

# Arrival and diversification of mabuyine skinks (Squamata: Scincidae) in the Neotropics

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**Background:** The evolution of South American Mabuyinae skinks holds significant biogeographic interest because its sister lineage is distributed across the African continent. Moreover, at least one insular species, *Trachylepis atlantica*, has independently reached the New World through transoceanic dispersal. In an effort to clarify the evolutionary history of this lineage, this study aimed to infer an updated timescale using the largest species and gene sampling dataset ever assembled for this group.

**Methods:** Our dated tree allowed the estimation of the macroevolutionary diversification rates of the South American Mabuyinae lineages and the patterns of evolution of selected traits, namely, the mode of reproduction, body mass and snout-vent length. We also performed a historical-biogeographic analysis and a reconstruction of ancestral states of the mode of reproduction.

**Results:** Our results corroborated the hypothesis that the occupation of the South American continent by Mabuyinae consisted of two independent dispersion events that occurred between the Oligocene and the Miocene, figures that are consistent with values estimated for other South American vertebrate colonisers from Africa.

**Discussion:** After reaching the isolated South American continent, dispersal events changed the macroevolutionary diversification regime of mabuyine skinks and favoured the evolution of viviparity in the lineage.

1 **Arrival and diversification of mabuyine skinks (Squamata: Scincidae) in the Neotropics**

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19 **Abstract**

20 **Background:** The evolution of South American Mabuyinae skinks holds significant  
21 biogeographic interest because its sister lineage is distributed across the African continent.  
22 Moreover, at least one insular species, *Trachylepis atlantica*, has independently reached the New  
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36 viviparity in the lineage.

37

38 **Keywords:** historical biogeography; Neotropics; transoceanic dispersal; Atlantic Ocean;  
39 Mabuyinae; South America

## 40 Introduction

41

42 The subfamily Mabuyinae comprises 22 genera and approximately 190 species of lizards  
43 and belongs to the highly diverse and cosmopolitan Scincidae family (Lepidosauria; Squamata)  
44 (Uetz and Hosek, 2015). The Mabuyinae, as well as the Scincidae, are distributed on nearly all  
45 continents. About one-third of the species in this subfamily are from the Neotropical region, and  
46 they are the only representatives of scincids in this area.

47 The entire diversity of mabuyine species was traditionally assigned to the single genus,  
48 *Mabuya*, but a recent analysis proposed four new monophyletic genera with well-defined  
49 geographical distributions (Mausfeld *et al.*, 2002): (1) *Trachylepis* (previously *Euprepis*),  
50 comprising African and Madagascan species with one South American representative (namely,  
51 *T. atlantica*); (2) *Eutropis*, containing Asian species; (3) *Chioninia*, from the Cape Verde islands;  
52 and (4) *Mabuya*, containing New World species, recently rearranged into 16 new genera by  
53 Hedges and Conn (2012). Hedges and Conn (2012) treated South American Mabuyinae as a  
54 clade of family Mabuyidae, within the superfamily Lygosomoidea. The new Mabuyidae  
55 consisted of four new subfamilies, namely, Mabuyinae, Chioniniinae, Dasiinae and  
56 Trachylepidinae. Hedges and Conn's arrangement disregarded many genera previously related to  
57 Mabuyinae, such as *Eutropis*, *Lankaskincus*, and *Ristella* (Pyron *et al.*, 2013), although recent  
58 papers have questioned this classification (e.g. Pyron *et al.*, 2013, Pinto *et al.*, 2015, Karin *et al.*,  
59 2016).

60 Therefore, at least two phylogenetically distinct lineages of Mabuyinae are distributed in  
61 the New World, namely, *T. atlantica* and the Continental American Mabuyinae (CAM) clade.  
62 These lineages are distinguished by both morphological features – presacral vertebrae counts,  
63 keeled dorsal scales, coloration, and oviparity (Greer, '70) – and molecular evidence (Mausfeld  
64 and Vrcibradic, 2002; Carranza and Arnold, 2003; Whiting *et al.*, 2006). It is customary to  
65 assume that the history of Mabuyinae in South American continent consisted of two independent  
66 transoceanic dispersal events from the Old World (Mausfeld and Vrcibradic, 2002; Carranza and  
67 Arnold, 2003; Whiting *et al.*, 2006). The spatial distribution of the single representative of the  
68 genus *Trachylepis* in South America, *T. atlantica*, is of particular interest. This issue is so  
69 intriguing that it has reached the pages of nontechnical literature (de Queiroz, 2014). *T. atlantica*  
70 is found in Fernando de Noronha, a small volcanic archipelago that lies 375 km from the

71 northeastern coast of Brazil in the Atlantic Ocean and was geologically formed from the  
72 Miocene (12.3 Ma) to the upper Pliocene, from 3.3-1.7 Ma (Almeida, 2002). Although other  
73 *Trachylepis* species have spread to several islands near the African continent, the presence of *T.*  
74 *atlantica* in Fernando de Noronha likely represents the farthest dispersal registered for the genus.

75 The CAM lineage, on the other hand, contains approximately 60 species of Mabuyinae.  
76 Previous studies have suggested that the split between this clade and the African Mabuyinae  
77 (genus *Trachylepis*) occurred from 28 Ma to 34 Ma (Hedges and Conn, 2012; Karin et al., 2016).  
78 Additionally, the age of the last common ancestor (LCA) of the CAM has been dated to 7-9 Ma  
79 (Carranza and Arnold, 2003; Pinto-Sanchez et al., 2015) and 11-14 Ma (Miralles and Carranza,  
80 2010; Hedges and Conn, 2012; Karin et al., 2016). After analysis of the system dynamics of  
81 present-day Atlantic Ocean currents, Mausfeld *et al.* (2002) suggested that *T. atlantica* could  
82 have dispersed from the coast of Southwest Africa to South America, but no work to date has  
83 comprehensively evaluated this hypothesis.

