1   Is niche divergence more likely in parapatry? A test in *Sclerurus mexicanus* sensu lato

2   (Aves: Furnariidae)

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15**ABSTRACT**

16**Aim**

17While species' niches are understood to diverge through time, the mode of these divergences is 18not fully understood. The null hypothesis of niche divergence in the present is that of 19conservatism; that species are likely to occur in the same environment as their ancestors and, 20therefore, as allopatric sister species. Alternatively, species are expected to diverge when 21selective pressure, such as parapatry with a congener, occurs. Here, we analyse niche divergence 22in a mosaic of allo- and parapatric *Sclerurus mexicanus* sensu lato populations to determine if 23niche divergence is more likely in parapatry.

24**Location**

25Neotropics.

26**Methods**

27We created a dataset of 1,100 vetted localities for *S. mexicanus* sensu lato, and assigned each 28point to each of the seven described populations. We created individual dispersal areas for each 29species in Maxent following: 1) a broad approach in which training areas where allowed to 30overlap with parapatric congeners; and 2) a narrow approach in which species dispersal areas 31adhered to strict parapatry and there was no overlap in training areas. We complemented these 32ENMs with 'random' models drawn from points within each training area, thus creating 'null' 33ENMs against which we could test niche divergence using the metric Schoener's D.

34**Results**

35There was no significant difference in the performance of broad and narrow training areas. Few 36significant divergences were found, and all of those that were found consisted of allopatric 37populations. Partial divergences were frequently recovered when comparing parapatric taxa.

38Main conclusions

39In contrast to our expectation, we found no significant evidence for increased niche divergence 40in parapatric versus allopatric species. Possible explanations for these findings include true 41conservatism even among parapatric lineages (*e.g.*, additional environmental or biological 42factors may delimit distributions) or artefactual errors inherent to model creation. We discuss the 43implications of these findings, and discuss ways to improve upon tests of niche divergence in the 44future, especially when dealing with cases of parapatry.

45Keywords

46Allopatry, ecological niche modelling, Maxent, niche divergence, parapatry, Schoener's D, 47*Sclerurus mexicanus*.

49INTRODUCTION

50   Since the conception of ecological niche theory, attempts have been made to quantify the 51differences between the occupied niche space of different taxa (Grinnell, 1917; Elton, 1927; 52Hutchinson, 1957; Colwell & Futuyma, 1971; Carnes & Slade, 1982; Austin et al., 1990; Glor & 53Warren, 2011). These differences have been hypothesized to be key or causal to species' 54diversification (Orr & Smith, 1998), especially in cases of related species' groups that inhabit 55spatially parapatric niches. In recent years, new methods have been put forth to test how species' 56niches differ in ecological space, all utilizing different approaches to Ecological Niche Modeling 57(ENM), and all with the overarching goal of testing whether or not species truly inhabit different 58multivariate environmental (*i.e.*, Hutchinsonian) niches (Hutchinson, 1957; Warren et al., 2008; 59Blonder et al., 2014; Nunes & Pearson, 2016).

60   As our knowledge of species' diversification has increased, it has become apparent that
61most species diverge in allopatry by means of genetic drift, differential selection, and a lack of
62genetic mixing (Price, 2008). Likewise, our expectation of niche divergence has approached the
63null; that is, when species become allopatric, we hypothesize that they are more likely retain
64their ancestral niche and therefore appear 'conserved' via ENM tests (Peterson et al., 1999;
65McCormack et al., 2009; Peterson, 2011; Ryan Shipley et al., 2013; Khaliq et al., 2015; Skeels &
66Cardillo, 2017). Furthermore, research has shown that competition and the re-establishment of
67contact can drive niche (and character) divergence, and thereby result in the para- and sympatric
68shifts we observe in the present (Jang & Gerhardt, 2006; Kirschel et al., 2009; Wooten & Gibbs,
692012; Freeman, 2015; Miller et al., 2016).

70   While ecological niche divergence has been examined in allopatric complexes (e.g.,
71McCormack et al., 2009), it has been less studied in parapatric species complexes. Given the
72expectation in allopatric speciation that niches remain conserved until secondary contact with a
73competitor occurs, it is therefore logical to hypothesize that the magnitude of niche divergence
74will be greater when species have a contact zone during their speciation cycle (Nunes & Pearson,
752016). This hypothesis is reinforced by our understanding of niche shifts that accompany
76speciation events involving species moving into parapatric habitats or geographic realms
77(Benkman et al., 2009; Fjeldså et al., 2011; Knowles & Massatto, 2016), and has provided the
78basis of a novel methodology for testing ecological niche divergence (Nunes & Pearson, 2016).
79There are few tests of the assumption of niche divergence within monophyletic parapatric groups
80(Reino et al., 2016), and it is difficult to fully assess the other factors that may be influencing
81species' realized niches in ENMs.

