

Genetic and morphometric divergence in the Garnet-Throated Hummingbird *Lamprolaima rhami* (Aves: Trochilidae)

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Cloud forests are one of the most endangered ecosystems in the Americas, as well as one of the richest in biological diversity in the world. The species inhabiting these forests are susceptible to environmental changes and characterized by high levels of geographic structure. The Garnet-Throated Hummingbird, *Lamprolaima rhami*, mainly inhabits cloud forests, but can also be found in other habitats. This species has a highly restricted distribution in Mesoamerica, and five disjunct regions have been delimited within the current geographic distribution of the species from Mexico to Honduras. According to variation in size and color, three subspecies have been described: *L. r. rhami* restricted to the Mexican highlands and Guatemala, *L. r. occidentalis* distributed in Guerrero (Mexico), and *L. r. saturator*, distributed in the highlands from Honduras and El Salvador. We analyzed the levels of geographic structure in *L. rhami* and its taxonomic implications. We used mitochondrial and nuclear DNA to analyze genetic variation, demographic history, divergence times, reconstructed a multilocus phylogeny, and performed a species delimitation analyses. We also evaluated morphological variation in 208 specimens. We found high levels of genetic differentiation in three groups, and significant variation in morphological traits corresponding with the disjunct geographic populations. *L. rhami* presents population stability with the highest genetic variation explained by differences between populations. Divergence time estimates suggest that *L. rhami* split from its sister group around 10.55 million years ago, and the diversification of the complex was dated ca. 0.207 Mya. The hypotheses tested in the species delimitation analyses validated three independent lineages corresponding to three disjunct populations. This study provides evidence of genetic and/or morphometric differentiation between populations in the *L. rhami* complex where four separate evolutionary lineages are supported: 1) populations from the Sierra Madre Oriental and the highlands of Oaxaca (*rhami*), 2) populations from the highlands of Guerrero (*occidentalis*), 3) populations from the highlands of Chiapas and Guatemala (this is a non-previously proposed potential taxon: *tacanensis*), and 4)

populations from the highlands of Honduras and El Salvador (*saturator*). The main promoters of the geographic structure found in the *L. rhami* complex are likely the Isthmus of Tehuantepec as a geographic barrier, isolation by distance resulting from habitat fragmentation, and climatic conditions during the Pleistocene.

1 Genetic and morphometric divergence in the Garnet-Throated Hummingbird *Lamprolaima*
2 *rhami* (Aves: Trochilidae).

3

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15 **Abstract**

16

17 Cloud forests are one of the most endangered ecosystems in the Americas, as well as one of
18 the richest in biological diversity in the world. The species inhabiting these forests are
19 susceptible to environmental changes and characterized by high levels of geographic
20 structure. The Garnet-Throated Hummingbird, *Lamprolaima rhami*, mainly inhabits cloud
21 forests, but can also be found in other habitats. This species has a highly restricted
22 distribution in Mesoamerica, and five disjunct regions have been delimited within the
23 current geographic distribution of the species from Mexico to Honduras. According to
24 variation in size and color, three subspecies have been described: *L. r. rhami* restricted to
25 the Mexican highlands and Guatemala, *L. r. occidentalis* distributed in Guerrero (Mexico),
26 and *L. r. saturatior*, distributed in the highlands from Honduras and El Salvador. We
27 analyzed the levels of geographic structure in *L. rhami* and its taxonomic implications. We
28 used mitochondrial and nuclear DNA to analyze genetic variation, demographic history,
29 divergence times, reconstructed a multilocus phylogeny, and performed a species
30 delimitation analyses. We also evaluated morphological variation in 208 specimens. We
31 found high levels of genetic differentiation in three groups, and significant variation in
32 morphological traits corresponding with the disjunct geographic populations. *L. rhami*
33 presents population stability with the highest genetic variation explained by differences
34 between populations. Divergence time estimates suggest that *L. rhami* split from its sister
35 group around 10.55 million years ago, and the diversification of the complex was dated ca.
36 0.207 Mya. The hypotheses tested in the species delimitation analyses validated three
37 independent lineages corresponding to three disjunct populations. This study provides

38 evidence of genetic and/or morphometric differentiation between populations in the *L.*
39 *rhami* complex where four separate evolutionary lineages are supported: 1) populations
40 from the Sierra Madre Oriental and the highlands of Oaxaca (*rhami*), 2) populations from
41 the highlands of Guerrero (*occidentalis*), 3) populations from the highlands of Chiapas and
42 Guatemala (this is a non-previously proposed potential taxon: *tacanensis*), and 4)
43 populations from the highlands of Honduras and El Salvador (*saturator*). The main
44 promoters of the geographic structure found in the *L. rhami* complex are likely the Isthmus
45 of Tehuantepec as a geographic barrier, isolation by distance resulting from habitat
46 fragmentation, and climatic conditions during the Pleistocene.

47

48 **Introduction**

49 Cloud forests are one of the most threatened and biodiverse habitats in the world
50 (Hamilton, 1995; Mulligan, 2010). In Mesoamerica, the transition zone between the
51 Nearctic and Neotropical regions (Ríos-Muñoz, 2013; Morrone, 2014), cloud forests are
52 restricted to forest habitats between 600 and 3000 m above sea level (Foster, 2001).
53 Several studies have tried to describe the evolutionary processes that have shaped the
54 enormous diversity observed in cloud forests, concluding that species show high levels of
55 isolation and population differentiation when compared to lowland forest habitats that
56 may be more geographically interconnected (de Barcellos & Voltolini, 1995; Ataroff & Rada,
57 2000; Ornelas et al., 2013). However, studies at the population level, including a large
58 sampling effort, are crucial to describe intraspecific variation more precisely (Bonaccorso
59 et al., 2008; McCormack et al., 2008; Arbeláez-Cortés & Navarro-Sigüenza, 2013).

60 Recently, several studies have focused on describing historical patterns and
61 recognizing new species in cloud forests (González-Rodríguez et al., 2004; Cortés-
62 Rodríguez et al., 2008; Ornelas et al., 2010; González et al., 2011). However, the fast pace at
63 which these forests are disappearing due to anthropogenic causes is one of the multiple
64 reasons to promote the study of the evolutionary processes taking place in this particularly
65 diverse ecosystem (Olander et al., 1998; Martínez-Morales, 2005).

66 The Trochilidae family includes several species complexes that have been excellent
67 models for evolutionary studies (Bleiweiss, 1998a; McGuire et al., 2007; McGuire et al.,
68 2014), though to date, only a few of these studies focus on species inhabiting cloud forests
69 (Bleiweiss, 1998b; Chaves et al., 2007; Cortés-Rodríguez et al., 2008; Chaves & Smith,
70 2011). The Garnet-Throated Hummingbird, *Lamprolaima rhami*, (Lesson, 1839) has a
71 restricted Mesoamerican distribution; it can inhabit tropical upland forests, pine-oak
72 forests and scrub, but primarily occupies cloud forest habitats, within an altitudinal range
73 between 1200 and 3000 m (Howell & Webb, 1995; Schuchmann & Boesman, 2018). It is
74 considered a relatively sedentary species, though individuals do show some seasonal
75 movement to higher elevations during the breeding season (Schuchmann & Boesman,
76 2018).

77 *L. rhami* has a discontinuous distribution with five clearly distinguished geographic
78 areas: 1) Sierra Madre Oriental (Puebla to Veracruz) and the northern highlands of Oaxaca
79 (Mexico), 2) the highlands of Guerrero, in the Sierra Madre del Sur (Mexico), 3) the
80 southern highlands of Oaxaca, in the Sierra de Miahuatlan (Mexico), 4) the highlands of
81 Chiapas (Mexico) and Guatemala, and 5) the highlands of Honduras and El Salvador, in
82 Central America. Three subspecies have been recognized based on differences on size and

83 color: *L. r. rhami*, *L. r. occidentalis*, and *L. r. saturator*. *L. r. rhami* is restricted to the
84 highlands of central and southern Mexico (in the states of Puebla, Veracruz, Oaxaca and
85 Chiapas) and the Guatemala highlands (Lesson, 1839; Peters, 1945). *L. r. occidentalis*
86 corresponds to populations found in a restricted patch in Guerrero, southwestern Mexico
87 (Phillips, 1966). *L. r. saturator* is found in the highlands of Honduras and El Salvador
88 (Griscom, 1932; Peters, 1945). Schuchmann and Boesman (2018) considered that *L. rhami*
89 possibly belongs to the genus *Basilinna*, and argued that *occidentalis* and *saturator* are not
90 suitable for subspecific recognition, proposing them only as races, considering that traits
91 used in their descriptions are either age-dependent or clinal in character (color and size
92 variation).

