# Signatures of mito-nuclear climate adaptation in a warbler species complex

Silu Wang[1], Madelyn J. Ore[1,2], Else K. Mikkelsen[1,3], Julie Lee-Yaw[4,5], Sievert Rohwer[6], and Darren E. Irwin[1]

[1] Department of Zoology, 6270 University Blvd, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, V6T1Z4, Canada

[2] Current address:  Cornell Lab of Ornithology, Ithaca, New York, 14850, USA

[3] Current address: Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON, M1C 1A4, Canada

[4] Department of Botany, 3200-6270 University Blvd, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC, V6T1Z4, Canada

[5] Current address: Biological Sciences, 4401 University Drive, University of Lethbridge, Lethbridge, Alberta, T1K3M4, Canada

[6] Department of Biology and Burke Museum, Box 353010, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington 98195, USA;

22    **Abstract**
23
Mitochondrial (mtDNA) and nuclear (nDNA) genes interact to govern metabolic

pathways of mitochondria. When differentiated populations interbreed at secondary

contact, incompatibilities between mtDNA of one population and nDNA of the other

could result in low fitness of hybrids. Hermit Warblers (*S. occidentalis* abbreviated as

HEWA) and inland Townsend's Warblers (*Setophaga townsendi*, abbreviated as i-

TOWA) exhibit distinct mtDNA haplotypes and a few nDNA regions of high

differentiation, whereas coastal TOWA (c-TOWA) displays a mix of these genetic

patterns consistent with ancient hybridization of HEWA and i-TOWA. Of the few highly-

differentiated nDNA regions between i-TOWA and HEWA, two of these regions (on

chromosome 5 and Z, respectively) are also differentiated between c-TOWA and i-

TOWA, similar to the mtDNA pattern. These two nDNA regions are associated with

mitochondrial fatty acid metabolism. Moreover, these nDNA regions are correlated with

mtDNA ancestries among sites, a pattern consistent with mito-nuclear co-adaptation.

Such mito-nuclear coevolution might be driven by climate-related selection, because the

mito-nuclear ancestry is correlated with climatic conditions among sampling sites. These

results suggest that cryptic differentiation in this species complex has been shaped by

climate-correlated adaptation associated with mito-nuclear fatty acid metabolism.

41
42    **Key Words**: *speciation*, *inter-genomic interaction*, *mito-nuclear co-adaptation*, *genetic*
43    *incompatibility*, carnitine shuttle, climate adaptation, *Setophaga*.

## Introduction

Mitochondrial (mtDNA) and nuclear (nDNA) genomes co-function in maintaining critical functions that influence fitness in all eukaryotes (1–5). Populations in different areas may harbour distinct mtDNA owing to selection or drift, and because many nuclear genes encode proteins that function within mitochondria, the two sets of DNA are expected to co-evolve, each being the target of selection favoring compatibility with the other (4, 6, 7). Interbreeding at species boundaries can lead to sub-optimal mito-nuclear combinations in hybrids. Specifically, hybrids with nDNA from one species and mtDNA from the other species may have lowered fitness. These types of genetic incompatibilities can play a role in keeping hybrid zones narrow and limiting gene flow between species (8, 9). Hence coadaptation of mtDNA and nDNA is increasingly recognized as being important to speciation (8–10).

Geographic variation in climate is known to select for different mitochondrial genotypes in different areas (6, 11, 12). This may in turn lead to indirect selection on co-functioning nuclear genes. Such climatic mito-nuclear coadaptation can lead to genomic differentiation between population inhabiting different climatic conditions (4, 6). Here we examine the relationship between mtDNA and nDNA variation in a warbler species complex with ancient and ongoing hybridization between partially differentiated populations. In particular, we ask whether there is signature of mito-nuclear coevolution. If so, could climate-related selection have driven such coevolution?

While secondary contact between differentiated populations sometimes leads to narrow hybrid zones (13), another possible outcome is the formation of a hybrid or mixed population over a broad region (14–16). Such populations have the potential to reveal

strong selection on suboptimal combinations of genes from the two parental species.

Despite increasing interest in mito-nuclear interactions at species boundaries of natural

populations with complex population histories (3, 6, 17–20), the degree to which mito-

nuclear interactions are important in the differentiation among lineages is not well

understood.

Hermit warblers, *S. occidentalis* (referred to as HEWA), inhabit conifer forests

along the states of Oregon, California, and southern Washington, U.S.A. To the north of

HEWA, Townsend's warblers *Setophaga townsendi* (referred to as TOWA) consist of an

inland population that inhabits areas east of the Coast Mountains of British Columbia,

Canada and northern Washington, USA (referred as i-TOWA) and a coastal populations

(referred as c-TOWA) west of the Coast Mountains (Figure 1A) (21–25). The HEWA

and i-TOWA populations demonstrate distinct plumage and mtDNA haplotypes

(separated by ~0.8% sequence divergence, diverged ~0.5 million years ago, Figure 1BC)

(21, 23, 24, 26), and nDNA difference at a few small genomic regions, one related to

plumage differences (ASIP-RALY gene block), whereas the rest of the genome shows

very little differentiation (27).

The c-TOWA population is phenotypically identical to i-TOWA, but harbors both

HEWA and i-TOWA mtDNA haplotypes (Figure 1BC), suggesting this population is the

product of ancient hybridization between HEWA and i-TOWA (24) (Figure 1A). If so,

the nuclear genome of c-TOWA should demonstrate a mix of these two ancestries as

well. In particular, if the mitochondria-related nDNA regions that are differentiated

between HEWA and i-TOWA (26) coevolved with the mitochondrial genome, we expect

these nDNA regions to differentiate between i-TOWA and c-TOWA as well. In contrast,

the plumage gene region (represented by the RALY SNP) that differs between HEWA

and i-TOWA is expected to remain undifferentiated between c-TOWA and i-TOWA.

The nuclear genome of c-TOWA is thus far unknown. Here, we analyze variation

at tens of thousands of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) throughout the nuclear

genome of various HEWA, c-TOWA and i-TOWA populations. In particular, we ask (1)

whether the nuclear genomic data is consistent with the mtDNA inference that coastal

*townsendi* resulted from admixture; (2) whether the genetic differentiation is related to

mitochondrial metabolism, suggesting mito-nuclear coevolution; (3) whether there is

climate-related selection on mitonuclear coevolution?

**Methods**

**Museum samples, mtDNA sequences, and nDNA sequencing**

As a baseline for understanding the relationships among mtDNA haplotypes and

their distributions, sequences of the mtDNA NADH dehydrogenase subunit 2 gene (ND2)

for 223 individuals (95 c-TOWA, 81 i-TOWA, and 47 HEWA) from the Krosby and

Rohwer (2009) study were acquired from GenBank (accession numbers FJ373895-

FJ374120). To understand the relationships among the mtDNA sequences, we generated

a minimum spanning haplotype network (27) with PopART (28). This network showed

two clearly separated haplotype clusters. To understand spatial variation in mtDNA

haplotypes, we colored individual c-TOWA sites differently. We then scored each

haplotype as 0 and 1 respectively for those that are nested within HEWA haplotype

cluster and the i-TOWA cluster (24) (Figure 1C).