82   Soberón & Peterson (2005) elucidate ways to address additional factors in their **BAM**

83framework, highlighting three factors that are responsible for limiting species' distributions: (**B**)

84biotic interactions; (**A**) abiotic environmental conditions (*i.e.*, scenopoetic variables *sensu*

85Soberón*, 2007*); and (**M**) motility restrictions, such as geographic barriers (*i.e.*, an invasible

86area). Biotic interactions, collectively known as a species' Eltonian niche (Soberón, 2007), are

87often assumed to be implicitly accounted for in ENMs by a study species' absence from areas

88with a biotic amensal or without a biotic commensal. Linking these factors directly into an ENM

89is often done by restricting a species' explorable area in the initial steps of ENM creation,

90thereby removing regions of potential sympatry from model training (Saupe et al., 2012; de

91Araújo et al., 2014; Cooper & Soberón, 2018). ENMs can also opt to ignore these biotic factors,

92as many of the localized competitors and commensals a species encounters may not be as

93important as abiotic factors in large-scale spatial analyses (*i.e.*, the Eltonian Noise Hypothesis;

94Soberón, 2007; Soberón & Nakamura, 2009).

95   In order to better understand niche divergence in parapatry, we performed a multi-

96directional niche-difference test of a widespread species group, *Sclerurus mexicanus* sensu lato

97(Cooper & Barragán, 2016). Now known to comprise of at least five major groups of taxa

98(d'Horta et al., 2013; Cooper & Cuervo, 2017), populations of *S. mexicanus* occur in allo- and

99parapatric populations from central Mexico to southern Brazil, and exhibit remarkable levels of

100ecomorphic and phenotypic conservatism, with field reports of species' responding to unrelated,

101allopatric population's songs (Remsen, 2003; Cooper & Barragán, 2016). Given their lack of

102known sympatry, it is likely that parapatric populations are competitors with other members of

103the super species, and therefore provide an excellent mosaic of parapatric and allopatric

104populations in which to test the magnitude of niche divergence in the presence and absence of

105amensals.

106   Here, we perform two sets of niche divergence analyses on this species complex under

107two alternative hypotheses: 1) that species can freely disperse into regions occupied by

108parapatric congeners, and 2) that species are prohibited from dispersal into regions where

109congeners are known occur. While both of these methods will model a species' absence in areas

110with direct competitors, their mechanisms in reaching these conclusions differ. The first

111hypothesis excludes environments that are more optimal for competitive congeners by

112accounting for these as "absent" environments for the species of interest, while the second

113hypothesis manually thresholds environments and excludes these areas from analyses altogether.

114The first hypothesis also assumes that species have differential competitive abilities in different

115parts of their shared niche space or differ to at least some extent in their fundamental niches,

116while the second hypothesis assumes that competitive exclusion is masking the limits of a

117species' ecological niche. While there is no way to get around these errors for attempting to

118assess a species' complete fundamental niche, it is still possible to analyze a species' realized

119niche and determine whether or not species are significantly differing in their occupied

120ecological space. Furthermore, a test of both methods will help reveal whether biotic exclusion is

121significantly affecting our interpretations of ecological niche divergence.

123**METHODS**

124   We downloaded occurrence data for *Sclerurus mexicanus* sensu lato from the Global

125Biodiversity Informatics Facility (GBIF; 20 February 2015; Global Biodiversity Informatics

126Facility, 2016) and from eBird (EBD_relMay-2015; Sullivan et al., 2009; eBird, 2012) . These

127data were combined with a set of georeferenced recordings from Cooper & Cuervo (2017), and

128were subsequently separated into species groups corroborated by the recordings. We recognized

129five species within the complex sensu Cooper & Cuervo (2017), but separated subspecies of *S.*

130*macconnelli* for niche analyses in light of the genetic monophyly of *peruvianus* with respect to

131*macconnelli* and the uncertain relationships of *bahiae* (d'Horta et al., 2013). We thus modeled

132seven recognized populations from *S. mexicanus* sensu lato, ordered in this manuscript from

