



ECOSYSTEMS

Distribution pattern in the rupicolous genus *Orthophytum* (Bromelioideae/ Bromeliaceae) reveals high microendemism in different types of rocky outcrops

SWAMI L. COSTA, RAFAEL B. LOUZADA, SILMARA CECÍLIA NEPOMUCENO, JOILSON V. ALVES & MARIA TERESA BURIL

Abstract: This study aimed to recognize the biogeographic patterns, richness, and diversity levels of the Brazilian endemic genus *Orthophytum* and identify their biotic components through a parsimony analysis of endemism (PAE), to better understand the evolutionary history of this group and develop strategies for the conservation of its species. We prepared a database for the 54 currently known species of *Orthophytum*, including their geographical locations as obtained from digital databases of the principal herbaria of Brazil, Europe, and the USA. A parsimony analysis of endemism (PAE) was used to delimit the areas of endemism based on two grids' sizes (1° x 1° and 2° x 2°). The majority rule consensus tree resulting from the PAE indicated three areas of endemism with high bootstrap, diversity, and richness indices: the northern portion of the Espinhaço Range, the southern portion of the Espinhaço Range, and the central portion of the Atlantic Forest. The recognition of those distribution patterns reveals a high number of microendemic species, which is discussed here.

Key words: Bromelioideae, Areas of Endemism, Rocky outcrops, Microendemism, PAE, Poales.

INTRODUCTION

The patterns and processes of biotic distribution, also known as biogeographic patterns (Morrone 2009), play important roles in understanding the evolution of biodiversity, and represent essential elements for the reconstruction of the Earth's geological history. Those patterns are related to the organization and distribution of groups of organisms in geographic space, which can be approached in many different ways as well as at different scales. Important historical and biogeographic factors are believed to influence those patterns, such as dispersal, vicariance, and extinction (Morrone 2009). Additionally, diverse ecological processes may also play relevant roles in shaping the geographic distributions

of plants observed today (Wiens & Donoghue 2004) – with environmental factors affecting their spatial distributions and consequently their richness and species compositions. It is therefore necessary to analyze multiple variables in biogeographic studies, such as water availability, elevation, temperature, and edaphic features (Pausas & Austin 2001, Austin 2013), as those climatic or physical features can function as barriers that prevent certain organisms from colonizing certain habitats (Wiens & Donoghue 2004, Wiens 2011).

One of the tools used in historical biogeography to investigate the natural distribution patterns of organisms is Parsimony Analysis of Endemism (PAE) (e.g., Silva & Oren

1996, Posadas & Miranda-Esquivel 1999, Garcia-Barros et al. 2002, Manrique et al. 2003, Rovito et al. 2004, Sigrist & Carvalho 2008). PAE basically consists of classifying areas of endemism and constructing cladograms based on the parsimonious cladistic analysis of presence-absence matrices of species. An area of endemism is defined when the distributions of different endemic species converge to the same region (Morrone 1994, Szumik et al. 2002). The identification of such areas provide important information for the field of biogeography and for studies of biodiversity conservation, and can contribute to effective conservation planning. Congruent occurrence patterns can easily be recognized where endemic species (those found only in an exclusive region) are frequent, and can be delimited to propose areas of endemism and then analyze their inter-relationships (Szumik et al. 2002, Morrone 1994).

The Neotropical biogeographical region (which stretches from Mexico to southern South America) comprises tremendous taxonomic and habitat diversity as well as a complex geological history (Morrone 2009). Most studies of distributional patterns and areas of endemism in this region have been based on relatively well studied animal groups (see Cracraft 1985, Silva 1995, Amorim & Pires 1996, Ron 2000, Costa et al. 2000, Silva & Oren 1996) or on tree species (see de Lima et al. 2020, Françoso et al. 2016, ter Steege et al. 2013, 2015). Despite the crucial importance of non-tree plants for understanding biodiversity and ecosystem functioning, there are still large gaps in our knowledge of their distributions in the Neotropics. One of the most species-rich and ecologically important non-tree monocotyledonous families in the Neotropics – Bromeliaceae Juss. (Smith & Downs 1974). The family comprises 83 genera and approximately 3.744 species (Butcher & Gouda 2023, Last Access May 2023), and includes epiphytic, saxicolous,

and terrestrial life forms that occupy a wide variety of habitats from sea level up to 4000 meters above sea level (masl) (Benzing 2000, Butcher & Gouda, Last Access May 2023).

One of the first divergent lineages of the Bromelioideae (the second largest clade of the family) to experience considerable diversification in (what is today) Brazil was the genus *Orthophytum* Beer, which is saxicolous (rarely terrestrial) and endemic to the eastern region of that country. *Orthophytum* comprises 54 species (Louzada 2020) that inhabit different types of rocky outcrops: granitic inselbergs in the Atlantic Forest and Caatinga domain and rocky quartzite outcrops in Campos Rupestres (rocky altitudinal fields) along the Espinhaço Range (Louzada & Wanderley 2010). Martinelli et al. (2008) indicated a possible center diversity of the genus in the Atlantic Forest, where its species usually inhabit inselbergs and rock outcrops and are often restricted to small geographic areas (with many microendemic taxa). Those environments, which are spatially and ecologically isolated, exhibit barriers to dispersal and migration, and evidence high levels of species diversity and endemism (Echternacht et al. 2011).

Studies of bromeliad species adapted to neotropical rock outcrops have already improved the understanding of speciation and the processes of endemism in naturally isolated environments (Barbará et al. 2009, Palma-Silva et al. 2011). However, despite the immense importance of non-arboreal plants to understanding biodiversity, ecosystem functioning, and macroevolutionary and macroecological processes, there are still large gaps in the knowledge of how they are distributed in the Neotropics (Engemann et al. 2015).

In order to better understand the processes that led to the considerable diversification

of *Orthophytum*, it will be necessary to use biogeographic reconstruction analysis and formulate hypotheses concerning the ancestral area of the genus, when it emerged, how its dispersal occurred, and how some species became fixed in restricted regions. Biogeography is used to document and understand the spatial patterns of biodiversity, species interactions and their organization, as well as spatial processes (Brown & Lomolino 1998, Troppmair 2002). Therefore, in addition to supporting an understanding of the evolution of different plant groups, biogeography can help reduce biodiversity losses by indicating potential areas for species preservation (Goldani 2012).

We tested here the hypothesis that the Espinhaço Mountain Range and the Atlantic Forest in Brazil are areas of endemism of *Orthophytum*, and that microendemism is the predominant pattern in the genus. To test that hypothesis, we sought to identify distribution patterns, richness, diversity, and use parsimony analysis of endemism (PAE) to identify areas of endemism and their biotic components.

The identification of areas of endemism and testing them as evolutionary geographical units are the first steps towards the development of a cladistic biogeography. At the same time, biogeography can improve our knowledge of the evolutionary history of this group and help future researchers develop conservation strategies for its species.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Taxa and Data collection

The geographic coordinates of *Orthophytum* specimens were obtained from the Global Biodiversity Information Facility (<https://www.gbif.org/>), CRIA-speciesLink (<http://www.splink.org.br/>) and Reflora Virtual Herbarium (<http://floradobrasil.jbrj.gov.br/>) digital databases,

which include specimen records from the principal herbaria of Brazil, Europe, and the USA. Only specimens identified by specialists in the genus were used. The species included in the analysis followed the taxonomic revision of Louzada & Wanderley (2010) and the Species List of Brazilian Flora (Louzada 2020); the latter includes a new species described after the last revision. Records without original geographic coordinates were assigned to the location or municipality recorded on the specimen label. The geographic coordinates of the sample location or municipality were obtained from the GeoNames website (<http://geonames.com>) or by using the geoLoc tool (available from the Environmental Information Reference Center website [SpeciesLink - <http://splink.cria.org.br/geoloc>]). Records that could not be georeferenced to at least the municipality level, vouchers with dubious identifications or without collector number, as well as duplicates, were excluded from the dataset. After data cleaning, the dataset comprised 695 records of 54 species. The nomenclature of the species follows The International Plant Names Index (<https://www.ipni.org/>), Tropicos (<https://www.tropicos.org/home>), and New Bromeliad Taxon List digital databases (Butcher & Gouda continuously updated, last accessed in Dec 2022).

Grid size

The choice of grid cells size is decisive and important for biogeographic analysis. Several authors discussed how distinct grid sizes can affect the identification of the areas of endemism (see Morrone & Escalante 2002, Morrone 1994, Szumik et al. 2002, Casagrande et al. 2009, Navarro et al. 2009). Usually, the use of small grid cells results in discontinuous distributions, in a more detailed resolution (where only small areas of endemism are identified) and can produce poorly resolved area cladograms. Meanwhile,

large grid cells generally detected larger areas of endemism, which increases the congruence of species (many species appearing as endemic) and could camouflage disjunctions (Morrone & Escalante 2002). Therefore, employing different grid sizes is the most suitable way to establish the results to recognize endemic areas and to be able to identify different patterns if some taxonomic groups display congruence at different scales (Aagesen et al. 2009, Casagrande et al. 2009, Navarro et al. 2009).

For all the analyses presented here (richness, diversity and PAE), we choose two sizes of grid cells, 1° x 1° (ca. 100 km x 100 km) and 2° x 2° (ca. 200 km x 200 km). The grid cells were produced using DIVA-GIS software (Hijmans 2001).

Richness and diversity analysis and distribution patterns

Richness and Diversity (Shannon Index; Magurran 1988) analyses were performed using DIVA-GIS software. The visualization of the species distribution, the maps construction and the visualization of the main conservation reserves was performed using QGIS software (QGIS Development Team 2021).

Distribution patterns were assessed based on the plotted dots on the maps, following Menini-Neto & Forzza (2013), and were coded as follows: (1) widespread distribution (WD), when encountered in more than five grid squares; (2) intermediate distribution (ID), when found in two to four grid squares; (3) restricted distribution (RD), when found in only one grid square, but with more than five known sites of occurrence; and (4) microendemic distribution (MED), when restricted and exclusive to a vegetation physiognomy and found in only one grid square and only one to four known sites of occurrence.

Endemicity analyses

Morrone (1994) proposed PAE as a tool to identify endemic areas as primary biogeographic homology, using grid cells as operational units (without inferring relationships or hierarchies between areas) based on their common species, defining an endemism area as a group of grid cells of at least two taxa endemic to the region.

We draw the grid-cells on a map of Brazil, including grids only where at least one locality of one species was recorded. Visualizations of the species were also performed using the QGIS software (QGIS Development Team 2021). Based on the occurrence of the species, a presence/absence matrix (Tables III and IV) was constructed using the software Mesquite, version 3.16. (Maddison & Maddison 2021), where the presence of a given taxon in each sampled area was coded as “1”, and the absence of that taxon was coded as “0”. A hypothetical area coded as “0” was added to the matrix as an outgroup to root the tree.

The PAE was conducted using PAUP* 4.0 software (Swofford 2003) to infer the centers of endemism and to reconstruct the most parsimonious tree, using a heuristic algorithm with 1000 replications from random additions and TBR (tree-bisection-reconnection) branch-swapping, saving two trees per replication; the same commands were used for bootstrap analysis.

Here, for more robust results, we define an endemism area when the clades in the consensus area cladograms received bootstrap support $\geq 50\%$ and shared three or more species. The data matrix is available upon request to the corresponding author.

RESULTS

Patterns of geographic distribution, richness and diversity

We obtained a database with 692 records distributed among 54 species of *Orthophytum* using the parameters and methods described above. The distribution maps for all *Orthophytum* species are presented in Figures 4 – 10. Its species are endemic to eastern Brazil with the following limits: north, the municipality of Alcântaras, Ceara State (40°30'W, 03°34'S), where *O. cearense* Leme & F.Monteiro occurs; south, the municipality of Domingos Martins, Espírito Santo State (40°36'W, 20°21'S), where *O. foliosum* L.B.Sm. occurs; east, the municipality of Jaqueira, Pernambuco State (35°30'W, 08°25'S), where *O. disjunctum* L.B.Sm. occurs; and west, the municipality of Água Quente, Bahia State (44°18'W, 13°10'S), where *O. harleyi* Leme & M.Machado has been recorded. The species with the greatest numbers of records were *O. disjunctum*, *O. maracasense* L.B.Sm., and *O. foliosum* with 175, 86 and 70 records respectively. Four categories were established to represent the distribution patterns of these taxa: widespread, intermediate, restricted, and microendemic. Seven species evidenced widespread distribution patterns, 19 species have intermediated distributions, four species have restricted distributions, and 24 species evidenced a microendemic distribution pattern. The distribution patterns, number of grids, and the phytogeographical domain in which they occurred are presented in Table I for each species.

