciation: Neotropical seasonally dry forest plants show patterns of both Tertiary and Quaternary diversification. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B, Biological Sciences 359, 515–538.
- Pennington R.T., Lavin M., Särkinen T., Lewis G.P., Klitgaard B.B., & Hughes C.E. (2010) Contrasting plant diversification histories within the Andean biodiversity hotspot. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 107(31), 13783–13787.
- Pennington T.D. & Muerllner A.N. (2010). A monograph of Cedrela (Meliaceae). Sherborne, UK: DH Books.
- Phillips S.J. & Dudik M. (2008) Modeling of species distributions with Maxent: new extensions and a comprehensive evaluation. Ecography **31**, 161–175.
- Phillips S.J., Anderson R.P., & Schapire R.E. (2006) Maximum entropy modeling of species geographic distributions. Ecological Modelling **190**, 231–259.
- Pritchard J.K., Stephens M., & Donnelly P. (2000) Inference of population structure using multilocus genotype data, version 2.3.4. Genetics **155**, 945–959.
- Rambaut A. (2009) FigTree v1.3.1. Institute of Evolutionary Biology, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.
- Ramírez-Barahona S. & Eguiarte L.E. (2013) The role of glacial cycles in promoting genetic diversity in the Neotropics: the case of cloud forests during the Last Glacial Maximum. Ecology and Evolution **3(3)**, 725–738.
- Reid E.M. & Chandler M.E.J. (1933) The London Clay flora. British Museum (Natural History), London, UK.
- Ronquist F. & Huelsenbeck J.P. (2003) MrBayes 3: Bayesian phylogenetic inference under mixed models. Bioinformatics **19**, 1572–1574.
- Rosenberg N.A. (2004) DISTRUCT: a program for the graphical display of population structure, version 1.1. Molecular Ecology Notes **4**, 137–138.

- Silva G.A.R., Antonelli A., Lendel A., de Moraes E.M., & Manfrin M.H. (2018) The impact of early Quaternary climate change on the diversification and population dynamics of a South American cactus species. Journal of Biogeogry **45**, 76–88
- Sobral-Souza T., Lima-Ribeiro M.S., & Solferini V.N. (2015) Biogeography of Neotropical Rainforests: past connections between Amazon and Atlantic Forest detected by ecological niche modeling. Evolutionary Ecology 29 (5), 643-655.
- Sosa V. & Loera I. (2017) Influence of current climate, historical climate stability and topography on species richness and endemism in Mesoamerican geophyte plants. PeerJ 5:e3932.
- Soltis P.S. Soltis D.E. (2009) The Role of Hybridization in Plant Speciation. Annual Review of Plant Biology **60**, 561–588.
- Taberlet P., Gielly L., Pantaou G., & Bouvet J. (1991). Universal primers for amplification of three non-coding regions of chloroplast DNA. Plant Molecular Biology 17, 1105–1109.
- Taylor K.E., Stouffer R.J., & Meehl G.A. (2012) An overview of CMIP5 and the experiment design. Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society **93**, 485–498.
- Taylor S.A., Larson E.L., & Harrison R.G. (2015) Hybrid Zones: Windows on Climate Change. Trends in Ecology and Evolution **30**(**7**), 398–406.
- van der Hammen T. (1991) Palaeoecology of the Neotropics: An overview of the state of affairs. Boletim IG-USP, Special Publication **8**, 35–56.
- Vanzolini P.E. (1963) Problemas faunísticos do Cerrado. In: Simpósio sobre o Cerrado (Eds.), Universidade de São Paulo, São Paulo, 307–320.
- Werneck F.P., Nogueira C., Colli G.R., Sites Jr J.W., & Costa G.C. (2012) Climatic stability in the Brazilian Cerrado: implications for biogeographical connections of South American savannas, species richness, and conservation in a biodiversity hotspot. Journal of Biogeography **39**, 1695–1706.
- White T.J., Bruns T.D., Lee S., & Taylor J. (1990) Amplification and direct sequencing of fungal ribosomal RNA genes for phylogenetics. In: Innis M.A., Gelfand D.H., Sninsky J.J., and White T.J. (Eds.), PCR Protocols, a Guide to Methods and Applications (pp. 315–322). California: Academic Press.
- Whitney K.D., Ahern J.R., Campbell L.G., Albert L.P., & King M.S. (2010) Patterns of hybridization in plants. Perspectives in Plant Ecology, Evolution and Systematics **12**, 175–182.
- Wiens J.J., Ackerly D.D., Allen A.P., Anacker B.L., Buckley L.B., Cornell H.V., & Damschen E.I. (2010) Niche conservatism as an emerging principle in ecology and conservation biology. Ecology Letters **13**, 1310–1324.
- Wolfe J.A. (1971) Tertiary climatic fluctuations and methods of analysis of tertiary floras. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology **9**, 27–57.

CHAPTER II: TWO NEW SPECIES AND NEW OCCURRENCES OF Cedrela (MELIACEAE) FROM CENTRAL BRAZIL

ALEXANDER HUAMÁN-MERA¹, LUIZ ORLANDO DE OLIVEIRA^{1*}

¹Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Federal University of Viçosa, Viçosa, Minas Gerais 36570-900, Brasil

Corresponding author: luiz.ufv@hotmail.com

ABSTRACT

The genus Cedrela is an arboreal genus with 18 accepted species in the Meliaceae family. Cedela is different from other genera in Meliaceae by – Presence of an androgynophore; petals adnates to the androgynophore; and Free staminal filaments. The distribution of the genus is Neotropical and is associated with seasonal forest. In the last decades, Cedrela was object of different studies with the aim of unraveling the quantity of circumscribed species to the genus. The 18 morphological species are recognized and accepted on the basis of the combination of eight overlapping morphological characters. Cedrela has supplied the most important timber on local and international markets. Cedrela is compound by two accepted species (Cedrela odorata and C. fissilis) in Brazil. However new insights of molecular studies supported the presences of new species which need to be described. Herein, we investigated a taxonomical approach of two genetic entities discovered in first chapter of present thesis and new occurrences of Cedrela brachystachya, a recent ecological specialized species. We carried out morphometric analysis of specimens of Cedrela from central Brazil. Our results suggested two new species (Cedrela microanthus and Cedrela pandeirensis) both from central Brazil and new populations of Cedrela brachystachya. The new findings corroborate that the genus Cedrela is exceptionally diverse within Meliaceae

