



Island hopping, long-distance dispersal and species radiation in the Western Indian Ocean: historical biogeography of the Coffeeae alliance (Rubiaceae)

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ABSTRACT

Aim The Western Indian Ocean region (WIOR) is home to a very diverse and largely unique flora that has mainly originated via long-distance dispersals. The aim of this study is to gain insight into the origins of the WIOR biodiversity and to understand the dynamics of colonization events between the islands. We investigate spatial and temporal hypotheses of the routes of dispersal, and compare the dispersal patterns of plants of the Coffeeae alliance (Rubiaceae) and their dispersers. Rubiaceae is the second most species-rich plant family in Madagascar, and includes many endemic genera. The neighbouring archipelagos of the Comoros, Mascarenes and Seychelles also harbour several endemic Rubiaceae.

Location The islands of the Western Indian Ocean.

Methods Phylogenetic relationships and divergence times were reconstructed from plastid DNA data of an ingroup sample of 340 species, using Bayesian inference. Ancestral areas and range evolution history were inferred by a maximum likelihood method that takes topological uncertainty into account.

Results At least 15 arrivals to Madagascar were inferred, the majority of which have taken place within the last 10 Myr. Most dispersal events were supported as being from mainland Africa, but *Catunaregam* may have dispersed from Asia. Although most Coffeeae alliance lineages are zoochorous, the general pattern of dispersals from Africa is incongruent with the biogeographic origins of the extant Malagasy volant frugivores. Several out-of-Madagascar dispersals were inferred to the neighbouring islands, as well as back-colonizations of Africa.

Main conclusions The African flora has been of foremost importance as source of dispersal to the islands of the Western Indian Ocean. Following the colonization of Madagascar, rapid radiations appear to have taken place in some clades, and Madagascar has also been an important source area for subsequent dispersal to the Comoros, Mascarenes and Seychelles.

Keywords

angiosperm, Comoros, dispersal-extinction-cladogenesis, divergence times, island biogeography, long-distance dispersal, Madagascar, Mascarenes, molecular dating, Seychelles

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INTRODUCTION

The Western Indian Ocean region (WIOR) comprises Madagascar, the Comoros, Mascarenes and Seychelles and has been recognized as a hotspot of global biodiversity (Myers

et al., 2000). As such, it has become a hotspot for biogeographical studies detailing the origins of this diversity (e.g. Yoder & Nowak, 2006; Agnarsson & Kuntner, 2012; Samonds et al., 2013). Madagascar in particular has long been considered to have an extraordinary biodiversity —

while some otherwise widely distributed taxa are notably absent, other groups are very species rich (Simpson, 1940). Overall, the flora of Madagascar comprises more than 11,000 species of vascular plants, 82% of which are endemic (Callmander *et al.*, 2011).

The WIOR harbours both old continental islands and young volcanic islands with a wide variety of habitats, offering an ideal system for studies of biodiversity formation (Losos & Ricklefs, 2009; Vences et al., 2009). The continental islands were formed following the break-up of East Gondwana: Madagascar was isolated from the Indian subcontinent about 88 Ma, and drifted towards the equator alongside Africa (Storey, 1995; Storey et al., 1995; Wells, 2003), and the granitic Seychelles were subsequently separated from India about 64 Ma (Plummer & Belle, 1995; Collier et al., 2008). Volcanic activity in the region gave rise to the Mascarene islands, comprising Mauritius, Réunion and Rodrigues (8, 2 and 1.5 Ma respectively; McDougall et al., 1965; McDougall, 1971; Duncan, 1990). Older islands may have existed in the trail of the Réunion hotspot in the past, but have since been eroded and submerged (Gardner, 1986; Warren et al., 2010). The Comoros archipelago is also the result of recent volcanism, of which the oldest island is Mayotte, about 8 Ma (Nougier et al., 1986). In addition to the continental and volcanic islands, there are also small coralline islands, such as the Aldabra atoll (Seychelles).

Although it has long been recognized that the flora of Madagascar is affiliated with the African flora, biogeographic theories on the origin of the island's biodiversity have emphasized its Gondwanan heritage, as "a centre of survival for archaic autochthonous plants" (Koechlin, 1972; Leroy, 1978; p. 583). The historical proximity to the Indian subcontinent as well as extant phylogenetic connections between Madagascar and Asia has also prompted theories of biotic exchange between these regions by an isthmian land connection ("Lemurian land bridge"; Van Steenis, 1962; p. 343; Rage, 2003), or by island stepping stones (Schatz, 1996; Warren et al., 2010). However, recent studies have highlighted the importance of long-distance dispersal, and indicated that the majority of the extant biota in Madagascar descended from African ancestors that arrived during the Cenozoic (e.g. Yoder & Nowak, 2006; Buerki et al., 2013; Samonds et al., 2013). Madagascar has in turn been an important source of dispersal to the neighbouring archipelagos of the Comoros, Mascarenes and Seychelles (e.g. Micheneau et al., 2008; Le Péchon et al., 2010; Wikström et al., 2010). Despite much recent interest in the biogeography of Madagascar, there are few in-depth studies of the spatio-temporal history of its flora (Vences et al., 2009).