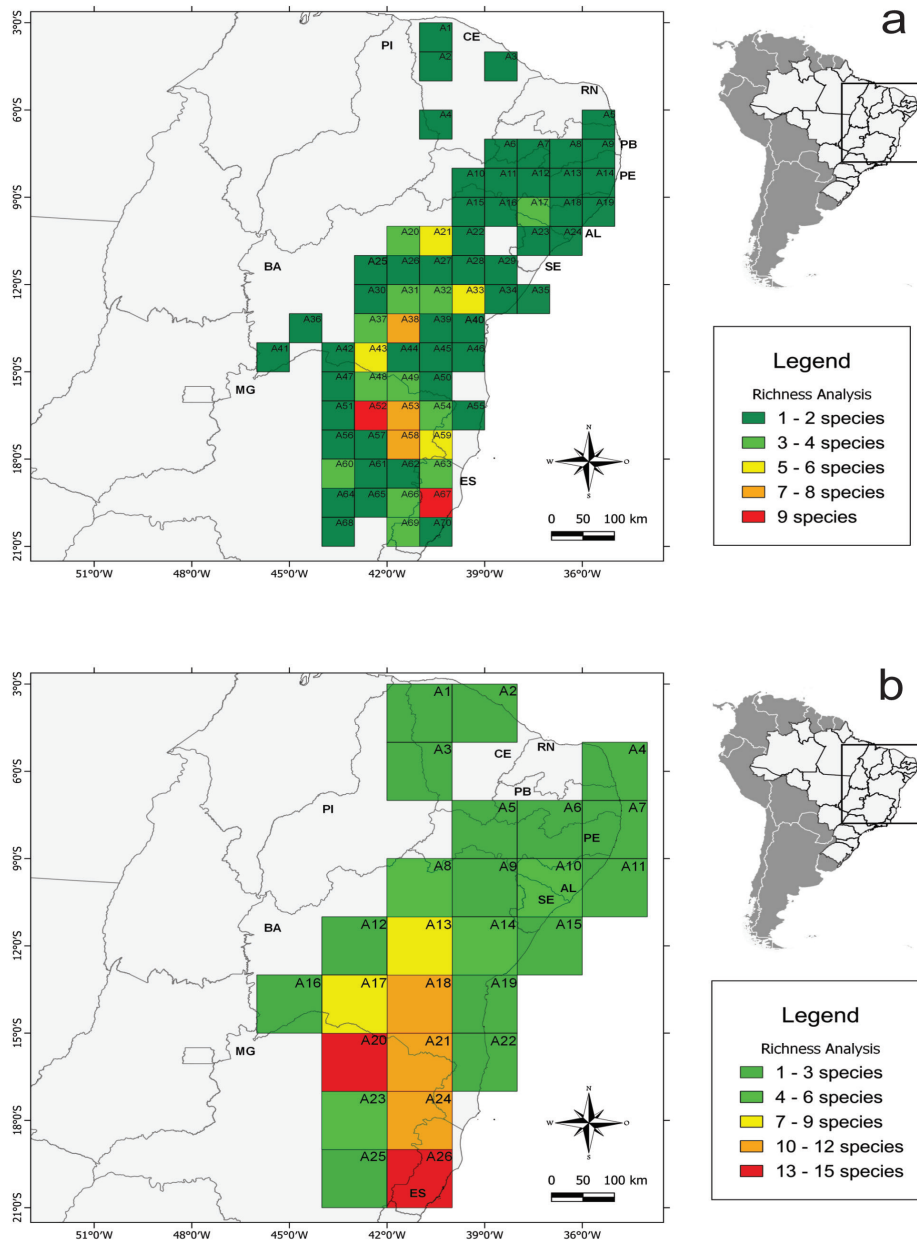
The richness analysis found 70 grids in 1° x 1° size and 26 grids in 2° x 2° size (Fig. 1). The regions with the greatest richness are represented by the grid squares A52 and A67 in the smaller grid size (comprising together 18 species, with 7 exclusives to those areas), which

coincides with the areas in the larger grid size with the A20 and A26 areas with the greatest richness (comprising together 28 species, with 14 exclusives). These areas encompassing the central portion of the Espinhaço Range (in the north of Minas Gerais, grid A52 in smaller grid size and A20 in the larger one), and the inselbergs of Espírito Santo and its boundary with Minas Gerais (grid A67 in smaller grid size and A26 in the larger one). Even the grids with low to medium richness still included exclusive species, such as grids A17 (with one exclusive species), A31 (1 sp.), A38 (2 spp.), A43 (2 spp.), A54 (2 spp.), A58 (1 sp.), A63 (1 sp.), A66 (4 spp.) and A69 (2 spp.) in the smaller grid size and A10 (2 spp.), A13 (1 sp.), A17 (2 spp.), A18 (2 spp.), A21 (2 spp.), A23 (1 sp.) and A24 (3 spp.) in the larger grid size. Our results therefore indicated two main centers of *Orthophytum* species richness: the central portion of Espinhaço Range (CPER) and the central portion of the Atlantic Forest (CPAF).

The diversity analysis (Fig. 2) as the richness analysis also produced 70 grids in 1° x 1° size and 26 grids in 2° x 2° size. The regions with the greatest diversity are represented by grid squares A52, A58, A59 and A67 (with Shannon index H' between 1.58 – 2.0) in the smaller grid size, encompassing the north and northeast of Minas Gerais and the inselbergs of Espírito Santo. The larger grid size has the A17, A18, A20, A21 and A26 areas with high diversity (H' between 1.77 – 2.19), encompassing the central portion of Espinhaço Range (in the north and northeast of Minas Gerais and south of Bahia) and the inselbergs of Espírito Santo and its boundaries with Minas Gerais. In summary, the main difference between the two analyses is found in areas A17 and A18 (in larger grid size) – the central portion of Espinhaço Range in Bahia – which presents a relatively reduced

Table I. Distribution patterns of *Orthophytum* species with the associated vegetation and number of grids (in 2-degree grid size) that each species are present. CA: Caatinga; CE: Cerrado; AF: Atlantic Forest; MED: Microendemic Distribution; ID: Intermediated Distribution; RD: Restricted Distribution; WD: Widely Distribution.

Species	Number of grids	Phytogeographical Domains	Distribution Pattern
<i>Orthophytum alagoanum</i> Leme & A.P.Fontana	1	CA	MED
<i>Orthophytum alvimii</i> W. Weber	2	CA, AF	ID
<i>Orthophytum arcanum</i> Leme	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum argentum</i> Louzada & Wand.	1	CA	MED
<i>Orthophytum atalaiense</i> J.A.Siqueira & Leme	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum boudetianum</i> Leme & L.Kollmann	1	AF	RD
<i>Orthophytum braunii</i> Leme	3	CA	ID
<i>Orthophytum buranhense</i> Leme & A.P.Fontana	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum cearense</i> Leme & F.Monteiro	3	CA, AF	ID
<i>Orthophytum conquistense</i> Leme & M.Machado	2	AF	ID
<i>Orthophytum cristaliense</i> Leme	1	CE	MED
<i>Orthophytum diamantinense</i> Leme	2	CE	ID
<i>Orthophytum disjunctum</i> L.B.Sm.	9	CA, AF	WD
<i>Orthophytum duartei</i> L.B.Sm.	2	AF	ID
<i>Orthophytum eddie-estevesii</i> Leme	1	CA	MED
<i>Orthophytum elegans</i> Leme	2	AF	ID
<i>Orthophytum erigens</i> Leme	1	CA	MED
<i>Orthophytum estevesii</i> (Rauh) Leme	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum falconii</i> Leme	4	CA, AF	ID
<i>Orthophytum foliosum</i> L.B.Sm.	5	CE, AF	WD
<i>Orthophytum fosterianum</i> L.B.Sm.	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum glabrum</i> (Mez) Mez	2	CE, AF	ID
<i>Orthophytum graomogolense</i> Leme & C.C.Paula	2	CE, AF	ID
<i>Orthophytum grossiorum</i> Leme & C.C.Paula	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum guaratingense</i> Leme & L.Kollmann	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum gurkenii</i> Hutchison	2	AF	ID
<i>Orthophytum harleyi</i> Leme & Machado	3	CA	ID
<i>Orthophytum horridum</i> Leme	5	CA, AF	WD
<i>Orthophytum jabrense</i> G.S.Baracho & J.A.Siqueira	2	CA, AF	ID
<i>Orthophytum jacaraciense</i> Leme	1	CA	MED
<i>Orthophytum lanuginosum</i> Leme & C.C.Paula	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum lemei</i> E.Pereira & I.A.Penna	8	CA, AF	WD
<i>Orthophytum leprosum</i> (Mez) Mez	5	CA, CE, AF	WD
<i>Orthophytum macroflorum</i> Leme & M.Machado	1	CA	MED
<i>Orthophytum magalhaesii</i> L.B.Sm.	3	AF	ID
<i>Orthophytum maracasense</i> L.B.Sm.	7	CA, AF	WD
<i>Orthophytum mello-barretoii</i> L.B.Sm.	3	CE, AF	ID
<i>Orthophytum minimum</i> Leme & O.B.C.Ribeiro	1	CE	MED
<i>Orthophytum piranianum</i> Leme & C.C.Paula	2	CE	ID
<i>Orthophytum pseudostoloniferum</i> Leme & L.Kollmann	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum pseudovagans</i> Leme & L.Kollmann	1	AF	RD
<i>Orthophytum riocontense</i> Leme	3	CA, AF	ID
<i>Orthophytum roseolilacinum</i> Leme	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum santaritense</i> Leme, S.Heller & Zizka	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum santosianum</i> Leme	2	CA, CE	ID
<i>Orthophytum saxicola</i> Ule	7	CA, AF	WD
<i>Orthophytum schulzianum</i> Leme & M.Machado	1	CE, AF	RD
<i>Orthophytum</i> sp. nov.	1	CA	MED
<i>Orthophytum striatifolium</i> Leme & L.Kollmann	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum sucrei</i> H.Luther	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum toscanoi</i> Leme	3	CA, CE	ID
<i>Orthophytum triunfense</i> J.A.Siqueira & Leme	1	CA	RD
<i>Orthophytum vasconcelosianum</i> Leme	1	AF	MED
<i>Orthophytum zanonii</i> Leme	1	AF	MED



