

1 **Contrasting patterns of genetic admixture explain the phylogeographic history of**
2 **Iberian high mountain populations of midwife toads**

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30 Abstract

31 Multiple Quaternary glacial refugia in the Iberian Peninsula, commonly known
 32 as “refugia within refugia”, allowed diverging populations to come into contact and
 33 admix, potentially boosting substantial mito-nuclear discordances. In this study, we
 34 employ a comprehensive set of mitochondrial and nuclear markers to shed light onto
 35 the drivers of geographical differentiation in Iberian high mountain populations of
 36 the midwife toads *Alytes obstetricans* and *A. almogavarii* from the Pyrenees, Picos de
 37 Europa and Guadarrama Mountains. In the three analysed mountain regions, we
 38 detected evidence of extensive mito-nuclear discordances and/or admixture
 39 between taxa. Clustering analyses identified three major divergent lineages in the
 40 Pyrenees (corresponding to the eastern, central and central-western Pyrenees),
 41 which possibly recurrently expanded and admixed during the succession of glacial-
 42 interglacial periods that characterised the Late Pleistocene, and that currently follow
 43 a ring-shaped diversification pattern. On the other hand, populations from the Picos
 44 de Europa mountains (NW Iberian Peninsula) showed a mitochondrial affinity to
 45 central-western Pyrenean populations and a nuclear affinity to populations from the
 46 central Iberian Peninsula, suggesting a likely admixed origin for Picos de Europa
 47 populations. Finally, populations from the Guadarrama Mountain Range (central
 48 Iberian Peninsula) were depleted of genetic diversity, possibly as a consequence of a
 49 recent epidemic of chytridiomycosis. This work highlights the complex evolutionary

50 history that shaped the current genetic composition of high mountain populations,
51 and underscores the importance of using a multilocus approach to better infer the
52 dynamics of population divergence.

53

54 **Introduction**

55 Patterns of population structure and genetic divergence within species
56 primarily result from their evolutionary history and contemporary dispersal
57 capability, and these processes are in turn responsible of generating specific
58 phylogeographic signatures [1]. The description of these signatures return valuable
59 information on the mechanisms underlying spatial patterns of contemporary genetic
60 diversity and structure, and this knowledge can ultimately help in the conservation
61 and management of species and populations under global change [2].

62 Organisms with limited dispersal capacity and a typically allopatric type of
63 speciation, such as many amphibians, generally present complex genetic signals at
64 lineage borders resulting in reticulate patterns [3-5]. A number of mechanisms are
65 involved in the generation of reticulate patterns in phylogeography, among them
66 contact zones, hybridisation and introgression [6]. Such mechanisms, among others,
67 may result in the formation of discordant patterns of variation among genetic
68 markers (i.e. mito-nuclear discordances, e.g. [4, 7, 8]). As a consequence, these

69 discordances represent a powerful source of insights into the evolutionary history of
70 species.

71 Quaternary climatic fluctuations had a major impact on worldwide biotas and
72 organisms, reshaping the distribution of species and modelling their genetic structure
73 [9, 10]. In Europe, it is acknowledged that the Iberian Peninsula has served as one of
74 the most important refugia for temperate species during periods of climatic
75 instability [11]. Growing evidence has revealed that in this region, characterized by a
76 great variety of climatic and ecological conditions, multiple isolated refugia were
77 present, which promoted genetic diversification and ultimately determined complex
78 phylogeographic patterns in a number of taxa (the "refugia within refugia" scenario;
79 [11, 12]). In this context, Iberian mountain ranges played a major role in favouring
80 survival throughout the Pleistocene. The Iberian Peninsula has several mountain
81 ranges that permitted flexibility and survival of populations through altitudinal shifts,
82 allowing for movements up or down the mountains in search of suitable
83 microclimates as the temperatures changed [11, 13]. Nevertheless, there is a lack of
84 knowledge on the phylogeographic history of European species with Iberian
85 distribution to understand the role of glacial refugia throughout the different
86 mountain regions within Iberia [11].

87 The common midwife toad (*Alytes obstetricans*) is a small anuran widely
88 distributed in central and western Europe. It is a common species that inhabits a wide
89 variety of habitats between sea level and 2 400 meters above sea level (m.a.s.l.) in

90 the Pyrenees [14, 15]. Major threats to the species are related to habitat loss and
 91 fragmentation through pollution, commercial and agricultural development,
 92 introduction of non-native species, and more recently emergent diseases such as
 93 chytridiomycosis, which is caused by the chytrid fungus *Batrachochytrium*
 94 *dendrobatidis* (*Bd*) [14-16]. *Bd* has led to episodes of mass mortality in *A.*
 95 *obstetricans*, which is known to be highly susceptible to the pathogen [16-18].
 96 Furthermore, fatal outbreaks of chytridiomycosis in Iberia were more frequent at
 97 higher elevations [19].

98 *Alytes obstetricans* represents an excellent biological system to study
 99 phylogeographic patterns derived from post-glacial expansion, such as contact zones
 100 and hybridisation. The species shows strong genetic subdivisions in the Iberian
 101 Peninsula, indicative of past population isolation [20]. Until recently, *A. obstetricans*
 102 was defined by six divergent and geographically structured mtDNA haplogroups
 103 (named A to F; [20, 21]), delineating as many genetic lineages that probably
 104 interbreed in zones of secondary contact (Fig 1). Each of the six mitochondrial
 105 lineages corresponded to a unique nuclear microsatellite clade, except for lineage B
 106 that harboured two distinct microsatellite clusters [22]. More recently, the
 107 subspecies *almogavarii* (mtDNA lineages E-F) was proposed as an incipient species
 108 (i.e. *A. almogavarii*; [23]) by RAD-sequencing analysis, and mtDNA lineage E described
 109 as a novel subspecies (*A. a. inigoï*) [24].

110

111 **Fig 1. Geographic location of sampling sites for *Alytes obstetricans/almogavarii*.**

112 The three analysed mountain regions are circled in white. In the Pyrenees, dashed
113 lines delimit the three geographic sections (eastern, central and western Pyrenees).
114 For population codes and further information on sampling sites see S1 Table. The
115 inset map shows the distribution of the main lineages: orange - ND4 haplogroups E-F
116 (*A. almogavarii*), yellow - ND4 haplogroup B (*A. o. obstetricans*), blue - ND4
117 haplogroup A (*A. o. pertinax*), red - ND4 haplogroup C (*A. o. boscai*), green - ND4
118 haplogroup D (*A. o. boscai*), black - unclear (adapted from Dufresnes and Martínez-
119 Solano [23]).

120

121

122 Previous studies revealed a complex scenario of relationships and admixture
123 between lineages of *A. obstetricans/almogavarii*, evidencing the existence of contact
124 and hybrid zones at some lineage borders [20, 23, 25, 26]. Yet, there has been little
125 attempt on identifying the causes and consequences of such admixture.
126 Furthermore, none of these studies was specifically focused on high mountains,
127 which are well-known hotspots of genetic diversity and have been shown to play a
128 considerable role in separating well-differentiated intraspecific clades in numerous
129 species (e.g. [4, 27]). Here, we employ a multilocus approach combined with
130 comprehensive sample collection across four of the defined mtDNA genetic lineages
131 to analyse the geographical differentiation in *A. obstetricans/almogavarii*, placing

132 special focus on three high mountain regions in the Iberian Peninsula: Pyrenees, Picos
133 de Europa and Guadarrama Mountain Range. Specifically, we aimed to (1) describe
134 finer-scale geographical patterns of genetic diversity and structure in high mountain
135 populations of *A. obstetricans/almogavarii*, compare different scenarios of
136 population divergence and explore the role of glacial refugia; (2) identify putative
137 contact zones and assess patterns of admixture; and (3) better delineate the
138 geographic distribution of major genetic lineages. We also provide deeper analyses
139 on the genetic status of populations that have been hit by a recent chytridiomycosis
140 outbreak. To this end, we combined DNA sequence (mitochondrial and nuclear) and
141 microsatellite data for the first time in an *A. obstetricans/almogavarii* study. Thus,
142 herein we provide new insights on the recent evolutionary history and the present
143 processes that have shaped and are currently shaping Iberian populations of *A.*
144 *obstetricans/almogavarii*.

145

146 **Materials and Methods**

147 **Sampling and DNA extraction**

148 Sampling was conducted mainly in the period 2009–2018 across northern and
149 central Iberian Peninsula, as it is known to host most of the genetic diversity of the
150 species [20, 22]. We paid special emphasis on three mountain regions: Pyrenees,
151 Picos de Europa mountains (Cantabrian Mountains, NW Iberian Peninsula) and

Guadarrama Mountain Range (central Iberian Peninsula), although we also took some additional samples from neighbouring lowland localities (Fig 1, Tables 1 and S1). We sampled 51 sites in the Pyrenees (1010–2447 m.a.s.l.), 13 in Picos de Europa (1120–2079 m.a.s.l.), nine in Guadarrama Mountains (1527–1980 m.a.s.l.), and 32 sites in lowland areas (52–992 m.a.s.l.), totalling 890 individuals from 105 sampling sites (Table 1). Lowland populations were grouped according to their geographic proximity to the analysed mountain regions (Table 1). A subset of samples was used in a previous study [18].

Table 1. Genetic diversity parameters as estimated from microsatellites for each analysed mountain region and corresponding lowland areas.

	Alt.	N _{pops}	N	Na	Ar	PAAr	H _O	H _E	N _e	ND4 haps
Eastern Pyrenees	1010-2406	17	144	13.47	5.310	0.780	0.480	0.701	14-51	28(F)
Eastern Pyrenees – lowland	62-948	9	21	8.588	5.310	0.830	0.460	0.691	-	11(F)
Central Pyrenees	1211-2003	9	52	10.82	5.130	0.920	0.401	0.651	68	15(E), 4(B)
Central Pyrenees – lowland	567	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2(E)
Central-western Pyrenees	1043-2447	25	284	14.12	5.240	0.990	0.377	0.708	12-84	61(B)
Central-western Pyrenees – lowland	992	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1(B)
Picos de Europa	1120-2079	13	202	12.71	5.740	1.080	0.595	0.789	19-160	31(B)
Picos de Europa – lowland	464-928	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3(B)
Guadarrama	1527-1980	9	112	7.529	3.940	0.580	0.442	0.613	5-15	25(A)
Guadarrama – lowland	52-830	18	57	14.53	6.580	1.080	0.620	0.805	70	36(A), 2(B)

Alt. – altitudinal range, N_{pops} – number of populations, N – sample size for microsatellites, Na – mean number of alleles, Ar – allelic richness standardized for sample size, PAAr – rarefied private allelic richness standardized for sample size, H_O – observed heterozygosity, H_E – expected heterozygosity, N_e – range of effective population size, ND4 haps – occurrence and code (in parentheses) of mitochondrial ND4 haplogroups identified in each deme.