93 Considering its restricted distribution and frequent occupation of highly fragmented
94 forests with unique bioclimatic characteristics, *L. rhami* represents an interesting model to
95 assess evolutionary hypotheses about geographic structure and populations dynamics with
96 conservation implications. Hence, the main objectives of this paper are to: 1) evaluate the
97 genetic and morphometric variation of the *Lamprolaima rhami* complex by comparing
98 individuals from the five regions where it is distributed, 2) describe the phylogenetic
99 relationships within *L. rhami* using a multilocus dataset (nuclear and mitochondrial DNA),
100 and 3) propose a hypothesis of its evolutionary history. Based on the characteristics of
101 cloud forest and the site fidelity of this hummingbird species, we expect to find high levels
102 of genetic structure supported by congruence in morphological variation within the *L.*
103 *rhami* complex. Thus, phylogenetic discontinuities and spatial disjunction are expected
104 rather than phylogenetic continuity and lack of spatial disjunction.

105

106 **Methods**

107 *Taxon sampling and sequencing.*

108 We obtained tissues from 54 individuals of *L. rhami* from 14 localities across most of
109 its geographic range (Table S1, Fig. 1, using field collecting permit from Instituto Nacional
110 de Ecología, SEMARNAT: FAUT-0169). We defined five groups *a priori* to evaluate genetic
111 and morphological variation among the five allopatric regions where the species occurs: 1)
112 the Sierra Madre Oriental (SMO), 2) the highlands of Guerrero (GRO), 3) the Sierra of
113 Miahuatlan in Oaxaca (MIA), 4) the highlands of Chiapas and Guatemala (CHIS), and 5) the
114 region in Central America comprising the highlands of Honduras and El Salvador (CA).
115 Tissue samples were obtained for four geographic groups (excluding the CA group) from
116 the following collections: “Museo de Zoología Alfonso L. Herrera” (Universidad Nacional
117 Autónoma de México), Museum of Natural Science (Louisiana State University), and
118 Museum of Vertebrate Zoology (University of California, Berkeley).

119 DNA was extracted using the DNeasy™ kit (Qiagen Inc., Valencia, CA, USA),
120 following the manufacturer’s protocols. To evaluate genetic variation in the complex, two
121 mitochondrial markers were obtained from the 54 samples (Control Region, *CR*; and
122 subunits 6 and 8 from ATPase gene, *ATPase 6 & 8*). To evaluate phylogenetic relationships
123 and for species delimitation analyses between groups, two additional mitochondrial
124 markers and four nuclear regions were surveyed in a subsample of 31 individuals (NADH
125 dehydrogenase subunit 2, *ND2*; NADH dehydrogenase subunit 4, *ND4*; the 7th intron of the
126 beta fibrinogen gene, *BFib*, the regions between exons 4 and 5 of the Muscle Skeletal
127 Receptor Tyrosine Kinase gene, *MUSK*; a segment comprising the end of exon 6 and the
128 beginning of exon 8 of the Ornithine Decarboxylase gene, *ODC*, and intron 5 of adenylate

129 kinase gene, *AK1*). We included sequences from the same molecular markers, available in
130 GenBank for *Eugenes fulgens*, *E. spectabilis*, and *Tilmatura dupontii*, to serve as outgroups
131 (McGuire et al., 2007; Zamudio-Beltrán & Hernández-Baños, 2015).

132 We amplified these molecular markers via polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using
133 specific primers and protocols (Table S3). Reactions contained 10X buffer (1.25 μ L), 10mM
134 dNTP (0.19 μ L), 50 mM $MgCl_2$ (0.38 μ L), 10 μ M of each primer (0.25 μ L), 0.1 μ L of *Taq*
135 (INVITROGEN), and 0.5 μ L of genomic DNA (12.5 μ L total volume). PCR products were
136 visualized on a 1% agarose gel, and DNA sequencing was performed by the High-
137 Throughput Genomics Unit Service of the University of Washington. We edited and aligned
138 chromatograms with Sequencher v4.8 (GeneCodes Corporation, Ann Arbor, MI). All
139 sequences were deposited in GenBank under accession numbers #####. Multilocus
140 alignment can be found in FigShare (<https://figshare.com/s/14d2a747c825fba5f35d>).

141

142 *Population structure.*

143 To evaluate the number of haplotypes and their relationships, a statistical
144 parsimony haplotype network was constructed for the concatenated dataset of
145 mitochondrial markers (CR and ATPase 6 & 8), using the program TCS v1.21 (Clement et
146 al., 2000).

147 To analyze genetic diversity and genetic structure, we obtained values of haplotype
148 diversity, nucleotide diversity, mean number of pairwise differences, and population F_{ST}
149 values. These analyses were performed with 1000 replicates, using the program Arlequin
150 v3.11 (Excoffier et al., 2005). Using the same program, we conducted an analysis of
151 molecular variance (AMOVA; Excoffier et al., 1992) to detect structure between populations

152 based on comparisons between geographically defined groups. According to our results,
153 regions on both sides of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec were also evaluated (IT, east and
154 west).

155 To evaluate the isolation by distance among geographic regions, we performed a
156 Mantel Test with 1000 iterations, comparing matrices of genetic and geographic distances,
157 using the program *zt* v1.1 (Bonnet & de Peer, 2002). Statistical analyses were not
158 performed in the MIA group because of limited number of samples ($n=2$), but were
159 considered in haplotype networks and phylogenetic analyses.

160

161 *Demographic analyses.*

162 To evaluate demography and population stability, we obtained Tajima's D and Fu's
163 F_s values, in Arlequin v2.11 (Excoffier et al., 2005), with 1000 replicates (mtDNA database).
164 Using the same program, parameters, and database, we further evaluated the historical
165 demography of each group under an expansion model with a MISMATCH distribution test
166 and estimated its significance with the raggedness index (Slatkin & Hudson, 1991; Rogers &
167 Harpending, 1992; Harpending, 1994). To analyze variation in effective population size
168 over time, we used Bayesian skyline plots (BSP; Drummond et al., 2005) performed in
169 BEAST v1.6.0 (Drummond & Rambaut, 2007), with 10 million steps for mtDNA, using a
170 mean rate of 0.023 substitutions per site per lineage per million years (s/s/l/My), under
171 Control Region and ATPase estimates (Lerner et al., 2011).

172

173 *Evolutionary Models and Phylogenetic analyses.*

174 For each molecular marker (mtDNA and nuclear DNA), we calculated the
175 evolutionary model that best fit the data based on the Akaike Information Criterion AIC
176 (Akaike, 1987) using jModelTest 0.1.1 (Posada, 2008). We performed a phylogenetic
177 reconstruction using the Bayesian Inference (BI) approach in Mr. Bayes v3.0 (Huelsenbeck
178 & Ronquist, 2002). We assigned different evolutionary models to each gene partition. We
179 ran four simultaneous chains for each Monte Carlo Markov Chain analysis for 50 million
180 generations, sampling every 1000 generations. The results were visualized to ensure ESS
181 (effective sample sizes) values higher than 200, and the burn-in value was determined
182 using Tracer v1.6.0 (Rambaut et al., 2013). The initial 20% of generations were eliminated.
183 The remaining trees were used to construct a majority rule consensus tree with posterior
184 probability distributions, which was visualized using the program FigTree v1.2.3
185 (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>).

