Multiple transgressions of Wallace's Line explain diversity of flightless *Trigonopterus* weevils on Bali

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Received: 26 September 2013
Accepted: 18 February 2014

Subject Areas:
- evolution

Keywords:
- Indo-Australian archipelago, phylogeography, biogeography, endemicity, Bayesian relaxed clock

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The fauna of Bali, situated immediately west of Wallace's Line, is supposedly of recent Javanese origin and characterized by low levels of endemicity. In flightless *Trigonopterus* weevils, however, we find 100% endemism for the eight species here reported for Bali. Phylogeographic analyses show extensive *in situ* differentiation, including a local radiation of five species. A comprehensive molecular phylogeny and ancestral area reconstruction of Indo-Malayan–Melanesian species reveals a complex colonization pattern, where the three Balinese lineages all arrived from the East, i.e. all of them transgressed Wallace's Line. Although East Java possesses a rich fauna of *Trigonopterus*, no exchange can be observed with Bali. We assert that the biogeographic picture of Bali has been dominated by the influx of mobile organisms from Java, but different relationships may be discovered when flightless invertebrates are studied. Our results highlight the importance of in-depth analyses of spatial patterns of biodiversity.

1. Introduction

The Indonesian island of Bali lies in a critical biogeographic position—on the edge of the Sunda shelf just west of the Lombok strait that demarcates Wallace's Line [1–4]. Yet, the numerous studies of the Indo-Australian fauna usually focus on the larger islands of Borneo and Sulawesi [5–8] and data on the fauna of Bali remain surprisingly scarce and scattered. Bali is essentially an extension of East Java, at the closest point only 2 km apart and repeatedly connected during lower sea levels [9]. This is reflected in Bali's presumably low degree of local endemicity and fauna shared with Java.

Work in the first half of the last century focused mainly on lists of vertebrate species summarized by Rensch [10]: he concludes that there is only a single bird endemic to Bali, the now critically endangered Bali myna (*Leucopsar rothschildi* Stresemann). The majority of the remaining Balinese bird species also occur in Java, while only a very few are shared with islands to the East [10,11]. All native frog species except for one are shared with Java [12]. Large Asian mammals such as the banteng (*Bos javanicus* d'Alton) and the tiger (*Panthera tigris* Linnaeus) reached their easternmost area of distribution in Bali although the latter is now extinct on Bali [13]. The notion that the Balinese fauna is derived from Java relatively recently is confirmed by some rather mobile groups of invertebrates [14,15]. There are 14 species of land snails endemic to Bali and the neighbouring island of Nusa Penida [16], but the geographical provenance of their ancestors remains unknown.

There are no modern inventories of Balinese fauna, and molecular phylogenetic methods have never been applied to investigate macro-evolutionary processes explaining faunal origins or phylogeographic patterns within this island. Here, we conducted a comprehensive inventory of an Indo-Malayan–Australasian group of flightless weevils: *Trigonopterus* Fauvel is an ideal group
for studying the complex biogeographic history of the Indo-Australian archipelago. This genus has a marked tendency towards local species endemism, but despite the inability to fly, *Trigonopterus* has a wide range, from east Sumatra across Melanesia to the Samoan islands. It is hyperdiverse in New Guinea, with more than 300 species recorded [17,18]. Although only a single species has been described from Sulawesi to date, we have more than 100 new species awaiting formal description (A. Riedel 2014, unpublished data). Diversity decreases to the West, but is still substantial with more than 50 species recently discovered in Borneo, Sumatra and Java [19]. Species are confined to wet primary forests where they can be collected by sifting the leaf-litter. Many such habitats have been degraded or were converted to agricultural use as a consequence of the human population explosion on Java and Bali [20]. However, many lowland areas of East Java, Bali and the Lesser Sunda Islands currently support a seasonal type of monsoon forest, according to our experience not a suitable habitat for *Trigonopterus*. Therefore, these weevils are confined to remnants of wet primary forests, typically on mountainsides.

