Comparative phylogenomic patterns in the Baja California avifauna, their conservation implications, and the stages in lineage divergence

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Abstract

Comparative phylogeography explores the historical congruence of individual species

phylogeographic histories to understand the factors that led to their current genetic and

phenotypic structures. Various factors can result in currently co-distributed species exhibiting

different phylogeographic patterns. The Baja California peninsula and adjacent desert regions

provide several potential biogeographic barriers, which have left phylogeographic patterns in

some but not all species. We discuss data from bird species found in this region that are relevant

to understanding potential biogeographic barriers provided by the Vizcaino Desert. One goal is

to compare different sources of molecular data. We show that previous work using

mitochondrial markers and single-locus nuclear markers are concordant with similar analyses

conducted with genome-wide SNP data (genotype-by-sequencing (GBS) for four bird species

found along the Baja California peninsula and adjacent mainland, cactus wren, Gila

woodpecker, California gnatcatcher, and LeConte's thrasher. The cactus wren and LeConte's

thrasher show a concordant historical division at or near the Vizcaino Desert in north-central

Baja California, the Gila woodpecker appears to be at an intermediate stage of divergence,

whereas the California gnatcatcher lacks comparable phylogeographic structure. None of the

species we analyzed are classified taxonomically in a way that captures their evolutionary

history—with the exception of the LeConte's thrasher. The evolutionary division at the

Vizcaino desert is well known in other vertebrate species, and our study further corroborates the

extent and importance of this biogeographic boundary. The areas north and south of the

Vizcaino Desert, which contains considerable diversity, should be recognized as historically

significant areas for conservation.

1. Introduction

In theory, species existing over the same area ought to have experienced the same geological history and display concordant phylogeographic patterns (Avise, 1999). However, if some species are recent arrivals to the region, differ in their ability to disperse across biogeographic barriers, or possess different effective population sizes, then phylogeographic patterns might differ (Zink, 2010; Harrington et al. 2018). As a result, co-distributed species can exhibit shallow, strong, or no divergence across a common geographic area. Comparison of multiple co-distributed species, or comparative phylogeography, lends insight into factors that shape diversity (Bermingham and Moritz, 1998; Zink, 1996; Avise et al. 2016), and can help identify geological or ecological factors causing divergence, or the lack thereof. Furthermore, these comparisons can inform our understanding of speciation, because depending on the species concept, lineage divergence can be considered one and the same process. Baja California and the associated arid lands of North America have provided important areas for exploring comparative phylogeographic patterns (Scheinvar et al. 2020; Gamez et al. 2017). Many studies have implicated the existence of a mid-peninsular seaway at about the latitude of 27˚–30˚N, although the current patterns of annual temperature and rainfall do not suggest a discrete ecological difference at present (Fig. S1).

The avifauna of the Baja California peninsula includes species with contrasting patterns of genetic differentiation at a minimum of two biogeographic scales (Erickson et al. 2013), which present several testable hypotheses. For example, several differentiated avian taxa occupy the Sierra de la Laguna, isolated mountains at the southern end of the Baja peninsula, including the San Lucas robin (*Turdus migratorius confinis* or *T. confinis*), acorn woodpecker

(*Melanerpes formicivorus angustifrons*; Honey-Escandón et al. 2008), white-breasted nuthatch

(*Sitta carolinensis lagunae*; Spellman and Klicka, 2007; Walstrom et al. 2012), bushtit

(*Psaltriparus minimus*), and Baird's junco (*Junco bairdi*; Friis et al. 2016). The divergence of

these taxa is possibly a result of an isthmus ("La Paz") that separated the cape district from the

rest of the peninsula (Riddle et al. 2000; Dolby et al. 2015). Several studies have suggested that

these cape district endemics have their nearest relatives on the Mexican mainland (Friis et al.

2016; Spellman and Klicka, 2007; Honey-Escandón et al. 2008).

Another well-studied biogeographic gap is located at the approximate latitude of the

Vizcaino desert (Dolby et al. 2015; Fig. 1). Multiple avian taxa, including the LeConte's

thrasher (*Toxostoma lecontei*), cactus wren (*Campylorhynchus brunneicapillus*), verdin

(*Auriparus flavicepts*) and Gila woodpecker (*Melanerpes uropygialis*) appear to exhibit

phylogenetic divisions at or near the Vizcaino Desert (Zink et al. 1997, 2001; Vázquez-

Miranda, 2014; Vázquez-Miranda et al. 2017), a pattern found in many other species (Riddle et

al. 2008; Peterson et al. 2013). However, the phylogeographic breaks are not all consistent. For

example, Harrington et al. (2018) found a different genetic division in a rattlesnake, *Crotalus*

ruber, centered south of the Vizcaino Desert and they concluded there was secondary contact

with northward gene flow. These patterns also contrast with other species, such as the California

gnatcatcher (*Polioptila californica*), which prior data have shown shows no apparent divisions

across Baja (Zink et al. 2000, 2013). Thus, there are at least two testable phylogeographic

structures found in Baja California relating to the mid-peninsular area near the Vizcaino Desert

and the potential seaway that might have affected co-distributed species.