186

187 *Morphological variation.*

188 To examine morphological variation between groups of *L. rhami*, we took five
189 measurements from 208 voucher specimens (Table S2) corresponding to four of the five
190 geographic groups defined *a priori* (SMO, GRO, CHIS, CA). These specimens were available
191 from the following collections: Museo de Zoología “Alfonso L. Herrera” (MZFC, UNAM),
192 Museum of Comparative Zoology (MCZ), American Museum of Natural History (AMNH),
193 Donald R. Dickey Bird and Mammal Collection (BMC), and the Moore Lab of Zoology (MLZ).
194 Measurements for bill length (from the base to the tip of the upper mandible), bill width
195 (width at the nostrils), bill depth (from the upper mandible to the base of the bill at the
196 nostrils), and wing chord (distance from the carpal joint to the tip of the longest primary)

197 were taken with a dial calliper with a precision of 0.1 mm, while tail length (distance from
198 the uropigial gland to the tip of the longest rectrix) was determined with a millimetric ruler.
199 A single observer took all measurements. Subsets of individuals were measured twice to
200 confirm consistency between measurements using correlation coefficients obtained in
201 STATISTICA v7 (StatSoft, 2004). When variation among measurements was low or null, all
202 voucher specimens were measured once and these values were used in further analyses. To
203 test the normality of our data, we performed a Lilliefors (Kolmogorov-Smirnov) test using
204 the R package Nortest v1.0-4 (Gross & Ligés, 2015). This test was conducted with raw and
205 log-transformed data. Since the data were not normally distributed, a Wilcoxon/Mann-
206 Whitney test (Bauer, 1972) was performed to evaluate differences between males and
207 females. To evaluate differences among groups, and after confirming differences among
208 sexes, we conducted two sets of Kruskal-Wallis tests (Hollander & Wolfe, 1973) to
209 compare: 1) geographic groups (SMO, GRO, CHIS, CA), and 2) groups separated by the
210 Isthmus of Tehuantepec (east, west). All tests were conducted for each variable, treating
211 males and females separately. Statistical analyses were performed using RStudio v.1.1.447
212 (RStudio Team, 2016).

213

214 *Species delimitation and divergence times*

215 According to the results, we assess the limits between different groups based on: 1)
216 disjunct populations (groups by geographic region: SMO, GRO, MIA, CHIS), 2) phylogroups
217 (SMO/MIA, GRO, CHIS), and 3) groups separated by the Isthmus of Tehuantepec (east:
218 SMO/MIA/GRO, and west: CHIS). We used the command line of coalescent approach
219 implemented in Bayesian Phylogenetics and Phylogeography software (BP&P v3.4, Rannala

220 & Yang, 2003; Yang & Rannala, 2010). This method uses the multispecies coalescent model
221 (MSC) to compare different models of species delimitation (Yang and Rannala, 2010; Rannala
222 and Yang, 2013) and species phylogeny (Yang and Rannala, 2014; Rannala and Yang, 2017) in a
223 Bayesian framework, accounting for incomplete lineage sorting due to ancestral polymorphism
224 and gene tree-species tree discordance. We used the concatenated data set of eight molecular
225 markers (mt DNA and nuclear DNA), but mitochondrial markers were treated as one locus,
226 so the total number of this parameter was set to $n_{\text{loci}}=5$. To confirm consistency between
227 runs, we performed multiple analyses using algorithms 0 and 1 (0: species tree given as
228 fixed, 1: species tree given treated as the guide tree), selecting different seed number
229 between runs and changing finetune parameters (ϵ , algorithm prior), as suggested by Yang
230 and Rannala (2010). After confirming consistency between runs, the subsequent analyses
231 were performed according to species delimitation using a user-specified guide tree
232 (speciesdelimitation =1, speciestree = 0), with values of $\epsilon=5$. The analyses were conducted
233 using parameter finetune=1, which allows the program to make automatic adjustments to
234 prior parameters. Because different values of θ (ancestral population size, the product of
235 effective population size N and mutation rate μ per site) can result in different posterior
236 probabilities for the same guide tree (Leaché & Fujita, 2010; Yang, 2015), we used three
237 different values: 1) low θ priors (0.0001, IG: 3, 0.0002), 2) medium θ priors (0.001, IG: 3,
238 0.002), and 3) high θ priors (0.01, IG: 3, 0.02). The inverse gamma prior to τ (species
239 divergence times) was set to $\tau_{\text{prior}}=3, 0.03, 1.5\%$ of sequence divergence. Each analysis
240 was run with the reversible-jump Markov chain Monte Carlo algorithm (rjMCMC) for 100
241 thousand generations, sampling every 5, and discarding 30 thousand generations as burn-
242 in.

243 To estimate divergence times, we decided to evaluate the hypothesis of three
244 independent groups based on full evidence (phylogroups: SMO/MIA, n=12; GRO, n=9; CHIS,
245 n=10). We used the concatenated data set (mt DNA and nuclear DNA) that included data
246 from *Eugenes fulgens*, *E. spectabilis*, and *Tilmatura dupontii* as outgroups. For each
247 partition, we assigned the previous selected evolutionary model. This analysis was
248 performed using StarBeast (*Beast; Heled & Drummond, 2010). We employed an
249 uncorrelated lognormal relaxed clock and a Yule process speciation model to model the
250 tree prior. We assigned a calibration node based on a secondary calibration obtained for
251 the split between the “Mountain Gems” clade (*L. rhami*, *E. fulgens*, and *E. spectabilis*) and
252 “Bees” clade (*T. dupontii*; 12.5 Mya; McGuire et al., 2014). We incorporated mean
253 substitution rates reported previously (ATPase 6 and 8, ND2, ND4: Pacheco et al., 2011; CR:
254 Lerner et al., 2011; AK1, BFib, MUSK, ODC: McGuire et al., 2014). Three independent
255 analyses were run for 30 million generations, sampling every 1000. The log and tree files
256 from each analysis were combined in LogCombiner, and visualized in Tracer to confirm
257 convergence and ensure acceptable ESS values (ESS>200). We discarded the first 15% of
258 trees as burn-in. We used TreeAnnotator v1.8.2 (Rambaut & Drummond, 2007) to
259 summarize trees as a maximum clade credibility tree, and to obtain mean divergence times
260 with 95% highest posterior density intervals. The resulting tree was visualized in FigTree
261 v.1.2.3.

262

263 **Results**

264 *Genetic diversity and population structure.*

265 We obtained a concatenated dataset of 1402 bp for 54 individuals (527 bp of CR and
266 875 bp of ATPase 6 & 8). The complementary dataset of five molecular markers for 31
267 individuals included 875 bp of ATPase 6 and 8, 527 bp of CR, 918 bp of ND2, 521 bp of ND4,
268 758 bp of BFib, 559 bp of MUSK, 495 bp of ODC, and 416 bp of AK1. The initial dataset
269 included 33 haplotypes (24 found with CR and 15 with ATPase 6 & 8). Estimates of
270 haplotype and nucleotide diversity are presented in Table 1. Overall, high haplotype
271 diversity and low nucleotide diversity were observed within groups (SMO, GRO, CHIS).

272 The mtDNA network revealed significant population structure within the *L. rhami*
273 complex (Fig. 1). There was a clear separation between populations on either side of the IT,
274 which were separated by twelve mutational steps, while individuals of GRO were closely
275 linked to those of the SMO. In general, the most frequent haplotype was present in
276 populations from the Sierra Madre Oriental group (SMO). Haplotypes from GRO tended to
277 separate from the main haplotype. In Table 2, F_{ST} values confirm high levels of geographic
278 structure between regions. This further translates into a significant correlation between
279 the genetic distance and the geographic distance matrices, according to the Mantel test,
280 thus suggesting isolation by distance between groups ($r = 0.87$, $p < 0.005$).

281 AMOVA results indicated that the highest genetic variation was observed among
282 rather than within populations, with similar percentages when grouping populations
283 according to geographic groups or on either side of the IT: 76.41% and 78.74%
284 respectively ($P < 0.0001$, Table 3).

285

286 *Demographic analyses*

287 Differing conclusions among the methods used to evaluate demographic history led
288 to ambiguous results. The occurrence of historical population expansion was supported by
289 negative and significant values of neutrality tests (Tajima's D and Fu's F_s), except for
290 Tajima's D statistic in SMO and GRO groups (Table 1). A mismatch distribution unimodal
291 curve was recovered for CHIS population, but no significant values of the raggedness index
292 indicated possible demographic expansion in all populations, as curves under the
293 expansion model did not deviate from a unimodal distribution. BSP estimates revealed that
294 effective population size was flat across time for GRO. This pattern was also found for CHIS,
295 however, the higher posterior density low interval suggested a growing demographic
296 tendency, and a subtle demographic expansion was recovered in SMO population (Fig. 2).

297

298 *Evolutionary models and Phylogenetic analyses.*

299 We obtained a concatenated dataset of 5069 bp. The best-fit models for each
300 molecular marker were as follows: HKY (MUSK), HKY+I (ATPase 6 and 8, ND4), HKY+G
301 (AK1), HKY+I+G (CR), TNR+G (ND2), TPM3uf (ODC), and TPM2uf+I (BFib). Phylogenetic
302 relationships using the multilocus dataset resulted in one main monophyletic group
303 corresponding to individuals from west of the IT (PP > 0.95, Fig. 3: Bayesian Inference).
304 Most individuals from east of the IT were grouped into two well-supported separate clades,
305 but no resolution was recovered for three individuals from this region. Moreover, one well-
306 supported clade included most individuals from GRO group from west of the IT, with the
307 rest of individuals merged in a polytomy with individuals from SMO region.