Next to Orchidaceae, Rubiaceae is the most species-rich family in Madagascar, also in terms of number of endemic species (Callmander *et al.*, 2011). In this study, we focus on the Coffeeae alliance of subfamily Ixoroideae (Razafimandimbison *et al.*, 2011; Kainulainen *et al.*, 2013). In the WIOR, this clade is represented by the tribes Alberteae, Bertiereae, Coffeeae, Gardenieae, Octotropideae and Pavetteae. Many

genera are endemic to Madagascar, i.e. Canephora, Chapelieria, Flagenium, Jovetia, Homollea, Lemyrea, Mantalania, Melanoxerus, Nematostylis, Pseudomantalania, Razafimandimbisonia, Robbrechtia and Schizenterospermum, but endemic genera are also found in the Mascarenes (Fernelia and Ramosmania) and the Seychelles (Paragenipa). Other genera are widespread in the region – Coffea and Coptosperma, for example, occur in all the archipelagos except the Seychelles, and Paracephaelis and Tarenna are only absent from the Mascarenes.

Dispersal by birds is a commonly invoked explanation for the colonization of Madagascar by fleshy-fruited plants (e.g. Renner, 2004), and the fruits of the Coffeeae alliance are with few exceptions fleshy. However, according to Hawkins & Goodman (2003); and references therein, few species of birds in Madagascar are frugivores, and none of them is migrational. Only seven species of forest-dwelling birds are listed as essential frugivores: a bulbul and two species each of parrot, pigeon and asitie. Notably, it has been suggested that these birds have an Asian or Australasian origin (Shapiro et al., 2002; Warren et al., 2005; Moyle et al., 2006; Schweizer et al., 2010; although the ancestral area of the Madagascar green pigeon is unknown).

Here, we use an extensive sample of species from the WIOR and sequence data of multiple molecular markers in order to reconstruct the biogeographic histories of the tribes of the Coffeeae alliance in the WIOR and understand how, when and from where they have colonized this region. Specifically, we investigate (1) predominance of African or Asian dispersal events to the WIOR; (2) incidence and direction of stepping-stone dispersal; (3) evidence of back-colonization from islands to continents; and (4) if the biogeographic patterns of plants and their presumed seed dispersers are congruent.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Taxon sampling

Efforts were made to sample all 27 species of the Coffeeae alliance present on the Comoros, Mascarenes and Seychelles, and at least one representative of the 26 genera known from Madagascar. However, attempts to sequence DNA from the Malagasy endemic Pseudomantalania were unsuccessful. Also missing are Polysphaeria lanceolata subsp. comorensis from Anjouan, P. multiflora from Aldabra and Coptosperma mitochondrioides from Mayotte. Sampling density was increased in species-rich and widespread genera such as Coffea, Gardenia, Rothmannia and Tarenna. Of the 55 genera of the Coffeeae alliance occurring in Africa, 49 where sampled, as were 32 of the 52 genera found in Asia, Australasia or the Pacific. In contrast, the sampling of Neotropical taxa was limited (Bertiera is the only genus of the Coffeeae alliance present both in the Indian Ocean and the Neotropics). The Malagasy sampling included nine as of yet undescribed species of Hyperacanthus, and at least 10 undescribed taxa of Pavetteae.

The sole species of the Coffeeae alliance found on Socotra (Kraussia socotrana) was also included. All 12 extant species from the Mascarenes were sampled along with nine out of 11 species from Comoros and four out of five species from the Seychelles. Eighty-five out of 159 currently recognized Malagasy species were included (although the estimated number of species on Madagascar is at least 240). In total, the taxon sampling comprised 387 specimens from 364 species. An overview of species names, voucher information and GenBank accession numbers are given in Appendix S1 in the Supporting Information. The nomenclature follows that of Govaerts et al. (2013), with a few exceptions (i.e. Empogona ruandensis, Pelagodendron vitiense, Sukunia pentagonioides and Tarenna malacophylla), and the tribal classification follows that of Mouly et al. (2014).

DNA extraction, amplification and sequencing

DNA was extracted following the protocol of Doyle & Dickson (1987), and purified using the QIAquick® PCR purification kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Four plastid DNA regions were chosen for this study: the rps16 intron, ndhFtrnL (UAG), trnK intron (including matK) and trnT-trnF; all amplified using the primers and PCR protocol detailed by Kainulainen & Bremer (2014). PCR products were cleaned using Multiscreen Filter plates (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA), sequenced using the amplification primers and the BigDye® terminator cycle sequencing kit, and subsequently analysed on a ABI PRISM 3100 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Alternatively, sequencing was done using the EZ-seq v.2.0 sequencing service provided by Macrogen Europe (Amsterdam, the Netherlands). Sequence reads were assembled using the STADEN PACKAGE v1.5.3 (Staden, 1996; Staden et al., 2000), and sequences new to this study (1172) were deposited in GenBank (Appendix S1 in the Supporting Information). Additional sequences (286) were obtained from GenBank (for references, see Appendix S1). AccD-psaI, petB-petD and rpl16 data for Bertiereae and Coffeeae (166 sequences in total; Appendix S1) were also added to the data set from Davis et al. (2007, 2011), Maurin et al. (2007) and Tosh et al. (2009).

Phylogenetic analyses

Sequence data were aligned using MUSCLE 3.8.31 (default settings; Edgar, 2004), after having been sorted by size using BIOEDIT (Hall, 1999). The latter program was also used to edit the alignments; alternative sequence versions of suspected sequence inversions were separated from each other in the alignments (but not excluded from the analyses; i.e. corresponding to positions 114471–114508 (KJ816005–6, KJ816018), 114501–114524 (KJ816122), 114899–114990 (KJ136920), 114585–114592 (KJ816044, KJ816046–7) and 115063–115083 (KJ136903) of the *Coffea arabica* L. plastid genome (GenBank accession number, EF044213; Samson *et al.*, 2007; all within the *ndhF-trnL* region). Homoplastic

sequence inversions in *mat*K, *rps16*, *acc*D-*psa*I and *pet*B-*pet*D, corresponding to positions 2022–2023, 5412–5430, 60199–60216 and 77852–77866 of EF044213, respectively, were treated in the same manner.

