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INVITED REVIEW

Monocot fossils suitable for molecular dating analyses

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Recent re-examinations and new fossil findings have added significantly to the data available for evaluating the evolutionary history of the monocotyledons. Integrating data from the monocot fossil record with molecular dating techniques has the potential to help us to understand better the timing of important evolutionary events and patterns of diversification and extinction in this major and ancient clade of flowering plants. In general, the oldest well-placed fossils are used to constrain the age of nodes in molecular dating analyses. However, substantial error can be introduced if calibration fossils are not carefully evaluated and selected. Here we propose a set of 34 fossils representing 19 families and eight orders for calibrating the ages of major monocot clades. We selected these fossils because they can be placed in particular clades with confidence and they come from well-dated stratigraphic sequences. As more fossils are discovered or re-examined, these criteria can also be applied to expand the list of the fossils that are most suitable for dating the early branches of monocot phylogeny. © 2015 The Linnean Society of London, *Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society*, 2015, **178**, 346–374.

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INTRODUCTION

The monocots represent a substantial fraction of extant angiosperm species (~22%, Stevens, 2001+), and define and dominate some of the most widespread and productive ecosystems, including grasslands and seagrass meadows (Larkum, Orth & Duarte, 2006; Strömberg, 2011). Despite their diversity and ecological ubiquity, they have often been viewed as having a meagre and confusing fossil record, primarily because of preservation biases associated with their predominantly herbaceous habit (Herendeen & Crane, 1995; Smith, 2013), but also due to the lack of morphological synapomorphies that can be assessed in fossils (Gandolfo, Nixon & Crepet, 2000). A substantial expansion in our understanding of fossil monocots has come about through synthetic review (Dovle, 1973; Daghlian, 1981; Collinson, Boulter & Holmes, 1993; Herendeen & Crane, 1995; Gandolfo et al., 2000; Greenwood & Conran, 2000; Stockey, 2006; Smith et al., 2010; Friis, Crane & Pedersen, 2011; Smith, 2013), phylogenetic inference (e.g. Doyle, Endress & Upchurch, 2008) and new fossil discoveries. Recently described fossils include the first unequivocal orchids (Ramírez et al., 2007; Conran, Bannister & Lee, 2009a) and the oldest known grasses (Prasad et al., 2005, 2011). A parallel revolution has happened in our understanding of higher-order monocot relationships, due primarily to molecular systematic data (summarized in Stevens, 2001+). These different lines of

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evidence have provided new insights into the tempo and mode of diversification in monocots. However, a monocot-wide framework for assessing which fossils are most suitable for calibrating molecular dating analyses is still lacking. Our major goal here is to explore this issue in detail.

The fossil record provides the only physical evidence of past biological events, but many lineages have a poor or non-existent fossil history. Molecular dating approaches (e.g. Sanderson, 2003; Drummond et al., 2006; Dos Reis & Yang, 2011; Heath, Huelsenbeck & Stadler, 2014) allow the integration of phylogenetic and fossil data to estimate divergence times across lineages lacking a fossil record, in addition to improving estimates for fossil-rich lineages. These inferred dates can be used in further downstream analyses, for example to estimate rates of extinction and speciation (e.g. Magallón & Sanderson, 2001), to reconstruct biogeographical patterns (e.g. Donoghue & Moore, 2003; Iles et al., 2014) and to date the origin of specific ecosystems of interest (e.g. Davis et al., 2005; Edwards et al., 2010; Couvreur, Forest & Baker, 2011). Although there are multiple sources of error in molecular dating (e.g. Magallón, 2004; Rutschmann, 2006; Lepage et al., 2007; Gandolfo, Nixon & Crepet, 2008; Parham & Irmis, 2008; Ho & Phillips, 2009; Clarke, Warnock & Donoghue, 2011; Parham et al., 2012; Dos Reis & Yang, 2013; Paradis, 2013; Sauquet, 2013), the largest ones may be the mis-specification of fossil placement in the phylogenetic tree and the associated age of the fossil (Yang & Rannala, 2006; Sauguet et al., 2012). This underlines the need for the careful selection of fossil calibrations on the basis of accurate and up-to-date assessment of fossil ages and phylogenetic placements (Magallón, 2004; Gandolfo et al., 2008; Parham & Irmis, 2008; Parham et al., 2012; Pirie & Doyle, 2013) and continued research on the fossil record.

Here, we attempt to identify and justify those monocot fossils that have the potential to be the most useful for dating monocot phylogenetic trees. Fossils suitable for calibration should have a well-justified age and phylogenetic placement, sufficient to constrain the age of an associated node in a molecular phylogenetic tree reliably. Typically the calibration is effectively applied as the minimum age for the associated node. Note that it is not accurate to say that the fossil originated at the node (see below). Our use of 'calibration' here is more general than that of Sanderson (1997) and Sanderson & Doyle (2001) and corresponds approximately to their use of the term 'constraint'. We focus on two major requirements noted by several recent authors (Magallón, 2004; Gandolfo et al., 2008; Parham & Irmis, 2008; Parham et al., 2012; Sauquet et al., 2012): (1) establishing the correct age of the strata where fossils were collected, which defines the minimum age of an associated calibrated node in a phylogenetic tree; and (2) establishing the phylogenetic placement of the fossil, i.e. associating a fossil with a particular node in a tree as a calibration point. This may mean reviewing multiple candidate fossil records and taxa. Below we lay out the selection criteria in more detail and then apply them to the identification of fossils suitable for dating monocot phylogeny. When necessary, for clarity we use 'fossil' to refer to a particular specimen and 'fossil taxon' for a taxonomic entity comprising single or multiple specimens, possibly of widely varying geographical and temporal range.

EVALUATING FOSSIL AGE

The description of the locality where the fossil(s) was collected should ideally contain detailed information about the site, including the geological formation and the stratigraphic layer. This allows for independent confirmation of the proposed age of the stratum, which can change as relevant knowledge is gained. A relatively narrow age range for the fossil-bearing horizon may be inferred using marine biostratigraphy (if it is bracketed by marine incursions), terrestrial biostratigraphy (e.g. land mammal ages for North America, Europe, South America and Asia or palynozones) and/or absolute ages obtained from radiometric dating (if appropriate minerals are included in the sediments, e.g. volcanics, detrital zircons) (Fig. 1). Ideally, multiple methods of dating should be used to arrive at a narrowly constrained age, but in practice this is not always possible, due to particular techniques not being applicable to some sediment types. Conversely, stratigraphic data may be relatively uninformative and an absence of radiometrically dated material may suggest only a relatively broad age range (e.g. 'middle Eocene') for the fossil-bearing horizon. Note that a broad age range for a fossil does not imply that the fossil taxon was present in the whole temporal range; narrow ranges for fossils are desirable because they allow a more refined calibration, but are not always available. Our age estimates for fossils include: (1) ranges, which may correspond to the beginning and ending of stages or more precisely dated marine incursions and radiometrically dated volcanics; and (2) single point estimates, where the fossil horizon has been dated or an overlying horizon is dated (see Table 1 for details).

It is possible to use the entire known fossil history (i.e. all specimens across all fossil taxa) that are assignable to a clade (or lineage) in a molecular dating analysis (e.g. Marshall, 2008; Wilkinson *et al.*, 2011; Nowak *et al.*, 2013; Heath *et al.*, 2014). However, these analyses are technically complex and have mostly been carried out in small clades with

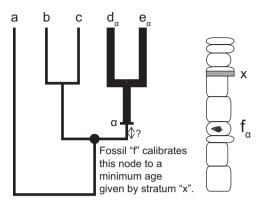


Figure 1. Key steps in using a fossil to calibrate a node in a molecular dating analysis. The right-hand panel is a diagram of a stratigraphic formation that includes a fossil 'f' closely overlain by a dated stratum. The left-hand panel shows a well-supported phylogenetic tree with extant taxa labelled 'a'-'e'. The fossil has an apomorphy (' α ') shared here with two extant taxa 'd' and 'e' (presence of apomorphy indicated with a subscript); the thick line indicates multiple equally parsimonious placements of the fossil. The date of origin of the apomorphy is unknown (indicated by a question mark), and so the fossil conservatively dates the node indicated by the filled circle. The dated stratum 'x' that overlies the fossil (the oldest securely placed one with the apomorphy) provides a minimum age for the fossil and this node; when there is an age range for a stratum, the youngest age should be used in a molecular dating analysis, to be conservative. The vertical axis of the phylogenetic tree is in arbitrary time units terminating in the present at the top.

well-defined fossil records. Typically only a single fossil representative or a horizon-specific collection of fossils is used for calibrating a specified node. As a review of the monocot fossil record in its entirety is beyond the scope of this contribution, we focus only on those single fossil records most suitable for dating particular nodes. The oldest fossil clearly assigned (see below) to a clade should ideally be used for calibration, as this defines the minimum (youngest) possible age of the associated stem node.

PHYLOGENETIC PLACEMENT OF FOSSILS

Accurately placing a fossil taxon within a phylogenetic tree is more difficult than placing extant taxa. Fossils lack molecular data, may have poor preservation or lack preservation of key characters, and are often limited in number and fragmentary in nature. Plant organs and parts tend to be shed or preserved independently (as isolated leaves, flowers, pollen, stems etc.), which may each contain relatively few phylogenetically informative characters. The reliance on single organs to represent a species provides us with fewer total characters for phylogenetic inference compared with whole plant data for extant taxa. In addition, the ability to recognize key characters in fossils can be hindered by our often limited knowledge of the morphology and anatomy of modern species (Smith, 2013).

In a molecular dating analysis it is not always clear which node in a phylogenetic tree should be associated with an individual fossil (taxon). We briefly review the logic behind this process here (see also Magallón, 2004). If we consider a fossil taxon, 'f', with an apomorphy, ' α ', that it shares with an extant clade (labels 'd' and 'e' in Fig. 1), 'f' can be placed anywhere within that clade, or along the subtending branch ('stem') of the clade with equal cost in parsimony (see thick lines in Fig. 1). The fossil 'f' should conservatively be placed to the deepest possible point (at the origin of the apomorphy 'α'), because shallower placements would tend to increase the age of the whole tree arbitrarily. In general, the exact timing of origin of the apomorphy along the stem is also unknown (see Fig. 1). To be conservative, the apomorphy ' α ' is effectively assumed to originate immediately after the stem node, for the purposes of calibration. Thus, the minimum age of fossil 'f', defined by overlaying stratum layer 'x', effectively calibrates the stem node (filled circle in Fig. 1) that precedes the clade defined by apomorphy ' α ' (Fig. 1). An underlying/deeper stratum, not marked in Figure 1, may also provide a maximum age for the fossil, but this would not provide a maximum age for the associated stem node, as older fossils with the apomorphy ' α ' may be found. When a range is given for an age, the youngest (uppermost) age should be used in a molecular dating analysis, to be conservative.

