# **ORIGINAL ARTICLE**



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# Historical biogeography of the palaeoendemic toad genus *Oreophrynella* (Amphibia: Bufonidae) sheds a new light on the origin of the Pantepui endemic terrestrial biota

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## Abstract

**Aim:** Using the Pantepui palaeoendemic toad genus *Oreophrynella*, we explored (1) the origin of Pantepui endemism and the hypothesis of Pantepui being a source of diversity for the surrounding areas, including the geologically younger Andes; (2) whether early diversification of *Oreophrynella* conforms with that of *Stefania* (Hemiphractidae), another Pantepui endemic amphibian, which was recently shown to have vicariantly diverged from Pantepui highlands widespread Oligocene ancestors.

**Location:** The fractured island-like topography of the Pantepui biogeographical region in north-eastern South America.

**Methods:** We inferred the molecular phylogeny of *Oreophrynella* and other "basal" Bufonidae genera using three mitochondrial and two nuclear DNA sequences under Bayesian and maximum likelihood methods. We estimated divergence times using a relaxed-clock model and reconstructed ancestral areas through multiple models in a common likelihood framework.

**Results:** Phylogenetic analyses recovered a monophyletic *Oreophrynella* sister to *Atelopus*. Biogeographical analyses strongly suggested colonization of Pantepui via a pre-Miocene (Eocene/Oligocene) long-distance dispersal of a proto-Andean ancestor, followed by pre-Quaternary (lower Miocene) vicariant divergences of main lineages, and endemism of these main lineages to distinct biogeographical subunits.

**Main conclusions:** Our results suggest that at least part of the Pantepui diversity stemmed from dispersals from the proto-Andes. Three hypotheses emerge for the origin and evolution of Pantepui endemism, the Distance Dispersal theory, the Plateau theory and the Disturbance–Vicariance theory. Our results indicate that the early diversification of *Oreophrynella* conforms to that of *Stefania*, but hint at different factors responsible for the survival or extinction of different tepui summit amphibians.

## KEYWORDS

ancestral areas, anuran, divergence times, long-distance dispersal, molecular phylogenetics, Pantepui, phylogeography, tepui, vicariance

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# 1 | INTRODUCTION

Since the first explorations of the Guiana Shield highlands and the famous novel "The Lost World" by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle (1912), the enigmatic tepuis-sandstone tabletop mountains of the Guiana Shield-have been considered to harbour phylogeographically isolated relict species (Rull, 2004a). Tepuis are the dominant landscape of Pantepui, a biogeographical region consisting of the remnants of a vast ancient sandstone plateau on the igneous-metamorphic basement of the Guiana Shield (Figure 1). The basement itself developed during several orogenetic phases during the Archaean and the Proterozoic era, starting from c. 3,600 Ma, and was subsequently covered by sedimentary layers 1.600 to 1.000 Ma (Huber, 1995). These sediments gradually cemented together and are today referred to as the Roraima Supergroup (Huber, 1995). Epeirogenetic uplifts and erosion by wind and weathering gradually led to the presentday geomorphology of Pantepui (Huber, 1995). Timing of the isolation of tepui summits is, however, still debated and proposed periods of uplift range from c. 2.6 Ma to more than 150 Ma (see Kok, 2013 for a summary). The exact timing of the initial erosion of the Roraima Supergroup surface is impossible to estimate since several thousand metres of sediments have already been eroded (Briceño & Schubert, 1990).

The Precambrian age of the rock formations and their island-like topography led to the assumption of tepuis harbouring ancient lineages, with patterns of isolation and speciation comparable to those observed among isolated oceanic islands. Although several palaeoendemic vertebrates (i.e. phylogenetically isolated relicts of old lineages) do occur in the area (see Heinicke et al., 2009; Hoogmoed, 1979), a thorough sampling and the implementation of molecular phylogenetic analyses revealed that most extant tepui summit anuran species are of relatively recent origin (Kok et al., 2012; Salerno et al., 2012). Dating estimates place the time of divergence among most of the currently isolated studied amphibian and reptile summit populations at the end of the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) (Kok et al., 2012). The considerable vertical displacement of ecosystems during the Pleistocene-Holocene glaciation cycles, as suggested by palaeoclimatic and palynological data, makes the persistence of demographically large and biodiverse communities on the summits unlikely (Rull, 2004b). Because of these uncertainties, the origin and drivers of diversification of the Pantepui fauna and flora are still debated and multiple biogeographical hypotheses have been proposed, primarily for birds, for example, the Plateau theory (Mayr & Phelps, 1967), the Cool Climate theory (Mayr & Phelps, 1967), the Modified Cool Climate theory (Haffer, 1970), the Habitat Shift theory (Mayr & Phelps, 1967), the Distance Dispersal theory (Mayr & Phelps, 1967), the Specialized Habitat theory (Mayr & Phelps, 1967), the Mountain Bridge theory (Haffer, 1974) and the Disturbance-Vicariance theory (Colinvaux, 1998) (see Kok, 2013 for recent summaries).