84 Chronological information is indispensable for a full understanding of the scenario  
85 underlying the current geographic distribution and evolutionary history of extant (Sanmartín *et*  
86 *al.* 2008; Loss-Oliveira *et al.* 2012). However, estimates of divergence times within the  
87 Mabuyinae have been hampered by the lack of fossils for Mabuyinae, which made previous  
88 researchers rely on evolutionary rates borrowed from the literature (e.g., Carranza and Arnold,  
89 2003; Miralles and Carranza, 2010; Lima *et al.*, 2013; Barker et al., 2015; Karin *et al.*, 2016) or  
90 to employ biogeographic events as calibrations (Hedges and Conn, 2012; Pinto-Sanchez et al.,  
91 2015) in order to derive the timescale of this lineage. The fossil record, however, has been  
92 demonstrated to be much more informative than biogeographic events as a calibration tool  
93 (Heads, 2011). These events require the assumption of vicariant scenarios of diversification,  
94 which entails that the speciation is synchronous with the breaking apart of landmasses or that  
95 island colonisation occurs immediately following geological formation (Heads, 2011; Mello and  
96 Schrago, 2012).

97 In addition to estimates of divergence time, revealing the origin and diversification of the  
98 CAM clade and *T. atlantica* requires a robust phylogenetic hypothesis. Although it is generally  
99 accepted that *T. atlantica* is a member of the genus *Trachylepis* and therefore excluded from the  
100 main diversification of the CAM, its evolutionary affinity remains controversial (Mausfeld et al.,  
101 2002; Carranza and Arnold, 2003; Whiting et al., 2006). Moreover, the occupation of the South

102 American mainland by the CAM motivates an analysis of differential diversification rates in this  
103 clade, as dispersal may influence the macroevolutionary dynamics of a lineage (e.g.,  
104 Sigmodontinae rodents, (Leite et al., 2014)). Early proposed phylogenies of Mabuyinae used a  
105 maximum of 35 species, a number that significantly underrepresents the diversity of this  
106 subfamily (Mausfeld et al., 2002; Carranza and Arnold, 2003; Whiting et al., 2006). Recently,  
107 Hedges and Conn (2012) studied the CAM clade exclusively and included 40 species, whereas  
108 the large-scale Squamata phylogeny of Pyron *et al.* (2013), which contains 4,161 species,  
109 sampled 71 mabuyine skink species. Considering that improvements in phylogenetic inference  
110 and divergence time estimation can be obtained with increased taxon sampling (Linder et al.,  
111 2005; Albert et al., 2009; Soares and Schrago, 2012), this matter requires further investigation.

112         In this study, as a means of exploring the continental biogeographic and evolutionary  
113 patterns associated with the occupation of South America by mabuyine skinks, we estimated the  
114 molecular phylogeny of Scincidae, inferred the divergence times of its members, and performed,  
115 for the first time, a statistical historical-biogeographic analysis and diversification rate analysis  
116 of this group. To this end, we assembled a dataset for studying mabuyine evolution, which also  
117 included representatives of the rest of the Scincidae. This comprises the largest dataset of species  
118 and gene sampling composed to date, with the aim of uncovering the evolution of the  
119 Mabuyinae.

## 121 **Materials and Methods**

122

### 123 *Data collection, alignment and taxonomy*

124 We assembled a dataset containing sequence information for eight genetic loci from 117  
125 species of Mabuyinae. Moreover, a representative number of terminals were collected from other  
126 scincid subfamilies (101 genera), totalling 227 taxa, that were downloaded from GenBank. Two  
127 genera of the family Xantusiidae were used as outgroups. All seven genes available from  
128 *Trachylepis atlantica* were used in our analysis: the mitochondrial ribosomal genes *12S* rRNA,  
129 *16S* rRNA and the coding gene cytochrome b (*cytb*); as well as the nuclear genes alpha enolase  
130 (*enol*), oocyte maturation factor (*cmos*), glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH),  
131 myosin heavy chain (*myh*), and G protein-coupled receptor 149 (GPR149). Accession numbers  
132 are available in Supplementary File 1. When several sequences representative of each taxon were  
133 available, the longest sequence was selected. All protein-coding sequences were aligned  
134 individually in SeaView (Gouy *et al.*, 2010) using the MUSCLE (Edgar 2004) algorithm,  
135 whereas the ribosomal genes were aligned in MAFFT (Kato and Standley, 2013). Gblocks  
136 (Castresana, 2000; Talavera and Castresana, 2007) was used to exclude poorly aligned bases and  
137 divergent regions in the *12S* rRNA, *16S* rRNA and *enol* genes. Individual genes were then  
138 concatenated into a single supermatrix using the R package Phyloch (r-phylo.org). RogueNarok  
139 (Aberer *et al.*, 2013) was used to identify rogue taxa without significant phylogenetic  
140 information. To this end, a rapid bootstrapping algorithm analysis (Stamatakis *et al.*, 2008),  
141 followed by a thorough search of the ML tree using the evolutionary model GTRGAMMA, was  
142 performed in RAxML-HPC (8.1.24) (Stamatakis, 2014). The ML tree and bootstrap trees were  
143 analysed in the program. The terminal nodes *Larutia* and *Otosaurus*, which each presented a  
144 relative bipartition information criterion (RBIC) higher than 1.0, were removed from the  
145 analysis. Another dataset, assembled with a more stringent (RBIC > 0.5) criterion, was  
146 composed for comparison. Under this criterion, the genus *Lankascincus* and the mabuyine  
147 species *Eumecia anchietae* and *Trachylepis acutilabris* were excluded from the analyses. The  
148 results, however, were robust for both RBIC values, and we report the analyses under RBIC >  
149 1.0 hereafter. The final supermatrix consisting of 4,131 base pairs are available in Supplementary  
150 File 2

