What is a species in *Veronica*? Reflections on the occasion of Manfred A. Fischer's 80th birthday

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A b s t r a c t: The species is the central category of organizing the diversity of life. Yet, many different species concepts, such as the morphological, biological, ecological, and phylogenetic concepts, have been used by biologists, preventing clear comparability. Based on the history of species description in the genus *Veronica*, I demonstrate that the biosystematics approach by Manfred A. Fischer from the 1960s onwards has started to renew our understanding of what a species is in this genus. Detailed investigations of morphology, ecology, reproductive barriers, and, later, genetic cohesion and testing of species limits have continued from his earliest analyses of the *V. hederifolia*-complex. We now recognize 455 species in the genus *Veronica* but still only few species have been rigorously analyzed, leaving certainly a lot of work for future systematists working on this beautiful genus.

K e y w o r d s : biosystematics; history; phylogeny; polyploidy; species concept

Zusammenfassung: Was ist eine Art in *Veronica*? Reflexionen anläßlich des 80. Geburtstages von Manfred A. Fischer

Die Art ist die zentrale Kategorie für die Organisation der Vielfalt des Lebens. Dennoch wurden von Biologen viele verschiedene Artkonzepte wie das morphologische, biologische, ökologische und phylogenetische Konzept verwendet, was eine klare Vergleichbarkeit von Arten verhindert. Anhand der Geschichte der Artbeschreibung in der Gattung *Veronica* zeige ich, dass der biosystematische Ansatz von Manfred A. Fischer seit den 1960er-Jahren dazu führte, dass sich unser Verständnis, was eine Art in dieser Gattung ist, komplett erneuerte. Detaillierte Untersuchungen der Morphologie, der Ökologie, der Fortpflanzungsbarrieren und – später – der genetischen Kohäsion sowie die Prüfung der Artgrenzen wurden seit seinen ersten Analysen des *V. hederifolia*-Komplexes fortgesetzt. Heute sind 455 Arten in der Gattung *Veronica* bekannt, aber nur wenige wurden gründlich analysiert, so dass es für künftige Systematiker, die sich mit dieser schönen Gattung befassen, sicherlich noch viel zu tun gibt.

Introduction

"... why, if species have descended from other species by insensibly fine gradations, do we not everywhere see innumerable transitional forms? Why is not all nature in confusion instead of species being, as we see them, well defined?" (DARWIN 1859: 171)

Categorizing the diversity of life from microbial life to large mammals and trees has intrigued mankind for millennia. The central category in this respect is the species. However, defining what a species is, has evaded scientists ever since. Even DARWIN (1859; cited above) was puzzled and did not find a solution to the problem. In his time, morphology was the only means to describe species, although large crossing programmes in

plants were conducted by Linné, Kölreuter and Gärtner in the 18th and early 19th centuries (KINGSBURY 2009). Only in the middle of the 20th century, crossing barriers between species became part of species concepts, notably by the ornithologist MAYR (1942). Since plants are known to hybridize promiscuously, his biological species concept, however, was not widely used in plants (HÖRANDL 2022), despite the fact that reproductively isolated lineages are more common in plants than in animals (RIESEBERG 2006). The second half of the 20th century saw a rise in new data analyzed to describe species and new types of analyses to reveal relationships between them, leading to emphasis on either ecology (VAN VALEN 1976) or phylogeny (DE QUEIROZ & DONOGHUE 1988) in species concepts. Especially the latter, with increasing amounts of genetic data, has shifted the focus of species definition to the genetic level and species delimitation methods based on genetic data have been suggested to be a more objective way to delimit a species (e.g., YANG & RANNALA 2010, TOPRAK & al. 2016, HAUSDORF & HENNIG 2020). Nevertheless, a common definition of species is still not in sight with some emphasizing criteria that distinguish evolutionary lineages from other such lineages, while others emphasize criteria that strengthen cohesion within species (WELLS & al. 2022). Yet others stress that these species concepts only discuss what distinguishes species, not what a species is. These latter concepts, starting with SIMPSON (1961) and WILEY (1978) and leading to the general lineage concept (DE QUEIROZ 1999), still have the problem of how these lineages are identified. WILEY (1978), for example, explicitly excluded the necessity of morphological and ecological distinction and allowed gene flow between species as long as species identity is maintained. Consequently, species are identified by different scientists using different criteria, and species are often not comparable even among plants.