Among these individuals with previously-sequenced mtDNA (i.e., from Krosby

and Rohwer 2009), we selected a subset of tissue samples (64 i-TOWA, 58 c-TOWA,

and 15 HEWA; obtained from the Burke Museum of Natural History and Culture,

University of Washington, Seattle, Washington) for nuclear genomic sequencing. We

supplemented this set of genetic samples with 30 blood samples that we obtained directly

from birds caught in the field during the breeding season of 2016; these included 25

HEWA from California, USA, and 5 i-TOWA from Montana, USA.

**GBS pipeline**

We prepared genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) (29) libraries from DNA samples

of the 167 individuals described above as our previous study (30). Briefly, we digested

genomes with the restriction enzyme PstI, then ligated fragments with barcode and

adaptors, and amplified with PCR. Amplified DNA was pooled into two libraries which

were then paired-end sequenced: the first (80 individuals) were sequenced with an

Illumina HiSeq 2500 automated sequencer (read length = 125bp), and the second (85

individuals) were sequenced with an Illumina HiSeq 4000 (read length = 100bp). After

sequencing, we removed two of the HEWA samples because of insufficient read depth

and a labeling error respectively, thus 23 HEWA remained for further analysis. To

control for plate effects, we randomly assigned samples to different plates and included

replicates of three samples among plates. Sequences processing is consistent with our

previous study (30). Specifically, the reads were demultiplexed with a custom script and

then trimmed using Trimmomatic (31) [TRAILING:3 SLIDINGWINDOW:4:10

MINLEN:30]. Assuming synteny between *Setophaga* and *Taeniopygia guttata* (Zebra

Finch) genomes given the evidence of limited rearrangement in avian genomes (32, 33),

we aligned reads to a *T. guttata* reference (34) with bwa-mem (35) (default settings).

Variable sites were identified with GATK (36), which resulted in 3,446,846 variable sites

among the 165 individuals in the study. We then filtered the variable sites with VCFtools

(37) according to the following criteria: 1) removing indels, 2) keeping sites with

genotype quality (GQ) > 20, 3) keeping sites with minor allele frequency (MAF) $\geq$ 0.05,

4) removing sites with > 30% missing genotypes among individuals, and 5) keeping

biallelic single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) only. Thereafter 19,083 SNPs

remained. To visually evaluate whether there were any plate effects, we compared

duplicated samples among different plates, and then visualized samples sequenced on

different plates in a principal component analysis (on the covariance matrix). Since plate

allocation was random, there should not be a difference in PC space partitioning among

the plates. The duplicated samples were compared and then removed from further

analysis.

**Population structure and genomic differentiation**

To examine if the nDNA c-TOWA is a mixture of HEWA and i-TOWA,

population structure was examined with principle component analysis (PCA) in the

SNPRelate (38) package in R and ancestry assignments in Faststructure with a uniform

prior, $10^8$ iterations, and K values from 1 to 6 (39). We set out to assess the differences

between HEWA, c-TOWA, and i-TOWA. However, the PCA revealed obvious structure

within c-TOWA with Valdez, AK (USA) and Haida Gwaii, BC (Canada) populations

distinct from the rest of the c-TOWA populations. Thus in subsequent analysis, we

compared each of the three c-TOWA groups to the i-TOWA and HEWA groups. We

used the SNPRelate (38) package in R to examine which SNPs were highly correlated

with principal component axes.

To examine population differentiation across the genome, for each of the 19,083

filtered SNPs we calculated $F_{ST}$ (40) with VCFtools (37) between 1) i-TOWA ($N = 69$)

and HEWA ($N = 38$); 2) c-TOWA ($N = 58$: 10 Haida Gwaii, 15 Valdez, 33 others) and i-

TOWA; and 3) HEWA and each of the three c-TOWA clusters.

**Candidate genetic regions**

The SNPs at $F_{ST}$ peaks between c-TOWA and i-TOWA that are also consistent

with the peaks between HEWA and i-TOWA were considered candidate loci for further

analyses. One possibility is that these loci are linked to genes that have a mitochondrial

function and selection maintains their concordance with mtDNA ancestry. To examine

whether these loci are known to be associated with mitochondrial function, we examined

what is known about the protein-coding genes in vicinity of the candidate SNPs, using

Ensembl (41) and the zebra finch reference genome. If a large region of elevated $F_{ST}$ is

involved, Zebrafinch Gene Ontology analysis (42) was conducted to test regional

functional enrichment relative to the rest of the genome. While HEWA and i-TOWA

differ at the RALY locus that is associated with plumage differences (26), we did not

expect this region to differ between coastal and i-TOWA due to their identical plumage

features.

**Association of mtDNA and nDNA**

Coevolution between genomes is expected to lead to association between mtDNA

and mt-associated nuclear genes within and among sites. If individuals with mismatched

mt-nDNA genotypes are selected against, there should be an association between mtDNA

and nDNA genotypes within each population. Such a force could be counteracted by

random mating which breaks down the mt-nDNA association, thus strong selection is

required to maintain adaptive mt-nDNA combinations within a single randomly mating

population. Over time however, specific geographic regions may favor a particular

mtDNA variant and a compatible nDNA variant, increasing mt-nDNA concordance

among sampling sites.

To examine within-population association between mtDNA and nDNA ancestry,

we conducted permutation tests of independence with the *coin* package (43) in R to

examine if there is association between mtDNA group (0 or 1) and nuclear candidate

SNP genotype (0 as homozygous HEWA, 0.5 as heterozygous, or 1 as homozygous i-

TOWA) within Valdez and the North Vancouver Island populations (c-TOWA sites with

$N \geq 10$). The Haida Gwaii population is almost fixed for the HEWA mt haplotype group

(Figure 1C), thus mt-nDNA coadaptation would predict that the mitochondrial co-

functioning nDNA region is more HEWA-like than the rest of the genome in this

population.

Although mito-nuclear coevolution could be masked by random mating within a

population, its signature can be captured in the mito-nuclear ancestry associations among

populations, which reflects long-term ancestry dynamics. We first calculated the mean

mtDNA and nDNA ancestry of each site by averaging the locus-specific ancestry (0 for

HEWA and 1 for i-TOWA) among individuals. To examine between-population

association between mtDNA and nDNA variants of interest (one on chr 5 and one on chr

Z), we employed a partial mantel test (44) with the *vegan* package in R to quantify the

association between the among-sites (N =19) distance matrices of mtDNA ancestry and

the nDNA ancestry, while controlling for overall genomic ancestry (i.e., proportion

HEWA vs. i-TOWA). In particular, the partial mantel test examined correlation between

the among-sites distance matrix of mtDNA and that of the nDNA locus, conditioned on

the among-sites distance matrix of admixture index. The admixture index is represented

by the PC1 of the genomic PCA with the candidate SNPs (all the SNPs in the 700kb

differentiation block on chr5 and the SNP at the peak on chrZ) removed. We employed

the genomic PC1 instead of a model-based admixture proportion because the complex

admixture history in this case likely violates assumptions of model-based approaches

(39). These approaches tend to force admixed individuals into either of the parental

clusters, and the output admixture indices for each individual largely depend on the prior

distribution (30). In contrast, genomic PC1 naturally represents the admixture between i-

TOWA and HEWA (Figure1D).

**Climate analysis**

To investigate whether there might be selection on mt-nDNA related to climate,

we tested association of site-level mt-nDNA ancestry (the averaged site ancestry score of

mtDNA, chr 5, and chr Z marker ancestry) and climate variation. To effectively capture

annual climate variation among sites, we extracted data from 26 climate variables (Table

S1) from ClimateWNA (45) and used PCA to describe climatic variation among sites.