1. San Diego
2. Laguna Salada
3. Ensenada
4. Sierra Las Tinajas
5. San Felipe
6. Misión San Fernando
7. Cataviña
8. Isla Tiburón
9. Santa Rosalillita
10. Vizcaíno (Bahía Tortugas)
11. San Ignacio
12. San Javier (Rancho Monte Alto)
13. Ciudad Insurgentes
14. El Cien
15. La Paz
16. Rancho La Ballena
17. Sierra de la Laguna
18. San Dionisio
19. Todos Santos
20. Miraflores
21. Santa Anita
22. Cabo Pulmo

Figure 1: Location of samples north (darker/purple) or south (lighter/orange) of the Vizcaino Desert. Samples from elsewhere to the north and east not shown. Sample sites that appear to differ between species are shown as intermediate/gray.

Choice of molecular markers might influence the power of tests of comparative

phylogeographic hypotheses (Ballard and Whitlock 2004; Edwards et al. 2000). In the

LeConte's thrasher, Vázquez-Miranda et al. (2017) showed that 16 nuclear genes (nuDNA)

recovered the same history as that inferred from mitochondrial genes (mtDNA). Similarly, in

the California Gnatcatcher a dataset consisting of eight nuDNA loci corroborated earlier

phylogeographic findings using only mtDNA (Zink et al. 2000, 2013, 2016). However, it is

possible that few molecular markers and/or sampling biases (from using genes that have been

historically used in phylogenetic studies) might inhibit detection of relatively shallow

evolutionary divisions. Importantly, since the advent of population genomic technologies there

have been cases in which population-level genomic (single nucleotide polymorphism; SNP)

data have been used, both to confirm and reject work based on only a few loci (e.g., Pedraza-

Marrón et al. 2018; Pinto et al. 2019; Ramírez-Reyes et al. 2020). Thus, an open question is

whether genome-scale analyses will reproduce the same patterns identified previously in these

avian taxa from the desert southwest and Baja California.

Here, we report the results of genomic SNP data [genotype-by-sequencing (GBS)] of

geographic variation in cactus wren, Gila woodpecker, California gnatcatcher, and LeConte's

thrasher. In addition, due to its potential conservation implications, we generated an additional

dataset of restriction site-associated sequencing (RADseq) aggregating independent loci for the

California gnatcatcher. We present these new SNP data alongside previously unpublished

analyses of mitochondrial and nuclear genes for the cactus wren and Gila woodpecker. Our

main goal in this study is to identify if there are corresponding patterns in mtDNA, nuDNA, and

genome-wide data for these four main study species and exploring the biogeographic gaps at the

latitude of the Vizcaino desert (Riddle et al. 2008; Peterson et al. 2013) to understand where on

the path(s) of lineage divergence these species are at present.

1.1 Review of taxa and prior nuDNA loci and mtDNA studies

•   Cactus wren: Zink et al. (2001) reported a phylogeographic division at approximately

30˚N, based on a small amount of sequence (298 bp) from the mtDNA control region.

Vázquez-Miranda (2014) sequenced the mitochondrial ND2 gene (1041 bp, 9 individuals

north of and 10 south of the Vizcaino Desert) and 6 nuDNA loci (1 Z-linked, 5 autosomal;

3191 bp total, average samples sizes 10 individuals each north and south of the Vizcaino).

Analyses of these nuDNA data recovered the same phylogeographic structure (Fig. S2) that

was identified previously (Zink et al. 2001). The timing of divergence was estimated at 2.3

million years before present (Vázquez-Miranda, 2014). An ecological niche model for the

LGM distribution suggested two allopatric groups (Zink 2013) north and south of the

Vizcaino desert. Thus, for the cactus wren, previous results from the nuDNA loci and mtDNA

were concordant and showed a distinct phylogeographic split at the implied location of the

ancient mid-peninsular seaway (latitude 27˚–30˚N).