To compare species richness across clades or regions, comparable units need to be based on common criteria. Further, these criteria need to be testable, and species, therefore, are hypotheses that are falsifiable in the sense of Popper (FITZHUGH 2009). Based on this idea, species are identified by discontinuities among populations. These discontinuities can be found in different aspects of a species as discussed in previous concepts. These dimensions of a species can be defined as phenotype, ecology, crosscompatibility, and genetic cohesion, although it can be debated whether these dimensions are really independent and whether there are not more than four. With respect to phenotype, finding discontinuities resembles the classical morphological/phenetic species concept. However, the phenotype includes also characters such as phytochemistry and chromosome number, and the methods have diversified and become more sophisticated (e.g., ZAPATA & JIMÉNEZ 2012). Discontinuities in ecology have been emphasized in the ecological species concept (VAN VALEN 1976). The exact ecological characters to distinguish species can vary in scale. They can be broad-scale climatological characters, such as those used by WorldClim (FICK & HIJMANS 2017) for ecological niche modelling, and methods to detect significantly different niches have been developed (WARREN & al. 2008). These ecological discontinuities can also be on a smaller geographic scale and would need to be detected, for instance, in a phytosociological manner (e.g., BJORÅ & al. 2008). Furthermore, these ecological characters can also encompass biological interactions, e.g., different food resources or different symbiotic partners (TĚŠITELOVÁ & al. 2013). Discontinuities in cross-compatibility are detected classically by crossing programmes (RAMSEY & al. 2003) and constitute the biological species. However, now-adays cross-compatibilities may also be inferred by genetic analyses to detect the cross-species and genome-wide extent of hybridization and introgression. Such approaches blur the analyses of discontinuities in cross-compatibility and genetic cohesion.

The phylogenetic dimension has been heavily disputed. There has been a long debate about whether a species should be a monophyletic group (CRACRAFT 1987, DE QUEIROZ & DONOGHUE 1988, BAUM 1992) or is often paraphyletic (RIESEBERG & BROUILLET 1994, AVISE & WOLLENBERG 1997) or necessarily polyphyletic at the beginning (ROSEN-BERG 2003). It is now clear that this is a debate on the time of speciation relative to the divergence of two lineages. Lineages are usually polyphyletic at divergence and become reciprocally monophyletic (ROSENBERG 2003). In most models of speciation, such as budding speciation, one would consider that the first lineage is monophyletic at the onset of speciation (AVISE & WOLLENBERG 1997, COYNE & ORR 2004). However, it is not clear when phenotypic and ecological discontinuities as well as reproductive barriers evolve relative to the monophyly of a lineage. Likely, it will remain to some extent subjective at what point along this line of evolving discontinuities diverging lineages should be called two different species.

Such questions have rarely been investigated in detail for a species, and the dating of such discontinuities is likely to remain impossible for most species, which is why species remain hypotheses to be investigated in ever more detail in the future. More sophisticated methods of analysis allow elucidating more and more aspects of the species limits. Here, I do not just refer to genomic data and analyses of the pangenome of a species alone (BOBAY 2020 for prokaryotes but transferable to eukaryotes) but also to metabarcoding of the microbiome of a plant and to species-specific differences in the microbiome (GEISEN & al. 2021). Apart from these, ongoing studies to understand the phenotype, ecological niches, and reproductive barriers in more and more detail will help to understand species limits. The inability to analyze all individuals and all characters of a species recently lead WELLS & al. (2021) to consider species as heuristics, tested against new data again and again. Consequently, establishing an inventory of life will remain a never-ending task and any database an approximation of real life. Nevertheless, such an approximation remains important for other fields of research, depending on the assignment of individuals to species.