Here, we use molecular phylogenetic data coupled with ancestral area inference to show that *Trigonopterus* weevils have repeatedly colonized Bali from the East, thereby transgressing Wallace’s Line. Surprisingly, there are no closer relationships with the fauna of nearby East Java, underpinning the need for comprehensively sampled, phylogeny-driven studies to better understand the region’s faunal evolution.

2. Material and methods

(a) Taxon sampling and DNA sequencing

Species for our analysis were selected from a preliminary phylogenetic reconstruction which we performed to identify major clades. This initial analysis contained 138 *Trigonopterus* species with an alignment of 4646 bps consisting of fragments from COI, 16S rRNA, arginine kinase, CAD, elongation factor 1α, enolase and histone 4. It included all 82 species from Sumatra, Java and the Lesser Sunda Islands found during a total of 212 days of fieldwork (17 days in Sumatra, 120 days in Java, 28 days in Bali, 27 days in Lombok, 12 days in Sumbawa and 8 days in Flores) covering 72 localities and resulting in 354 litter samples (electronic supplementary material, S6). A total of 3812 *Trigonopterus* specimens were available, and a full taxonomic treatment of this material is currently in preparation. All major areas of suitable habitat of the Sunda Arc were sampled. East Java, Bali and Lombok were sampled most intensely; we did not retrieve additional species upon repeated visits to the same localities. Areas of Sumatra, West Java and Flores may harbour additional species, but we are confident that all major clades from these areas have been discovered because additional visits did not reveal new lineages. A single clade containing most Balinese species together with a Lombok species (292) was well supported. Most species from Java and Sumatra, including species 299 and 348, are monophyletic with equally strong support. Eight species of *Trigonopterus* subgenus *Minidotasia* from Java and Sumatra comprise an early diverging lineage that was omitted from the subsequent analysis because the group is missing from Bali and the Lesser Sunda Islands. The entire clade containing species 328 from Bali and species 317 from East Java was transferred to the subsequent analysis.

Our present dataset contains all Balinese species and their respective sister clades (electronic supplementary material, S3) along with a representative selection of the remaining fauna of the Sunda Arc comprising 40 species. Furthermore, the same number of species was added, representing all major lineages from Borneo, and the hyperdiverse islands of Sulawesi and New Guinea. Four cryptorrhynchinae, Nies from Australia, New Guinea and Java were included as outgroup representatives (Ctitoriurus ilicus (Pascoe); Micropyrus cf. setosus Voss; Oupagyrus squamitestris Lea; Micalles sp.). Some of the *Trigonopterus* species from New Guinea possess a valid name [21], while others are currently being revised and described. Undescribed species are referred to by unique species numbers that will be given in future taxonomic treatments. All the species were monophyletic in a phylogeny using CO1 data of multiple specimens per species, and also well delineated by male genital characters.

DNA was extracted non-destructively using the DNaseasy and NucleoSpin 96 Tissue kits (Qiagen, Hilden; Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany). For PCR amplification (electronic supplementary material, S1), we used standard protocols (http://zsm-entomology.de/wiki/The_Beetle_DNA_Lab). Sequences were edited using SEQUENCER v. 4.10.1 (GeneCodes Corp., Ann Arbor, MI, USA).

(b) Alignment and data matrices

Twelve fragments representing nine genes were sequenced (electronic supplementary material, S2 and S7). Alignments were performed with MUSCLE [22] and reading frames checked in MESQUITE v. 2.75 (http://mesquiteproject.org). Alignment length was 6800 bps (two assembled fragments of CO1 (1416 bps), 16S (579 bps), 18S (584 bp), 28S (534 bps), arginine kinase (720 bps), CAD1 (462 bp), CAD2 (594 bps), CAD3 (663 bps), elongation factor 1α (372 bps), enolase (663 bps) and histone 4 (213 bps)).