151 In this study, we followed the current Reptile Database classification (as of October  
152 2016), which adopts the genus-level taxonomical arrangement proposed by Hedges and Conn  
153 (2012), with the subfamily classification of Scincidae that includes Mabuyinae, Egerniinae,  
154 Sphenomorphinae, Eugongylineae, Lygosominae and Acontinae.

155

156

### 157 *Evolutionary analyses*

158 We investigated 18 candidate partitioning schemes using PartitionFinder's heuristic  
159 search algorithm (Lanfear *et al.*, 2012). The partitioning schemes also tested codon positions of  
160 protein-coding genes. The partitioning strategy with the best fit consisted of 7 partitions  
161 (Supplementary File 3), which were used throughout the analyses. Maximum likelihood (ML)  
162 phylogenetic inference was performed in RAxML-HPC (8.1.24). The GTR substitution model  
163 was applied to each partition, as this is the only model supported in RAxML. ML analyses used  
164 200 initial searches for finding the optimal tree topology. Statistical support for clades was  
165 assessed using 2,000 nonparametric bootstrap replicates (PB).

166 Inference of node ages was performed with the mcmcree program of the PAML 4.8a  
167 package (Yang, 2007). Priors for the *rgene* and *sigma2* parameters were set as  $G(2, 200)$  and  
168  $G(1, 10)$ , respectively. Markov chains were sampled every 1,000 generations until 50,000 trees  
169 were collected. The analysis was performed twice to check for convergence of the chains.  
170 Effective sample sizes (ESS) of parameters were calculated in Tracer v. 1.5, and all values were  
171 greater than 200.

172

### 173 *Calibration priors*

174 The root age, which corresponds to the split between the families Scincidae and  
175 Xantusiidae, was calibrated at a minimum value of 70.6 Ma and a maximum age of 209.5 Ma.  
176 The minimum was set according to the oldest scincid from the Late Cretaceous in North America  
177 (Campanian, 83.5-70.6 Ma), as previously adopted by Mulcahy *et al.* (2012) (Rowe *et al.*, '92);  
178 while the maximum was set according to Benton *et al.* (2015), which proposed a maximum age  
179 of the ancestral of Squamata. Additional calibration information was gathered from the  
180 PaleoBioDB (paleobiodb.org) and entered as minimum ages of the stem nodes of clades. The  
181 minimum age of the Scincidae stem node was calibrated at 20.4 Ma, based on the oldest crown

182 scincid *Eumeces antiquus* classified as a member of the subfamily Scincinae (Holman, '81; Estes,  
183 '83). The clade containing the extant genus *Eumeces* was calibrated at a minimum age of 13.6  
184 Ma based on fossils from the Middle Miocene in North America (Holman, '66; Voorhies *et al.*,  
185 '87; Joeckel, '88). An extinct *Egernia* sp. from the Miocene of Hungary was used to calibrate the  
186 part of Egerminae containing this extant genus (Venczel and Hír, 2013). According to Böhme  
187 (2010), the fossil *Tropidophorus bavaricus* belongs to extant genus *Tropidophorus*, and it was  
188 used to calibrate this clade (Böttcher *et al.*, 2009).

189

#### 190 *Ancestral area reconstruction*

191 A historical biogeographical reconstruction was performed for the subfamily Mabuyinae  
192 and its sister clade (*Lankascincus* and *Ristella*). The R package BioGeoBEARS (Matzke 2013)  
193 was used to run likelihood methods: DIVALIKE (a likelihood interpretation of DIVA that allows  
194 for the same events as DIVA – Matzke, 2013) and DEC (Dispersal-Extinction-Cladogenesis, Ree  
195 and Smith, 2008). In BioGeoBEARS, used the likelihood ratio to test whether the null models  
196 (DIVALIKE and DEC) fitted the data better than did the more sophisticated models  
197 (DIVALIKE+J and DEC+J). The “J” in models represents the addition of the founder-event  
198 speciation, thereby allowing dispersal without range expansion (Matzke 2014). The maximum  
199 range size, which limits the number of areas defined by tips and nodes, was set to two, based on  
200 the current geographic distribution of species. Constraints on dispersal or area availability were  
201 not included. To make the biogeographic analysis computationally feasible, islands were not  
202 considered to be independent regions. The rationale for choosing the seven biogeographic areas  
203 follows the zoogeographical regions found in the herpetological and biogeographical literature  
204 (Vitt and Caldwell, 2009; Lomolino, 2010; Morrone, 2014; Pyron, 2014): (1) Neotropical  
205 Brazilian Subregion (B), (2) Neotropical Chacoan Subregion (C), (3) West Indies – Caribbean  
206 Islands (W); (4) Oriental Region (O): Southeast Asia + Philippines + Indian Subcontinent  
207 (Pakistan to Bangladesh, including Sri Lanka, Nepal, and Bhutan); (5) Afrotropical (A): Sub-  
208 Saharan Africa; (6) Madagascar (M): Madagascar and adjacent islands (the Seychelles and the  
209 Comoros); and (7) Saharo-Arabian (S): Europe + North Africa + the northern portion of the  
210 Arabian Peninsula + Southwest Asia. Using online distributional data from the Reptile Database,  
211 we classified the tips as belonging to one or more of these areas.

