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5	Article type : Research Paper
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10	Patterns and drivers of species diversity in the Indo-Pacific red seaweed
11	Portieria
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This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the <u>Version of Record</u>. Please cite this article as <u>doi: 10.1111/jbi.13410</u>

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- 54 Editor: Ceridwen Fraser

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- 56 Running title: Biogeographical history of an Indo-Pacific seaweed
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- ABSTRACT
- 60 Aim Biogeographical processes underlying Indo-Pacific biodiversity patterns have been relatively
- 61 well studied in marine shallow water invertebrates and fishes, but have been explored much less
- 62 extensively in seaweeds, despite these organisms often displaying markedly different patterns. Using
- 63 the marine red alga *Portieria* as a model, we aim to gain understanding of the evolutionary processes
- 64 generating seaweed biogeographical patterns. Our results will be evaluated and compared with known
- 65 patterns and processes in animals.
- 66 **Location** Indo-Pacific marine region.
- 67 Methods Species diversity estimates were inferred using DNA-based species delimitation methods.
- 68 Historical biogeographical patterns were inferred based on a six-gene time-calibrated phylogeny,
- 69 distribution data of 802 specimens, and probabilistic modelling of geographic range evolution. The
- 70 importance of geographic isolation for speciation was further evaluated by population genetic analyses
- 71 at the intraspecific level.
- 72 **Results** We delimited 92 candidate species, most with restricted distributions, suggesting low
- 73 dispersal capacity. Highest species diversity was found in the Indo-Malay Archipelago (IMA). Our
- 74 phylogeny indicates that *Portieria* originated during the late Cretaceous in the area that is now the
- 75 Central Indo-Pacific. The biogeographical history of Portieria includes repeated dispersal events to
- 76 peripheral regions, followed by long-term persistence and diversification of lineages within those
- regions, and limited dispersal back to the IMA.
- Main conclusions Our results suggest that the long geological history of the IMA played an important 78 79 role in shaping *Portieria* diversity. High species richness in the IMA resulted from a combination of speciation at small spatial scales, possibly as a result of increased regional habitat diversity from the 80 81 Eocene onwards, and species accumulation via dispersal and/or island integration through tectonic 82 movement. Our results are consistent with the biodiversity feedback model, in which biodiversity 83 hotspots act as both 'centres of origin' and 'centres of accumulation', and corroborate previous 84 findings for invertebrates and fish that there is no single unifying model explaining the biological 85 diversity within the IMA.
- 86

#### 87 Keywords

algae, biodiversity hotspot, Coral Triangle, cryptic species, historical biogeography, Indian Ocean,
marine biogeography, Pacific Ocean, Rhodophyta, speciation

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# 92 INTRODUCTION

A wide range of marine organisms (including coastal fishes, several invertebrate groups, and 93 marine angiosperms) reach their highest species richness in the tropical region bounded by the 94 Philippines, Indonesia and Papua New Guinea, known as the Coral Triangle or Indo-Malay 95 Archipelago (IMA). Diversity declines rapidly for most groups when moving away longitudinally as 96 well as latitudinally from the IMA (Connolly et al., 2003; Hoeksema, 2007). Marine macroalgae 97 (seaweeds) are among the dominant groups of benthic organisms in nearshore marine environments, 98 99 but generally show different diversity patterns (Kerswell, 2006; Schils et al., 2013; Etti & Schils, 100 2016). A number of seaweed groups, including brown seaweeds and siphonous green algae, however, 101 display a similar pattern of peak diversity in the IMA (Kerswell, 2006; Vieira et al., 2017). The high species richness in the IMA has intrigued evolutionary biologists for decades, and several 102 competing but non-exclusive hypotheses have been proposed to explain the origins of this marine 103 104 biodiversity hotspot, including the centre of origin, the centre of accumulation, and the region of 105 overlap hypotheses. The relative importance of these models, however, remains a matter of controversy (Barber, 2009; Bellwood & Meyer, 2009; Jablonski et al., 2013). 106 The centre of origin hypothesis suggests that the high diversity is due to elevated speciation rates 107 within the IMA as a consequence of geological complexity, habitat heterogeneity and intense 108 competition within the region. In this model, dispersal of species to peripheral regions has resulted in a 109 pattern of declining diversity with distance away from the centre (Briggs, 2000; Mora et al., 2003). 110 111 There is evidence that tectonic events such as the collision of the Australia-New Guinea plate with SE 112 Eurasia resulted in increased diversification in the Oligo-Miocene (Williams & Duda, 2008). 113 The centre of accumulation hypothesis suggests that the high number of species in the Coral Triangle is a result of speciation in peripheral locations, with subsequent dispersal and accumulation 114 of species in the IMA (Jokiel & Martinelli, 1992). In this model, the biodiversity hotspot is explained 115 by lower extinction rates in the IMA, mediated by its extensive and heterogeneous tropical shallow-116 water environments with large reef areas (Barber & Bellwood, 2005; Bellwood & Meyer, 2009). 117 118 Accumulation of species may also have resulted from integration of distinct biotas by tectonic 119 movement over the past 50 million years (Rosen & Smith, 1988; Hall, 2002; Renema et al., 2008).

The region of overlap hypothesis suggests that the high species diversity results from overlap of
species ranges due to vicariance events and subsequent range expansion across the IMA (Barber *et al.*,
2000; Bellwood & Wainwright, 2002).

Phylogenetic and population genetic data of marine invertebrates and fish have provided evidence
in support of all three hypotheses: centre of origin (e.g., Carpenter & Springer, 2005; Barber *et al.*,
2006; Tornabene *et al.*, 2015; Ukuwela *et al.*, 2016), centre of accumulation (e.g., Drew & Barber,
2009; Eble *et al.*, 2011; Hodge *et al.*, 2012), and region of overlap (e.g., Gaither *et al.*, 2011; Hubert *et al.*, 2012). This indicates that several processes likely contributed to the IMA biodiversity hotspot for
different taxa (Bowen *et al.*, 2013; Hodge & Bellwood, 2016; Ukuwela *et al.*, 2016; Matias & Riginos,
2018).

The fossil record indicates that the IMA has not always been a centre of marine biodiversity. 130 131 During the past 50 million years, marine biodiversity hotspots have shifted from the West Tethys in 132 the area that is now the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea, to the northern Indian Ocean, and finally the IMA today, mirroring the regions that had large areas of shallow water and suitable climatic 133 134 conditions at various stages in earth history (Renema et al., 2008). Concurrently, historical biogeographical analyses of coral reef fishes suggest that the importance of the Central Indo-Pacific 135 136 has changed from an area of species accumulation in the Palaeo/Eocene, to a centre of origination 137 since the Miocene (Cowman & Bellwood, 2013a; Cowman, 2014).