171 Tissue samples were collected via tail clipping in the case of larvae and toe
172 clipping in the case of adults. Samples were stored in absolute ethanol and
173 maintained at -20 °C. Genomic DNA was extracted using QIAGEN DNeasy Blood &
174 Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol, or
175 following the HotSHOT method [28], in a final volume of 100 µl for toe clips and 250
176 µl for tail clips.

177

178 **Nuclear and mitochondrial genes sequencing**

179 We amplified five gene regions, including four mitochondrial fragments
180 (cytochrome *b* gene – *cyt-b*; 12S rRNA gene – 12S; 16S rRNA gene – 16S; and NADH
181 dehydrogenase subunit 4 gene and adjacent tRNAs – ND4) and one nuclear gene (β -
182 fibrinogen intron 7 – β -fibint7). Details on primers used and amplification conditions
183 are provided in S1 Appendix.

184 Resulting sequences were aligned using the ClustalW algorithm in MEGA 7
185 with default settings [29]. Phasing of the nuclear intron β -fibint7 was performed
186 following Gonçalves et al. [20]. Briefly, we used the program SeqPHASE [30] to format
187 the input files, and the Bayesian algorithm implemented in PHASE 2.1.1 [31, 32] to
188 infer phased haplotypes. PHASE was run three times using default values, to check
189 for consistency of haplotype estimation across runs.

190

191 **Microsatellite screening and estimation of genetic diversity**

192 878 individuals from 102 localities were screened for 17 previously
193 characterised microsatellite loci combined in five multiplexes [21]. Fragments were
194 sized with LIZ-500 size standard and binned using Geneious 11.0.5 [33].

195 The presence of potential scoring errors, large allele dropout and null alleles
196 was tested using MICRO-CHECKER 2.2.3 [34]. We tested for linkage disequilibrium
197 between loci and for departures from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) in each
198 population and for each locus using GENEPOP 4.2 [35]. The Bonferroni correction was
199 applied to adjust for multiple comparisons ($\alpha = 0.05$; [36]).

200 Genetic diversity parameters were calculated for populations with \geq five
201 genotyped individuals and for each analysed mountain region and corresponding
202 lowland areas. Observed (H_o) and expected heterozygosity (H_e) and mean number of
203 alleles (N_a) were obtained with GenAlEx 6.5 [37]. Allelic richness (Ar) standardized for
204 sample size and rarefied private allelic richness (PAAr – calculated only at the genetic
205 cluster level) were calculated in HP-RARE 1.1 [38]. We estimated the inbreeding
206 coefficient (F_{IS}) within each population with GENETIX 4.05.2 [39].

207

208 **Phylogenetic analyses**

209 For ND4, we estimated genealogic relationships among haplotypes using
210 Haploviewer [40]. The optimal nucleotide-substitution model was determined by

211 jModelTest 2.1.3 [41], under the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). The phylogeny
212 was estimated with RAxML 7.7.1 [42] using a Maximum Likelihood (ML) approach.
213 The program was run with a gamma model of rate heterogeneity and no invariant
214 sites (GTRGAMMA), applying 1 000 bootstrap replicates. The best tree was selected
215 for haplotype network construction in Haploviewer, based on all sequences retrieved
216 from GenBank and this study. Furthermore, genetic diversity parameters, namely
217 number of haplotypes (H) and polymorphic sites (S), as well as haplotype (Hd) and
218 nucleotide (Π) diversity indices, were estimated for the whole dataset and for each
219 analysed mountain region and corresponding lowland areas using DnaSP 6.11.01
220 [43].

221 In order to describe the affinities of the different genetic lineages described in
222 *A. obstetricans/almogavarii*, we constructed a species tree with the five partially
223 sequenced genes using the multispecies coalescent approach in *BEAST, as
224 implemented in BEAST 2.6.2 (S1 Fig) [44]. The substitution model for each marker
225 was determined by jModelTest. We set a strict molecular clock model and a Yule
226 speciation prior. The clock and tree models for mtDNA markers were linked. We
227 defined five groups in *A. obstetricans/almogavarii*, corresponding to the four main
228 population lineages identified in the haplotype network (A, B, E, F) and further
229 subdividing lineage B into two groups (central-western Pyrenees and Picos de
230 Europa; see Results). Since *BEAST does not take into account the possibility of gene
231 flow between lineages, samples from localities where more than one mtDNA

haplogroup was found were excluded from the analysis [20]. Samples of *A. maurus* were used as outgroup. Two independent MCMC chains were run for 200 million generations each, sampling trees and parameter estimates every 5 000. Tracer 1.6 [45] was used to check for stationarity and convergence of MCMC chains. A maximum clade credibility tree was constructed in TreeAnnotator 2.6.2 and visualized using FigTree 1.4.3 (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree>), discarding the first 10% generations as burn-in, while the node heights were set to mean heights.

Genetic structure

For microsatellites, population structure was inferred using different approaches (S1 Fig): a) a Discriminant Analysis of Principal Components (DAPC) and a Principal Component Analysis (PCA), using the ADEGENET package 2.1.1 [46] in R 3.5.1 [47]; b) a Bayesian cluster analysis implemented in STRUCTURE 2.3.4 [48]; c) a neighbour-joining (NJ) tree using the program POPTREEW [49]; and d) a spatial-based clustering approach implemented in the R package Tess3R 1.1.0 [50], which incorporates geographic coordinates in estimating sample ancestry coefficients. Details on models and parameters used are outlined in S1 Appendix.

To further explore the genetic differentiation between the defined genetic units, we calculated pairwise F_{ST} for both ND4 and microsatellites. Computations were performed in Arlequin 3.5.2.2 [51] in the case of ND4 and in GenAlEx in the case

253 of microsatellites, with 1 000 permutations to assess statistical significance. Similarly,
254 to partition genetic variability at different hierarchical levels (among genetic clades,
255 among populations within clades and within populations), we conducted an analysis
256 of molecular variance (AMOVA) as implemented in Arlequin, using 10 000
257 permutations to assess significance of variance components [52]. To better
258 understand the spatial pattern of population differentiation detected in the Pyrenees
259 (see Results), we correlated genetic distances (F_{ST}) of Pyrenean populations either
260 with the Euclidean distance among populations, and with the geographic distance
261 suggested by PCA analysis, which followed a ring-like pattern around the Pyrenean
262 chain assuming no direct gene flow across the central Pyrenean axis (see e.g. [53] for
263 a similar approach). The analysis was performed in GenAlEx with 1 000 permutations,
264 including only populations with \geq five genotyped individuals ($N = 29$).

265

266 **Effective population size**

267 The sibship assignment method implemented in Colony 2.0.6.5 was used to
268 calculate the effective population size (N_e) of populations with ≥ 15 genotyped
269 individuals (S1 Fig) [54]. This software uses a maximum likelihood method to conduct
270 parentage and sibship inference to estimate N_e and can accommodate null alleles and
271 other genotyping errors. The program was run with the parameters specified in
272 Lucati et al. [55]. During sampling care was taken to minimize the effects of sampling

273 individuals belonging to the same clutch, by collecting samples from several spots
274 within the same sampling site.

275

276 **Demographic history**

277 The approximate Bayesian computation (ABC) approach, as implemented in
278 the software DIYABC 2.1.0 [56], was used to reconstruct the history of divergence
279 among the genetic lineages identified in *A. obstetricans/almogavarii*. Only high
280 mountain populations were included in the analysis, as we were interested in
281 understanding the evolutionary history of the three high mountain areas described
282 above (S1 Fig). We grouped populations into five groups according to their
283 geographic location. We also incorporated the information from previous studies
284 dealing with the phylogenetics and population structure of the different subspecies,
285 which point to a shared origin between populations from the central and eastern
286 Pyrenees (mitochondrial ND4 haplogroups E and F in Gonçalves et al. [20] and
287 microsatellite clusters F1n and F2n in Maia-Carvalho et al. [22]): populations from the
288 Picos de Europa mountains (PEU) and the central-western Pyrenees (CWPY;
289 corresponding to subspecies *A. o. obstetricans*) formed two separate groups,
290 whereas populations from the central Pyrenees (CPY), eastern Pyrenees (EPY;
291 corresponding to the putative incipient species *A. almogavarii*) and Guadarrama
292 Mountains (GUA; corresponding to subspecies *A. o. pertinax*) were subdivided into
293 three groups. We generated five different scenarios (Fig 2a): (1) null model with all

294 groups diverging simultaneously from a common ancestor, except for lineage CPY
 295 that originates from EPY; (2) sequential splitting model directly following results from
 296 STRUCTURE and DAPC analyses, where on the one hand populations from the
 297 Pyrenees, and on the other GUA and PEU populations share a common origin; (3)
 298 similar to the second one, but predicts a common origin of PEU and CWPY
 299 populations, as suggested by ND4 haplotype network; (4) same as the previous
 300 scenario, with a common origin between populations belonging to ND4 haplogroups
 301 A and B, as suggested by *BEAST analysis; and (5) where the PEU lineage was created
 302 by admixture of CWPY and GUA populations. We performed the computations both
 303 combining microsatellites and ND4 data, and separately for microsatellites. Further
 304 details on model specifications and run parameters are outlined in S1 Appendix and
 305 S2 Table.

306

307 **Fig 2. Phylogeographic scenarios tested in DIYABC and best supported models.** (a)
 308 Scenarios tested in DIYABC considering the three analysed high mountain areas. (b)
 309 The best supported scenarios, namely number 2 when considering only
 310 microsatellites and number 5 when considering both mtDNA (ND4) and microsatellite
 311 markers, with the estimated divergence times ($t_1 - t_3$) of each split. Population
 312 groups were defined on the basis of their geographic distribution and the results
 313 from clustering analyses: eastern Pyrenees (EPY, orange), central Pyrenees (CPY,

grey), central-western Pyrenees (CWPY, pink), Picos de Europa mountains (PEU, yellow), and Guadarrama Mountain Range (GUA, blue).

