

## **Disentangling a complex genus: systematics, biogeography and bioactivity of the genus Phyllanthus L. and related genera of tribe Phyllantheae (Phyllanthaceae)** Bouman, R.W.

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# **Multiple continental dispersal events and radiation events underlie the modern-day diversity of tribe Phyllantheae (Phyllanthaceae)**

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# **Multiple continental dispersal events and radiation events underlie the modern-day diversity of tribe Phyllantheae (Phyllanthaceae)**

Short title: Historical biogeography of tribe Phyllantheae

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#### **Abstract**

Several hypotheses have been invoked to explain the pantropical distribution of many plant taxa today. In this study, we reconstruct the historical biogeography of the monophyletic tribe Phyllantheae, of which the majority consists of *Phyllanthus* s.l. and study the processes that have given rise to the clade's pantropical distribution. A molecular dataset consisting of two nuclear markers and three plastid markers was analysed in BEAST to reconstruct divergence times for 212 species of tribe Phyllantheae. Ancestral area estimations were performed using the BioGeoBears package as implemented in RASP and the R package 'Bamm' was used to study shifts in species diversification rates. Tribe Phyllantheae originated during the Late Palaeocene close to the Palaeocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum, but we were unable to reconstruct the origin of this group. Fossil evidence from the Eocene in Europe together with the wide distribution of early diverged taxa could hint at a boreotropical origin with early dispersals to Africa, Asia and North America. We detected multiple dispersal events within and between the major clades of tribe Phyllantheae. These occurred sometimes at similar time intervals, which coincide with known dispersal routes, but many dispersal events support an explanation through long-distance dispersal. Species diversity of tribe Phyllantheae is unevenly

distributed among clades and a pollination mutualism involving moths has not lead to increased speciation rates in all associated taxa possibly because differences in dispersal vectors might have been a limiting factor.

**Keywords:** BEAST, boreotropics, diversification rate shifts, *Glochidion*, *Phyllanthus* subgenus *Gomphidium*, molecular dating, Phyllantheae, pollination mutualism

#### **Introduction**

Intercontinental disjunctions associated with pantropical plant lineages have been the subject of many studies that generated different explanations with varying biogeographical implications in nonconcurrent timeframes. The presence of older taxa that occur predominantly in the southern hemisphere have been attributed to vicariance driven by plate tectonics after the break-up of Gondwana in the Jurassic (Raven & Axelrod 1974; Nelson & Platnick 1981; Wiley 1988; Humphries & Parenti 1999; Givnish & Renner 2004). Indications from micro- and macrofossil evidence from the Eocene of Europe and North America, have generated the theory of the boreotropical forests (Wolfe 1975; Tiffney 1985). A hypothesized tropical belt in the Northern hemisphere in the Early Eocene during the Paleocene-Eocene Thermal Maximum (PETM), which is supported by fossil evidence (Wolfe 1975). Subsequent cooling in the Late Eocene shifted the tropical belt closer to the equator, causing plant taxa to disperse and become isolated in Africa, Asia and North America (Wolfe 1975; Zachos et al. 2001). Boreotropical patterns have also been observed in plant clades such as Annonaceae (Thomas et al. 2015), Burseraceae (Weeks et al. 2005), Urticaceae (Huang et al. 2019) and the fern genus *Diplazium* Sw. (Wei et al. 2015). However, the boreotropical hypothesis does not account for post-Eocene dispersal events, which have sometimes been explained in the context of the Miocene geodispersal hypothesis (Zhou et al. 2012; van Welzen et al. 2014a), the Antarctic land-bridge between Australia and South America (van den Ende et al. 2017) or long-distance dispersal (Renner et al. 2001). Pantropical taxa present a valuable study subject to evaluate these theories.

The former pantropical plant genus *Phyllanthus* s.l. contained more than 800 species that were organized in eighteen morphologically defined subgenera (Bouman et al. 2018). However, this high species number is not equally distributed among all subgeneric groups and a radiation in some specific groups has been linked to the presence of mutualistic moths as pollinators (Kato et al. 2003; Kawakita & Kato 2004a; Kawakita & Kato 2009). The genus was found to be paraphyletic and nested within it were the Australasian genera *Breynia* J.R.Forst. & G.Forst., *Glochidion* J.R.Forst. & G.Forst. and *Synostemon* F.Muell. (Kathriarachchi et al. 2006; Pruesapan et al. 2012; Bouman et al. 2020; Falcón et al. 2020). If combined, *Phyllanthus* s.l. would be a giant genus with more than 1200 species (Hoffmann et al. 2006; van Welzen et al. 2014b). Recent revisions have proposed to split the genus into 10 morphologically distinguishable and monophyletic

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genera (Bouman et al. 2022), a summary of the new classification is shown in table 9-1. Here we discuss the various taxa according to the new classification while mentioning their treatment in the previously broader definition of *Phyllanthus*.

The species of *Phyllanthus* s.l. are characterized by small unisexual flowers with only sepals, usually nectar disc/glands and many species possess a specialized branching system called phyllanthoid branching (Webster 1956). Species with phyllanthoid branching have their axes specialized in orthotropic branches where the leaves are reduced to scales (cataphylls) and the plagiotropic branchlets are deciduous and they bear laminate leaves (Webster 1956). Several dispersal strategies have been inferred from morphological characters of the seeds and fruits in tribe Phyllantheae. The fruits and seeds are variable and are often diagnostic for specific genera or clades. The majority of fruits are dehiscent capsules that do not require additional dispersal vectors. In a few clades, dispersal by animals (probably birds) is more likely, such as with the bright blue sarcotestal seeds of *Margaritaria* L.f. (Webster 1979) or the berries of *Kirganelia* A.Juss. (*Phyllanthus* subgenus *Kirganelia,* Brunel 1987). Dispersal by large animals is largely unexplored, but could be present in a few species with larger, more indehiscent fruits such as those found in *Cicca* L. (specifically section *Omphacodopsis* (Jean F.Brunel) R.W.Bouman) and possibly in *Emblica* Gaertn. (Prasad et al. 2006). Considering the broader treatment of *Phyllanthus* s.l., this clade has a distribution traditionally attributed to Gondwanan origins, but dated reconstructions suggest that the group originated in the Early Eocene (Kawakita & Kato 2009; Luo et al. 2011; Kawakita et al. 2019). Dispersal events must therefore have occurred after the break-up of Gondwana, but there are few studies that focus on the distribution of *Phyllanthus* s.l. (for a pre-molecular analysis, see Holm-Nielsen 1979). Cai et al. (2019) also found many whole-genome duplication events in the Malpighiales with the majority occurring during the Paleocene-Eocene transition. Although sampling for some families was limited, these genome duplications were hypothesized to be related to subsequent survival under climate change and adaptation to new conditions.