If a fossil could be placed confidently along a single branch of the phylogenetic tree (e.g. in a phylogenetic analysis) to the exclusion of descendant branches, the same logic would apply: the minimum age of the fossil calibrates the stem node of that branch. Most researchers will use fossils as minimum age constraints for associated nodes (Sanderson, 1997; Sanderson & Doyle, 2001; see Yang & Rannala, 2006, who considered the use of soft minimum ages). The example discussed here assumes that the reference tree (Fig. 1) is accurate. Errors in the topology of the reference tree may lead to errors in the distribution of character states, and therefore in the placement of fossil calibrations within the tree. Well-supported phylogenetic trees covering the breadth of taxa under consideration should be used to evaluate the placement of fossil calibrations as far as possible, to minimize this possibility. Some fossil taxa that lack obvious apomorphies may still be useful for calibration, so long as a suite of characters unambiguously support the placement of the fossil in a described

Table 1. Monocot fossils for molecular dating Fossil	fossils for mole	cular dating	Node assignment		Geology			
Fossil taxon	Organ	Specimen(s)	Node	Justification	Locality	Stratigraphy	Age (Ma)	Justification
Monocorrs Liliacidites sp. A of Doyle & Hickey 1976 (≡ Retimonocolpites sp. C of Doyle, 1973)	Pollen	Specimen: 3215, slide no. 71-8-1d (USNM)	Stem node of monocots	Phylogenetic analysis (Doyle <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	Trent's Reach, VA, USA	Patuxent Fm	113-125	Aptian, biostratigraphy (Doyle, 1973; Hochuli <i>et al.</i> , 2006; Doyle <i>et al.</i> , 2008)
ALISMATALES: ALISMATACEAE Caldesia brandoniana Haggard & Tiffney 1997	LE Fruit and seeds	Holotype: 51406 (Paleobotanical C, Harvard U)	Stem node of <i>Caldesia</i> (Alismataceae)	Suite of characters (Haggard & Tiffney, 1997)	Forest Dale, VT, USA	Brandon Lignite	20	Terrestrial biostratigraphy (Tiffney, 1994; Traverse, 1994)
ALISMATALES: APONOGETONACEAE Aponogeton harryi Grimsson, Zetter, Halbritt. & G. Grimm 2014 ALISMATALES: ARACEAE	ACEAE Pollen	Holotype: IPUW 2012-0008 (Dept. Palaeontology, U Vienna)	Stem node of Aponogetonaceae	Suite of characters (Grimsson <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	Elk Basin, Park County, WY, USA	Upper Eagle Beds, Eagle Fm	81.13	⁴⁰ Ar/ ⁸⁹ Ar radiometry (Hicks, 1993)
SUBFAMILY AROIDEAE Montrichardia aquatica F.A.Herrera, C.A.Jaram, Dilcher, S.L.Wing & C.Gómez Nov 2008	Leaves	Holotype: ING-0904 (Colombian Geological I, INGEOMINAS)	Stem node of <i>Montrichardia</i> (Aroideae)	Suite of characters (Herrera <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	Pit Tobacco Extension and Tobacco 1 localities, Cerrejón mine, Colombia	Cerrejón Fm	58-60	Terrestrial biostratigraphy and carbon isotope analysis (Jaramillo <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
Nitophyllites zaisanicus Iljinski. 1963 emend. Fedotov 1975 (see Wilde <i>et al.</i> , 2005 for English translations)	Leaves	Lectotype: 449g-8, (LE)	Stem node of <i>Typhonodorum</i> clade' <i>sensu</i> Cusimano <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Suite of characters (Wilde <i>et al.</i> , 2005)	Kiin Kerish Mountain, Zaysan Basin, Kazakhstan	Tayzhuzgen Fm	56.0 to ~66.0	Palaeocene, terrestrial biostratigraphy (Lucas et al., 2012)
SUBFAMILIA LASIOIDEAE Keratosperma allenbyense Cevallos-Ferriz & Stockey 1988 emend. S.Y.Sm. & Stockey 2003	Fruit and seeds	Holotype: P4268 D bot and E (Paleobotanical C, U. Alberta)	Stem node of Lasioideae	Suite of characters (Cevallos-Ferriz & Stockey, 1988; Smith & Stockey, 2003)	Similkameen River, ~8.4 km south of Princeton, BC, Canada	Princeton Chert', Princeton Group, Allenby Fm	48.7	K/Ar radiometry (Smith & Stockey, 2003)
SUBFAMILY LEMNOIDEAE Limnobiophyllum scutatum (Dawson) Krassilov 1973 [Johnson, 2002]	Vegetative plants	Specimen: 6083 and others (YPM)	Stem node of Lemnoideae (Araceae)	Phylogenetic analysis and suite of characters (Kvaček, 1995; Stockey $et al$, 1997; Bogner, 2009)	Five localities, ND & SD, USA	Hell Creek and lower Fort Union Fms	66.0	Multiple stratigraphic controls (Hicks <i>et al.</i> , 2002, Johnson, 2002)
SUBRAMIIX MONSTEROIDEAE Araciphyllites tertiarius (Engehı) Y.Wilde, Kvaček & Bogner 2005	E Leaves	Holotype: ME 477 (HLMD)	Stem node of Monstereae (Monsteroideae)	Suite of characters (Wilde <i>et al.</i> , 2005)	Messel Pit, near Darmstadt, Germany	Messel Fm	14	⁴⁰ Ar ^{β9} Ar radiometry and sedimentation rate (Franzen, 2005; Mertz & Renne, 2005)

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Fossil			Node assignment		Geology			
Fossil taxon	Organ	Specimen(s)	Node	Justification	Locality	Stratigraphy	Age (Ma)	Justification
ALISMATALES: HYDROCHARHACEAE Stratiotes L. sp. [Bone, Seed 1986]	TACEAE Seeds	Private collection, M. Collinson, Royal Holloway U London	Stem node of <i>Stratiotes</i> (Hydrocharitaceae)	Suite of characters (Sille <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	Felpham, West Sussex, UK	Felpham Lignite Bed, Reading Fm	55 5.	Terrestrial biostratigraphy and carbon isotope excursion (Bone, 1986; Collinson, 2000; Collinson & Cleal, 2003.
Thalassites parkavonenses Benzeery & Brack-Hanes 2008 ARECALES: ARECACEAE SUBEAMUT ARECADEAE	Vegetative plants	Holotype: AP Series 267A & B, & APS Series 267A (Eckerd College H.)	Stem node of Bnhalus + Halophila + Thalassia	Suite of characters (Benzeery & Brack-Hanes, 2008)	Gulf Hammock Quarry, FL, USA	Avon Park Fm	38.0-47.8	Midole Bocene, marine biostratigraphy (Miller, 1986)
Tripylocarpa aestuaria Gandolfó & Futey 2012 (in Futey <i>et al.</i> , 2012) SUBFAMILY CALAMOIDEAE	Fruits	Holotype: Pb-3766 (MPEF-Pb)	Stem node of Attaleinae (Cocoseae: Arecoideae)	Apomorphy (Futey et al., 2012)	Las Violetas, Patagonia, Argentina	Salamanca Fm	63.49–64.67	Magnetostratigraphy, Chron C28n (Clyde et al., 2014)
Mauritiidites crassibaculatus van Hoeken-Klinkenberg, 1964 [Schrank, 1994] SturbMury Cowyndonber	Pollen	Plates 6: figs 4-10; Plate 12: figs 6-10 (not deposited)	Stem node of Mauritiinae (Lepidocaryeae: Calamoideae)	Apomorphy (Harley, 2006; Dransfield et al., 2008)	Hed-Hed locality, Somalia	Yesomma Fm	66.072.1	Maastrichtian- ?Campanian, biostratigraphy (Schrank, 1994; Fantozzi & Kassim Mohamed, 2002)
Arengapollenites achinatus R.K.Kar 1985	Pollen	Holotype: slide no. 8236/2 (Birbal Sahni I. Palaeobotany)	Stem node of Coryoteae (Coryphoideae)	Suite of characters (Kar, 1985; Harley, 2006; Dransfield <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	Panandhro, India	Panandhro Lignite, Naredi Fm	47.8–56.0	Ypressian (Tlerdian' stage), marine biostratigraphy (Saraswati <i>et al.</i> , 2012)
Hyphaene kappelmanii A.D.Pan, B.F.Jacobs, J.Dransf. & W.J.Baker 2006	Petioles	Holotype: CH8-6 (N. M. Ethiopia)	Stem node of <i>Hyphaene</i> (Hyphaeninae: Borasseae)	Suite of characters (Pan <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	Chilga Woreda, Ethiopia	Guang River Flora	27.23	²⁰⁶ Ph/ ²³⁸ Ur radiometry (Pan, 2010)
Sabalites carolinensis E.W.Berry 1914 Asparatories: Asparatoren	Leaves	Syntype: PAL 175717/P 38208 (USNM)	Stem node of Coryphoideae (Arecaceae)	Suite of characters (Berry, 1914)	Near Langley locality, SC, USA	Middendorf Fm	83.6–86.3	Santonian, marine biostratigraphy (Gohn et al., 1992)
Paracordyline kerguelensis Conran 1997	Leaves	Holotype: v.23718 (BMNH)	Stem node of <i>Cordyline</i> (Lomandroideae: Asparagaceae)	Apomorphy (Conran, 1997)	Port Jeanne d'Arc, La Grande Terre, Kerguélen Islands	Basaltic interbedded ash and fluvial sediments	22–26	Rb/Sr radiometry of basaltic flows (Giret et al., 1989)
Protoyucca shadishii Tidwell & L.R.Parker 1990 AspARGGLES: ASTELIACEAE	Vegetative plants	Holotype: 3245 (BYU)	Stem node of <i>Yucca</i> (Agavoideae)	Suite of characters (Tidwell & Parker, 1990)	Humbolt County, NV, USA	Virgin Valley Fm	14.5–16.2	⁴⁰ Ar/ ⁶⁹ Ar radiometry (Perkins <i>et al.</i> , 1998)
Astelia antiquua Maciunas, Conran, Bannister, R.Paull & D.E.Lee 2011	Leaves	Holotype: FH617 (OU32892) (Geology M., U. Otago)	Stem node of A <i>stelia</i> (Asteliaceae)	Suite of characters and phylogenetic analysis (Maciunas et al., 2011)	Near Middlemarch, South Island, New Zealand	Foulden Maar Diatomite	23.2	⁴⁰ Ar ^{β9} Ar radiometry (Lindqvist & Lee, 2009)

Table 1. Continued

ASPARAGALES: ORCHIDACEAE SUBFAMILY EPIDENDROIDEAE	AE LE							
Dendrobium winikaphyllum Conran, Bannister & D.E.Lee 2009a	Leaves	Holotype: OU32218 (Geology M., U. Otago)	Crown node of Dendrobium (Dendrobiiae: Epidendroideae: Orchidaceae)	Suite of characters and apomorphies (Conran <i>et al.</i> , 2009a)	Near Middlemarch, South Island, New Zealand	Foulden Maar Diatomite	23.2	4 ⁰ Årr ⁶⁹ År radiometry (Lindqvist & Lee, 2009)
<i>Earina fouldenensis</i> Conran, Bannister & D.E. Lee 2009a	Leaves	Holotype: OU32221 (Geology M., U. Otago)	Stem node of <i>Barina</i> (Agrostophyllinae: Epidendroideae: Orchidaceae)	Suite of characters and apomorphies (Conran <i>et al.</i> , 2009a)	Near Middlemarch, South Island, New Zealand	Foulden Maar Diatomite	23.2	⁴⁰ Ar ⁸⁹ Ar radiometry (Lindqvist & Lee, 2009)
SUBFAMILY ORCHIDOIDEAE Meliorchis caribea Pollin S.R.Ramírez, Gravend, R.B.Singer, C.R. Marshall & Pierce 2007 Asptadol Fe', XANTHORPHORACAAR	Pollinium Actear	Holotype: 31141 (MCZ)	Stem node of Goodyerinae (Orchidoideae)	Phylogenetic analysis (Ramírez <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	Near Santiago, Dominican Republic	Dominican Amber	15-20	Marine and terrestrial biostratigraphy (Iturralde-Vinent & MacPhee, 1996)
Dianellophyillum Le eocenicum Conran, Christophel & L.K.Cunn. 2003 L.K.Cunn. 2003	Leaves	Holotype: L050 (ADU)	Stem node of Hemerocallidoideae (Xanthorrhoeaceae)	Suite of characters (Conran <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	Nelly Creek locality, Australia	Eyre Fm	38.0-47.8	Middle Eocene, terrestrial biostratigraphy (Alley et al., 1996)
Dioscorea wilkinii A.D.Pan, B.F.Jacobs & Currano 2014 LIIIALES: ALSTRORENERLACEARE	Leaves	Holotype: CH40-110 (N. M. Ethiopia)	Stem node of Dioscorea sect. Lasiophyton (Dioscoreac: Dioscoreaceae)	Suite of characters (Pan <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	Chilga Woreda, Ethiopia	Guang River Flora	27.23	²⁰⁶ Pb/ ²³⁸ Ur radiometry (Pan, 2010)
Luzuriaga peterbannisteri Conran, Bannister, Mildenh. & D.E.Lee 2014 (in Conran <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	Leaves and possibly floral remains	Holotype: FH 437 (OU32666) (Geology M., U. Otago)	Stem node of Luzuriaga (= Luzuriagoideae: Alstroemeriaceae)	Apomorphy and additional characters (Conran et al., 2014)	Near Middlemarch, South Island, New Zealand	Foulden Maar Diatomite	23.2	4 ⁰ År/ ⁶⁹ År radiometry (Lindqvist & Lee, 2009)
Ripogonum tasmanicum Conran, R.J.Carp. & G.J.Jord. 2009	Leaves	Holotype: LR42 (School of Plant Science, U. Tasmania)	Stem node of Ripogonaceae	Phylogenetic analysis (Conran <i>et al.</i> , 2009b)	Lowana Road exposure, Macquarie Harbour, Tasmania, Australia	Maquarie Harbour Fm	51 - 52	Mid-Ypresian, marine and terrestrial biostratigraphy (Carpenter <i>et al.</i> , 2007)
PANDANALES: CYCLANTHACEAE Cyclanthus messelensis F S.Y.Sm., M.B.Collinson & Rudall 2008	JEAE Fruits	Holotype: SM.B.Me 2005 (SMF)	Stem node of Cyclanthus (= Cyclanthaceae)	Apomorphy (Smith et al., 2008b)	Messel Pit, near Darmstadt, Germany	Messel Fm	47	⁴⁰ Ar/ ⁶⁹ Ar radiometry and sedimentation rate (Franzen, 2005; Mertz & Renne, 2005)
PANDANALES: TRUNIDACEAE Mabelia connatifila Gandolfo, Nixon & Crepet 2002	лЕ Flowers	Holotype: CUPC 1255 (BH, Comell University)	Stem node of Triuridaceae	Phylogenetic analysis (Gandolfo <i>et al.</i> , 2002)	Old Crossman Clay Pit locality, Sayreville, NJ, USA	South Amboy Fire Clay, Raritan Fm	86.3	Coniacian–Santonian boundary, marine and terrestrail biostratigraphy (Christopher, 1979; Massoni <i>et al.</i> , 2014)
POALES: CYPERACEAE Volkeria messelensis SYSEN., M.E.Collinson, D.A.Simpson, Rudall, Marone & Stampanoni 2009	Infructescences	Holotype: Sm.B.Me 16474 (SMF)	Stem node of Mapanioideae (= Cyperaceae)	Suite of characters (Smith <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	Messel Pit, near Darmstadt, Germany	Messel Fm	47	⁴⁰ Ar ⁹³ Ar radiometry and sedimentation rate (Franzen, 2005, Mertz & Renne, 2005)

