1	
2	DR. STUART V NIELSEN (Orcid ID : 0000-0002-3114-1469)
3	DR. SAVEL R DANIELS (Orcid ID : 0000-0003-2956-3256)
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12	Breviceps) reveals patterns of diversity reflecting geo-climatic change
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14	S.V. Nielsen ^{1*} , S.R. Daniels ² , W. Conradie ^{3,4} , M.P. Heinicke ⁵ , B.P. Noonan ⁶
15	M
16	¹ Department of Biological Sciences, Marquette University, Wehr Life Sciences 109,
17	Milwaukee, WI 53233 USA
18	² Department of Zoology and Botany, University of Stellenbosch, P/Bag X1, Matieland
19	7602, South Africa
20	³ Port Elizabeth Museum/Bayworld, P.O. Box 13147, Humewood, 6013, South Africa
21	⁴ Research Associate: School of Natural Resource Management, George Campus, Nelson
22	Mandela University, George, South Africa
23	⁵ Department of Natural Sciences, University of Michigan-Dearborn, 4901 Evergreen
24	Road, Dearborn, MI 48128 USA
25	⁶ Department of Biology, University of Mississippi, 214 Shoemaker Hall, University, MS
26	38677 USA
27	*Correspondence: Stuart V. Nielsen, Dept. of Biological Sciences, P.O. Box 1881,
28	Milwaukee, WI 53201 USA. E-mail: stuart.nielsen@marquette.edu
29	

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32 ABSTRACT

33 Aim To investigate models assessing the influence of geomorphology and climatic shifts

34 on species diversification in sub-Saharan Africa by reconstructing the pattern and timing

35 of phylogenetic relationships of rain frogs (Brevicipitidae: *Breviceps*).

36 **Location** Sub-Saharan Africa, south of the Congo Basin.

37 Methods Multi-locus sequence data were generated for near complete species-level

38 sampling of the genus *Breviceps*. Phylogenetic relationships were inferred via Bayesian

39 inference and maximum likelihood analyses on both concatenated and single-gene

40 datasets. Network analyses identified locus-specific reticulate relationships among taxa.

41 Bayesian methods were used to infer dates of divergence among *Breviceps* lineages, and

42 niche modeling was used to identify possible adaptive divergence.

43 **Results** *Breviceps* is monophyletic and comprised of two major, largely allopatric sub-

44 clades. Diversity within each sub-clade is concentrated in two areas with contrasting

45 geologic and climatic histories: the arid/semi-arid winter rainfall zone in the southwestern

46 (SW) Cape, and the semi-tropical East Coast that receives predominantly summer rainfall.

47 Recognized species diversity in the SW Cape based on phenotypic variation is consistent

48 with observed genetic patterns whereas the East Coast is shown to harbor unexpectedly

49 high genetic diversity and up to seven putative, cryptic species. Niche models show

50 significant overlap between closely related species.

51 **Main conclusions** Dating analyses indicate that diversification of *Breviceps* occurred 52 rapidly within the Miocene, with only a moderate decline over the Plio-Pleistocene,

53 suggesting that this process might be slowed but ongoing. Our findings suggest that a

54 combination of two models, a landscape barrier model and climate fluctuation model, can

55 explain patterns of diversification in *Breviceps*. This demonstrates that Miocene

56 epeirogenic events and climatic shifts may have had a considerable influence on

57 contemporary patterns of biodiversity. Topographic complexity and relative geoclimatic

58 stability in the East has promoted cryptic diversification in allopatry, and this area clearly

59 harbors numerous undescribed taxa and is in need of detailed biotic investigation.

60

61

62 Keywords

Great Escarpment, rain frogs, Miocene, distribution modeling, cryptic species, landscape
barrier model, climate fluctuation model

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67 Main Text:

68 INTRODUCTION

69 To comprehend the biogeographical patterns we observe today, one must be 70 cognizant of the evolutionary history of species and the paleo-environmental conditions 71 under which they evolved, especially as these may differ from the present (Tolley et al., 72 2008). The generation and persistence of biogeographic patterns is often region specific. 73 For example, the Southern Hemisphere remained largely un-glaciated during the late 74 Cenozoic, preserving biogeographically informative genetic signal that would otherwise 75 have been erased by recurrent episodes of Plio-Pleistocene glaciation (Hewitt, 2000). 76 Whereas temperatures gradually decreased in the Northern Hemisphere, southern Africa 77 became more warm and arid (van Zinderen Bakker & Mercer, 1986), relegating 78 widespread, mesic floral and faunal lineages to allopatric, climatically-stable refugia, 79 promoting diversification and adaptation to xeric environments (Bauer, 1999; Matthee & 80 Flemming, 2002; Verboom et al., 2009; Lorenzen et al., 2012; Barlow et al., 2013; 81 Heinicke et al., 2017a). Reconstructing the evolutionary history of Southern Hemisphere 82 organisms, therefore, presents a potentially informative system for understanding how 83 contemporary communities were influenced by pre-Quaternary environmental change. 84 Since the breakup of southern Gondwana in the late Jurassic and early Cretaceous, 85 southern Africa has experienced many epeirogenic events that have contributed to 86 contemporary topographical relief. Uplifts at the Oligocene-Miocene and Pliocene-87 Pleistocene boundaries formed most modern mountain ranges and the Kalahari 88 Depression (Dingle et al., 1983; Birkenhauer, 1991; Clark et al., 2011). These uplifts also 89 created the Great Escarpment, a feature that influences climate as well as the distribution 90 and diversification of organisms (Clark et al., 2011). Along the east coast of southern 91 Africa, the warm Agulhas current combined with the Great Escarpment (specifically the

