# **Original Article**

# Rise and fall of a continental mesic radiation in Australia: spine evolution, biogeography, and diversification of *Cryptandra* (Rhamnaceae: Pomaderreae)

Francis J. Nge<sup>1,2,3,\*</sup>,<sup>®</sup>, Jürgen Kellermann<sup>1,3,\*</sup>,<sup>®</sup>, Ed Biffin<sup>1,3,®</sup>, Kevin R. Thiele<sup>4,</sup><sup>®</sup> and Michelle Waycott<sup>1,3,®</sup>

<sup>1</sup>School of Biological Sciences, Faculty of Science, The University of Adelaide, Adelaide, SA 5005, Australia
<sup>2</sup>IRD – Institut de Recherche pour le Développement, Avenue Agropolis BP 64501, Montpellier 34394, France
<sup>3</sup>State Herbarium of South Australia, Botanic Gardens and State Herbarium, Adelaide, SA 5000, Australia
<sup>4</sup>School of Biological Science, The University of Western Australia, Perth, WA, Australia

<sup>\*</sup>Corresponding author. School of Biological Sciences, Faculty of Science, The University of Adelaide, Adelaide, SA 5005, Australia. E-mail: francis.nge@adelaide.edu.au; State Herbarium of South Australia, Botanic Gardens and State Herbarium, Hackney Road, Adelaide, SA 5000, Australia. E-mail: juergen.kellermann@sa.gov.au

# ABSTRACT

The Australian continent has experienced progressive aridification since the Miocene, spurring recent radiations of arid-adapted lineages and the likely decline of mesic biotic groups. While examples of the former have been relatively well-documented, post-Miocene declines of non-arid sclerophyllous floras are less well understood. Here, we present a well-sampled time-calibrated nuclear phylogeny (140 accessions representing 60/65 species) of an Australian plant genus (*Cryptandra* Sm.: Rhamnaceae) and using ancestral range reconstructions and diversification analyses, elucidate its evolutionary history through space and time. We used high-throughput sequencing to recover 30 orthologous nuclear loci and BioGeoBEARS to infer ancestral areas. We show that the present-day distribution of *Cryptandra* can be explained by multiple vicariance events followed by *in situ* diversification with little exchange between regions. All diversification models show a speciation rate decline in *Cryptandra* after its radiation in the Miocene (*c*. 23 Mya). This coincides with aridification episodes across Australia and indicates that diversification rates between spinescent and non-spinescent *Cryptandra* lineages, suggesting that spinescent lineages may be the legacies of selection from extinct megaherbivores.

Keywords: Australian flora; biogeography; Cryptandra; high-throughput sequencing; molecular phylogeny; Rhamnaceae; speciation rate decline; spines; vicariance

# INTRODUCTION

Several iconic, sclerophyllous, endemic lineages among Gondwanan families (e.g. Proteaceae, Myrtaceae, Goodeniaceae, and Restionaceae) are characteristic features of the Australian flora (Burbidge 1960). Many of these lineages diversified in the Eocene–Miocene, replacing rainforest Gondwanan lineages as the continent progressively cooled and became more seasonal and arid (Crisp *et al.* 2004, Crisp and Cook 2013). Paleorecords have indicated that these temperate Australian sclerophyllous plant groups subsequently declined in dominance and retreated towards the mesic periphery of the continent as the arid zone expanded from the Pliocene to the present (Macphail 2007,

Byrne *et al.* 2011). A signal of diversification decline (i.e. either from lower speciation or higher extinction rates, or both) might therefore be expected in phylogenies of extant sclerophyllous Australian lineages. However, available phylogenetic studies instead tend to show a steady accumulation of mesic temperate species over time, both across the flora generally (Nge *et al.* 2020) and in selected groups (Cardillo and Pratt 2013, Cook *et al.* 2015, Nge *et al.* 2021a, 2022). Broadscale studies such as that of Nge *et al.* (2020) may not detect recent signals of diversification decline due to low taxonomic sampling (Cusimano and Renner 2010); hence, further studies using densely sampled species-level phylogenies are required.

Received 21 May 2023; revised 21 August 2023; accepted 8 September 2023

© 2023 The Linnean Society of London.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted reuse, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

The Australian plant genus Cryptandra Sm. (Rhamnaceae) is a good candidate for addressing this hypothesis. Cryptandra, with at least 60 species (Kellermann 2020), is the second-largest genus in Rhamnaceae tribe Pomaderreae (Kellermann et al. 2005, Medan and Schirarend 2004; Fig. 1). It is endemic to Australia, and is widely distributed across the continent, with most species in south-western, southern, and eastern mainland Australia and seven taxa in the northern monsoon tropics (Kellermann 2006; Fig. 2). Cryptandra species are dwarf to medium-sized shrubs, often with an ericoid habit. Some species have spinescent branches, an uncommon trait among Pomaderreae (only found in two other species of *Trymalium* Fenzl in the tribe) and a trait that is equally unusual for the Australian flora (where leaf spines are more common; Orians and Milewski 2007). These spinescent Cryptandra often have a divaricate 'cage' architecture growth form similar to many shrubs in New Zealand (Burns 2016, Maurin *et al.* 2022).

Spinescence may protect against medium-sized to large herbivores, and it has been speculated that this may play a role in the evolutionary survival and diversification of spinescent lineages in Australia (Orians and Milewski 2007, Burns 2014). The origins and diversification of spinescent plants closely follow the radiation of large mammals or avian herbivores, as is the case for New Zealand during the Pliocene-Pleistocene (Maurin et al. 2022), central Tibet in the Eocene (Zhang et al. 2022), and African savannas in the Miocene (Charles-Dominique et al. 2016). The diversification of spinescent plants in Australia occurred relatively recently in the Pliocene compared to other continents (Gelin et al. 2023). However, whether the evolution of spinescence has resulted in diversification rate increases specifically compared to non-spinescent congeners is not well known. For other defence traits such as extrafloral nectaries, plant families with this trait have 2-fold higher diversification rates than those without (Weber and Agrawal 2014). Similarly, in the large Australian Solanum L. radiation, the majority of species are spinescent (suggesting higher diversification rates), although no formal diversification analyses have been conducted to date (Echeverría-Londoño et al. 2020). Cryptandra would be a good case-study group to investigate further the diversification of spinescence in an Australian context, given the genus is widely distributed across Australia and has both spinescent and non-spinescent lineages.

A small number of *Cryptanda* species have been included in previous phylogenies of Rhamnaceae and Pomaderreae based on ITS and *trnL*-F DNA sequence data (e.g. Richardson *et al.* 2000, one species; Kellermann *et al.* 2005, 15 species; Ladiges *et al.* 2005, 15 species). Later family-wide phylogenies of Rhamnaceae (Onstein *et al.* 2015, Hauenschild *et al.* 2016) also included small numbers of *Cryptandra* species, mostly using previously published DNA sequence data. Comprehensive, multi-gene phylogenies have recently been developed for two Pomaderreae genera: *Pomaderris* Labill. (Nge *et al.* 2021b) and *Spyridium* Fenzl (Clowes *et al.* 2022). Nge *et al.* (2021b) showed that *Pomaderris* was ancestrally widespread and detected a vicariant signal between the western and eastern clades coinciding with the uplift of the calcareous Nullarbor Plain at *c.* 14 Myr (Crisp and Cook 2007).

Here, we present a densely sampled multi-gene phylogeny of *Cryptandra* and use this as the basis to (i) explore continental biogeographic patterns in the genus, (ii) test whether patterns of lineage diversification have been influenced by the post-Miocene progressive aridification of the Australian continent, and (iii) test whether spinescence has affected diversification among *Cryptandra* lineages.

#### MATERIAL AND METHODS

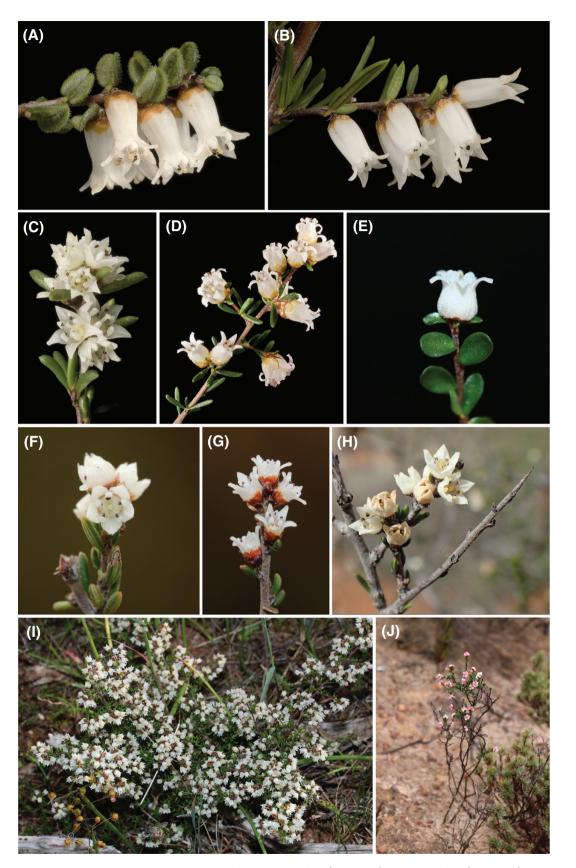
#### Sampling and DNA sequencing

We sampled 140 accessions representing 60 species (92% of 65 species in the genus). Multiple samples of two putative species complexes (29 and 18 for *C. tomentosa* Lindl. and *C. amara* Sm. groups, respectively) and five potentially new taxa were included to enable testing of taxonomic boundaries in these groups for ongoing taxonomic research. Sixteen Pomaderreae species and two other Rhamnaceae taxa (nine Pomaderreae genera and two non-Pomaderreae: *Granitites* Rye and *Hovenia* Thunb.) were included as outgroups. Voucher and accession information is in Table S1 in the Supporting Information.