Fossils of *Phyllanthus* s.l. or Phyllanthaceae are scarce, but findings in Asia include Eocene wood (Mehrotra et al. 2010), leaves (Srivastava & Mehrotra 2014; Shukla et al. 2016), pollen (Hofmann et al. 2019) and possibly Cretaceous fruits (Kapgate et al. 2017). Findings from palynological studies from the Early Eocene of Europe at the end of the PETM also found pollen attributed to tribe Phyllantheae (Gruas-Cavagnetto & Köhler 1992; Hofmann et al. 2015; Hofmann & Gregor 2018). Leaf imprints, wood or incomplete fruits and seeds remain difficult to assign with certainty to any specific clade of tribe Phyllantheae due to a lack of diagnostic characters (van Welzen et al. 2015).

Several dispersal events can already be deduced from the molecular phylogeny (see Bouman et al. 2020; Falcón et al. 2020), but have not been studied in a historical and biogeographical context. The aims of this present paper are: (1) to date the existing phylogeny and provide a more detailed exploration than

**Table 9-1.** Classifications of *Phyllanthus* s.l., left as previously treated as a paraphyletic genus with 17 subgenera (*P*. subgenus *Cyclanthera* (G.L.Webster) G.L.Webster was transferred as a section to P. subgenus *Xylophylla* (Hidalgo et al. 2020), while *P*. section *Lysiandra* was shown to be distinct from *P*. subgenus *Phyllanthus* (Bouman et al. 2021), right following the new classification as presented in Bouman et al. (2022). The numbering of the clades as in Fig. 9-2.



previous studies; (2) to analyse the historical biogeography of the genera in tribe Phyllantheae that made up *Phyllanthus* s.l.; and (3) to explain the speciationdistribution of the various clades and to assess the evidence for of pollinator related diversification.

#### **Materials and methods**

#### *Sampling of tribe Phyllantheae*

In this study we used a subset of the datasets employed in Bouman et al. (2021), which presents the largest sampling of *Phyllanthus* s.l. to date. To limit the extent and possible effects of missing data, we used the reduced dataset where we had genetic information for each accession with a minimum of 3500 nucleotides out of 5500. Species present with multiple samples in Bouman et al. (2021) are here limited to include only one accession, except for the *P. virgatus* complex where samples of Australia were retrieved in a different clade from those in Asia (presumed here to be *P. simplex*). The trimmed dataset contains 21 species of *Breynia*, four species of *Synostemon*, five species of *Glochidion*, four species of *Margaritaria* L.f., one species of *Flueggea* Willd. and 173 species of *Phyllanthus* s.l*. Leptopus chinensis* (Bunge) Pojark. and *Notoleptopus decaisnei* (Benth.) Vorontsova & Petra Hoffm. of tribe Poranthereae were used as an outgroup for tribe Phyllantheae. Almost all genera of the tribe were included except *Heterosavia* (Urb.) Petra Hoffm. and *Lingelsheimia* Pax as we did not have the full set of markers for any species from these genera. The sampling for *Phyllanthus* s.l. covers all reinstated genera (Table 9-1), the majority of sections and most of its distribution. Some geographical areas like India and the Neotropics are not well represented in this dataset and should be expanded upon in future studies.

#### *Dating*

A two-step approach was implemented to date the molecular phylogeny of *Phyllanthus*. In the first step, the molecular dataset presented by Kathriarachchi et al. (2005) and dated by Kawakita & Kato (2009) was re-calibrated with one additional fossil calibration point (see below) to obtain a base for the divergence time between tribe Phyllantheae and tribe Poranthereae (see supplementary table 9-1 for Genbank numbers). Outgroups were taken from the closest related family, the sister family Picrodendraceae (Xi et al. 2012). The dataset of Kathriarachchi et al. (2005) used the molecular markers *PHYC*, *atpb*, *matK* and *ndhF* and we therefore did not combine this with the dataset of Bouman et al. (2020), which consists of the molecular markers ITS, *PHYC*, *accD-psaI*, *matK* and *trnS-trnG*. In the second step, we implemented the divergence time between tribe Phyllantheae and tribe Poranthereae as a secondary calibration as indicated by the phylogeny of the Phyllanthaceae (Supplementary figure S9-1).

The molecular phylogeny of tribe Phyllantheae was dated using BEAST v. 1.10.4 (Suchard et al. 2018). The input file was prepared using BEAUTI v. 1.10.4

(within the BEAST package). MrModeltest v.2 (Nylander 2004) was used to obtain the best-fitting model according to the lowest Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) for each marker, selecting the same model for all markers. Substitution rates were calculated under the General Time Reversal (GTR) model with a discrete Gamma distribution (┌, 4 categories of evolutionary rates among sites and a certain number of invariable sites (+I). Divergence times were estimated using an uncorrelated relaxed clock model (Drummond et al. 2007) with an exponential distribution of rates and the Yule process was selected as a tree prior (Yule 1925; Gernhard 2008) and a random starting tree was used. Two independent runs were done, each with 220 million generations of Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) and trees were sampled every 22,000 generations. Effective Sampling Sizes (ESS), representing the convergence of the two runs, were checked in Tracer v. 1.7.1 (Rambaut & Drummond 2018), while the Maximum Clade Credibility (MCC) tree for each run was checked for topological differences before combining the tree files using Logcombiner v.1.10.4 (part of the BEAST package) with a burnin of 20 % per tree file. TreeAnnotator v.1.10.4 (within the BEAST package) was used to find the MCC tree and this was visualized using Figtree v.1.4.3 (Rambaut 2014). Our analyses of divergence times were estimated using several fossils as calibration points. These were set as priors for specific taxon groups with an exponential distribution:

- 1. An Early Eocene calibration with a median age of 52.2 MA was put as offset for the prior with an exponential distribution and a mean of 1.5 to allow for older ages for the clade comprising *Flueggea* and *Phyllanthus* s.l. including *Glochidion*, *Breynia* and *Synostemon*. Fossil 3-colporate pollen of the Early Eocene (c. 47–56 Ma) Woolwich bed in Kent, England, was determined to be related to *Flueggea* or *Phyllanthus* (Gruas-Cavagnetto & Köhler 1992; Sagun & van der Ham 2003). Additional findings of *Flueggea*-type pollen from London (also Woolwich formation) and the Knopffeld formation in Austria from the Early Eocene (Hofmann et al. 2015) provided further support for this calibration point. The Woolwich bed finding has been used as a calibration point by Kawakita & Kato (2009), Luo et al. (2011b) and van Welzen et al. (2015). Older fruits from the Late Maastrichtian (66–72) Ma of India have been suggested to be related to the genus *Phyllanthus*, but could not be assigned with full certainty as fruits are notoriously difficult and there was no exhaustive comparison with fruits of other genera within the Phyllanthaceae family (Kapgate et al. 2017). Therefore we have opted to not include this in our analysis.
- 2. Leaf impressions tentatively assigned to *Glochidion* from the Middle Miocene (c. 11.6 Ma with a mean of 1.5) of India (Prasad 1994; Antal & Prassad 1996) were used as an offset minimum age constraint for Clade H, which contains *Glochidion* (also used in Kawakita & Kato 2009).
- 3. Recent findings of pantoporate pollen from the Changchang Formation

(Hainan Island, South China) have been attributed to *Phyllanthus* s.l. (Hofmann et al. 2019). The material is estimated to be of late Early Eocene (Bartonian, 37.8–48 Ma; Aleksandrova et al. 2015). This specific pollen type can be found in *Nymphanthus* Lour. (*Phyllanthus* subgenus *Eriococcus*) and subgenus *Ceramanthus* (listed as subgenus *Isocladus* section *Ceramanthus* in Hofmann et al. 2019, here listed in table 9-1 as *Cathetus* Lour.), but pollen sizes were more similar to those found in the latter. Therefore, this was used as an offset fossil calibration point for the clade comprising the sister groups *Phyllanthus* subgenus *Ceramanthus* and subgenus *Macraea* (*Cathetus*, Fig. 9-2; clade B) and the offset was set to 37.8 Ma with a mean of 1.5.

4. The stem age for the analysis of our dataset of tribe Phyllantheae was calibrated using divergence time estimates with tribe Poranthereae and Wielandieae taken from our analysis of the Phyllanthaceae family dataset and compared to Kawakita et al. (2009). The node was calibrated using an offset of c. 75 Ma with a mean of 1.5 to allow for older ages (see supplementary Fig. 9-1)

Additionally, to date the family Phyllanthaceae other calibration points similar to those implemented in Kawakita & Kato (2009) were implemented as an offset.

5. *Bischofia* pollen from the Middle Eocene (37.2–41.2 Ma) also from the



**Figure 9-1.** Map with biogeographical regions as specified for this study of Tribe Phyllantheae: A, North America to Mexico; B, West Indies; C, South America and part of the Panama Isthmus; D, West Africa with eastern border following Namibia, Democratic Republic of Congo and Central African Republic; E, South and Eastern Africa; F, Madagascar and the Mascarene Islands; G, mainland Asia stretching from India to Peninsular Malaysia; H, W. Malesia including Philippines; I, E. Malesia (mainly Papua New Guinea); J, Australia; K, Pacific Islands.

Woolwich formation in England was used as a minimum age constraint for the subfamily Antidesmatoidea (Gruas-Cavagnetto & Köhler 1992 as implemented in Kawakita & Kato 2009).

- 6. The clade containing tribe Poranthereae and tribe Wielandieae (sensu Hoffmann et al. 2006) was constrained with a calibration point based on *Actephila* Blume pollen type from the Late Eocene (median 33.9 Ma) of France (Gruas-Cavagnetto & Köhler 1992 as implemented in Kawakita & Kato 2009).
- 7. The stem age for the split between Phyllanthaceae and Picrodendraceae was conservatively set to 80 Ma based on molecular dating from Xi et al. (2012). Similar age estimates, but with varying 95% Highest Posterior Density (HPD) intervals have been obtained by Magallon et al. (2015), Davis et al. (2005) and Li et al. (2019). Kawakita & Kato (2009) opted to use the occurrence of Eudicot pollen as the root age for their phylogeny. As this is unlikely, since Phyllanthaceae occurred later, we decided to use the base estimate from the former papers.

#### *Ancestral range estimation*

Eleven biogeographical areas were specified based on levels of species endemism and tectonic history (Fig. 9-1). Distributions of the various species were taken from various monographs and floras (e.g. Webster 1956, 1957, 1958; Airy Shaw 1975, 1980; Bouman et al. 2018). The biogeographic area that covers islands in the Pacific Ocean covers mostly New Caledonia with over 100 endemic species of Dendrophyllanthus S.Moore (*Phyllanthus* subgenus *Gomphidium*). However, to not create separate areas for other islands, we also include islands from the rest of the Pacific. Most discussions below focus on New Caledonia unless specified otherwise.

The MCC tree resulting from our BEAST analysis was trimmed by excluding the outgroups of tribe Phyllantheae. Ancestral Range estimations were performed using RASP (Reconstructed Ancestral State in Phylogenies) 4.2 (Yu et al. 2015, 2020). We tested for different models for biogeographic inferences using the R package 'BioGeoBears' as implemented in RASP (Matzke 2013a, 2014). These were the S-Diva model (called Divalike in 'BioGeoBears'), DEC and BAYAREA (BAYAREALIKE), which is based on the likelihood of a given history and takes into account the relative probability of each biogeographic change and waiting times between events in a Bayesian framework (Landis et al. 2013). With the S-Diva model, the frequencies of ancestral ranges of specific nodes is averaged over all trees while alternative ranges are weighted by their frequency and node occurrence (Yu et al. 2010). 'BioGeoBears' additionally tests whether these models show a different/ better fit when the founder effect (+J) is taken into account (Matzke 2013b, 2014). Usage of the founder effect as implemented by 'BioGeoBears' has recently been cautioned by Ree & Sanmartín (2018).