92 Drakensberg Mountains) to create a rain shadow maintaining a subtropical climate along 93 the Escarpment's eastern slopes (Neumann & Bamford, 2015). Consequently, patches of 94 forest habitat have persisted here since the Miocene while the rest of the sub-continent 95 underwent aridification (Sepulchre et al., 2006). This aridification was driven by a 96 Miocene shift in circumpolar air circulation in the Southern Ocean combined with the 97 nascent Benguela upwelling system off the south-western African coast (Fig. 1; Siesser, 98 1980; McCarthy & Rubidge, 2005; Neumann & Bamford, 2015). Wind patterns then 99 brought winter moisture to the south-western Cape, creating discrete rainfall zones with 100 contrasting seasonality (Chase & Meadows, 2007). Additional post-Miocene epeirogeny 101 (including significant crustal flexuring) increased topo-edaphic heterogeneity.

102 The continued evolution of landscape features and climate over time, combined 103 with landscape and climate heterogeneity across space, has likely stimulated floral and 104 faunal diversification in southern Africa (Moore, 1999; Cowling et al., 2009). The 105 region's long history of aridification has also generated a largely arid-adapted and 106 endemic biota (Brain, 1985; Bauer, 1999). Indeed, a commonly observed biogeographic 107 pattern in the southern African fauna is recent (late Miocene to Pleistocene) 108 diversification driven by climate fluctuation, promoting allopatric speciation (Daniels et 109 al., 2004; Tolley et al., 2008; Swart et al., 2009; Lorenzen et al., 2012; Barlow et al., 110 2013; Diedericks & Daniels, 2014; Furman et al., 2015). However, Africa is an old 111 continent and modern lineages vary in age. Thus, many older lineages have persisted 112 alongside recently diversifying ones, and the historical biogeographic factors that 113 promoted diversification in these older lineages may have differed.

114 The genus *Breviceps* (rain frogs) represents one such older lineage. *Breviceps* is 115 an ancient African genus, having diverged from their sister clade (the East African 116 brevicipitids) in the early Paleogene (Loader et al., 2014). Species accumulation within 117 the East African radiation of Brevicipitids occurred predominantly in the Miocene and 118 has been attributed to the long-term persistence of forests across the Eastern Afromontane 119 Biodiversity Region (EABR; Loader et al. 2014) (Fig. 1). Diversification of Breviceps in 120 southern Africa has thus far remained unstudied. However, they are an ideal exemplar 121 group for studying the historical biogeography of more ancient lineages in southern 122 Africa, for a number of reasons. First, they are widely distributed across eastern and

123 southern Africa. Breviceps can be found from Angola eastward through southern 124 Democratic Republic of the Congo and Tanzania, and southward to South Africa (Minter, 125 2004), only absent from the most arid regions of the Namib/Pro-Namib (Namibia) and 126 Nama-Karoo (South Africa) and areas that experience winter frost and low annual 127 average rainfall (Karoo/Highveld Grassland of South Africa). Second, their ecology, life 128 history and morphology likely limit gene flow (i.e. they are largely nocturnal, fossorial, 129 small-bodied insectivores with poor dispersal ability and reproduce via direct-130 development [no free-swimming tadpole stage]), potentially fostering allopatric 131 divergence. Third, southern African Breviceps are varied in habitat choice, occurring in 132 afromontane and coastal forest, as well as Fynbos (Mediterranean-like shrub or 133 heathland), vegetated dune, savannah, and grassland habitats, where they prefer 134 sandy/loamy, well-drained soils (Channing, 2001; Minter, 2004; du Preez & Carruthers, 135 2009). Thus, niche divergence could have played a role in diversification. 136 Here we incorporate multi-locus molecular data and broad taxonomic sampling to 137 reconstruct the pattern and timing of diversification of *Breviceps*. These data are 138 combined with niche models to deduce what has shaped contemporary patterns of 139 diversity, distribution, and biogeography of *Breviceps* in Africa south of the Congo Basin. 140 We use these data to evaluate three alternative models of diversification caused by 141 allopatric divergence. In the climate fluctuation model, climate change isolates 142 populations in patches of suitable habitat, allowing allopatric divergence to occur. This is 143 the same model suggested for many faunal groups in southern Africa, as described above. 144 Under this model, we expect most divergences among *Breviceps* taxa to be relatively 145 recent and for there to be little niche separation among closely related species, since 146 niche conservatism would be the primary factor isolating populations. Species 147 distribution models would imply large areas of overlapping suitable habitat for close 148 relatives. In a landscape barrier model, divergences are caused by barriers formed by 149 geological processes (e.g., deposition of the Kalahari sands, uplift associated with 150 formation of the Great Escarpment, river capture and formation of resulting gorges, etc.). 151 Under this model, we expect divergences to be older, and coincident in time with periods 152 of geological change. Closely related species would vary in their degree of niche overlap, 153 since ecological differentiation would not affect population divergence. The third model

is an adaptive change model. In this model, we expect divergences among species to vary
in age, but closely related species will have significant divergence in their ecological
niche, with non-overlapping species distribution models as divergence would be driven
by adaptation to different ecological conditions.