308

309 *Morphological variation.*

310 Normality of our data was rejected and there was dimorphism between males and
311 females in all variables (Table S4). General comparisons between geographic groups
312 resulted in significant differences in all variables for both males and females, while
313 comparisons between groups separated by the Isthmus of Tehuantepec showed significant
314 differences in bill width ($\chi^2 = 6.3669$, $p = 0.01163$) and wing chord ($\chi^2 = 8.0642$, $p =$
315 0.004515) for males; in females all traits were statistically different except for bill length
316 (Table 4). Paired differences between geographic groups (comparing each group against
317 the others), revealed that CA and GRO present significant differences in several traits
318 (Table S4).

319

320 *Species delimitation and divergence times*

321 Three different species hypotheses were assessed: A) species delimited by disjunct
322 populations (groups by geographic region: SMO, GRO, MIA and CHIS), B) phylogroups
323 (SMO/MIA, GRO and CHIS), and C) groups separated by the Isthmus of Tehuantepec (east:
324 SMO/MIA/GRO, and west: CHIS), using different values of θ priors (population size
325 parameters) to test the sensitivity of the species delimitation results. BP&P analyses testing
326 the first hypothesis (that allopatric populations are different species) resulted in low
327 statistical support for the split of groups SMO and MIA, and suggested the split of GRO
328 group as a valid species only when using low θ priors. The high probabilities for an
329 ancestral node suggest splitting into multiple species, as well as the validity of CHIS as an
330 independent group (Fig. 4A). Analysis of the three lineages corresponding to phylogroups
331 resulted in high speciation probabilities in all cases, except when using high θ priors (0.01,
332 IG: 3, 0.02) for the splitting of GRO and SMO/MIA groups (Fig. 4B). Analysis of the two-

333 lineage hypothesis (i.e. two groups separated by the Isthmus of Tehuantepec) suggested
334 that these groups are separate species (Fig. 4C). Varying the θ priors affected the resulting
335 speciation probabilities; higher θ priors resulted in lower probabilities than lower θ priors.
336 Our divergence time estimates (Fig. 4D) showed that the split between *L. rhami* complex
337 and its sister group (genus *Eugenes*) was around 10.55 Mya (8.28-13.14 Mya). The estimate
338 for the first split within the *L. rhami* complex was dated ca. 0.207 Mya (0.091-0.317 Mya),
339 corresponding to the divergence between populations on either side of the IT. The split
340 between the groups from west of the IT (SMO/MIA and GRO) was dated at ~0.087 Mya
341 (0.035-0.146 Mya). The independence of groups was supported by high values of posterior
342 probability.

343

344 Discussion

345 Our study provides evidence of high levels of genetic and morphometric
346 differentiation among most of the disjunct populations comprising the *L. rhami* complex.
347 Our results support the existence of four separate evolutionary lineages: SMO/MIA (*rhami*),
348 GRO (*occidentalis*), CHIS (new suggested taxon: *tacanensis*), and CA (*saturator*). The
349 AMOVA and F_{ST} values also indicate the presence of strong population structure between
350 these same geographic regions (e.g. 76.41% variation among populations). We found
351 significant morphological differences between the southern populations (Honduras and El
352 Salvador), which we expect to be reflected in genetic differentiation, though we were
353 unable to test this hypothesis here due to a lack of tissue samples.

354 Morphometric variation in the 208 specimens of *L. rhami* also showed geographic
355 structure among the compared areas (four of the five regions were defined *a priori*).

356 Although the group sampled in the highlands of Chiapas and Guatemala (CHIS) was the
357 most genetically differentiated, the populations of Guerrero (GRO) and Central America
358 (CA) were the most different in morphometric traits. We had no access to genetic samples
359 from the CA region (Honduras and El Salvador), so we cannot confirm if this morphological
360 variation is consistent at the genetic level. Also, we did not have access to enough voucher
361 specimens from MIA to conduct a reasonable morphological statistical analysis. A larger
362 sampling effort in the southern highlands of Oaxaca (Miahuatlan, Mexico) and in Central
363 America (Honduras and El Salvador) will allow evaluation of species limits in these regions.

364 The genetic variation found in the *L. rhami* complex corresponds to a phylogenetic
365 discontinuity and a spatial vicariance pattern (Avice et al., 1987) resulting from long-term
366 isolation and/or restricted gene flow among groups, probably promoted by geographic
367 barriers. This pattern of high genetic differentiation is congruent with other studies of
368 Mesoamerican vertebrate species (Barber, 1999; Zarza et al., 2008; Bonaccorso, 2009;
369 Bryson et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2011; Arbeláez-Cortés et al., 2014; Castañeda-Rico et al.,
370 2014). In Trochilidae, high levels of geographic structure have been previously reported,
371 related to differences in current or historical ecological conditions (*Adelomyia*
372 *melanogenys*: Chaves et al., 2007; *Lampornis amethystinus*: Cortés-Rodríguez et al., 2008;
373 Ornelas et al., 2016). Also, moderate levels of differentiation have been found in
374 hummingbird species co-distributed in Mesoamerican cloud forests (*Campylopterus*
375 *curvipennis*: González et al., 2011; *Amazilia cyanocephala*: Rodríguez-Gómez et al., 2013).
376 As expected, the levels of genetic variation were correlated with a pattern of isolation by
377 distance associated with the patchy distribution of cloud forests, where particular
378 environmental characteristics have been reported as drivers of differentiation between

379 populations (Ramírez-Barahona & Eguiarte, 2014). In the case of populations from west of
380 the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, geographic structure could be explained by limited gene flow
381 between regions (SMO, MIA and GRO) promoted by isolation by distance. In contrast, the
382 genetic separation between populations on either side of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec is
383 almost certainly influenced by this geographic barrier in addition to distance.

384 Many phylogeography studies have shown the influence of the Isthmus of
385 Tehuantepec as a driver of isolation in Mesoamerican species. This valley in southeastern
386 Mexico is located near three tectonic plates -North American, Cocos and Caribbean-
387 resulting from different tectonic episodes that took place in the Late Miocene (Barrier, et al.
388 1998). Two main diversification events across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec were detected
389 in the regional bird fauna, placing both events within the Pleistocene (Barber & Klicka,
390 2010). It is clear that ecological conditions in this area act as a geographic barrier limiting
391 gene flow of *L. rhami* populations across the Isthmus, and the lack of shared haplotypes
392 across this area demonstrates that the Isthmus of Tehuantepec is better considered a hard
393 rather than soft barrier as has been proposed in co-distributed species (e. g. *Amazilia*
394 *cianocephala*; Rodríguez-Gómez et al., 2013).

395 Divergence time estimates show that the split between putative lineages was very
396 recent. The lack of reciprocal monophyly in the multilocus phylogenetic reconstruction
397 (Bayesian inference) may be influenced by low nuclear marker signal due to the temporal
398 scale, resulting in a failure to reconstruct discrete clades in recently evolved species
399 (Knowles & Carstens, 2007). This signal of ancestral polymorphism and/or incomplete
400 lineage sorting is taken into account in BP&P estimates, where information of the chosen
401 molecular markers is fully used in closely related species (Yang, 2015). Results of species

402 delimitation were sensitive to different θ priors, favoring lumping with higher values, as
403 has been previously reported (McKay et al., 2013). However, splitting of phylogroups was
404 consistently supported in most cases. These findings reveal the potential for recognizing at
405 least three distinct cryptic species, also supported by other criteria evaluated here
406 (morphometric differences, population structure and geographic isolation).