We computed pairwise differences between sites for a) PC1 values b) PC2 values c)

geographic distance and d) mt-nuclear ancestry. We then looked for an association

between climate differences among sites and differences in mt-nDNA ancestry while

controlling for geographic distance using a partial mantel test in R with 10000

permutations.

**Results**

**Population structure**

The mtDNA haplotype clusters are distinct between i-TOWA and HEWA, with

0.8% minimum mtDNA sequence divergence (Krosby and Rohwer 2009; Figure 1C).

Various c-TOWA sampling sites contain a mixture of i-TOWA haplotypes and HEWA

haplotypes (Figure 1C), suggesting that these c-TOWA populations are hybrid

populations between i-TOWA and HEWA (Krosby and Rohwer 2009). Nuclear genomic

variation as assessed through variation in the 19,083 SNPs reveals a pattern broadly

consistent with the variation in mtDNA. The i-TOWA and HEWA form two clearly

differentiated clusters differing in the first principal component (PC1) of a PCA (Figure

1D, S1), and most individuals from c-TOWA have a somewhat intermediate position.

Faststructure analysis further supports the hybrid origin of c-TOWA as k = 2 was most

supported and c-TOWA demonstrate admixture between HEWA and i-TOWA ancestry

(Figure S2). However, we found substructure within c-TOWA with Valdez and Haida

Gwaii forming distinct clusters from the rest (Figure 1D). Valdez differs primarily along

the second principal component (PC2), whereas Haida Gwaii differs by a combination of

PC1 and PC2. While PC1 is highly correlated with a few strong outlier SNPs, PC2 shows

only modest correlations with particular SNPs (Figure S1). Moreover, Valdez and Haida

Gwaii demonstrate comparable differentiation to the parental populations as the

differentiation between the parental populations (HEWA and i-TOWA) (Figure 1D, S3).

$F_{ST}$ **distribution**

Genome-wide levels of differentiation show that HEWA and i-TOWA are very

similar (Weir and Cockerham's $F_{ST} = 0.030$) except for a few peaks of differentiation

(Figure 2A). As in the PCA, $F_{ST}$ analysis indicates the Valdez and Haida Gwaii c-TOWA

populations are more differentiated from both HEWA and i-TOWA than other c-TOWA

are (see $F_{ST}$ values in Figure 2). The rest of the c-TOWA are more similar to i-TOWA

(Weir and Cockerham's $F_{ST}$ = 0.009) than to HEWA (Weir and Cockerham's $F_{ST}$ =

0.021).

The i-TOWA and HEWA have a number of peaks of differentiation, with the

three highest standing out in particular (Figure 2A) and mapping to chromosomes (chr) 5,

20, and Z in the *T. guttata* reference. One of these (on chr 20) is in the intron of the

RALY gene (26), which is known to regulate pigmentation in quail and mice (46, 47).

Our earlier study of admixture mapping in the ongoing hybrid zone between i-TOWA

and HEWA in the Washington Cascades (26) suggested that this locus is highly

associated with plumage colour patterns within that zone. As predicted, the present

analysis of genomic variation over a much broader geographic region shows high

differentiation at the RALY SNP between sampling regions that differ in plumage (i.e.,

between HEWA and i-TOWA, Figure 2A, F-H) and low differentiation between regions

with similar plumage (i.e., between c-TOWA and i-TOWA, Figure 2B-D).

**Mitonuclear genetics**

Similar to the chr20 RALY peak, the chr5 and chrZ regions also showed extreme

differentiation in the comparison of i-TOWA and HEWA, but opposite to RALY region,

these regions also stand out in the comparison between c-TOWA and i-TOWA as the two

highest regions of differentiation between those groups (Figure 2A-B). The chr5

differentiation (Figure 2A-C, 3A) involves a ~ 700kb region that is significantly enriched

for lipid metabolism ($p$ = 0.0013, $p_{adjusted}$ = 0.021) related to mitochondrial function with

particular relevance to acyl-CoA metabolic process ($p = 0.0027$, $p_{adjusted} = 0.021$),

thiolester hydrolase ($p = 0.002$, $p_{adjusted} = 0.021$), and palmitoyl-coA hydrolase activity ($p$

$= 3.7 \times 10^{-6}$, $p_{adjusted} = 0.0001$), due to the genes ENSTGUG00000011215 and

ENSTGUG00000018133 (orthologs of ACOT, acyl-CoA thioesterase). The chr Z SNP

(position 66226657 in the *T. guttata* reference) is within the intron of the BBOX1 gene

(gamma-butyrobetaine hydroxylase 1) (Figure 3B), which codes for a biosynthesis

enzyme of carnitine. Carnitine is the central player in the 'carnitine shuttle' of

mitochondria, which activates and transports fatty acid into mitochondria for beta-

oxidation (Figure 3C) (1, 48, 49). The other gene associated with this chrZ differentiation

is a cytoplasmic-related gene TNP01 that encodes nuclear-cytoplasmic signaling protein,

transportin1 (50) (Figure 3B). This chrZ region of differentiation could be narrow, as

SNPs flanking this chrZ peak do not demonstrate high $F_{ST}$ (Figure 3B). The chr5 and Z

regions are functionally linked to each other as well through the 'carnitine shuttle' of

mitochondria (Figure 3C). A moderate peak was found in the $F_{ST}$ scan between the i-

TOWA versus other c-TOWA at chr1A (54442413) (Figure 2B), which is in the inter-

genic region between golgi gene CHST11 (Carbohydrate Sulfotransferase 11) and the

cytoplasmic-functioning gene TXNRD1 (Thioredoxin Reductase 1) (Figure S4).

**Mitonuclear association**

We then examined whether mtDNA (Figure 1C) and the candidate nDNA

markers on chr 5 and Z (Figure 3AB) genotypes were correlated, both among (Figure 4)

and within sampling sites (Figure S5) of the admixed c-TOWA population. Among sites,

both the chr 5 (Figure 4 AB, partial mantel pearson's product-moment $r = 0.736$, $p < 10^-$

$^4$) and chr Z marker (Figure 4 AC, partial mantel pearson's product-moment $r = 0.270$, $p$

= 0.03) were correlated with the mtDNA ancestry after controlling for the effect of

admixture represented by the distance matrix of genomic PC1 (see Methods). Within

sampling sites, partial mitonuclear association was observed. In Valdez, there is an

estimated association between mtDNA ancestry and both chr 5 and chr Z marker

ancestry, although this was statistically significant only for chr 5 (chr 5 marker: Z = 2.44,

N = 14, $p_{(FDR\text{-}corrected)}$ = 0.03, Figure S5A; chr Z marker: Z = 2.14, N = 12, $p_{(FDR\text{-}corrected)}$ =

0.065, Figure S5B). In the North Vancouver Island population, neither the chr 5 (Z = -

1.41, N = 9, $p$ = 0.157) nor the chr Z (Z = -0.57, N = 11, $p$ = 0.572) marker was

significantly associated with mtDNA ancestry (Figure S5A-B). Consistent with the mt-

nDNA coadaptation prediction, the *townsendi* homozygotes for the chr 5 and Z markers

are missing in the Haida Gwaii *townsendi* population (Figure S5), in which the HEWA

mt haplotypes are almost fixed (Figure 1BC).