Phylogenetic reconstructions were done using Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods (Yang & Rannala, 1997). Bayesian analyses were conducted using MrBayes 3.2.2 (Huelsenbeck & Ronquist, 2001; Ronquist & Huelsenbeck, 2003) and Beast 1.8 (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007; Drummond $et\ al.$, 2012). Data were treated as a single partition, and the GTR + I + G nucleotide substitution model was chosen based on the corrected Akaike information criterion (AICc) as calculated using the program jModeltest 2.1.6 (Darriba $et\ al.$, 2012). The MrBayes analysis comprised four runs of four chains each that were run for 5 \times 106 generations, the first 25% of which were excluded as burn-in.

Divergence times were estimated using BEAST 1.8, implementing the uncorrelated lognormal clock model and the birth-death tree prior (Gernhard, 2008). The root node was assigned a normally distributed age prior with a mean of 96 Ma and a standard deviation of 4.6 Myr; secondary calibration priors were similarly applied to the nodes representing the most recent common ancestor (mrca) of Rubiaceae (87 \pm 4.6 Ma), Ixoroideae (59 \pm 7.2 Ma) and the core Ixoroideae (36 \pm 4.6 Ma); all strongly supported nodes. These age priors conform to the 95% highest posterior density (HPD) interval of corresponding nodes inferred in a study of Rubiaceae divergence times by Wikström et al. (2015). The BEAST analysis comprised eight runs of 50×10^6 generations. The individuals runs were combined and resampled (every 20000th generation) after removal of the burn-in (25%) to produce a sample of 15000 trees. Effective samples sizes of the parameters were evaluated using the program TRACER 1.6 (Rambaut & Drummond, 2013). Mean node ages and age density intervals were summarized on the sampled topology of the maximum product of clade credibilities. All analyses were performed on the Cipres science gateway portal v3.3 (Miller et al., 2010).

Biogeographic analyses

Seven geographic areas were recognized in the biogeographic analyses: mainland Africa (1), Americas (2), Asia (3); including Australasia and the Pacific, Comoros (4), Madagascar (5), Mascarenes (6) and the Seychelles (7). Distribution data were obtained from the World checklist of Rubiaceae (Govaerts et al., 2013). Undescribed or undetermined taxa were coded according to where they were collected, as were samples of species occurring in more than one geographic area (i.e. typically the species of interest and therefore more extensively sampled across their distribution). The geographic range evolution of the group was reconstructed using the dispersal-extinction-cladogenesis (DEC) model of Ree & Smith (2008) implemented in the program LAGRANGE 20130526. The DEC model was unconstrained (transitions between all areas equally likely) with a maximum of two areas per node. In order to account for topological uncertainty, we compiled the likelihood reconstructions for each node across a subsample of 100 trees randomly selected from the posterior distribution of BEAST trees.

RESULTS

Clade posterior probabilities inferred by the two Bayesian MCMC methods (MRBAYES and BEAST) did not differ greatly; both are reported in Appendix S2 in the Supporting Information, along with mean divergence times, 95% HPD intervals and the results of the biogeographic analyses. The maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree from the BEAST analyses is shown in Figs 1–5. The inferred phylogenetic hypothesis was overall congruent with that of previous molecular studies (e.g. Kainulainen *et al.*, 2013; Mouly *et al.*, 2014). The results of the biogeographic analyses using the DEC

model are summarized in Appendix S2 in the Supporting Information.

Asia was inferred as the most likely ancestral area for the Coffeeae alliance clade, but Africa was supported as the ancestral area for the tribes Alberteae, Bertiereae, Coffeeae, Gardenieae, Octotropideae and Pavetteae, that are present in the WIOR. Multiple independent dispersal events were found between mainland Africa and Asia, represented by the Discospermum-Xantonnea clade, Diplospora and a clade in Coffea (Coffeeae, Fig. 2); the Hyptianthera-Morindopsis clade (Octotropideae, Fig. 3); Benkara, the Brachytome-Catunaregam clade and clades in both Aidia and Rothmannia (Gardenieae, Fig. 4); and clades in both Pavetta and Tarenna (Pavetteae, Fig. 5). Dispersal events from mainland Africa to the Americas were also inferred, represented by Cordiereae, a clade in Bertiera and the