(c) Phylogenetic inferences

We used maximum likelihood (ML) as well as Bayesian inference (BI) to reconstruct the relationships among *Trigonopterus* species. ML analyses were performed in RAxML [23] with 10000 bootstrap replicates using five different partitioning strategies: no partitioning, one partition for each gene, one partition for each genome (mitochondrial versus nuclear), one partition for each type (coding versus non-coding genes) and one partition for each codon position (for non-coding genes, one partition for each). The same strategies were used for BI analyses carried out in MrBAYES v. 3.2 [24] (electronic supplementary material, S4). We sampled 30 million generations of two independent runs consisting of eight Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling every 1000th generation. A burn-in of 5000 trees was chosen after investigation of split-frequencies and log-likelihood curves in TRACER v. 1.5 [25]. A 50% majority rule consensus tree was constructed afterwards based on the remaining trees. The best-fitting partitioning strategy for BI was selected using Bayes factors [26] tests based on marginal likelihoods estimated through stepping-stone sampling [27]. The most appropriate substitution model for each partition was selected using the Bayesian information criterion as implemented in jMODELTEST v. 2.1.3 [28].

(d) Dating and ancestral area reconstruction

Divergence times were estimated with the Bayesian relaxed clock method implemented in BEAST v. 1.8.0 [29]. The only time-calibrated tree of Curculionidae available [30] did not recover Cryptorrhynchinae as monophyletic, perhaps because more than 30% of the data was missing. The scant fossil record of this subfamily does not offer a taxon to which *Trigonopterus* could be safely attributed. As a result, we were not able to use a secondary calibration for the *Trigonopterus* radiation. In a first calibration, several substitution rates of Coleoptera have been used (calculated for the COI marker using multiple fossils and geological evidences [31–33]—see [34] for a rationale on the use of this interval). The early diversification of *Trigonopterus* would have taken place more than 60 Ma which appears significantly too old. The age of
flightless Galapag anus weevils older than the islands they inhabit was attributed to earlier, sunken islands [35]. In the case of Trigo-
noterus, no such land areas can be expected based on geological reconstructions of the New Guinea area more than 60 Ma [36,37]. The high interspecific divergences (mean 20% for CO1) previously reported for Trigonopterus [17] from supposedly young geological terranes might indicate accelerated molecular evolution, which has recently been linked to flightlessness [38]. Loss of flight in beetles not only promotes speciation, but also those flightless species retain a higher genetic differentiation on population level and show deeper genetic branching than flying species [39]. A life history that requires little movement is an equally important factor [40]. In Trigonopterus, both factors are given: these weevils, as well as all the other members of the subtribe Tyldoina are fully wingless, and their habitat, the leaf-litter of humid forests, is a highly stable and relatively uniform resource. Groups of groundwater- and cave-dwelling Crustacea are also known for markedly accelerated evolutionary rates related to their fragmented populations and the frequent occurrence of bottlenecks [41].

Therefore, in order to obtain divergence time estimates, we used a geological calibration. We constrained the root of the tree not to be older than 30 Myr as a conservative estimate, because the early lineages in our phylogeny (figure 1) were all Papuan Trigonopterus. Present-day New Guinea has a highly complex orogenic history, but the most recent geological reconstructions of the region [36,37] suggest that at most small and low-lying islands were emergent before 30 Ma. If some land did exist before 30 Ma, it was lacking the horizontal and vertical dimension required to facilitate lineage diversification; habitats fully explaining the observed diversification patterns are more recent and likely of Miocene age ([34]; R. Hall 2013, personal communication). This was reflected in empirical studies (birds [42], rainbow fishes [43], diving beetles [34]) which estimate the onset of Papuan lineage diversification around 30 Ma or more recent. Thus, our calibration is likely to be conservative and may yield slightly overestimated ages. Using more recent root calibration dates (20 Ma and 10 Ma) had no impact on the biogeographic scenario inferred for Bali. The analyses were performed under a Speciation: Birth–Death Incomplete Sampling [44] using an estimated relaxed clock rate (uncorrelated lognormal) because the hypothesis of a strict molecular clock was tested ([45]. The MCMC parameters were fixed to 30 million generations with sampling every 1000th generation and discarding 5000 trees as burn-in. In order to reduce the computational time and the parameter space to explore, we fixed the best BI topology from which we removed all outgroups by manually editing the .xml file created in BEAUTI v. 1.8.0 [29]. A 50% majority rule consensus tree was created in TREEANNOTATOR v. 1.8.0.