316

317 Results

318 Sequence variation and genetic diversity

319 The nuclear DNA alignment (β -fibint7) included 20 sequences of 605 bp, while
320 for the mitochondrial dataset we obtained 219 sequences of 654 bp for ND4, 40
321 sequences of 325 bp for *cyt-b*, 42 sequences of 341 bp for 12S, and 40 sequences of
322 579 bp for 16S (S1 Table). With regard to ND4, overall haplotype (H_d) and nucleotide
323 (Π) diversities were 0.930 ± 0.008 and 0.020 ± 0.0008 , respectively. Across the
324 analysed mountain regions, Guadarrama Mountains showed lower ND4 genetic
325 diversity values ($H_d = 0.290 \pm 0.109$, $\Pi = 0.001 \pm 0.0002$) compared to the other
326 regions (eastern Pyrenees: $H_d = 0.770 \pm 0.039$, $\Pi = 0.002 \pm 0.0003$; central Pyrenees:
327 $H_d = 0.724 \pm 0.101$, $\Pi = 0.014 \pm 0.003$; central-western Pyrenees: $H_d = 0.805 \pm 0.027$,
328 $\Pi = 0.002 \pm 0.0002$; Picos de Europa: $H_d = 0.602 \pm 0.091$, $\Pi = 0.003 \pm 0.001$).

329 For microsatellite loci, we did not find evidence of large allele dropout,
330 stuttering or null allele artefacts. Similarly, no significant linkage disequilibrium or
331 departures from HWE across populations and loci were detected after applying the
332 Bonferroni correction. Observed (H_o) and expected heterozygosity (H_e) ranged from
333 0.197 to 0.794 and from 0.222 to 0.720, respectively (mean $H_o = 0.473$, mean $H_e =$

0.530; S1 Table). Mean number of alleles (N_a) and allelic richness (Ar) varied from 2.059 to 7.824 and from 1.270 to 5.620, respectively (mean N_a = 4.440, mean Ar = 1.873), and the inbreeding coefficient (F_{IS}) ranged from -0.110 to 0.403 (mean = 0.157). Among the analysed mountain regions, Picos de Europa and the eastern Pyrenees were the richest regions in terms of genetic diversity, whereas Guadarrama Mountains was the poorest, with the central and central-western Pyrenees presenting intermediate values (Table 1). With regard to lowland areas, populations located in the Duero and Ebro basins (herein referred to as Guadarrama lowland localities) were the most diverse, while eastern Pyrenean localities were the least diverse.

344

345 **Phylogenetic analyses**

From the 219 individuals analysed for the ND4 gene we identified 34 haplotypes, of which 22 are newly described (Fig 3, S1 Table). Haplotypes were defined by 61 polymorphic sites, of which 49 were parsimony informative. The majority of newly described haplotypes were found in the Pyrenees (13), whereas only three and one haplotypes were detected in Picos de Europa and Guadarrama Mountains, respectively; the remaining five haplotypes were found in lowland localities. The haplotype network showed that haplotypes clustered into four well-differentiated haplogroups with a strong association with geography (Figs 3 and S2a): haplogroup A included sequences from Guadarrama and corresponding lowland

355 areas (corresponding to populations of *A. o. pertinax*), haplogroup F included
356 sequences from the eastern Pyrenees (corresponding to populations of *A.*
357 *almogavarii*), haplogroup E corresponded to populations from the central Pyrenees
358 (*A. a. inigoi*), and haplogroup B (corresponding to populations of *A. o. obstetricans*)
359 included sequences from the central-western Pyrenees and Picos de Europa. Within
360 haplogroup B, sequences corresponding to central-western Pyrenean populations
361 were clearly separated from those from Picos de Europa. In addition, in four localities
362 we detected the presence of more than one haplogroup (Figs 3 and S2a, S1 Table):
363 haplogroups A and B were found to co-occur in population Fte. Nueva de Bardales
364 (T2), whereas both haplogroups B and E were found in populations Plano de Igüer
365 (PI), Balsa Pertacua (BP) and Ibón de los Asnos (61XR).

366

367 **Fig 3. Haplotype network of ND4 sequences analysed in *Alytes***

368 *obstetricans/almogavarii*. Each circle represents a unique haplotype and the circle
369 area is proportional to the number of sequences of a given haplotype. Blue dots
370 correspond to inferred unsampled haplotypes. Sequences depicted in white were
371 retrieved from GenBank. The analysed high mountain regions and corresponding
372 lowland areas are indicated by different colours: eastern Pyrenees (EPY, orange),
373 central Pyrenees (CPY, grey), central-western Pyrenees (CWPY, pink), Picos de Europa
374 mountains (PEU, yellow), and Guadarrama Mountain Range and corresponding
375 lowland areas (GUA, blue).

376

377 In order to describe the affinities between the different haplogroups, we built
378 a consensus tree with the five sequenced gene fragments using a multispecies
379 coalescent approach (species tree; *BEAST). The tree placed lineage E at the base of
380 the *A. obstetricans/almogavarii* lineages, with lineage A as sister to lineage B. Finally,
381 lineage B split into central-western Pyrenees and Picos de Europa groups (S3 Fig).

382

383 **Genetic structure and effective population sizes**

384 All the clustering analyses performed on microsatellites recovered congruent
385 results (Figs 4, 5 and S2). Regarding DAPC analysis, the optimum number of clusters
386 was inferred to be 7 (Figs 4c, S2b and S4b). The inferred clusters were consistent with
387 the geographic location of populations. A closer look from $K = 2$ to $K = 7$ revealed a
388 spatial hierarchical genetic structure (S4a Fig), with a first split between the central-
389 western Pyrenees and all other populations, and a subsequent subdivision of this
390 second group into central Pyrenees—eastern Pyrenees and Guadarrama and
391 corresponding lowland populations—Picos de Europa. At $K = 4$, populations from the
392 Guadarrama Mountain Range split from lowland populations located in the Duero
393 and Ebro basins and Picos de Europa Mountains, whereas at $K = 5$ there was a split
394 between the central and eastern Pyrenees. The following splits occurred within the
395 central-western Pyrenean group. According with DAPC analysis, the PCA grouped
396 populations according to their geographic distribution rather than by described

397 subspecies (Fig 4d). PC1 separated the Pyrenees from the Picos de Europa and
398 Guadarrama, whereas PC2 distributed Pyrenean populations along the Pyrenean
399 chain and contributed to the separation of the Picos de Europa and Guadarrama.
400 STRUCTURE analysis showed patterns of genetic differentiation similar to those
401 inferred by PCA, and identified $K = 2$ as the best clustering solution (Figs 4a and S5):
402 the first cluster grouped together all Pyrenean populations and the second cluster
403 included peninsular ones. A smaller peak was detected at $K = 7$ (Fig 4a, 5 and S5b), in
404 agreement with DAPC-inferred clusters, but segregating populations located in the
405 Duero and Ebro basins from Guadarrama Mountains, while splitting central-western
406 Pyrenean populations into two groups. This partitioning into seven clusters was also
407 supported by results of Tess3R analyses (S6 Fig). Furthermore, a higher level of
408 genetic admixture was detected in lowland populations than in highland populations
409 (Figs 5 and S6). More into detail, lowland *A. o. pertinax* populations generally
410 presented the highest degree of admixture, whereas in the Pyrenees moderate levels
411 of admixture were detected between *A. almogavarii* lineage E and *A. obstetricans* in
412 the west, as well as between the two *A. obstetricans* lineages, but not between the
413 two *A. almogavarii* lineages (Fig 5). In order to describe the segregation history
414 amongst the seven groups identified by STRUCTURE, we built a NJ tree based on net
415 nucleotide distances: the tree started at $K = 3$ with the separation of Guadarrama and
416 corresponding lowland populations from Picos de Europa and the Pyrenees, then at K
417 $= 4$ populations from the central and eastern Pyrenees split from central-western

418 Pyrenean populations, whereas the following splits occurred within the different
419 major groups (Fig 4b). We also built a second NJ tree inferred from microsatellite-
420 based D_A distances over all populations that identified five discrete lineages, which
421 match with ND4-inferred lineages, except that populations included in haplogroup B
422 formed two separate groups (S2d and S7 Figs). Nevertheless, the tree suggested that
423 the pairs of lineages central Pyrenees–eastern Pyrenees and Guadarrama–Picos de
424 Europa were more closely related with each other than with the lineage of central-
425 western Pyrenees, which in turn appeared more distant from the rest of the lineages.

426

427 **Fig 4. Results of clustering analyses of *Alytes obstetricans/almogavarii* populations**
428 **based on microsatellite data.** (a) STRUCTURE barplots of membership assignment for $K =$
429 2 and $K = 7$. Each individual is represented by a vertical bar corresponding to the
430 assignment probabilities to the K cluster. White lines separate populations and black lines
431 separate clusters. (b) Neighbour-joining tree based on net nucleotide distances among
432 the seven clusters inferred by STRUCTURE. Arrows indicate the sequence of
433 differentiation when K increases. (c) Summary plot from Discriminant Analysis of Principal
434 Components (DAPC) for $K = 7$ genetic clusters. Dots represent individuals and genetic
435 clusters are shown as inertia ellipses. (d) Plot obtained in the Principal Component
436 Analysis (PCA). Each dot represents one individual. Labels indicate the different genetic
437 clusters: eastern Pyrenees (EPY, orange), central Pyrenees (CPY, grey), central-western

438 Pyrenees (CWPY, pink), Picos de Europa mountains (PEU, yellow), and Guadarrama
439 Mountain Range (GUA, blue).

440

441 **Fig 5. Results of Bayesian clustering analysis (STRUCTURE) for K = 7 microsatellite**
442 **groups for *Alytes obstetricans/almogavarii*.** Sampled populations are represented by
443 pie charts highlighting the population cluster membership obtained in STRUCTURE.
444 The inset map shows the distribution of the main lineages: orange - ND4 haplogroups
445 E-F (*A. almogavarii*), yellow - ND4 haplogroup B (*A. o. obstetricans*), blue - ND4
446 haplogroup A (*A. o. pertinax*), red - ND4 haplogroup C (*A. o. boscai*), green - ND4
447 haplogroup D (*A. o. boscai*), black - unclear (adapted from Dufresnes and Martínez-
448 Solano [23]).