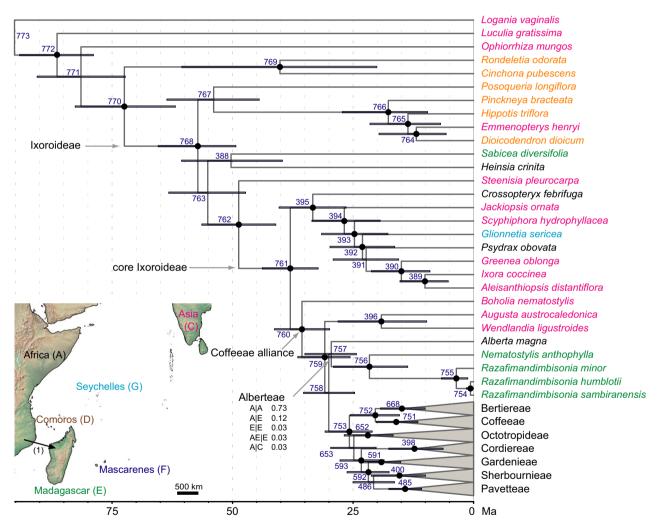


Figure 1 The Maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree from the BEAST analyses of the combined Coffeeae alliance data set. The tree is drawn as a chronogram with node heights representing the mean of the posterior sample of trees. Age estimates are summarized for each node (95% highest posterior density intervals). Well-supported nodes (posterior probability ≥ 0.95) are shown as black bullets. Node numbers correspond to those listed for the biogeographic results (Appendix S2). Relationships within the collapsed clades are detailed in Figs 2–5. Results from the Lagrange analyses are shown for nodes of interest. The inferred dispersal events are summarized on the map of the Western Indian Ocean region (WIOR; Lambert projection). The colours of the taxon names represent geographic origin: Africa = black, Americas = orange, Asia-Pacific = magenta, Madagascar = green and Seychelles = cyan. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

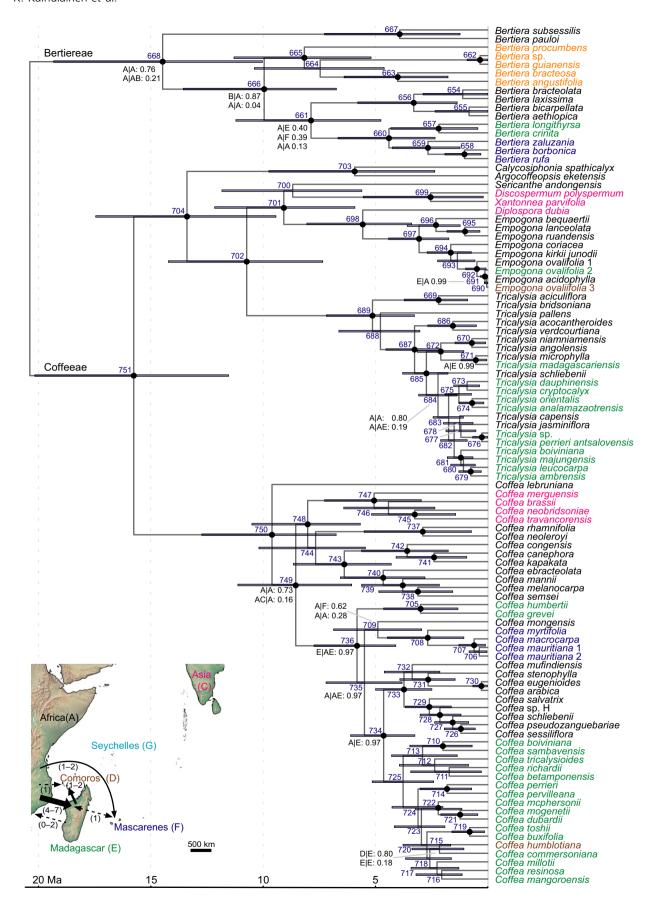


Figure 2 Part of the Maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree from the BEAST analyses of the combined Coffeeae alliance data set, showing tribes Bertiereae and Coffeeae. Age estimates are summarized for each node (95% highest posterior density intervals). Well-supported nodes (posterior probability ≥ 0.95) are shown as black bullets. Results from the LAGRANGE analyses are shown for nodes of interest. The inferred dispersal events are summarized on the map of the Western Indian Ocean region (WIOR; Lambert projection; dashed arrows represent uncertain routes). The colours of the taxon names: Africa = black, Americas = orange, Asia-Pacific = magenta, Comoros = brown, Madagascar = green, Mascarenes = blue and Seychelles = cyan. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

Randia-Tocoyena clade (Gardenieae). Early range evolution within the *Genipa-Gardenia* clade could not be unequivocally resolved.

In the WIOR, the ancestral area reconstructions indicated at least 15 dispersals to Madagascar, 8–11 dispersals out of Madagascar, four dispersals to the Mascarenes, four

