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Origins of endemic island tortoises in the western Indian Ocean: a critique of the human-translocation hypothesis

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1 **Commentary**

2

3 **Origins of endemic island tortoises in the western Indian Ocean: a**
4 **critique of the human-translocation hypothesis**

5

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25

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28

29 **Abstract**

30 How do organisms arrive on isolated islands, and how do insular evolutionary radiations arise? In a
31 recent paper, Wilmé *et al.* (2016a) argue that early Austronesians that colonized Madagascar from
32 Southeast Asia translocated giant tortoises to islands in the western Indian Ocean. In the Mascarene
33 Islands, moreover, the human-translocated tortoises then evolved and radiated in an endemic genus

34 (*Cylindraspis*). Their proposal ignores the broad, established understanding of the processes leading
35 to the formation of native island biotas, including endemic radiations. We find Wilmé *et al.*'s
36 suggestion poorly conceived, using a flawed methodology, and missing two critical pieces of
37 information: the timing and the specifics of proposed translocations. In response, we here
38 summarise arguments that could be used to defend the natural origin not only of Indian Ocean giant
39 tortoises but also of scores of insular endemic radiations worldwide. Reinforcing a generalist's
40 objection, the phylogenetic and ecological data on giant tortoises, and current knowledge of
41 environmental and paleogeographical history of the Indian Ocean, make Wilmé *et al.*'s argument
42 even more unlikely.

43

44 **Keywords**

45 Colonisation, endemic radiation, giant tortoises, islands, long-distance dispersal, transoceanic
46 dispersal.

47

48 **Introduction**

49 Proposing original hypotheses that question current paradigms is essential in the advancement of
50 science. However, when such alternative hypotheses overlook or misinterpret existing knowledge,
51 they are more likely to stir unproductive controversy than contribute to our understanding of events
52 and processes. By neglecting data and understanding from a wide range of fields (phylogenetics,
53 evolutionary biology, ecology, geology, oceanography and environmental history), Wilmé *et al.*'s
54 (2016a; hereafter referred to as Wilmé *et al.*) recent proposal of a possible role of human
55 translocation to explain the presence of giant tortoises on remote islands in the western Indian
56 Ocean (WIO) regrettably belongs in the latter category. A human-translocation (HT) hypothesis for
57 the origin of the WIO giant tortoise radiations is no less far-fetched than it would be in explaining
58 any one of a plethora of similar insular endemic radiations worldwide, be they volant (e.g., Hawaiian
59 honeycreepers, Darwin's finches) or non-volant (e.g., *Anolis* lizards, *Phelsuma* geckos).
60 Here we present and discuss several lines of critique, any one of which represents a major obstacle
61 to the proposal by Wilmé *et al.*, as well as to any similarly unfounded future HT-hypotheses.

62

63 **Methodological flaws**

64 As the key evidence for their hypothesis, Wilmé *et al.* state that their "evaluation is based on an
65 analysis of more than 700 peer-reviewed publications from several pertinent fields". The appendix
66 referred to indeed contains a list of 700 papers, but aside from a single thematic keyword assigned
67 to each, no further details are given, revealing severe shortcomings in the method used. Firstly, and

68 contrary to the authors' claim, nowhere in the paper or appendices is an actual analysis based on
69 these 700 papers to be found. Secondly, there are no search- and/or inclusion criteria for the 700
70 papers listed. Thirdly, a specific list of lines of arguments or data from these 700 papers, clearly
71 stating supporting and contradicting information, is notably absent. This third point is of special
72 interest to several of the authors of this response. Many of our papers are on that list, and our data
73 and results do not support Wilmé *et al.*'s hypothesis.

74 Equally problematically, Wilmé *et al.*'s HT-hypothesis is not always explicit about exactly
75 what is being proposed in terms of which tortoise taxa were moved when, from Madagascar to the
76 "small islands in the SWIO". It is likewise unclear when their arguments are concerned only with the
77 Mascarenes, and when they also include Aldabra Atoll, the only other small island mentioned. In
78 either case, several important islands and archipelagos that also harboured giant tortoises are not
79 mentioned at all, e.g., the granitic Seychelles and several of the outer Seychelles islands.

