

1 **Revisiting a classic hybrid zone: rapid movement of the northern flicker hybrid**
2 **zone in contemporary times**

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11

12 **Abstract**

13 Natural hybrid zones have provided important insights into the evolutionary process,
14 and their geographic stability/instability over time can help to disentangle the underlying
15 biological processes that maintain them. Here, we leverage replicated sampling of an
16 identical transect across the hybrid zone between yellow-shafted and red-shafted
17 flickers to assess its stability over ~60 years (1955-1957 to 2016-2018). Using a
18 plumage scoring approach that we validate with independent multispectral photography,
19 we identify a ~73 km westward shift in the hybrid zone center towards the range of the
20 red-shafted flicker but no associated changes in width. By integrating previous work in
21 the same geographic region, it appears likely that this movement has occurred rapidly in
22 the years since the early 1980s, prior to which the hybrid zone had remained stable
23 over the previous century. This recent, rapid movement may be related to changes in
24 climate or land management in contemporary times.

25 **Introduction**

26 Naturally hybridizing taxa have provided unique insights on the process of speciation
27 (Barton and Hewitt 1985; Harrison 1993; Harrison and Larson 2014). Hybrid zones,
28 geographical regions where differentiated taxa interbreed and produce hybrids, have
29 long-been described as “windows on evolutionary process” as they provide
30 opportunities to assess the outcome of recombination over many generations (Harrison
31 1990). Additionally, the geographic locations of hybrid zones can provide important
32 insights and movement of hybrid zones has been of particular interest in recent years
33 (e.g., as “windows on climate change” Taylor et al. 2015). Hybrid zones may move for a
34 number of reasons, including differences in population density of the hybridizing taxa
35 (Barton and Hewitt 1985), competitive advantage of one taxa over the other (Buggs
36 2007), asymmetric hybridization (Konishi and Takata 2004), or changes in the
37 environment (Taylor et al. 2015). Molecular methods have recently made it possible to
38 identify signatures of historical hybrid zone movement in the genome (Wielstra et al.
39 2017; van Riemsdijk et al. 2019; Wielstra 2019), but this inferred evidence of movement
40 does not always match results from direct resampling over broad temporal and spatial
41 scales (Wang et al. 2019). Although difficult to accomplish, repeated sampling of hybrid
42 zones over time remains the best way to definitively identify movement.

43 Here, we directly assess movement in the hybrid zone between yellow-shafted
44 (*Colaptes auratus auratus*) and red-shafted (*C. a. cafer*¹) flickers, a long-studied system
45 in ecology and evolution (e.g., Short 1965; Moore and Buchanan 1985; Wiebe 2000)

¹ The subspecific epithet of the red-shafted flicker is based on a term that is an extreme racial slur against Black Africans, particularly in South Africa. We include the official scientific name here, but purposefully refer to the flickers elsewhere only by their common names. We have proposed changing the name to *Colaptes auratus lathamii* (Aguillon and Lovette 2019), but this has not been officially accepted.

46 that has intrigued naturalists since at least the mid-1800s (Audubon et al. 1897).
47 Flickers are common woodpeckers widely distributed across wooded areas of North
48 America—red-shafted flickers in the west and yellow-shafted flickers in the east (Wiebe
49 and Moore 2020). These two forms come into secondary contact in an extensive hybrid
50 zone in the Great Plains that roughly follows the Rocky Mountains from northern Texas
51 to southern Alaska (Figure 1). Hybridization between the flickers is clearly visible due to
52 differences across six distinct plumage traits (Figure 1, Table S1), yet there is only
53 mixed evidence of assortative mating based on these traits—with no evidence in the US
54 portion of the hybrid zone (Bock 1971; Moore 1987) and weak but significant evidence
55 in the Canadian portion of the hybrid zone (Wiebe 2000; Flockhart and Wiebe 2007;
56 Wiebe and Vitousek 2015).