158

159 MATERIALS AND METHODS

160 Taxon sampling and laboratory protocols

We obtained tissue from 77 individual frogs representing 16 of the 18 recognized 161 162 species and downloaded partial sequence data from GenBank for the two remaining 163 species (see Table S1 in Appendix 1). For two species, where voucher identification is 164 difficult and/or ambiguous (B. sopranus and B. bagginsi), we include a cf. designation to 165 represent identification uncertainty. Furthermore, topotypic material was not available for 166 all species. Although the phylogenetic position of *Breviceps* is well-established within the 167 greater Afrobatrachian radiation (Pyron & Wiens, 2011), there have been no studies 168 exploring the monophyly of *Breviceps sensu stricto*. Thus, we include complete sampling 169 of brevicipitid genera to test the monophyly of this genus. Outgroups include species 170 from other members of Brevicipitidae (e.g. Callulina, Balebreviceps, Probreviceps, and 171 Spaeleophryne), as well as more distantly related Afrobatrachian and microhylid taxa 172 (see Table S1).

173 We isolated genomic DNA from ethanol preserved (95%) liver, skin and/or 174 muscle tissue samples via salt extraction (Aljanabi & Martinez, 1997). We performed 175 polymerase chain reaction (PCR) to amplify partial sequences of two mitochondrial (12S 176 and 165 ribosomal rRNA genes) and three nuclear loci (recombination activating protein 177 1, RAGI; brain derived neurotrophic factor, BDNF; and solute carrier family 8 member 3, 178 SLC8A3). PCR primers are reported in Appendix 1 (Table S2). We viewed and purified PCR products via 1.5% agarose gel electrophoresis and ExoSAP-IT[®] (Affymetrix, Santa 179 180 Clara, CA, USA), respectively. Sequencing reactions used the BigDye TERMINATOR V.3.1 181 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA), which were then 182 sent to the DNASU Sequencing Core (Arizona State University) for purification and 183 sequencing using an Applied Biosystems 3730XL automated sequencer.

184

185 Sequence alignment, model selection, and phylogenetic reconstruction

186 The forward and reverse raw sequence reads were edited, assembled, and then 187 aligned using GENEIOUS v.6 (Biomatters http://www.geneious.com). We also checked the 188 amino-acid translation of protein-coding loci to verify open reading frames. Sequences 189 were submitted to GenBank and their accession numbers can be found in Table S1. 190 Sequence data from GenBank were used for the two missing species mentioned above, as 191 well as representatives from outgroup taxa for rooting purposes. Uncorrected mean p 192 sequence divergence values were calculated for both 12S and 16S (Table S3) using MEGA 193 v.6.0 (Tamura et al., 2013).

194 Datasets (concatenated, mitochondrial [mtDNA]-only and nuclear [nuDNA]-only) 195 of all samples were analyzed using Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (MRBAYES v.3.2; 196 Ronquist & Huelsenbeck, 2003) and maximum likelihood methods (RAXML v.8.1.11; 197 Stamatakis, 2006) using the CIPRES Science Gateway 3.1 for online phylogenetic 198 analysis (http://www.phylo.org/index.php/portal/). An appropriate partitioning strategy 199 and molecular models specifically for Bayesian analyses were chosen using 200 PARTITIONFINDER v.1.1.1 (Lanfear et al., 2012), which assessed all possible candidate 201 positions (e.g. each codon in the nuDNA) using the Bayesian information criterion 202 (Lanfear et al., 2012). The resulting partitioning scheme is listed in Table S4. Final 203 Bayesian analyses ran for 50 million generations with four independent chains, and 204 sampled every 50,000 generations. We checked for stationarity using TRACER v.1.6 205 (Rambaut et al., 2014), after which a 25% burn-in was removed, leaving 750 trees for 206 posterior analysis. Maximum likelihood analyses were performed using the default 207 settings for RAXML using the GTRGAMMA model of sequence evolution (Stamatakis, 208 2006) and ceasing bootstrapping when extended majority rule bootstrapping criteria had 209 been reached.

For comparison with tree-based methods and in order to view gene tree
(haplotype) relationships among the ingroup, networks for each nuDNA locus and
combined mtDNA were constructed using SPLITSTREE v.4.12.3 (Huson & Bryant, 2006)
with the Neighbor-net algorithm. We used an algorithmic approach to phase nuDNA
alleles using PHASE v2.1.1 (Stephens et al., 2001; Scheet & Stephens, 2006) prior to
building splitstrees.

216

217 Estimating divergence times

218 Using a lognormal relaxed molecular clock, the age of the Breviceps radiation and 219 its constituent lineages was estimated in BEAST v.1.8 (Drummond et al., 2012). Analyses 220 were performed using a concatenated alignment split into two partitions (nuclear vs. 221 mitochondrial DNA), and limited to a single individual (or chimera of individuals) per 222 species representing a complete sampling of loci. Missing data could yield potentially 223 problematic results (Blankers et al., 2013), thus we excluded taxa with high proportion of 224 missing data, particularly nuclear loci (i.e. *B. fichus* and *B. branchi*). Secondary 225 calibrations employed in these analyses followed Loader et al. (2014) and were based on 226 the fossil calibrated study of Roelants et al. (2007) exploring relationships among the 227 Amphibia. Specifically, we used the following as normally-distributed constraints of 228 node ages: MRCA of the crown group including Arthroleptis, 92.8 (84.5–111.8) million 229 years ago [Ma]; Hemisus + Brevicipitidae, 65.9 (54.1–84.9) Ma; Breviceps, 45.4 (32.9– 230 63.4) Ma. and *Callulina*, 29.6 (19.5–44.5) Ma (see Loader et al. 2014 for more detail). 231 Direct fossil calibration was not possible due to the lack of pre-Quaternary fossil material 232 attributable to Brevicipitidae (Matthews et al., 2015). The BEAST analysis ran for 100 million generations, sampling every 10000th gen., with a 20% burn-in, and using a Yule 233 234 prior. Stationarity was always reached well before the end of the burn-in. TRACER 235 confirmed that all runs had converged on similar model parameters (estimated sample 236 size >200 for all parameters). To view the relative timing of diversification with respect 237 to the accumulation of lineages, a lineage-through-time (LTT) plot was generated using 238 the 'LTT' function in the R package 'ape' (Paradis et al., 2004).