Historical biogeographical studies investigating patterns of species origin and dispersal in the 138 tropical Indo-Pacific have largely focused on marine animals, and relatively few studies (mainly on 139 fish) have analysed species-rich groups across large geographical scales (Barber & Bellwood, 2005; 140 141 Gaither et al., 2011; Ukuwela et al., 2016). Despite being a diverse and major component of tropical coastal ecosystems, seaweeds have not received much attention in historical biogeographical studies in 142 143 the Indo-Pacific, and in addition biogeographical patterns have been largely obscured by rampant cryptic diversity (Vieira et al., 2017). Compared to marine fish and invertebrates with planktonic 144 145 larvae, most seaweeds are poor dispersers because their spores and zygotes are typically short-lived 146 and negatively buoyant (Kinlan & Gaines, 2003). As a result, many seaweed species have restricted 147 geographic ranges and molecular data indicate that several allegedly widely distributed species in fact represent cryptic species with narrow distributions (e.g., Zuccarello & West, 2003; Saunders, 2005; 148 Gabriel et al., 2017). 149

We chose the red seaweed *Portieria* Zanardini (family Rhizophyllidaceae, order Gigartinales) to study patterns of species origination and dispersal in the tropical Indo-Pacific because (1) it is a common alga in nearshore marine environments of the tropical Indo-Pacific region (Guiry & Guiry, 2018), (2) the genus is species-rich (Payo *et al.*, 2013), (3) its vegetative and reproductive development have been well studied (Payo *et al.*, 2011), and (4) it is easily recognizable in the field by

155 its typical branching pattern, facilitating identification and collection. Portieria is commonly found on 156 coral reefs and rocky shores where it grows in the intertidal, and subtidally to 40 m deep. Because *Portieria* species grow attached and lack obvious vegetative propagules, its limited dispersal capacity 157 is expected to be representative for red algae. About five species of Portieria have traditionally been 158 159 recognized based on morphological criteria (Wiseman, 1973; Masuda et al., 1995; De Clerck et al., 160 2005; Anderson et al., 2016). One of these, Portieria hornemannii (Lyngbye) P.C.Silva, is thought to 161 have a broad distribution from the northern Red Sea to French Polynesia (Guiry & Guiry, 2018), 162 which contradicts with the idea of poor dispersal capacity. A biodiversity study in the Philippine 163 archipelago based on DNA sequence data, however, showed that 21 cryptic species, all with very 164 narrow distribution ranges, were contained within the P. hornemannii morpho-species complex (Payo 165 et al., 2013). This discovery indicates that the global species diversity in the genus is probably much 166 higher and makes the genus a good candidate to study global patterns of diversity and the processes underlying them. 167

168 Because an accurate knowledge of species boundaries and distributions is important for 169 evolutionary inference, the first aim of our study was to assess species diversity and geographical 170 distributions of Portieria in the Indo-Pacific based on DNA sequence data. Building upon these 171 results, our main goal was to investigate patterns of species origin and dispersal by modelling geographic range evolution using a time-calibrated phylogenetic framework. The importance of 172 173 geographic modes of speciation in the diversification of *Portieria* was further evaluated by analysis of 174 population genetic structure within well sampled species. Our results were evaluated in light of current hypotheses explaining the origins of the IMA marine biodiversity hotspot and were compared to 175 studies on fish and invertebrates to explore (dis)similarities with processes found in marine animals. 176

177

#### 178 MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### 179 Sampling and laboratory protocols

We sampled 802 specimens of *Portieria* from 260 localities, encompassing most of the
geographical range of the genus (Fig. S1 in Appendix S1 in Supporting Information). The list of
specimens with collection data and voucher information is provided in Table S1 in Appendix S1.

DNA extraction, PCR amplification and sequencing protocols are detailed in Table S2 in Appendix S2. For species delimitation, we targeted the mitochondrial *cox2-3* spacer (363 bp), which was sequenced for all 802 specimens. For constructing a species phylogeny, the *cox2-3* spacer was complemented with five additional markers: the mitochondrial encoded *cox1* gene (642 bp), the plastid encoded *psbA* gene (939 bp), *rbcL* gene (1027 bp) and *rbcL-rbcS* spacer (537 bp), and the nuclear encoded elongation factor 2 (*EF2*) gene (in two parts: 474 bp and 609 bp). Phylogenetic data are available in the Mendeley data repository (http://dx.doi.org/10.17632/df7r7ddfyg).

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#### 191 DNA-based species delimitation and geographical distributions

192 We applied three approaches to species delimitation based on the *cox2-3* spacer dataset: statistical

193 parsimony (Templeton *et al.*, 1992), single and multiple threshold Generalized Mixed Yule Coalescent

approach (GMYC) (Pons *et al.*, 2006; Monaghan *et al.*, 2009), and a Poisson Tree Processes (PTP)

model approach (Zhang *et al.*, 2013). Details of the species delimitation analyses are provided in
Appendix S3.

- Species distributions, based on locations of the 802 sequenced specimens, were plotted with the
  'maps' package in R (cran.r-project.org/web/packages/maps/). Geographic patterns of species richness
  were based on the numbers of species recorded in 12 marine biogeographical provinces (see below).
  Latitudinal and longitudinal range sizes of each species were calculated as described in Baselga *et al.*(2012).
- 202

#### 203 Multi-locus time-calibrated species phylogeny

A species phylogeny was based on an alignment of the delimited *Portieria* species (each represented by a single specimen) and six markers: cox2-3 spacer, cox1, psbA, rbcL, rbcL-rbcS spacer, and EF2, with the different markers coming from the same specimen. DNA sequences were aligned for each marker separately using MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004) with amino acid translations taken into account for protein coding regions. The six alignments were then concatenated into a single alignment of 3,782 positions, which was 71% filled at the species × locus level. Information on sequence alignments is given in Table S3 in Appendix S2.

PARTITIONFINDER (Lanfear *et al.*, 2012) was used to identify a suitable partitioning scheme and
accompanying substitution models according to the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) based on a
set of eight *a priori* defined partitioning schemes. Three partitioning schemes (3, 5 and 8 data
partitions) were selected for the phylogenetic analyses (Table S5 in Appendix S4).

The age of the root of the *Portieria* clade was estimated based on the red algal time-calibrated

216 phylogeny of Yang et al. (2016). We assembled a seven-gene dataset of Gigartinales and

217 Peyssonneliales and complemented this dataset with genera of Rhizophyllidaceae, including nine

218 representatives of the main Portieria clades. Genes were aligned as described above, and a time-

- calibrated tree was estimated with BEAST v1.8.2 (Drummond *et al.*, 2012). The root of the tree (split
- between Gigartinales and Peyssonneliales) was constrained with a normal prior distribution (mean =
- 308 Ma, SD = 23) based on Yang *et al.* (2016). Using this calibration, the crown age of *Portieria* was
- estimated at 99.2 Ma (Fig. S4 in Appendix S4), which was used to obtain a time-frame of
- 223 diversification for the genus *Portieria* in the BEAST analysis described below.