We adopted a high-throughput sequencing (HTS) approach using the OzBaits v.1.0 custom bait set (Waycott et al. 2021), which targets 100 single-copy nuclear loci for angiosperms. This bait set has been used successfully for Rhamnaceae (Nge et al. 2021b) and other plant groups (Foster et al. 2021, Nge et al. 2021a, Simpson et al. 2022). Approximately 20 mg of silicadried leaf material sourced from herbarium or field-collected specimens were used for DNA extractions performed by Intertek Group plc (Adelaide, Australia) using sbeadex magnetic bead chemistry. Library preparation steps followed Nge et al. (2021b). Briefly, extracted DNA was sheared using a Diagenode Bioruptor Pico sonicator to fragment lengths of c. 400-600bp, DNA libraries were constructed using JetSeq Flex DNA Library preparation kit (Bioline), hCLC capture was performed following the manufacturer's instructions (Arbor Biosciences), and libraries were pooled in equimolar concentrations and sent for Illumina paired-end sequencing  $(2 \times 150 \text{ bp})$  on a lane of a HiSeqX Ten at the Garvan Institute for Medical Research in Sydney.

#### **Bioinformatic data processing**

Post-sequencing data processing followed the protocol of Nge et al. (2021b). Briefly, raw sequence data were imported into CLC Genomics Workbench (v.7.5.1) for demultiplexing and trimming (remove adapters and barcodes, quality trim Q > 20). We used the *de novo* assembly of a single sample (*Pomaderris* buchanensis N.G.Walsh FN 451) to generate a set of Rhamnaceae specific OzBaits references. Following de novo assembly in CLC, the resultant contigs were converted into a BLAST database in Geneious v.2022.2.2 (Kearse et al. 2012; https://www. geneious.com) that was queried using the OzBaits reference sequences for Arabidopsis thaliana (L.) Heynh. (maximum expected value 1e-5). The BLAST hits were then extracted and used as a reference to recover per locus read mappings for each of the Cryptandra samples in CLC. A majority-rule consensus sequence was extracted for each locus per sample, with 'Ns' inserted when coverage was < 5, and multiple sequence alignments were performed using the Muscle (Edgar 2004) plugin



**Figure 1.** Representative diversity of *Cryptandra*: A, *C. arbutiflora* var. *arbutiflora* (KRT3328); B, *C. arbutiflora* (KRT3234); C, *C. myriantha* Western Australian form (KRT3737); D, *C. connata* (KRT4163); E, *C. amara* (FN814); F, *C. tomentosa*; G, *C. myriantha* South Australian (SA) form; H, *C. setifera* (JK750) showing a spinose branch; I, *C. tomentosa* shrub habit; and J, *C. myriantha* SA habit. Photos: Kevin R. Thiele (A–D), Francis J. Nge (E–G, I, J), Jürgen Kellermann (H).

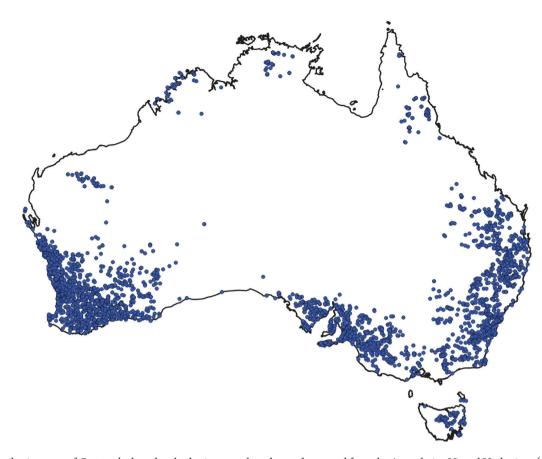


Figure 2. Distribution map of Cryptandra based on herbarium vouchered records sourced from the Australasian Virtual Herbarium (avh.ala.org.au).

for Geneious. Paralogs were identified during the BLAST step (before) with the assumption that divergent and overlapping contigs recovered from a single target locus indicated paralogy. We retained 30 putative orthologs from the 100 original targeted nuclear loci comprising the final orthologous dataset.

#### Phylogenetic analyses and divergence dating

We generated an overall phylogeny comprising 62 taxa of *Cryptandra* (60/65 spp.) and including only one representative per species for divergence time, and biogeographic and diversification analyses (hereafter, 60-ALIGN). For *Cryptandra amara,* we also included two forms of *C. amara* in the phylogeny as they probably represent two distinct entities (*C.* sp. Bundanoon (*K.R.Thiele* 2511) Kellermann and *C.* sp. Watchimbark (*R.L.Barrett et al.* 9116) Kellermann; see Barker 2005), indicated by ongoing taxonomic work (Kellermann *et al.* unpublished).

Divergence times were estimated using BEAST v.2.4.7 (Bouckaert *et al.* 2014). As there are no reliable fossils of Pomaderreae, we used five Pomaderreae node ages from Nge *et al.* (2021b) as secondary calibrations. These are based on a family-wide molecular clock analysis that used four Rhamnaceae fossil constraints to estimate node ages. Our approach ensures that our results are comparable with previous studies, while enabling the use of our full nuclear dataset instead of a select few loci that overlap with outgroup taxa based on Sanger data. Multiple (five) calibration points were implemented as per recommended best

practice for estimating divergence ages based on secondary calibrations (Sauquet *et al.* 2012). All five calibration points were assigned uniform priors to better account for uncertainties in these analyses (Sauquet pers. comm.): Pomaderreae stem (95% confidence intervals from Nge *et al.* (2021b); 32.4–50 Mya), Pomaderreae crown (32.4–49.69 Mya), *Stenanthemum* Reissek crown (19.7–35 Mya), *Pomaderris* crown (14.7–36.74 Mya), and *Cryptandra* stem (29–45 Mya). The *Cryptandra* crown was unconstrained.

The 60-ALIGN (concatenated 30-gene nuclear) alignment was used for BEAST analyses. The input XML file for BEAST was created in BEAUti v.2.4.7, applying the GTR + I + G substitution model as it is the most parameter-rich model (Abadi et al. 2019), relaxed lognormal clock model, and birth-death tree prior. The alignment was unpartitioned to allow for the analyses to converge in adequate time (< 4 weeks) as commonly applied in other HTS studies. Three parallel BEAST runs were performed until convergence (ESS > 200), with up to 800 million Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) generations and trees sampled every 1000 generations. Convergence of the posterior and other parameters were assessed via Tracer v.1.6 (Rambaut et al. 2015) with the first 20% of MCMC discarded as burn-in. After burn-in, all three independent runs were combined using LogCombiner v.2.4.7, summarized in TreeAnnotator v.2.4.7 to a consensus tree, and the tree visualized using FigTree v.1.4.3 (Rambaut 2012). BEAST analyses were conducted on the Institut de Recherche pour le Développement HPC cluster.

Geographic distributions for all sampled species were determined based on occurrence records obtained from the Australasian Virtual Herbarium online database (AVH; http:// avh.chah.org.au, accessed June 2021). Records based on cultivated or clearly erroneous localities were excluded. Four broad biogeographic regions were delimited based on previous studies (Cook *et al.* 2015, Nge *et al.* 2021b, 2022), comprising three mesic (W, E, and N) areas and one for the expansive arid centre (A; Table 1). *Cryptandra debilis* A.R.Bean occurs in the wet tropics of Queensland but was coded as being part of N given that the wet tropics region is part of a wider northern Australian region (N) that mostly has a tropical monsoonal climate.

The W and E regions were subdivided into seven and five subregions respectively, based on Interim Biogeographic Regionalisation of Australia (IBRA) regions for W and the phytogeographical regions of Ebach *et al.* (2015) for E. The latter largely correspond to the political state boundaries of eastern Australia, except that 'South Australia' includes parts of western Victoria with a similar Mediterranean climate.

Biogeographic analyses were conducted using BioGeoBEARS v.1.1 (Matzke 2013) in R v.3.5.1 (R Core Team 2016). BioGeoBEARS implements and compares ML versions of dispersal-extinction-cladogenesis (DEC; Ree and Smith 2008), dispersal-vicariance (DIVA; Ronquist 1997), and Bayesian (BAYAREA; Landis *et al.* 2013) biogeographic models. Additional model parameters such as jump dispersal (*j*), dispersal probability as a function of distance (*x*), and time stratification, are also available in BioGeoBEARS. For the continental-wide analysis, we implemented 24 ( $6 \times 4$ ) models across two aridification scenarios in BioGeoBEARS and compared model fits via corrected Akaike Information Criterion scores (AICc;

Table 1. Geographic regions and subregions of Australia and their	
associated abbreviations mentioned in text.	

Biogeographic regions	Coding abbreviation
Continental Australia	
Southwest Australia (SWA)	W
Eastern Australia (SEA)	E
АМТ	Ν
Arid Eremaean zone	А
SWA subregions	
Geraldton Sandplains	G
Avon wheatbelt	А
Mallee	М
Jarrah Forest	J
Swan Coastal Plain	S
Warren	W
Esperance	E
SEA subregions	
Queensland	Q
NSW	Ν
Victoria	V
Tasmania	Т
South Australia	S

Akaike 1974), with the lowest score indicating the best fit. A default model used no additional parameters, specifying only the current distributional range of each taxon. In the Scenario 1 models, we included an additional relative distance parameter (x) based on current distributions of taxa. Distances were coded from 1–100 (100 being the furthest relative distance). Scenario 2 models were similar to Scenario 1 with the addition of a time stratification across six 5-Myr time intervals (i.e. throughout the evolutionary history of Cryptandra), simulating a gradual retreat of the three mesic regions and expansion of the arid interior as Australia progressively became more arid. Finally Scenario 3 models was similar to Scenario 2 but specified that aridification intensified at 15 Myr and again at 5 Myr, based on current knowledge of the aridification history of Australia (Scenario 3; Fujioka et al. 2005, 2009). We tested the model fit for DEC, DIVA, and BAYAREA, with or without a jump dispersal parameter (i), for each of the three scenarios and the default model, resulting in six models per scenario (24 models in total). For subregions within southwest Western Australia (SWA) and eastern Australia (SEA), we only included the default model and not the distance or time stratification parameters, as these regions are based on current vegetation and knowledge of past changes is currently poor to non-existent.