239

240 Species distribution modeling

We estimated species distribution models (SDMs) using the program MAXENT v. 3.3.2 (Phillips et al., 2006) to provide a measure of climatic niche divergence among species. Estimates used the default settings as implemented in the 'dismo' and 'SDMTools' R packages. Models were trained using collection localities attached to the samples used for genetic analysis, as well as supplementary data points obtained from published sources (e.g. Channing & Wahlberg, 2011) or the Virtual Museum (Animal 247 Demography Unit, University of Cape Town; http://vmus.adu.org.za/). The museum data 248 required some manual filtering and we omitted any unverified data points (e.g. those 249 represented by unrecorded nuptial calls only). The assignment of museum samples to 250 widespread species was, at times, untenable (due to widespread paraphyly within B. 251 adspersus and B. mossambicus; see below). Therefore our distribution modeling included 252 only samples for which museum locality data was relatively certain (i.e. the gibbosus-253 group exclusive of *B. branchi* [a recently described species known only from a single 254 sample]) and for which our results did not suggest the presence of cryptic species (Table 255 S5).

Our sample size for *B. sylvestris* fell to four points post-filtering. Modeling with so few points is not ideal. However, when we added three additional points for which GPS data exist (based on unrecorded calls) and re-ran the SDM the results were comparable (results not shown), suggesting a reasonably reliable model. A recent theoretical study (van Proosdij et al., 2016) also suggested that as few as three presence samples from a narrow-range taxon will provide accurate SDMs.

262 SDMs were generated based on the 19 bioclimatic data layers available from the 263 Worldclim database (www.worldclim.org) that were re-sampled to the WGS1984 264 Transverse Mercator projection and cropped to a geographically relevant window 265 (xlim=10 to 36; ylim=-35 to -22) using the 'maptools' R package. Following Elith et al. 266 (2011), we retained all bioclimatic variables, even if correlated, and allowed the MAXENT 267 algorithm to determine the required predictors for each model. MAXENT performed 100 268 bootstrapped replicates, using 75% of the locality data to train and 25% to test the models, 269 with a regularization multiplier of 1. 'Area under the curve' (AUC) scores of the 270 receiver-operating characteristic were calculated to assess the accuracy of the models. 271 Jackknife tests were also used to determine individual variable contributions for the final 272 SDMs. To assess the degree of overlap in predicted SDMs among the taxa, we estimated 273 Schoener's D (a measure of overlap) using ENMtools (Warren et al., 2010). We were 274 keen to assess whether closely related taxa differed significantly with respect to niche (as 275 defined by the 19 bioclimatic variables), so we performed pairwise identity and similarity 276 tests in ENMtools to generate values of Schoener's D. We generated a distribution of

277 pseudoreplicates (n=100) to ascertain whether the observed value of D is significantly 278 different from random.

279

280 RESULTS

281 Phylogenetic relationships

282 The concatenated, aligned in-group dataset totaled 3434 characters (containing 283 550 parsimony-informative characters out of 660 variable sites). The optimized 284 Maximum Likelihood (ML) tree had a log-likelihood score of -23500.1 and Bayesian 285 Inference (BI) produced an optimal tree with a mean likelihood score of -21730.8. Both 286 reconstructions based on the concatenated dataset produced nearly identical consensus 287 tree topologies (Appendix 2, Fig. S1A-B), and any discordance exhibited poor support. 288 Many of the nodes receiving low support are associated with distal nodes and do not 289 affect our biogeographical conclusions. Mitochondrial and individual nuclear gene trees 290 produced largely congruent patterns of relationship (not illustrated) and any 291 disagreements occurred were associated with low statistical support.

292 We confirm the monophyly of *Breviceps*, as all material ascribed to this genus 293 (rooted with the non-Afrobatrachian Kaloula pulchra) fell within this well-supported 294 clade (Fig. 2A; posterior probability [pp] 1.0, bootstrap support [bs] 100%). All 295 phylogenetic analyses recovered two well-supported sub-clades: i) the mossambicus-296 group, composed of more northerly-/easterly-distributed species that occur both above 297 and below the Great Escarpment (GE), and are largely restricted to savannah (B. 298 mossambicus, B. adspersus, B. poweri, B. cf. sopranus, and B. cf. bagginsi) or montane 299 grassland (B. fichus) (Fig. 2B); and ii) the gibbosus-group composed of species 300 distributed exclusively in the Cape, on or below the GE and either restricted to the Cape 301 Floristic Region (CFR) and Succulent Karoo Region (SKR) hotspots in the southwest 302 Cape (B. macrops, B. branchi, B. namaquensis, B. acutirostris, B. fuscus, B. gibbosus, B. 303 rosei, and B. montanus), the Maputo-Pondoland-Albany (MPA) hotspot (B. verrucosus), 304 or in isolated patches of afromontane forest in northeast South Africa (B. sylvestris) (Fig. 305 2C). Monophyly of these two sub-clades is well supported by both BI and ML (pp 1.0, bs 306 >90%) and average uncorrected mtDNA p-distances ranged from 10-12% (see 307 Appendices 1 and 2). Furthermore, there are group-specific amino acid differences in