133north to south and listed here with the number of vetted occurrences used for each: *Sclerurus*

134*mexicanus* (*n* = 532); *S. pullus* (*n* = 358); *S. obscurior* (*n* = 19); *S. andinus* (*n* = 24); *S.*

135*macconnelli peruvianus* (*n* = 77); *S. macconnelli macconnelli* (*n* = 41); and *S. macconnelli*

136*bahiae* (*n* = 49; Fig. 1). Localities were cross-referenced with the literature, and we omitted

137records that were unidentifiable by range or lacked physical documentation, most notably:

138intermediate elevations (*c.* 1200-1800 m) in the western Andes of Colombia and Ecuador where

139*S. obscurior* and *S. andinus* potentially overlap; an unidentified population from intermediate

140elevations from southern Ecuador; and an unidentified population from Ceará, Brazil (Cooper &

141Barragán, 2016).

142  Based on these occurrence data, we created accessible areas in which to train the models

143(hereafter, **M**s, sensu Soberón & Peterson, 2005 and Cooper & Soberón, 2018) using QGIS 2.8.2

144(QGIS Development Team, 2016). **M**s were bounded by major biogeographic barriers (*e.g.,*

145mountain ridgelines, major rivers, ecoregion boundaries [World Wildlife Fund, 2010], etc.) and

146incorporated what is hypothesized to be the entire accessible area for the species (Soberón &

147Peterson, 2005; Guisan et al., 2006). We created two types of **M**: broad **M**s that encompassed the

148geographic distribution of a species and included regions of potential dispersal, including areas

149in which a parapatric species occurs (*i.e.,* hypothesis 1); and narrow **M**s that excluded the

150entirety of the distribution of a parapatric species from the training area (and are thus a subset of

151the broad **M**s), with divisions approximated halfway between known populations (*i.e.*,
152hypothesis 2; Fig. 2).

153   Analyses were performed in R 3.2.5 (R Core Team, 2016), with our study following the
154methodology of Warren et al. (2008). Bioclimatic data were downloaded at a resolution of 2.5
155arcminutes (*c.* 5 km at the equator) for four bioclimatic variables: mean temperature of the
156warmest quarter, mean temperature of the coldest quarter, mean precipitation of the wettest
157quarter, and mean precipitation of the driest quarter (Hijmans et al., 2005). Suitability models
158were created using the average of five raw, unclamped outputs of MaxEnt 3.3.3k (Phillips et al.,
1592004), using the packages 'dismo' (Hijmans et al., 2015), 'raster' (Hijmans, 2015), and 'rJava'
160(Urbanek, 2013). Suitability models were projected into a larger 'clade' area (an **M**
161encompassing the entire super species) so that all populations could be modeled within each
162others' distributions and suitability comparisons could be made in identical spatial and
163environmental extents.

164   Sets of random points were drawn from each population's appropriate **M** to create
165environmentally 'null' suitability predictions in MaxEnt for contrast against actual population
166comparisons using the R package 'maptools' (Bivand & Lewin-Koh, 2015). These random point
167sets are equal in number to the known occurrences and exclude exact coordinates of known
168occurrences. We used these points to create null ENMs within the **M** of each species for each
169hypothesis using the same methodology outlined for individual species' models. Following
170Warren et al. (2008), we used the metric of Schoener's D to assess niche similarity, where the
171metric *D* is an indicator of the similarity between MaxEnt outputs, with total dissimilarity being
1720 and identical outputs being 1. We replicated these analyses 100 times bi-directionally for each
173of the 21 pairwise comparisons for each hypothesis to create two independent random

distributions of Schoener's D using the R package 'dismo' (Warren et al., 2008; Glor & Warren,

2011; Peterson et al., 2011; Hijmans et al., 2015). If the Schoener's D value of the direct

comparison was less than the critical value (i.e. within the lower 5%) of both pseudoreplicate

distributions, the comparison was scored as a "2" for being significantly divergent; if the value

was significant with regard to only one distribution, the comparison was ranked as "1" for being

partially divergent; no significance was ranked as "0". Plots for all comparisons were visually

inspected using the R package 'ggplot2' (Wickham, 2009). We did not assess extreme

conservatism, as this is indistinguishable from the null hypothesis for ecological niches between

allopatric populations. Differences in performance between the two methods was assessed via a

Fisher's Exact Test on the number of successes in allopatry and parapatry for broad and narrow

Ms and on the sum of the net amount of divergence for these categories.