57 We assess movement of the flicker hybrid zone by comparing the spatial
58 transition of plumage characters between two sampling periods of an identical transect
59 separated by ~60 years (Figure 1 inset). Using geographic cline analyses, we estimate
60 the center and width of the plumage clines in the historic (1955-1957) and contemporary
61 (2016-2018) sampling periods. We then use approaches following Wang et al. (2019) to
62 evaluate changes in the cline center and width against neutral expectations. Finally, we
63 validate our plumage scoring approach using multispectral photography. Our previous
64 work has demonstrated the extremely low levels of genomic divergence between
65 allopatric red-shafted and yellow-shafted flickers (Aguillon et al. 2018) and we used their
66 extensive admixture to link the few differentiated regions of the genome that exist with
67 differences in plumage coloration (Aguillon et al. 2021). Thus, assessing patterns in the

68 plumage traits of flickers is a straightforward approach to understand hybrid zone
69 dynamics at both the phenotypic and genotypic level.

70

71 **Material and Methods**

72 *Sampling*

73 The most extensive study of hybridization and phenotypic variation in flickers was
74 undertaken by Short (1965), for which he collected specimens intensively along the
75 Platte River in Nebraska and Colorado from 1955-1957 (Figure 1 inset). This hybrid
76 zone transect for flickers (and those for several other hybridizing species pairs) remains
77 one of the most extraordinary components of the ornithological collection in the Cornell
78 University Museum of Vertebrates (CUMV). During the spring and summer of 2016-
79 2018, the CUMV replicated Short's sampling along the Platte River—revisiting many of
80 his original localities—to amass a modern-day transect of the hybrid zone. This was
81 additionally supplemented by banding individuals in 2016.

82 Henceforth, we will use “historic” and “contemporary” to refer to flickers sampled
83 from 1955-1957 and 2016-2018, respectively. We focus here on adults to avoid
84 confounding patterns due to immature plumage in juveniles. We include 252 historic
85 flickers (all vouchered in the CUMV) and 107 contemporary flickers (91 specimens
86 vouchered in the CUMV and 16 individuals that were banded, photographed, and
87 released) in this study (Table S2). We group the sexes together across all analyses
88 except for those on the malar stripe (the only sexually dimorphic character in flickers),
89 where we include only males (138 historic and 72 contemporary).

90

91 *Plumage scoring*

92 The flickers differ across six primary plumage characteristics (Figure 1): the eponymous
93 “shaft” (wing and tail) color, crown color, ear covert color, throat color, malar stripe color
94 in males, and the presence/absence of the nuchal patch (Short 1965). In brief, these
95 birds differ vividly in the shaft color (bright yellow in the yellow-shafted flicker versus
96 salmon red in the red-shafted flicker) and in the overall coloring of the face and head.
97 Hybrids can exhibit various combinations of the six parental traits, as well as colors
98 intermediate to the parental extremes.

99 We scored plumage characters of historic and contemporary flickers on a
100 categorical scale from 0 (pure yellow-shafted) to 4 (pure red-shafted) for each of the six
101 plumage traits following a protocol slightly modified from Short (1965; see Table S1 for
102 details); a method that has been used extensively within the flicker system (e.g., Moore
103 and Buchanan 1985; Moore 1987; Wiebe 2000; Flockhart and Wiebe 2007; Aguillon et
104 al. 2021). The main modification from Short (1965) is differences in our scoring of the
105 shaft color based on an increased understanding of carotenoid pigmentation,
106 particularly around orange shaft feathers (e.g., Hudon et al. 2017). We additionally
107 calculated an overall plumage hybrid index by summing across the trait scores and
108 standardizing to range from 0 to 1. This standardization makes comparisons between
109 males and females possible, as females lack the malar stripe present in males. All
110 scoring was conducted by S.M.A. to ensure consistency.

111

112 *Geographic cline analyses and hybrid zone movement*

113 To evaluate the distribution of phenotypic traits across the hybrid zone, we fit a series of
114 equilibrium sigmoidal cline models (Szymura and Barton 1986; Gay et al. 2008) using
115 the ‘nls’ function in R v.3.6.2 (R Core Team 2018), where we modelled the relationship
116 between locality (x) and hybrid index or trait score (y) to estimate cline center and width.
117 S is included as a scaling factor for trait scores that do not vary from 0 to 1. Confidence
118 intervals for center and width were calculated using the ‘confint’ function in R. We
119 repeated this process for both historic and contemporary sampling periods and
120 compared the results for the overall hybrid index ($S=1$) and individual phenotypic traits
121 ($S=4$).

$$y = \frac{S}{1 + e^{\frac{4(x - center)}{width}}} \quad (1)$$

122 We grouped samples based on sampling location (Figure 1, Table S3) and set
123 the start of the cline to the western-most locality sampled in the Rocky Mountains. To
124 estimate the distance of each locality from the start of the cline, we determined the
125 mean latitude across all localities and then used the ‘distm’ function in the geosphere R
126 package (Hijmans 2019) to calculate the distance each locality was from the start of the
127 cline along the mean latitude value, using the longitude of the locality and assuming an
128 ellipsoid shape.