308 both *RAG-1* and *SLC8A3*. Inter-relationships within these groups are largely

- topologically congruent between the two optimality criteria, although statistical supportvaries and is often highly supported by BI alone.
- 311 We recovered substantial structure within the two major sub-clades. Within the 312 mossambicus-group, for example, we recovered a clade of up to 11 genetically distinct 313 lineages (Fig. 2A, indicated with a red star; based on the operational criteria of the 314 general lineage concept of species (De Queiroz, 1998)), which includes four of the five 315 most recently described *Breviceps* species, including *B. carruthersi* and *B. passmorei* 316 described just last year (Minter et al., 2017), while the present paper was in review 317 (comparative data not shown). This sub-group (hereafter the *pentheri*-complex) was 318 previously ascribed to a subspecies of B. adspersus (i.e. B. a. pentheri), or field identified 319 as B. adspersus or B. mossambicus. These lineages are deeply divergent (inter-lineage 320 uncorrected 12S p-distance 2-9% [mean = 6%]) and are broadly distributed in 321 southeastern southern Africa, including the MPA. This level of divergence is comparable 322 to interspecific distances in the southwest Cape species of the *gibbosus*-group (inter-323 lineage uncorrected 12S p-distance 4-11% [mean = 6.6%]). Geographic substructure was 324 recovered in widespread species (e.g. B. verrucosus, B. namaquensis), as well as in 325 species represented by limited samples collected from relatively proximate localities (e.g. 326 B. montanus, B. fuscus).
- 327

328 Network structure

Network analyses based on single nuclear loci (Figs. 2D, S2A-B) resemble those
recovered using mtDNA (Fig. S2C), and are largely congruent with results of
phylogenetic analyses based on concatenated data (Fig. 2A), suggesting that there is little
to no locus-specific discordance.

333

334 Divergence times

We date the split separating the two major *Breviceps* groups to the mid-Oligocene

- 336 (27.5 Ma; 95% confidence interval [CI] = 21-34 Ma), and contemporary lineage
- accumulation occurred throughout the Miocene (Fig. 2E). The most recent divergence
- event in our tree (1.3 Ma) was between the geographically proximate B. cf. sopranus and

B. cf. *bagginsi*. The slope of the line representing lineage accumulation through timeillustrates a dramatic increase in species-level diversity during the Miocene.

341

342 Distribution modeling

343 The SDMs based on contemporary climatic conditions and the recorded localities 344 of nine members of the *gibbosus*-group are shown in Figures 3 and S3. Certain 345 bioclimatic variables had disproportional impact on the models (Table S5), suggesting 346 species/species-groups and biogeographical regions are being influenced by shared 347 stimuli. For example, SDMs of the species predominantly distributed in the winter rain 348 dominated CFR (B. acutirostris, B. gibbosus, B. montanus, B. rosei) are 349 disproportionately influenced by winter precipitation. However, the most important 350 variables affecting the SDMs for species found in the hot, arid SKR were more variable, 351 such as annual temperature variation and summer precipitation (B. macrops) or altitude 352 (B. namaquensis). For B. sylvestris and B. verrucosus, distributed across the sub-tropical, 353 mesic MPA/east, SDMs were largely influenced by precipitation (summer & annual 354 precipitation, respectively). The most influential variable for *B. fuscus* was precipitation 355 during the driest time of the year (the Knysna-Amatole ecoregion receives rainfall year-356 round, with spring and fall being the most predictable; Figs. 3, S3; Table 1). SDM 357 specific AUC values were all ≥ 0.99 .

358 Niche overlap tests rejected the null hypotheses of random differences in 359 Schoener's D values for most, but not all, pairwise comparisons (Table 1 [non-bold 360 values]). The SDMs for the allopatric B. sylvestris and B. verrucosus seem to reflect 361 similar niche space (as seen in Fig. 3), a pattern confirmed by the high, though non-362 significant (p=0.371), niche overlap (Schoener's D=0.420). We recovered similar results 363 when comparing *B. macrops* with *B. namaquensis*, and *B. montanus* with *B. acutirostris* 364 and B. rosei, although these comparisons included partially sympatric species 365 distributions. Other comparisons, however, with particularly high Schoener's D values 366 are both significant and can be explained by overlapping distribution. We consistently 367 recovered low measures of overlap between species living in the MPA/east (B. sylvestris 368 + B. verrucosus) or the south Cape (B. fuscus), confirming that these species occupy 369 climatically distinct niche space.