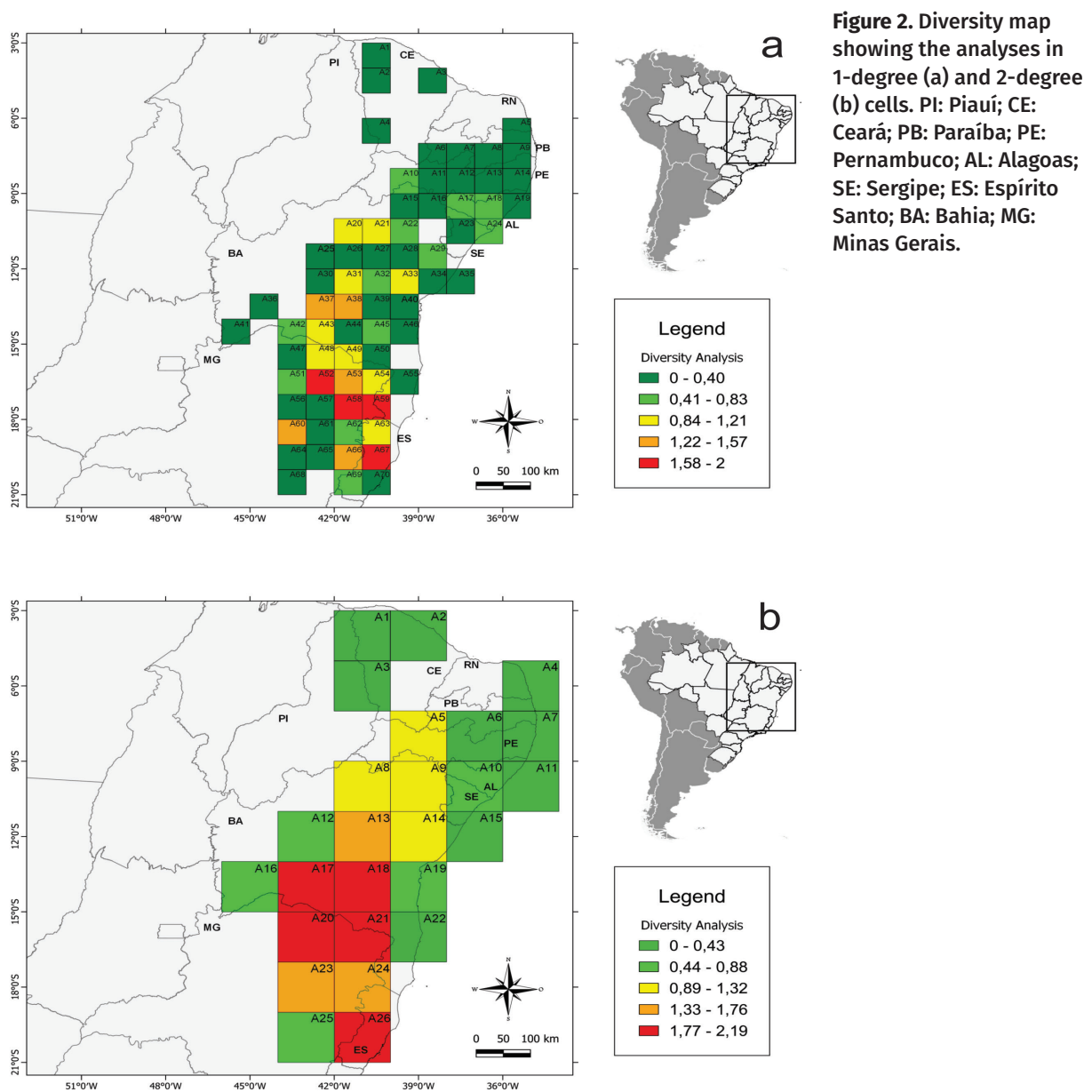
richness (nine and ten species respectively) but high diversity ($H' = 1.77 - 2.19$). Therefore, our results indicate two main centers of diversity of *Orthophytum*: the Central Portion of Espinhaço Range (CPER) and the Central Portion of Atlantic Forest (CPAF).

Parsimony analysis of endemism

As the same as the above analyzes, the total number of occupied areas (grid-cells) varied

according to PAE quadrat size, 70 grid-cells in $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ and 26 in $2^\circ \times 2^\circ$, which both represent the entire distribution of the genus in Brazil.

For the 1-degree quadrat matrix, PAE produced 5000 equally parsimonious trees, with CI (consistency index) = 0.79 and RI (retention index) = 0.62, based on 28 parsimony-informative characters. The strict consensus tree (Fig. 3) revealed a basal polytomy for most areas, but



15 remaining quadrats were grouped into six minor clades – AFMG (Atlantic Forest of Minas Gerais), AFES (Atlantic Forest of Espírito Santo), NBA (North of Bahia), CD (Chapada Diamantina), GM (Grão Mogol) and CT (Caetité) and in three major ones – CPAF (Central Portion of Atlantic Forest), NER (North of Espinhaço Range) and CPER (Central Portion of Espinhaço Range). Thus, three major clades with bootstrap support $\geq 50\%$ and three or more species shared can

effectively be observed in this analysis and considered areas of endemism.

For the 2-degree quadrat matrix, PAE produced 1416 equally parsimonious trees, with CI = 0.71 and RI = 0.63, based on 24 parsimony-informative characters. The strict consensus tree (Fig. 3) also revealed a basal polytomy for 16 quadrats, but ten remaining quadrats were grouped into three major clades – CPAF, NER and SER (South of Espinhaço Range), considered areas of endemism.

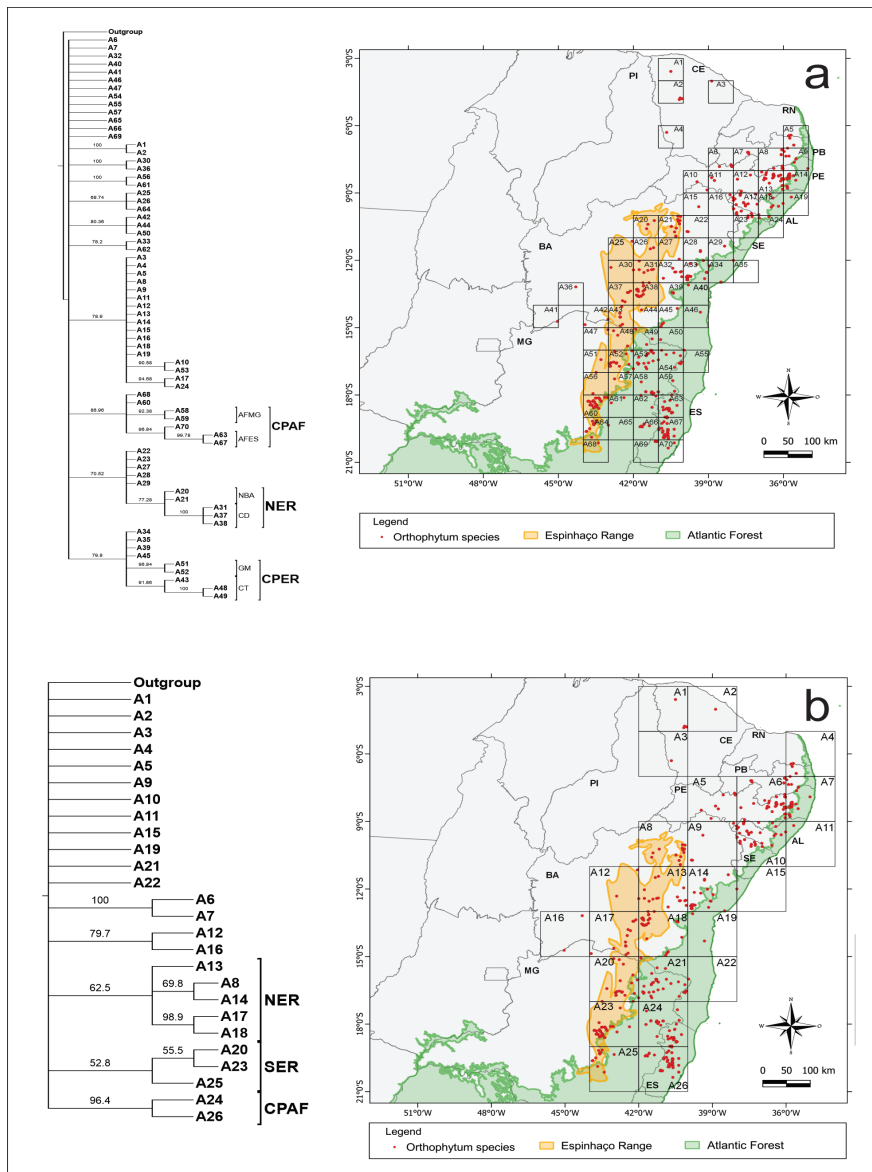


Figure 3. The majority rule consensus tree obtained with the 1-degree (a) and 2-degree (b) size cells analyses, showing the major and minor areas of endemism determined by PAE. Numbers under the lines indicate bootstrap proportions. AFMG: Atlantic Forest of Minas Gerais; AFES: Atlantic Forest of Espírito Santo; NBA: North of Bahia; CD: Chapada Diamantina; GM: Grão Mogol; CT: Caetité; CPAF: Central Portion of Atlantic Forest; NER: North of Espinhaço Range; CPER: Central Portion of Espinhaço Range; SER: South of Espinhaço Range; PI: Piauí; CE: Ceará; PB: Paraíba; PE: Pernambuco; AL: Alagoas; SE: Sergipe; ES: Espírito Santo; BA: Bahia; MG: Minas Gerais.

The results in both analyzes were similar, the 1-degree result shows a big basal polytomy, but recovered small clades that can be considered small endemism areas. The 2-degree result also shows a basal polytomy, but for being bigger quadrats, result in larger endemism areas. The areas NER and CPAF in both degrees are equivalent and the mainly difference between results analyses is in the areas CPER (1-degree) and SER (2-degree), southernmost areas of Espinhaço Range. The SER of 1-degree analysis covered areas even further south of Espinhaço

Range than the CPER that covers the central region of Espinhaço Range, in the boundaries of Bahia and Minas Gerais states.

Therefore, as there were not so many significant differences between both analysis results, here, we will consider for purposes of description and discussion, the areas of endemism recovered from the 2-degree analysis: NER, SER and CPAF.

The first area considered is the northern region of the Espinhaço Range in Bahia State, formed by the grid groups A8, A13, A14, A17 and

A18, (with bootstrap = 62.5%) with five exclusive species. The second area is the South of Espinhaço Range in Minas Gerais, formed by the grid group A20, A23 and A25 (bootstrap = 52.8%), also with five exclusive species. The last area, with the highest number of exclusive species (13), is the Central Portion of the Atlantic Forest located in Espírito Santo and on the boundary with Minas Gerais, formed by the grid group A24 and A26 (bootstrap = 96.4%).

DISCUSSION

As previously mentioned, many authors define an area of endemism when the distribution of two or more species converge to the same region and do not occur anywhere else (Morrone 1994, Garcia-Barros et al. 2002, Platnick 1991). Such a region will evidence a higher-than-expected endemism when compared to adjacent regions (Crisp et al. 2001, Laffan & Crisp 2003). Due to the high number of microendemic species and species known for only one location, we decided to define here an endemism area when the clades resulted in the consensus area cladograms from PAE analysis received bootstrap support $\geq 50\%$ and shared three or more species.

The identification of areas of endemism is important for reconstructing the historic and ecological biogeography of taxa, as well as for biodiversity conservation (Szumik 2002, Echternacht et al. 2011). This is because the delimitation of areas of endemism allows the identification of priority areas for conservation that harbor unique concentrations of biodiversity (Myers et al. 2000, Williams et al. 2002) and represent independent geographic units. The analysis of the relationships between those areas will generate information about the processes responsible for their formation (Anderson 1994, Morrone 1994, Laffan & Crisp 2003).

In this study, smaller grid sizes result in a finer resolution of distributional patterns and smaller individual areas of endemism but show a big basal polytomy (Fig. 3). Linder (2001) argues that the disadvantage of smaller grid sizes is that they would lead to an increase in the number of false absences. Nelson et al. (1990) showed that the detection of centers of endemic plant species in the Brazilian Amazon may be flawed due to collection errors. However, this distorting effect could be avoided if was used large grids sizes. In our case, the most of major patterns are recovered in both areas' cladogram, and the difference between both analysis results was not so significant (see in the Results section), so we choose to use the 2-degree results for purposes of description and discussion, and we believe that appears to be an adequate resolution to be explored in future research of secondary biogeographical homologies (Costa S.L. et al., unpublished data).

Thus, the present study identified and defined three large areas of endemism of *Orthophytum*: NER, SER, and CPAF (Fig. 3), with existing legally constituted conservation areas within them; the main conservation reserves in each area are listed in Table II.

The NER and SER together cover almost the entire Espinhaço Range, except for the region of Oliveira dos Brejinhos (corresponding to areas A12 in central Bahia – which had good support in together with A16, however have only one record and therefore were not identified as areas of endemism for *Orthophytum*). The NER is located in the Bahia portion of the Espinhaço Range, while the SER is in Minas Gerais portion of the Espinhaço Range. Both areas evidence high richness (36 and 22 species respectively), medium endemism (five exclusive species each), and medium to high diversity (NER: 0.89 – 2.19; SER: 0.88 – 2.19).

Table II. Main Conservation Units created within the areas of endemism identified by PAE of 2-degrees grid size and the grid/area in which each one occurs. Numbers in parentheses indicate the total number of conservation units within the grid/area. Bold indicates that there are *Orthophytum* species within these conservation units. RPPN: Reserva Particular do Patrimônio Natural; APA: Área de Proteção Ambiental; RVS: Refúgio de Vida Silvestre; PN: Parque Nacional; PE: Parque Estadual; RDS: Reserva de Desenvolvimento Sustentável; FN: Floresta Nacional; ARIE: Área de Relevante Interesse Ecológico; MN: Monumento Natural; RB: Reserva Biológica; ESEC: Estação Ecológica.