212

213 *Rate of species diversification and diversification-phenotype rate correlation*

214 Our dated phylogeny of Mabuyinae was used to infer the dynamics of species diversification  
215 using BAMM (Bayesian Analysis of Macroevolutionary Mixtures – Rabosky, 2014), which  
216 simultaneously accounts for variation in evolutionary rates through time and among lineages  
217 using transdimensional (reversible-jump) Markov chain Monte Carlo (rjMCMC) (Rabosky  
218 2014). Markov chains were sampled every 1,000<sup>th</sup> generation until 37,500 trees were collected  
219 after a burn-in of 25%. Prior distributions were set according to *setBAMMPriors* function from  
220 the BAMMtools R package (Rabosky *et al.* 2014). The frequencies of the species in each genus  
221 were considered.

222 We were also prompted to test for trait-dependent diversification. The following traits  
223 were collated from the literature: (i) data on the reproductive mode for 60 species of the  
224 Mabuyinae – 39 species as viviparous, 17 as oviparous, and 3 as ovoviviparous (Meiri *et al.*  
225 2013; Pyron and Burbrink 2013); (ii) the SVL (snout–vent length) for 46 species (Meiri 2010;  
226 Miralles and Carranza, 2010; Das 2010; Hedges and Conn, 2012; Meiri *et al.* 2013; Pyron and  
227 Burbrink 2013); and (iii) the body mass data for 35 species (Meiri 2010; Hedges and Conn,  
228 2012). Following previous works, we treated "ovoviviparity" as viviparity (Pyron and Burbrink  
229 2013).

230 Differences in the rates of speciation ( $\lambda$ ) and extinction ( $\mu$ ) between New World ( $NW$ )  
231 and Old World ( $\overline{NW}$ ) areas and between viviparous ( $V$ ) and non-viviparous ( $\overline{V}$ ) lineages were  
232 tested using two approaches. Firstly, an ANOVA, implemented in the R package diversitree  
233 (FitzJohn 2012), was used to compare different macroevolutionary regimes. In the  $NW/\overline{NW}$   
234 comparison, rates were calculated using the GeoSSE approach (Goldberg *et al.* 2011), whereas  
235 BiSSE was used to test  $V/\overline{V}$  rates, with both tests of binary characters as implemented in  
236 diversitree. In this sense, GeoSSE first optimised the parameters under an unconstrained full  
237 model, in which ML estimates were obtained for (i) the speciation rate of the New World lineage  
238 ( $\lambda_{NW}$ ); (ii) the speciation rate of non-New World lineages ( $\lambda_{\overline{NW}}$ ); (iii) the extinction rate of the  
239 New World clade ( $\mu_{NW}$ ); (iv) the extinction rate of non-New World lineages ( $\mu_{\overline{NW}}$ ); (v) the  
240 intermediate speciation rate parameter ( $\lambda_{NW,\overline{NW}}$ ); (vi) the dispersal rates from the New World  
241 clade ( $d_{NW \rightarrow \overline{NW}}$ ); and (vii) the dispersal rates of the sister lineages ( $d_{\overline{NW} \rightarrow NW}$ ). Similarly, BiSSE  
242 was used to infer (i) the speciation rate of the viviparous lineage ( $\lambda_V$ ); (ii) the speciation rate of

243 non-viviparous lineages ( $\lambda_{\bar{V}}$ ); (iii) the extinction rate of the viviparous clade ( $\mu_V$ ); (iv) the  
244 extinction rate of non-viviparous lineages ( $\mu_{\bar{V}}$ ); (v) transition rates from the viviparous clade (  
245  $q_{V \rightarrow \bar{V}}$ ); and (vi) transition rates of the sister clade ( $q_{\bar{V} \rightarrow V}$ ). Initial parametric values were set  
246 according to the *starting.point* function from the diversitree package with an initial ratio of 0.5.  
247 This preliminary step was required to build the likelihood function (the *make* command). In  
248 BiSSE, species with unknown states were coded as ‘NA’ and assigned the sampling fraction of  
249 the species of Mabuyinae used in this work (~61%), independent of the character state.  
250 Subsequently, to perform the ANOVA test of the GeoSSE results, we chose to constrain the  
251 intermediate speciation and the dispersal rate parameters to zero ( $\lambda_{NW, \overline{NW}} = d_{NW \rightarrow \overline{NW}} =$   
252  $d_{\overline{NW} \rightarrow NW} = 0$ ), in order to compare speciation and the extinction rates within regions exclusively.  
253 Finally, we tested macroevolutionary alternative models against the full models (Table 1).