History of species in Veronica

Here, I discuss species delimitation in the genus *Veronica* to present the current state of knowledge and the influence of Manfred A. Fischer on it. The genus *Veronica* is a member of the family Plantaginaceae, formerly Scrophulariaceae (OLMSTEAD & REEVES

1995, ALBACH & al. 2005) and comprises 455 species (based on my own unpublished list) that occur worldwide from the tropics to the deserts and the Arctic and from sealevel to 5500 metres a.s.l. in the Himalayas. Of these 455 species, 39% are named after a morphological feature, 25% commemorate people (but just 4 out of these 113 species are named after women), 19% are named after a locality, 9% in relation to some other species and 8% after their habitat. They can be as small as 2 cm or as tall as 7 m, are short-lived and reproducing within 4–6 weeks or are long-lived alpine perennials. The earliest mention of the name Veronica is, according to my literature search, by MATTIOLI (1568) as an important medicinal plant. However, species of the genus Veronica were already mentioned in the "New Kreuterbuch" of FUCHS (1543), in which he described a male ("Erenbreiß mennle") and a female Veronica ("Erenbreiß weible"), the first being V. officinalis, the second likely belonging to a completely different genus. Other species (identifiable as V. agrestis, V. beccabunga, V. hederifolia, V. chamaedrys, V. teucrium) are described at different places in his book. DODOENS (1578) also described both species and the second as having yellow flowers supporting the notion that it is not a Veronica in our sense. This is further supported by his description of species of Dianthus as Veronica altilis. Thus, the circumscription of the genus was not based on obvious morphological characters until subsequent authors did so. Among these, GERARD (1597) is notable in this respect since he still recognized female and male Veronica but referred to "Elatine" for the female Veronica and "Paules Betonie" for the male Veronica, under which he recognized six species, which can be identified mostly as today's Veronica species (V. officinalis, V. serpyllifolia, V. longifolia and three unidentifiable species). Other species we nowadays recognize as Veronica were described under the name "Anagallis". BAUHIN (1623) provided a major step in this respect, listing eight species under Veronica, all except one clearly referable to species recognized today. Additionally, he acknowledged the similarity of these to nine species that we nowadays consider members of Veronica, but were then given the names Chamaedrys, Anagallis and Alsine, all described following his Veronica in the narrow sense.

Linné described 26 species of *Veronica* in "Species Plantarum" (LINNÉ 1753), of which 20 are still recognized today. Species were continuously described, with peaks in the mid-19th century (Fig. 1), especially due to intensified investigation of Southwest Asian floras, the centre of diversity of the genus, by BOISSIER (1844, 1879) and others. By 1900, 229 of the 455 species accepted today have been described, entirely based on morphological comparisons. By that time, the first phylogenetic tree for species of *Veronica* was published (JUEL 1891). Starting in 1906, Ernst Lehmann (LEHMANN 1906) and his students investigated systematically the genus considering in more detail chorology, ecology and, after the first report of chromosome numbers in the genus by HEITZ (1926), the number of chromosomes (e.g., HUBER 1927, GRAZE 1933). Nevertheless, their species concept was still largely a morphological/phenetic species concept, though investigating in more detail intraspecific variation.