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In this study, we used the most comprehensive sampling of the Pantepui palaeoendemic toad genus *Oreophrynella* to explore (1) the hypothesis of Pantepui being a source of diversity for the surrounding areas, including the geologically younger Andes; (2) whether early diversification of *Oreophrynella* follows a similar timing and pattern



FIGURE 1 (a) Map of Pantepui and its location within South America (inset); white rectangle enlarged in (c). (b) Aerial view of the eastern wall of Mount Roraima, Guyana, showing typical tepuian sheer cliffs and lower forested slopes: Wei-Assipu-tepui is visible on the left. Photo: DBM. (c) Map of eastern Pantepui showing localities mentioned in the text: 1. Mount Roraima; 2. Kukenán-tepui; 3. Yuruaní-tepui; 4. Wei-Assipu-tepui; 5. Maringma-tepui; 6. Ilú-tepui; 7. Tramentepui (1–7 = eastern tepui chain); 8. Mount Ayanganna; 9. Wokomung Massif; 10. Auyán-tepui; 11. Cerro El Sol; 12. Merume Mountain

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to the Pantepui frog genus *Stefania* as recently described by Kok et al. (2017), that is, divergence from widespread Oligocene tepuian ancestors.

## 2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### 2.1 Tissue sampling and molecular data

Our molecular dataset included samples of (1) all described Oreophrynella species; (2) members of all available "atelopodid" Bufonidae genera (understood here as the paraphyletic taxa branching near the base of the bufonid tree); (3) 10 species belonging to five genera of "non-atelopodid" Bufonidae; (4) members of the families Eleutherodactylidae, Pelodryadidae, Phyllomedusidae and Rhinodermatidae (Hyloidea) used for time calibration; and (5) Uperoleia laevigata (Myobatrachidae, sister to Hyloidea according to Roelants et al., 2007) to root our tree. Our final dataset comprised 59 species/79 individuals (see Tables S1 and S2 in Appendix S1). A combination of mitochondrial (fragments of the 16S rRNA gene [16S] and of the subunit 1 of the NADH-dehydrogenase gene [ND1]) and nuclear markers (fragments of the C-X-C chemokine receptor type 4 gene [CXCR4] and of the recombination activating gene 1 [RAG1]) was selected for phylogenetic inference because (1) it has been shown to sufficiently resolve deep and recent phylogenetic splits (e.g. Kok et al., 2017); and (2) several sequences of these genes were already available on GenBank for the targeted taxa. We additionally included a fragment of the mitochondrial 12S rRNA gene [12S], as it was available for most "atelopodid" Bufonidae vouchers. Sequences retrieved from GenBank were combined with 74 novel DNA sequences for Atelopus, Amazophrynella, Bufotes, Dendrophryniscus, Frostius, Oreophrvnella and Osornophrvne, Novel sequences have been deposited in GenBank under the accession numbers MF573819-MF573892. See Appendix S1 for technical details about DNA extraction, PCR, sequencing and sequence alignment.

#### 2.2 Molecular phylogenetic analyses

Preliminary alignments of the genes of interest were obtained using MAFFT 7 (http://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/server/), under the iterative G-INS-i refinement method and default parameters. We used MES-QUITE 3.11 (Maddison & Maddison, 2016) for minor alignment correction, like exclusion of gaps and ambiguously aligned regions, and estimation of codon positions under the respective genetic code models (standard or vertebrate mitochondrial). Protein-coding sequences were translated into amino acids to check for stop codons, which would be indicative of pseudogenes or misalignments. A partition homogeneity test performed in PAUP 4.0b150 (Swofford, 2002) with 1.000 replicates confirmed the homogeneity of the gene fragments (p = .94), which were thus treated as a single concatenated dataset. Concatenation of the dataset was performed in MES-QUITE, using the export formats "Conservative NEXUS" for the alignment and "Fused matrix export (NEXUS)" for the annotations and definitions (gene positions, codon positions). We used PAUP 4.0b150 (Swofford, 2002) to combine alignments and annotations in final interleaved NEXUS file. The 12S + 16S + ND1 + а RAG1 + CXCR4 dataset contained 2,981 base pairs (bp) after exclusion of 371 ambiguously aligned bp from the 12S and 16S sequences. The myobatrachid frog Uperoleia laevigata was selected as outgroup (see above). Best fitting partition schemes and substitution models were estimated using PARTITIONFINDER 1.1.1 (Lanfear, Calcott, Ho, & Guindon, 2012) implementing the "greedy" algorithm and the "mrbayes" model. We tested partitions by gene and partitions by codon position, using the partition resulting in the best supported Bayesian phylogeny for the final analyses (see Appendix S2 for best partitioning schemes). A Bayesian analysis was conducted in MRBAYES 3.2.6 (Ronquist et al., 2012) on the CIPRES Science Gateway 3.3 (Miller, Pfeiffer, & Schwartz, 2010; https://www.phylo.org/). Clade credibility was estimated using Bayesian posterior probabilities (PP) under the best partitioning schemes, and other settings were left default with flat Dirichlet priors for base frequencies and substitution rate matrices and uniform priors for among-site rate parameters. Four parallel Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) runs of four incrementally heated (temperature parameter = 0.2) chains were performed, with a length of  $2.10^7$  generations, a sampling frequency of 1 per 1,000 generations, and a burn-in of the first 1,000 saved trees. Convergence of the parallel runs was confirmed by split frequency SDs (<0.01) and potential scale reduction factors (c. 1.0) for all model parameters, as reported by MRBAYES. TRACER 1.6 (Rambaut & Drummond, 2009) was used to confirm convergence of all analyses by plotting the log-likelihood values against the generation time for each run. Effective sample sizes (ESS) of all parameters were largely over 200, which indicated stationarity and adequate sampling sizes. A maximum likelihood (ML) analysis was conducted in RAxML-HPC2 8.1.11 (Stamatakis, 2006) on the CIPRES Science Gateway 3.3 (https://www.phylo.org/, Miller et al., 2010) under the GTR+I+G substitution model. The dataset was not partitioned for the analysis