• Gila woodpecker: Vázquez-Miranda (2014) sequenced the ND2 gene (1041 bp) for 41

individuals north and 20 south of the Vizcaino Desert, one Z-linked locus (1044 bp; 54

individuals north, 32 south) and three autosomal loci (1866 bp; 54 individuals north and 32

south for Fib7, 6 and 8 north and 10 south for GAPDH and TGFB2, respectively). The

mtDNA gene tree (Fig. S3) of 61 individuals is nearly reciprocally monophyletic for samples

on either side of the Vizcaino desert (an individual (BCHVM097) from Cataviña occurs in the

southern group whereas four occur in the northern group); the two groups are separated by a

mtDNA distance of ca. 1% (Vázquez-Miranda, 2014). Of interest is the lack of differentiation

in the large area occupied by the "northern" group, spanning from just north of the Vizcaino

Desert to Arizona, Sonora, Zacatecas, and Sinaloa. The nuclear gene tree (not shown) also

supported two groups, albeit with relatively lower bootstrap frequencies, and an estimated

time of divergence of 150,000 years (Vázquez-Miranda, 2014). Thus, for the Gila

woodpecker, previous results from the nuDNA loci and mtDNA suggest a shallow

phylogeographic division in the vicinity of the Vizcaino Desert.

• California gnatcatcher: The California gnatcatcher is distributed from southern

California to the southern tip of Baja California Sur, and includes three described subspecies.

Zink et al. (2000) surveyed mtDNA sequence variation from 64 individuals (1399 bp)

throughout the range, finding no geographic divisions that were consistent with the limits of

three described morphology-based subspecies (Atwood, 1991) or any other geographic units.

Zink et al. (2013) found no geographic differentiation at a different mtDNA locus (ND2, 1041

bp), one Z-linked locus (529 bp), six autosomal introns (2331 bp) and one exon (506 bp).

Thus, for the California gnatcatcher, previous results from the nuDNA loci and the mtDNA

gene tree were concordant and showed no genetic structure that coincide with subspecific

designations of the California gnatcatcher or documented biogeographic breaks in Baja

California.

• LeConte's thrasher: This species includes three subspecies, although the populations of

T. l. macmillanorum are not considered valid by most authors (Sheppard, 2018). Zink et al.

(1997) showed that populations north (*Toxostoma l. macmillanorum* plus *T. l. lecontei*) and

south (*T. l. arenicola*) of the Vizcaino desert were reciprocally monophyletic in mtDNA

cytochrome *b* and ND6 sequences (619 bp). Vázquez-Miranda et al. (2017) sequenced the

ND2 gene (1041 bp), seven Z-linked loci (4311 bp) and nine autosomal (6572 bp) loci and

found the same split as reported by Zink et al. (1997) in both mitochondrial and nuclear gene

trees. The ND2 gene tree showed a 2.08% sequence divergence between the two clades, five

of seven Z-linked loci were fixed for one or two single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), and

one of nine autosomal loci showed a fixed difference (HMG, 2 SNPs). A minimum age of

separation of 140,000 years was estimated for the two groups (Vázquez-Miranda, 2017). The

predicted LGM distribution included two allopatric refugia (Vázquez-Miranda et al. 2017).

Thus, for LeConte's thrasher, previous results from the nuDNA loci and mtDNA were

concordant and showed genetic structure supporting the divergence between subspecies (*T. l.*

lecontei and *T. l. arenicola*), corresponding to the biogeographic break at the Vizcaino Desert.

2. Methods

2.1. NGS data

Genotype by sequencing (GBS) data for Gila woodpecker, cactus wren, California

gnatcatcher, and LeConte's thrasher were generated and assembled using UNEAK pipeline in

Tassel [v3.0.166] (Bradbury et al. 2007) at Cornell University. We received filtered SNP data

from Cornell in HapMap format and converted each to VCF using TASSLE [v5.2.70]

(Bradbury et al. 2007) and filtered to ensure that each biallelic SNP was present in ≥90% of

individuals. Subsequently, we removed individuals from each dataset that possessed too much

missing data for accurate downstream analyses: in cactus wren [COA36 (Coahuila),

BCHVM121 (Cataviña), and CONACYT417 (Jalapa)], in Gila woodpecker [two individuals

from La Paz, BCHVM160 and BCHVM189], in California gnatcatcher [BCHVM118 and

BCHVM223, Cataviña and Cabo Pulmo, respectively], and in LeConte's thrasher [B16584

(Bahia de Santa Rosalillita) and BCHVM147 (Vizcaino)], which brought the total amount of

missing data per dataset to <10%.

For RADseq data in the California gnatcatcher, we generated libraries using previously

published methods (Gamble et al. 2015). We first removed PCR duplicates using bbmap

[v38.79] (Bushnell, 2014), then demultiplexed and filtered raw reads using STACKS [v2.53]

(Catchen et al. 2013). We mapped reads to the Zebra finch genome (ENSEMBL,

bTaeGut1_v1.p; Rhie et al. 2021) using bwa-mem2 [v2.1] (Li and Durbin, 2009; Vasimuddin et

al. 2019) and assembled data using the ref_map.pl script in STACKS [v2.53], sampling one

random SNP per locus. We further filtered these data such that each RADtag was biallelic,

possessed a minimum read depth of 5, and was present in ≥90% of individuals. After

assembling and filtering both GBS and RADseq datasets into comparable VCF files, we

analyzed them in tandem for downstream analyses.