KEY WORDS: Cedreleae; Sapindales; Speciation; Ecological specialization.
I. INTRODUCTION

The genus Cedrela (Browne, 1756) is an arboreal genus with 18 accepted species (Pennington and Muellner, 2010; Köcke et al., 2015) and a new revalidated name of species (Huamán-Mera et al., Submitted) in the Meliaceae family (Styles, 1981). Cedela is different from other genera in Meliaceae by – Presence of an androgynophore; petals adnates to the androgynophore; and Free staminal filaments. The remaining other genera in the family have the filaments compressed and with gradual fusion into a stamina tube (Pennington and Muellner, 2010). The distribution of the genus is from Northern Mexico in North America to Northwestern Argentina to the Atlantic Forest of Eastern Brazil in South America. Mostly species of Cedrela are associated with seasonal forest (Styles, 1981; Garcia et. al., 2011). Except for one species, which in a recent study was determined that is associated with wetlands in central Brazil (Huamán-Mera et. al., Submitted).

In the last decades, Cedrela was object of different studies with the aim of unraveling the quantity of circumscribed species to the genus. Thus, in his revision of Cedrela, Smith (1960) used the morphology, biogeography and ecology approaches, recognized six accepted species; Cedrela fissilis, C. odorata, C. angustifolia, C. lilloi, C. oaxacensis, and C. montana. In that study, Cedrela weberbaueri already appeared, but was not included as part of the taxonomical key because of lack of better specimens. Later, in his Flora Neotropica, Styles (1981) recognized seven species (Cedrela fissilis, C. lilloi, C. montana, C. oaxacensis, C. odorata, C. salvadorensis, and C. tonduzii), and four imperfectly know species (Cedrela angustifolia, C. discolor, C. imparipinnata, C. weberbaueri), the identity of these imperfect species will would confirmed, but one of them, C. imparinnata, was synonymized with C. odorata by Pennington and Muellner (2010). In the last revision of Cedrela were recognized 17 species, six species from the seven of Styles (1981) were confirmed. The remaining species, C. lilloi, was synonymized with C. angustifolia. Moreover three of the four imperfectly known species also were confirmed. Also in this revision were included three species (C. balansae, C. dugesii, C. longipetiolulata) which were synonymized with the two widespread species C. odorata and C. fissilis by Styles, and a new species from Argentinean Yungas, C. saltensis (Zapater et al., 2004; Pennington and Muellner, 2010). In addition, four new species were discovered; C. monroensis, C. molinesis, C. kuelapensis, and C. nebulosa (Pennington and Muellner, 2010). A recent study indicated the discovery of a new species, Cedrela ngobe from southeastern Costa Rica to Panamanian semideciduous lowland forest (Köcke et al., 2015). In a previous work we suggested the taxonomical revalidation of C. brachystachya, a species from the riparian ecosystems of central Brazil (Huamán-Mera et al., submitted), which was synonymized with C. odorata by Pennington and Muellner (2010). Currently, a total of 18 morphological species are now recognized and accepted (Pennington and Muellner, 2010; Köcke et al., 2015) on the basis of the combination of eight overlapping morphological characters: number of pair of leaflets; leaflet size; type and amount of leaf indumentum; shape and number of secondary veins on the leaflet; flowering from young wood when the tree is in leaf or older wood when the tree is leafless; adnation of the petal margins; degree of division of the calyx; and capsule size (Muellner et al., 2009; Pennington and Muellner, 2010).

From the Indias, the ancient name of the discovered America, species of Cedrela such as Cedrela odorata has supplied the most important timber on local and international markets (Pennington and Muellner, 2010). As we move forward in time, after the establishment of Spanish colony, several of the support architecture and all interior panelling and decoration of the buildings such as churches, cathedrals, governments Palaces, and others important official statements of Central America and South America were made of Cedrela timber. The durability of the timber is observed until nowadays (Smith, 1960; Pennington and Muellner, 2010). The demand of the lumber of Cedrela species in Latin America was strong until last century and was observed in all the countries where Cedrela are distributed (FAO, 1997). With this demand, species of Cedrela has been highly depredated and today they are within the red list of threatened species. For instance, the two widespread species of Cedrela, Cedrela odorata and C. fissilis are "vulnerable A3bcd+4bcd" and "endangered A1acd+2cd" respectively (IUCN, 2017).

Cedrela was represented firstly by three accepted species (Cedrela balansae, C. fissilis and C. odorata) in recent revisions of the genus in Brazil (Styles, 1981; Cervi et al., 2008), and then by two accepted species (Cedrela odorata and C. fissilis) (Pennington and Muellner, 2010).However a posterior study suggested that records of specimens of C. odorata grouped together with C. fissilis clade (Garcia et al., 2011). On the other hand, molecular markers suggested that two separate phylogenetic lineages within C. fissilis that corresponded to populations located in separate geographic regions (Garcia et al., 2011, Mangaravite et al., 2016). Moreover, an investigation of genetic structure of Cedrela in central Brazil suggested three new genetic identities of Cedrela, one of them was recently studied deeply and probably the number of accepted species of Cedrela would be increased in Brazil (Huamán-Mera, 2014; Huamán-Mera et. al., Submitted). Additionally one large population denominated as Northern Minas Gerais was confirmed as new genetic identity from was recently confirmed as unique and different from others until now studied (Díaz-Soto et al., 2018). Independently of the taxonomical and molecular treatment of Cedrela in Brazil, the species have also been overexploited together with other species that compound the Brazilian seasonal forest (FUNDAÇÃO SOS Mata Atlântica; INPE, 2010).

Taxonomists have often experienced difficulties in the circumscription of species using morphological characters as the single source of data, so as seen above, these professionals have turned their attention to molecular markers as complement in taxonomical studies as a means of yielding robust results (Cavers et al., 2003; Muellner et al., 2009; Garcia et al., 2011).

In this second chapter we investigated a taxonomical approach of two of genetic entities discovered in first chapter of present thesis. The lack of appropriated botanical samples of others enteties made impossible that we did not treat them. So we formally described two genetic entities as new species, the first one from Iturama locality, and the second one from the Northern Minas Gerais state, both from central Brazil. Additionally we also used the results of the first chapter for confirming and reporting two new occurrences of a recent revalidated species, Cedrela brachystachya, also from central Brazil.