254 The second comparison between  $NW/\overline{NW}$  and  $V/\bar{V}$  macroevolutionary regimes used the  
255 marginal posterior distributions of macroevolutionary parameters, inspected using the R package  
256 diversitree. These distributions were obtained using the MCMC analyses, with samples taken in  
257 diversitree every 1,000<sup>th</sup> generation until 1,000 samples were collected. A broad exponential  
258 prior (mean of 0.5) for all parameters was used, as recommended, while the  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  rates were  
259 set as the values obtained in the ML full model (FitzJohn 2012). For the  $NW/\overline{NW}$  relationship,  
260 we also used the marginal posterior distributions obtained from BAMM, applying the  
261 *getCladeRates* function of the BAMMtools R package. For all approaches, we calculated the  
262 95% highest posterior density (HPD) interval for the difference between the means of the  $NW/$   
263  $\overline{NW}$  and  $V/\bar{V}$  lineages (Bolstad 2007).

264 The diversification-phenotype rate correlation was performed in STRAPP (Rabosky and  
265 Huang 2015), as implemented in BAMMtools. To run STRAPP, phylogenies were pruned to  
266 match the available information for both tree terminals and traits. Diversification analysis results  
267 previously obtained using BAMM were pruned to match the available trait information using the  
268 function *subtreeBAMM* and were tested against the analysed traits, using the Mann-Whitney  
269 method for binary characters and both Pearson and Spearman methods for continuous traits.

270

271 *Rate of trait evolution and ancestral state reconstruction*

272 We inferred ancestral states of reproductive mode in the BayesTraits software (Pagel *et*  
273 *al.* 2004) and in the R package BiSSE. Both approaches use the maximum likelihood method and  
274 allow the use of species with unknown character states. Results were visualised in the R package  
275 diversitree. The rates of trait evolution of the two continuous traits studied, namely, SVL and  
276 body mass, were inferred in BAMM, using logarithms of both measures. Phylogenies were also  
277 pruned to match the available information for both tree terminals and traits. Prior distributions to  
278 these subtrees were set according to *setBAMMPriors* function from the BAMMtools R package  
279 (Rabosky *et al.* 2014). Chains were sampled every 1,000 generations until 50,000 trees were  
280 collected. The results were summarised and visualised in BAMMtools.

281 **Results**

282

283 Mabuyinae was recovered as a monophyletic group (BS = 76). The first split in this  
284 subfamily isolated the genus *Dasia* from the remaining Mabuyinae and was inferred to have  
285 occurred at 30 Ma, with an HPD interval ranging from 20 to 48 Ma (Supplementary File 4). The  
286 biogeographical model with the highest likelihood was the DEC+J (lnL: -94.34). Therefore, the  
287 addition of the J parameter for founder events significantly increased the likelihood of the DEC  
288 model ( $p = 1.2e^{-9}$ , Table 2). Our results supported a model in which the genera *Lankascincus* and  
289 *Ristella* split from Mabuyinae (BS = 20) in the Oriental region.

290 After dispersal from the Oriental region to Africa, the ancestor of the CAM clade split  
291 from Saharo-Arabian *Trachylepis* approximately 25 Ma ( $\pm$  16-41 Ma) (BS=60). Subsequently,  
292 the stock that gave rise to New World Mabuyinae dispersed from the Saharo-Arabian region to  
293 the Neotropical Brazilian Subregion (Figure 1). The New World Mabuyinae were recovered as  
294 monophyletic (BS=97), and the age of their LCA was estimated as 19 Ma (12-31 Ma). Our  
295 results supported the hypothesis that this lineage reached the Neotropics via the Chacoan  
296 Subregion. From this region, the ancestor of *Spondylurus* and *Copeoglossum* dispersed to islands  
297 of the West Indies. The continental clade later dispersed along the Brazilian Subregion.  
298 Additional dispersal events to the West Indies were inferred to have occurred at least twice: in  
299 the ancestor of *Mabuya* and in that of *Alinea* and *Marisora*. *Marisora* was not recovered as  
300 monophyletic, with the Central American clade as sister to *Alinea* and the South American clade  
301 as sister as *Aspronema*.

302 The origin of *Trachylepis atlantica* consisted of a different history. Firstly, the  
303 monophyly of genus *Trachylepis* was not recovered. This genus was split into two lineages: one  
304 sister lineage of the CAM clade and another major clade to which *T. atlantica* belongs. Our  
305 analysis supported the phylogenetic position of *T. atlantica* as a sister lineage of the clade  
306 including the Europa Island *T. infralineata*, the Madagascan *T. comorensis*, and the continental  
307 African *T. maculilabris* (BS = 29). We found that the *T. atlantica* ancestor diverged from the  
308 remaining *Trachylepis* in the Miocene, approximately 17 Ma (between 10 and 27 Ma) at tropical  
309 Africa. The younger diversification of *T. atlantica* indicates that the crossing of this species to

310 Fernando de Noronha occurred more recently than did the occupation of South America by the  
311 CAM clade. Our analyses also suggested that once the ancestors of this major *Trachylepis* clade  
312 reached Africa, dispersal events from the African continent occurred to Madagascar and nearby  
313 islands at least three times, in addition to the dispersion to the Neotropics (*T. atlantica*). Our  
314 results showed that a monophyletic Madagascan *Trachylepis* (BS = 94) diverged from its sister  
315 group approximately 19 Ma (12 – 32 Ma) (BS = 23).

316 The ANOVA was used to test whether the full four-parameter GeoSSE model of the  $NW/\overline{NW}$   
317  $\overline{NW}$  comparison (model 1) was statistically favoured over simpler alternative models (models 2-  
318 4). When we constrained speciation rates to be equal (model 2) and to present equal speciation  
319 and extinction rates (model 4), the full model was supported over these alternative models ( $p =$   
320  $0.00782$  and  $p = 0.02900$ , respectively). The comparison with the model that constrained  
321 extinction rates (model=3), however, was not significantly different ( $p = 0.15575$ ).