Ancestral areas were inferred using the dispersal–extinction–cladogenesis (DEC) model in Lagrange [46,47] based on our BEAST topology. We defined seven areas: Bali, Kalimantan, Flores + Lombok + Sumbawa, Java, New Guinea, the Philippines and Sulawesi. No species of Trigonopterus occurred in more than one area. Palaeogeographic changes through time [36,37,48] were accommodated by two time slices encompassing the past 30 Myr. Rates of dispersal were based on distances between areas and geographical barriers (see the electronic supplementary material, S5). The maximum number of possible regions for each node was limited to three. We enforced all possible combinations of areas at the root and conducted likelihood comparisons to select the most likely ancestral area. A difference between potential combinations equal or greater than 2 log-likelihood units was considered significant [46,47].

3. Results

(a) Molecular phylogenetics

Phylogenetic inference using ML and BI recovered highly congruent topologies for the species of the Sunda Arc (figure 1); some differences exist at the backbone formed by New Guinea species. For BI analyses, the high ESS (effective sample size) values indicated convergence for all runs. Bayes factor analyses suggested that the best-fit partitioning strategy was the one comprising one partition for each genome (electronic supplementary material, S4).

(b) Faunal evolution and biogeography

Balinese Trigonopterus are not monophyletic but belong to three separate lineages, each with its closest relatives outside of Bali. One clade comprises five species (sp. 285, sp. 334, sp. 289, sp. 340 and sp. 286), with its sister species found in Sumbawa (sp. 287); the second clade comprises the sibling species (sp. 280 + sp. 327) with its sister species in Lombok (sp. 282); the third clade represented by a single species (sp. 328) whose sister species is from Sumbawa (sp. 326).

(c) Dating and ancestral area reconstruction

High ESS values indicated that all dating analyses reached convergence. Trigonopterus had a median age of 22.59 Ma (95% HPD 18.04–29.16 Ma). For Balinese clades 1, 2 and 3, we estimate the following ages: 3.33 Ma (95% HPD 2.16–5.09), 2.24 Ma (95% HPD 1.69–3.19) and 1.15 Ma (95% HPD 0.73–1.86).

The AAR (figure 1) suggests that the early evolution of Trigonopterus was restricted to New Guinea until the Late Mioc-ene. The New Guinea character state for the root was significantly recovered (ln = −127.3 against the second best root character state Sulawesi with ln = −137.9). Our results highlight a dispersal event towards Sulawesi at this period followed by the colonization out of this area of surrounding islands by the end of the Miocene and throughout the Neogene. Few lineages of basal clades reach Sulawesi, respectively, Sumbawa, another one the Philippines and Borneo. The Philippines might have served as a stepping stone for the colonization of Borneo from New Guinea as illustrated in the reconstruction (figure 1). All other species found on Borneo, Sumatra, Java and the Lesser Sunda Islands belong to one clade which also has a few Sulawesi endemics; the clade is completely absent from New Guinea. Evidence that the three clades of Balinese species have reached Bali coming from the Lesser Sunda Islands was found to be significant.

(d) Phylogeography

The CO1-based network was the most informative one and fully compatible with the slightly less resolved 16S-based network; the one based on CAD fragment 3 was hardly resolved as that marker was not informative at this hierarchical level. All Balinese species of Trigonopterus weevils were genetically distinctive (1.7–24.3% smallest interspecific CO1 p-distance,