Fossil			Node assignment		Geology			
Fossil taxon	Organ	Specimen(s)	Node	Justification	Locality	Stratigraphy	Age (Ma)	Justification
POALES: POACEAE SUBRAMIY EHRHARTOIDEAE SUBRAMIY EHRHARTOIDEAE <i>Changii indicum</i> 1 V.Prasad, Strömberg, Leaché, B.Samatt, R.Patnaik, L.Tang, Mohabey, S.Ge & A.Sahni, 2011	AE Epidermis and phytoliths	Holotype: slide 13160, coordinates: Q-14-3 (Birbal Sahni I. Palaeobotany)	Stem node of Oryzeae (= Ehrhartoideae: Poaceae)	Phylogenetic analysis (Prasad <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	Pisdura, India	Red Clay, Lameta Fm, Deccan Traps	66.0	Radiometry and magnetostratigraphy (Courtillot & Renne, 2003)
Leersia seifhennersdorfensis H.Walther 1974	Inflorescence	Holotype: MMG, Sf. 12a; others: Sf. 154/ 71, Sf. 156/71 (MMG)	Stem node <i>Leersia</i> (Oryzeae)	Suite of characters (Walther, 1974; Walther & Kvaček, 2007)	Seifhennersdorf, Germany	Seifhennersdorf Diatomite	30.44	K/Ar radiometry (Bellon <i>et al.</i> , 1998)
SUBFAMILY POOIDEAE Stipa florissanti (Knowlt.) MacGinitie 1953	Fruits	Syntypes: 34750, 34751 (USNM)	Stem node of Stipeae (Pooideae)	Suite of characters (MacGinitie, 1953; Manchester, 2001)	Florissant and Florissant Fossil Beds National Monument, CO, USA	Florissant Fm	34.07–36.7	⁴⁰ Ar/ ⁶⁹ Ar radiometry (Evanoff <i>et al.</i> , 2001)
PoALES: RESTIONACEAE Restiocarpum latericum M.E.Dettmann & Clifford 2000	Seeds	Holotype: M110/S10, QMF50038 (Queensland Museum, Brisbane, Australia)	Stem node of Centrolepidaceae + Restionaceae	Suite of characters (Dettmann & Cilifford, 2000; Briggs & Linder, 2009)	Rockhampton 1 locality, Queensland, Australia	Casuarina Beds	27.7	K/Ar radiometry and terrestrial biostratigraphy (Sutherland <i>et al.</i> , 1977; Noion, 1980; Dettmann & Clifford, 2000)
POALES: TYPHACEAE <i>Typha</i> L. sp. [Grande, 1984]	Inflorescence	Specimen: PP33654 (FMNH)	Stem node of <i>Typha</i> (= Typhaceae)	Suite of characters (Grande, 1984)	Near Fossil Butte National Monument, Fossil Lake, WY, USA	'18 inch' layer, Fossil Butte Mb, Green River Fm	51.66	⁴⁰ Ar/ ⁶⁹ Ar radiometry of the K-feldspar tuff (Smith et al., 2008a; Buchheim et al. 2011)
ZINGIBERALES: ZINGIBERACEAE Spirematospermum chandlerae E.M.Friis 1988	CEAE Seeds	Holotype: 401634 (USNM)	Stem node Zingiberaceae	Suite of characters (S.Y.S., J. Benedict & C. Specht, unpublished data)	Neuse River, Galdsboro, NC, USA	Tar Heels Fm	72.1–83.6	 (Early) Campanian, marine biostratigraphy (Owens & Sohl, 1988; Sohl & Owens, 1991; Mitra & Mickle, 2007)
Fossil taxa that we consi author <i>et al.</i> . If an older to the shallowest reliable placements unless explici- is given along with the re IPNI Consortium (2012); H, Herbarium; I, Institut	der to be suitable <i>i</i> fossil belonging to <i>i</i> in some cases, the node, following the rity mentioned; clar levant reference(s) institutional acrony e(-ions); M, Museu	Fossil taxa that we consider to be suitable for molecular dating are listed with taxonomic authority, date of publication and organ type. If more than three authors are associated with a taxon it is abbreviated using 'primary authority publication of the fossil belonging to this taxon is known from a different reference, it is listed in square brackets after the taxonomic authority. Specimen and geological information follow the oldest fossil taxon. Fossil taxon. Fossil taxon are assigned to that considered the fossil taxon. Fossil taxa are assigned to the ablication noted separately in square brackets) but node sugment information can come from any relevant publication that considered the fossil taxon. Fossil taxa are assigned to the shallowest reliable main text (placements in more inclusive named clades that may be informative in sparsely sampled dating analyses are mentioned in parentheses, all crown-node placements unless explicitly mentioned; clades noted after an equal sign are are noode). A bir for summary of the privation for the second tax are detastion and organ with the relevant reference(s). Locality and stratigraphic information, age and a bir stratification for the geare provided for the oldest fossil taxon. Authority abbreviations follow the relevant reference(s). Locality and stratigraphic information, age and a bir stratification for the geare provided for the oldest fossil taxon. Authority abbreviations follow the relevant reference(s). Locality and stratigraphic information, age and a bir (continuously updated) for herbaria, except when explicitly noted. C, Collection(s), Fm, Formation, H, Herbarium; I, Institutional acromymes follow Sheip For and placements.	ed with taxonomic authority lifferent reference, it is listed in square brackets), but no text (placements in more int are named crown nodes th nformation, age and a brief 'for museums and palaeobio i; U, University.	ç date of publication and or d in square brackets after th de assignment information susve named clades that mé susve named clades that mé tar are probably equivalent 'summary of the justificatio logical collections and Thiers	gan type. If more than three the taxonomic authority. Spect can come from any relevant ty be informative in sparsely to the preceding stem node. In for the age are provided for s (continuously updated) for t	authors are associated wit imen and geological informs publication that considerce sampled dating analyses arv A brief summary of the or r the oldest fossil for each f ierbaria, except when explic	th a taxon it is all ation follow the oi d the fossil taxon e mentioned in pa e mettioned in pa e mettioned in particular iteria used to jur fossil taxon. Auth fossil taxon. Auth fossil taxon. Col	obreviated using 'primary dest fossil record (i.e. the rentheses, all rown-node rentheses, all rown-node stifty the node assignment ority abbreviations follow lection(s); Fm, Formation;

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Table 1. Continued

taxon (even in the absence of a formal phylogenetic analysis); in these cases the suite may be functionally equivalent to an apomorphy, and may therefore be used to calibrate the stem node of the corresponding clade (Gandolfo *et al.*, 2008). We include these taxa with the caveat that additional phylogenetic reconstructions would be useful to clarify the status of individual characters in associated suites (some of these characters may act as apomorphies individually).

SELECTION OF FOSSILS FOR CALIBRATING MONOCOT PHYLOGENIES

We consulted recent reviews (Stockey, 2006; Doyle et al., 2008; Doyle & Endress, 2010; Smith et al., 2010; Clarke et al., 2011; Friis et al., 2011; Smith, 2013) and associated primary literature (see below) to identify candidate fossils to serve as calibrations for monocot molecular dating analyses. Our attention was focused on the oldest fossils associated with families (or subfamilies in some cases). We targeted fossil taxa that can be placed based on phylogenetic analyses, by the possession of apomorphies known to define particular clades or by the possession of a suite of characters that satisfactorily align them with well characterized clades. We chose fossils that are available as vouchered specimens curated in museum or university collections, to ensure that fossil identity and description can be verified (e.g. Gandolfo et al., 2008; Parham et al., 2012); in a few cases, noted in Table 1, the fossil belongs to a private collection or exists only as figures. We used these criteria to justify the suitability of individual fossils below (summarized in Table 1). We define the node that each fossil is suitable for calibrating, and the current age estimate of the fossil. In practice, taxon sampling in molecular dating analyses may not be dense enough to use the most refined placement of the fossil, and so we also list the next most inclusive named clades. We consulted recent reviews of fossil angiosperm localities (Clarke et al., 2011; Friis et al., 2011) and associated primary literature (see below) to evaluate the minimum age of calibration fossils. The chronostratigraphy follows the International Commission on Stratigraphy (Cohen, Finney & Gibbard, 2013). In total we propose 34 fossils that we consider to be suitable for dating the major lineages of monocot phylogeny, which span 19 families and eight orders (summarized in Table 1).

MONOCOTYLEDON FOSSILS

ACORALES

This monogeneric order is often recovered as the sister group of the rest of the monocots (e.g. Graham

et al., 2006). The order is represented by a single genus, Acorus L., which is geographically widespread in the Northern Hemisphere, but has low species diversity. There are several relevant fossils reported from the Eocene onward (Smith, 2013), of which the oldest record is the spadix Acorites heeri (E.W.Berry) Crepet from North America (Crepet, 1978). Several features of these fossils (inflorescence structure, paracytic stomata and trilocular ovaries) are seen in modern Acorus and some Araceae (Crepet, 1978; Grayum, 1987; Mayo, Bogner & Boyce, 1997). The fossils lack diagnostic characters to place them within extant species diversity and therefore they are not suitable for calibrating the crown or stem node of Acorus.

ALISMATALES: ALISMATACEAE

Fossils with similarities to Alismataceae (including Limnocharitaceae) occur from the Late Cretaceous onward (Stockey, 2006; Smith, 2013). The best characterized of these are Cardstonia tolmanii M.G.Riley & Stockey, Haemanthophyllum Budantzev and Heleophyton helobiaeoides D.M.Erwin & Stockey (Erwin & Stockey, 1989; Golovneva, 1997; Riley & Stockey, 2004). These fossils show strong similarities to extant Alismataceae. However, the preserved characters do not reliably allow their placement in the crown clade of the family. Additionally, some of these genera also share characters with other alismatalean families (such as Aponogetonaceae and Butomaceae). The earliest fossils that can be unequivocally placed in the crown clade are fossil fruits from the late Oligocene to early Miocene of Eurasia and North America (reviewed by Haggard & Tiffney, 1997). Haggard & Tiffney (1997) described fossil fruits assignable to the extant genus Caldesia Parl. from the Brandon Lignite of Vermont based on 'horseshoe'-shaped seeds, thin exocarp and thick exocarp consisting of one layer of radially aligned lignified cells and ribs on the pericarp. Caldesia is well embedded in the Alismataceae clade (G. Ross, University of British Columbia, and S.W.G., unpubl. data). In terms of seed and fruit characters it may be closest to Limnophyton Miquel (Haggard & Tiffney, 1997), which has yet to be sampled in a molecular analysis. The age of the lignite is middle early Miocene (20 Ma) based on terrestrial biostratigraphy (Tiffney, 1994; Traverse, 1994). Fossils from the Isle of Wight, collected from the Bembridge Marl Member, Bouldnor Formation, late Eocene (33.8-34.0 Ma; Collinson, 1983; Hooker et al., 2009), were placed within Alismataceae but are not particularly close to any extant genera, and they may represent stem Alismataceae. Therefore, we consider the Brandon Lignite fossil fruit taxon, Caldesia brandoniana Haggard & Tiffney, to be suitable for

calibrating the stem node of *Caldesia*, or more inclusively the crown node of Alismataceae. Additional fossils from the Eurasian Neogene have been assigned to modern species (e.g. *Alisma plantago* L., from the Miocene of Germany; Mai, 2000) and may be relevant as calibrations, once the original material has been re-examined and their identifications confirmed.