322 GeoSSE analysis of the difference between the posterior distributions of speciation rates  
323 in  $NW/\overline{NW}$  lineages indicated a positive credible interval (CI) (0.005:0.113), indicating that the  
324 speciation rates of South American clades ( $NW$ ) were indeed higher than those of the remaining  
325 lineages ( $\overline{NW}$ ). In BAMM, however, we failed to find a significant difference between the  
326 posterior distributions of speciation rates (CI: -0.103:0.074). We also found no evidence for  
327 diversification shifts during mabuyine diversification. However, the macroevolutionary cohort  
328 matrix suggested heterogeneous macroevolutionary rate regimes in the South American  
329 Mabuyinae and the remaining clade (Figure 2). In both GeoSSE and BAMM analyses, we failed  
330 to find differences between the extinction rates (CI<sub>geoSSE</sub>: -0.036:0.074, CI<sub>BAMM</sub>: -0.103:0.110)  
331 and between the net diversification rates (CI<sub>geoSSE</sub>: -0.010:0.090, CI<sub>BAMM</sub>: -0.073:0.036).

332 Concerning the influence of viviparity on diversification rates, no submodels were  
333 supported over the unconstrained model ( $p > 0.05$ ). STRAPP analysis failed to find any  
334 correlation between diversification rates and mode of reproduction ( $p > 0.05$ ). We also found no  
335 differences between the means obtained from the MCMC of the BiSSE (CI: -0.018:0.125, -  
336 0.038:0.055, -0.051:0.049, respectively for speciation, extinction and transition rates).

337 According to the ancestral state reconstructions of the mode of reproduction, the ancestor  
338 of CAM and their *Trachylepis* sister clade was recovered as viviparous by BayesTraits  
339 ( $P_{BTML}=0.751$ ;  $P_{BTBA}=0.787$ ) and as oviparous by BiSSE ( $P_{BISSE}=1$ ), while the ancestor of CAM  
340 alone was recovered as viviparous by all approaches ( $P_{BISSE}=0.953$ ;  $P_{BTML}=0.992$ ;  $P_{BTBA}=0.983$ ),  
341 suggesting that the ancestral species that colonised South America was likely viviparous (Figure  
342 2). The ancestor of the subfamily Mabuyinae was inferred as oviparous ( $P_{BISSE}=1$ ;  $P_{BTML}=0.983$ ;  
343  $P_{BTBA}=0.980$ ). Viviparity seems to have emerged several times in the genus *Trachylepis*, as well  
344 as in the ancestor of *Chioninia* ( $P_{BISSE}=0.952$ ;  $P_{BTML}=0.984$ ;  $P_{BTBA}=0.971$ ).

345 We also analysed the differences in the SVL measurement and body mass of the *NW*  
346 clade in comparison with the remainder  $\overline{NW}$  lineages. The mean rates of trait evolution of SVL  
347 and body mass were smaller in the New World clade than in the  $\overline{NW}$  lineages. However, these  
348 differences were not significant. In BAMM, we found an increase in the rate of SVL trait  
349 evolution in genus *Chioninia*. Only one clade presented an increase in the rate of body mass trait  
350 evolution: the Seychelles *Trachylepis* (*T. wrightii* and *T. brevicollis*). STRAPP analysis failed to  
351 find a significant correlation between the rate of species diversification and the rate of SVL or  
352 body mass trait evolution ( $p > 0.05$ ).

353 **Discussion**

354

355 Our analyses support the hypothesis that the occupation of South America by the  
356 ancestors of the Continental America Mabayinae (CAM) clade occurred between the Eocene and  
357 the Oligocene from the Saharo-Arabian region, corroborating recent estimates (e.g. Pinto-  
358 Sánchez *et al.* 2015; Karin *et al.*, 2016). This colonisation occurred independently of that of  
359 *Trachylepis atlantica*, which split from its tropical African sister clade between the Oligocene  
360 and the Miocene. Therefore, our results corroborated the hypothesis that the ancestor of *T.*  
361 *atlantica* dispersed from tropical Africa as suggested by Mausfeld *et al.* (2002). The divergence  
362 between *T. atlantica* and its African ancestors was older than the age of the formation of the  
363 Fernando de Noronha archipelago. Thus, it is unlikely that the ancestors of *T. atlantica* reached  
364 South America in a single transoceanic dispersal event. We must therefore assume a more  
365 complex dispersal scenario, likely a series of dispersals through a transatlantic island corridor  
366 leading to Fernando de Noronha. This stepping-stone mode of dispersal would explain the  
367 discrepancy between the ages of genetic divergence and the formation of the archipelago because  
368 it would dissociate the geological formation of the Fernando de Noronha archipelago from the  
369 genetic isolation of the ancestor of *T. atlantica*.