(e) Phylogeography

We analysed the phylogeographic pattern for the eight Balinese species by producing a haplotype network derived from 70 specimens, using the 5′ CO1, 16S and CAD datasets. The sequences were collapsed into haplotypes using DnaSP v. 5.10 software [49], and networks were inferred with HAPSTAR v. 0.7 [50] based on connection lengths calculated in ARLEQUIN v. 3.11 [51].
Figure 1. Bayesian phylogenetic relationships and historical biogeography of Australasian flightless Trigonopterus weevils. Values at each node (a/b/c) are (a) posterior probability of BI analysis, (b) Bootstrap support value of ML analysis (a hyphen indicates that this node is not found in the ML-based topology) and (c) relative probability of splits. Values above 95% are indicated by an asterisk, values below by a hyphen. A 2.5-Myr timescale is provided at the bottom of the chronogram spanning the epochs since 20 Ma. Horizontal bars indicate the 95% credibility interval of the divergence times. The bottom-left corner map represents the Australasian region along with the biogeographic regions used in the DEC analysis. Present-day distribution of the species is given at the tips of the topology. Coloured pastilles at each node correspond to the most likely ancestral area recovered by the DEC model. The mid-Miocene climatic optimum (MMCO) and quaternary climatic change (QCC) are illustrated with vertical coloured bars. The red vertical bars indicate independent colonization of Bali.
only 0.1–1.1% intraspecific mean p-distance; figure 2). Most species are micro-endemics, i.e. to date only retrieved from a single locality each, with all haplotypes of a given species unique to a single locality. The clade containing five species shows a marked geographical east–west sequence, with, for example, the easternmost species (286) is more closely related to the central species (340) than to the western ones. Similarly, species 285, 334 and 289 are more closely related to each other than to the central (340) and eastern (286) species. Interestingly, individuals of species 289, 334 and 340 all had different haplotypes.

The other putative species occur in multiple localities and exhibit a more complex haplotype structure especially in the central region of the island where populations are not clearly delineated geographically.

Species 280 and 327 each occur in more than one locality and exhibit a marked haplotype structure. Species 280 is restricted to the east and eastern centre of Bali and is immediately replaced by species 327 from the western centre of Bali towards the West; the species are allopatric, but nearest localities are merely 6 km separated from each other.

Species 328, in its own clade, has a clear east/west separation of its populations but the eastern part of its distribution presents a less structured pattern as highlighted by a shared haplotype found in different localities. This species was found in all central localities. A high number (13) of CO1 substitutions distinguish specimens from the central localities and those from western Mt. Mesehe, but no other evidence for the presence of cryptic species could be found based on external and genital morphology.

4. Discussion

Here, we empirically show that comprehensive phylogenetic studies can reveal complex evolutionary histories of organisms in the geologically equally complex Indo-Australian archipelago. Using a densely sampled molecular phylogeny, we shed light on the origin of Bali’s indigenous fauna, especially the origins of the little-known endemics which may not be as sparse as hitherto believed. Counterintuitively, the flightless weevils we studied arrived from east of Bali and east of Wallace’s line rather than from the much closer East Java.

Based on present-day geography, a sea-level lowering of 50 m would result in a land connection between Bali and East Java [9]. Such conditions have likely prevailed at times during the Pleistocene allowing the influx of mobile terrestrial organisms from Java [52]. However, Bali remained insular throughout more than 50% of its Pleistocene history [9]. More importantly, during periods of connectivity, the lowlands of East Java and Bali were most likely dominated by savannah vegetation [53], an unsuitable habitat for *Trigonopterus* weevils, as well as most other forest-adapted taxa. Even at times when Bali and Java formed one landmass, the fauna of ever-wet rainforests was confined to the upper elevations of mountains, just as it is today [54]. Thus, an insular evolution persisted for forest species at all times.

Flightless, edaphic weevils fall into the category of less dispersive taxa [55]. Their chances to be lifted up by strong winds should be negligible. Ocean currents as a means of dispersal, maybe as part of or contained in flotsam, appear as a more plausible cause of dispersal. In this particular case, the general

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**Figure 2.** Haplotype networks based on the CO1 dataset of 71 *Trigonopterus* specimens from Bali. Substitutions (sub.) are marked by black dots between the haplotypes. More than two substitutions are stated as numbers above the respective branches. For colour code of localities, see inset. Scale bar of specimens = 1 mm.
scenario does not look favourable, either: the Indonesian throughflow [56] passing from north to south would form a barrier carrying organisms into the Indian Ocean instead of helping them to cross the straits from east to west.