Dispersal constraints were defined for four time periods based on the

geological history of the various continents involved. Dispersal constraints were defined similarly to those implemented by Buerki et al. (2011), Wei et al. (2015) and Thomas et al. (2015). These were mostly defined based on distance, but had a correction for specific land bridges and were categorized as very low dispersal  $= 0.01$ ; low dispersal  $= 0.25$ ; medium dispersal  $= 0.5$ ; moderate dispersal  $= 0.75$ ; high dispersal and adjacent areas = 1.0 (see Supplementary table 9-2). We allowed for 2–3 areas per node, as higher numbers gave far longer computation times with more ambiguous results. The model selection from BioGeobears, retrieved the highest Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and weighted AIC score for the BAYAREALIKE model and DEC model (Table 9-2). BiogeoBears is able to compare the various models, but also incorporates a possible founder effect (+J). A likelihood Ratio test (LRT) was used to see if incorporating the founder effect gives a significantly different result. Table 9-2 shows a significant (P <0.05) result for the comparisons DEC/DEC+J and BAYAREALIKE/BAYAREALIKE+J. The null hypothesis that the standard model and the model+founder effect show similar likelihoods for our data is therefore rejected and the analysis including the founder effect is omitted here as it has a lower AIC score.

#### *Estimating and comparing speciation rates and identifying shift rates*

To determine whether diversification rates differed per clade and could be associated with any specific ecological variable, we used BAMM v. 2.5 (Rabosky 2014) and the R package BAMMtools v. 2.1 (Rabovsky et al. 2014). In this method different models are fitted to the MCC tree to explore shifts in diversification rates. Speciation rates were calculated on the trimmed MCC tree and priors were adjusted to the scaling of our trees by using the command "setBAMMpriors". Differences in sampling number were adjusted for each clade according to the estimated number of species per subgenus (corrected with latest taxonomic findings sensu Bouman et al. 2020; Falcón et al. 2020). Rounded global sampling fractions for each clade were: *Nellica* Raf. 20%, *Cathetus* Lour. 40%, *Kirganelia* A.Juss. 54%, *Nymphanthus* 20%, *Lysiandra* ((F.Muell.) R.W.Bouman, I.Telford & J.J.Bruhl 41%, *Moeroris* Raf. 20 %, *Phyllanthus* s.s., the Neotropical clade 30%, *Dendrophyllanthus* 10%, *Cicca* 44%, *Emblica* 23%, *G*. subgenus *Phyllanthodendron* ((Hemsl.) R.W.Bouman) and *Glochidion* subgenus *Pseudoactephila* (Croizat) R.W.Bouman 10%, *Glochidion* 1.4%, *Synostemon* 10% and *Breynia* 25% (see table 9-1 for names under *Phyllanthus* s.l.). Initial runs indicated high speciation rates for *Glochidion*, so additional analyses were run with sampling of *Glochidion* set to 5% and 10% to compare overshadowing of signals. The MCMC was run for 10,000,000 generations and was saved every 1000 generations. Expected number of shifts was set to 3. A burn-in of 10% was discarded and Effective Sampling Sizes (ESS) were determined by using the Coda Package for R (Plummer et al. 2006). The output was further analysed using BAMMtools to determine the single best shift configuration and the maximum shift credibility configuration. Independent speciation rates for the various clades (Fig.

**Table 9-2.** Model comparison from BioGeoBears showing lognormal likelihood (LnL), Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and weighted AIC (AICwt) and comparison to incorporation of founder effect. Founder effect is tested using the Likelihood and weighted AIC (AICwt) and comparison to incorporation of founder effect. Founder effect is tested using the Likelihood Table 9-2. Model comparison from BioGeoBears showing lognormal likelihood (LnL), Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) Ratio Test. Ratio Test.



# Historical biogeography of tribe Phyllantheae

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9-2: clades A–J while separating C1, C3, C4, F1 & F2) were also extracted in R.

#### **Results**

#### *Divergence time estimation*

Our reconstruction of *Phyllanthus* s.l. and related genera indicate that the clade originated sometime during the Late Paleocene or Early Eocene. The MCC tree resulting from BEAST for the Phyllanthaceae had generally high node support (Supplementary Fig. 9-1). Node support was only a bit lower within a few genera and within the subfamily Antidesmatoideae between genera (PP>0.74). Despite differing constraints on the divergence node between Picrodendraceae and Phyllanthaceae, both family-level analyses resulted in an estimated age for the divergence between tribe Phyllantheae with tribe Wielandieae and Poranthereae around 75 Ma (HPD 94–63 MA; Supplementary Fig. 9-1). This resulted in our setting of 75 as a median age for the stem age of our analysis of *Phyllanthus* s.l. and the other genera.

The phylogeny focusing on *Phyllanthus* s.l. and related genera showed no major topological differences with previous analyses (Fig. 9-2). Additional age estimations in BEAST while excluding the calibration point for the genus *Glochidion* (based on Prasad 1994; Antal & Prassad 1996), did not result in significant changes to age estimations of this (12.41 Ma; Table 9-3) and other clades. Placing the fossil calibration point of pantoporate pollen (Aleksandrova et al. 2015) as the crown age of *Nymphanthus* instead of *Cathetus* resulted in slightly older nodes for the outgroups, *Nellica* (Clade A) and *Cathetus* (Clade B), but with lower ESS scores. The crown age of tribe Phyllantheae was dated to c. 60 Ma (HPD 53.45–72.38 Ma) (Fig. 9-2). The crown age of Clade C, which corresponds here to *Kirganelia*, *Nymphanthus* and the Australian "*Lysiandra* clade" is estimated to be around 36 Ma (HPD 28.83–45.08). Similarly the crown age of Clade D ("large African" clade) and Clade E (Neotropical clade) are 34.44 Ma (HPD 27.30–41.87) and 32.01 Ma (HPD 24.65–39.34), respectively. Clade F can be divided into two major taxonomical subclades: F1 which corresponds to *Dendrophyllanthus*; F2 which corresponds to the reinstated genus *Cicca* L., which contains several sections and subgenera from *Phyllanthus* s.l. (Table 9-1). Clade F1 includes species from a multitude of areas and the crown age is estimated to be 27.69 Ma (HPD 19.71– 35.76). The crown age of *Emblica* (node G) was inferred to be 18.7 Ma (HPD 10.98– 26.50). The genera *Glochidion* (including *P.* subgenus *Phyllanthodendron*), *Breynia* and *Synostemon* are estimated to have diverged from other species of *Phyllanthus* s.l. in the Late Oligocene/Early Miocene at 26.24 Ma (HPD 19.34–38.44).