129 We additionally assessed changes in the hybrid zone between the two sampling
130 points using the overall hybrid index in two ways following an approach taken by Wang
131 et al. (2019). First, to assess movement of the hybrid zone center, we used AIC to
132 compare the contemporary cline to a model using the contemporary data but with the
133 cline center fixed on the estimated historic center. This approach accounts for
134 uncertainty due to sampling error between the two sampling periods. If there was no

135 difference between the estimated cline centers for the two time periods, the fixed center
136 model would be expected to have lower AIC than the true model. Second, to assess
137 change in the width of the hybrid zone and see if selection is maintaining the cline, we
138 followed an approach developed by Wang et al. (2019) that leverages repeated
139 sampling of the same transect over time to test against the neutral diffusion model
140 (Barton and Hewitt 1985).

$$w_{t_2}^2 - w_{t_1}^2 = 2\pi\sigma^2\Delta t \quad (2)$$

141 Where $w_{t_2}^2 - w_{t_1}^2$ is the difference in cline width squares between the two sampling
142 points, σ is a measure of dispersal distance, and Δt is the number of generations
143 between the sampling points. We calculated the bootstrap distribution of $w_{contemporary}^2 -$
144 $w_{historic}^2$ by resampling with replacement and fitting clines over 100,000 iterations.

145 We used both realistic and conservative values to estimate the neutral diffusion
146 expectations from equation (2). For more realistic values, we used a σ of 100.7 km as
147 estimated by Moore and Buchanan (1985) using banding data and a Δt of 60
148 generations (i.e., 1 year/generation). For more conservative values, we used a σ of 30
149 km as natal dispersal is typically greater than 15 km (and likely much greater; Wiebe
150 and Moore 2020) and a Δt of ~33.3 generations (i.e., 1.8 years/generation; Milá et al.
151 2007).

152

153 *Comparison of plumage scoring with multispectral photography*

154 To assess the accuracy of our plumage scoring method, we additionally collected
155 multispectral images of the contemporary flickers, plus examples of allopatric individuals
156 (4 yellow-shafted and 8 red-shafted; Table S2). For complete details on image collection

157 and processing, see Supplemental Text S1 and Ligon et al. 2018. In brief, we
158 photographed each specimen from three viewing angles (ventral, dorsal, and lateral)
159 and under two conditions (all visible light between 400-700 nm and UV light between
160 300-400 nm). We then created standardized multispectral image files using the
161 micaToolbox (Troscianko and Stevens 2015) in ImageJ (Schneider et al. 2012), and
162 outputted values for each color channel (red, green, blue, UV) and luminance for each
163 of the six plumage traits, as well as the overall area for the nuchal patch.

164 We first compared the color channel and luminance values (for the crown, ear
165 coverts, malar stripe, shaft, and throat) and area (for the nuchal patch) to the distance
166 along the hybrid zone using linear regressions in R (Figure S1). We isolated image
167 parameters with slopes significantly different from 0 and fit equilibrium sigmoidal cline
168 models (Szymura and Barton 1986; Gay et al. 2008) as described above. S was
169 calculated as the average of the last three localities along the transect, and the sign of
170 the exponential function varied depending on the direction of the cline. Allopatric
171 individuals were included in this analysis by placing them 100 km past the start or end
172 of the cline. We calculated confidence intervals for the cline center and width for the
173 image parameters with well-formed clines and compared these estimates to those
174 obtained from the categorical plumage scoring approach.

175 Finally, we performed multiple regressions to directly compare the plumage score
176 with the image parameter values obtained from the multispectral photography. For the
177 crown, ear coverts, malar stripe, shaft, and throat we compared the plumage score to
178 the values for the four color channels and luminance. For the nuchal patch we
179 compared the plumage score to the area.