449

450

451 The test of significance of pairwise F_{ST} values between the seven lineages
452 defined by STRUCTURE was significantly different from zero ($P < 0.01$; S3 Table),
453 indicating significant genetic differences. ND4-based pairwise F_{ST} values ranged from
454 0.951 for eastern Pyrenees–Guadarrama Mountains to 0.089 for Guadarrama
455 Mountains–Guadarrama lowlands, whereas microsatellite-based pairwise F_{ST} values
456 ranged from 0.222 for Guadarrama Mountains–central-western Pyrenees to 0.060 for
457 Guadarrama lowlands–Picos de Europa. Accordingly, AMOVA analyses suggested
458 significant structure among the seven genetic lineages ($P < 0.001$; S4 Table). The

459 proportion of variation attributable to differences among lineages was lower in
460 microsatellites (26.171%) than in ND4 (84.945%), possibly as a result of gene flow and
461 the inability of mtDNA to detect it. Conversely, variation among individuals within
462 populations was low for ND4 (8.736%) and high for microsatellite (56.425%) markers,
463 as expected for polymorphic loci such as microsatellites.

464 In the Pyrenees, microsatellite genetic differentiation followed a ring-like
465 pattern, being maximal between lineages EPY (orange) and CWPY (pink; at opposite
466 extremities on PCA axis 2, Fig 4c-d), even though they are geographically proximate in
467 the central and eastern Pyrenees. To evaluate this hypothesis of ring-shaped isolation
468 by distance, we correlated genetic distances (F_{ST} obtained from microsatellites) of
469 Pyrenean populations to different types of geographic distance. We obtained a weak
470 isolation by distance pattern between genetic differentiation and Euclidean
471 geographic distance (Mantel's $R = 0.185$, $P = 0.002$; Fig 6). In contrast, we detected a
472 strong correlation between genetic differentiation and the geographic distance
473 suggested by PCA analysis (Fig 4c-d), which assumed no direct gene flow across the
474 central Pyrenean axis and thus between the two most genetically differentiated
475 lineages EPY and CWPY (Mantel's $R = 0.683$, $P = 0.001$; Fig 6).

476

477 **Fig 6. Isolation by distance analysis over *Alytes obstetricans/almogavarii***
478 **population pairs from the Pyrenees.** Isolation by distance was calculated based on
479 (a) Euclidean geographic distance between all pairs of populations (Mantel's $R =$

0.185, $P = 0.002$) and (b) corrected geographic distance as suggested by PCA analysis, i.e. following a ring-shaped distribution around the Pyrenean chain (Fig 4; Mantel's $R = 0.683$, $P = 0.001$).

The estimation of effective population sizes conducted in Colony returned, in general, low values (S1 Table). Values ranged from five in the population Laguna de Pájaros (LP) to 160 breeding individuals in the population Lago Ercina (ERC), with a mean N_e of 43. The lowest values were found in populations from the Guadarrama Mountains (N_e range = 5–15), while higher values were found in the Pyrenees (eastern Pyrenees: 14–51, central Pyrenees: 68, central-western Pyrenees: 12–84) and Picos de Europa (19–160).

Demographic history

DIYABC analyses suggested highest support for two different but compatible scenarios of population divergence depending on the genetic markers used (i.e. scenario 2 when using only microsatellites and scenario 5 when combining microsatellites and ND4; Fig 2b, S5 Table). Both scenarios had non-overlapping 95% confidence intervals and type I and II errors for the best supported models were low (S5 Table), indicating high confidence in scenario choice. Model checking confirmed that the best supported scenarios provided a good fit to the observed data (data not

501 shown). Furthermore, the mean mutation rate estimated for ND4 was found to be an
502 order of magnitude higher than the literature value (1.96×10^{-7}
503 substitutions/site/year; S6 Table), but still much lower than that estimated for
504 microsatellites (ranging from 1.28×10^{-4} to 3.89×10^{-4} and from 4.59×10^{-5} to $3.31 \times$
505 10^{-4} for analyses conducted using only microsatellites and including both ND4 and
506 microsatellite markers, respectively).

507 The analysis focused on microsatellites indicated that scenario 2 (the
508 sequential splitting model based on results from clustering analyses) was the best
509 supported model (Fig 2b, S5 Table). According to this scenario, the first split led to
510 the separation of Pyrenean populations from peninsular ones. During the second split
511 there was the divergence of, on the one hand, central-western and central-eastern
512 Pyrenean populations, and on the other Picos de Europa and Guadarrama
513 populations. Finally, populations from the central Pyrenees originated from eastern
514 Pyrenean populations during the third split. The first split occurred 56 000–28 000
515 years ago, and the second and third splits 36 800–18 400 and 25 200–12 600 years
516 ago, respectively (S6 Table). The analysis based on the combination of microsatellites
517 and ND4, however, suggested that Picos de Europa populations were generated by
518 admixture of populations from the central-western Pyrenees and Guadarrama
519 (scenario 5; Fig 2b, S5 Table). Results indicated that the first split occurred 76 200–38
520 100 years ago, the second split 52 800–26 400 years ago and the admixture event 41
521 400–20 700 years ago (S6 Table).

522

523 Discussion

524 The Iberian Peninsula is an extraordinary model system to assess the multiple
 525 historical vicariance events of species, the so called “refugia within refugia” model,
 526 where mountain ranges have had a significant role [11, 12]. Such processes are
 527 influenced by climatic and topographic conditions as well as through biological
 528 processes between populations, which in turn reflect different and contrasting time
 529 scales, historical and contemporary. To unravel such complex scenarios, a multilocus
 530 approach is expected to reveal contrasting, often discordant findings that underline
 531 intricate evolutionary processes [57]. Several recent studies targeting the Iberian
 532 Peninsula and the Mediterranean biodiversity hotspot have focused on the processes
 533 of niche divergence and admixture following secondary contact (e.g. Chamorro et al.
 534 [58] and Martínez-Freiría et al. [59] with Mediterranean vipers, Antunes et al. [60]
 535 with the fire salamander *Salamandra salamandra*, and Dufresnes et al. [61] with
 536 *Discoglossus* and *Pelodites* frogs), highlighting the role of these areas as centres of
 537 diversification and speciation. The results of the present study revealed a strong
 538 association of the defined genetic lineages with geography by using a multilocus
 539 analysis of genetic divergence in Iberian high mountain populations of *A.*
 540 *obstetricans/almogavarii*. Furthermore, high mountain populations showed higher
 541 levels of genetic distinctiveness than lowland populations (Fig 5), suggesting that

542 mountains may have driven population differentiation through long-term geographic
543 isolation, with lowlands more likely to be dispersal corridors for *A.*
544 *obstetricans/almogavarii*, as it has been described for other species (see e.g. [62,
545 63]).

546

547 **The role of high mountains in genetic differentiation and** 548 **glacial refugia**

549 This study describes the presence of seven different nuclear microsatellite
550 clusters, that are likely a result of recent microrefugial areas within the Pyrenees (Fig
551 5). Most of the recovered genetic structure was within Pyrenean populations, which
552 in turn were genetically more related to each other than with the other two high
553 mountain areas. Putative episodes of admixture within *A. obstetricans/almogavarii* in
554 the Pyrenees were suggested by previous phylogenetic analyses [3]. Following the
555 splits between major population lineages in *A. obstetricans/almogavarii*, which date
556 back to the Early Pleistocene (starting from 2.5 Mya; [20]), there have been several
557 glacial-interglacial episodes that likely provided opportunities for diverging taxa to
558 come into contact and interbreed following range shifts tracking the climatic
559 fluctuations [12, 64]. Our findings show that Pyrenean high mountain populations
560 have gone through relatively recent events of admixture, likely favoured by the
561 different glacial-interglacial episodes that characterised the Late Pleistocene.

Specifically, according to ABC analyses, the two lineages ascribed to *A. almogavarii* (E-F, central and eastern Pyrenees), together with some populations of *A. o. obstetricans* (central-western Pyrenean group) seem to have undergone a certain degree of contact and admixture until divergence took place ~36 800–12 600 years ago (Fig 2b). Despite the selected model, which proposes two independent admixture events between the three lineages, the highly overlapping dates together with the significant ring-shaped isolation by distance pattern (Fig 6; see below) suggest that one single admixture event might have occurred within one main glacial refugia where the three lineages coincided. In addition, contemporary signs of connectivity between the two species were detected at lineage borders, as indicated by the occurrence of a contact zone between ND4 lineage E and *A. o. obstetricans* in the west (Figs 3, 5 and S2). Similarly, signs of admixture and extensive gene flow between *A. o. obstetricans* and *A. almogavarii* in the western Pyrenees were previously pointed out by allozyme markers [25, 26]. In contrast, in the central and eastern Pyrenees no signs of connectivity were detected between ND4 lineage F and either lineage E or *A. o. obstetricans*. This scenario of different contact zones telling different stories is exemplified in ring species, i.e. a system formed by a region of interconnected populations with both ends of the ring coming into contact without apparent admixture [65, 66]. In the Pyrenees, the spatial distribution of the *A. obstetricans* complex seems to fit with a postglacial colonisation pattern similar to what has been described in ring diversification, where taxa at the western part of the

583 ring likely interbreed and those at the eastern side apparently don't, displaying a
 584 continuum from slightly divergent neighbouring populations to substantially
 585 reproductively isolated taxa (Figs 4d, 5 and 6). Ring diversifications represent cases of
 586 population divergence around a geographical barrier in a ring-like manner [67] that
 587 can result in cases of speciation in action (i.e. ring species) and have been cited as
 588 evidence of evolution [68], with some of the most well-known cases being identified
 589 in herptiles, such as the *Ensatina eschscholtzii* salamander complex [69] and the
 590 western fence lizard *Sceloporus occidentalis* [70] in western North America. In light of
 591 this, our results are not entirely in line with the distinction of *A. almogavarii* as a
 592 different species, yet support a scenario of speciation in action, with lineage F
 593 showing evidence for speciation and reproductive isolation [23], and lineage E
 594 retaining some degree of connectivity with *A. o. obstetricans*. Nevertheless, we
 595 cannot rule out that this pattern may be the result of geographic sampling gaps, and
 596 additional surveys across hybrid zones between lineages E-F and *A. o. obstetricans*, as
 597 well as further work using resistance distances (i.e. by taking elevation, slope and
 598 land cover into account), would be required to fully test the ring species hypothesis.