ALISMATALES: APONOGETONACEAE

Several fossil leaves have been considered to have affinity with Aponogetonaceae, but alternative assignments to other alismatalean families are often possible (Smith, 2013). The pollen of Aponogetonaceae is distinctive, being monosulcate with an echinate reticulum, and recently was recovered from Cretaceous and Eocene sediments from North America (Wyoming, USA, and British Columbia, Canada) and Greenland (Grímsson et al., 2014). Grímsson et al. (2014) described three species from the three localities and ascribed them to different pollen subtypes within Aponogeton L.f. The oldest of these fossils is Aponogeton harryi Grímsson, Zetter, Halbritt. & G.Grimm from the Upper Eagle Beds, Eagle Formation, Elk Basin of Wyoming, USA (Grímsson et al., 2014), with the pollen-bearing stratum dated to at least 81.13 Ma by an overlying bentonite layer (Hicks, 1993). Although the existence of pollen subtypes within Aponogeton suggests that it may be possible to place A. harryi within the context of extant diversity (i.e. to date the genus crown or shallower node), the taxonomic distribution of pollen subtypes in the genus is complex and our understanding of their evolutionary history is problematic (Les, Moody & Jacobs, 2005; Grímsson et al., 2014). As a result, the fossil is best used to calibrate the stem node of Aponogeton (= Aponogetonaceae).

ALISMATALES: ARACEAE

The fossil record of Araceae has been reviewed extensively, with several general reviews (Friis *et al.*, 2011; Smith, 2013), recent ones on fossil pollen (Hesse & Zetter, 2007) and fossil leaves (Wilde, Kvaček & Bogner, 2005), and a comprehensive review for a genus-level molecular dating study of the family (Nauheimer, Metzler & Renner, 2012). When considering phylogenetic placement within Araceae, we used the phylogenetic tree of Cusimano *et al.* (2011; see also Henriquez *et al.*, 2014) as a reference. We provide a brief overview of the record here, starting with the oldest records, and then consider records for individual subfamilies.

Friis, Pedersen & Crane (2004) describe two pollen types from the Aptian–early Albian (Early Cretaceous) of Portugal (Doyle & Endress, 2014). The first, Mayoa portugallica E.M.Friis, K.R.Pedersen & P.R.Crane, was described as having affinities with extant Holochlamys Engl. and Spathiphyllum Schott in subfamily Monsteroideae. A possible relationship with Gnetales was raised, but rejected due to differences in infratectal structure. This discovery prompted Hesse & Zetter (2007) to review the ephedroid fossil pollen record (an artificial assemblage). They concluded that two additional taxa, Ephedripites vanegensis Hammen & Garcia de Mutis (Palaeocene) and E. elsikii Herngreen (Late Cretaceous), also belong to Spathiphyllum. More recently, Hofmann & Zetter (2010) proposed a strong likeness of Mayoa to Lagenella martinii (Leschik) W.Klaus, a fossil pollen morphotype of uncertain affinities with an extensive record from the Triassic to the Cretaceous, casting doubt on its relationship with Araceae and pointing to the need to reinvestigate both taxa in detail. Although it seems likely that some or all of these fossils represent members of Monsteroideae (especially the younger fossils), the close similarity with other extinct and extant lineages precludes their use as fossil calibrations. The second putatively araceous fossil pollen illustrated by Friis et al. (2004) shows strong similarities to the zona-aperturate pollen taxon Proxapertites operculatus Hammen (Hesse & Zetter, 2007). Zetter, Hesse & Frosch-Radivo (2001) established that *P. operculatus* is similar to pollen from two unrelated subfamilies in Araceae, Zamioculcoideae and Monsteroideae. Proxapertites operculatus has an extensive record extending from the latest Cretaceous to early Oligocene, although more recent records are rarer (Zetter et al., 2001). If the record of Friis et al. (2004) proves reliable, this would almost double the known age of the taxon (Hesse & Zetter, 2007). We currently reserve judgment concerning the identity of the Friis et al. (2004) fossil, and accept that Late Cretaceous records of *P. operculatus* probably reflect members of Monsteroideae or Zamioculcoideae (Zetter et al., 2001; Hesse & Zetter, 2007). However, because these subfamilies are distantly related and intervening subfamilies have different pollen types, this fossil taxon is not suitable for molecular dating (e.g. Nauheimer et al., 2012, did not consider this taxon in their study). More complete araceous material from the Early Cretaceous (Albian) is represented by two fossil inflorescences, 'Araceae fossil sp. A' and 'Araceae fossil sp. B', which are also from Portugal (Friis, Pedersen & Crane, 2010). Based on floral and inflorescence characters these fossils were assigned to Aroideae and Pothoideae, respectively (Friis et al., 2010); Araceae fossil sp. A is more plesiomorphic than extant members of Aroideae in having pollen with a reticulate-columellar exine, and is therefore probably a stem relative of Aroideae, if it is related at all

(J. A. Doyle, University of California, Davis, pers. comm.). However, these fossils need to be described formally and critically compared with other taxa, before use as fossil calibrations (see also Nauheimer *et al.*, 2012).

Additional records of Araceae to consider are those of Late Cretaceous or younger age, which in general can be placed to subfamily or shallower taxonomic levels reliably (Nauheimer et al., 2012; Smith, 2013). Within Aroideae, Herrera et al. (2008) assigned Palaeocene fossil leaves from the Carrejón Mine of Colombia (Carrejón Formation, 58-60 Ma; Jaramillo et al., 2007) to the extant genus Montrichardia Creug. on the basis of multiple shared leaf morphological characters between the fossil and extant species. Montrichardia is phylogenetically isolated within Aroideae and the fossil *M. aquatica* F.A.Herrera, C.A.Jaram., Dilcher, S.L.Wing & C.Gómez Nav. could therefore be used to calibrate the stem node of Montrichardia or, more inclusively, the crown node of Aroideae. Other fossils clearly assignable to clades within Aroideae are the leaves Nitophyllites zaisanicus Iljinsk. and N. bohemicus V.Wilde, Kvaček & Bogner. These are similar to each other and have multiple morphological similarities to tribes Peltrandeae and Arophyteae (Wilde et al., 2005). These two tribes are sister taxa and the resulting clade is termed the 'Typhonodorum clade' by Cusimano et al. (2011). *Nitophyllites zaisanicus* is the older of the two species; it dates from the Palaeocene of Kazakhstan and could be used to calibrate the stem node of the Typhonodorum clade. Several other fossil leaves described by Wilde et al. (2005) also have affinities to Aroideae (Araciphyllites schaarschmidti V.Wilde, Kvaček & Bogner and Caladiosma messelense V.Wilde, Kvaček & Bogner), but their placement within the subfamily is unclear, and because they are younger than the fossils mentioned above they are not considered further here. It is also worth mentioning that the Campanian and Maastrichtian (Late Cretaceous) floating aquatic species Cobbania corrugata (Lesg.) Stockey, G.W.Rothwell & K.R.Johnson was originally described as an extinct *Pistia* L. (Stockey, Rothwell & Johnson, 2007) and has been used as a calibration in some analyses (e.g. Bremer, 2000). Although it is araceous and probably placed within Aroideae, its exact affinities are unknown, but it remains intriguing as an additional fully aquatic lineage of Araceae (Stockey et al., 2007).

Within Lasioideae, the best characterized fossils are seeds from the Princeton Chert locality (Princeton Member, Allenby Formation) of British Columbia, which is of early Eocene age (Smith & Stockey, 2003). Older fossil pollen from the Late Cretaceous is known from Siberia and is assigned to the genus *Lasioideaecidites* C.-C.Hofm. & Zetter (Hofmann & Zetter, 2010). Its similarity to Lasioideae is based on thickened endexine in the sulcus region and similarity in morphology (Hofmann & Zetter, 2010). However, Hesse (2002) emphasized the need for transmission electron microscopy (TEM) sections in identifying the unique, synapomorphic two-layered endexine of Lasioideae. As TEM sections are lacking for Lasioideaecidites, we do not consider it suitable for molecular dating at present. The fossil seeds Keratosperma allenbyense Cevallos-Ferriz & Stockey emend. S.Y.Sm. & Stockey are more suitable to calibrating the stem node of Lasioideae (as it does not appear to be closely related to any of the extant genera) (Cevallos-Ferriz & Stockey, 1988; Smith & Stockey, 2003). Fossils were found in multiple layers below and above ash layer 22 of the Princeton Chert, British Columbia, which has been dated radiometrically to 48.7 Ma (Smith & Stockey, 2003).

Fossil members of Lemnoideae were reviewed recently by Bogner (2009), who noted the presence of fossil seeds and plants of the extant genus Lemna L. from the Oligocene onwards. In particular, he focused on the extinct Limnobiophyllum scutatum (Dawson) Krassilov, found from the latest Cretaceous of Asia and North America. Morphological and palynological work suggests that *Limnobiophyllum* is closely related to subfamily Lemnoideae, although it is less reduced morphologically (Kvaček, 1995; Stockey, Hoffman & Rothwell, 1997; Hesse & Zetter, 2007; Bogner, 2009). A morphology-based phylogenetic analysis was used to place the genus as the sister group to extant Lemnoideae, although taxon sampling was scanty (Stockey et al., 1997). The best preserved material, which includes in situ pollen (originally described as Pandaniidites Elsik; see Stockey et al., 1997; Hesse & Zetter, 2007) is from Alberta and is of middle Palaeocene age (Stockey et al., 1997). Slightly older material corresponding to the Cretaceous-Palaeogene boundary is known from Asia (Krassilov, 1973) and North America (Johnson, 2002). The North American material is represented by 99 specimens from five localities in south-western North Dakota and north-western South Dakota from the Hell Creek and lower Fort Union Formations (Johnson, 2002). These localities closely straddle the Cretaceous-Palaeogene boundary (Hicks et al., 2002; Johnson, 2002) and we can therefore confidently calibrate the stem node of Lemnoideae to 66 Ma.

Araciphyllites tertiarius (Engelh.) V.Wilde, Kvaček & Bogner, represented by leaves, comes from the famous Messel Pit of Germany, an Eocene maar lake. Wilde *et al.* (2005) re-evaluated it and placed it within Monsteroideae based on multiple leaf venation characters. They consider it most similar to tribe Monstereae, corresponding most closely to the 'Rhaphidophora clade' of Cusimano *et al.* (2011). Araciphyllites tertiarius can be used for calibrating the stem node of the *Rhaphidophora* clade, or more inclusively the crown node of Monsteroideae. The age of the Messel Pit is considered to be middle Eocene (47 Ma; Franzen, 2005; Mertz & Renne, 2005).

Within Orontioideae, Nauheimer et al. (2012) recognized several fossil calibration candidates from the Late Cretaceous, including the infructescence Albertarum Bogner, G.L.Hoffman & Aulenback, and fossil leaves assigned to Lysichiton Schott, Orontium L. and Symplocarpus Salisb. (Kvaček & Herman, 2004; Bogner, Hoffman & Aulenback, 2005; Bogner, Johnson & Upchurch, 2007). The three fossil taxa based on leaf remains lack distinguishing characters (Smith, 2013) and are therefore not reliable for molecular dating. Albertarum consists of an infructescence complete with seeds from the Late Cretaceous of Alberta that has multiple characters showing affinity to Orontioideae (Albertarum pueri Bogner, G.L.Hoffman & Aulenback; Bogner et al. 2005). However, Albertarum has a thick ribbed testa, a character not seen in living Orontioideae or Gymnostachyoideae and we therefore do not currently consider it suitable for calibration purposes. Additional leaf fossils from the Early Cretaceous of Brazil have been described as Spixiarum kipea Coiffard, B.A.R.Mohr & Bernardes-de-Oliveira and have been compared with subfamily Orontioideae, but the authors stopped short of definitively placing it within the subfamily (Coiffard, Mohr & Bernardes-de-Oliveira, 2013) and consequently we do not consider it further.