370 The recurrent appearance of NW fossil forms related to Old World vertebrate lineages in  
371 the South American fossil record near the Eocene/Oligocene boundary, a period in which the  
372 South American landmass was completely isolated from Africa, entails a transoceanic  
373 connection between the two continents during this period (Simpson, '50; Poux *et al.*, 2006; de  
374 Oliveira *et al.*, 2009). This transatlantic island corridor would also explain CAM clade  
375 dispersion. Note that a fossil of a putative species of Mabayinae has been described in the mid-  
376 Atlantic Ascension Island, although no recent systematic re-evaluation of this specimen is  
377 available (Mausfeld and Vrcibradic, 2002). In fact, studies have reported the existence of large  
378 islands in the Atlantic Ocean (Ezcurra and Agnolin, 2012) that would have facilitated the  
379 crossing from Africa to South America of lineages as diverse as the hystricognath rodents (Loss-  
380 Oliveira *et al.*, 2012; Voloch *et al.*, 2013), anthropoid primates (Schrager *et al.*, 2012; 2013),  
381 amphisbaenians (Vidal *et al.*, 2008), emballonurid bats (Teeling, 2005; Leigh *et al.*, 2013),  
382 testudinid turtles (Le *et al.*, 2006), and others (Briggs, 2003; Renner, 2004; de Queiroz, 2005), all  
383 taking place much later than the complete isolation of the two continents at approximately 100

384 Ma. The direction of Atlantic Ocean currents from Africa to South America would explain the  
385 scarcity of dispersals in the opposite direction (Houle, '99). The evolution of the two American  
386 lineages of Mabuyinae also corroborates this faunal connection and suggests that this dispersal  
387 may have occurred through island hopping, which is more likely than a single sweepstake event  
388 across the Atlantic Ocean.

389 The age of the first diversification of a living CAM species was inferred to be much  
390 earlier than the previously reported estimates by Carranza and Arnold (2003), 7-9 Ma. However,  
391 the ages inferred by Miralles and Carranza (2010); Hedges and Conn (2012) and Karin *et al.*  
392 (2016), approximately 14 Ma, lay within in the range found in this work (12-31 Ma). It is worth  
393 noting that previous estimates are also incompatible with single-event scenarios. Our molecular  
394 phylogeny was at odds with previous hypotheses on the relationships among the genera of  
395 Mabuyinae (Mausfeld, 2000; Mausfeld *et al.*, 2002; Carranza and Arnold, 2003; Whiting *et al.*,  
396 2006; Pyron *et al.*, 2013). The evolutionary association between the Continental American  
397 Mabuyinae (CAM) and the (*T. vittata* + *T. aurata*) clade, a lineage that we herein propose to  
398 have emerged in the Oligocene, has already been reported in previous works (Carranza and  
399 Arnold, 2003; Sindaco *et al.*, 2012). As in this work, Pyron *et al.* (2013) also recovered  
400 *Trachylepis* as non-monophyletic but not directly related to the CAM. We also found that the  
401 (CAM + (*Trachylepis vittata* + *T. aurata* + *T. septaemtaeniata*) clade diverged from the lineage  
402 composed of the *Chioninia* and remaining *Trachylepis* in the Oligocene (~27 Ma). This estimate  
403 is older than the value reported by Hedges and Conn (2012), who placed the divergence in the  
404 Miocene (~18 Ma).

405 The arrival of Mabuyinae to South America seems to have changed the diversification  
406 rate regime of this lineage. The evolution rates of both body mass and SVL traits were not  
407 significantly altered after the arrival of the ancestors of New World clades, but the increases in  
408 rates of both traits were found in island groups, such in Cape Verde's *Chioninia* and Seychelles'  
409 *Trachylepis*. The viviparous CAM clade presents peculiar reproductive traits, such as a  
410 specialised chorioallantoic placenta that provides the foetal nutrition, similarly to eutherian  
411 mammals (Vrcibradic and Rocha, 2011). This character was suggested to be synapomorphic by  
412 Mausfeld *et al.* (2002). According to our analysis, the CAM ancestor was already viviparous, as  
413 was the ancestor of the genus *Chioninia*. Changes in reproductive mode seem to be correlated  
414 with dispersals or island occupation.

415           Regarding the higher systematics of Mabuyinae, Greer ('70), based on the primitive  
416 characteristics of Asian Mabuyinae, suggested that the ancestors of this subfamily first dispersed  
417 from Asia. Other works reasserted this hypothesis, although no formal statistical analyses were  
418 conducted (Honda *et al.*, '99; 2003; Karin *et al.*, 2016). According to our results, early members  
419 of Mabuyinae dispersed to Africa and then reached South America and several oceanic islands.  
420 Our time-dated phylogeny and biogeographic reconstruction similarly suggested an Oriental  
421 ancestral distribution, as corroborated by the distribution of the genera *Lankascincus* and  
422 *Ristella*, which were recovered as sister clades of Mabuyinae and are geographically distributed  
423 in the Oriental region (Sri Lanka and the Indian, respectively). The age of the LCA of  
424 Mabuyinae and its sister clade was placed in the Eocene, and was likely distributed in the  
425 Oriental region. Additionally, we showed that the first genus of this group to diverge (*Dasia*, at  
426 30 Ma) is from the Oriental region. Our time estimates overlap with the age of the collision  
427 between the Indian subcontinent and Southeast Asia at ca. 50 Ma (Chatterjee *et al.*, 2013).  
428 Therefore, the ancestor of the group may have reached the Asian continent through an Indian  
429 route and experienced a vicariant event with the uplift of the Himalayas.