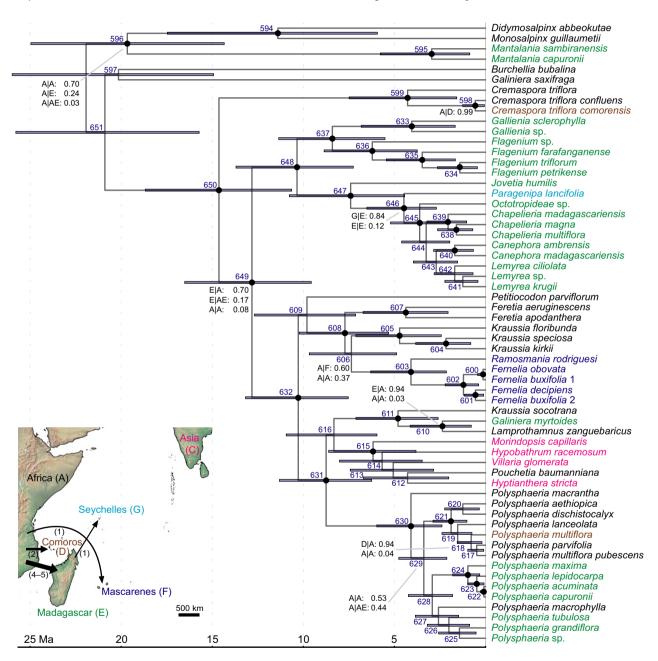
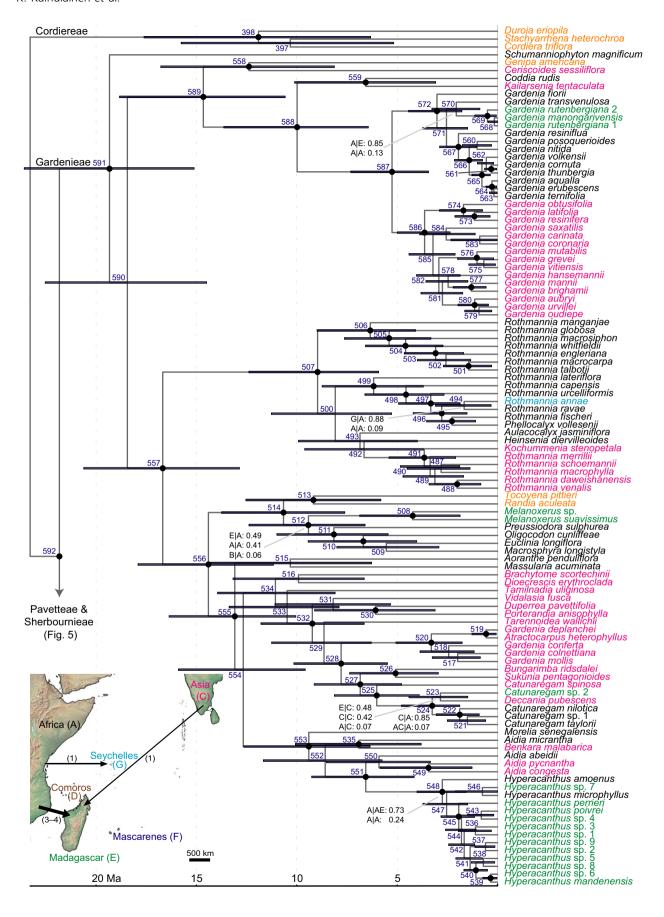


Figure 3 Part of the Maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree from the BEAST analyses of the combined Coffeeae alliance data set, showing Octotropideae. Age estimates are summarized for each node (95% highest posterior density intervals). Well-supported nodes (posterior probability ≥ 0.95) are shown as black bullets. Results from the LAGRANGE analyses are shown for nodes of interest. The inferred dispersal events are summarized on the map of the Western Indian Ocean region (WIOR; Lambert projection). The colours of the taxon names represent geographic origin: Africa = black, Asia-Pacific = magenta, Comoros = brown, Madagascar = green, Mascarenes = blue and Seychelles = cyan. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]



dispersals to the Seychelles and 8–9 dispersals to the Comoros. Most dispersals have occurred within the last 10 Myr, but at least the colonization of Madagascar by the *Razafimandimbisonia-Nematostylis* clade is older (crown age 21.6 Ma; HPD, 13.7–29.1 Ma). Support for a monophyletic Alberteae was low (Fig. 1), but the biogeographic analyses favoured a single dispersal event from Africa to Madagascar. Africa was also indicated as the ancestral area of the Indian Ocean radiation of *Bertiera* (Fig. 2). A single dispersal event into the WIOR was supported, but whether Madagascar or the Mascarenes were colonized first was equivocal.

At least four dispersals to Madagascar were inferred in Coffeeae. However, patterns of range evolution in Coffea were inconclusive, mainly due to topological uncertainty. The species from Madagascar were not supported as monophyletic; the majority of the sampled species formed a clade together with mainly East African species, whereas a Coffea grevei-C. humbertii clade was resolved as more early divergent. The biogeographical interpretation largely depended on the relationships among these clades and that of a clade comprising the Mascarene species (Coffea macrocarpa, C. mauritiana and C. myrtifolia) together with C. mongensis. The DEC analyses based on the MCC topology favoured a vicariance scenario in which the ancestor of the East African-Malagasy clade was distributed in both these areas (A|AE: 0.97). The Mascarene Coffea clade was supported as being the result of an independent dispersal event from Africa.

Empogona ovalifolia dispersed from Africa to the Comoros and to Madagascar. The biogeographic analyses favoured two independent dispersal events, although support within the Empogona ovalifolia clade was low. Phylogenetic support within Tricalysia was poor and consequently the biogeographic results were uncertain for this clade. At least two independent arrivals to Madagascar were indicated: (1) T. madagascariensis and (2) a weakly supported clade comprising the remaining sampled Malagasy species as well as the two African species T. capensis and T. jasminiflora. The former represent a well-supported out-of-Africa dispersal event, but biogeographic reconstructions of the latter clade were inconclusive because of phylogenetic uncertainty.