**FIGURE 2** Time-calibrated phylogeny of "atelopodid" Bufonidae showing ancestral range reconstructions. (a) Map of northern South America showing the biogeographical regions as understood here. (b) Dated phylogeny obtained from the BEAST analysis, with ancestral range estimates of BioGEoBEARS under the DEC + J model. Node support values of PP > 0.95 (MrBayes) and BS > 75 (RAxML) are depicted by an asterisk, \*/- indicates PP > 95 and BS < 75 (only shown for two critical nodes). Light blue bars indicate the 95% HDP interval of the inferred branching dates (bar on root truncated to 100 Ma). Coloured branches indicate proposed dispersal events with p = 1 for the corresponding range; inferred ranges of other branches are indicated by small circles (p = 1) or pie charts (proportion of probabilities for multiple scenarios, see Table S6 in Appendix S3). Labels at branch tips indicate range of extant species. Caption refers to colours of areas in (a) and branches, tips + pie charts in (b). Taxa not included in the biogeographical analyses are depicted by grey hatched branches; (NA) = not used in the biogeographical analysis



Oreophrynella nigra Oreophrynella quelchii Oreophrynella quelchii Oreophrynella vasquezi Oreophrynella vasquezi Oreophrynella vasquezi Oreophrynella vasquezi Oreophrynella seegobini Oreophrynella weiassipuensis Oreophrynella seegobini Oreophrynella macconnelli Oreophrynella dendronastes Oreophrynella cryptica Oreophrynella cryptica Oreophrynella huberi Oreophrynella huberi Atelopus sp.3 Atelopus hoogmoedi Atelopus barbotini Atelopus peruensis Atelopus spurrelli Atelopus sp.1 Osornophryne simpsoni Osornophryne cf. guacamayo Osornophryne sumacoensis Osornophryne occidentalis Osornophryne cofanorum Osornophryne guacamayo Osornophryne angel Osornophryne bufoniformis Osornophryne puruanta Osornophryne antisana Frostius erythrophthalmus Frostius erythrophthalmus Rhinella crucifera Rhinella marina Bufotes viridis Bufotes viridis Bufotes surdus Rhaebo haematiticus Rhaebo guttatus Nannophryne variegata Nannophryne cophotis Dendrophryniscus oreites Dendrophryniscus krausae Dendrophryniscus berthalutzae Dendrophryniscus brevipollicatus Dendrophryniscus brevipollicatus Dendrophryniscus leucomystax Dendrophryniscus carvalhoi Dendrophryniscus proboscideus Amazophrynella bokermanni Amazophrynella sp. Amazophrynella sp.2 Amazophrynella sp.1 Amazophrynella manaos Amazophrynella minuta Melanophryniscus setiba Diasporus diastema Eleutherodactylus coqui Cruziohyla calcarifer Agalychnis callidryas Pithecopus azureus Nyctimystes pulcher Litoria freycineti Litoria aurea Rhinoderma darwinii

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as partitioning is not straightforward in RAxML and trials with partitions yielded poor results. Nevertheless, the topologies obtained from unpartitioned alignments were congruent with the Bayesian phylogenies. Nodal bootstrap values (Felsenstein, 1985) were estimated using 1,000 pseudoreplicates. The resulting phylogenies were visualized and edited in FigTree 1.4.3 (Rambaut, 2016).