Under these circumstances, colonization of Bali from the Lesser Sunda Islands by a group of flightless weevils appears to be unusual. However, this happened at least three times independently, and the conspicuous absence of any colonization event from the West, notwithstanding the rich presence of Trigonopterus in Java, is more than unexpected and highlights the need for comprehensively sampled phylogenetic analyses if we are to unravel the complexities of faunal evolution of a given area. While we cannot rule out the possible discovery of East Javanese sister species of one Balinese species, this appears highly unlikely for all three lineages.

Within Bali, on the contrary, the observed population-level pattern reflects the expected clear geographical structure for flightless organisms between different tropical mountain ranges [57–59]. This confirms the very limited dispersal abilities of Trigonopterus weevils and questions chance as an explanation for the multiple transgression of Wallace’s Line by Trigonopterus. Once other taxa of poor dispersers are examined with appropriate methods, a general pattern may emerge that paints a more accurate picture of the early zoogeographical history of Bali, when land connections or ocean currents might have been very different from how we see them today. Taxa worth a comprehensive study may be some genera of snails (i.e. Asperitas Gray, Sasakita Rensch [60]) and weevils of Celeuthetini (i.e. Syntrophus Marshall [61]) that have distributions suggesting close relationships between Bali and islands to the East instead of Java, but no phylogenetic data are available for these yet.

Our study of Balinese Trigonopterus provides the first robust phylogeny and state-of-the-art biogeographic analysis for any Balinese taxon. The early evolution of Trigonopterus apparently took place in the area of present-day New Guinea, most likely in an archipelagic setting, before the formation of the main New Guinean landmass [36,37]. The Sunda-arc and the Sunda shelf were colonized from the East by rather derived lineages (figure 1). Thus, the possible centre of origin of Trigonopterus apparently coincides with its centre of diversity [62] in New Guinea/Australia. Trigonopterus was probably among the early groups to diversify on the proto-Papuan arc which was formed at 30 Ma [36,63], a pattern also shown by some songbirds [42] and rainbow fish [43]. Delias, a diverse genus of butterflies, apparently also first diversified in the area of New Guinea and Wallacea, mainly during the Miocene [15,64].

The observed unexpected distribution patterns of Trigonopterus stress the importance of fine-grained and comprehensively sampled surveys in this biogeographic highly complex region. Recently, largely Pleistocene processes of faunal exchange generated distribution patterns that include Bali along with Java as parts of the Sunda shelf contributing to what we perceive as Wallace’s Line today [4]. However, the islands along the Sunda Arc from Sumatra to Flores are geologically heterogeneous and most likely emerged from the sea at very different times. Even Java is composed of a number of geologically distinct units [65]. The detailed study of less dispersive taxa undergoing endemic radiations during the Cenozoic will allow us to gain new insights into the development of a seemingly uniform chain of islands. Our present work highlights macro-evolutionary processes governing the biota of Bali and paves the way for future investigation of this frequently studied but still not fully understood area of the Indo-Australian Archipelago using molecular tools.

Acknowledgement. We thank LIPI (Indonesian Institute of Sciences), RISTEK (Ministry of State for Research and Technology, Indonesia) and the Indonesian Department of Forestry for providing relevant permits. Voucher specimens will be deposited in LIPI Division of Zoology Collection, formerly the Museum Zoologicum Bogoriense (Cibinong, Indonesia) and the Museum of Natural History Karlsruhe (Germany). We thank Dr Thomas von Rintelen (Berlin) and two anonymous reviewers for valuable comments. Last, but not least, the fieldwork in Bali and the other islands visited would not have been possible without the generous hospitality and help of many local people, and we thank all of them very warmly.

Data accessibility. DNA sequences: European Nucleotide Archive (accession nos. FN429126 - FN429350, HE613858–613921; 615165–616164). Phylogenetic data: TreeBASE accession no. 15388. Final DNA sequence assembly uploaded as the electronic supplementary material.

Funding statement. This work was financially supported by the German Research Foundation, DFG (RI 1817/1-1, 3-1, 3-3).

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