599 Finally, with regard to the central-western Pyrenean group, the subdivision by
 600 microsatellite analyses into two or three different genetic clusters (Figs 4 and S2),
 601 points to a scenario of allopatric divergence after the recolonization of the Pyrenees
 602 as a result of geographic barriers, with consequent reduction or disruption of gene
 603 flow. Alternatively, this differentiation might have happened during one of the abrupt

604 cooling episodes of the Holocene (e.g. the 8 200 year-event; [71]), with consequent
 605 isolation in separate glacial refugia. Range isolation and lineage divergence in
 606 separate Pyrenean refugia during Pleistocene glacial cycles were also invoked e.g. for
 607 the Pyrenean brook newt *Calotriton asper* [55], the ground-dwelling spider
 608 *Harpactocrates ravastellus* [72], the rusty-leaved alpenrose *Rhododendron*
 609 *ferrugineum* [73] and the snapdragon *Antirrhinum* [74], in line with evidence from a
 610 number of other high mountain areas that served as glacial refugia during periods of
 611 adverse conditions, such as the Andes, Himalaya and the Southern Alps in New
 612 Zealand (see [64] for a review). From a conservation point of view, we suggest that
 613 these areas should be treated as separate conservation and management units.

614

615 **Mito-nuclear discordances**

616 The analyses of microsatellites distinguished two highly divergent *A. o.*
 617 *obstetricans* lineages, one in the central-western Pyrenees and the other in Picos de
 618 Europa (Figs 4 and S2), with the latter being more genetically related to the southern
 619 populations (ascribed to *A. o. pertinax*; Figs 4d and S7). In contrast, these two
 620 lineages bear the same mtDNA (ND4) haplogroup ascribed to *A. o. obstetricans*
 621 (haplogroup B; Figs 3 and S2a). One possible explanation is that the closer genetic
 622 affinity of the western and southern area populations rather than to the central-
 623 western Pyrenean lineage originated from extensive admixture with *A. o.*

624 *obstetricans* (the central-western Pyrenean group) as the maternal donor and *A. o.*
625 *pertinax* as the paternal donor (Fig 2b). A similar pattern was observed in *S.*
626 *salamandra* [75] and in crustaceans of the genus *Daphnia* [76]. A plausible scenario
627 could be that, during Late Pleistocene glacial periods (as suggested by results from
628 DYABC modelling when combining both microsatellites and mtDNA; Fig 2), some *A. o.*
629 *obstetricans* populations remained confined in isolated refugia where they coincided
630 with *A. o. pertinax* for a sufficient time so that genetic admixture could take place.
631 Similarly, range isolation during Pleistocene climatic fluctuations was suggested for
632 the cryptic *Pelodytes* anuran clade [77, 78], the Cabrera vole *Microtus cabreræ* [79]
633 and the scrub-legume grasshopper *Chorthippus binotatus binotatus* [80], where
634 extant lineages likely diverged in separated refugia within the Iberian Peninsula.
635 Subdivided glacial refugia could have experienced events of admixture during the
636 succession of glacial and interglacial periods, with consequent fusion between
637 refugial lineages [81, 82].

638 Mito-nuclear discordances with evidence for admixture or hybridisation are
639 not uncommon in amphibians (e.g. [4, 8, 60]) and have also been described in a wide
640 range of other animal species from north-central Iberian Peninsula, from arachnids
641 [83] to mammals [84]. Furthermore, the Cantabrian Mountains represent a peculiar
642 biogeographic region and a recognised hotspot of genetic diversity in amphibians,
643 being home to endemic refugial clades in a number of species with broad European
644 distribution [82, 85]. Finally, more recently, the Picos de Europa and *A. o. pertinax*

645 populations may have come into secondary contact and interbred following an
646 expansion phase, creating zones of admixture at lineage borders. Alternatively, the
647 discordance may stem from stochastic processes in the form of genetic drift, and the
648 phylogeographic structure detected in mtDNA (Figs 3 and S3) may have developed as
649 a result of low individual dispersal distances and/or population sizes [86], as
650 evidenced by our results and published literature (e.g. [87]). Further studies and
651 sequencing of more molecular markers are needed to test these hypotheses and
652 enrich our understanding of the phylogeography of *A. obstetricans*.

653

654 **Chytridiomycosis and population bottleneck**

655 The genetic distinctiveness and limited genetic diversity of populations from
656 the Guadarrama Mountains herein detected (Figs 4 and S2, Table 1) are likely early
657 signs of inbreeding depression induced by an emerging pathogen, i.e. the chytrid
658 fungus *Batrachochytrium dendrobatidis* [88]. It should be noted that our sampling
659 was performed approximately 10 years after an epidemic of the disease
660 chytridiomycosis, which hugely impacted this area in the period 1997–1999, causing
661 several populations to decrease or even disappear [16, 89]. Accordingly, the only
662 sampled population in the affected area that did not show signs of chytridiomycosis
663 was the one presenting the highest genetic diversity (Montes de Valsain, MV; S1
664 Table). Our findings complement those of Albert et al. [18] that detected evidence of
665 low genetic variability and strong population bottleneck in *A. obstetricans* from the

666 same mountain system. In addition to this, we report on the first estimates of
667 effective population sizes of these populations, which were among the lowest overall
668 ($N_e = 5-15$; Table 1), raising concern for the long-term persistence of these
669 populations, which are small and isolated. Indeed, the closest neighbouring
670 populations are located more than 50 km away and are known to be small and not
671 genetically related [18, 90]. Furthermore, the Guadarrama Mountains constitute a
672 major barrier to gene flow in amphibians and a key feature shaping population
673 structure and promoting population divergence across taxa [62]. Our results are an
674 example of a disease acting as selective pressure in wild populations by inducing
675 genetic hallmarks of bottlenecks and inbreeding, as it has also been shown in other
676 species such as the black-tailed prairie dog (*Cynomys ludovicianus*), the mountain
677 yellow-legged frog (*Rana muscosa*) and the bobcat (*Lynx rufus*) (reviewed in [91]).
678

679 **Differences in the evolutionary horizon/resolution between** 680 **genetic markers**

681 This study confirms previous findings in *A. obstetricans/almogavarii* clades
682 [20] with the only difference that our species tree analyses recovered a different
683 basal lineage (S3 Fig), a likely consequence of our limited inference power given that
684 only two loci were used for species tree reconstruction. Results from ABC modelling
685 based on either microsatellites or microsatellites + mtDNA resulted in time estimates

686 highly different from those of the species tree (Fig 2b), suggesting that the two
687 analyses are depicting different evolutionary events. In fact, while the species tree
688 has proven useful to estimate divergence times associated with the formation of
689 species/subspecies, ABC modelling was here employed to gain insights into the
690 colonisation of three high mountain regions in the Iberian Peninsula by the different
691 *A. obstetricans/almogavarii* taxa. Microsatellite markers, with their faster mutation
692 rate, are known to perform poorly for the estimation of ancient historical events [57,
693 92]. On the contrary, microsatellites provide substantially better estimations than
694 mtDNA for the most recent dynamics [57]. However, the combination of both
695 markers in our ABC modelling resulted in similar divergence times as those estimated
696 using microsatellites alone. It is thus possible that combining both markers may have
697 biased toward microsatellites and the estimation of recent historical events.

698 We need to stress that DIYABC modelling has some uncertainty. Firstly, this
699 approach is based on scenarios where no gene flow is permitted between
700 populations after they initially diverge. Only single events of admixture between
701 populations are considered, whereas recurrent gene flow due to dispersal cannot be
702 incorporated. However, population structure analyses were used to investigate
703 contemporary gene flow and identify patterns of admixture and contact zones at
704 lineage borders (e.g. Fig 5). Secondly, the tested models do not represent a
705 comprehensive range of all possible scenarios, but are instead based on a selection of
706 contrasting hypotheses that we considered were most likely to reflect our data. We

707 focused our analysis on simple contrasting models aimed at capturing the key
 708 demographic events, avoiding overcomplex and redundant models, therefore the
 709 selected models should be viewed as a starting point for evolutionary understanding.
 710 This approach has proven useful to increase the ability of DIYABC to reveal the
 711 correct model, as well as to better estimate the error and accuracy of parameter
 712 estimates [93]. On the other hand, it has to be noted that estimates based on
 713 mitochondrial data might be unreliable due to the erratic mutation rate of mtDNA
 714 and to the fact that mtDNA does not evolve neutrally since transmission of
 715 mitochondria is completely linked to maternal inheritance. Indeed, mtDNA-based
 716 estimates have been found to mismatch the onset of species divergence in both
 717 directions due to the stochasticity of coalescence [94].

718

719 **Concluding remarks**

720 Our multilocus phylogeography across the Iberian Peninsula revealed high
 721 genetic structure correlated with geography and a complex pattern of lineage
 722 admixture in high mountain populations of *A. obstetricans/almogavarii*. Our study
 723 evidenced how each analysed mountain region underwent a peculiar
 724 phylogeographic history through the Late Pleistocene, which is consistent with the
 725 “refugia within refugia” model [11, 12] and confirms previous studies on a number of
 726 Iberian amphibian species (e.g. [22, 77, 85, 95, 96]). Results also support the
 727 assumption that refugia within refugia may be hotspots of extensive mito-nuclear

728 discordances [82], highlighting the importance of multilocus approaches to infer the
729 dynamics of population divergence. Environmental change in the different mountain
730 systems may have an influence on selection, resulting in an increased divergence
731 among isolated populations, consequently leading to speciation [97]. The phenetic
732 differences between the subspecies of *Alytes* (especially *A. o. pertinax*) may be a
733 further indication of adaptation to some micro-environmental differences such as
734 streams vs still waters (known to influence coloration in *Alytes*, [98]), temperature
735 and solar radiation at different altitudes between the studied mountain systems.

736

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1019

1020 **Supporting information**

1021 **S1 Fig. Summary of *A. obstetricans/almogavarii* samples incorporated into each**
 1022 **main analysis.** (a) Geographic location of populations included in each analysis. For
 1023 population codes see Fig 1. The inset map shows the distribution of the main
 1024 lineages: orange - ND4 haplogroups E-F (*A. almogavarii*), yellow - ND4 haplogroup B
 1025 (*A. o. obstetricans*), blue - ND4 haplogroup A (*A. o. pertinax*), red - ND4 haplogroup C
 1026 (*A. o. boscai*), green - ND4 haplogroup D (*A. o. boscai*), black - unclear (adapted from
 1027 Dufresnes and Martínez-Solano [23]). (b) Markers used in each analysis, with the
 1028 corresponding number of samples and populations. Effective population sizes were
 1029 calculated only for populations with ≥ 15 genotyped individuals. In the case of
 1030 demographic history, only high mountain populations were included in the analysis.