2.2 Population structure analyses, phylogenetic analyses, and ecological niche modeling

We examined the population genetic structure with each dataset using 3 methods; k-mean

clustering using fastSTRUCTURE [v1.0.3] (Raj et al. 2014), Principal Components Analysis

(PCA) using the R package, adegenet [v2.1.3] (Jombart, 2008), and phylogenies using IQ-TREE

[v 2.0.3] (Nguyen et al. 2015). We converted all VCF files to the fastSTRUCTURE file format

using PGD Spider [v2.1.1.5] (Lischer and Excoffier, 2012) and ran the program 5 times to

explore K=1-5 for each dataset. Next, we used the chooseK.py script (part of the

fastSTRUCTURE package) to identify a range of well-supported values of K and the R package,

pophelper [v2.2.6] (Francis, 2016), to visualize each potential value of K. To further examine the

genetic structure of these data, we used adegenet to conduct PCAs for each dataset. We

converted each VCF to a FASTA using VCF-kit [v0.2.9] (https://github.com/AndersenLab/VCF-

kit), filtered to include variable sites only using IQ-TREE, and constructed a maximum-

likelihood phylogeny while correcting for ascertainment bias (GTR+ASC) inherent with SNP-

based phylogeny construction (Leaché et al. 2015) to reduce phylogenomic distortion of branch

lengths and topologies (Zink and Vázquez-Miranda 2019) with statistical support from 1000

ultra-fast bootstrap (UFBoot) replicates (Hoang et al. 2018). Additionally, we estimated SNP

species trees under an appropriate multispecies coalescent model using single value

decomposition (Chifman and Kubatko 2014) in SVDQUARTETS as part of PAUP* [v4.0a146]

(D.Swofford, < http://people.sc.fsu.edu/ ~ dswofford/paup_test/>), with 1000 non-parametric

bootstrap replicates to assess branch support. Species tree methods allow us to estimate,

incorporate and review conflicts between gene trees (Vázquez-Miranda and Barker 2021). To

visualize SNP gene-tree agreement and disagreement we estimated "cloudograms" of our species

tree bootstrap replicates using PHANGORN (Schleip 2011) in R [v3.5] (R Core Team 2017).

Lastly, we calculated F_{ST} across all SNPs and all taxa from the vcf files in VCFtools (Danecek et

al. 2011) between clusters and clades to look at the distribution of levels of differentiation across

Baja California. In case of no geographic structure, we used the accepted taxonomy for

comparisons (Miller et al. 1957). We visualized levels of F_{ST} genomic differentiation using

"raincloud " plots in R (code adapted from B. Warwick

https://gist.githubusercontent.com/benmarwick/2a1bb0133ff568cbe28d/raw/fb53bd97121f7f9ce

947837ef1a4c65a73bffb3f/geom_flat_violin.R and C. Scherer

https://github.com/z3tt/TidyTuesday/blob/master/R/2020_31_PalmerPenguins.Rmd).

We constructed an ecological niche model (Peterson et al. 2011) for Gila woodpecker at

the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) and refer to similar models in Zink et al. (2013) for

California gnatcatcher, Zink (2013) for cactus wren, and Vázquez-Miranda et al. (2017) for

LeConte's thrasher. Methods for the new Gila woodpecker niche model followed those of Zink

(2013).

3. Results

3.1 Data description

The final, filtered genome-wide SNP data for each species were as follows: the cactus

wren GBS dataset contained 14,874 biallelic SNPs with 5.7% missing data; the Gila

woodpecker GBS dataset contained 25,512 biallelic SNPs with 4.3% missing data; the

California gnatcatcher GBS dataset contained 33,806 biallelic SNPs with 3.2% missing data; the

California gnatcatcher RADseq dataset contained 8,734 biallelic SNPs with 2.1% missing data;

the LeConte's thrasher GBS dataset contained 24,833 biallelic SNPs with 2.8% missing data.

3.2 Population genetic structure

Our fastSTRUCTURE analyses suggested the best value (or range of values) of K using

the chooseK.py script for each dataset are presented in Figure 2 and are as follows: for the

cactus wren GBS dataset, K=3; for the Gila woodpecker GBS dataset, K=1–2 ; for the

California gnatcatcher GBS, K=1–2; for the California gnatcatcher RADseq dataset, K=2; for

the LeConte's thrasher dataset GBS, K=2–3. We qualitatively corroborated the likely values of

K using PCAs for each dataset, especially those where a range of K values was specified

previously. For each dataset, we identified/confirmed the most likely value of K as follows:

cactus wren GBS (K=3), Gila woodpecker GBS (K=2; no outgroup present in this dataset),

California gnatcatcher GBS (K=2), California gnatcatcher RADseq (K=2), and LeConte's

thrasher GBS (K=3) (Fig. 2). Details of genetic clustering information is available for each

species/dataset in Supplemental Figures 5–9.