180

181 **Results**

182 *Westward movement of the flicker hybrid zone*

183 We detected a significant westward shift of the hybrid zone cline between the historic
184 and contemporary sampling periods for the plumage hybrid index of ~73 km (Figure 2A,
185 Table S4). The individual clines for the six plumage traits are broadly overlapping within
186 both the historic (Figure S2A) and contemporary (Figure S2B) periods, and we identified
187 a significant contemporary westward movement—similar to that seen in the hybrid
188 index—for three of the six traits (Figure 2B, Table S4). The cline center from the historic
189 sampling period did not fit the contemporary data (Figure 3A; AIC = -32.7 for the true
190 model, AIC = -6.6 for the model with the historic center), further supporting the
191 movement of the hybrid zone between the two sampling periods. However, the
192 bootstrap distribution of $w_c^2 - w_h^2$ (95% CI: -37,441, 90,116) was
193 significantly less than predicted by the neutral diffusion model under both realistic
194 ($w_c^2 - w_h^2 = 3,822,875 \text{ km}^2$) and more conservative ($w_c^2 - w_h^2 = 188,496 \text{ km}^2$) dispersal
195 distance and generation time values (Figure 3B), suggesting that selection has
196 maintained the narrow width of the hybrid zone.

197

198 *Concordance between multispectral photography and plumage scoring*

199 Geographic clines for the area of the nuchal patch and the red channel of the malar
200 stripe were the only image parameters that resulted in well-formed clines (Figure S3,
201 S4). Comparing the clines from these two image parameters with those from the
202 categorical plumage scoring approach resulted in a broad overlap in estimates for both

203 cline center and width (Figure S5, Table S5). Moreover, multiple regressions comparing
204 the plumage scores with the image parameter values were strongly significant for all six
205 plumage traits (Table S6).

206

207 **Discussion**

208 The hybrid zone between red-shafted and yellow-shafted flickers in the Great Plains of
209 North America was an important study system in the early development of ideas about
210 hybrid zone dynamics (e.g., Moore and Buchanan 1985; Moore and Price 1993). In this
211 study, we compared historic (1955-1957) and contemporary (2015-2018) samplings of
212 an identical transect across the flicker hybrid zone using a plumage scoring approach
213 (Table S1) that we validated with independent multispectral photography (Table S5, S6)
214 to assess changes over the past ~60 years. We detected a significant westward shift of
215 the hybrid zone center of ~73 km towards the range of the red-shafted flicker (Figure
216 2A, Figure 3A). In the historic sampling period, the cline center was ~208 km east of the
217 start of the transect (between localities 11 and 12 in Figure 1), while in the
218 contemporary sampling period, the center shifted to ~135 km east of the start of the
219 transect (near localities 5 and 6). Similar westward shifts were repeated separately
220 across all six phenotypic traits, although confidence intervals were non-overlapping for
221 only three (Table S4, Figure 2B, S2). This movement in the flicker hybrid zone differs
222 greatly from previous work done in the same region that instead found stability when
223 comparing samples from 1889-1968 and 1981-1982 (Moore and Buchanan 1985),
224 though they did not resample an identical transect. Although the range of years in the
225 early sampling period of Moore and Buchanan (1985) is quite large, 69% of their

226 samples are from the 1950s and later (see their Table 1). This broadly overlaps with our
227 historical sampling, but in contrast to our results, they did not find evidence for hybrid
228 zone movement. Thus, it seems likely that the movement we detected occurred in the
229 latter ~35 years between our historic and contemporary sampling points (i.e., after the
230 study by Moore and Buchanan 1985), which suggests the rate of movement has been
231 quite rapid: ~2.1 km/year since the early 1980s.

232 Similar to the findings in Moore and Buchanan (1985), we did not find evidence
233 of significant changes in the width of the flicker hybrid zone over our ~60-year sampling
234 period (Table S4). Using an approach that takes advantage of repeat sampling of the
235 same transect (Wang et al. 2019), we additionally were able to directly refute the neutral
236 diffusion model (Figure 3B; Barton and Hewitt 1985). Although these results support
237 some selective force preventing changes in the width of the hybrid zone, there is no
238 clear evidence for endogenous selection acting against flicker hybridization as would be
239 expected under a tension zone model (Barton and Hewitt 1985, 1989). To date, no
240 fitness consequences of hybridization have been identified in any part of the hybrid
241 zone (Moore and Koenig 1986; Wiebe and Bortolotti 2002; Flockhart and Wiebe 2009)
242 and there is no evidence for assortative mating in this part of the hybrid zone (Bock
243 1971; Moore 1987).