The new findings corroborate that the genus Cedrela is exceptionally diverse within Meliaceae.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS 2.1 Sampling

For the description of the first new species (from Iturama locality or Iturama group), afterwards Cedrela sp.1, we collected nearby Iturama county in Minas Gerais state, Brazil; collecting trips took place in January 2017 (Figure 1). For the description of the second species (from Northern Minas Gerais or Norminas group), afterwards Cedrela sp.2, we collected along Northern Minas Gerais, in small tributaries of Sao Francisco River such as Pandeiros and Peruacu minor rivers; collecting trips took place in 2015, 2016, and 2017 (Figure 2).



Figure 1. Collecting sites of Cedrela sp.1 along localities of the counties Ouroeste (GDO, OES, and TUR) Iturama (ITU), and Paranaíba (PRN). Major vegetation covering and Parana River are also depicted.



Figure 2. Collecting sites of Cedrela sp.2 along micro basins of São Francisco River such as Pandeiros and Peruaçu rivers in Northern Minas Gerais, and major vegetation covering.

For analysis of new occurrences of Cedrela brachystachya we considered populations from Foz do Rio Aguapeií (FR1 population) and Brasilia DF (BR1 and BR2 populations) because in previous molecular analysis they grouped in the same genetic group that C. brachystachya. For FR1 population we only collected few botanical samples; collecting trips took place in 2013. For BR1 and BR2 populations we used both the botanical samples that we opportunely collected and records that we reviewed in Herbarium CEN (Brasilia DF) that were used partially in recent study (Huamán-Mera et al., Submitted); collecting trips took place in 2015 (Figure 3).



Figure 3. Collecting sites of new occurrences and Herbaria data of Cedrela brachystachya along Paraná upper river basins, and major vegetation covering.

For morphometric analysis of Cedrela sp.1, we sampled seven specimens of Cedrela from Guarani D'Oeste (SP), Iturama (MG), Ouroeste (SP), and Turmalina (SP). We also reported occurrences of specimens of Cedrela sp.1 in Paranaiba (MS), but we did not collect for present study because they were deforested currently (Figure 1). For morphometric analysis of Cedrela sp.2, we sampled 20 specimens of Cedrela from Itacarambi, Mata Seca, Montes Claros, Pandeiros, and Peruacu, in Northen Minas Gerais state (Figure 2). Voucher

specimens resulting from fieldworks were deposited in Herbarium Viçosense (VIC). In the future we will be deposited in Botanical Garden of Rio de Janeiro Herbarium (RB); Herbarium Molinensis (MOL), Herbarium Selva Central–Oxapampa (HOXA), Herbarium Universidad Nacional Mayor de San Marcos (USM) and Missouri Botanical Garden (MO). We recorded the geographic coordinates of each site using a Global Positioning System (GPS) receiver.

2.2 Morphometric analyses

We carried out morphometric analyses in a number of characteristics of leaves and inflorescences in specimens of Cedrela sp.1 and Cedrela sp.2. While choosing diagnostic characters for distinguishing amongst species of Cedrela, we follow the recommendations of Muellner et al. (2009) and Pennington and Muellner (2010). In leaves: number of leaflets, pedicel length, and leaf length. In leaflets: leaflets blade length, leaflets blade width, and number of secondary veins. In inflorescences: length, petiole length, flower length, corolla length, calyx tube length, ovary length, style length, androgynophore length, and capsule size.

For specimens of populations FR1, BR1, and BR2, we compared the vouchers of Cedrela brachystachya deposited in Herbarium VIC (Universidade Federal de Vicosa) with specimens of populations FR1, BR1, and BR2.

III. RESULTS

3.1 Taxonomic treatment

According the morphometric assessment, Cedrela sp.1 from Iturama locality was described and taxonomically treated as following:

3.1.1 Cedrela microanthus Huamán-Mera A. and Oliveira LO, sp. nov. Type: Brazil, São Paulo, Turmalina, 20° 3'48.69"S, 50°27'11.79"W, 470 m, 10 January 2017, L.O. Oliveira 754, A. Huamán-Mera, T. Ferreira & J.M. Díaz-Soto (holotype VIC, isotype VIC). Figure 4 A–I. Figure 5.

Floribus quam in typo brevius.

Young branches smooth, 0.45–0.8 cm diam., pale greyish-brown, with small pale lenticels. Leaves (petiole + rhachis) 16–48 cm long; **leaflets** subopposite, sometimes opposite

and opposite and subopposite in the same leaf, (5)6-8(9) pairs, $4.5-15 \times 2.5-5.5$ cm, usually ovate-lanceolate, slightly falcate, apex acute to slightly cuspitate, base usually slightly asymmetric and sometimes oblique, adaxial surfaces generally glabrous, sometimes presence of sparsely pubescent in the main vein, abaxial surface **sparsely pubescent**, mainly in the main and secondary veins, domatia present in the axils of secondary veins in abaxial surface, concentrate from the basis to the higher third leaflets; venation eucamptodromous, midrib flat on upper surface, secondary veins (8–)9–12 pairs, ascending, convergent, reticulate, slightly thin and elevated below. Petiole (4-)5-10(-11) cm long, slightly pubescent; petiolule (3-)4-7(-8) mm long, minutely puberulous. Inflorescence terminal, plant flowering when in leaf, 25-48 cm long, pendulous cymose, scarcely puberulous, without leaves in developing as appendixes in some branches; pedicel (0.2-0.25) mm long. Calyx gamosepalous 1.5-2(-2.5)mm long, cup-shaped, lobed, apex obtuse to acute, puberulous to tomentose outside and grabrous inside. Petals (5-)5.5-6 mm long, 1-1.5 mm wide, strap-shaped, apex obtuse to acute, outside in the lower half densely pubescent and in the higher half puberulous, slightly pubescence inside, petals adnate to the androgynophore in the lower third, margins adnate, only free in the bottom of the petals. Androgynophore 2–3.2 mm long, orangish-red brightly coloured. Stamens, male flower: filaments (free portion) 1.5–1.7 mm long, glabrous, anthers 0.8–1 mm long, glabrous, female flower: filaments (free portion) 1.5–1.7 mm long, anthers 0.5–0.7 mm long, shrunken, without pollen, lower part of filaments fused to the androgynophore. Ovary 5-locular, borne at the top of the androgynophore, 1.3–1.6 mm long, glabrous, with presence of lenticels, female flower: loculi with 5-6 ovules in 2 rows, style 1.2–1.4 mm long with a thick discoid style-head, male flower: pistillode 1–2.5 mm long, puberolous, with reduced loculi and vestigial ovules, style 1.7-2mm long with a thin stylehead. Capsule pendulous, 4-4.5 cm long, oblong to obovoid, apex and base rounded, dark gray with few, small pale brown lenticels, valves woody, 1.5-1.7 mm thick, columella 5winged. Seed 1.8–2.5 cm long (including the wing), pale brown.