Figure 2: Sampling and phylogenetic structure of the four focal species of Baja birds: (A) Cactus Wren (*C. brunneicapillus*), (B) Gila Woodpecker (*M. uropygialis*), (C) LeConte's Thrasher (*T. lecontei*), and (D) the California Gnatcatcher (*P. californica*, GBS—left/RADseq— right)). Map dots show general localities. Color coordination between maps, phylogenetic trees, and structure plots indicate diagnosable geographic population structure that coincides with north (darker/purple) or south (lighter/orange) of the Vizcaino desert, Baja California. Gray in structure plots indicate a lack of diagnosable genetic clustering—outgroups are coded charcoal grey/black, if available. Black circles on phylogenies indicate well-supported nodes (UFBoot values ≥95). Bird illustrations by A. Gardner.

The ML phylogeny for each dataset possessed only a small number of well-supported

nodes (Fig. 2). However, these nodes we generally located deeper in the phylogeny indicating

that, if it were there, we would likely be able to detect deeper phylogenetic structure within

these focal species. Not all species have congruent distributions (Fig. 2) although samples for

most species overlap.

• Cactus wren: Samples of the cactus wren fall into two groups, California and Mexican

mainland, and samples from Cataviña southward; the samples from Cataviña sort out

paraphyletically at the base of the Baja cluster (Fig. 2).

• Gila woodpecker: In the Gila woodpecker, we resolved a complex structure within our

samples. Indeed, we resolved one poorly-resolved group of southern Baja samples with a

clade of northern Baja/mainland samples nested deep within (Fig. 2). These results correspond

with the predicted LGM distribution (Fig. S4) suggested two allopatric refugia.

• California gnatcatcher: The two datasets for California gnatcatcher failed to recover any

notable geographic structure (Fig. 2).

• LeConte's thrasher: In the LeConte's thrasher, there was a distinct division of

populations from the Vizcaino Desert and those to the north (Fig. 2).

Species-tree analyses (Fig. S5-9) were consistent with ML phylogenies (Fig. 2) but

showed 100% bootstrap support for all nodes and all taxa, except for Gila woodpeckers.

LeConte's thrashers and cactus wrens were sorted north and south, Gila woodpeckers in the

north were paraphyletic to those in the south, and California gnatcatchers were unsorted.

Consistent with little to no gene-tree conflict, all cloudograms showed the same topology as

ML analyses with no "fuzziness" representing alternate topologies. We detected gene-tree

conflict in Gila woodpeckers evidenced by its cloudogram's fuzziness, although northern

individuals tended to cluster with themselves separate from southern individuals.

We found a gradient of genomic divergence across all taxa. Following the population

structure and phylogenetic results, LeConte's thrashers and cactus wrens showed F_{ST} values

closer to 1.0 with many loci fixed between north and south, followed by Gila woodpeckers

with values >0.9. In contrast, F_{ST} values for California gnatcatchers (GBS and RADseq) were

closer to 0.0, with only a handful of SNPs passing the 0.75 landmark. The average F_{ST} -values

for those genome-wide SNPs were in descending order: LeConte's thrashers 0.20 (-0.08-0.48

CI); cactus wrens 0.18 (-0.08-0.44 CI); Gila woodpeckers 0.08 (-0.06-0.22 CI); California

gnatcatchers RADseq 0.05 (-0.05-0.15 CI) and GBS 0.04 (-0.04-0.11 CI).

Figure 3. The nature of lineage divergence and gradients of genomic differentiation. (A). The time course of lineage differentiation (de Queiroz 2007 and Leliaert et al. 2014). (B). Gradient distributions of F_{ST} values from genome-wide SNP comparisons between clades for sorted taxa, and taxonomy for unsorted taxa. Diamonds and dotted lines represent mean F_{ST} values and confidence intervals (CI), respectively. Bird illustrations by A. Gardner.

4. Discussion

4.1 Summary of phylogenomic results with disparate data

- Cactus wren: Previous results from the nuDNA loci and mtDNA were concordant and showed a distinct phylogeographic split at the implied location of the ancient mid-peninsular seaway (latitude 27˚–30˚N). Here, our GBS data are consistent with this hypothesis.