Clade-specific diversification and mass-extinction analyses Bayesian analyses of macroevolutionary mixtures (BAMM; Rabosky 2014) were used on our dated BEAST phylogeny to estimate and investigate diversification rates (and rate shifts) of Cryptandra. A conservative global sampling regime of 80% was specified to account for potential undescribed species in addition to the five species that were not sampled in this study. The BAMM analyses were conducted for 5 million rjMCMC generations and then checked for convergence (ESS value of > 200) via the BAMMtools v.2.1.10 package (Rabosky et al. 2014) in R. The first 10% of the BAMM runs were discarded as burn-in. Next, 95% credibility rate shift values were calculated for each branch in the dated tree using BAMMtools with expected core shifts in diversification rate set to one. Subsequently, speciation and extinction curves along with expected number of diversification rate shifts were plotted via BAMMtools in R. Speciation and extinction curves were also estimated in TESS v.2.1.2 (Höhna et al. 2016) and compared with those obtained from BAMM, with congruence providing confidence to our results.

We used Compound Poisson Process on Mass-Extinction Times (CoMET; May *et al.* 2016) models implemented in TESS (Höhna *et al.* 2016) in R to test for potential mass-extinction events that may have affected the diversification of *Cryptandra*. CoMET was used instead of other mass-extinction models as it performs better than other models for smaller phylogenies (< 200 tips; Culshaw *et al.* 2019). A conservative sampling fraction of 80% was used for CoMET, similar to our BAMM analyses. We also conducted CoMET analyses with the actual sampling regime (95%), and compared the results. As we are uncertain what the specific extinction fraction would be for a mass-extinction event for *Cryptandra* (due to the paucity of fossils), we tested three different survival probability priors (5% default, 20% and 50%) in CoMET. The autostop function was applied to stop the CoMET runs automatically after convergence (ESS > 200). CoMET analyses were also conducted for the two subclades of *Cryptandra* including mostly SWA and SEA clades. For these, the conservative sampling fraction was adopted (80%) along with a survival probability of 20%. All other parameters and settings were set to default unless specifically mentioned previously.

To test for the effects of past environmental climate change on speciation and extinction rates of *Cryptandra*, we applied paleoenvironmental-dependent birth-death diversification models (Condamine *et al.* 2013) implemented in the R package RPANDA v.1.8 (Morlon *et al.* 2016). Specifically, we compared models of time-dependent as well as two other paleoenvironmental-dependent diversification models: global temperature and sea-level changes through time. These models have been applied successfully for other biotic groups (e.g. Lagomarsino *et al.* 2016; see Supporting Information for details on the specific models).

# Spinose trait dependent diversification

To test whether speciation rates differ significantly between spiny and non-spiny lineages within *Cryptandra*, we conducted a Structured Rate Permutations on Phylogenies (STRAPP; Rabosky and Huang 2015) analysis on our dated tree. STRAPP used the speciation rates derived from our BAMM analyses to test for the significance of a specific trait (in our case, the presence of spinescent branches). The spinose trait was coded as a binary character (1–spinose, 0–non-spinose) in an input file for STRAPP.

We estimated the ancestral state (spinose or non-spinose) using empirical Bayesian posterior probabilities via the 'lik.anc' function from phytools (Revell 2012) in R, using the ER model (equal rates) as it is the most conservative and parsimonious option, and used the *D* statistic (Fritz and Purvis 2010) in R using the caper package (Orme *et al.* 2013) to test for a phylogenetic signal of spininess. Lineage accumulation curves were also constructed for spinose and non-spinose lineages, plotting each branching node in the phylogeny to provide further insights into the origin and accumulation of these lineages.

## RESULTS

# Phylogenetic relationships and divergence times of *Cryptandra*

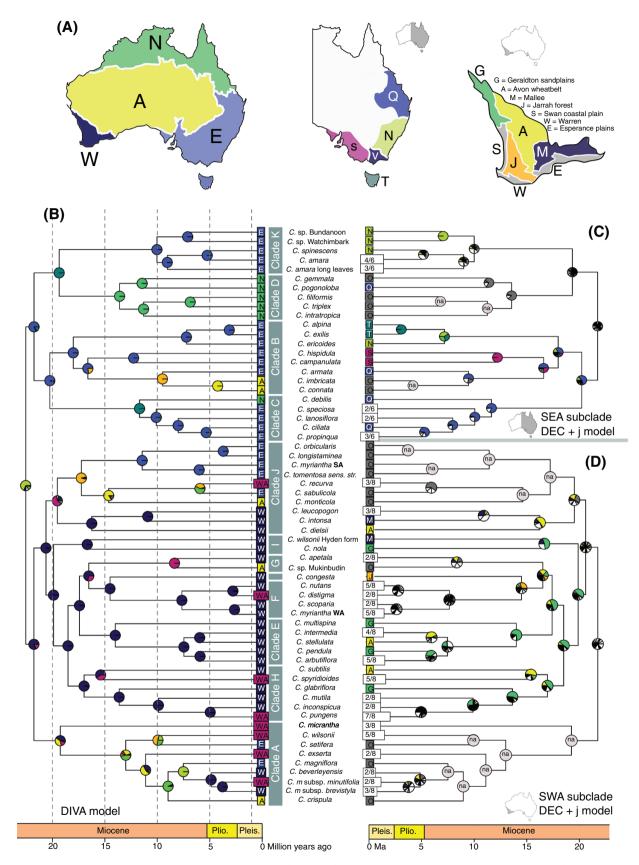
Our curated nuclear alignment had a total length of 35 560 bp, comprising 30 loci covering 93 sampled taxa including outgroups (Table S3 in the Supporting Information). Cryptandra was recovered as monophyletic with strong support, sister to the Blackallia C.A.Gardner, Papistylus Kellermann, Rye & K.R.Thiele, and Serichonus K.R.Thiele clade (Fig. 3, Supporting Information, Fig. S1a). All nodes were resolved with moderate to high support (posterior probability;  $PP \ge 0.9$ ) in our BEAST Bayesian topology except for two: the C. minutifolia Rye subspecies (PP = 0.82) and C. amara-C. spinescens Sieber ex DC. (PP = 0.75). Clades within the genus largely correspond to geographic partitioning of lineages across Australia, i.e. there are Australian northern monsoonal tropics (AMT), SWA, and SEA-specific clades, with the exception of the arid Eremaean taxa, which comprise phylogenetically distant lineages that are scattered across the phylogeny and share close links with taxa in surrounding mesic regions.

The stem age (origin) of Cryptandra was estimated at 30.9 Myr (95% credibility interval, CI: 29-33.3 Myr), based on our BEAST divergence-time analyses (Fig. 3, Supporting Information, Fig. S1). The crown of Cryptandra was estimated at 22.4 Myr (95% CI: 19.9-25.9 Myr), which also corresponds with the divergence (stem) of the SWA and SEA + AMT clades. The C. amara subclade diverged from its sister northern monsoonal clade (C. gemmata A.R.Bean-C. intratropica W.Fitzg.) at c. 19.2 Myr (95% CI: 17.0-22.6 Myr), with a crown age of c. 9.9 Myr (95% CI: 6.8-12.9 Myr). The C. tomentosa subclade diverged from its sister subclade (C. recurva) at c. 17.2 Myr (95% CI: 14.3–21.0 Myr), with the crown of the C. tomentosa subclade estimated at c. 11.3 Myr (95% CI: 7.9-14.7 Myr) and the C. recurva crown at c. 14.6 Myr (95% CI: 10.7-18.0 Myr). The Tasmanian clade (*C. alpina* Hook.f. and *C. exilis* D.I.Morris) diverged (stem) from mainland lineages (C. ericoides Sm.) at 7.3 Myr (95% CI: 4.4–11.0 Myr) and diversified (crown) at c. 3.2 Myr (95% CI: 1.5–4.9 Myr). The two South Australian species (C. hispidula Reissek ex F.Muell., C. campanulata Schltdl.) diverged from other eastern taxa at c. 16.5 Myr (95% CI: 13.8-19.9 Myr) and diverged (crown) from each other at c. 12.3 Myr (95% CI: 7.8–15.8 Myr).

# **Biogeographic results**

The ancestral area for Cryptandra was estimated to be widespread (SWA and SEA), based on the best fitting model-the DIVALIKE + *x* model from Scenario 2 with gradual aridification (Fig. 3, Supporting Information, Table S4). For both SWA and SEA + AMT subclades, the DEC + i model were the best fit models with the lowest AICc scores (Supporting Information, Table S5). The ancestral areas of these subclades were unresolved (i.e. widespread) and congruent with the ancestral area for the genus being widespread across Australia. For the SWA subclade, the northern Geraldton Sandplains was inferred as the ancestral area for most (20/25 spp.) SWA taxa (Fig. 3). The ancestral area of the SEA subclade was unresolved, however, one of the clades (C. alpina-C. propingua A.Cunn. ex Fenzl) was estimated to have originated in the Queensland phytogeographic region. Interestingly, this subregion in SEA is also the one with the highest number of phylogenetically distant lineages (C. pogonoloba A.R.Bean, C. armata C.T.White & Francis, C. *debilis*–*C. propingua*) in contrast to other subregions that have monophyletic clades (Tasmania, New South Wales (NSW), South Australia; Fig. 3C).