224 A time-calibrated Bayesian phylogeny of *Portieria* was constructed with BEAST based on the 225 concatenated six-marker alignment. The three partitioning schemes were used with the unlinked GTR+I+G model for each partition. Data were analysed using a Birth-Death tree prior (Gernhard, 226 2008), an uncorrelated lognormal (UCLN) relaxed clock model of rate variation among branches 227 228 (Drummond et al., 2006) with the mean of the branch rates (ucld.mean) constrained with a diffuse 229 gamma distribution prior (shape 0.001, scale 1000). All other priors were left as default. The root of 230 the tree, being the crown node of *Portieria*, was constrained with a normal prior distribution (mean = 231 99 Ma, SD = 10). Four independent MCMC analyses of 20 million generations were performed, 232 sampling every 2,000 generations, to obtain posterior distributions of parameters excluding a burnin of 233 10%. Convergence of each analysis was determined in TRACER v.1.6 (Rambaut et al., 2014), examining the effective sampling size for all parameters. For the analysis using three data partitions, 234 235 the effective sampling size (ESS) was > 200 for all parameters (except for the GTR substitution parameters of codon positions 1+2 with ESS 100-200), while for the analyses with five and eight data 236 237 partitions, convergence was poor (ESS < 100) for several of the GTR substitution parameters. MCMC 238 analyses were combined in LOGCOMBINER v1.8.2, and maximum clade credibility trees were generated with TREEANNOTATOR. FIGTREE v1.4.2 (Rambaut, 2014) was used to visualize the 239 chronogram. Analyses using the three different partitioning schemes led to similar tree topologies and 240 241 resolution as well as similar time estimates.

242

#### 243 Inference of biogeographical history

The time-calibrated species phylogeny and the geographic ranges of the species were combined to 244 analyse the historical biogeography of Portieria. Ancestral ranges were estimated using 245 BIOGEOBEARS (Matzke, 2013), an R package implementing several ancestral range estimation 246 247 models in a likelihood framework, including the Dispersal-Extinction Cladogenesis Model (DEC) (Ree & Smith, 2008), a likelihood version of the parsimony-based Dispersal-Vicariance Analysis 248 249 (Ronquist, 1997) (DIVALIKE), and a likelihood version of the range evolution model implemented in 250 the BayArea program and the Bayesian Binary Model (BBM) of RASP (Yu et al., 2015). It also 251 includes the possibility to incorporate the process of founder-event speciation (+J) to the above-

- 252 mentioned models.
- 253 Two geographical subdivisions were considered. In the realm-level analysis, three broadly defined
- realms modified from Spalding *et al.* (2007) are considered: a-c in Fig. 1. In the province-level
- analysis, twelve provinces modified from Spalding *et al.* (2007) are considered: A-L in Fig. 1.
- 256 Geographical distributions were based on location data of the 802 sequenced specimens.
- For both geographical subdivisions, the six different models implemented in BIOGEOBEARS were compared for statistical fit using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) (Table S6 in Appendix S5).

- 259 The maximum number of areas for a single species to occupy was set at two and three for the realm-
- and province-level analysis, respectively. The best-fit model was then used to refine the analysis with
- 261 constrained areas and dispersal multipliers in which dispersal probability decreased with geographical
- 262 distance (Table S7 in Appendix S5). The resulting ancestral range probability for each node was
- 263 plotted on the BEAST tree. In the province-level analysis, biogeographical event counts, and
- 264 probabilities of events at each node were determined using Biogeographical Stochastic Mapping in
- 265 BIOGEOBEARS under the best-fit model, DEC+J. Details of the BIOGEOBEARS analyses are
- available in the Mendeley data repository (http://dx.doi.org/10.17632/df7r7ddfyg).
- 267 Shifts in diversification rate through time and among lineages were tested using BAMM (Rabosky, 268 2014), using the BEAST tree as input, expected number of shifts = 1, with 100 million generations of 269 Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling per run and sampling evolutionary parameters every 270 100,000 generations. A lineages-through-time (LTT) plot, including a 95% confidence interval based 271 on a set of 1,000 post-burnin trees was generated using PHYTOOLS (Revell, 2012).
- 272

#### 273 Population genetic analysis

274 Within species, we assessed if populations were geographically structured using haplotype network 275 analyses and single-level Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA). For these analyses, we selected 19 species for which 10 or more specimens were available from at least two geographically distinct 276 locations ( $\geq$  20 km apart), and with a minimum of two specimens per population. For four additional 277 species only haplotype networks were constructed. Haplotype networks of  $cox^{2-3}$  spacer sequences 278 279 were built using the TCS method (Clement et al., 2000) with POPART v.1.7 (Leigh & Bryant, 2015). AMOVA and fixation index  $\Phi_{st}$  calculations, using 1,000 permutations were performed in ARLEQUIN 280 v3.5.2 (Excoffier & Lischer, 2010). Because of limited sampling in many populations, we did not 281 calculate pairwise  $\Phi_{st}$  values between populations, and AMOVA results should be considered as 282 283 indicative.

284

# 285 RESULTS

#### 286 Species diversity and geographic ranges

- 287 Results of the different DNA-based species delimitation analyses are summarized in Table S4 and Fig.
- 288 S2 in Appendix S3. The different methods yielded species diversity estimates ranging from 81
- 289 (statistical parsimony) to 139 species (multiple threshold GMYC). Because the GMYC and PTP
- 290 methods are known to overestimate species numbers in some cases (for example when taxon sampling
- is uneven or incomplete), we relied on a conservative consensus approach towards reconciling the
- results of the different species delimitation methods to maximize the reliability of species boundaries,

as has been suggested in other studies (Carstens *et al.*, 2013; Miralles & Vences, 2013; Zhang *et al.*,

- 2013). More specifically, we recognized species clades that received high support in the *cox2-3* spacer
- BEAST tree (posterior probabilities > 0.95), and that were compatible with at least three of the four

species delimitation methods (statistical parsimony, GMYC single, GMYC multiple and PTP). This

resulted in the delimitation of 92 candidate species of *Portieria*. Species delimitations were generally

congruent with the results of Payo *et al.* (2013), which only included Philippine data. One exception is

the subclade including V1A-V1B-V1C, which was split into three species based on analysis of multi-

locus data under a multispecies coalescent model in Payo *et al.* (2013), but is here regarded as a single
unit, underscoring our conservative approach towards species delimitation.