244 The flicker hybrid zone may instead be better described by an environmental
245 selection gradient model (May et al. 1975; Endler 1977), and in fact, has previously
246 been hypothesized as an example of hybrid superiority (Moore 1977; Moore and Price
247 1993). Under this model, if there is ecological change that moves the geographic area
248 where hybrids have higher fitness than parentals, there can be hybrid zone movement

249 to track this change. This movement could occur without associated changes in width
250 as long as the geographic area moves without expanding or narrowing. Thus, the rapid
251 movement of the flicker hybrid zone since the early 1980s may be tied to changes in the
252 environment (land management and/or climate changes). Environmental factors are
253 known to affect the locations of the Great Plains avian hybrid zones (Swenson 2006),
254 and intriguingly, similar westward movements have previously been documented in two
255 of these: the hybrid zone between the lazuli (*Passerina amoena*) and indigo (*P. cyanea*)
256 buntings (Carling and Zuckerberg 2011) and the hybrid zone between the Baltimore
257 (*Icterus galbula*) and Bullock's (*I. bullockii*) orioles (Corbin and Sibley 1977; Walsh et al.
258 2020). Similar westward shifts across three hybrid zones in the same ecotone is
259 suggestive of a shared driver, although it is difficult to disentangle the potential role of
260 different environmental factors (e.g., climate change from changes in land
261 management).

262 Our results underscore the importance of biological collections. We identify a
263 significant westward movement in the long-studied flicker hybrid zone that may have
264 gone unnoticed without repeat sampling efforts—something that is difficult to
265 accomplish without the long memory of collections. We hope that in another 60 years
266 additional sampling of this transect along the flicker hybrid zone will be undertaken and
267 provide further discoveries about the evolutionary process. In the meantime, future work
268 should investigate the cause of this westward movement and its relationship to
269 environmental changes.

270

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286 collect and study flickers in the 1950s.

287

288 **Statement of Authorship**

289 S.M.A. conceived the study, analyzed the data, and wrote the original draft of the
290 manuscript. S.M.A. and V.G.R. collected the data and revised the final manuscript.

291

292 **Data and Code Availability**

293 Datafiles will be made available on the Dryad Digital Repository upon publication.
294 Scripts for all analyses are available at <https://github.com/stephanie-aguillon/flicker-HZ->
295 movement.