Major clades within *Cryptandra* largely correspond to geographic regions, however, no regions have a completely monophyletic clade apart from the AMT clade (Fig. 3) – which is nested in a larger SEA clade. For SEA, another smaller clade is present (*C. orbicularis* A.R.Bean–*C. tomentosa*), sister to SWA and aridzone species. In addition, several other SEA taxa (*C. setifera* Kellermann, *C. magniflora* F.Muell.) do not belong to either of these SEA clades, but share close affinities with other SWA and arid-zone species in a phylogenetically distant clade within the genus. Interestingly, the endemic Pilbara species (*C. monticola* Rye & Trudgen) from northwest Western Australia is sister to two southern temperate lineages (*C. sabulicola* Kellermann from SEA, and *C. recurva* Rye from SWA), which are then sister to a SEA clade (*C. tomentosa–C. orbicularis*) instead of other aridzone lineages. The SWA clade (*C. orbicularis–C. crispula* Rye)



**Figure 3.** Maximum likelihood ancestral range reconstruction of *Cryptandra* based on the best biogeographic models and dated BEAST tree with 30 nuclear loci. A, Region-delimitation of continental-wide Australia, eastern Australia (SEA), and southwest Western Australia (SWA). Area names for continental Australia are south-western Australia (W), eastern Australia (E), northern Australia (N), the arid zone (A), and (WA) spanning both W and A regions. For the SEA subtree, the subregions are Queensland (Q), New South Wales (N), Victoria (V), South Australia (S), and Tasmania (T), following phytogeographic boundaries defined by Ebach *et al.* (2015). For the SWA subtree, the subregions are the Geraldton Sandplains (G), Avon wheatbelt (A), Jarrah Forest (J), and Mallee (M), and (O) for other regions not part of the SWA or SEA. Fractions indicate the number of subregions that each taxon occupies. B, Continental-wide biogeographic reconstructions based on the DIVALIKE model. C, D, Biogeographic reconstructions for SWA and SEA subclades based on the DEC + J model.

comprises mostly SWA endemic lineages, but also includes a smaller SEA clade and multiple nested arid-zone taxa.

Up to three separate east-west vicariance events were inferred in *Cryptandra* at different time periods. Both SWA and SEA were important biogeographic links (vicariant) and source areas of dispersal to the arid Eremaean centre. In particular, dispersals or biome transitions into the arid zone occurred since the late Miocene (e.g. *C. imbricata* Rye, *C. connata* C.A.Gardner from SEA, *C.* sp. Mukinbudin (*J.A. Wege 2034*) Kellermann, *C. distigma* Rye, *C. spyridioides* F.Muell., *C. pungens* Steudel, *C. minutifolia* from SWA; Fig. 3).

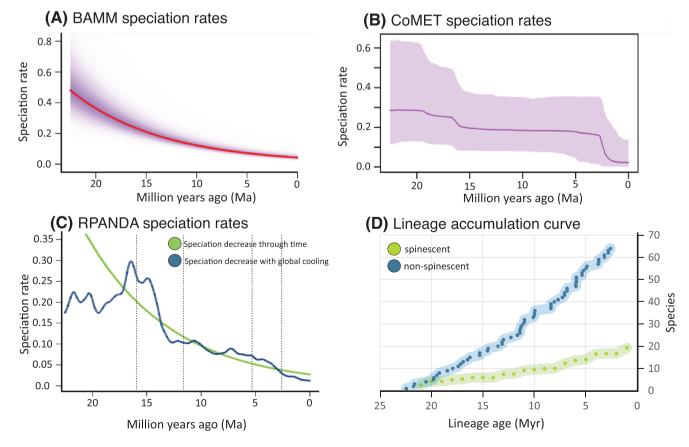
## Speciation decline in Cryptandra towards the present

A substantial negative shift in speciation rates for *Cryptandra* was detected across three diversification models (BAMM, CoMET, RPANDA) in this study (Fig. 4). This slowdown and shift in speciation rate was significant at *c*. 2.5 Myr based on our CoMET analyses (Bayes Factors > 6), across all tested survival probability regimes and sampling fractions (Fig. 4, Supporting Information, Fig. S2). This decrease in speciation rate was predominantly driven by the SWA clade (see Bayes Factor support in the Supporting Information, Fig. S2d, e). Similarly, the speciation-through-time plot from BAMM also showed a strong decreasing trend towards the present for *Cryptandra* (Fig. 4). No significant diversification rate shift across *Cryptandra* was detected from BAMM (Supporting Information, Fig. S3),

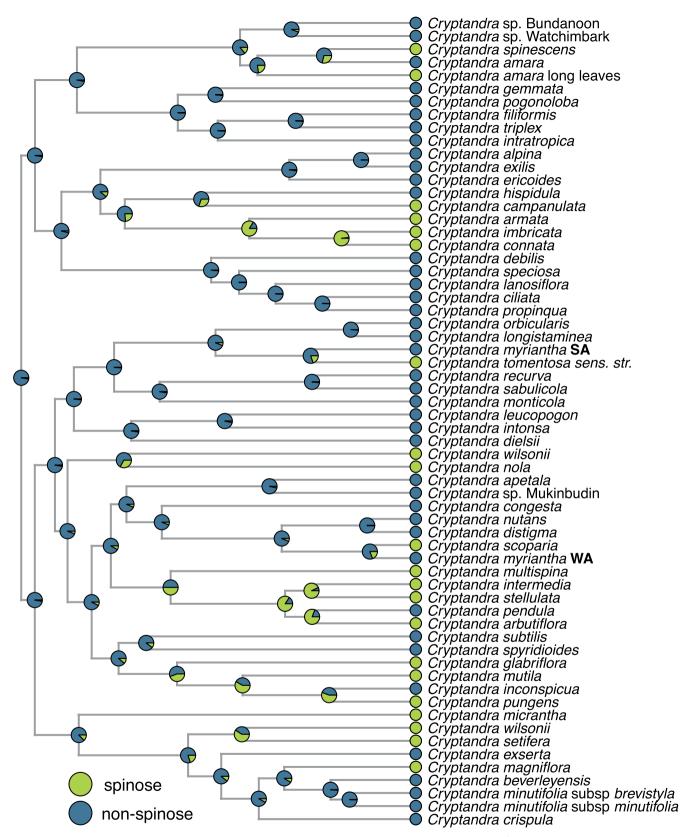
and no mass-extinction events were detected across the evolutionary history of *Cryptandra* from our CoMET analyses (Supporting Information, Fig. S3). Both time-dependent and temperature-dependent diversification models (without extinction, models 3 and 7; Supporting Information, Table S2) were the best models based on the lowest AICc scores from our RPANDA analysis (Supporting Information, Table S6). In both cases, the speciation rate of *Cryptandra* also showed a decline towards the present, similar to our findings from BAMM and CoMET (Fig. 4).

# Diversification of spinose lineages in Cryptandra

Non-spinose was the inferred ancestral character state for *Cryptandra* (Fig. 5). Lineages exhibiting spinose branchlets arose independently at least eight times in *Cryptandra* (Fig. 5). There were no significant differences between the speciation rates of spinose and non-spinose *Cryptandra* lineages based on STRAPP (P = 1; Supporting Information, Table S7) as no significant diversification rate heterogeneity was recovered from our BAMM analyses. Phylogenetic clustering was also noted for spinescent clades as the *D* statistic tests recovered a significant deviation from no phylogenetic signal (i.e. random structure, Supporting Information, Table S8). The lineage accumulation curves indicate that spinescent species accumulate at a slower constant rate than non-spinescent lineages through time (Fig. 4D).



**Figure 4.** Diversification of *Cryptandra* in Australia through time, with declining speciation rates shown in: A, BAMM; B, CoMET; and C, RPANDA analyses. D, Lineage accumulation curves for spinescent and non-spinescent lineages through time. The CoMET analysis was based on an extinction survival probability of 20%.



**Figure 5.** Ancestral state character mapping onto the BEAST topology of *Cryptandra*, for spinescent trait (blue 0–non-spinose, green 1– spinose). Ancestral character estimations were conducted with the equal rates (ER) model using empirical Bayesian posterior probabilities via the *'lik.anc'* function from phytools (Revell 2012) in R.

#### DISCUSSION

#### Biogeographic history of Cryptandra

We present here the most comprehensive dated molecular phylogeny of *Cryptandra* to date. Our divergence dating analyses recovered older age estimates for *Cryptandra* than previous studies (Onstein *et al.* 2015, Hauenschild *et al.* 2018), possibly due to a more extensive taxon and genetic sampling, which is known to result in older and probably more accurate age estimates (Linder *et al.* 2005, Poux *et al.* 2008). Nevertheless, our divergence-time results overlap with those obtained in previous studies (Onstein *et al.* 2015, Hauenschild *et al.* 2016). We estimate that the initial crown radiation of *Cryptandra* occurred in the early Miocene (*c.* 22.4 Mya) across the Australian continent. *Cryptandra* clades diverged initially into different geographic regions followed by subsequent *in situ* diversification and little floristic exchange apart from dispersing into the arid interior from the late Miocene onwards.

The widespread ancestral area of Cryptandra inferred from this study supports the Peripheral Vicariance Hypothesis (Nge et al. 2022), with vicariance of mesic clades towards the more mesic periphery as the arid centre expanded since the Miocene. Vicariance of mesic lineages across Australia has also been shown by biogeographic studies using different methodological approaches on other plant groups such as Pomaderreae (Rhamnaceae), Calytrix Labill. (Myrtaceae), and Eucalyptus L'Hér. (Myrtaceae) (Ladiges et al. 2005, 2010, Nge et al. 2021b, 2022, Clowes et al. 2022), and is surmised to have also occurred in other plant groups based on their present-day distributions (see Nge et al. 2022). These vicariance events could have been driven by a number of processes including gradual aridification of the continent since the Oligocene, repeated inundation of the southern Eucla Basin in the Eocene and Miocene, and uplift of the Nullarbor Plain *c*. 13–14 Myr (Dettmann *et al.* 1992). Crisp and Cook (2007) showed that multiple east-west vicariance events in multiple plant groups clustered around the uplift of the calcareous Nullarbor Plain (c. 13-14 Mya), which presents a barrier for floristic exchange of calcifuge plants. The vicariance event at the crown node of Cryptandra predates this event (22.4 Myr, 95% CI: 19.9-25.8 Myr), hence ruling out the Nullarbor as the cause of vicariance for the oldest vicariance event in Cryptandra and favours the peripheral vicariance scenario. However, a younger vicariance event of *C. crispula*-*C*. setifera clade within Clade A coincides with the Nullarbor uplift event, and hence it is plausible that this event resulted in the vicariance of this clade as most Cryptandra species do not grow on limestone substrates.