LEHMANN (1914) was also the first to conduct systematic crossing studies among species of *Veronica* in order to detect species limits. Crossing programmes to evaluate



Fig. 1: Timeline for the description of the 455 species of *Veronica* recognized today. — Abb. 1: Anzahl der Beschreibungen von *Veronica*-Arten über die Jahre (dargestellt sind die 455 heute akzeptierten Arten).

reproductive barriers between species are labour intensive. Consequently, there are few such projects in Veronica. LINNÉ (1787) was the first to report crossings in Veronica but his hybrid combinations (V. spuria = V. maritima \times Verbena officinalis; V. hybrida = V. spicata \times V. officinalis; Campanula hederacea = C. aliqua \times V. hederifolia) are implausible. GÄRTNER (1849) reported unsuccessful hybridization of V. agrestis with V. nummulariaefolia (?V. serpyllifolia) and concluded that hybridization in the genus is rare. Lehmann and his students (GRAZE 1933, BEATUS 1935, SCHLENKER 1935, ZÜN-DORF 1939, SCHMITZ 1946) continued these studies, which helped support species limits but rarely changed previous considerations. Since then, to the best of my knowledge, our study on V. spicata and V. longifolia is the only other crossing experiment published with the aim of testing species limits (BUONO & al. 2021). These studies have in common that cross-fertility between species in garden environments is high and polyploidy serves as the major reproductive barrier in controlled crosses of Veronica species. Therefore, these studies from the first half of the 20th century seem to have discouraged others from pursuing such studies. Thus, the biological species concept has had only minimal impact on species delimitation in Veronica.

The second half of the 20th century saw major contributions to our knowledge of species diversity in the genus through large flora projects with descriptions of new species (BORISSOVA 1955, FISCHER 1978, 1981, 1982, 1991, MOUTERDE & FISCHER 1984). These projects provided the basis for in-depth analyses of species groups, especially by Manfred A. Fischer (Fig. 2; e.g., FISCHER 1970a, 1972, 1987) and publication of new species (FISCHER 1977a, b, 1984). Despite mostly based on morphology, in many of these species descriptions, chromosome numbers played an important role for decisions on species limits (cytotaxonomy sensu FISCHER 1967, 1970a, b or karyosystematics sensu ÖZTÜRK & FISCHER 1982), strongly influenced by Friedrich Ehrendorfer (FISCHER 1997). In these studies, karyological analyses were considered to provide insights into

species boundaries and phylogenetic relationships that were not possible by morphology alone (FISCHER 1967). Fischer's study on *V. hederifolia* serves as an example and is the most rigorous of his analyses. Using information on ploidy level in this group of diploid (*V. triloba*), tetraploid (*V. sublobata*) and hexaploid (*V. hederifolia*) species (Fig. 3), Fischer detected non- or just partially overlapping characters to distinguish plants of different ploidy levels. Here, the length of the leaf lamina, the length of the deepest indentation of the leaf margin, the length of the longest pedicel in fruit, the average sepal length, and the mean pollen diameter were measured. FISCHER (1967) assigned the index



Fig. 2: Manfred A. Fischer in the field, collecting *Veronica scardica* in the serpentine area near Redlschlag (Burgenland, Austria). Photo: Josef Weinzettl, 20 May 2017. — Manfred A. Fischer im Gelände, beim Sammeln von *Veronica scardica* im Serpentingebiet von Redlschlag (Burgenland, Österreich). Foto: Josef Weinzettl, 20. Mai 2017.

1.0 to the character values measured in the diploid, 2.0 to those in the hexaploids and 3.0 to those in the tetraploids. Multiplication of the index with a character-specific value of diagnosability provided a "Sippenindex" in analogy to the hybrid index of ANDERSON (1953): 1–1.5 for *V. triloba*, 1.5–2.0 for *V. hederifolia*, 2.5–3.0 for *V. sublobata*. This index allowed assignment of plants of unknown ploidy to one of the three species. Thus, the three species sensu FISCHER (1967), including the newly published *V. sublobata*, are essentially phenetically determined species. Ploidy was used as an absolute diagnostic character ("absolutes Differentialmerkmal") with which the morphological diagnostic