296

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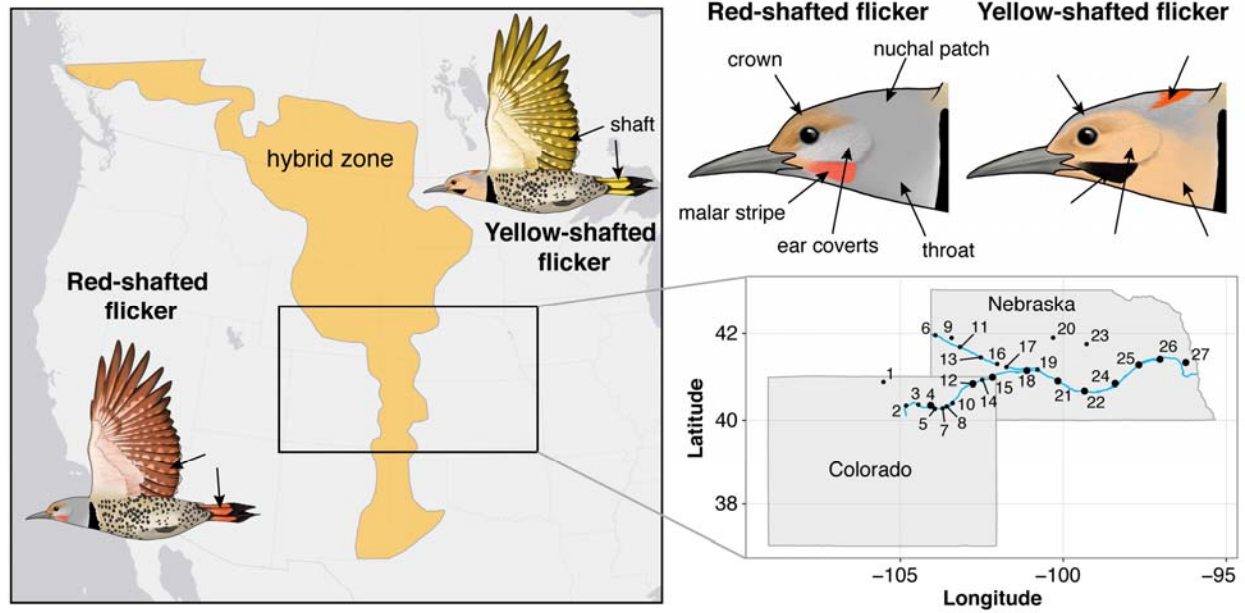
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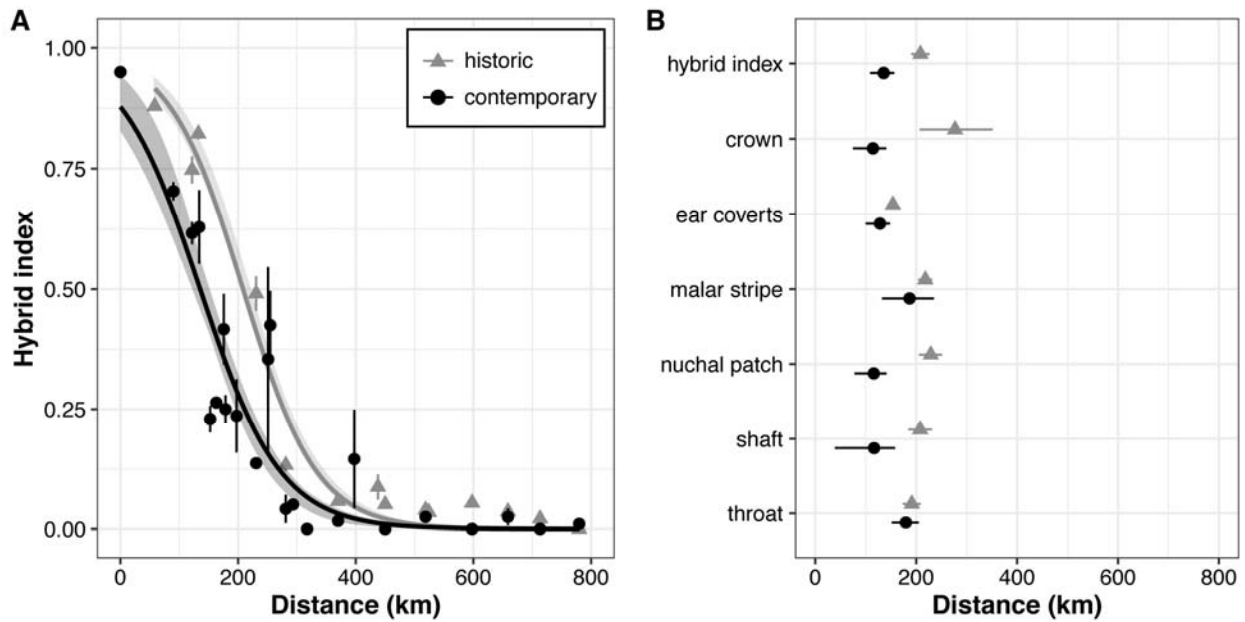
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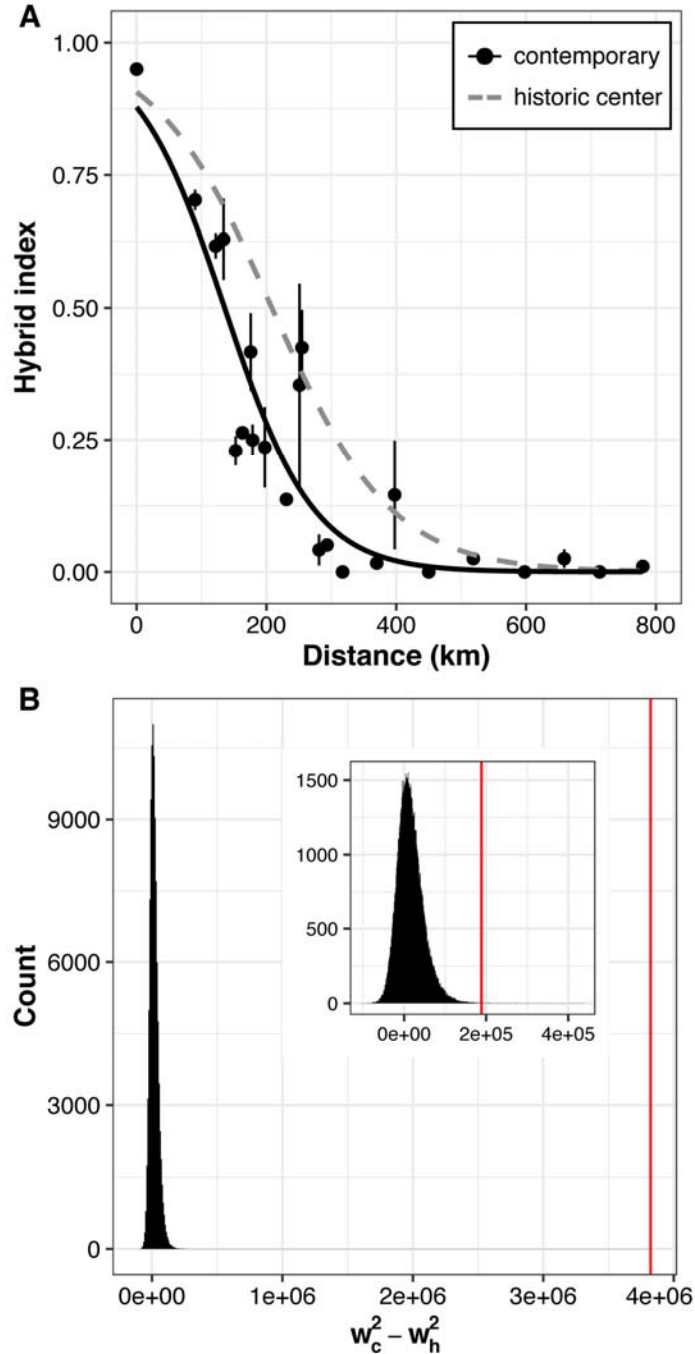
407 **Figure 1.** The geographic extent of the southern portion of the hybrid zone between
408 red-shafted and yellow-shafted flickers as estimated in Moore and Price (1993). The
409 inset map of Colorado and Nebraska depicts the repeated sampling conducted along
410 the Platte River with numbered sampling localities (Table S3). Larger points on the inset
411 map indicate localities that were sampled during both the historic (1955-1957) and
412 contemporary (2016-2018) sampling periods. The six plumage differences are shown
413 with arrows on the flicker illustrations (created by M. Bishop) and details are described
414 in Table S1.



415

416

417 **Figure 2.** (A) Geographic clines of the overall hybrid index as estimated for historic
418 (gray, triangles) and contemporary (black, circles) flickers demonstrate the ~73 km
419 westward movement of the hybrid zone in the ~60 years between the two sampling
420 periods. Points indicate the mean and standard error of the hybrid index at each
421 sampling locality and shading represents the 95% bootstrap confidence interval. (B)
422 Cline centers with 95% confidence intervals for the geographic clines estimated from
423 the hybrid index and separately for six plumage traits. Full model details are available
424 in Table S4.



425

426 **Figure 3.** (A) Comparison of the true contemporary geographic cline for hybrid index
427 (black line, circles) to a contemporary cline with the center fixed to the estimate of the
428 historic center (gray dashed line). Δ AIC indicates the true cline is significantly better,
429 further supporting the difference in cline centers between the historic and contemporary

430 sampling periods. **(B)** The bootstrap distribution of $w_{contemporary}^2 - w_{historic}^2$ of the hybrid
431 index cline is significantly different from the expectation (red line) under the neutral
432 diffusion model for both realistic (main plot) and conservative (inset plot) values of
433 dispersal and generation time, suggesting the hybrid zone has not widened to the extent
434 expected under neutral diffusion.