**Climatic association**

Climate PC1 (Figure 5AC, S7) explains 64.4% of the variation in climate among

sites; this PC was not particularly explained by one or a few climate variables (Figure

S7A, B; Table S2). Climate PC2 explains 23.5% of the variation and was predominantly

explained by four climate variables (Figure S7C, S8; Table S2): Temperature Difference

(TD), Climate Moisture Index (CMI), Mean Annual Precipitation (MAP), Winter

Precipitation (PPT_wt). The climate in c-TOWA habitat is similar to that of i-TOWA

along PC1, but more similar to that of HEWA along PC2, although there is great climate

variation among various c-TOWA populations (Figure 5ACD). Overall, the c-TOWA

habitat is moister and more stable in temperature, which is consistent with the coastal-

inland humidity gradient (captured by PC2, Figure 5D), and the distribution of mt-nDNA

ancestry appears related to this geographical variation in climate. The mt-nDNA ancestry

is significantly correlated with climate PC1 (Figure 5C) (partial mantel test, $r = 0.194$, $p$

$= 0.040$) as well as climate PC2 (partial mantel test, $r = 0.221$, $p = 0.025$, Figure 5B)

among 19 sites.

**Discussion**

Hermit warblers (HEWA) and inland Townsend's warblers (i-TOWA) are distinct

in mtDNA (24) and exhibit three strong regions of differentiation in the nuclear genome

(26), whereas coastal Townsend's warblers (c-TOWA) harbor admixed mtDNA and

nDNA ancestry from HEWA and i-TOWA. Two of the three regions of strong

differentiation between HEWA and i-TOWA, on chr 5 and Z, differentiate coastal and i-

TOWA as well. Both of these nDNA regions contain genes that are strong candidates for

coadaptation with mtDNA, as they are both involved in the mitochondrial carnitine

shuttle for fatty acid metabolism. Mitonuclear coadaptation was further supported by mt-

nDNA association within Valdez population and among populations. This coadaptation is

likely associated with climatic adaptation, because the site-level mito-nuclear ancestry

covaries with the site climate conditions.

**Coevolution of mtDNA and nDNA**

We found the key nDNA differences between c-TOWA versus i-TOWA reside at

loci on chr 5 and chr Z associated with mitochondrial fatty acid metabolism (Figure 3), an

intriguing result given that coastal and i-TOWA differ so strongly in their mitochondrial

haplotype frequencies. This finding points to the possibility of selection on mito-nuclear

cofunctions (9, 10). The BBOX1 gene encodes Gamma-butyrobetaine dioxygenase (51),

the enzyme that catalyses L-carnitine synthesis (52), which is critical for transporting

fatty acids across mitochondrial membranes during beta oxidation (49). Carnitine co-

functions with mtDNA and the chr5 region that is enriched for mitochondrial fatty acid

metabolism are both involved in 'carnitine shuttle' (Figure 3C). The HEWA nDNA may

be partially incompatible with the *townsendi* mtDNA in jointly forming the functional

carnitine shuttle leading to selection against mismatched mito-nuclear ancestries. Such

selection maintaining mito-nuclear concordance can be counteracted by random mating

in admixed populations at each generation and is thus difficult to detect in samples of

individuals from a single population. However, mito-nuclear ancestry concordance can be

more easily detected through comparison of many populations. This association (Figure

4) reveals the potential selection maintaining a functionally compatible mito-nuclear

'carnitine shuttle' over a large temporal and spatial scale.

These mito-nuclear genotypes are significantly associated with climate,

suggesting potential selection on the mt-nDNA combinations related to climate or habitat

(which is also associated with climate). The climate in the c-TOWA is similar to i-

TOWA habitat along PC1, but similar to HEWA habitat along PC2. Correlations between

any two traits that have large-scale geographic variation are expected, making it difficult

to confidently infer causality from such associations alone. However, the climate and

habitat differences between HEWA, i-TOWA, and c-TOWA are very strong, such that

these differences likely cause some selective differences. These patterns are reminiscent

of the *Eopsaltria australis* (Eastern Yellow Robin) system in which distinct mt-nDNA

combinations are maintained between inland and coastal habitat (6). Fatty acid metabolic

genes have also been shown to be targets of climatic adaptation in humans, within

Siberian (53) and Greenlandic Inuit populations (54). Temperature (55) and humidity

(56) both influence mitochondrial fatty acid metabolism during beta oxidation, which

highly depends on carnitine (55, 56). BBOX1-ACOT-mtDNA genotypes might result in

functional difference in fatty acid metabolism that is adapted to specific climate (moist

and stable versus dry and variable) in the breeding habitat of these warblers.

Because HEWA has apparently inhabited coastal areas for a long period of time,

the HEWA mt-nDNA gene combination may be more suited for coastal habitats

compared to those of *townsendi*. If the HEWA mt-nDNA genotype is favored in the

coastal habitats, the frequency of HEWA mt-nDNA gene combinations would tend to

increase in c-TOWA populations over time. However, ongoing gene flow between i-

TOWA and c-TOWA would slow down or prevent such an increase. The Haida Gwaii

island and Valdez population could have escaped from such a balance between selection

and gene flow due to their isolation from the rest of the populations respectively by the

sea and mountain ranges. Another possibility is that frequency-dependent selection is

maintaining long-term mt-nDNA polymorphism in the c-TOWA. Future investigation on

the spatial and temporal variation of mtDNA-BBOX1-ACOT co-segregation would shed

light on the evolutionary forces shaping the present and future of c-TOWA population.

**Genomic architecture of differentiation**

The distribution of $F_{ST}$ across the genome comparing various c-TOWA to either

HEWA and i-TOWA is consistent with the "genic" view of differentiation (26, 57, 58), in

which peaks of differentiation represent genetic targets of selection (divergent selection

or selection against hybrids) that are highly distinct between populations despite the rest

of the genome being homogenized by gene flow (57–59). Despite this 'selection with

gene flow' scenario exhibiting a similar genomic differentiation landscape as the classic

'divergence with gene flow' model (58, 60), the underlying process is different. In this

system, there is a known allopatric phase when HEWA and *townsendi* were separated by

ice sheets (Figure 1A) (21, 24). Genetic differentiation that accumulated in allopatry (as

opposed to gradual build up at sympatry or parapatry under 'divergence with gene flow')

can be homogenized by hybridization at secondary contact, while the climate-related

genomic targets (on chr 5 and Z) of selection remain differentiated.

Between c-TOWA and HEWA, there are a number of highly differentiated loci

(Fig. 2F), one of which is the RALY SNP that was found through admixture mapping to

be highly associated with plumage in the narrow Cascades hybrid zone between i-TOWA

and HEWA (26). The fact that this marker has now been shown to be strongly associated

with plumage both within a local hybrid zone and throughout the whole i-TOWA and

HEWA species complex is strong evidence for a causal link between the RALY-ASIP

genetic region and plumage differences.