Figure 4. Cedrela microanthus. A, flowering branch; B, detail of leaflet undersurface; C, male flower; D, male half-flower; E, detail of petal insertion; F, female flower; G, female half-flower; H, capsule; I, seed.



Figure 5. A. Flowering branch of Cedrela microanthus B. Single capsule of Cedrela microanthus C. Fruiting branch of Cedrela microanthus D. Trunk of a specimen of Cedrela microanthus E. Habit of Cedrela microanthus.

3.1.1.1 Distribution, habitat, and etymology

Cedrela microanthus is known from areas of Cerrado and seasonal Forest in the confluence of Grande and Paranaina Rivers minor basins, in confluence of the states of Mato Grosso do Sul, São Paulo, and Minas Gerais (Triángulo mineiro); all specimens included in this study were collected from this part of the range. The species grows between 340–500 meters above sea level, in areas in which was not possible to found other genera because of overexploited. Cedrela microanthus is vernacularly called *"Cedro"*. The epitetus of the species is related to the short flowers, no other species of Cedrela has flowers shorter than C. microanthus.

3.1.1.2 Field characters

Trees up to 10(-20) m high and 120-130(-145) cm diam. Bole cylindrical, up to 5-10 m high to the first branch, with fissured dark gray to grayish-brown bark. Presence of garlic odour. The flowers are greenish-cream to pale. The fruits are green with small and few lenticels. Flowering occurs mostly between October and January, densely flowering. The capsule matures between May and August.

The distinctive morphometric characters of Cedrela microanthus are shown as mean trait values compared with traits values of different congeners such as; the two widespread (Cedrela fissilis and C. odorata) and C. balansae. The combination of characters such as; the leaf length 42 cm, 5–8(9) pairs of broad leaflets, leaflet size 8–3 x 13–5 cm, usually ovate–lanceolate, slightly falcate, apex acute to slightly cuspitate, base usually slightly asymmetric and sometimes oblique, secondary veins 8–12 pairs, inflorescence length 35 cm, flowers length 5–6 mm, stamens length 1.5–2 mm, pistil length 1–2.5 mm, with capsule pendulous 3.5–4.5 cm long, oblong to obovoid, apex and base rounded.

3.1.1.3 Additional specimens examined

BRAZIL. São Paulo: Ouroeste, road to Ouroeste town, 19°58'26.05"S, 50°23'9.97"W, 479 m, 10 January 2017, L.O. Oliveira 742, A. Huamán-Mera, T. Ferreira & J.M. Díaz-Soto (VIC); Ouroeste, road to Ouroeste town, 19°58'30.67"S, 50°23'10.53"W, 487 m, 10 January 2017, L.O. Oliveira 743, A. Huamán-Mera, T. Ferreira & J.M. Díaz-Soto (VIC); Ouroeste, road to Ouroeste town, 19°58'31.78"S, 50°23'11.67"W, 487 m, 10 January 2017, L.O.

Oliveira 744, A. Huamán-Mera, T. Ferreira & J.M. Díaz-Soto (VIC); Ouroeste, road to Ouroeste town, 19°58'32.59"S, 50°23'9.86"W, 489 m, 10 January 2017, L.O. Oliveira 745, A. Huamán-Mera, T. Ferreira & J.M. Díaz-Soto (VIC); Guarani D'Oeste, 20°4'27.51"S, 50°19'43.56"W, 507 m, 10 January 2017, L.O. Oliveira 747, A. Huamán-Mera, T. Ferreira & J.M. Díaz-Soto (VIC); Road to Turmalina, 1 km to Pov. so Sol, 20°0'15.75"S, 50°27'33.69"W, 451 m, 10 January 2017, L.O. Oliveira 753, A. Huamán-Mera, T. Ferreira & J.M. Díaz-Soto (VIC). **Mato Grosso do Sul:** Paranaíba, 19°43'00.70"S, 51°05'37.10"W, 369 m, 10 January 2017, L.O. Oliveira 760,761, A. Huamán-Mera, T. Ferreira & J.M. Díaz-Soto (VIC); Paranaíba, 19°42'42.40"S, 51°05'51.80"W, 344 m, 10 January 2017, L.O. Oliveira 763, 764, 765, 766, 767, A. Huamán-Mera, T. Ferreira & J.M. Díaz-Soto (VIC).

According the morphometric assessment, Cedrela sp.2 from Northern Minas Gerais localities was described and taxonomically treated as following:

3.1.2 Cedrela pandeirensis Huamán-Mera A. and Oliveira LO, sp. nov. Type: Brazil, Minas Gerais, Januária, Pandeiros community, Area de Protecao Ambiental Pandeiros, - 15.473 S, -44.75 W, 500 m, 12 December 2017, fl., L.O. Oliveira 2344 & A. Huamán-Mera (holotype VIC, isotype VIC). Figure 6 A–I. Figure7.

Young branches smooth, 0.46-0.6 cm diam., pale greyish-brown, with small pale lenticels. Leaves (petiole + rhachis) 23.5–49.5 cm long; **leaflets** opposite or subopposite, mostly opposite, (**5**)6–9 pairs, 7–11.6 x 2.8–4 cm, usually ovate–lanceolate, slightly falcate, apex obtuse to acute or to cuspitate, base usually slightly asymmetric and oblique, **sometimes thinly coriaceous** adaxial surfaces slightly pubescent, abaxial surface **sparsely pubescent**, mainly in the main and secondary veins, domatia present in the axils of secondary veins below, concentrate from the basis to the higher third leaflets; venation eucamptodromous, midrib flat on upper surface, **secondary veins 11–14(–15) pairs**, ascending, convergent, reticulate, slightly thin and elevated below. Petiole (4.7–)5.5–7.5(–8.5) cm long, glabrous; petiolule 1–4 mm long, minutely puberulous. Inflorescence terminal, **plant flowering when in leaf**, 18–30 cm long, pendulous cymose, scarcely puberulous, with leaves in developing with 1–3 leaflets pairs as appendixes in some branches; pedicel 0.3–0.4 mm long in female flowers and 1 mm long in male flowers; male flowers aestivation and female flowers Quincuncial aestivation. Calyx 2–3.5 mm long, gamosepalous, **cup-shaped**, **lobed**, apex obtuse to acute, hairy pubescent outside and glabrous inside. Petals 7-8.2 mm long, 2–2.6 mm