407 Our evaluations of demographic history used different methods (neutrality tests,
408 mismatch distributions and BSP), showing ambiguous patterns of populations dynamics.
409 Range expansion was revealed in the basal group CHIS (Tajima's D and Fu's F_s , mismatch),
410 and subtle population size changes over time were detected by the BSP approach.
411 Additionally, expansion signal was not fully supported in the SMO group, and population
412 stability was found in the youngest clade, GRO. Our divergence time estimates provide
413 evidence of recent Pleistocene diversification of the *L. rhami* complex, with the first
414 population split occurring in the Isthmus of Tehuantepec (0.207 Mya, 0.091-0.317 Mya),
415 followed by subsequent separation of groups west of the Isthmus, resulting in the splitting
416 of the SMO/MIA and GRO groups (0.087 Mya, 0.07-0.21 Mya). These processes took place
417 during the Pleistocene, when climatic fluctuations resulted in the expansion and
418 contraction of the ranges of highland species, promoting allopatric differentiation (Still et
419 al., 1999). Our estimates of recent splitting support the hypothesis of differentiation
420 promoted by climatic oscillations rather than by older events related to the complex
421 volcanic history of Mexican highlands, such as mountain uplift.

422 Two demographic scenarios for cloud forests species during Pleistocene have been
423 proposed, and they corresponded to the dry refugia and the moist forests hypotheses
424 (Ramírez-Barahona & Eguiarte, 2013). The dry hypothesis (Haffer, 1969) suggests that

425 during glacial cycles, climatic oscillations in cloud forests displaced them downslope into
426 refugia, forcing populations to contract their ranges, which subsequently expanded and
427 recolonized them during interglacial cycles. The moist forest hypothesis suggests that
428 unchanging precipitation conditions did not reduce cloud forests into refugia but favored
429 downslope altitudinal migration, where adapted species expanded their ranges during
430 glacial cycles (connectivity), and fragmented them into higher altitudes during interglacial
431 periods. Historical signals of demographic expansion and high levels of structure are more
432 related to dry refugia, while low levels of structure are consistent with moist forest model
433 due to processes of recurrent population connectivity. Therefore, the high levels of genetic
434 structure found in *L. rhami* are consistent with the dry refugia model. Population dynamics
435 in CHIS were led by down-slope fragmented ranges (glacial cycles) and expanding up-slope
436 (interglacials) revealed by the unimodal distribution of allele differences. In contrast, the
437 SMO and GRO populations show no clear evidence of expansion, and seem to have been
438 maintained *in situ*, a hypothesis first supported by the shrub *Moussonia deppeana*, a
439 Mesoamerican cloud-forest adapted species (Ornelas & González, 2014).

440 Despite the well-known movement abilities of Trochilidae species, some studies
441 have found that geographical barriers are crucial in promoting high levels of differentiation
442 and the diversification of independent evolutionary lineages in various regions, such as the
443 Andes region (e.g. *Adelomyia melanogenys*, Chaves & Smith, 2011), Mesoamerica (Ornelas
444 et al., 2016), the Motagua fault region (Rodríguez-Gómez & Ornelas, 2014), and the Isthmus
445 of Tehuantepec (Cortés-Rodríguez et al., 2008; González et al., 2011). In contrast, in
446 lowland Neotropical birds, high levels of intraspecific diversification are better explained
447 by the hypothesis of limited dispersal ability (Burney & Brumfield, 2009). *L. rhami* exhibits

448 some altitudinal movements related to the presence of resources available along elevation
449 gradients (Schuchmann & Boesman, 2018), but long-distance dispersal has not been
450 reported for this species, so both geographic barriers and limited longitudinal and
451 latitudinal dispersal movements could be influencing the geographic separation we
452 observed.

453 Earlier taxonomic studies described different subspecies for this complex: *L. r.*
454 *rami* (Lesson, 1839; Peters, 1945), *L. r. occidentalis* (Phillips, 1966), and *L. r. saturator*
455 (Griscom, 1932; Peters, 1945). Our study supports the taxonomic validity of the
456 *occidentalis* (based on genetic and morphometric data) and *saturator* (based on
457 morphometric data) groups. Thus, the suggestion of considering *occidentalis* and *saturator*
458 taxa as races (Schuchmann & Boesman, 2018) should be reevaluated.

459 The original description of *L. r. rami* comprises populations in the highlands of
460 central and southern Mexico, including populations in the state of Guerrero, and
461 populations in Chiapas and Guatemala, which, in agreement with our study, belong to
462 different lineages. Therefore, *rami* will just include populations from the Sierra Madre
463 Oriental and the highlands of Oaxaca, while *occidentalis* belongs to populations distributed
464 in the highlands of Guerrero. Finally, populations in Chiapas and Guatemala belong to a
465 new suggested taxon. The Honduras and El Salvador populations belong to *saturator*, for
466 which the differentiation is supported by our morphometric results. Supported by our
467 multilocus phylogenetic approach, by the species delimitation estimates, and by the
468 differences in morphometric traits, we found that *L. rami* is a complex formed by four
469 groups that correspond to separate evolutionary lineages and that should be treated as full
470 species. The importance of delimitation of taxonomic units increases given the level of

471 threat that is reported for the cloud forests of Mesoamerica (resulting from the growth of
472 agricultural and urban areas), and the restricted geographic distribution of *L. rhami*. The
473 problem of an incorrect placement of subspecies is that this could promote
474 underestimation of biodiversity, and therefore mismanagement in conservation efforts
475 (Zink, 2004).

476

477 **Conclusions**

478 This study presents clear evidence of morphometric and genetic differentiation
479 between populations of the hummingbird *Lamprolaima rhami*. Pleistocene historical
480 events, the influence of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec as a geographical barrier, and the
481 effects of isolation by distance have shaped the geographical structure found in the *L. rhami*
482 complex. Contemporary habitat fragmentation and the unique bioclimatic characteristics of
483 cloud forests are probably still influencing this pattern of isolation between populations. In
484 general, we found that species diversity within the *L. rhami* complex is currently
485 underestimated, and four taxa should be recognized: 1) populations from the Sierra Madre
486 Oriental and highlands in Oaxaca (*rhami*), 2) populations from highlands in Guerrero
487 (*occidentalis*), 3) populations from highlands in Chiapas and Guatemala (new suggested
488 taxon: *tacanensis*), and 4) populations from highlands in Honduras and El Salvador
489 (*saturator*). This study emphasizes the importance of evaluating multiple characters in
490 species complexes that presumably diverged recently or are in an incipient process of
491 speciation.

492

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506

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722

Figure 1

Geographic distribution of the *Lamprolaima rhami* complex

Geographic distribution of the *Lamprolaima rhami* complex. Hexagons represent sampled localities corresponding to tissues used in this study. Geographic groups defined *a priori* are drawn in different colors. Geographic groups: Sierra Madre Oriental (SMO, *blue*), highlands of Guerrero (GRO, *green*), Sierra of Miahuatlan in Oaxaca (MIA, *yellow*), highlands of Chiapas and Guatemala (CHIS, *red*), highlands of Honduras and El Salvador, Central America (CA, *purple*). The statistical parsimony haplotype network for 54 individuals of *L. rhami* constructed with concatenated mtDNA dataset (ATPase 6 and 8, and control region) is shown above the map. The size of each circle is proportional to the number of individuals carrying each haplotype. Illustration of *L. rhami* by Giselle Fernanda Calvillo García.