370

371 **DISCUSSION**

372 Our results suggest that no single model of allopatric divergence can fully account 373 for patterns of diversification in *Breviceps*. Instead, the data are most consistent with a 374 combination of the climate fluctuation and landscape barrier models. The earliest 375 divergence occurred between two largely allopatric sub-clades near the Oligocene-376 Miocene boundary (Fig. 2; Loader et al., 2014), followed by a surge of lineage 377 accumulation in each of the daughter clades during the Miocene. These two sub-clades 378 (hereafter the mossambicus- and gibbosus-groups) are largely allopatric (Fig. 2B-C), with 379 the gibbosus-group occupying most of South Africa and the mossambicus-group 380 occurring to the north. The initial divergence in the genus, along with divergences in the 381 *mossambicus*-group, best fit predictions of the landscape barrier model. In contrast, the 382 climate fluctuation model is a better fit for the *gibbosus*-group.

383 The landscape barrier model predicted that divergences would be relatively deep, 384 ecological differentiation would be unimportant in separating species, and the formation 385 of landscape barriers could explain cladogenic events. The major split producing the 386 gibbosus- and mossambicus-groups occurred between the late Eocene to early Miocene 387 (21–34 Mya 95% CI), coincident with renewed epeirogenic uplift of the Great 388 Escarpment (i.e. early Miocene) (King, 1978; Partridge & Maud, 1987; Moore et al., 389 2009). Even if this cladogenic event occurred earlier and under different stimuli, the 390 dramatic uplift (up to 1000m) almost certainly reinforced geographic separation. 391 Furthermore, global cooling trends led to the fragmentation of pan-African forest and 392 promoted the emergence of savannah and grassland (Zachos et al., 2001; Couvreur et al., 393 2008), which in turn has sculpted modern species distributions (Medina et al., 2016). 394 Fossil and pollen records suggest widespread expansion of the these habitats (coinciding 395 with the shift from C3 to C4 grasses), rather than contraction, beginning in the Miocene 396 (Jacobs, 2004; Sepulchre et al., 2006). Members of the *mossambicus*-group are found in 397 savannah habitats, suggesting that climate-caused fragmentation of habitat does not 398 explain their diversification. Likewise, although we were unable to perform distribution 399 modeling in this clade due to uncertainty in species assignment, they lack obvious

400 ecological or morphological differentiation expected in a clade undergoing adaptive401 divergence.

402 Landscape barriers are the best-supported model for diversification in the 403 *mossambicus*_group. The phylogenetic data show that divergent taxa are concentrated in 404 the southeastern portion of the group's range. Within this region the Great Escarpment 405 meets a series of major rivers flowing from the interior plateau to the Indian Ocean, 406 including the Olifants, Limpopo, Save, Zambezi, and Shire rivers. These rivers form 407 substantial gorges as they escape the Escarpment, at least some of which clearly delimit 408 the ranges of *Breviceps* species. For example, the deeply incised canyon of the Olifants 409 River in Limpopo Province, South Africa demarcates the distributions of two species 410 from the gibbosus-group, B. verrucosus and B. sylvestris (Minter, 1998; Lawes et al., 411 2007) (Fig. 3). The SDMs for both species reciprocally predict suitable habitat across 412 either side of this putative barrier (Table 1). We expect the same would be the case if we 413 had enough data points to develop SDMs for *mossambicus*-group species. The Olifants 414 River has received little attention as a biogeographic barrier in the literature (e.g. 415 Jacobsen et al., 2014; Stanley & Bates, 2014; Maswanganye et al., 2017), but both the 416 steep gorge and river itself are likely insurmountable obstacles for *Breviceps* species, 417 which are poorly suited for either climbing or swimming. For the major eastward-flowing 418 rivers as a whole, periods of uplift from the Oligocene to Pleistocene spurred large scale 419 reorganization of river systems that involved capture of the Upper Zambezi system by the 420 Lower Zambezi (away from the Limpopo system), erosion of major river gorges, and 421 periodic formation of large internal basins (Moore & Larkin, 2001). The timing of these 422 events is consistent with divergences in the mossambicus-group.

423 The data suggest a different history for most species in the *gibbosus*-group, in 424 which evidence for divergence caused by climatic fluctuation is strong. The *gibbosus*-425 group inhabits recognized floral biodiversity hotspots (Mittermeier et al., 2004), although 426 the delimitation of such does not necessarily reflect vertebrate diversity (see Perera et al., 427 2011). Eastern South Africa (i.e. the MPA hotspot) is a mosaic of vegetation types, slope, 428 soils, and levels of precipitation, particularly as one moves inland from the coast towards 429 the escarpment (Perera et al., 2011), and substantial species-level diversification has been 430 noted in other regional vertebrate taxa thought to have limited dispersal ability (da Silva

431 & Tolley, 2017). In the southwestern Cape, a period of uplift in the early Miocene,

432 gradual climatic deterioration (Zachos et al., 2001), and the onset of the Benguela

433 upwelling system caused a switch to winter-dominant rainfall (Siesser, 1980; Roberts &

434 Brink, 2002), and produced significant changes in the resident flora and fauna. The

unique biotic composition of the CFR effectively delimits the area affected by these

436 climatic and epeirogenic changes (Matthee & Flemming, 2002; Daniels et al., 2006, 2009,