**Biogeography and semi-parallel introgression**

In addition to being an empirical test of mitonuclear coevolution, the present

study also helps clarify the biogeographic history of this warbler complex. Our genomic

evidence is consistent with Krosby and Rohwer's (24) conclusion, based on mtDNA, that

coastal British Columbia and Alaska was inhabited by geographically structured HEWA

populations before *townsendi* expanded from inland areas and mixed with them (24). The

HEWA and i-TOWA mtDNA haplotype groups demonstrate many differences (~0.8%),

whereas both are common in c-TOWA. It is unlikely that the polymorphisms in mtDNA

and nDNA in the c-TOWA were caused by incomplete lineage sorting, as opposed to

hybridization (Figure 1A). In a scenario of incomplete lineage sorting, enough time

would have passed following population splitting for both i-TOWA and HEWA to have

lost the alternative haplotype, while the c-TOWA maintained both. Over such a period of

time, sizeable differences would be expected between the HEWA haplotypes found in

HEWA population versus c-TOWA, as well as between i-TOWA haplotypes found in

coastal versus i-TOWA population. We did not observe such a pattern, as c-TOWA has

some mtDNA haplotypes that are identical to HEWA and some that are identical to i-

TOWA haplotypes.

The higher genome-wide differentiation of the Haida Gwaii and Valdez

populations (Figure 2) is consistent with at least partially isolated cryptic refugia of

HEWA in coastal Alaska and Haida Gwaii during the last glacial maximum (LGM) (61).

Following expansion of i-TOWA from the inland area, presumably after the last glacial

period, hybridization between i-TOWA and HEWA apparently led to populations of

mixed ancestry along the coast of British Columbia and Alaska (Figure 1A). These

coastal populations have the plumage patterns and colors of i-TOWA, which is why they

have been classified as members of that species. This uniform i-TOWA appearance has

concealed a more complex history of hybridization with ancient and geographically

differentiated populations of HEWA.

Following expansion of i-TOWA from the interior, gene flow into Haida Gwaii

may have been weak due to the expanse of water separating it from the mainland,

explaining why that population is more similar to HEWA than other c-TOWA are. Gene

flow into Valdez could have also been impeded by geographical barriers, as Valdez is

surrounded by mountain ranges (Chugach mountains, Wrangell mountains, and St. Elias

mountains). However, both nuclear and genomic data indicate that Valdez has substantial

ancestry from both i-TOWA and HEWA. Despite genome-wide differentiation among

these three c-TOWA genetic clusters, there is an interesting parallelism: all the three

populations exhibit the i-TOWA-like RALY marker that is associated with plumage (26),

and predominantly HEWA-like mitochondria-related markers. Such parallelism might be

driven by parallel adaptation to the coastal climate.

**Caveats and future directions**

While our findings are consistent with mito-nuclear coadaptation being important

in the pattern of genomic differentiation within this species complex, this being an

observational study we cannot definitively conclude that is the case. The strong

associations between geographic variation in climate, mitochondrial haplotypes, and

highly differentiated regions of the genome, along with the known roles of those

divergent regions in mitochondrial metabolism and the abundant evidence for mito-

nuclear coadaptation in other systems (reviewed by (7, 9)), add up to strong correlative

evidence for mito-nuclear adaptation in this case. One possibility is that the nuclear and

mitochondrial loci are independently selected by the environment, without actual

coevolution between the two. Future experimental study should investigate this

possibility to distinguish it from actual coevolution. If there is mito-nuclear coadaptation,

there should be (1) an epistatic effect of mtDNA and nDNA on fatty acid metabolic

phenotypes; (2) the high frequency fatty acid metabolic phenotypes (underpinned by

mito-nuclear epistasis) within each site should be more fit for local climate than foreign

climate.

**Conclusion**

Examination of genomic differentiation in this young species group has revealed patterns consistent with climate-related coadaptation among mitochondrial and nuclear genes involved in fatty-acid metabolism. Consistent with the mtDNA pattern, the c-TOWA demonstrate a nuclear genomic pattern consistent with ancient admixture between i-TOWA and a geographically structured ancient HEWA population. Three genetic clusters of c-TOWA are characterized by a mixed genetic ancestry between the parental populations (HEWA and i-TOWA), providing natural replicates for examining the role of selection in shaping genomic differentiation. These three c-TOWA clusters exhibit parallel differentiation from i-TOWA at two of the three most differentiated genomic regions (on chr 5 and chr Z) between i-TOWA and HEWA. Both of these genetic regions are involved in mitochondrial fatty acid metabolism. The geographic distributions of the mito-nuclear genetic combinations related to fatty acid metabolism are associated with geographic variation in climate, suggesting mt-nDNA coevolution may have occurred in response to selection for climate adaptation. Such climate-related mito-nuclear selection could be an important force driving population differentiation in this species complex.

**Data Accessibility**

**Acknowledgements**

We are grateful to Sharon Birks (Burke Museum) and Chris Wood (Burke

Museum) for access to the tissue samples for sequencing. We thank Geoffrey E. Hill for

inspiring ideas to this study. We also thank Gil Henriques for providing digital

illustrations of the warblers. For helpful discussion we thank Sally Otto, Dolph Schluter,

Loren Rieseberg, Dahong Chen, Mike Whitlock, Andrea Thomaz, Armando Geraldes,

Meade Krosby, Jared Grummer, and members of the Irwin Lab. We are grateful for

research funding provided by the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of

Canada (grants 311931-2012, RGPIN-2017-03919 and RGPAS-2017-507830 to DEI;

and PGS D 331015731 to SW), a Werner and Hildegard Hesse Research Award in

Ornithology and a UBC Four Year Doctoral Fellowship to SW. For research permits we

thank Environment Canada, U. S. Geological Survey, Departments of Fish & Wildlife of

Washington, Idaho, and Montana, and the UBC Animal Care Committee.

**References**

1.    S. E. Calvo, V. K. Mootha, The Mitochondrial Proteome and Human Disease.
*Annu. Rev. Genomics Hum. Genet.* **11**, 25–44 (2010).

2.    N. Lane, Mitonuclear match: Optimizing fitness and fertility over generations
drives ageing within generations. *BioEssays* **33**, 860–869 (2011).

3.    D. Bar-Yaacov, *et al.*, Mitochondrial involvement in vertebrate speciation? The
Case of mito-nuclear genetic divergence in chameleons. *Genome Biol. Evol.* **7**,
3322–3336 (2015).

4.    G. E. Hill, *Mitonuclear Ecology* (Oxford University Press, 2019).

5.    J. W. O. Ballard, M. C. Whitlock, The incomplete natural history of mitochondria.
*Mol. Ecol.* **13**, 729–744 (2004).

6.    H. E. Morales, *et al.*, Concordant divergence of mitogenomes and a mitonuclear
gene cluster in bird lineages inhabiting different climates. *Nat. Ecol. Evol.* **2**,

506           1258–1267 (2018).

507    7.    G. E. Hill, *et al.*, Assessing the fitness consequences of mitonuclear interactions in
508           natural populations. *Biol. Rev.* **94**, consequences of mitonuclear interactions in
509           natu (2019).

510    8.    R. S. Burton, R. J. Pereira, F. S. Barreto, Cytonuclear Genomic Interactions and
511           Hybrid Breakdown. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst.* **44**, 281–302 (2013).

512    9.    G. E. Hill, The mitonuclear compatibility species concept. *Auk* **134**, 393–409
513           (2017).

514    10.   R. S. Burton, F. S. Barreto, A disproportionate role for mtDNA in Dobzhansky-
515           Muller incompatibilities? *Mol. Ecol.* **21**, 4942–4957 (2012).

516    11.   P. Innocenti, E. H. Morrow, D. K. Dowling, Experimental evidence supports a sex-
517           specific selective sieve in mitochondrial genome evolution. *Science (80-. ).* **332**,
518           845–848 (2011).