Nauheimer et al. (2012) recently used Petrocardium F.A.Herrera, C.A.Jaram., Dilcher, S.L.Wing & C.Gómez Nav. from the Palaeocene of Colombia (Herrera et al., 2008) as a calibration fossil within Pothoideae. However, as Herrera et al. (2008) pointed out, Petrocardium is characterized by a suite of characters suggesting similarities to members of two distantly related subfamilies, Pothoideae (especially Anthurium Schott) and Lasioideae, and consequently it cannot be assigned with confidence to any particular clade or taxon within Araceae (Herrera et al., 2008).

ALISMATALES: HYDROCHARITACEAE

Seeds recognizable as belonging to extant genera of Hydrocharitaceae first appear in the late Palaeocene and increase in diversity and frequency onwards. The oldest of these belong to *Stratiotes* L. (Stockey, 2006; Smith, 2013), which extends into the Palaeocene of England (Sille *et al.*, 2006). As *Stratiotes* may be the sister taxon of the rest of the family (Iles, Smith & Graham, 2013; but see Les, Moody & Soros, 2006), the oldest known *Stratiotes* fossil can most confidently be utilized for calibrating the stem node of *Stratiotes*, or potentially the crown node of Hydrocharitaceae. The oldest *Stratiotes* comes from the Felpham Lignite Bed, Reading Formation, England (Bone, 1986), and has been dated to 55.9 Ma (Bone, 1986; Collinson & Cleal, 2001; Collinson, Hooker & Gröcke, 2003). Additional Eocene to Miocene fossils have also been assigned to modern genera (summarized by Smith, 2013) and may prove useful after they have been re-examined and their affiliations confirmed.

ALISMATALES: POTAMOGETONACEAE/RUPPIACEAE

There is a particularly rich record of fossil fruits assigned to what has been called the *Potamogeton-Ruppia* complex which spans from the Cretaceous to the present (Collinson, 1982; Zhao, Collinson & Li, 2004; Gandolfo *et al.*, 2009; Smith, 2013). *Potamogeton* L. (Potamogetonaceae) and *Ruppia* L. (Ruppiaceae) are quite distantly related to each other. They belong to a diverse clade that includes four or five families, including several seagrass families (Cymodoceaceae, Posidoniaceae and Zosteraceae) (Les, Cleland & Waycott, 1997; Iles *et al.*, 2013). Until these fossil taxa are examined in a more comprehensive context, the true affinities of these fossil taxa remain unclear.

ALISMATALES: 'SEAGRASSES'

Because of the close morphological and anatomical similarity (Stockey, 2006; van der Ham, van Konijnenburg-van Cittert & Indeherberge, 2007; Benzecry & Brack-Hanes, 2008; Smith, 2013) among distantly related seagrass families (Les et al., 1997; Iles et al., 2013) we consider them here together, rather than under separate family headings (Cymodoceaceae, Hydrocharitaceae p.p., Posidoniaceae, Zosteraceae, but see above for Ruppiaceae fruits). Extensive convergence and simplification due to adaptation to a submerged aquatic environment (Les et al., 1997) make taxonomic placement of seagrass fossils difficult in the absence of reproductive material. Well-preserved fossil seagrasses are known from the Avon Park Formation of Florida (middle Eocene; Miller, 1986), which have been assigned to extant genera (Lumbert et al., 1984), but explicit justification for these placements is lacking. However, Benzecry & Brack-Hanes (2008) convincingly showed that the fossil Thalassites parkavonenses Benzecry & Brack-Hanes, from the same locality, is related to the hydrocharit seagrass clade (nested within Hydrocharitaceae) based on several characters, making Thalassites the best fossil for calibrating the stem node of hydrocharit seagrasses, to the middle Eocene (38.0-47.8 Ma).

ALISMATALES: TOFIELDIACEAE

Tofieldiaceae do not have a reliable fossil record. Bremer (2000) used a fossil pollen record, *Dicolpopollis* Pflanzl, from the Campanian-Maastrichtian boundary or earliest Maastrichtian of California (Chmura, 1973) for calibrating Tofieldiaceae. Although disulcate pollen occurs in Tofieldiaceae, *Dicolpopollis* is usually referred to calamoid palms (e.g. Crepet, Nixon & Gandolfo, 2004; Smith, 2013) and at least some of the characters Chmura (1973) provided as evidence for affinity to Tofieldiaceae (e.g. small size and aspects of sculpturing) are also found in the palm genus *Calamus* Auct. ex L. (Dransfield *et al.*, 2008). Until further investigations are done that confirm the identity of this pollen, it is not suitable for calibration.

OTHER PUTATIVE ALISMATALES

Friis, Pedersen & Crane (2000) described a suite of reproductive organs (pollen, stamens and pistils) belonging to several closely related species from the Vale de Agua and Buarcos localities of Portugal (Albian; Heimhofer et al., 2007; Dinis et al., 2008); the reconstructed taxon is called the *Pennipollis* plant, after the form genus name for the pollen (Pennipollis E.M.Friis, K.R.Pedersen & P.R.Crane). Friis et al. (2000) most closely compared the plant with members of Araceae and Potamogetonaceae and suggested an affinity within Alismatales. Phylogenetic analyses of early lineages of angiosperms (Doyle et al., 2008; Doyle & Endress, 2014) instead found an association of the Pennipollis plant with Chloranthaceae and Ceratophyllum L. We therefore do not consider the *Pennipollis* plant suitable for calibration of monocots.

ARECALES: ARECACEAE

The fossil record of palms is probably the most conspicuous of any monocot family and possibly extends back to the Turonian of France (*Palmoxylon andegavense* Crié, *P. ligerianum* Crié; Kvaček & Herman, 2004; Dransfield *et al.*, 2008). There have been several recent general reviews (Harley, 2006; Dransfield *et al.*, 2008), reviews of fossil pollen (Harley & Baker, 2001; see also Dransfield *et al.*, 2008) and a comprehensive review for a genus-level molecular dating of the family (Couvreur *et al.*, 2011). When considering fossil taxon placement we used the reference phylogenetic trees of Baker *et al.* (2009) and Dransfield *et al.* (2008). We review the fossil record here for each subfamily.

In Arecoideae, *Cocos* L.-like fruits have an extensive record, extending to the Maastrichtian Deccan Intertrappean beds of India (Harley, 2006; Shukla, Mehrotra & Guleria, 2012). However many of these records are poorly preserved or the locality information is incomplete (Patil & Upadhye, 1984; Mehrotra, 1987; Tripathi, Mishra & Sharma, 1999; Shukla *et al.*,

2012) and as a result we do not consider them further. In the New World, fossil fruits from the Palaeocene of Colombia and Argentina are known with strong similarities to Cocos and other members of subtribe Attaleinae (Gómez-Navarro et al., 2009; Futev et al., 2012). The Argentinian material is slightly older than the Colombian material and comes from the Estancia Las Violetas locality, Salamanca Formation, Chubut Province (Futey et al., 2012). The permineralized fruits were placed within a new fossil species, Tripylocarpa aestuaria Gandolfo & Futey, the taxonomic position of which was explored using phylogenetic analyses of molecular sequences combined with morphological data. The results of these analyses confirmed the taxonomic placement suggested by the morphological and anatomical characters preserved in the fossils (Futey et al., 2012). Tripylocarpa is the first confirmed record for subtribe Attaleinae worldwide and can confidently be used to calibrate the stem node of Attaleinae (or equivalently the crown node of Cocoseae, see Baker et al., 2009); more inclusively it could date the crown node of Arecoideae. Palaeomagnetic data from several sections of the Salamanca Formation have been assigned to Chrons C28n and C29n; specifically, the diverse palaeoflora has been determined as belonging to Chron C28n, indicating that the age of the flora is between 63.49 and 64.67 Ma (Clyde et al., 2014).

In Calamoideae, two groups of fossil pollen, Dicolpopollis and Mauritiidites crassibaculatus van Hoeken-Klinkenberg, have been described. The first, Dicolpopollis, is characterized by two opposite equatorial sulci (i.e. disulculate pollen). This character is seen in eight genera of tribe Calameae, and derived forms (e.g. diporate, zonosulcate, inaperturate) characterize most of the rest of the tribe (Harley, 2006; Dransfield et al., 2008). Equatorial disulculate pollen grains are therefore an apomorphy for Calameae. The earliest reliable *Dicolpopollis* fossils are from the Yesomma Formation of Somalia (Schrank, 1994). The Yesomma Formation is overlain by the late Maastrichtian to early Eocene marine Aurabu Formation. and is considered to be late Maastrichtian (possibly as old as Campanian) in age (~72.1-66.0 Ma; Schrank, 1994; Fantozzi & Kassim Mohamed, 2002). The other group, Mauritiidites, is characterized by intectate monosulcate pollen with spines 'embedded' in the foot layer, causing a bulge below the spine in the pollen wall (van Hoeken-Klinkenberg, 1964; Harley, 2006). This pollen type also characterizes Mauritia L.f., and is similar to the pollen of the remaining members of subtribe Mauritiinae (tribe Lepidocaryeae) (Harley, 2006; Dransfield et al., 2008). It can therefore be considered to be an apomorphy for this subtribe. The earliest known occurrences of M. crassibaculatus are from the Maastrichtian of Nigeria and the slightly

older Yesomma Formation (van Hoeken-Klinkenberg, 1964; Schrank, 1994). (There have also been reports of the genus from the Campanian to Eocene of Sudan; Eisawi & Schrank, 2008.) As Calameae and Lepidocaryeae are sister taxa, the crown-node placement of *Mauritiidites* in Lepidocaryeae (i.e. the stem node of subtribe Mauritiinae) makes it more informative than the stem-node placement of *Dicolpopollis* in tribe Calameae. We agree with Couvreur *et al.* (2011) and consider *Mauritiidites* to be appropriate for calibrating the stem node of subtribe Mauritiinae.

Coryphoideae have the oldest systematically assignable fossil palms. These are keeled costapalmate leaves from the Late Cretaceous of eastern North America. The oldest of these is Sabalites carolinensis E.W.Berry, from the Near Langley locality, Middendorf Formation, South Carolina (Berry, 1914), which dates to the Santonian (83.6-86.3 Ma; Gohn, Dowsett & Sohl, 1992). Sabalites magothiensis E.W.Berry is known from the 'Deep Cut' at Summit Bridge, Delaware, and Grove Point, Maryland, localities, which are considered to be comparable to the Cliffwood beds of the Magothy Formation (Berry, 1905, 1911), which are also of Santonian age (Christopher, 1979). Costapalmate induplicate leaves are an apomorphy of subfamily Coryphoideae, and we therefore consider S. carolinensis to calibrate the stem node of Coryphoideae to the Santonian. As it is the oldest crown clade member of Arecaceae, it can also be used to calibrate the crown node of Arecaceae. There are also several plausible crown clade members of Corvphoideae. Several fossil petioles assignable to the modern genus Hyphaene Gaertn. were recently discovered in Ethiopia (Pan et al., 2006). The fossils are characterized by features of the spines and are described as Hyphaene kappelmanii A.D.Pan, B.F.Jacobs, J.Dransf. & W.J.Baker. The age of the associated fossil flora is dated to the late Oligocene (27.23 Ma; Pan, 2010). Hyphaene kappelmanii can be utilized for calibrating the stem node of *Hyphaene* (see also Couvreur et al., 2011) or, more inclusively, the crown node of tribe Borasseae. Additional evidence for crown Coryphoideae fossils comes from Arengapollenites R.K.Kar, which comprises intectate pollen with spines interlocking over the sulcus (Kar, 1985; Kar & Bhattacharya, 1992). This pollen type is most similar in structure and exine ornamentation to modern Arenga Labill. (tribe Caryoteae) (Kar, 1985; Kar & Bhattacharya, 1992). Nonetheless, all genera of Caryoteae have intectate pollen with either spines or clavae, which may interlock over the sulcus (Harley, 2006; Dransfield et al., 2008). The age of the type locality Panandhro, India (Naredi Formation), is early Eocene (= Ypresian, 47.8–56.0 Ma; Kar, 1985; Saraswati, Sarkar & Banerjee, 2012). As the characters of the fossil are found in all genera of Caryoteae, we consider *Arengapollenites* to calibrate the stem node of tribe Caryoteae. More inclusively, it can also calibrate the crown node of Coryphoideae.