Endemism Areas	Area	Main Conservation Units	
		Sustainable Use Units	Integral Protection Units
North of Espinhaço Range	A8 (6)	RPPN Maria Maria, APA Lago de Sobradinho, RPPN Toca dos Ossos, APA Boqueirão da Onça ;	RVS Riacho Pontal, PN Boqueirão da onça ;
	A13 (22)	ARIE Serra do Orobó, APA Marimbus , APA Grutas dos Brejões, RPPN Ametista, RPPN Pau d'Arco;	PN Chapada Diamantina , PE Morro do Chapéu , PE Sete Passagens, MN Cachoeira do Ferro Doido;
	A14 (14)	APA Baía de Todos os Santos ; RPPN Curió, RPPN Olho de Fogo, APA Plataforma Continental do Litoral Norte;	MN Cânions do Subaé;
	A17 (7)	APA Lajedão;	PE Serra dos Montes Altos, PE Verde Grande, PE Caminho dos Gerais , RVS Serra dos Montes Altos, PE Mata Seca , PE Lagoa do Cajueiro;
	A18 (17)	ARIE Nascente do Rio de Contas , FN Contendas do Sincorá, APA Serra do Barbado, APA da Serra do Ouro, APA Serra do Barbado , RPPN Arco Verde ;	PN Boa Nova, PN Chapada Diamantina , RVS Boa Nova;
South of Espinhaço Range	A20 (10)	RDS Nascentes Geraizeiras, APA Serra do Sabonetal;	RB Jaíba, PE Caminho dos Gerais , PE Serra Nova e Talhado, PE Lapa Grande, PE Botumirim, PE Grão Mogol , RB Serra Azul, PE Montezuma;
	A23 (15)	APA Águas Vertentes , APA do Alto do Mucuri;	PE de Botumirim, PE Serra da Candonga, PE Serra do Intendente, MN Estadual Várzea do Lageado , PE Serra Negra, PE Pico do Itambé, PN das Sempre Vivas , ESEC Acauã, PE Biribiri ;
	A25 (60)	APA da Perdição, APA Alto Taboão, APA Cachoeira das Andorinhas, APA Córrego da Mata , RPPN Mata dos Jaca, APA Carste de Lagoa Santa, APA Sul-RMBH , RVS Macaúbas ;	MN Municipal Morro do Pires, PE do Rio Doce, PE Serra do Sobrado , PE Serra do Brigadeiro, PE Serra Verde, PE Serra do Intendente , PN da Serra do Gandarela, PE do Itacolomi, PN Serra do Cipó ;
Central Portion of Atlantic Forest	A24 (8)	APA Alto do Mucuri , RPPN Córrego das Traíras, RPPN Prati , RPPN Antônio Lopes Merson, RPPN Lemke;	RB Córrego do Veado, RB Sooretama, MN Pico do Ibituruna;
	A26 (120)	FN Pacotuba, FN Goytacazes, APA Corredeiras, RPPN Meu Cantinho , RPPN Bei Cantoni , RPPN Olho d'Água , RPPN Três Pontões , RPPN Boa Fé , RPPN Passos , RPPN Freisleben , APA Lagoa Jacuné;	MN Pontões Capixabas , PE Mata das Flores, PE Sete Salões , PN Caparaó, MN Pontões Capixabas, MN Pedra do Monjolo , MN o Frade e a Freira;

Both the NER and SER have a large extension of “Campos Rupestres” (rocky altitudinal fields) – a landscape composed mainly of grasslands and quartzite-sandstone rock outcrops above 900 masl. The Espinhaço Range represents approximately 1% of the total land area of Brazil, but shelters approximately 10% of the country’s plant diversity (Rapini 2010). Most of those species have restricted distributions, and the floristic compositions of the rocky fields of the Espinhaço Range are marked by rare species and high rates of endemism – perhaps the highest among Brazilian plant formations (Giulietti et al. 1987, 1997, Giulietti & Pirani 1988, Rapini 2010).

The geological origin of the constituent blocks of the Espinhaço Range is dated to the Pre-Cambrian period. The soil is characterized by being shallow, sandy, acidic, and nutrient-poor, which contributes to a phytogeographic mosaic of rare species, due to the segmentation of the vegetation in different and small populations between rock outcrops (providing specific niches to the species) besides living in several locations with difficult to access, remaining undersampled or practically unexplored (Rapini 2010, Schaefer et al. 2016, Silveira et al. 2016), even being an area intensely researched (see Rapini et al. 2008, Borges et al. 2011, Echternacht et al. 2011, Bitencourt & Rapini 2013, Colli-Silva et al. 2019, Alves & Loeuille 2021, Alves & Buril 2022, Assunção-Silva & Assis 2022, Barros-Souza & Borges 2023).

The *Orthophytum* species of the NER occur on high elevation rock outcrops (more than 900 masl), while the species of the SER occur on lower elevation rock outcrops (less than 900 m). Echternacht et al. (2011) observed that the species that occur in the northern section of Espinhaço Range in Minas Gerais (corresponding to SER of our study) occur in lowlands with contrasting climatic and edaphic conditions that could represent barriers to many endemic mountain

plants. These lowlands were also reported as probable geographic barriers for Harley (1988), Rando & Pirani (2011), and Alves & Buril (2022) in the dispersal of many mountain species and this could help to explain the distribution of the *Orthophytum* species that occur in SER and NER.

The third area of endemism of our study, the CPAF (areas A24 and A26), harbors the highest diversity, richness, and endemism, with 13 exclusive species, $H' = 1.76 - 2.19$, and the highest support in PAE (96.4%). This area was previously indicated by Martinelli et al. (2008) as a possible center of diversity and endemism. The CPAF is located in northeastern Espírito Santo State and Minas Gerais State, which are covered by the Atlantic Forest domain and characterized by an evergreen tropical forest vegetation (Oliveira-Filho et al. 2006). In addition to forest physiognomies, the area holds mangrove swamps, shrubby Restinga (sandy coastal) vegetation, and patches of high-altitude grasslands and rock outcrops (Safford 1999, 2007, Scarano 2002).

The *Orthophytum* species that occur in the CPAF are found on inselbergs and on exposed rock outcrops in the Atlantic Forest domain. Several authors observed that naturally open formations (such as inselbergs and granite rock outcrops) found in high altitude montane areas of the Atlantic Forest harbor a highly endemic flora (over 20% of its species) that have strong floristic connections with other montane areas, such as those of the Andes and the Espinhaço Range (e.g., Safford 1999, 2007, Giulietti & Pirani 1988, Calio et al. 2008, Porembski 2007).

Not only *Orthophytum*, but also most of the Bromeliaceae family, demonstrate high diversity and endemism in the Atlantic Forest domain. Zizka et al. (2019) identified three large centers of endemism and diversity of the American Bromeliaceae: in the Atlantic Forest of southeastern Brazil, in the Central Andes,

and in Central America. Those authors also observed that the subfamily Bromelioideae was most species-rich and evidenced high endemism in the eastern Atlantic Forest of Brazil. The high occurrence of Bromeliaceae, especially Bromelioideae, in the Atlantic Forest is consistent with the extensive diversification of the family in eastern Brazil (Smith 1934, Smith & Downs 1974).

The Atlantic Forest of southeastern Brazil has been identified in many studies as a center of endemism, diversity, and richness for many groups of plants, and as one of the most important regions for the conservation of global biodiversity (see Zizka et al. 2019, Myers et al. 2000, Smith 1934, Smith & Downs 1974, Benzing 2000, Mori et al. 1981, Prance 1982, Cracraft 1985, Soderstrom et al. 1988, Costa et al. 2000, Silva et al. 2004, Santos et al. 2007).

According to Forza et al. (2020), 87% of all Bromeliaceae species within the Brazilian Atlantic Forest are endemic, and Zizka et al. (2019) and Martinelli (2000) observed that probably the most threatened Bromeliaceae species occur within that domain. The high level of habitat destruction in that region (only approximately 7.5% of the original vegetation remains) has indicated it as a priority site for global biodiversity conservation (Myers et al. 2000, Mittermeier et al. 2005). The creation of greater numbers of protected areas within the Atlantic Forest has accordingly been suggested to help assure the preservation of that biodiversity. It is worth mentioning that the A26 area alone (CPAF - which was identified as the most endemic area, with the greatest richness and diversity) already has more than 120 legally established conservation areas (Table II), which may have been one of the factors aiding the conservation of *Orthophytum* species – and demonstrates the importance of such conservation areas.

Distinct from the CPAF area, however, both the NER and SER regions (and the Espinhaço Range as a whole) have few established conservation areas, and those are not sufficient to protect the diversity found in the entire complex, requiring more parks and reserves to be created (Silva et al. 2008, Versieux & Wendt 2007). Additionally, the existing conservation areas in those regions lack government support, and without satisfactory physical and administrative infrastructures (Echternacht et al. 2011).

According to the *Red List* of the National Center of Flora Conservation (CNCFlora 2022, continuously updated) there are ten threatened species of *Orthophytum*. Louzada & Wanderley (2010), however, observed that there is insufficient information available concerning most of its species to be able to accurately determine their conservation statuses, mainly due to the scarcity of collection material (most are only known from the type collection and imprecise information in the literature and in herbaria collections – which leads us to believe that the number of threatened species is probably much higher. We observed that 44% (24 species) of the *Orthophytum* species evidence microendemic distribution patterns (Table I, Fig. 4–10), being restricted to, and exclusive to, a certain vegetation physiognomy found in only one grid square of the PAE, and with one to four known sites of occurrence. Many of those species are only known from the type collection – evidencing the necessity for more intensive floristic and geographic distribution studies within the family.

The concept of microendemism includes species with highly restricted and geographically proximate distributions (Townsend et al. 2011), as was also adopted by McCauley et al. (2010) for *Guaiacum unijugum* Brandegees (Zygophyllaceae), which occurs in less than 5% of the Baja California in Mexico. Giulietti et al.

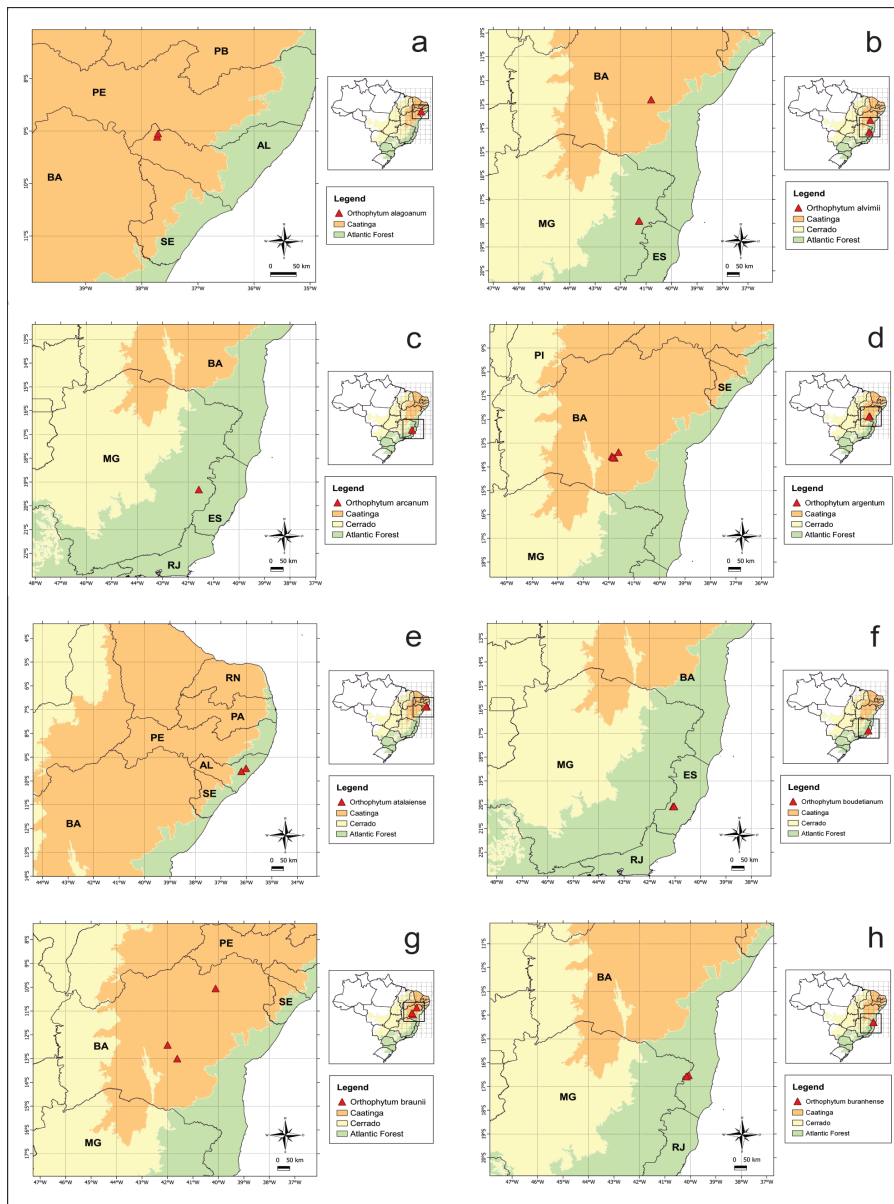


Figure 4. Distribution maps of *Orthophytum* species. a. *O. alagoanum*. b. *O. alvimii*. c. *O. arcanum*. d. *O. argentum*. e. *O. atalaiense*. f. *O. boudetianum*. g. *O. braunii*. h. *O. buranhense*.