Although a number of species names are available in the genus *Portieria*, we do not apply these names at this stage because in most cases they could not be reliably applied to any of the 92 candidate species. One exception is *Portieria tripinnata* (Hering) De Clerck from South Africa, which grows in the mid-intertidal (De Clerck *et al.*, 2005; Anderson *et al.*, 2016), and most likely corresponds to sp.32.

307 The geographical distributions of the 92 Portieria species are summarized in Fig. 1 and Fig. S3 in Appendix S3. In the realm-level analyses (3 realms), each species was restricted to a single realm, 308 309 with most species (72) occurring in realm b (Central Indo-Pacific, Temperate Northern Pacific and 310 Temperate Australasia). In the province-level analyses (12 provinces), most species (81) were 311 restricted to a single province, 10 species occurred in two provinces, and only one species spanned 312 three provinces (sp.34 occurring in provinces B, C and D). Most species thus have narrow 313 geographical ranges, being restricted to single island groups or short coastal stretches. Latitudinal and longitudinal range sizes of the different species are illustrated in Fig. 2. More than 80% of species (77 314 of the 92) had a latitudinal and/or longitudinal range smaller than 500 km, and only 7 species had a 315 latitudinal and/or longitudinal range larger than 2,000 km. As an exception, sp.34, which is found 316 317 from South Africa to Oman, as well as in Madagascar and Sri Lanka, had latitudinal and longitudinal ranges exceeding 5,000 km. 318

Highest species diversity was observed in the Western Coral Triangle (F), including 31 species (Fig. 1), followed by the Western Indian Ocean (B), the Southwestern Pacific (J), the Northwestern Pacific (I), and the Eastern Coral Triangle (G) (each containing 9 to 14 species). Observed species diversity in the other provinces was much lower (2-4 species). We found a marginally significant correlation between the number of specimens sampled and number of species found per province ( $r_s$  = 0.632, P = 0.027), thus the effect of sampling effort on species richness cannot be ruled out entirely. Within provinces, most sister species showed non-overlapping ranges (Fig. S3 in Appendix S3),

326 concordant with the results of Payo *et al.* (2013).

327

#### 328 Biogeographical history

329 The time-calibrated phylogeny (Fig. 3) recovered several well supported clades (PP > 0.95)

330 originating from the Late Cretaceous onwards (for convenience, ten main clades, I to X, are indicated).

331 The rate of diversification within the genus was relatively constant across time, with neither the LTT

332 plot nor the BAMM analysis showing evidence for rate shifts (Fig. S5 in Appendix S4).

Comparisons between historical biogeographical models showed that the incorporation of founder event speciation (+J) in the models yielded a significantly better fit (Table S6 in Appendix S5). In both the realm- and province-level analyses, the DEC+J model was favoured based on the AIC, although the likelihood differences with the DIVALIKE+J and the BAYAREALIKE+J models were small. The inferred province-level biogeographical history is shown in Fig. 3; the inferred realm-level

biogeographical history is shown in Fig. S7 in Appendix S5.

Most main clades were confined to a single or a few adjacent realms or provinces. In the realmlevel analysis, the ancestral range was inferred as a or ab under the DEC+J model (Fig. S7 Appendix S5), and realm b under the DIVALIKE+J and BAYAREALIKE+J models (data not shown). In the province-level analysis, the ancestral range of *Portieria* was inferred as F, FI, FJ or FIJ, corresponding

to the area that is now the Central Indo-Pacific, Northern Pacific and Australasia (Fig. 3).

344 Biogeographical stochastic mapping (province-level analysis) indicated within-province speciation ("narrow sympatry") as the most important event in the history of the group, and an intermediate 345 346 number of nodes were inferred to represent founder event speciation (Fig. 4, Fig. S8 in Appendix S5). 347 Vicariance, subset sympatry (sister species being sympatric across part of their range), and anagenetic dispersal (range expansion of a species) were of lesser importance. However, anagenetic dispersal, 348 349 followed by subset sympatry was inferred along several branches in clade IX, including species from Temperate Southern Africa, Western Indian Ocean, and Somali/Arabia (provinces A, B and C) (Fig. 350 S8 in Appendix S5). 351

352 Our analyses show highest diversification within the Western Coral Triangle (province F), and repeated species export to the Northwestern Pacific (I), Western Indian Ocean (B), and Southwestern 353 Pacific (J) (Fig. 5). Dispersal to the Western Indian Ocean, and the North- and Southwestern Pacific 354 355 was followed by diversification within those provinces, and dispersal from the North- and Southwestern Pacific back to the Coral Triangle. Conversely, species from the Western Indian Ocean 356 357 did not disperse back to the Central Indo-Pacific. The origin of *Portieria* species on remote islands, including Micronesia (sp.67 and sp.68), Guam (sp.54) and Hawaii (sp.69), could not be inferred with 358 certainty, either because phylogenetic relationships were uncertain or because inferred ancestral 359 360 geographic ranges were ambiguous. Portieria sp.42 from Hawaii may have a Southwestern Pacific 361 origin.

362

#### **363 Population genetic structure within species**

Within 13 of the 19 species analysed, analysis of genetic variation of the *cox2-3* spacer indicated

- 365 significant population genetic structuring. Significant geographic structuring of populations was
- observed from small spatial scales (< 500 km, e.g. species B21, S39 and V1ABC in the Philippines,
- and sp. 60 in Japan) to larger spatial scales (> 1,500 km, e.g. sp. 28, sp. 34 and sp. 36 in the Western
- 368 Indian Ocean, sp. 46 in Indonesia, and sp. 78 in Australia) (Fig. S9 in Appendix S6). Non-significant
- 369 population genetic structuring was mainly found in species with small to medium sized ranges (25-700
- km). However, no significant correlation was found between fixation index ( $\Phi_{st}$ ) and geographical
- 371 scale (calculated as maximum distance between the populations) ( $r_s = 0.179$ , P = 0.464) (Table S8 in
- 372 Appendix S6).
- 373

# 374 DISCUSSION

375

## 376 High species diversity and narrow ranges

377 A first striking outcome of this study is the high number of unrecognized species in the genus Portieria. We delimited 92 species based on cox2-3 spacer sequence data from 802 specimens from 378 379 260 localities, encompassing most of the geographical range of the genus. In stark contrast, only five species of *Portieria* are currently described, one of which, *P. hornemannii*, is considered to be widely 380 381 distributed in the Indo-Pacific (De Clerck et al., 2005). A first indication that species diversity in the genus is far greater than assumed based on formally described taxa was provided by Payo et al. (2013) 382 383 who recognized, based on multi-locus DNA sequence data, 21 cryptic species of P. hornemannii within the Philippines. Although cryptic diversity is no exception in the marine environment, and in 384 385 seaweeds in particular (e.g., Zuccarello & West, 2003; Saunders, 2005; Pardo et al., 2014; Vieira et al., 2017), the degree of cryptic diversity found in *Portieria* is remarkable. 386