80 Finally, in what is perhaps the clearest formulation of the key postulate of their hypothesis,
81 Wilmé *et al.* state: "[t]he land tortoises found on the small islands in the [south-western Indian
82 Ocean] could have been translocated from Madagascar by Austronesian sailors". The reference cited
83 is another recent paper by the same authors (Wilmé *et al.*, 2016b), which hypothesizes that early
84 Austronesians used sea turtles as navigation aids, but which contains no mention of Austronesian
85 translocations of tortoises from Madagascar to small islands in the WIO. This circular logic serves
86 well as an overall example of the flawed arguments supporting their hypothesis.

87

88 **Island tortoises and the Indian Ocean radiations**

89 Humans (in particular sailors in historic times) have indeed been known to move tortoises between
90 islands (Rhodin *et al.* 2015). When an island population is little diverged from populations
91 elsewhere, and when supported by historical and genetic evidence, a hypothesis of an HT origin may
92 be reasonable. An excellent example of the substantial weight of evidence required to support such
93 a hypothesis is provided by recent, detailed molecular data from the Galápagos giant tortoises,
94 *Chelonoidis* spp., which suggest that some tortoises could have been moved between islands in the
95 archipelago by humans in the last few hundred years (e.g., Rusello *et al.*, 2007; Poulakakis *et al.*,
96 2008, 2012). Perhaps more important than the absence of such supporting evidence provided by
97 Wilmé *et al.*, we must emphasise that there is an enormous difference between proposing an HT-
98 origin for populations little-diverged from the proposed source population, as in the case above, and
99 proposing such an origin for taxa that have been described as an insular radiation with single-island
100 endemics, as is the case here. The Indian Ocean tortoises considered in Wilmé *et al.*'s hypothesis
101 belong to two genera. The first, *Cylindraspis*, contained five species (all now extinct), each endemic

102 to a single island in the Mascarenes, and genetic analyses have found that mean pairwise genetic
103 divergence between these species ranged from 2 to 17% in mtDNA (Austin & Arnold, 2001). The
104 second, *Aldabrachelys*, contained at least three species; two sympatric species on Madagascar that
105 went extinct ~1000 years ago and one species found across many islands to the north, including
106 Aldabra and the Seychelles. Wilmé *et al.* do concede that the significant morphological and genetic
107 divergence between the two endemic giant tortoise genera in the WIO represents a “possible
108 contradiction” to their hypothesis, but nevertheless then unexplainably disregard this evidence.
109 Contrary to Wilmé *et al.*, who imply that the biogeographic origins of the two genera are not
110 supported by phylogenetic inference, we and others (Austin & Arnold, 2001; Le *et al.*, 2006) have
111 shown that *Aldabrachelys* and *Cylindraspis* form part of a wider clade of Indian Ocean tortoises that
112 includes the Madagascan genera *Astrochelys* and *Pyxis*. Area cladograms suggest that all Indian
113 Ocean island tortoises derive from a single colonization of the WIO (Le *et al.*, 2006). Even if we were
114 to collapse nodes gaining less than 100% branch support (increasing the potential number of
115 colonization events), the data imply numerous *in situ* speciation events. If Wilmé *et al.*'s suggestion
116 that the observed morphological and molecular evolution occurred *in situ* after human translocation
117 sometime in the last 4,000 years were true, then this would require a mtDNA evolutionary rate *at*
118 *least* 2–3 orders of magnitude faster than the "standard" vertebrate lineage rate of 1×10^{-8}
119 substitutions/site/yr. Such accelerated rates have never been observed over the time scales that
120 Wilmé *et al.* suggest (Molak & Ho, 2015).

121 Morphologically, it seems perplexing that the Mascarene *Cylindraspis* tortoises would have
122 changed so much, so rapidly after being translocated by Austronesians from Madagascar to these
123 islands, while *Aldabrachelys gigantea* did not change after Austronesians moved it to Aldabra
124 (morphologically, *A. gigantea* is very similar to the extinct *A. abrupta* from Madagascar).
125 Unfortunately, Wilmé *et al.* provide no explanation for this great difference.