437 Tolley et al., 2006, 2010).

438 The times of divergence we estimate for species in the *gibbosus*-group are 439 consistent with isolation of populations being caused by this climatic deterioration. SDMs 440 also support the climate fluctuation model. An adaptive divergence model would predict 441 that closely related species would have significantly different niches (Schroeder's D 442 values near zero), and the landscape barrier model would predict geographic barriers 443 between close relatives, rather than the range overlap seen between close relatives in the 444 gibbosus-group (Fig. 3). Instead, closely related species in the gibbosus-group display 445 substantial overlap in niche, especially the most closely related species from the SW 446 Cape (Figs. 3, S3; Table 1), and it is less closely related species that show significant 447 niche divergence. This would be expected if *gibbosus*-group populations became 448 fragmented *in situ* as climate changed and eventually adapted as local climates continued 449 to diverge. For example, the split of *B. namaquensis*, *B. macrops* and *B. branchi* from the 450 rest of the SW Cape species (e.g. B. gibbosus, B. montanus, etc.) occurred in the mid- to 451 late-Miocene, which broadly corresponds to the regional climate shift in the SW Cape 452 that promoted advanced aridity and generated the winter rainfall zone. This shift 453 restricted the previously widespread subtropical forest to disjunct, relictual patches along 454 the southern slopes of the Cape Fold mountains (e.g. Knysna-Amatole ecoregion, habitat 455 of *B. fuscus*, Fig. 3) and replaced it with the dominant, contemporary Fynbos and 456 Succulent Karoo Biomes (Cowling et al., 2009; Neumann & Bamford, 2015; although 457 see Matthews et al., 2016). The SKR, or more specifically Namagualand, receives limited 458 rainfall but benefits from inland-penetrating, coastal fog (Olivier, 2002). The continued 459 input of moisture has likely been crucial in maintaining populations of *Breviceps* in South 460 Africa and allowing them to diversify rather than go extinct as a result of climate 461 deterioration.

462 While ecological preferences and geological barriers shape diversification, the 463 SDMs suggest that they also impact contemporary distributions of *Breviceps*. The Albany 464 Thicket biome (Fig. 3) is a distinct intersection between dramatically different climatic 465 and vegetative zones between the MPA and CFR hotspots and represents an example of 466 an ecological barrier. It has been shown to be a natural break in the distributions of 467 numerous faunal taxa (e.g. velvet worms, Daniels et al., 2009, and chameleons, Tolley et 468 al., 2006). This gap marks the southwestern limit of the broadly distributed B. verrucosus 469 and the eastern distribution of the Cape taxa (represented by the easternmost species, B. 470 *fuscus*), reflected in the lack of reciprocal overprediction between species specific SDMs 471 (Table 1; Fig. 3). Moreover, the habitat of *B. fuscus* falls within (presumably) relictual, 472 temperate, coastal afromontane forest of the Aseasonal Rainfall Zone (Fig. 1; although it 473 uniquely receives rainfall year round, with spring and fall rainfall being the most 474 consistent). This area is home to other range-restricted frogs (e.g. Afrixalus knysnae, 475 Heleophryne hewitti) and lizards (e.g. Bradypodion damaranum, Ninurta 476 *coeruleopunctatus*), suggesting that this is a unique area for herpetofauna (i.e. the Cape 477 Temperate Fauna sensu Poynton & Broadley, 1978). The Orange River is an example of 478 a potential geological barrier (Matthee & Flemming, 2002; but see Portik & Bauer, 2012) 479 and could play a role in the distribution of *B. namaquensis*. The SDM for *B. namaquensis* 480 overpredicts suitable habitat north of this river, but the species is only known from the south. 481

482

483 Conclusions

484 As shown in this study, a single model of divergence cannot fully explain 485 diversification in *Breviceps*. Instead, a combination of isolation resulting from geological 486 processes and climatic deterioration best explains the current diversity in the group. We 487 found no evidence for diversification driven by adaptive divergence. This pattern is 488 broadly consistent with patterns seen in more recently diverging amphibian and reptile 489 lineages of southern Africa, as described in the Introduction. Thus, we can conclude that 490 the processes promoting diversification in the region have remained consistent 491 throughout the Cenozoic; the main change over time is that specific events causing 492 divergences may differ. In the case of *Breviceps*, these events were mostly Miocene in

age and included geological evolution of the Great Escarpment, major changes to river
systems, and climate change that included both aridification and establishment of the
winter rain system in the SW Cape.

496 Two future extensions to this study may allow the primary conclusions to be 497 refined. First, broader sampling in the mossambicus-group would allow range limits of 498 species in this group to be better demarcated and allow development of SDMs to better 499 assess niche overlap. Second, additional variables could be coded into niche models as 500 data become available. For example, although we recovered high D values between three 501 similarly distributed SW Cape taxa that all utilize (to some degree) the Fynbos biome 502 (Table 1), B. montanus generally prefer mountain tops (Minter, 2004), as opposed to 503 mountain slopes (B. gibbosus) or the surrounding Cape flats (B. rosei). Likewise, to the 504 northwest, B. macrops is found exclusively in white sands close to the coast, and B. 505 namaquensis is generally found in red sands further inland (Channing & Wahlberg, 2011). 506 Substrate specificity has been suggested as a significant driver of divergence in other 507 southern African taxa (e.g. Bauer, 1999; Heinicke et al., 2017a, b) and combining such 508 ecological data with climate data could provide new insight into the degree of niche 509 overlap in Breviceps.