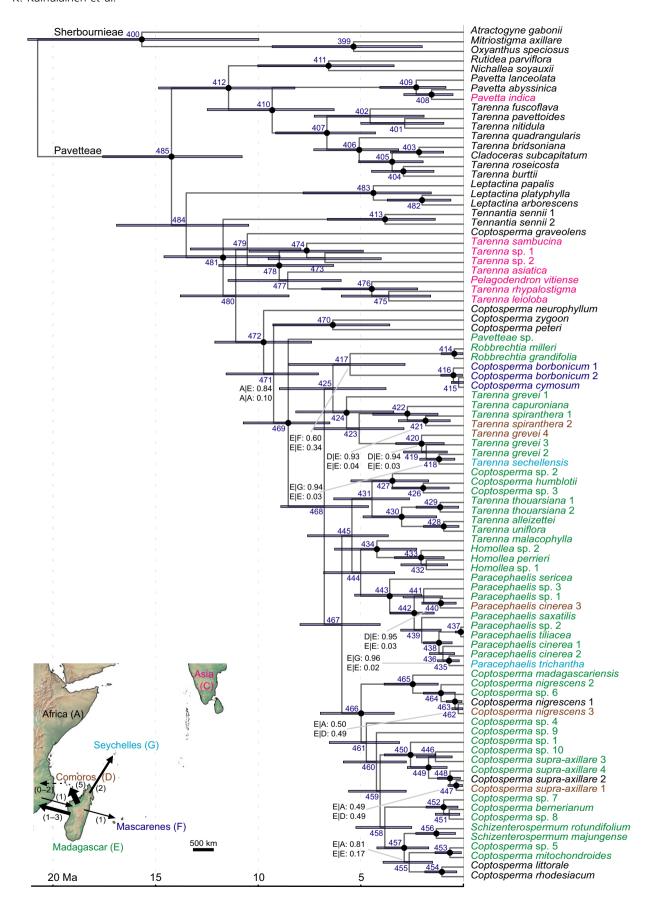
At least four dispersals to Madagascar were reconstructed in Octotropideae (Fig. 3). An out-of-Africa dispersal event was supported for *Mantalania*. The Malagasy Octotropideae *Canephora*, *Chapelieria*, *Flagenium*, *Gallienia*, *Jovetia* and *Lemyrea* formed a clade together with *Paragenipa* from the Seychelles. The ancestral area of this clade is Africa. Dispersal from Madagascar to the Seychelles was inferred for

Paragenipa. The genus Galiniera was not resolved as monophyletic. The Malagasy Galiniera myrtoides formed a clade with East African Lamprothamnus zanguebaricus, whereas G. saxifraga from Tropical Africa is grouped with the South African Burchellia bubalina. Dispersal from Africa to Madagascar was supported for the ancestor of Galiniera myrtoides. The Malagasy species of Polysphaeria were not resolved as monophyletic. However, clade support within the genus was low. The ancestral area of Polysphaeria was inferred as Africa. The DEC model favoured a vicariance scenario for the MCC topology. Out-of-Africa dispersal was supported for the ancestor of the Comoran Polysphaeria multiflora, as well as for Cremaspora triflora subsp. comorensis. Fernelia and Ramosmania from the Mascarenes formed a well-supported clade nested within a clade of African taxa, and Africa was the ancestral area of the Fernelia-Ramosmania

Gardenieae included at least four dispersals to Madagascar (Fig. 4). The Malagasy Gardenia species are monophyletic, nested within a clade of African species. Dispersal from Africa to Madagascar was also inferred for Melanoxerus. In contrast, Catunaregam is nested within a clade of Asian taxa. The genus is not supported as monophyletic, because the Indian Deccania pubescens is nested within the clade as a poorly supported sister group to Catunaregam sp. 2 from Madagascar. Out-of-Asia dispersal was supported for the latter species. Phylogenetic relationships within Hyperacanthus were poorly supported, although a clade comprising all sampled Malagasy species but one (Hyperacanthus sp. 7) was resolved with strong support. The biogeographic analyses supported an African origin of the genus. The DEC model favoured a vicariance scenario for the MCC topology. A single long-distance dispersal from Africa to the Seychelles was inferred for Rothmannia annae.

The Indian Ocean Pavetteae are strongly supported as being monophyletic (Fig. 5), and are nested within an African clade. The biogeographic analyses supported a single dispersal to Madagascar, followed by many out-of-Madagascar dispersal events, including: (1) dispersal to the Mascarenes in the Coptosperma borbonicum-cymosum clade; dispersals to the Comoros in (2) C. nigrescens, (3) C. supra-axillare, (4) Paracephaelis cinerea, (5) Tarenna grevei and (6) T. spiranthera; dispersals to the Seychelles in (7) P. trichanta and (8) T. sechellensis; and dispersal back to Africa in the C. littoralerhodesiacum clade. Coptosperma nigrescens and C. supra-axillare have also dispersed to Africa, either via the Comoros or independently from Madagascar.

Figure 4 Part of the Maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree from the BEAST analyses of the combined Coffeeae alliance data set, showing tribes Cordiereae and Gardenieae. Age estimates are summarized for each node (95% highest posterior density intervals). Well-supported nodes (posterior probability ≥ 0.95) are shown as black bullets. Results from the LAGRANGE analyses are shown for nodes of interest. The inferred dispersal events are summarized on the map of the Western Indian Ocean region (WIOR; Lambert projection). The colours of the taxon names represent geographic origin: Africa = black, Americas = orange, Asia-Pacific = magenta, Madagascar = green and Seychelles = cyan. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]



DISCUSSION

The Lemurian land-bridge or stepping-stone hypothesis of dispersal postulates that biotic exchange has occurred from Asia to Madagascar across the Indian Ocean by island hopping, and via the Sevchelles in particular (Van Steenis, 1962; Schatz, 1996; Warren et al., 2010). Quaternary scenarios of the Indian Ocean geography at lower sea levels estimated by Warren et al. (2010), indicated that several submerged banks as well as the area that is now the Seychelles archipelago, were large islands and subaerial during long time intervals (see also Weigelt et al., 2016). These islands should be considered in the study of the biogeographic history of the Indian Ocean and may at least for birds have facilitated dispersal from Asia and subsequent colonization of Madagascar (cf. Samonds et al., 2013). However, our analyses indicate that the "Lemurian" route of dispersal has been of less importance to the Coffeeae alliance, and that the predominant pattern of plant colonization in the WIOR is from mainland Africa.