wide, strap-shaped, apex acute, heary pubescence outside, heary pubescence inside restricted to the higher part in touch to stamens area, from creamish red to pinkish red sometimes from greenish cream, petals adnate to the androgynophore from the lower half to the higher part, margins adnate, only free in the bottom of the petals. Androgynophore 2.5–5 mm long, cream coloured. Stamens, male flower: filaments (free portion) 1.8–3 mm long, anthers 1–1.3 mm long, glabrous, female flower: filaments (free portion) 2.4–3.2 mm long, anthers 0.8–1 mm long, shrunken, without pollen, lower part of filaments fused to the androgynophore. Ovary 5-locular, borne at the top of the androgynophore, 1.5 mm long, glabrous, female flower: loculi with (5–)6–7 ovules in 2 rows, style 2 mm long with a thick discoid style-head, male flower: pistilloide 3–4 mm long, glabrous, with reduced loculi and 6–7 vestigial ovules in 2 rows, style 2mm long to obovoid, apex and base rounded, blackish brown with many irregular pale brown lenticels, valves woody, 2–3 mm thick, columella 5-winged. Seeds 3–4 cm long (including the wing), dark brown.



Figure 6. Cedrela pandeirensis. A, flowering branch; B, detail of leaflet undersurface; C, female flower; D, female half-flower; E, male flower; F, male half-flower; G, detail of petal insertion; H, capsule; I, seed.



Figure 7. A. Flowering branch of Cedrela pandeirensis B. Thyrses of flowers of Cedrela pandeirensis C. Capsules organized in an infrutescence D. Trunk of a specimen of Cedrela pandeirensis E. Habit of Cedrela pandeirensis.

3.1.2.1 Distribution, habitat, and etymology

Cedrela pandeirensis sp. nova is distributed from Pandeiros River Basin Environmental Preservation Area, Peruaçu Caves National Park, and Mata Seca State Park to Sabonetal locality in both flanks of Sao Francisco River in Northern Minas Gerais State, Brazil. All specimens included in this study were collected from this part of the range. The species occurs in Ecotone habitats associated to Cerrado, Caatinga and Atlantic Forest, and associated with ranges of seasonally humidity located near body streams (Figure 2). The species grows between 400–700 meters above sea level, in areas in which other genus such as Anadenanthera, Dimorphandra, Ceiba, Spondias, Cabralea and herbaceous specimens also occur. Cedrela pandeirensis is vernacularly called "*Cedro*", because as the same way their widespread Brazilian congener was over exploited for human populations settled in those places. The epitetus of the species is named in honor of the Pandeiros community, who lived in the micro basin of the Pandeiros River.

3.1.2.2 Field characters

Trees up to 20(-30) m high and 170–190(-200) cm diam. Bole cylindrical, up to 10–20 m high to the first branch, with fissured dark gray to grayish-brown bark. Presence of garlic odour. The flowers are greenish-cream to pale; sometimes the entire flowers or the petals which are exposed to the sun are reddish. The fruits are green with small and few lenticels. Flowering occurs mostly between October and March; trees are densely flowering. The capsule matures between June and September.

The distinctive morphometric characters of Cedrela pandeirensis are shown as mean trait values compared with traits values of different congeners such as; the two widespread Cedrela fissilis and Cedrela odorata and C. balansae. The combination of characters of Cedrela pandeirensis, such as; the leaf length 23.5-49.5 cm, (5)6-9 pairs of narrow leaflets, leaflet size 7–11.6 x 2.8–4 cm, usually ovate–lanceolate, slightly falcate, apex obtuse to acute or to cuspitate, base usually slightly asymmetric and oblique, secondary veins 11-14(-15) pairs, inflorescence length 18–30 cm, flowers length 7–9 mm, stamens length 1.8-3.2 mm, pistil length 3.5-4.5 mm, with capsule pendulous 4.5-6 cm long, oblong to obovoid, apex and base rounded.

3.1.2.3 Additional specimens examined

BRAZIL. Minas Gerais: Januária, Estrema, 15°21'49.23"S, 44°15'21.17"W, 422 m, 12 December 2017, L.O. Oliveira 1711 & A. Huamán-Mera (VIC); Januária, Fabiao I, 15°10'41.28"S, 44°12'44.59"W, 485 m, 12 December 2017, L.O. Oliveira 1734 & A. Huamán-Mera (VIC); Itacarambi, Fabiao II, 15°9'33.24"S, 44° 9'31.74"W, 473 m, 12 December 2017, L.O. Oliveira 1865 & A. Huamán-Mera (VIC); Januária, Pandeiros Community, 15°33'23.51"S, 44°42'50.78"W, 477 m, 13 December 2017, L.O. Oliveira 2234 & A. Huamán-Mera (VIC); Januária, Pandeiros Community, 15°33'25.96"S, 44°42'48.20"W, 480 m, 13 December 2017, L.O. Oliveira 2237 & A. Huamán-Mera (VIC); Januária, Pandeiros Community, 15°29'7.51"S, 44°45'1.95"W, 523 m, 13 December 2017, L.O. Oliveira 2243 & A. Huamán-Mera (VIC); Itacarambi, Rancharia, 14°57'6.56"S, 44°3'29.23"W, 473 m, 12 December 2017, L.O. Oliveira 2285 & A. Huamán-Mera (VIC); Itacarambi, Rancharia, 14°57'47.47"S, 44° 1'53.17"W, 463 m, 31 May 2016, L.O. Oliveira 2286 & A. Huamán-Mera (VIC); Januária, Pandeiros Community, Raizana, 15°28'21.34"S, 44°44'58.70"W, 535 m, 13 December 2017, L.O. Oliveira 2344 & A. Huamán-Mera (VIC); Januária, Pandeiros Community, Raizana, 15°32'6.00"S, 44°43'26.40"W, 499 m, 13 December 2017, L.O. Oliveira 2346 & A. Huamán-Mera (VIC); Januária, Pandeiros Community, Raizana, 15°32'6.00"S, 44°43'26.40"W, 499 m, 13 December 2017, L.O. Oliveira 2347 & A. Huamán-Mera (VIC) Januária, Pandeiros Community, Remanso, 15°41'3.97"S, 44°35'11.24"W, 477 m, 06 April 2017, L.O. Oliveira 2354, A. Huamán-Mera & J.M. Díaz-Soto (VIC); Januária, Pandeiros Community, Remanso, 15°41'4.18"S, 44°35'3.72"W, 479 m, 06 April 2017, L.O. Oliveira 2355, A. Huamán-Mera & J.M. Díaz-Soto (VIC).