The sister relationship between the northern Australian (AMT, Clade D) and SEA clades in *Cryptandra* is not unique, as a similar relationship has been noted in other plant groups (e.g. Cardillo *et al.* 2017, Jobson *et al.* 2017, Nargar *et al.* 2019, Nge *et al.* 2022). These studies, along with fewer examples of SWA–northern Australian floristic links (Burbidge 1960), reinforce greater connectivity of SEA with a continuous band of mesic vegetation through to northern Australia. Conversely, the SWA flora experienced a greater degree of isolation throughout its evolutionary history (Burbidge 1960, Hopper 1979). The radiation of the northern Australian *Cryptandra* clade in the mid-Miocene (*c.* 14 Mya) postdates the formation of the monsoonal

climate in that region around the late Eocene (Bowman 2002), as with other plant lineages mentioned previously.

We identified two recent independent dispersals into Tasmania from the Australian mainland, both occurring within the last 5 million years. Only one of these lineages diversified into two species (*C. alpina*–*C. exilis*). *Cryptandra alpina* is the only species in the genus that grows in alpine environments (above 1000 m in elevation). The relatively recent divergence of this species (*c.* 3.2 Myr) in Tasmania indicates that the regional alpine flora not only comprises ancient paleo-endemics dating back to the Cretaceous (Jordan *et al.* 2016), but also recent additions to the flora following global cooling in the Pliocene. The diversification and assembly of the Australian alpine flora warrants further investigation.

Similarly, biogeographical links across the subregions of SWA warrant further study. While we found that the Geraldton Sandplains was estimated to be the ancestral area of the SWA subclade in Cryptandra, further detailed studies are required incorporating past environmental simulations to rule out methodological artefact, as the Geraldton Sandplains contains the highest number of endemic species within SWA for Cryptandra. The Geraldton Sandplains IBRA subregion consists of mainly kwongan heathland vegetation, which is well known for its high plant diversity within SWA: including species richness, endemism (Gioia and Hopper 2017), and threatened species (Gosper et al. 2022). Interestingly, several of these endemic Cryptandra species represent old lineages (C. nola Rye-16.7 Myr, C. multispina Rye—14 Myr, C. glabrifolia Rye—13.6 Myr), suggesting the Geraldton subregion could be an important long-term refugium for long-persisting lineages, as shown in a continental-wide angiosperm spatial phylogenetics study by Thornhill et al. (2016). Our definition of long-persisting lineages here refers to isolated, long-branching, species-poor lineages similar to those commonly referred to as 'relictual' species. However it is worth noting that extant species representing these lineages are neither necessarily old nor relictual (Grandcolas et al. 2014) hence we use the term 'long-persisting' instead. Being situated along the coast, the Geraldton subregion would be relatively more buffered from extreme climatic shifts compared to more inland regions (Nge et al. 2020), indicating higher plant species richness and endemism of near-coastal SWAFR subregions (e.g. Geraldton Sandplains and Esperance) may be partly explained by a more stable long-term climate (Harrison and Noss 2017, Cai et al. 2023). While Cryptandra species also occur in the southern Esperance sandplains subregion of SWA, none of these are strictly endemic to Esperance. By contrast, the Pomaderreae genus Siegfriedia C.A.Gardner, and Western Australian species of Pomaderris are largely endemic to the Esperance subregion of SWA. Thus competitive exclusion of Cryptandra from these incumbents may be a driver in preventing narrow endemics of Cryptandra from originating and persisting in that area, as has been shown for other groups across the globe more generally (Betancur-R et al. 2012, Condamine et al. 2019, Pavón-Vázquez et al. 2022).

For the SEA subregions, Victoria is the only subregion with no endemic *Cryptandra* species. This lack of endemics might be linked to a higher extinction rate for that subregion, as documented from the fossil record of a once hyperdiverse sclerophyllous flora in the Stony Creek Basin (Sniderman *et al.* 2013). A similar diversity pattern was noted for *Pomaderris* by Nge *et al.* (2021b), with five endemic Victorian species compared to 16 in the adjacent NSW subregion. Similar patterns are also seen for *Spyridium* with Victoria having the fewest endemic species (two spp.) compared to other eastern regions (SA 16 endemic spp., Tasmania four endemic spp., NSW three endemic spp.). Few transitions across SEA subregions were noted for *Cryptandra*, in stark contrast to *Pomaderris* (Nge *et al.* 2021b). The reasons for this are unknown. The confinement of lineages within subregions and failure to radiate after repeated transitions into the arid zone are probably why *Cryptandra* has experienced a speciation rate decline towards the present (i.e. failure to keep up with the changing climate of Australia).

# Progressive diversification decline in Cryptandra

All diversification models in this study point to a decline in speciation rates towards the present for Cryptandra. Congruence across these different models indicates a strong directional trend that is not an artefact of non-identifiability in diversification models (Louca and Pennell 2020, Kopperud et al. 2023). Similarly, we are confident that our results are not compromised by insufficient sampling as we sampled almost all extant species within Cryptandra and tested different sampling fractions in our models. This decline in speciation rate for *Cryptandra* is in contrast to the recent radiation (*c*. 10 Mya) in eastern Australia of the closely related genus Pomaderris (Rhamnaceae; Nge et al. 2021b). These different diversification trajectories may be related to their different habitat specializations, with Pomaderris predominantly occurring in wet sclerophyll Eucalyptus forests whereas Cryptandra species are more commonly found in open vegetation such as sclerophyllous shrublands (Walsh and Coates 1997, Walsh and Udovicic 1999, Kellermann and Udovicic 2007, Rye 2007, Kellermann 2020). Polyploid Pomaderris have been shown to transition into wetter sclerophyllous habitats in eastern Australia (i.e. novel niche space; Nge et al. unpublished). The crown radiation of Cryptandra is substantially older than Pomaderris, diversifying c. 22.4 Myr compared to a recent radiation of Pomaderris across SEA at c. 12 Myr (Nge et al. 2021b). The radiation of Pomaderris in the late Miocene coincided with the rise in dominance of wet sclerophyll Eucalyptus forests in SEA, shown by the presence of high charcoal levels in the paleorecord indicative of high intensity fire regimes of these forests from the late Miocene onwards (Hill et al. 2016, Hill 2017). Recent radiations of extant Eucalyptus from 5 Myr as dominant components of the Australian vegetation were also suggested from the dated molecular phylogeny of Thornhill et al. (2019). It may be plausible that *Pomaderris* diversified under the rise of Eucalyptus in Australia as a result of novel niche opportunities, at the expense of other floristic elements that were once dominant or associated with other vegetation types across the continent (e.g. Cryptandra that diversified before the dominance of Eucalyptus). This phenomenon is not unheard of, for example ferns have been shown to diversify under the rise of angiosperms (Schneider et al. 2004), which pushed for the decline of a once conifer-dominated flora (Condamine et al. 2020). Whether habitat specializations are linked to co-diversification/competitive decline across Pomaderreae genera requires further research and explicit analysis.

The decrease in speciation rates for *Cryptandra* appears to be linked to different climatic events throughout its evolutionary history. Our RPANDA results indicate a decline in speciation at c. 14 Mya, which coincides with a sharp drop in global temperature and commencement of aridification in Australia following the end of the Mid-Miocene Climatic Optimum. This speciation decline after the Mid-Miocene Climatic Optimum is also evident in our CoMET analyses, albeit to a lesser degree. Following this event, our CoMET and RPANDA temperaturedependant models indicate another speciation decline at c. 3-4 Mya, when aridification of Australia further intensified after the Pliocene (Fujioka et al. 2005, 2009, Byrne et al. 2008). These findings strongly suggest that diversification of Cryptandra has been negatively affected by progressive aridification in Australia. The absence of mass-extinction events for Cryptandra based on our CoMET analyses suggests that the speciation decline has been gradual, which fits with the known scenario of gradual aridification of the continent. This negative diversification trend for Cryptandra can also be seen in our dated phylogeny, where isolated long-persisting species-poor lineages in the arid zone (e.g. C. monticola, C. sp. Mukinbudin, C. crispula) have either failed to diversify or represent lineages that have suffered extinction leaving only one remaining species in their respective lineages. Cryptandra monticola is endemic to the Pilbara, and diverged from other Cryptandra at 15 Mya. The Pilbara region is a well-known refugium in the arid zone, contains a mosaic of semi-arid to arid vegetation types and is topographically heterogeneous (Pepper et al. 2013, Umbrello et al. 2020). This pattern of long-persisting lineages in the arid zone is also seen in other Australian plant groups such as *Calytrix* (Nge et al. 2022), which also shows speciation decline towards the present (Nge et al. unpublished). Our findings based on molecular phylogenies of extant lineages indicate that at least some sclerophyllous Australian plant groups have experienced a decline in diversification towards the present due to widespread aridification across the continent (Byrne et al. 2011), reinforcing findings based on the paleorecord (Sniderman et al. 2013). The decline in temperate lineages and their associated mesic biomes opened new niches for the diversification of arid-adapted groups (Cabrera et al. 2011, Echeverría-Londoño et al. 2020, Renner et al. 2020, Hammer et al. 2021, Calasan et al. 2022). Crayn et al. (2006) showed that the former Tremandraceae clade (now in Elaeocarpaceae) radiated across temperate Australia during the late Miocene, coinciding with widespread aridification. However, more sampling is required to test whether that clade also suffered a speciation decline towards the present, as they have only sampled nine out of 50+ species (18%) in that clade. Further studies on densely sampled phylogenies of sclerophyllous lineages are required to test whether recent speciation decline is a general phenomenon of the wider Australian sclerophyllous flora.

The initial crown radiation of *Cryptandra* occurred in both SWA and SEA, with a more extensive radiation in SWA (seen by the number of nodes, Fig. 3). These radiations postdate the Eocene–Oligocene extinction event across the Australian flora (Nge *et al.* 2020), hence drivers for this discrepancy in diversification across regions require another explanation. It has been argued that SWA experienced low levels of relative extinction throughout its history, from the Eocene through to the present (Hopper 2009, Sniderman *et al.* 2013, Nge *et al.* 2020).