## 2.3 | Divergence time estimation

We used a Bayesian multi-gene relaxed-clock approach (Battistuzzi, Filipski, Hedges, & Kumar, 2010) implemented in BEAST 1.8.3 (Drummond, Suchard, Xie, & Rambaut, 2012). The input file was created in BEAUTi 1.8.3 (bundled with BEAST 1.8.3). The dataset was divided into four partitions as identified by PARTITIONFINDER 1.1.1 (Appendix S2). The MCMC sampling algorithm implemented in BEAST was used under an uncorrelated lognormal relaxed-clock model, allowing variation of evolutionary rates along the tree branches (Drummond, Ho, Phillips, & Rambaut, 2006). The "Birth-death process with incomplete sampling" was selected as tree prior because in contrast to the "Yule" prior, it allows extinction events (which are likely to have occurred considering the complex palaeoclimatic history of the study area). The ingroup was calibrated with a normally distributed prior on the node representing the most recent common ancestor of Hyloidea (i.e. the split between Rhinodermatidae and the remaining Hyloidea) with a mean of 65.5 Ma and a standard deviation of 10 Ma, following Roelants et al. (2007). In addition, five shallow nodes were calibrated using fossil and geographical information (see Appendix S2 for details). Other priors were left default. The BEAST analysis was run on the CIPRES Science Gateway V 3.3 (Miller et al., 2010) with one MCMC chain of 50.10<sup>6</sup> generations; trees and parameters were sampled every 1.000 generations. Convergence was confirmed for all analyses using TRACER 1.6 (Rambaut & Drummond, 2009). The first 5,000 generations were discarded as burn-in; the ESS of estimated posterior parameter estimates were largely above 200. The resulting trees were summarized in TREEANNOTATOR 1.8.3 (part of the BEAST package), and results were visualized and edited in FIGTREE 1.4.3 (Rambaut, 2016).

#### 2.4 Ancestral range reconstruction

The historical biogeography of *Oreophrynella* was inferred on the dated phylogeny using the BioGeoBEARS package (Biogeography with Bayesian [and Likelihood] Evolutionary Analysis in R Scripts) (Matzke, 2013) in R 3.1.1 (R Core Team, 2014). The package implements several likelihood-based models of ancestral range reconstruction and explicitly allows for statistical testing of model fit against the data. Of special interest is the recruitment of the free parameter *j*, allowing for founder-event speciation, which was shown to play a significant role in island biogeography (Matzke, 2014). Following the approach of Kok et al. (2017), we applied and compared six biogeographical models implemented in BioGeoBEARS: (1) the dispersal–extinction–cladogenesis (DEC) model as implemented in LAGRANGE (Ree, Moore, Webb, & Donoghue, 2005); (2) DEC + J (DEC allowing for

founder-event speciation); (3) DIVALIKE, a ML version of dispersalvicariance analysis (DIVA: Ronguist, 1997); (4) DIVALIKE + J (DIVA-LIKE allowing for founder-event speciation); (5) BAYAREALIKE, a ML version of the Bayesian inference of historical biogeography (BAYAREA) by Landis. Matzke. Moore. & Huelsenbeck (2013): and (6) BAYAREALIKE + J (BAYAREALIKE allowing for founder-event speciation). Model fit was evaluated with the statistical tools implemented in BIOGEOBEARS, using likelihood ratio test (LRT) and comparing weighted Akaike's information criterion (AIC) scores (Matzke, 2013). Distribution data of the species of interest are provided in Table S3 in Appendix S1. Two ancestral range estimations were performed on different taxonomical scales. For the genus-level analysis, non-atelopodid Bufonidae were removed from the dated tree, which was pruned to include only one terminal per species. For the detailed analysis of the genus Oreophrynella, all other taxa were removed from the dated tree, with Oreophrynella being pruned to include only one terminal per population. Pruning of trees was performed in R, using the APE package (Paradis, Claude, & Strimmer, 2004). The maximum number of areas per node was left unconstrained because the geomorphological history of the Pantepui region and the past distribution of Pantepui biota are highly speculative (Kok et al., 2017). Likewise, no constraint was set on potential ancestral distributions and on dispersal probabilities (Kok et al., 2017). For the genus level analysis, we defined four biogeographical areas based on the current distribution of the included taxa: (1) the Andes and peripheral lowlands; (2) the Brazilian Shield and peripheral lowlands; (3) Amazonia, including lowlands of the Guiana Shield; and (4) Pantepui (Figure 2a). For the detailed analysis of Oreophrynella, we defined the following biogeographical areas: (5) the summits of the Auyán-Massif (including Auyán-tepui and Cerro El Sol); (6) the eastern uplands and highlands (400-2.000 m elevation, including the slopes of the Wokomung Massif, Merume Mountains, Mount Ayanganna, Maringma-tepui and Mount Roraima); (7) the summit of Maringma-tepui; and (H) the summits of the eastern tepui chain (>2,000 m elevation; including the summits of Mount Roraima, Wei-Assipu-tepui, Ilú- and Tramen-tepui, Kukenán- and Yuruaní-tepui) (Figure 3). Although a better assessment of the relationship among the summits of the eastern tepui chain would have been relevant, oversplitting without further information on possible dispersal routes could not resolve ancestral ranges.