519    12.   A. E. Harada, T. M. Healy, R. S. Burton, Variation in thermal tolerance and its
520           relationship to mitochondrial function across populations of Tigriopus
521           Californicus. *Front. Physiol.* (2019) https:/doi.org/10.3389/fphys.2019.00213.

522    13.   N. H. Barton, G. M. Hewitt, Adaptation, speciation and hybrid zones. *Nature* **341**,
523           497–503 (1989).

524    14.   T. O. Elgvin, *et al.*, The genomic mosaicism of hybrid speciation. *Sci. Adv.* **3**,
525           e1602996 (2017).

526    15.   M. Schumer, R. Cui, D. L. Powell, G. G. Rosenthal, P. Andolfatto, Ancient
527           hybridization and genomic stabilization in a swordtail fish. *Mol. Ecol.* **25**, 2661–
528           2679 (2016).

529    16.   L. H. Rieseberg, Hybrid origins of plant species. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* (1997)
530           https:/doi.org/10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.28.1.359.

531    17.   P. A. Gagnaire, E. Normandeau, L. Bernatchez, Comparative genomics reveals
532           adaptive protein evolution and a possible cytonuclear incompatibility between
533           European and American Eels. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **29**, 2909–2919 (2012).

534    18.   J. B. M. Sambatti, D. Ortiz-Barrientos, E. J. Baack, L. H. Rieseberg, Ecological
535           selection maintains cytonuclear incompatibilities in hybridizing sunflowers. *Ecol.*
536           *Lett.* **11**, 1082–1091 (2008).

537    19.   T. Z. Baris, *et al.*, Evolved genetic and phenotypic differences due to
538           mitochondrial-nuclear interactions. *PLoS Genet.* **13**, e1006517 (2017).

20.   Z. Boratyński, T. Ketola, E. Koskela, T. Mappes, The Sex Specific Genetic

Variation of Energetics in Bank Voles, Consequences of Introgression? *Evol. Biol.*
**43**, 37–47 (2016).

21.  J. T. Weir, D. Schluter, Ice sheets promote speciation in boreal birds. *Proc. R. Soc.*
*B Biol. Sci.* **271**, 1881–1887 (2004).

22.  S. Rohwer, C. Wood, Three Hybrid Zones Between Hermit and Townsend ' S
Warblers in Washington and Oregon. *Auk* **115**, 284–310 (1998).

23.  S. Rohwer, E. Bermingham, C. Wood, Plumage and mitochondrial DNA haplotype
variation across a moving hybrid zone. *Evolution (N. Y).* **55**, 405–422 (2001).

24.  M. Krosby, S. Rohwer, A 2000 km genetic wake yields evidence for northern
glacial refugia and hybrid zone movement in a pair of songbirds. *Proc. R. Soc. B*
*Biol. Sci.* **276**, 615–621 (2009).

25.  M. Krosby, S. Rohwer, Ongoing movement of the hermit warbler X Townsend's
Warbler Hybrid Zone. *PLoS One* **5**, e14164 (2010).

26.  S. Wang, *et al.*, Selection on a pleiotropic color gene block underpins early
differentiation between two warbler species. *bioRxiv*,
https://doi.org/10.1101/853390 (2019).

27.  H. J. Bandelt, P. Forster, A. Röhl, Median-joining networks for inferring
intraspecific phylogenies. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **16**, 37–48 (1999).

28.  J. W. Leigh, D. Bryant, POPART: Full-feature software for haplotype network
construction. *Methods Ecol. Evol.* **6**, 1110–1116 (2015).

29.  R. J. Elshire, *et al.*, A robust, simple genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) approach
for high diversity species. *PLoS One* **6**, e19379 (2011).

30.  S. Wang, S. Rohwer, K. E. Delmore, D. E. Irwin, Cross-decades stability of an
avian hybrid zone. *J. Evol. Biol.* **32**, 1242–1251. (2019).

31.  A. M. Bolger, M. Lohse, B. Usadel, Trimmomatic: A flexible trimmer for Illumina
sequence data. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 2114–2120 (2014).

32.  G. Zhang, *et al.*, Comparative genomics reveals insights into avian genome
evolution and adaptation. *Science (80-. ).* **346**, 1311–1320 (2014).

33.  H. Ellegren, Evolutionary stasis: the stable chromosomes of birds. *Trends Ecol.*
*Evol.* **25**, 283–291 (2010).

34.  W. C. Warren, *et al.*, The genome of a songbird. *Nature* **464**, 757–762 (2010).

35.  H. Li, Aligning new-sequencing reads by BWA BWA : Burrows-Wheeler Aligner.
*Slides* (2010) https:/doi.org/10.1002/pssa.200673542.

36. M. D. McKenna, Aaron, Matthew Hanna, Eric Banks, Andrey Sivachenko,
Kristian Cibulskis, Andrew Kernytsky, Kiran Garimella, David Altshuler, Stacey
Gabriel, *et al.*, The Genome Analysis Toolkit: A MapReduce framework for
analyzing next-generation DNA sequencing data. *Genome Res.* (2010)
https:/doi.org/10.1101/gr.107524.110.20.

37. P. Danecek, *et al.*, The variant call format and VCFtools. *Bioinformatics* **27**, 2156–
2158 (2011).

38. X. Zheng, *et al.*, A high-performance computing toolset for relatedness and
principal component analysis of SNP data. *Bioinformatics* **28**, 3326–3328 (2012).

39. A. Raj, M. Stephens, J. K. Pritchard, fastSTRUCTURE: Variational Inference of
Population Structure in Large SNP Datasets. *Genetics* **197**, 573–589 (2014).

40. B. S. Weir, C. C. Cockerham, Estimating F-Statistics for the Analysis of
Population Structure. *Evolution (N. Y)*. **38**, 1358 (1984).

41. S. E. Hunt, *et al.*, Ensembl variation resources. *Database (Oxford)*. **2018** (2018).

42. X. Wu, M. Watson, CORNA: Testing gene lists for regulation by microRNAs.
*Bioinformatics* **25**, 832–833 (2009).

43. T. Hothorn, K. Hornik, M. A. van De Wiel, A. Zeileis, Implementing a Class of
Permutation Tests COIN Package. *J. Stat. Softw.* **28**, 1–23 (2008).

44. P. Legendre, *Numerical ecology, 2nd English Edition* (Elsevier Science, 1998)
https:/doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004.

45. T. Wang, A. Hamann, D. L. Spittlehouse, T. Q. Murdock, ClimateWNA-high-
resolution spatial climate data for western North America. *J. Appl. Meteorol.*
*Climatol.* **51**, 16–29 (2012).

46. E. J. Michaud, *et al.*, A molecular model for the genetic and phenotypic
characteristics of the mouse lethal yellow (Ay) mutation. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **91**,
2562–2566 (1994).

47. N. J. Nadeau, *et al.*, Characterization of Japanese quail yellow as a genomic
deletion upstream of the avian homolog of the mammalian ASIP (agouti) gene.
*Genetics* **178**, 777–786 (2008).

48. K. Tars, *et al.*, Targeting carnitine biosynthesis: Discovery of new inhibitors
against γ-butyrobetaine hydroxylase. *J. Med. Chem.* **57**, 2213–2236 (2014).

49. N. Longo, M. Frigeni, M. Pasquali, Carnitine transport and fatty acid oxidation.
*Biochim. Biophys. Acta - Mol. Cell Res.* **1863**, 2422–2435 (2016).