#### *Ancestral area estimation*

Node 1 and 2 (Fig. 9-2) were omitted from the biogeographic analysis as outgroups were removed. While nodes 9–11 show medium support for an ancestral area in mainland Asia, support for nodes 3–8 is generally low and could only infer a wide

ancestral area for *Phyllanthus* s.l. Node 3 (common ancestor of *Phyllanthus* s.l. + *Glochidion* + *Breynia* + *Synostemon*) was inferred to be Africa, Mainland Asia or Australia by BAYAREA (PP 0.33) while DEC indicated a wider area of North America, Eastern Africa and mainland Asia (Relative Probability 0.33).

The ancestral area of Clade A was reconstructed to be in North America or Africa (PP =  $0.20$ , RP =  $0.35$ ; Fig. 9-2). Both BAYAREALIKE and DEC indicate an ancestral area of Africa to Asia for *Cathetus* (*P*. subgenus *Cathetus* and *Macraea*, Clades B1 & B2; Fig. 9-2). Both subclades in this group show dispersal exchanges between Africa and Asia, but only *C*. subgenus *Macraea* has species present in Australia.

Clade C (Fig. 9-2) consists of three major clades, which correspond respectively to *Kirganelia* (C1); *Lysiandra* (C3) and *Nymphanthus* (C4). While BAYAREALIKE reconstructed the area to be quite wide, ranging from West Africa to Asia (PP = 0.51), DEC indicated an African origin (C1 RP = 0.56) with two separate instances of dispersal events to Asia. One dispersal and speciation event into Madagascar is found in *Kirganelia* in both analyses. *Lysiandra* consists of species occurring only in Australia, which is consistent with a single dispersal and subsequent speciation event found for node C3 (PP = 0.72, RP = 1). *Nymphanthus* is inferred to have originated in mainland Asia (C4 PP =  $0.45$ , RP =  $0.73$ ) with two independent dispersals to Malesia and further.

The ancestral area of *Moeroris* (*P*. subgenus *Tenellanthus*, *Swartziani* and *Afroswartziani*, Clade D) is estimated to be in Africa (BAYAREALIKE: DE, PP  $= 0.46$ ; DEC: D, RP  $= 0.39$ ; Fig. 9-2). The majority of species are distributed in Africa, but we find one dispersal event to North America (*M. aranaria* (A.Gray) R.W.Bouman) and one to South America (*Moeroris stipulata* Rafinesque) and dispersal event to Madagascar (Fig. 9-2).

The large Neotropical clade (E), consisting of *Phyllanthus* subgenus *Phyllanthus*, *Conami* (Aubl.) G.L.Webster and *Xylophylla* (L.) Pers., is inferred to have originated in South America (node E, PP = 0.27; DEC: AC, RP = 0.98; Fig. 9-2). Some species of *P*. subgenus *Phyllanthus* are currently found in North America. Within subgenus *Xylophylla* we find an exchange between South America and the Carribean, but we were unable to reconstruct the ancestral area for this.

The ancestral area of the speciose genus *Dendrophyllanthus* (F2) is inferred to be Australia ( $PP = 0.65$ ,  $RP = 0.74$ ) and it gave rise to independent dispersals to New Caledonia in both subclades (Fig. 9-2). One clade contains two independent dispersals from Australia to Papua New Guinea. The ancestral area of *Cicca* (F1) is inferred to be in Madagascar with one lineage (*corresponding to C.* subgenus *Cicca*) subsequently dispersing to Africa and South America.

*Emblica* (G), and the genera *Glochidion* (H), *Synostemon* (I) and *Breynia* (J), were reconstructed to have an ancestral area in mainland Asia, with for *Synostemon* a single dispersal event to Australia.

**Table 9-3.** Summary of the dated phylogeny and ancestral area reconstruction for major clade nodes following figure 9-2. Shown are for each major node node the posterior probabilities, mean ages of the nodes, 95% height of the Posterior Density intervals, BAYAREA reconstruction with next to it the Posterior Probability and DEC with relative probability.





**Figure 9-2.** Chronogram (MCC tree) of tribe Phyllantheae generated via Bayesian analysis in BEAST. Axis scaled to node ages and with designated time periods according to International Commission on Stratigraphy (ICS) V. 2020/03. Calibration points are indicated with \*, major nodes are numbered 1–11 while clades follow A–J as discussed in text. Ancestral area estimation as inferred from the BAYAREALIKE model from BiogeoBears given for selected nodes in squares with legend for the different areas, colours correspond to map of figure 1. A broader definition of *Phyllanthus* from previous classifications is shown with a dotted line on the right. Figure shown on following two pages



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#### *Diversification rate heterogeneity*

Effective sample sizes after burnin were >600 for both the number of shifts and log likelihoods and MCMC chain convergence was confirmed. Speciation rates (λ) overall were 0.19 species/million years [95% interval 0.16–0.21] while mean extinction rates ( $\mu$ ) were 0.03 sp/Ma [95% interval 0.01–0.06]. Speciation rates were relatively similar between the clades of *Nellica* (Clade A) and the Neotropical Clade E at 0.15 species/Myr (Table 9-3). Extinction rates for these clades was relatively low at 0.01 species/Myr. An increase in speciation rates can be seen in Clades F–J, with highest speciation occurring in Clade H (*Glochidion*) at 0.56 species/Myr. The 95 % credible set of rate shift configurations sampled with BAMM included fifteen distinct shift configurations, mostly indicating a shift in speciation of the genus *Glochidion* (Fig. 9-3, clade H). This shift was also found by the Maximum shift credibility plot. Additional shift changes were found at node 8, which encompasses the clades with higher speciation as seen in Table 9-4. The rate-through-time plot of tribe Phyllantheae shows a steady increase from its inception, with a sudden increase in speciation rate around 10 Ma. Plots of *Kirganelia* (Clade C1) and *Cicca* (Clade F1) show a slight increase, but then decreasing of the curve. The genus *Dendrophyllanthus* (Clade F2) shows an increasing speciation rate through time, but not as drastic as observed for *Glochidion* (clade H), which is close to exponential. The rate through time plot of *Breynia* and *Synostemon* (supplementary figure 4) also show a rate higher than the mean speciation rate through time with a slight smoothing of the curve towards the present.