### 3 | RESULTS

#### 3.1 | Phylogenetic relationships

The topologies inferred by MRBAYES using the dataset partitioned by gene and by codon were fully congruent, only differing by slightly higher node support in the latter case. Therefore, only support values from the partition by codon are discussed below. Both Bayesian and ML phylogenies (Figures S1 and S2 in Appendix S2) recovered *Atelopus* as the sister clade of *Oreophrynella*, with strong support in the Bayesian phylogeny (PP = 0.95) but lower support in the ML phylogeny (ML bootstrap [BS] = 69). *Frostius* was found sister to



FIGURE 3 Time-calibrated phylogeny of Oreophrynella and estimated ancestral ranges. (a) Dated phylogeny of Oreophrynella, pruned from the phylogeny shown in Figure 2b, with ranges inferred by a BIOGEOBEARS analysis under the DIVALIKE model (Table S10 in Appendix S3). Asterisks indicate node supports of PP > 0.95 and BS > 75, \*/indicates PP > 95 and BS < 75 (Figures S1 and S2 in Appendix S2). Small circles referring to the areas delineated in (b) and (c) indicate p = 1 for the corresponding age. Black in pie chart indicates a joint range of E + F + H, p = .80; grey in pie chart indicates a joint range of F + H, p = .91. Labels at branch tips indicate range of extant species. (b) Map of the eastern Pantepui district, depicting the areas implemented in the ancestral range estimates. (c) Detailed map of the eastern tepui chain, showing summits inhabited by Oreophrynella

*Osornophryne* (PP = 1; BS = 63). The clades formed by *Atelopus* + *Oreophrynella* and *Frostius* + *Osornophryne* were recovered in a well-supported sister group to the remaining Bufonidae excluding *Melanophryniscus* (PP for *Frostius* + *Osornophryne* being sister to *Atelopus* + *Oreophrynella* = 1; BS = 80). *Melanophryniscus* was recovered as "basal" to all other Bufonidae (PP = 1; BS = 92).

*Amazophrynella* was recovered sister to the non-atelopodid Bufonidae + *Dendrophryniscus* (PP = 1; BS = 79), the latter being, with moderate support, recovered sister to the non-atelopodid Bufonidae (PP = 0.78; BS = 71).

The monophyly of *Oreophrynella* was highly supported (PP = 1: BS = 100). The basalmost split within Oreophrynella separated a highly supported clade consisting of Oreophrynella cryptica and Oreophrynella huberi (PP = 1; BS = 100) from the remaining species of the genus (PP = 1; BS = 80). The next split separated the highly supported clade Oreophrynella macconnelli + Oreophrynella dendronastes (PP = 1, BS = 100) from a highly supported clade containing Oreophrynella nigra, Oreophrynella quelchii, Oreophrynella vasquezi, Oreophrynella weiassipuensis and Oreophrynella seegobini (PP = 0.96; BS = 83). Oreophrynella dendronastes was nested within O. macconnelli (genetic distance in  $16S \le 1$ ). Oreophrynella quelchii and O. nigra were sister species (PP = 1; BS = 100), albeit with very short branches. Our analyses recovered O. vasquezi sister to O. quelchii + O. nigra (PP = 0.99; BS = 66) and O. weiassipuensis + O. seegobini sister to that clade (PP = 0.96; BS = 83, see Figures 2 and 3).