In Nypoideae, fossil pollen grains (*Spinizonocolpites* Jan Muller) and fruits assigned to the subfamily are known from the Maastrichtian and Palaeocene, respectively (Harley, 2006; Gómez-Navarro *et al.*, 2009). However, as Nypoideae are monotypic, these fossils would effectively constrain the stem node of Nypoideae. A more informative (i.e. older) fossil for this same node is *Sabalites carolinensis*, mentioned above for subfamily Coryphoideae. As a result, we do not consider fossil Nypoideae further here.

ASPARAGALES: ASPARAGACEAE

Several macrofossils representing disparate woody lineages of Asparagaceae s.l. have been found in Australia, Antarctica, Asia and North America. Fossil leaves similar to those of extant Cordyline Comm. ex R.Br. have been recovered from the Oligocene and Eocene of the Kerguélen Islands in the southern Indian Ocean and Australia (Conran, 1997; Conran & Christophel, 1998). The older of these, Paracordyline aureonemoralis Conran & Christophel, comes from the early Eocene (Golden Grove, 56.0-47.8 Ma) of Australia (Conran & Christophel, 1998), whereas the younger, P. kerguelensis Conran, is from ash sediments between basalt flows (26-22 Ma; Giret et al., 1989) on La Grande Terre in the Kerguélen Archipelago (Conran, 1997). Although these fossils are in general similar to each other and to Cordyline, and the younger fossil shares a cuticular sculpturing apomorphy with a subclade of Cordyline, other assignments are also possible (Conran, 1997; Conran & Christophel, 1998). Additional fossil material for Cordyline comes from the early Miocene Foulden Maar of New Zealand, which has yet to be formally described (Lee et al., 2012). As P. kerguelensis shares an apomorphy with some members of *Cordyline* it can be used to calibrate the stem node of Cordyline to 22 Ma. More inclusively, it can be used to calibrate the crown node of subfamily Lomandroideae (see Steele et al., 2012 for a reference phylogenetic tree).

Stems, roots and leaves that appear to be of an arborescent monocot are known from the Miocene Virgin Valley Formation of Nevada (Tidwell & Parker, 1990). Tidwell & Parker (1990) compared these anatomically preserved fossils with extant groups of woody monocots, and on that basis suggested a close relationship to Yucca L., especially Y. brevifolia Engelm. (Joshua tree), describing them as Protoyucca shadishii Tidwell & L.R.Parker. We agree with their assessment and suggest that Protoyucca be used to calibrate the stem node of Yucca or, more inclusively, the crown node of subfamily Agavoideae. The Virgin Valley Formation has been radiometrically dated to 14.5–16.2 Ma (Perkins *et al.*, 1998).

Denk, Güner & Grimm (2014) recently reported on fossil leaves from the Miocene of Anatolia and suggested that they have affinities with the dragon tree group of Dracaena Vand. ex L. Individual fossil leaves and leaf rosettes were recovered (described as D. tayfunii Denk, H.T.Güner & G.Grimm), some with preserved cuticular features (e.g. the arrangement of stomata in rows that form bands and the presence of 'bone-like' papillate epidermal cells). These were interpreted as most similar to the Macaronesian D. draco (L.) L and D. tamaranae Marrero Rodr., R.S.Almeida & Gonz.-Mart. (Denk et al., 2014). However, these leaves were not evaluated broadly against a large range of comparable taxa, and so we do not consider them currently as suitable for calibration.

ASPARAGALES: ASTELIACEAE

Fossil leaves from the Foulden Maar of New Zealand were recently described as having affinities to a subclade of Astelia Banks & Sol. ex R.Br., based on a of cuticular phylogenetic analysis characters (Maciunas et al., 2011). The Foulden Maar has been radiometrically dated to 23.2 Ma (Lindqvist & Lee, 2009) and palaeontological studies also suggest a late Oligocene or early Miocene age. Consequently, Astelia antiquua Maciunas, Conran, Bannister, R.Paull & D.E.Lee can be used to calibrate the stem node of Astelia (or equivalently the crown node of Asteliaceae, see Birch, Keeley & Morden, 2012); more inclusively it can be used to date the stem node of Asteliaceae.

ASPARAGALES: ORCHIDACEAE

There have been several recent fossil finds of Orchidaceae from subfamilies Orchidoideae and Epidendroideae (Ramírez et al., 2007; Conran et al., 2009a). Meliorchis caribea S.R.Ramírez, Gravend., R.B.Singer, C.R. Marshall & Pierce is a pollinium mass attached to its pollinator preserved in Dominican amber (Ramírez et al., 2007). Phylogenetic analysis of pollinia characters suggested a placement with subtribe Goodyerinae (subfamily Orchidoideae) and the age of the amber is mid-to-latest early Miocene (15-20 Ma; Iturralde-Vinent & MacPhee, 1996). Consequently, M. caribea could be used for calibrating the stem node of Goodyerinae. Additional evidence for early Miocene (or late Oligocene) fossil leaves (Conran et al., 2009a) comes from the early Miocene Foulden Maar of New Zealand (23.2 Ma; Lindqvist & Lee, 2009). Conran et al. (2009a) assigned these fossils to two extant genera in subfamily Epidendroideae based on multiple morphological characters. However, the higher-order phylogeny of Epidendroideae is largely unresolved and assigning these genera to subclades is problematic therefore (e.g. Cameron, 2004: Freudenstein et al., 2004; van den Berg et al., 2005; Neubig et al., 2008; Górniak, Paun & Chase, 2010). Conran et al. (2009a) also noted that Dendrobium winikaphyllum Conran, Bannister & D.E.Lee is comparable to the indigenous extant New Zealand species Dendrobium cunninghamii Lindl., and they therefore consider it to belong to the Australasian Dendrobium clade (Conran et al., 2009a; Adams, 2011). Conservatively, this can be used to date the stem node of Dendrobium Sw. (see Adams, 2011 for a reference phylogenetic tree). Earina fouldenensis Conran, Bannister & D.E.Lee was compared with extant species of Earina Lindl. from New Zealand to which it was found to be closely similar based on the shared presence of unique stomatal characters and general morphology (Conran et al., 2009a). Here we consider it suitable to calibrate the stem node of *Earina*, or more inclusively, the stem of subtribe Agrostophyllinae (see van den Berg *et al.*, 2005 for a reference phylogenetic tree).

ASPARAGALES: XANTHORRHOEACEAE

A single fossil leaf, Dianellophyllum eocenicum Conran, Christophel & L.K.Cunn., from the Nelly Creek locality, Eyre Formation, Australia, has multiple characters that suggest an affinity with subfamily Hemerocallidoideae, particularly with the modern genera Dianella Lam. ex Juss. and Thelionema R.J.F.Hend. (Conran, Christophel & Cunningham, 2003). The Eyre Formation is dated to the middle Eocene (38.0–47.8 Ma) based on biostratigraphy (Alley, Krieg & Callen, 1996). Additional fossils similar to Dianella and Phormium J.R.Forst. & G.Forst. (subfamily Hemerocallidoideae) have been recovered from the early Miocene of New Zealand (Lee et al., 2012). However, these lack a formal description and so are not considered further here. Dianellophyllum eocenicum can be used to calibrate the stem node of subfamily Hemerocallidoideae, or more inclusively, the crown node of Xanthorrhoeaceae (see Seberg et al., 2012 for a reference phylogenetic tree).

DIOSCOREALES: DIOSCOREACEAE

Reliable fossil records of this family are known from the Eocene onwards; earlier records from the Cretaceous are less securely placed (Smith, 2013). A threewinged fruit assignable to *Dioscorea* L., based on the presence of a thick pedicel, retained perianth and fine venation on the wings, is known from the late Eocene of Colorado (Manchester, 2001; Manchester & O'Leary, 2010), but its placement with respect to extant species is unclear, and it may belong along the

stem lineage of *Dioscorea*. The fossil leaf *D. wilkinii* A.D.Pan, B.F.Jacobs & Currano from the Guang River flora (27.23 Ma; Pan, 2010; Pan, Jacobs & Currano, 2014) of Ethiopia is closely related to extant species of Dioscorea section Lasiophyton Uline (Pan et al., 2014). We therefore assign D. wilkinii to the stem node of Dioscorea section Lasiophyton (for phylogenetic placement, see Wilkin et al., 2005). Pan et al. (2014) also described Tacca umerii A.D.Pan, B.F.Jacobs & Currano from the early Miocene Mush Valley of Ethiopia (21.7 Ma). This fossil is thought to have greater similarities to the Malagasy, Asian and Malesian species than to the sole extant continental African species, T. leontopetaloides (L.) Kuntze, but Pan et al. (2014) stopped short of placing it definitively within the extant diversity of the genus. Considering its possible stem lineage placement with Tacca J.R.Forst. & G.Forst. and young age, we do not consider it informative for calibration purposes and do not consider it further here.

LILIALES: ALSTROEMERIACEAE

Fossil leaves assigned to the extant genus Luzuriaga Ruiz & Pav. along with associated reproductive material (Lee et al., 2012; Conran et al., 2014) have been recovered from the early Miocene Foulden Maar of New Zealand (23.2 Ma; Lindqvist & Lee, 2009). Recognition of the extinct taxon Luzuriaga peterbannisteri Conran, Bannister, Mildenh. & D.E.Lee was based on the presence of resupinate leaves, venation patterns and cuticular details that closely agree with Luzuriaga (Conran et al., 2014). The associated fossil flower was not organically connected to the leaves and was excluded from the species description. However, its characters also suggest association to Luzuriaga (Conran et al., 2014). The placement of L. peterbannisteri was further explored within Alstroemeriaceae using phylogenetic approaches, where it was found to be either sister to extant Luzuriaga, or nested in Luzuriaga. We follow Conran et al. (2014) and conservatively consider that this fossil may be sister to extant members of the genus and therefore useful for calibrating the stem node of Luzuriaga. Note that Conran et al. (2014) performed molecular dating analyses, but in both cases used it to constrain nodes within the crown of extant Luzuriaga.

LILIALES: RIPOGONACEAE

Fossil leaves, *Ripogonum tasmanicum* Conran, R.J.Carp. & G.J.Jord., from the Macquarie Harbour Formation of Tasmania were assigned to *Ripogonum* J.R.Forst. & G.Forst. based on leaf venation and stomatal patterns (Pole, 2007a; Conran, Carpenter & Jordan, 2009b). A phylogenetic analysis placed *R. tas*- manicum within the crown clade of Ripogonum (Conran et al., 2009b). However, bootstrap support for this relationship is poor (< 50%) and so we only consider it suitable for calibrating the stem node of Ripogonum. Marine and terrestrial biostratigraphy date the Macquarie Harbour Formation to the mid-Ypresian (early Eocene, 51–52 Ma; Carpenter, Jordan & Hill, 2007). Additional fossils similar to Ripogonum have recently been recovered from the early Miocene of New Zealand (Pole, 2007b; Lee et al., 2012), but await formal description; we do not consider them further here.

PANDANALES: CYCLANTHACEAE

Recent evaluation of infructescences and seeds from the Messel Pit of Germany (47 Ma; Franzen, 2005; Mertz & Renne, 2005) and the re-evaluation of isolated seeds from several Ypresian-Lutetian (early Eocene) localities in the UK demonstrated that they are most closely related to modern *Cyclanthus* Poit. ex A.Rich. (Smith, Collinson & Rudall, 2008b). Although the isolated seeds designated as *C. lakensis* (Chandler) S.Y.Sm., M.E.Collinson & Rudall probably represent *Cyclanthus*, they lack the apomorphies of the fossil infructescences *C. messelensis* S.Y.Sm., M.E.Collinson & Rudall, which directly link the latter to *Cyclanthus*. Therefore, *C. messelensis* can be used to calibrate the stem node of *Cyclanthus* or, more inclusively, the crown node of *Cyclanthaceae*.