Indeed, SWA has a greater number of long-persisting speciespoor lineages (nine: C. congesta Rye, C. subtilis Rye & Hislop, C. spyridioides, C. micrantha Rye, C. exserta Rye, C. glabriflora, C. nola, C. wilsonii Rye, C. dielsii Rye) ranging from 11–19 Myr old, compared with SEA that has only two of these lineages that are of younger age (12 Myr old: C. campanulata and C. hispidula). The generally low diversification rate in SWA for Cryptandra adds to the growing body of evidence that the SWA flora is the result of a steady accumulation of species rather than elevated rates of speciation that are commonly seen in other biodiverse regions (e.g. Givnish et al. 2009, Verboom et al. 2009, Madriñán et al. 2013, Vasconcelos et al. 2020, Kandziora et al. 2022). For example, at least five speciation events resulting in nine new species of Cryptandra occurred in the last 5 Myr in SWA. In contrast, genera in other biodiverse regions such as the Neotropics, Andes, Mediterranean Basin, and Succulent Karoo diversified into hundreds of species each within the same 5 Myr timeframe (Richardson et al. 2001, Klak et al. 2004, Valente et al. 2010, Lagomarsino et al. 2016).

# Multiple origins of spinescence in Cryptandra

Eight independent origins of branch spinescence in Cryptandra suggest that this trait has been regularly selected in the evolution of this genus. Spines as herbivory defence to browsers (e.g. marsupials) has been demonstrated for Solanum species in arid Australia (Symon 1986). However, the origins and diversification of several of these spinescent clades in Cryptandra (e.g. C. multispina, C. micrantha) pre-date the origins of extant marsupial browsers in Australia (post-10 Myr; Celik et al. 2019). Thus, spinescence may have arisen in these lineages in response to non-marsupial (e.g. emu, which diverged at 30 Mya; Haddrath and Baker 2012) or extinct browsers (Meredith et al. 2009). The extinction of megafauna or other smaller browsers may explain why we did not detect significant differences in diversification rates between present-day spinescent and non-spinescent Cryptandra lineages, as the older spinescent clades may be legacies of selection from the past (Onstein et al. 2018, Dantas and Pausas 2022). Indeed, reversals from spinescence to secondary non-spinescence is inferred in several species such as C. inconspicua Rye, C. pendula Rye, and within C. amara, supporting this hypothesis (as we would not expect these lineages to revert if there is ongoing strong selection pressure for spininess). Several species-poor spinescent lineages of Cryptandra are currently found in arid to semi-arid regions of Australia and are longpersisting (> 7 Myr: C. micrantha, C. multispina, C. wilsonii-C. nola, C. magniflora). Having spinescent traits may allow these lineages to persist longer (i.e. have lower extinction rates) than other species in these harsh environments, but nevertheless insufficient to allow for further diversification (i.e. they still have lower speciation rates compared to non-spinescent lineages in more mesic environments, Fig. 4D). Onstein et al. (2022) detected speciation rate slowdowns of spinescent palms following the extinction of megaherbivores during the Cretaceous-Paleogene mass-extinction event. A similar trend was detected in this study for the entire Cryptandra genus, although not just limited to spinescent lineages.

Orians and Milewski (2007) suggested that plants with spinescent stems like *Cryptandra* are found primarily on

phosphorus-rich soils where browser densities are greatest. However, spinescent Cryptandra lineages occur primarily in SWA and semi-arid areas that are phosphorus-poor (Rossel and Bui 2016). Our findings are similar to Cowling and Witkowski (1994), indicating that ecological determinants (soil nutrients) and evolutionary selection over longer timescales for spinescence may be uncoupled. Gelin et al. (2023) indicated spinescent plant lineages in Australia arose (from 10 Myr) and diversified (from 5 Myr) relatively recently compared to other continents and this recent diversification was correlated strongly with climatic changes (i.e. aridification). Spinescence is uncommon in the Australian flora compared to other continents/ regions (at 3.8% compared to the global average of 9%, across eucidots; Gelin et al. 2023), which is surprising as spinescent plants are generally more common in open and arid/seasonally dry environments (Charles-Dominique et al. 2016, Dantas and Pausas 2022). Similarly, the Australian flora is relatively depauperate of succulents compared to other arid to semi-arid regions (Holtum et al. 2016). Further studies incorporating a comparative phylogenetic approach with multiple plant groups from Australia and beyond are required to explain this discrepancy.

#### Conclusion

Here we present the first comprehensive phylogeny of Cryptandra, which allowed us to infer the biogeographic and evolutionary history of this Australian genus. Our study indicates that Cryptandra once had a widespread ancestral southern Australian distribution, with subsequent vicariant events separating the mesic clades across the continent. Most species later diversified in situ within biomes, with little floristic exchange between regions except into the arid zone. We show that lineages in the arid zone either failed to diversify or diversified and subsequently declined, resulting in long-persisting lineages there. Furthermore, diversification models from this study all show a decline in speciation rate for this genus towards the present, with negative shifts in speciation rates during the Miocene (15 Mya) and Pliocene (5 Mya). These declines coincide with progressive aridification and retreat of mesic biomes across Australia, indicating that diversification of Cryptandra has been negatively affected by recent aridification events in evolutionary time. Further studies applying densely sampled molecular phylogenies are needed to investigate whether a recent decline in speciation in response to aridification is a general pattern in the Australian sclerophyllous flora. Spinescent Cryptandra lineages did not have higher diversification rates compared with nonspinescent counterparts. Furthermore, they also suffered from the same speciation rate decline, suggesting spinescent traits may have been selected for in the past by extinct megaherbivores but not the present. The densely sampled phylogeny presented in this study also provides a framework for further research on the evolution, ecology, and systematics of Cryptandra, and can be combined with other studies to infer common evolutionary patterns in the Australian flora more broadly.

### SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data is available at *Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society* online.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank the curatorial staff at various herbaria (AD, BRI, CANB, HO, MEL, NSW, PERTH) for facilitating specimen loans and DNA sampling for this study. We also thank Bill and Kerry Campbell, Tim Hammer, Allan and Jan Zerna, as well as Llywela Williams and family for assistance in fieldwork; some material was collected during a Bush Blitz expedition to Hiltaba Nature Reserve. We thank Andrew Thornhill for producing the distribution map of Crytandra. F.J.N. was supported by an Australian Government Research Training Program (RTP) scholarship. Funding for this project was supported by the South Australian Department of Environment, Water and Natural Resources (D0004335204). J.K. is the Principal Investigator of the project 'A new phylogeny of the Australian Rhamnaceae, revision of Cryptandra and Spyridium, and completion of the Flora of Australia treatment of the family', supported through funding from the Australian Government's Australian Biological Resources Study National Taxonomy Research Grant Programme (RG18-25). We acknowledge the ISO 9001 certified IRD i-Trop HPC (South Green Platform) at IRD Montpellier for providing HPC resources that have contributed to the BEAST dating results reported within this paper. We would also like to thank Fabien Condamine for hosting an RPANDA workshop and providing scripts used in this study. We would like to thank three anonymous reviewers and the Associate Editor, Hassan Rankou, for their comments and helpful suggestions that improved the paper.

# AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

F.J.N. and J.K. designed the study. F.J.N., J.K., and K.R.T collected the data. F.J.N. compiled and analysed the data. F.J.N. wrote the manuscript with contributions from J.K., E.B., K.R.T. and M.W.

# DATA AVAILABILITY

Newly sequenced paired reads from this study have been uploaded to the sequence read archive (SRA) at NCBI (BioProject PRJNA887684, submission number: SUB12122847).

#### REFERENCES

- Abadi S, Azouri D, Pupko T et al. Model selection may not be a mandatory step for phylogeny reconstruction. Nature Communications 2019;10:1–11.
- Akaike H. A new look at the statistical model identification. IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control 1974;19:716–23.
- Barker B. Standardising informal names in Australian publications. Australian Systematic Botany Society Newsletter 2005;122:11–2.
- Betancur-R R, Ortí G, Stein AM *et al*. Apparent signal of competition limiting diversification after ecological transitions from marine to freshwater habitats. *Ecology Letters* 2012;**15**:822–30.
- Bouckaert R, Heled J, Kühnert D et al. BEAST 2: a software platform for Bayesian evolutionary analysis. PLoS Computational Biology 2014;10:e1003537.
- Bowman D. The Australian summer monsoon: a biogeographic perspective. Australian Geographical Studies 2002;40:261-77.
- Burbidge N. The phytogeography of the Australian region. Australian Journal of Botany 1960;8:75–211.
- Burns K. Are there general patterns in plant defence against megaherbivores? *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 2014;111:38–48.
- Burns K. Spinescence in the New Zealand flora: parallels with Australia. New Zealand Journal of Botany 2016;54:273–89.
- Byrne M, Steane DA, Joseph L *et al*. Decline of a biome: evolution, contraction, fragmentation, extinction and invasion of the Australian mesic zone biota. *Journal of Biogeography* 2011;**38**:1635–56.