There are two reasons to interpret our species-diversity estimate with some caution. Firstly, despite 387 388 our broad geographic sampling, some regions where *Portieria* has been recorded were not sampled in our study, including the Red Sea, Bay of Bengal, and several remote Islands in the Pacific, including 389 390 French and Central Polynesia, the Solomon Islands, Fiji, and the Northern Mariana Islands (Guiry & Guiry, 2018). If the observed narrow distributions of *Portieria* species can be extrapolated, sampling 391 392 these regions is likely to further increase species numbers. Secondly, our analyses were based on 393 maternally inherited single-locus data, which cannot take into account processes such as incomplete 394 lineage sorting that can possibly confound species delimitation (Leliaert *et al.*, 2014). However, the fact that our species delimitations were highly concordant with the results of Payo et al. (2013), which 395 396 were based on three unlinked loci from the nucleus, mitochondrion and chloroplast, increases 397 confidence in our estimates of species boundaries.

398 Our study shows that with a few exceptions *Portieria* species have narrow, often very narrow, 399 geographic ranges (Fig. 2) refuting the reported wide distribution of *P. hornemannii* across the entire Indo-Pacific. Instead, all species are confined to a single Ocean basin, and most species are restricted 400 to short stretches of coastline or single archipelagos. Our results corroborate earlier findings of fine-401 402 scale intra-archipelagic endemism within the Philippines, indicating limited dispersal potential of 403 Portieria species (Payo et al., 2013). In contrast, many tropical shallow-reef animals have much wider 404 species ranges within the Indo-Pacific or even span different ocean basins with high population 405 genetic connectivity (e.g., Paulay & Meyer, 2002; Crandall et al., 2008; Pinzón et al., 2013). This 406 pattern, however, is by no means universal as many species of marine invertebrates and fish are range-407 restricted in remote peripheral archipelagos, or even in regions of the Central Indo-Pacific (Meyer et 408 al., 2005; Malay & Paulay, 2009; Tornabene et al., 2015). The scale of endemism found in some 409 Portieria species in the IMA, however, has never been recorded in animal taxa.

410

#### 411 Coral Triangle biodiversity hotspot

We detected a clear pattern of highest species diversity in the Coral Triangle (40 recorded species) 412 and lower diversity in peripheral regions, although species diversity is also considerable in the 413 414 Western Indian Ocean, Southwestern Pacific, and Northwestern Pacific (9-14 species in each region) (Fig. 1). Similar patterns of maximum species diversity in the Coral Triangle have been observed in a 415 broad range of tropical marine animal groups (Hoeksema, 2007; Tittensor et al., 2010) and some 416 macroalgae (Kerswell, 2006; Silberfeld et al., 2013; Vieira et al., 2017). Although in some groups of 417 reef fishes this diversity peak is correlated with a high number of endemic species (Tornabene et al., 418 419 2015), for many other animal groups, including corals and fishes, high diversity does not necessarily correlate with small species ranges or high endemicity. Instead, the high species richness in the IMA is 420 421 often a result of strongly skewed range distributions that overlap in the IMA, thus generating a peak in 422 species richness (Hughes et al., 2002).

Diversity in the Western Coral Triangle (31 species) was found to be higher than in the Eastern
Coral Triangle (9 species). A similar pattern has been observed for shore fish, and has been attributed
to higher habitat availability and heterogeneity in the Western Coral Triangle (Carpenter & Springer,
2005). The pattern in *Portieria*, however, may reflect sampling effort, and additional collections from
Papua New Guinea and the Solomon Islands may reveal a gradient rather than a steep decline in
diversity.

429

#### 430 Geographic mode of speciation

The strong geographic signal observed in our species phylogeny and the significant population 431 432 genetic structure found within several Portieria species indicate that geographic modes of speciation have played an important role in the diversification of the genus. The prevalence of small species 433 ranges and non-overlapping distributions of sister species in Portieria, indicate that genetic divergence 434 435 and speciation can occur over very small spatial scales (< 100 km). Although geographic speciation on 436 small spatial scales has been inferred in some tropical marine fishes and gastropods (Meyer et al., 437 2005; Worheide et al., 2008; Tornabene et al., 2015), allopatric speciation in most marine animals 438 occurs in response to barriers operating at much larger geographical scales, spanning large ocean regions or even different ocean basins (Frey, 2010; Claremont et al., 2011; Ahti et al., 2016; Waldrop 439 440 et al., 2016).

441 In the western Indian Ocean a few *Portieria* species have a remarkably wide distribution (e.g. spp. 442 34 and 36). Within these widely ranging species, our population genetic analyses indicate geographic 443 structure as well (Fig. S9 in Appendix S6). Thus, depending on where precisely the species limits are 444 placed, geographic partitioning is situated within a species or between species, indicating that low 445 dispersal is present at all levels. Other western Indian Ocean species are restricted to peripheral 446 regions in the SW or NW Indian Ocean. Several anagenetic dispersal events followed by subset 447 sympatry, inferred in our historical biogeographical analysis, suggest repeated segregation of these peripheral species from large-ranged parent species, indicative of a peri- or parapatric speciation. 448 Although founder speciation cannot be ruled out entirely, a possible scenario involves repeated 449 450 speciation along a temperature gradient, in which species expand their ranges north- or southwards, followed by local adaptation of peripheral populations to lower temperatures. Similar speciation 451 modes have been proposed for reef fishes (Hodge et al., 2012; Tornabene et al., 2015), and hermit 452 crabs (Malay & Paulay, 2009). 453

Cases of sympatric sister species are restricted to the Philippines (clade B33, B34 and B35) with 454 455 species co-occurring on the same island or even in the same locality. Although for other Philippine Portieria species, non-overlapping ranges, and significant population genetic structuring hints toward 456 457 allopatric speciation within the archipelago (Payo et al., 2013), it is difficult to untangle sympatric speciation from allopatric divergence on small spatial scales, possibly followed by subsequent 458 dispersal and colonization events or secondary sympatry (Andersen et al., 2015). Sympatric or 459 parapatric speciation along ecological boundaries in the marine environment has been inferred from a 460 461 growing body of phylogenetic, biogeographical and ecological data (Bowen et al., 2013; Hodge et al., 462 2013; Tornabene et al., 2015). Sympatric speciation should not be ruled out for Portieria, and will 463 need to be further studied using population genetic data, and ecological data including biotic 464 interactions (e.g. Aplysia grazing) of co-occurring species clades to evaluate the role of ecological 465 partitioning in speciation on small geographic scales.