1031

1032 **S2 Fig. Results of phylogenetic and clustering analyses for *Alytes***
 1033 ***obstetricans/almogavarii*.** (a) Geographic distribution of the four mtDNA (ND4)
 1034 haplogroups recovered in the analysis (blue: mtDNA haplogroup A, yellow: mtDNA
 1035 haplogroup B, grey: mtDNA haplogroup E, orange: mtDNA haplogroup F). In four
 1036 populations (T2, 61XR, BP and PI) we detected the presence of more than one
 1037 haplogroup. (b) Results from Discriminant Analysis of Principal Components (DAPC)
 1038 and (c) STRUCTURE for $K = 7$ microsatellite groups (see Fig 4). (d) Geographic
 1039 distribution of the five genetic groups identified by microsatellite-based neighbour-

1040 joining analysis (see S7 Fig). White circles indicate populations with no data available
1041 for either ND4 or microsatellites. For population codes see Fig 1. The inset map
1042 shows the distribution of the main lineages: orange - ND4 haplogroups E-F (*A.*
1043 *almogavarii*), yellow - ND4 haplogroup B (*A. o. obstetricans*), blue - ND4 haplogroup A
1044 (*A. o. pertinax*), red - ND4 haplogroup C (*A. o. boscai*), green - ND4 haplogroup D (*A.*
1045 *o. boscai*), black - unclear (adapted from Dufresnes and Martínez-Solano [23]).

1046

1047 **S3 Fig. *Alytes* species tree produced in *BEAST based on one nuclear gene (β -**
1048 **fibint7) and four mitochondrial fragments (ND4, cyt-b, 12S and 16S).** Labels on
1049 branch tips correspond to the distinct ND4 haplogroups identified (blue: mtDNA
1050 haplogroup A, pink: mtDNA haplogroup B (central-western Pyrenean populations),
1051 yellow: mtDNA haplogroup B (Picos de Europa populations), grey: mtDNA haplogroup
1052 E, orange: mtDNA haplogroup F). Posterior probabilities of lineage divergence are
1053 indicated on branch labels.

1054

1055 **S4 Fig. Resulting plots from Discriminant Analysis of Principal Components (DAPC)**
1056 **across all *Alytes obstetricans/almogavarii* populations.** (a) Summary plots for K = 2-7
1057 genetic clusters. At K = 2, genetic clusters are represented as density curves. At K = 3-
1058 7, dots represent individuals and genetic clusters are shown as inertia ellipses.
1059 Legend labels indicate the different genetic clusters: eastern Pyrenees (EPY, orange),
1060 central Pyrenees (CPY, grey), central-western Pyrenees (CWPY, pink), Picos de Europa

1061 mountains (PEU, yellow), and Guadarrama Mountain Range (GUA, blue). (b)
1062 Distribution of BIC (Bayesian Information Criterion) values according to the number
1063 of clusters. The red arrow indicates the number of clusters chosen for DAPC analysis.
1064 The optimal number of clusters was assessed using the *find.clusters* function and
1065 determined as the K value above which BIC (Bayesian Information Criterion) values
1066 decreased substantially.

1067

1068 **S5 Fig. Results of Bayesian clustering analyses in STRUCTURE for microsatellites.** (a)
1069 Mean (\pm SD) log probability of the data [$\ln \Pr(X|K)$] over 10 runs, for each value of K.
1070 (b) ΔK values as a function of K, calculated according to Evanno et al. [99].

1071

1072 **S6 Fig. Results of Tess3R analyses for microsatellites.** (a) Map depicting the
1073 distribution of ancestry coefficients inferred through Tess3R for K = 7 clusters. Black
1074 dots indicate the populations analysed. Colour codes as for STRUCTURE results. More
1075 saturated colours indicate a greater proportion of ancestry to either cluster. (b)
1076 Distribution of cross-validation scores according to the number of clusters. The red
1077 arrow indicates the number of clusters chosen for Tess3R analysis.

1078

1079 **S7 Fig. Neighbour-joining tree based on D_A distances for microsatellite markers.**
1080 Branch colours delineate the seven genetic clusters inferred by STRUCTURE (see Figs
1081 4a and 5), while colour shades around population codes correspond to the distinct

1082 mtDNA (ND4) haplogroups (blue: mtDNA haplogroup A, yellow: mtDNA haplogroup
1083 B, grey: mtDNA haplogroup E, orange: mtDNA haplogroup F; see Fig 3). In four
1084 populations (T2, 61XR, BP and PI) we detected the presence of more than one
1085 haplogroup. For population codes see S1 Table.

1086

1087 **S1 Table. Geographic information and standard genetic statistics of *Alytes***

1088 ***obstetricans/almogavarii* sampling localities.** Populations are grouped according to
1089 the genetic group of interest (EPY: eastern Pyrenees, CPY: central Pyrenees, CWPY:
1090 central-western Pyrenees, PEU: Picos de Europa mountains, GUA: Guadarrama
1091 Mountain Range). Lat. – latitude, Long. – longitude, Alt. – altitude in meters, N –
1092 sample size for microsatellites, Na – mean number of alleles, Ar – allelic richness
1093 standardized for sample size, Ho – observed heterozygosity, He – expected
1094 heterozygosity, Fis – inbreeding coefficient, Ne – effective population size, N ND4 –
1095 sample size for ND4, ND4 haps – occurrence and code (in parentheses) of
1096 mitochondrial ND4 haplogroups identified in each population (see Fig 3), N cyt-b –
1097 sample size for cyt-b, N 12S – sample size for 12S, N 16S – sample size for 16S, N β -
1098 fibint7 – sample size for β -fibint7.

1099

1100 **S2 Table. Parameters used in DIYABC analysis and respective priors for the best**

1101 **supported scenarios.** The best supported scenarios were scenario 2 when

1102 considering only microsatellites (simple sequence repeats – SSRs) and scenario 5

when including both mtDNA (ND4) and microsatellite markers. See Fig 2 for more information on tested scenarios. N – effective population size for each analysed deme (EPY – eastern Pyrenees; CPY – central Pyrenees; CWPY – central-western Pyrenees; PEU – Picos de Europa Mountains, GUA – Guadarrama Mountains), ra – admixture rate, t – time of events in generations (t_1 – time to the most recent split; t_2 – time to the intermediate split; t_3 – time to the most ancient split). Microsatellite (SSRs) and mitochondrial (ND4) parameters: mean μ – mean mutation rate, individual locus μ – individual locus mutation rate, mean P – mean coefficient P , individual locus P – individual locus coefficient P , SNI – Single Nucleotide Insertion rate, mean k – mean coefficient k , individual locus k – individual locus coefficient k . Microsatellite loci were divided in two groups depending on the motif length (tri- and tetranucleotide loci). Conditions: sequence data were simulated under a Tamura Nei (TN93) mutation model.

1116

S3 Table. Microsatellite-based (below diagonal) and ND4-based (above diagonal) pairwise estimates of F_{ST} between the seven genetic groups identified by STRUCTURE in *Alytes obstetricans/almogavarii* (see Fig 5). All P values < 0.01.

1120

S4 Table. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) for mitochondrial (ND4) and nuclear (microsatellites) markers based on the seven genetic groups identified by STRUCTURE in *Alytes obstetricans/almogavarii* (see Fig 5). All P values < 0.001.

1124

1125 **S5 Table. Posterior probability of tested scenarios and 95% confidence intervals (CI)**
 1126 **estimated with DIYABC analysis when considering only microsatellites and when**
 1127 **including both mtDNA (ND4) and microsatellite markers.** Type I and II errors for the
 1128 best supported scenarios are indicated. See Fig 2 for more information on tested
 1129 scenarios.

1130

1131 **S6 Table. Posterior parameters (median and 95% confidence intervals) and**
 1132 **RMedAD (Relative Median Absolute Deviation) estimated with DIYABC analysis for**
 1133 **the best supported scenarios when considering only microsatellites (simple**
 1134 **sequence repeats – SSRs; scenario 2) and when including both mtDNA (ND4) and**
 1135 **microsatellite markers (scenario 5).** See Fig 2 for more information on tested
 1136 scenarios. N – effective population size for each analysed deme (EPY – eastern
 1137 Pyrenees; CPY – central Pyrenees; CWPY – central-western Pyrenees; PEU – Picos de
 1138 Europa Mountains; GUA – Guadarrama Mountains), ra – admixture rate, t – time of
 1139 events in generations (t_1 – time to the most recent split; t_2 – time to the intermediate
 1140 split; t_3 – time to the most ancient split), mean μ – mean mutation rate, mean P –
 1141 mean coefficient P , mean k – mean coefficient k , $Q_{2.5}$ – quantile 2.5%, $Q_{97.5}$ – quantile
 1142 97.5%.