# 3.2 | Divergence times within atelopodid Bufonidae and Oreophrynella

The BEAST analysis yielded a topology congruent with that obtained by the MRBAYES and RAxML analyses (Figure 2b, see also Figure S3 in Appendix S2). The age of the most recent common ancestor of extant Bufonidae was estimated at 53.48 Ma in the early Eocene (95% HDP: 42.33-65.78 Ma) when Melanophryniscus diverged from all other bufonids. Relatively shortly after the initial split, still during the Eocene, the clade containing Atelopus, Oreophrynella, Frostius and Osornophryne diverged from all remaining Bufonidae (47.40 Ma; 95% HDP: 37.19-58.60 Ma). The divergence between the clades Atelopus + Oreophrynella and Frostius + Osornophryne was estimated at 41.87 Ma in the middle Eocene (95% HDP: 31.34-52.81 Ma). Approximately at the same time, Amazophrynella diverged from the shortly followed by Dendrophryniscus remaining Bufonidae, (42.73 Ma; 95% HDP: 33.31-53.85 Ma and 39.35 Ma; 95% HDP: 30.20-49.69 Ma, respectively), the latter node being moderately supported (Figures S1, S2 and S3 in Appendix S2). The most recent common ancestor of Atelopus and Oreophrynella was inferred to date back to 37.91 Ma in the late Eocene (95% HDP: 27.31-48.76 Ma), whereas the divergence of Frostius and Osornophryne was estimated to be slightly younger (32.96 Ma; 95% HDP: 20.04-45.67 Ma). Within Oreophrynella, five pre-Quaternary diversification events could be observed (Figures 2b and 3a). The initial divergence of the extant Oreophrynella species was estimated at 21.73 Ma during the lower Miocene (95% HDP: 14.14-30.95 Ma), separating O. cryptica and O. huberi from the remaining Oreophrynella species. This was followed by a split between O. macconnelli (including O. dendronastes) and the remaining species during the Miocene (16.12 Ma; 95% HDP: 9.79-23.72 Ma). The clade containing O. weiassipuensis and O. seegobini diverged from the clade containing O. nigra + O. quelchii and O. vasquezi during the late Miocene around 10.95 Ma (95% HDP: 6.11–17.01 Ma). The split between O. *nigra* + O. *quelchii* and O. vasquezi was estimated at 6.84 Ma in the late Miocene (95% HDP: 3.34–11.46 Ma). All extant tepui summit species are of rather recent origin (Figures 2b and 3a): O. cryptica and O. huberi likely diverged from each other during the Pliocene around 3.17 Ma (95% HDP: 1.01–6.90). The divergence between O. *quelchii* and O. *nigra* was estimated to have occurred around 1.62 Ma during the Pleistocene (95% HDP: 0.62–3.17 Ma). The divergence between O. *seegobini* and O. *weiassipuensis* was estimated to have taken place at the end of the Pleistocene or even in the Holocene (0.10 Ma; 95% HDP: 0–0.44 Ma). However, these nodes are probably too shallow to provide reliable estimates (see Kok et al., 2012).

# 3.3 | Historical biogeography of atelopodid Bufonidae and Oreophrynella

In analysing the atelopodid Bufonidae at the genus level, the DEC + J model fitted the data significantly better than the DEC model (LRT, p = .0005; Table S4 in Appendix S3). It also received the highest likelihood score among the six tested models (AIC = 53.56; Table S4 in Appendix S3). However, the DIVALIKE + J model's likelihood is not substantially lower (Tables S4 and S5 in Appendix S3). Because the ancestral ranges inferred for the clade of interest (including Frostius, Osornophryne, Atelopus and Oreophrynella) differed only marginally between these two models (Figure S4, Tables S6 and S7 in Appendix S3), we, hereafter, refer only to DEC + J. The ancestral areas of the most recent common ancestor of all Bufonidae and the most recent common ancestor of all Bufonidae except Melanophryniscus were unresolved, as was the ancestral area of the clade consisting of Amazophrynella, Dendrophryniscus and the non-atelopodid Bufonidae (Figure 2b). Considering Osornophryne, Frostius, Atelopus and Oreophrynella, the most recent common ancestor was most likely distributed in the Andean region (A: probability of distribution prior speciation [p] = .70; AB: p = .11; B: p = .06; see Figure 2b, Figure S4, Table S6 in Appendix S3). For the clade containing Osornophryne and Frostius, an Andean origin with dispersal of Frostius to the Brazilian Shield was recovered as the most likely scenario (A: p = .76; B: p = .12; AB: p = .12; see Figure 2b, Figure S4, Table S6 in Appendix S3). Likewise, an Andean distribution of the most recent common ancestor of Atelopus and Oreophrynella was recovered most likely (A: p = .82; D: p = .09; AD: p = .06; see Figure 2b, Figure S4, Table S6 in Appendix S3), followed by a jump dispersal of the ancestor of Oreophrynella to the Pantepui region around 38 Ma (95% HDP: 27.31-48.76 Ma), and then around 2.5 Ma (95% HDP: 0.84-4.95 Ma) dispersal of some Atelopus lineages to the lowlands of the Guiana Shield (Figure 2b, Figure S4 in Appendix S3).

When the genus *Oreophrynella* is analysed separately, both the DIVALIKE and the DIVALIKE + J models fitted best the data (Figure S5, Tables S8 and S9 in Appendix S3). The likelihoods of these two models did not significantly differ, and the ancestral ranges estimated under both models were congruent, except for the most

recent common ancestor of O. weiassipuensis and O. seegobini (Figure S5 in Appendix S3). For clarity purpose, only the likelihoods conferred by the DIVALIKE model are mentioned below. Both models retrieved the most recent common ancestor of all extant Oreophrynella as most likely being distributed throughout the areas (except Maringma-tepui) currently inhabited by extant species (E + F + H: p = .80; Figure S5, Table S10 in Appendix S3). This ancestral population diverged into three vicariant lineages corresponding to the tested areas, with a joint origin of the eastern uplands and summits for the most recent common ancestor of O. macconnelli (including O. dendronastes) and a summit radiation of the eastern tepui chain (F + H: p = .91; Table S10 in Appendix S3). This radiation expanded to the summit of Maringma-tepui, where Oreophrynella seegobini is retrieved as a vicariant population of O. weiassipuensis (p = 1). Under the DIVALIKE + J model, O. seegobini was found to have likely dispersed very recently from Wei-Assipu-tepui to Maringma-tepui (p = .88; Figure S5, Table S11 in Appendix S3).