430           Finally, this study provided an updated timescale and estimates of macroevolutionary  
431 regimes of the diversification of the subfamily Mabuyinae. Our focus was the occupation of the  
432 South American continent by the subfamily Mabuyinae through an Oligocene/Eocene  
433 transoceanic connection (E/O), which could be responsible for approximately 29% of the South  
434 American mammal diversity, suggesting the importance of this event to the extant vertebrate  
435 diversity in South America (Marshall *et al.*, '82). CAM and *T. atlantica* are the only  
436 representatives of the family Scincidae in South America accounting for 4% of the  
437 approximately 1560 squamate species on this continent (Uetz, 2000). Although there are species  
438 of other subfamilies of Scincidae in Central America, these species never crossed the Isthmus of  
439 Panama. The converse also seems true because the only mabuyine genus (*Marisora*) that  
440 partially occupied Central America based on our results had arrived via an intermediate  
441 dispersion through the West Indies. This suggests that no representative of Scincidae would be  
442 found in present day South American fauna in the absence of this E/O connection. Our results  
443 presented an overall picture of the timing, biogeography and macroevolutionary dynamics  
444 associated with the arrivals of the ancestors of the only vertebrate clade know to have undergone  
445 transoceanic dispersal twice.

446

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448

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452

453

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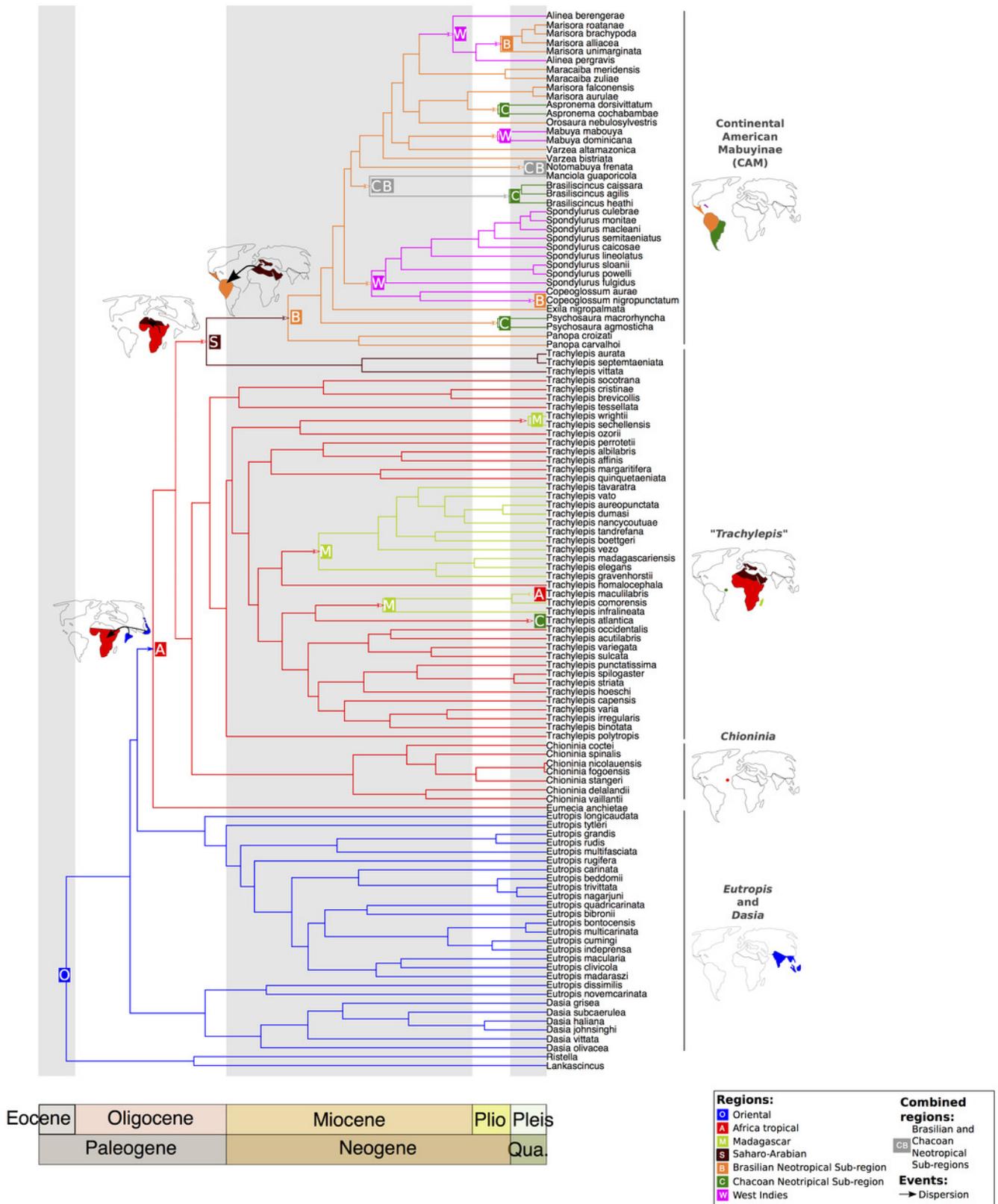
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# Figure 1

Time-dated phylogeny of the Mabuyinae with ancestral area reconstruction

Maps depict putative dispersals and vicariance events that culminated in the occupation of South America by this group. Ancestral area reconstruction was based on the results from DEC+J because this model produced a significantly higher log-likelihood score.



## Figure 2

Macroevolutionary cohort matrix for the Mabuyinae subfamily.

Illustration of the macroevolutionary rates for the mabuyine lineage obtained using BAMM. For reference, the BAMM tree is plotted in the upper margin of the figure. The pairwise probability that any two species share a common macroevolutionary rate dynamic is indicated by the colour of each individual centre cell. The scale for the colour is indicated at the right. The coral and brown circles in the upper tree represent the shifts found with BAMM in the traits SVL and body mass, respectively. In the right tree, bars in the nodes show the mode of reproduction inferred by BayesTraits, according to the probability of occurrence of each character. Red represents viviparity, and black represents oviparity.