Fig. 3: *Veronica hederifolia* (left) and *V. sublobata* (right) can be identified based on various characters of the flower and the flower stalk with the decisive character being ploidy; they can be commonly found growing next to each other as in these plants from northern Germany. Photo: Dirk Albach. — **Abb. 3:** *Veronica hederifolia* (links) und *V. sublobata* (rechts) können anhand verschiedener Blüten- und Blütenstielmerkmale unterschieden werden, das ausschlaggebende Merkmal ist aber die Ploidiestufe; die beiden Arten kommen oft nebeneinander vor, wie bei diesen norddeutschen Pflanzen. Foto: Dirk Albach.

characters with their characteristic combination could be tested. The analysis of habitat and chorology in FISCHER (1967) demonstrated the influence of an ecological species concept, while the discussion of chromosome numbers and the report of a lack of observed hybrids indicated the influence of the biological species concept. Thus, we don't have a typical morphological/phenetic species concept but rather a biosystematic species concept (although Fischer never called it that).

However, ploidy as the absolute diagnostic character of FISCHER (1967) may not always be such an absolute character. In an analysis of *Veronica cymbalaria*, FISCHER (1975) was able to separate the diploid (*V. panormitana*, *V. trichadena*) from the tetraploid and hexaploid plants (Fig. 4) but considered the latter two ploidy levels as both belonging to *V. cymbalaria* due to the lack of morphological and chorological separation. Multiple origins of tetraploids, as in *V. chamaedrys* (BARDY & al. 2010), *V. cymbalaria* (ALBACH 2007) or *V. spicata* and *V. longifolia* (BUONO & al. 2021), have since cast more doubt on the absoluteness of ploidy as diagnostic character.

It is noteworthy in this respect that chemotaxonomy did not have such a function as a differential character as in many other genera. While phytochemistry has contrib-



Fig. 4: Veronica cymbalaria (left) and V. panormitana (right) can be best differentiated by ploidy but also by some morphological characters such as flower size; they can grow sympatrically as these here near Antalya in southern Turkey. Photo: Dirk Albach. — Abb. 4: Veronica cymbalaria (links) und V. panormitana (rechts) können am eindeutigsten anhand der Ploidiestufe, aber auch mittels einiger morphologischer Merkmale wie der Blütengröße unterschieden werden; die beiden Arten können zusammen vorkommen wie etwa hier nahe Antalya in der südlichen Türkei. Foto: Dirk Albach.

uted to the knowledge of the genus since the first phytochemical analysis (SWIATEK & DRUZYNSKI 1968a, b) and was an important first indication that the infrageneric structure of the time was artificial (GRAYER-BARKMEIJER 1973), it has been always used for higher-level grouping of species (e.g., TASKOVA & al. 2004, 2012) rather than species delimitation, with the exception of studies by MITCHELL & al. (2001).

Veronica in the era of molecular systematics

By this time, the use of DNA sequences in the genus had already started with the analyses of WAGSTAFF & GARNOCK-JONES (1998) and ALBACH & CHASE (2001), which provided a more reliable kind of data to infer relationships in the genus above the species level and made it possible to test relationships among species and populations independently. Consequently, the concept of the genus and its subgenera has become essentially a phylogenetic concept with some supporting evidence from morphology, biogeography, karyology and phytochemistry (ALBACH & al. 2004). Nevertheless, even the 14 species that have been described since 2000 are mostly based on a morphological/phenetic species concept. And even those species that were established based on phylogenetic evidence in a DNA-based phylogenetic analysis were previously recognized at lower ranks and therefore not their recognition but only their rank is based on genetic divergence (DOOST-MOHAMMADI & al. 2022), with the possible exception of *V. dalmatica* (PADILLA-GARCÍA & al. 2018). Thus, the question remains whether the morphological/phenetic species concept is sufficient, with other kind of data mostly aiding in deciding on the taxonomic rank.