- Byrne M, Yeates DK, Joseph L *et al.* Birth of a biome: insights into the assembly and maintenance of the Australian arid zone biota. *Molecular Ecology* 2008;**17**:4398–417.
- Cabrera J, Jacobs SW, Kadereit G. Biogeography of Camphorosmeae (Chenopodiaceae): tracking the Tertiary history of Australian aridification. *Telopea* 2011;**13**:313–26.
- Cai L, Kreft H, Taylor A et al. Climatic stability and geological history shape global centers of neo-and paleoendemism in seed plants. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2023;120:e2300981120.
- Čalasan AZ, Hammen S, Sukhorukov A et al. From continental Asia into the world: global historical biogeography of the saltbush genus Atriplex (Chenopodieae, Chenopodioideae, Amaranthaceae). Perspectives in Plant Ecology, Evolution and Systematics 2022;54:125660.
- Cardillo M, Pratt R. Evolution of a hotspot genus: geographic variation in speciation and extinction rates in *Banksia* (Proteaceae). *BMC Evolutionary Biology* 2013;**13**:155–2148.
- Cardillo M, Weston PH, Reynolds ZK *et al.* The phylogeny and biogeography of *Hakea* (Proteaceae) reveals the role of biome shifts in a continental plant radiation. *Evolution* 2017;71:1928–43.
- Celik M, Cascini M, Haouchar D *et al.* A molecular and morphometric assessment of the systematics of the *Macropus* complex clarifies the tempo and mode of kangaroo evolution. *Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society* 2019;**186**:793–812.
- Charles-Dominique T, Davies TJ, Hempson GP et al. Spiny plants, mammal browsers, and the origin of African savannas. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2016;113:E5572–9.
- Clowes C, Fowler RM, Fahey PS *et al.* Big trees of small baskets: phylogeny of the Australian genus *Spyridium* (Rhamnaceae: Pomaderreae), focusing on biogeographic patterns and species circumscriptions. *Australian Systematic Botany* 2022;**35**:95–119.
- Condamine FL, Rolland J, Morlon H. Macroevolutionary perspectives to environmental change. *Ecology Letters* 2013;**16**:72–85.
- Condamine FL, Romieu J, Guinot G. Climate cooling and clade competition likely drove the decline of lamniform sharks. *Proceedings* of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2019;**116**:20584–90.
- Condamine FL, Silvestro D, Koppelhus EB et al. The rise of angiosperms pushed conifers to decline during global cooling. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2020;117:202005571.
- Cook LG, Hardy NB, Crisp MD. Three explanations for biodiversity hotspots: small range size, geographical overlap and time for species accumulation. An Australian case study. *New Phytologist* 2015;207:390–400.
- Cowling R, Witkowski E. Convergence and non-convergence of plant traits in climatically and edaphically matched sites in Mediterranean Australia and South Africa. *Australian Journal of Ecology* 1994;19:220–32.
- Crayn DM, Rossetto M, Maynard DJ. Molecular phylogeny and dating reveals an Oligo-Miocene radiation of dry-adapted shrubs (former Tremandraceae) from rainforest tree progenitors (Elaeocarpaceae) in Australia. *American Journal of Botany* 2006;**93**:1328–42.
- Crisp MD, Cook L, Steane D. Radiation of the Australian flora: what can comparisons of molecular phylogenies across multiple taxa tell us about the evolution of diversity in present-day communities? *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London B* 2004;**359**:1551-71.
- Crisp MD, Cook LG. A congruent molecular signature of vicariance across multiple plant lineages. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 2007;43:1106–17.
- Crisp MD, Cook LG. How was the Australian flora assembled over the last 65 million years? A molecular phylogenetic perspective. Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 2013;44:303-24.
- Culshaw V, Stadler T, Sanmartín I. Exploring the power of Bayesian birth-death skyline models to detect mass extinction events from phylogenies with only extant taxa. *Evolution* 2019;**73**:1133–50.

- Cusimano N, Renner SS. Slowdowns in diversification rates from real phylogenies may not be real. *Systematic Biology* 2010;**59**:458–64.
- Dantas VL, Pausas JG. The legacy of the extinct Neotropical megafauna on plants and biomes. *Nature Communications* 2022;**13**:129.
- Dettmann M, Molnar R, Douglas J *et al*. Australian Cretaceous terrestrial faunas and floras: biostratigraphic and biogeographic implications. *Cretaceous Research* 1992;**13**:207–62.
- Ebach MC, González-Orozco CE, Miller JT *et al*. A revised area taxonomy of phytogeographical regions within the Australian Bioregionalisation Atlas. *Phytotaxa* 2015;**208**:261–77.
- Echeverría-Londoño S, Särkinen T, Fenton IS *et al.* Dynamism and context-dependency in diversification of the megadiverse plant genus *Solanum* (Solanaceae). *Journal of Systematics and Evolution* 2020;**58**:767–82.
- Edgar RC. MUSCLE: multiple sequence alignment with high accuracy and high throughput. *Nucleic Acids Research* 2004;**32**:1792–7.
- Foster NR, Van Dijk K-j, Biffin E *et al.* A multi-gene region targeted capture approach to detect plant DNA in environmental samples: A case study from coastal environments. *Frontiers in Ecology and Evolution* 2021;**9**:726.
- Fritz SA, Purvis A. Selectivity in mammalian extinction risk and threat types: a new measure of phylogenetic signal strength in binary traits. *Conservation Biology* 2010;**24**:1042–51.
- Fujioka T, Chappell J, Fifield LK et al. Australian desert dune fields initiated with Pliocene–Pleistocene global climatic shift. Geology 2009;37:51–4.
- Fujioka T, Chappell J, Honda M *et al.* Global cooling initiated stony deserts in central Australia 2–4 Ma, dated by cosmogenic 21Ne-10Be. *Geology* 2005;**33**:993–6.
- Gelin U, Charles-Dominique T, Davies TJ *et al.* The evolutionary history of spines: a Cenozoic arms race with mammals. *bioRxiv* 2023:1–46. https://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/2023.02.09.527903v1, preprint: not peer reviewed.
- Gioia P, Hopper SD. A new phytogeographic map for the Southwest Australian Floristic Region after an exceptional decade of collection and discovery. *Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society* 2017;**184**:1–15.
- Givnish TJ, Millam KC, Mast AR et al. Origin, adaptive radiation and diversification of the Hawaiian lobeliads (Asterales: Campanulaceae). Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences 2009;276:407–16.
- Gosper CR, Percy-Bower JM, Byrne M *et al.* Distribution, biogeography and characteristics of the threatened and data-deficient flora in the southwest Australian floristic region. *Diversity* 2022;14:493.
- Grandcolas P, Nattier R, Trewick S. Relict species: a relict concept? Trends in Ecology & Evolution 2014;29:655–63.
- Haddrath O, Baker AJ. Multiple nuclear genes and retroposons support vicariance and dispersal of the palaeognaths, and an Early Cretaceous origin of modern birds. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 2012;**279**:4617–25.
- Hammer TA, Renton M, Mucina L *et al*. Arid Australia as a source of plant diversity: the origin and climatic evolution of *Ptilotus* (Amaranthaceae). *Australian Systematic Botany* 2021;**34**:570–86.
- Harrison S, Noss R. Endemism hotspots are linked to stable climatic refugia. Annals of Botany 2017;119:207–14.
- Hauenschild F, Favre A, Michalak I *et al*. The influence of the Gondwanan breakup on the biogeographic history of the ziziphoids (Rhamnaceae). *Journal of Biogeography* 2018;**45**:2669–77.
- Hauenschild F, Matuszak S, Muellner-Riehl AN et al. Phylogenetic relationships within the cosmopolitan buckthorn family (Rhamnaceae) support the resurrection of Sarcomphalus and the description of Pseudoziziphus gen. nov. Taxon 2016;65:47–64.
- Hill RS. History of the Australian vegetation: Cretaceous to Recent. Adelaide, Australia: University of Adelaide Press. 2017.
- Hill RS, Beer YK, Hill KE *et al.* Evolution of the eucalypts–an interpretation from the macrofossil record. *Australian Journal of Botany* 2016;64:600–8.
- Höhna S, May MR, Moore BR. TESS: an R package for efficiently simulating phylogenetic trees and performing Bayesian inference of lineage diversification rates. *Bioinformatics* 2016;**32**:789–91.

- Holtum JA, Hancock LP, Edwards EJ et al. Australia lacks stem succulents but is it depauperate in plants with crassulacean acid metabolism (CAM)? Current Opinion in Plant Biology 2016;31:109–17.
- Hopper SD. Biogeographical aspects of speciation in the southwest Australian flora. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics 1979;10:399-422.
- Hopper SD. OCBIL theory: towards an integrated understanding of the evolution, ecology and conservation of biodiversity on old, climatically buffered, infertile landscapes. *Plant and Soil* 2009;**322**:49–86.
- Jobson RW, Baleeiro PC, Reut MS. Molecular phylogeny of subgenus Polypompholyx (Utricularia; Lentibulariaceae) based on three plastid markers: diversification and proposal for a new section. Australian Systematic Botany 2017;30:259–78.
- Jordan GJ, Harrison PA, Worth JR *et al.* Palaeoendemic plants provide evidence for persistence of open, well-watered vegetation since the Cretaceous. *Global Ecology and Biogeography* 2016;**25**:127-40.
- Kandziora M, Gehrke B, Popp M et al. The enigmatic tropical alpine flora on the African sky islands is young, disturbed, and unsaturated. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2022;119:e2112737119.
- Kearse M, Moir R, Wilson A *et al*. Geneious Basic: an integrated and extendable desktop software platform for the organization and analysis of sequence data. *Bioinformatics* 2012;28:1647–9.
- Kellermann J. Cryptandra triplex KR Thiele ex Kellermann, a new species of Rhamnaceae (Pomaderreae) from Arnhem Land, Northern Territory. Austrobaileya 2006;7:299–303.
- Kellermann J. Three species of *Cryptandra* (Rhamnaceae: Pomaderreae) from southern Australia allied to *C. tomentosa. Swainsona* 2020;**33**:125–34.
- Kellermann J, Udovicic F. A Revision of the Cryptandra propinqua complex (Rhamnaceae: Pomaderreae). Proceedings of the Linnean Society of New South Wales 2007;128:81–98.
- Kellermann J, Udovicic F, Ladiges PY. Phylogenetic analysis and generic limits of the tribe Pomaderreae (Rhamnaceae) using internal transcribed spacer DNA sequences. *Taxon* 2005;54:619–31.
- Klak C, Reeves G, Hedderson T. Unmatched tempo of evolution in Southern African semi-desert ice plants. Nature 2004;427:63-5.
- Kopperud BT, Magee AF, Höhna S. Rapidly changing speciation and extinction rates can be inferred in spite of nonidentifiability. *Proceedings* of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2023;**120**:e2208851120.
- Ladiges PY, Bayly MJ, Nelson GJ. East-west continental vicariance in *Eucalyptus* subgenus *Eucalyptus*. In: Williams DM and Knapp S, eds. *Beyond Cladistics: The Branching of a Paradigm*. Berkeley, California, USA: University of California Press, 2010, 267–302.
- Ladiges PY, Kellermann J, Nelson G et al. Historical biogeography of Australian Rhamnaceae, tribe Pomaderreae. Journal of Biogeography 2005;32:1909–19.
- Lagomarsino LP, Condamine FL, Antonelli A *et al.* The abiotic and biotic drivers of rapid diversification in Andean bellflowers (Campanulaceae). *New Phytologist* 2016;**210**:1430–42.
- Landis MJ, Matzke NJ, Moore BR et al. Bayesian analysis of biogeography when the number of areas is large. Systematic Biology 2013;62:789–804.
- Linder HP, Hardy CR, Rutschmann F. Taxon sampling effects in molecular clock dating: an example from the African Restionaceae. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 2005;35:569–82.
- Louca S, Pennell MW. Extant timetrees are consistent with a myriad of diversification histories. *Nature* 2020;**580**:502–5.
- Macphail M. Australian Palaeoclimates: Cretaceous to Tertiary. A Review of Palaeobotanical and Related Evidence to the Year 2000. Bentley, Perth: CRC LEME. 2007.
- Madriñán S, Cortés AJ, Richardson JE. Páramo is the world's fastest evolving and coolest biodiversity hotspot. *Frontiers in Genetics* 2013;4:1–7.