3.2 New occurrences of Cedrela brachystachya in central Brazil

According with our previous complementary of original description of Cedrela brachystachya (Huamán-Mera et al., Submitted), the populations of FR1, BR1 and BR2 would belong to C. brachystachya and they are distributed in central Brazil. In presente study C. brachystachya is represented by ANA population and some herbarium records from National Park of Brasilia (Figure 3).

Some of the population FR1 (Foz do Rio Aguapeí 01) are distributed in: Brazil. São Paulo: Castilho, Reserva Particular do Patrimônio Natural (RPPN) Foz do Rio Aguapeí, 21°09'16,5''S, 51°47'30,0''W, 272 m, 28 November 2012, L.O. Oliveira 830 (VIC); Castilho, Reserva Particular do Patrimônio Natural (RPPN) Foz do Rio Aguapeí, 21°09'07,8''S, 51°47'30,0''W, 274 m, 28 November 2012, L.O. Oliveira 831 (VIC).

Populations of BR1 and BR2 (Brasilia 1 and 2) are distributed in: **Brazil. Brasilia DF:** Parque Nacional de Brasília, Mata de galeria do Córrego do Acampamento, 15°44'23"S, 47°55'49"W, 1045 m, 20 October 2015, L. Oliveira 1988 & A. Huamán (VIC); Parque Nacional de Brasília, Mata de galeria do Córrego do Acampamento, 15°44'23"S, 47°55'49"W, 1045 m, 20 October 2015, L. Oliveira 1989 & A. Huamán (VIC); Parque Nacional de Brasília, Mata de galeria do Córrego do Acampamento, 15°44'23"S, 47°55'49"W, 1045 m, 20 October 2015, L. Oliveira 1989 & A. Huamán (VIC); Parque Nacional de Brasília, Mata de galeria do Córrego do Acampamento, 15°44'23"S, 47°55'49"W, 1045 m, 20 October 2015, L. Oliveira 1993 & A. Huamán (VIC); Parque Nacional de Brasília, Mata de galeria do Córrego do Acampamento, 15°44'23"S, 47°55'49"W, 1045 m, 21 October 2015, L. Oliveira 1997 & A. Huamán (VIC); Parque Nacional de Brasília, Mata de galeria do Ribeirão Bananal, 15°42'53"S, 47°55'24"W, 1025 m, 21 October 2015, L. Oliveira 2011 & A. Huamán (VIC); Parque Nacional de Brasília, Mata de galeria do Ribeirão Bananal, 15°42'53"S, 47°55'24"W, 1025 m, 21 October 2015, L. Oliveira 2011 & A. Huamán (VIC); Parque Nacional de Brasília, Mata de galeria do Ribeirão Bananal, 15°42'53"S, 47°55'24"W, 1025 m, 21 October 2015, L. Oliveira 2012 & A. Huamán (VIC).

Additional vouchers were taken from previous study (Huamán-Mera et al., Submitted) and the distribution of Cedrela brachystachya increased its range. **Brazil. Brasilia DF:** Parque Nacional de Brasília; Mata do acampamento, 15°35'S, 48°10'W, 1045 m, 06 October 1998, A.B. Sampaio 255 (CEN); Mata do acampamento, Parque Nacional de Brasília, 06 September 1998, A.B. Sampaio 250 (CEN); Samambaia, Parque Boca da Mata, 15°52'S, 48°03'W, 13 August 1996, Joao Marcelo de Rezende 556 (CEN); Mata de galeria do Córrego da Onça, Fazenda Água Limpa, 15°57'S, 47°55'W, 1060 m, 22 September 1994, B.M.T. Walter, S.P. Cordovil & A.S. Amaral 2235 (CEN); Córrego Landim, 15°34'33''S, 47°52'50''W, 950 m, 17 March 1966, H.S. Irwin, J.W. Grear Jr., R. Souza, & R. Reis dos Santos 14046 (NY).

IV. DISCUSSION

4.1 Morphometric analyses of Cedrela microanthus

The combination of these characters was not diagnostic in others species of Cedrela, overall the length of flowers, this feature would be inherent to Cedrela microanthus. According to our phylogenetic analysis using ITS, C. microanthus was close-related to both C.

fissilis from Atlantic range and C. balansae from Argentina and Paraguay. However, the traits values that exhibited these close species with C. microanthus were different. C. fissilis exhibited more number of leaflets (10-17) than C. microanthus, spite of both species have similar length leaves (42 cm), only that C. fissilis showed less leaflet blade width (2.5–5 cm) than C. microanthus and this increased the space to insert more leaflets per leaf in the same length of the rhachis. Other important difference between C. fissilis and C. microanthus is the number of secondary veins per leaflet, C. fissilis showed 12–17 and C. microanthus 8–12. The presence of a short inflorescence in C. fissilis (Mean = 22 cm) and a long one in C. microflora (mean = 35 cm) was also evidence for a different treatment. Moreover, the size of flowers in C. fissilis is almost two times the size of C. microanthus flowers, as well as the size of capsules showed the same situation. On the other hand the mean values of C. balansae are so close to C. microanthus mainly in vegetative characteristics, in reproductive features they are broadly different; for instance the inflorescence length in C. balansae is larger than observed in C. microanthus, also the size of flowers of C. balansae is larger than C. microanthus, other feature that offer insights on the differences between both congeners is the size of capsules, in C. balansae, they are in mean 3.75 cm and in C. microanthus is 4.2 cm. Therefore Cedrela microflora will form a morphologically distinct unit from others (Table 1).