Although no stepping-stone dispersal was inferred via the Seychelles to Madagascar or the rest of the WIOR, this study shows that, conversely, Madagascar has been important as a stepping-stone for dispersal to the Seychelles (Paracephaelis, Paragenipa and Tarenna), as well as to the Comoros (Coffea, Coptosperma, Paracephaelis and Tarenna) and the Mascarenes (Coptosperma and probably Bertiera). That the Malagasy flora has been an important source for colonizing the surrounding archipelagos has previously been shown in several groups (e.g. Micheneau et al., 2008; Le Péchon et al., 2010; Strijk et al., 2012; Stride et al., 2014). We also find evidence for back-colonization from Madagascar to mainland Africa, a biogeographical pattern previously reported in plant families such as Gentianaceae (Yuan et al., 2005) and Celastraceae (Bacon et al., 2016). Specifically, at least three independent dispersal events to eastern Africa was inferred in Coptosperma (possibly also in Coffea and Tricalysia).

Except Alberteae, which have wind-dispersed pterocarps, the fruits of the Coffeeae alliance are typically fleshy, and presumably zoochorous. In contrast to the Asian or Australasian origins of the majority of Cenozoic bird introductions to Madagascar (Samonds *et al.*, 2013; Table S1, and references therein), we find that Africa has been the foremost source of plants of the Coffeeae alliance in the region, a pattern that has been suggested as being the predominant of most Malagasy plant groups (Yoder & Nowak, 2006). The discrepant patterns in the origins of the extant frugivore birds and plants could indicate that the African frugivorous birds have not been very successful in colonizing

Madagascar, and that the colonization opportunities for the African zoochorous plants may have been very sporadic. Alternatively, the frugivorous bird species in question may have gone extinct. The dispersal of seeds by fruit bats should also be considered in relation to long-distance dispersal of fleshy fruits (e.g. Shilton *et al.*, 1999). However, as with the Malagasy frugivorous birds, the fruit bat fauna is not very diverse: "rather limited in comparison with other Old World tropical regions" (Hutcheon, 2003; p;. 1205; in reference to the three species present in Madagascar), and at least in the case of the flying foxes (*Pteropus*), they are recent arrivals from Asia (O'Brien *et al.*, 2009). It is possible that rafting by washed-off mats of vegetation has been the dominant means of seed dispersal in the region as has been suggested for non-volant animals (Simpson, 1940; Ali & Huber, 2010).

All dispersals to Madagascar within the Coffeeae alliance are from Africa, with the exception of Catunaregam (Asia; Fig. 4) and possibly Bertiera (Mascarenes?; Fig. 2). The first to disperse to Madagascar was likely the African ancestor of the Nematostylis-Razafimandimbisonia clade (crown age 21.6 Ma; HPD, 13.7-29.1 Ma), followed by the Gallienia-Lemyrea clade (crown age 10.4 Ma; HPD, 7.3-13.7 Ma) and the WIOR Pavetteae (crown age 8.5 Ma; HPD, 6.5-10.7 Ma). The Melanoxerus clade has been present in Madagascar since 4.2 Ma (HPD, 1.9-6.9 Ma). The estimated crown age of Mantalania is only 3.0 Ma (HPD, 0.9-5.8 Ma), but the minimum age of colonization by this lineage would likely have been older had Pseudomantalania also been included in the analyses. It is not clear if Malagasy Coffea originate from one or two colonization events. The minimum age of colonization in the former scenario is 5.8 Ma (HPD, 4.1-7.7 Ma; Fig. 2, node 736), whereas two independent arrivals would likely have been more recent. Although the inferred pattern of range expansion in Bertiera is not conclusive, it is likely that this genus has been present in the WIOR since 4.4 Ma (HPD, 2.4-6.7 Ma; Fig. 2, node 660). We hypothesize that Madagascar was colonized before the Mascarenes. Gardenia, Hyperacanthus, Polysphaeria, Tricalysia and the ancestor of Galiniera myrtoides likely colonized Madagascar from Africa within the last 5 Myr. Catunaregam is a similarly recent arrival, but according to the Lagrange analysis from Asia. Although Asia is the ancestral area of this genus, it should be noted that the phylogenetic relationships between its Asian, African and Malagasy species are not resolved with strong support in this study.

The extant Coffeeae alliance native to the Seychelles have reached the archipelago either via long-distance dispersal events from the East African mainland (*Rothmannia annae*;

Figure 5 Part of the maximum clade credibility (MCC) tree from the BEAST analyses of the combined Coffeeae alliance data set, showing tribes Sherbournieae and Pavetteae. Age estimates are summarized for each node (95% highest posterior density intervals). Well-supported nodes (posterior probability ≥ 0.95) are shown as black bullets. Results from the Lagrange analyses are shown for nodes of interest. The inferred dispersal events are summarized on the map of the Western Indian Ocean region (WIOR; Lambert projection; dashed arrow represent uncertain route). The colours of the taxon names represent geographic origin: Africa = black, Asia-Pacific = magenta, Comoros = brown, Madagascar = green, Mascarenes = blue and Seychelles = cyan. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

and most likely the Aldabran *Polysphaeria multiflora* and *Empogona ovalifolia*, not included in the analysis), or from Madagascar (*Paragenipa lancifolia*, *Paracephaelis trichantha* and *Tarenna sechellensis*). However, it should be noted that *Glionnetia*, one of the outgroup taxa of our analyses (belonging to the Vanguerieae alliance; Ixoroideae; Razafimandimbison *et al.*, 2011), represents a clade that is inferred as having dispersed from Asia to the Seychelles (Fig. 1). The divergence ages indicate that the colonization events of *Paragenipa* (4.5 Ma, HPD: 2.7–6.5), *Rothmannia* (1.7 Ma, HPD: 0.3–3.1), *Tarenna* (1.2 Ma, HPD: 0.4–2.1) and *Paracephaelis* (0.7 Ma, HPD: 0.2–1.3) all occurred within the last 6.5 Ma.