RESULTS

A total of 21 pair-wise comparisons of *Sclerurus mexicanus* sensu lato populations for

both the broad and the narrow **M**s were completed (Table 1). Using broad training areas, three of

these comparisons showed significant divergence (i.e. a "2") among the populations compared,

with all three of these involving comparisons with *S. macconnelli bahiae*. Twelve comparisons

showed slight divergence (i.e. a "1") while the remaining six comparisons showed no evidence

for ecological divergence. In almost every case of slight divergence, the critical value fell within

the range of the values derived from a montane population's model compared to

pseudoreplicates of its lowland congener, and not vice versa (Fig 3).

When species were modeled in narrow regions, the number of highly significant tests

dropped, with only one "2" result obtained (*S. mexicanus* vs. *S. macconnelli bahiae*). In total,

five comparisons lost significance (e.g., decreased from 1 to 0), eleven remained the same, and

198three gained significance (always from 0 to 1), with no significant difference in **M** performance.

199There was no observable trend as to whether allo- or parapatry increased the likelihood of

200obtaining a significant result, nor was there any evidence that particular combination of habitat

201increased the probability of significance decreasing.

203**DISCUSSION**

204　　　　Evidence for niche divergence was strongest (i.e., a 2) only in comparisons of the

205Atlantic forest *S. macconnelli bahiae* to the montane and semi-montane *S. mexicanus*, *S. pullus*,

206and *S. andinus*. Both **M** scenarios appeared to perform equally well, with the greatest

207divergences restricted to broad models between aforementioned allopatric populations. These

208results confirm the null hypothesis that niches will remain largely conserved through time, and

209that niche divergence in allopatric populations only occurs when coupled with differential

210selective pressures. In our tests, we failed to find strong support for increased niche divergence

211in parapatric versus allopatric taxa, despite the expectation that secondary contact drives species

212into different environments.

213　　　　Despite a lack of evidence of increased divergence in parapatric taxa, it is worth noting

214that almost every instance of partial divergence (or potentially diverging niches) was the result of

215a direct comparison falling within the Schoener's D distribution derived from comparing the

216montane population to random points from a lowland population. Given that *Sclerurus* as a

217whole is predominately a lowland genus, these results may indicate competitive exclusion of

218highland taxa from lowland areas. Alternatively, these results may indicate elevational stacking

219of species upon secondary contact where species segregate based on the elevations at which they

220out-compete one another. Such a scenario would result in different realized niches, but we would

221be unable to recover significant differences via ENM tests as the environmental niches would be

222abutting and potentially overlapping. Field tests of populations' physiological tolerances and
223habitat preferences will be needed to determine whether there are uni- or bidirectional amensal
224relationships dictating elevational turnover within *Sclerurus mexicanus* sensu lato.

225   Conversely, these skewed divergences may be an artefact of model design, wherein
226montane habitats are usually proportionately smaller than adjacent lowland habitats and the
227probability of selecting montane points for a null model is thus lower. Thus, lowland taxa whose
228**M**s abut mountain ranges are more likely to have random points drawn from lowlands, whereas
229montane taxa are also more likely to have lower elevational limits drawn in a random process.
230Narrow models, while limiting the amount of habitat at different elevations that can be drawn,
231fail to account for potential biotic interactions between related taxa and assume *a priori* that taxa
232that are not explicitly sympatric are amensal. Further studies into the best ways to mitigate
233inherently unequal areas of habitat between species with different elevational ranges are needed
234to understand the best way to compensate for these inequalities, and the usage of presence-only
235techniques may be warranted (*e.g.*, minimum volume ellipsoids; Van Aelst & Rousseeuw, 2009).

236   We are aware of one other study that assessed multiple related taxa in a mosaic of allo-
237and parapatric distributions: McCormack et al. (2009). They likewise failed to find strong
238support for niche divergence in allopatric populations, and noted the apparent conservatism of
239niches within their study genus, *Aphelocoma* (Aves: Corvidae). McCormack et al. (2009) used
240defined distributions to determine areas for drawing random points and filtering occurrence data,
241but apparently did not use **M**s to constrain taxa-specific ENMs. Similar to this study, many of the
242taxa in question are restricted to montane habitats and thus have a predilection for random points
243being drawn from lowland habitats, especially when dispersal limitations are not enforced for
244individual ENMs. Coincidentally, McCormack et al.'s (2009) sympatric species pair possessed

245Schoener's D distributions closely resembling our parapatric comparisons, wherein the test 246indicates unidirectional, potentially ongoing niche divergence.