466

#### 467 Diversification and historical biogeography of an ancient genus

468 The phylogenetic analyses indicate a late Cretaceous origin of *Portieria*. Our time estimates, however, 469 have to be interpreted with care since they are derived from the scarce fossil record of red algae and 470 thus entail some uncertainty (Yang *et al.*, 2016). A Cretaceous origin would imply that the early 471 diversification of the genus pre-dated the physical separation of the Indo-Pacific from other 472 biogeographical regions through the final closure of the Tethys Sea (18-19 Ma). Similar distribution 473 patterns have been observed for several ancient groups of Indo-Pacific animals, including gastropods

474 with Indo-Pacific clades that diversified 20 to 70 Ma (Williams & Reid, 2004; Williams, 2007;

475 Williams & Duda, 2008).

476 Our historical biogeographical analyses indicates the area that is now the Central Indo-Pacific to be the likely geographical origin of *Portieria*, which may thus correspond to the tropical shallow reef 477 478 regions of northern Australia and/or eastern Asia in the Cretaceous. The overwhelmingly tropical 479 genus managed to invade warm temperate regions several times independently, including South Africa, Japan, Korea, and Australia, over a broad time interval in the late Palaeogene and Neogene, 480 481 which are periods of globally decreasing temperatures (Zachos et al., 2001). Similarly, phylogenetic analyses have indicated that the green seaweed Halimeda and the brown seaweed Lobophora managed 482 to get across the tropical temperature barrier over similar time periods (Verbruggen et al., 2009; Vieira 483 et al., 2017). 484

Despite the antiquity of *Portieria*, our analyses do not indicate that relict taxa (which would be
recognizable as early branching species in the phylogeny) occur in the NW Indian Ocean, which could
indicate past high diversity in the western Tethys, as has been demonstrated based on the fossil record
and molecular phylogenetic data of various marine groups such as mangroves, benthic foraminifera,
gastropods, fishes and corals (Renema *et al.*, 2008; Cowman, 2014; Leprieur *et al.*, 2016; Obura,
2016). Instead, the current diversity of the NW Indian Ocean likely originated more recently,
following dispersal from the East African coast and Central Indo-Pacific.

492 Diversification of Portieria occurred relatively constantly over time, similar to what has been inferred for the brown alga Lobophora, a pantropical genus with comparable age to Portieria (Vieira 493 494 et al., 2017), although it should be noted that these analyses are prone to sampling bias (Pennell et al., 2012). In contrast, in several marine tropical animal groups increased diversification has been inferred 495 in the late Cretaceous (Leprieur et al., 2016) or in the Oligo-Miocene, possibly as a consequence of 496 tectonic changes in the Central Indo-Pacific resulting in increased geographical complexity of the 497 498 region (Wilson & Rosen, 1998; Williams & Duda, 2008). Other studies have shown accelerated 499 speciation rates in the late Pliocene and Pleistocene, associated with periods of glacially lowered sea 500 level when seas became land-locked, resulting in prolonged geographical isolation and the creation of

501 empty niches (Carpenter & Springer, 2005; Crandall *et al.*, 2008; Tornabene *et al.*, 2015; Ukuwela *et al.*, 2016).

503 Our *Portieria* phylogeny provides evidence relevant to the mechanisms that produced current 504 biodiversity patterns, including the IMA diversity hotspot. The historical biogeographical analyses 505 indicate that current geographical patterns of *Portieria* species resulted from long-term persistence and 506 diversification of clades in confined regions, combined with infrequent but successful long distance 507 dispersal events across the Indo-Pacific.

The estimated ages of the IMA clades range between 15 and 45 Ma, a time-frame that is consistent 508 509 with the long-term geological formation of the IMA, and the emergence of the IMA biodiversity 510 hotspot (Hall, 2002; Renema et al., 2008). Our historical biogeographical reconstruction indicates that the high diversity of Portieria species in the IMA mainly resulted from extensive diversification 511 512 within the region, and to a lesser extent from accumulation of species. The high availability of 513 shallow-water habitats in the IMA likely allowed for long-term persistence of species, and, in addition, the complex geological history of the region provided opportunities for diversification, although, as 514 515 mentioned above, these did not result in significant shifts in diversification rates. Our results are thus consistent with both the centre of origin and centre of accumulation models, acting over long temporal 516 517 scales. Similarly, long evolutionary histories within the Central Indo-Pacific have been inferred for 518 fishes and invertebrates (Bellwood et al., 2004; Barber & Bellwood, 2005; Alfaro et al., 2007; 519 Williams, 2007; Williams & Duda, 2008). Our data indicates distinctive southern (Papua New Guinea 520 and Australia) and northern (Indonesia, Philippines) elements to the diversity of *Portieria* in the IMA, 521 which are not always evolutionarily closely related. Possibly, these northern and southern biotas were integrated by movement of tectonic plate elements, in particular from Australia and the Philippines, 522 over the last 50 million years, as has also been suggested for fish and invertebrate groups (Rosen & 523 Smith, 1988; Santini & Winterbottom, 2002; Carpenter & Springer, 2005; Renema et al., 2008). A 524 525 phylogenetic separation of these northern and southern *Portieria* clades in the IMA, corresponding to Wallace's line, can be explained by the low dispersal resulting in a geological imprint outweighing 526 527 dispersal.

Apart from the IMA, three other regions harbour relatively high diversity of *Portieria* species: the
Western Indian Ocean, the Northwestern Pacific, and the Southwestern Pacific.

The diversity of *Portieria* species in the Western Indian Ocean likely resulted from a few long
distance dispersal events from the Central Indo-Pacific, followed by diversification within the region.
From there, species dispersed north- and southward, and speciated along a temperature gradient or
across temperature barriers in the Somali-Arabian region, and temperate southern Africa, respectively.
This supports the Southwestern and Northwestern Indian Oceans as generators of biodiversity, as has
been indicated for several marine animal groups, including brittle-stars (Hoareau *et al.*, 2013) and

gastropods (Postaire et al., 2014). Upwelling systems in the Northwestern Indian Ocean have been 536 537 shown to create stark biogeographical delineations in marine species composition (Schils & Wilson, 2006; Burt et al., 2011) and are a likely driver of speciation. The relatively few dispersal events from 538 the Central Indo-Pacific to the Western Indian Ocean, and the apparent lack of dispersal back to the 539 540 Central Indo-Pacific indicates a clear separation between the two biogeographical regions. This 541 separation between Indian Ocean clades and the Central Indo-Pacific clades is concordant with the 542 Mid-Indian Ocean biogeographical barrier, which is one of the strongest inferred marine barriers 543 based on phylogenetic and present-day biodiversity patterns of coral reef fishes (Cowman &

Bellwood, 2013b; Hodge & Bellwood, 2016), and Indo-Pacific corals (Keith *et al.*, 2013).