The Comoran Coffea humblotiana, Coptosperma nigrescens, C. supra-axillare, Paracephaelis cinerea, Tarenna grevei and T. spiranthera all appear to have dispersed from Madagascar, whereas Cremaspora triflora, Polysphaeria lanceolata and P. multiflora have reached the Comoros from eastern Africa. Unfortunately, no samples of Coptosperma mitochondrioides or Polysphaeria lanceolata from the Comoros were included in our analyses. However, considering the phylogenetic positions of these species (Figs 3 & 5), it can be inferred that the former species dispersed from Madagascar and the latter from Africa. Regarding Empogona ovalifolia, it is unclear if its distribution in the Comoros and Madagascar is the result of independent dispersal events from East Africa, or stepping-stone dispersal via either the Comoros or Madagascar. The divergence time analysis indicates that all dispersals to the Comoros from Madagascar have occurred within the last 3.4 Ma, and those from Africa within the last 1.6 Ma. Coptosperma nigrescens and C. supra-axillare have also colonized eastern Africa, possibly by stepping-stone dispersal via the Comoros: at least those scenarios are not contradicted by or results. Out-of-Madagascar dispersal to Africa is also found in the Coptosperma littorale-C. rhodesiacum clade, and probably in Paracephaelis (no African material sampled).

The Mascarenes are home to Bertiera, Coffea, Coptosperma, Fernelia and Ramosmania, and the latter two are endemic to this archipelago. Fernelia and Ramosmania are nested within a clade of East African taxa, and Africa is supported as the ancestral area. The divergence time of the Fernelia-Ramosmania clade is estimated to 7.4 Ma (HPD: 4.9-9.7), an age comparable to that of the formation of Mauritius (8 Ma; Duncan, 1990). The crown group, however, is considerably younger (4.1 Ma, HPD: 2.1-6.3 Ma). Notably, the stem age of Ramosmania is older than the island of Rodrigues (1.5 Ma; McDougall et al., 1965; but see Strijk et al., 2012), to which Ramosmania is currently restricted. However, these age estimates are not necessarily conflicting, because we have no estimate of the crown age of Ramosmania, and cannot preclude that, until recently, Ramosmania was native to Mauritius as well. In contrast, Strijk et al. (2012) conjectured an older origin of Rodrigues, and suggested that the island has served as a stepping stone for regional colonization of Psiadia (Asteraceae; although their analyses showed a HPD for the crown age of the Rodriguesian taxa that fits well with the young age of the island).

Bertiera and Coffea may have arrived in the Mascarenes in close concert; at least they have a similar estimated crown age of 2.7 Ma (HPD: 1.2-4.2 Ma for Bertiera and 1.1-4.5 Ma for Coffea). A somewhat younger minimum age estimate of 1.8 Ma (HPD: 0.8-2.8 Ma) for the Mascarene Coffea arrival was reported by Nowak et al. (2014). Like the Fernelia-Ramosmania ancestor, Coffea is supported as having dispersed from Africa, whereas the ancestral area of Bertiera is equivocal, either Africa or Madagascar. Coptosperma dispersed out-of-Madagascar, and probably represents the most recent arrival to the Mascarene islands, with a crown age of 0.5 Ma (HPD, 0.1-1.1 Ma). All four groups have dispersed between Mauritius and Réunion, and with the possible exception of the Bertiera borbonica-B. rufa clade (crown age: 1.0, HPD, 0.3-1.9), within the last 1 Ma. Compared with the Coffeeae alliance colonization events of the Comoros and Seychelles, the Mascarene radiations appear more diverse in terms of the number of species, although taxonomic inflation may also be part of the explanation. The biogeography of the Coffeeae alliance in the WIOR is discussed in more detail in Appendix S3 in the Supporting Information.

In summary, we find that Madagascar has predominantly been colonized by dispersal from (eastern) Africa. Colonizations of the neighbouring archipelagos of the Comoros, Mascarenes and Sevchelles, have partly also been from Africa but have mainly been the result of subsequent stepping-stone dispersals from Madagascar, whereas floristic exchange between the WIOR and India or Southeast Asia has not been prominent in the Coffeeae alliance. Most dispersals have occurred in the last 10 Myr, and dispersal opportunities appear to have been sporadic, presumably in part due to a paucity of frugivorous migratory birds. This is also reflected in the high levels of endemism in the region. Following successful colonization, radiation appears to have taken place in some groups and on Madagascar in particular. Most notable both in terms of species number and range of habitats occupied are the radiations of Coffea (60 sp.; Davis et al., 2010), Hyperacanthus (50 sp.; Rakotonasolo & Davis, 2006) and Pavetteae (70 sp.; De Block, 2003), which are present in most vegetation types of Madagascar.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

Appendix S1 Supplementary table.

Appendix S2 Supporting data.

Appendix S3 Supplementary discussion.

BIOSKETCH

This research group focuses on phylogenetic and biodiversity studies of the large tropical plant family Rubiaceae.

Author contributions: B.B. conceived the ideas; B.B., K.K. and S.G.R. collected the data; K.K. and N.W. analysed the data, and K.K. led the writing.

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