# 4 | DISCUSSION

Our results strongly suggest that the most recent common ancestor of *Oreophrynella* and *Atelopus* was living in the proto-Andean region, probably during the late Eocene, therefore—in this case—rejecting the hypothesis of the geologically older Pantepui region being a source of diversity for the surrounding areas. Post-Miocene Andean origins of Pantepui endemic species were demonstrated in groups with better dispersal abilities than anuran amphibians (e.g. Bonaccorso & Guayasamin, 2013; based on shared distribution of birds), and range disjunctions between the Andes and the Pantepui region have been observed, for example, in bryophytes (Désamoré, Vanderpoorten, Laenen, Gradstein, & Kok, 2010), and recently in the frog genus *Tepuihyla* (Ron, Venegas, Ortega-Andrade, Gagliardi-Urrutia, & Salerno, 2016). However, a pre-Miocene Andean origin of a Pantepui endemic vertebrate genus is here demonstrated for the first time.

The timing of divergence between Oreophrynella and Atelopus (likely caused by a jump dispersal event, see above) comes after a major phase of mountain building in the Andean region (the "Incaic II," c. 44 Ma; Noble, McKee, Mourier, & Mégard, 1990), although at that time the proto-Andes were considerably lower than today (Gregory-Wodzicki, 2000). A similar timing is observed in Stefania (Kok et al., 2017), and this period, for which Kok (2013) proposed the vertical isolation of the Pantepui plateau being at its apogee, could correspond to the split between most tepui-endemic amphibian and reptile genera and their sister taxa (Kok, 2013). Divergence between the clade comprising Osornophryne + Frostius and the clade consisting of Atelopus + Oreophrynella as well as the split between Amazophrynella + Dendrophryniscus from the non-atelopodid Bufonidae also roughly correspond to that period (Figure 2b). This could be indicative of major ecological reorganizations across the continent as indicated by a cooling phase that started during the late Eocene (37-29 Ma), possibly corresponding to the establishment of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (Fouquet et al., 2012; Orme, 2007). Journal of Biogeography -WILEY

Fouquet et al. (2012) suggested a correlation between the split Amazophrynella/Dendrophryniscus and climate change induced by the Andean uplifts and the opening of the circum-Antarctic sea, likely fostering the spread of open vegetation types and possibly already establishing the dry corridor separating Amazonia from the Atlantic forest (Fouquet et al., 2012). More importantly, palaeoenvironmental data indicate that marine incursions have separated the northern Andes and the Guiana Shield between the Eocene and the middle Miocene, but the extent and connectivity of these embayments remain uncertain (e.g. Antonelli, Nylander, Persson, & Sanmartín, 2009; Roddaz et al., 2010). Our results suggest that the proto-Andean ancestor of Oreophrynella crossed inhospitable areas and jump-dispersed to Pantepui. Further research is needed to determine the respective roles of jump dispersal and vicariance in the origin of the Pantepui endemic herpetofauna, but our results indicate that vicariance alone (as hypothesized by, e.g. Croizat, 1976) is not sufficient to explain the origin of the Pantepui endemic herpetofauna.

Our results also revealed that the early historical biogeography of Oreophrynella follows a similar pattern to the Pantepui endemic frog genus Stefania (Kok et al., 2017): splits among the tested biogeographical areas were strongly indicative of vicariant events (i.e. lineages occupied subsets of their ancestors' range). The first speciation event, separating a widespread ancestor into a clade endemic to the summits of the Auyán-Massif and a clade occurring on the summits of the eastern tepui chain and the eastern uplands and highlands, was estimated to have taken place during the lower Miocene, indicating the emergence of a dispersal barrier between the two areas today separated by the Gran Sabana. Kok et al. (2017) inferred a vicariant split between the lineages of Stefania endemic to the Auyán-Massif (and to the western Pantepui district) and a large eastern radiation within a similar time frame. These vicariant events predate the global increase of savanna biomes starting from the late Miocene (Orme, 2007). We, therefore, hypothesize that a connection between the Auyán-Massif and the eastern tepui chain existed before the end of that epoch. That "ridge" was probably lowered by the ongoing erosion of the Gran Sabana (i.e. the Kamarata surface, which likely initiated in the Mesozoic; Schubert, Briceño, & Fritz, 1986), until it became too low and hence probably inhospitable for cool-adapted summit endemics. The next divergence between the tested areas happened shortly after, during the Miocene, when the upland/highland species O. macconnelli/O. dendronastes diverged from the summit endemics of the eastern tepui chain. Although the timing roughly matches divergence events in Stefania in the same region, our analyses recovered the split between summits and highlands caused by a vicariant event, whereas in Stefania, the summits most likely were colonized via two subsequent dispersal events (Kok et al., 2017). The hypothesized vicariant event separating the present-day arboreal upland/highland O. macconnelli/O. dendronastes from the clade comprising the eastern summit endemics could have been triggered by the general climate change in South America due to the ongoing Andean uplift throughout the Miocene, leading to less humid conditions and the emergence of savanna biomes towards the late Miocene (Kok, 2013; Orme, 2007), possibly