4.2 Morphometric analyses of Cedrela pandeirensis

The combination of these traits was not diagnostic in others species of Cedrela, but there is a slightly similarity with C. fissilis, however they are not completely the same morphological entity. Cedrela pandeirensis exhibited shorter vegetative characteristics than C. fissilis. The vegetative features more remarkable were the number of pair of leaflets per leaf, 4–9, and the length and width blade. Sometimes, these vegetative characterictics increase their size when we observed in farms where the presence of nitrogenous is evident. The reproductive characteristics also showed slightly reduced size, the stamens either male or female were many shorter than those observed in C. fissilis, as well as the size of capsules (4.5–6 cm, mean=5.56 cm) was shorter than C. fissilis. According to our phylogenetic analysis, C. pandeirensis also was also related to C. balansae from Argentina and Paraguay. However, the traits values that exhibited C. pandeirensis were slightly different of C. balansae. For instance, the vegetative characteristics that C. pandeirensis exhibited were shorter than C. pandeirensis showed, except in the number of secondary veins, in this feature C. pandeirensis showed more secondary veins than C. balansae; on the other hand, when we

compared the reproductive characteristics between both species (C. pandeirensis and C. balansae), we noticed that the size of vegetative features of C. pandeirensis were larger than the features of C. balansae, except in the length of the inflorescence, the inflorescence of C. pandeirensis (18–30cm, mean=24.7 cm) is shorter than the inflorescence of C. balansae (36–53 cm, mean=44.5 cm). Therefore Cedrela pandeirensis will form a morphologically distinct unit from others congeners (Table 1).

Table 1. Mean trait values for Cedrela microanthus, Cedrela pandeirensis and morphologically related species. Standard error of mean and the number of organs analyzed (n) are annotated for C. microanthus and Cedrela pandeirensis. Minimum and maximum measured values per species per traits are indicated below each mean for all species. Values of related species were taken from Pennington & Muellner (2010).

Traits/Species	Cedrela microanthus	Cedrela pandeirensis	Cedrela brachystachya	Cedrela fissilis	Cedrela odorata
Leaf (petiole + rhachis) length (cm)	42.33 +/- 2.08 (n=20)	34.35 +/- 1.34 (n=50)	$18.43 \pm -1.27 (n = 26)$	mean = 42.5	mean = 37.5
	min = 22, max = 54	min = 24, max = 50	min = 7, max = 35	min = 25, max = 60	min = 25, max = 50
Number of pair of leaflets per leaf	$7.12 \pm 0.23 (n = 20)$	7 + -0.32 (n = 100)	$6.65 \pm 0.39 (n = 23)$	mean = 13.5	mean = 9
	$\min = 5, \max = 9$	$\min = 4, \max = 9$	$\min = 3, \max = 9$	min = 10, max = 17	min = 7, max = 11
Leaflet blade length (cm)	$11.31 \pm 0.26 (n = 100)$	9.87 +/-0.23 (n = 100)	5.12 +/-0.45 (n = 23)	mean = 11.5	mean = 11.5
	min = 8.38, max = 13.26	min = 6.94, max = 11.57	min = 2, max = 10	min = 8, max = 15	min = 8, max = 15
Leaflet blade width (cm)	4.21 +/- 0.10 (n = 100)	$3.47 \pm 0.05 (n = 100)$	2.43 +/-0.17 (n = 23)	mean = 3.7	mean = 3.5
	min = 3, $max = 5$	min = 2.83, max = 4.12	min = 1.3, max = 4.5	min = 2.5, max = 5	min = 2.5, max = 4.5
Petiolule Length (mm)	5.44 + - 0.19 (n = 100)	2.02 + 0.19 (n = 100)			
	min = 3.8, max = 7.3	$\min = 1, \max = 4.11$			
Number of secondary veins	10.75 + 0.19 (n = 100)	$13.5 \pm 0.15 (n = 100)$	7 +/- 0.35 (n = 27)	mean = 14.5	mean = 11.5
	$\min = 8$, $\max = 12$	min = 11, max = 15	min = 4, max = 10	min = 12, max = 17	min = 9, max = 14
Inflorescence length (cm)	35.4 +/- 1.63 (n = 20)	24.71 +/- 1.01 (n = 50)	17 + 0.68 (n = 21)	mean = 22.5	mean = 27.5
	min = 28, max = 48	min = 18, max = 32	min = 12.3, max = 24	min = 15, max = 30	min = 15, max = 40
Corolla length (mm)	5.45 + -0.05 (n = 50)	8 +/- 0.15 (n = 50)	$7.5 \pm 0.19 (n = 21)$	mean = 9.25	mean = 8
	$\min = 5, \max = 6$	min = 7, max = 9	$\min = 7, \max = 9$	min = 8, max = 10.5	min = 6, max = 10
Calyx tube length (mm)	2.07 + 0.06 (n = 50)	3 + 0.0 (n = 50)	2.26 + 0.14 (n = 21)	mean = 2.25	mean = 2
	min = 1.5, max = 2.5	min = 2, max = 3.5	$\min = 1, \max = 3$	min = 2, max = 2.5	min = 1.5, max = 2.5
Androgynophore length (mm)	2.57 + - 0.04 (n = 50)	$3.83 \pm 0.26 (n = 50)$	2.78 + -0.04 (n = 20)		mean = 3.25
	min = 2, max = 3.2	$\min = 2, \max = 5$	min = 2.5, max = 3		min = 2.5, max = 4
Stamens, male flower length (mm)	1.96 + - 0.01 (n = 100)	2.38 +/- 0.01 (n = 100)	3.86 + - 0.04 (n = 26)	mean = 3.63	mean = 3.05
	min = 1.9, max = 2	min = 1.8, max = 3	min = 3.5, max = 4.3	min = 3.25, max = 4	min = 2.3, max = 3.8
Stamens, female flower length (mm)	1.87 + 0.02 (n = 100)	2.63 + 0.01 (n = 100)	2.58 + - 0.03 (n = 21)	mean = 4.25	
	min = 1.5, max = 2	min = 2.4, max = 3.2	min = 2.4, max = 2.9	min = 3.5, max = 5	
Pistillode length (mm)	2.88 +/- 0.05 (n = 50)	3.33 + - 0.11 (n = 50)	2.85 + - 0.03 (n = 26)		mean = 4
	min = 2.5, max = 3	min = 3, $max = 4$	min = 2.7, max = 3		min = 3, $max = 5$
Pistil length (mm)	1.94 + - 0.11 (n = 50)	3.61 + -0.11 (n = 50)	3.2 + -0.06 (n = 25)	mean = 3.5	mean = 2.25
	min = 1, max = 2.5	min = 3.5, max = 4.5	min = 2.5, max = 3.7	min = 3, $max = 4$	min = 2, max = 2.5
Capsule size (cm)	$4.2 \pm 0.08 (n = 50)$	5.56 + 0.09 (n = 50)	3.2 +/- 0.06 (n = 19)	mean = 9	mean = 4
	min = 3.5, max = 4.5	min = 4.5, max = 6.1	min = 2.5, max = 3.5	min = 7, max = 11	$\min = 3, \max = 5$