- Gila woodpecker: Previous results from the nuclear nuDNA loci and mtDNA suggested relatively weak phylogeographic structuring. Our GBS data suggest that northern Baja and mainland populations are nested within populations from southern Baja (Fig. 2). The division between this monophyletic northern group also lies at the implied location of the ancient mid-peninsular seaway (latitude 27˚–30˚N). The scenario of a northern clade nested within southern samples is most consistent with a northern dispersal/vicariance from a original southern Baja population.

- California gnatcatcher: Previous results from the nuDNA loci and mtDNA were concordant and showed no genetic structure that coincides with subspecific designations of the California gnatcatcher. Here, our GBS and RADseq datasets both support these hypotheses.

- LeConte's thrasher: Previous results from the nuDNA loci and mtDNA were concordant and showed genetic structure supporting the divergence between populations from the mainland and southern Baja (nominal subspecies: *T. l. lecontei* and *T. l. arenicola*). Here, our GBS data support this phylogeographic division.

Given concerns about the exclusive use of mtDNA, or small samples of nuclear loci (Teske et al. 2018, Drovetski et al. 2015) it is useful to investigate large samples of loci from

next-generation sequencing methods to test earlier results from less comprehensive methods.

Even if on average nuclear loci coalesce too slowly to capture very recent population fission

events, sampling thousands of loci provides the opportunity to discover loci with more rapid

than average coalescence times. In the species we examined, GBS and RADseq data show

consistency with results from mtDNA and single nuclear gene loci, all of which reveal

concordant phylogeographic gaps in LeConte's Thrasher, Cactus Wren, and Gila Woodpecker,

centered near the Vizcaino Desert, and the absence of genetic divisions within the California

Gnatcatcher. The weak separation of samples of Gila woodpecker north and south of the

Vizcaino Desert is consistent with the low level of mtDNA separation, and likely a result of the

differences in coalescence times of the two sets of markers (Zink and Barrowclough, 2008).

Although our genome-wide sample of loci from the GBS technique nonetheless represents a

small part of the genome, the congruence across molecular markers suggests that the recent

phylogeographic history of these species can be reliably inferred. Each species findings are

summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Summary of genetic results for species of birds in Baja California (references 1 – Zink et al. 2000a, 2 – Zink et al. 2013, 3 – Vázquez-Miranda et al. 2017, 4 - Vázquez-Miranda 2014, Zink et al. 2000b, 5 - this study, 6 - Zink et al. 2001, 7 - Benham and Cheviron 2019; 8 - Honey-Escandón et al. 2008), 9 - Walstrom et al. 2012, 10 - Friis et al. 2016.

Scientific name	Common name	Guild	Foraging	MtDNA Result	Nuclear Gene result	GBS result
Campylorhynchus brunneicapillus	Cactus wren	Insectivorous frugivorous	brush-ground	Split at Vizcaino (5,6)	Split at Vizcaino (5, 5)	Split at Vizcaino (x, 5)
Melanerpes uropygialis	Gila woodpecker	insectivore	trees, cactus	Split at Vizcaino (5)	No Structure (5)	Split at Vizcaino (x, 5)
Polioptila californica	California gnatcatcher	insectivorous	brush-tree	No Structure (1,2)	No Structure (2)	No Structure (5)
Toxostoma	LeConte's	Insectivorous,	ground	Split at	Split at	Split at

lecontei	thrasher	granivorous	Vizcaino (4, 5)	Vizcaino (4, 5)	Vizcaino (x, 5)

4.2 *Taxonomy, phylogeography and conservation implications*

Correct identification of units of biodiversity is imperative for defining sensible

conservation plans. With limited resources for species listed as threatened or endangered, it is

important that units identified for protection are evolutionarily distinct (Moritz, 1994). Although

most intraspecific divisions, typically subspecies, were based on aspects of the external

morphology, such as plumage coloration and size and shape, data derived from molecular

methods have become more accepted proxies for lineage independence owing to the fact that

their genetic bases and evolutionary transitions are understood. That is not to say that discrete,

concordant morphological differences should not be recognized taxonomically at some level,

such as for the spotted owl (*Strix occidentalis*) where morphology and genetics agree on the

validity of three species-level taxa (Barrowclough et al. 2005, 2011). In contrast, a large number

of avian subspecies were not supported by examination of the geography of mtDNA gene trees

(Zink, 2004; Phillimore and Owens, 2005). It is possible that significant geographic and

adaptive variation might be influenced by just a few loci and therefore previous techniques

could have excluded the pertinent loci (Toews et al. 2015). Thus, whether subspecies qualify as

evolutionarily independent taxa is unclear, and it is possible that their evolutionary validity is

supported by too few genes to be found by surveys of mtDNA or a few nuclear loci but might

be overcome by genome-wide SNP data such as those presented here.