248*Implications*

249  Given the results of this and other studies using Warren et al.'s (2008) methodology for 250determining niche divergence, it is possible that parapatric species may not be recoverable as 251possessing different ecological niches using this framework. We know from specimen and vocal 252data that members of *Sclerurus mexicanus* sensu lato occupy elevational gradients in the Andes, 253and thus infer that these species must possess some differences in their ecological niches. 254However, the topography of these regions and the nature of the modeling programs used may 255make quantifying full niche divergence impossible. Furthermore, the potential biotic element of 256these scenarios – amensal relationships with congeners – implies that species' distributions may 257be extremely proximate in nature and thus difficult to fully distinguish using broad-scale ENM 258procedures. The absence of a competitor in part of a species' distribution may also influence the 259recovered environmental niche breadth; *i.e.*, species may overlap environmentally with 260competitors in models due to records from areas where competitors are not present and thus not 261limiting a species' niche or distribution (Connell, 1961).

262  Investigations into presence-only methods for determining niche divergence are needed, 263as well as continued explorations of lesser-used variables such as elevation and tree cover (Cord 264et al., 2014; Title & Bemmels, 2017). While differences in fundamental niche will necessitate 265field research into species' physiological tolerances, presence-only methods will serve to 266circumvent topographical and areal biases that are introduced from pseudoabsence data. Further 267examinations of niche difference tests are also needed to determine if unidirectional shifts are 268typical for proximate species that differ in their realized ecological niches. While the results we

269present are not as significant as we expected, it is entirely plausible that they still exhibit

270evidence of realized niche divergence, and should be investigated as such.

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408**Figures**

409**Figure 1.** The estimated geographic distribution of different *Sclerurus mexicanus* sensu lato 410populations from and basemap from Cooper & Cuervo (2017) with an overlay of training points 411from this study. Question marks indicate areas in which the population's identity has not been 412corroborated with vocal data or genetic data.

413**Figure 2.** Narrow (left) and broad (right) training areas for three study taxa, listed from north to 414south: *S. pullus, S. obscurior,* and *S. andinus*. In the narrow training areas, strict parapatry (*i.e.*, 415no sympatry) is enforced.

416**Figure 3.** A comparison of broad models for *Sclerurus andinus* and *Sclerurus m. macconnelli*. 417The red (left) distribution is the random iterations of *S. andinus* compared to the true *S. m.* 418*macconnelli*, while the blue-green (right) distribution is the random iterations of *S. m.* 419*macconnelli* compared to *S. andinus*. Vertical dashed lines represent the critical values for this 420test (i.e. the point at which any test to the left has a *P* value of 0.05 or lower), while the solid 421vertical is the test statistic of the true ENM of *S. andinus* compared to the true ENM of *S. m.* 422*macconnelli*. As with many tests of montane vs. lowland taxa, the test was significant for the 423distribution of random lowland derived models, but not for random montane models.

425Figure 1.

428Figure 2.

431Figure 3.

432**Tables**

433Table 1. Pairwise comparisons of Schoener's D for all combinations of *S. mexicanus*

434populations. Significance is ranked thusly: 2 = comparison was significant for the tails of both

435bidirectional comparisons; 1 = test was significant for one of the bidirectional comparisons; 0 =

436test was not significant.

Populations	Broad *M* Results	Narrow *M* Results	Allopatric?	Parapatric?
andinus-bahiae	2	1	Yes	
andinus-macconnelli	1	1	Yes	
andinus-mexicanus	0	0	Yes	
andinus-obscurior	1	1		Yes
andinus-peruvianus	0	0		Yes
andinus-pullus	1	0	Yes	
bahiae-macconnelli	0	1	Yes	
bahiae-mexicanus	2	2	Yes	
bahiae-obscurior	1	1	Yes	
bahiae-peruvianus	1	0	Yes	
bahiae-pullus	2	0	Yes	
macconnelli-mexicanus	1	1	Yes	
macconnelli-obscurior	1	0	Yes	
macconnelli-peruvianus	1	1		Yes
macconnelli-pullus	1	1	Yes	
mexicanus-obscurior	1	1	Yes	
mexicanus-peruvianus	0	0	Yes	
mexicanus-pullus	0	1	Yes	
obscurior-peruvianus	1	1	Yes	
obscurior-pullus	1	1		Yes
peruvianus-pullus	0	1	Yes	

437
438Table 1.