50. J. Brelstaff, *et al.*, Transportin1: A marker of FTLD-FUS. *Acta Neuropathol.* **122**,

607    591–600 (2011).

608 51. F. M. Vaz, S. Van Gool, R. Ofman, L. Ijlst, R. J. A. Wanders, Carnitine
609    biosynthesis: Identification of the cDNA encoding human γ-butyrobetaine
610    hydroxylase. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* **250**, 506–510 (1998).

611 52. H. S. Paul, G. Sekas, S. A. Adibi, Carnitine biosynthesis in hepatic peroxisomes:
612    Demonstration of γ-butyrobetaine hydroxylase activity. *Eur. J. Biochem.* **203**,
613    599–605 (1992).

614 53. F. J. Clemente, *et al.*, A Selective Sweep on a Deleterious Mutation in CPT1A in
615    Arctic Populations. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* **95**, 584–589 (2014).

616 54. M. Fumagalli, *et al.*, Greenlandic Inuit show genetic signatures of diet and climate
617    adaptation. *Science (80-. ).* **349**, 1343–1347 (2015).

618 55. J. A. Zoladz, *et al.*, Effect of temperature on fatty acid metabolism in skeletal
619    muscle mitochondria of untrained and endurance-trained rats. *PLoS One* **12**,
620    e0189456 (2017).

621 56. O. K. Atkin, D. Macherel, The crucial role of plant mitochondria in orchestrating
622    drought tolerance. *Ann. Bot.* **103**, 581–597 (2009).

623 57. C. I. Wu, The genic view of the process of speciation. *J. Evol. Biol.* **14**, 851–865
624    (2001).

625 58. S. Via, Natural selection in action during speciation. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **106**,
626    9939–9946 (2009).

627 59. P. Nosil, "A Genetic Mechanism to Link Selection to Reproductive Isolation" in
628    *Ecological Speciation*, (Oxford Univ. Press, 2012), pp. 109–138.

629 60. J. L. Feder, S. M. Flaxman, S. P. Egan, A. A. Comeault, P. Nosil, Geographic
630    Mode of Speciation and Genomic Divergence. *Annu. Rev. Ecol. Evol. Syst.* **44**, 73–
631    97 (2013).

632 61. A. B. A. Shafer, C. I. Cullingham, S. D. Côté, D. W. Coltman, Of glaciers and
633    refugia: A decade of study sheds new light on the phylogeography of northwestern
634    North America. *Mol. Ecol.* **19**, 4589–4621 (2010).

635 62. S. Mehta, Oxidation of Fatty Acids - via Beta-Oxidation | Biochemistry Notes |
636    PharmaXChange.info. *Biochem. Notes, Notes* (2013).

637 63. A. L. Beaudet, Brain carnitine deficiency causes nonsyndromic autism with an
638    extreme male bias: A hypothesis. *BioEssays* **39**, 1–25 (2017).

 **Figures**

641
**Figure 1** c-TOWA demonstrates admixed mitochondrial and nuclear ancestry of HEWA
and i-TOWA. (**A**) Illustration of the history of differentiation and hybridization between
TOWA and HEWA during glacial expansion and retraction. Left: During the last glacial
maxima, the HEWA and TOWA populations resided in isolated glacial refugia. Center:
after glacial retraction, the refugial HEWA and i-TOWA expanded and hybridized along
a broad inland-to-coastal front parallel to the coast. Right: the historical hybridization
resulted in c-TOWA populations with admixed ancestry although the plumage resembles
that of i-TOWA. Population substructure within c-TOWA could be a result of refugia
isolation. (**B**) Distribution of mitochondrial ancestry of HEWA, c-TOWA, i-TOWA sites.
(**C**) Haplotype network of mitochondrial NADH gene in HEWA, i-TOWA, and various
c-TOWA populations, with mtDNA sequences from (24). Each circle represents a
haplotype and area of the circles are proportional to the number of individuals carrying
each haplotype. The lines (regardless of their lengths) between the circles represent one
mutation between haplotypes, the black dots on the lines represent additional mutations
among haplotypes. The c-TOWA (Bella Coola: orange, Haida Gwaii: dark green; Haines:

657 yellow; North Vancouver Island: light green; Prince Rupert: brown; Valdez: royal blue)

658 populations harbor admixed mtDNA haplotype (some mtDNA haplotypes nested within

659 the turquoise HEWA (banding code: "HEWA") cluster whereas some are in the magenta

660 colored i-TOWA cluster). (**D**) Principle component analysis of 19083 high quality SNPs

661 in the genome. The c-TOWA is intermediate in PC1 but distinct from i-TOWA and

662 HEWA in PC2. PC1 represents admixture between i-TOWA and HEWA, and PC2

663 represents unique differentiation of c-TOWA.

**Figure 2** $F_{ST}$ scan between HEWA and i-TOWA (**A**), other coastal and i-TOWA (**B-D**),
between Valdez and Haida Gwaii c-TOWA (**E**), as well as HEWA and c-TOWA (**F-G**).
Three distinctive differentiation peaks were found between inland and coastal *townsendi*
that reside in chromosome 1A, 5 and Z (red boxes, **A-C**). The RALY locus demonstrates
consistent differentiation between HEWA and various TOWA (blue boxes, **F-G**). The red
horizontal dotted lines represent the genome-wide mean $F_{ST}$.
672
673

674
**Figure 3** c-TOWA (black) and HEWA (grey) exhibit concordant genetic differentiation
from i-TOWA at regions in chr 5 (**A**) and Z (**B**) that are associated with genes involved in
mitochondrial fatty acid metabolism (**C**). **A-B**, the window of $F_{ST}$ scan on chr 5 (**A**) and Z
(**B**) around the $F_{ST}$ peaks. On the bottom, there is a vertical grey line every 10,000 bases.
**A**, the region of differentiation delineated by the jade green $F_{ST}$ peaks are significantly
enriched for acyl-CoA metabolism, because of the two orthologs of ACOT (inside the
dotted jade green box). **B**, the violet red $F_{ST}$ peak is localized at the Z-chromosome within
the intron of gene BBOX1 (involved in fatty acid transportation across mitochondria
membranes) and a cyto-nuclear signaling gene TNP01. **C**, Illustration of the
mitochondrial carnitine shuttle in which the nuclear genes associated with chr 5 (ACOT)
and Z (BBOX1) differentiation were bolded. BBOX1 synthesizes carnitine (bolded),
which is essential to transport fatty acyl-coa (bolded) into mitochondrial matrix for beta-

oxidation. If not transported into mitochondria, the fatty acyl-coA can be converted back
to fatty acid catalyzed by ACOT. This illustration is a synthesis of existing illustrations
on carnitine shuttle (62, 63).
690
691

692
693　**Figure 4** Correlated distribution of ancestry proportion (0 = HEWA ancestry, colored in
694　turquoise; 1 = i-TOWA ancestry, colored in magenta) of mtDNA marker (**A**), and nDNA
695　markers (**B**-**C**) related to mitochondrial fatty acid metabolic on chr 5 (**B**) and Z (**C**).
696　There is significant correlation between mitochondrial and nuclear genetic markers after
697　controlling for genome-wide ancestry (Partial Mantel Test, $p < 0.05$).