544

In contrast to the Western Indian Ocean, the Northwestern and Southwestern Pacific have a much 545 closer connection with the Central Indo-Pacific. The relatively high Portieria species diversity in 546 547 those two regions can be explained by repeated north- and southward dispersal from the Central Indo-548 Pacific, followed by *in situ* diversification, which was more extensive in the Southwestern than in the 549 Northwestern Pacific. In addition, several dispersal events were inferred from the two regions back to 550 the Central Indo-Pacific. In some cases, these dispersal events were inferred between neighbouring 551 regions with similar sea surface temperature regimes, for example between the northern Philippines 552 and southern Taiwan. Our results are consistent with the biodiversity feedback model, in which 553 biodiversity hotspots act as both centres of speciation (exporters of species), and centres of 554 accumulation (importers of species) (Bowen et al., 2013).

555 The origin of *Portieria* in tropical North Pacific islands, such as Hawaii, Guam and Micronesia 556 resulted from multiple founder speciation events, but in most cases the source regions could not be deduced with certainty. The sampled islands in this region, however, are geologically relatively young 557 and past palaeogeographic patterns of small islands are not available. So, what might appear to be a 558 result of long distance dispersal, could be a result of incremental short-distance dispersal where 559 560 intermediate areas have vanished throughout the course of *Portieria* evolution. Although species in Hawaii and Guam showed a high haplotype diversity with a certain degree of population genetic 561 structuring, in situ diversification was limited on these islands, nor was there any dispersal from 562 Pacific islands back to the Central Indo-Pacific. This contrasts with studies on reef fishes where the 563 Hawaiian Archipelago has been shown to both produce and export new species (Eble *et al.*, 2011; 564 Bowen et al., 2013). 565

In conclusion, our analyses contribute to a better understanding of the processes that produced biodiversity patterns in the tropical Indo-Pacific and its fringes. Although several groups of tropical marine organisms exhibit congruent patterns of biodiversity, with a prominent hotspot in the IMA, there is no single explanation for this pattern. Given the age and complex geological history of the IMA, along with the vast diversity of organisms with different traits (e.g. dispersal capacity), multiple processes have likely been at work (Barber, 2009; Halas & Winterbottom, 2009). Our phylogenetic

analysis of *Portieria* in the Indo-Pacific reflects the long and complex evolutionary history of this
seaweed genus and suggests that the observed biogeographical patterns are a combination of long-term
persistence of ancient lineages within confined geographical regions, including the IMA, and
occasional long-distance dispersal events.

576 The IMA biodiversity hotspot has provided a focus for numerous evolutionary and ecological 577 studies, which have supported strategies for conservation efforts (Carpenter et al., 2008). Our study 578 adds to the growing body of evidence that the present-day species richness within the IMA hotspot 579 results from a diverse range of evolutionary histories. As with many other groups of marine 580 organisms, the IMA serves as both a species pump and a cradle of biodiversity of *Portieria* species, harbouring ancient lineages that were formed prior to the geological formation of the coral triangle 581 582 and continue to produce species. Ecological and conservation related research also depends on a clear 583 understanding of species boundaries, which is often problematic due to the prevalence of cryptic 584 species in marine environments (Bickford *et al.*, 2007). This study shows once more that 585 misconceptions about species boundaries may impact on our understanding of distributions and 586 diversification of tropical seaweeds.

587

## 588 Acknowledgements

The authors thank P. Audiffred, A. Barrere, G. Belton, A. Bucol, A. Candido, H. Calumpong, S. 589 590 Clayden, K. Conklin, T. Cowling, G. Cramitch, O. Dargent, L.N. de Senerpont Domis, A. deVillers, K. Dixon, R. Dixon, G. Filloramo, J. Fromont, S. Hau, M. Hommersand, L. Kraft, A. Kurihara, P. 591 592 Laboute, R. Ladiao, J. Lucanas, A.D. Macansantos, M. Marklund, F. Michennean, R. Naguit, K. 593 Pauly, W. Prud'homme van Reine, B. Rakotonirina, A. Simeon, H. Stegenga, W. Tisera, J. Tsarahevitra, E. Verheij, W. Villaver, and J.A. West for sampling or assistance in the field. FL 594 received funding from the Research Foundation-Flanders (FWO) for a postdoctoral fellowships. DAP 595 596 received funding and logistic support from the Flemish Interuniversity Council (VLIR), and Silliman 597 University, Institute of Environmental and Marine Sciences. CFDG received funding from the 598 Australian Biological Resources Study (ABRS) grant # 209-62, Conselho Nacional de 599 Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq) grant # PQ-309658/2016-0, and Census of Coral Reefs Life – Australia (CReefs). TS is indebted to the University of Guam for supporting research 600 601 projects to elucidate and conserve the unique natural heritage of the Western Pacific. SGAD received 602 funding, permits and logistic support from: The Netherlands – Schure-Beijerinck-Popping Fund and 603 TREUB maatschappij (Royal Dutch Academy of Sciences), Naturalis Biodiversity Center, Leiden 604 University Fund, Netherlands Organization for Scientific Research (ALW-NWO grant 852.000.50 and 605 WOTRO-NWO grant R 85-38); Malaysia - Borneo Marine Research Institute (Universiti Malaysia Sabah), Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Marine Parks Malaysia, World Wildlife Fund, Sabah Parks 606

607 and Department of Fisheries Sabah; Indonesia – Research Centre for Oceanography of the Indonesian 608 Institute of Sciences (PPO-LIPI), RISTEK; Thailand – Thailand Research Fund Research Career Development grant (RSA6080057). GWS thanks the Australian Biological Resources Survey and 609 Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC) for funding. LLG thanks the 610 611 Service de Systématique Moléculaire of the Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle (CNRS – UMS 612 2700) for generating the molecular data with funds provided by the ATM 'Taxonomie moléculaire: 613 DNA Barcode et gestion durable des collections' and 'Emergence'. The Madang expedition specimens 614 were obtained during the "Our Planet Reviewed" Papua Niugini expedition organized by Muséum 615 National d'Histoire Naturelle (MNHN), Pro Natura International (PNI), Institut de Recherche pour le 616 Développement (IRD) and University of Papua New Guinea (UPNG), Principal Investigators Philippe 617 Bouchet, Claude Payri and Sarah Samadi. The organizers acknowledge funding from the Total 618 Foundation, Prince Albert II of Monaco Foundation, Fondation EDF, Stavros Niarchos Foundation and Entrepose Contracting, and in-kind support from the Divine Word University (DWU). The 619 620 expedition operated under a permit delivered by the Papua New Guinea Department of Environment 621 and Conservation. JJB, RJA and LM thank the National Research Foundation (South Africa) and the University of Cape Town for funding collecting trips. CP thanks the project CORALCAP 2007 for 622 funding. HV received funding from the Australian Research Council (FT110100585, DP150100705) 623 624 and the Australian Biological Resources Study (RFL213-08). ODC received funding from the Global 625 Taxonomy Initiative (GTI) and EMBRC Belgium - FWO project GOH3817N.