The current species-level and subspecies-level taxonomy does not capture the

evolutionary diversity in the species examined here. LeConte's thrasher includes two distinct

evolutionarily groups that are consistent with currently recognized subspecies. In the cactus

wren, seven subspecies (Miller et al. 1957, Rea and Weaver 1990) are represented in the two

distinct evolutionary lineages (north: *C. b. couesi, C. b. bryanti, C. b. seri* [Isla Tiburon], *C. b.*

brunneicapillus, C. b. guttatus; south: *C. b. affinis and C. b. purus*). The phylogeographic gap

falls more or less in the middle of the range of *C. b. purus* ($29\,^\circ$ to $35\,^\circ$). For the Gila

woodpecker, our potential southern Baja California clade would be consistent with the

distribution of *M. u. brewsteri* ($28\,^\circ$ south to Cabo San Lucas), whereas the northern clade

contains individuals representing five subspecies (*M. u. uropygialis*, *M. u. tiburonensis*, *M. u.*

albescens, *M. u. fuscescens*, *M. u. cardonensis*) (Miller et al. 1957). Thus, the cactus wren and

LeConte's thrasher could each be considered as two species divided at the Vizcaino Desert,

which would acknowledge their concordant evolutionary histories with each other and the other

co-distributed taxa (Alvarez-Castaneda et al. 2014; Dolby et al. 2015). Certainly, taxonomic

revision will depend on the method and philosophy of species delineation (Cicero et al. 2021).

For the Gila woodpecker, it is possible that populations north and south of the Vizcaino Desert

could be considered separate species even though we did not find evidence of reciprocal

monophyly. However, it would be prudent to generate additional data to identify the root of the

tree more effectively before recommending specific taxonomic changes.

Originally thought to be conspecific with the black-tailed gnatcatcher (*P. melanura*) the

California gnatcatcher was shown to be morphologically and genetically distinct (Atwood 1988;

Zink and Blackwell-Rago, 1998). *Polioptila c. californica*, known as the coastal California

gnatcatcher, as delimited by Atwood (1991) was listed in 1993 (USFWS 1993) as threatened

under the US Endangered Species Act (ESA). Since this description, there has been a complex

and controversial history involving the subspecific taxonomy of the California gnatcatcher (for

review see: Skalski et al. 2008; McCormack and Maley, 2015; Smith et al. 2018; Vandergast et

al. 2019; Zink et al. 2000, 2013, 2015). In brief, over the past ca. two decades the status of *P. c.*

californica has been called into question using genetic and morphological data with varying

statistical power. Here, we show using two different genome-wide SNP datasets that the

California gnatcatcher is a single panmictic population. In particular, the distribution of F_{ST}

values (Fig. 3b) shows that, across its range, the California gnatcatcher is less differentiated

overall than other co-distributed taxa (i.e. Gila woodpecker, cactus wren, or LeConte's

thrasher). As stated by the Sesame Street crew in their famous song, "one thing is not like the

three others". Given that current taxonomy rates the latter three taxa as subspecies, it would

appear that given the genetic data derived from GBS and RADseq analyses that no taxonomic

recognition is warranted for the gnatcatchers.

4.3 Comparative phylogeography

Strong barriers to dispersal ought to create congruent patterns of divergence within

species whose ranges span them irrespective of different habitat and life history characteristics.

However, several factors can mitigate common responses to barriers, including dispersal

abilities, effective population size and species ecology. We also surveyed small samples of

additional species for mitochondrial ND2 (1041 base pairs) and found five species that appeared

undifferentiated (F_{ST} not significant) across the Vizcaino desert (California quail, *Callipepla*

californica, Bewicks, wren, *Thyromanes bewickii*, Black-throated sparrow, *Amphispiza bilineata*,

Spotted towhee, *Pipilo maculatus*, House finch, *Haemorhous mexicanus*), and four species that

were differentiated (Verdin, *Auriparus flaviceps*, California towhee, *Melozone crissalis*, Ladder-

backed woodpecker, *Picoides scalaris*, Ash-throated flycatcher, *Myiarchus cinerascens*) (Table

S1). Thus, in total there are six undifferentiated (those above plus California gnatcatcher) and

eight undifferentiated species (those mentioned above plus cactus wren, LeConte's thrasher, Gila

woodpecker, and savannah sparrow (Zink et al. 2005). Thus, it appears that if there was mid-

peninsular seaway that led to splits north and south of the Vizcaino Desert, it was (1) of

insufficient duration to affect all species that were co-distributed on either side at the time it was

present, (2) it was not a barrier to some species, or (3) some species rapidly recolonized either

the north or southern parts of the historic range once the seaway resided. Zink et al. (2000)

suggested that the California gnatcatcher was a relatively recent arrival to the coastal sage scrub

north of the Vizcaino Desert, having dispersed northward from a southern Baja California LGM

refugium. These, or other alternatives, require more and larger samples to distinguish. Lastly, our

data (Table S1) on small samples from the Sierra de la Laguna corroborate previous studies

(Honey-Escandón et al. 2008; Walstrom et al. 2012; Friis et al. 2016). Thus, there are at least two

major biogeographic breaks in the avifauna of Baja California.