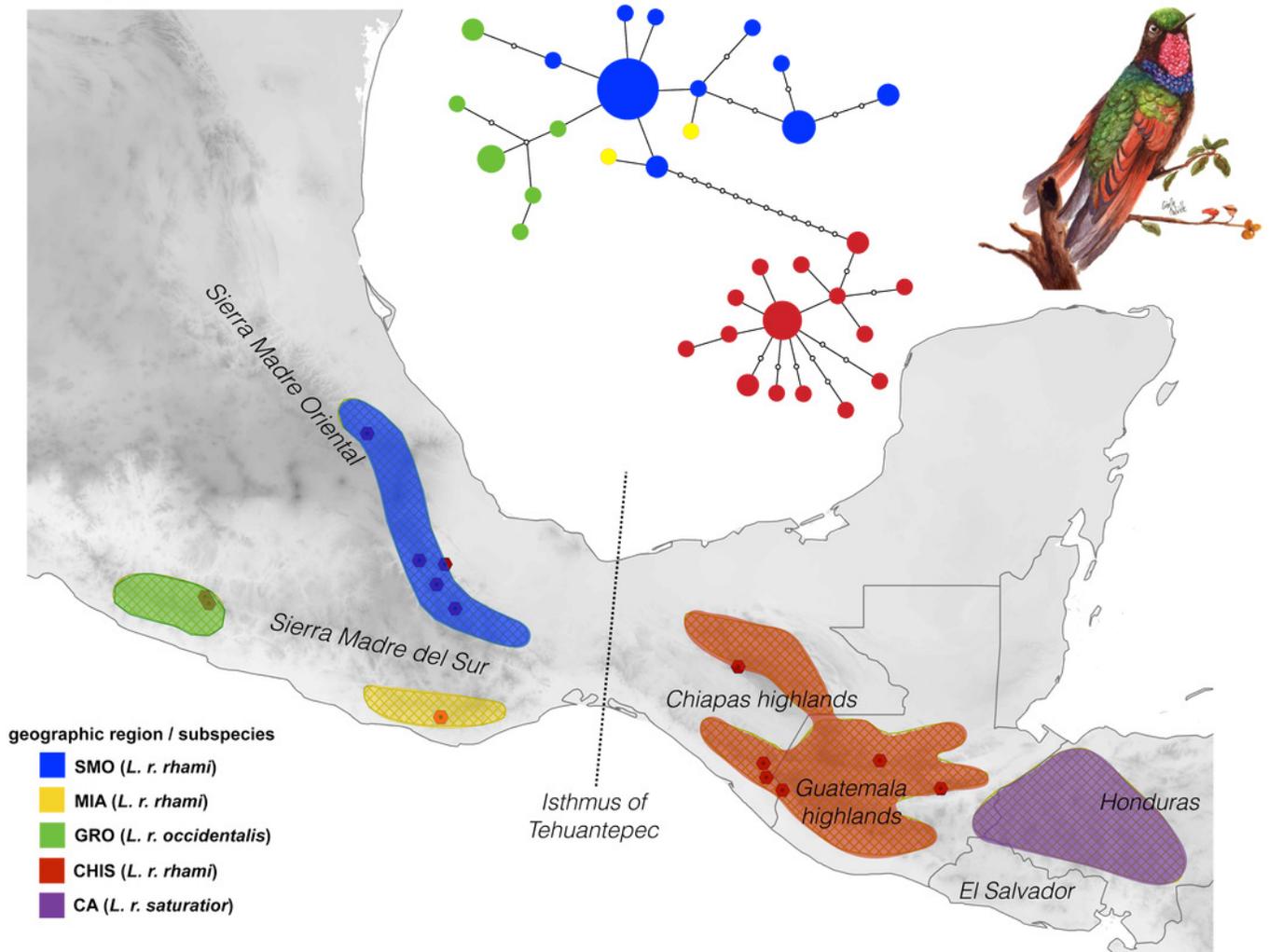


Figure 2

Mismatch distribution and Bayesian skyline plots

Mismatch distributions and Bayesian skyline plots for three geographic groups (A. Sierra Madre Oriental, SMO; B. highlands of Guerrero, GRO; C. highlands of Chiapas and Guatemala, CHIS) of *L. rhami* (mtDNA: CR, ATPase 6 and 8). In mismatch distributions, solid lines indicate the observed distributions of pairwise differences, and dotted lines represent simulated distributions under a model of population expansion. In Bayesian skyline plots, solid lines represent median estimates and shaded areas represent 95% confidence intervals.

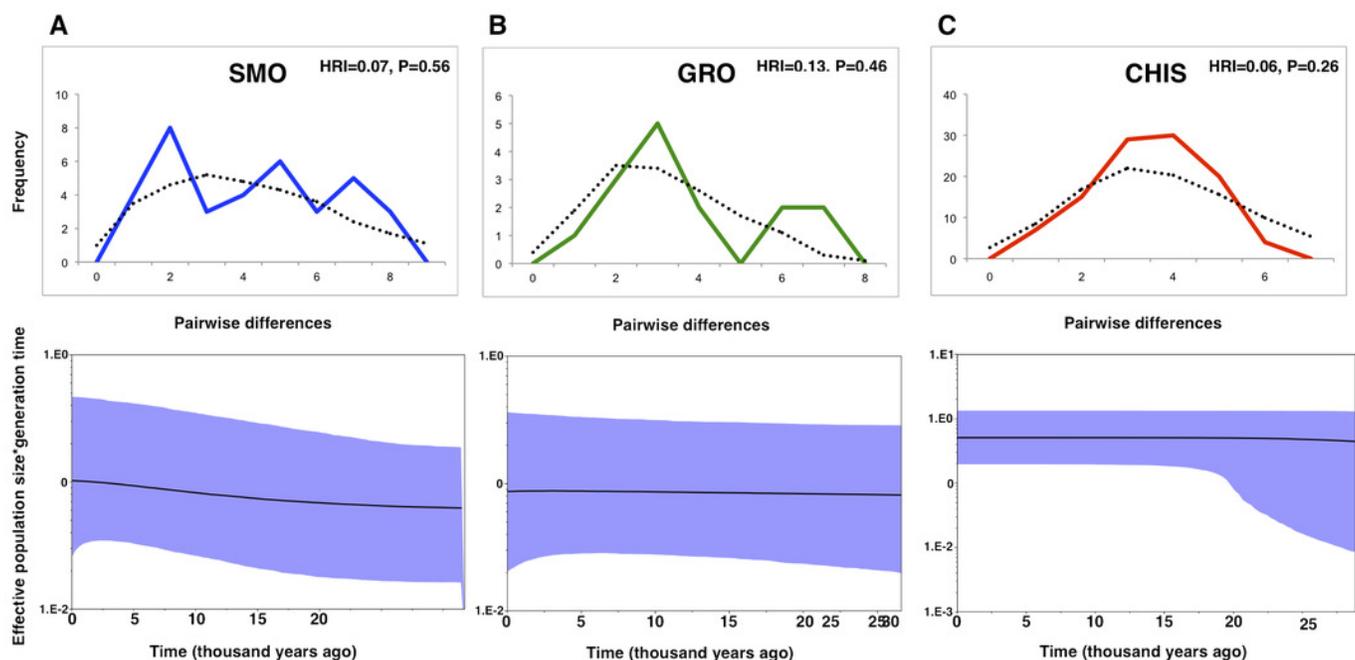


Figure 3(on next page)

Phylogenetic Bayesian Inference

Phylogenetic Bayesian Inference reconstruction of 31 individuals from the *L. rhami* complex using mitochondrial and nuclear markers (ATPase 6 and 8, CR, ND2, ND4, MUSK, BFib, ODC, and AK1). Posterior probabilities $PP > 0.95$ are shown (*). Different colors represent different groups according to the geographic regions defined *a priori* (see Figure 1 legend).