(2005) also determined that approximately 96% of all Brazilian species of the Eriocaulaceae family are microendemic. Benzing (2000) and Martinelli et al. (2013, 2008) observed similar situations with other Bromeliaceae genera. Many *Aechmea*, *Hohenbergia*, and *Neoregelia* species characteristic of the Atlantic Forest have taxa occurring within just a few forest fragments or, in some cases, are restricted to only one protected area. Some *Cryptanthus* species are critically endangered, principally because they exist in

only very small populations with reduced ranges in rocky fields, or are known only from their type collections.

Cox & Moore (2011) noted that there are two main factors influencing the degree of endemism in an area: isolation and stability, with isolated islands and mountains (such as inselbergs and rock outcrops) always being rich in endemic organisms. Inselbergs are isolated rock outcrops that harbor saxicolous vegetation and are inserted within landscapes of contrasting plant

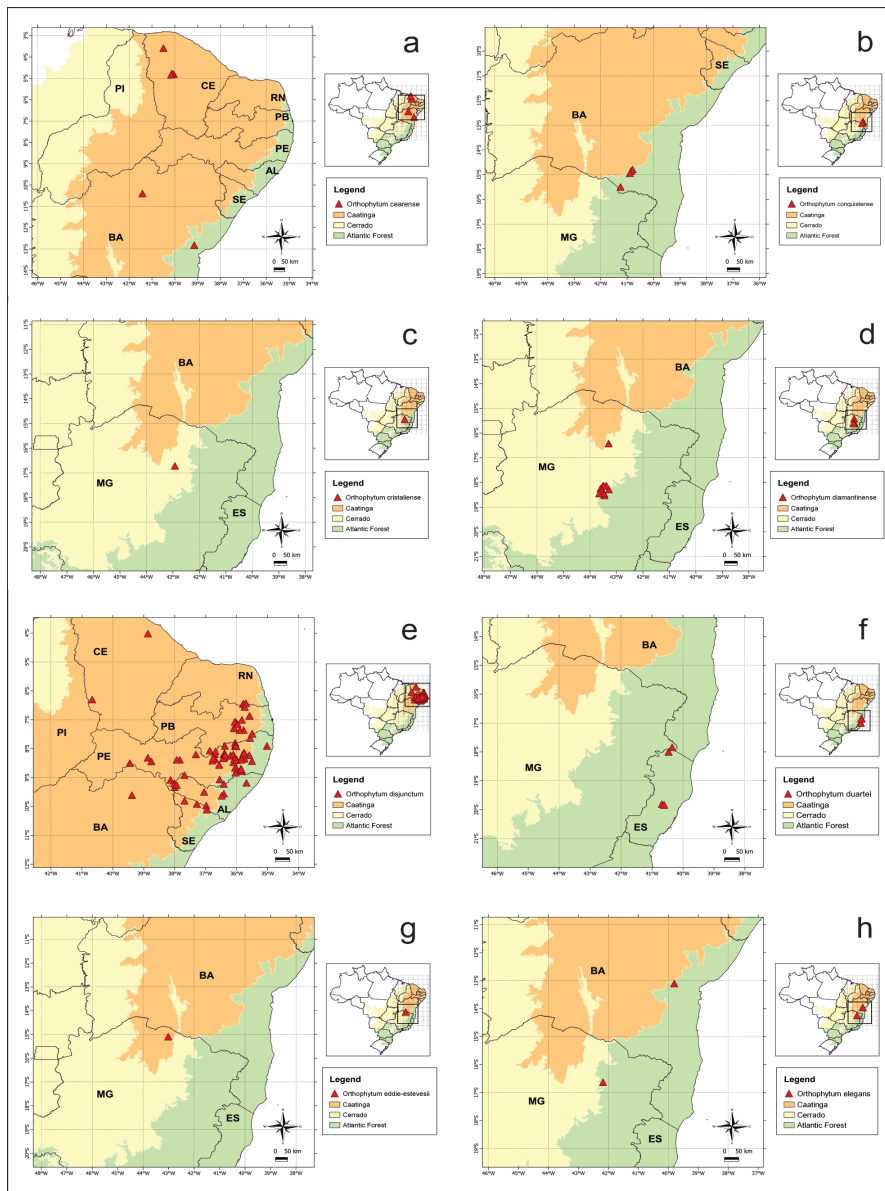


Figure 5. Distribution maps of *Orthophytum* species. a. *O. cearense*. b. *O. conquistense*. c. *O. cristaliense*. d. *O. diamantinense*. e. *O. disjunctum*. f. *O. duartei*. g. *O. eddie-estevessii*. h. *O. elegans*.

communities. Because they are geographically disconnected and show marked ecological isolation from their surrounding areas, inselbergs are often compared to oceanic islands and tend to maintain their typical attributes regardless of their geographic locations, occurring in areas with humid forests to dry environments (Porembski & Barthlott 2000).

Describing and recognizing geographic distribution patterns is one of the essential stages to delimit areas of endemism

(Noguera-Urbano 2016, Morrone 1994), therefore, as endemic taxa are found exclusively in only a single region, that aspect of their distribution is highly important to their conservation, and the identification of neighboring areas of endemism with low floristic similarities can contribute to effective conservation planning. Benzing (2000) hypothesized that the high rates of endemism observed in some Bromeliaceae genera, mainly saxicolous taxa (e.g., *Orthophytum* and *Dyckia*), could be attributed to their morphologies and

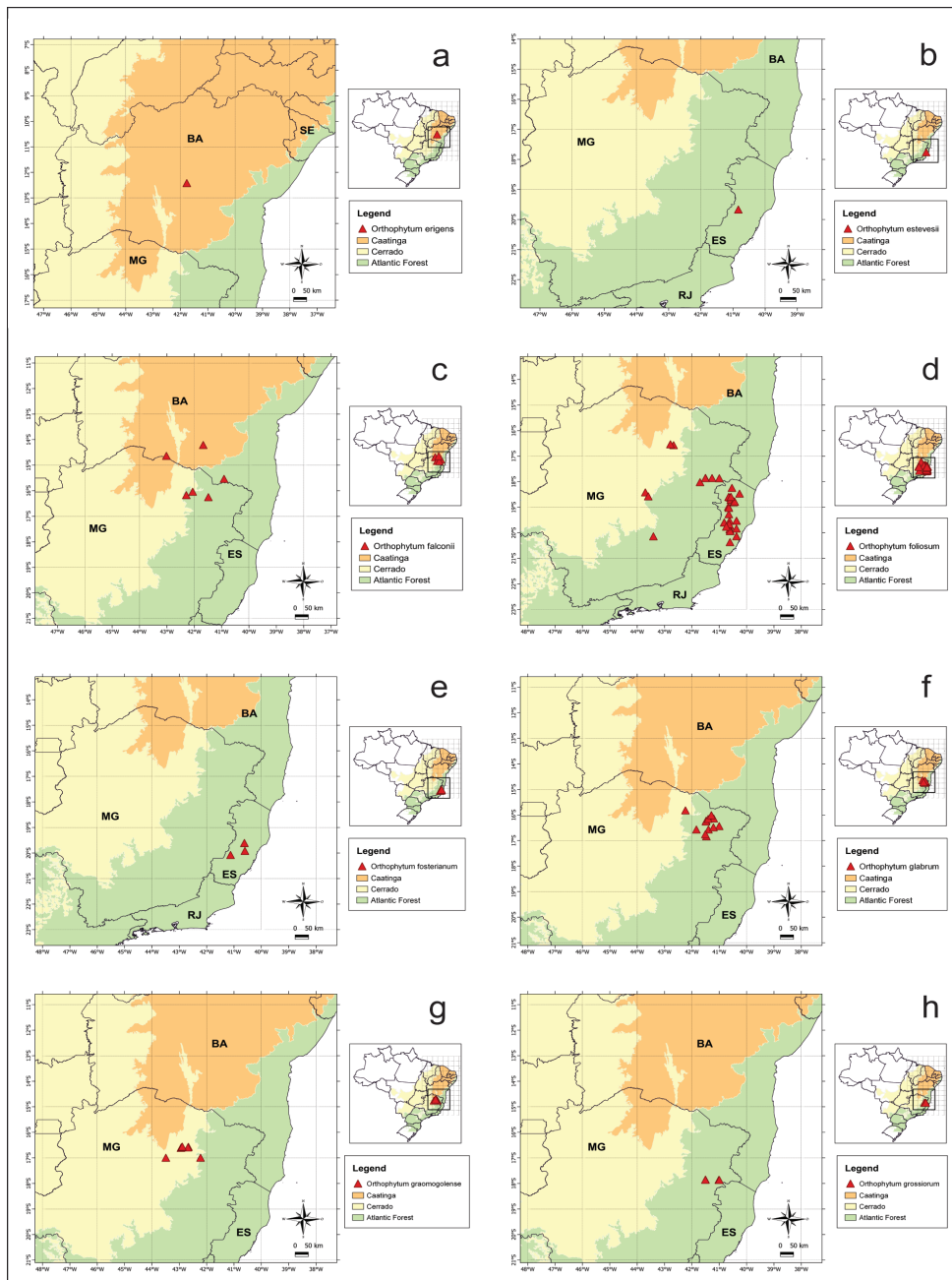


Figure 6. Distribution maps of *Orthophytum* species. a. *O. erigens*. b. *O. estevesii*. c. *O. falconii*. d. *O. foliosum*. e. *O. fosterianum*. f. *O. glabrum*. g. *O. graomogolense*. h. *O. grossiorum*.

to their lower dispersal capacities. Wanderley (1990) observed that the berry fruits and the bird (ornithophily) and insect (entomophily) dispersal observed in *Orthophytum* (and in the whole subfamily Bromelioideae), would limit the geographic distribution of its species in relation to the subfamily Tillandsioideae, whose seeds are widely dispersed by the wind.