PANDANALES: PANDANACEAE

Pandanoid fossil leaves are known from Cretaceous deposits onwards (e.g. Kvaček & Herman, 2004; Herman & Kvaček, 2010). However, these could be confused with certain members of Cyperaceae (i.e. some mapanioid sedges); fossil pandans are recognized by strap-shaped, parallel-veined leaves that are M-shaped in transverse section, armed with nonvascularized spines (e.g. as discussed by Kvaček & Herman, 2004; S.Y.S., pers. obs.), characters that also occur in some mapanioids (S.Y.S., pers. observ.) that are now recognized as being widespread in Europe in the early Cenozoic (Smith et al., 2009). Confusion even with modern collections was apparent in investigating mapanioid material in herbarium, which had often been initially identified or accessioned as Pandanus (S.Y.S., pers. observ.). Therefore, we consider the records of fossil leaves to be unreliable markers of the family until significant distinguishing characters can be identified (Smith, 2013).

Fossil infructescences described as *Gruenbachia* pandanoides J.Kvaček & A.B.Herman were recently recovered from the early Campanian Grünbach Formation of Austria (Herman & Kvaček, 2010). These fossils were found in association with pandanoid leaves and are similar to some members of Pandanaceae, particularly to Pandanus Parkinson, with which the fossils purportedly share the character of polydrupes (also termed 'phalanges' in the literature). However, several of the extant *Pandanus* spp. used for comparisons with the fossils are now segregated as Benstonea Callm. & Buerki and do not produce polydrupes (Callmander et al., 2012), even though one is illustrated and labelled as such (see *P. gibbsianus* Martelli, plate 16 fig. 6 in Herman & Kvaček, 2010). Thus, although we consider that the fossils probably represent Pandanaceae and possibly even Benstonea or Pandanus, they are in need of further comparison with extant pandan fruits and we do not currently consider them appropriate for calibration purposes.

In the earlier literature certain fossil pollen types were considered evidence for Pandanaceae. The most widespread of these pollen types is the near cosmopolitan Pandaniidites (Jarzen, 1983), which was originally described as having an affinity to Pandanaceae based on shared monoporate echinate grains (Elsik, 1968; Hotton, Leffingwell & Skvarla, 1994). Sweet (1985) subsequently noted similarities to the pollen of subfamily Lemnoideae of Araceae. Evidence that at least some records belong to Lemnoideae came from in situ pollen in plants of Limnobiophyllum, an araceous fossil with affinities to Lemnoideae (Stockey et al., 1997; see above for discussion on Limnobiophyllum). As a result, records of Pandaniidites are not reliable indicators of fossil Pandanaceae. Maastrichtian 'Pandanus tectoria'-type pollen described by Jarzen (1978) and reported in Muller (1981) has been used by various authors as calibrations for Pandanaceae (e.g. Bell, Soltis & Soltis, 2010; Zanne et al., 2014). However, this pollen type was reinterpreted as Pandaniidites (e.g. Nichols, 1987) and is therefore also not reliable for calibrating the family.

In the Palaeogene of Australia and New Zealand two fossil pollen types have been compared with Freycinetia Gaudich.: Dryptopollenites semilunatus Stover and Lateropora glabra Pocknall & Mildenh. The former was originally published by Stover & Partridge (1973) who mentioned a general similarity to Magnoliaceae, Arecaceae and Dioscoreaceae. Dryptopollenites was then tentatively compared with Freycinetia by Macphail et al. (1994) or more broadly with Pandanaceae (Macphail, 1999). In addition, the description of the pollen grains as having a large sulcus and often occurring in pairs (Stover & Partridge, 1973; Truswell, 1997) is unlike extant Freycinetia or Pandanaceae (Furness & Rudall, 2006). Lateropora (which ranges from the Palaeogene to Miocene) has also been associated with Freycinetia (Couper, 1953; Pocknall & Mildenhall, 1984). The characters used to place it (a relatively smooth tectum that is punctate under scanning electron microscopy; a single pore) are found in *Freycinetia* (Furness & Rudall, 2006), but are homoplasious in angiosperms and may therefore not support this association. We therefore do not consider *Dryptopollenites* or *Lateropora* to be suitable for calibration.

PANDANALES: TRIURIDACEAE

Gandolfo and colleagues (Gandolfo et al., 1998; Gandolfo, Nixon & Crepet, 2002) described wellpreserved male flowers from the Late Cretaceous of North America and assigned them to three species (Mabelia connatifila Gandolfo, Nixon & Crepet, M. archaia Gandolfo, Nixon & Crepet, and Nuhliantha nyanzaiana Gandolfo, Nixon & Crepet). Phylogenetic analysis based on the morphology data set of Stevenson & Loconte (1995) suggested a sister relationship between these fossils (treated as a single taxon) and Triuridaceae (Gandolfo et al., 2002). Further phylogenetic analysis focusing on members of Triuridaceae suggested a closer relationship between the fossils and tribe Triurideae than with tribe Sciaphileae (Gandolfo et al., 2002). Rudall (2003) suggested other possible placements within Pandanales, and Friis et al. (2011) posited similarities with magnoliid families, especially Myristicaceae; these suggestions were not based on phylogenetic analyses of additional taxa or characters. However, tribe Kupeaeae (Triuridaceae) was not included in the second analysis of Gandolfo et al. (2002) and some character states (e.g. reticulate pollen tectum) are not found among current members of Triuridaceae (although reticulate pollen is found in some members of Pandanales; Furness & Rudall, 2006). The most complete specimen is represented by *M. connatifila* and we therefore consider it conservative to use it as a stem node calibration for Triuridaceae, which may also be supported by the good preservation of flowers in the fossil material (these are ephemeral in living members of the family; J. A. Doyle, University of California, Davis, pers. comm.; however, the fossil flowers are charcoalified and may represent preanthetic material). This fossil (along with the others) was collected from the Old Crossman Clay Pit locality, Sayreville, New Jersey, part of the South Amboy Fire Clay of the Raritan Formation, which is considered mid-Turonian to possibly Coniacian in age (Christopher, 1979), although the mesofossils are similar to eastern North American localities of Santonian or Campanian age (Friis et al., 2011). The age of estimation of this sequence is complex; we follow Massoni, Doyle & Sauquet (2014) who suggest an age corresponding to the Coniacian-Santonian boundary. A complication to including Triuridaceae and associated fossils in a molecular dating analysis is that heterotrophic taxa often have highly elevated rates of evolution in plastid, nuclear and mitochondrial genes (demonstrated in Triuridaceae by Mennes *et al.*, 2013, for the latter two genomes), which may prove challenging in molecular dating analyses.

POALES: CYPERACEAE

Isolated fossil fruits assigned to Cyperaceae are common from the Eocene onwards, but potentially extend back to the Palaeocene (Smith et al., 2010). However, it is unclear if these records are all reliable, as a review of English fossil fruits assigned to Scirpus L. revealed them to be fossil seeds of Cyclanthaceae (Smith et al., 2008b). Recently, Volkeria messelensis S.Y.Sm., M.E.Collinson, D.A.Simpson, Rudall, Marone & Stampanoni was described from the Messel Pit of Germany (47 Ma; Franzen, 2005; Mertz & Renne, 2005), and is represented by complete infructescences with pollen and fruits that can be unambiguously assigned to subfamily Mapanioideae (Smith et al., 2009). Therefore, V. messelensis can be used to calibrate the stem node of Mapanioideae, or equivalently the crown node of Cyperaceae, as Mapanioideae are the sister group of the rest of the family (Simpson et al., 2006).

POALES: JUNCACEAE

The vegetative fossil record of Juncaceae is generally doubtful (Smith *et al.*, 2010). More secure records come from seeds comparable to *Juncus* L. from the Eocene–Oligocene boundary of England (Collinson, 1983). Although seed characters can be useful taxonomically (Balslev, 1998), seed character evolution has not been studied within the family and uncertainty concerning the monophyly of *Juncus* relative to the rest of the family complicates this issue further (Drábková, 2010). Therefore, without further study of fruit or seed morphology, these fossils cannot currently be placed within the crown clade of the family and the relatively young age of the fossils suggests that they would not be informative if used as a stem node calibration for the family.

POALES: POACEAE

Although grasses are often ecologically dominant, their herbaceous habit and the dry habitat that they are often associated with makes for poor fossil preservation (Strömberg, 2011). There are several recent reviews of the grass fossil record (Jacobs, Kingston & Jacobs, 1999; Smith *et al.*, 2010; Friis *et al.*, 2011; Strömberg, 2011), and the family has repeatedly been the focus of molecular dating studies (Strömberg, 2005; Bouchenak-Khelladi *et al.*, 2008, 2014; Vicentini *et al.*, 2008; Prasad *et al.*, 2011). Note that Poaceae (and some other Poales) have extensive rate elevation in plastid and other genes (e.g. Saarela & Graham, 2010), and it is possible that current dating methods do not fully accommodate this phenomenon (see the related discussion of elevated rates in heterotrophic taxa, in the section on Triuridaceae), a possible caveat for dating analyses of the family.

Strömberg (2011) provided the most comprehensive bibliography so far of possible grass fossils from the Cretaceous to the present. The most common grass fossils are pollen, which purportedly extend to the Maastrichtian (Jacobs et al., 1999). However, the gross morphology of grass pollen is indistinguishable from that of many members of related poalean families (Anarthriaceae, Ecdeiocoleaceae, Flagellariaceae, Joinvilleaceae and Restionaceae; Linder & Ferguson, 1985) and although TEM sections can be used to distinguish Poaceae pollen from relatives (Linder & Ferguson, 1985) they are rarely done on fossil pollen (Jacobs et al., 1999). More systematically useful evidence comes in the form of bio-opaline phytoliths (silica bodies) and macrofossil evidence, which can often be assigned to subfamilies of Poaceae (e.g. Strömberg, 2004; Prasad et al., 2005; Smith et al., 2010). Although more work needs to be done to fully characterize phytolith morphologies in Poales and other groups, the available data (which includes examination of all families of Poales) demonstrate that there is no convergence between the specialized short-cell morphotypes found in Poaceae with any other plant families, and some poacean morphotypes are even diagnostic to a species level; however, it is not yet clear how diagnostic of the different subfamilies and tribes the different morphotypes are (Prychid, Rudall & Gregory, 2004; Piperno, 2006; Prasad et al., 2011). A more conservative approach is to use phytoliths as fossil constraints when they are preserved in conjunction with other characters (see below).

Here we consider several putatively deeply nested fossils. Poinar (2011) evaluated phytoliths from a Late Cretaceous fossil leaf. Programinis laminatus Poinar, preserved in Burmese amber (98.8 Ma; Shi et al., 2012). Based on the presence of rondel phytoliths, he suggested an affinity with Pooideae. However, their three-dimensional shape is hard to distinguish, and thus we reserve judgement about the affinity of the fossil within Poales. The oldest convincing macrofossils of Poaceae are spikelets from the Palaeocene-Eocene boundary (Crepet & Feldman, 1991). The presence of spikelets suggests an affinity to the core subfamilies of Poaceae (i.e. all subfamilies except Anomochlooideae; Crepet & Feldman, 1991; Grass Phylogeny Working Group, 2001; Saarela & Graham, 2010). Because these fossil spikelets possess two florets, Vicentini et al. (2008) considered them for constraining the stem node of all subfamilies except Anomochlooideae and Pharoideae (which have single flowered spikelets). As floret number is labile (Grass Phylogeny Working Group, 2001), we consider it more conservative for the fossil to calibrate the stem node of the clade comprising all grass subfamilies excluding Anomochlooideae (i.e. the crown node of grasses). However, there are older more deeply nested fossils available to use, and so we do not consider these spikelets further.

Among the species-poor earliest diverging subfamilies, Anomochlooideae lack a fossil record. A phytolith from the Maastrichtian of India, Pipernoa pearsalla V.Prasad, Strömberg, Alimohammadian & A.Sahni, was suggested to have some affinity with Puelioideae, but its placement with this subfamily is not certain (Prasad et al., 2005). A spikelet attached to mammalian hair recovered from Dominican amber (15-20 Ma; Iturralde-Vinent & MacPhee, 1996) was considered to have affinity to Pharus P.Brown (Pharoideae) based on the comparison of eight characters (Poinar & Columbus, 1992). Further work on this fossil, Pharus primuncinatus Judz. & Poinar, indicates an association with P. mezii Prodoehl, although a phylogenetic analysis was not performed (Poinar & Judziewicz, 2005). We accept that *P. primuncinatus* belongs in Pharus, but are hesitant to consider it part of the genus crown clade. It could potentially be used to calibrate the crown node of Pharoideae. However, the monophyly and phylogeny of Pharoideae (including Pharus, Leptaspis R.Br. and Scrotochloa Judz.) has not been adequately evaluated (Judziewicz & Clark, 2007; Christin et al., 2013), and the relatively young age of the fossil (15-20 Ma) makes it unsuitable for dating the stem node of Pharoideae. Another putative fossil member of Pharoideae is represented by leaves described as Leptaspis cf. zeylanica, from the Miocene Ngororoa Formation, Tugen Hills, Kenya (Jacobs & Kabuye, 1987; Jacobs, Judziewicz & Kabuye, 2014). However, as it is not figured or formally described in the literature, we do not consider it further here.