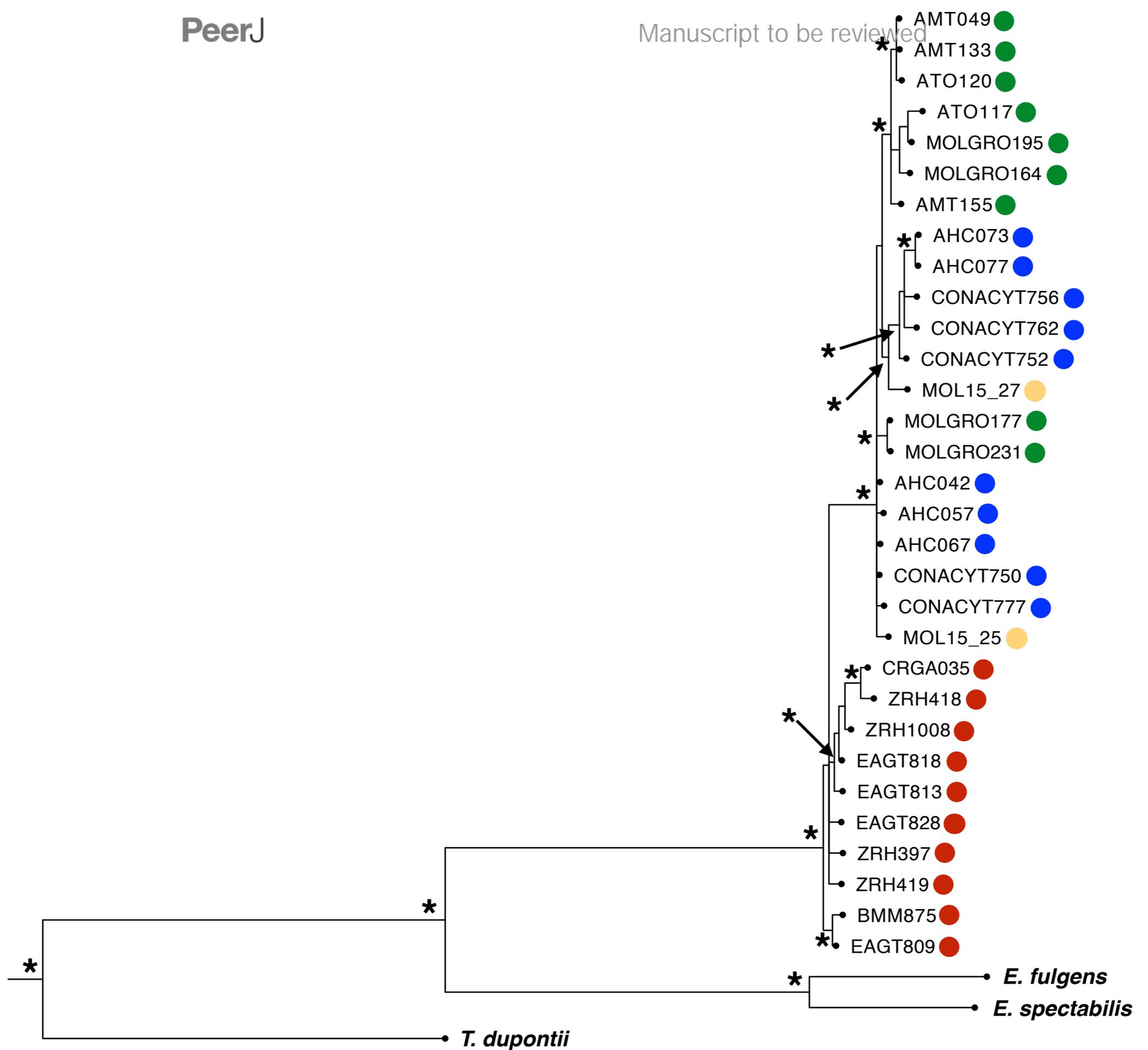
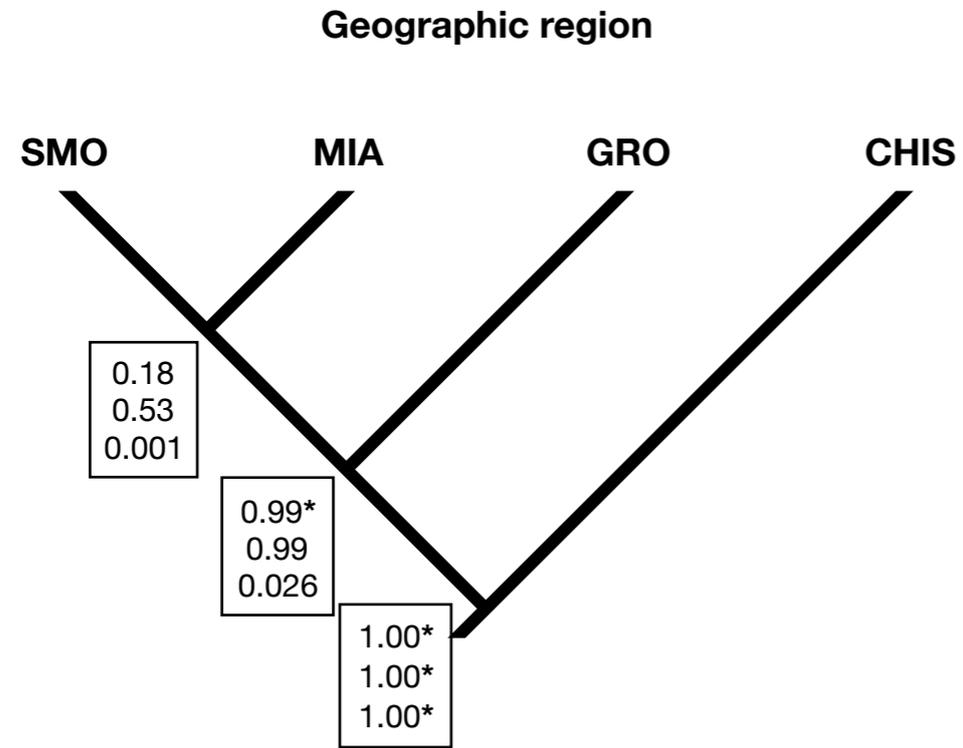


Figure 4(on next page)

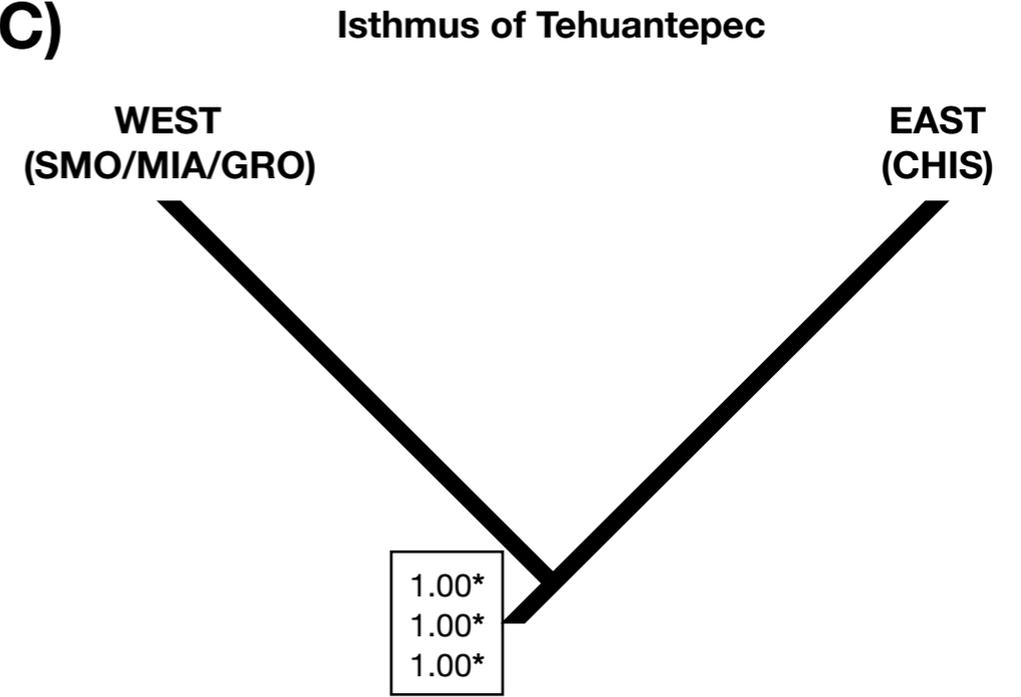
Species delimitation and divergence times

Results from a coalescent-based species delimitation analysis implemented in Bayesian Phylogenetics and Phylogeography (BP&P) of three possible hypotheses based on: (A) disjunct populations (groups by geographic region: SMO, GRO, MIA, CHIS), (B) DNA groups (SMO/MIA, GRO, CHIS), and (C) groups separated by the Isthmus of Tehuantepec (east: SMO/MIA/GRO, and west: CHIS). Speciation probabilities for each node are shown in boxes: top, low θ prior (0.0001); middle, medium q prior (0.001); bottom, high q prior (0.01). * Indicates statistical support for splitting (posterior probabilities of 0.95 or higher). (D) Divergence times and Bayesian species tree topology (*BEAST) for *L. rhami* complex, bars on each node represent 95% of high posterior densities of divergence times (HPD), Mya (Million years ago). Posterior probabilities are shown below node ages.