Orthophytum is present in a diversity of spatially and ecologically isolated microhabitats (inselbergs and rock outcrops) that greatly restrict seed dispersal and migration, thus favoring the establishment of isolated populations and promoting speciation over successive generations. Studies of these types of islands have provided fundamental insights for understanding the ecological and evolutionary

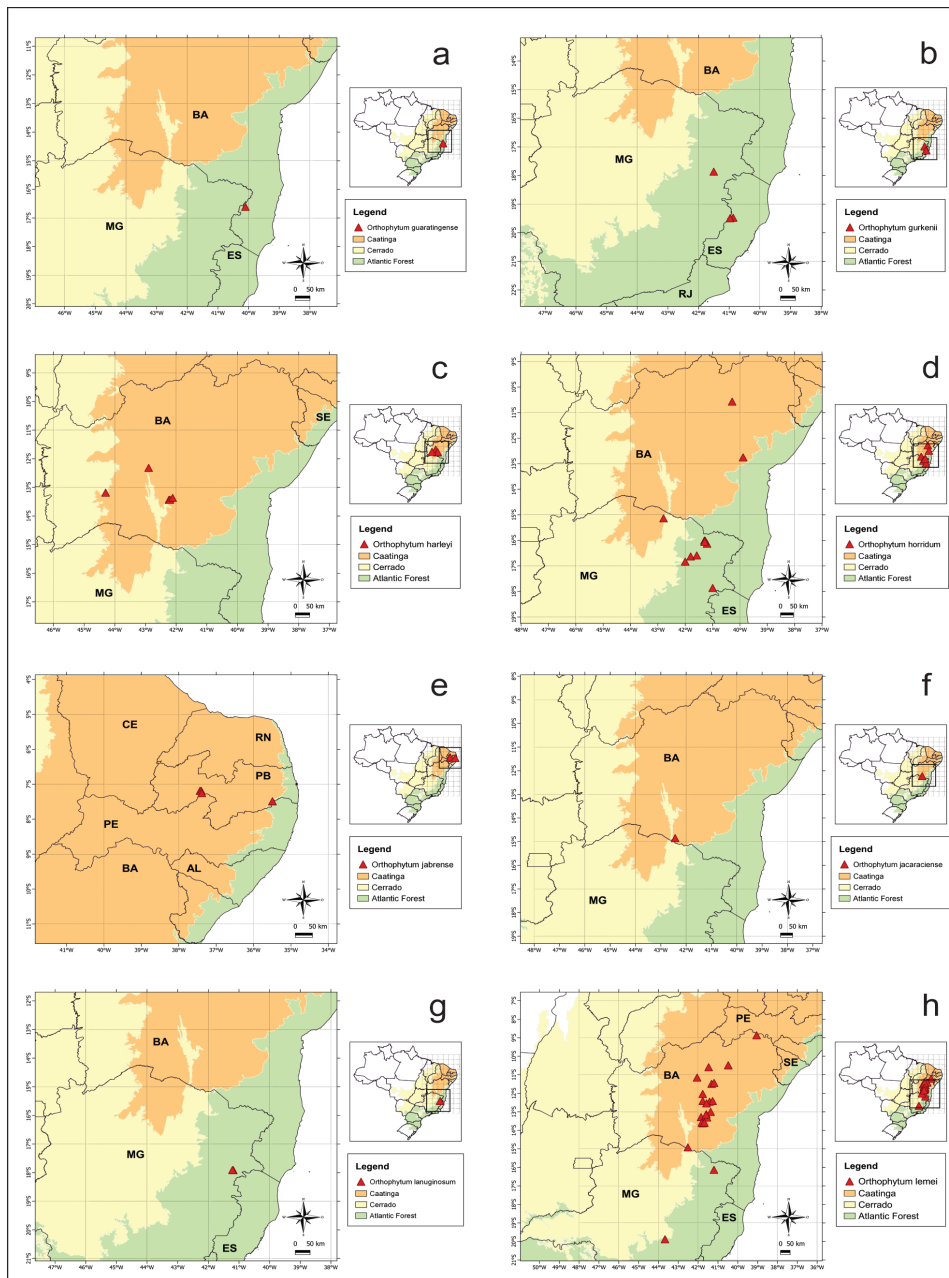


Figure 7. Distribution maps of *Orthophytum* species. a. *O. guaratingense*. b. *O. gurkenii*. c. *O. harleyi*. d. *O. horridum*. e. *O. jabrense*. f. *O. jacaraciense*. g. *O. lanuginosum*. h. *O. lemei*.

processes that affect the biodiversity of ecosystems (Porembski & Barthlott 2000), and the genus *Orthophytum* offers an interesting model system for examining speciation processes and endemism in neotropical habitats.

Studies like this provide a precise overview of species' distributions, and represent a

step forward to understanding the historical processes involved in their current geographic placement. These results reinforce the importance of publishing complete lists of the materials examined in taxonomic reviews and making them available to scientists and herbaria to improve the representativeness of

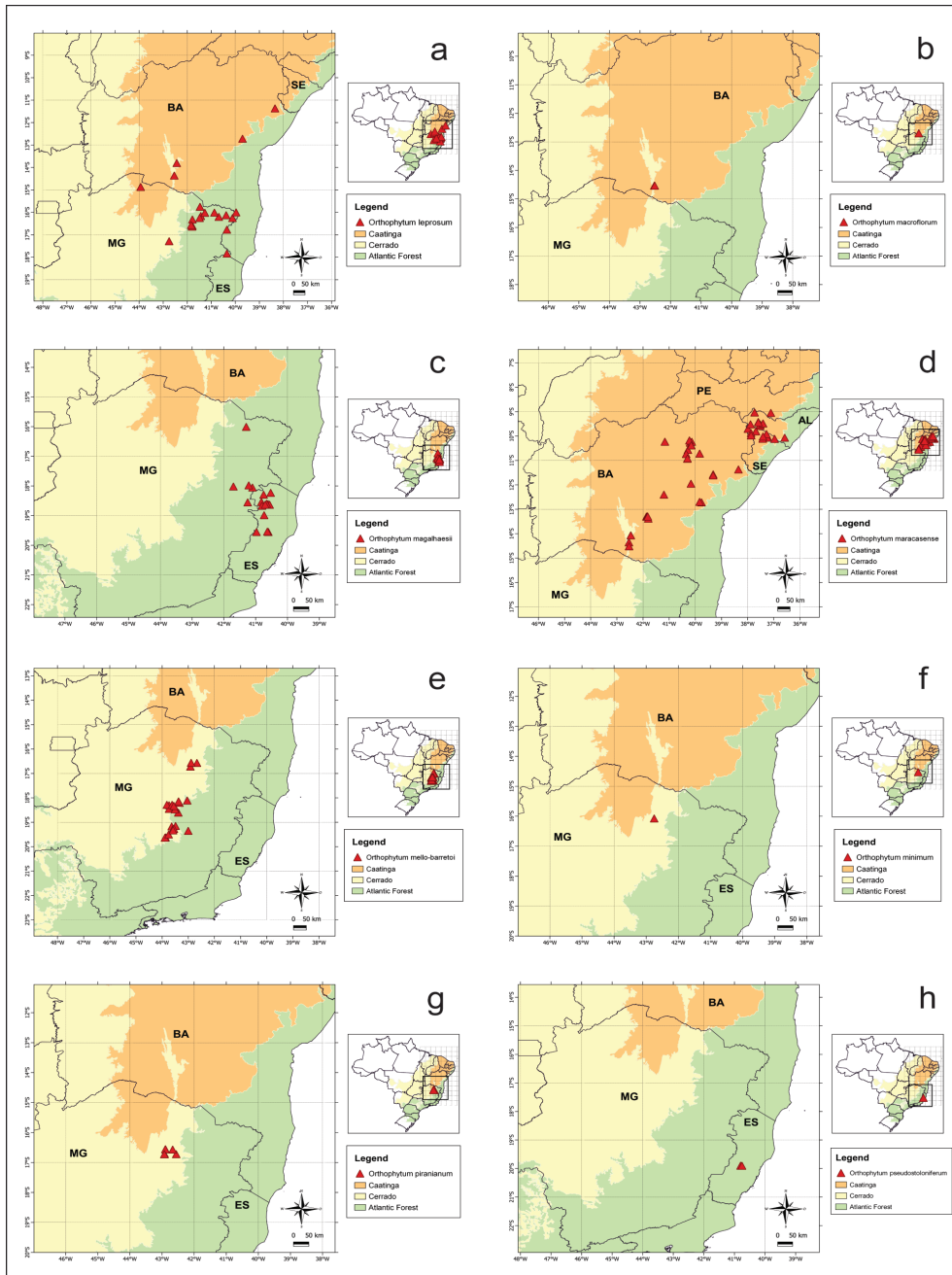


Figure 8. Distribution maps of *Orthophytum* species. a. *O. leprosum*. b. *O. macroflorum*. c. *O. magalhaesii*. d. *O. maracasense*. e. *O. mello-barretoii*. f. *O. minimum*. g. *O. piranianum*. h. *O. pseudostoloniferum*.

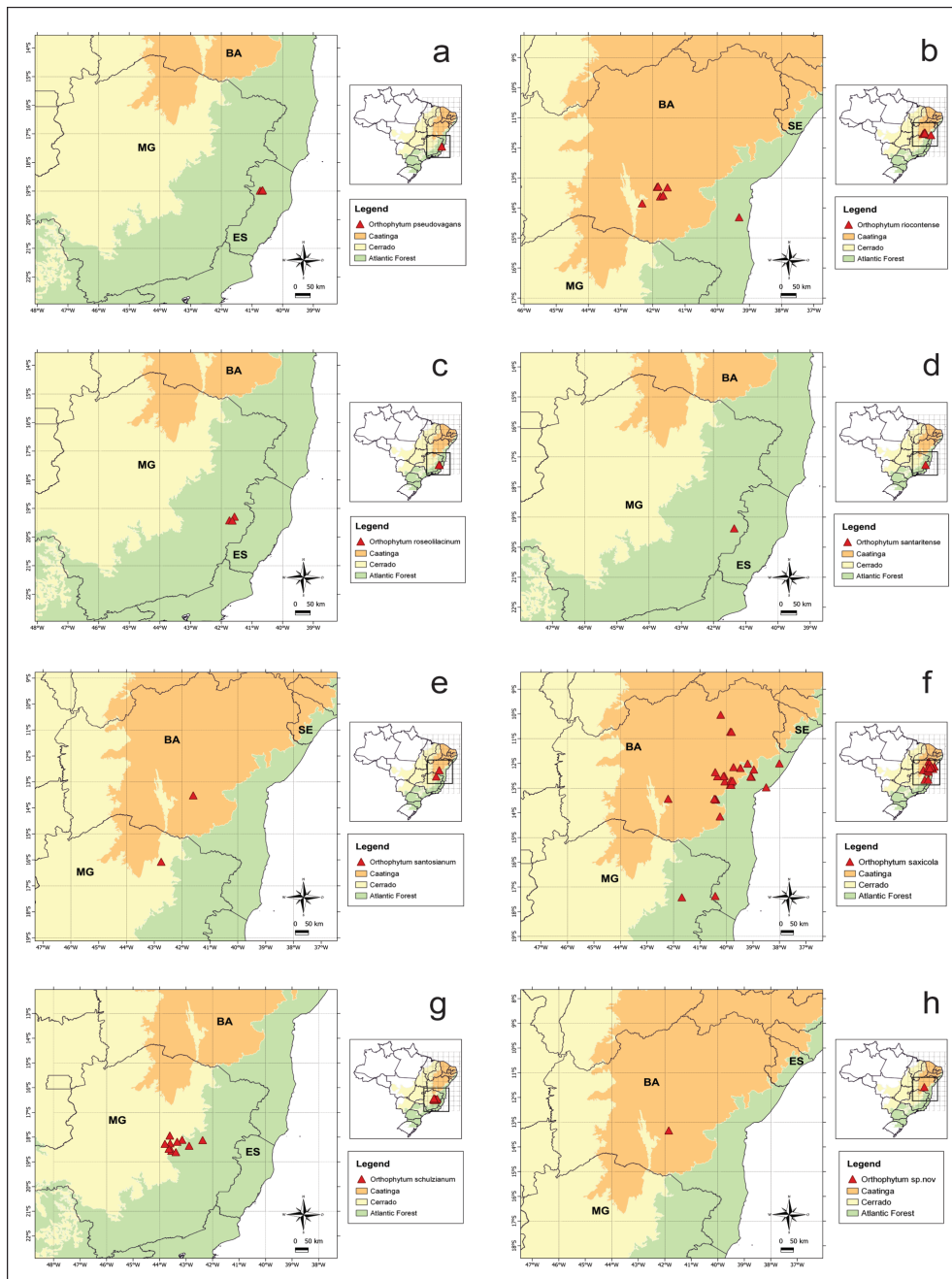


Figure 9. Distribution maps of *Orthophytum* species. a. *O. pseudovagans*. b. *O. riocontense*. c. *O. roseolilacinum*. d. *O. santaritense*. e. *O. santosianum*. f. *O. saxicola*. g. *O. schulzianum*. h. *O. sp. nov.*