510 This study also has implications beyond identifying factors promoting 511 diversification of the African biota. Over ninety years have passed since the last major 512 systematic revision of Breviceps (Power, 1926). Our phylogenetic results identified 513 numerous cryptic lineages, two of which were described while this manuscript was in 514 review (Fig. 2; Minter et al., 2017). Such findings were previously predicted (Channing, 515 2001), and in some cases supported by allozyme and acoustic data (Minter, 1998; 516 Engelbrecht & Mulder, 2000), but so far no modern, comprehensive taxonomic revision 517 of this group has been attempted (although work is underway to rectify that deficiency). 518 This result mirrors previous findings suggesting that our knowledge of African 519 amphibian diversity is still a work in progress (Turner & Channing, 2008; Tolley et al., 520 2010; Channing et al., 2013; Loader et al., 2014; Bittencourt-Silva et al., 2016). These 521 'cryptic' lineages are concentrated in an area that is renowned for high herpetofaunal 522 diversity (Channing et al., 2013; Jacobsen et al., 2014; Stanley & Bates, 2014; Travers et 523 al., 2014), yet also identified as a region that will experience rapid amphibian decline due

- 524 to habitat loss (Stuart et al., 2004), thus immediate conservation action is needed to
- 525 preserve this distinct evolutionary radiation whose diversification has been shaped by the
- 526 interwoven changes of geology and climate in southern Africa.
- 527

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772 BIOSKETCH

Stuart V. Nielsen is an avid gastro-gnome, nomad, and evolutionary biologist
interested in the systematics, diversification, and biogeography of Gondwanan fauna,
particularly reptiles and amphibians, that dreams of one day living in a hobbit-hole.

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Author contributions: S.R.D. and S.V.N. conceived the idea; S.R.D. and W.C.

performed fieldwork; S.V.N. produced the sequence data and conducted the analyses,

- S.V.N. led the writing although all authors contributed to and approved the final version
- of this manuscript. We declare no conflicts of interest and this work is ours alone.
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782 **TABLES**

Table 1. Pairwise Schoener's *D* values (below the diagonal; and their associated *p*-values
above) from Niche Identity Tests performed in MAXENT using the 'phyloclim' package in
R. Cells with warmer colors indicate the highest values, and values are in bold when the
measured overlap falls within the distribution of pseudoreplicates.

	sylvestris	verrucosus	namaquensis	macrops	acutirostris	fuscus	gibbosus	rosei	montanus	
sylvestris		0.371	0.012	< 0.01	< 0.001	0.015	< 0.001	< 0.001	<0.001	p-va
verrucosus	0.420		< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	
namaquensis	0.042	0.000		< 0.01	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	
macrops	0.004	0.065	0.395	<u> </u>	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	1
acutirostris	0.010	0.015	0.022	0.021	-	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.01	
fuscus	0.022	0.029	0.001	0.002	0.139		< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	
gibbosus	0.030	0.004	0.317	0.079	0.222	0.007		< 0.01	< 0.001	
rosei	0.046	0.031	0.312	0.087	0.251	0.065	0.546	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	< 0.01	
montanus	0.022	0.021	0.086	0.017	0.648	0.137	0.437	0.568	Ū.	
	Schoener's	D								

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789 FIGURES

- **Figure 1.** Map of sub-Saharan Africa south of the Congo basin, highlighting relevant
- biodiversity hotspots: Cape Floristic Region (CFR, magenta); Succulent Karoo Region
- 792 (SKR, orange); Maputa-Pondoland-Albany (MPA, green); Coastal Forests of East Africa
- 793 (CFEA, brown); and Eastern Afromontane Biodiversity Region (EABR, red).
- 794 Biogeographically relevant features are indicated, including rivers, rainfall zones (winter
- [WRZ], summer [SRZ], and aseasonal [ARZ]), and ocean currents (see main text for
- 796 details).
- 797

798 Figure 2. (A) Phylogenetic relationships of *Breviceps* species-level relationships with 799 representative photographs of each species in life (not size standardized), as well as maps 800 of the geographic distributions of the two major groups: B) the *mossambicus*-group; C) 801 the *gibbosus*-group). Colored polygons on the maps coordinate with the small colored 802 circles and diamonds following the taxon names on the tree. The latter relate to 803 approximate geographic sampling localities indicated on the associated maps. Black 804 circles with numbers represent the eight putatively novel lineages within the 805 *mossambicus*-group (including two recently described taxa). Within the tree, a solid, 806 black circle indicates nodal support values $\geq 70\%$ for Maximum Likelihood bootstraps 807 (BS) and ≥ 0.95 for Bayesian inference posterior probabilities (PP), whereas a grey circle 808 represents PP ≥ 0.95 , but BS < 70%. (D) A gene network of phased RAG1 haplotype 809 sequences. (E) Time-calibrated ultrametric tree of *Breviceps* lineages based on 810 concatenated, partitioned nuclear data, with support and 95% confidence intervals (blue 811 bars) indicated at each node. Asterisks indicate high PP support. The lineage-through 812 time plot (red line) was generated using the LTT function in the R package 'ape'. 813

Figure 3. Composite map of the species distribution models (SDMs) for each species of
the *gibbosus*-group across the Cape of southern Africa, overlaid with pertinent
biogeographic features mentioned in the main text. Habitat suitability was calculated
using MAXENT from 100 bootstrap replicates and only the top 20% of maximum habitat
suitability is displayed for each taxon. Diamonds indicate museum and/or collection
localities used to generate each model.

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821 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Appendix 1 Supplementary tables including taxon sampling, primer information, genetic
distance, substitution models, bioclimatic variable contribution, and pseudoreplicate data
for each niche identity test.

- 825 Appendix 2 Supplementary figures including additional phylogenetic trees, gene
- 826 networks, and niche model output.

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