#### **Discussion**

#### *Age estimates*

Our reconstruction of *Phyllanthus* s.l. and related genera indicates that the clade originated sometime during the Late Paleocene or Early Eocene. The MCC tree resulting from BEAST for the Phyllanthaceae showed no major topological differences with the one presented by Kathriarachchi et al. (2005) and node support was generally high (Supplementary Fig. 1) The dated phylogeny is largely congruent with the results of previous studies (e.g. Kawakita & Kato 2009; Luo et al. 2011b; van Welzen et al. 2015), but provides a better supported backbone between the major clades of tribe Phyllantheae. The recent species-level dated phylogeny of angiosperms by Janssens et al. (2020) inferred that Angiosperms originated before the Cretaceous, which would indicate older ages for the major clades of flowering plants. Nevertheless, the crown age of tribe Phyllantheae is inferred in their study at 65.92 Ma (HPD 74.33–45.58; Janssens et al. 2020; derived from supplementary material 5), which is comparable to our results (60.51 Ma; HPD 72.38–53.45). Divergence times estimations of *Breynia* and *Synostemon* were comparable to those found in van Welzen et al. (2015). The crown age of *Breynia*, 12.84 Ma (Table 9-3; HPD 18.48–8.17) was found to be more recent than the reconstruction of van Welzen et al. (2015; 20.6 Ma), while *Glochidion* seemed older (12.41 Ma here vs 5.61



(b) Speciation rates through time of selected clades. Black line represents mean speciation rate through time of the whole (b) Speciation rates through time of selected clades. Black line represents mean speciation rate through time of the whole phylogeny, red is of selected clade. phylogeny, red is of selected clade.

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Table 9-4. Median speciation ( $\lambda$ ), extinction ( $\mu$ ) and net diversification rates (with 95% CI) For Glochidion, Breynia,<br>Synostemon and major clades within Phyllanthus. Clades as in Fig. 9-2. **Table 9-4.** Median speciation (λ), extinction (µ) and net diversification rates (with 95% CI) For *Glochidion*, *Breynia*, *Synostemon* and major clades within *Phyllanthus*. Clades as in Fig. 9-2.



Ma in van Welzen et al. 2015). This is not entirely explained by the fossil calibration point for *Glochidion*, as additional analyses without this fossil gave similar results. More likely, it is caused by a combination of including more fossil calibration points as well as a larger sampling.

#### *Origin of Phyllanthus and related genera*

Fossil pollen indicates that several taxa of tribe Phyllantheae were already present in Europe during the early Eocene and pollen attributed here to Clade B (*Cathetus*) indicates an early dispersal to China (Gruas-Cavagnetto & Köhler 1992; Hofmann et al. 2015, 2019). The pantropical genus *Margaritaria* is reconstructed to have diversified during the Middle Miocene (Fig. 9-2), but it was not used in our reconstruction of the ancestral areas. The Asian species *M. indica* (Dalzell) Airy Shaw was previously retrieved as sister to the other species from South America and Africa (Webster 1979; Bouman et al. 2021). Fossil findings from the Eocene could indicate that boreotropic migration was part of the history of *Phyllanthus* s.l. and possibly *Flueggea* Willd. and that taxa later dispersed to Asia, Africa and North America while becoming extinct in Europe. The genus *Flueggea* might have persisted in Europe as *F. tinctoria* (L.) G.L.Webster is native to Spain and Portugal (Webster 1984), while there is only one invasive species of *Phyllanthus* (*P. tenellus* Roxb. to be placed in *Moeroris* Raf.) in Europe (Crisafulli et al. 2011). Limited sampling of *Nellica* and *Flueggea*, however, prevents us from further inferences; the European species *F. tinctoria* would be especially interesting to include in future studies. The major nodes 3–5 of the backbone phylogeny of *Phyllanthus* s.l. are reconstructed to have a wide ancestral area with an unclear area of origin (Fig. 9-2). Our reconstruction shows this wide ancestral area for the nodes in the time period just after the PETC till the start of the late Eocene (38.84 Ma; HPD 45.54–32.22, Table 9-3). Species of *Nellica* (Clade A) are found in North America, Africa and Asia, which is consistent with a boreotropic origin. However, the estimate for the crown age for Clade A (22.66 Ma; HPD 41.25–9.04) shows a wide margin, which could start in the Eocene, but also could be quite recent. Clade A needs to be further explored as not all species from India have been confidently assigned to this taxonomic group based on morphology (Bouman et al. 2018) and the connection with North America has only recently been confirmed for one species (Bouman et al. 2021). A higher sampling might give a better resolution when these species diverged and spread to different continents.

Our results confirm earlier studies (Kawakita & Kato 2009; Luo et al. 2011b), that tribe Phyllantheae probably diverged from other tribes after the breakup of Gondwana and the breakup of India and Madagascar at 90–85 Ma. The sampling from India in our study is sparse and could represent an interesting aim for future studies. Some species from Sri Lanka (*Cathetus gardnerianus* (Wight) R.W.Bouman and *Nymphanthus floribundus* (Wight) R.W.Bouman), are firmly nested in clades B and C and are found to be of more recent origins in the Miocene

(Fig. 9-2). The separation of India from Africa and Madagascar is reconstructed to have occurred in the Cretaceous (Ali & Aitchinson 2008; Hall 2012). The much later collision of India with the Asian plate probably occurred somewhere around 35 Ma (Ali & Aitchinson 2008) with a possible earlier connection with Malesia and Myanmar around 57 Ma (Aitchinson et al. 2007). The flora of India harbours species of several clades from tribe Phyllantheae, but not many from those found on Madagascar (see Bouman et al. 2018). The species included here seem to have diverged much more recently and do not support the Indian raft hypothesis for tribe Phyllantheae. However, an expanded sampling of for example the genera *Cathetus* and *Nellica* is necessary to further investigate the relationship of Indian taxa within the tribe.

#### *Out of Africa*

Many clades in tribe Phyllantheae contain species distributed in Africa, but unfortunately the major nodes between these groups show less resolution and are usually reconstructed with wide ancestral areas. Dispersals from Africa to other areas can still be inferred in a few clades. *Kirganelia* (Fig. 9-2, node C1) was reconstructed to have an ancestral area in Africa and Asia. *Kirganelia purpurea* (Müll.Arg.) R.W.Bouman and a clade containing several African species is found to be sister to a mixed clade of African, Asian and Malagasy species, which show several dispersal events in the Late Miocene.