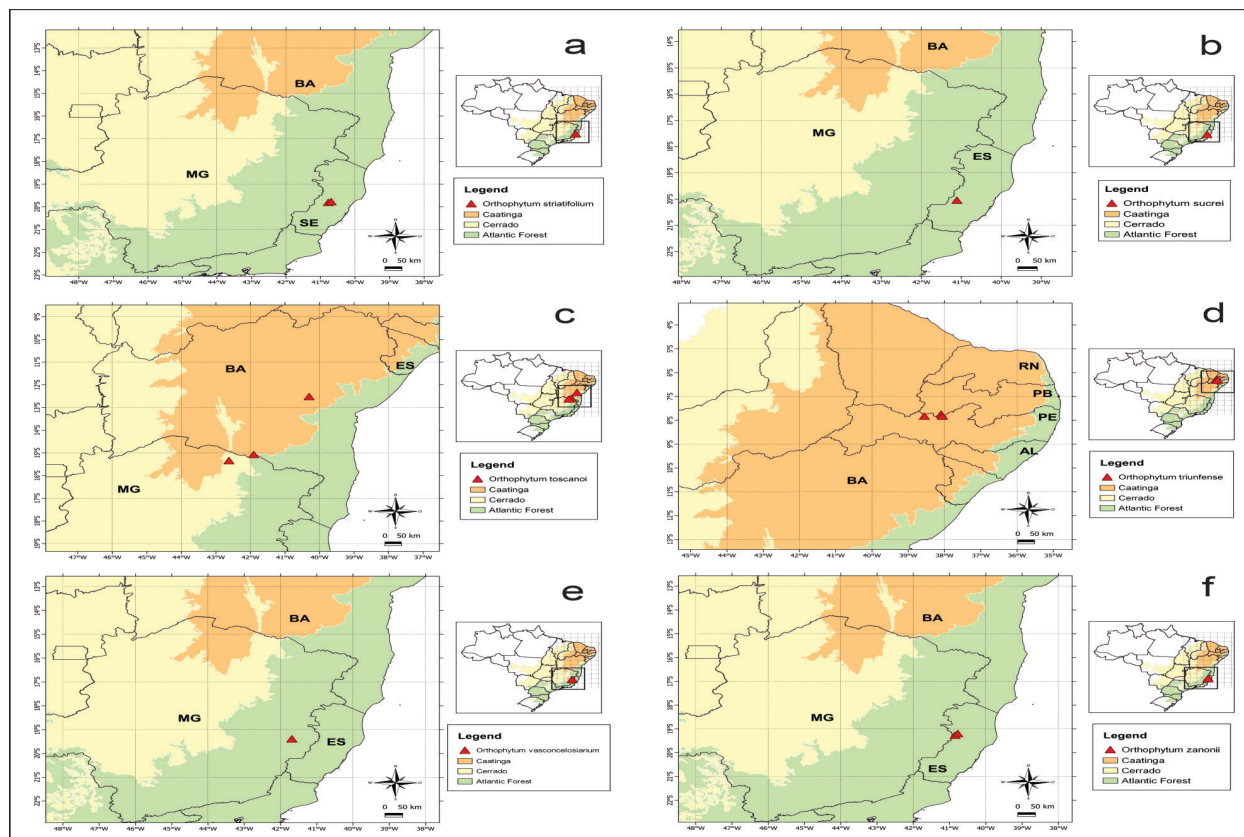


Figure 10. Distribution maps of *Orthophytum* species. a. *O. striatifolium*. b. *O. sucrei*. c. *O. toscanoi*. d. *O. triunfense*. e. *O. vasconcelosianum*. f. *O. zanonii*.

those collections. The results presented here and the identification of areas with high levels of endemism can act as a baseline to develop more detailed conservation assessments and assist public policies for preserving priority conservation areas.

Acknowledgments

The authors are grateful to the Federal Rural University of Pernambuco for institutional support. We also thank the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior - Brazil (CAPES), for a Doctorate's scholarships to SLC (Process: 88882.436300/2019-01).

REFERENCES

AAGESEN L, SZUMIK C, ZULOAGA FO & MORRONE O. 2009. Quantitative biogeography in the South America highlands - recognizing the Altoandina, Puna and

Prepuna through the study of Poaceae. *Cladistics* 25: 295-310.

ALVES FVS & LOEUILLE BFP. 2021. Geographic distribution patterns of species of the subtribe Lychnophorinae (Asteraceae: Vernonieae). *Rodriguésia* 72: e02072019. <https://doi.org/10.1590/2175-7860202172072>.

ALVES JV & BURIL MT. 2022. Distribution patterns, endemism, richness and diversity of Convolvulaceae in the Espinhaço Range, Brazil. *An Acad Bras Cienc* 94: e20211380. <https://doi.org/10.1590/0001-376520220211380>.

AMORIM DS & PIRES MRS 1996. Neotropical biogeography and a method for maximum biodiversity estimation. In Bicudo CEM & Menezes WA (Eds), *Biodiversity in Brazil, a first approach*. São Paulo: CNPq, 326 p.

ANDERSON S. 1994. Area and endemism. *Q Rev Bio* 69: 451-471.

ASSUNÇÃO-SILVA CC & ASSIS S. 2022. Areas of endemism of Lauraceae: New insights on the biogeographic regionalization of the Espinhaço Range, Brazil. *Cladistics* 38(2): 246-263. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cla.12481>.

- AUSTIN MP. 2013. Vegetation and environment: discontinuities and continuities. In: Van Der Mareel E & Franklin J (Eds), *Vegetation Ecology*, 2nd ed.
- BARBARÁ T, MARTINELLI G, PALMA-SILVA C, FAY MF, MAYO SJ & LEXER C. 2009. Genetic relationships and variation in reproductive strategies in four closely related bromeliads adapted to neotropical 'inselbergs': *Alcantarea glaziouana*, *A. regina*, *A. geniculata* and *A. imperialis* (Bromeliaceae). *Ann Bot* 103: 65-77.
- BARROS-SOUZA Y & BORGES LM. 2023. Spatial- and lineage-dependent processes underpin floristic assembly in the megadiverse Eastern South American mountains. *J Biogeogr* 50(2): 302-315. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.14527>.
- CNCFLORA - BASE DE DADOS DO CENTRO NACIONAL DE CONSERVAÇÃO DA FLORA. 2022. Available in: <<http://cncflora.jbrj.gov.br/portal/>>. Access in: Apr 2022.
- BENZING DH. 2000. *Bromeliaceae: profile of an adaptive radiation*. Cambridge: University Press, 656 p.
- BITENCOURT C & RAPINI A. 2013. Centres of endemism in the Espinhaço Range: identifying cradles and museums of Asclepiadoideae (Apocynaceae). *Syst Biodiv* 11: 525-536.
- BORGES RF, CARNEIRO MA & VIANA P. 2011. Altitudinal distribution and species richness of herbaceous plants in campos rupestres of the Southern Espinhaço Range, Minas Gerais, Brazil. *Rodriguésia* 62: 139-152.
- BROWN JH & LOMOLINO MV. 1998. *Biogeography*. 2nd ed, Ribeirão Preto: Funpec Editora, 691 p.
- BUTCHER D & GOUDA E. 2023. A list of accepted Bromeliaceae names. Available in: <http://bromNames.florapix.nl>. Access in: May 2022.
- CALIÓ MF, PIRANI JR & STRUWE L. 2008. Morphology-based phylogeny and revision of *Prepusa* and *Senaea* (Gentianaceae: Helieae) - rare endemics from eastern Brazil. *Kew Bull* 63: 169-191.
- CASAGRANDA MD, ARIAS JS, GOLOBOFF PA, SZUMIK C, TAHER LM, ESCALANTE T & MORRONE JJ. 2009. Proximity, interpenetration and sympatry: A reply to Dos Santos et al. *Syst Bio* 58: 271-276.
- COLLI-SILVA M, VASCONCELOS TNC & PIRANI JR. 2019. Outstanding plant endemism levels strongly support the recognition of campo rupestre provinces in mountaintops of eastern South America. *J Biogeogr* 46: 1723-1733.
- COSTA LP, LEITE YLR, FONSECA GAB & FONSECA MT. 2000. Biogeography of South American forest mammals: endemism and diversity in the Atlantic forest. *Biotropica* 32: 872-881.
- COX CB & MOORE PD. 2011. *Biogeografia: uma abordagem ecológica e evolucionária*. 7th ed., Rio de Janeiro: LTC, 398 p.
- CRACRAFT J. 1985. Historical biogeography and patterns of differentiation within the South America avifauna: areas of endemism. *Ornithol Monogr* 36: 49-84.
- CRISP MD, LAFFAN SW, LINDER HP & MONRO A. 2001. Endemism in the Australian flora. *J Biogeogr* 28: 183-198.
- DE LIMA RAF, SOUZA VC, DE SIQUEIRA MF & TER STEEGE H. 2020. Defining endemism levels for biodiversity conservation: tree species in the Atlantic Forest hotspot. *Bio Conserv* 252: 108825.
- ECHTERNACHT L, TROVÓ M, OLIVEIRA CT & PIRANI JR. 2011. Areas of endemism in the Espinhaço Range in Minas Gerais, Brazil. *Flora* 206: 782-791.
- ENGEMANN K, ENQUIST BJ, SANDEL B, BOYLE B, JORGENSEN PM, MORUETA-HOLME N, PEET RK, VIOLLE C & SVENNING J. 2015. Limited sampling hampers "big data" estimation of species richness in a tropical biodiversity hotspot. *Ecol Evol* 5(3): 807-820. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ece3.1405>.
- FRANÇOSO RD, HAIDAR RF & MACHADO RB. 2016. Tree species of South America central savanna: endemism, marginal areas and the relationship with other biomes. *Acta Bot Bras* 30: 78-86. <https://doi.org/10.1590/0102-33062015abb0244>.
- GARCÍA-BARROS E, GURREA P, LUCIANEZ MJ, CANO JM, MUNGUIRA ML, MORENO JC, SAINZ H, SANZ MJ & SIMON JC. 2002. Parsimony analysis of endemism and its application to animal and plant geographical distributions in the Ibero-Balearic region (western Mediterranean). *J Biogeogr* 29: 109-124.
- GIULIETTI AM & PIRANI JR. 1988. Patterns of geographical distribution of some plant species from Espinhaço range, Minas Gerais and Bahia, Brazil. In: Vanzolini PE & Heyer WR (Eds), *Proc Neotrop Distrib Patterns*. Rio de Janeiro: Academia Brasileira de Ciências, p. 39-69.
- GIULIETTI AM, MENEZES NL, PIRANI JR, MEGURO M & WANDERLEY MGL. 1987. Flora da Serra do Cipó, Minas Gerais: Caracterização e lista de espécies. *Bol Bot USP* 9: 1-152.
- GIULIETTI AM, PIRANI JR & HARLEY RM. 1997. Espinhaço range region. Eastern Brazil. In: Davis SD, Heywood VH, Herrera-Macbride O, Villa-Lobos J & Hamilton AC (Eds), *Centres of plant diversity. A guide and strategies for the conservation*, Cambridge: The Americas, WWF/IUCN, p. 397-404.
- GIULIETTI AM, HARLEY RM, QUEIROZ LP, WANDERLEY MGL & VAN DEN BERG C. 2005. Biodiversity and conservation of plants in Brazil. *Conserv Bio* 3: 632-639.