The oldest definitive fossils of Poaceae are from the Maastrichtian-Danian Deccan beds of India (Prasad *et al.*, 2005, 2011). These are phytoliths formed in the short cells of grass leaf epidermis, belonging to ten form species with affinities to a number of clades and subfamilies of Poaceae (Prasad *et al.*, 2005, 2011). Two of these phytolith form species, *Changii indicum* V.Prasad, Strömberg, Leaché, B.Samant, R.Patnaik, L.Tang, Mohabey, S.Ge & A.Sahni and *Tateokai deccana* V.Prasad, Strömberg, Leaché, B.Samant, R.Patnaik, L.Tang, Mohabey, S.Ge & A.Sahni, have been placed with tribe Oryzeae, subfamily Ehrhartoideae, using a Bayesian phylogenetic approach (Prasad *et al.*, 2011); the remainder have not been analysed in this manner and so we do not consider them further. The epidermal fragment of the holotype of C. indicum is exceptionally well preserved and we consider it to be suitable in dating the stem node of Oryzeae or, equivalently, the crown node of Ehrhartoideae (the former tribe is the sister group of the remainder of the latter subfamily; Grass Phylogeny Working Group II, 2012). The age of the Deccan beds has been contentious. Here we follow Courtillot & Renne (2003) who reviewed the radiometric and magnetostragraphic evidence over the extent of the basaltic flows and suggest that the bulk of the flows closely straddled the Cretaceous-Palaeogene boundary. As C. indicum was recovered from dinosaur coprolites in horizons containing dinosaur bones (Prasad et al., 2011), we consider this fossil to be latest Maastrichtian (66 Ma). Phytoliths that have been recovered from the Eocene to Miocene of North America, South America and Asia putatively have affinity to Bambusoideae, Chloridoideae, Danthanioideae, Pooideae and other clades (Strömberg, 2004, 2005; Strömberg et al., 2007, 2013; Zucol, Brea & Bellosi, 2010), but they have not been phylogenetically analysed like C. indicum and T. deccana, and the distribution of phytolith characters in Poaceae is not yet comprehensively known. Therefore, we do not consider them further here. Additional fossil evidence for subfamily Ehrhartoideae comes from the distal end of an inflorescence assignable to Leersia Sw., from the Seifhennersdorf locality, Saxony, Germany (Walther, 1974; Walther & Kvaček, 2007). This locality has been dated by overlying basalts to the Oligocene (30.7 Ma; Bellon et al., 1998). Therefore, the fossil L. seifhennersdorfensis H.Walther can be used to calibrate the stem node of Leersia or, more inclusively, the crown node of Oryzeae (Grass Phylogeny Working Group II, 2012). Non-phytolith evidence for Bambusoideae comes from spikelets preserved in Miocene Dominican amber (Poinar & Columbus, 2013) that show similarities to the climbing bamboo Arthrostylidium Rupr. However, the fossil is not definitely placed within the phylogeny of Bambusoideae, and so we do not consider it further here. Whole fossil grasses with Kranz anatomy are known from the Miocene of California, and were compared with Paspalum L. (Panicoideae) (Nambudiri et al., 1978; Whistler et al., 2009). Nevertheless, they were not rigorously evaluated and are not considered further here.

In Pooideae grass fruits described as *Stipa floris*santi (Knowlt.) MacGinitie are known from the Eocene Florissant Formation of Colorado (MacGinitie, 1953; Manchester, 2001). These fossils were compared closely with the extant Mexican species *Nassella mucronata* (Kunth) R.W.Pohl and other New World members of Stipeae [MacGinitie, 1953; Manchester, 2001; note that extant *Stipa* L. s.s. is considered to be restricted to the Old World (Romaschenko *et al.*, 2010), and so this fossil may not necessarily fit the modern circumscription of Stipa]. The age of the Florissant Formation is constrained by radiometric dating to 34.07-36.70 Ma (Evanoff, Mcintosh & Murphey, 2001). As tribe Stipeae is clearly nested in Pooideae (Grass Phylogeny Working Group II, 2012), we consider *Stipa florissanti* from Colorado to constrain the stem node age of Stipeae or, more inclusively, the crown age of Pooideae. In addition to this macrofossil evidence there exist *Stipa*-like phytoliths spanning the Eocene to Miocene from North America, South America and Asia (Strömberg, 2005; Strömberg *et al.*, 2007, 2013). However, these phytoliths have not been phylogenetically evaluated, and so we do not consider them further.

POALES: RESTIONACEAE

Fossil pollen widely ascribed to Restionaceae, Milfordia Erdtman emend. A.D.Partr., has a record extending back to the Maastrichtian (Smith et al., 2010). However, its placement is not considered secure as there are several other poalean families with similar pollen (Linder & Ferguson, 1985; Linder, 1987). More convincing are fruits from the Eocene-Oligocene boundary in Queensland, Australia, assigned to the extinct genus Restiocarpum M.E.Dettmann & Clifford and co-occurring with Milfordia pollen (Dettmann & Clifford, 2000). These are unilocular fruits with a single, pendulous ovule with thin seed coat and tannins, much like extant Restionaceae (Dettmann & Clifford, 2000). Some of the fossil seed characters suggest placement in the crown clade of Restionaceae, but some of these characters (e.g. unilocular fruits) are homoplasious in the family (Briggs, Marchant & Perkins, 2010) and may not be systematically informative. Centrolepidaceae share many embryological features with Restionaceae (Briggs & Linder, 2009) and may either be phylogenetically embedded in Restionaceae or sister to it (Briggs et al., 2010; Briggs, Marchant & Perkins, 2014). Because of the uncertainty in the phylogenetic placement of Centrolepidaceae, we consider Restiocarpum suitable for constraining the stem node of Centrolepidaceae + Restionaceae [we list the type species R. latericum M.E.Dettman & Clifford (Dettmann & Clifford, 2000) in Table 1, but any of these fossils would be suitable]. Palynological correlations of the locality Rockhampton 1, Casuarina Beds, Queensland, Australia (Noon, 1980), with radiometrically constrained strata indicate a minimum age of 27.7 Ma (Sutherland, Stubbs & Green, 1977; Dettmann & Clifford, 2000).

POALES: TYPHACEAE

As currently circumscribed Typhaceae contain two genera, *Sparganium* L and *Typha* L. (APG III, 2009).

Both genera have an extensive and distinctive record of fossil fruits from the Palaeogene onwards, with the record for Typha potentially extending to the Late Cretaceous (Smith et al., 2010). Typha seeds are characterized as being elongate with a mucronate lid-like operculum that is one cell thick, a thin, membraneous seed coat with only two layers, longitudinally orientated integumentary cells and a small cone-shaped chalazal chamber (Dettmann & Clifford, 2000; M. E. Collinson, Royal Holloway University of London, pers. comm., 2014). The chemistry of Typha and Sparganium seed coats is distinctive and could also be used to strengthen the identity of fossil seeds (Collinson & van Bergen, 2004). The European Cretaceous (Maastrichtian) Typha specimens (Knobloch & Mai, 1986) are probably Typhaceae, but require additional study to demonstrate key features (Crepet et al., 2004; Friis et al., 2011). Although somewhat younger, one of the best preserved specimens consists of a complete inflorescence (cattail) from the early Eocene of Wyoming (Grande, 1984). The Fossil Lake locality is part of the Green River Formation and the fossil-bearing stratum ('18 inch' layer) is overlain by a K-feldspar tuff that has been radiometrically dated to 51.66 Ma (Smith, Carroll & Singer, 2008a; Buchheim, Cushman & Biaggi, 2011). This unnamed Typha cattail is considered suitable for calibrating the stem node of Typha or, equivalently, the crown node of Typhaceae.

ZINGIBERALES

Spirematospermum M.Chandler, which has been variously assigned to Musaceae and Zingiberaceae, has an extensive fossil record covering Eurasia and North America from the Late Cretaceous nearly to the present day (Fischer et al., 2009; Friis et al., 2011). The oldest occurrence of the genus, S. chandlerae E.M.Friis, is from the early Campanian Tar Heels Formation of Neuse River, North Carolina (Friis, 1988; Owens & Sohl, 1989; Sohl & Owens, 1991; Mitra & Mickle, 2007; Friis et al., 2011). Its placement in a particular family has been contentious, but current evidence tends to point to an association with crown Zingiberaceae (S.Y.S., M. Collinson, Royal Holloway University of London, J. Benedict, University of Michigan & C. Specht, University of California, Berkeley, unpubl. data). Despite the uncertainty in its systematic placement, we consider this fossil useful for calibrating the stem of Zingiberaceae to the Campanian (72.1-83.6 Ma).

UNPLACED MONOCOT FOSSILS

Until recently the earliest records of monocots were restricted to *Liliacidites* Couper pollen grains and a vegetative shoot, *Acaciaephyllum* Fontaine (Doyle et al., 2008; Friis et al., 2011). Like many fossil formgenera, *Liliacidites* has a complex history. The genus was first described for pollen grains from the Late Cretaceous of New Zealand (L. kaitangataensis Couper; Couper, 1953) that are monosulcate boatshaped grains with a reticulate tectum that has graduated fining of the lumina towards the ends of the grain. This combination of features is only known from monocots (e.g. some members of Alismatales, Dioscoreales, Liliales, Asparagales and Poales; Doyle, 1973; Walker & Walker, 1984; Dovle et al., 2008). However, fossil pollen grains without these characters have been called 'Liliacidites' in the literature (Gandolfo et al., 2000); some of these are demonstrably not of monocot affinity (Doyle et al., 2008), and as a result care must be taken when considering whether a particular record actually represents monocot fossil evidence. The earliest records of Lilia*cidites* with clear monocot affinity (showing the above mentioned features) are from the Trent's Reach locality of Virginia (Dovle, 1973; Dovle & Hickey, 1976; Doyle & Robbins, 1977; Doyle et al., 2008), part of the Patuxent Formation and corresponding to the base of Zone I, (early?) Aptian (113–125 Ma; Doyle, 1973; Hochuli, Heimhofer & Weissert, 2006). These were originally described as *Retimonocolpites* sp. C by Doyle (1973) and later reinterpreted as Liliacidites sp. A by Doyle & Hickey (1976). A phylogenetic analysis placed these fossils either on the stem of monocots or equally parsimoniously anywhere in the included monocots (Doyle et al., 2008). Vegetative material from the Dutch Gap locality of Virginia (Patuxent Formation) was described by Fontaine (1889) as Acaciaephyllum Fontaine and compared with Acacia Mill. phyllodes. Doyle (1973) subsequently reinterpreted them as monocot leaves based on venation patterns. This placement was challenged by Gandolfo et al. (2000) who re-examined the original fossils and discarded the placement in monocots based on the poor preservation of some of the fossils and the lack of apomorphic characters for monocot leaves. Doyle et al. (2008) revisited the issue with a phylogenetic analysis that affirmed his earlier placement. As Liliacidites sp. A sensu Doyle & Hickey (1976) provides an equivalent age constraint and is unambiguously associated with monocots, we consider that it represents the best early evidence for monocots in the fossil record and is therefore useful for calibrating the stem node of monocots.

CONCLUSION

Table 1 provides a summary of the fossils that we think are most reliably placed within extant monocot diversity, and that best satisfy the additional criteria for using fossils as calibrations in molecular dating analyses (i.e. they have well-characterized phylogenetic placements and ages, and exist as voucher specimens). This review should serve as a guide for molecular dating studies, especially those focused on monocots. It is clear that there are many more monocot fossils still to be re-examined or discovered. We hope that our summary here will spur additional research into clarifying the systematic relationships of monocot fossils, and studies of the morphology and anatomy of modern relatives that are often needed for identifying synapomorphic characters that can be recognized in the fossil record.

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