The species delimitation for the *Veronica hederifolia*-complex by FISCHER (1967) was much debated and not always confirmed (NORDENSTAM & NILSSON 1969, DE JONGH & KERN 1971). Even FISCHER (1975) admitted that the phenotypic limits are blurred in southern regions. However, the species delimitation withstood the test of time and DNA, which confirmed the three species in Central Europe as three independent genetic clades, despite evidence for some hybridization and possible further independent lineages in southeastern Europe and Turkey (HERRMANN 2021). Further sampling of individuals from this region and as yet understudied morphological data combined with information on ploidy and DNA sequence data will be necessary to evaluate species limits in this region. Thus, DNA sequence data serve as an "absolute diagnostic character" much like ploidy served as such for FISCHER (e.g., 1967, 1970b) and provides a more detailed resolution of relationships.

A further example for this is the study by BARDY & al. (2010) on Veronica chamaedrys. FISCHER (1970b, 1973) had separated the diploid plants as V. vindobonensis based on a combination of diagnostic morphological characters, distribution area and ploidy. However, the more detailed analyses of BARDY & al. (2010) revealed that the distributions overlap more than previously thought and that morphological character states are continuous. Further, the DNA-based analyses demonstrated that the tetraploids evolved independently from various groups of diploids several times. Thus, DNA again serves as an absolute character but at finer resolution than ploidy levels, which can be a homoplasious character.

In essence, the biosystematic species concept of Fischer has simply been updated and expanded by Albach (e.g., ALBACH 2007, DOOSTMOHAMMADI & al. 2022) by using DNA-characters and phylogenetic information to assess species rank, similar to how Fischer used ploidy information (FISCHER 1967). In fact, the biosystematic species concept of Fischer does not differ considerably from the unified species concept of DE QUEIROZ (2005, 2007) with species being "separately evolving metapopulation lineage segments" (DE QUEIROZ 2007) with morphology, karyology, and DNA-based phylogenetic information as diagnostic properties. What has hitherto not been assessed rigorously in *Veronica* is the analysis of the timing of the emergence of species-defining properties. Did morphological differences evolve before, simultaneously or after reciprocal monophyly? In some cases, such as *V. wormskjoldii*, it is apparent that the species have not gained monophyly with respect to their budding species (ALBACH & al. 2006) despite morphological diagnosability. In *V. cymbalaria* differences in ploidy and thus probably reproductive isolation have not yet lead to morphological diagnosability or monophyly of either cytotype (ALBACH 2007), therefore both cytotypes are recognized as a single species.

However, as pointed out by WELLS & al. (2021), the unified species concept of DE QUEIROZ (2007) provides a framework for what a species is but it does not provide an operational framework for when the species status has been attained. An instructive example in *Veronica* has been provided by the study of BARDY & al. (2010) mentioned above. Morphologically, only *V. krumovii* has been found to be distinct, but evidence from phylogenetic analyses demonstrates that it is a hybrid between the northeastern and the southern lineages. The southern lineage, corresponding to *V. chamaedryoides*, is monophyletic, although reciprocal monophyly has not been tested rigorously. Morphologically, the distinction is not clear and the morphospaces are partially overlapping. Therefore, BARDY & al. (2010) decided to recognize this taxon as a subspecies.

I admit that the rank of subspecies is ambiguous and deserves a definition similar to the term species. It functions as a placeholder for situations in which there is disagreement as to whether the taxa are sufficiently different to be recognized as species. Subspecies, following, slightly modified, STUESSY (2009), are geographically separable units that are genetically and morphologically partially distinct but distinction is insufficient to allow recognition in the absence of geographical information. Additionally, morphological similarity has to be based on inheritance rather than convergent ecological adaptation. This ambiguity in differentiation makes subspecies prime targets for further investigation on species status with further data and increased sampling.