- Matzke NJ. BioGeoBEARS: BioGeography with Bayesian (and likelihood) evolutionary analysis in R Scripts. *R package, version 0.2.1.* 2013.
- Maurin KJ, Smissen RD, Lusk CH. A dated phylogeny shows Plio-Pleistocene climates spurred evolution of antibrowsing defences in the New Zealand flora. *New Phytologist* 2022;**233**:546–54.
- May MR, Höhna S, Moore BR. A Bayesian approach for detecting the impact of mass-extinction events on molecular phylogenies when rates of lineage diversification may vary. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 2016;7:947–59.
- Medan D, Schirarend C. Rhamnaceae. In: Kubitzki K (ed.), *The Families* and Genera of Vascular Plants, Vol. 6. Berlin & Heidelberg: Springer, 2004, 320–38.
- Meredith RW, Westerman M, Springer MS. A phylogeny of Diprotodontia (Marsupialia) based on sequences for five nuclear genes. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 2009;**51**:554–71.
- Morlon H, Lewitus E, Condamine FL *et al.* RPANDA: an R package for macroevolutionary analyses on phylogenetic trees. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 2016;7:589–97.
- Nargar K, Molina S, Wagner N et al. Australasian orchid diversification in time and space: molecular phylogenetic insights from the beard orchids (*Calochilus*, Diurideae). Australian Systematic Botany 2019;**31**:389–408.
- Nge FJ, Biffin E, Thiele KR et al. Extinction pulse at Eocene–Oligocene boundary drives diversification dynamics of the two Australian temperate floras. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 2020;287:20192546.
- Nge FJ, Biffin E, Thiele KR *et al.* Reticulate evolution, ancient chloroplast haplotypes, and rapid radiation of the Australian plant genus *Adenanthos* (Proteaceae). *Frontiers in Ecology and Evolution* 2021a;**8**:616741.
- Nge FJ, Biffin E, Waycott M et al. Phylogenomics and continental biogeographic disjunctions: insight from the Australian starflowers (*Calytrix*). American Journal of Botany 2022;**109**:291–308.
- Nge FJ, Kellermann J, Biffin E *et al.* Historical biogeography of *Pomaderris* (Rhamnaceae): continental vicariance in Australia and repeated independent dispersals to New Zealand. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 2021b;**158**:107085.
- Onstein RE, Baker WJ, Couvreur TL *et al.* To adapt or go extinct? The fate of megafaunal palm fruits under past global change. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 2018;**285**:20180882.
- Onstein RE, Carter RJ, Xing Y *et al.* Do Mediterranean-type ecosystems have a common history?—insights from the buckthorn family (Rhamnaceae). *Evolution* 2015;**69**:756–71.
- Onstein RE, Kissling WD, Linder HP. The megaherbivore gap after the non-avian dinosaur extinctions modified trait evolution and diversification of tropical palms. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 2022;**289**:20212633.
- Orians GH, Milewski AV. Ecology of Australia: the effects of nutrientpoor soils and intense fires. *Biological Reviews* 2007;**82**:393–423.
- Orme D, Freckleton R, Thomas G et al. The caper package: comparative analysis of phylogenetics and evolution in R. *R package version 3.5.1* 2013.
- Pavón-Vázquez CJ, Brennan IG, Skeels A et al. Competition and geography underlie speciation and morphological evolution in Indo-Australasian monitor lizards. Evolution 2022;76:476–95.
- Pepper M, Doughty P, Keogh JS. Geodiversity and endemism in the iconic Australian Pilbara region: a review of landscape evolution and biotic response in an ancient refugium. *Journal of Biogeography* 2013;40:1225–39.
- Poux C, Madsen O, Glos J et al. Molecular phylogeny and divergence times of Malagasy tenrecs: influence of data partitioning and taxon sampling on dating analyses. BMC Evolutionary Biology 2008;8:102–16.
- R Core Team. *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria: 2016.
- Rabosky DL. Automatic detection of key innovations, rate shifts, and diversity-dependence on phylogenetic trees. *PLoS ONE* 2014;9:e89543.

- Rabosky DL, Grundler M, Anderson C *et al.* BAMM tools: an R package for the analysis of evolutionary dynamics on phylogenetic trees. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 2014;**5**:701–7.
- Rabosky DL, Huang H. A robust semi-parametric test for detecting traitdependent diversification. *Systematic Biology* 2015;**65**:181–93.
- Rambaut A. 2012. FigTree v1. 4. Available at http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/ software/figtree/.
- Rambaut A, Suchard MA, Xie D, Drummond AJ. Tracer v1. 6. 2014 MCMC Trace File Analyser. 2015. Available at http://beast.bio.ed.ac. uk/Tracer (accessed 28 November 2021).
- Ree RH, Smith SA. Maximum likelihood inference of geographic range evolution by dispersal, local extinction, and cladogenesis. *Systematic Biology* 2008;57:4–14.
- Renner MA, Foster CS, Miller JT et al. Increased diversification rates are coupled with higher rates of climate space exploration in Australian Acacia (Caesalpinioideae). New Phytologist 2020;226:609–22.
- Revell LJ. phytools: an R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other things). *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 2012;**3**:217–23.
- Richardson JE, Fay MF, Cronk QC, Bowman D, Chase MW. A phylogenetic analysis of Rhamnaceae using rbcL and trnL-F plastid DNA sequences. *American Journal of Botany* 2000;87:1309-24.
- Richardson JE, Pennington RT, Pennington TD *et al.* Rapid diversification of a species-rich genus of neotropical rain forest trees. *Science* 2001;**293**:2242–5.
- Ronquist F. Dispersal-vicariance analysis: a new approach to the quantification of historical biogeography. Systematic Biology 1997;46:195–203.
- Rossel RAV, Bui EN. A new detailed map of total phosphorus stocks in Australian soil. *Science of the Total Environment* 2016;**542**:1040-9.
- Rye B. New species and keys for *Cryptandra* and *Stenanthemum* (Rhamnaceae) in Western Australia. *Nuytsia* 2007;**16**:325–82.
- Sauquet H, Ho SY, Gandolfo MA *et al*. Testing the impact of calibration on molecular divergence times using a fossil-rich group: the case of *Nothofagus* (Fagales). *Systematic Biology* 2012;**61**:289–313.
- Schneider H, Schuettpelz E, Pryer KM et al. Ferns diversified in the shadow of angiosperms. Nature 2004;428:553-7.
- Simpson J, Conran JG, Biffin E et al. The Crinum flaccidum (Amaryllidaceae) species complex in Australia. Australian Systematic Botany 2022;35:395–402.
- Sniderman JK, Jordan GJ, Cowling RM. Fossil evidence for a hyperdiverse sclerophyll flora under a non–Mediterranean-type climate. *Proceedings* of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2013;110:3423–8.
- Symon D. A survey of Solanum prickles and marsupial herbivory in Australia. Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden 1986;73:745-54.
- Thornhill AH, Crisp MD, Külheim C *et al.* A dated molecular perspective of eucalypt taxonomy, evolution and diversification. *Australian Systematic Botany* 2019;**32**:29–48.
- Thornhill AH, Mishler BD, Knerr NJ *et al.* Continental-scale spatial phylogenetics of Australian angiosperms provides insights into ecology, evolution and conservation. *Journal of Biogeography* 2016;**43**:2085–98.
- Umbrello LS, Didham RK, How RA *et al.* Multi-species phylogeography of arid-zone Sminthopsinae (Marsupialia: Dasyuridae) reveals evidence of refugia and population expansion in response to Quaternary change. *Genes* 2020;**11**:963.
- Valente LM, Savolainen V, Vargas P. Unparalleled rates of species diversification in Europe. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences 2010;277:1489–96.
- Vasconcelos TN, Alcantara S, Andrino CO *et al*. Fast diversification through a mosaic of evolutionary histories characterizes the endemic flora of ancient Neotropical mountains. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences* 2020;**287**:20192933.

- Verboom GA, Archibald JK, Bakker FT et al. Origin and diversification of the Greater Cape flora: ancient species repository, hot-bed of recent radiation, or both? *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 2009;51:44–53.
- Walsh N, Coates F. New taxa, new combinations and an infrageneric classification in *Pomaderris* (Rhamnaceae). *Muelleria* 1997;10:27–56.
- Walsh N, Udovicic F. Rhamnaceae. In: Walsh NG, Entwisle TJ (Eds) Flora of Victoria. Port Melbourne: Inkata Press, 1999;4:82–120.
- Waycott M, van Dijk K-j, Biffin E. A hybrid capture RNA bait set for resolving genetic and evolutionary relationships in angiosperms

from deep phylogeny to intraspecific lineage hybridization. *BioRxiv* 2021:1–10. https://www.biorxiv.org/content/10.1101/2021.09.06. 456727v1, preprint: not peer reviewed.

- Weber MG, Agrawal AA. Defense mutualisms enhance plant diversification. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2014;111:16442–7.
- Zhang X, Gélin U, Spicer RA et al. Rapid Eocene diversification of spiny plants in subtropical woodlands of central Tibet. Nature Communications 2022;13:3787.