4.3 Conservation status of new taxa of Cedrela

The forests are highly destroyed and they still are under threat throughout Brazil (Sparovek et al., 2012) as well as in all South America. In presente study we specially referred to seasonal forest. The causes of seasonal forest destruction range from climate change, habitat fragmentation, fire, population density and agriculture (Miles et al., 2006). The agriculture is highly intensive in seasonal forests because of they occur in soils highly fertiles (Oliveira-Filho et al., 1994). However Brazilian government had developed success efforts to control and reduce the agents that threaten them through National conservation areas which are managed by ICMBIo (Chico Mendes Institute for Biodiversity Conservation). Populations of Cedrela microanthus would be in extreme danger of extinction because the populations where were sampled are distributed outsite of conservation areas. It is greatful to mention that almost all populations of Cedrela pandeirensis are inside a good system of conservation areas from Northern Minas Gerais such as Pandeiros River Basin Environmental Preservation Area, Peruaçu Caves National Park, and Mata Seca State Park. On the other hand we were worried about the conservation status of Cedrela brachystachya because of the initial populations studied by Huamán-Mera et al. (Submitted) were distributed also outside of conservation areas, however in present work we confirmed the presence of populations (BR1 and BR2) of C. brachystachya within the National Park of Brasilia. All these conservation efforts would be possible the conservation of genetic pools of new taxa of Cedrela.

V. REFERENCES

Browne P. (1756) The Civil and Natural History of Jamaica in Three Parts. London.

- Cavers S., Navarro C., & Lowe A.J. (2003) Chloroplast DNA phylogeography reveals colonization history of a Neotropical tree, Cedrela odorata L., in Mesoamerica. Molecular Ecology 12, 1451–1460.
- Cervi A.C., Von Linsingen L., & Patricio P.C. (2008) O gênero Cedrela P. Browne (Meliaceae) no sul do Brasil. Acta Biológica Paranaense **37(1, 2)**, 105–110.
- Diaz-Soto J.M., Huamán-Mera A., & de Oliveira L.O. (2018) Population genetics of Cedrela fissilis (Meliaceae) from an ecotone in central Brazil. Tree Genetics and Genomes **14(73)**, 1–19.
- FAO (1997) Recursos genéticos de Swietenia y Cedrela en los Neotrópicos. Roma, Italia.
- FUNDAÇÃO SOS Mata Atlântica; INPE (2010) Atlas dos Remanescentes Florestais da Mata Atlântica. Período de 2008-2010. Relatório Parcial. Fundação SOS Mata Atlântica and Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas Espaciais, São Paulo.
- Garcia M.G., Silva R.S., Carniello M.A., Veldman J.W., Rossi A.A.B., & Oliveira L.O. (2011) Molecular evidences of cryptic speciation, historical range expansion, and recent intraspecific hybridization in the Neotropical seasonal forest tree Cedrela fissilis (Meliaceae). Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution **61**, 639–649.
- Huamán-Mera A. (2014) Structure and genetic diversity of Cedrela (Meliaceae) on the upper Parana river. Unpublished M.Sc. Dissertation, Universidade Federal de Viçosa.
- Huamán-Mera A, do Vale V.S., Meira-Neto J.A.A., & de Oliveira L.O. (2018) Cedrela brachystachya (Meliaceae), an ecological specialized treelet from the riparian ecosystems of Central Brazil. Manuscript submitted for publication.
- IUCN (2017) IUCN Red List of Threatened Species. Version 2017.3. <www.iucnredlist.org>. Downloaded on 07 May 2018.
- Köcke A.V., Muellner-Riehl A.N., Cáceres O., & Pennington T.D. (2015) Cedrela ngobe (Meliaceae), a new species from Panama and Costa Rica. Edinburgh Journal of Botany 72 (2), 225–233.
- Mangaravite E., Vinson C.C., Rody H.V.S., García M.G., Carniello M.A., Silva R.S., & Oliveira L.O. (2016) Contemporary patterns of genetic diversity of Cedrela fissilis (Meliaceae) offer insight into the shaping of seasonal forests in eastern South America. American Journal of Botany 103(2), 307–316.
- Miles L., Newton A.C., Defries R.S., Ravilious C., May I., Blyth S., Kapos V., & Gordon J.E. (2006) A global overview of the conservation status of tropical dry forests. Journal of Biogeography 33(3), 491–505.
- Muellner A.N., Pennington T.D., & Chase M.W. (2009) Molecular phylogenetics of Neotropical Cedreleae (mahogany family, Meliaceae) based on nuclear and plastid DNA sequences reveal multiple origins of "Cedrela odorata". Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 52, 461–469.

- Muellner A.N., Pennington T.D., Koecke A.V., & Renner S.S. (2010) Biogeography of Cedrela (Meliaceae, Sapindales) in Central and South America. American Journal of Botany 97, 511–518.
- Oliveira-Filho A.T., Scolforo J.R.S., & Mello J.M. (1994) Composição florística e estrutura de um remanescente de floresta semidecidual montana em Lavras, MG. Revista Brasileira de Botânica **17**, 167–182.
- Pennington T.D. & Muerllner, A.N. (2010). A monograph of Cedrela (Meliaceae). Sherborne, UK: DH Books.
- Smith C.E. (1960) A revision of Cedrela (Meliaceae). Fieldiana: Botany 29, 340–341.
- Sparovek G., Berndes G., Barretto A.G.O.P., & Klug I.L.F. (2012) The revision of the Brazilian Forest Act: increased deforestation or a historic step towards balancing agricultural development and nature conservation? Environmental science and policy **16**, 65–72.
- Styles B. T. (1981). Swietenioideae. In T. D. Pennington & B. T. Styles (Eds.), Flora Neotropica 28 Meliaceae (pp. 359–385). The New York Botanical Garden.
- Zapater M.A., del Castillo E.M., & Pennington T.D. (2004). El género Cedrela (Meliaceae) en la Argentina. Darwiniana 42 (1-4), 347–356.