698
699 **Figure 5** Climate principal component analysis of 26 climate variables from
700 ClimateWNA. (**A**) Climate PC1 and (**B**) PC2, in which HEWA (turquoise), i-TOWA
701 (magenta) and c-TOWA habitats are different. (**B**) Site mean mtDNA and candidate
702 nuclear marker ancestry is correlated with local climate PC2. (**C**)-(**D**), spatial distribution
703 of climate PC1 (**C**) and PC2 (**D**).
704
705 **Supplementary Figures**
706
707

708
**Figure S1 A**, Density distribution of absolute correlation coefficient of each SNP with
PC1 (yellow shade) and PC2 (green shade). **B**, There were more SNPs that are highly-
correlated with PC1 (yellow line) than PC2 (green line). **C**, **D**, Absolute correlation
coefficient between SNPs and PC1 (**C**) and PC2 (**D**). The horizontal red dash clines are
the mean. **C**, certain regions in chromosome 1A, 5, 18, 20, and Z are highly correlated
with PC1. **D**, SNPs are correlated with PC2 similarly across the genome (no obvious
peaks).

716
717 **Figure S2** Faststructure analysis with k = 1 to 6 of the 165 individuals collected from
718 HEWA, i-TOWA, Haida Gwaii c-TOWA, Valdez c-TOWA, and other c-TOWA
719 populations.
720
721
722
723

724
725

726
**Figure S3** The Weir & Cockerham weighted $F_{ST}$ among HEWA, inland and coastal
TOWA(green: Haida Gwaii, blue: Valdez, dark yellow: other coastal (OC) c-TOWA),
which demonstrates a gradient of differentiation from the parental populations (i-TOWA,
colored as magenta; HEWA, color in turquoise). Each double-head arrow represents a
pairwise comparison among the populations. The populations are oriented as their
relative geographical location. The widths of the arrows are weighted by the $F_{ST}$ between
each pair of populations. Surprisingly some c-TOWA populations demonstrates
significantly greater differentiation (paired t-test, $p < 0.001$) from the parental
populations than between the parental populations ($F_{ST} = 0.03$).

736
737 **Figure S4** $F_{ST}$ scan between HEWA and i-TOWA (grey) and between i-TOWA and c-

738    TOWA (black) across chromosome 1A. The strongest $F_{ST}$ peak (red dot) is concordant
739    between the two comparisons (grey versus black). Zooming in around this peak (blue
740    box), this peak is in the intergenic region between gene CHST11 and TXNRD1.
741

742
743    **Figure S5** Bar plots showing the mitonuclear ancestry association within Haida Gwaii
744    and Valdez c-TOWA populations (A, chr5 marker; B, chr Z marker).
745
746

747
748    **Figure S6** Geographical distribution of RALY ancestry.

749
**Figure S7** Dissecting climate PCA: **A**, biplot of PCA demonstrating loadings of the 26
climate variables in the PC space. **B**, **C**, histogram of variable loading for PC1 (**B**) and
PC2 (**C**). Most of the variables demonstrates strong and even loading along PC1 (**B**),
while there are 4 outstanding variables (highlighted in yellow, **A**) explaining PC2 (**C**):
Temperature Difference (TD), Climate Moisture Index (CMI), Mean Annual
Precipitation (MAP), Winter Precipitation (PPT_wt).
756
757

759   **Figure S8** Map demonstrating spatial variation of the 4 key climate variables explaining
760   climate PC2 (see Figure 7, S3): **A**, Winter Precipitation (PPT_wt), **B**, Climate Moisture
761   Index (CMI), **C**, Mean Annual Precipitation (MAP), **D**, Temperature Difference (TD).
762
763   **Table S1** Definitions of climate variables

| Column name | Variable abbreviation | Variable Name |
| --- | --- | --- |
| NORM_6190_AHM | AHM | annual heat-moisture index |
| NORM_6190_bFFP | bFFP | The day of the year on which FFP begins |
| NORM_6190_CMD | CMD | Climatic moisture deficit |
| NORM_6190_CMI | CMI | Climatic moisture index |
| NORM_6190_cmiJJA | cmiJJA | Hogg's summer (June-Aug) climate moisture index |
| NORM_6190_DD.0 | DD.0 | degree-days below 0°C, chilling degree-days |
| NORM_6190_DD.5 | DD.5 | degree-days above 5°C, growing degree-days |
| NORM_6190_eFFP | eFFP | The day of the year on which FFP begins |
| NORM_6190_EMT | EMT | Extreme minimum temperature over 30 years |
| NORM_6190_Eref | Eref | Hargreaves reference evaporation (mm) |
| NORM_6190_FFP | FFP | Frost-free period |
| NORM_6190_MAP | MAP | Mean annual precipitation (mm) |
| NORM_6190_MAT | MAT | Mean annual temperature |
| NORM_6190_MCMT | MCMT | Mean coldest month temperature (°C) |
| NORM_6190_MSP | MSP | May through Septermber previpitation |
| NORM_6190_MWMT | MWMT | Mean winter temperature |
| NORM_6190_NFFD | NFFD | number of frost-free days |
| NORM_6190_PAS | PAS | precipitation as snow |
| NORM_6190_PPT_sm | PPT_sm | summer precipitation (mm) |
| NORM_6190_PPT_wt | PPT_wt | winter precipitation (mm) |
| NORM_6190_SHM | SHM | ummer heat-moisture index ((MWMT)/(MSP/1000)) |
| NORM_6190_Tave_sm | Tave_sm | summer mean temperature (°C) |
| NORM_6190_Tave_wt | Tave_wt | winter mean temperature (°C) |
| NORM_6190_TD | TD | Continentality |
| NORM_6190_Tmax07 | Tmax07 | winter mean maximum temperature (°C) |
| NORM_6190_Tmin01 | Tmin01 | winter mean minimum temperature (°C) |

764
765
766   **Table S2** The loading of variables in the climate PCA sorted by their loading along PC1.

| Climate Variable | PC1 loading | PC2 loading |
| --- | --- | --- |
| cmiJJA | -0.21763162 | -0.161032306 |
| bFFP | -0.20625054 | 0.082056348 |
| PPT_sm | -0.20510277 | -0.197710506 |

| | | |
|---|---:|---:|
| DD.0 | -0.18472653 | 0.195940506 |
| MSP | -0.183508 | -0.248663084 |
| PAS | -0.1660562 | -0.234659637 |
| CMI | -0.1486023 | -0.311869513 |
| TD | -0.11435537 | 0.30417286 |
| MAP | -0.09633503 | -0.352869482 |
| PPT_wt | -0.03530235 | -0.371886563 |
| AHM | 0.14480557 | 0.251595965 |
| Tmin01 | 0.19581554 | -0.22437128 |
| SHM | 0.19978674 | 0.007101683 |
| MCMT | 0.20705781 | -0.195744433 |
| Tave_wt | 0.20859601 | -0.192174784 |
| EMT | 0.20990053 | -0.198261928 |
| eFFP | 0.2107584 | -0.150721133 |
| FFP | 0.21127471 | -0.117676014 |
| Tmax07 | 0.21473286 | 0.110168321 |
| NFFD | 0.21782119 | -0.126257635 |
| CMD | 0.22005085 | 0.076818851 |
| MWMT | 0.22507318 | 0.074770918 |
| Tave_sm | 0.22805563 | 0.066315194 |
| Eref | 0.23258512 | 0.008062124 |
| DD.5 | 0.23376903 | -0.011649806 |
| MAT | 0.23420797 | -0.106646542 |

767
768
769

773