isolating populations of Oreophrynella (and other amphibians like Stefania) in areas with higher precipitation. The climatic scenario seems more probable than vicariance through physical landscape dissection in a species today restricted to tepui slopes. The subsequent divergence of the clade O. weiassipuensis + O. seegobini (late Miocene). and shortly after of O. vasquezi, from the other members of the eastern chain summits clade seem to be related to the ongoing erosion dissecting the tepuis. The divergence between O. cryptica and O. huberi, dated in the Pliocene, seems to be related to erosional dissection of the central Auyán-tepui from its satellite tepuis. As mentioned before, the timing and extent of erosion in the Pantepui region remains highly speculative, and it is credible to assume the isolation of tepui summits starting from the Pliocene (Schubert et al., 1986; Schubert & Briceño, 1987; see also Kok, 2013 for a summary). Erosion was possibly accelerated during the glaciation cycles of the Pleistocene (Kok, 2013).

Remarkably, Oreophrynella is absent from the Chimantá Massif although Chimantá is geographically much closer to the Auyán Massif than to the eastern tepui chain (Figure 1). In strong contrast to Oreophrynella, there is a radiation of at least seven microendemic species of Stefania (i.e. the "ginesi-clade") occurring in the Chimantá Massif and peripheral tepuis (Kok, Russo, Ratz, & Aubret, 2016; Kok et al., 2017). Oreophrynella might have gone extinct in the Chimantá Massif, due to factors that are better tolerated by Stefania. Only two species of Stefania occur on isolated summits in the eastern tepui chain (Kok et al., 2017), where Oreophrynella is widespread. Again, this hints at different factors being responsible for the extinction or the survival of different tepui summit amphibians.

## 5 | CONCLUSION

Historical biogeography of Oreophrynella supports three hypotheses for the origin and evolution of Pantepui endemism. The colonization of Pantepui via a long-distance dispersal of a proto-Andean ancestor matches the Distance Dispersal theory of Mayr and Phelps (1967); except Mayr and Phelps (1967), most authors considered long-distance dispersal (LDD, also known as jump dispersal) as rather implausible for the origin of the Pantepui biota, especially for non-flying organisms (e.g. Chapman, 1931; Hoogmoed, 1979; McDiarmid & Donnelly, 2005). However, although LDD is probably a rare phenomenon, there is ample evidence of such events, including in terrestrial vertebrates (see Lomolino, Riddle, Brown, & Brown, 2010 for a summary). The original dispersal was likely followed by in situ diversification, which is best explained by the Plateau theory (Mayr & Phelps, 1967). Although the Plateau theory has commonly been rejected due to the apparent time discrepancy between (presumably) ancient landscape and relatively recent taxa (e.g. Salerno et al., 2012; Voss, Lim, Díaz-Nieto, & Jansa, 2013), it fits best the biogeographical patterns of several Pantepui endemic amphibians (Kok, 2013; Kok et al., 2017). In Oreophrynella, like in Stefania and other Pantepui endemic lineages (Kok, 2013), pre-Quaternary branching of main clades is observed, most likely due to vicariance, followed by

endemism of these main lineages to distinct biogeographical subunits. Low genetic diversity among extant tepui summit Oreophrynella populations suggests a drastic reorganization during the glaciation cycles of the Pleistocene, fitting the Disturbance-Vicariance theory of Colinvaux (1998), although, for endemic tepui summit terrestrial vertebrates like Oreophrynella, Pleistocene climate oscillations most likely depleted biodiversity instead of fostering it (Kok, 2013). The scenario hypothesized by Kok et al. (2017) could thus be refined as follows for Pantepui endemic genera: (1) Palaeogene vicariance (possibly caused by marine incursions) and long-distance dispersals (from the proto-Andes, and possibly from the Brazilian Shield) led to the isolation of Pantepui endemic genera, possibly starting from the Eocene. Isolation of these lineages might have been further strengthened by the gradual vertical isolation of the Pantepui plateau; (2) late Oligocene/lower Miocene vicariance (caused by erosion of the Roraima Supergroup) of main lineages, and endemism to distinct biogeographical subunits; (3) reorganization of species diversity during periods of climatic instability in the Pleistocene, which caused massive local extinctions and induced low genetic divergence among most extant species. It will be interesting to determine the respective roles of jump dispersal and vicariance in the origin of the Pantepui endemic biota by comparing the historical biogeography of all Pantepui endemic taxa.

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#### SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the supporting information tab for this article.

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