126

127 **Indian Ocean biogeography and phylogeography**

128 Wilmé *et al.*'s argument centres on a perceived infinitesimal probability of giant tortoises colonizing
129 small, “young” oceanic islands via passive floating or swimming against prevailing ocean surface
130 currents. Aldabra Atoll is among the very youngest and smallest of all WIO islands known to have
131 harboured giant tortoises. It has been colonized by giant tortoises following each of the three times
132 it re-emerged during the sea level fluctuations of the last 320,000 years (Taylor *et al.*, 1979), thus
133 singlehandedly refuting Wilmé *et al.*'s argument about probability. Even if we were to accept that
134 the origin of the current population of Aldabra tortoises was Austronesian translocation from

135 Madagascar to Aldabra in the last few thousand years, this still does not explain how the tortoises
136 arrived on the previous two 'incarnations' of Aldabra in the last 320,000 years.

137 The WIO of the last 40 MY years was a rich tapestry of appearing and disappearing islands,
138 of growing and shrinking islands, from very small to very large. At the scale of the entire WIO, while
139 the current Mascarene Islands are indeed small (and Reunion is unambiguously young), bathymetry,
140 geology and sea-level reconstructions reveal that the Mascarene Bank to the north represented a
141 larger and much older (up to 40 My), set of large, flat islands that are mostly now submerged. These
142 formed a series of potential stepping stones separated by much shorter distances and would have
143 provided a natural link to the granitic Seychelles and Madagascar (Cheke & Hume 2008; Warren *et*
144 *al.* 2010).

145 Especially during the last 1 million years when sea level fluctuations were maximized due to
146 astronomical forcing, both the connectivity and areas of islands were increased substantially during
147 glacial times that encompassed 90% of this period (Fig. 1). The former presence of numerous source
148 populations of giant tortoises on such islands therefore seems likely. Moreover, during the LGM the
149 massive banks were islands above sea level, and would to a large extent have blocked or at least
150 weakened the south-westward effect of the SWIO gyre. During this time, the north-westerly flowing
151 trade winds would likely have been more influential than the gyres, and subdecadal cyclonic storms
152 would also greatly have enhanced connectivity and random dispersal in all directions (De Boer
153 2014). Lastly, while presently predominant sea surface currents do flow east to west, large transient
154 gyres and countercurrents are a regular occurrence and can last several months, showing that ocean
155 currents can and do flow in a direction favourable for west-to-east dispersal from Madagascar or the
156 Seychelles to the Mascarenes (Video S1).

157 For a broad range of major taxa, including flightless groups such as reptiles, phylogenetic
158 evidence demonstrates that the closest relatives of Indian Ocean forms occur in Asia, not Africa.
159 Furthermore, estimated divergence times post-date Gondwanan fragmentation by a considerable
160 margin. Together these results suggest that colonization of the WIO from Asia (or the reverse) by
161 flightless terrestrial species has occurred repeatedly (Warren *et al.*, 2010). In fact, drifting on oceanic
162 currents is likely an important contributor to oceanic island biotas worldwide. Even for the Hawaiian
163 archipelago – among the most remote archipelagos on the globe – a recent review posits oceanic
164 drift as the most likely mode of immigration for at least eight lineages (Gillespie *et al.*, 2012). Islands
165 worldwide show that colonization events arising from passive drift, given enough time, are not only
166 probable but extremely likely.

167 Moreover, phylogenetic data show that once a lineage colonized one island in a WIO
168 archipelago through long-distance dispersal, subsequent inter-island colonization events were very

169 frequent across a wide range of terrestrial organisms. These include many non-volant animals, such
170 as skinks and flightless crickets (Austin *et al.*, 2009; Warren *et al.*, 2016), and a long list of vertebrate-
171 dispersed plants, often with large seeds, including species from the families of Monimiaceae and
172 Arecaceae (Renner *et al.*, 2010; Baker & Couvreur 2013). It is unclear to us why tortoises should be
173 so uniquely unlikely to have colonized the WIO islands on their own, compared to these taxa.