626

#### 627 DATA ACCESSIBILITY

- 628 DNA sequence data generated for this study were deposited at EMBL-ENA (GenBank) under study
- number PRJEB26954 (<u>https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/PRJEB26954</u>) with the following
- 630 accession numbers: LS479917-LS480450 (cox2-3 spacer), LS480451-LS480578 (cox1), LS480579-
- 631 LS480639 (*EF2* part1), LS480698-LS480794 (*EF2* part2), LS480866-LS480915 (*psbA*), LS480916-
- 632 LS481022 (*rbcL*) and LS481023-LS481150 (*rbcL-rbcS* spacer). Phylogenetic data and details of the
- 633 BIOGEOBEARS analyses are available in the Mendeley data repository
- 634 (<u>http://dx.doi.org/10.17632/df7r7ddfyg</u>).

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- 934

# 935 BIOSKETCH

936 Frederik Leliaert is broadly interested in diversity, biogeography and evolution of algae. The research
937 team consists of phycologists who are interested in seaweed diversity and the evolutionary processes
938 generating marine biodiversity.

- 939
- 940 Editor: Ceridwen Fraser
- 941

- 942 Author contributions: F.L., D.A.P., H.V., O.D.C conceived the study. F.L., D.A.P, C.F.D.G., T.S.,
- 943 S.G.A.D., G.W.S., M.K., A.R.S., S.-M.L., J.M.H., L.L.G., R.J.A., J.J.B., L.M., M.Z., C.V., C.P., E.C.,
- 944 H.V., O.D.C. conducted sampling. D.A.P, C.F.D.G., G.W.S., A.R.S., T.S., S.D. generated DNA
- 945 sequence data. F.L., H.V. analysed the data. F.L. wrote the paper; and all authors commented on the
- 946
- 947
- 948 Figure legends

final draft.

949

Figure 1. Geographical pattern of *Portieria* species richness. Geographical distributions were based
on location data of 802 sequenced specimens. Species numbers in each of the 12 geographical regions
are colour-coded, and summarized in the table below the map.

953

Figure 2. Latitudinal and longitudinal ranges of the 92 *Portieria* species. Colours indicate geographic
region of the species. Species with latitudinal and/or longitudinal range larger than 500 km are
labelled. Of these, only seven species had a latitudinal and/or longitudinal range larger than 2,000 km.
Sp. 34 has a latitudinal and longitudinal range > 5,000 km, and occurs along the east African coast
from South Africa to Oman, as well as in Madagascar and Sri Lanka.

959

Figure 3. Historical biogeographical reconstruction of the genus Portieria. The time-calibrated 960 phylogeny was inferred from the concatenated alignment (cox2-3 spacer, cox1, psbA, rbcL, rbcL-rbcS 961 spacer, and *EF2*) using 3 data partitions (see Materials and Methods). Asterisks (\*) indicate Bayesian 962 posterior probabilities > 0.95 and/or ML bootstrap values > 80% (the tree with divergence time 963 964 confidence intervals, and branch support is shown in Fig. S5 in Appendix 4). Boxes at the tips indicate 965 geographic ranges of extant Portieria species. Ancestral ranges, estimated under a DEC+J model, are 966 indicated on the nodes as pie diagrams, and branch colours indicate ancestral ranges with likelihood > 967 0.5 (grey branches indicate uncertain ancestral ranges). The map shows the 12 provinces used in the 968 analysis. Species with letter codes (e.g., B21, S39, V1D) were delimited by Payo et al. (2013), species numbers (i.e, sp.25 - 92) are delimited in this study. 969

970

971 Figure 4. Frequency distributions of the counts of different kinds of events found in each of the 50

- 972 biogeographical stochastic mappings (BSMs) (province-level analysis) on the Portieria time-
- 973 calibrated phylogeny (Fig. 3) under a DEC+J model. The x-axis gives the number of events in each of
- 50 BSMs; the y-axis gives the number of BSMs in which a specific number of events was observed.

975

- 976 **Figure 5.** Summary of biogeographical events for the Indo-Pacific genus *Portieria*. Number of events
- 977 (narrow sympatry, founder events and anagenetic dispersal events) based on the results of the
- 978 province-level historical biogeographical analysis (see Fig. S8). For clarity, the five inferred
- anagenetic dispersal events (BCD $\rightarrow$ BCD,B; BD $\rightarrow$ BD,B; BF $\rightarrow$ F,BF; AB $\rightarrow$ AB,A and GJ $\rightarrow$ GJ,J) and
- 980 the two inferred vicariance events ( $FJ \rightarrow J,F$  and  $BF \rightarrow F,B$ ) are not indicated on the map.

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12 provinces	nı	umber of speci	es
A: Temperate So	uthern Africa	4	
B: Western India	n Ocean	14	
C: Somali/Arabia	n	3	
D: Central Indian	Ocean Islands	4	
E: South China S	ea & Sunda She	elf 4	
F: Western Coral	Triangle	31	
G: Eastern Coral	Triangle	9	
H: Tropical North	vestern Pacific	4	_
I: Northwestern F	Pacific	13	
J: Southwestern	Pacific	14	
K: Western Austr	alian Shelf	2	
L: Hawaii		2	

#### 3 realms

a: Western Indo-Pacific and Temperate Southern Africa: 18 species

b: Central Indo-Pacific, Northwestern Pacific and Australasia: 72 species

c: Eastern Indo-Pacific (Hawaii): 2 species

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# Title:

Patterns and drivers of species diversity in the Indo-Pacific red seaweed Portieria

# Date:

2018-10-01

# Citation:

Leliaert, F., Payo, D. A., Gurgel, C. F. D., Schils, T., Draisma, S. G. A., Saunders, G. W., Kamiya, M., Sherwood, A. R., Lin, S. -M., Huisman, J. M., Le Gall, L., Anderson, R. J., Bolton, J. J., Mattio, L., Zubia, M., Spokes, T., Vieira, C., Payri, C. E., Coppejans, E. ,... De Clerck, O. (2018). Patterns and drivers of species diversity in the Indo-Pacific red seaweed Portieria. JOURNAL OF BIOGEOGRAPHY, 45 (10), pp.2299-2313. https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.13410.

Persistent Link: http://hdl.handle.net/11343/284329

File Description: Accepted version