- GOLDANI Â. 2012. A importância da Biogeografia Histórica na conservação: exemplos de Análise de Parcimônia de Endemismo e Panbiogeografia na região Neotropical. *Rev Eletr Bio* 5: 119-136.
- HARLEY RM. 1988. Evolution and distribution of *Eriope* (Labiatae), and its relatives, in Brazil. In: Vanzolini P & Heyer WR (Eds), *Proc Neotr Distrib Patterns*. Rio de Janeiro: Academia Brasileira de Ciências, p. 71-120.
- HIJMANS R, GUARINO L, JARVIS A & O'BRIEN R. 2001. Map anal spat data. Available in: <http://www.diva-gis.org/>. Access in: 2022.
- LAFFAN SW & CRISP MD. 2003. Assessing endemism at multiple spatial scales, with an example from the Australian vascular flora. *J Biogeogr* 30: 511-520.
- LINDER HP. 2001. Plant diversity and endemism in sub-Saharan tropical Africa. *J Biogeogr* 28: 169 -182.
- LOUZADA RB. 2020. *Orthophytum* in Flora do Brasil 2020. Jardim Botânico do Rio de Janeiro. Available in: <http://floradobrasil.jbrj.gov.br/reflora/floradobrasil/FB6274>. Access in: May 2022.
- LOUZADA RB & WANDERLEY MGL. 2010. Revision of *Orthophytum* (Bromeliaceae): The species with sessile inflorescences. *Phytotaxa*, 13: 1-26.
- MADDISON WP & MADDISON DR. 2021. Mesquite: a modular system for evolutionary analysis. Version 3.70. Available in: <http://www.mesquiteproject.org>. Access in: 2022.
- MAGURRAN AE. 1988. Diversity indices and species abundance models. *Ecol Div Measur* 7-45.
- MANRIQUE CE, DURÁN R & ARGÁEZ J. 2003. Phytogeographic analysis of taxa endemic to the Yucatan Peninsula using geographic information systems, the domain heuristic method and parsimony analysis of endemism. *Divers Distrib* 9(4): 313-330.
- MARTINELLI G. 2000. The bromeliads of the Atlantic forest. *Scient Am*: 86-93.
- MARTINELLI G, VALENTE A, MAURENZA D, KUTSCHENKO D, JUDICE D, SILVA D & PENEDO T. 2013. Avaliações de risco de extinção de espécies da flora brasileira In: Martinelli G & Moraes M (Eds), *Livro vermelho da flora do Brasil*. Rio de Janeiro: Instituto de Pesquisas Jardim Botânico do Rio de Janeiro, p. 60-102.
- MARTINELLI G, VIEIRA CM, GONZALEZ M, LEITMAN P, PIRATININGA A, DA COSTA AF & FORZZA RC. 2008. Bromeliaceae da Mata Atlântica Brasileira: Lista de espécies, distribuição e conservação. *Rodriguésia* 59(1): 209-258.
- MCCAULEY RA, CORTÉS-PALOMEAC AC & OYAMA K. 2010. Distribution, genetic structure, and conservation status of the rare microendemic species, *Guaiacum unijugum* (Zygophyllaceae) in the Cape Region of Baja California, Mexico. *Rev Mex Biodiv* 81: 745-758.
- MENINI-NETO L & FORZZA RC. 2013. Biogeography and conservation status assessment of *Pseudolaelia* (Orchidaceae). *Bot J Linn Soc* 171: 191-200.
- MITTERMEIER RA, GIL PR, HOFFMAN M, PILGRIM J, BROOKS T, MITTERMEIER CG, LAMOREUX J & FONSECA GAB. 2005. Hotspots revisited: earth's biologically richest and most endangered terrestrial ecoregions. Washington: Conservation International.
- MORI SA, BOOM BM & PRANCE GT. 1981. Distribution patterns and conservation of eastern Brazilian coastal forest tree species. *Brittonia* 33: 233-245.
- MORRONE JJ. 1994. On the identification of areas of endemism. *Syst Bio* 43(3): 438-441.
- MORRONE JJ. 2009. Evolutionary biogeography: an integrative approach with case studies. New York: Columbia University Press.
- MORRONE JJ & ESCALANTE T. 2002. Parsimony analysis of endemism (PAE) of Mexican terrestrial mammals at different area units: when size matters. *J Biogeogr* 29: 1095-1104. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2699.2002.00753.x>.
- MYERS N, MITTERMEIER RA, MITTERMEIER CG & FONSECA GKJ. 2000. Biodiversity hotspots for conservation priorities. *Nature* 403: 853-858.
- NAVARRO FR, CUEZZO F, GOLOBOFF PA, SZUMIK C, GROSSO ML & QUINTANA G. 2009. Can insect data be used to infer areas of endemism? An example from the Yungas of Argentina. *Rev Chi Hist Nat* 82: 507-522.
- NELSON BW, FERREIRA CAC, DA SILVA MF & KAWASAKI ML. 1990. Endemism centres, refugia and botanical collection density in Brazilian Amazonia. *Nature* 345: 714-716.
- NOGUERA-URBANO EA. 2016. Areas of endemism: travelling through space and the unexplored dimension. *Syst Biodiv* 14: 131-139
- PALMA-SILVA C, WENDT T, PINHEIRO F, BARBARÁ T, FAY MF, COZZOLINO S & LEXER C. 2011. Sympatric bromeliad species (*Pitcairnia* spp.) facilitate tests of mechanisms involved in species cohesion and reproductive isolation in Neotropical inselbergs. *Mol Ecol*, 20: 3185-3201.
- PAUSAS JG & AUSTIN MP. 2001. Patterns of plant species richness in relation to different environments: an appraisal. *J Veg Sci* 12(2): 153-166.
- PLATNICK NI. 1991. On areas of endemism. *Austr Syst Bot* 4: unnumbered.

- POREMBSKI S. 2007. Tropical inselbergs: habitats types, adaptative strategies and diversity patterns. *Rev Bras Bot* 30: 579-586.
- POREMBSKI S & BARTHOLOTT W. 2000. Inselbergs. Biotic diversity of isolated rock outcrops in tropical and temperate regions. Berlin: Springer-Verlag.
- POSADAS P & MIRANDA-ESQUIVEL DR. 1999. El PAE (Parsimony Analysis of Endemicity) como una herramienta en la evaluación de la biodiversidad. *Rev Chill Hist Nat* 72: 539-546.
- PRANCE GT. 1982. A review of the phytogeographic evidences for Pleistocene climate changes in the Neotropics. *Ann Miss Bot Gard* 69: 594-624.
- QGIS DEVELOPMENT TEAM. 2021. QGIS Geographic Information System. Available in: <http://www.qgis.org/>.
- RANDO JG & PIRANI JR. 2011. Padrões de distribuição geográfica das espécies de Chamaecrista sect. Chamaecrista ser. Coriaceae (Benth.) H. S. Irwin & Barneby, Leguminosae - Caesalpinioideae. *Rev Bras Bot* 34: 499-513.
- RAPINI A. 2010. Revisitando as Asclepiadoideae (Apocynaceae) da Cadeia do Espinhaço. *Bol Bot USP* 28: 97-123.
- RAPINI A, RIBEIRO PL, LAMBERT S & PIRANI JR. 2008. A flora dos campos rupestres da Cadeia do Espinhaço. *Megadiversidade* 4: 16-24.
- RON SR. 2000. Biogeographic area relationships of low land Neotropical rainforests based on raw distributions of vertebrate groups. *Biol J Linn Soc* 71(3): 379-402.
- ROVITO SM, ARROYO MT & PLISCOFF P. 2004. Distributional modelling and parsimony analysis of endemism of Senecio in the Mediterranean-type climate area of Central Chile. *J Biogeogr* 31(10): 1623-1636.
- SAFFORD HD. 1999. Brazilian páramos I. An introduction to the physical environment and vegetation of the campos de altitude. *J Biogeogr* 26: 693-712.
- SAFFORD HD. 2007. Brazilian páramos IV. Phytogeography of the campos de altitude. *J Biogeogr* 34: 1701-1722.
- SANTOS AMM, CAVALCANTI DR, SILVA JMC & TABARELLI M. 2007. Biogeographical relationships in north-eastern Brazil. *J Biogeogr* 34: 437-446.
- SCARANO FR. 2002. Structure, function and floristic relationships of plant communities in stressful habitats marginal to the Brazilian Atlantic rainforest. *Ann Bot* 90(4): 517-524.
- SCHAEFER CEGR ET AL. 2016. The physical environment of rupestrian grasslands (Campos Rupestres) in Brazil: geological, geomorphological and pedological characteristics, and interplays. In: Fernandes GW (Ed), *Ecology and conservation of mountaintop grasslands in Brazil*. New York: Springer International Publishing, p. 15-53.
- SILVA JMC. 1995. Biogeography analysis of the South American Cerrado avifauna. *Steenstrupia* 21: 49-67.
- SILVA JMC & OREN DC. 1996. Application of parsimony analysis of endemism in Amazonian biogeography: an example with primates. *Bio J Linn Soc* 59: 427-437.
- SILVA JMC, SOUSA MC & CASTELLETTI CHM. 2004. Areas of endemism for passerine birds in the Atlantic forest, South America. *Glob Ecol Biogeogr* 13: 85-92.
- SILVA JA, MACHADO RB, AZEVEDO AA, DRUMOND GM, FONSECA RL, GOULART MF, MORAES-JÚNIOR EA, MARTINS CS & RAMOS-NETO MB. 2008. Identificação de áreas insubstituíveis para conservação da Cadeia do Espinhaço nos estados de Minas Gerais e Bahia, Brasil. *Megadiversidade* 4: 272-309.
- SILVEIRA FAO ET AL. 2016. Ecology and evolution of plant diversity in the endangered campo rupestre: a neglected conservation priority. *Plant Soil* 403: 129-152.
- SIGRIST MS & CARVALHO CJB. 2008. Detection of areas of endemism on two spatial scales using Parsimony Analysis of Endemism (PAE): the Neotropical region and the Atlantic Forest. *Biota Neotrop* 8: 33-42.
- SMITH LB. 1934. Geographical evidence on the lines of evolution in the Bromeliaceae. *Bot Jahrb Syst, Pflanzengesch Pflanzengeogr* 66: 446-468.
- SMITH LB & DOWNS RJ. 1974. *Pitcairnioideae (Bromeliaceae)*. Flora Neotropica Monograph No 14 Part 1. New York: Hafner Press.
- SODERSTROM TR, JUDZIEWICZ EJ & CLARK LG. 1988. Distribution patterns of Neotropical bamboos. In: Vanzolini PE & Heyer WR (Eds), *Proceedings of a workshop on Neotropical distribution patterns*. Rio de Janeiro: Acad Bras Cienc, p. 121-157.
- SWOFFORD DL. 2003. PAUP* - Phylogenetic Analysis Using Parsimony (*and Other Methods). Version 4. Massachusetts: Sinauer Associates.
- SZUMIK CA, CUEZZO F, GOLOBOFF PA & CHALUP AE. 2002. An optimality criterion to determine areas of endemism. *Syst Bio*, 51(5): 806-816.
- TER STEEGE H ET AL. 2013. Hyperdominance in the Amazonian tree flora. *Science* 342(6156): 1243092.

TER STEEGE H ET AL. 2015. Estimating the global conservation status of more than 15,000 Amazonian tree species. *Sci Adv* 1(10): e1500936.

TOWNSEND TM, LEAVITT DH & REEDER TW. 2011. Intercontinental dispersal by a microendemic borrowing reptile (Dibamidae). *Proc Roy Soc: Bio Scienc*, p. 1-7.

TROPPEMAIR H. 2002. *Biogeografia e Meio Ambiente*. 5ª ed., Rio Claro: Technical Books Editora, 252 p.

VERSIEUX LM & WENDT T. 2007. Bromeliaceae diversity and conservation in Minas Gerais state. *Bra Biodiv Conserv* 1: 2989-3009.

WANDERLEY MGL. 1990. Diversidade e distribuição geográfica das espécies de *Orthophytum* (Bromeliaceae). *Acta Bot Bras* 4(1).

WILLIAMS PH, LEES D, ARAÚJO M, HUMPHRIES CJ, VANE-WRIGHT RI & KITCHING IJ. 2002. *Biodiversity Worldmap*, London: Natural History Museum.

WIENS JJ. 2011. The niche, biogeography and species interactions. *Philos Trans R Soc B: Biol Sci* 1576(366): 2336-2350.

WIENS JJ & DONOGHUE MJ. 2004. Historical biogeography, ecology and species richness. *Trends Ecol Evol* 19(12): 639-644.

ZIZKA A, AZEVEDO J, LEME E, NEVES B, COSTA AF, CACERES D & ZIZKA G. 2019. Biogeography and conservation status of the pineapple family (Bromeliaceae). *Div Distrib* 00: 1-13.

How to cite

COSTA SL, LOUZADA RB, NEPOMUCENO SC, ALVES JV & BURIL MT. 2024. Distribution pattern in the rupicolous genus *Orthophytum* (Bromelioideae/Bromeliaceae) reveals high microendemicity in different types of rocky outcrops. *An Acad Bras Cienc* 96: e20230007. DOI 10.1590/0001-3765202420230007.

*Manuscript received on January 9, 2023;
accepted for publication on June 18, 2023*

SWAMI L. COSTA¹

<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9013-8008>

RAFAEL B. LOUZADA²

<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0040-7690>

SILMARA CECÍLIA NEPOMUCENO²

<https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4998-3370>

JOILSON V. ALVES²

<https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8308-3563>

MARIA TERESA BURIL²

<https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9615-2057>

¹Federal Rural University of Pernambuco, Laboratory of Integrative Systematics, Post Graduate Program in Biodiversity, Av. Manoel de Medeiros, s/n, Dois Irmãos, 52171-900 Recife, PE, Brazil

²Federal Rural University of Pernambuco, Laboratory of Integrative Systematics, Av. Manoel de Medeiros, s/n, Dois Irmãos, 52171-900 Recife, PE, Brazil

Correspondence to: **Swami Leitão Costa**

E-mail: swamilcosta@gmail.com

Author contributions

SLC contributed with data collection, analyses, statistical tests, data interpretation, and manuscript preparation. SCN and JVA contributed with analyses and statistical tests. RBL and MTB were responsible for designing the research, supervising the data analysis stages, and reviewing the manuscript. All authors participated in writing the final version of the manuscript.