174

175 **Early Austronesians in the WIO and archaeological and paleoecological evidence**

176 Exactly when could Austronesians have translocated tortoises? This is never clearly stated by Wilmé
177 *et al.*, but there are several key sections that suggest speculative inferences. For example, the
178 authors refer to the timing of “[h]umans first colonized Madagascar 4000 years ago”, even though
179 this date refers to coastal archaeological sites with evidence of hunter-gatherer foraging by
180 unidentified people, rather than to evidence of actual colonization or settlement by Austronesians
181 (Dewar *et al.* 2013). Wilmé *et al.* then continue with the very next sentence stating that “people
182 have been making transoceanic journeys since 45,000 years bp”. Are we here supposed to make the
183 logical inference that Madagascar could have been visited and perhaps colonized by Austronesians
184 up to 45,000 years ago? If not, why is this information given here? Moreover, the source they cite
185 for such early transoceanic journeys, Balter (2007), is 1) a news article that reports partly
186 controversial studies presented at a conference about the earliest origins of human seafarers, and 2)
187 concerns early humans in Southeast Asia crossing gaps of up to a few hundred km between islands –
188 hardly qualifying as ‘transoceanic journeys’ in comparison to the proposed journey across the entire
189 Indian Ocean (a distance of thousands of km).

190 Wilmé *et al.* argue that sea level rises could have erased any evidence of early Austronesians
191 in the Mascarenes. This appears to be an argument of convenience, and we cannot think of any
192 mechanism by which an early Austronesian presence in these islands would have been restricted to
193 coastal areas. Areas currently well above sea level would have been just as hospitable to humans
194 and their commensal species. Worldwide, any island with a significant period of pre-European
195 settlement has experienced contractions and extinctions of its native flora and fauna (Burney &
196 Flannery, 2005). Had Austronesians been present on the Mascarene Islands, there should be
197 plentiful evidence of pre-European extinction waves and introductions of commensal and other
198 exotic species (including pests). No such evidence has yet been found, while the post-European
199 extinction wave is among the most dramatic worldwide, with the documented extinction of 50–60%
200 of the native land vertebrate fauna (Cheke & Hume, 2008), and the extirpation and extinction of
201 dozens of plant species in Mauritius, in particular palms (de Boer, 2014).

202 On the contrary, there is a ubiquitous presence of dung-fungus spores – indicating the
203 presence of large herbivorous vertebrates – in the lowlands of the Mascarenes reaching back
204 thousands of years (e.g., de Boer *et al.*, 2015), and abundant evidence of the pre-European presence
205 of giant tortoises in the Mascarenes from fossil bones (Rijsdijk *et al.*, 2015).

206

207 **Giant tortoises are excellent oceanic dispersers and island colonizers**

208 We believe that the above arguments are sufficient to reject Wilmé *et al.*'s proposal. However,
209 emerging ecological knowledge of Aldabra giant tortoises in their native habitat can serve as a final
210 nail in the coffin. Wilmé *et al.* emphasise the Aldabra giant tortoise as a “non-swimming” animal that
211 would have “drifted passively” between islands, and question whether “physiologically stressed
212 individuals who have been afloat for extended periods without any food intake” can reproduce.

213 Giant tortoises are indeed excellent drifters as they are positively buoyant, and do not need
214 to expend much energy to stay alive in water. However, Aldabra tortoises *can* also swim actively, as
215 can be frequently observed on Aldabra Atoll. Moving alongside a tortoise swimming across a pond,
216 one has to move at a walking pace to keep up with the animal (Video S2). The tortoises also
217 frequently cross to or from favoured browsing areas in the mangroves during the outgoing and
218 incoming tide, respectively; sometimes against tidal waters rushing out or in (Fig. 2a). Such activities
219 carry the risk of being carried away by the tide and swept out to sea. Indeed, during the last few
220 years, scientists and staff from the Seychelles Islands Foundation's research station on Aldabra have
221 spotted tortoises adrift in the open ocean outside the reef in various places around the atoll (Fig.
222 2b). Once adrift, these tortoises can survive for several months, as was demonstrated by an Aldabra
223 tortoise found alive on the Tanzanian coast, covered in barnacles (Gerlach *et al.*, 2006). Such events
224 are likely to happen much more frequently than recorded. For example, in the 1980s two Aldabra
225 tortoises, likewise covered in barnacles, were found alive on the coast of Kenya and brought to the
226 Haller Park, where they entered the breeding herd (R. Haller, pers. comm.). On Aldabra, long-term
227 GPS data is revealing that the tortoises can walk several kilometres within a week, with significant
228 amounts of time spent moving non-stop (RB & DMH, unpubl. data). Given how much easier it is to
229 move in water, it is clear that a giant tortoise drifting in the ocean would be capable of sustained
230 directional swimming towards any island appearing on the horizon.