1143

1144 **S1 Appendix. Supporting methods.**

Fig 1

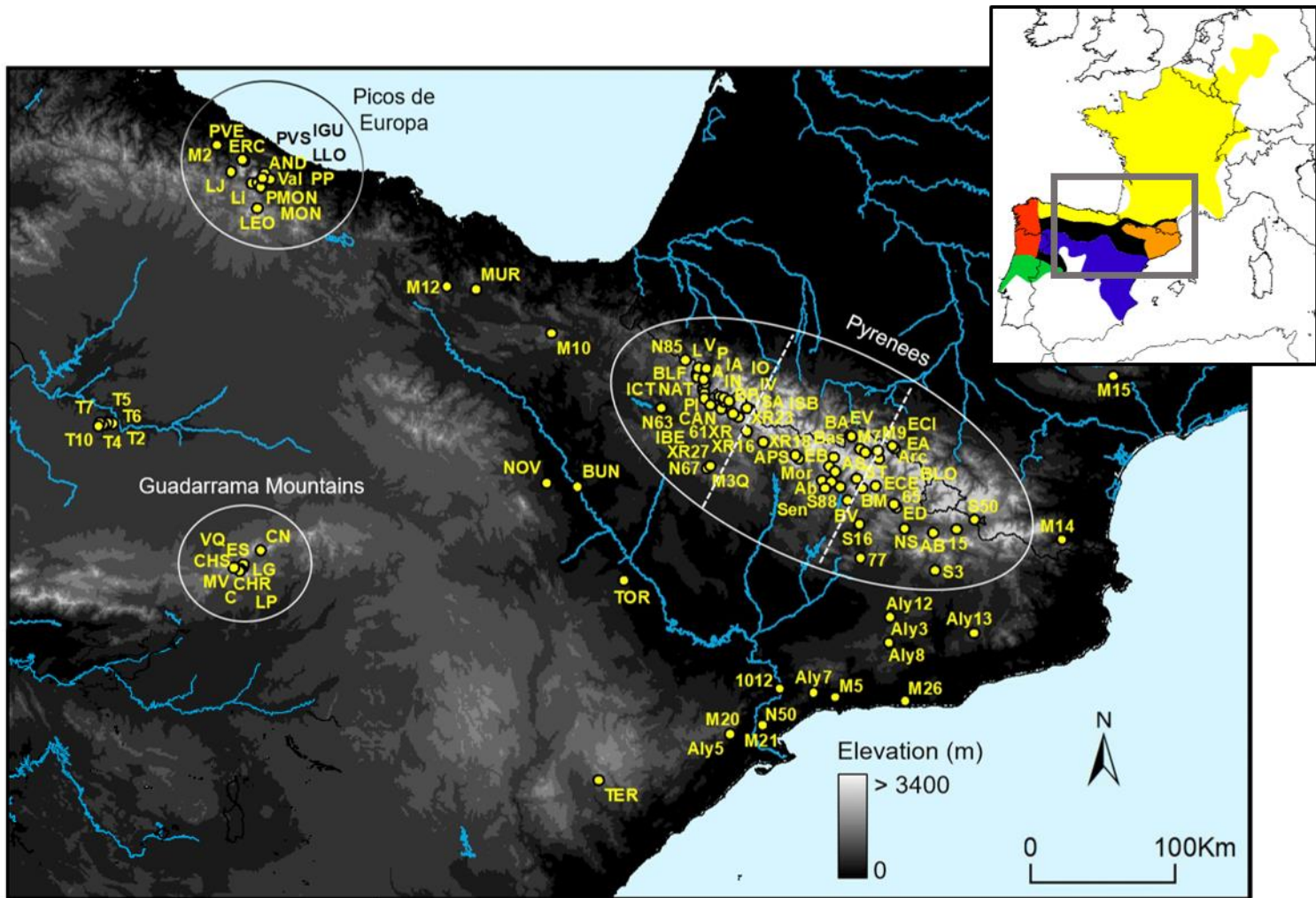


Fig 2

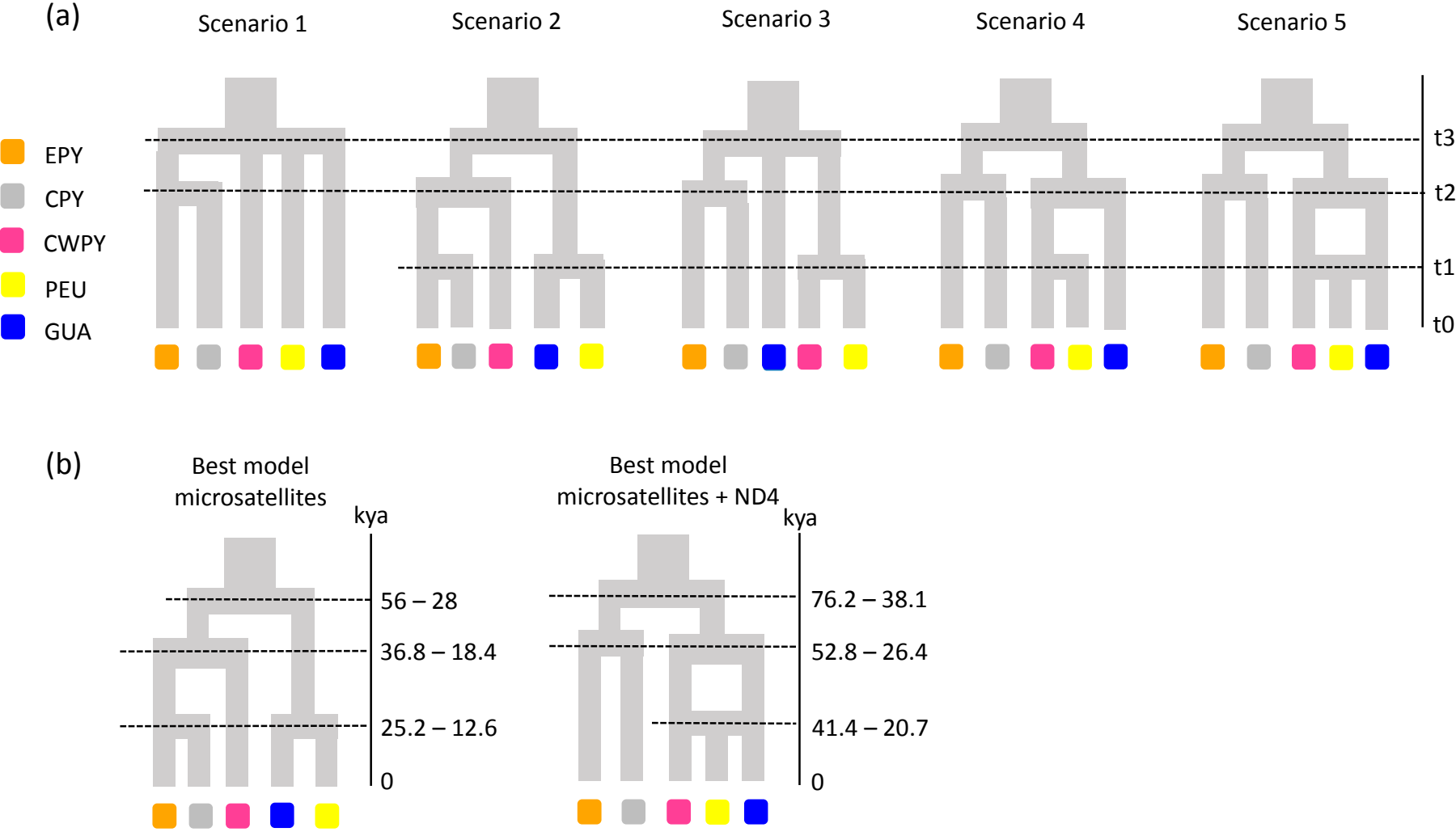


Fig 3

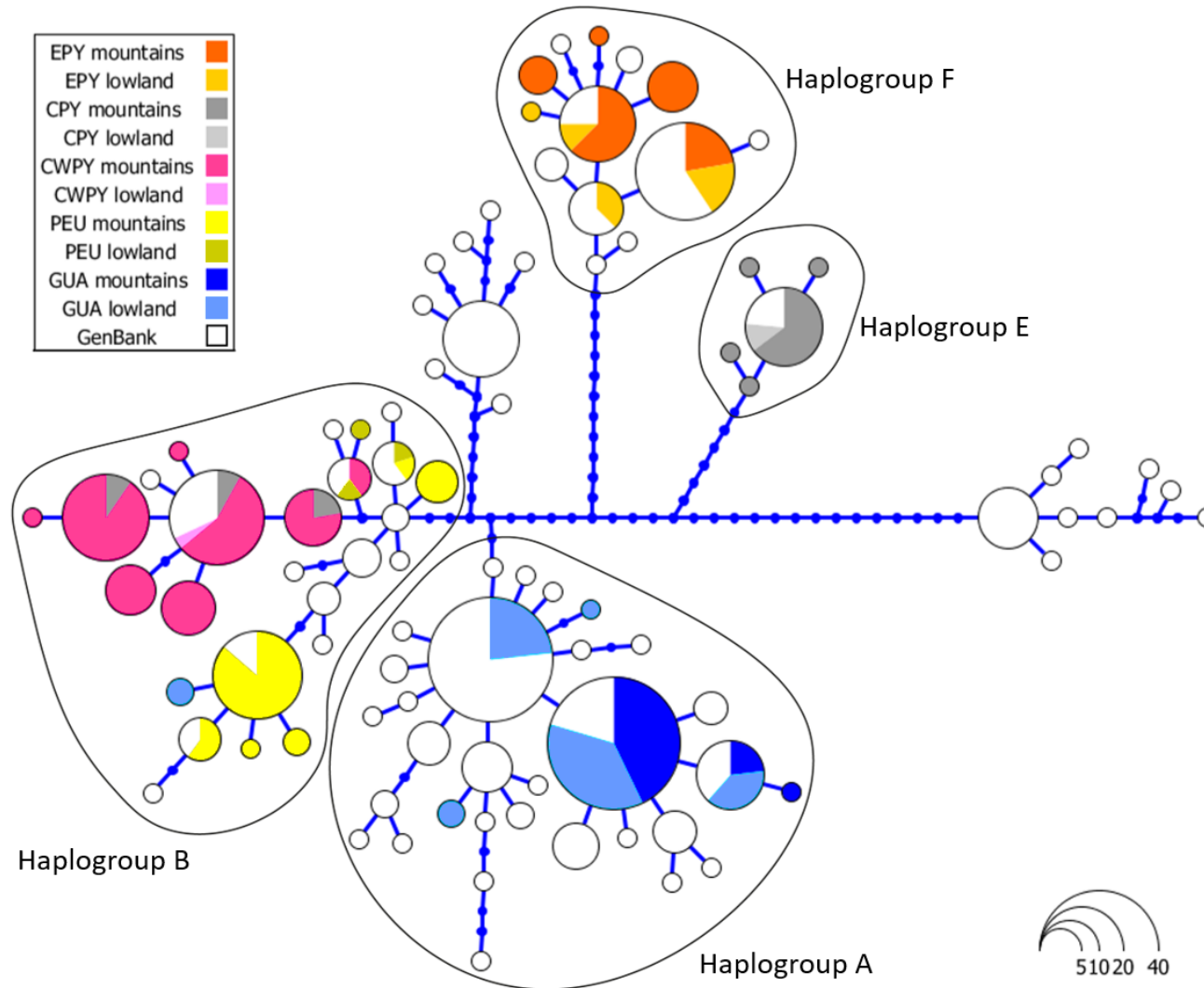


Fig 4

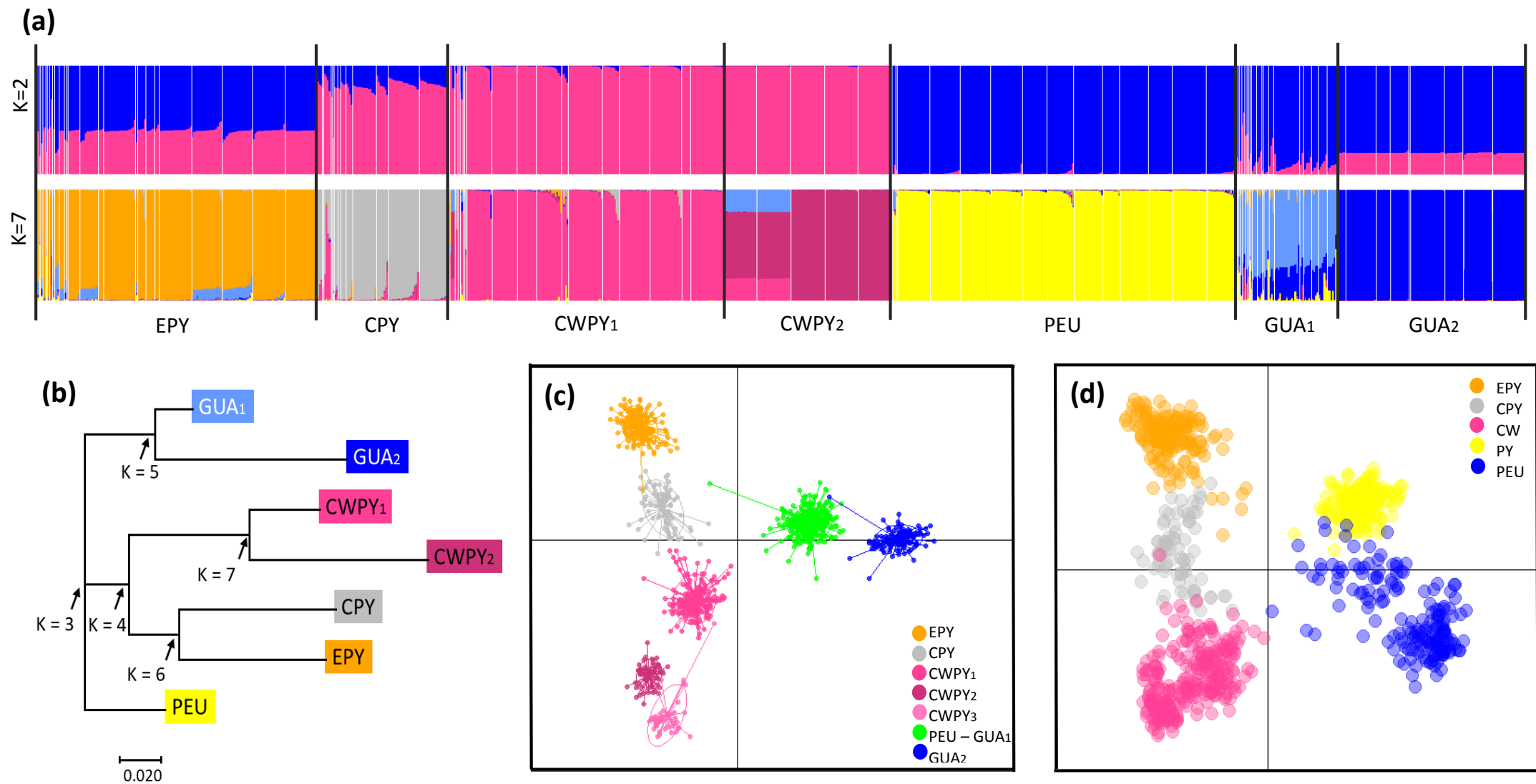