The ambiguity of the subspecies is exemplified by the case of *Veronica tenuifolia*. MARTÍNEZ ORTEGA & al. (2004) recognized three subspecies in this species because they lack clear morphological characters to distinguish them at species rank. However, these authors recognized the genetic cohesion of each of the three taxa, absence of gene flow between them, as well as their phytogeographical separation, suggesting that they may deserve species rank. Thus, it is not surprising that the study by HAUSDORF &

HENNIG (2020) using the genetic data of MARTÍNEZ ORTEGA & al. (2004) alone came to the conclusion that the three taxa should be recognized at the species level. They argued that the genetic distance between the three taxa is larger than expected based on genetic versus geographical distance regression within taxa. Thus, the three taxa do not behave like one large continuous species. In contrast to MARTÍNEZ ORTEGA & al. (2004), HAUS-DORF & HENNIG (2020) did not consider morphological differences, following a genetic cohesion-type species concept. Relying on genetic data alone, however, should not be enough for the recognition of species since separating genetic sister-groups not differentiated by morphology is frustrating for field botanists and other biologists. Thus, in these cases, the subspecies rank seems more appropriate to point out strong intraspecific structuring while emphasizing the lack of morphological differentiation.

It remains to be seen how to handle groups in which DNA sequence data suggest more than one lineage but morphology (and ploidy) does not separate these lineages. Certainly, paraphyletic species are common (RIESEBERG & BROUILLET 1994) and *Veronica wormskjoldii* (ALBACH & al. 2006) is an example from the genus *Veronica*. Here, the two geographically restricted species, *V. cusickii* and *V. copelandii*, have possibly evolved phenotypically and attained monophyly due to genetic drift faster than the presumed ancestor *V. wormskjoldii*. For the two lineages of *V. wormskjoldii* subsp. *nutans*, it will be clear in a few thousand years whether they evolve monophyly with respect to *V. cusickii* and *V. copelandii* or whether they evolve morphological discontinuities that will allow separating them at the species rank.

However, there may also be cases in which convergence may blur species boundaries and phylogenetic data have been instrumental to elucidate such patterns. One example is dense, interwoven indumentum. This has, based on DNA sequence data, separately evolved in Veronica bombycina and V. bolkardaghensis, which were considered conspecific but have recently been separated based on DNA sequence data (Doost-MOHAMMADI & al. 2022). However, this step has not (yet) been taken for V. incana, which also appears to consist of at least two separate lineages (Nehrke & Albach, in prep.; Fig. 5). A second character revealed to be homoplastic is the pinnatifid leaf. Previously considered to be conspecific based on the similarly pinnatifid leaves, V. dalmatica was separated from V. austriaca subsp. jacquinii initially based on phylogenetic evidence, and this was corroborated by other morphological characters, different ploidy levels and distinct distribution areas (PADILLA-GARCÍA & al. 2018). Separating V. multifida into multiple species seems a further necessity based on the apparently convergent evolution of pinnatifid leaves, but this requires in-depth morphological and further phylogenetic analyses (DOOSTMOHAMMADI & al. 2022). Convergence may also extend to ecological characters, but this is rarely studied systematically with only few species distribution models available for species of Veronica (SOUSA-SILVA & al. 2014, BUONO & al. 2021, LÓPEZ-GONZÁLEZ & al. 2021, OMAR & ELGAMAL 2021).

Finally, there is the issue of hybrid species. The debate about the frequency of hybridization in *Veronica* started with LINNÉ (1787) and GÄRTNER (1849) and continued with HÄRLE (1932) and FISCHER (1974), among others. DNA data and phylogenetic anal-

yses have helped address the issue. A number of studies have now demonstrated hybrid origins of species such as *V. ×gundisalvi* (LÓPEZ-GONZÁLEZ & al. 2021), *V. ×sessiliflora* (Fig. 6), *V. ×schmakovii* and *V. ×altaica* (Khan & al., submitted). Overall, however, few of the hybrids proposed on the basis of morphology have been analyzed. Based on the available information, homoploid hybridization seems to occur within subgenera and is largely evolutionarily inconsequential with hybrids mostly remaining locally with their parents.