Clade D, which consists of three subgenera in *Phyllanthus* in now transferred to the reinstated genus *Moeroris* Raf. (Bouman et al. 2022). This group was estimated to contain almost 200 species (Bouman et al. 2022), which are mostly distributed in Africa. A single dispersal event to Madagascar is found in Clade D during the Miocene and two independent dispersals are found to the Americas. *Moerorist stipulata* Raf. was included here as the only representative of a specific West Indian clade with some species also distributed in South America (see Falcón et al. 2020; Bouman et al. 2021) and it is reconstructed to have diverged from other African species around the Oligocene-Miocene transition. No land bridges are known between these continents at the time when they were much closer to their present day distribution, so this event was likely due to long-distance dispersal. Dispersal from Africa to Madagascar has been inferred to have been easier before a shift in ocean currents around 20–15 Ma (Samonds et al. 2012). Interestingly, the dispersal event within Clade D to Madagascar around the Mid-Miocene (C. 9.8 Ma, HPD 15.76–4.55) occurred either at the end or after this shift. Over-water dispersal could still occur, but was complicated and it is unclear how the species of *Moeroris* crossed this barrier as the capsular fruits are usually not eaten by other dispersal vectors such as birds.

#### *Colonizing the Americas and West Indies*

The large Neotropical clade of *Phyllanthus* s.s. (Clade E) seems to have arrived

in South America during the Late Eocene-Oligocene (Fig. 9-2). Following our reconstruction, it diverged from an African ancestor (Fig. 9-2, node 7) at the end of the Eocene. Similar dispersal events were found in other taxa such as platyrrhine monkeys (Seiffert et al. 2020), Arecaceae (Cuenca et al. 2008) and the Clusioid clade of the Malpighiales (Ruhfel et al. 2016), which were attributed also to sea currents (Renner 2003) or a possible boreotropical origin. The majority of Neotropical species of *Phyllanthus*, but also those of the African Clade D, have schizocarpic fruits that self-disperse the seeds. Some observations have been made on how these seeds behave in water (Breteler, pers. comm.), but larger studies on dispersal in *Phyllanthus* have not been done. The ancestral area of Clade E was estimated to be the Neotropics, but *P. purpusii* Brandegee, which is sister to the other species of Clade E (Fig. 9-2; Bouman et al. 2021), is from Mexico. This indicates an early dispersal between North and South America at the formation of the Isthmus of Panama (Jaramillo 2018). Other dispersals to North America are difficult to reconstruct here due to sampling limitations as these are from more widespread species. There are some taxa like *P. pseudocicca* Griseb. and *P. subcarnosus* C.Wright ex Griseb. that were proposed to have arrived independently (Falcón et al. 2020), but their phylogenetic position could not be reconstructed with full certainty.

The *Phyllanthus* flora of the West Indies seems to have originated in the Neotropics and it reached the Carribean at the end of the Oligocene (*P. pachystylus* Urb.) or in the Miocene (majority of *P.* subgenus *Xylophylla*, Fig. 9-2, node E5). To explain the origin of the Caribbean flora, some authors have hypothesized that there was a land-bridge or island chain between South America and the Antilles at the Eocene-Oligocene boundary (Iturralde-Vinent & McPhee 1991). However, this connection was not found for taxa that seemingly originated in South America and dispersed after this period (Nieto-Blázquez et al. 2017). These results seem to be congruent with our findings, that *Phyllanthus* dispersed to the West Indies on several independent occasions, but after the Eocene. A higher sampling of the South American species of *Phyllanthus* could allow for a further scrutiny in dispersal areas between countries as the area is defined here rather wide.

#### *East Malesia, Australia and the New Caledonian interchange*

The main diversity of the more than 150 species of *Phyllanthus* subgenus *Gomphidium* is found today on the islands of New Caledonia and Papua New Guinea (Airy Shaw 1980; McPherson & Schmid 1991). The ancestral area of this subgenus is estimated to be Australia with subsequent dispersals to Papua New Guinea and New Caledonia during the Miocene (Fig. 9-2, clade F2). New Caledonia separated from Australia during the Mesozoic and discussions are ongoing whether it and the surrounding islands were completely submerged before the Eocene (Heads 2019). The flora is characterized by high levels of endemism (Pillon et al. 2017), which is also the case with *Dendrophyllanthus* (treated as *P*. subgenus *Gomphidium* in McPherson & Schmid 1991).

Sister to *Dendrophyllanthus* is clade F1, which corresponds to the genus *Cicca* of which the majority of species occur in Madagascar. Node F was reconstructed as Australia in the Bayarea analysis with low support (Table 9-3), and as Australia & Madagascar by the DEC model around the Mid-Oligocene. This relationship indicates an interesting connection and probable long distance dispersal between Australia and Madagascar (Fig. 9-2). However, it could also be due to incomplete sampling or possible extinction of taxa in areas between these distribution centers, but this cannot be inferred here. Within Clade F1, one group (*Cicca* subgenus *Cicca*) dispersed from Madagascar to Africa around and from there to South America during the Miocene.

#### *Asian spread and diversification*

More than 200 species of *Phyllanthus* s.l. occur in Asia and it has been suggested as the area where the genus originated (Govaerts et al. 2000). While this seems unlikely based on our results, Asia still harbours a large diversity of *Phyllanthus* species, which is a mix of several groups. The Asian genus *Nymphanthus* (previously *Phyllanthus* subgenus *Eriococcus*) with a crown age of 23.74 Ma (HPD 31.88–16.28) is reconstructed to have originated on continental Asia, with two independent movements into West Malesia in the Miocene (Fig. 9-2, node C4). Two species of *Nymphanthus* are known from Australia, but only *N. lamprophyllus* (Müll. Arg.) R.W.Bouman is included here and this species also crossed Wallace's line. It diverged from the Australian *Lysiandra* at the Eocene-Oligocene boundary. Another large Asian clade diverged from Node 8 with one group diverging into a clade comprising *Dendrophyllanthus* and the other giving rise to a large Malagasy and African clade.