4.4 *Stages in the process of lineage divergence*

The time course of lineage divergence passes through successive stages of polyphyly,

paraphyly, and—eventually—reciprocal monophyly (de Queiroz 2007; Leliaert et al. 2014). This

process can take a long time depending on effective population sizes. Our comparative

phylogenomic study shows a gradient of differentiation among co-distributed avian taxa across

Baja California. Thrashers and wrens have reached the point of reciprocal monophyly,

woodpeckers are intermediate and paraphyletic, and gnatcatchers are polyphyletic, and either at

the start of the process of lineage divergence or at an equilibrium maintained by gene flow. The

ultimate fate of these lineages will depend on many factors, including the strength of ecological

barriers, dispersal ability and effective population sizes. The stages of lineage divergence are

recognized taxonomically in different ways depending on subspecies and species concepts.

Vázquez-Miranda et al. (2017) suggested that the two groups of LeConte's thrashers have been

separated for 140,000 years and given the short geographic distance separating the two clades,

there has been ample time for introgression, of which there is no evidence. Thus, this species, as

well as the cactus wren, have achieved the status of phylogenetic species, whereas their status of

biological species is determined by a vote of the North American Classification and

Nomenclature Committee. Gila woodpeckers are at an evolutionary crossroads: they have

diverged north-south yet they still exhibit incomplete lineage sorting and/or gene flow. Whether

the California gnatcatcher will eventually reach the stage shown by LeConte's thrasher and

cactus wren is unknown, although there appear to be no biogeographic barriers that would

impede gene flow (other than geographic distance). These comparisons illustrate the relationship

between lineage divergence and speciation as an extended process (Avise and Nelson 1998;

Shaw and Mullen 2014; Stankowski and Ravinet 2021).

4.5 *Preserving areas of endemism in conservation planning*

Taxonomic resolution leads to recommendations for conservation planning. The Sierra

de la Laguna is recognized as the "Sierra La Laguna Biosphere Reserve" by the United Nations

(UNESCO, https://en.unesco.org/biosphere/lac/sierra-la-laguna) in recognition of its unique

biological diversity. Our results corroborate the distinctiveness of species in that area. At the

community level, our results are consistent with many other studies that reveal a significantly

differentiated biota south of the Vizcaino Desert, and in the event entire reserves were to be set

aside, genetic results could guide their delimitation. For example, the El Vizcaíno Biosphere

Reserve

(http://www.parkswatch.org/parkprofile.php?l=eng&country=mex&park=vibr&page=phy)

includes the southern clade of the LeConte's thrasher (*Toxostoma lecontei arenicola*) as well as

other species mentioned in this study. Such reserves are an excellent example of preserving

broad patterns of biodiversity.

4.6 *Conclusion*

In sum, we examined phylogeographic patterns in multiple avifauna distributed across

Baja California. We show that previous work using mitochondrial markers and nuclear markers

are largely concordant with similar analyses conducted with GBS and RADseq data for four

bird species found along the Baja California peninsula and adjacent mainland (cactus wren, Gila

woodpecker, California gnatcatcher, and LeConte's thrasher). Three of four species show a

mostly concordant historical division at or near the Vizcaino Desert in north-central Baja

California. For 12 other species, we found a roughly even number of differentiated and

undifferentiated species across the Vizcaino Desert—with no obvious explanations for the

difference. Thus, these data will help generate future taxonomic and biogeographic hypotheses

for how flora and fauna evolved across the Baja California peninsula in Mexico and inform

conservation planning.

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Author contributions

H.V-M. designed study, conducted fieldwork, performed laboratory work, analyzed data, and drafted an early stage of the manuscript. R.M.Z. conceptualized study, performed genetic analyses, conducted fieldwork, and wrote the manuscript. All authors approved the

manuscript for submission. B.J.P. conducted final genome-wide SNP analyses, wrote associated

sections, and helped write the manuscript.

Data Availability

All genome-wide SNP data used to generate the analyses and figures presented in this

manuscript is openly available after publication on Figshare at

https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.14368301. In addition, raw RADseq reads generated for the

P. californica (California Gnatcatcher) were submitted to the NCBI SRA under BioProject

PRJNA719408. All single marker mtDNA and nuclear loci used in this study are available on

GenBank under accessions MZ476275–476525 and localities available in Table S2.

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