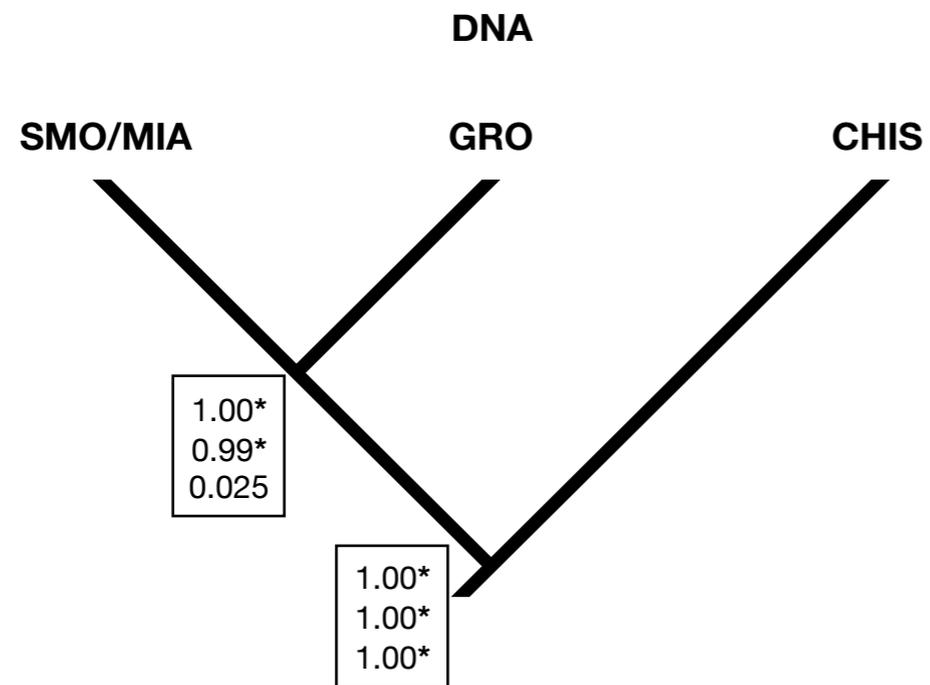
(A)



(C)



(B)



(D)

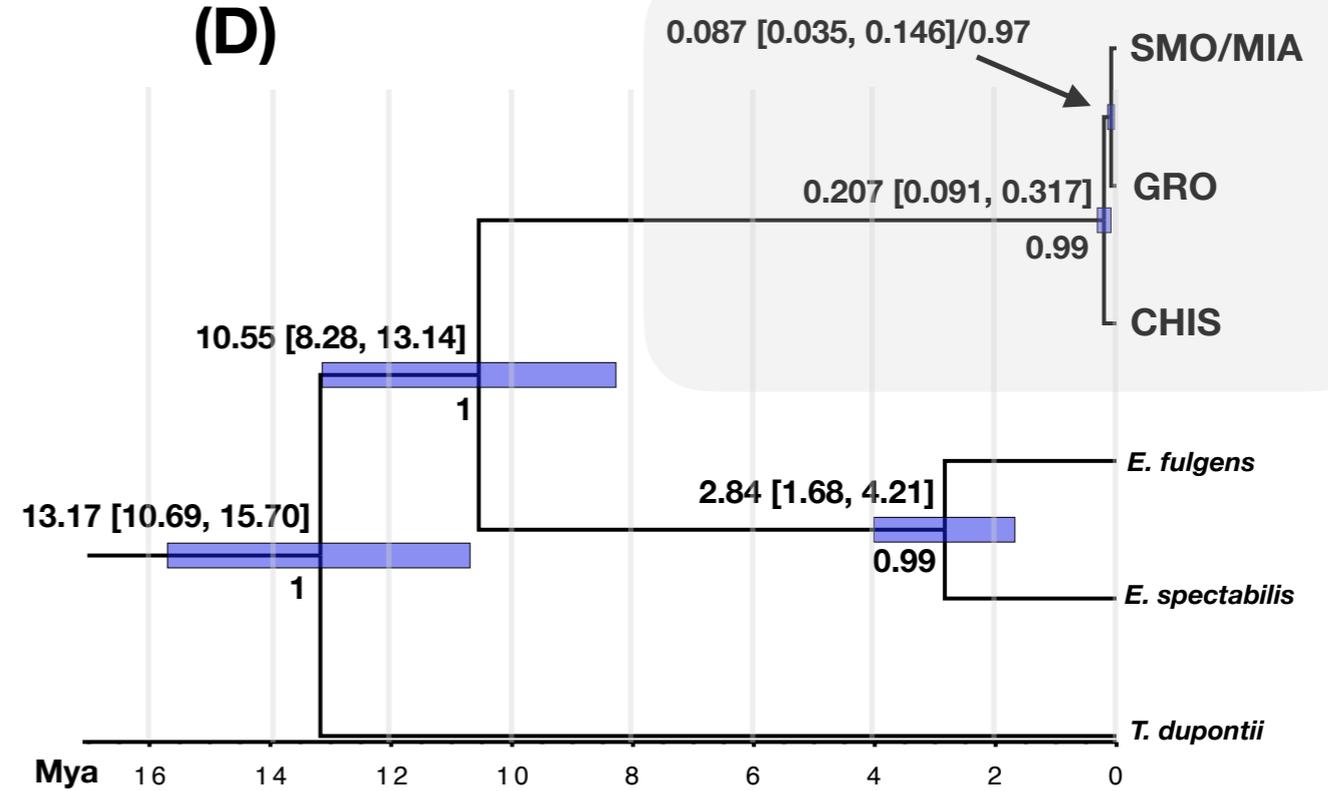


Table 1 (on next page)

Statistical parameters

Statistical parameters of genetic diversity, population structure and population demography for mtDNA (CR, ATPase 6 and 8). n: number of sequences used, h: number of haplotypes, Hd: haplotype diversity, π : nucleotide diversity, P_i : mean number of pairwise differences.

* p -value<0.05, ** p -value<0.01. *** p -value<0.001.

1 Statistical parameters of genetic diversity, population structure and population demography for
2 mtDNA (CR, ATPase 6 and 8). n: number of sequences used, h: number of haplotypes, Hd:
3 haplotype diversity, π : nucleotide diversity, Pi: mean number of pairwise differences. **p*-
4 value<0.05, ***p*-value<0.01. ****p*-value<0.001.

5

GROUP	n	h	Hd	π	Pi(theta)	Tajima's D	Fu's Fs Test
SMO	22	9	0.81	0.0022	4.22	-0.559	-5.505**
GRO	9	6	0.89	0.0026	3.73	-0.886	-2.77*
CHIS	21	15	0.94	0.0021	3.50	-1.988*	-14.93***

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Table 2 (on next page)

Population pairwise

Population pairwise F_{ST} mtDNA (CR, ATPase 6 and 8). * p -value < 0.05.

1 Population pairwise F_{ST} mtDNA (CR, ATPase 6 and 8). * p -value<0.05.

2

	SMO	GRO	CHIS
SMO	----		
GRO	0.176*	----	
CHIS	0.769*	0.784*	----

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4

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Table 3 (on next page)

AMOVA results

AMOVA results on *Lamprolaima rhami* populations defined according to geographic groups, and groups on either side of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec using mtDNA (CR, ATPase 6 and 8).

*** p -value < 0.0001.

1 AMOVA results on *Lamprolaima rhami* populations defined according to geographic groups,
 2 and groups on either side of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec using mtDNA (CR, ATPase 6 and 8).
 3 *** p -value<0.0001.
 4

	d.f.	Sum of squares	Variance components	Percentage of variation	Fixation indices
Geographic groups (<i>a priori</i>)					
Among populations	2	167.63	5.04	76.41	
Within populations	49	76.23	1.56	23.59	
Total	51	243.87	6.59		$F_{ST}=0.76^{***}$
Groups on either side of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec					
Among populations	1	159.05	6.28	78.74	
Within populations	50	84.82	1.70	21.26	
Total	51	243.86	7.98		$F_{ST}=0.79^{***}$

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Table 4(on next page)

Multiple Kruskal-Wallis tests

Multiple Kruskal-Wallis tests to evaluate differences between groups: a) by geographic region (SMO, GRO, CHIS, CA), and b) by groups on either side of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec (IT, east and west).

1 Multiple Kruskal-Wallis tests to evaluate differences between groups: a) by geographic
 2 region (SMO, GRO, CHIS, CA), and b) by groups on either side of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec
 3 (IT, east and west).

4
 5

		a) Geographic region			b) IT		
		χ^2	d f	<i>p</i> -value	χ^2	d f	<i>p</i> -value
MALES	Bill length	7.866 1	3	0.04886	1.6847	1	0.1943
	Bill width	19.38 6	3	0.00022 75	6.3669	1	0.0116 3
	Bill depth	26.42 5	3	7.77E-06	0.9171 9	1	0.3382
	Wing chord	19.14	3	0.00025 58	8.0642	1	0.0045 15
	Tail length	16.98 2	3	0.00071 27	1.834	1	0.1757
FEMALES	Bill length	9.442 1	3	0.02396	0.4084 5	1	0.5228
	Bill width	13.12 5	3	0.00437 4	6.346	1	0.0117 6
	Bill depth	20.15 9	3	0.00015 74	5.3064	1	0.0212 5
	Wing chord	29.69 8	3	1.60E-06	18.547	1	1.66E- 05
	Tail length	28.09 2	3	3.48E-06	10.168	1	0.0014 29

6