Fig 5

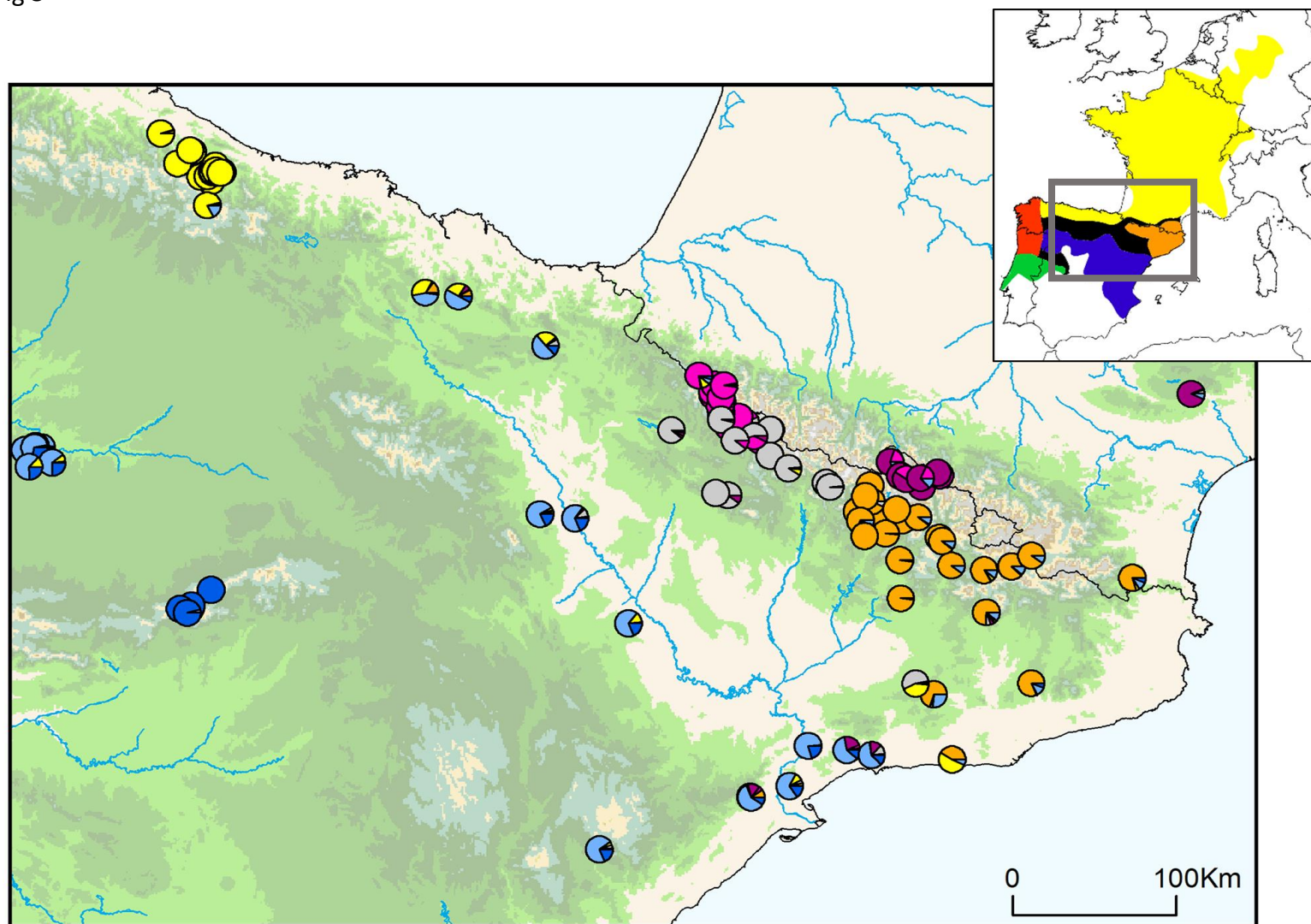
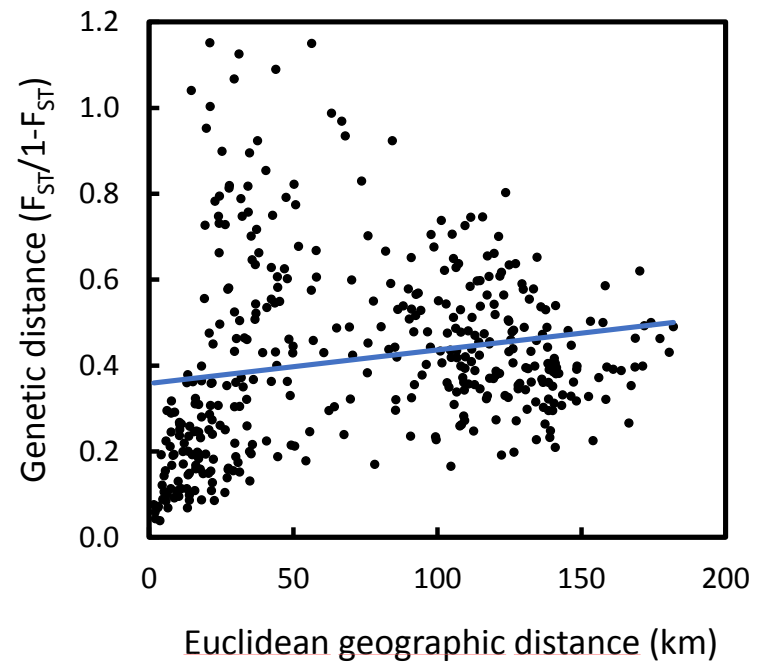
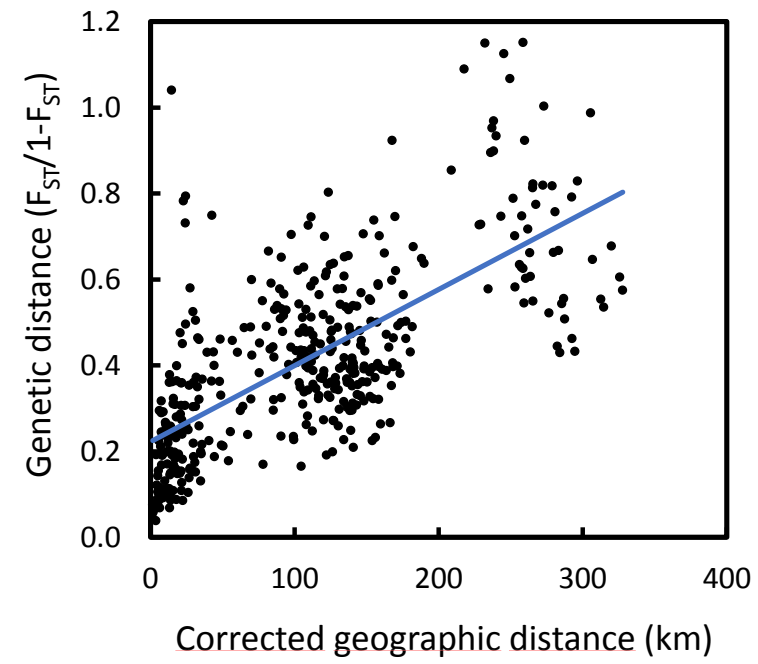


Fig 6

(a)



(b)





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