Polyploid speciation may be a different issue in *Veronica*. ALBACH & al. (2008) estimated ca. 15%–20% of all speciation events to be due to polyploidy. This may have been an overestimation since it is possible that some now purely polyploid species were



Fig. 5: Veronica incana has been shown by DNA comparison to include two separate genetic lineages with this population from central Ukraine being the true V. incana. Photo: Dirk Albach. — Abb. 5: Veronica incana umfasst zwei klar getrennte genetische Linien, wobei die hier gezeigte Population aus der zentralen Ukraine zur echten V. incana gehört. Foto: Dirk Albach. derived via autopolyploid origin and their ancestor is now extinct or has not yet been found. Autopolyploidy seems to be predominant in *Veronica* subsect. *Pentasepalae* (PADILLA-GARCÍA & al. 2018) and in general. SOLTIS & al. (2007) asked for recognition of autopolyploid lineages. However, autopolyploid lineages in *Veronica* are rarely differentiated morphologically and ecologically to an extent that it is possible to identify these plants without analyzing chromosome numbers or genome size. In many cases, these autopolyploid lineages originated multiple times independently (e. g., BARDY & al. 2010, BUONO & al. 2021) and are still considered conspecific. Exceptions are *V. sennenii* and *V. angustifolia*, which are autopolyploid derivatives of *V. satureiifolia* (PADILLA-GARCÍA & al. 2018).



Fig. 6: Veronica porphyriana (left) and V. pinnata (right) are the parents of V. ×sessiliflora (middle), growing side by side in the Altai Mountains. Photo: Dirk Albach. — Abb. 6: Veronica porphyriana (links) und V. pinnata (rechts) sind die Eltern von V. ×sessiliflora (Mitte), nebeneinander wachsend im Altai-Gebirge. Foto: Dirk Albach.

On the other hand, a few cases of allopolyploidy have been confirmed using DNA markers, e.g., *Veronica cymbalaria* (= *V. panormitana* × *V. trichadena*; ALBACH 2007) with two origins of the tetraploid level and multiple origins of the hexaploid level. A taxonomically difficult problem is the allopolyploid origin of *V. wormskjoldii* subsp. *wormskjoldii* from *V. alpina* and *V. wormskjoldii* subsp. *nutans* (ALBACH & al. 2006). A morphological separation of polyploid from diploid *V. wormskjoldii* is not possible and even the distinction from diploid *V. alpina* is difficult. The clearest example of an allopolyploid origin in *Veronica* so far is *V. persica*, a tetraploid derivative of *V. polita* and *V. ceratocarpa* (Albach, unpub.), a pattern that was already suggested by FISCHER (1987). Allopolyploids in *V.* subsect. *Pentasepalae* have not yet been recognized at the species level since these are mostly aberrant individuals or single populations (PADILLA-GARCÍA & al. 2018). Thus, based on these few examples, allopolyploidy seems to occur only between closely related species, so close that they can be considered in the grey zone between auto- and allopolyploidy.

So where do we stand in terms of comparability of species in Veronica? A few groups such as V. subsect. Pentasepalae have been studied intensively (ANDRÉS-SÁNCHEZ & al. 2008, ROJAS-ANDRÉS & al. 2015, ROJAS-ANDRÉS & al. 2016, PADILLA-GARCÍA & al. 2018). The European to Siberian members of V. subg. Pseudolysimachium have also been well studied (BARDY & al. 2011; Khan & al., submitted, Albach, Nehrke, Daubert, Höpke, unpub.). In many groups we only scratched the surface with phylogenetic analyses, such as V. sect. Canae (BUHK & al. 2015). In others, such as V. sect. Beccabunga, phylogenetic analyses have so far raised more new questions than helped to delimit natural species (ELLMOUNI & al. 2017). Finally, there are groups such as V. sect. Acinifolia and V. sect. Subracemosae (V. biloba and relatives) with almost no information on phylogenetic relationships so far, but in which chromosome counts suggest multiple cytotypes within what we consider a single species today (ALBACH & al. 2008). Thus, there is an urgent need to study and understand species diversity in order to protect the significant units of evolution and to preserve these wonderful species for future generations.

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