231 Regarding tortoises as island colonizers, our interpretation of facts is thus contrary to Wilmé
232 *et al.*'s interpretation of largely the same facts. Tortoises can survive long periods of being adrift in
233 the ocean without food and water, and females can store sperm for several years (Pearse *et al.*
234 2001). Even if we disregard the ability of tortoises to swim actively, these facts translate into giant
235 tortoises showing all the characteristics of proficient long-distance dispersers being able to easily

236 cross large ocean barriers, and thus being among the most *likely* tetrapods to reach and colonize
237 isolated oceanic islands.

238

239 **Conclusion**

240 Wilmé *et al.*'s HT-hypothesis goes against substantial ecological, evolutionary, and biogeographical
241 evidence, and the HT-hypothesis for the endemic Indian Ocean tortoise radiations can be safely
242 ruled out. Worryingly, their hypothesis also presents a potential hindrance to conservation and
243 education. The Indian Ocean islands are a hotspot of unique biological diversity. This diversity has
244 experienced some of the highest levels of extinction worldwide and continues to be under threat
245 from human activities. Throughout the region, conservation biologists and teachers work hard to
246 communicate to the general public and politicians the importance of preserving this heritage, and
247 distinguishing the unique diversity (the native biota) from the non-unique and often ecologically
248 detrimental diversity (elements of the biota that are introduced and often invasive). A paper such as
249 Wilmé *et al.* is a potential spanner in the works, blurring this important distinction with an argument
250 that has no foundation.

251

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255

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333 reaching new islands. *Comptes rendus biologiques*, **339**, 78-82.

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337 **Supporting Information**

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

339

340 **Video S1** Surface current dynamics in the Indian Ocean 2007–2008.

341 not uploaded to ManuscriptCentral – mp4 file can be found/viewed here [19.2 mb]:

342 <https://www.dropbox.com/s/hfrm6zv0rria29f/Hansen%20et%20al.%20Video%20S1.mp4?dl=0>

343

344 **Video S2** Aldabra giant tortoise, *Aldabrachelys gigantea*, swimming across a pond on Aldabra Atoll,

345 Seychelles.

346 not uploaded to ManuscriptCentral – mp4 file can be found/viewed here [21.7 mb]:

347 <https://www.dropbox.com/s/4ppn2suz438ev2s/Hansen%20et%20al.%20Video%20S2.mp4?dl=0>

348

349 **Appendix S1** Additional methodological information for Fig. 1 and Video S1.

350

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352

353 **Figure legends**

354

355 **Figure 1.** Islands in the western Indian Ocean region today, compared to the situation during the Last
356 Glacial Maximum (LGM; ± 20 kyr BP), when sea levels were 120 m below the current level. The
357 current extent of islands is shown in dark brown, the extent of islands during the LGM is shown in
358 light orange. The numbers between brackets represent the area (km²) of the island, or of the largest
359 island in an archipelago, during the LGM (detailed methodology in Rijdsdijk *et al.* 2014).

360

361 **Figure 2.** Giant Aldabra tortoises (*Aldabrachelys gigantea*) on Aldabra Atoll, Seychelles. (a) Tortoise
362 crossing between mangrove areas during incoming tide, La Gigi area, Picard. (b) Tortoise found
363 afloat in open ocean outside one of the channels between Picard and Grand Terre (photo credits: (a)
364 Dennis Hansen, (b) Lotte Reiter).

365