The origin of the genera *Glochidion* and *Breynia* was inferred to be on the mainland of Asia (Fig. 9-2, node 9). The number of species of the genus *Glochidion* included here is limited and the inclusion of more species could lead to a different interpretation. As inferred here, *Glochidion* is a recently diverged lineage, which has speciated extensively, originating in the Late Miocene (Fig. 9-2). More than 300 species are currently recognized and their radiation has been attributed to a co-diversification with its pollinator (Kato et al. 2003; Kawakita & Kato, 2009). Our reconstruction of *Breynia* is comparable to the results by van Welzen et al. (2015), but their analysis discusses dispersal and vicariance at regional to country levels. The genus *Synostemon* consists of about 40 species and diverged from *Breynia* around 16 Ma (Fig. 9-2, node 11) as the lineage reached Australia and subsequently speciated there.

#### *Diversification of tribe Phyllantheae*

*Phyllanthus* s.l. is composed of several major clades showing distinctly different species numbers, some of which have been inferred to be linked to their specialized pollination system involving a mutualism with parasitic moths (Kato & Kato

2004a). This pollination system and variations of it have been found in several groups of tribe Phyllantheae, most notably in *Glochidion* (Kato et al. 2003), *Breynia* (Kwakita & Kato, 2004b), *Kirganelia* (Kawakita & Kato 2009; Kato & Kawakita 2017), *Dendrophyllanthus* (as *P*. subgenus *Gomphidium*; Kawakita & Kato 2004a) and with some indications for species from Madagascar (Kawakita & Kato 2009; Kato & Kawakita 2017) and the Neotropics (Kawakita et al. 2019). This mutualism has not always resulted in higher species numbers or speciation rates (Fig. 9-3). Speciation rates in *Kirganelia* were similar to *Nymphanthus* and *Cathetus*, for example (Table 9-4), which have been inferred to have different pollination systems (Luo et al. 2011b; Kato & Kawakita 2017). There are about 30 species in the palaeotropical *Kirganelia* (Bouman et al. 2018), which are often widespread and characterized by small pentamerous flowers and berries that are probably dispersed by birds. In contrast, there are more than 150 species in *Dendrophyllanthus* with most of this diversity found in Papua New Guinea and New Caledonia. *Glochidion* contains more than 300 species throughout Southeast Asia. While species in *Dendrophyllanthus* often have capsular fruits, fruits of *Glochidion* also dehisce to present brightly coloured sarcotestal seeds to attract birds. Bird dispersal seems to have resulted in species with wide distributions in *Kirganelia*, possibly constraining speciation rates, but similar patterns are not observed and should be further explored for *Glochidion* and *Dendrophyllanthus*. While the number of studies exploring the finesse and differences of this extraordinary pollination mutualism are steadily increasing, dispersal studies should be included to see how quickly genetic barriers can be raised between populations following isolation.

#### **Conclusion**

The evolutionary history of tribe Phyllantheae is explored here in more detail. The origin of *Phyllanthus* s.l. is dated to the Early Eocene, congruent with the PETM, while fossil findings in Europe hint at the possibility for a boreotropic origin and or migration pattern. Other theories, such as the Indian Raft hypothesis are unlikely to have played a role in the present distribution of the clade, but enhanced sampling of Indian taxa and taxa associated with *Nellica* (Clade A in Fig. 9-2) should be investigated in future studies to exclude this. Numerous dispersal events in the Cenozoic can be traced to the Miocene geothermal hypothesis or long-distance dispersal. Diversification rates were in general quite low, but a shift detected on node 8 (Fig. 9-2) could be linked to a starting pollination mutualism with moths (Kawakita & Kato 2009), although this was not the only factor as dispersal strategies seem to have constrained further speciation in other clades. Future studies should focus on detailing the various clades of tribe Phyllantheae, where the genera *Flueggea* and *Margaritaria* represent interesting pantropical taxa with birddispersed seeds.

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**Supplement**

**Supplementary figure S9-1.** Summarized chronogram of Phyllanthaceae with tribes collapsed, relevant nodes are shown with 95% HPD; median age of divergence between tribe Phyllantheae and tribe Wielandieae and Poranthereae is given for the different reconstructions above HPD bar. (a) Chronogram of Phyllanthaceae with divergence age with Picrodendraceae constrained at 84 Ma. (b) Chronogram of Phyllanthaceae with divergence age with Picrodendraceae constrained at 108 Ma.

**Supplementary figure S9-2.** Ancestral area estimations of *Phyllanthus* and ingroup genera following the BAYAREA model. Distributions of taxa are shown at branch tips. Reconstructions on nodes with highest probability are shown. The figure is shown on pages 383 - 386. A full size pdf is available with the author.









**Supplementary figure S9-3.** Ancestral area estimations of *Phyllanthus* and ingroup genera following the DEC model. Distributions of taxa are shown at branch tips. Reconstructions on nodes with highest probability are shown. The figure is shown on pages 388 - 391. A full size pdf is available with the author.











**Supplementary figure S9-4.** Additional plots of speciation rates through time of specific clades. Black line represents mean speciation rate through time of the whole phylogeny, red that of a selected clade.



**Supplementary figure S9-4.** Continued.











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stretching from India to Peninsular Malaysia; H, W. Malesia including Philippines; I, E. Malesia (mainly Papua New Guinea); stretching from India to Peninsular Malaysia; H, W. Malesia including Philippines; I, E. Malesia (mainly Papua New Guinea); J, Australia; K, Islands in the Pacific. Green marks an increase in dispersal rates, while yellow marks a decrease compared to J, Australia; K, Islands in the Pacific. Green marks an increase in dispersal rates, while yellow marks a decrease compared to America and part of the Panama Isthmus; D, West Africa with eastern border following Namibia, Democratic Republic of America and part of the Panama Isthmus; D, West Africa with eastern border following Namibia, Democratic Republic of **≙ Supplementary table S9-2.** Matrices with dispersal rate scaling used in reconstruction under the dispersal-extinction-<br>● cladogenesis model (DEC). Biogeographic regions follow figure 1: A, North America to Mexico; B, W cladogenesis model (DEC). Biogeographic regions follow figure 1: A, North America to Mexico; B, West Indies; C, South Congo and Central African Republic; E, South and Eastern Africa; F, Madagascar and the Mascarene Islands; G, W. Asia Congo and Central African Republic; E, South and Eastern Africa; F, Madagascar and the Mascarene Islands; G, W. Asia Supplementary table S9-2. Matrices with dispersal rate scaling used in reconstruction under the dispersal-extinctionolder periods. older periods.





